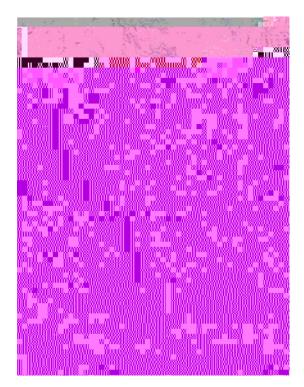
#### **Extending Bayesian Theory to Cooperative Groups:**

an introduction to Indeterminate/Imprecise Probability Theories [IP] also see www.sipta.org

Teddy Seidenfeld – Carnegie Mellon University based on joint work with Jay Kadane and

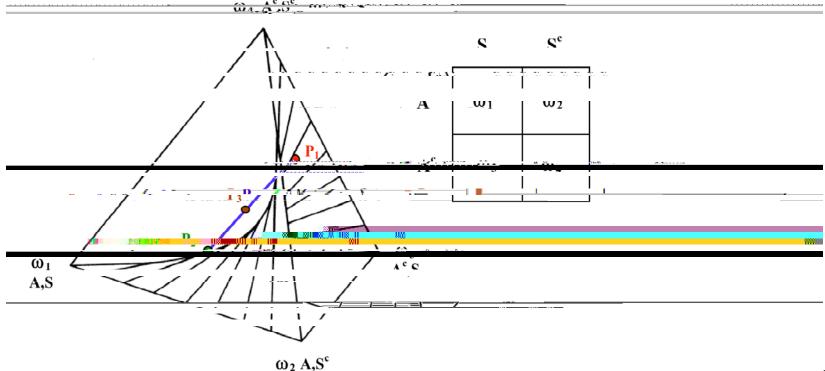


**Mark Schervish** 

#### Review from the earlier presentation.

In our examination of the Linear Pool – combining probabilistic opinions into a convex combination of those distributions – we illustrated its failure to be "Externally Bayesian." There two experts judged events A and S independent,  $P_i(AS) = P_i(A)P_i(S)$  for i = 1, 2. But the Linear Pool created a group opinion  $P_3$  with positive dependence.  $P_3(A|S) > P_3(A)$ .

Pooling and conditioning do not commute!



The experts agree that  $T_3$  is inadmissible in this three-way choice, because of their unanimity about the irrelevance of  $\{S, S^c\}$ .

However, neither  $T_1$  nor  $T_2$  is Pareto superior to  $T_3$ .

There is no one alternative to  $T_3$  that the experts agree is better.

#### A lesson to be learned is that:

• Pairwise comparisons between options is insufficient for determining a consensus among Bayesian agents.

The decision theory for Bayesian consensus does not begin with a binary relation of preference.

#### What follows in this presentation

Part 1: Outline of a theory of coherent choice for use with IP models of consensus for a *team*.

Axiomatic representation of a coherent choice function.

Part 2: Some issues of experimental design within this model of consensus

2.1 Summary of an adaptive clinical trial following this model.

### Consider a cooperative group of Bayesian decision makers who have

Given a (closed) set O of feasible options, a *choice function* C identifies the set A of <u>acceptable options</u> C[O] = A, for a non-empty subset  $A \,! \, O$ .

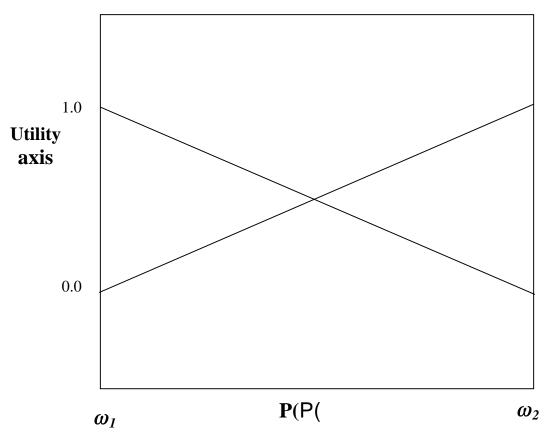
• A choice function C is <u>coherent</u> across a class of problems if there is a set of probabilities P such that acceptable options are P –Bayes.

