## 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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1. General Problem of Data Processing under Uncertainty

- Indirect measurements: way to measure $y$ that are difficult (or even impossible) to measure directly.
- Idea: $y=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$



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- Problem: measurements are never $100 \%$ accurate: $\widetilde{x}_{i} \neq$
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What are bounds on $\Delta y \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \widetilde{y}-y$ ?

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## 2. Probabilistic and Interval Uncertainty



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- Traditional approach: we know probability distribution

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$$
x_{i} \in\left[\widetilde{x}_{i}-\Delta_{i}, \widetilde{x}_{i}+\Delta_{i}\right]
$$

- Solution: we know upper bounds $\Delta_{i}$ on $\left|\Delta x_{i}\right|$ hence

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\section*{3. Interval Computations: A Problem}

- Given: an algorithm \(y=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\) and \(n\) intervals \(\mathbf{x}_{i}=\left[\underline{x}_{i}, \bar{x}_{i}\right]\).
- Compute: the corresponding range of \(y\) : \([\underline{y}, \bar{y}]=\left\{f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \mid x_{1} \in\left[\underline{x}_{1}, \bar{x}_{1}\right], \ldots, x_{n} \in\left[\underline{x}_{n}, \bar{x}_{n}\right]\right\}\).
- Fact: NP-hard even for quadratic \(f\).
- Challenge: when are feasible algorithms possible?
- Challenge: when computing \(\mathbf{y}=[\underline{y}, \bar{y}]\) is not feasible, find a good approximation \(\mathbf{Y} \supseteq \mathbf{y}\).

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\section*{4. Interval Computations: A Brief History}
- 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)

\section*{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 \(x \in\)

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- 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

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``` exploration or nuclear engineering.

\section*{7. Interval Arithmetic: Foundations of Interval Tech-} niques

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- Interval arithmetic: for arithmetic operations \(f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\) (and for elementary functions), we have explicit formulas for the range.
- Examples: when \(x_{1} \in \mathbf{x}_{1}=\left[\underline{x}_{1}, \bar{x}_{1}\right]\) and \(x_{2} \in \mathbf{x}_{2}=\) \(\left[\underline{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{2}\right]\), then:
- The range \(\mathbf{x}_{1}+\mathbf{x}_{2}\) for \(x_{1}+x_{2}\) is \(\left[\underline{x}_{1}+\underline{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1}+\bar{x}_{2}\right]\).
- The range \(\mathbf{x}_{1}-\mathbf{x}_{2}\) for \(x_{1}-x_{2}\) is \(\left[\underline{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1}-\underline{x}_{2}\right]\).
- The range \(\mathbf{x}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{2}\) for \(x_{1} \cdot x_{2}\) is \([\underline{y}, \bar{y}]\), where
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{y}=\min \left(\underline{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}, \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}\right) ; \\
& \bar{y}=\max \left(\underline{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}, \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
\]
- The range \(1 / \mathbf{x}_{1}\) for \(1 / x_{1}\) is \(\left[1 / \bar{x}_{1}, 1 / \underline{x}_{1}\right]\) (if \(0 \notin \mathbf{x}_{1}\) ).

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- Example: \(f(x)=(x-2) \cdot(x+2), x \in[1,2]\).
- How will the computer compute it?
- \(r_{1}:=x-2\);
- \(r_{2}:=x+2\);
- \(r_{3}:=r_{1} \cdot r_{2}\).
- 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 \(\mathbf{Y} \supseteq \mathbf{y}\).

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\section*{9. First Idea: Use of Monotonicity}
- Reminder: for arithmetic, we had exact ranges.
- Reason: +, -, • are monotonic in each variable.
- How monotonicity helps: if \(f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\) is (non-strictly) increasing \((f \uparrow)\) in each \(x_{i}\), then
\[
f\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right)=\left[f\left(\underline{x}_{1}, \ldots, \underline{x}_{n}\right), f\left(\bar{x}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{x}_{n}\right)\right] .
\]
- Similarly: if \(f \uparrow\) for some \(x_{i}\) and \(f \downarrow\) for other \(x_{j}\).
- Fact: \(f \uparrow\) in \(x_{i}\) if \(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}} \geq 0\).
- Checking monotonicity: check that the range \(\left[\underline{r}_{i}, \bar{r}_{i}\right]\) 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 \(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}\) : straightforward interval comp.

