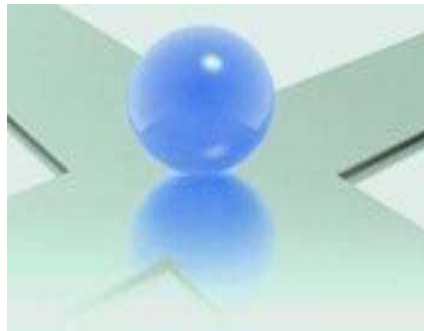


The *Stran*Ge World of Human Decision Making

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Part I

Foibles

§ Main Source:

Plous, Scott, 1993,

The Psychology of Judgment and Decision Making,

chapter 12.

1 *Catch-All Underestimation Bias*

¶ Sources:

- Fischhoff, B., P. Slovic, and S. Lichtenstein. 1978. Fault trees: Sensitivity of estimated failure probabilities to problem representation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception Performance*, 4: 330–344.
- Michael Smithson and Yakov Ben-Haim, Reasoned Decision Making Without Math? Adaptability and Robustness in Response to Surprise, *Risk Analysis*, to appear. Pre-print: <http://info-gap.com/content.php?id=23>

¶ Catch-All Underestimation Bias:

- Combine events in 1 super-event:

$E1$	$E2$	$E3$	Event
------	------	------	-------
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- What is probability that you'll be delayed tomorrow?
- Folks usually give a lower number than the sum of numbers they would give to the probabilities of
 - being late to rise,
 - delayed by traffic,
 - distracted at lunch,
 - etc.
- The super-event skips details; ignores unanticipated surprising events.

¶ Managing the CAUB:

- Exploit foibles to manage a foible.
-

¶ Managing the CAUB:

- Exploit foibles to manage a foible.
- Include a “novel outcome” category when eliciting probabilities:

Detailed descriptions of unknowns will tend to increase the intuitive probability of surprise.

~ ~ ~

2 *Compound Events*

§ Simple and compound events:

- **Simple event** depends on 1 outcome. E.g. 1-stage lottery.



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- **Simple event** depends on 1 outcome. E.g. 1-stage lottery.
- **Compound event** depends on multiple outcomes. E.g. 2-stage lottery.

§ **Conjunctive** 2-stage lottery:
must win in **both** stages.

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- Each part essential.
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- Folks surprised that prob of system success $< 1\%$.

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§ **Example (conjunctive):**

- System with 500 independent parts.
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- What is the probability of success?
- Folks surprised that prob of system success $< 1\%$.

§ People tend to **under estimate** probability of **disjunctive events**.

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3 *Confusion of the Inverse*

§ Woman examined for breast cancer.

- Lump detected in breast.
- Chance of malignancy: 1 in 100.
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Correct classification:

- 80% of malignant tumors.
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§ 95 out of 100 physicians said: 75% chance of cancer.

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- 90% of benign tumors.
- Mammogram result: **positive**.

§ 95 out of 100 physicians said: 75% chance of cancer.

§ Evidently, physicians assumed that
chance of **cancer** given **positive test**
equals
chance of **positive test** given **cancer**.

§ What do you think???

§ Woman examined for breast cancer.

- Lump detected in breast.
- Chance of malignancy: 1 in 100.
- X-ray mammogram performed.

Correct classification:

- 80% of malignant tumors.
- 90% of benign tumors.
- Mammogram result: **positive**.

§ 95 out of 100 physicians said: 75% chance of cancer.

§ Evidently, physicians assumed that
chance of **cancer** given **positive test**
equals
chance of **positive test** given **cancer**.

§ This is the **confusion of the inverse**.

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{can}|\mathbf{pos}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{can}, \mathbf{pos})}{p(\mathbf{pos})} \quad (1)$$

(2)

(3)

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{can}|\mathbf{pos}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{can}, \mathbf{pos})}{p(\mathbf{pos})} \quad (4)$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{benign})} \quad (5)$$

(6)

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{can}|\mathbf{pos}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{can}, \mathbf{pos})}{p(\mathbf{pos})} \quad (7)$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{benign})} \quad (8)$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{benign})p(\mathbf{benign})} \quad (9)$$

=

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{can}|\mathbf{pos}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{can}, \mathbf{pos})}{p(\mathbf{pos})} \quad (10)$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}, \mathbf{benign})} \quad (11)$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{benign})p(\mathbf{benign})} \quad (12)$$

$$= \frac{(0.8)(0.01)}{(0.8)(0.01) + (0.1)(0.99)} \quad (13)$$

$$= \mathbf{0.075} \ll 0.75 \quad (14)$$

§ **95** out of 100 physicians were **wrong**.

§

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{can}|\mathbf{pos}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{can}, \mathbf{pos})}{p(\mathbf{pos})} \quad (15)$$

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$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can})}{p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{can})p(\mathbf{can}) + p(\mathbf{pos}|\mathbf{benign})p(\mathbf{benign})} \quad (17)$$

$$= \frac{(0.8)(0.01)}{(0.8)(0.01) + (0.1)(0.99)} \quad (18)$$

$$= \mathbf{0.075} \ll 0.75 \quad (19)$$

§ **95** out of 100 physicians were **wrong**.

§ Why is **error** so common?

§

§ How would a statistician decide?

Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\text{can}|\text{pos}) = \frac{p(\text{can, pos})}{p(\text{pos})} \quad (20)$$

$$= \frac{p(\text{pos}|\text{can})p(\text{can})}{p(\text{pos, can}) + p(\text{pos, benign})} \quad (21)$$

$$= \frac{p(\text{pos}|\text{can})p(\text{can})}{p(\text{pos}|\text{can})p(\text{can}) + p(\text{pos}|\text{benign})p(\text{benign})} \quad (22)$$

$$= \frac{(0.8)(0.01)}{(0.8)(0.01) + (0.1)(0.99)} \quad (23)$$

$$= \mathbf{0.075} \ll 0.75 \quad (24)$$

§ 95 out of 100 physicians were **wrong**.

§ Why is **error** so common?

§ How to decide, if those probabilities are **unknown**?

~ ~ ~

4 *Optimism Bias: It'll Never Happen to Me*

§ Optimism bias:

Positive outcomes

are viewed to be more likely than

negative outcomes.

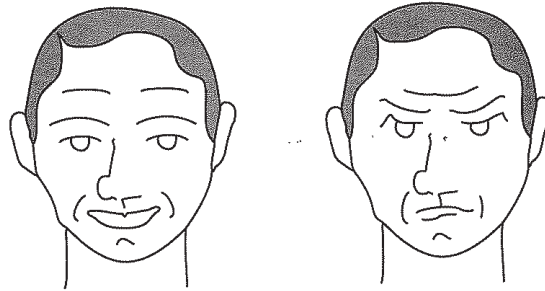


FIGURE 12.1
These are the stimuli used by David Rosenhan and Samuel Messick (1966) in their study of probability estimation.

Figure 1: From Plous, p.135.

§ Experiment:

- 150 cards with either “smile” or “frown”.
- Subjects must guess “smile” or “frown” before each draw.

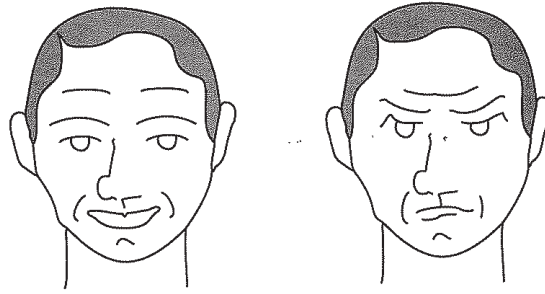


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These are the stimuli used by David Rosenhan and Samuel Messick (1966) in their study of probability estimation.

Figure 2: From Plous, p.135.

§ Experiment:

- 150 cards with either “smile” or “frown”.
- Subjects must guess “smile” or “frown” before each draw.
- When **70%** are “smile”: **68.2%** success.
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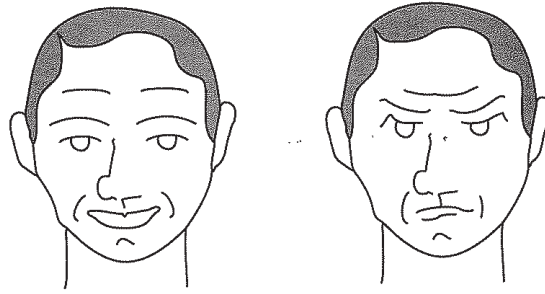


FIGURE 12.1
These are the stimuli used by David Rosenhan and Samuel Messick (1966) in their study of probability estimation.

Figure 3: From Plous, p.135.

§ Experiment:

- 150 cards with either “smile” or “frown”.
- Subjects must guess “smile” or “frown” before each draw.
- When 70% are “smile”: 68.2% success.
- When 70% are “frown”: 57.5% success.

§

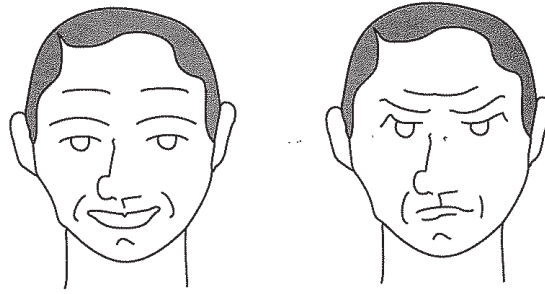


FIGURE 12.1
These are the stimuli used by David Rosenhan and Samuel Messick (1966) in their study of probability estimation.

Figure 4: From Plous, p.135.

§ Experiment:

- 150 cards with either “smile” or “frown”.
- Subjects must guess “smile” or “frown” before each draw.
- When 70% are “smile”: 68.2% success.
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§ Frequency of “negative” outcomes underestimated.

§ Frequency of “negative” outcomes **underestimated**.

§ Optimism bias w/ other positive and negative events:

- **Positive:**

 - High salary, home ownership, etc.

- **Negative:**

 - drinking problem, heart attack, etc.

§

§ Frequency of “negative” outcomes **underestimated**.

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- Does education alleviate optimism bias?

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High salary, home ownership, etc.

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- Is the optimism bias healthy or harmful?
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- **Positive:**

High salary, home ownership, etc.

- **Negative:**

drinking problem, heart attack, etc.

§ **Questions:**

- Does education alleviate optimism bias?
- Is the optimism bias healthy or harmful?
- Is optimism bias a reaction to **uncertainty** or is it **wishful thinking**?

