Algorithms for Imprecise Probability Part I

Fabio G. Cozman - Cassio P. de Campos

fgcozman@usp.br - cassiopc@gmail.com



Part I: algorithms without independence (this talk).

Part II: algorithms with independence (next talk, by Cassio).

Overview (some more)

- Part I: algorithms without independence (this talk).
 - 1. The basic linear fractional program.
 - 2. Dealing with probabilities that may be zero.
 - 3. Special important cases: neighborhoods, capacities, and the like.
 - 4. Decision making.
- Part II: algorithms with independence (next talk, by Cassio).

Easy warm-up

- Possibility space Ω with states ω ; events are subsets of Ω .
- Random variables and indicator functions.
 - Bounded function $X : \Omega \to \Re$.
 - Special type: indicator function of event A:
 - Denoted by A as well.
 - $A(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \in A$; 0 otherwise.

Axioms for expectations

EU1 If $\alpha \leq X \leq \beta$, then $\alpha \leq E[X] \leq \beta$. EU2 E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y].

Some consequences:

- 1. $X \ge Y \Rightarrow E[X] \ge E[Y]$. 2. $E[x, Y] \longrightarrow Y$
- **2.** $E[\alpha X] = \alpha X$.

Probabilities

• The probability P(A) is E[A].

Properties of a probability measure:
PU1 $P(A) \ge 0$.
PU2 $P(\Omega) = 1$.
PU3 If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.

Conditional expectations/probabilities

• Conditional expectation of X given B,

$$E[X|B] = \frac{E[BX]}{P(B)} \quad \text{ if } P(B) > 0.$$

• Bayes rule: If P(B) > 0, then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}.$$

Algorithms: Boole (1854)

- **Propositional formula** ϕ :
 - 1. propositions
 - 2. operators (\neg , \land , \lor , \rightarrow).
- Take Ω as the set of 2^n truth assignments for n propositions.
- Interpret $P(\phi) \ge \alpha$ as

$$\sum_{\omega \models \phi} P(\omega) \ge \alpha.$$

Probabilistic satisfiability

- Siven m assessments, is there a probability measure over Ω ?
 - Each assessments is a linear constraint.
 - Must satisfy $P(\omega) \ge 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega) = 1$.
- This is a *linear program*!
 - Derived first by Hailperin (1965).
- Somewhat surprisingly, NP-complete problem.
 - The same as usual satisfiability (!?!).
- Note: solution is at extreme points.



Build linear program:

- $P(A) \ge \alpha.$
- $P(B) = \beta.$

Can you give bounds for $P(A \land B \land C)$?

Solution

• $P(A) \ge \alpha, B \to C, P(B) = \beta.$

Define:

ω_i	A	B	C
1	0	0	0
2	0	0	1
3	0	1	0
4	0	1	1
5	1	0	0
6	1	0	1
7	1	1	0
8	1	1	1

Then ω_3 and ω_7 are impossible; and

$$p_5 + p_6 + p_8 = \alpha$$
, $p_4 + p_8 = \beta$, $p_i \ge 0$, $\sum_i p_i = 1$.

de Finetti's fundamental theorem

- Given m assessments over events H_i , is there a probability measure over them?
- And how about the allowed assessments over another event H_0 ?
- Theorem: $P(H_0)$ belongs to an interval with constraints given by other assessments
 - (and the usual $P(\omega) \ge 0$ and $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega) = 1$).
- This is a linear program.
 - Well, this is the same linear program as before (Gilio (1980)).

Coletti and Scozzafava (1999).

- **•** Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 .
- Assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.
- Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.

Build linear program.

Coletti and Scozzafava (1999).

- **•** Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 .
- Assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.
- Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$. Build linear program.

●
$$x_1 = P(A_1); A_1 = H_1 \cap H_2 \cap H_3^c.$$

•
$$x_2 = P(A_2); A_2 = H_1 \cap H_2^c \cap H_3^c$$
.

● $x_3 = P(A_3); A_3 = H_1^c \cap H_2 \cap H_3^c.$

•
$$x_4 = P(A_4); A_4 = H_1^c \cap H_2 \cap H_3.$$

•
$$x_5 = P(A_5); A_5 = H_1^c \cap H_2^c \cap H_3^c$$
.