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- Idea: if the range \(\left[\underline{r}_{i}, \bar{r}_{i}\right]\) of each \(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}\) on \(\mathbf{x}_{i}\) has \(\underline{r}_{i} \geq 0\), then
\[
f\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right)=\left[f\left(\underline{x}_{1}, \ldots, \underline{x}_{n}\right), f\left(\bar{x}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{x}_{n}\right)\right] .
\]
- Example: \(f(x)=(x-2) \cdot(x+2), \mathbf{x}=[1,2]\).
- Case \(n=1\) : if the range \([\underline{r}, \bar{r}]\) of \(\frac{d f}{d x}\) on \(\mathbf{x}\) has \(\underline{r} \geq 0\), then
\[
f(\mathbf{x})=[f(\underline{x}), f(\bar{x})] .
\]
- \(A D: \frac{d f}{d x}=1 \cdot(x+2)+(x-2) \cdot 1=2 x\).
- Checking: \([\underline{r}, \bar{r}]=[2,4]\), with \(2 \geq 0\).
- Result: \(f([1,2])=[f(1), f(2)]=[-3,0]\).
- Comparison: this is the exact range.

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\section*{11. Non-Monotonic Example}
- Example: \(f(x)=x \cdot(1-x), x \in[0,1]\).
- How will the computer compute it?
- \(r_{1}:=1-x\);
- \(r_{2}:=x \cdot r_{1}\).
- Straightforward interval computations:
- \(\mathbf{r}_{1}:=[1,1]-[0,1]=[0,1]\);

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- \(\mathbf{r}_{2}:=[0,1] \cdot[0,1]=[0,1]\).
- Actual range: \(\min , \max\) of \(f\) at \(\underline{x}, \bar{x}\), or when \(\frac{d f}{d x}=0\).

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\section*{12. Second Idea: Centered Form}
- Main idea: Intermediate Value Theorem
\[
f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=f\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_{n}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(\chi) \cdot\left(x_{i}-\widetilde{x}_{i}\right)
\]

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for some \(\chi_{i} \in \mathbf{x}_{i}\).
- Corollary: \(f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbf{Y}\), where
\[
\mathbf{Y}=\widetilde{y}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right) \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right] .
\]
- Differentiation: by Automatic Differentiation (AD) tools.

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

\section*{13. Centered Form: Example}
- General formula:
\[
\mathbf{Y}=f\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_{n}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}\right) \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right]
\]

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- Case \(n=1: \mathbf{Y}=f(\widetilde{x})+\frac{d f}{d x}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot[-\Delta, \Delta]\).
- \(A D: \frac{d f}{d x}=1 \cdot(1-x)+x \cdot(-1)=1-2 x\).

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- Estimation: we have \(\frac{d f}{d x}(\mathbf{x})=1-2 \cdot[0,1]=[-1,1]\).
- 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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- Known: accuracy \(O\left(\Delta_{i}^{2}\right)\) of first order formula
\[
f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=f\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_{n}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(\chi) \cdot\left(x_{i}-\widetilde{x}_{i}\right) .
\]

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- Example: \(f(x)=x \cdot(1-x)\), where \(x \in \mathbf{x}=[0,1]\).
- Split: take \(\mathbf{x}^{\prime}=[0,0.5]\) and \(\mathbf{x}^{\prime \prime}=[0.5,1]\).
- 1st range: \(1-2 \cdot \mathbf{x}=1-2 \cdot[0,0.5]=[0,1]\), so \(f \uparrow\) and \(f\left(\mathbf{x}^{\prime}\right)=[f(0), f(0.5)]=[0,0.25]\).
- 2nd range: \(1-2 \cdot \mathbf{x}=1-2 \cdot[0.5,1]=[-1,0]\), so \(f \downarrow\) and \(f\left(\mathrm{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)=[f(1), f(0.5)]=[0,0.25]\).
- Result: \(f\left(\mathbf{x}^{\prime}\right) \cup f\left(\mathbf{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)=[0,0.25]\) - exact.

