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STO TECHNICAL REPORT

PUB REF STO-MP-SAS-114-PPI

ANNEX I

**Optimal Experimental Design Theory, Asymmetric Cost
Structures, and the Value of Information**

Jonathan D. Nelson

Optimal Experimental Design Theory, Asymmetric Cost Structures, and the Value of Information

Jonathan D. Nelson

NATO SAS-114 Meeting
Kastellet, Copenhagen, December 6th, 2016

“There is nothing so practical as a good theory”. --Lewin, 1951

→ the entropy content in this talk is a preview of Crupi, Nelson, Meder, Cevolani, & Tentori (submitted). For questions on it, or if you wish to cite it, please contact Prof. Vincenzo Crupi (vincenzo.crupi@unito.it).

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<http://jonathandnelson.com/>



Why should the Intelligence Community care...

- ... about theory of what makes an investigation useful?
 - statisticians, mathematicians, and philosophers have thought a lot
 - state of the art performance in many domains (classification trees, image registration, predicting eye movements)
- ... about the psychology of information?
 - current ideas of human psychology are out of date / simplistic / not specific enough to be helpful (“confirmation bias”)
 - usually people decide what information to collect or analyze
 - psychology needs to be characterized, to understand discrepancies between human intuition and normative valuation of information

Part 1 of 3: history and state of the art of the math

Finding a useful experiment (test, question)

Domain	Hypotheses	Questions	Answers
Science	Theories	Experiments	Possible results
Categorization	Individual categories	Features to view	Forms of features
Medical diagnosis	Possible diseases	Medical tests	+ / - test results
Intelligence Analysis	J is a terrorist (or not)	Reads terrorist pubs? Plays with explosives?	

- we don't have (and can't get) all the info we need
- but carefully selected experiments (tests, investigations, questions) can help

Background: what makes a question (or experiment) useful?

- many ideas in statistics, since 1950s (Good, Lindley, etc)
- there was no overarching rhyme or reason (bag of tricks)
- the most psychologically plausible ideas had to do with expected reduction in uncertainty (or similar)

(Nelson, *Psych Rev*, 2005)

Core ideas

NB: knowledge assumptions much stronger than from Jonas's talk

- We want to know $K=\{k_1, k_2, \dots k_n\}$
- We can observe $D=\{d_1, d_2, \dots d_m\}$
- We know $P(K \times D)$
- How surprising is it if $K=k_i$?
- How uncertain is K , on average?
- How much would knowing $D=d_j$ reduce uncertainty?
- What is the expected uncertainty reduction if we query D ?

	d_1	d_2	...	d_m	Σ
k_1					$P(k_1)$
k_2					$P(k_2)$
...					...
k_n					$P(k_n)$
Σ	$P(d_1)$	$P(d_2)$...	$P(d_m)$	1

What we could quantify with a measure of uncertainty?

- ecosystem health
- income inequality in a society
- uncertainty about
 - the true category
 - a patient's disease
 - the best scientific hypothesis
- **expected information gain of an experiment**
(expected reduction from prior to posterior uncertainty)

What is uncertainty?

(not the plenary smorgasbord from Bjørn Isaksen, but ...)

- **not knowing for sure**
(Popper-esque)
- **the number of possibilities minus 1**
(smells like a heuristic)
- **the probability of guessing incorrectly**
(Bayes's error)
- **expected surprise**
(handles all of the above, and many more!)

Some (weak) requirements for any entropy function

- definitions:
 - K is a random variable $K = \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n\}$, where $n \geq 2$
 - $\text{ent}(K)$ is the uncertainty about the value that K will take
- we would like an entropy function such that
 - $\text{ent}(K) \geq 0$
 - if $\max_{\{i=1:n\}} P(k_i) = 1$, then $\text{ent}(K) = 0$
 - maximal (ties allowed) if $P(k_1) = P(k_2) \dots = P(k_n) = 1/n$, for any n
 - permutation invariant: reordering the $P(k_i)$ does not change $\text{ent}(K)$
 - extensible: addition of zero-probability k_i does not change $\text{ent}(K)$
 - broader than Shannon, Tsallis, Renyi, Arimoto, even Sharma-Mittal

→ the entropy content in this talk is a preview of Crupi, Nelson, Meder, Cevolani, & Tentori (submitted). For questions on it, or if you wish to cite it, please contact Prof. Vincenzo Crupi (vincenzo.crupi@unito.it).

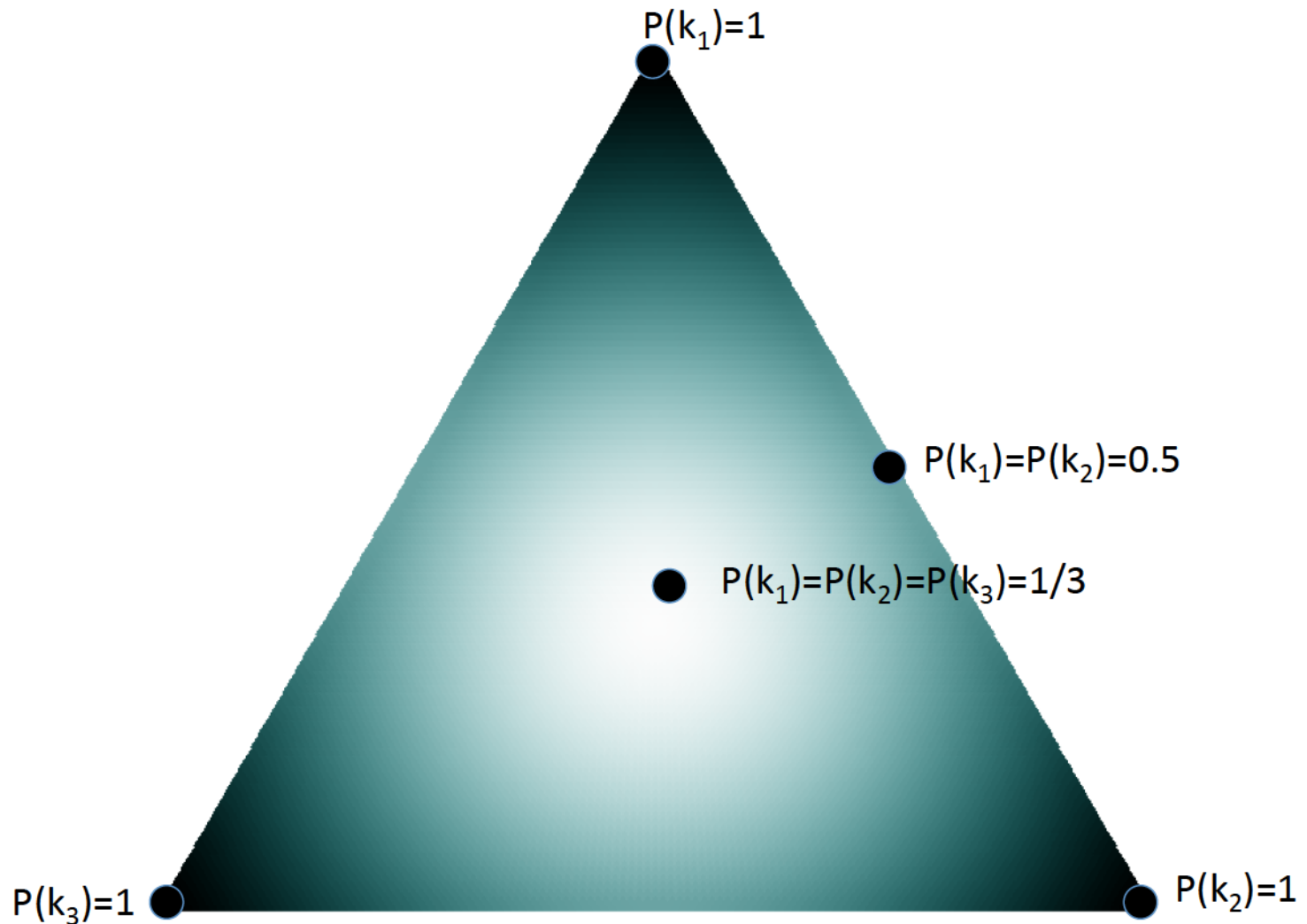
Isn't Shannon entropy the correct uncertainty measure?

Axiomatic characterizations of entropy also go back to Shannon. In his view, this is “in no way necessary for the theory” but “lends a certain plausibility” to the definition of entropy and related information measures. “The real justification resides” in operational relevance of these measures. --Imre Csiszár (2008)

Entropy as expected surprise

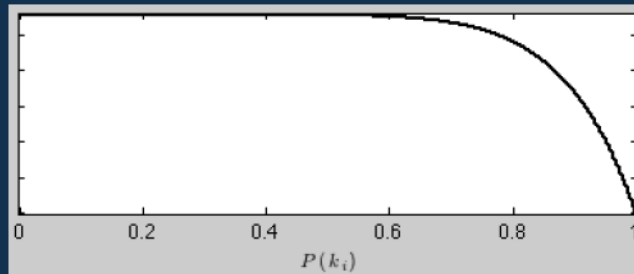
- entropy in K is average surprise: $\text{ent}(K) = \sum_{i=1}^n [P(k_i) \text{surp}(k_i)]$
- then if $\text{surp}(k_i) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$, we get $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ entropy
 - $\text{surp}(k_i) = \underline{(1 - P(k_i))}$, Quadratic entropy (Gini, 1912)
 - $\text{surp}(k_i) = \underline{\ln \frac{1}{P(k_i)}}$, Shannon (1948) entropy
 - $\text{surp}(k_i) = \underline{\ln_q \frac{1}{P(k_i)}}$, Tsallis (1988) entropy

Shannon entropy of $K=[k_1, k_2, k_3]$. Black=none, white=max

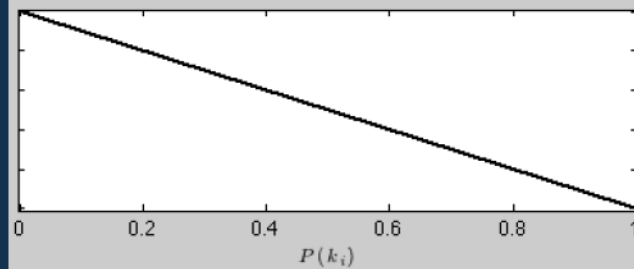


Tsallis surprise and Tsallis entropy, for various degrees q :

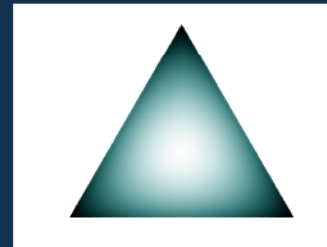
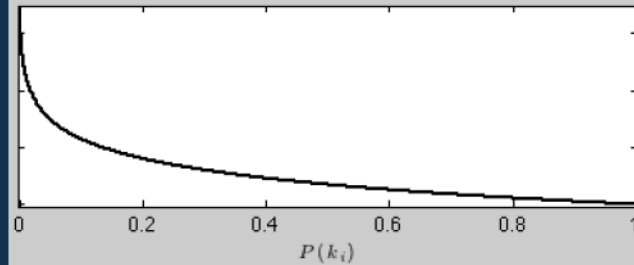
$q = 10$