Coletti and Scozzafava (1999).

- **•** Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 .
- Assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.

▲ Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.

 Build linear program.



Conditional probabilities

- Assessment $P(A|B) \ge \alpha$.
- Transform to (Hailperin (1965) and many others later):

 $P(A \wedge B) \ge \alpha P(B) \,.$

- Or use the language of events.
- Still a linear program!

Coletti and Scozzafava (1999).

- **•** Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 .
- Assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.
- ▶ Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.
- Also, $P(H_2|H_1 \cup H_2) \ge 1/2$.

Build linear program.

Column generation

Probabilistic satisfiability is

 $\min 0p$

subject to $Ap \ge \alpha, p \ge 1$.

- General problem minimizes cp.
- The difficulty is that p has 2^n elements (for a problem with n propositions).
- The usual technique is column generation.
 - That is, generate only those columns of A that are necessary
 - (at any given time, simplex only needs m columns where m is number of lines of A).

The mechanics of column generation

- Use the revised simplex algorithm.
 - That is, keep only a basis $(m \times m)$.
 - Must decide whether to bring a column into the basis.
- Then choose the column using a nonlinear subproblem:
 - Solve $\min_j c_B A_B^{-1} A_j$.
 - Note that A_j contains a set of logical formulas.
 - This is a MAXSAT problem.
 - Replace:

 $X \wedge Y \doteq XY, \quad X \vee Y \doteq X + Y - XY, \quad \neg X \doteq 1 - X.$

It can be reduced to linear (integer) programming!

Integer programming

Very useful fact:

- Consider product $a \times b$, where
 - $a \in [0, 1]$.
 - b is either 0 or 1.
- Create a new variable c, replace $a \times b$ by c and add

 $0 \le c \le b;$

$$a - 1 + b \le c \le a.$$

Now solve by linear (integer) programming!

PSAT with column generation

- Best results in the literature: hundreds of propositions, hundreds of assessments (Perron et al 2004), using lots of special tricks.
- There are also a few special cases that are "easy" and several variants, etc.
 - For instance, when formulas can be put in a "tree" structure (Andersen & Pretolani 1999).
 - Also if formulas can be organized in junction trees (van der Gaag 1991).
- (Also, approximation methods based on local search for large problems, but really no guarantees yet...)

Phase transitions?



Aside: PPL system

Interface in Python, connects to CPLEX or free linear programming tools (at http://www.pmr.poli.usp.br/ltd/Software/PPL/index.html).

```
>>> s1 = 'a <=> (b?c)'
>>> s1
'a <=> (b?c)'
>>> s2 = PPL.toCNF(s1)
>>> s2
'((?b j a) & (?c j a) & (b j c j ?a))'
>>> PPL.p(s1, 0.5)
>>> s3 = 'd j (e & f) j g'
>>> PPL.p(s3, 0.3, 0.8)
>>> PPL.checkCoherence()
Coherent!
```

Another package by Dickey (see SIPTA Newsletter).

Computing conditional probabilities

• Now suppose we wish $\underline{P}(A|B) = \min P(A|B)$.

This is not a linear program (it is a linear fractional program).

- However, it can be solved through linear programming:
 - Charnes-Cooper transformation (similar solutions by White, Snow).
 - Dinkelbach-Jagannathan algorithm (similar solutions by Walley, Lavine).

Charnes-Cooper transformation

Wish to solve:

$$\min_{p} \frac{\sum_{i} f_{i} \alpha_{i} p_{i}}{\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} p_{i}} \quad \text{s.t. } Ap \ge 0, \sum_{i} p_{i} = 1, p_{i} \ge 0.$$

where
$$\sum_i \alpha_i p_i > 0$$
.

Change variables to

$$q_i = \frac{p_i}{\sum_i \alpha_i p_i}$$

Now:

$$\min_{q} \sum_{i} f_{i} \alpha_{i} q_{i} \quad \text{s.t. } Aq \ge 0, \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} q_{i} = 1, q_{i} \ge 0.$$

- **•** Take H_1, H_2, H_3 .
- Assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.
- Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.

Build linear program to compute $\underline{P}(H_1|H_1 \cup H_2)$, applying the Charnes-Cooper transformation.

