# Dealing with Uncertainties in Computing: from Probabilistic and Interval Uncertainty to Combination of Different Approaches, with Application to Geoinformatics, Bioinformatics, and Engineering

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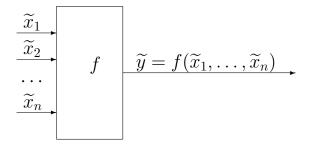
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Interval computations website: http://www.cs.utep.edu/interval-comp



# 1. General Problem of Data Processing under Uncertainty

- Indirect measurements: way to measure y that are difficult (or even impossible) to measure directly.
- *Idea*:  $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$



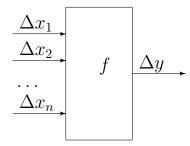
• Problem: measurements are never 100% accurate:  $\widetilde{x}_i \neq x_i \ (\Delta x_i \neq 0)$  hence

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

What are bounds on  $\Delta y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{y} - y$ ?



### 2. Probabilistic and Interval Uncertainty

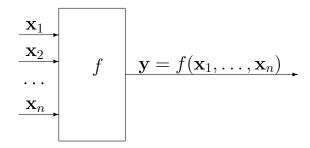


- Traditional approach: we know probability distribution for  $\Delta x_i$  (usually Gaussian).
- Where it comes from: calibration using standard MI.
- *Problem:* calibration is not possible in:
  - fundamental science
  - manufacturing
- Solution: we know upper bounds  $\Delta_i$  on  $|\Delta x_i|$  hence

$$x_i \in [\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i].$$



### 3. Interval Computations: A Problem



- Given: an algorithm  $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$  and n intervals  $\mathbf{x}_i = [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$ .
- Compute: the corresponding range of y:  $[y, \overline{y}] = \{ f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1 \in [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \dots, x_n \in [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n] \}.$
- Fact: NP-hard even for quadratic f.
- Challenge: when are feasible algorithms possible?
- Challenge: when computing  $\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}]$  is not feasible, find a good approximation  $\mathbf{Y} \supseteq \mathbf{y}$ .

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General Problem of . . .

# 4. Interval Computations: A Brief History

- Origins: Archimedes (Ancient Greece)
- Modern pioneers: Warmus (Poland), Sunaga (Japan), Moore (USA), 1956–59
- First boom: early 1960s.
- First challenge: taking interval uncertainty into account when planning spaceflights to the Moon.
- Current applications (sample):
  - design of elementary particle colliders: Berz, Kyoko (USA)
  - will a comet hit the Earth: Berz, Moore (USA)
  - robotics: Jaulin (France), Neumaier (Austria)
  - chemical engineering: Stadtherr (USA)



# 5. Alternative Approach: Maximum Entropy

- Situation: in many practical applications, it is very difficult to come up with the probabilities.
- Traditional engineering approach: use probabilistic techniques.
- *Problem:* many different probability distributions are consistent with the same observations.
- Solution: select one of these distributions e.g., the one with the largest entropy.
- Example single variable: if all we know is that  $x \in [\underline{x}, \overline{x}]$ , then MaxEnt leads to a uniform distribution.
- Example multiple variables: different variables are independently distributed.



# 6. Limitations of Maximum Entropy Approach

- Example: simplest algorithm  $y = x_1 + \ldots + x_n$ .
- Measurement errors:  $\Delta x_i \in [-\Delta, \Delta]$ .
- Analysis:  $\Delta y = \Delta x_1 + \ldots + \Delta x_n$ .
- Worst case situation:  $\Delta y = n \cdot \Delta$ .
- Maximum Entropy approach: due to Central Limit Theorem,  $\Delta y$  is  $\approx$  normal, with  $\sigma = \Delta \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{3}}$ .
- Why this may be inadequate: we get  $\Delta \sim \sqrt{n}$ , but due to correlation, it is possible that  $\Delta = n \cdot \Delta \sim n \gg \sqrt{n}$ .
- Conclusion: using a single distribution can be very misleading, especially if we want guaranteed results.
- Examples: high-risk application areas such as space exploration or nuclear engineering.



# 7. Interval Arithmetic: Foundations of Interval Techniques

• *Problem:* compute the range

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

- Interval arithmetic: for arithmetic operations  $f(x_1, x_2)$  (and for elementary functions), we have explicit formulas for the range.
- Examples: when  $x_1 \in \mathbf{x}_1 = [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1]$  and  $x_2 \in \mathbf{x}_2 = [\underline{x}_2, \overline{x}_2]$ , then:
  - The range  $\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2$  for  $x_1 + x_2$  is  $[\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 + \overline{x}_2]$ .
  - The range  $\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2$  for  $x_1 x_2$  is  $[\underline{x}_1 \overline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 \underline{x}_2]$ .
  - The range  $\mathbf{x}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_2$  for  $x_1 \cdot x_2$  is  $[y, \overline{y}]$ , where

$$\underline{y} = \min(\underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2);$$
$$\overline{y} = \max(\underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2, \overline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2).$$

• The range  $1/\mathbf{x}_1$  for  $1/x_1$  is  $[1/\overline{x}_1, 1/\underline{x}_1]$  (if  $0 \notin \mathbf{x}_1$ ).

