
Supplement for Optimal decision-making with time-varying reliability

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1 The generative model

Within a single trial, a binary hidden variable $z \in \{-1, 1\}$ (with units s^{-1} , if time is measured in seconds) generates a stream of momentary evidence $dx(t)$, $t \geq 0$, by

$$dx = zdt + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\tau(t)}}dW, \quad \text{where } d\tau = \eta(\mu - \tau)dt + \sigma\sqrt{\frac{2\eta}{\mu}}\sqrt{\tau}dB, \quad (1)$$

where dW and dB are independent Wiener processes. The *reliability* $\tau(t)$ controls how informative the *momentary evidence* $dx(t)$ is about z . $\tau(t)$ follows the Cox-Ingersoll-Ross (CIR) process with mean μ , standard deviation σ , and speed η , and has a gamma steady-state distribution with shape μ^2/σ^2 and scale σ^2/μ [1].

2 Inferring $\tau(t)$ from momentary evidence

It is possible to infer the reliability, $\tau(t)$, instantaneously by making observations of the diffusion process, $x(t)$. To show this, consider the discretization of this diffusion process $\delta x_n = z\delta t + \zeta_n\sqrt{\delta t}\eta_n$, where δt is a very small time interval, $\zeta_n^2 = \zeta^2(n\delta t) = \tau(n\delta t)^{-1}$ is a time-dependent variance (inverse of the time-dependent reliability evaluated at $t = n\delta t$), and η_n is a zero-mean unit-variance normal random variable independent across time. Now, let us consider the square of the steps δx_n , which takes the form $\delta x_n^2 = z^2\delta t^2 + \zeta_n^2\delta t\eta_n^2 + 2z\zeta_n\sqrt{\delta t^3}\eta_n$. To estimate the variance $\zeta^2(t)$ we will need to know the following moments of the squared process:

$$\langle \delta x_n^2 \rangle = \zeta_n^2\delta t + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^2), \quad (2)$$

$$\text{var}(\delta x_n^2) = 2\zeta_n^4\delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^3), \quad (3)$$

$$\langle \delta x_n^2 \delta x_m^2 \rangle = \zeta_n^2\zeta_m^2\delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^3), \quad (4)$$

where we have used $\langle \eta_n^2 \rangle = \langle \eta_n^2 \eta_m^2 \rangle = 1$ and $\langle \eta_n^4 \rangle = 3$, and averages $\langle \cdot \rangle$ are respect to the process dW in (Eq. 1) (equivalently respect to the η_n s), and not respect to dB .

Let us consider the estimator $y(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \delta x_n^2$, where the time window t has been split into N equal infinitesimal intervals of length δt . This estimator has moments

$$\langle y(t) \rangle = \delta t \sum_{n=1}^N \zeta_n^2 + \mathcal{O}(\delta t) \xrightarrow{\delta t \rightarrow 0} \int_0^t \zeta^2(s) ds, \quad (5)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(y(t)) &= \sum_{n=1}^N \langle \delta x_n^4 \rangle + \sum_{mn} \langle \delta x_n^2 \delta x_m^2 \rangle - \langle y \rangle^2 \\ &\xrightarrow{\delta t \rightarrow 0} \iint_0^t \zeta^2(s_1) \zeta^2(s_2) ds_1 ds_2 - \left(\int_0^t \zeta^2(s) ds \right)^2 = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where we have used $t = N\delta t$, and the fact that averages are only with respect to the diffusion process, not respect to trajectories of $\zeta^2(t)$. Since $y(t)$ is a continuous and differentiable deterministic function of the path of $\zeta^2(t)$, the estimator can be used to give infinitely precise estimates of the variance of the underlying process simply by taking the temporal derivative:

$$\frac{d}{dt} y(t) = \zeta^2(t) = \frac{1}{\tau(t)}. \quad (7)$$

It is important that in the definition of $y(t)$ we do not assume that $\tau(t)$ is constant. However, when computing mean and variance of $y(t)$ across dW , we do use the fact that the samples of dW are i.i.d (which is true by construction, Eq. (1)). In addition, in the derivation of the mean and variance of $y(t)$ we do not use that the samples of $\tau(t)$ are i.i.d, as we do not take the average over the process $\tau(t)$ (equivalently over dB).