Solution

▶ Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 , assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.

▶ Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.

Build linear program to compute $\underline{P}(H_1|H_1 \cup H_2)$. First,

 $\min(x_1 + x_2)/(x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4)$ s.t.

$$x_1 + x_2 = 1/2;$$
 $x_1 + x_3 + x_4 = 1/5;$ $x_4 = 1/8;$ $x_i \ge 0;$ $\sum_i x_i = 1.$

Then

$$\min(x_1 + x_2)/(x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4)$$
 s.t.

 $x_1/2 + x_2/2 - x_3/2 - x_4/2 - x_5/2 = 0;$ $4x_1/5 - x_2/5 + 4x_3/5 + 4x_4/5 - x_5/5 = 0;$

$$-x_1/8 - x_2/8 - x_3/8 + 7x_4/8 - x_5/8 = 0; \quad x_i \ge 0; \quad \sum_i x_i = 1.$$

Solution

• Take H_1 , H_2 , H_3 , assume $H_3 \subset H_1^c \cap H_2$.

▶ Assessments $P(H_1) = 1/2$, $P(H_2) = 1/5$, $P(H_3) = 1/8$.

Build linear program to compute $\underline{P}(H_1|H_1 \cup H_2)$. First,

 $\min(x_1 + x_2)/(x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4)$ s.t.

$$x_1 + x_2 = 1/2;$$
 $x_1 + x_3 + x_4 = 1/5;$ $x_4 = 1/8;$ $x_i \ge 0;$ $\sum_i x_i = 1.$

Then

 $\min(y_1 + y_2)$ s.t.

 $y_1/2 + y_2/2 - y_3/2 - y_4/2 - y_5/2 = 0;$ $4y_1/5 - y_2/5 + 4y_3/5 + 4y_4/5 - y_5/5 = 0;$

$$-y_1/8 - y_2/8 - y_3/8 + 7y_4/8 - y_5/8 = 0; \quad y_i \ge 0; \quad \sum_{i=1}^4 y_i = 1.$$

Larger example (based on Jaeger 1994)

Take: AntarticBird \rightarrow Bird, FlyingBird \rightarrow Bird, Penguim \rightarrow Bird, FlyingBird \rightarrow Flies, Penguim $\rightarrow \neg$ Flies, $P(\mathsf{FlyingBird}|\mathsf{Bird}) = 0.95,$ P(AntarticBird|Bird) = 0.01,P(Bird) > 0.2, $P(\mathsf{FlyingBird} \lor \mathsf{Penguim} | \mathsf{AntarticBird}) \ge 0.2,$ $P(\mathsf{Flies}|\mathsf{Bird}) \ge 0.8$.

Then

 $P(\mathsf{FlyingBird}|\mathsf{Bird} \land \neg\mathsf{AntarticBird}) \in [0.949, 0.960],$ $P(\mathsf{Penguim}|\neg\mathsf{AntarticBird}) \in [0.000, 0.050].$

Dinkelbach-Jagannathan for probability

$$\lambda = \min \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)},$$

iff

$$\min\left(P(A \cap B) - \lambda P(B)\right) = 0,$$

assuming P(B) > 0.

- The left side is strictly decreasing function of λ .
- **9** So, we can bracket λ .

Dinkelbach-Jagannathan for expectation

Also,

$$\lambda = \min \frac{E[f(X)B]}{P(B)},$$

iff

$$\min\left(E[f(X)B] - \lambda P(B)\right) = 0$$

or, rather,

$$\min E[(f(X) - \lambda)B] = 0;$$

that is,

$$\underline{E}[(f(X) - \lambda)B] = 0.$$

- This is Walley's Generalized Bayes Rule (GBR).
 - Walley proposed iteration: $\mu_{i+1} = \mu_i + 2\underline{E}[(f(X) - \mu_i)B] / (\overline{P}(B) + \underline{P}(B)).$

Lavine's algorithm

In 1991, Lavine published a paper on robust statistics with the same algorithm, apparently unaware of the literature.

Lavine's algorithm became quite popular.

- Until Lavine's algorithm, calculation of posterior lower expectations in robust statistics usually relied on very special arguments.
 - Often, minimax theory.