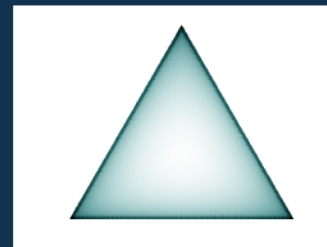
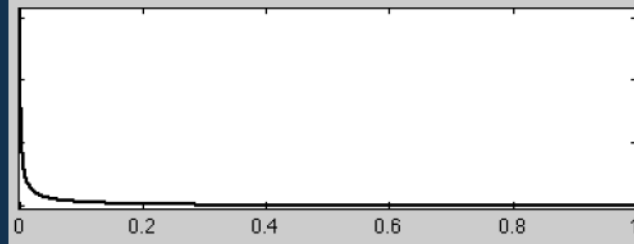
$q = 2$



$q = 1$



$q = 0.2$



0 0.5 1
 $P(k_i)$

entropy

Rényi (1961) entropy: different expectations of surprise:

- Rényi: instead of averaging the surprise values themselves, use a (magic) function of those surprise values to average them, in the General Theory of Means framework:

$$\text{ent}(K) = \ln \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left[P(k_i) e^{(1-r) \left(\ln \frac{1}{P(k_i)} \right)} \right] \right\}^{1-r}$$

Tsallis, Rényi, Sharma-Mittal, and Generalized Means

- General theory of means for self-weighted entropies:

$$\text{ent}(K) = g^{-1} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n [P(k_i) g(\text{surp}(k_i))] \right\}$$

- Tsallis:
 $g(x)=x$, $\text{surp}(k_i)=\ln_q(1/P(k_i))$

$$\text{ent}(K) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[P(k_i) \ln_q \frac{1}{P(k_i)} \right]$$

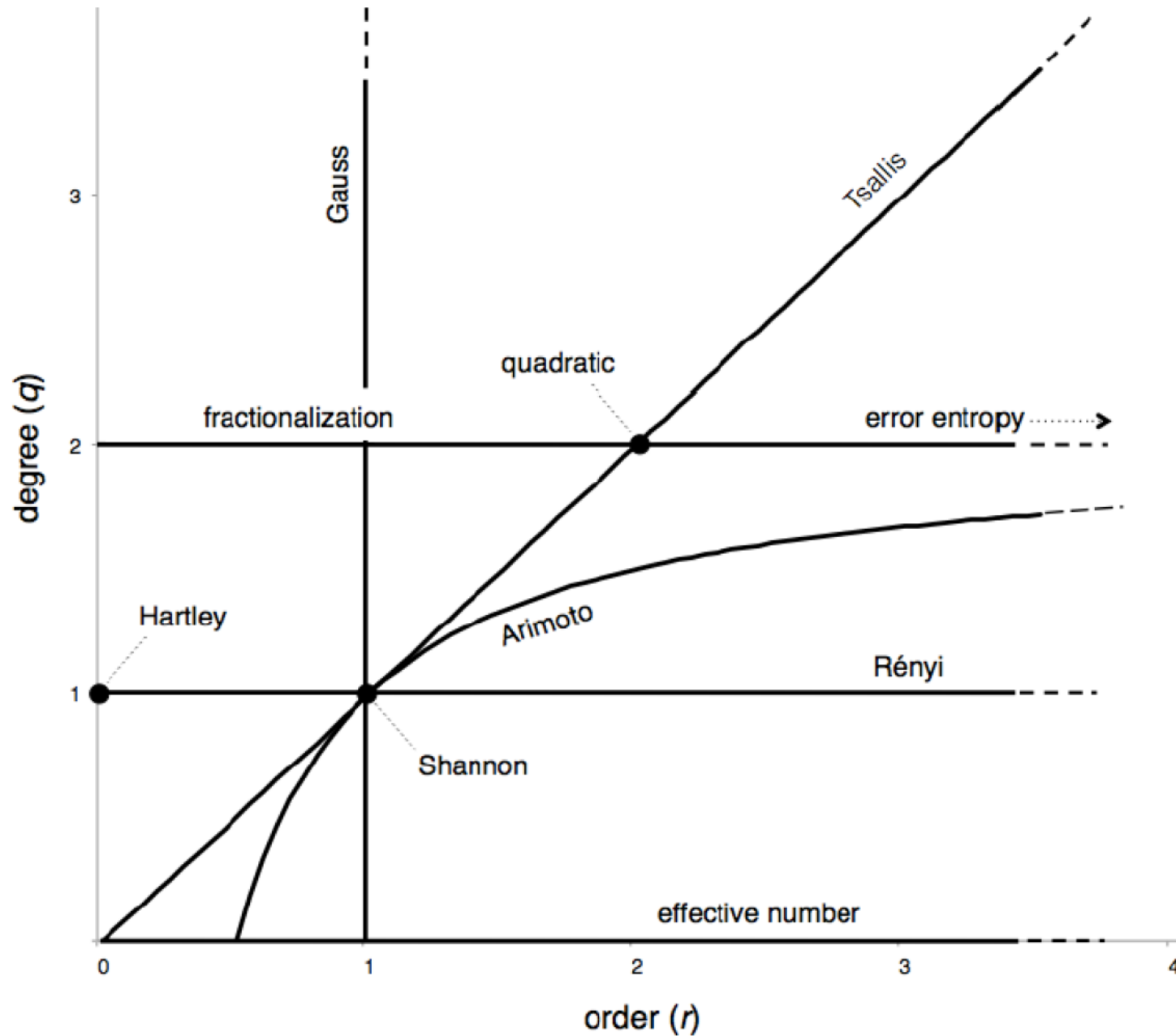
- Rényi:
 $g(x)=e^{(1-r)x}$, $\text{surp}(k_i)=\ln(1/P(k_i))$

$$\text{ent}(K) = \ln \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left[P(k_i) e^{(1-r)\left(\ln \frac{1}{P(k_i)}\right)} \right] \right\}^{1-r}$$

- Sharma-Mittal:
combine Rényi + Tsallis:
 r is order, q is degree
 - set $\text{surp}(k_i) = \ln_q 1/P(k_i)$
 - set $g(x) = \ln_q \exp_r x$

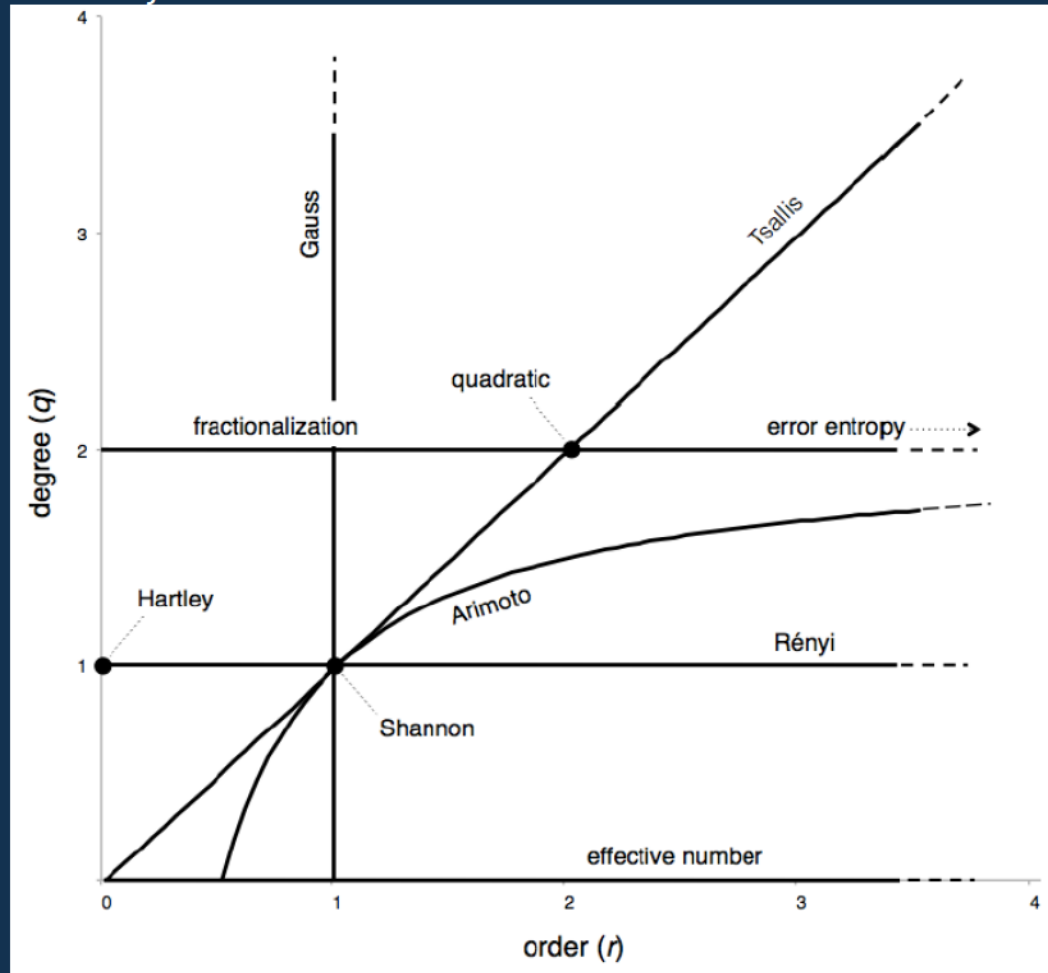
$$\text{ent}(K) = \frac{1}{q-1} \left[1 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n P(k_i)^r \right)^{\frac{q-1}{r-1}} \right]$$

Sharma-Mittal entropies



The value of an experiment (question)

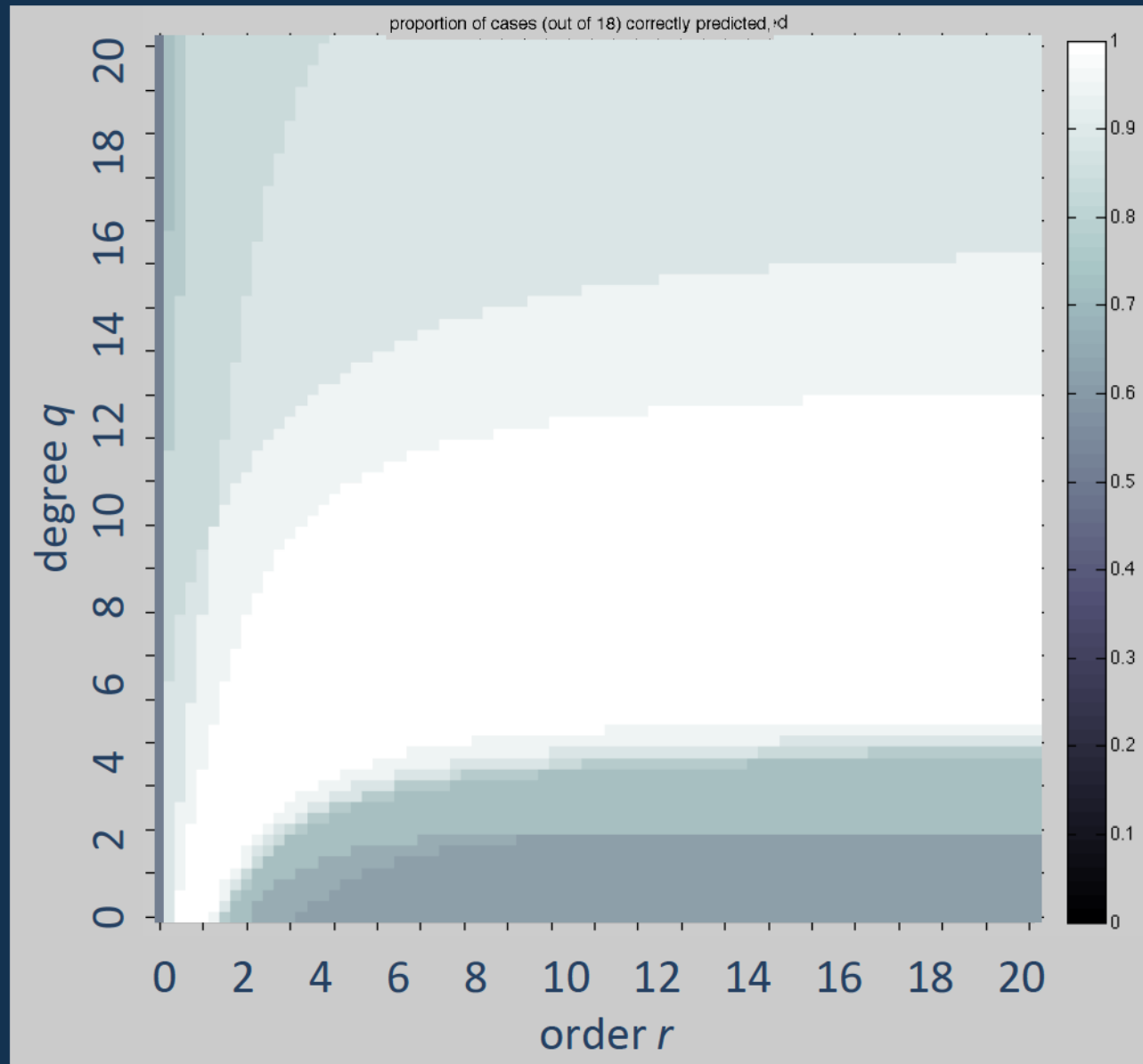
- consider experiment $D = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m\}$, $m \geq 2$
- $eu_{IG}(K, D) = ent(K) - ent(K|D)$,
 $ent(K|D) = \sum_{j=1:m} P(d_j) ent(K|d_j)$
- each entropy has a corresponding info gain
- which info gain best explains people?



