

Lecture Notes on the Optimizer's Curse

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A Note to the Student: These lecture notes are not a substitute for the thorough study of articles and books. These notes are no more than an aid in following the lectures.

§ Sources:

- Smith, James E. and Robert L. Winkler, 2006, The optimizer's curse: Skepticism and postdecision surprise in decision analysis, *Management Science*, Vol. 52, No. 3, pp.311–322.
- Thaler, Richard H., 1992, *The Winner's Curse: Paradoxes and Anomalies of Economic Life*, Princeton University Press.

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1 Probabilistic Analysis

1.1 Formulation

§ N alternatives: $1, \dots, n$.

- $v_i = \mathbf{Unknown}$ true value of i th alternative. $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)^T$.
- $V_i = \mathbf{Known}$ estimated value of i th alternative. $V = (V_1, \dots, V_n)^T$.

§ **Regret:**

- Choose alternative i , expecting V_i .
- Obtain realized outcome y_i .
- Regret, or disappointment: $V_i - y_i$.
Positive regret if $y_i < V_i$.

§ **Unbiased estimates:**

$$\mathbb{E}(V_i|v) = v_i \quad (1)$$

Thus, for any choice i , the expected regret is zero:

$$\mathbb{E}(V_i - y_i|v) = 0 \quad (2)$$

This is because:

$$\mathbb{E}(V_i|v) = v_i = \mathbb{E}(y_i|v) \quad (3)$$

§ **Best-model optimization:**

$$i^* = \arg \max_i V_i \quad (4)$$

§ **Expect positive regret from V_{i^*} .**

- Example:
 - Suppose $\mathbb{E}(v_i) = \mu$ for all i .
 - Anticipate $\mathbb{E}(V_{i^*}) > \mu$ since:
 - V_{i^*} is the maximum of n estimates.
 - V_{i^*} will tend to be on upper tail. (Example: best grade of n exams.)
 - Hence $\mathbb{E}(V_{i^*} - y_{i^*}) = \mathbb{E}(V_{i^*}) - \mu > 0$.
- Meaning: On average, best-estimate optimum:
 - **Is over-estimate.**
 - **Has positive regret.**
- We will explore this more deeply later.

1.2 Simple Examples

§ We consider some simple examples from Smith and Winkler (2006).

1.2.1 3 Zero-Mean Alternatives

§ The true values, v_i , are all precisely equal zero. They are not random variables.

§ The estimates, V_i , are all $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. See fig. 1.

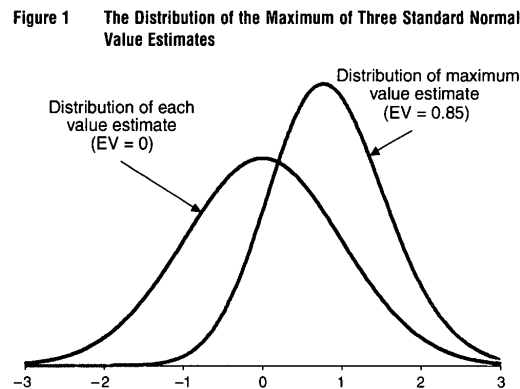


Figure 1: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

§ The mean of the distribution of V_{i^*} is 0.85.

(We will understand this more deeply later.)

§ Thus the average regret, $E(V_{i^*} - 0)$, is 0.85.

§ **More generally**, suppose:

- The true values are $v_i = \mu$ for all i . They are not random variables.
- The estimates, V_i , are all $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
- Then $E(v_{i^*}) = 0.85\sigma$ which is the average regret.

1.2.2 n Zero-Mean Alternatives

§ If:

- $v_i = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$ (not random variable).
- $V_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

§ Then the regret increases as n increases. See fig. 2.

This makes sense:

- V_{i^*} is the maximum of n estimates.
- This maximum tends to increase as n increases.