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\section*{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).

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- Implementation:
\[
a=a_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \cdot \Delta x_{i}+[\underline{a}, \bar{a}] .
\]
- We start: with \(x_{i}=\widetilde{x}_{i}-\Delta x_{i}\), i.e.,
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- Description: \(a_{0}=\widetilde{x}_{i}, a_{i}=-1, a_{j}=0\) for \(j \neq i\), and \([\underline{a}, \bar{a}]=[0,0]\).
\(\widetilde{x}_{i}+0 \cdot \Delta x_{1}+\ldots+0 \cdot \Delta x_{i-1}+(-1) \cdot \Delta x_{i}+0 \cdot \Delta x_{i+1}+\ldots+0 \cdot \Delta x_{n}+[0,0]\),

\section*{16. Affine Arithmetic: Operations}
- Representation: \(a=a_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \cdot \Delta x_{i}+[\underline{a}, \bar{a}]\).
- 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: \(c_{0}=a_{0} \cdot b_{0}, c_{i}=a_{0} \cdot b_{i}+b_{0} \cdot a_{i}\),
\[
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{c}=a_{0} \cdot \mathbf{b}+b_{0} \cdot \mathbf{a}+\sum_{i \neq j} a_{i} \cdot b_{j} \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right] \cdot\left[-\Delta_{j}, \Delta_{j}\right]+ \\
\sum_{i} a_{i} \cdot b_{i} \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right]^{2}+ \\
\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right]\right) \cdot \mathbf{b}+\left(\sum_{i} b_{i} \cdot\left[-\Delta_{i}, \Delta_{i}\right]\right) \cdot \mathbf{a}+\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} .
\end{gathered}
\]

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\section*{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?
- \(r_{1}:=1-x ;\)
- \(r_{2}:=x \cdot r_{1}\).
- Affine arithmetic: we start with \(x=0.5-\Delta x+[0,0]\);

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- \(\mathbf{r}_{1}:=1-(0.5-\Delta x)=0.5+\Delta x ;\)
- \(\mathbf{r}_{2}:=(0.5-\Delta x) \cdot(0.5+\Delta x)\), i.e.,
\[
\mathbf{r}_{2}=0.25+0 \cdot \Delta x-[-\Delta, \Delta]^{2}=0.25+\left[-\Delta^{2}, 0\right] .
\]
- Resulting range: \(\mathbf{y}=0.25+[-0.25,0]=[0,0.25]\).
- Comparison: this is the exact range.
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.

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- 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 \(\Delta x_{i}\);

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- idea: keep, e.g., quadratic terms
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\[
a=a_{0}+\sum a_{i} \cdot \Delta x_{i}+\sum a_{i j} \cdot \Delta x_{i} \cdot \Delta x_{j}+\mathbf{a}
\]
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 \(\bar{a}\) of \([\underline{a}, \bar{a}]\).
- Affine arithmetic: for each \(a\), we compute \(n+3\) values:
\[
a_{0} \quad a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \quad \underline{a}, \bar{a} .
\]
- Conclusion: affine arithmetic is \(\sim n\) times slower.
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Title Page \(y_{j}=f_{j}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\) for solving the system.
- Example: system of linear equations.
- Solution: apply interval computations techniques to find the range \(f_{j}\left(\left[\underline{a}_{1}, \bar{a}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\underline{a}_{n}, \bar{a}_{n}\right]\right)\).
- Better solution: for specific equations, we often already know which ideas work best.
- Example: linear equations \(A y=b ; y\) is monotonic in \(b\).
- 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: \(r_{1}=x^{2}, 0.5\left(=r_{2}\right)=x-r_{1}\).
- Rules: from \(r_{1}=x^{2}\), we extract two rules:

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(1) x \rightarrow r_{1}=x^{2} ; \quad(2) r_{1} \rightarrow x=\sqrt{r_{1}}
\]
from \(0.5=x-r_{1}\), we extract two more rules:
\[
\text { (3) } x \rightarrow r_{1}=x-0.5 ; \quad \text { (4) } r_{1} \rightarrow x=r_{1}+0.5
\]
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 \(\mathbf{r}_{\text {new }}=(-\infty, \infty) \cap[0,1]=[0,1]\).
(2) \(\mathbf{x}_{\text {new }}=\sqrt{[0,1]} \cap[0,1]=[0,1]-\) no change.
(3) \(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{new}}=([0,1]-0.5) \cap[0,1]=[-0.5,0.5] \cap[0,1]=[0,0.5]\).
(4) \(\mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{new}}=([0,0.5]+0.5) \cap[0,1]=[0.5,1] \cap[0,1]=[0.5,1]\).
(1) \(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{new}}=[0.5,1]^{2} \cap[0,0.5]=[0.25,0.5]\).
(2) \(\mathbf{x}_{\text {new }}=\sqrt{[0.25,0.5]} \cap[0.5,1]=[0.5,0.71]\);
round \(\underline{a}\) down \(\downarrow\) and \(\bar{a}\) 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., \(\mathbf{r}_{\text {new }}=\emptyset\).

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- Conclusion: the original equation has no solutions.
- Example: \(x-x^{2}=0, x \in[0,1]\).
- Parsing: \(r_{1}=x^{2}, 0\left(=r_{2}\right)=x-r_{1}\).
- Rules: (1) \(r=x^{2}\); (2) \(x=\sqrt{r}\); (3) \(r=x\); (4) \(x=r\).

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- We start with: \(\mathbf{x}=[0,1], \mathbf{r}=(-\infty, \infty)\).
- Problem: after Rule 1, we're stuck with \(\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{r}=[0,1]\).

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- Solution: bisect \(\mathbf{x}=[0,1]\) into \([0,0.5]\) and \([0.5,1]\).
- For 1 st subinterval:
- Rule 1 leads to \(\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{new}}=[0,0.5]^{2} \cap[0,0.5]=[0,0.25] ;\)
- Rule 4 leads to \(\mathbf{x}_{\text {new }}=[0,0.25]\);
- Rule 1 leads to \(\mathbf{r}_{\text {new }}=[0,0.25]^{2}=[0,0.0625] ;\)
- Rule 4 leads to \(\mathbf{x}_{\text {new }}=[0,0.0625]\); etc.
- we converge to \(x=0\).
- For 2nd subinterval: we converge to \(x=1\).

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- First case: for exactly known \(a_{i}\), we have an algorithm \(y_{j}=f_{j}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\) for solving the optimization problem.
- Example: quadratic objective function \(g\).
- Solution: apply interval computations techniques to find the range \(f_{j}\left(\left[\underline{a}_{1}, \bar{a}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\underline{a}_{n}, \bar{a}_{n}\right]\right)\).
- Better solution: for specific \(f\), we often already know which ideas work best.