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# 8. Straightforward Interval Computations: Example

- Example:  $f(x) = (x-2) \cdot (x+2), x \in [1,2].$
- How will the computer compute it?
  - $\bullet r_1 := x 2;$
  - $\bullet r_2 := x + 2;$
  - $\bullet \ r_3 := r_1 \cdot r_2.$
- Main idea: perform the same operations, but with intervals instead of numbers:
  - $\mathbf{r}_1 := [1, 2] [2, 2] = [-1, 0];$
  - $\mathbf{r}_2 := [1, 2] + [2, 2] = [3, 4];$
  - $\mathbf{r}_3 := [-1, 0] \cdot [3, 4] = [-4, 0].$
- Actual range:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = [-3, 0]$ .
- Comment: this is just a toy example, there are more efficient ways of computing an enclosure  $Y \supseteq y$ .



# 9. First Idea: Use of Monotonicity

- Reminder: for arithmetic, we had exact ranges.
- Reason:  $+, -, \cdot$  are monotonic in each variable.
- How monotonicity helps: if  $f(x_1, ..., x_n)$  is (non-strictly) increasing  $(f \uparrow)$  in each  $x_i$ , then

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n)=[f(\underline{x}_1,\ldots,\underline{x}_n),f(\overline{x}_1,\ldots,\overline{x}_n)].$$

- Similarly: if  $f \uparrow$  for some  $x_i$  and  $f \downarrow$  for other  $x_i$ .
- Fact:  $f \uparrow \text{ in } x_i \text{ if } \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \ge 0.$
- Checking monotonicity: check that the range  $[\underline{r}_i, \overline{r}_i]$  of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$  on  $\mathbf{x}_i$  has  $\underline{r}_i \geq 0$ .
- Differentiation: by Automatic Differentiation (AD) tools.
- Estimating ranges of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial r_i}$ : straightforward interval comp.

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# 10. Monotonicity: Example

• *Idea*: if the range  $[\underline{r}_i, \overline{r}_i]$  of each  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$  on  $\mathbf{x}_i$  has  $\underline{r}_i \geq 0$ , then

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n)=[f(\underline{x}_1,\ldots,\underline{x}_n),f(\overline{x}_1,\ldots,\overline{x}_n)].$$

- Example:  $f(x) = (x-2) \cdot (x+2)$ ,  $\mathbf{x} = [1, 2]$ .
- Case n = 1: if the range  $[\underline{r}, \overline{r}]$  of  $\frac{df}{dx}$  on  $\mathbf{x}$  has  $\underline{r} \geq 0$ , then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = [f(\underline{x}), f(\overline{x})].$$

- $AD: \frac{df}{dx} = 1 \cdot (x+2) + (x-2) \cdot 1 = 2x.$
- Checking:  $[\underline{r}, \overline{r}] = [2, 4]$ , with  $2 \ge 0$ .
- Result: f([1,2]) = [f(1), f(2)] = [-3,0].
- Comparison: this is the exact range.

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# 11. Non-Monotonic Example

- Example:  $f(x) = x \cdot (1 x), x \in [0, 1].$
- How will the computer compute it?
  - $\bullet r_1 := 1 x;$
  - $\bullet$   $r_2 := x \cdot r_1$ .
- Straightforward interval computations:
  - $\mathbf{r}_1 := [1,1] [0,1] = [0,1];$
  - $\mathbf{r}_2 := [0,1] \cdot [0,1] = [0,1].$
- Actual range: min, max of f at  $\underline{x}$ ,  $\overline{x}$ , or when  $\frac{df}{dx} = 0$ .
- Here,  $\frac{df}{dx} = 1 2x = 0$  for x = 0.5, thus we:
  - compute f(0) = 0, f(0.5) = 0.25, and f(1) = 0, so
  - $\underline{y} = \min(0, 0.25, 0) = 0, \ \overline{y} = \max(0, 0.25, 0) = 0.25.$
- Resulting range:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = [0, 0.25]$ .

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### 12. Second Idea: Centered Form

• Main idea: Intermediate Value Theorem

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\chi) \cdot (x_i - \widetilde{x}_i)$$

for some  $\chi_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$ .

• Corollary:  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbf{Y}$ , where

$$\mathbf{Y} = \widetilde{y} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \cdot [-\Delta_i, \Delta_i].$$

- Differentiation: by Automatic Differentiation (AD) tools.
- Estimating the ranges of derivatives:
  - if appropriate, by monotonicity, or
  - by straightforward interval computations, or
  - by centered form (more time but more accurate).

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### 13. Centered Form: Example

• General formula:

$$\mathbf{Y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \cdot [-\Delta_i, \Delta_i].$$

- Example:  $f(x) = x \cdot (1 x), \mathbf{x} = [0, 1].$
- Here,  $\mathbf{x} = [\widetilde{x} \Delta, \widetilde{x} + \Delta]$ , with  $\widetilde{x} = 0.5$  and  $\Delta = 0.5$ .
- Case n = 1:  $\mathbf{Y} = f(\widetilde{x}) + \frac{df}{dx}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot [-\Delta, \Delta]$ .
- $AD: \frac{df}{dx} = 1 \cdot (1-x) + x \cdot (-1) = 1-2x.$
- Estimation: we have  $\frac{df}{dx}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 2 \cdot [0, 1] = [-1, 1].$
- Result:  $\mathbf{Y} = 0.5 \cdot (1 0.5) + [-1, 1] \cdot [-0.5, 0.5] = 0.25 + [-0.5, 0.5] = [-0.25, 0.75].$
- Comparison: actual range [0, 0.25], straightforward [0, 1].