An option is acceptable, o A (= C[O]), just in case o is a Bayes solution to problem O for some P  $\cap$  P.

Aside: There may be no acceptable option if the option set is not closed, e.g., there is no "best" option from the continuum of utility values in [0, 1). We use closed sets of options in decision problems.

## Definition: Option o O has a local Bayes model P

With local coherence, only  $\{f,g\}$ 



Convexify the option set.

The locally Bayes mixed strategies f # (1-)g are pink By Pearce's Theorem, e.g., the mixed act m = .5f # .5g strictly dominates h.

Note well that for a coherent choice function act m is among the acceptable acts from  $\{f, g, m\}$  if and only if  $P(!_2) = .5$  belongs to the IP set  $P_{\bullet}$ 

This observation about the acceptability of a mixed option generalizes.

- Each (arbitrary) IP set of probabilities has its own distinct coherent choice function.
- For each two different sets of distributions there is a (finite) decision problem where they have distinct coherent choices.

#### Application:

We can represent the IP set of probability distributions that make two events independent, since convexity of the IP set is not required in our approach.

# Coherent choice functions may be characterized by axioms on acceptable sets that parallel familiar axioms for SEU theory

#### <u>SEU Coherent Preference</u> <

 $Axiom_1 < is \ a \ weak \ order.$ 

$$Axiom_2 < obeys\ Independence \quad o_1 < o_2\ iff\ xo_1 \oplus (1-x)o_3 < xo_2 \oplus (1-x)o_3$$

Axiom<sub>3</sub> Archimedes

If 
$$o_1 < o_2 < o_3$$
, then  $\exists 0 < x, y < 1$ 

$$xo_1 \oplus (1-x)o_3 < o_2 < yo_1 \oplus (1-y)o_3$$

# Coherent Choice Functions (SSK 2010)

In place of the ordering axiom, we require the following two conditions:

Axiom 1a – Sen's (1977) property alpha

If 
$$O_2 \subseteq R(O_1)$$
 and  $O_1 \subseteq O_3$ , then  $O_2 \subseteq R(O_3)$ .

You cannot promote an unacceptable option into an acceptable option by adding options to the feasible set.

Axiom 1b – a variant of Aizerman's 1985 condition

If 
$$O_2 \subseteq R(O_1)$$
 and  $O_3 \subseteq O_2$ , then  $O_2 - O_3 \subseteq R(closure[O_1 - O_3])$ .

You cannot promote an unacceptable option into an acceptable option by deleting unacceptable options from the option set.

Note: We require *closure of*  $[O_1 - O_3]$  since  $O_1 - O_3$  may not be a closed set, despite the fact that  $O_1$  and  $O_3$  are closed.

The role of mixtures between options is captured in the following pair of axioms for &.

With  $O_1$  an option set and o an option, the notation  $\#O_1\%$  (1-#)o denotes the set of pointwise mixtures,  $\#o_1\%$  (1-#)o for  $o_1$ !  $O_1$ .

Denote by  $\mathbf{H}(O)$  the closed, convex hull of the option set O, to include mixed options.

Axiom 2a – Independence is formulated for the relation & over sets of options. Specifically, let o be an option and 0 < # 1.

 $O_1 \& O_2$  if and only if  $\#O_1 \%$  (1-

Aside: Two rival decision theories that have been proposed within IP theory each violate a different part of Axiom 2.

• Independence (Axiom 2a) fails in -Maximin theory.

-Maximin: Maximize minimum expected utility with respect to the distributions P in  $\mathcal{P}$ . (See Berger, 1985)

Note: -Maximin uses only binary comparisons, since it generates a (real-valued) ordering of options.

• Mixing (Axiom 2b) fails for Maximality.

*Maximality*: An option o is *Maximal* if there is no option o where  $E_PU(o) > E_PU(o)$  for each P in  $\mathcal{P}$ . The admissible options are those that are Maximal. (See Walley, 1990.)

Note: Maximality uses only binary comparisons, also, though it does not generate an ordering.