~ ~ ~

5 *Conservatism*

§ Conservatism:

People **revise** probability estimates, given new data, by **smaller amount than needed**.

§

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§ 2-urn example:

- Urn 1 has 30% red and 70% blue balls.
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-

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- Urn 1 has **30% red** and **70% blue** balls.
- Urn 2 has **30% blue** and **70% red** balls.
- Pick an urn randomly and blindly.
- What is prob that **urn 2** was chosen?
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Answer: 0.5.

- Pick 12 balls blindly from chosen urn.
- Find: **8 red** and **4 blue** balls.
- What is prob that **urn 2** was chosen?
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Answer: 0.5.

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- **Most people** answer 0.7 to 0.8.
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- Pick an urn randomly and blindly.
- What is prob that **urn 2** was chosen?
Answer: 0.5.
- Pick 12 balls blindly from chosen urn.
- Find: **8 red** and **4 blue** balls.
- What is prob that **urn 2** was chosen?
- **Most people** answer 0.7 to 0.8.
- **Bayesian posterior** probability is 0.97.
- Most people **revise** prior probability (0.5) **less than justified.**

~ ~ ~

6 *Do Accidents Make Us Safer?*

§ From Plous, p.140:

“On June 3, 1980, officers at the U.S. Strategic Air Command (SAC) were routinely watching for signs of a Russian missile attack. The shift had thus far passed uneventfully, and there were no signs of what was about to happen.

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“Suddenly, a computer display warned that the Russians had just launched a sortie of land- and submarine-based nuclear missiles. In several minutes, the missiles would reach the United States.

“SAC responded immediately. Across the country, more than 100 nuclear-armed B-52 bombers were put on alert and prepared for take-off. Nuclear submarine commanders were also alerted, and missile officers in underground silos inserted their launch keys into position. The United States was ready for nuclear war.

“...

“Then, just three minutes after the warning had first appeared, it became clear that the alert was a false alarm. American forces were quickly taken off alert, and a number of investigations were initiated. Following a second false alert several days later, the Defense Department located the source of error. As it turned out, a computer chip worth \$0.46 had malfunctioned. Instead of registering the number of incoming missiles as a string of zeros, the chip had intermittently inserted 2s in the digital readout.”

§ That was a **serious accident**.

- Corrective measures taken.
- No harm done.
- How did people **respond**?

§

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§ How do **you** explain this diversity?

§

§ That was a **serious accident**.

- Corrective measures taken.
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- How did people **respond**?

§ **Opponents** of nuclear deterrence felt **less safe**.

§ **Supporters** of nuclear deterrence felt **more safe**.

§ **How do you** explain this diversity?

§ **Explanations:**

- Re-inforcing prior opinions.
- Conservatism.
- Self interest.
- Lack of integrity.

~ ~ ~

7 *Risk Compensation*

§ **Source:** John Adams, 1995, *Risk*.

§ “The potential **safety benefit of most improvements to roads and vehicles is, it seems, consumed as a performance benefit;** as a result of safety improvements it is now possible to travel farther and faster for approximately the same risk of being killed.” (Adams, p.144)

§ Risk compensation:

- Better safety devices makes people **more reckless.**
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§ Example: Icy corner.

- Hi-speed camera detects tire quality.
- Higher speed observed with better tires.

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- Better safety devices makes people **more reckless**.
- People **adjust behavior** to **keep danger constant**.

§ Example: Icy corner.

- Hi-speed camera detects tire quality.
- Higher speed observed with better tires.

§ Why???

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§ Risk compensation:

- Better safety devices makes people **more reckless**.
- People **adjust behavior** to **keep danger constant**.

§ Example: Icy corner.

- Hi-speed camera detects tire quality.
- Higher speed observed with better tires.

§ Why???

- People ignore uncertainty?
- People keep risk-level constant?
- People are foolish?

~ ~ ~

8 *Optimizer's Curse*

§ 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.

- Lecture notes:

`\lectures\risk\lectures\optimizers-curse03.pdf`

§ Choose from N options:

- $v_i =$ **Unknown** true value of i th option.
- $V_i =$ **Known** unbiased estimate of v_i .

§ Large value desired.

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Positive regret if $y_i < V_i$.

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Positive regret if $y_i < V_i$.

§ **Outcome optimization:** $i^* = \arg \max_i V_i$

§

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§ **Regret:**

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

§ Outcome optimization: $i^* = \arg \max_i V_i$

§ Is this is a good strategy? What would you do?

§

§ Choose from N options:

- $v_i =$ **Unknown** true value of i th option.
- $V_i =$ **Known** unbiased estimate of v_i .

§ Large value desired.

§ **Regret:**

- Choose alternative i , expecting V_i .
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Positive regret if $y_i < V_i$.

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§ **Is this is a good strategy? What would you do?**

§ **Expect positive regret from V_{i^*} :** $E(V_{i^*} - y_{i^*}) > 0$.

On average, outcome optimum:

- **Is over-estimate.**
- **Has positive regret.**

§ Simple example.