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### 14. Third Idea: Bisection

• Known: accuracy  $O(\Delta_i^2)$  of first order formula

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\chi) \cdot (x_i - \widetilde{x}_i).$$

- *Idea*: if the intervals are too wide, we:
  - split one of them in half  $(\Delta_i^2 \to \Delta_i^2/4)$ ; and
  - take the union of the resulting ranges.
- Example:  $f(x) = x \cdot (1 x)$ , where  $x \in \mathbf{x} = [0, 1]$ .
- Split: take  $\mathbf{x}' = [0, 0.5]$  and  $\mathbf{x}'' = [0.5, 1]$ .
- 1st range:  $1 2 \cdot \mathbf{x} = 1 2 \cdot [0, 0.5] = [0, 1]$ , so  $f \uparrow$  and  $f(\mathbf{x}') = [f(0), f(0.5)] = [0, 0.25]$ .
- 2nd range:  $1 2 \cdot \mathbf{x} = 1 2 \cdot [0.5, 1] = [-1, 0]$ , so  $f \downarrow$  and  $f(\mathbf{x''}) = [f(1), f(0.5)] = [0, 0.25]$ .
- Result:  $f(\mathbf{x}') \cup f(\mathbf{x}'') = [0, 0.25]$  exact.

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# 15. Alternative Approach: Affine Arithmetic

- So far: we compute the range of  $x \cdot (1 x)$  by multiplying ranges of x and 1 x.
- We ignore: that both factors depend on x and are, thus, dependent.
- *Idea*: for each intermediate result a, keep an explicit dependence on  $\Delta x_i = \widetilde{x}_i x_i$  (at least its linear terms).
- *Implementation:*

$$a = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot \Delta x_i + [\underline{a}, \overline{a}].$$

• We start: with  $x_i = \widetilde{x}_i - \Delta x_i$ , i.e.,

$$\widetilde{x}_i + 0 \cdot \Delta x_1 + \ldots + 0 \cdot \Delta x_{i-1} + (-1) \cdot \Delta x_i + 0 \cdot \Delta x_{i+1} + \ldots + 0 \cdot \Delta x_n + [0, 0].$$

• Description:  $a_0 = \widetilde{x}_i$ ,  $a_i = -1$ ,  $a_j = 0$  for  $j \neq i$ , and  $[a, \overline{a}] = [0, 0]$ .

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# 16. Affine Arithmetic: Operations

- Representation:  $a = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot \Delta x_i + [\underline{a}, \overline{a}].$
- Input:  $a = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot \Delta x_i + \mathbf{a}$  and  $b = b_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \cdot \Delta x_i + \mathbf{b}$ .
- Operations:  $c = a \otimes b$ .
- Addition:  $c_0 = a_0 + b_0$ ,  $c_i = a_i + b_i$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ .
- Subtraction:  $c_0 = a_0 b_0$ ,  $c_i = a_i b_i$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}$ .
- Multiplication:  $c_0 = a_0 \cdot b_0$ ,  $c_i = a_0 \cdot b_i + b_0 \cdot a_i$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = a_0 \cdot \mathbf{b} + b_0 \cdot \mathbf{a} + \sum_{i \neq j} a_i \cdot b_j \cdot [-\Delta_i, \Delta_i] \cdot [-\Delta_j, \Delta_j] +$

$$\sum_{i} a_i \cdot b_i \cdot [-\Delta_i, \Delta_i]^2 +$$

$$\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \cdot [-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}]\right) \cdot \mathbf{b} + \left(\sum_{i} b_{i} \cdot [-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}]\right) \cdot \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}.$$

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# 17. Affine Arithmetic: Example

- Example:  $f(x) = x \cdot (1 x), x \in [0, 1].$
- Here, n=1,  $\widetilde{x}=0.5$ , and  $\Delta=0.5$ .
- How will the computer compute it?
  - $\bullet$   $r_1 := 1 x$ ;
  - $\bullet$   $r_2 := x \cdot r_1$ .
- Affine arithmetic: we start with  $x = 0.5 \Delta x + [0, 0]$ ;
  - $\mathbf{r}_1 := 1 (0.5 \Delta x) = 0.5 + \Delta x;$
  - $\mathbf{r}_2 := (0.5 \Delta x) \cdot (0.5 + \Delta x)$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{r}_2 = 0.25 + 0 \cdot \Delta x - [-\Delta, \Delta]^2 = 0.25 + [-\Delta^2, 0].$$

- Resulting range:  $\mathbf{y} = 0.25 + [-0.25, 0] = [0, 0.25].$
- Comparison: this is the exact range.