Now, imprecise likelihoods

- Suppose we have K(X) ("prior") and K(Y|X = x) for each x ("likelihood").
- Suppose K(Y|X = x) is separately specified (important condition!).
- If $\underline{P}(Y = y) > 0$, $\underline{E}[f(X)|Y = y]$ is the unique solution of the equation

$$\underline{E}[(f(X) - \lambda)p_{\lambda}(y|X)] = 0,$$

where

$$p_{\lambda}(y|X) = \begin{cases} \frac{E[y|x]}{E[y|x]} & \text{if } f(x) \ge \lambda \\ \frac{E[y|x]}{E[y|x]} & \text{if } f(x) < \lambda \end{cases}$$

Dealing with imprecise likelihoods

$$\underline{E}[f(X)|Y=y] = \min_{p',p''} \left[\frac{\sum_{i} (f_i L_y(x_i) p'_i + f_i U_y(x_i) p''_i)}{\sum_{j} \left(L_y(x_j) p'_j + U_y(x_j) p''_j \right)} \right],$$

subject to:

$$A(p' + p'') \le 0,$$

$$\sum_{i} (p'_{i} + p''_{i}) = 1, \qquad p'_{i} \ge 0, p''_{i} \ge 0.$$

Example (based on White 1986)

• Variable with 4 values $\{\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4\}$,

 $2.5p(\theta_1) \ge p(\theta_4) \ge 2p(\theta_1),$

 $10p(\theta_3) \ge p(\theta_2) \ge 9p(\theta_3), \ p(\theta_2) = 5p(\theta_4).$

Also, bounds on likelihood:

$$L(x|\theta_1) = 0.9,$$
 $L(x|\theta_2) = 0.1125,$
 $L(x|\theta_3) = 0.05625,$ $L(x|\theta_4) = 0.1125,$
 $U(x|\theta_1) = 0.95,$ $U(x|\theta_2) = 0.1357,$
 $U(x|\theta_3) = 0.1357,$ $U(x|\theta_4) = 0.1357.$

Example: solution

$$\frac{P(\theta_1|x) = \min_{p',p''} (0.9p'_1 + 0.95p''_1),}{p' \ge 0, p'' \ge 0,}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{5}{2} & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & -1 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -10 & 0 \end{bmatrix} [p' + p''] \le 0,$$

 $F_1\alpha' + F_2\alpha'' = 1$, where

 $F_1 = [0.9, 0.1125, 0.0562, 0.1125], F_2 = [0.95, 0.1357, 0.1357, 0.1357].$ By linear programming: $\underline{P}(\theta_1 | x) = 0.2881$.
Independence relations

- 1. We may easily face some "inferential vacuity": A and B have no logical relation, P(A) = 1/2, P(B) = 1/2; then $P(A \land B) \in [0, 1/2]$.
- 2. Introduce independence to reduce inferential vacuity...
 - A and B independent, P(A) = 1/2, P(B) = 1/2; then $P(A \wedge B) = 1/4$.
- 3. Independence leads to
 - *nonlinear* constraints.
 - open problems concerning complexity.
- 4. Idea: organize independence relations using graphs.
 - This will take us to credal networks and the like; this is for other talks.

Credal sets

- So far, Boolean and categorical variables, with linear programming.
- Some general terminology and understanding helps.
- A credal set is a set of probability measures (distributions).
- A credal set is usually defined by a set of assessments.

Example:

- **1.** $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}.$
- **2.** $P(\omega_i) = p_i$.
- **3.** $p_1 > p_3$, $2p_1 \ge p_2$, $p_1 \le 2/3$ and $p_3 \in [1/6, 1/3]$.
- 4. Take points $P = (p_1, p_2, p_3)$.

Some geometry

1.
$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}.$$

2. $P(\omega_i) = p_i.$
3. $p_1 > p_3, 2p_1 \ge p_2, p_1 \le 2/3 \text{ and } p_3 \in [1/6, 1/3].$
4. Take points $P = (p_1, p_2, p_3).$



Baricentric coordinates



The coordinates of a distribution are read on the lines bissecting the angles of the triangle.

