Introduction to belief functions

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Contents of this lecture

- Historical perspective, motivations
- Fundamental concepts: belief, plausibility, commonality, conditioning, basic combination rules
- Some more advanced concepts: cautious rule, multidimensional belief functions, belief functions in infinite spaces

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Uncertain reasoning

- In science and engineering we always need to reason with partial knowledge and uncertain information (from sensors, experts, models, etc.)
- Different sources of uncertainty
 - Variability of entities in populations and outcomes of random (repeatable) experiments → Aleatory uncertainty. Example: drawing a ball from an urn. Cannot be reduced
 - Lack of knowledge → Epistemic uncertainty. Example: inability to distinguish the color of a ball because of color blindness. Can be reduced
- Classical ways of representing uncertainty
 - Using probabilities
 - Using set (e.g., interval analysis), or propositional logic

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Probability theory

- Probability theory can be used to represent
 - Aleatory uncertainty: probabilities are considered as objective quantities and interpreted as frequencies or limits of frequencies
 - Epistemic uncertainty: probabilities are subjective, interpreted as degrees of belief
- Main objections against the use of probability theory as a model epistemic uncertainty (Bayesian model)
 - Inability to represent ignorance
 - Not a plausibility model of how people make decisions based on weak information

The wine/water paradox

- Principle of Indifference (PI): in the absence of information about some quantity X, we should assign equal probability to any possible value of X
- The wine/water paradox

There is a certain quantity of liquids. All that we know about the liquid is that it is composed entirely of wine and water, and the ratio of wine to water is between 1/3 and 3.

What is the probability that the ratio of wine to water is less than or equal to 2?

The wine/water paradox (continued)

• Let X denote the ratio of wine to water. All we know is that $X \in [1/3, 3]$. According to the PI, $X \sim U_{[1/3,3]}$. Consequently

$$P(X \le 2) = (2 - 1/3)/(3 - 1/3) = 5/8$$

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The wine/water paradox (continued)

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• Now, let Y = 1/X denote the ratio of water to wine. All we know is that $Y \in [1/3, 3]$. According to the PI, $Y \sim U_{[1/3,3]}$. Consequently

$$P(Y \ge 1/2) = (3 - 1/2)/(3 - 1/3) = 15/16$$

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The wine/water paradox (continued)

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• However, $P(X \le 2) = P(Y \ge 1/2)!$

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Ellsberg's paradox

- Suppose you have an urn containing 30 red balls and 60 balls, either black or yellow. You are given a choice between two gambles:
 - A: You receive 100 euros if you draw a red ball
 - B: You receive 100 euros if you draw a black ball

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Ellsberg's paradox

- Suppose you have an urn containing 30 red balls and 60 balls, either black or yellow. You are given a choice between two gambles:
 - A: You receive 100 euros if you draw a red ball
 - B: You receive 100 euros if you draw a black ball
- Also, you are given a choice between these two gambles (about a different draw from the same urn):
 - C: You receive 100 euros if you draw a red or yellow ball
 - D: You receive 100 euros if you draw a black or yellow ball

Ellsberg's paradox

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 - A: You receive 100 euros if you draw a red ball
 - B: You receive 100 euros if you draw a black ball
- Also, you are given a choice between these two gambles (about a different draw from the same urn):
 - C: You receive 100 euros if you draw a red or yellow ball
 - D: You receive 100 euros if you draw a black or yellow ball
- Most people strictly prefer A to B, hence P(red) > P(black), but they strictly prefer D to C, hence P(black) > P(red)

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Set-membership approach

- Partial knowledge about some variable X is described by a set E of possible values for X (constraint)
- Example:
 - Consider a system described by the equation

$$y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n; \theta)$$

where y is the output, x_1, \ldots, x_n are the inputs and θ is a parameter

- Knowing that $x_i \in [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$, i = 1, ..., n and $\theta \in [\underline{\theta}, \overline{\theta}]$, find a set \mathbb{Y} surely containing y
- Advantage: computationally simpler than the probabilistic approach in many cases (interval analysis)
- Drawback: no way to express doubt, conservative approach

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Theory of belief functions

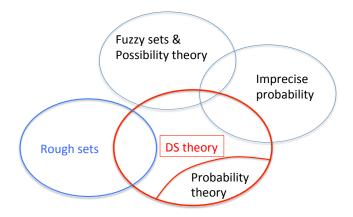
- A formal framework for representing and reasoning with uncertain information
- Also known as Dempster-Shafer theory or Evidence theory
- Originates from the work of Dempster (1968) in the context of statistical inference.
- Formalized by Shafer (1976) as a theory of evidence
- Popularized and developed by Smets in the 1980's and 1990's under the name Transferable Belief Model
- Starting from the 1990's, growing number of applications in information fusion, classification, reliability and risk analysis, etc.