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# 18. Affine Arithmetic: Towards More Accurate Estimates

- In our simple example: we got the exact range.
- In general: range estimation is NP-hard.
- Meaning: a feasible (polynomial-time) algorithm will sometimes lead to excess width:  $\mathbf{Y} \supset \mathbf{y}$ .
- Conclusion: affine arithmetic may lead to excess width.
- Question: how to get more accurate estimates?
- First idea: bisection.
- Second idea (Taylor arithmetic):
  - affine arithmetic:  $a = a_0 + \sum a_i \cdot \Delta x_i + \mathbf{a}$ ;
  - meaning: we keep linear terms in  $\Delta x_i$ ;
  - *idea:* keep, e.g., quadratic terms

$$a = a_0 + \sum a_i \cdot \Delta x_i + \sum a_{ij} \cdot \Delta x_i \cdot \Delta x_j + \mathbf{a}.$$



# 19. Interval Computations vs. Affine Arithmetic: Comparative Analysis

- Objective: we want a method that computes a reasonable estimate for the range in reasonable time.
- Conclusion how to compare different methods:
  - how accurate are the estimates, and
  - how fast we can compute them.
- Accuracy: affine arithmetic leads to more accurate ranges.
- Computation time:
  - Interval arithmetic: for each intermediate result a, we compute two values: endpoints  $\underline{a}$  and  $\overline{a}$  of  $[\underline{a}, \overline{a}]$ .
  - Affine arithmetic: for each a, we compute n+3 values:

$$a_0 \quad a_1, \ldots, a_n \quad \underline{a}, \overline{a}.$$

• Conclusion: affine arithmetic is  $\sim n$  times slower.



# 20. Solving Systems of Equations: Extending Known Algorithms to Situations with Interval Uncertainty

- We have: a system of equations  $g_i(y_1, ..., y_n) = a_i$  with unknowns  $y_i$ ;
- We know:  $a_i$  with interval uncertainty:  $a_i \in [\underline{a}_i, \overline{a}_i]$ ;
- We want: to find the corresponding ranges of  $y_i$ .
- First case: for exactly known  $a_i$ , we have an algorithm  $y_i = f_i(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  for solving the system.
- Example: system of linear equations.
- Solution: apply interval computations techniques to find the range  $f_j([\underline{a}_1, \overline{a}_1], \dots, [\underline{a}_n, \overline{a}_n])$ .
- Better solution: for specific equations, we often already know which ideas work best.
- Example: linear equations Ay = b; y is monotonic in b.

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# 21. Solving Systems of Equations When No Algorithm Is Known

- *Idea*:
  - parse each equation into elementary constraints,
     and
  - use interval computations to improve original ranges until we get a narrow range (= solution).
- First example:  $x x^2 = 0.5$ ,  $x \in [0, 1]$  (no solution).
- Parsing:  $r_1 = x^2$ , 0.5 (=  $r_2$ ) =  $x r_1$ .
- Rules: from  $r_1 = x^2$ , we extract two rules:

(1) 
$$x \to r_1 = x^2$$
; (2)  $r_1 \to x = \sqrt{r_1}$ ;

from  $0.5 = x - r_1$ , we extract two more rules:

(3) 
$$x \to r_1 = x - 0.5$$
; (4)  $r_1 \to x = r_1 + 0.5$ .

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# 22. Solving Systems of Equations When No Algorithm Is Known: Example

- (1)  $r = x^2$ ; (2)  $x = \sqrt{r}$ ; (3) r = x 0.5; (4) x = r + 0.5.
- We start with:  $\mathbf{x} = [0, 1], \mathbf{r} = (-\infty, \infty).$
- (1)  $\mathbf{r} = [0, 1]^2 = [0, 1]$ , so  $\mathbf{r}_{new} = (-\infty, \infty) \cap [0, 1] = [0, 1]$ .
- (2)  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = \sqrt{[0,1]} \cap [0,1] = [0,1]$  no change.
- (3)  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = ([0, 1] 0.5) \cap [0, 1] = [-0.5, 0.5] \cap [0, 1] = [0, 0.5].$
- (4)  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = ([0, 0.5] + 0.5) \cap [0, 1] = [0.5, 1] \cap [0, 1] = [0.5, 1].$
- (1)  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = [0.5, 1]^2 \cap [0, 0.5] = [0.25, 0.5].$
- (2)  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = \sqrt{[0.25, 0.5]} \cap [0.5, 1] = [0.5, 0.71];$  round  $\underline{a}$  down  $\downarrow$  and  $\overline{a}$  up  $\uparrow$ , to guarantee enclosure.
- (3)  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = ([0.5, 0.71] 0.5) \cap [0.25, 5] = [0.0.21] \cap [0.25, 0.5],$ i.e.,  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = \emptyset$ .
  - Conclusion: the original equation has no solutions.

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# 23. Solving Systems of Equations: 2nd Example

- Example:  $x x^2 = 0, x \in [0, 1]$ .
- Parsing:  $r_1 = x^2$ ,  $0 (= r_2) = x r_1$ .
- Rules: (1)  $r = x^2$ ; (2)  $x = \sqrt{r}$ ; (3) r = x; (4) x = r.
- We start with:  $\mathbf{x} = [0, 1], \mathbf{r} = (-\infty, \infty).$
- Problem: after Rule 1, we're stuck with  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r} = [0, 1]$ .
- Solution: bisect  $\mathbf{x} = [0, 1]$  into [0, 0.5] and [0.5, 1].
- For 1st subinterval:
  - Rule 1 leads to  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = [0, 0.5]^2 \cap [0, 0.5] = [0, 0.25];$
  - Rule 4 leads to  $\mathbf{x}_{new} = [0, 0.25];$
  - Rule 1 leads to  $\mathbf{r}_{\text{new}} = [0, 0.25]^2 = [0, 0.0625];$
  - Rule 4 leads to  $\mathbf{x}_{new} = [0, 0.0625]$ ; etc.
  - we converge to x = 0.
- For 2nd subinterval: we converge to x = 1.