Figure 2 The Distribution of the Maximum of n Standard Normal Value Estimates

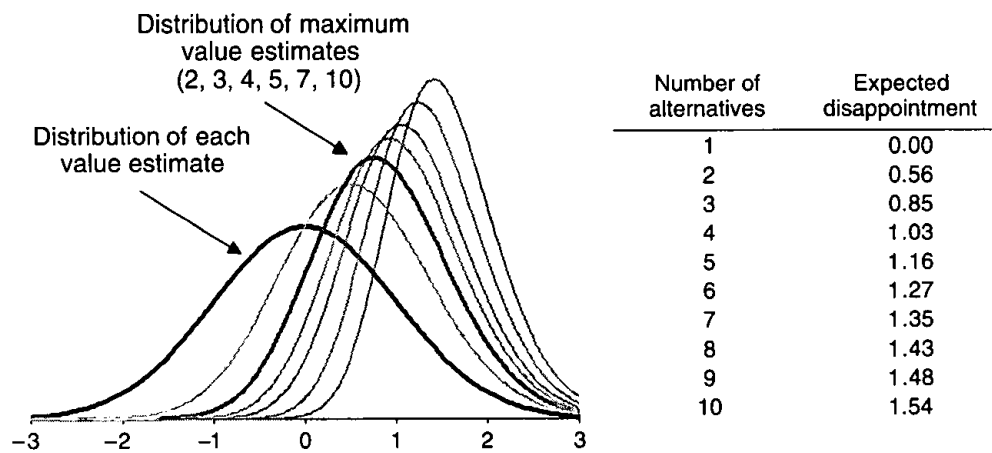


Figure 2: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 2.

1.2.3 3 Different Alternatives

§ The true values are $v_i = -\Delta, 0, \Delta$. Not random variables.

§ The estimates are unbiased normal with unit standard deviation: $V_i \sim \mathcal{N}(v_i, 1)$.

§ As the alternatives become more different, we should expect V_{i^*} to become a better bet. See fig. 3.

Figure 3 The Distribution of Maximum Value Estimates with Separation Between Alternatives

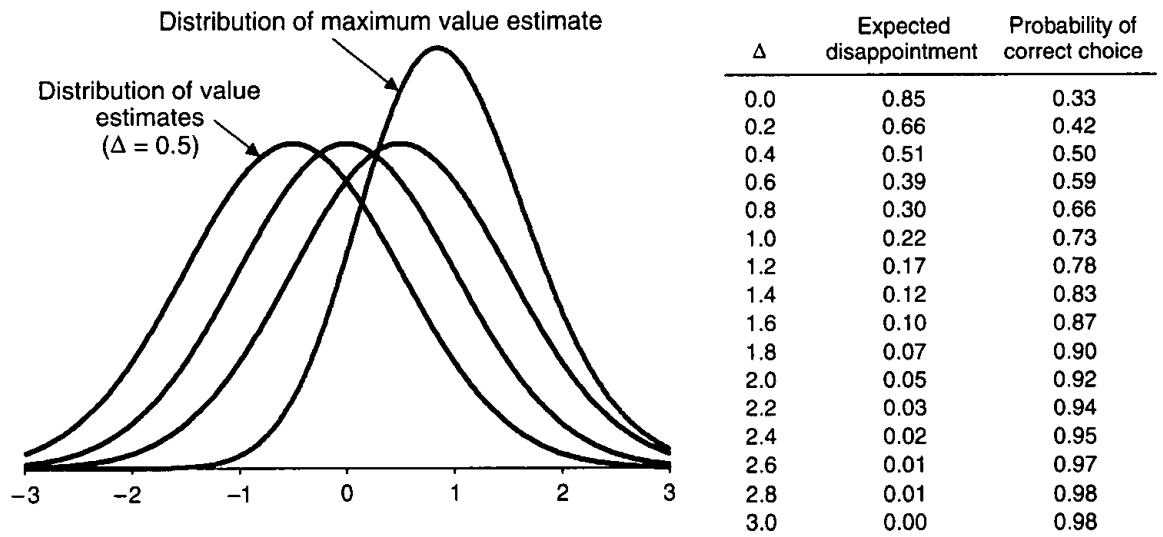


Figure 3: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 3.

1.3 Distribution of V_{i^*}

§ In this section we derive and study the distribution of V_{i^*} .