Theory of belief functions Main idea

- The theory of belief functions extends both the set-membership approach and Probability Theory
 - A belief function may be viewed both as a generalized set and as a non additive measure
 - The theory includes extensions of probabilistic notions (conditioning, marginalization) and set-theoretic notions (intersection, union, inclusion, etc.)
- Dempter-Shafer reasoning produces the same results as probabilistic reasoning or interval analysis when provided with the same information
- However, the greater expressive power of the theory of belief functions allows us to represent what we know in a more faithful way

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Relationships wth other theories



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Outline

Basic notions

- Mass functions
- Belief and plausibility functions
- Dempster's rule

Selected advanced topics

- Informational orderings
- Cautious rule
- Belief functions on product spaces
- Belief functions on infinite spaces

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Mass function

Definition

- Let X be a variable taking values in a finite set Ω (frame of discernment)
- Evidence about X may be represented by a mass function $m: 2^{\Omega} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that

$$\sum_{A\subseteq\Omega}m(A)=1$$

- Every A of Ω such that m(A) > 0 is a focal set of m
- *m* is said to be normalized if $m(\emptyset) = 0$. This property will be assumed hereafter, unless otherwise specified

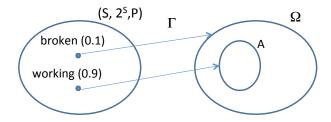
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Example: the broken sensor

- Let X be some physical quantity (e.g., a temperature), talking values in Ω.
- A sensor returns a set of values $A \subset \Omega$, for instance, A = [20, 22].
- However, the sensor may be broken, in which case the value it returns is completely arbitrary.
- There is a probability p = 0.1 that the sensor is broken.
- What can we say about *X*? How to represent the available information (evidence)?

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Analysis



- Here, the probability *p* is not about *X*, but about the state of a sensor.
- Let *S* = {working, broken} the set of possible sensor states.
 - If the state is "working", we know that $X \in A$.
 - If the state is "broken", we just know that $X \in \Omega$, and nothing more.
- This uncertain evidence can be represented by a mass function *m* on Ω, such that

$$m(A) = 0.9, \quad m(\Omega) = 0.1$$

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Source

- A mass function *m* on Ω may be viewed as arising from
 - A set $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_r\}$ of states (interpretations)
 - A probability measure P on S
 - A multi-valued mapping $\Gamma : S \rightarrow 2^{\Omega}$
- The four-tuple $(S, 2^S, P, \Gamma)$ is called a source for m
- Meaning: under interpretation s_i, the evidence tells us that X ∈ Γ(s_i), and nothing more. The probability P({s_i}) is transferred to A_i = Γ(s_i)
- *m*(*A*) is the probability of knowing that *X* ∈ *A*, and nothing more, given the available evidence

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Special cases

- If the evidence tells us that $X \in A$ for sure and nothing more, for some
 - $A \subseteq \Omega$, then we have a logical mass function $m_{[A]}$ such that $m_{[A]}(A) = 1$
 - *m*_[A] is equivalent to *A*
 - Special case: m_?, the vacuous mass function, represents total ignorance
- If each interpretation s_i of the evidence points to a single value of X, then all focal sets are singletons and m is said to be Bayesian. It is equivalent to a probability distribution
- A Dempster-Shafer mass function can thus be seen as
 - a generalized set
 - a generalized probability distribution
- Total ignorance is represented by the vacuous mass function *m*₂ such that *m*₂(Ω) = 1

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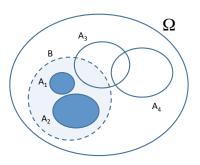
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Belief function

 If the evidence tells us that the truth is in A, and A ⊆ B, we say that the evidence supports B.



• Given a normalized mass function *m*, the probability that the evidence supports *B* is thus

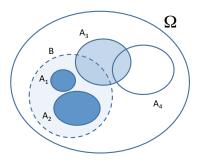
$$Bel(B) = \sum_{A \subseteq B} m(A)$$

• The number Bel(B) is called the degree of belief in *B*, and the function $B \rightarrow Bel(B)$ is called a belief function.

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Plausibility function

• If the evidence does not support \overline{B} , it is consistent with B.



• The probability that the evidence is consistent with *B* is thus

$$Pl(B) = \sum_{A \cap B \neq \emptyset} m(A)$$
$$= 1 - Bel(\overline{B}).$$

• The number PI(B) is called the plausibility of *B*, and the function $B \rightarrow PI(B)$ is called a plausibility function.

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Two-dimensional representation

- The uncertainty on a proposition *B* is represented by two numbers: Bel(B) and Pl(B), with Bel(B) ≤ Pl(B).
- The intervals [*Bel*(*B*), *Pl*(*B*)] have maximum length when *m* is the vacuous mass function. Then,

[Bel(B), Pl(B)] = [0, 1]

for all subset *B* of Ω , except \emptyset and Ω .