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# 24. Optimization: Extending Known Algorithms to Situations with Interval Uncertainty

• *Problem:* find  $y_1, \ldots, y_m$  for which

$$g(y_1,\ldots,y_m,a_1,\ldots,a_m)\to \max.$$

- We know:  $a_i$  with interval uncertainty:  $a_i \in [\underline{a}_i, \overline{a}_i]$ ;
- We want: to find the corresponding ranges of  $y_i$ .
- First case: for exactly known  $a_i$ , we have an algorithm  $y_j = f_j(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  for solving the optimization problem.
- Example: quadratic objective function g.
- Solution: apply interval computations techniques to find the range  $f_j([\underline{a}_1, \overline{a}_1], \dots, [\underline{a}_n, \overline{a}_n])$ .
- Better solution: for specific f, we often already know which ideas work best.



# 25. Optimization When No Algorithm Is Known

- Idea: divide the original box **x** into subboxes **b**.
- If  $\max_{x \in \mathbf{b}} g(x) < g(x')$  for a known x', dismiss  $\mathbf{b}$ .
- Example:  $g(x) = x \cdot (1 x), \mathbf{x} = [0, 1].$
- Divide into 10 (?) subboxes  $\mathbf{b} = [0, 0.1], [0.1, 0.2], \dots$
- Find g(b) for each **b**; the largest is  $0.45 \cdot 0.55 = 0.2475$ .
- Compute  $G(\mathbf{b}) = g(\widetilde{b}) + (1 2 \cdot \mathbf{b}) \cdot [-\Delta, \Delta].$
- Dismiss subboxes for which  $\overline{Y} < 0.2475$ .
- Example: for [0.2, 0.3], we have  $0.25 \cdot (1 0.25) + (1 2 \cdot [0.2, 0.3]) \cdot [-0.05, 0.05].$
- Here  $\overline{Y} = 0.2175 < 0.2475$ , so we dismiss [0.2, 0.3].
- Result: keep only boxes  $\subseteq [0.3, 0.7]$ .
- Further subdivision: get us closer and closer to x = 0.5.

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### 26. Case Study: Chip Design

- Chip design: one of the main objectives is to decrease the clock cycle.
- Current approach: uses worst-case (interval) techniques.
- *Problem:* the probability of the worst-case values is usually very small.
- Result: estimates are over-conservative unnecessary over-design and under-performance of circuits.
- Difficulty: we only have partial information about the corresponding probability distributions.
- Objective: produce estimates valid for all distributions which are consistent with this information.
- What we do: provide such estimates for the clock time.



### 27. Estimating Clock Cycle: a Practical Problem

- Objective: estimate the clock cycle on the design stage.
- The clock cycle of a chip is constrained by the maximum path delay over all the circuit paths

$$D \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max(D_1, \dots, D_N).$$

- The path delay  $D_i$  along the *i*-th path is the sum of the delays corresponding to the gates and wires along this path.
- Each of these delays, in turn, depends on several factors such as:
  - the variation caused by the current design practices,
  - environmental design characteristics (e.g., variations in temperature and in supply voltage), etc.



# 28. Traditional (Interval) Approach to Estimating the Clock Cycle

- Traditional approach: assume that each factor takes the worst possible value.
- Result: time delay when all the factors are at their worst.
- Problem:
  - different factors are usually independent;
  - combination of worst cases is improbable.
- Computational result: current estimates are 30% above the observed clock time.
- Practical result: the clock time is set too high chips are over-designed and under-performing.



### 29. Robust Statistical Methods Are Needed

- *Ideal case:* we know probability distributions.
- Solution: Monte-Carlo simulations.
- In practice: we only have partial information about the distributions of some of the parameters; usually:
  - the mean, and
  - some characteristic of the deviation from the mean
    - e.g., the interval that is guaranteed to contain possible values of this parameter.
- Possible approach: Monte-Carlo with several possible distributions.
- *Problem:* no guarantee that the result is a valid bound for all possible distributions.
- Objective: provide robust bounds, i.e., bounds that work for all possible distributions.



# 30. Towards a Mathematical Formulation of the Problem

- General case: each gate delay d depends on the difference  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  between the actual and the nominal values of the parameters.
- Main assumption: these differences are usually small.
- Each path delay  $D_i$  is the sum of gate delays.
- Conclusion:  $D_i$  is a linear function:  $D_i = a_i + \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \cdot x_j$  for some  $a_i$  and  $a_{ij}$ .
- The desired maximum delay  $D = \max_{i} D_{i}$  has the form

$$D = F(x_1, \dots, x_n) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_i \left( a_i + \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \cdot x_j \right).$$



# 31. Towards a Mathematical Formulation of the Problem (cont-d)

• *Known:* maxima of linear function are exactly convex functions:

$$F(\alpha \cdot x + (1 - \alpha) \cdot y) \le \alpha \cdot F(x) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot F(y)$$

for all x, y and for all  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ ;

- We know: factors  $x_i$  are independent;
  - we know distribution of some of the factors;
  - for others, we know ranges  $[\underline{x}_j, \overline{x}_j]$  and means  $E_j$ .
- Given: a convex function  $F \geq 0$  and a number  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Objective: find the smallest  $y_0$  s.t. for all possible distributions, we have  $y \leq y_0$  with the probability  $\geq 1-\varepsilon$ .



