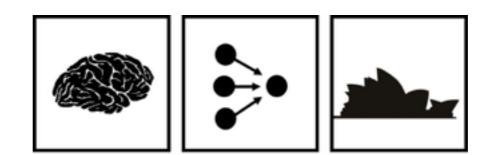


Deceived by data or savvy about statistics? The impact of sampling on inductive reasoning

Dan Navarro School of Psychology University of New South Wales

compcogscisydney.com



I would like to acknowledge this land that we meet on today as the traditional lands for the Kaurna people, and respect their spiritual relationship with their country.

I also acknowledge the Kaurna people as the custodians of the greater Adelaide region and that their cultural and heritage beliefs are still as important to the living Kaurna people today

http://www.statedevelopment.sa.gov.au/upload/aard/ welcome/acknowledgement-statements.pdf

Contributors, coauthors, collaborators

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Australian Government

Australian Research Council





How do we make choices in an uncertain world?

(judgment & decision making)

How do people acquire new knowledge?

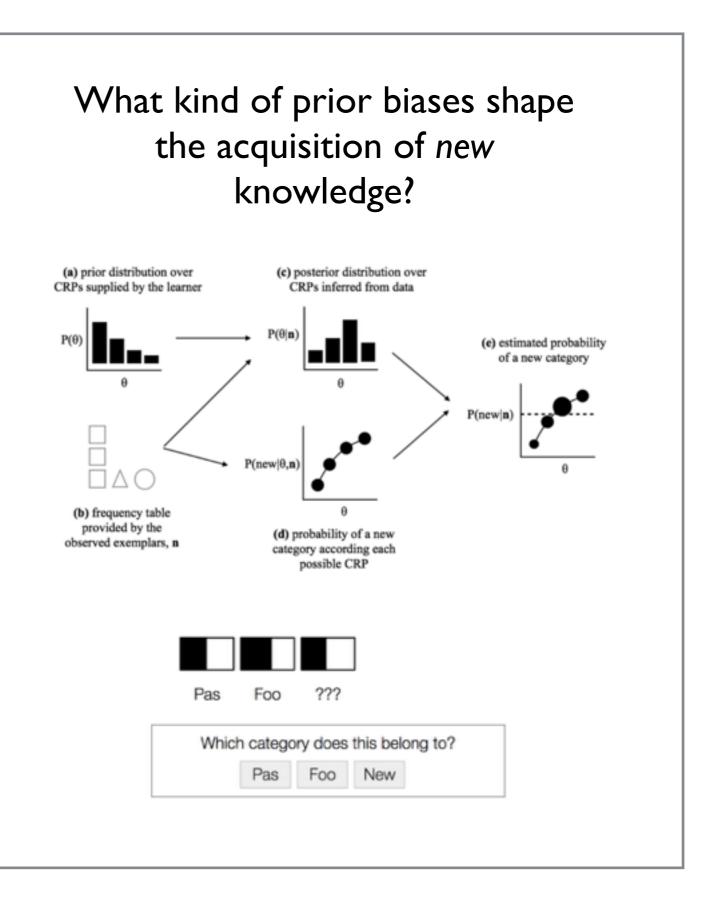
(categorisation & reasoning)

How should psychologists analyse our data?

(math psych & statistics)

How do people acquire new knowledge?

(categorisation & reasoning)

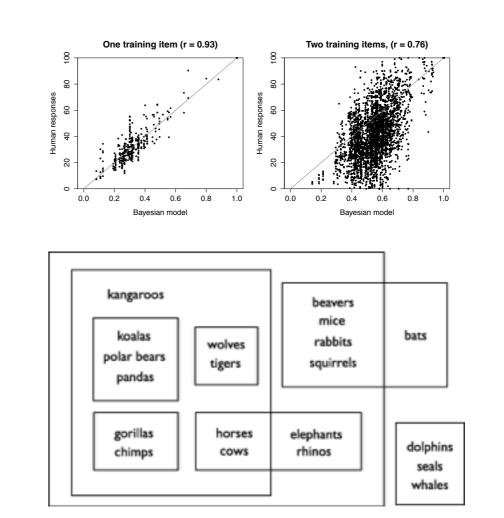


Navarro & Kemp (under revision). Psych. Review

How do people acquire new knowledge?

(categorisation & reasoning)

What *old* knowledge do people use to guide inferences?

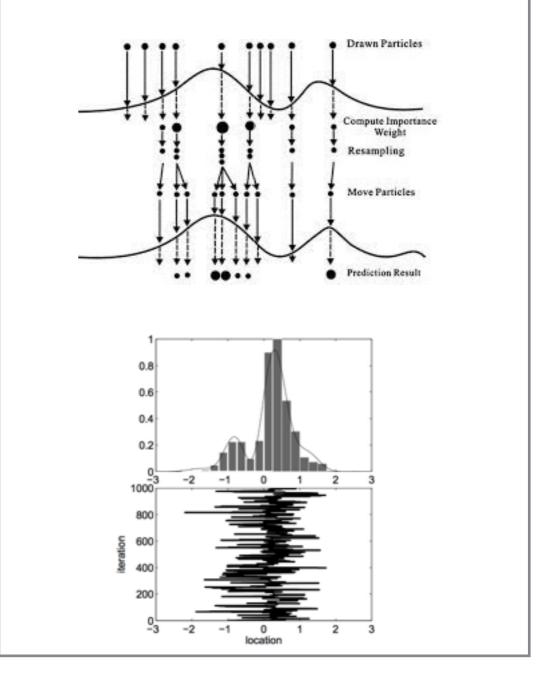


Tauber, Navarro, Perfors & Steyvers (in press). Psych. Review

How do people acquire new knowledge?

(categorisation & reasoning)

What computational strategies do people use to simplify complex problems?



Sanborn, Griffiths & Navarro (2010). Psych. Review

In the case where n = 1 we observe that,

$$\begin{split} \int_{\mathcal{R}} P(x_1, x_1 \in r_t \,|\, r_t = r) \, dr &= \int_0^{z_l} \int_{z_u}^1 P(x_1 \,|\, r_t = [l, u]) \, du \, dl \\ &= \int_0^{z_l} \int_{z_u}^1 (u - l)^{-1} \, du \, dl \\ &= \int_0^{z_l} \left[\ln(u - l) \right]_{z_u}^1 \, dl \\ &= \int_0^{z_l} \ln(1 - l) - \ln(z_u - l) \, dl \\ &= \left[(l - 1) \ln(1 - l) - l \right]_0^{z_l} - \left[(l - z_u) \ln(z_u - l) - l \right]_0^{z_l} \\ &= ((z_l - 1) \ln(1 - z_l) - z_l) - ((z_l - z_u) \ln(z_u - z_l) - z_l + z_u \ln z_u) \\ &= (z_u - z_l) \ln(z_u - z_l) - (1 - z_l) \ln(1 - z_l) - z_u \ln z_u \end{split}$$

Applying the same procedure as before yields the expression

$$P(y \in r_t \,|\, x_1, x_1 \in r_t) = \begin{cases} \frac{(z_u - y) \ln(z_u - y) - (1 - y) \ln(1 - y) - z_u \ln z_u}{(z_u - z_l) \ln(z_u - z_l) - (1 - z_l) \ln(1 - z_l) - z_u \ln z_u} & \text{if } y < z_l \\ 1 & \text{if } z_l \le y \le z_u \\ \frac{(y - z_l) \ln(y - z_l) - (1 - z_l) \ln(1 - z_l) - y \ln y}{(z_u - z_l) \ln(z_u - z_l) - (1 - z_l) \ln(1 - z_l) - z_u \ln z_u} & \text{if } z_u < y \end{cases}$$

$$(25)$$

In this case, however, the expression can be further simplified since $z_l = z_u = x_1$:

$$P(y \in r_t \,|\, x_1, x_1 \in r_t) = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-y)\ln(1-y) + x_1\ln x_1 - (x-y)\ln(x_1-y)}{(1-x_1)\ln(1-x_1) + x_1\ln x_1} & \text{if } y < x_1 \\ 1 & \text{if } y = x_1 \\ \frac{(1-x_1)\ln(1-x_1) + y\ln y - (y-x_1)\ln(y-x_1)}{(1-x_1)\ln(1-x_1) + x_1\ln x_1} & \text{if } x_1 < y \end{cases}$$

$$(26)$$

(Obviously, this expression could be derived directly, rather than found as a special case

In the case where n = 1 we observe that,

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} P(x_{1}, x_{1} \in r_{t} | r_{t} = r) dr = \int_{0}^{z_{1}} \int_{z_{u}}^{1} P(x_{1} | r_{t} = [l, u]) du dl$$

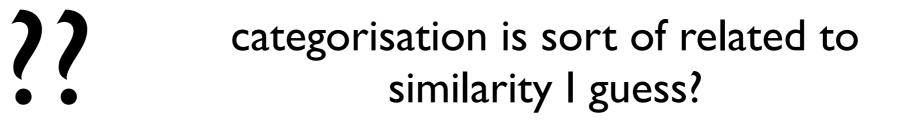
$$= \int_{0}^{z_{1}} \int_{z_{u}}^{1} (u - l)^{-1} du dl$$

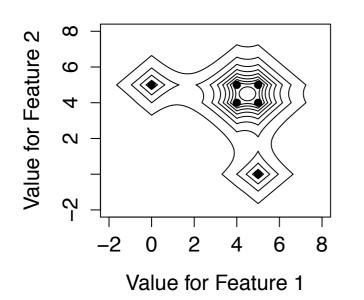
$$F(u = 1)^{-1} \int_{z_{u}}^{z_{u}} \frac{|u| | |u| ||u| | |u| ||u| |$$

(Obviously, this expression could be derived directly, rather than found as a special case

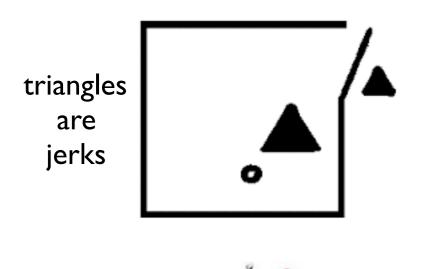
Why take a computational approach to cognitive science?

Computational models make it easier to be precise about one's theories





categorisation probability is proportional to the sum of similarities to previous exemplars Formal descriptions of human inductive biases can improve machine learning



inferring intention from actions

understanding the relevance of utterances to context

teapot death star?

"I'm not

driving"



constructing categories from instances

Machine agents need to interact with humans, so they need to understand <u>us</u>

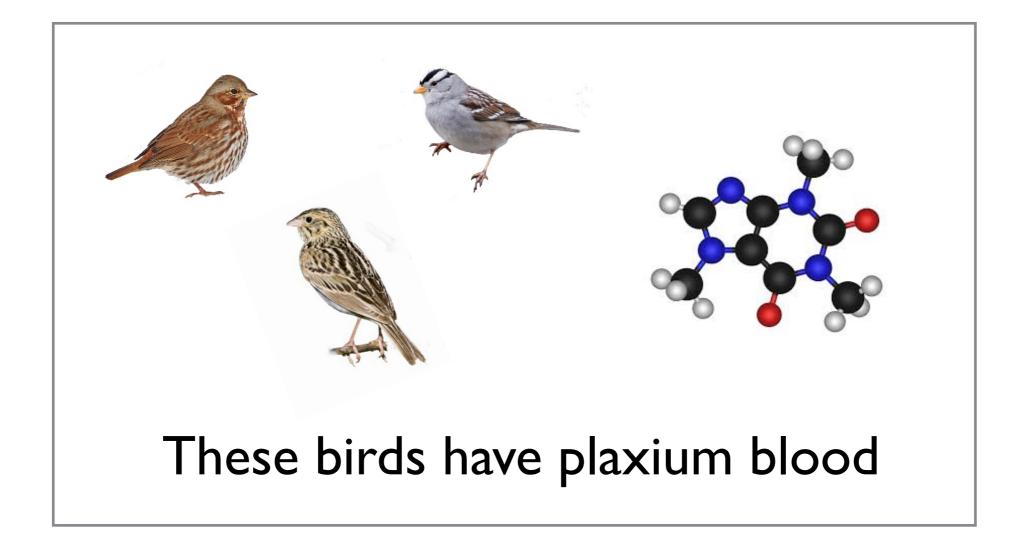


machines need maths to describe how the humans adjust speech patterns when the speech recognition system stuffs up

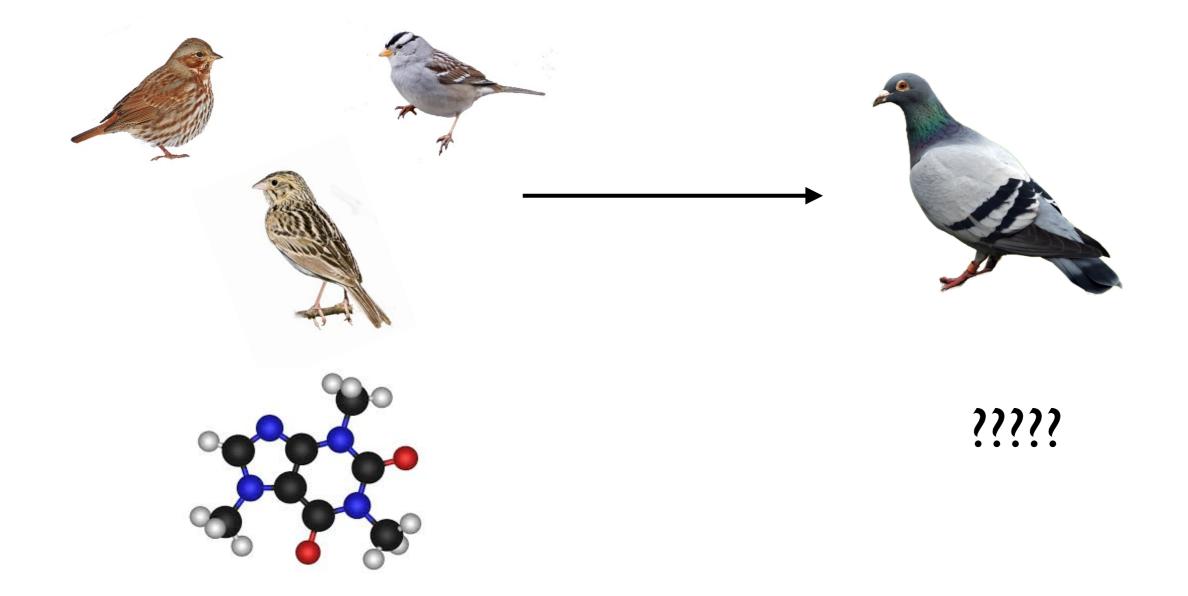


autonomous vehicles need to understand how human drivers respond to weirdness (e.g., in Sydney) Conjecture: Reasoning is statistical inference

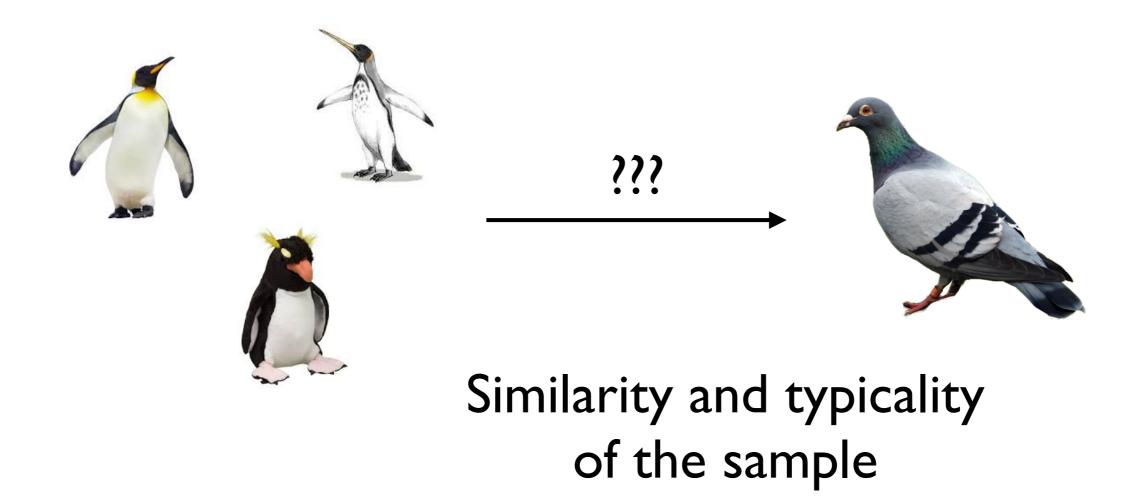
What should we do with this sample of evidence?



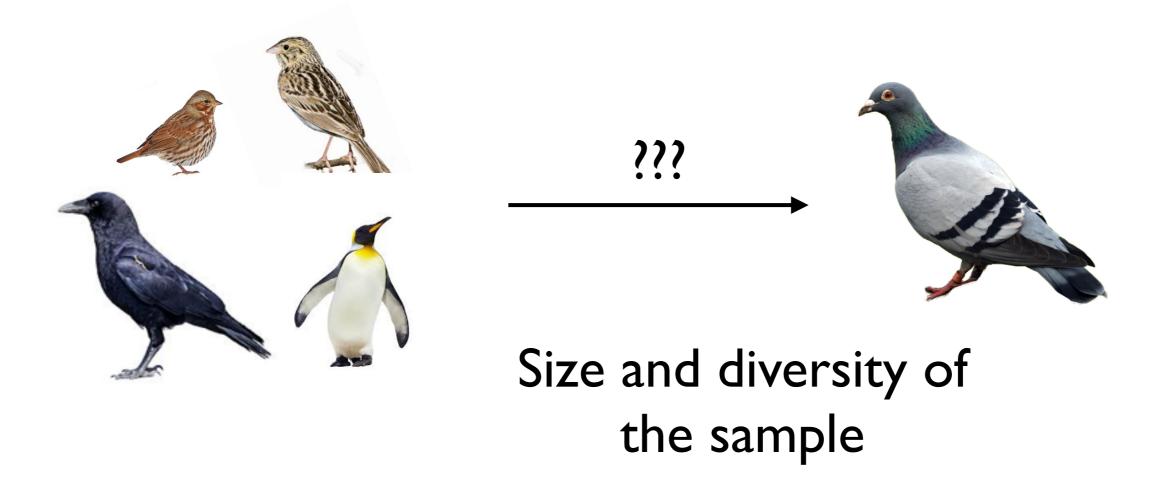
The problem of inductive generalisation



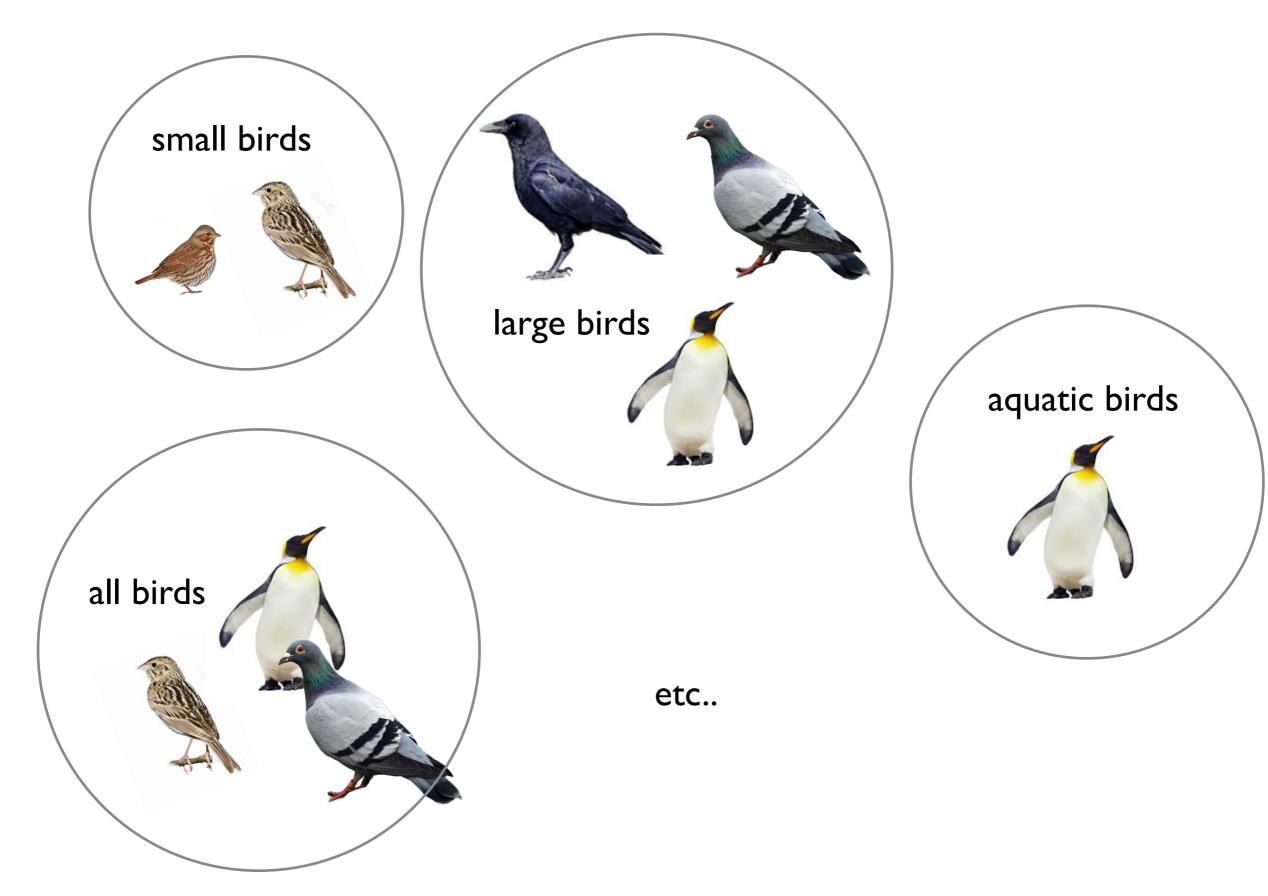
What factors shape our inductive inferences?

