

# A Computational Theory of Subjective Probability

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# Introductory experiments

Linda is 31 years old, single, outspoken, and very bright. She majored in philosophy. As a student, she was deeply concerned with issues of discrimination and social justice, and also participated in anti-nuclear demonstrations.

Which is more probable?

- Linda is a bank teller
- Linda is a bank teller and is active in the feminist movement

# Introductory experiments

Can you spot the 2 Euromillions draws from the 5 sequences below ?

8	10	22	29	47
4	6	8	41	48
10	12	12	20	40
3	22	25	32	39
9	18	27	30	35

# Introduction

- The mathematical concept of probability, originally formulated to describe the highly constrained environment of games of chance.
- The default assumption that probability theory provides the only logical way for people to think about likelihood.
- Tversky and Kahneman applied probability theory to real-world situations and observed consistent deviations from the mathematical theory

# The problem ( 🤖 )

- Is there a serious flaw in human reasoning ?  
or do
- Consistent deviations between human reasoning and a simplified, artificial mathematical theory are far more likely to reflect deficiencies in the theory than they are to reflect sub-optimality in how people think about likelihood ?

# The intuition ( 🧠 )

- Classical probability theory only applies to cases involving a definitive probability measure function, while models of reality always involve uncertainty.
- The signal people rely on to diagnose discrepancies between their model and the real world is randomness deficiency.
- When people speak intuitively about likelihood and probability, it is the concept of representational updating which is relevant to them.

# The solution ( 🤖 )

- Extend probability theory to situations involving an uncertain probability measure function
- The optimal model which can be derived from a set of observations is the one which maximizes the compression of that dataset, yielding the Minimum Description Length (MDL)
- => shifting the focus from an underdetermined probability measure function to the immutable mechanism of representational updating.

# Main points

- Introduction to MDL Principle
  - The fundamental idea
  - Kolmogorov complexity and ideal MDL
  - MDL and model selection
- Subjective information and probability
- Experiments and discussion
- Proof that the conjunction effect is not a fallacy
- Conclusion



# MDL : Fundamental idea

## Learning as Data Compression

We assume that each sequence is 10000 bits long :

- 00010001000100010001 ... 0001000100010001000100010001
- 01110100110100100110 ... 1010111010111011000101100010
- 00011000001010100000 ... 0010001000010000001000110000

# MDL : Fundamental idea

## Learning as Data Compression

We assume that each sequence is 10000 bits long :

- for i = 1 to 2500; print "0001"; next; halt
- 01110100110100100110 ... 1010111010111011000101100010
- 00011000001010100000 ... 0010001000010000001000110000

# MDL : Fundamental idea

## Learning as Data Compression

We assume that each sequence is 10000 bits long :

- `for i = 1 to 2500; print "0001"; next; halt`
- `print "011101001101000010101010...1010111010111011000101100010"; halt`
- `00011000001010100000 . . . 0010001000010000001000110000`

# MDL : Fundamental idea

## Learning as Data Compression

We assume that each sequence is 10000 bits long :

- for  $i = 1$  to 2500; print "0001"; next; halt
- print "011101001101000010101010...1010111010111011000101100010"; halt
- can be compressed to some length  $\alpha n$ , with  $0 < \alpha < 1$

# MDL : Fundamental idea

## Learning as Data Compression

- $\pi$
- Physics Data
- Natural Language
- ...