# 32. Additional Property: Dependency is Non-Degenerate

- Fact: sometimes, we learn additional information about one of the factors  $x_i$ .
- Example: we learn that  $x_j$  actually belongs to a proper subinterval of the original interval  $[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$ .
- Consequence: the class  $\mathcal{P}$  of possible distributions is replaced with  $\mathcal{P}' \subset \mathcal{P}$ .
- Result: the new value  $y'_0$  can only decrease:  $y'_0 \leq y_0$ .
- Fact: if  $x_j$  is irrelevant for y, then  $y'_0 = y_0$ .
- Assumption: irrelevant variables been weeded out.
- Formalization: if we narrow down one of the intervals  $[\underline{x}_j, \overline{x}_j]$ , the resulting value  $y_0$  decreases:  $y'_0 < y_0$ .



### 33. Formulation of the Problem

GIVEN:  $\bullet$  n,  $k \le n$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$ ;

• a convex function  $y = F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \ge 0$ ;

• n-k cdfs  $F_i(x), k+1 \le j \le n$ ;

• intervals  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$ , values  $E_1, \dots, E_k$ ,

TAKE: all joint probability distributions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for which:

• all  $x_i$  are independent,

•  $x_j \in \mathbf{x}_j$ ,  $E[x_j] = E_j$  for  $j \le k$ , and

•  $x_j$  have distribution  $F_j(x)$  for j > k.

FIND: the smallest  $y_0$  s.t. for all such distributions,  $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \leq y_0$  with probability  $\geq 1 - \varepsilon$ .

WHEN: the problem is non-degenerate – if we narrow down one of the intervals  $\mathbf{x}_j$ ,  $y_0$  decreases.

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### 34. Main Result and How We Can Use It

- Result:  $y_0$  is attained when for each j from 1 to k,
  - $x_j = \underline{x}_j$  with probability  $\underline{p}_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\overline{x}_j E_j}{\overline{x}_j \underline{x}_j}$ , and
  - $x_j = \overline{x}_j$  with probability  $\overline{p}_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{E_j \underline{x}_j}{\overline{x}_j \underline{x}_j}$ .
- Algorithm:
  - simulate these distributions for  $x_j$ , j < k;
  - simulate known distributions for j > k;
  - use the simulated values  $x_i^{(s)}$  to find

$$y^{(s)} = F(x_1^{(s)}, \dots, x_n^{(s)});$$

- sort N values  $y^{(s)}$ :  $y_{(1)} \le y_{(2)} \le \ldots \le y_{(N_i)}$ ;
- take  $y_{(N_i\cdot(1-\varepsilon))}$  as  $y_0$ .



# 35. Comment about Monte-Carlo Techniques

- Traditional belief: Monte-Carlo methods are inferior to analytical:
  - they are approximate;
  - they require large computation time;
  - simulations for *several* distributions, may mis-calculate the (desired) maximum over *all* distributions.
- We proved: the value corresponding to the selected distributions indeed provide the desired maximum value  $y_0$ .
- General comment:
  - justified Monte-Carlo methods often lead to faster computations than analytical techniques;
  - example: multi-D integration where Monte-Carlo methods were originally invented.



#### 36. Comment about Non-Linear Terms

- Reminder: in the above formula  $D_i = a_i + \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \cdot x_j$ , we ignored quadratic and higher order terms in the dependence of each path time  $D_i$  on parameters  $x_j$ .
- In reality: we may need to take into account some quadratic terms.
- Idea behind possible solution: it is known that the max  $D = \max_{i} D_{i}$  of convex functions  $D_{i}$  is convex.
- Condition when this idea works: when each dependence  $D_i(x_1, \ldots, x_k, \ldots)$  is still convex.
- Solution: in this case,
  - the function function D is still convex,
  - hence, our algorithm will work.

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#### 37. Conclusions

- Problem of chip design: decrease the clock cycle.
- How this problem is solved now: by using worst-case (interval) techniques.
- Limitations of this solution: the probability of the worst-case values is usually very small.
- Consequence: estimates are over-conservative, hence over-design and under-performance of circuits.
- Objective: find the clock time as  $y_0$  s.t. for the actual delay y, we have  $\text{Prob}(y > y_0) \le \varepsilon$  for given  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Difficulty: we only have partial information about the corresponding distributions.
- What we have described: a general technique that allows us, in particular, to compute  $y_0$ .