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

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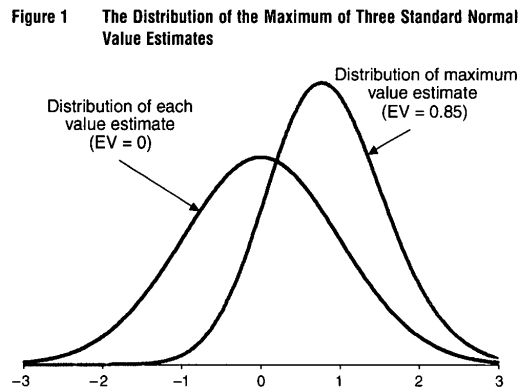


Figure 5: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

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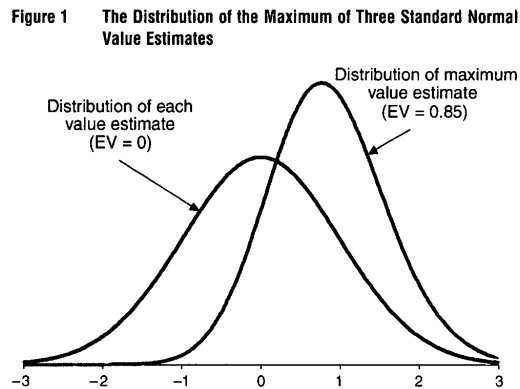


Figure 6: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

§ The mean of V_{i^*} is 0.85, fig. 6, right.

§

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Figure 1 The Distribution of the Maximum of Three Standard Normal Value Estimates

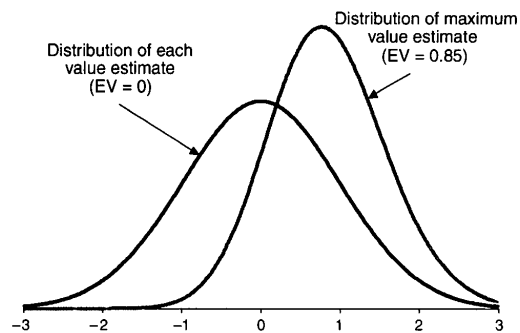


Figure 7: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

§ The mean of V_{i^*} is 0.85, fig. 7, right.

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§

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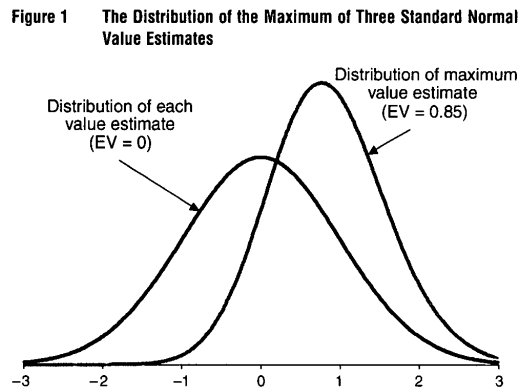


Figure 8: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

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§ Is outcome optimization a good strategy?

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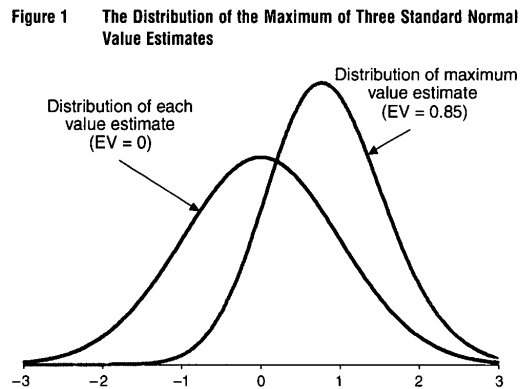


Figure 9: Smith and Winkler (2006), fig. 1.

§ The mean of V_{i^*} is 0.85, fig. 9, right.

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

§ Is outcome optimization a good strategy?