Part 2 of 3: psychology of uncertainty & information

What Sharma Mittal information gain best explains people's choices given words-and-numbers probabilities?

- data from 18 Planet Vuma-type tasks (various papers)
- white = all experiments correctly predicted; black = none correctly predicted
- although individual responses very noisy, something systematic (attention to certainty)

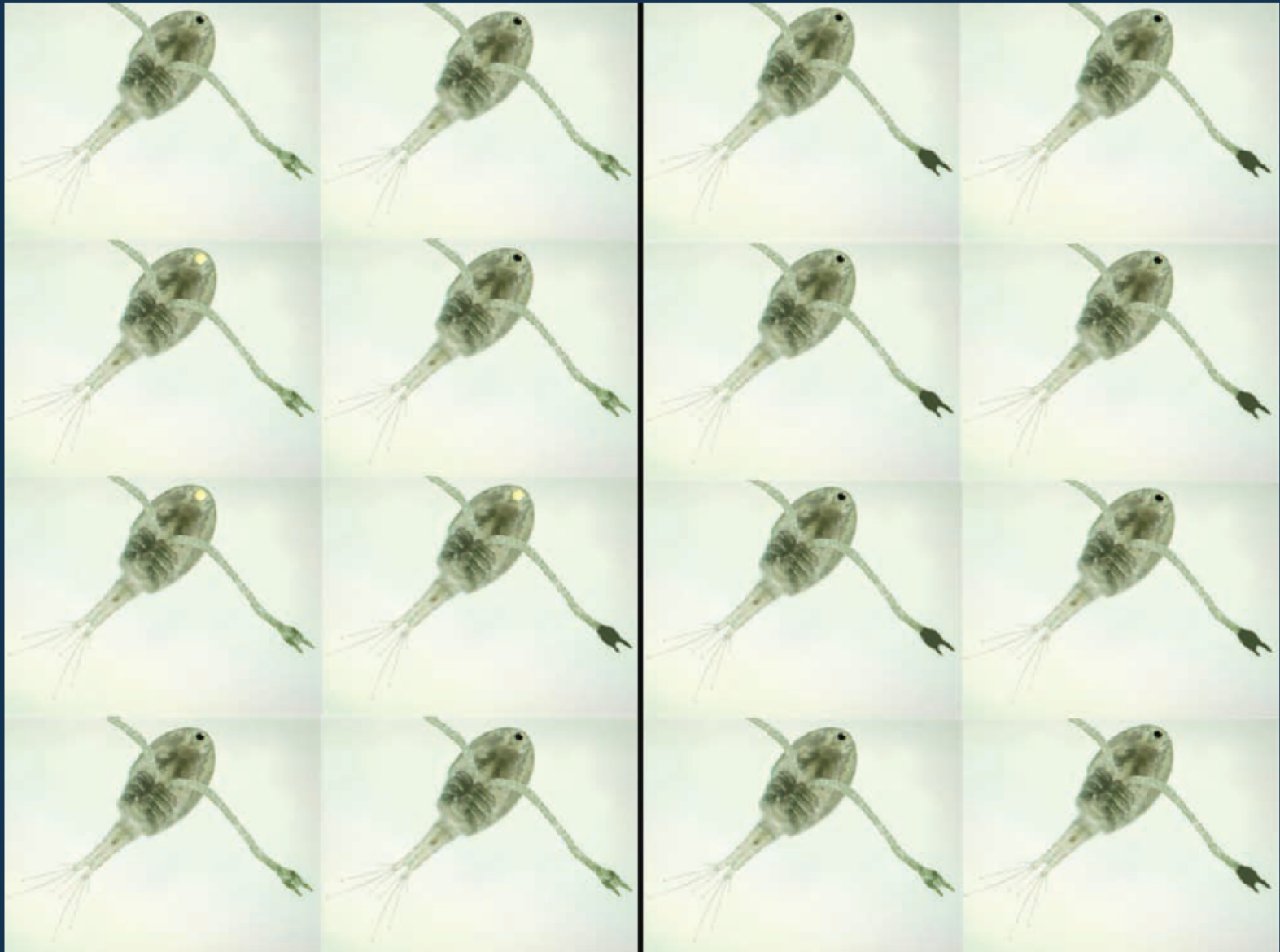






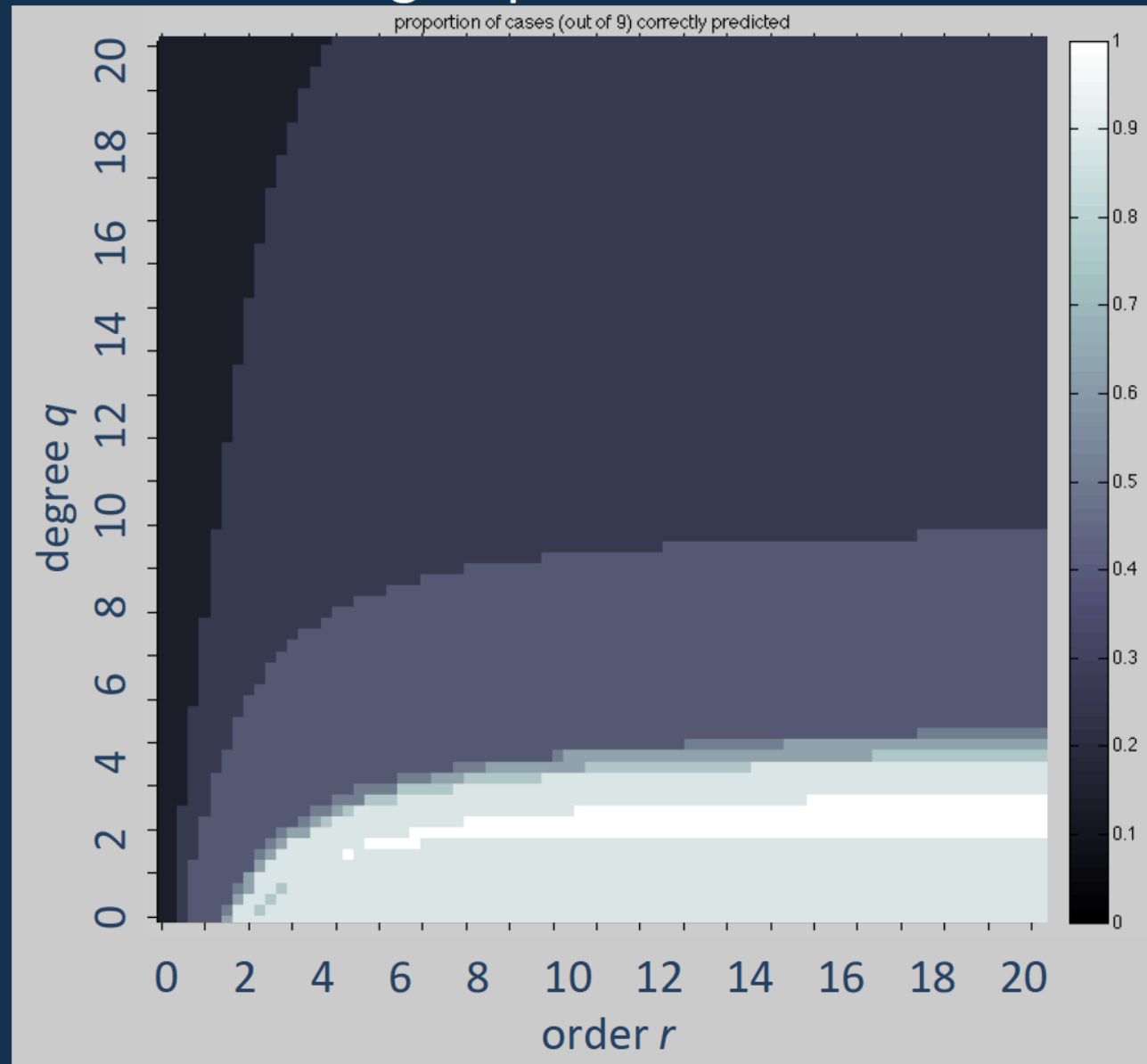
Species A plankton

Species B plankton



What information gain best explains people's choices given experience-based learning of probabilities??