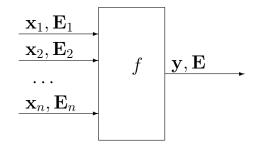
# 38. Combining Interval and Probabilistic Uncertainty: General Case

- *Problem:* there are many ways to represent a probability distribution.
- *Idea:* look for an objective.
- Objective: make decisions  $E_x[u(x,a)] \to \max_a$ .
- Case 1: smooth u(x).
- Analysis: we have  $u(x) = u(x_0) + (x x_0) \cdot u'(x_0) + \dots$
- Conclusion: we must know moments to estimate E[u].
- Case of uncertainty: interval bounds on moments.
- Case 2: threshold-type u(x).
- Conclusion: we need cdf  $F(x) = \text{Prob}(\xi \le x)$ .
- Case of uncertainty: p-box  $[\underline{F}(x), \overline{F}(x)]$ .

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# 39. Extension of Interval Arithmetic to Probabilistic Case: Successes

- General solution: parse to elementary operations +, -,  $\cdot$ , 1/x, max, min.
- Explicit formulas for arithmetic operations known for intervals, for p-boxes  $\mathbf{F}(x) = [\underline{F}(x), \overline{F}(x)]$ , for intervals + 1st moments  $E_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[x_i]$ :





#### 40. Successes (cont-d)

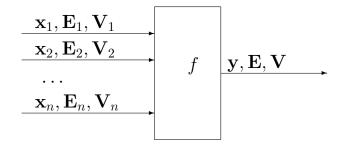
- Easy cases: +, -, product of independent  $x_i$ .
- Example of a non-trivial case: multiplication  $y = x_1 \cdot x_2$ , when we have no information about the correlation:
  - $\underline{E} = \max(p_1 + p_2 1, 0) \cdot \overline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2 + \min(p_1, 1 p_2) \cdot \overline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2 + \min(1 p_1, p_2) \cdot \underline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2 + \max(1 p_1 p_2, 0) \cdot \underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2;$
  - $\overline{E} = \min(p_1, p_2) \cdot \overline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2 + \max(p_1 p_2, 0) \cdot \overline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2 + \max(p_2 p_1, 0) \cdot \underline{x}_1 \cdot \overline{x}_2 + \min(1 p_1, 1 p_2) \cdot \underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{x}_2,$

where  $p_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (E_i - \underline{x}_i)/(\overline{x}_i - \underline{x}_i)$ .

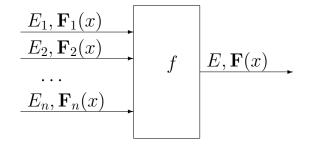
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#### 41. Challenges

• intervals + 2nd moments:



 $\bullet$  moments + p-boxes; e.g.:



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### 42. Case Study: Bioinformatics

- Practical problem: find genetic difference between cancer cells and healthy cells.
- *Ideal case:* we directly measure concentration c of the gene in cancer cells and h in healthy cells.
- In reality: difficult to separate.
- Solution: we measure  $y_i \approx x_i \cdot c + (1 x_i) \cdot h$ , where  $x_i$  is the percentage of cancer cells in *i*-th sample.
- Equivalent form:  $a \cdot x_i + h \approx y_i$ , where  $a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} c h$ .



# 43. Case Study: Bioinformatics (cont-d)

• If we know  $x_i$  exactly: Least Squares Method  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a \cdot x_i + h - y_i)^2 \to \min_{a,h}, \text{ hence } a = \frac{C(x,y)}{V(x)} \text{ and}$ 

$$h = E(y) - a \cdot E(x)$$
, where  $E(x) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ ,

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E(x))^2,$$

$$C(x,y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E(x)) \cdot (y_i - E(y)).$$

- Interval uncertainty: experts manually count  $x_i$ , and only provide interval bounds  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , e.g.,  $x_i \in [0.7, 0.8]$ .
- Problem: find the range of a and h corresponding to all possible values  $x_i \in [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$ .

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#### 44. General Problem

- General problem:
  - we know intervals  $\mathbf{x}_1 = [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n = [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n],$
  - compute the range of  $E(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ , population

variance 
$$V = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E(x))^2$$
, etc.

- Difficulty: NP-hard even for variance.
- Known:
  - efficient algorithms for  $\underline{V}$ ,
  - efficient algorithms for  $\overline{V}$  and C(x, y) for reasonable situations.
- Bioinformatics case: find intervals for C(x, y) and for V(x) and divide.

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### 45. Case Study: Detecting Outliers

- In many application areas, it is important to detect outliers, i.e., unusual, abnormal values.
- In *medicine*, unusual values may indicate disease.
- In *geophysics*, abnormal values may indicate a mineral deposit (or an erroneous measurement result).
- In *structural integrity* testing, abnormal values may indicate faults in a structure.
- Traditional engineering approach: a new measurement result x is classified as an outlier if  $x \notin [L, U]$ , where

$$L \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E - k_0 \cdot \sigma, \quad U \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E + k_0 \cdot \sigma,$$

and  $k_0 > 1$  is pre-selected.