- We will understand why its mean exceeds $E(V_i)$.

• Source: DeGroot, Morris H., 1986, *Probability and Statistics*, 2nd ed., Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA. Section 3.2, pp.182–183.

§ V_i is the estimated value of the i th alternative.

- Its cumulative probability distribution (cpd) is $F_i(y)$.
- All the V_i are statistically independent.

§ $V_{i^*} = \max_i V_i$.

Its cpd is $G(y)$, derived as follows:

$$G(y) = \text{Prob}(V_{i^*} \leq y) \tag{5}$$

$$= \text{Prob}(V_1 \leq y, \dots, V_n \leq y) \tag{6}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n F_i(y) \tag{7}$$

§ If the V_i are i.i.d. with cpd $F(y)$ and pdf $f(y)$ then:

$$G(y) = [F(y)]^n \tag{8}$$

$$g(y) = n[F(y)]^{n-1}f(y) \tag{9}$$

§ Now compare $E(V_{i^*})$ and $E(V_i)$ for i.i.d. case:

$$E(V_{i^*}) = \int yn[F(y)]^{n-1}f(y) dy \tag{10}$$

$$E(V_i) = \int yf(y) dy \tag{11}$$

Thus:

$$E(V_{i^*}) - E(V_i) = \int yf(y) (n[F(y)]^{n-1} - 1) dy \tag{12}$$

This integral is positive for $n \geq 2$, as we now explain intuitively.

§ Define y_n as the value for which: $n[F(y_n)]^{n-1} = 1$.

- Hence: $F(y_n) = (1/n)^{1/(n-1)}$.

- Some values:

n : 2, 5, 10, 100.

$(1/n)^{1/(n-1)}$: 0.5, 0.67, 0.74, 0.95.

Thus y_n gets large as n gets large.

- Note that $n[F(y)]^{n-1} \leq 1$ iff $y \leq y_n$.
- Hence, from eq.(9), note that $g(y) \leq f(y)$ for $y \leq y_n$.
- Thus, since $g(y)$ is normalized, it is shifted to the right wrt $f(y)$.
- Thus, $E(V_{i^*}) \geq E(V_i)$.

1.4 Optimizer's Curse Theorem

Theorem 1 *The expected regret from the estimated optimal alternative is non-negative.*

Given:

- $V = (V_1, \dots, V_n)^T$ are estimated values of n alternatives. These are random variables.
- The estimates are unbiased: $E(V_i|v) = v_i$.
- $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)^T$ are true values of n alternatives.
- $i^* = \arg \max_i V_i$ is the index of the most favorable estimate.

Then:

$$E(V_{i^*} - v_{i^*}|v) \geq 0 \quad (13)$$

where the expectation is with respect to V conditioned on v .

Proof. Define $i' = \arg \max_i v_i$. Then:

$$V_{i^*} - v_{i^*} \geq V_{i^*} - v_{i'} \geq V_{i'} - v_{i'} \quad (14)$$

- The left inequality is because $v_{i'} \geq v_{i^*}$.
- The right inequality is because $V_{i^*} \geq V_{i'}$.

Now take expectations of eq.(14) w.r.t. V , conditioned on v :

$$E(V_{i^*} - v_{i^*}|v) \geq E(V_{i^*} - v_{i'}|v) \geq 0 \quad (15)$$

- The 0 on the right is because the estimates are unbiased: $E(V_{i'} - v_{i'}|v) = 0$.
- Eq.(15) implies eq.(13). ■

2 Info-Gap Analysis

§ Related material in “Lecture Notes on Robust-Satisficing Behavior”, section 6: Probability of Success. File: lectures\risk\lectures\rsb02.tex.

§ **Question:** Since V_{i^*} is an unreliable estimate, what should we do?

§ **A Potential answer. Bayesian analysis** (Smith and Winkler, 2006):

- Posit prior probabilities for v and conditional probabilities for V given v .
- Use Bayes' rule to determine posterior probability of v given V .
- Choose alternative based on posterior means, $E(v_i|V)$:

$$i^* = \arg \max_i E(v_i|V) \quad (16)$$

- Smith and Winkler (2006) show that this solution does not have the optimizer's curse!
- **The problem:** where do you get these pdf's?