- data from search choices following experience-based learning
(Nelson et al., *Psych Sci*, 2010)
- white = all experiments correctly predicted;
black = none correctly predicted
- moderate Arimoto works as well as error entropy

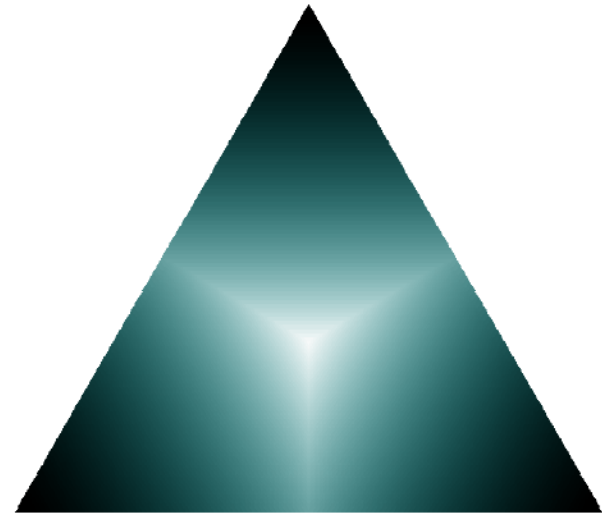
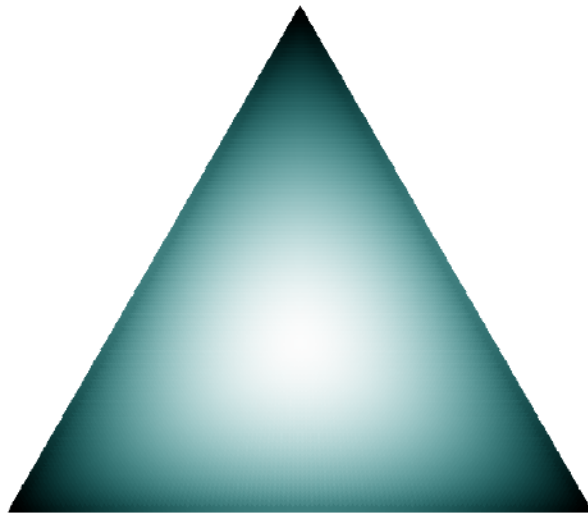


Our conundrum

Shannon is nice
theoretically

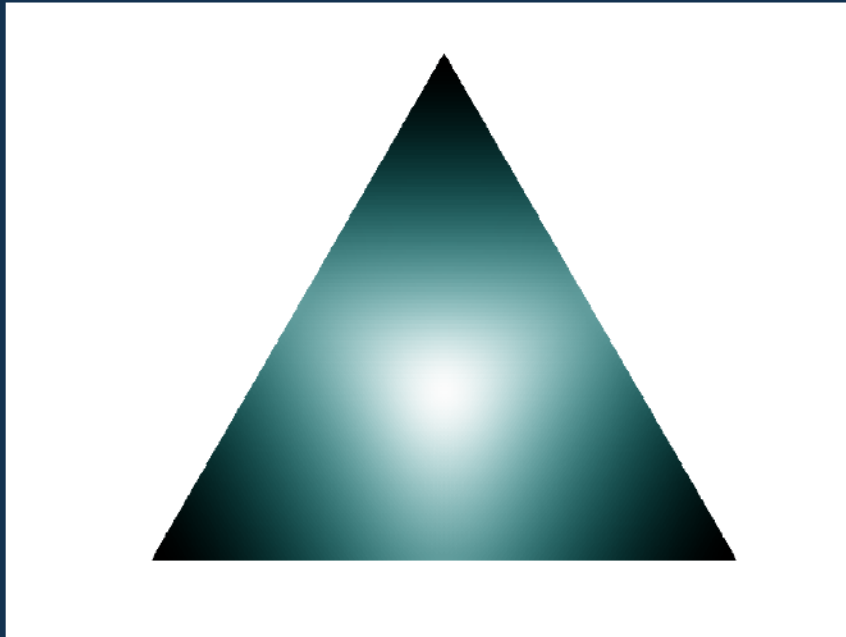
But error entropy explains
empirical data better

(Nelson et al., *Psych Sci*, 2010)

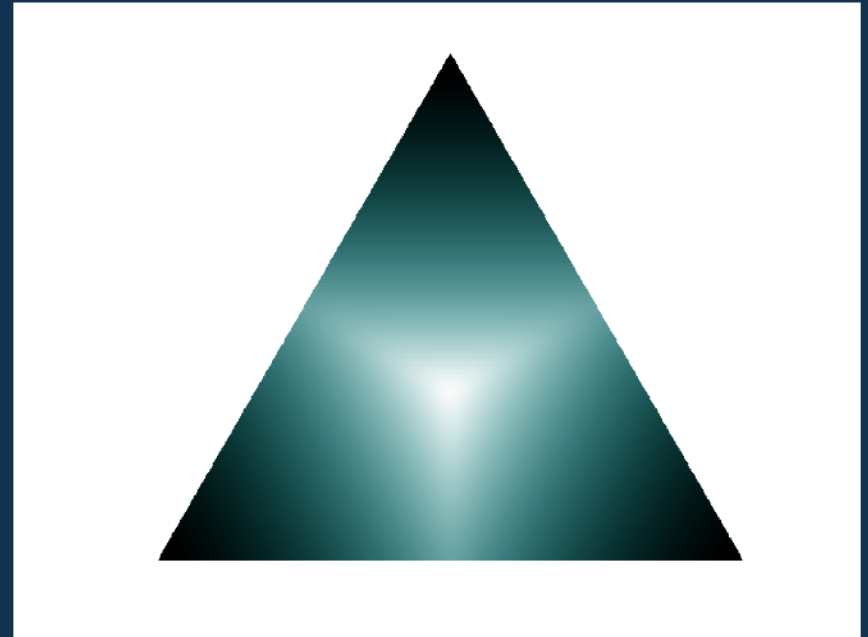


Maybe we can have our cake and eat it too?

Arimoto
(order=5, degree=1.8)



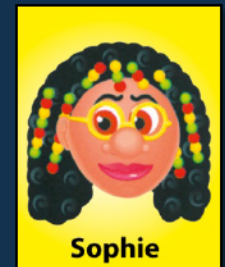
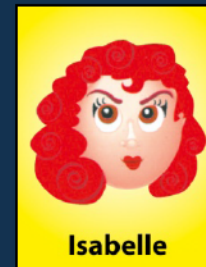
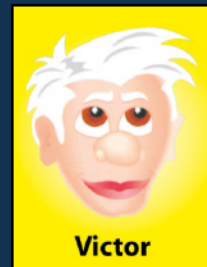
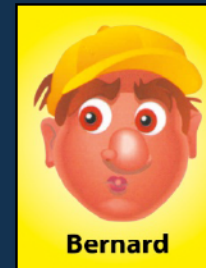
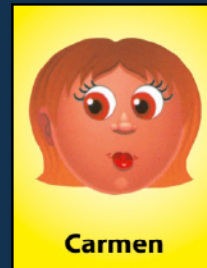
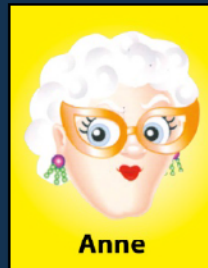
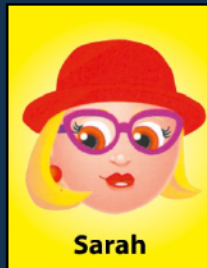
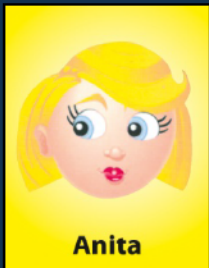
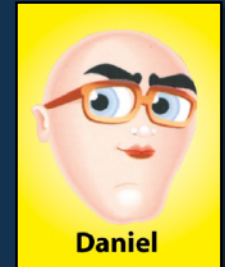
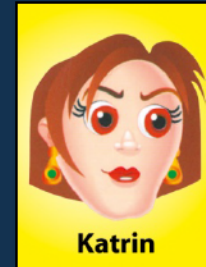
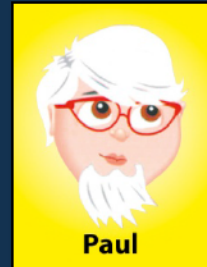
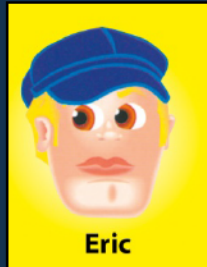
Arimoto
(order=20, degree=1.95)



The Person Game. (non-strategic)

Goal: identify the person, with fewest yes-no questions

from Nelson, Divjak, Gudmundsdóttir, Martignon & Meder, *Cognition*, 2014



The Person Game.

Is it a male face?



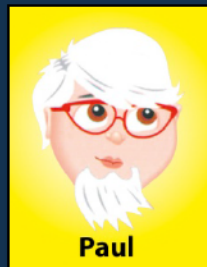
Philippe



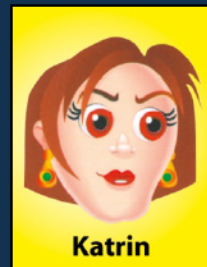
Eric



Lucas



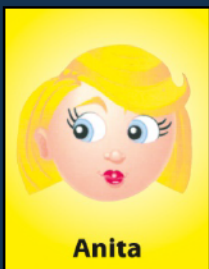
Paul



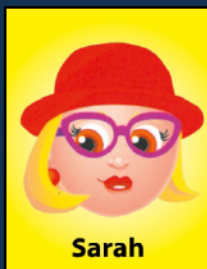
Katrin



Daniel



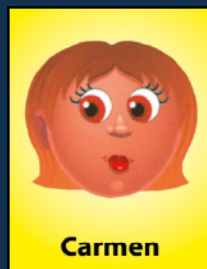
Anita



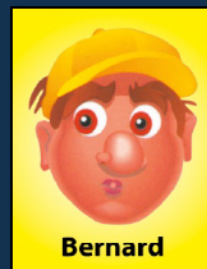
Sarah



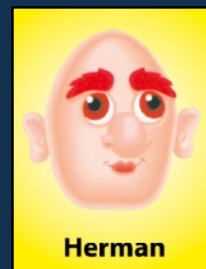
Anne



Carmen



Bernard



Herman



Maria



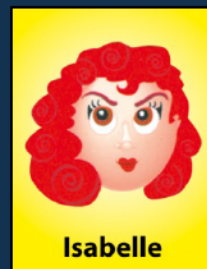
Theo



Stephen



Victor



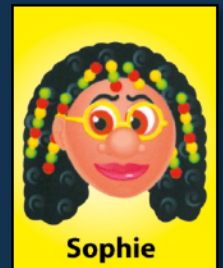
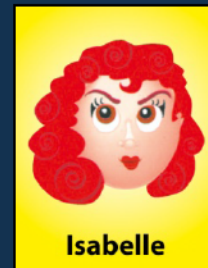
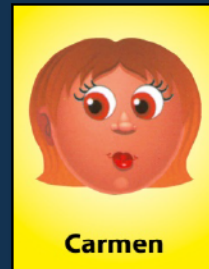
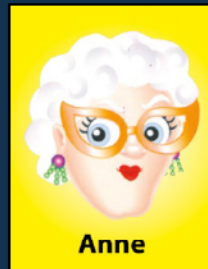
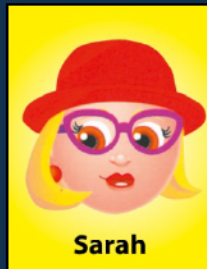
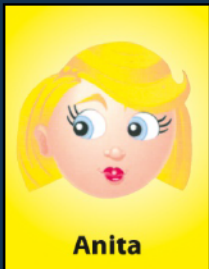
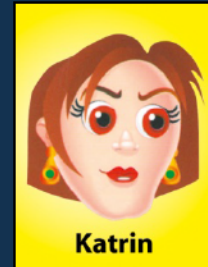
Isabelle



Sophie

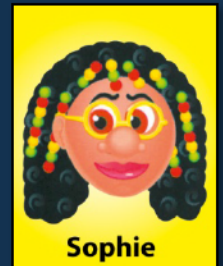
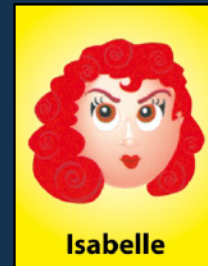
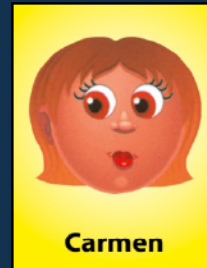
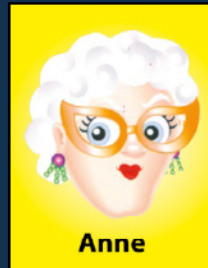
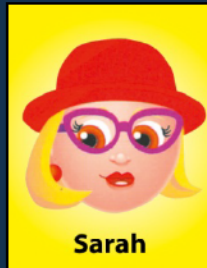
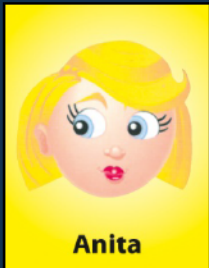
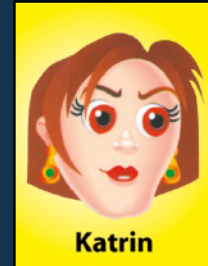
The Person Game.