\section*{25. Optimization When No Algorithm Is Known}
- Idea: divide the original box \(\mathbf{x}\) into subboxes \(\mathbf{b}\).
- If \(\max _{x \in \mathbf{b}} g(x)<g\left(x^{\prime}\right)\) for a known \(x^{\prime}\), dismiss \(\mathbf{b}\).
- Example: \(g(x)=x \cdot(1-x), \mathbf{x}=[0,1]\).
- Divide into \(10(?)\) subboxes \(\mathbf{b}=[0,0.1],[0.1,0.2], \ldots\)
- Find \(g(\widetilde{b})\) for each \(\mathbf{b}\); 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 \(\bar{Y}<0.2475\).
- Example: for \([0.2,0.3]\), we have

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\[
0.25 \cdot(1-0.25)+(1-2 \cdot[0.2,0.3]) \cdot[-0.05,0.05] .
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- Here \(\bar{Y}=0.2175<0.2475\), so we dismiss [0.2, 0.3].
- Result: keep only boxes \(\subseteq[0.3,0.7]\).
- Further subdivision: get us closer and closer to \(x=0.5\).
- 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.

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\section*{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
\[
D \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max \left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{N}\right) .
\]
- 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,

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- 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.

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\section*{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.

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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: \(D_{i}=a_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i j} \cdot x_{j}\) for some \(a_{i}\) and \(a_{i j}\).

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- The desired maximum delay \(D=\max _{i} D_{i}\) has the form
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31. Towards a Mathematical Formulation of the Problem (cont-d)
- Known: maxima of linear function are exactly convex functions:
\[
F(\alpha \cdot x+(1-\alpha) \cdot y) \leq \alpha \cdot F(x)+(1-\alpha) \cdot F(y)
\]
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 \(\left[\underline{x}_{j}, \bar{x}_{j}\right]\) 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 \(\geq 1-\varepsilon\).

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\section*{32. Additional Property: Dependency is Non-Degenerate}
- Fact: sometimes, we learn additional information about one of the factors \(x_{j}\).
- Example: we learn that \(x_{j}\) actually belongs to a proper subinterval of the original interval \(\left[\underline{x}_{j}, \bar{x}_{j}\right]\).
- Consequence: the class \(\mathcal{P}\) of possible distributions is replaced with \(\mathcal{P}^{\prime} \subset \mathcal{P}\).
- Result: the new value \(y_{0}^{\prime}\) can only decrease: \(y_{0}^{\prime} \leq y_{0}\).
- Fact: if \(x_{j}\) is irrelevant for \(y\), then \(y_{0}^{\prime}=y_{0}\).
- Assumption: irrelevant variables been weeded out.
- Formalization: if we narrow down one of the intervals \(\left[\underline{x}_{j}, \bar{x}_{j}\right]\), the resulting value \(y_{0}\) decreases: \(y_{0}^{\prime}<y_{0}\).

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\section*{33. Formulation of the Problem}

GIVEN: • \(n, k \leq n, \varepsilon>0\);
- a convex function \(y=F\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \geq 0\);
- \(n-k\) cdfs \(F_{j}(x), k+1 \leq j \leq n\);
- intervals \(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{k}\), values \(E_{1}, \ldots, E_{k}\),

TAKE: all joint probability distributions on \(R^{n}\) for which:
- all \(x_{i}\) are independent,
- \(x_{j} \in \mathbf{x}_{j}, E\left[x_{j}\right]=E_{j}\) for \(j \leq k\), and
- \(x_{j}\) have distribution \(F_{j}(x)\) for \(j>k\).

FIND: the smallest \(y_{0}\) s.t. for all such distributions, \(F\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \leq y_{0}\) with probability \(\geq 1-\varepsilon\).

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\section*{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 \(\underline{p}_{j} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\bar{x}_{j}-E_{j}}{\bar{x}_{j}-\underline{x}_{j}}\), and

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- simulate these distributions for \(x_{j}, j<k\);
- simulate known distributions for \(j>k\);
- use the simulated values \(x_{j}^{(s)}\) to find
\[
y^{(s)}=F\left(x_{1}^{(s)}, \ldots, x_{n}^{(s)}\right)
\]
- \(\operatorname{sort} N\) values \(y^{(s)}: y_{(1)} \leq y_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq y_{\left(N_{i}\right)}\);
- take \(y_{\left(N_{i} \cdot(1-\varepsilon)\right)}\) as \(y_{0}\).