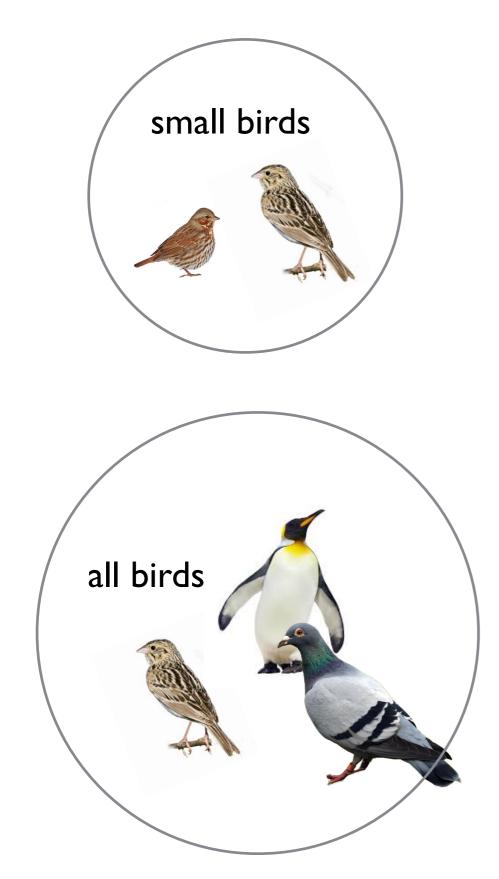


What factors shape our inductive inferences?

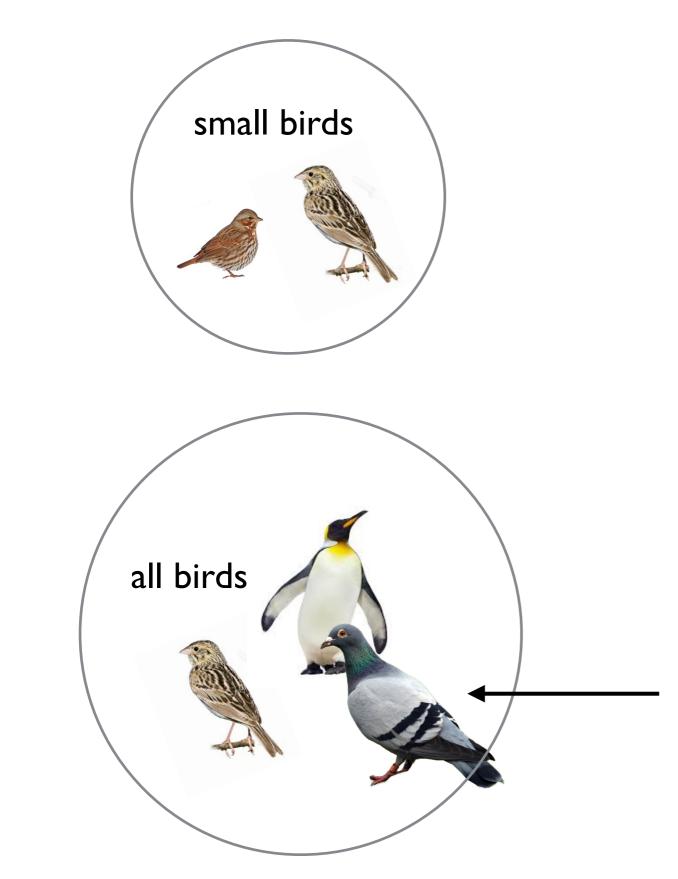


Reasoners consider hypotheses

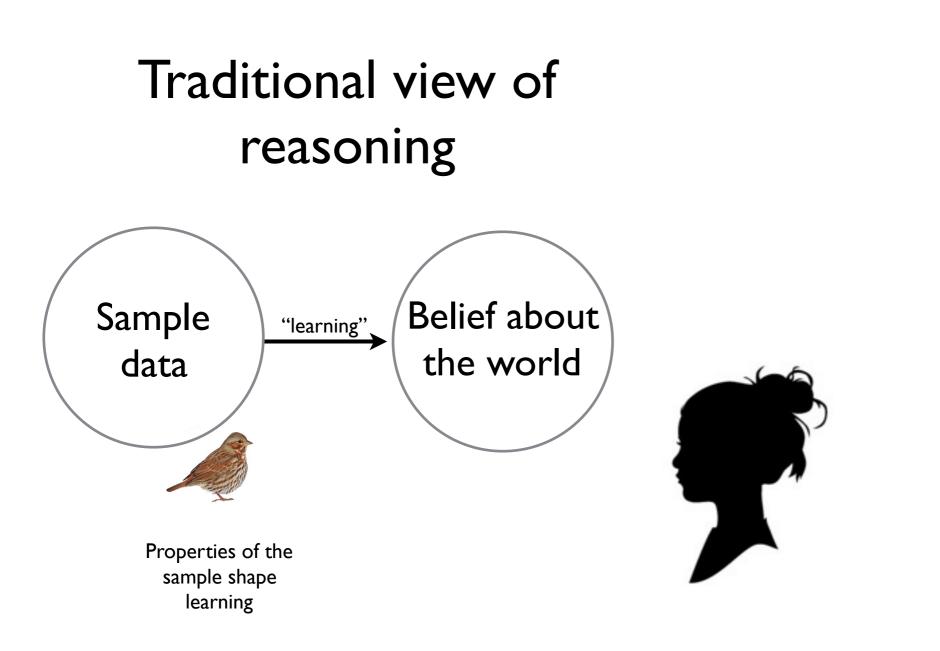


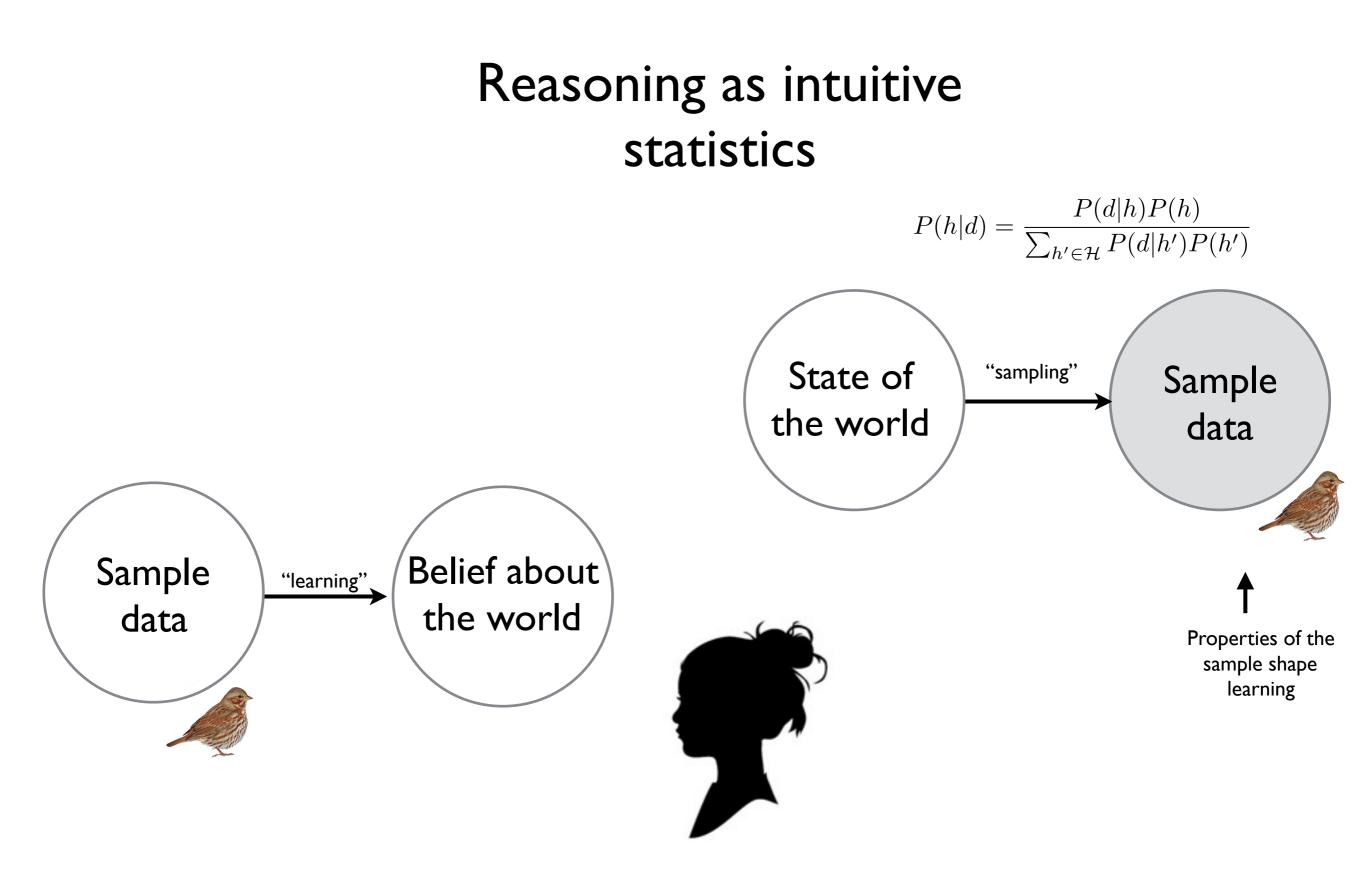


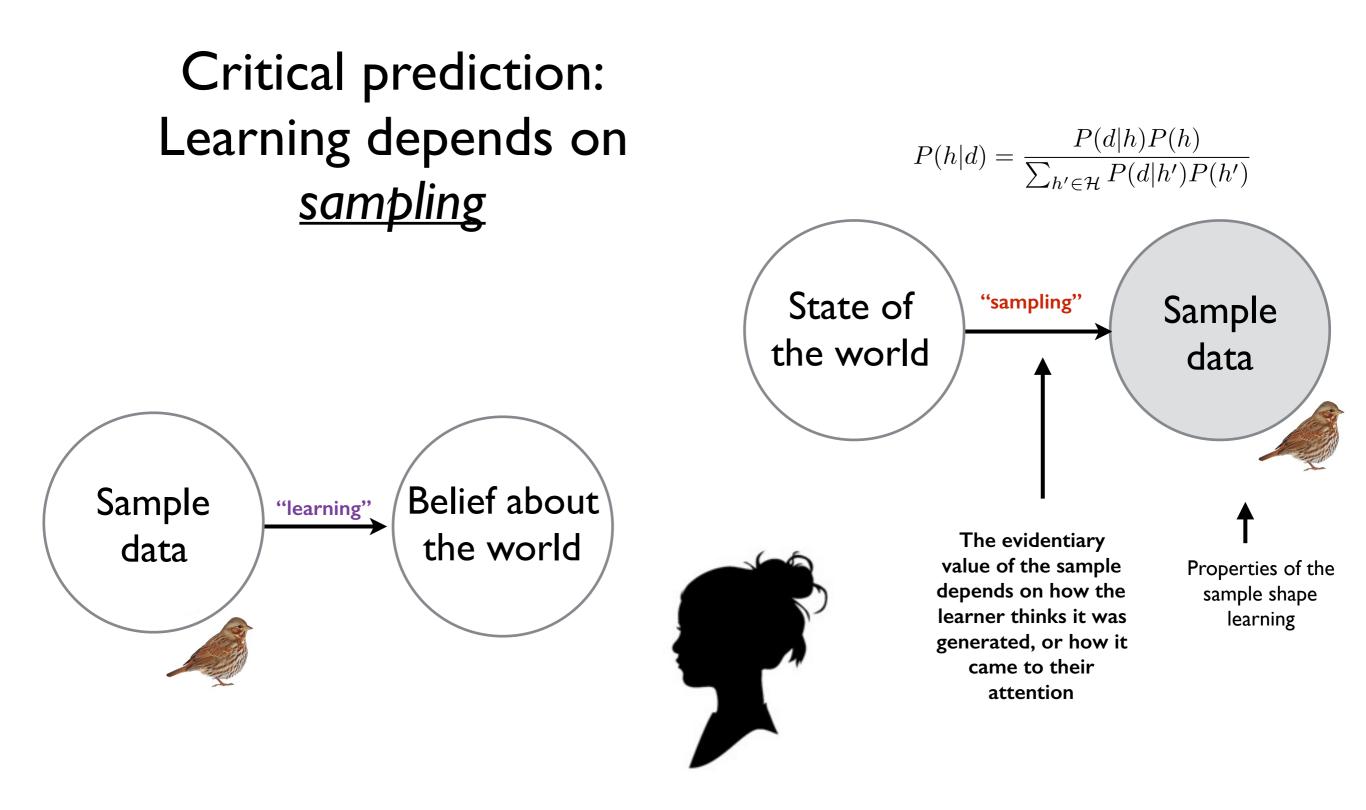
The sample rules out some and not others...



Inductive generalisation is based on hypotheses consistent with the sample







Epistemic vigilance: Statistical reasoning about untrustworthy data

These birds have plaxium blood





Does this bird have plaxium blood?

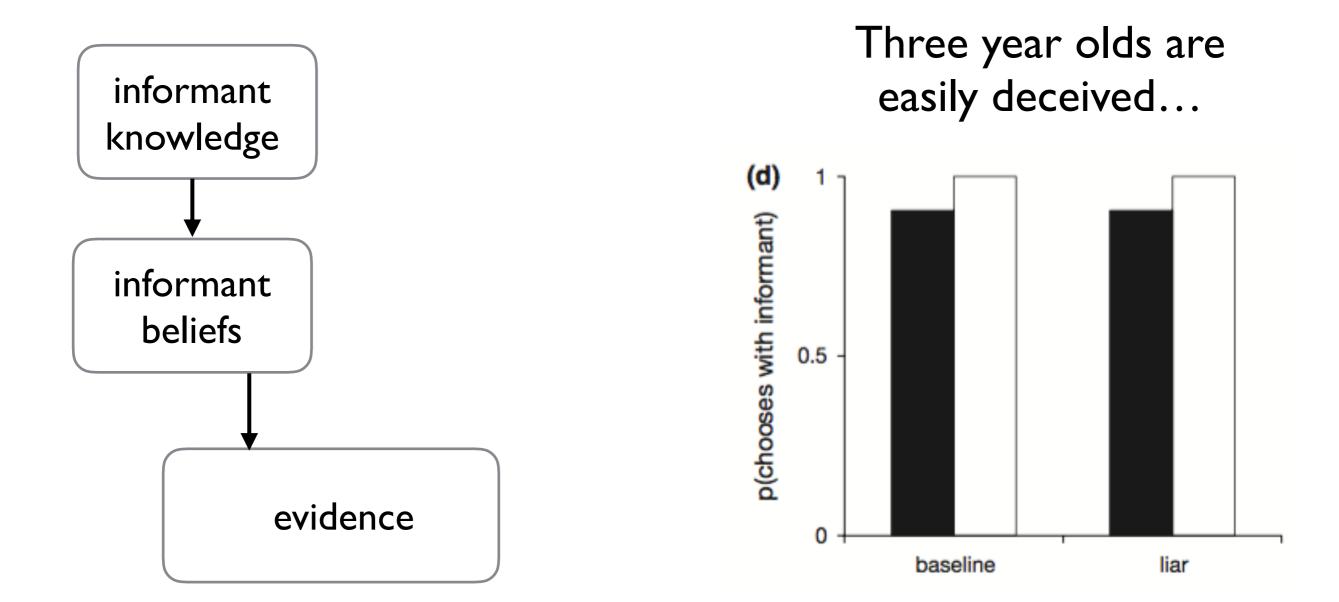




"It's all made up" is *absolutely* a legitimate sampling assumption

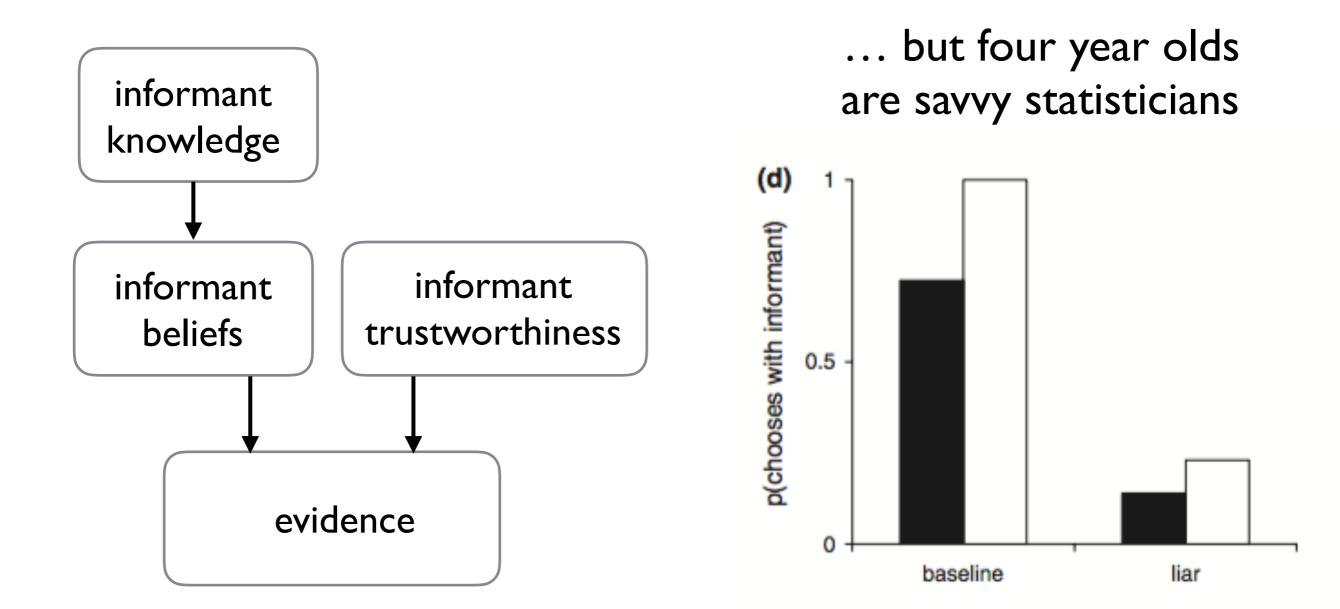
Does this bird have plaxium blood?