§ What do engineers mean by “optimal design”?

~~~~

Part II

# Uncertainty

§ We have reviewed many

**human foibles** of decision making:

- **Catch-All Underestimation Bias.**
-



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Ignorance, surprise, change.

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Ignorance, surprise, change.

§ We now look at **uncertainty.**

## 9 *Theories and the Real World*

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§ **Real world:** drop a stone; it falls.

§

## Theories and the Real World

§ **Real world:** drop a stone; it falls.

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§ Science **will improve tomorrow**.

Hence **today we are ignorant**.

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Hence **today we are ignorant**.

§ Is **ignorance** probabilistic?

# 10 *Principle of Indifference*

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The probabilistic domain of discourse  
does not encompass all epistemic uncertainty.

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§ **The info-gap contention:**

The probabilistic domain of discourse  
does not encompass all epistemic uncertainty.

§ **We will consider common misuses of probability.**

## 10.1 *2-Envelope Riddle*

### § The riddle:

- You are presented with two envelopes.
  - Each contains a positive sum of money.
  - One contains twice the contents of the other.
- You **choose an envelope**, open it, and find \$ 50.
- **Would you like to switch envelopes?**

§ **You reason** as follows:

- Other envelope contains either \$ 25 or \$ 100.
- **Principle of indifference:**
- Assume equal probabilities.

The expected value upon switching is:

$$\text{E.V.} = \frac{1}{2} \$ 25 + \frac{1}{2} \$ 100 = \$ 62.50.$$

$$\$ 62.50 > \$ 50.$$

- Yes! **Let's switch**, you say.

## § The riddle, re-visited:

- You are presented with two envelopes.
  - Each contains a positive sum of money.
  - One contains twice the contents of the other.
- You **choose an envelope**, but do not open it.
- **Would you like to switch envelopes?**

§ You reason as follows:

- This envelope contains  $\$ X > \$ 0$ .
- Other envelope contains either  $\$ 2X$  or  $\$ \frac{1}{2}X$ .
- **Principle of indifference:**
- Assume equal probabilities.

The expected value upon switching is:

$$\text{E.V.} = \frac{1}{2} \$ 2X + \frac{1}{2} \$ \frac{1}{2}X = \$ \left(1 + \frac{1}{4}\right)X > X.$$

- Yes! **Let's switch**, you say.

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- Yes! **Let's switch**, you say.

§ You wanna switch again? **And again? And again?**

## 10.2 *Keynes' Example*

§  $\rho =$  specific gravity [ $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ ] is **unknown**:

$$1 \leq \rho \leq 3$$

§

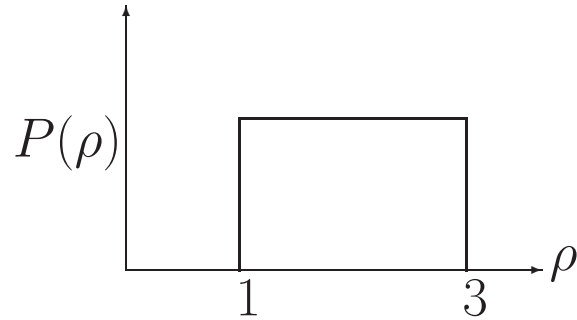


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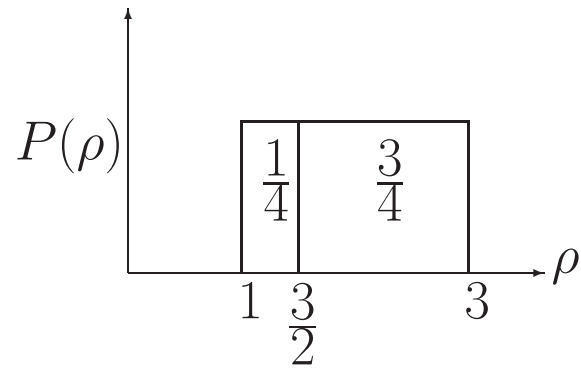
§ **Principle of indifference**:

Uniform distribution in  $[1, 3]$ , so:



§ Uniform distribution in  $[1, 3]$ , so:

$$\text{Prob} \left( \frac{3}{2} \leq \rho \leq 3 \right) = \frac{3}{4}$$



§  $\phi =$  specific volume [ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ ] is **unknown**:

$$\frac{1}{3} \leq \phi \leq 1$$

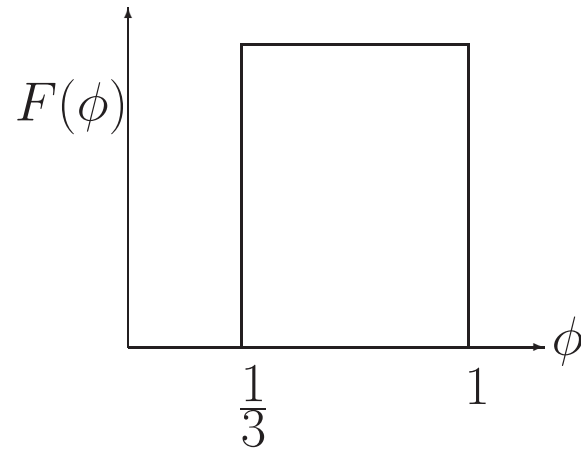
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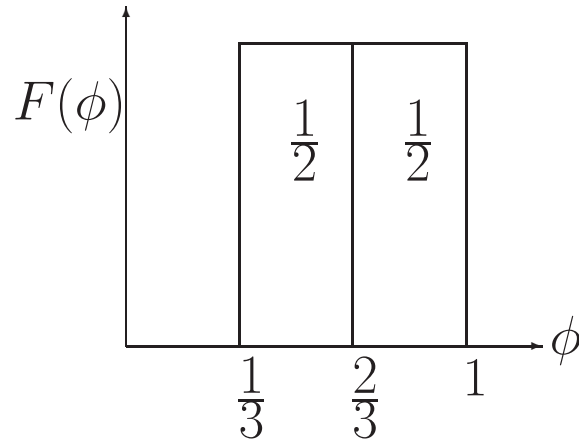