Is it a male face? No



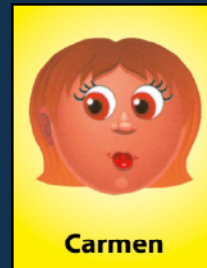
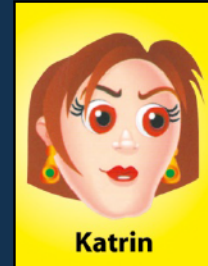
The Person Game.

Do they have brown hair?



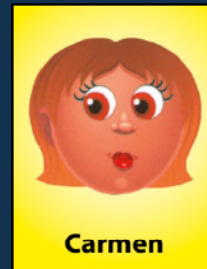
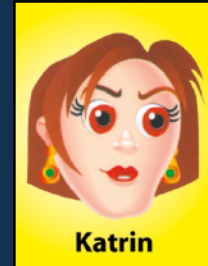
The Person Game.

Do they have brown hair? Yes



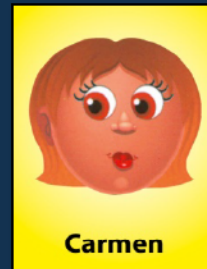
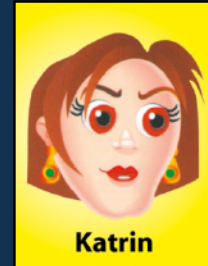
The Person Game.

Do they have a hat?



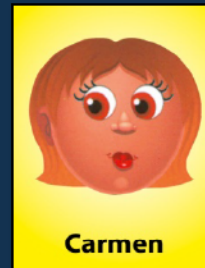
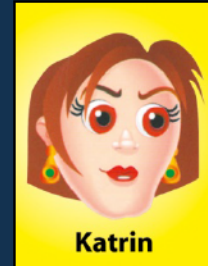
The Person Game.

Do they have a hat? No

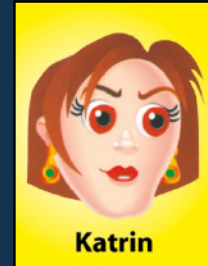


The Person Game.

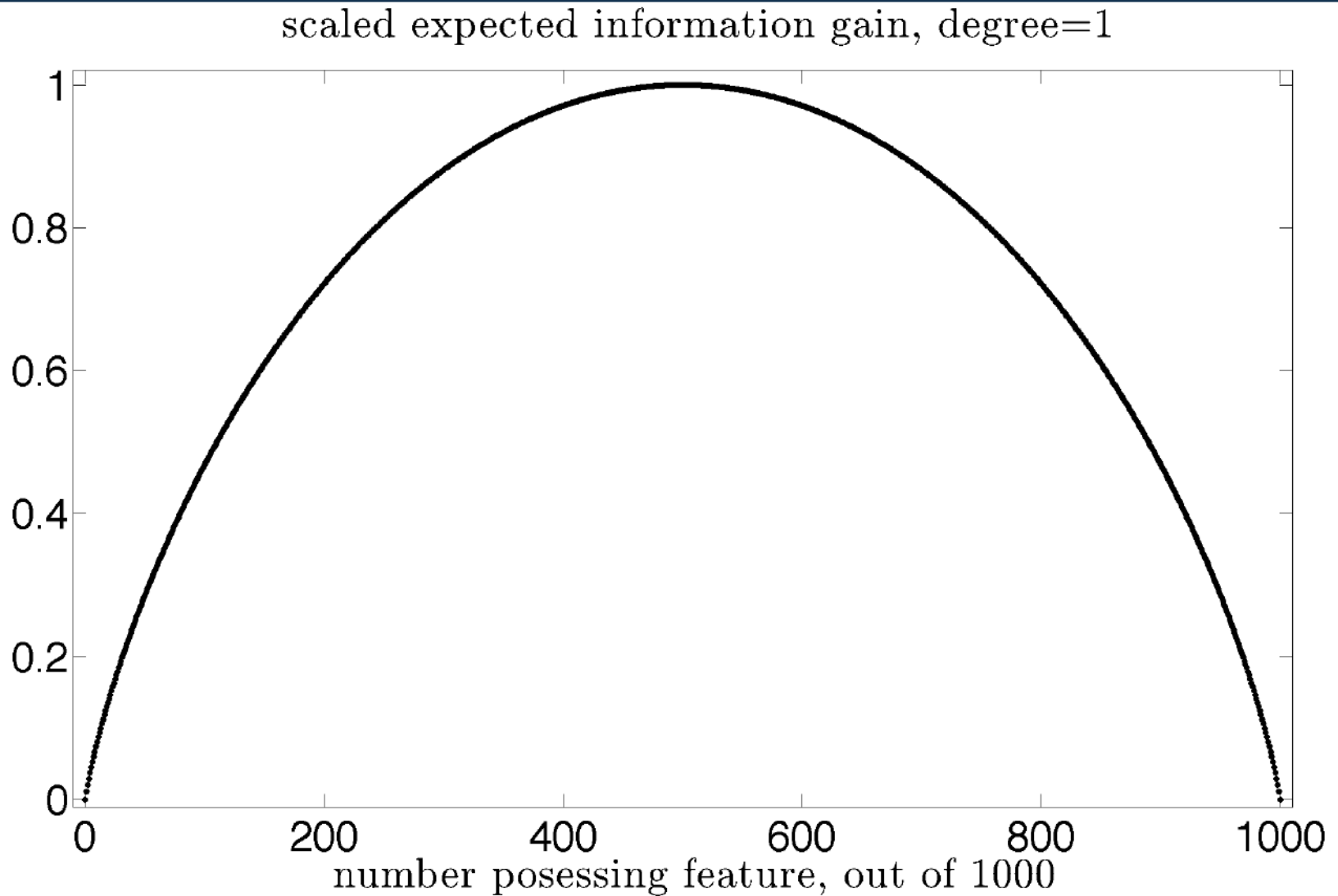
Do they have earrings?



The Person Game.
Do they have earrings? Yes



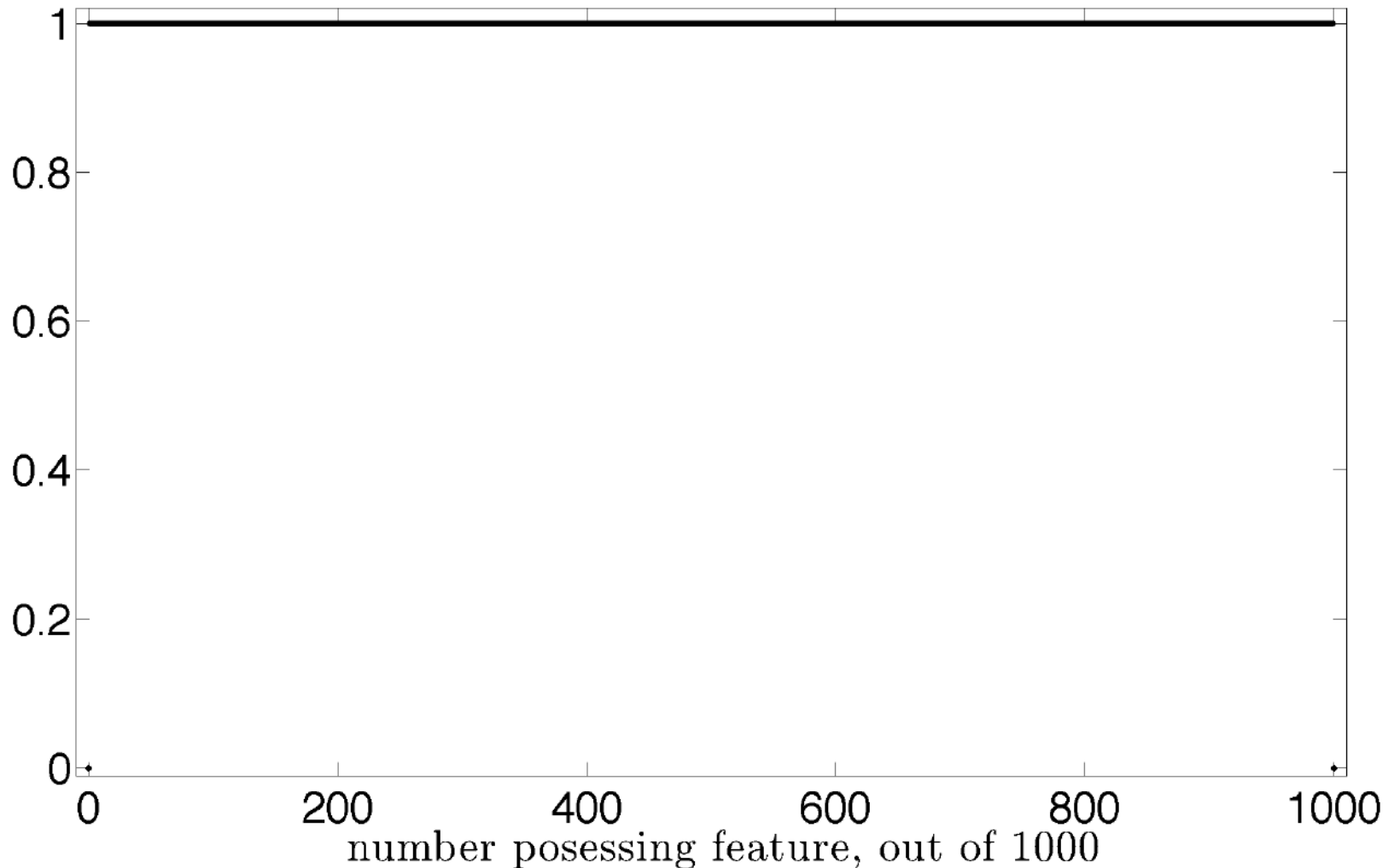
Shannon entropy likes splithalffy questions (splithalfiness)
“Ask about a feature that is possessed by 50% of remaining items”



Probability gain is indifferent to splithaleness

“All questions are equally useful”