The price of inductive freedom is epistemic vigilance



Shafto, Eaves, Navarro & Perfors (2012) Developmental Science Mascaro & Sperber (2009)

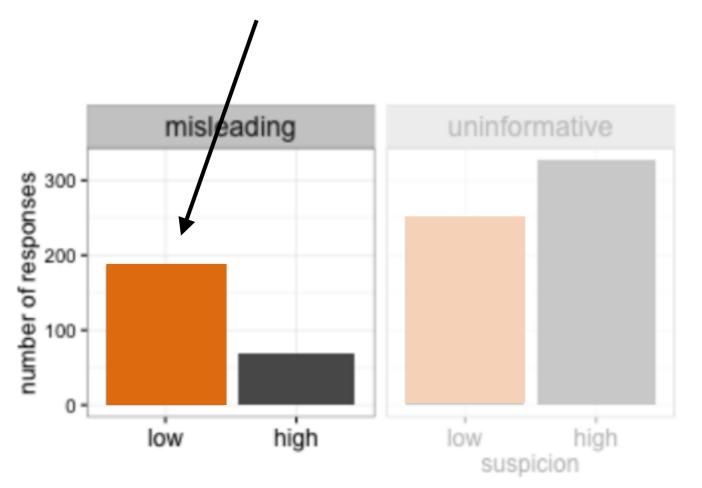
The price of inductive freedom is epistemic vigilance



Shafto, Eaves, Navarro & Perfors (2012) Developmental Science Mascaro & Sperber (2009)

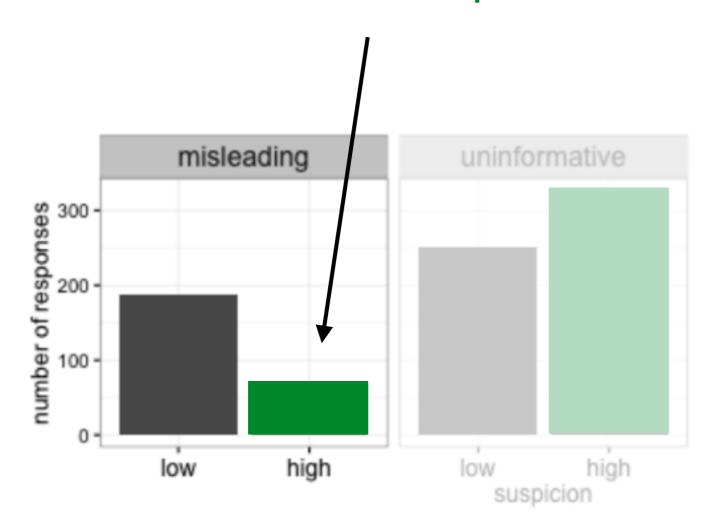
Why epistemic vigilance?

People will try to "mislead with a half truth" if the listener is naive...



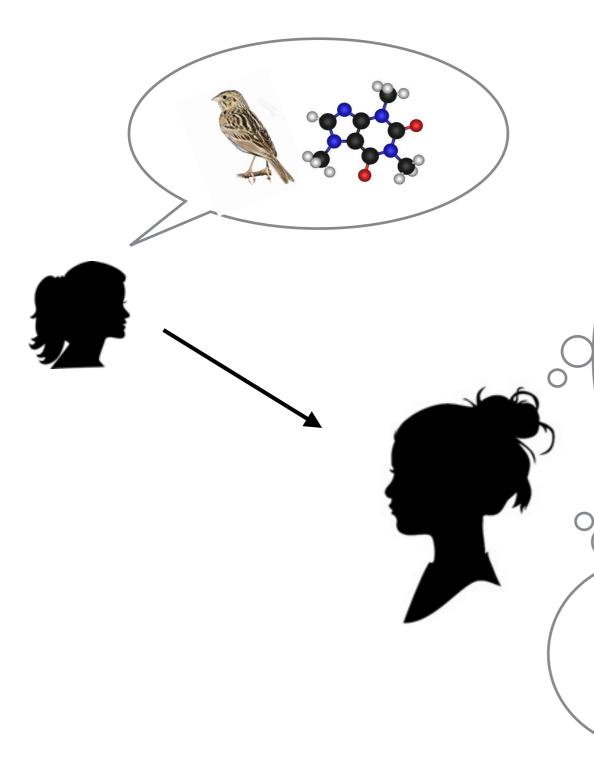
Ransom, Voorspoels, Perfors & Navarro (submitted)

They rarely try this when the listener is suspicious!



Ransom, Voorspoels, Perfors & Navarro (submitted)

Everyday reasoning about the world is intertwined with social reasoning about other people



Why are you telling me this? Why are you telling me this?

Where did you hear this?

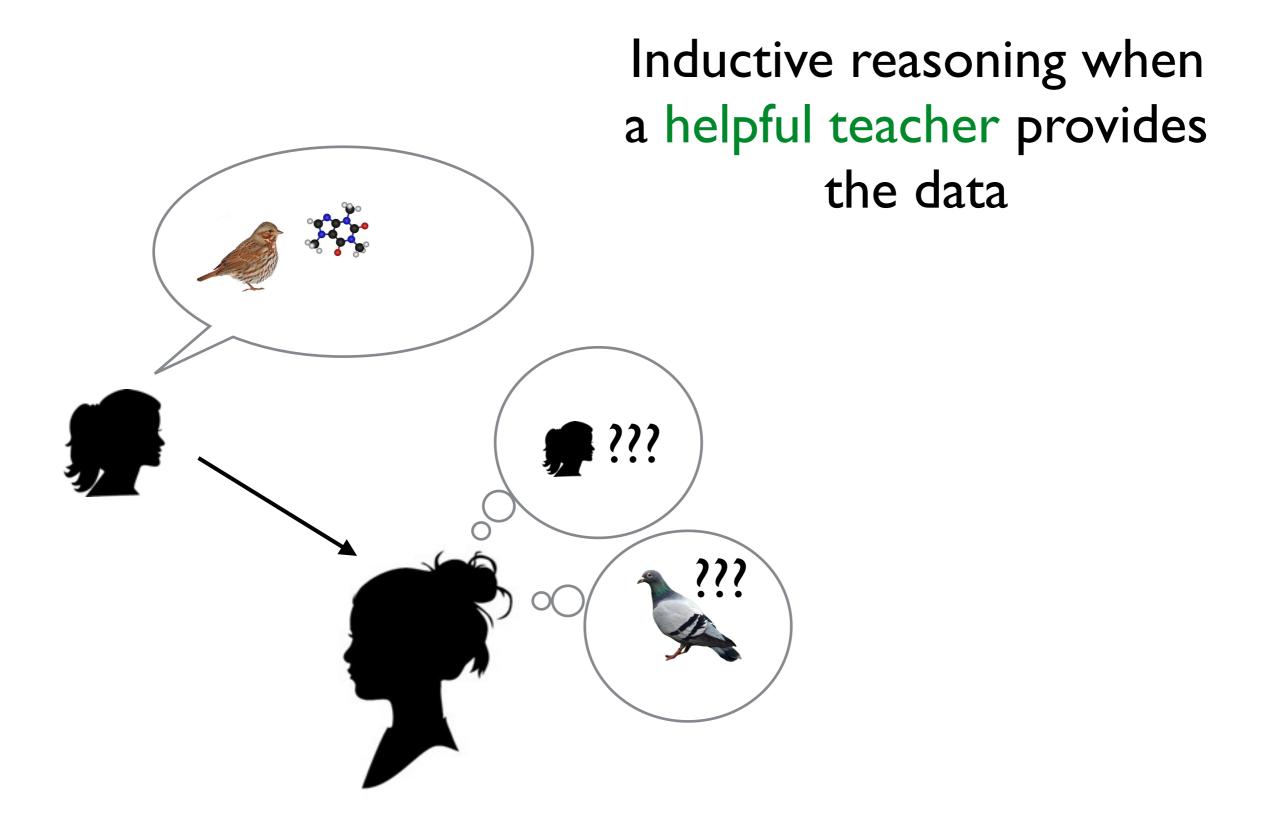
Do you even *know* what you're talking about?

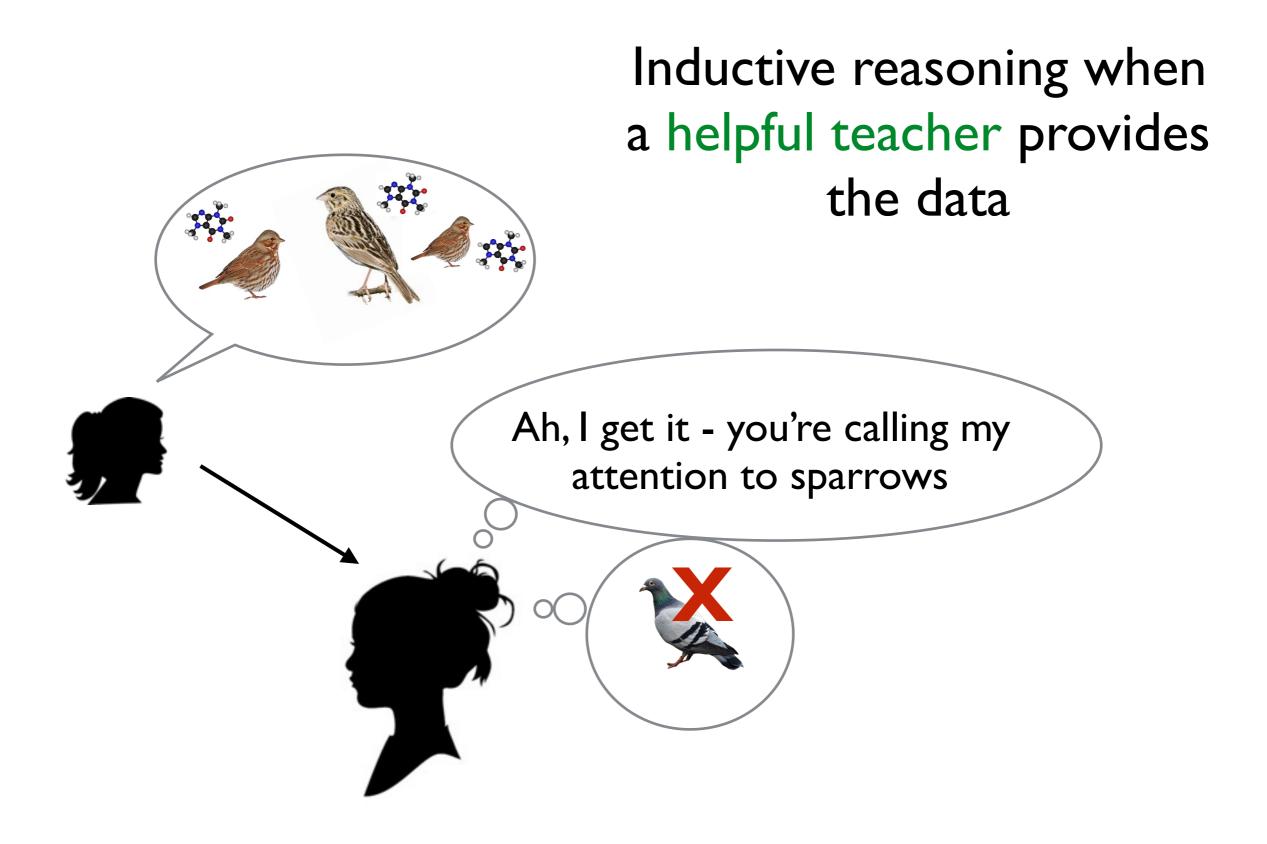


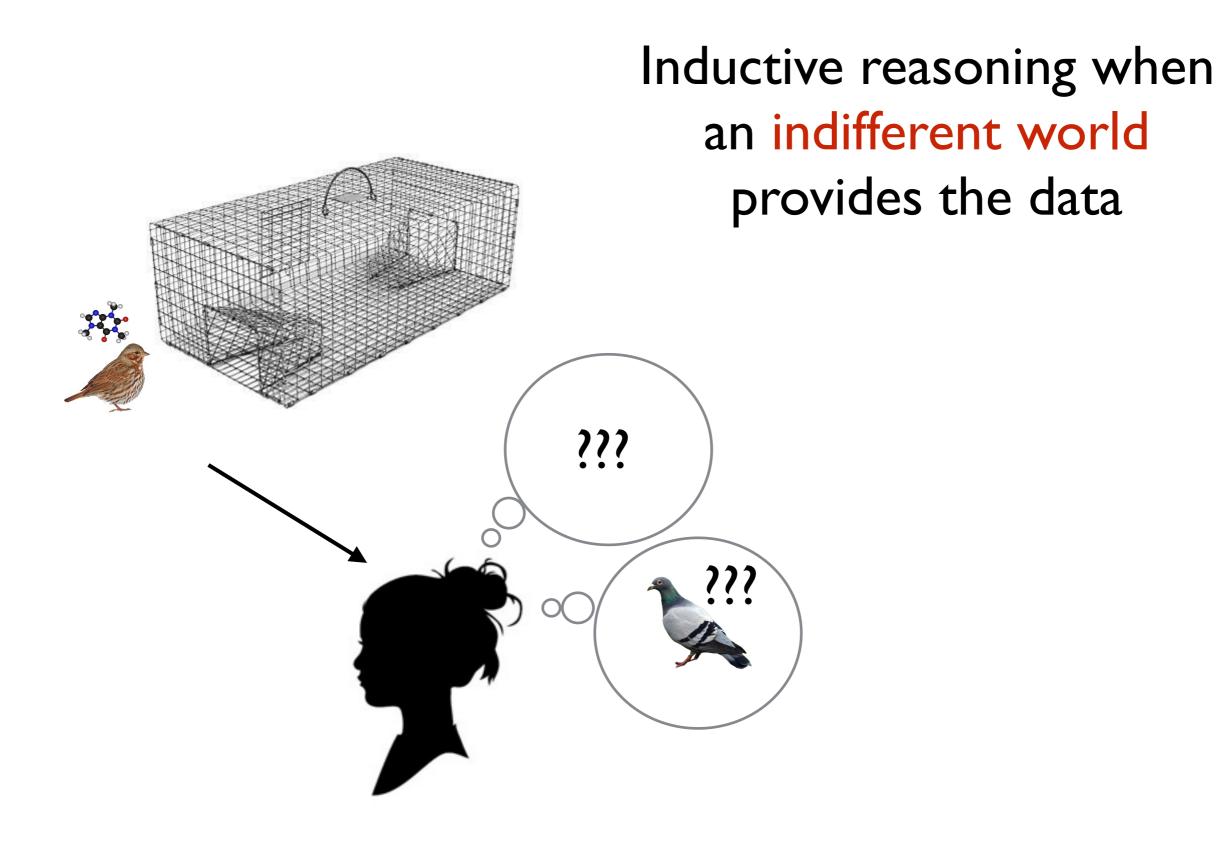
What do you want me to do with this information?

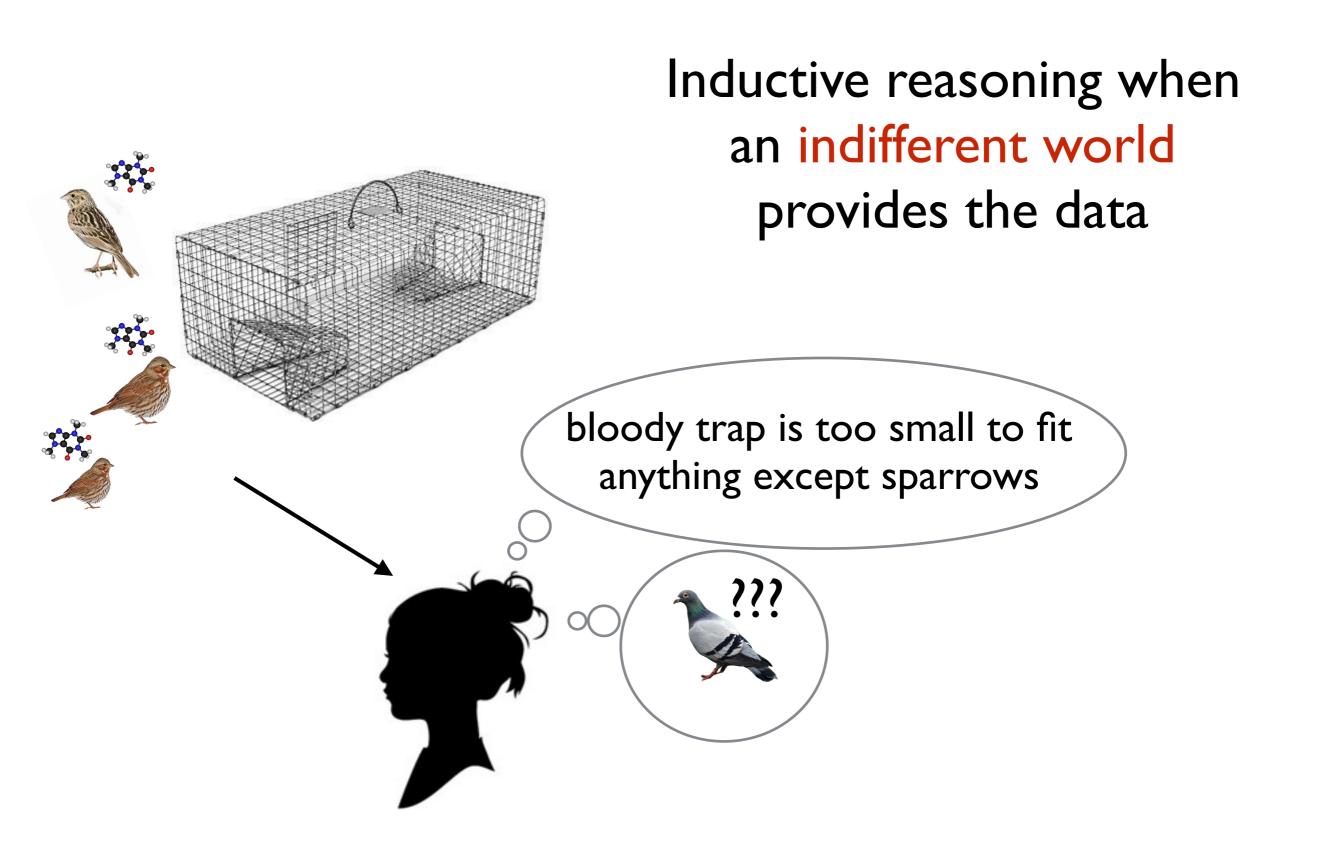
What does all this buy us? Taking a hint from a helpful teacher