\section*{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:

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- justified Monte-Carlo methods often lead to faster computations than analytical techniques;
- example: multi-D integration - where Monte-Carlo methods were originally invented.

\section*{36. Comment about Non-Linear Terms}
- Reminder: in the above formula \(D_{i}=a_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i j} \cdot x_{j}\), 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

Title Page \(D=\max _{i} D_{i}\) of convex functions \(D_{i}\) is convex.
- Condition when this idea works: when each dependence \(D_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}, \ldots\right)\) is still convex.
- Solution: in this case,
- the function function \(D\) is still convex,
- hence, our algorithm will work.

\section*{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 worstcase values is usually very small.
- Consequence: estimates are over-conservative, hence

Title Page over-design and under-performance of circuits.
- Objective: find the clock time as \(y_{0}\) s.t. for the actual delay \(y\), we have \(\operatorname{Prob}\left(y>y_{0}\right) \leq \varepsilon\) 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 \(y_{0}\).

\section*{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 \(E_{x}[u(x, a)] \rightarrow\) max.
- Case 1: smooth \(u(x)\).
- Analysis: we have \(u(x)=u\left(x_{0}\right)+\left(x-x_{0}\right) \cdot u^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)+\ldots\)
- 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 \(\operatorname{cdf} F(x)=\operatorname{Prob}(\xi \leq x)\).
- Case of uncertainty: p-box \([\underline{F}(x), \bar{F}(x)]\).

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39. Extension of Interval Arithmetic to Probabilistic Case: Successes \(-, \cdot, 1 / x\), max, min. +1 st moments \(E_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} E\left[x_{i}\right]\) :
- General solution: parse to elementary operations +,
- Explicit formulas for arithmetic operations known for intervals, for p-boxes \(\mathbf{F}(x)=[\underline{F}(x), \bar{F}(x)]\), for intervals

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\section*{40. Successes (cont-d)}
- Easy cases: +, -, product of independent \(x_{i}\).
- Example of a non-trivial case: multiplication \(y=x_{1}\). \(x_{2}\), when we have no information about the correlation:
- \(\underline{E}=\max \left(p_{1}+p_{2}-1,0\right) \cdot \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}+\min \left(p_{1}, 1-p_{2}\right) \cdot \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}+\) \(\min \left(1-p_{1}, p_{2}\right) \cdot \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}+\max \left(1-p_{1}-p_{2}, 0\right) \cdot \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2} ;\)
- \(\bar{E}=\min \left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right) \cdot \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}+\max \left(p_{1}-p_{2}, 0\right) \cdot \bar{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}+\) \(\max \left(p_{2}-p_{1}, 0\right) \cdot \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \bar{x}_{2}+\min \left(1-p_{1}, 1-p_{2}\right) \cdot \underline{x}_{1} \cdot \underline{x}_{2}\),
where \(p_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left(E_{i}-\underline{x}_{i}\right) /\left(\bar{x}_{i}-\underline{x}_{i}\right)\).

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- intervals + 2nd moments:


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- moments + p-boxes; e.g.:


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\section*{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 \(y_{i} \approx x_{i} \cdot c+\left(1-x_{i}\right) \cdot h\), where \(x_{i}\) is the percentage of cancer cells in \(i\)-th sample.
- Equivalent form: \(a \cdot x_{i}+h \approx y_{i}\), where \(a \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} c-h\).

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\section*{43. Case Study: Bioinformatics (cont-d)}

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\[
C(x, y)=\frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-E(x)\right) \cdot\left(y_{i}-E(y)\right)
\]
- 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 \(x_{i} \in\left[\underline{x}_{i}, \bar{x}_{i}\right]\).

\section*{44. General Problem}
- General problem:
- we know intervals \(\mathbf{x}_{1}=\left[\underline{x}_{1}, \bar{x}_{1}\right], \ldots, \mathbf{x}_{n}=\left[\underline{x}_{n}, \bar{x}_{n}\right]\),
- compute the range of \(E(x)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\), population variance \(V=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-E(x)\right)^{2}\), etc.