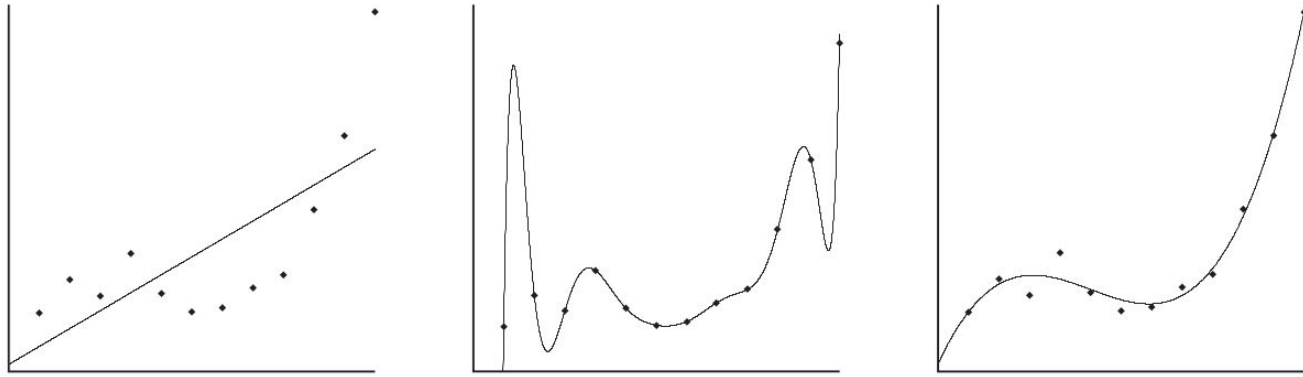
# Kolmogorov Complexity and Ideal MDL

- KG of a sequence as the length of the shortest program that prints the sequence and then halts.
- Caveats:
  - Uncomputability
  - Arbitrariness/dependence on syntax
- Workaround : scale down the approach so that it does become applicable.

# MDL and model selection

- The goal of statistical inference may be cast as trying to find regularity in the data.
- For a given set of hypotheses  $H$  and data set  $D$ , we should try to find the hypothesis or combination of hypotheses in  $H$  that compresses  $D$  most.

# MDL and model selection



A simple, complex and tradeoff (third-degree) polynomial.



# MDL and model selection

## Crude , Two-Part Version of MDL principle (Informally Stated)

Let  $\mathcal{H}^{(1)}, \mathcal{H}^{(2)}, \dots$  be a list of candidate models (e.g.,  $\mathcal{H}^{(k)}$  is the set of  $k$ th-degree polynomials), each containing a set of point hypotheses (e.g., individual polynomials). The best point hypothesis  $H \in \mathcal{H}^{(1)} \cup \mathcal{H}^{(2)} \cup \dots$  to explain the data  $D$  is the one which minimizes the sum  $L(H) + L(D|H)$ , where

- $L(H)$  is the length, in bits, of the description of the hypothesis; and
- $L(D|H)$  is the length, in bits, of the description of the data when encoded with the help of the hypothesis.

The best *model* to explain  $D$  is the smallest model containing the selected  $H$ .

# Subjective information and probability

Given a computable probability density function  $p$ , there are some “type of strings” we expect to be output, whereas some others are surprising.

let  $\alpha > 0$  be a constant, called the surprise threshold, which represents the level of randomness deficiency that necessitates representational updating.

$$K(x|p^*) \geq -\log p(x) - \alpha.$$

$$K(x) = K(p) - \log p(x) \pm O(1)$$

# Subjective information and probability

Suppose an observer experiences observations  $d_1, d_2, \dots$  generated by some source with computable probability density.

$$p_n = \arg \min \{ |p^*| : p \text{ is optimal for } d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n \text{ and } d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n \text{ are } (p, \alpha)\text{-typical} \}.$$

# Subjective information and probability

Observation  $d_{n+1}$  is  $\alpha$ -surprising if the length of its shortest description given  $p$  is less than the number of bits a Shannon-Fano code based on  $p$  would require after subtracting the surprise level  $\alpha$ :

$$K(d_{n+1}|p_n^*) < -\log p_n(d_{n+1}) - \alpha.$$

The subjective information of  $d_{n+1}$  is therefore :  $K(p_{n+1}^*|p_n^*)$ .