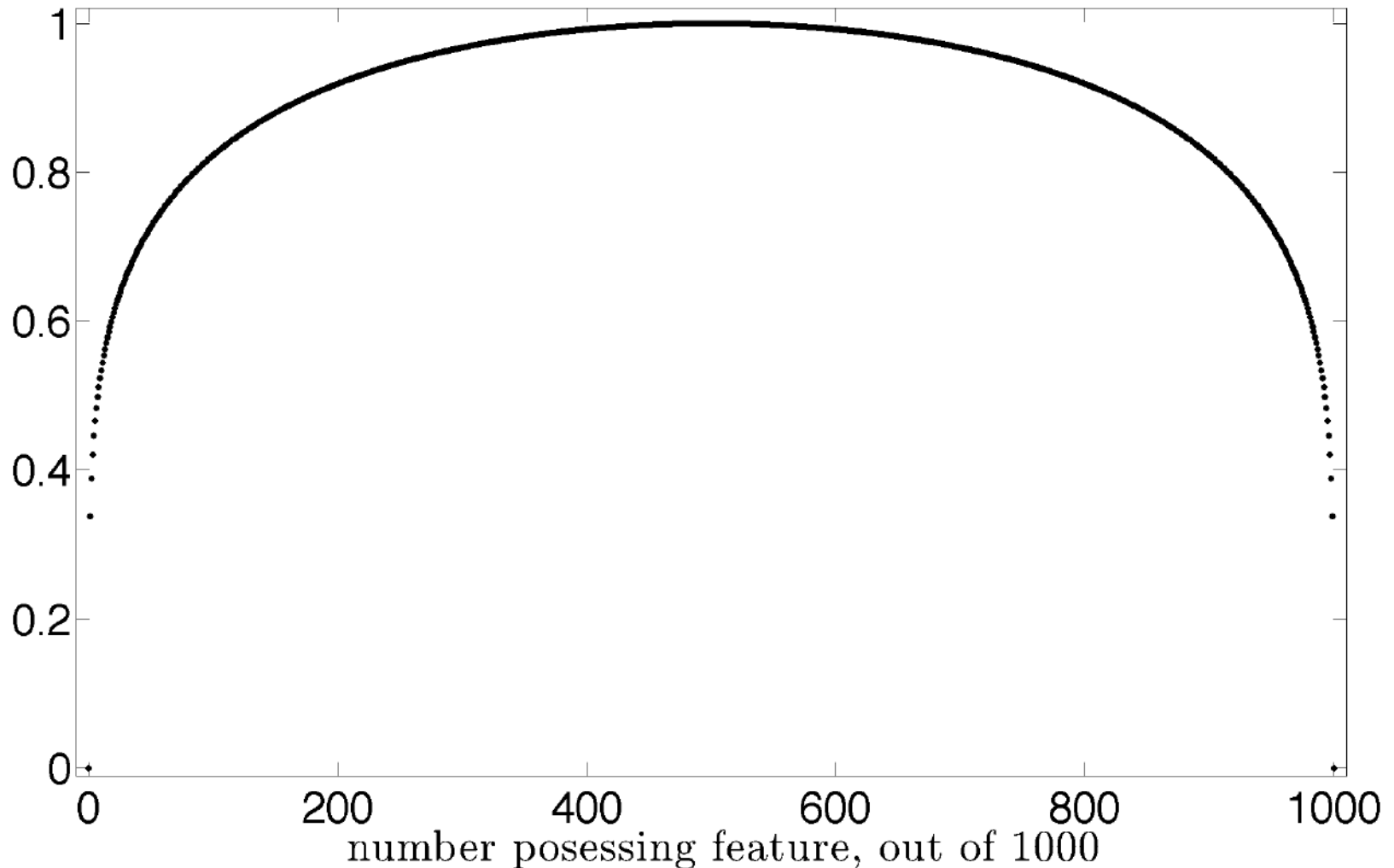
scaled expected information gain, degree=2



Arimoto (order=5, degree=1.8) entropy likes splithaleness

“Have your splithalness and explain your data too!”

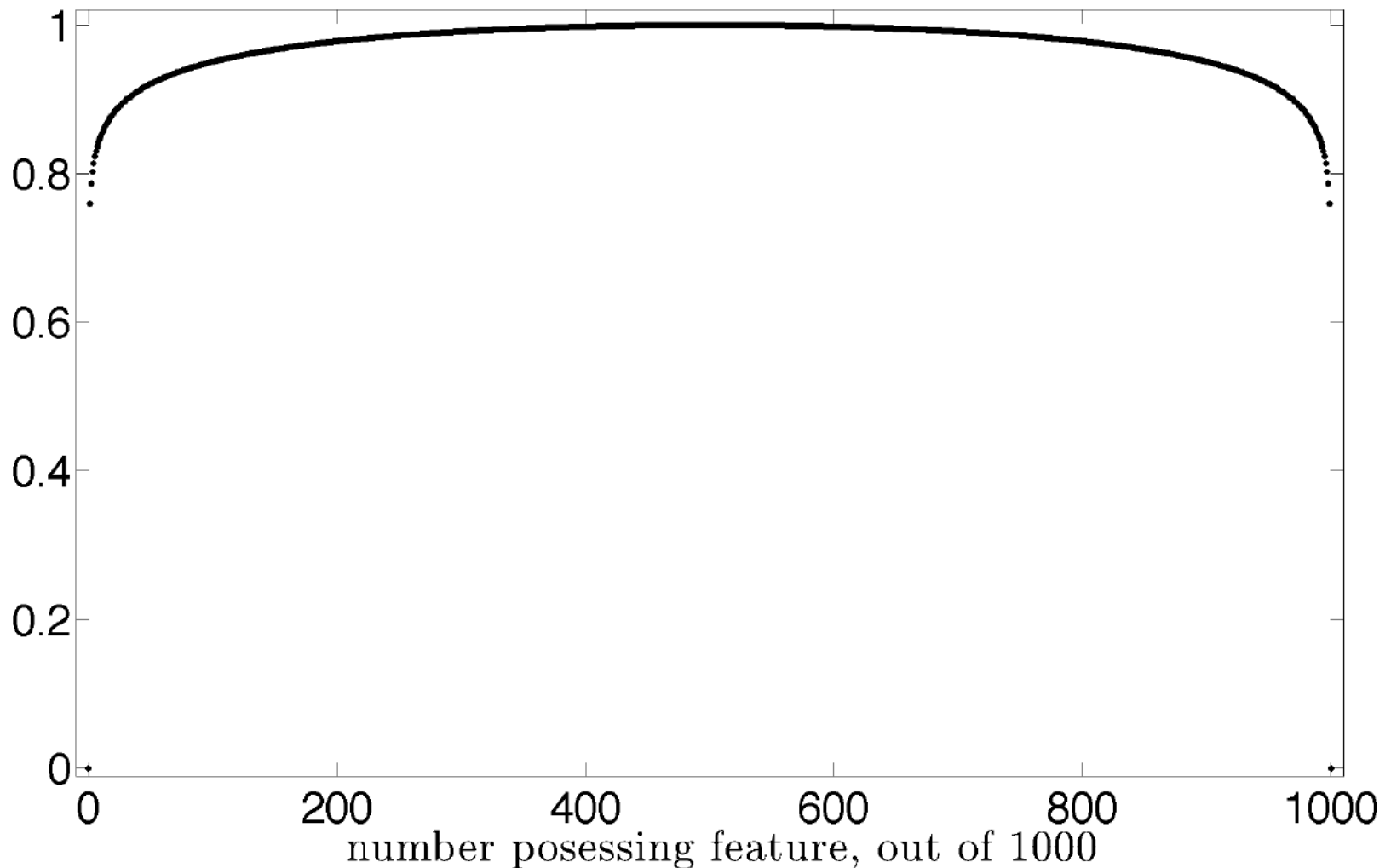
scaled expected information gain, degree=1.8



Arimoto (order=20, degree=1.95) entropy likes splithaleness

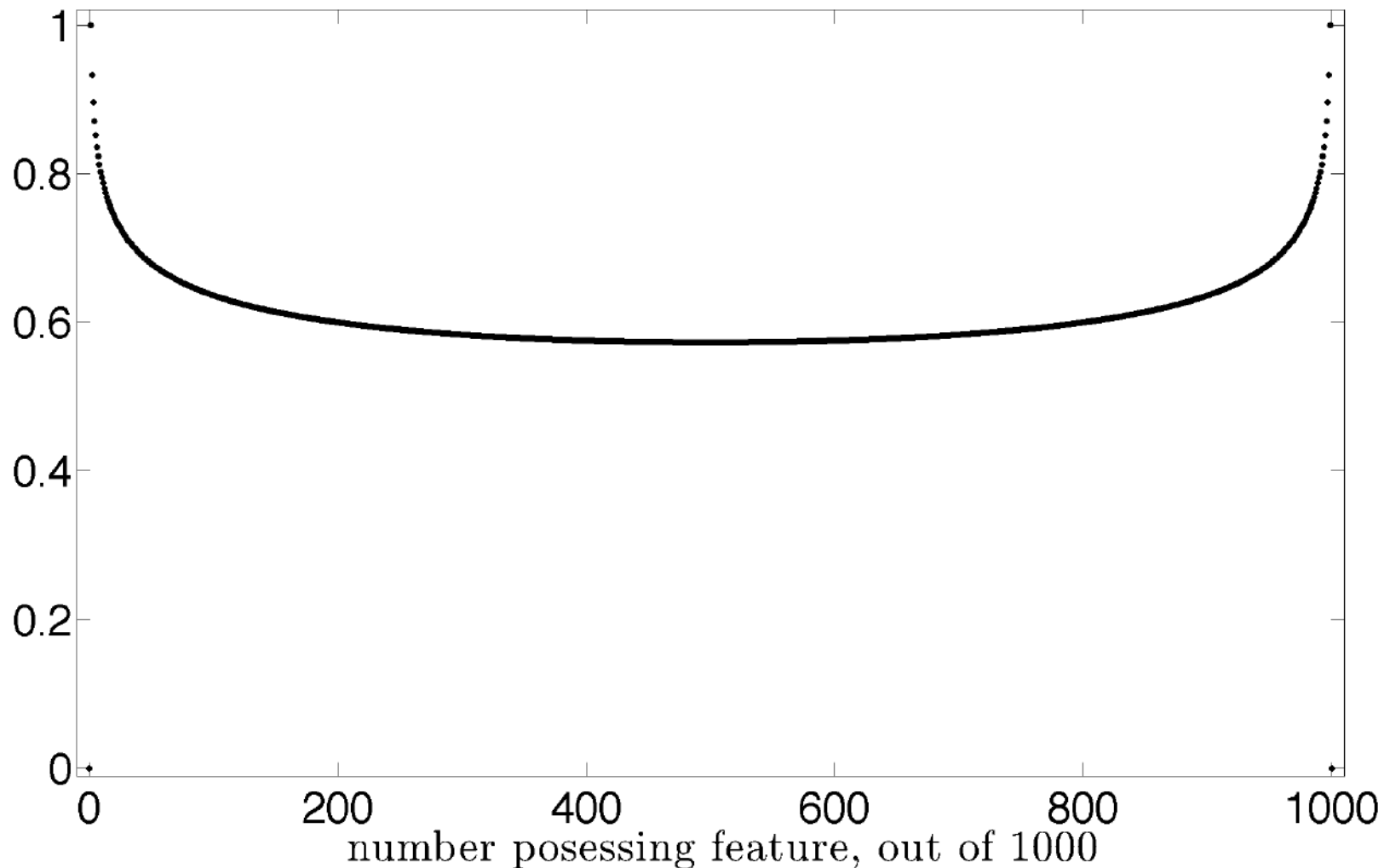
“Have your splithalness and explain your data too!”

scaled expected information gain, degree=1.95



Higher-degree measures *dislike* splithaleness: “Better to ask a 1:999 question than a 500:500 question”

scaled expected information gain, degree=2.1



Interim Conclusions: Entropy and Information

- Sharma-Mittal unifies many measures
- probability gain explained some data best, but had undesirable properties, and failed to explain other data
- Sharma-Mittal helped us find normatively desirable measures with better descriptive psychological adequacy than Shannon or probability gain
- Sharma-Mittal generates novel, testable, predictions for psychology (and neuroscience, applied domains, ...)