 The intervals [Bel(B), Pl(B)] are reduced to points when the focal sets of m are singletons (m is then said to be Bayesian); then,

$$Bel(B) = Pl(B)$$

for all *B*, and *Bel* is a probability measure.

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Broken sensor example

From

$$m(A) = 0.9, \quad m(\Omega) = 0.1$$

we get

$$\begin{split} & \textit{Bel}(A) = \textit{m}(A) = 0.9, \quad \textit{Pl}(A) = \textit{m}(A) + \textit{m}(\Omega) = 1 \\ & \textit{Bel}(\overline{A}) = 0, \quad \textit{Pl}(\overline{A}) = \textit{m}(\Omega) = 0.1 \\ & \textit{Bel}(\Omega) = \textit{Pl}(\Omega) = 1 \end{split}$$

We observe that

$$egin{aligned} & extsf{Bel}(A \cup \overline{A}) \geq extsf{Bel}(A) + extsf{Bel}(\overline{A}) \ & extsf{Pl}(A \cup \overline{A}) \leq extsf{Pl}(A) + extsf{Pl}(\overline{A}) \end{aligned}$$

• Bel and Pl are non additive measures.

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Characterization of belief functions

• Function $Bel : 2^{\Omega} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a completely monotone capacity: it verifies $Bel(\emptyset) = 0, Bel(\Omega) = 1$ and

$$\textit{Bel}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \textit{A}_{i}\right) \geq \sum_{\emptyset \neq l \subseteq \{1, \dots, k\}} (-1)^{|l|+1} \textit{Bel}\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} \textit{A}_{i}\right).$$

for any $k \ge 2$ and for any family A_1, \ldots, A_k in 2^{Ω} .

• Conversely, to any completely monotone capacity *Bel* corresponds a unique mass function *m* such that:

$$m(A) = \sum_{\emptyset \neq B \subseteq A} (-1)^{|A| - |B|} Bel(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega.$$

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Relations between *m*, *Bel* and *Pl*

- Let *m* be a mass function, *Bel* and *Pl* the corresponding belief and plausibility functions
- For all $A \subseteq \Omega$,

$$Bel(A) = 1 - Pl(\overline{A})$$
$$m(A) = \sum_{\emptyset \neq B \subseteq A} (-1)^{|A| - |B|} Bel(B)$$
$$m(A) = \sum_{B \subseteq A} (-1)^{|A| - |B| + 1} Pl(\overline{B})$$

- m, Bel and Pl are thus three equivalent representations of
 - a piece of evidence or, equivalently
 - a state of belief induced by this evidence

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Relationship with Possibility theory

- When the focal sets of *m* are nested: A₁ ⊂ A₂ ⊂ ... ⊂ A_r, *m* is said to be consonant
- The following relations then hold

 $PI(A \cup B) = \max(PI(A), PI(B)), \quad \forall A, B \subseteq \Omega$

- Pl is this a possibility measure, and Bel is the dual necessity measure
- The possibility distribution is the contour function

$$pl(x) = Pl(\{x\}), \quad \forall x \in \Omega$$

• The theory of belief function can thus be considered as more expressive than possibility theory (but the combination operations are different, see later).

Credal set

A probability measure P on Ω is said to be compatible with m if

$$\forall A \subseteq \Omega$$
, $Bel(A) \leq P(A) \leq Pl(A)$

 The set P(m) of probability measures compatible with m is called the credal set of m

$$\mathcal{P}(m) = \{ \boldsymbol{P} : \forall \boldsymbol{A} \subseteq \Omega, \boldsymbol{Bel}(\boldsymbol{A}) \leq \boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{A}) \}$$

• Bel is the lower envelope of $\mathcal{P}(m)$

$$\forall A \subseteq \Omega$$
, $Bel(A) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}(m)} P(A)$

 Not all lower envelopes of sets of probability measures are belief functions!

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Outline



Basic notions

- Mass functions
- Belief and plausibility functions
- Dempster's rule

Selected advanced topics

- Informational orderings
- Cautious rule
- Belief functions on product spaces
- Belief functions on infinite spaces

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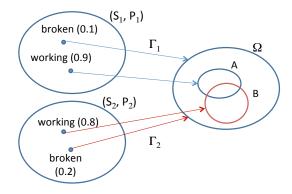
Broken sensor example continued

- The first item of evidence gave us: $m_1(A) = 0.9$, $m_1(\Omega) = 0.1$.
- Another sensor returns another set of values *B*, and it is in working condition with probability 0.8.
- This second piece if evidence can be represented by the mass function: $m_2(B) = 0.8, m_2(\Omega) = 0.2$
- How to combine these two pieces of evidence?