§ **A potential answer. Info-gap robust-satisficing:**

- Satisfice the value: $v_i \geq V_c$. (We will find the regret entering later.)
- Maximize the robustness.

§ **A potential answer. Info-gap opportune-windfalling:**

- Windfall the value: $v_i \geq V_w$ where $V_w \gg V_c$.
- Maximize the opportuneness.

§ **We will explore:**

- Robust-satisficing.
- Proxy theorems.

2.1 Robustness: Formulation

§ **Observations:** known estimated values of n alternatives: $V = (V_1, \dots, V_n)^T$.

§ **Uncertainty:**

- Unknown true values of n alternatives: $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)^T$.
- $\mathcal{V}(h)$ = info-gap model for v . E.g.:

$$\mathcal{V}(h) = \left\{ v : \left| \frac{v_i - V_i}{s_i} \right| \leq h, \forall i \right\}, \quad h \geq 0 \quad (17)$$

Or:

$$\mathcal{V}(h) = \{v : (v - V)^T S^{-1}(v - V) \leq h^2\}, \quad h \geq 0 \quad (18)$$

§ **Decision:** r is the decision vector. E.g.:

- A standard unit basis vector, selecting a single alternative.
- An n -vector probability distribution selecting a randomized mix of alternatives.

§ **Performance function.** Value:

$$G(r, v) = r^T v \quad (19)$$

§ **Performance requirement.** Satisfice the value:

$$G(r, v) \geq G_c \quad (20)$$

§ **Robustness:**

$$\hat{h}(r, G_c) = \max \left\{ h : \left(\min_{v \in \mathcal{V}(h)} r^T v \right) \geq G_c \right\} \quad (21)$$

2.2 Robustness: Simple Example

§ We evaluate the robustness, eq.(21), with the info-gap model of eq.(17).

§ Let $\mu(h)$ denote the inner minimum in eq.(21).

- $\mu(h)$ occurs when $r^T v$ is minimal.
- The elements of r are non-negative, so $\mu(h)$ occurs when each v_i is minimal:

$$\mu(h) = \sum_{i=1}^n (V_i - s_i h) r_i \quad (22)$$

$$= r^T V - h r^T s \quad (23)$$

Equating this to G_c and solving for h yields the robustness:

$$\hat{h}(r, G_c) = \frac{r^T V - G_c}{r^T s} \quad (24)$$

or zero if this is negative.

§ **Regret.** The numerator in eq.(24) is a regret:

- Regret: outcome lower than expectation.
- $r^T V$: expected outcome.
- Outcome G_c would cause regret $r^T V - G_c$.
- **Zero regret** has **zero robustness**.
- **Positive regret** has **positive robustness**.

§ **Preference reversal.** It is evident from eq.(24) that robustness curves of different decisions can cross one another.

2.3 Probability of Success and the Proxy Property

§ Probability of success:

- Define $q = r^T v$.
- Requirement: $q \geq G_c$.
- $p(q|r)$ = pdf of q given r , which is unknown.
- $P_s(r, G_c)$ = probability of satisfying the requirement with r :

$$P_s(r, G_c) = \text{Prob}(q \geq G_c) = \int_{G_c}^{\infty} p(q|r) dq \quad (25)$$

§ Probabilistic preferences:

$$r_1 \succ_p r_2 \quad \text{if} \quad P_s(r_1, G_c) > P_s(r_2, G_c) \quad (26)$$

§ Robust-satisficing preferences:

$$r_1 \succ_r r_2 \quad \text{if} \quad \hat{h}(r_1, G_c) > \hat{h}(r_2, G_c) \quad (27)$$

§ Proxy Property:

Definition 1 $Q_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$ have the **proxy property** at decisions r_1 and r_2 and critical value G_c , with performance function $G(r, q)$, if:

$$\hat{h}(r_1, G_c) > \hat{h}(r_2, G_c) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad P_s(r_1, G_c) > P_s(r_2, G_c) \quad (28)$$

- The proxy property is symmetric between robustness and probability of success.
- We are particularly interested in the implication from robustness to probability.
- Thus, when the proxy property holds we will sometimes say that robustness is a proxy for probability of success.