Ransom, Perfors & Navarro (2016). *Cognitive Science*

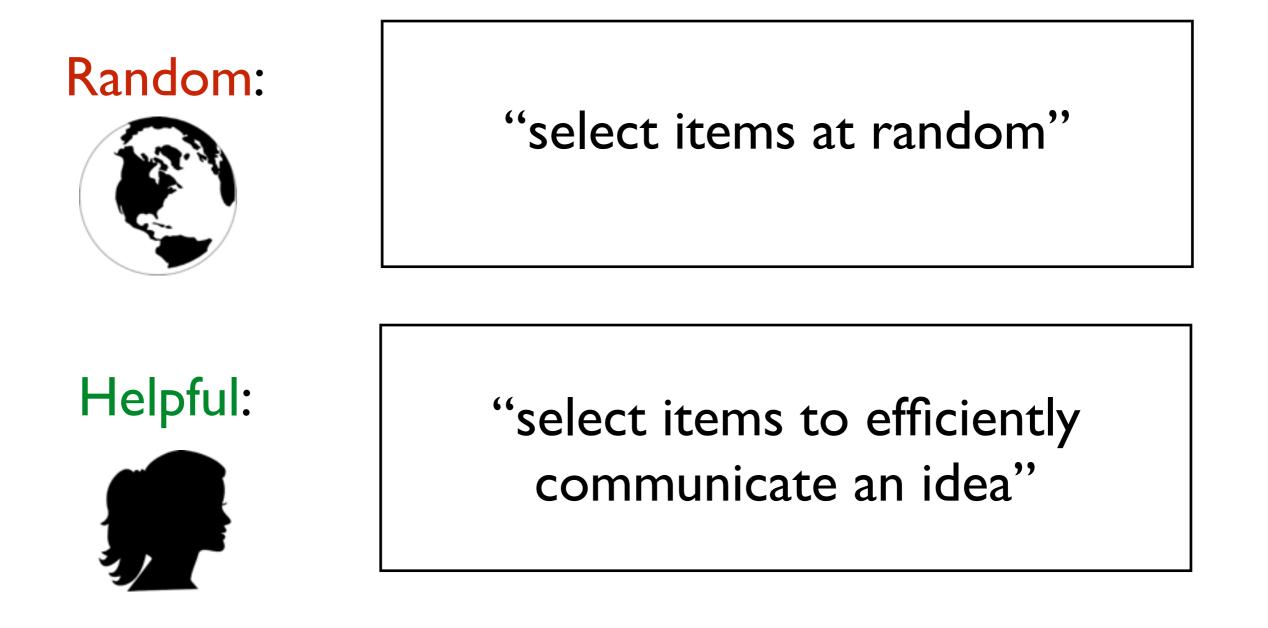








Sampling mechanism:

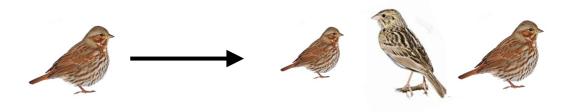


Prediction:



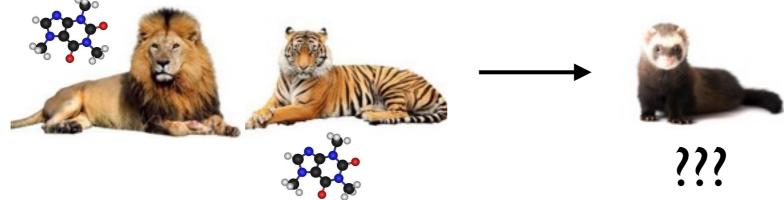
Adding positive instances has minimal effect if they're too similar to things I already know about

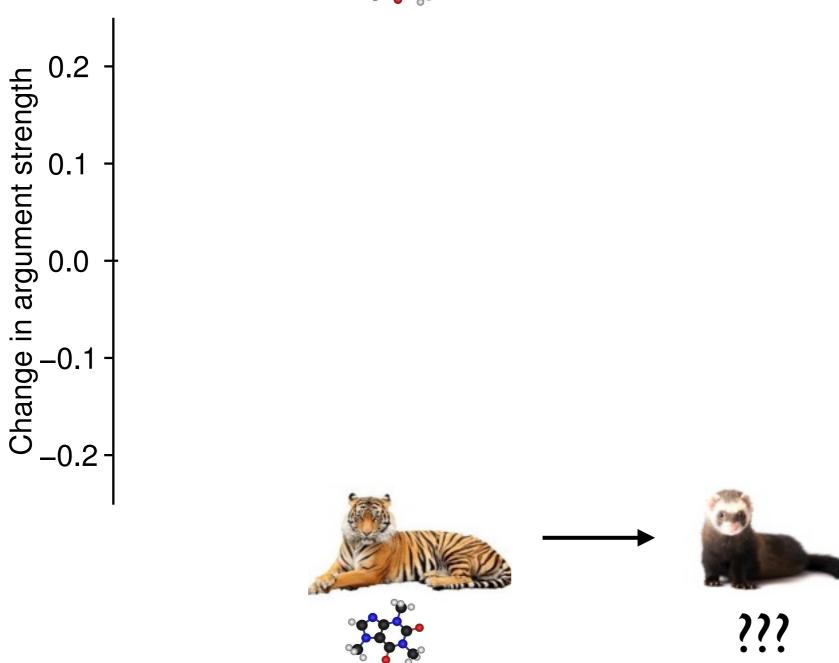
Adding positive instances from the same category conveys *intent*, and drives attention to that category

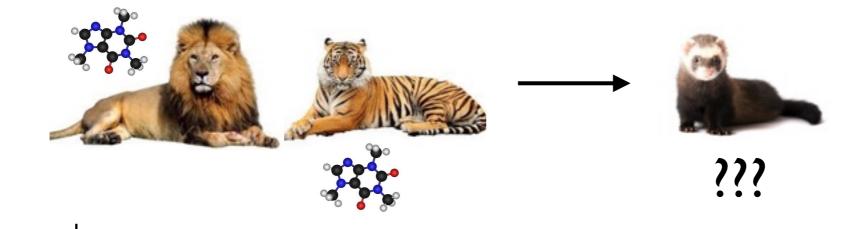


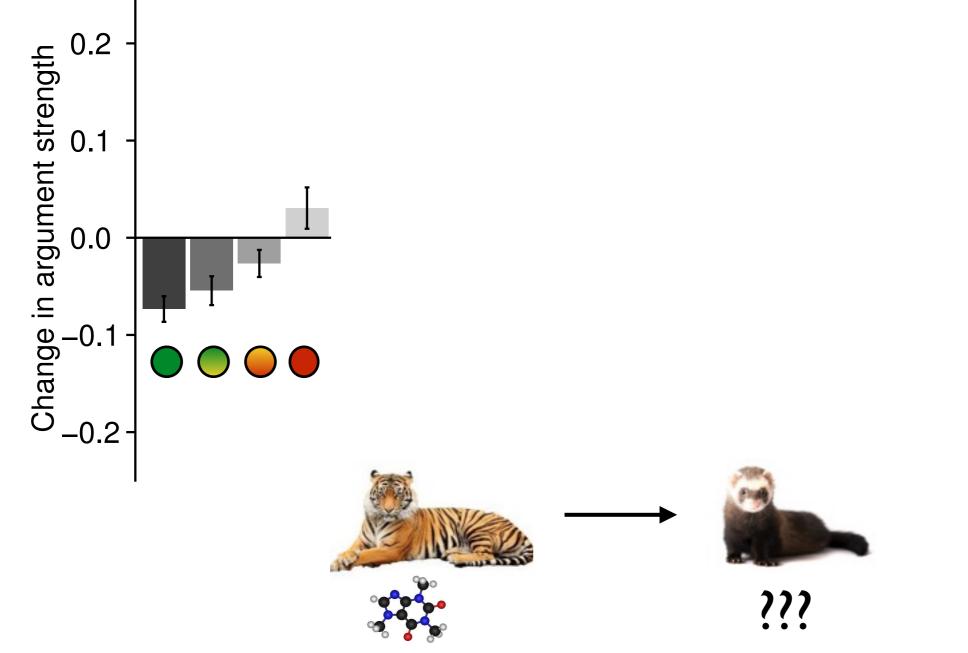
Previous experience? (filler trials)

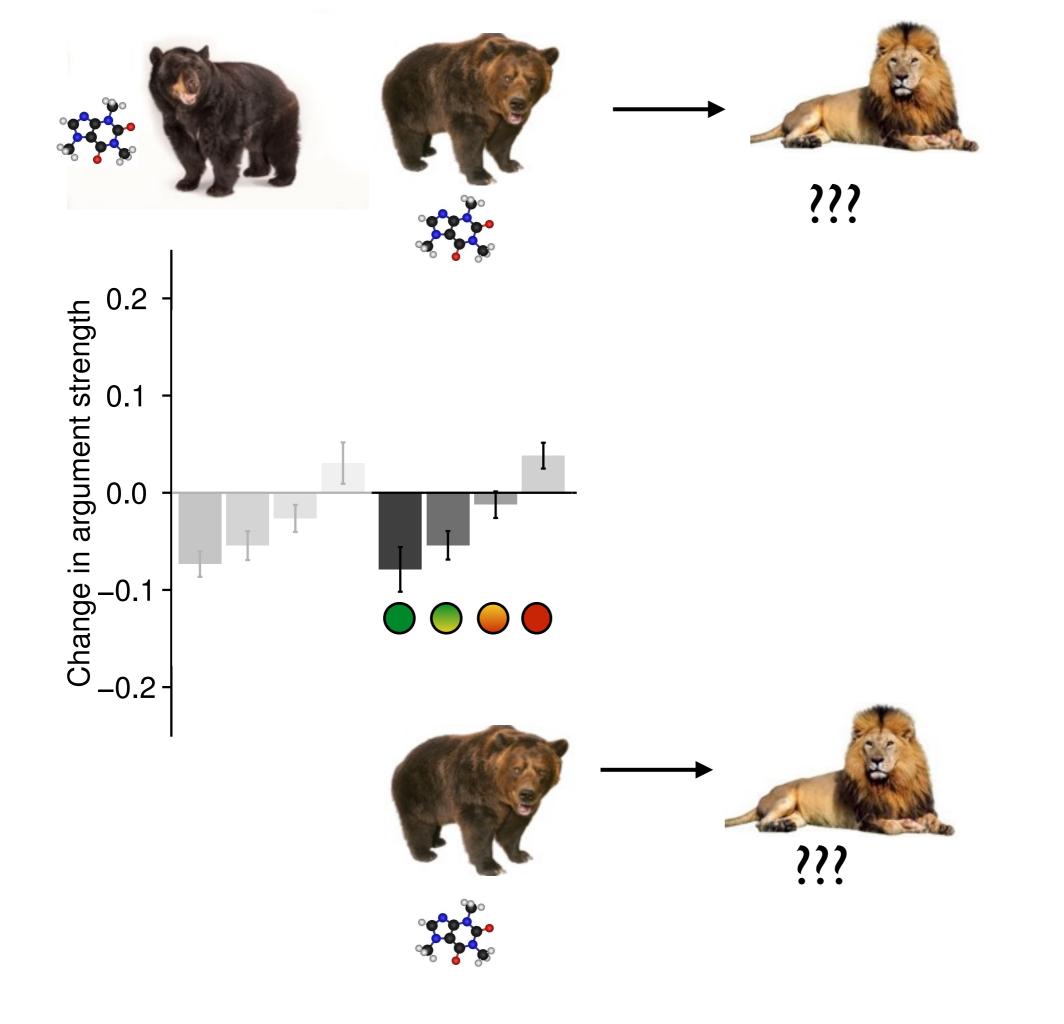
Cover story?	Helpful cover story, filler trials imply helpful	
	Neutral cover story, filler trials imply helpful	Neutral cover story, filler trials imply random
		Random cover story, filler trials imply random

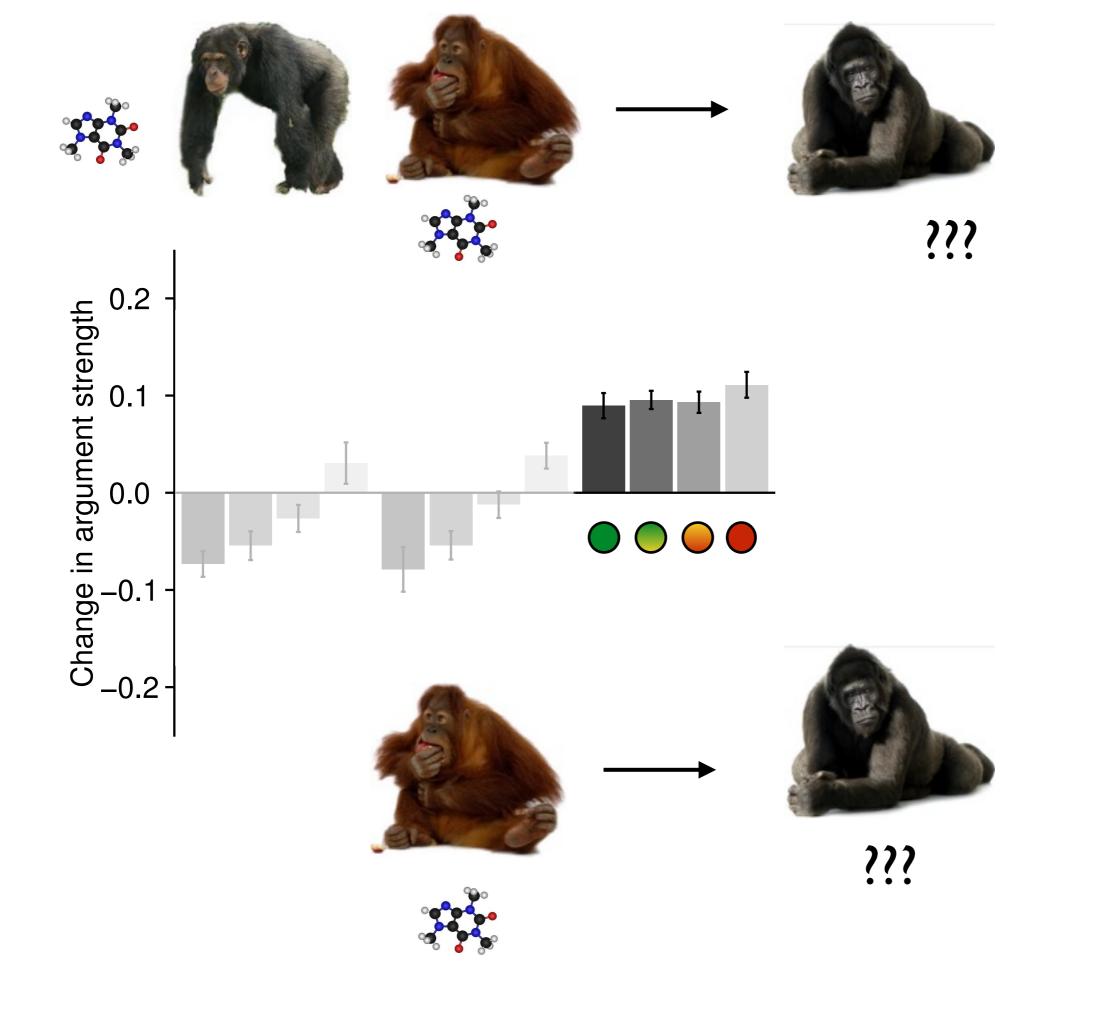




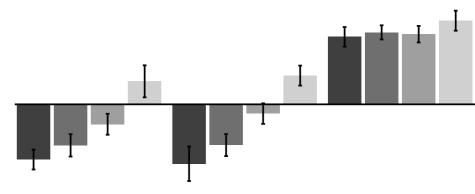


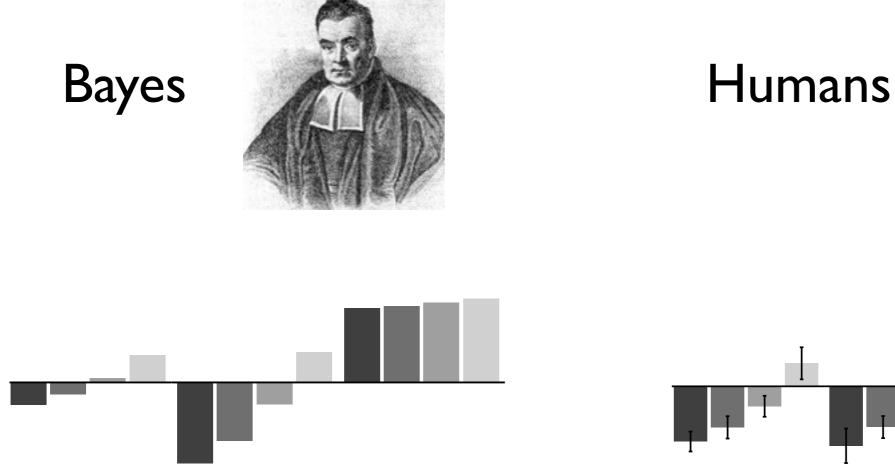




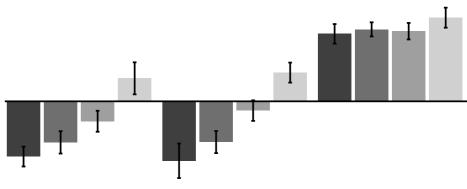


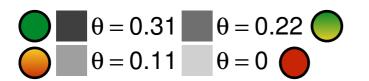




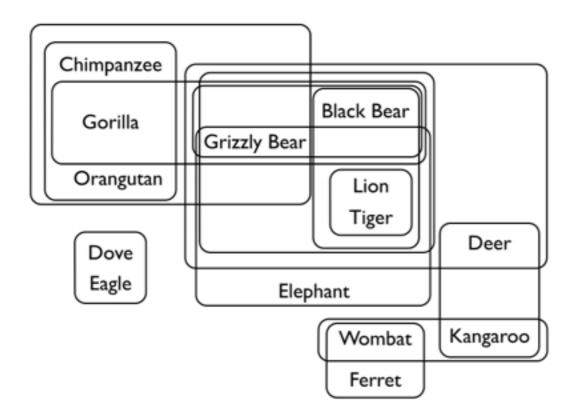








Knowledge about animal categories (theory of the world) creates structural differences between the different arguments



The sampling model (theory of the context) describes how "adding more data" can have different effects across conditions and arguments



Taking a hint from a helpful teacher... with negative evidence

Voorspoels, Navarro, Perfors, Ransom & Storms (2015). *Cognitive Psychology*

You want to infer whether <u>all ravens are black</u>. Which of these observations is more helpful?