Intuitively, $\tau(t)$ is a continuous process (see Eq. (1)), and therefore there is a finite time resolution T below which $\tau(t)$ can be considered approximately constant. Within that time resolution, one can discretize time with infinitesimally small increments δt and get as many samples of dW as desired (i.i.d. by definition, see Eq. (1)). From these samples one can estimate with arbitrarily high precision the reliability $\tau(t)$ of the process, as formally shown above.

There is a single case in which the argument presented above breaks down: consider the limit in which the volatility is infinity ($\eta = 0$ and pre-factor of dB in Eq. (1) constant). In this case, $\tau(t)$ is not a continuous process, and then $y(t)$ has a discontinuous derivative. Only in this unrealistic case $\tau(t)$ cannot be estimated with infinite precision.

3 Inferring the latent z

To infer z , we again consider the discretization of the particle diffusion process $\delta x_n \sim \mathcal{N}(z\delta t, \tau_n^{-1}\delta t)$, which is normal with mean $z\delta t$ and variance $\tau_n^{-1}\delta t$. Then, assuming a uniform prior on z , that is $p(z) \propto_z 1$, the posterior z is proportional to

$$\begin{aligned} p(z|\delta x_{0:t}) &\propto_z \prod_n \mathcal{N}(\delta x_n | z\delta t, \tau_n^{-1}\delta t) \\ &\propto_z e^{-\sum_n \frac{\tau_n(\delta x_n - z\delta t)^2}{2\delta t}} \\ &\propto_z e^{-\frac{z^2}{2} \sum_n \delta t \tau_n + zX(t)} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where $\delta x_{0:t}$ denotes all momentary evidence until time t , and we have defined $X(t) = \sum_n \tau_n \delta x_n$. Adding the appropriate normalization constant, which is the above summed over $z = 1$ and $z = -1$, causes the terms containing z^2 to cancel. When taking $\delta t \rightarrow 0$, this results in the posterior belief to be given by

$$g(t) \equiv p(z = 1 | \delta x_{0:t}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-2X(t)}}, \quad \text{where } X(t) = \int_0^t \tau(s) dx(s). \quad (9)$$

This belief is valid even for the case of a bounded accumulation of evidence, as the introduction of such boundaries does not change the sufficient statistics, $X(t)$ [2, 3].

4 Finding the expected future return by solving a PDE

The expected future return $\langle V(g + \delta g, \tau + \delta \tau) \rangle_{p(\delta g, \delta \tau | g, \tau)}$ can be found by the solution to a partial differential equation (PDE). To do so, we define $u(g, \tau, t) \equiv V(g, \tau)$ and $u(g, \tau, t + \delta t) \equiv \langle V(g + \delta g, \tau + \delta \tau) \rangle$, and replace this expectation by its second-order Taylor expansion around (g, τ) . Then, we find that, with $\delta t \rightarrow 0$, we have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{\langle dg \rangle}{dt} \frac{\partial}{\partial g} + \frac{\langle d\tau \rangle}{dt} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \frac{\langle dg^2 \rangle}{2dt} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g^2} + \frac{\langle d\tau^2 \rangle}{2dt} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tau^2} + \frac{\langle dg d\tau \rangle}{dt} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g \partial \tau} \right) u, \quad (10)$$

with all expectations implicitly conditional on g and τ . The above allows us to find $u(g, \tau, t + \delta t)$ for some known $u(g, \tau)$.

The boundary conditions at $g \in \{0, 1\}$ are $u(g, \tau, t) = V_d(g) = 1$ for all t , where $V_d = \max\{g, 1 - g\}$. For $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ we have $u(g, \tau, t) = 1$ for all t . At $\tau = 0$, all infinitesimal moments except for $\langle d\tau \rangle = \eta \mu dt$ are zero, such that we have a deterministic flow towards $\tau > 0$. The main text justifies the use of these boundary conditions.