§ **Proxy theorem:** The proxy property holds if and only if the info-gap model and the probability distribution are “coherent”. We will return to the idea of coherence in section 2.6.

2.4 Proxy Property: Simple Examples

§ Before discussion coherence we examine simple examples of the proxy property, based on the simple example in section 2.2.

2.4.1 Normal Distribution

§ Let $q = r^T v$ be normal:

$$q \sim \mathcal{N}[r^T V, (r^T s)c] \quad (29)$$

where $c > 0$.

§ The probability of success, eq.(25), is:

$$P_s(r, G_c) = \text{Prob}(q \geq G_c) \quad (30)$$

$$= \text{Prob}\left(\frac{q - r^T V}{(r^T s)c} \geq \frac{G_c - r^T V}{(r^T s)c}\right) \quad (31)$$

$$= 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{G_c - r^T V}{(r^T s)c}\right) \quad (32)$$

$$= 1 - \Phi\left(-\frac{\hat{h}(r, G_c)}{c}\right) \quad (33)$$

where eq.(33) results from eq.(24). $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cdf of the standard normal variable.

§ Proxy property holds.

- From eq.(33) we see that $P_s(r, G_c)$ depends on r only through $\hat{h}(r, G_c)$.
- Hence eq.(33) implies eq.(28) and the proxy property holds.

2.4.2 Uniform Distribution

§ Define uniform distributions as:

$$p(y|a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq y \leq b \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

§ Suppose $q = r^T v$ is uniform, $p(q|a, b)$, where:

$$a = r^T V - \frac{c}{2} r^T s \quad (35)$$

$$b = r^T V + \frac{c}{2} r^T s \quad (36)$$

where $c > 0$.

§ **Probability of success**, as in eqs.(30) and (31), is:

$$P_s(r, G_c) = \text{Prob}(q \geq G_c) \quad (37)$$

$$= \text{Prob}\left(\frac{q - r^T V}{(r^T s)c} \geq \frac{G_c - r^T V}{(r^T s)c}\right) \quad (38)$$

§ **Define:**

$$z = \frac{q - r^T V}{(r^T s)c} \quad (39)$$

which is uniform, $p(z|a, b)$, with:

$$a = -\frac{c}{2} \quad (40)$$

$$b = \frac{c}{2} \quad (41)$$

§ **Now probability of success** is analogous to eqs.(32) and (33):

$$P_s(r, G_c) = \text{Prob}\left(z \geq \frac{G_c - r^T V}{(r^T s)c}\right) \quad (42)$$

$$= 1 - P\left(\frac{G_c - r^T V}{(r^T s)c} | a, b\right) \quad (43)$$

$$= 1 - P\left(-\frac{\hat{h}(r, G_c)}{c} | a, b\right) \quad (44)$$

where a and b are independent of r , eqs.(40) and (41).

§ **Proxy property holds.**

- From eq.(44) we see that $P_s(r, G_c)$ depends on r only through $\hat{h}(r, G_c)$.
- Hence eq.(44) implies eq.(28) and the proxy property holds.

2.5 Standardization and the Proxy Property

§ Probability of survival.

- Option i succeeds (survives) if its value is no less than the critical value:

$$v_i \geq v_c \quad (45)$$

- $F_i(\cdot)$ denotes the cumulative probability distribution function of v_i .
- Probability of success for option i is:

$$P_s(i) = \text{Prob}(v_i \geq v_c) = 1 - F_i(v_c) \quad (46)$$

§ Standardization class of probability distributions:

Definition 2 Let q be a scalar random variable with a pdf which depends on parameters r . The pdf is **standardizable** and $\theta(q, r)$ is a **standardization function** if $\theta(q, r)$ is a scalar function which is strictly increasing and continuous in q at any fixed r and whose pdf is the same for all r .