Paradox of the raven: see Hempel (1945), Good (1960), etc

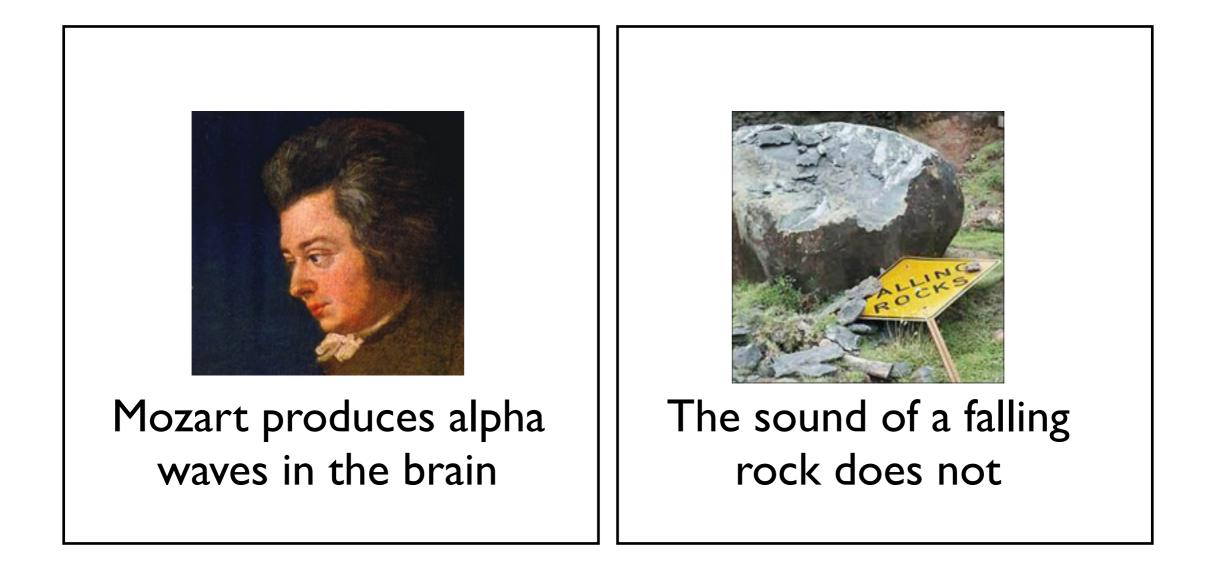
Positive evidence

Negative evidence



Positive evidence

Negative evidence

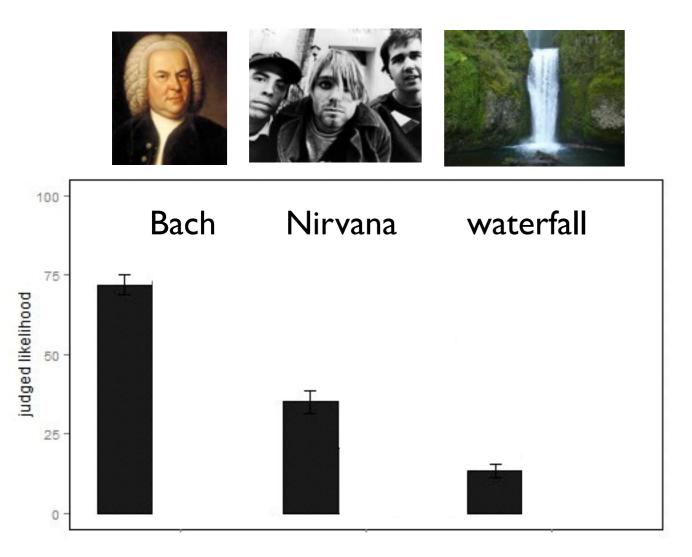


Example stimuli only - the real experiments used <u>many</u> variations

Okay, we start by telling people that Mozart does produce alpha waves...



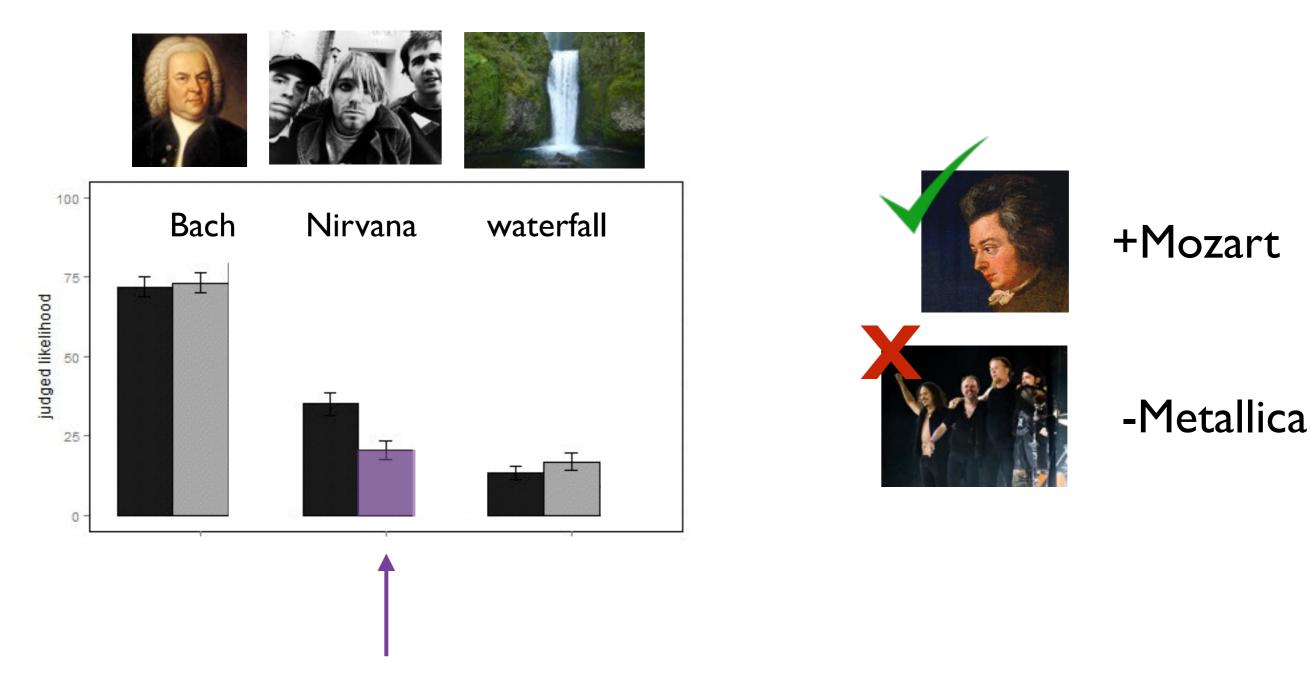
+Mozart



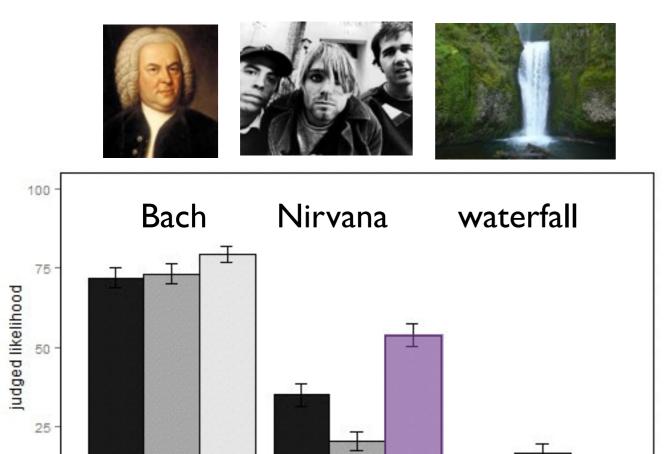


+Mozart

... and they reason sensibly



Adding Metallica as a negative example has a modest, sensible effect on inferences about Nirvana



Um.

0

Ŧ

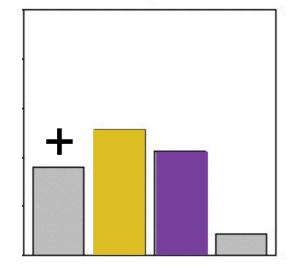


+Mozart



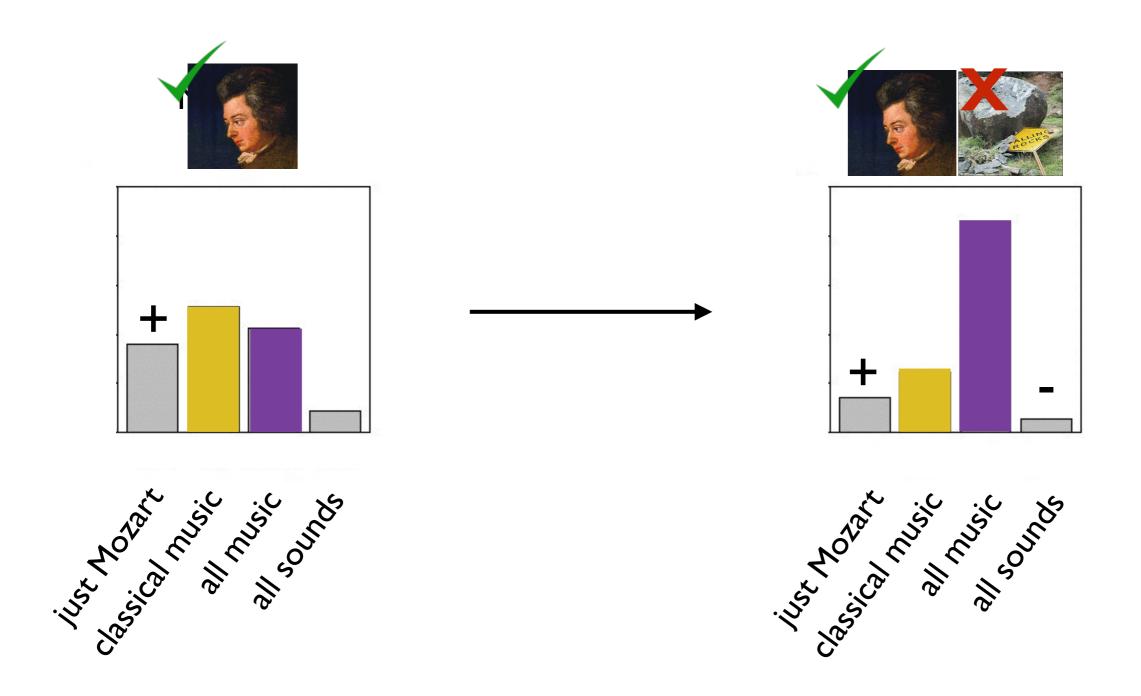
-Falling rock



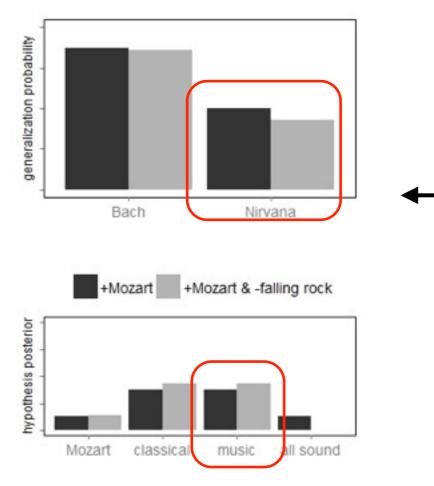




Negative evidence is interpreted as marking the category boundary



Bayesian reasoners with a random sampling assumption do *not* produce the effect

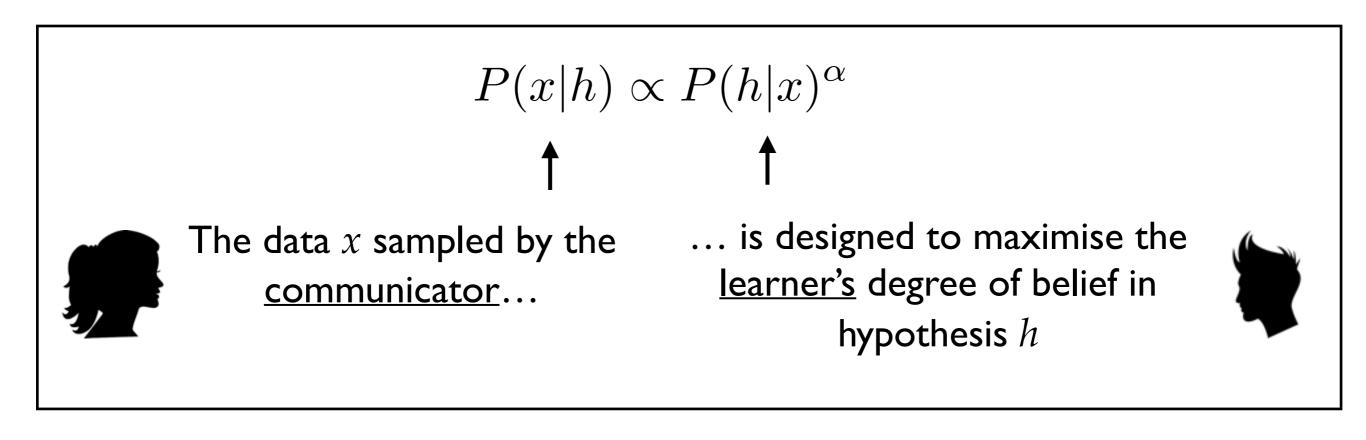


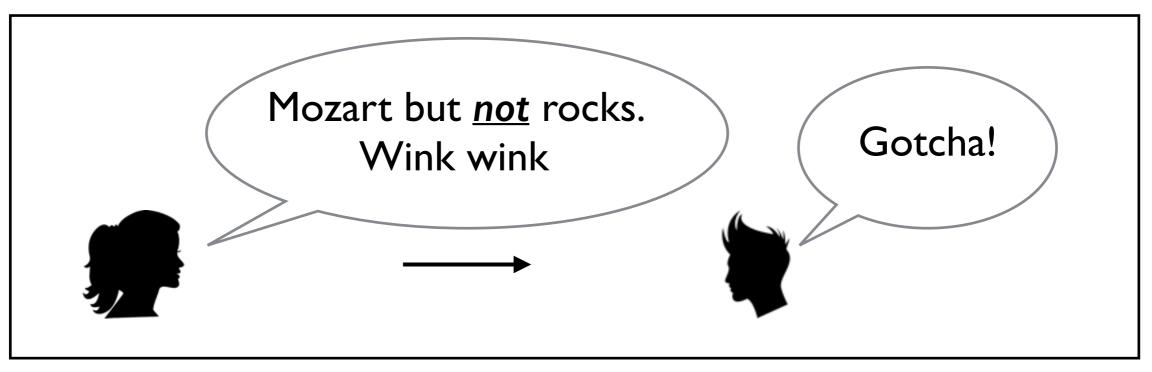


Bayesian reasoners with a helpful sampling assumption *do* produce the effect



What does it mean to be "helpful" anyway?

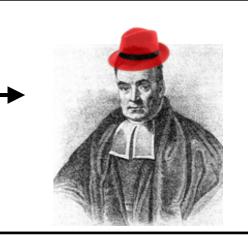




Prediction:

If the negative evidence is perceived as a helpful hint we should continue to get the effect

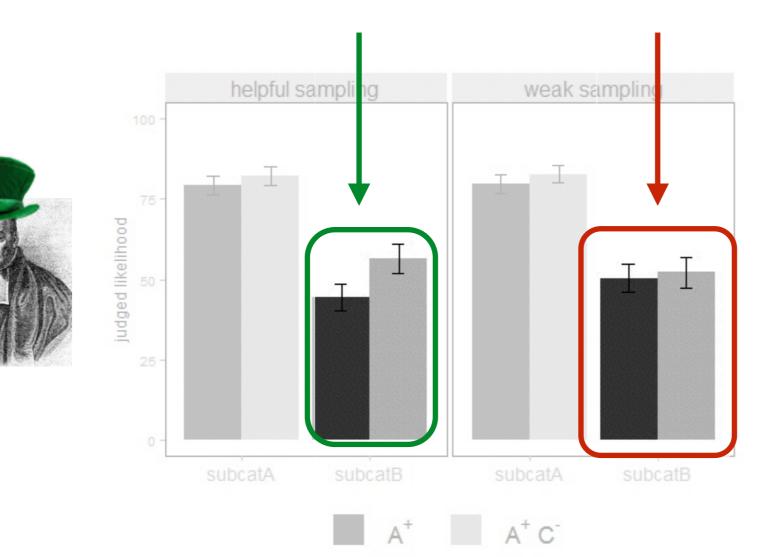




Here's the experimental results:

Hint







Superficially useless information can have a huge effect when it is <u>deemed</u> to be **helpful**

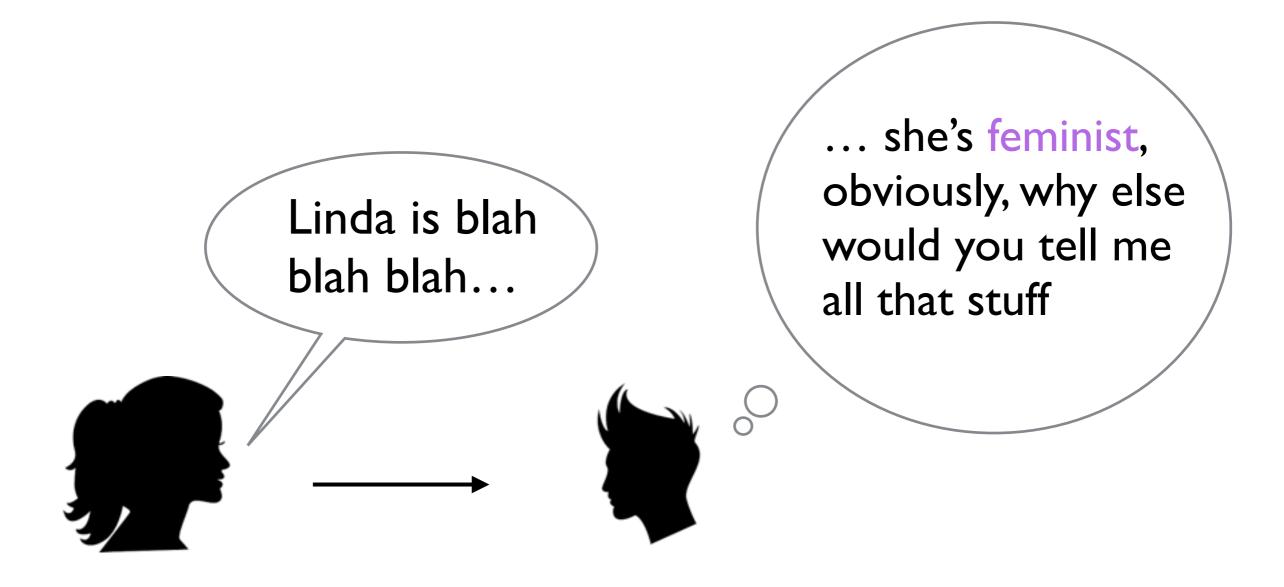
WTF is this "falling rocks" thing? It must be **relevant** somehow, so...

Taking the <u>wrong</u> hint when your teacher is a jerk

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.