4.1 The infinitesimal moments of g and τ

The infinitesimal moments of τ are, by the definition of the generative model, Eq. (1), given by

$$\langle d\tau | g, \tau \rangle = \eta (\mu - \tau) dt, \quad (11)$$

$$\langle d\tau^2 | g, \tau \rangle = \frac{2\eta\sigma^2}{\mu} \tau dt, \quad (12)$$

where we have only retained terms of $\mathcal{O}(dt)$. The moments of g are found by assuming a small time step δt in which $\delta X_n = \tau_n (z\delta t + \tau_n^{-1/2} \delta t^{1/2} \eta_n)$, where η_n is a zero-mean unit-variance normal random variable. To find δg_n , we approximate the mapping from $X(t)$ to $g(t)$ (Eq. 9) by a second-order Taylor series expansion around X_n to find

$$\delta g_n = 2(1 - g_n)g_n \left(\tau_n z \delta t + \sqrt{\tau_n} \delta t \eta_n \right) - 2(1 - g_n)g_n (2g_n - 1) \left(\tau_n z \delta t + \sqrt{\tau_n} \delta t \eta_n \right)^2. \quad (13)$$

Taking $\delta t \rightarrow 0$ and only retaining terms of $\mathcal{O}(dt)$ results in the moments

$$\langle dg | g, \tau \rangle = 0, \quad (14)$$

$$\langle dg^2 | g, \tau \rangle = 4(1 - g)^2 g^2 \tau dt, \quad (15)$$

$$\langle dg d\tau | g, \tau \rangle = 0. \quad (16)$$

4.2 Solving the PDE by the Alternating Direction Implicit method

Having $\langle dg d\tau | g, \tau \rangle = 0$ allows us to use the Alternating Direction Implicit (ADI) method to solve the above PDE. To do so, we discretize $u(g, \tau, \cdot)$ on a grid g_1, \dots, g_K in steps of Δ_g for g , and τ_1, \dots, τ_J in steps of Δ_τ for τ . We set $g_1 = 0$ and $g_K = 1$ for the belief, and $\tau_1 = 0$ and τ_J to twice the 99th percentile of the steady-state distribution of τ . Furthermore, we define $u_{kj}^n \equiv u(g_k, \tau_j, t)$ and $u_{kj}^{n+1} \equiv u(g_k, \tau_j, t + dt)$. Then, the above PDE, Eq. (10), can be solved by the ADI method [4] in two steps,

$$u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} - u_{kj}^n = \frac{\delta t}{2} \left(\frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} \frac{\partial}{\partial g} + \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{2\delta t} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g^2} \right) u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\delta t}{2} \left(\frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{2\delta t} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tau^2} \right) u_{kj}^n, \quad (17)$$

$$u_{kj}^{n+1} - u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\delta t}{2} \left(\frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} \frac{\partial}{\partial g} + \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{2\delta t} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g^2} \right) u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\delta t}{2} \left(\frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} + \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{2\delta t} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tau^2} \right) u_{kj}^{n+1} \quad (18)$$

where δt is the time discretization. For all k, j , and n but the boundary at $\tau = 0$, the derivatives are approximated by the central finite differences

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial g} u_{kj} \approx \frac{u_{k+1,j} - u_{k-1,j}}{2\Delta_g}, \quad (19)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial g^2} u_{kj} \approx \frac{u_{k+1,j} - 2u_{kj} + u_{k-1,j}}{\Delta_g^2}, \quad (20)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} u_{kj} \approx \frac{u_{k,j+1} - u_{k,j-1}}{2\Delta_\tau}, \quad (21)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tau^2} u_{kj} \approx \frac{u_{k,j+1} - 2u_{kj} + u_{k,j-1}}{\Delta_\tau^2}. \quad (22)$$

At $\tau = 0$, the only required derivative is $\partial u / \partial \tau$, which we approximate by the right finite difference,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} u_{k1} \approx \frac{u_{k2} - u_{k1}}{\Delta_\tau}. \quad (23)$$

In the next two subsections, we deal with computing $u^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ from u^n , and then computing u^{n+1} from $u^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$, separately. In both cases, the computation time is of order $\mathcal{O}(KJ)$, such that the expected return can be computed in time linear in the discretization of the (g, τ) space.

4.3 Moving from n to $n + \frac{1}{2}$

Equation (17) can for all $j = 1, \dots, J$ be written as the linear system

$$\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{u}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbf{b}_j^n, \quad (24)$$

where $\mathbf{u}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ is a column vector with K elements $(u_{1,j}^{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \dots, u_{K,j}^{n+\frac{1}{2}})$, \mathbf{b}_j^n is a vector of the same size, and $\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ is a tri-diagonal $K \times K$ matrix. Thus, the above system can for each j be solved for $\mathbf{u}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ in $\mathcal{O}(K)$ time, thus leading to an overall computational time complexity $\mathcal{O}(KJ)$.