§ Example:

- $f(q|r)$ is a pdf of a random variable q , where r is a vector of parameters of the pdf.
- $f(q|r)$ is a class of pdfs parametrized by r .
- Mean and variance of q are μ_q and σ_q^2 . E.g. $r = (\mu_q, \sigma_q^2)$.
- Standardized random variable, with pdf $g(\theta)$, is:

$$\theta = (q - \mu_q)/\sigma_q \quad (47)$$

- If $g(\theta)$ is independent of q then this is a standardization class. That is, if all the standardized random variables in the class have the same pdf, then this is a standardization class.
- Standardization classes are quite common:
 - the normal, uniform, and exponential distributions all being examples.
 - The standardized distribution $g(\theta)$ may belong to the standardization class, e.g. normal and uniform, but this is not necessarily true, e.g. the exponential.

¶ Example: exponential distribution:

$$f(q|r) = re^{-rq}, \quad q \geq 0 \quad (48)$$

Moments:

$$E(q|r) = \sigma(q|r) = \frac{1}{r} \quad (49)$$

Standardized variable:

$$\theta = \frac{q - E(q|r)}{\sigma(q|r)} = rq - 1 \quad (50)$$

Standardized density by probability balance:

$$q = \frac{\theta + 1}{r}, \quad dq = \frac{1}{r}d\theta \implies g(\theta)d\theta = p(q)dq = e^{-rq}rdq = e^{-(\theta+1)}d\theta, \quad \theta \geq -1 \quad (51)$$

Standardized density and cumulative distribution:

$$g(\theta) = e^{-(\theta+1)}, \quad \theta \geq -1, \quad G(\theta) = \int_{-1}^{\theta} g(z) dz = 1 - e^{-(\theta+1)} \quad (52)$$

$g(\theta)$ is a shifted exponential distribution.

¶ **Proxy property: example.**

- Suppose v_i and v_j both belong to the same standardization class.
- Their info-gap model is eq.(17) and robustness is eq.(24).
- Their standardization functions are:

$$\theta(v_i) = \frac{v_i - \tilde{v}_i}{cs_i} \quad (53)$$

where $c > 0$.

- $G(\theta)$ = cumulative probability distribution function of the standardized random variables.
- Probability of success for option i is:

$$P_s(i) = \text{Prob}(v_i \geq v_c) = \text{Prob}\left(\frac{v_i - \tilde{v}_i}{cs_i} \geq \frac{v_c - \tilde{v}_i}{cs_i}\right) \quad (54)$$

$$= 1 - G\left(\frac{v_c - \tilde{v}_i}{cs_i}\right) \quad (55)$$

$$= 1 - G\left[-\frac{\hat{h}(i, v_c)}{c}\right] \quad (56)$$

where eq.(56) results from eqs.(55) and (24) if $v_c \leq \tilde{v}_i$.

- We see that:

$$P_s(i) > P_s(j) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \hat{h}(i, v_c) > \hat{h}(j, v_c) \quad (57)$$

- This example illustrates a general result:

Standardization implies that the proxy property holds.

• In order to calculate $\hat{h}(i, v_c)$ and hence maximize $P_s(i)$ we must be able to standardize the v_i 's, eq.(53).

- This **requires knowing**, for each i :
 - $v_i = \text{mean}$.
 - cs_i proportional to standard deviation.

- This does not **require knowing**:
 - Value of c (actual standard deviations).
 - Identify of pdf.

2.6 Coherence

§ Coherence:

- A weak informational-overlap between an info-gap model and a probability distribution.
- Coherence is necessary and sufficient for the proxy property to hold.

§ Scalar uncertainty, q .

- E.g. $q = r^T v$.
- $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ is info-gap model for q .
- $P(q|r)$ and $p(q|r)$ are cumulative prob distribution (cpd) and pdf for q .
- $G(r, q)$ is the performance function. Monotonic in q .
- Define:

$$q^*(h, r) \equiv \max_{q \in \mathcal{Q}_r(h)} q \quad (58)$$

$$q_*(h, r) \equiv \min_{q \in \mathcal{Q}_r(h)} q \quad (59)$$

$$\mu(h) \equiv \min_{q \in \mathcal{Q}_r(h)} G(r, q) \quad (60)$$

- Define inverse of $G(r, q)$, at fixed r , as follows.