Exercise

Consider a variable X with 3 possible values x_1 , x_2 and x_3 . Suppose the following assessments are given:

> $p(x_1) \le p(x_2) \le p(x_3);$ $p(x_i) \ge 1/20 \quad \text{for } i \in \{1, 2, 3\};$ $p(x_3 | x_2 \cup x_3) \le 3/4.$

Show the credal set determined by these assessments in baricentric coordinates.

The basics of credal sets

- Credal set with distributions for X is denoted K(X).
- Given credal set K(X):
 - $\underline{E}[X] = \inf_{P \in K(X)} E_P[X].$
 - $\overline{E}[X] = \sup_{P \in K(X)} E_P[X].$
- For closed convex credal sets, lower and upper expectations are attained at vertices.
- A closed convex credal set is completely characterized by the associated lower expectation.
 - That is, there is only one lower expectation for a given closed convex credal set.
- The set of conditional distributions from a convex credal set is convex.

Exercise

Suppose the following judgements are stated:

$$\omega_1$$
 ω_2 ω_3 X_1 -1 0 1 X_2 0 2 -1 Desirable

Here "desirable" means $E[X] \ge 0$. Draw the credal set defined by such assessments. What can be said about the desirability of

Back to algorithms

- There are details on conditional probabilities that must be analyzed.
- Before, a little more on probabilistic logic: moving to first order.

First-order probabilistic logic

- Now we have constants, relations, functions, quantifiers: man(Socrates) \lor mortal(Socrates) $\forall x : man(x) \rightarrow mortal(x)$.
- There are few general techniques here: too many variations.
- Nilsson (1986) advocated: $P(\phi) \ge \alpha$ where ϕ is sentence.
 - This can be solved by linear programming... but there are *decidability* questions.
 - Recent study by Jaumard et al (2007) for decidable fragments.

Example (Jaumard et al 2007)

Assessments:

- $P(\forall x: \exists y: t(x,y) \land s(y)) = 0.9.$
- $P(\exists x : \neg r(x)) = 0.6.$

$$P(\exists y: \neg s(y)) = 0.6.$$

•
$$P(\forall x : \forall y : \neg t(x, y) \land r(x) \land s(y)) = 0.7.$$

Compute $P(\exists x : \exists y : \neg t(x, y))$.

- Only 12 possible worlds (elements in the Lindenbaum algebra).
- Possible to apply linear program; extension to column generation method is open problem.

Other proposals

- A different proposal is to impose probabilities over the domain:
 - Probability that a randomly selected bird flies is no smaller than 0.9."
- There has been great interest in this kind of probabilistic logic for
 - probabilistic logic programming;
 - the semantic web;
 - probabilistic databases.
- Most algorithms are for languages that can be translated to Bayesian networks.
- Few general algorithms (good starting point is the work of Thomas Lukasiewicz).

Zero probabilities

- This is one of the most embarassing challenges in the world of credal sets.
- In the standard theory of probabilities, it is easy to ignore null events (events with probability zero).
 - Such events "will never happen".

Zero probabilities

- This is one of the most embarassing challenges in the world of credal sets.
- In the standard theory of probabilities, it is easy to ignore null events (events with probability zero).
 - Such events "will never happen".
- But now there may be events with zero lower probability and nonzero upper probability.

• For instance, if $P(B) \leq \alpha$, then P(B) may be zero.

- So, we may observe A and we need to say something about P(A|B).
- This issue has drawn steady interest in the community, but it is not easy to understand.

Zeroes in linear fractional programs

• Note: the linear fractional programs we discussed before required P(B) > 0.

• If $\overline{P}(B) = 0$, then programs become unfeasible.

They compute:

 $\min E_P[f(X)|B]$

where P belongs to

 $\{P: P(B) > 0\}.$

Full conditional measures

- The most elegant solution is to consider *full probability* measures.
- A full probability measure is a function $P(\cdot|\cdot)$ on $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{E} \setminus \emptyset$ where \mathcal{E} is an algebra of events, such that
 - P(A|C) = 1;
 - $P(A|C) \ge 0$ for all A;
 - $P(A \cup B|C) = P(A|C) + P(B|C)$ when $A \cap B = \emptyset$;
 - $P(A \cap B|C) = P(A|B \cap C) P(B|C)$ when $B \cap C \neq \emptyset$.
- Full probability measures allow P(A|C) to be defined even if P(C) = 0!