For $2 \leq j \leq J$, the matrices $\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ have elements

$$\left(\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}\right)_{km} = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } m = k \text{ for } 2 \leq k \leq K-1, \\ -\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g} \frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} - \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } m = k+1 \text{ for } 2 \leq k \leq K-1, \\ \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g} \frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} - \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } m = k-1 \text{ for } 2 \leq k \leq K-1, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = m \text{ for } k \in \{1, K\}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

In the above, the first three lines specify the diagonal, upper diagonal, and lower diagonal, respectively. The fourth line is responsible for the boundary condition at the $k \in \{1, K\}$ boundary. The associated vectors \mathbf{b}_j^n have elements

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{b}_j^n)_k &= \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{kj}^n + \\ &\quad \left(\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} - \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{k,j+1}^n + \left(-\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} + \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{k,j-1}^n, \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

for all $2 \leq k \leq K-1$ and are set to $(\mathbf{b}_j^n)_k = u_{kj}^n$ otherwise. For the τ boundaries at $j \in \{1, J\}$, $\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ is set to $\mathbf{L}_j^{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbf{I}$. At $j = 0$ (corresponding to $\tau = 0$), \mathbf{b}_1^n has elements

$$(\mathbf{b}_1^n)_k = \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{k1}^n + \frac{\delta t}{2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} u_{k2}^n, \quad (27)$$

for $2 \leq k \leq K-1$, and is set to $(\mathbf{b}_1^n)_k = u_{k1}^n$ otherwise. At $j = J$, all elements of \mathbf{b}_J^n are set to $(\mathbf{b}_J^n)_k = u_{kJ}^n$ to obey the boundary condition at $j = J$.

4.4 Moving from $n + \frac{1}{2}$ to $n + 1$

Equation (18) can for all $k = 1, \dots, K$ be written as the linear system

$$\mathbf{L}_k^{n+1} \mathbf{u}_k^{n+1} = \mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (28)$$

where \mathbf{u}_k^{n+1} is a column vector with J elements $(u_{k,1}^{n+1}, \dots, u_{k,J}^{n+1})$, $\mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ is a vector of the same size, and \mathbf{L}_k^{n+1} is a tri-diagonal $J \times J$ matrix. Thus, the above system can for each k be solved for \mathbf{u}_k^{n+1} in $\mathcal{O}(J)$ time, thus leading to an overall computational time complexity $\mathcal{O}(KJ)$.

For $2 \leq j \leq J - 1$, the matrices \mathbf{L}_k^{n+1} have elements

$$(\mathbf{L}_k^{n+1})_{jn} = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } n = j \text{ for } 2 \leq j \leq J - 1, \\ -\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} - \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } n = j + 1 \text{ for } 2 \leq j \leq J - 1, \\ \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} - \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_\tau^2} \frac{\langle \delta \tau^2 \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } n = j - 1 \text{ for } 2 \leq j \leq J - 1, \\ 1 + \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } j = n = 1, \\ -\frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_\tau} \frac{\langle \delta \tau \rangle}{\delta t} & \text{if } j = 1, n = 2, \\ 1 & \text{if } j = n = J, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (29)$$

In the above, the first three lines specify the diagonal, upper diagonal, and lower diagonal, respectively. The fourth and fifth line follow from the boundary condition at $j = 1$. The sixth line follows from the boundary condition at $j = J$. The associated vectors $\mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ have elements

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}})_j &= \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{2\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} + \\ &\quad \left(\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g} \frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} + \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{k+1,j}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} + \left(-\frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g} \frac{\langle \delta g \rangle}{\delta t} + \frac{\delta t}{4\Delta_g^2} \frac{\langle \delta g^2 \rangle}{\delta t}\right) u_{k-1,j}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

for all $2 \leq j \leq J - 1$, and $(\mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}})_j = u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ otherwise. Due to the boundary conditions at $k \in \{1, K\}$ we have $\mathbf{L}_k^{n+1} = \mathbf{I}$ for both k 's, and associated $(\mathbf{b}_k^{n+\frac{1}{2}})_j = u_{kj}^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$ for all j .

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