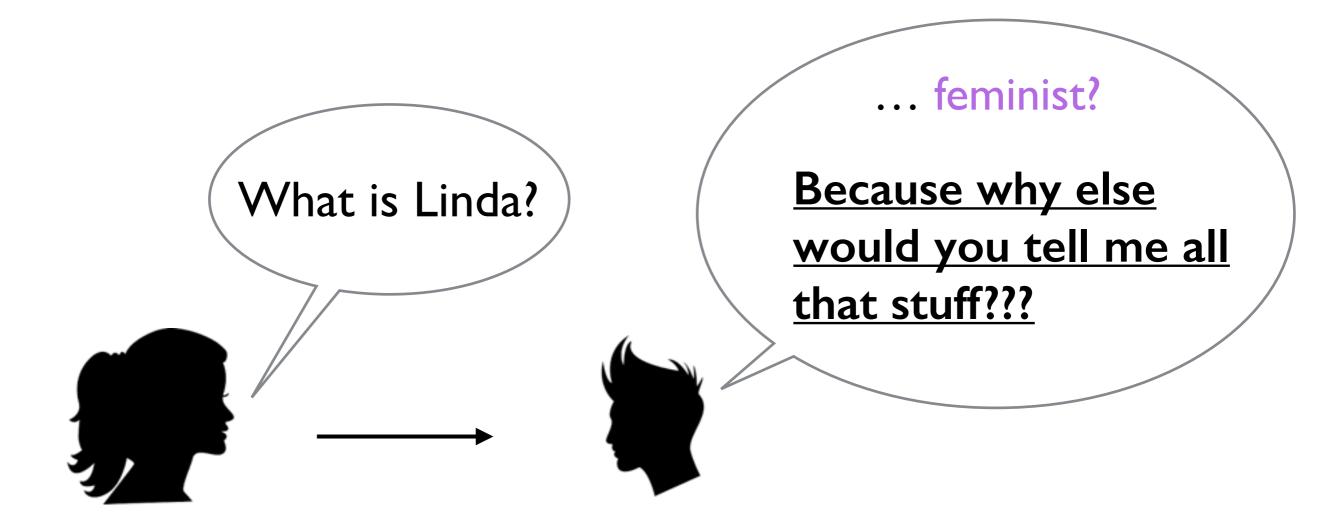
Which is more probable?(a) Linda is a bank teller(b) Linda is a feminist bank teller

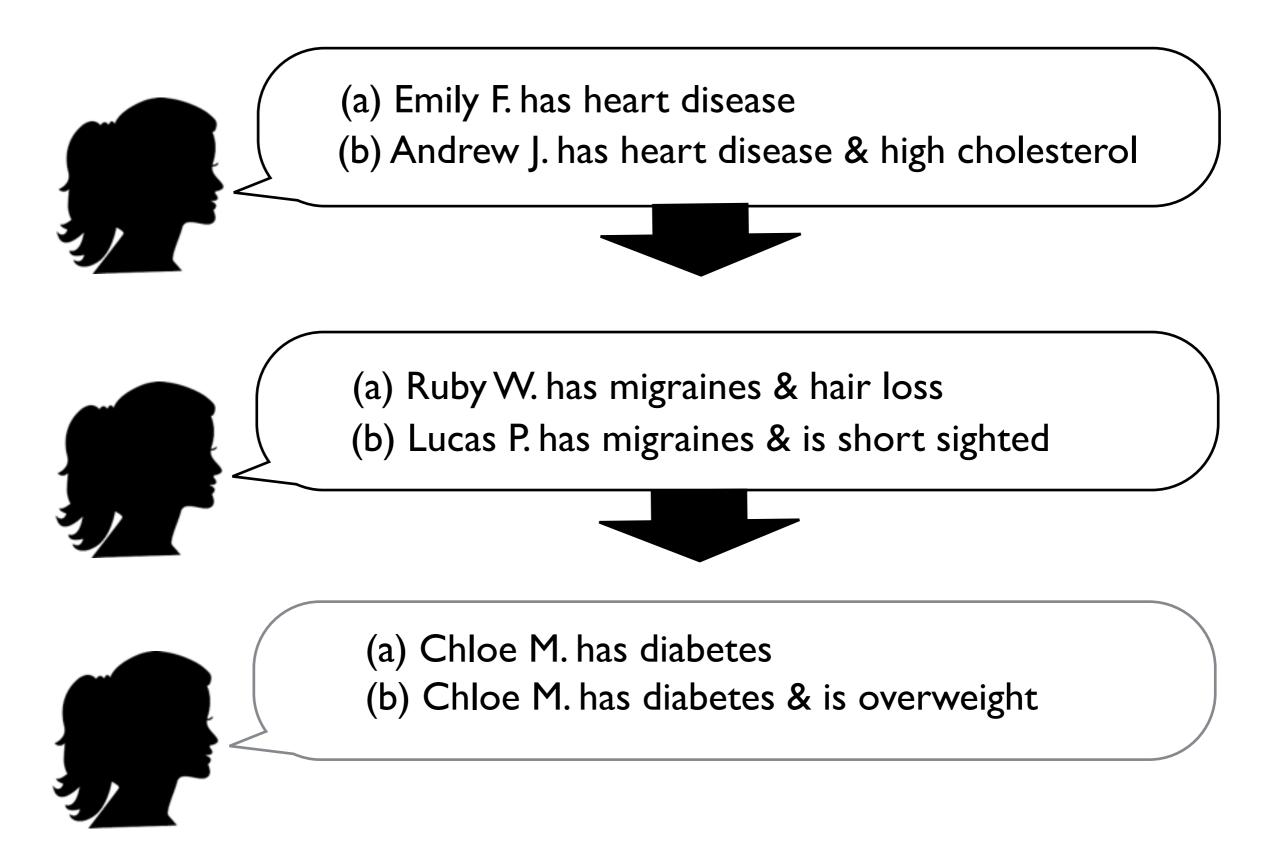
The social/pragmatic account



Hertwig & Gigerenzer (1999)

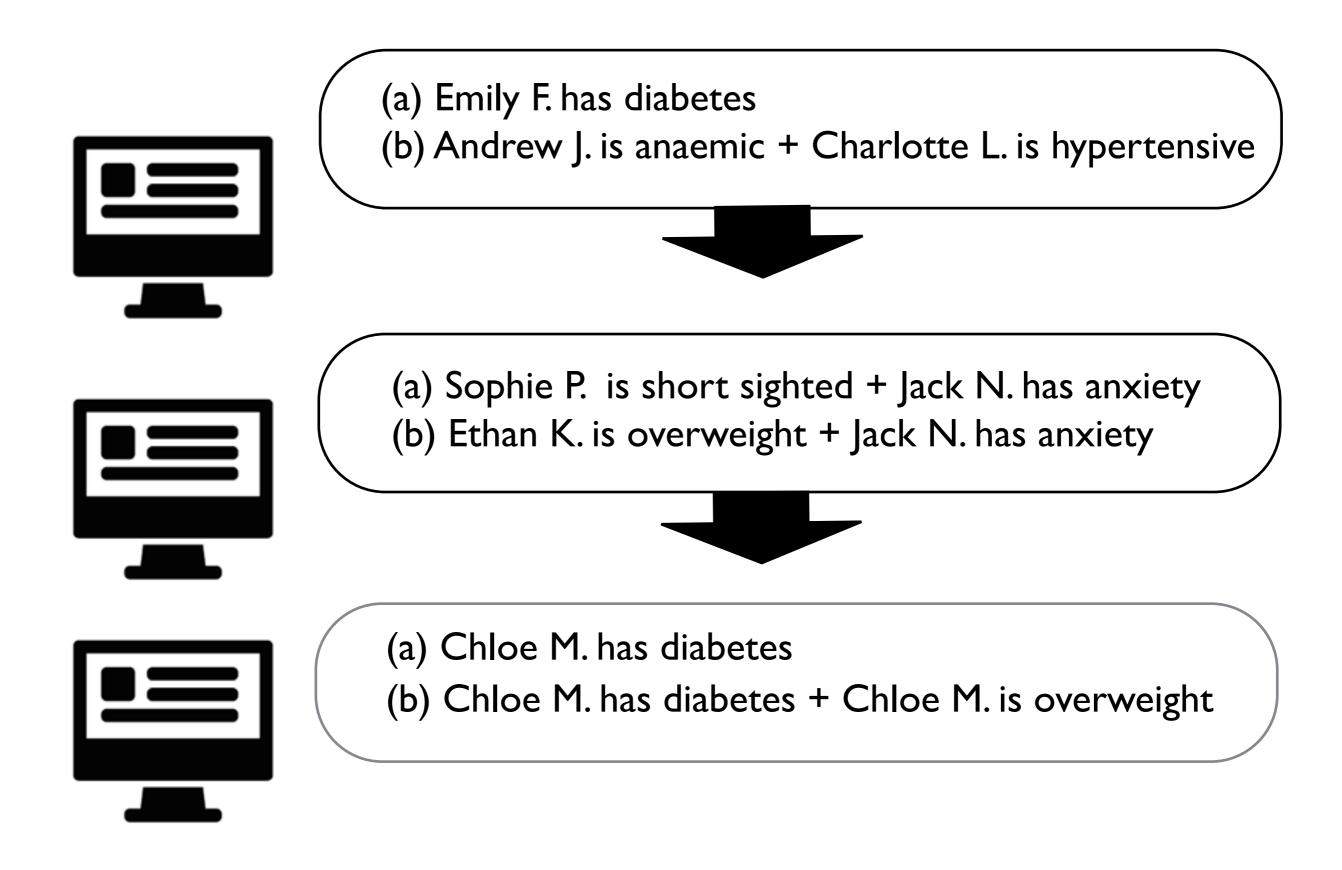
The social/pragmatic account





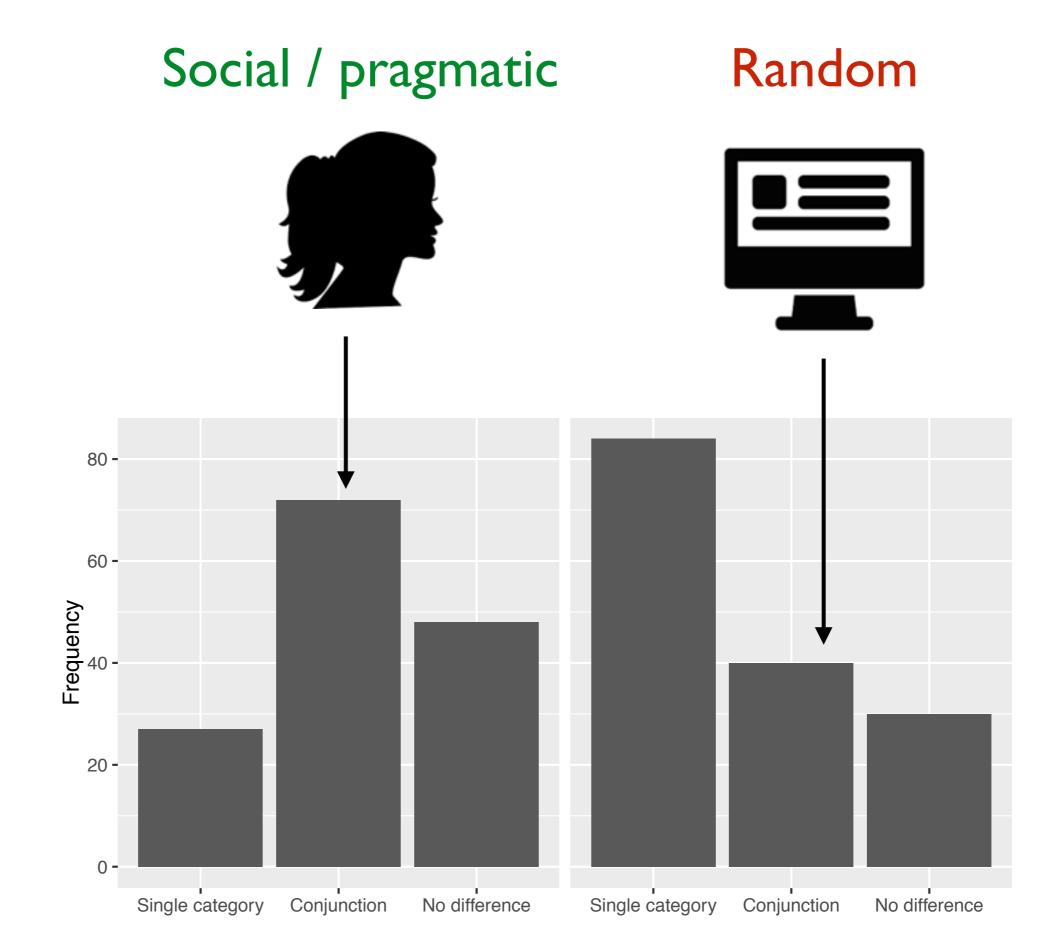
Social / pragmatic context

... with Michelle Keshwa



Random / disconnected fact condition

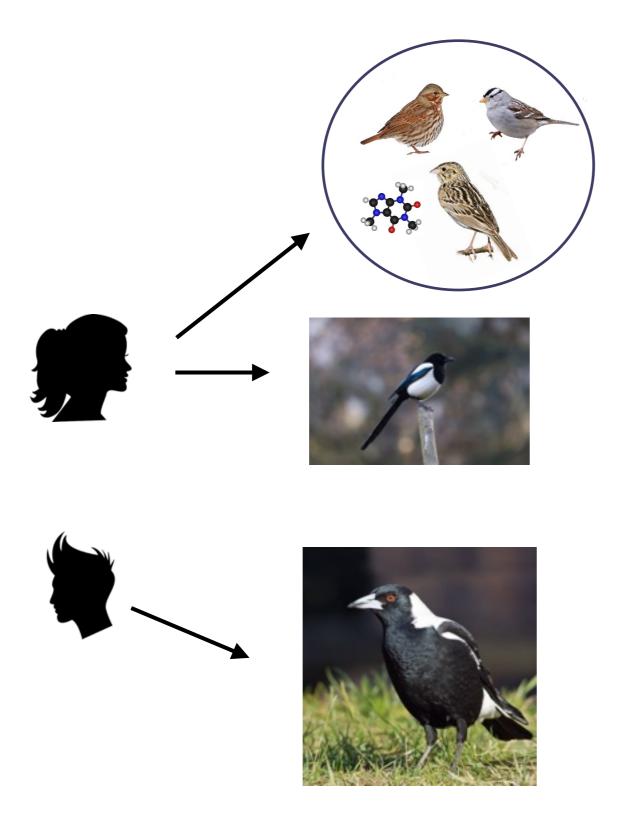
... with Michelle Keshwa



... with Michelle Keshwa

Sampling shapes reasoning even <u>without</u> a helpful (or deceitful) human involved

Sampling by different people

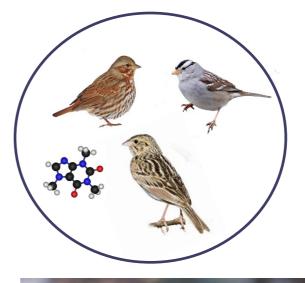


This problem can be solved using social cognition

Maybe this is <u>all</u> social reasoning?

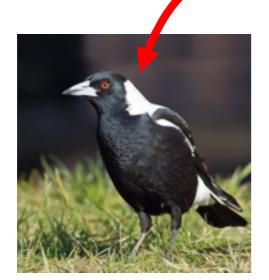
Sampling across spatial locations







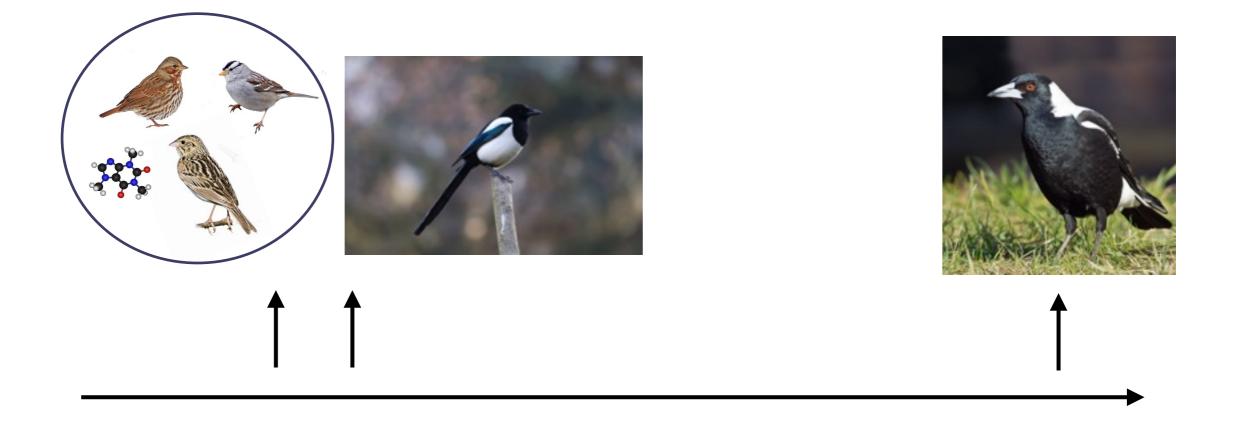
Eurasian magpie



Australian magpie

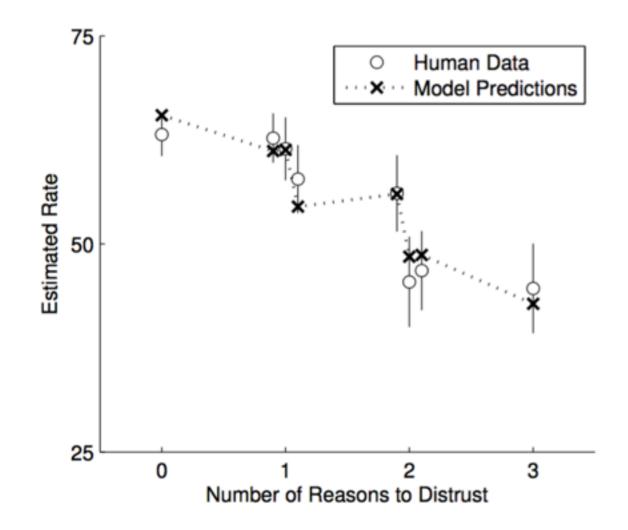
This is not social cognition!

Sampling across time



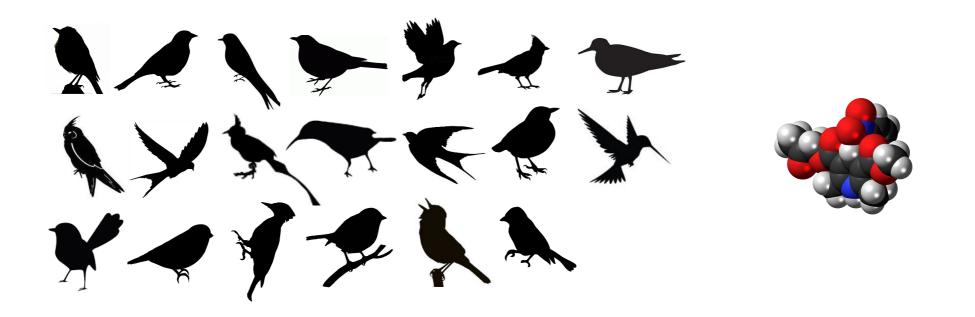
This is not social cognition!

You are currently classifying predators according to whether they pose a threat to humans. *Your team*, working at *this location recently* collected 200 observations and found that 50 (25%) of them met this criterion. This week, you have made another 4 observations, of which 3 (75%) met the above criterion. What proportion of predators in the area do you estimate pose a threat to humans?

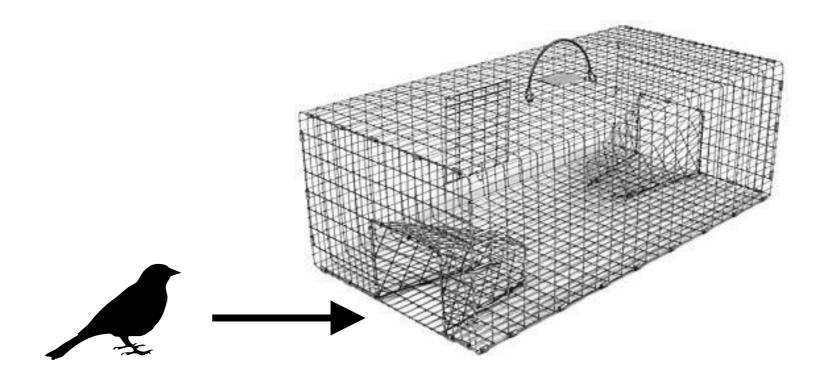


Welsh & Navarro (2012). Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes

Let's make this a little more sneaky...