The Krauss-Dubins representation

- We can partition Ω into events L_0, \ldots, L_K , $K \leq N$,
- such that the full conditional measure is represented as a sequence of strictly positive probability measures P_0, \ldots, P_K , where the support of P_i is restricted to L_i .
- P(A|B) = P(A|B ∩ L_B), where L_B is the "layer" where B
 has nonzero probability.
- This representation has been advocated by Coletti & Scozzafava.

Example (note:
$$P(A) = 0$$
, but $P(B|A) = \beta$):

	A	A^c
B	$\lfloor\beta\rfloor_1$	α
B^c	$\lfloor 1-\beta \rfloor_1$	$1-\alpha$

Exercise

Consider assessments:

● $P(A) \ge 1/2.$

●
$$P(A^c \cap B^c) = 1/2.$$

● $P(C|A^c \cap B) = 1/3.$

What is the Krauss-Dubins representation? What is P(C|B)? What is $P(C^c|A^c \cap B)$?

Coletti-Scozzafava's method

- Run the usual linear program with assessments $P(A_i|B_i) \ge \alpha_i$.
- If all B_i have $P(B_i) > 0$ for all feasible solutions, stop (solution has been found).
- Otherwise:
 - Collect those B_i with $P(B_i) = 0$ for all feasible solutions.
 - Then build another linear program *only* with those assessments with these B_i .
 - Repeat until there are no more assessments (inference is vacuous).

Improving the algorithm

- Coletti-Scozzafava's method has been optimized and expanded by Vantaggi, Capotorti and others.
 - Idea is to quickly detect/exploit zero probabilities.
 - Check coherence (CkC) package: http://www.dipmat.unipg.it/~upkd/paid/software.html
 - Vantaggi has dealt with independence as well.

Overall, many tests to make, to detect whether events may are null.

Other approaches

- Sequence of 2m direct linear programs in the worst case (Walley, Pelessoni, Vicig (1999, 2004)).
 - But still, necessary to run additional linear programs to check whether to proceed.
 - Possible to divide number of linear programs by 2, by examining slack variables (Cozman 2002).

All of this is to check "coherence" in a strong sense.
 There are weaker concepts of "coherence".

Changing gears: Classes of credal sets

- General assessments are flexible (too flexible?) but are hard to handle for general spaces.
- Possible strategy is to focus on a few canonical ways to define credal sets.
- There are many!
 - Neighborhoods.
 - Capacities.
 - Boxes.
- A great deal of this work is found in the literature on robust statistics.
 - Usually, some mix of linear fractional programming (Dinkelbach-Jagannathan algorithm), minimax theory, and creativity with particular problems.

The classic ϵ -contaminated

• Credal set based on P_0 and $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$:

$$\{(1-\epsilon)P_0+\epsilon Q: \text{ any } Q\}.$$

 Old model, originally from robust frequentist statistics (Tukey, then Huber).

Exercise

● If K(X) is an ϵ -contaminated class, what are

$\underline{E}[f(X)], \quad \overline{E}[f(X)]?$

• If P_0 is always nonzero, what is

$$\underline{P}(A|B), \quad \overline{P}(A|B)?$$

If one gives a measure L such that

 $L(\Omega) < 1,$

is this an ϵ -contaminated class? If so, what are P_0 and ϵ ?

Solution

• If K(X) is an ϵ -contaminated class,

 $\underline{E}[f(X)] = (1-\epsilon)E_0[f(X)], \quad \overline{E}[f(X)] = (1-\epsilon)E_0[f(X)] + \epsilon.$

If one gives a measure L such that

 $L(\Omega) < 1,$

this an $\epsilon\text{-contaminated class}$

 $\{(1-\epsilon)(L/L(\Omega)) + \epsilon Q\},\$

where $\epsilon = 1 - L(\Omega)$.

Other neighborhoods

Total variation class:

```
\{P: |P(A) - R(A)| \le \epsilon\}.
```

(Exercise: Find lower/upper probabilities for event A.)