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Analysis



- If interpretations $s_1 \in S_1$ and $s_2 \in S_2$ both hold, then $X \in \Gamma_1(s_1) \cap \Gamma_2(s_2)$
- If the two pieces of evidence are independent, then the probability that s₁ and s₂ both hold is P₁({s₁})P₂({s₂})

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Computation

	S ₂ working	S_2 broken	
	(0.8)	(0.2)	
S_1 working (0.9)	<i>A</i> ∩ <i>B</i> , 0.72	A, 0.18	
<i>S</i> ₁ broken (0.1)	<i>B</i> , 0.08	Ω, 0.02	

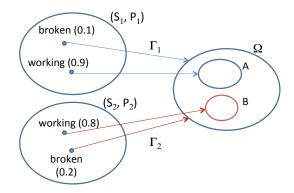
We then get the following combined mass function,

$$m(A \cap B) = 0.72$$
$$m(A) = 0.18$$
$$m(B) = 0.08$$
$$m(\Omega) = 0.02$$

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Case of conflicting pieces of evidence



- If $\Gamma_1(s_1) \cap \Gamma_2(s_2) = \emptyset$, we know that s_1 and s_2 cannot hold simultaneously
- The joint probability distribution on $S_1 \times S_2$ must be conditioned to eliminate impossible pairs of interpretation

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Computation

	S_2 working	S_2 broken
	(0.8)	(0.2)
S_1 working (0.9)	Ø, 0.72	A, 0.18
<i>S</i> ₁ broken (0.1)	<i>B</i> , 0.08	Ω, 0.02

We then get the following combined mass function,

$$m(\emptyset) = 0$$

 $m(A) = 0.18/0.28 \approx 0.64$
 $m(B) = 0.08/0.28 \approx 0.29$
 $m(\Omega) = 0.02/0.28 \approx 0.07$

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Dempster's rule

• Let *m*₁ and *m*₂ be two mass functions and

$$\kappa = \sum_{B \cap C = \emptyset} m_1(B) m_2(C)$$

their degree of conflict

• If $\kappa < 1$, then m_1 and m_2 can be combined as

$$(m_1 \oplus m_2)(A) = \frac{1}{1-\kappa} \sum_{B \cap C=A} m_1(B)m_2(C), \quad \forall A \neq \emptyset$$

and $(m_1 \oplus m_2)(\emptyset) = 0$

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Dempster's rule

Properties

- Commutativity, associativity. Neutral element: m_?
- Generalization of intersection: if m_[A] and m_[B] are logical mass functions and A ∩ B ≠ Ø, then

$$m_{[A]} \oplus m_{[B]} = m_{[A \cap B]}$$

If either *m*₁ or *m*₂ is Bayesian, then so is *m*₁ ⊕ *m*₂ (as the intersection of a singleton with another subset is either a singleton, or the empty set).

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Dempster's conditioning

 Conditioning is a special case, where a mass function *m* is combined with a logical mass function m_[A]. Notation:

$$m \oplus m_{[A]} = m(\cdot|A)$$

It can be shown that

$$PI(B|A) = rac{PI(A \cap B)}{PI(A)}.$$

• Generalization of Bayes' conditioning: if *m* is a Bayesian mass function and $m_{[A]}$ is a logical mass function, then $m \oplus m_{[A]}$ is a Bayesian mass function corresponding to the conditioning of *m* by *A*

Commonality function

• Commonality function: let $Q: 2^{\Omega} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be defined as

$$Q(A) = \sum_{B \supseteq A} m(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

$$m(A) = \sum_{B \supseteq A} (-1)^{|B \setminus A|} Q(B)$$

• *Q* is another equivalent representation of a belief function.

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Commonality function and Dempster's rule

- Let Q_1 and Q_2 be the commonality functions associated to m_1 and m_2 .
- Let $Q_1 \oplus Q_2$ be the commonality function associated to $m_1 \oplus m_2$.
- We have

$$(Q_1 \oplus Q_2)(A) = \frac{1}{1-\kappa}Q_1(A) \cdot Q_2(A), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega, A \neq \emptyset$$

 $(Q_1 \oplus Q_2)(\emptyset) = 1$

• In particular, $pl(\omega) = Q(\{\omega\})$. Consequently,

$$pl_1\oplus pl_2=(1-\kappa)^{-1}pl_1pl_2.$$

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Remarks on normalization

- Mass functions expressing pieces of evidence are always normalized
- Smets introduced the unnormalized Dempster's rule (TBM conjunctive rule ()), which may yield an unnormalized mass function
- He proposed to interpret m(Ø) as the mass committed to the hypothesis that X might not take its value in Ω (open-world assumption)
- I now think that this interpretation is problematic, as m(∅) increases mechanically when combining more and more items of evidence
- Claim: unnormalized mass functions (and ∩) are convenient mathematically, but only normalized mass functions make sense
- In particular, *Bel* and *Pl* should always be computed from normalized mass functions