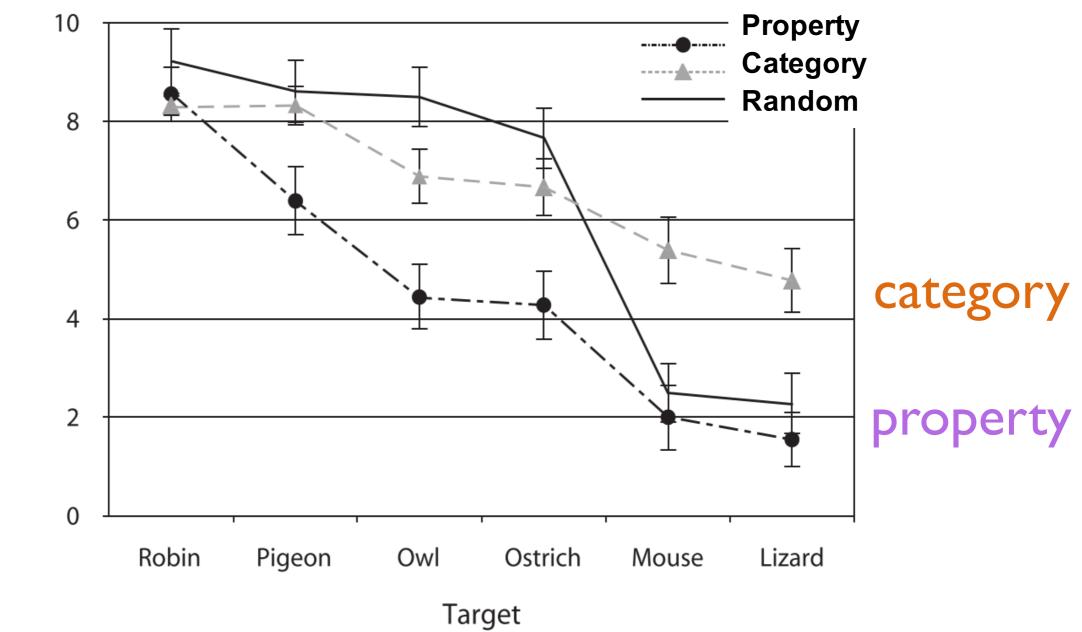
20 small birds with plaxium blood (SP+)



Category sampling: select items based on category membership (i.e. small birds)



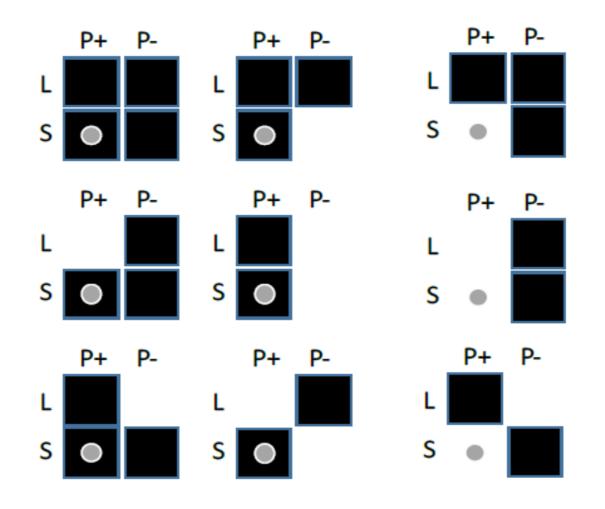
Property sampling: select items based on possession of the property (i.e. plaxium blood)



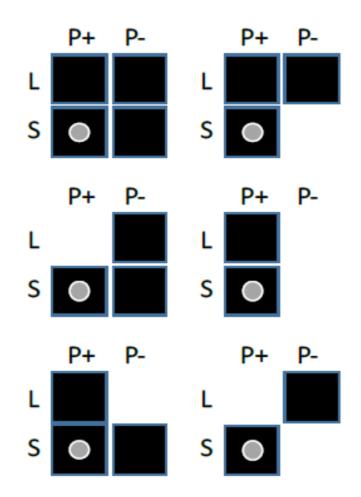
Mean Projection Score

Lawson & Kalish (2009)

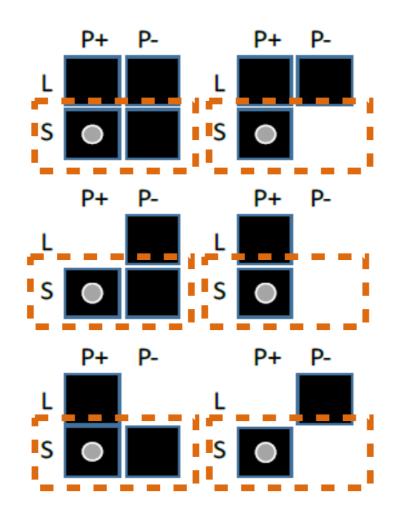
Hypotheses a reasoner might consider



Hypotheses consistent with the data



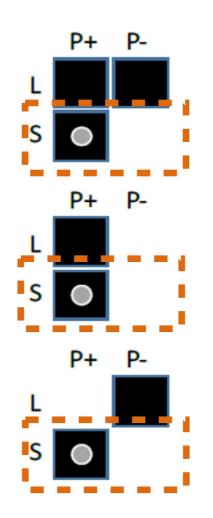
Category sampling



Frame explains absence of LP+ and LP-

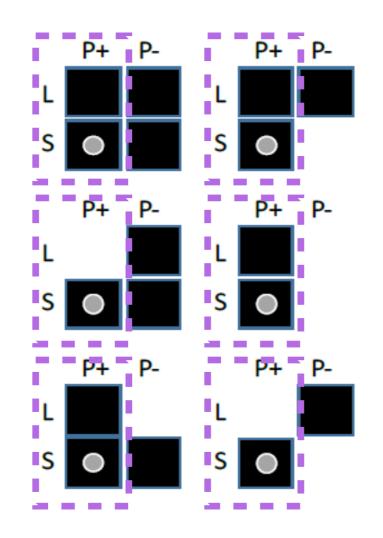
Hypothesis must account for absence of SP-

Category sampling



2 of 3 hypotheses allow LP+ ... so generalisation to large birds is very plausible

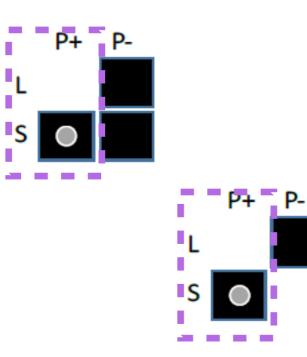
Property sampling



Frame explains absence of SP- and LP-

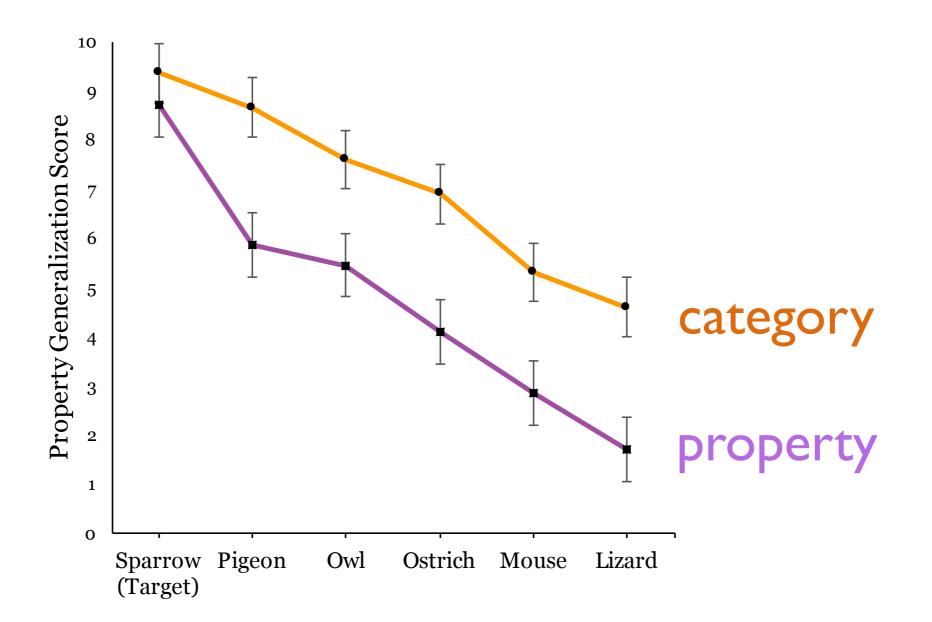
Hypothesis must account for absence of LP+

Property sampling

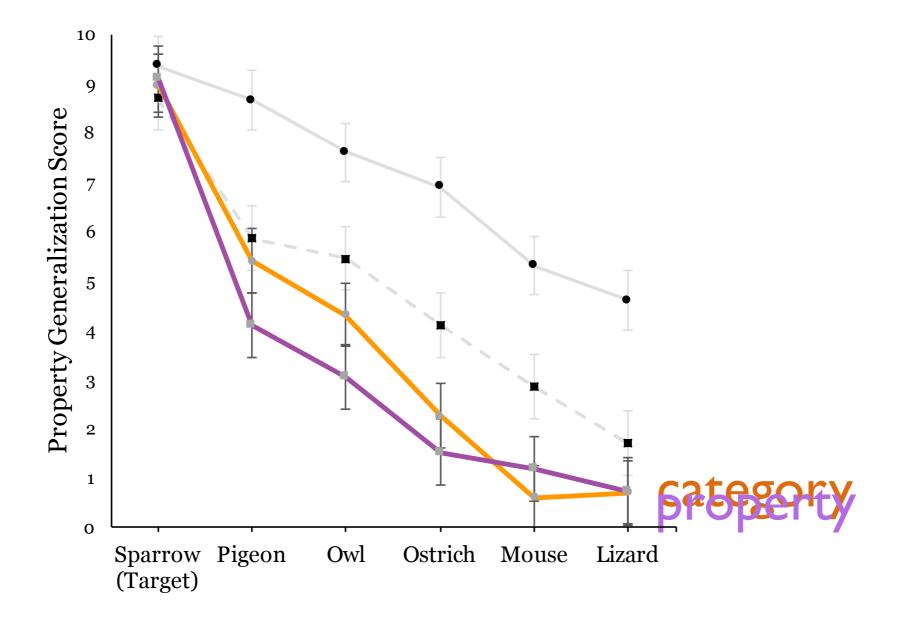


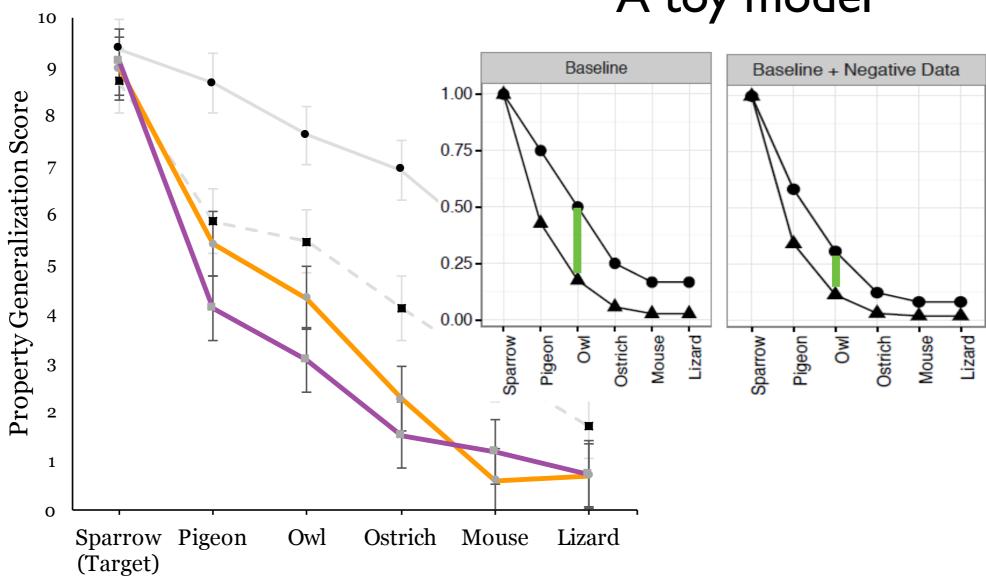
No remaining hypotheses allow LP+... so generalisation to large birds is very implausible

Replication of L&K 2009

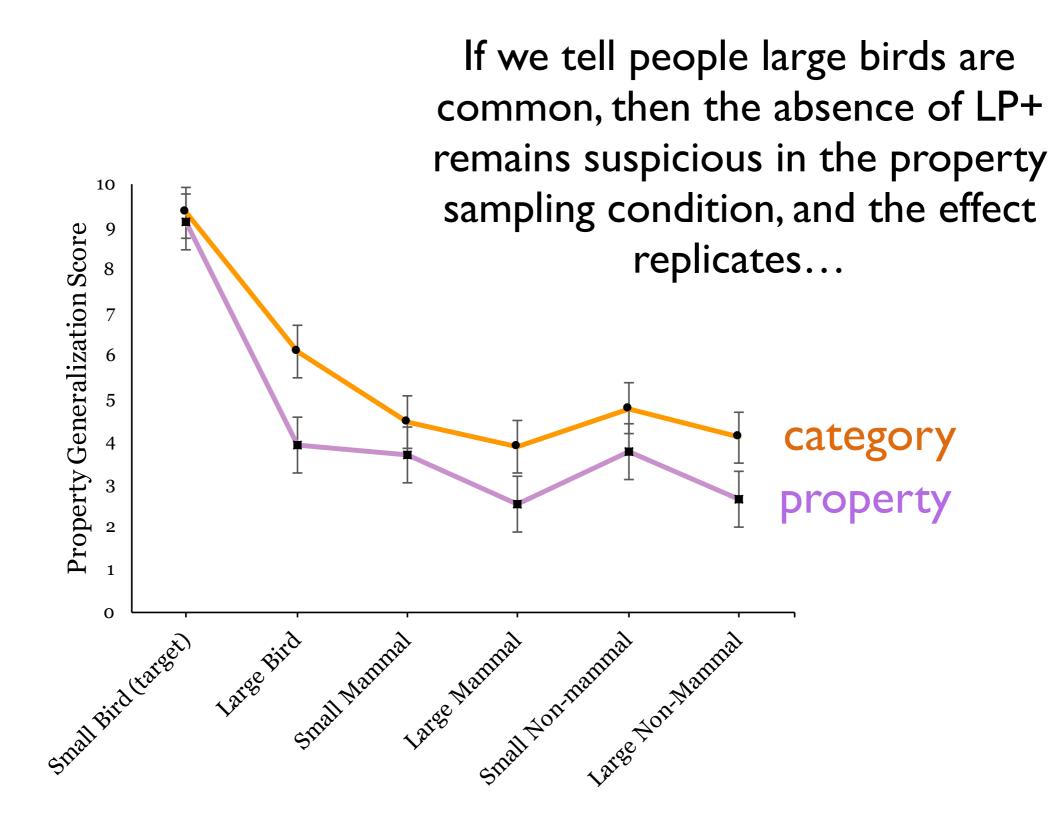


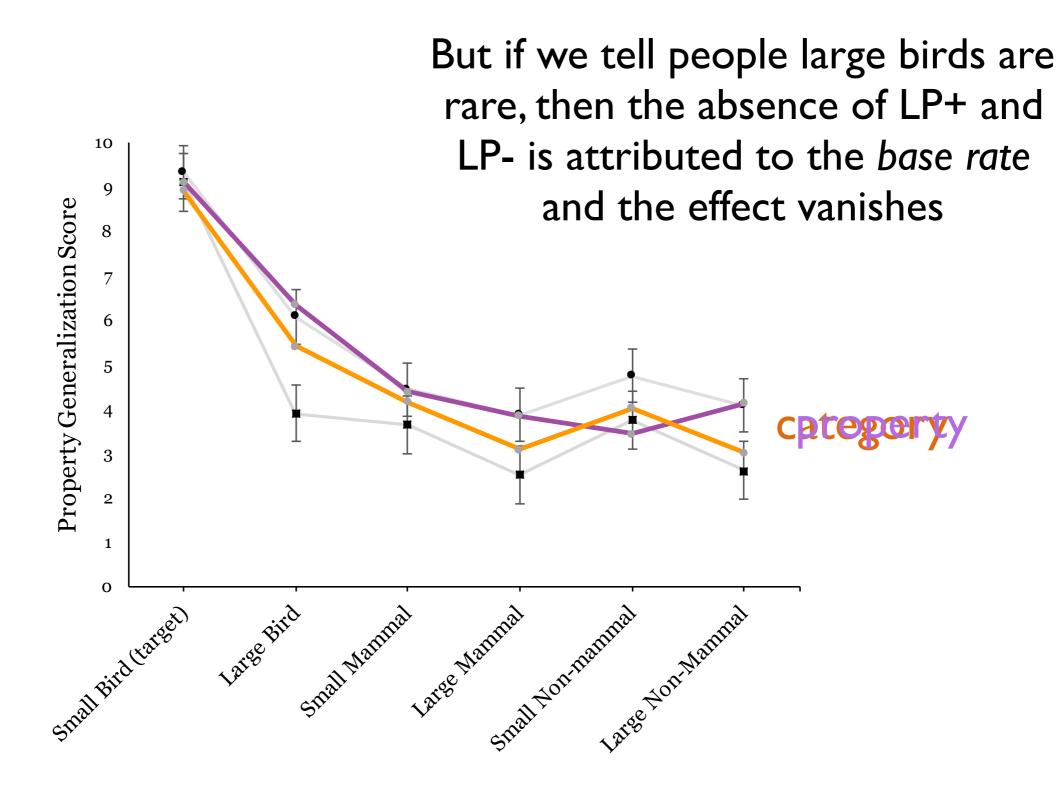
Explicit negative evidence (actual LP-) attenuates value of *implicit* negative evidence (no LP+)