- Neighborhoods for several metrics; with several contaminations (given moments, given quantiles, given modes); from conjugate families (well-known example is Imprecise Dirichlet Model).
- Bose (1994): several contaminations at once,

$$\{(1-\epsilon)P + \epsilon_1 q_1 + \dots + \epsilon_n q_n : q_i \in K_i\}$$

Density bounded classes

Given two measures L and U such that

 $L \le U, \quad L(\Omega) \le 1, \quad U(\Omega) \ge 1,$

take the set

$$\{P: L \le P \le U\}.$$

Lower/upper probabilities are easy to compute. For instance,

$$\underline{P}(A) = \max\left(L(A), 1 - U(A^c)\right).$$

• Constant bounded class if $kL = P_0 = U/k$ for some P_0 , k > 1.

Density ratio classes

• Given two measures L and U such that $L(A) \leq U(A)$ for every event A,

$$\{P = \mu/\mu(\Omega) : L \le \mu \le U\}.$$

- That is, you "draw" μ between L and U, then normalize it.
- Equivalent definition: set of distributions such that for every A and B,

$$\frac{L(A)}{U(B)} \le \frac{P(A)}{P(B)} \le \frac{U(A)}{L(B)}.$$

Facts about density ratio classes

Posterior probability:

$$\underline{P}(A|B) = \frac{L(A \cap B)}{L(A \cap B) + U(A^c \cap B)},$$
$$\overline{P}(A|B) = \frac{U(A \cap B)}{U(A \cap B) + L(A^c \cap B)}.$$

- Posterior from single likelihood: just multiply L and U by likelihood.
- There are bracketing algorithms for computing lower/upper expectations.

Constant density ratio class

Set of distributions P such that

$$\frac{P(A)}{P(B)} \le \alpha \frac{P_0(A)}{P_0(B)},$$

for distribution P_0 and $\alpha > 1$.

Class is preserved by conditioning/marginalization!

One great (obscure) idea

- Wasserman and Kadane (1982) observed that for some classes (total variation, constant bounded, constant ratio),
 - it is possible to sample from the "center" P_0 of the neighborhood, and compute lower expectations.

One of the few cases where a sampling algorithm has been applied to credal sets.

It would be nice to see other sampling methods, but hard to imagine how to do it.

And 2-monotone capacities

If a credal set satisfies

$$\underline{P}(A \cup B) \ge \underline{P}(A) + \underline{P}(B) - \underline{P}(A \cap B),$$

it is 2-monotone.

Examples:
e-contaminated, total variation, density bounded.

• Define
$$\overline{F}_X(x) = \overline{P}(X \le x)$$
; then

$$\underline{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \ d\overline{F}_X(x).$$

$$\underline{P}(A|B) = \frac{\underline{P}(A \cap B)}{\underline{P}(A \cap B) + \overline{P}(A^c \cap B)}$$

And belief functions

• A capacity that is infinitely monotone; that is, for any n,

$$\underline{P}(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) \ge \sum_{J \subset 1, \dots, n} (-1)^{|J|+1} \underline{P}(\bigcap_{i \in J} A_i).$$

- These are basic entities in Dempster-Shafer theory.
- They can always be expressed as a probability mass assignment and a multi-valued mapping.
- Useful:

$$\underline{E}[X] = \sum_{A} m(A) \inf_{\omega \in A} X(\omega).$$

Probability boxes (p-boxes)

9 Take two nondecreasing functions <u>F</u> and \overline{F} such that

$\underline{F} \le \overline{F}.$

The set of distributions such that

$$\{P: \underline{F} \le F \le \overline{F}\}.$$

is a p-box.

There has been work on risk assessment and reliability analysis with p-boxes: often discretization of continuous possibility spaces and then linear programming.

Changing gears: Decision making

- **Set** of acts A, need to choose one.
 - There are several criteria!
- Γ -minimax:

$$\arg \max_{X \in \mathcal{A}} \underline{E}[X] \,.$$

Maximality: maximal elements of the partial order \succ .
That is, X is maximal if

there is no $Y \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $E_P[Y - X] > 0$ for all $P \in K$.

E-admissibility: maximality for at least a distribution. That is, X is E-admissible if

there is $P \in K$ such that $E_P[X - Y] \ge 0$ for all $Y \in \mathcal{A}$.

Maximax, interval dominance, etc.