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TBM disjunctive rule

- Let (S₁, P₁, Γ₁) and (S₂, P₂, Γ₂) be sources associated to two pieces of evidence
- If interpretation s_k ∈ S_k holds and piece of evidence k is reliable, then we can conclude that X ∈ Γ_k(s_k)
- If interpretation s ∈ S₁ and s₂ ∈ S₂ both hold and we assume that at least one of the two pieces of evidence is reliable, then we can conclude that X ∈ Γ₁(s₁) ∪ Γ₂(s₂)
- This leads to the TBM disjunctive rule:

$$(m_1 \odot m_2)(A) = \sum_{B \cup C = A} m_1(B) m_2(C), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

• $Bel_1 \bigcirc Bel_2 = Bel_1 \cdot Bel_2$

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Outline

Basic notions

- Mass functions
- Belief and plausibility functions
- Dempster's rule

Selected advanced topics Informational orderings

- Cautious rule
- Belief functions on product spaces
- Belief functions on infinite spaces

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Informational comparison of belief functions

- Let m₁ and m₂ be two mass functions on Ω
- In what sense can we say that m₁ is more informative (committed) than m₂?
- Special case:
 - Let *m*_[A] and *m*_[B] be two logical mass functions
 - $m_{[A]}$ is more committed than $m_{[B]}$ iff $A \subseteq B$
- Extension to arbitrary mass functions?

Plausibility ordering

• m_1 is pl-more committed than m_2 (noted $m_1 \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_2$) if

$$Pl_1(A) \leq Pl_2(A), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

or, equivalently,

$$\textit{Bel}_1(\textit{A}) \geq \textit{Bel}_2(\textit{A}), \quad \forall \textit{A} \subseteq \Omega$$

Imprecise probability interpretation:

$$m_1 \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_2 \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{P}(m_1) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(m_2)$$

• Properties:

Extension of set inclusion:

$$m_{[A]} \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_{[B]} \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B$$

• Greatest element: vacuous mass function m?

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Informational orderings

Commonality ordering

- If $m_1 = m \oplus m_2$ for some m, and if there is no conflict between m and m_2 , then $Q_1(A) = Q(A)Q_2(A) \le Q_2(A)$ for all $A \subseteq \Omega$
- This property suggests that smaller values of the commonality function are associated with richer information content of the mass function
- m_1 is q-more committed than m_2 (noted $m_1 \sqsubseteq_q m_2$) if

$$Q_1(A) \leq Q_2(A), \quad orall A \subseteq \Omega$$

- Properties:
 - Extension of set inclusion:

$$m_{[A]} \sqsubseteq_q m_{[B]} \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B$$

Greatest element: vacuous mass function m?

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Strong (specialization) ordering

*m*₁ is a specialization of *m*₂ (noted *m*₁ ⊑_s *m*₂) if *m*₁ can be obtained from *m*₂ by distributing each mass *m*₂(*B*) to subsets of *B*:

$$m_1(A) = \sum_{B \subseteq \Omega} S(A, B) m_2(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega,$$

where S(A, B) = proportion of $m_2(B)$ transferred to $A \subseteq B$

- S: specialization matrix
- Properties:
 - Extension of set inclusion
 - Greatest element: m?

•
$$m_1 \sqsubseteq_s m_2 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} m_1 \sqsubseteq_{pl} m_2 \\ m_1 \sqsubseteq_q m_2 \end{cases}$$

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Least Commitment Principle

Definition

Definition (Least Commitment Principle)

When several belief functions are compatible with a set of constraints, the least informative according to some informational ordering (if it exists) should be selected

A very powerful method for constructing belief functions!

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Outline

- Mass functions
- •

Selected advanced topics

Informational orderings

Cautious rule

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Cautious rule

Motivations

- The basic rules \oplus and \odot assume the sources of information to be independent, e.g.
 - experts with non overlapping experience/knowledge
 - non overlapping datasets
- What to do in case of non independent evidence?
 - Describe the nature of the interaction between sources (difficult, requires a lot of information)
 - Use a combination rule that tolerates redundancy in the combined information
- Such rules can be derived from the LCP using suitable informational orderings

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Cautious rule Principle

- Two sources provide mass functions m_1 and m_2 , and the sources are both considered to be reliable
- After receiving these m_1 and m_2 , the agent's state of belief should be represented by a mass function m_{12} more committed than m_1 , and more committed than m_2
- Let $\mathcal{S}_x(m)$ be the set of mass functions m' such that $m' \sqsubset_x m$, for some $x \in \{pl, q, s, \dots\}$. We thus impose that

$$m_{12} \in \mathcal{S}_x(m_1) \cap \mathcal{S}_x(m_2)$$

According to the LCP, we should select the x-least committed element in $S_x(m_1) \cap S_x(m_2)$, if it exists

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Problem

- The above approach works for special cases
- Example (Dubois, Prade, Smets 2001): if m_1 and m_2 are consonant, then the *q*-least committed element in $S_q(m_1) \cap S_q(m_2)$ exists and it is unique: it is the consonant mass function with commonality function $Q_{12} = \min(Q_1, Q_2)$
- In general, neither existence nor uniqueness of a solution can be guaranteed with any of the *x*-orderings, *x* ∈ {*pl*, *q*, *s*}
- We need to define a new ordering relation

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Simple and separable mass functions

• Definition: *m* is simple mass function if it has the following form

$$m(A) = 1 - w(A)$$

 $m(\Omega) = w(A)$

for some $A \subset \Omega$, $A \neq \emptyset$ and $w(A) \in [0, 1]$. It is denoted by $A^{w(A)}$.