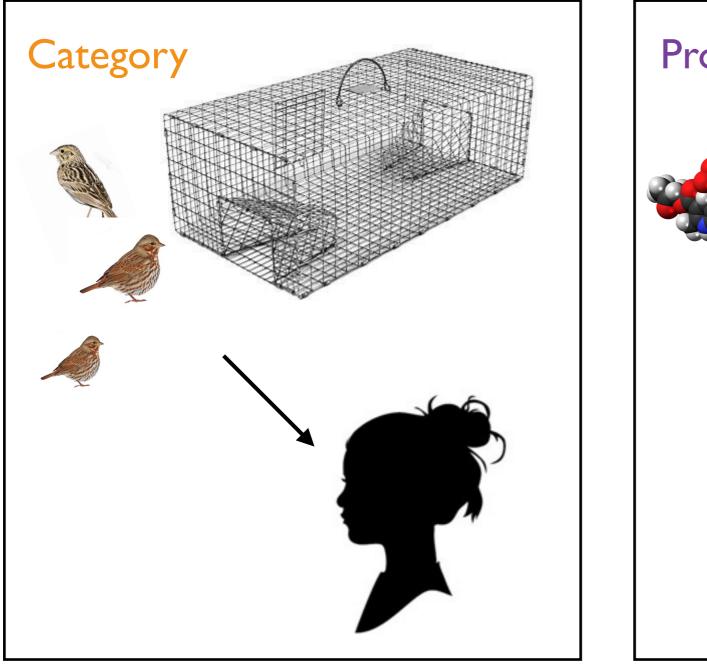


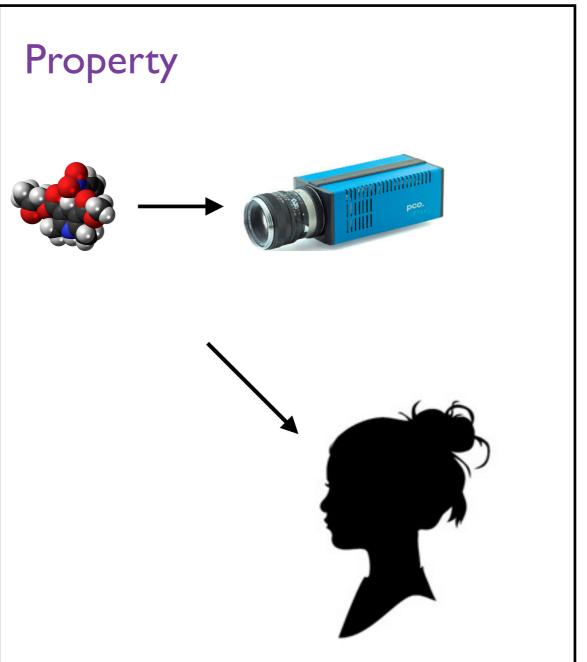
A toy model





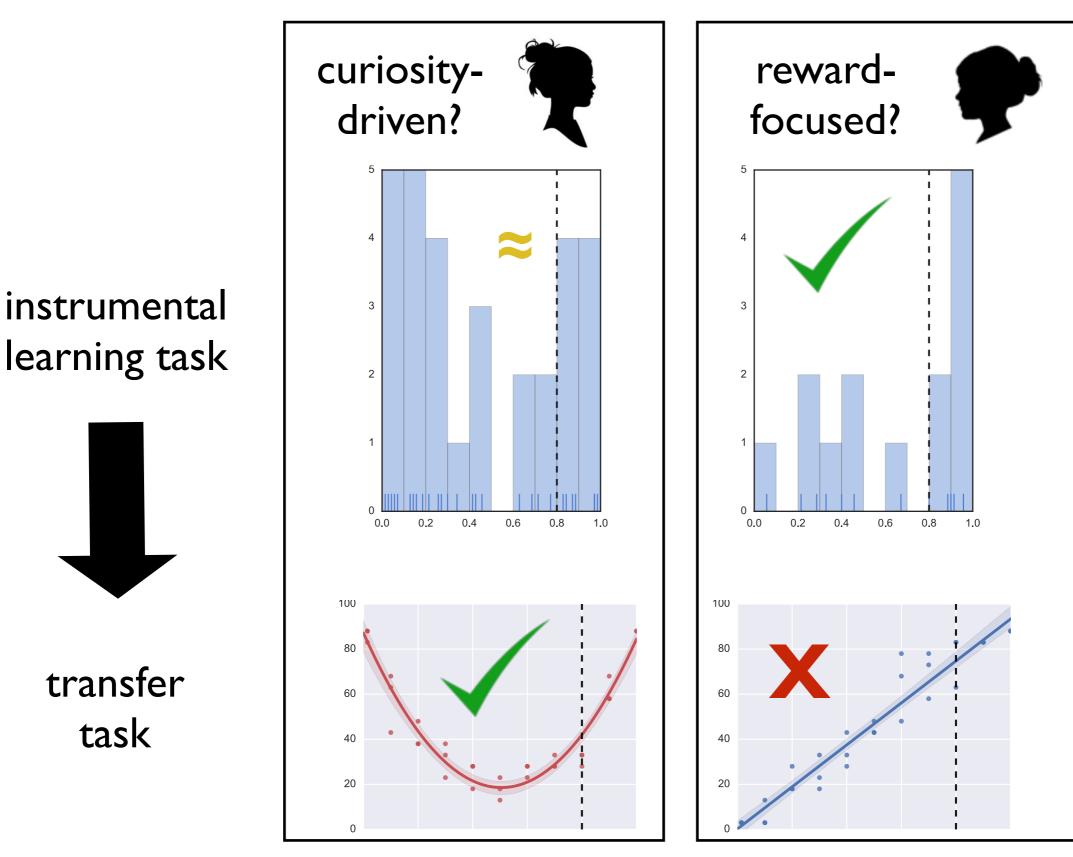
People pay attention to *mechanistic* constraints on sampling processes (not just social cues), and this shapes our reasoning in a sensible way





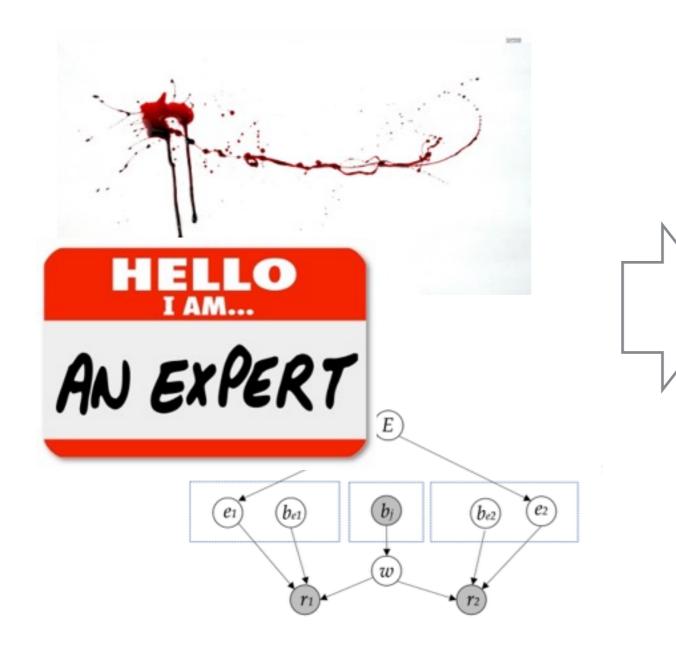
Extensions?

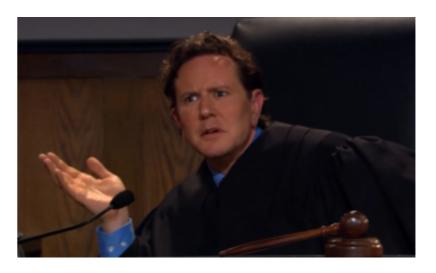
Choice: What drives people's active sampling?



with Sean Tauber and Ben Newell

Law: Evidence sampling and expertise in the courtroom

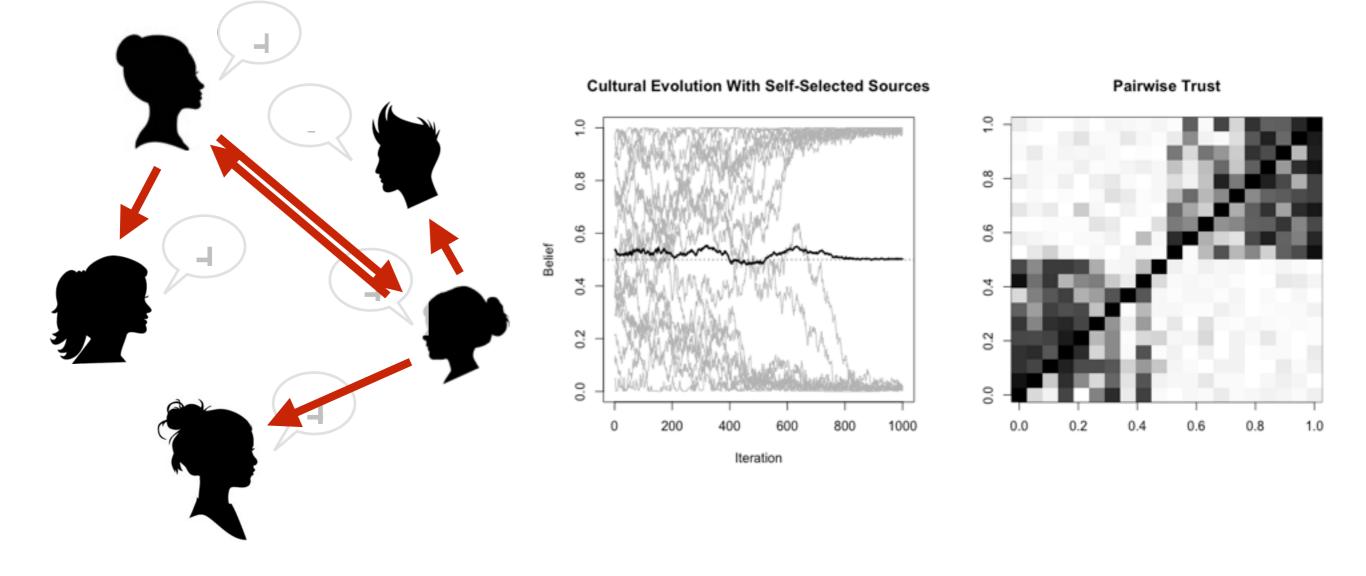






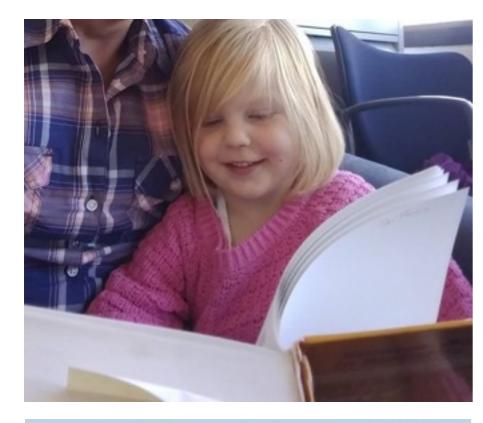
with Kristy Martire and Gary Edmond

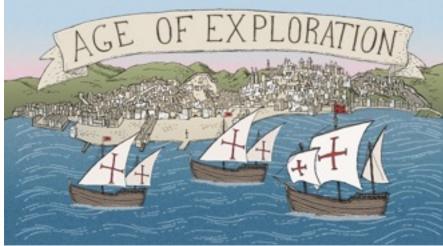
Society: Trust-based sampling via selforganising social networks (fake news...)



with Amy Perfors

Development: Exploratory versus goaldirected sampling by preschoolers

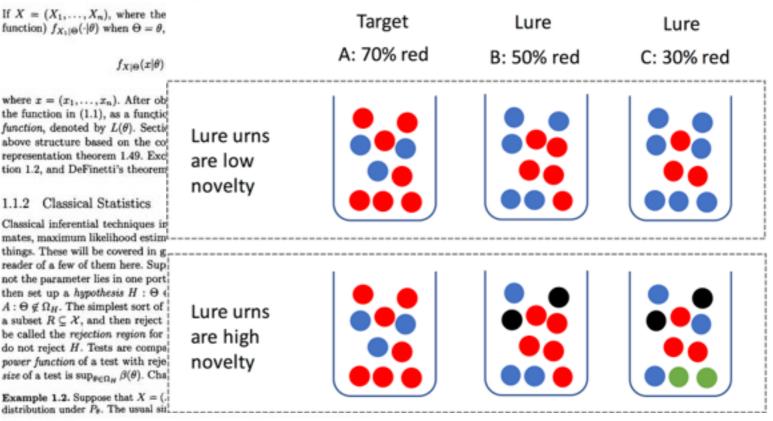




2 Chapter 1. Probability Models

servations that are mutually independent and identically distributed (IID), or X might be some general quantity. The set of possible values for X is the sample space and is often denoted as X. The members P_{θ} of the parametric family will be distributions over this space X. If X is continuous or discrete, then densities or probability mass functions¹ exist. We will denote the density or mass function for P_{θ} by $f_{X|\Theta}(\cdot|\theta)$. For example, if X is a single random variable with continuous distribution, then

$$P_{\theta}(a < X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f_{X|\Theta}(x|\theta) dx$$



¹Using the theory of measures (see Appendix A) we will be able to dispense with the distinction between densities and probability mass functions. They will both be special cases of a more general type of "density."

Wrap-up:

On the origins of data and the rationality of human reasoning





People are smart. Limited, but smart.

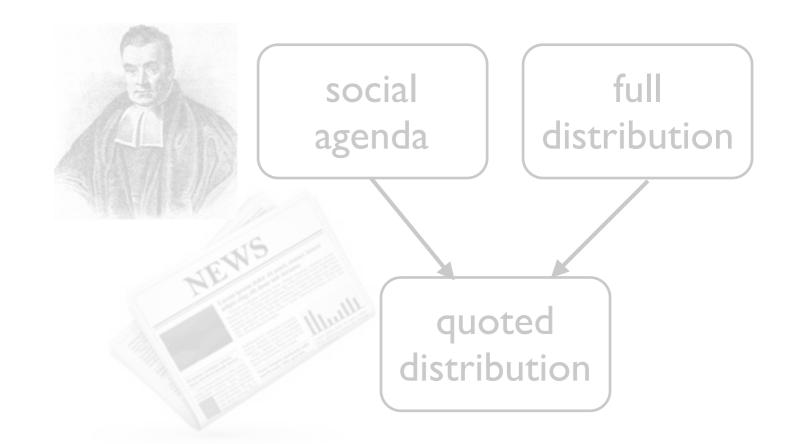
"Common sense" reasoning is infuriatingly cunning, and requires people to learn from complex data sources (e.g., other people)



We need to disentangle facts from agendas

with Amy Perfors and Pat Shafto

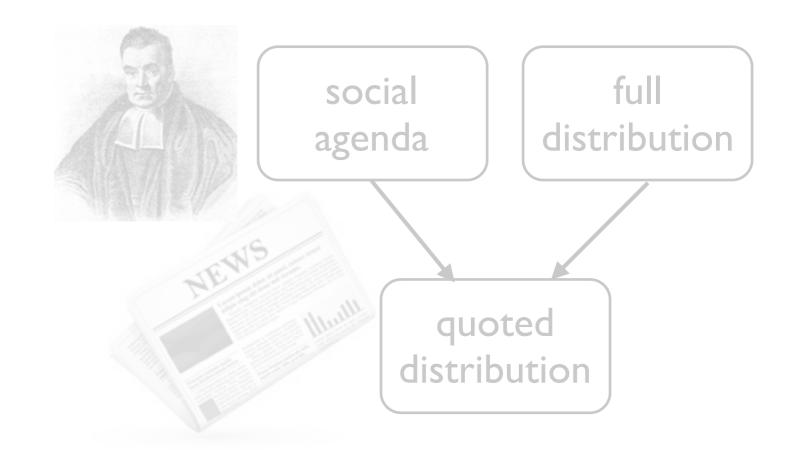




We need to detect trickery

too many collaborators to list



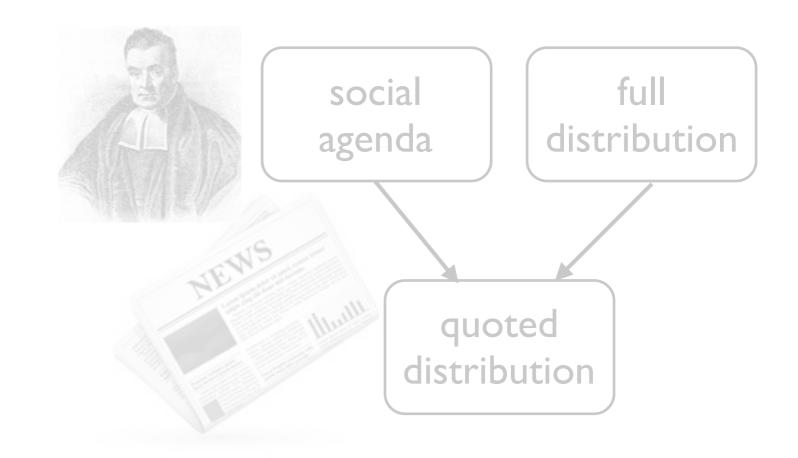


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We need to know when to reject the rules we're given

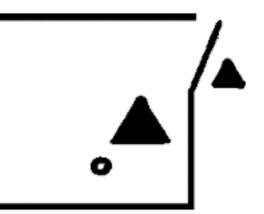
with Charles Kemp





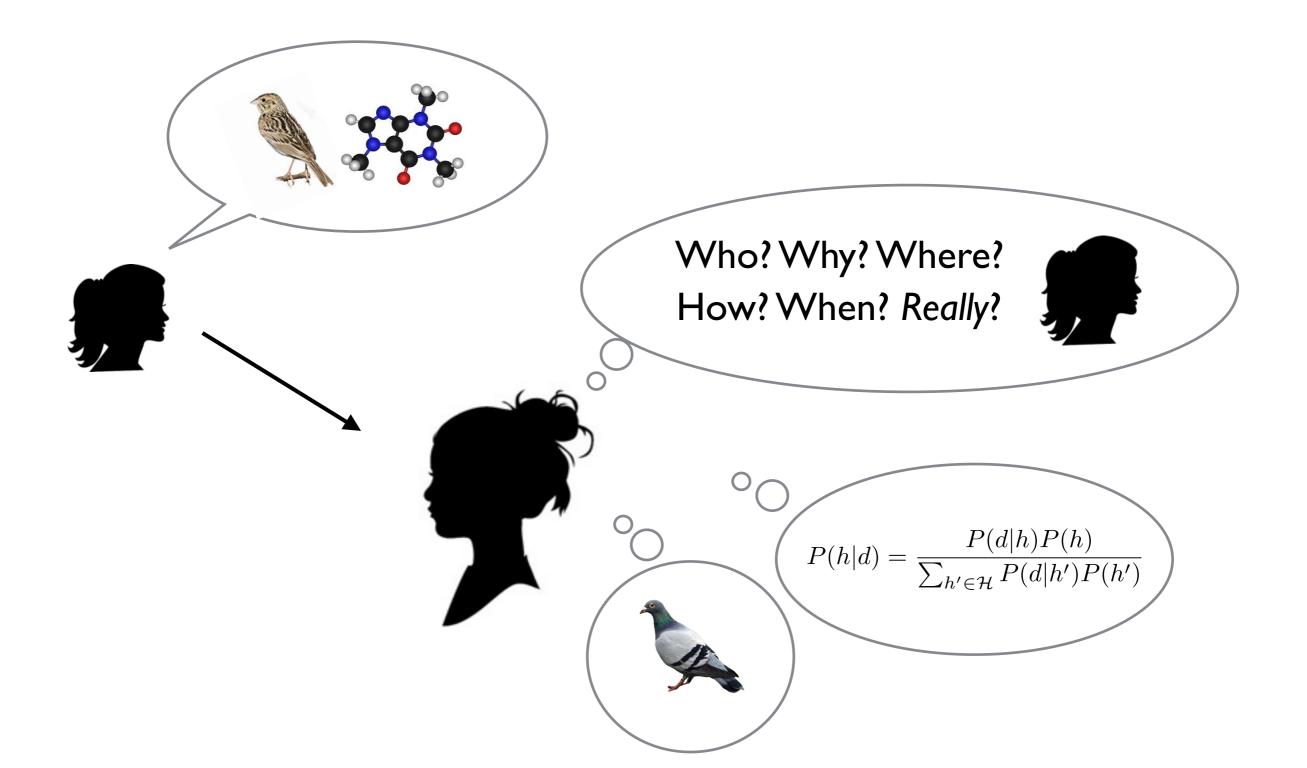
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We need to read the intention of potentially malicious agents



too many collaborators to list

Common sense reasoning requires uncommonly rich statistical models



Thanks!