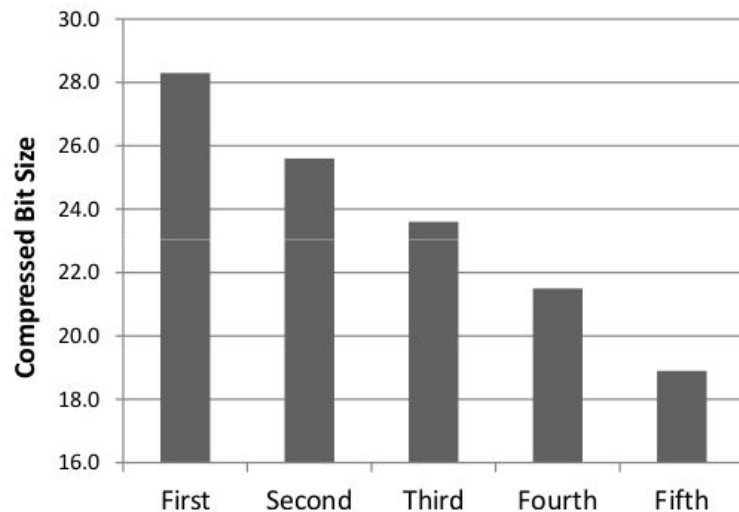
We can thus workout the subjective probability of  $d_{n+1}$  :  $2^{-K(p_{n+1}^*|p_n^*)}$ .

# Experiments and discussion

Experiment 1 Hypothesis : people use subjective probability rather than classical probability to judge the likelihood for real-world events.

Method : Distractor sequences met the constraints of having compressed bit-sizes of between 23, 21 and 19 bits while the average lottery length is 30.9 bits. True sequences were 28 and 26 bits long.

# Experiments and discussion



130 participants, correlation between ranking and compressed description was 0.965 with  $p < .001$

# Experiments and discussion

Experiment 2 Hypothesis : Are the people right about Linda ?

Method : Outcomes included in the description in 2 versions, removed the information that Linda is very bright, single and outspoken.

Results :

	Ver. 1	Ver. 2	t-test
Single	47%	64%	$t(104) = 4.11, p < .001$
Outspoken	77%	80%	$p > .05$
Very Bright	59%	63%	$p > .05$

# The conjunction effect is not a fallacy

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_m$  be  $m$  independent events and let  $p$  be the associated computable probability measure function. Let  $\alpha > 0$  be a surprise threshold. There exists a conjunction of events  $A = A_1 \wedge A_2 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n$  with a constituent  $B$  (i.e.  $p(A) < p(B)$ ) such that  $B$  is  $(p, \alpha)$ -surprising (i.e. carries subjective information) and  $A$  is  $(p, \alpha)$ -typical (i.e. has a subjective probability of 1).*



# Conclusion

Mathematical theories which have been developed for precision models in the exact sciences retain their validity when used to describe complex cognition in the real world.

*Proof.* Let  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_m$ ,  $p$  and  $\alpha > 0$  be as above. Without loss of generality  $m = 2^k$  and  $p$  can be seen as a probability on strings of length  $k$  (each coding one event  $E_i$ ) extended multiplicatively i.e.,  $p : 2^k \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is extended multiplicatively by  $p(xy) := p(x)p(y)$ .

Let  $n$  be a large integer. Let  $y \in 2^{kn}$  be a  $(p, \alpha)$ -typical string.  $y$  can be viewed as the concatenation of  $n$  strings of length  $k$  (i.e. the conjunction of  $n$  events). By the pigeon hole principle, there must be such a string that occurs at least  $n/2^k$  times. Denote this string by  $s$ , and let  $l$  be the number of occurrences of  $s$  in  $y$ , i.e.  $l \geq n/2^k$ . Because  $y$  is  $(p, \alpha)$ -typical we have  $p(s) > 0$ . Thus  $p(s) = 2^{-c}$  for some  $c > 0$ . Let  $x$  be  $l$  concatenations of  $s$ . Because  $p$  is extended multiplicatively we have  $p(x) > p(y)$ .

Let us show that  $x$  is  $(p, \alpha)$ -surprising. To describe  $x$  it suffices to describe  $l$  plus a few extra bits that say “print  $s$   $l$  times”. Since  $l$  can be described in less than  $2 \log l$  bits (by a prefix free program) we have  $K(x) < 3 \log l$  for  $n$  large enough. We have

$$\begin{aligned} -\log p(x) - \alpha &= -\log p(s^l) - \alpha = -\log p(s)^l - \alpha \\ &= -l \log 2^{-c} - \alpha = cl - \alpha > 3 \log l > K(x) \\ &\geq K(x|p^*) \end{aligned}$$

for  $n$  large enough. Thus  $x$  is  $(p, \alpha)$ -surprising, but  $y$  is not.  $\square$