• Property:
$$A^{w_1(A)} \oplus A^{w_2(A)} = A^{w_1(A)w_2(A)}$$

A (normalized) mass function is separable if it can be written as the

 combination of simple mass functions

$$m = \bigoplus_{\emptyset \neq A \subset \Omega} A^{w(A)}$$

with $0 \le w(A) \le 1$ for all $A \subset \Omega$, $A \ne \emptyset$

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The *w*-ordering

- Let m_1 and m_2 be two mass functions
- We say that m_1 is w-less committed than m_2 (denoted by $m_1 \sqsubset_w m_2$) if

 $m_1 = m_2 \oplus m$

for some separable mass function m

How to check this condition?

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Weight function Definition

- Let *m* be a non dogmatic mass function, i.e., $m(\Omega) > 0$
- The weight function $w: 2^{\Omega} \to (0, +\infty)$ is defined by $w(\Omega) = 1$ and

$$\ln w(A) = -\sum_{B \supseteq A} (-1)^{|B| - |A|} \ln Q(B), \quad \forall A \subset \Omega$$

It can be shown that Q can be recovered from w as follows

$$\ln Q(A) = -\sum_{\Omega \supset B \not\supseteq A} \ln w(B), \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega$$

m can also be recovered from w by

$$m = \bigoplus_{\emptyset \neq A \subset \Omega} A^{w(A)}$$

although $A^{w(A)}$ is not a proper mass function when w(A) > 1・ロット (雪) (日) (日)

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Weight function Properties

m is separable iff

$$w(A) \leq 1, \quad \forall A \subset \Omega, A \neq \emptyset$$

Dempster's rule can be computed using the w-function by

$$m_1 \oplus m_2 = \bigoplus_{\emptyset \neq A \subset \Omega} A^{w_1(A)w_2(A)}$$

Characterization of the w-ordering

 $m_1 \sqsubseteq_w m_2 \Leftrightarrow w_1(A) \le w_2(A), \quad \forall A \subset \Omega, A \neq \emptyset$

Definition

- Let m₁ and m₂ be two non dogmatic mass functions with weight functions w₁ and w₂
- The *w*-least committed element in S_w(m₁) ∩ S_w(m₂) exists and is unique. It is defined by:

$$m_1 \bigotimes m_2 = \bigoplus_{\emptyset \neq A \subset \Omega} A^{\min(w_1(A), w_2(A))}$$

• Operator () is called the (normalized) cautious rule

Computation

Cautious rule computation

<i>m</i> -space		w-space
<i>m</i> ₁	\longrightarrow	<i>W</i> ₁
<i>m</i> ₂	\longrightarrow	<i>W</i> ₂
$m_1 \bigotimes m_2$	<i>←</i>	$\min(w_1, w_2)$

Remark: we often have simple mass functions in the first place, so that the w function is readily available.

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Cautious rule

Properties

- Commutative, associative
- Idempotent : $\forall m, m \land m = m$
- Distributivity of ⊕ with respect to ∧

 $(m_1 \oplus m_2) \otimes (m_1 \oplus m_3) = m_1 \oplus (m_2 \otimes m_3), \forall m_1, m_2, m_3$

The common item of evidence m_1 is not counted twice!

• No neutral element, but $m_? \oslash m = m$ iff m is separable

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Basic rules

All reliable \oplus \bigcirc At least one reliable \bigcirc \bigcirc	Sources	independent	dependent
At least one reliable (0) (V)	All reliable	\oplus	\bigcirc
Ŭ	At least one reliable	\bigcirc	\bigotimes

 \odot is the bold disjunctive rule

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Outline

Basic notions

- Mass functions
- Belief and plausibility functions
- Dempster's rule

Selected advanced topics

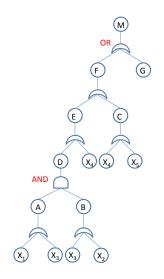
- Informational orderings
- Cautious rule
- Belief functions on product spaces
- Belief functions on infinite spaces

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Belief functions on product spaces