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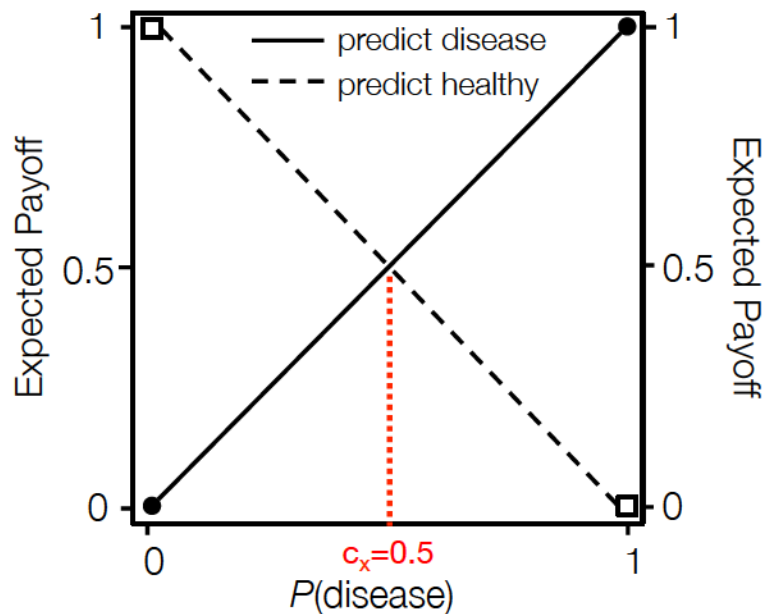
Part 3/3: brainstorming future research

What if asymmetric payoffs apply?

Meder & Nelson (2012), *Judgment and Decision Making*

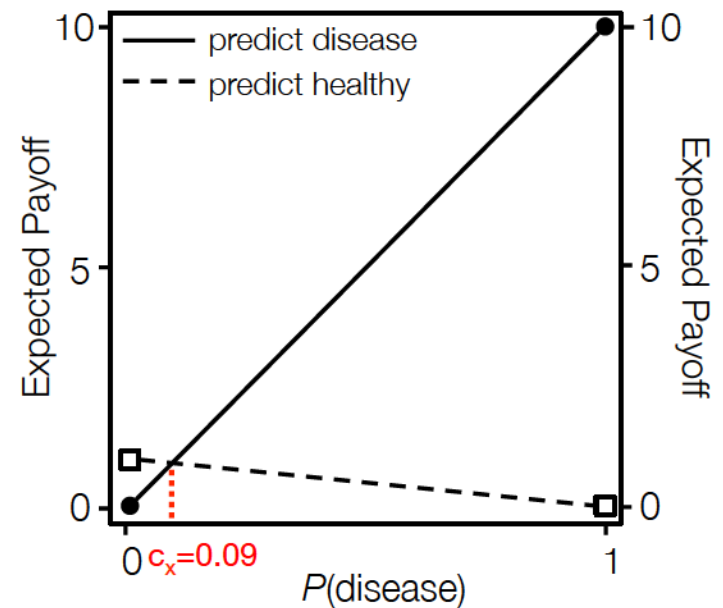
Symmetric rewards

	Disease	Healthy
Predict disease	1	0
Predict healthy	0	1

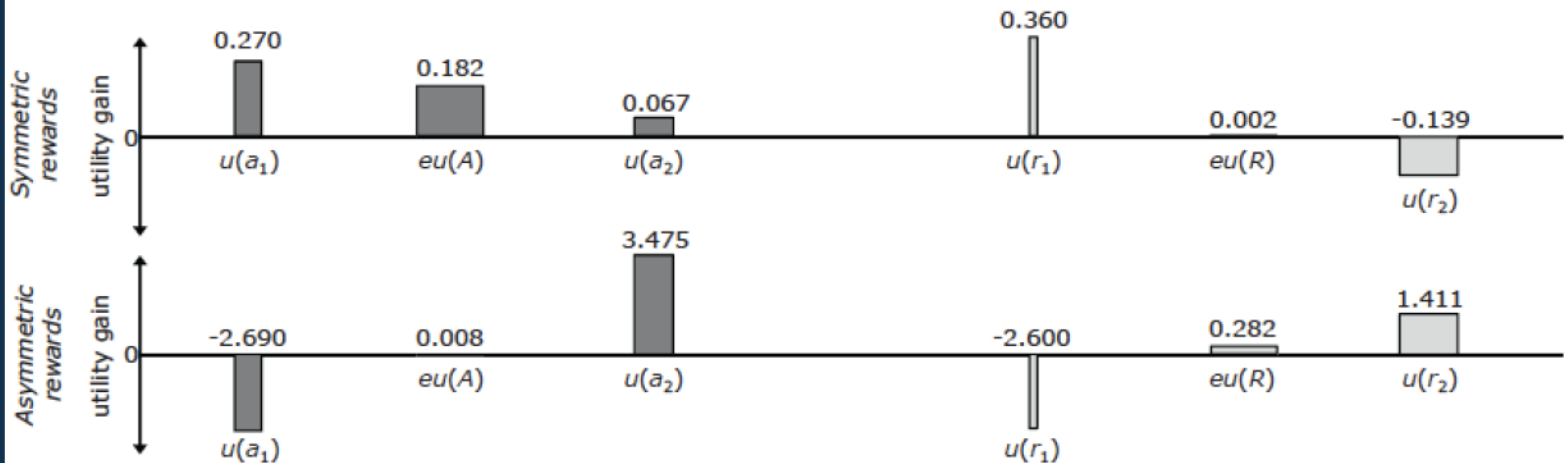
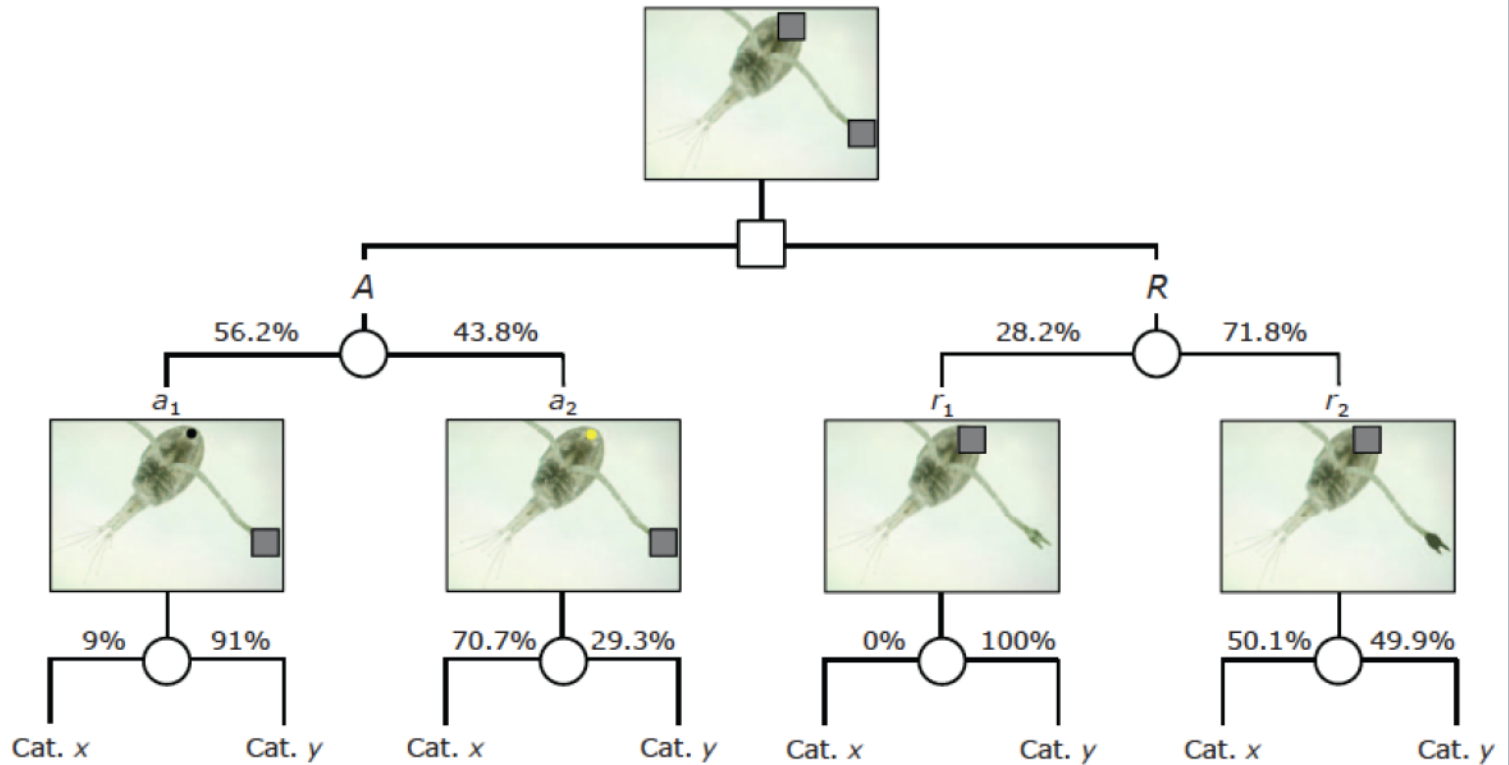


Asymmetric rewards

	Disease	Healthy
Predict disease	10	0
Predict healthy	0	1



What if asymmetric payoffs apply?



payoffs:
10:1:0:0
1:1:0:0

What if asymmetric payoffs apply?

→ Future collaborative research point

- Payoffs matter for test usefulness, and not only for action taken
- People have a hard time taking situation-specific usefulness functions into account
- Maybe an intuitive cover story would help?

Facilitating good information selection decisions

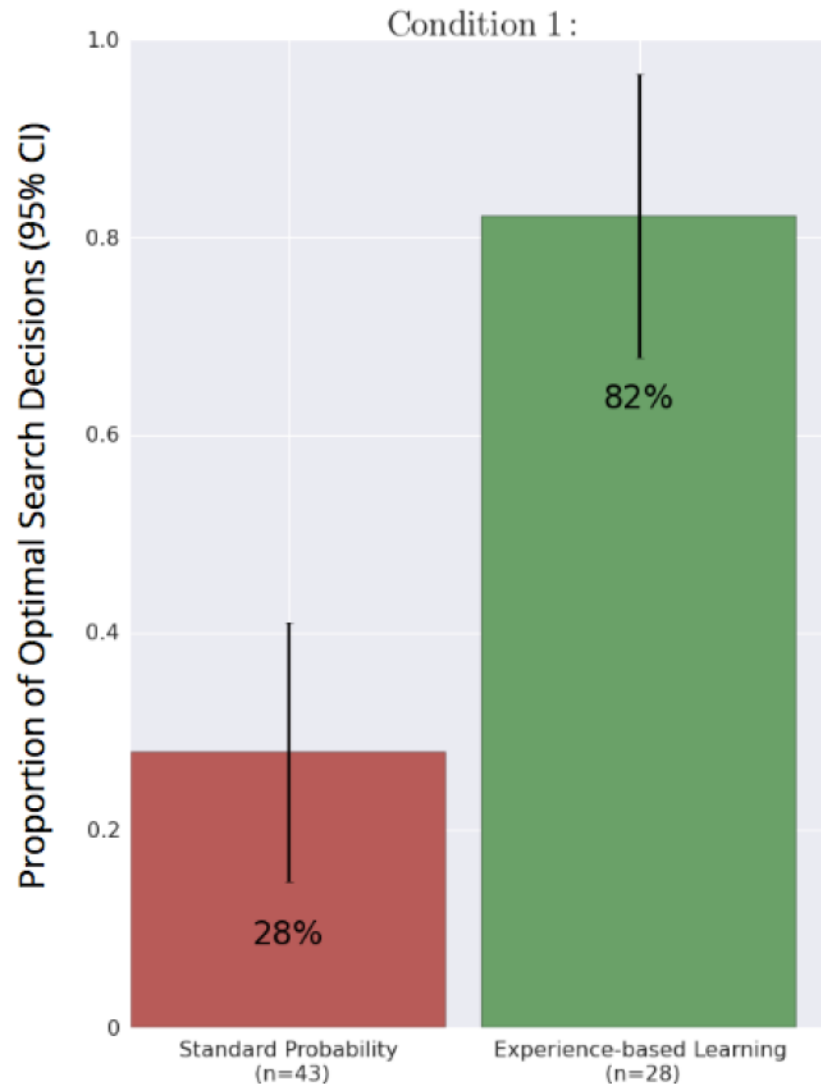
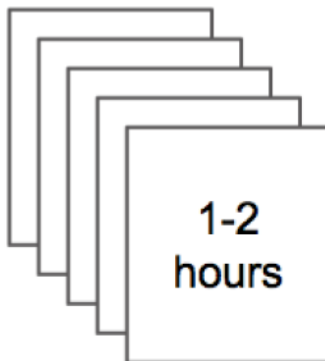
Wu, Meder, Filimon, & Nelson (in press). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*.