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## § Principle of indifference:

Uniform distribution in  $[\frac{1}{3}, 1]$ , so:

$$\mathbf{Prob} \left( \frac{1}{3} \leq \phi \leq \frac{2}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{2}$$



§ These two events are identical:

$$\underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{3} \leq \phi \leq \frac{2}{3}\right)}_{\text{Specific volume}} \equiv \underbrace{\left(\frac{3}{2} \leq \rho \leq 3\right)}_{\text{Specific gravity}}$$

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§ **The Culprit:** Principle of indifference.

§ Ignorance is **not probabilistic**. It's an **info-gap**.

# 11 *Pascal's Wager*

§ We now ask: Why is it  
difficult to make a binary decision under ignorance?

§

§ **We now ask:** Why is it **difficult** to make a **binary decision** under **ignorance**?

§ **Examples of binary decisions:**

- God, no God?
- Truth, no truth?
- Seeing is believing?
- This theory is true or false?

## ~~Pascal's Wager~~



Figure 10: Blaise Pascal, 1623-1662.

The wager is described in *Pensées* as:

“‘God is, or He is not.’ Reason can decide nothing here. ... Heads or tails will turn up. What will you wager? ...

“If you gain, you gain all; if you lose, you lose nothing. Wager, then, without hesitation that He is. ... Since there is an equal risk of gain and of loss, ...”

*~~Pascal's Wager~~*

Figure 11: Blaise Pascal, 1623-1662.

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§ When “reason can decide nothing”:

- 1st paragraph: Is probability a good tool?
-

## ~~Pascal's Wager~~



Figure 12: Blaise Pascal, 1623-1662.

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*~~Pascal's Wager~~*

Figure 13: Blaise Pascal, 1623-1662.

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§ When “reason can decide nothing”:

- 1st paragraph: Is probability a good tool?
- Do you have a better suggestion?
- 2nd paragraph:  
Is reasoning from the consequences legitimate?

## **12** *Lewis Carroll's Transcendental Probability*

## Lewis Carroll's

~~ *Transcendental Probability* ~~

Figure 14: Dodgson, 1832–1898.



Figure 15: Alice

“A bag contains **2 counters**, as to which nothing is known except that each is **either black or white**. Ascertain their colours without taking them out of the bag.”

## Lewis Carroll's

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Figure 16: Dodgson, 1832–1898.



Figure 17: Alice

“A bag contains **2 counters**, as to which nothing is known except that each is **either black or white**. Ascertain their colours without taking them out of the bag.”

**Answer:** “One is black, and the other white.”

§ **Carroll assumed equal probabilities.**

Was he justified?

§ **Are such simple examples useful?**

## 13 *3-Door Problem (Monty Hall Problem)*

### § Sources:

- Plous, chapter 12.
- Yakov Ben-Haim, 1996,  
*Robust Reliability in the  
Mechanical Sciences*, section 7.1.

§ Prize in 1 of 3 boxes:

§

§ **Prize** in 1 of 3 boxes:  ?  ?  ?

§ **Choose** a box:  C  ?  ?

§

§ **Prize** in 1 of 3 boxes:  ?  ?  ?

§ **Choose** a box:  C  ?  ?

§ **M.C. knows** where the prize is.

§ **M.C. opens** an empty box:  C  E  T

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§ Want to change your choice?

$$C \implies T$$