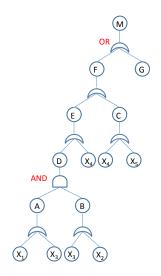
Motivation

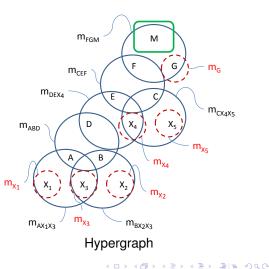


- In many applications, we need to express uncertain information about several variables taking values in different domains
- Example: fault tree (logical relations between Boolean variables and probabilistic or evidential information about elementary events)

Fault tree example

(Dempster & Kong, 1988)





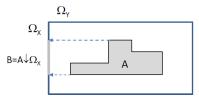
Multidimensional belief functions

Marginalization, vacuous extension

- Let X and Y be two variables defined on frames Ω_X and Ω_Y
- Let $\Omega_{XY} = \Omega_X \times \Omega_Y$ be the product frame
- A mass function m_{XY} on Ω_{XY} can be seen as an generalized relation between variables X and Y
- Two basic operations on product frames
 - Express a joint mass function m_{XY} in the coarser frame Ω_X or Ω_Y (marginalization)
 - Subscripts a marginal mass function m_X on Ω_X in the finer frame Ω_{XY} (vacuous extension)

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Marginalization



Marginal mass function

- Problem: express m_{XY} in Ω_X
- Solution: transfer each mass m_{XY}(A) to the projection of A on Ω_X

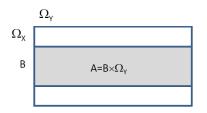
$$m_{XY\downarrow X}(B) = \sum_{\{A\subseteq \Omega_{XY}, A\downarrow \Omega_X = B\}} m_{XY}(A) \quad \forall B \subseteq \Omega_X$$

Generalizes both set projection and probabilistic marginalization

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Vacuous extension



- Problem: express m_X in Ω_{XY}
- Solution: transfer each mass m_X(B) to the cylindrical extension of B: B × Ω_Y

Image: A matrix

Vacuous extension:

$$m_{X\uparrow XY}(A) = egin{cases} m_X(B) & ext{if } A = B imes \Omega_Y \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• B > < B</p>

Operations in product frames

Application to approximate reasoning

• Assume that we have:

- Partial knowledge of X formalized as a mass function m_X
- A joint mass function m_{XY} representing an uncertain relation between X and Y
- What can we say about Y?
- Solution:

$$m_Y = \left(m_{X\uparrow XY} \oplus m_{XY}\right)_{\downarrow Y}$$

• Simpler notation:

$$m_Y = (m_X \oplus m_{XY})_{\downarrow Y}$$

 Infeasible with many variables and large frames of discernment, but efficient algorithms exist to carry out the operations in frames of minimal dimensions

Thierry	Denœux
	Bontoban

Outline

Basic notions

- Mass functions
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- Dempster's rule

Selected advanced topics

- Informational orderings
- Cautious rule
- Belief functions on product spaces
- Belief functions on infinite spaces

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Belief function: general definition

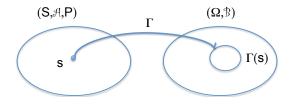
- Let Ω be a set (finite or not) and B be an algebra of subsets of Ω (a nonempty family of subsets of Ω, closed under complementation and finite intersection).
- A belief function (BF) on \mathcal{B} is a mapping $Bel : \mathcal{B} \to [0, 1]$ verifying $Bel(\emptyset) = 0, Bel(\Omega) = 1$ and the complete monotonicity property: for any $k \ge 2$ and any collection B_1, \ldots, B_k of elements of \mathcal{B} ,

$$\textit{Bel}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{k}B_{i}\right)\geq \sum_{\emptyset\neq I\subseteq\{1,\ldots,k\}}(-1)^{|I|+1}\textit{Bel}\left(\bigcap_{i\in I}B_{i}\right)$$

A function Pl : B → [0, 1] is a plausibility function iff B → 1 − Pl(B) is a belief function

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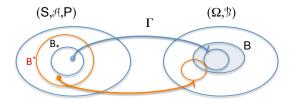
Source



- Let S be a state space, A an algebra of subsets of S, ℙ a finitely additive probability on (S, A)
- Let Ω be a set and ${\mathcal B}$ an algebra of subsets of Ω
- Γ a multivalued mapping from *S* to $2^{\Omega} \setminus \{\emptyset\}$
- The four-tuple $(S, A, \mathbb{P}, \Gamma)$ is called a source
- Under some conditions, it induces a belief function on (Ω, B)

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Strong measurability



• Lower and upper inverses: for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$${\sf \Gamma}_*({\it B})={\it B}_*=\{{\it s}\in{\it S}|{\sf \Gamma}({\it s})
eq\emptyset,{\sf \Gamma}({\it s})\subseteq{\it B}\}$$

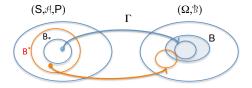
$$\Gamma^*(B) = B^* = \{ s \in S | \Gamma(s) \cap B \neq \emptyset \}$$