Comparing criteria

Three acts: $a_1 = 0.4$; $a_2 = 0/1$ if A/A^c ; $a_3 = 1/0$ if A/A^c .



 $P(A) \in [0.3, 0.7].$ Γ -minimax: a_1 ; Maximal: all of them; E-admissible: $\{a_2, a_3\}.$

Exercise

Credal set $\{P_1, P_2\}$: $P_1(s_1) = 1/8$, $P_1(s_2) = 3/4$, $P_1(s_3) = 1/8$, $P_2(s_1) = 3/4$, $P_2(s_2) = 1/8$, $P_2(s_3) = 1/8$, Acts $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$:

	s_1	s_2	s_3
a_1	3	3	4
a_2	2.5	3.5	5
a_3	1	5	4.

Which one to select?
Solution

 $P_1(s_1) = 1/8, P_1(s_2) = 3/4, ; P_1(s_3) = 1/8, P_2(s_1) = 3/4, P_2(s_2) = 1/8, P_2(s_3) = 1/8.$ Acts $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$:

	s_1	s_2	s_3
a_1	3	3	4
a_2	2.5	3.5	5
a_3	1	5	4.

Then:

$$E_1[a_1] = 3/8 + 18/8 + 4/8 = 25/8;$$

$$E_1[a_2] = 2.5/8 + 21/8 + 5/8 = 28.5/8;$$

$$E_1[a_3] = 1/8 + 15/8 + 4/8 = 35/8.$$

$$E_2[a_1] = 18/8 + 3/8 + 4/8 = 25/8;$$

$$E_2[a_2] = 15/8 + 3.5/8 + 5/8 = 23.5/8$$

$$E_2[a_3] = 2/8 + 5/8 + 4/8 = 11/8.$$

A quick discussion

Limited to finite set of acts.

- **•** Consider Γ -minimax:
 - Compute $\underline{E}[a_i]$ for each act.
 - Select act with highest $\underline{E}[a_i]$.
- (Considerable minimax theory in Berger's book (1985).)

Maximality

- **•** Find Γ -minimax solution a_0 .
- **•** For each other act $a_i \neq a_0$, verify whether

$$E_P[a_0 - a_i] \ge 0;$$

for all P; if so, discard a_i .

That is, verify whether

$$\underline{E}[a_0 - a_i] \ge 0.$$

E-admissibility

• For each act a_i :

- Collect all constraints that must be satisfied by P.
- Add constraints

$$E_P[a_i - a_j] \ge 0$$

for every $a_j \neq a_i$.

• If all these constraints can be satisfied for some P, then a_i is E-admissible.

This scheme can be extended to problems with mixed acts (Utkin and Augustin 2005).

Exercise

Credal set $\{P_1, P_2\}$: $P_1(s_1) = 1/8$, $P_1(s_2) = 3/4$, $P_1(s_3) = 1/8$, $P_2(s_1) = 3/4$, $P_2(s_2) = 1/8$, $P_2(s_3) = 1/8$, Acts $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$:

	s_1	s_2	s_3
a_1	3	3	4
a_2	2.5	3.5	5
a_3	1	5	4.

Which one to select? And if we take convex hull of credal set?

Solution

 $P_1(s_1) = 1/8, P_1(s_2) = 3/4, P_1(s_3) = 1/8, P_2(s_1) = 3/4, P_2(s_2) = 1/8, P_2(s_3) = 1/8.$

Acts $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$:

	s_1	s_2	s_3
a_1	3	3	4
a_2	2.5	3.5	5
a_3	1	5	4.

• Consider
$$P = \alpha P_1 + (1 - \alpha) P_2$$
.

Then:

$$E_P[a_2 - a_1] = 10\alpha - 3 \ge 0; \quad \alpha \ge 3/10.$$

And:

$$E_P[a_2 - a_3] = -30\alpha + 17 \ge 0; \quad \alpha \le 17/30.$$

Conclusion

- Goal of this talk: overview of some central ideas without independence.
- Basic tool is linear programming (column generation, etc).
 - Full conditional measures require special tools.
- There are many special kinds of credal sets with associated algorithms: neighborhoods, capacities, etc.
- Decision making (severa criteria) requires such calculations.