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- Difficulty: NP-hard even for variance.
- Known:
- efficient algorithms for \(\underline{V}\),
- efficient algorithms for \(\bar{V}\) 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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\section*{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

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\[
L \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} E-k_{0} \cdot \sigma, \quad U \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} E+k_{0} \cdot \sigma,
\]
and \(k_{0}>1\) is pre-selected.
- Comment: most frequently, \(k_{0}=2,3\), or 6 .
46. Outlier Detection Under Interval Uncertainty: A Problem
- In some practical situations, we only have intervals \(\mathbf{x}_{i}=\left[\underline{x}_{i}, \bar{x}_{i}\right]\).
- 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.

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\section*{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 \(\mathbf{E}\) and \([\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]\) for \(E\) and \(\sigma\).
- Possibility: use interval computations to conclude that \(L \in \mathbf{E}-k_{0} \cdot[\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]\) and \(L \in \mathbf{E}+k_{0} \cdot[\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]\).
- 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.

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\section*{Case Study:}
- Given: an algorithm \(y=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\) and \(n\) fuzzy

Title Page numbers \(\mu_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)\).
- Compute: \(\mu(y)=\max _{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=y} \min \left(\mu_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)\right)\).
- Motivation: \(y\) is a possible value of \(Y \leftrightarrow \exists x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\) s.t.
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50. Fuzzy Computations: Reduction to Interval Computations
- Problem (reminder):
- Given: an algorithm \(y=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\) and \(n\) fuzzy numbers \(X_{i}\) described by membership functions \(\mu_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)\).
- Compute: \(Y=f\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)\), where \(Y\) is defined by Zadeh's extension principle:
\[
\mu(y)=\max _{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=y} \min \left(\mu_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, \mu_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)\right) .
\]
- Idea: represent each \(X_{i}\) by its \(\alpha\)-cuts
\[
X_{i}(\alpha)=\left\{x_{i}: \mu_{i}\left(x_{i}\right) \geq \alpha\right\} .
\]
- Advantage: for continuous \(f\), for every \(\alpha\), we have
\[
Y(\alpha)=f\left(X_{1}(\alpha), \ldots, X_{n}(\alpha)\right) .
\]
- Resulting algorithm: for \(\alpha=0,0.1,0.2, \ldots, 1\) apply interval computations techniques to compute \(Y(\alpha)\).

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\section*{51. Proof of the Result about Chips}
- Let us fix the optimal distributions for \(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\); then,
\[
\operatorname{Prob}\left(D \leq y_{0}\right)=\sum_{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right): D\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \leq y_{0}} p_{1}\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot p_{2}\left(x_{2}\right) \cdot \ldots
\]
- So, \(\operatorname{Prob}\left(D \leq y_{0}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \cdot q_{i}\), where \(q_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} p_{1}\left(v_{i}\right)\).
- Restrictions: \(q_{i} \geq 0, \sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{i}=1\), 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
\[
\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{i} \cdot v_{i}=E_{1}, q_{i} \geq 0, \quad i=0,1,2, \ldots, N
\]

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- Minimize: \(\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_{i} \cdot q_{i}\) under the constraints \(\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{i}=1\) and \(\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{i} \cdot v_{i}=E_{1}, q_{i} \geq 0, \quad i=0,1,2, \ldots, N\).
- Known: in LP with \(N+1\) unknowns \(q_{0}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{N}\), \(\geq N+1\) constraints are equalities.

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- 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 \(q_{i}=p_{1}\left(v_{i}\right)\) are non- 0 .
- If corresponding \(v\) or \(v^{\prime}\) are in \(\left(\underline{x}_{1}, \bar{x}_{1}\right)\), then for \(\left[v, v^{\prime}\right] \subset\) \(\mathbf{x}_{1}\) we get the same \(y_{0}\) - in contradiction to non-degeneracy.
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