Γ is strongly measurable wrt A and B if, for all B ∈ B, B* ∈ A
(∀B ∈ B, B* ∈ A) ⇔ (∀B ∈ B, B* ∈ A)

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Belief function induced by a source

Lower and upper probabilities



• Lower and upper probabilities:

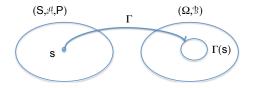
$$orall B\in \mathcal{B}, \;\; \mathbb{P}_*(B)=rac{\mathbb{P}(B_*)}{\mathbb{P}(\Omega^*)}, \;\;\; \mathbb{P}^*(B)=rac{\mathbb{P}(B^*)}{\mathbb{P}(\Omega^*)}=1-\textit{Bel}(\overline{B})$$

- \mathbb{P}_* is a BF, and \mathbb{P}^* is the dual plausibility function
- Conversely, for any belief function, there is a source that induces it (Shafer's thesis, 1973)

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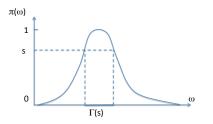
Interpretation



- Typically, Ω is the domain of an unknown quantity ω, and S is a set of interpretations of a given piece of evidence about ω
- If $s \in S$ holds, then the evidence tells us that $\omega \in \Gamma(s)$, and nothing more
- Then
 - Bel(B) is the probability that the evidence supports B
 - PI(B) is the probability that the evidence is consistent with B

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Consonant belief function



- Let π be a mapping from Ω to S = [0, 1] s.t. sup $\pi = 1$
- Let Γ be the multi-valued mapping from S to 2^{Ω} defined by

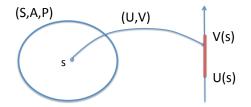
$$\forall s \in [0, 1], \quad \Gamma(s) = \{\omega \in \Omega | \pi(\omega) \ge s\}$$

- The source $(S, \mathcal{B}(S), \lambda, \Gamma)$ defines a consonant BF on Ω , such that $pl(\omega) = \pi(\omega)$ (contour function)
- The corresponding plausibility function is a possibility measure

$$\forall B \subseteq \Omega, \quad PI(B) = \sup_{\omega \in B} pI(\omega)$$

Thierry Denœux

Random closed interval



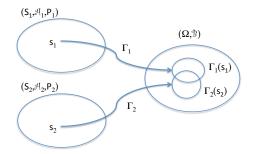
- Let (U, V) be a bi-dimensional random vector from a probability space (S, A, ℙ) to ℝ² such that U ≤ V a.s.
- Multi-valued mapping:

$$\Gamma: s \to \Gamma(s) = [U(s), V(s)]$$

 The source (S, A, P, Γ) is a random closed interval. It defines a BF on (R, B(R))

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Dempster's rule



- Let (S_i, A_i, ℙ_i, Γ_i), i = 1, 2 be two sources representing independent items of evidence, inducing BF Bel₁ and Bel₂
- The combined BF $Bel = Bel_1 \oplus Bel_2$ is induced by the source $(S_1 \times S_2, \mathcal{A}_1 \otimes \mathcal{A}_2, \mathbb{P}_1 \otimes \mathbb{P}_2, \Gamma_{\cap})$ with

$$\Gamma_{\cap}(s_1,s_2) = \Gamma_1(s_1) \cap \Gamma_2(s_2)$$

Approximate computation

Monte Carlo simulation

```
Require: Desired number of focal sets N
    i \leftarrow 0
    while i < N do
        Draw s_1 in S_1 from \mathbb{P}_1
        Draw s_2 in S_2 from \mathbb{P}_2
        \Gamma_{\cap}(s_1, s_2) \leftarrow \Gamma_1(s_1) \cap \Gamma_2(s_2)
       if \Gamma_{\cap}(s_1, s_2) \neq \emptyset then
           i \leftarrow i + 1
            B_i \leftarrow \Gamma_{\cap}(s_1, s_2)
        end if
    end while
    Bel(B) \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \# \{i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} | B_i \subseteq B\}
    \widehat{PI}(B) \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \# \{i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} | B_i \cap B \neq \emptyset\}
```

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Summary

- The theory of belief functions: a very general formalism for representing imprecision and uncertainty that extends both probabilistic and set-theoretic frameworks
 - Belief functions can be seen both as generalized sets and as generalized probability measures
 - Reasoning mechanisms extend both set-theoretic notions (intersection, union, cylindrical extension, inclusion relations, etc.) and probabilistic notions (conditioning, marginalization, Bayes theorem, stochastic ordering, etc.)
- The theory of belief function can also be seen as more geneal than Possibility theory (possibility measures are particular plausibility functions)
- The mathematical theory of belief functions in infinite spaces exists. We need practical models

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cf. http://www.hds.utc.fr/~tdenoeux



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