If $G(r, q)$ *increases* as q increases:

$$G^{-1}(r, G_c) \equiv \max \{q : G(r, q) \leq G_c\} \quad (61)$$

If $G(r, q)$ *decreases* as q increases:

$$G^{-1}(r, G_c) \equiv \min \{q : G(r, q) \leq G_c\} \quad (62)$$

Definition 3 . $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$ are **upper coherent** at decisions r_1 and r_2 and critical value G_c , with performance function $G(r, q)$, if the following two relations hold for $i = 1$ or $i = 2$, and $j = 3 - i$:

$$P[G^{-1}(r_i, G_c)|r_i] > P[G^{-1}(r_j, G_c)|r_j] \quad (63)$$

$$G^{-1}(r_i, G_c) - q^*(h, r_i) > G^{-1}(r_j, G_c) - q^*(h, r_j)$$

$$\text{for } h = \hat{h}(r_j, G_c) \text{ and } h = \hat{h}(r_i, G_c) \quad (64)$$

$\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$ are **lower coherent** if eqs.(63) and (64) hold when $q^*(h, r)$ is replaced by $q_*(h, r)$.

- Coherence implies “information overlap” between $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$.
- Eq.(63) depends on $P(q|r)$ but not on h or $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$.

- Eq.(64) depends on h and $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ but not on $P(q|r)$.
- Coherence implies that knowledge of one function reveals something about the other.

§ **Example.** Following are coherent with $G(r, q) = q/r$:

$$P(q|r) = 1 - e^{-rq} \tag{65}$$

$$\mathcal{Q}_r(h) = \left\{ q : 0 \leq q \leq \frac{h}{r} \right\}, \quad h \geq 0 \tag{66}$$

- As r increases, $P(q|r)$ and $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ both become more highly concentrated.
- Each reveals something about the other. There is some “coherence” between them.

§ **Example.** Following are **not** coherent with $G(r, q) = q/r$: Exponential distribution, eq.(65), and:

$$\mathcal{Q}_r(h) = \{q : 0 \leq q \leq rh\}, \quad h \geq 0 \tag{67}$$

- As r increases, $P(q|r)$ becomes more highly focussed while $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ becomes more dispersed.

2.7 Coherence and the Proxy Property

§ We now state and discuss an important theorem:

coherence is necessary and sufficient for the proxy property to hold.

Definition 4 An info-gap model, $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$, *expands upward continuously* at h if, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that:

$$|q^*(h', r) - q^*(h, r)| < \varepsilon \quad \text{if} \quad |h' - h| < \delta \quad (68)$$

Continuous downward expansion is defined similarly with $q_*(\cdot)$ instead of $q^*(\cdot)$.

We can now state a proposition.¹

Proposition 1 Info-gap robustness to an uncertain scalar variable, with a loss function which is monotonic in the uncertain variable, is a proxy for probability of survival if and only if the info-gap model $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and the probability distribution $P(q|r)$ are coherent.

Given:

- At any fixed decision r , the performance function, $G(r, q)$, is monotonic (though not necessarily strictly monotonic) in the scalar q .
- $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ is an info-gap model with the property of nesting.
- r_1 and r_2 are decisions with positive, finite robustnesses at critical value G_c .
- $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ is continuously upward (downward) expanding at $\hat{h}(r_1, G_c)$ and at $\hat{h}(r_2, G_c)$ if $G(r, q)$ increases (decreases) with increasing q .

Then: The **proxy property** holds for $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$ at r_1 , r_2 and G_c with performance function $G(r, q)$.

If and only if: $\mathcal{Q}_r(h)$ and $P(q|r)$ are **upper (lower) coherent** at r_1 , r_2 and G_c with performance function $G(r, q)$ which increases (decreases) in q .

¹Yakov Ben-Haim, Robust-satisficing and the probability of survival, working paper, \papers\ProxyThms\prx22.tex.