Standard Probability:

$p(\text{disease}) = 0.001$
 $p(\text{positive} | \text{disease}) = 0.95$
 $p(\text{positive} | \text{noDisease}) = 0.05$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\text{disease} | \text{positive}) &= \frac{p(\text{disease}) \times p(\text{positive} | \text{disease})}{p(\text{disease}) \times p(\text{positive} | \text{disease}) + p(\text{noDisease}) \times p(\text{positive} | \text{noDisease})} \\ &= \frac{0.001 \times 0.95}{0.001 \times 0.95 + 0.999 \times 0.05} \\ &= \mathbf{0.02} \end{aligned}$$

Experience-based Learning:



Facilitating good information selection decisions

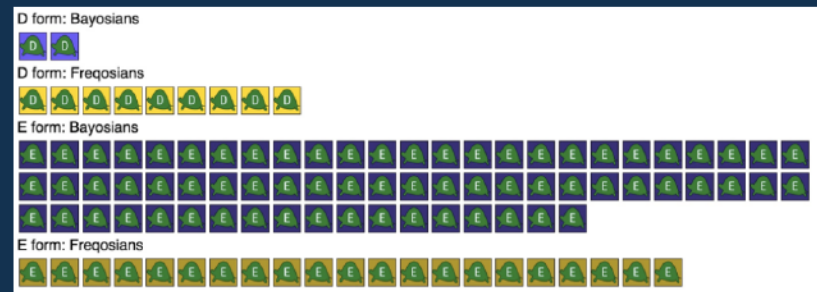
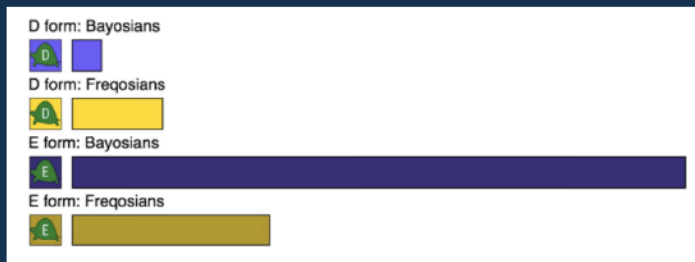
Wu, Meder, Filimon, & Nelson (in press). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*.

- Standard probability format not good for Bayesian reasoning:
Why use it for information search?
- Planet Vuma-type scenario
- Goal to choose test to maximize classification accuracy
- Also queried various probabilities
- 14 formats: probability, natural frequency, and visual

Facilitating good information selection decisions: Results

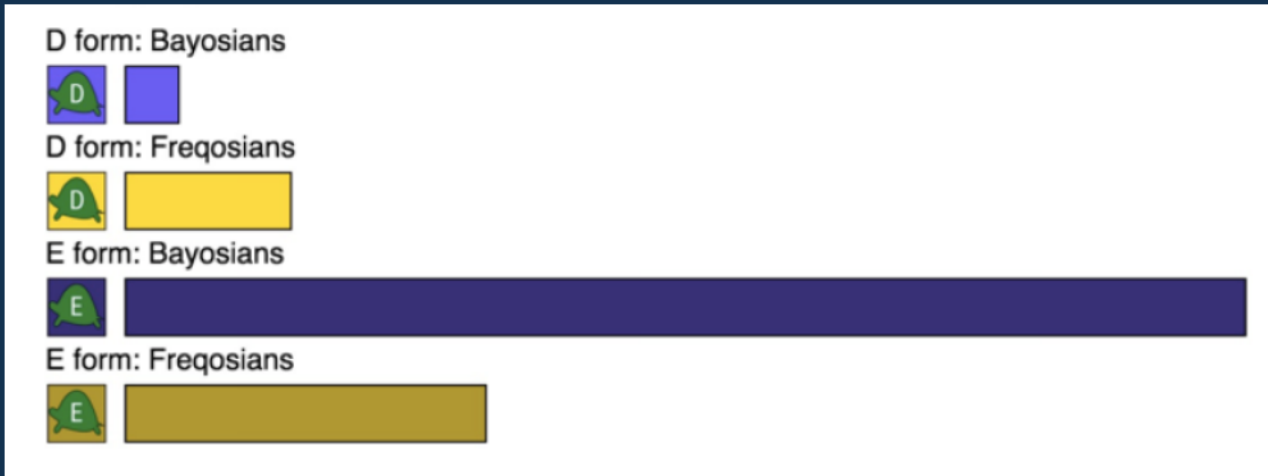
Wu, Meder, Filimon, & Nelson (in press). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*.

- Judgment accuracy not related to search-task performance
- Numeracy slightly related to search-task performance
- Worst format was standard probability format
- Best format was posterior bar graph (not countable)
- Posterior icon array, posterior probability formats also good
- No natural frequency format was very good



Using helpful formats for Bayesian inference and search tasks

→ Future collaborative research point



Combining evidence:

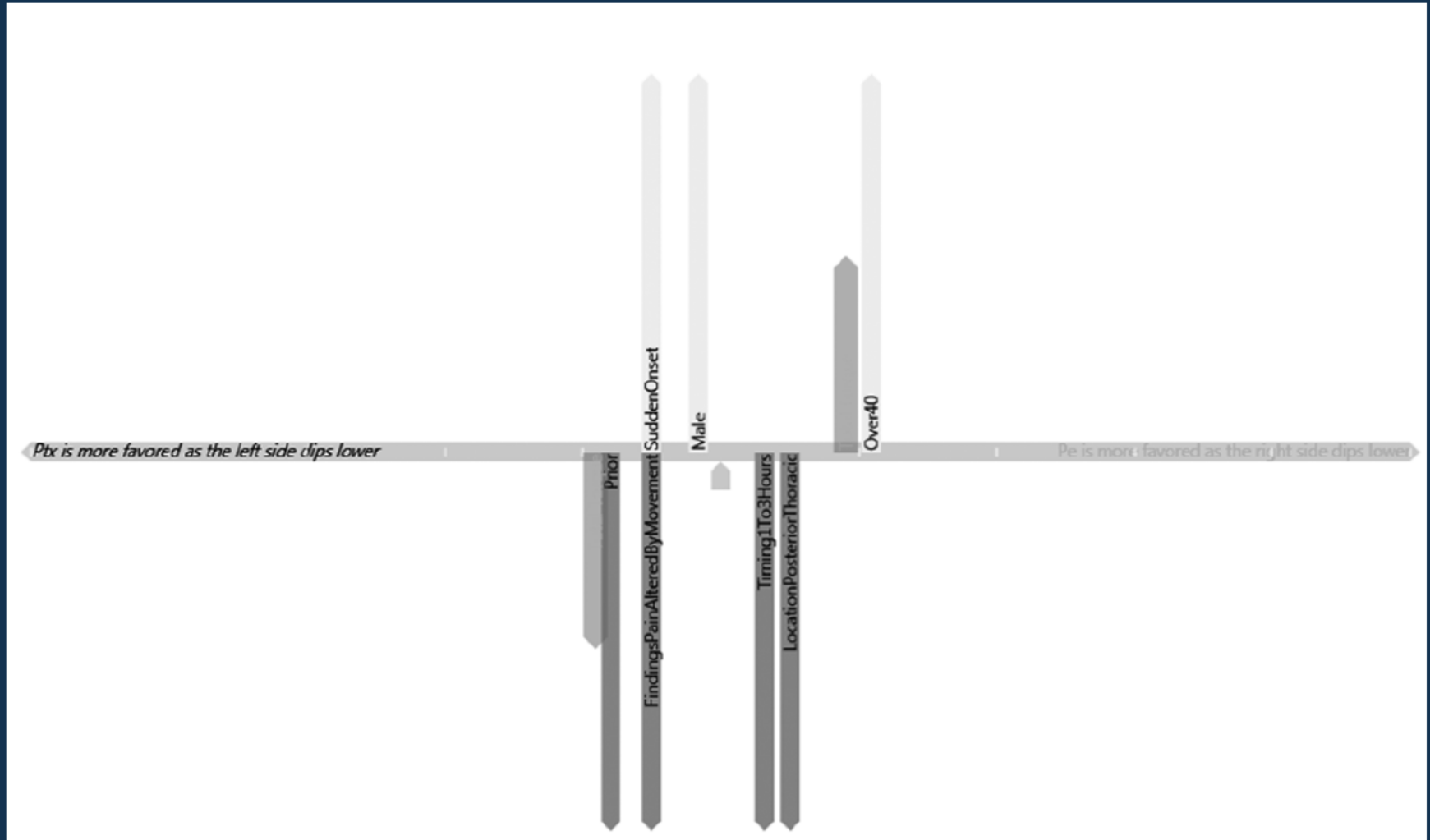
→ Mathematical / future collaborative research point

- Suppose:
 - $P(J \text{ is a terrorist}) = 0.01$
 - $P(J \text{ is not a terrorist}) = 0.99$
 - $P(J \text{ researched travel to Syria} \mid J \text{ is a terrorist}) = 0.8$
 - $P(J \text{ researched travel to Syria} \mid J \text{ is not a terrorist}) = 0.1$
 - $P(J \text{ has been to Turkey} \mid J \text{ is a terrorist}) = 0.5$
 - $P(J \text{ has been to Turkey} \mid J \text{ is not a terrorist}) = 0.3$
- J has researched travel to Syria, and has been to Turkey. What is the new probability that J is a terrorist?
- Correct answer: we have no idea whatsoever.
- If experience-based learning, people presume class-conditional independence

Jarecki, Meder, & Nelson (in press), *Cognitive Science*

Balance beam metaphor and class-conditional independence

Hamm, Beasley, Johnson (2012). *Medical Decision Making*



“Nothing drives basic science better than a good applied problem”

(Newell & Card, 1985, p. 238)

- Generalized uncertainty measures that
 - apply if probabilities aren't quite known (cf Jonas's work)
 - take payoffs into account
- Representing probabilities helpfully, to facilitate inference and search decisions
- Combining different sources of evidence: how to take dependencies among sources into account
- Figuring out when (and how) to get people to take payoffs into account when evaluating evidence
- Bayesian and information-theoretic analysis of SAT, like ACH
 - no justification for excluding positive info; info combination rules; etc.

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