• Comment: most frequently,  $k_0 = 2, 3, \text{ or } 6.$ 



# 46. Outlier Detection Under Interval Uncertainty: A Problem

- In some practical situations, we only have intervals  $\mathbf{x}_i = [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i].$
- Different  $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$  lead to different intervals [L, U].
- A possible outlier: outside some  $k_0$ -sigma interval.
- Example: structural integrity not to miss a fault.
- A guaranteed outlier: outside all  $k_0$ -sigma intervals.
- Example: before a surgery, we want to make sure that there is a micro-calcification.
- A value x is a possible outlier if  $x \notin [\overline{L}, \underline{U}]$ .
- A value x is a guaranteed outlier if  $x \notin [\underline{L}, \overline{U}]$ .
- Conclusion: to detect outliers, we must know the ranges of  $L = E k_0 \cdot \sigma$  and  $U = E + k_0 \cdot \sigma$ .

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# 47. Outlier Detection Under Interval Uncertainty: A Solution

- We need: to detect outliers, we must compute the ranges of  $L = E k_0 \cdot \sigma$  and  $U = E + k_0 \cdot \sigma$ .
- We know: how to compute the ranges **E** and  $[\underline{\sigma}, \overline{\sigma}]$  for E and  $\sigma$ .
- Possibility: use interval computations to conclude that  $L \in \mathbf{E} k_0 \cdot [\sigma, \overline{\sigma}]$  and  $L \in \mathbf{E} + k_0 \cdot [\sigma, \overline{\sigma}]$ .
- Problem: the resulting intervals for L and U are wider than the actual ranges.
- Reason: E and  $\sigma$  use the same inputs  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  and are hence not independent from each other.
- Practical consequence: we miss some outliers.
- Desirable: compute exact ranges for L and U.
- Application: detecting outliers in gravity measurements.

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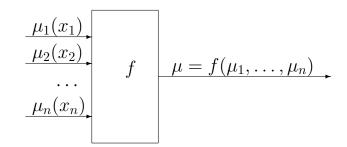
#### 48. Acknowledgments

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## 49. Fuzzy Computations: A Problem



- Given: an algorithm  $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$  and n fuzzy numbers  $\mu_i(x_i)$ .
- Compute:  $\mu(y) = \max_{x_1,...,x_n:f(x_1,...,x_n)=y} \min(\mu_1(x_1),...,\mu_n(x_n)).$
- Motivation: y is a possible value of  $Y \leftrightarrow \exists x_1, \ldots, x_n$  s.t. each  $x_i$  is a possible value of  $X_i$  and  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = y$ .
- Details: "and" is min,  $\exists$  ("or") is max, hence  $\mu(y) = \max_{x_1, \dots, x_n} \min(\mu_1(x_1), \dots, \mu_n(x_n), t(f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = y)),$  where t(true) = 1 and t(false) = 0.

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# 50. Fuzzy Computations: Reduction to Interval Computations

- Problem (reminder):
  - Given: an algorithm  $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$  and n fuzzy numbers  $X_i$  described by membership functions  $\mu_i(x_i)$ .
  - Compute:  $Y = f(X_1, ..., X_n)$ , where Y is defined by Zadeh's extension principle:

$$\mu(y) = \max_{x_1,\dots,x_n:f(x_1,\dots,x_n)=y} \min(\mu_1(x_1),\dots,\mu_n(x_n)).$$

• *Idea*: represent each  $X_i$  by its  $\alpha$ -cuts

$$X_i(\alpha) = \{x_i : \mu_i(x_i) \ge \alpha\}.$$

• Advantage: for continuous f, for every  $\alpha$ , we have

$$Y(\alpha) = f(X_1(\alpha), \dots, X_n(\alpha)).$$

• Resulting algorithm: for  $\alpha = 0, 0.1, 0.2, ..., 1$  apply interval computations techniques to compute  $Y(\alpha)$ .



## 51. Proof of the Result about Chips

• Let us fix the optimal distributions for  $x_2, \ldots, x_n$ ; then,

$$Prob(D \le y_0) = \sum_{(x_1, ..., x_n) : D(x_1, ..., x_n) \le y_0} p_1(x_1) \cdot p_2(x_2) \cdot ...$$

- So,  $\operatorname{Prob}(D \leq y_0) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i \cdot q_i$ , where  $q_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p_1(v_i)$ .
- Restrictions:  $q_i \ge 0$ ,  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i = 1$ , and  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i \cdot v_i = E_1$ .
- Thus, the worst-case distribution for  $x_1$  is a solution to the following linear programming (LP) problem:

Minimize 
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i \cdot q_i$$
 under the constraints  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i = 1$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i \cdot v_i = E_1, q_i \ge 0, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N.$ 

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## 52. Proof of the Result about Chips (cont-d)

- Minimize:  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i \cdot q_i$  under the constraints  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i = 1$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_i \cdot v_i = E_1, q_i \ge 0, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N.$
- Known: in LP with N+1 unknowns  $q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_N$ ,  $\geq N+1$  constraints are equalities.
- In our case: we have 2 equalities, so at least N-1 constraints  $q_i \geq 0$  are equalities.
- Hence, no more than 2 values  $q_i = p_1(v_i)$  are non-0.
- If corresponding v or v' are in  $(\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1)$ , then for  $[v, v'] \subset \mathbf{x}_1$  we get the same  $y_0$  in contradiction to non-degeneracy.
- Thus, the worst-case distribution is located at  $\underline{x}_1$  and  $\overline{x}_1$ .
- The condition that the mean of  $x_1$  is  $E_1$  leads to the desired formulas for  $p_1$  and  $\overline{p}_1$ .

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