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$$C \implies T$$

§ Is the situation binary indifference?  C  T

§ Is the change justified?

§ What have you assumed? Equal probabilities?

§ Would you reach the same decision for any probability distribution?

~ ~ ~

## 14 *Principle of Indifference: Continuation*

§ **We now generalize our discussion.**

## 14.1 *Shackle-Popper Indeterminism*

## § Intelligence:

What people know,  
influences how they behave.

§



## § **Intelligence:**

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## § **Discovery:**

What will be discovered tomorrow  
cannot be known today.

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Tomorrow's behavior cannot be  
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§ **Information-gaps**, indeterminisms,  
sometimes  
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## § Two types of discoveries:

- Discover what **does exist** (recovery).
  - America.
  - HIV virus.
  - House keys.
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- Discover what **does exist** (recovery).
  - America.
  - HIV virus.
  - House keys.
- Discover what **does not exist** (invention).
  - Mathematical theorem (Hardy disagreed).
  - Idea of freedom.
  - Beethoven's 5th symphony.

§

## § Two types of discoveries:

- Discover what **does exist** (recovery).
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  - HIV virus.
  - House keys.
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  - Einstein's argument for God, maybe:  
“Subtle is the Lord, but malicious He is not.”

## 14.2 *Shackle-Popper and the Newtonian Paradigm*

## § Shackle-Popper indeterminism:

- Discovery and intelligent knowledge-based behavior.
-

## § **Shackle-Popper indeterminism:**

- **Discovery and intelligent knowledge-based behavior.**
- **Unavoidable uncertainty about the future.**

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## § Is there a **conflict** here?

## § Yes.

- Shackle-Popper: **Open universe.**
- Newton: **Closed universe.**

## Early modern:

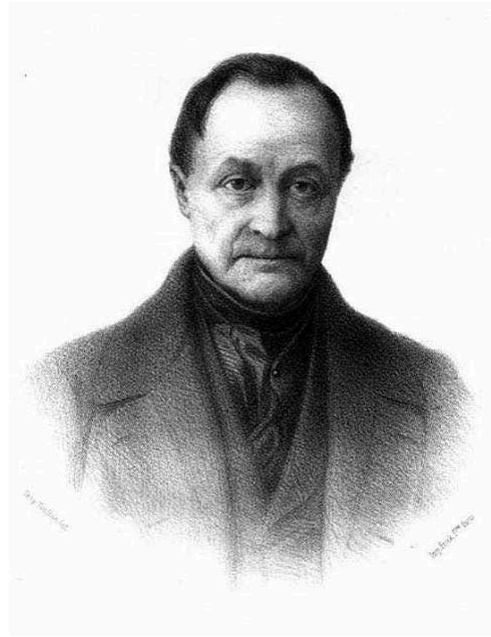
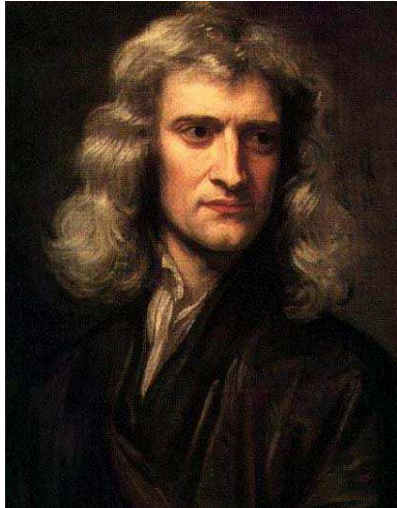


Figure 18: **Newton**, 1642–1727. Figure 19: **Comte**, 1798–1857.

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## Late modern:

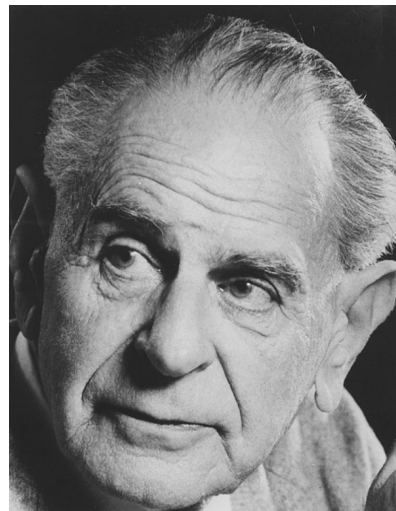


Figure 20: **Shackle**, 1903–1992. Figure 21: **Popper**, 1902–1994.

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- Creation ended. Universe fixed.
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## Summary of the Conflict

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## Summary of the Conflict

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- Eq'ns of motion: **predictive trajectories**.

### § Shackle-Popper indeterminism:

- Intelligent learning (open) systems.
- Laws of the system change.
- Theories (models) give insight.
- **Prediction is always difficult ...**  
especially of the future.



§ If not Newton, then **what?**

§ **Crisis of models:**

- Are they good for anything?

And if so, why do buildings fall, markets crash ...

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  - Can engineering handle social problems?
  - Can engineers interface with social decision makers?
- **Economics:** Why the frequent surprises?



Figure 22: **Henry Adams 1838–1918.**

“**Images** are not arguments, but the mind craves them. [T]wenty images better than one, especially if contradictory; since the human mind has already learned to **deal in contradictions.**”

§ **Models**, the more the merrier.

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Figure 23: Henry Adams 1838–1918.

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§ **Models**, the more the merrier.

§ Is this a **Newton-Comte** or **Shackle-Popper** idea?

### 14.3 *Intelligent Learning System: Example*

## **Inflation Prediction**

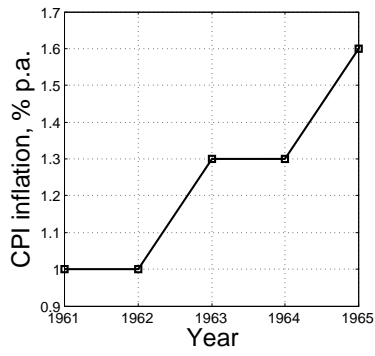


Figure 24: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965.

§ Model US inflation '61–'65. Predict '66.

'61–'65: Linear?

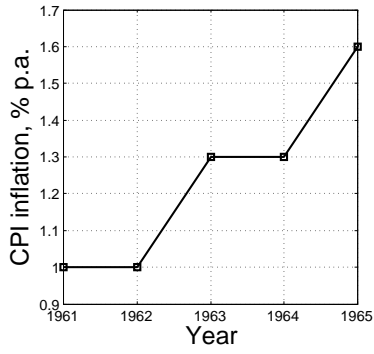


Figure 25: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965.

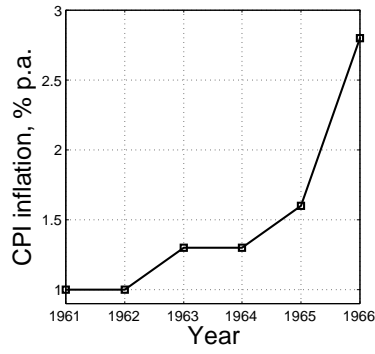


Figure 26: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1966.

§ '61–'65: Linear?

§ '61–'66: Piece-wise linear? Quadratic?

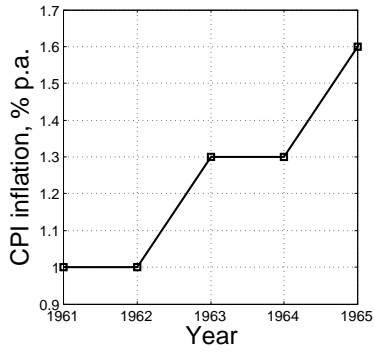


Figure 27: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965.

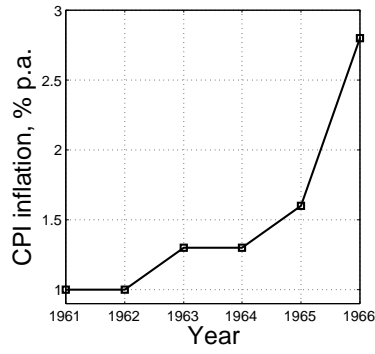


Figure 28: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1966.

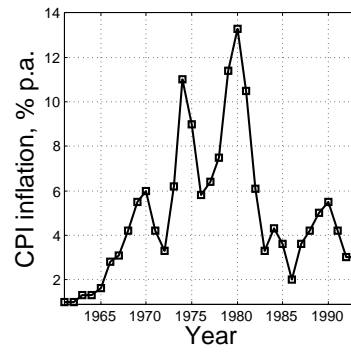


Figure 29: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1993.

§ '61–'65: Linear?

§ '61–'66: Piece-wise linear? Quadratic?

§ '61–'93: A mess?

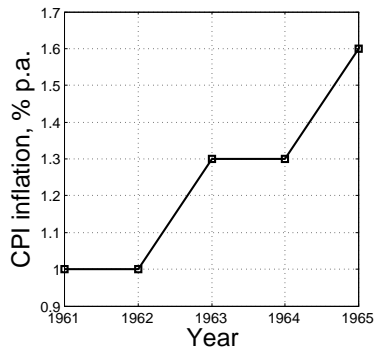


Figure 30: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965.

### § US inflation '61–'65:

- Model '61–'65 for predicting '66.
- Use **data** and **contextual insight**:  
Economy heating up. No data yet.



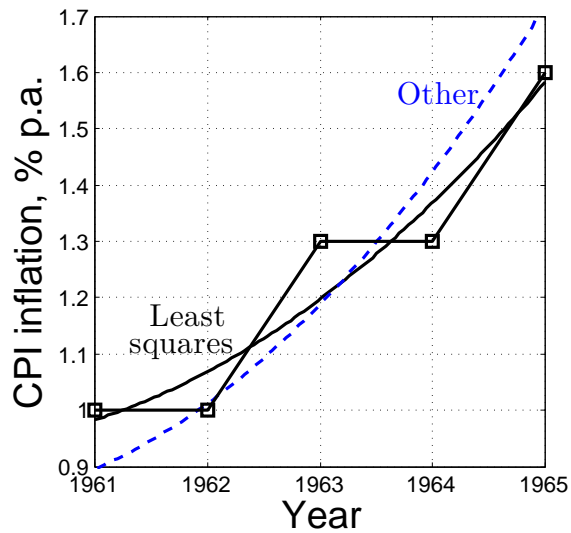


Figure 31: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965, and least squares fit (solid) and other fit (dash).

§ Least squares and **other** fit: fig. 31.

§ **Evaluate fit:**

- Fidelity to history (—). • Fidelity to future (— —).
- Which is “Newton-Comte” or “Shackle-Popper”?

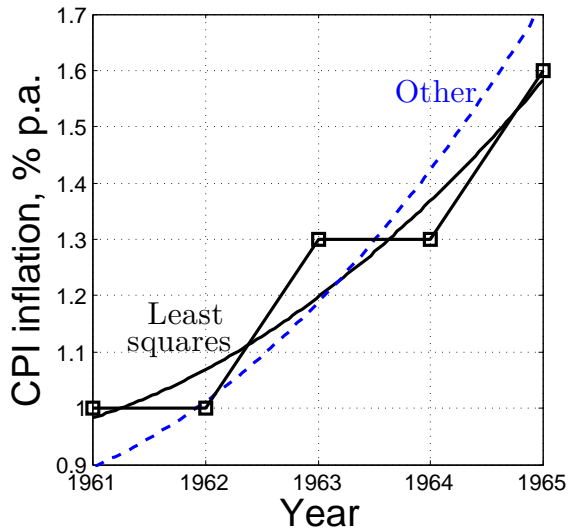


Figure 32: US inflation vs. year, 1961–1965, and least squares fit (solid) and other fit (dash).

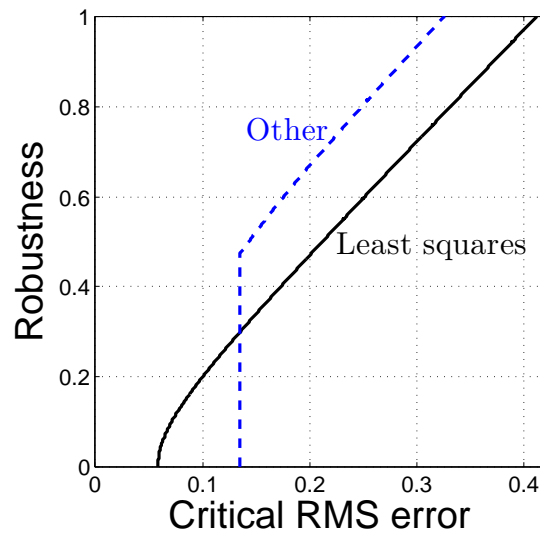


Figure 33: Robustness vs. critical root mean squared error for inflation 1961–1965 for least squares fit (solid) and other fit (dash).

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§ **Robust of LS and other fit:** fig. 33.

- Curve-crossing: **preference reversal.**
- Is this pragmatic or principled?
- Newton-Comte or Shackle-Popper?

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## § Info-gap theory:

- Unstructured uncertainty.
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- Robustness.

## 15 *Questions for Further Discussion*

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How did the species survive if not?

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§ Some people are better DMs than others.  
Implications for democracy?

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- In science?
- In politics?
- In art?

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§ What is rationality?

- Is there only one rationality?
- Should all rational people always agree?



*In Conclusion*

Human decision making  
under **uncertainty**  
is  
**S***t***r***a***n***G***e**