The counterpart to Axiom 4 for state-neutrality is captured by the following dominance relations. Introduce two rewards,  $\{1, 0\}$ .

Consider Anscombe-Aumann (1963) horse lotteries  $h_1$  and  $h_2$ , with  $h_i((j))$ 

$$= \&_{ij}1$$
 )  $(1-\&_{ij})0; i = 1, 2, j = 1, ..., n.$ 

Definition:  $h_2$  weakly dominates  $h_1$  if  $\&_{2j}$   $\&_{1j}$  for j = 1, ..., n.

Assume that  $o_2$  weakly dominates  $o_1$ , and that a is an option different from each of these two.

**Axiom 4a** If  $o_2 \# O$  and  $a \# R(\{o_1\} \% O)$  then a # R(O).

**Axiom 4b** If  $o_1 \# O$  and a # R(O) then  $a \# R(\{o_2\} \% [O ! \{o_1\}])$ .

#### Main Result on Representation

A choice function C is coherent *if and only if* it satisfies these (4-pairs of) axioms.

A choice function satisfies these axioms *if and only if* it is given by a non-empty set *P* of global Bayes probability models.

The axioms suffice for representing a choice function with the coherence rule for admissibility applied to a (unique) set of

Probability/Almost-state-independent utility pairs.

Different sets P are identified with different coherent choice functions.

We offer a sufficient condition for representation using a single, stateindependent utility on rewards. Return to the principal question about consensus.

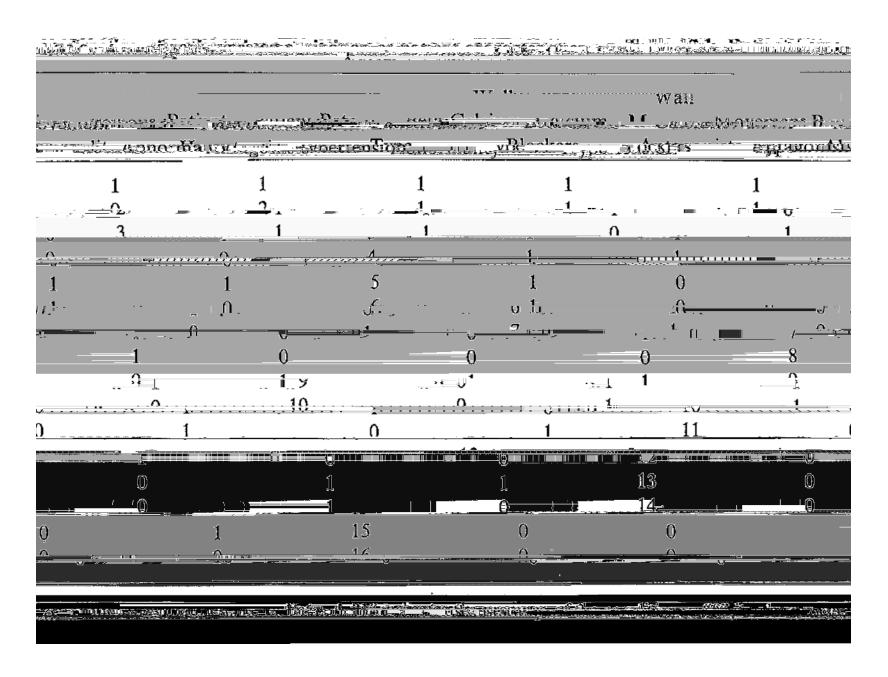
What features of their shared beliefs and values will be reflected in their determination of acceptable options as a team?

Proposal: Preserve unanimity of <u>unacceptable</u> options.

Note: With binary choice problems, this is equivalent to an unrestricted <u>Pareto rule</u> –

If everyone strictly prefers  $o_1$  over  $o_2$ , then so does the team.

This proposal results in taking the team's coherent choice function to be the one given by a set of global probabilities,  $P_T$ , formed by taking the  $\underbrace{union}$  of the experts' individual sets  $P_i$  (i = 1, ..., n) of global probabilities:  $P_T = {}_i P_i$ .

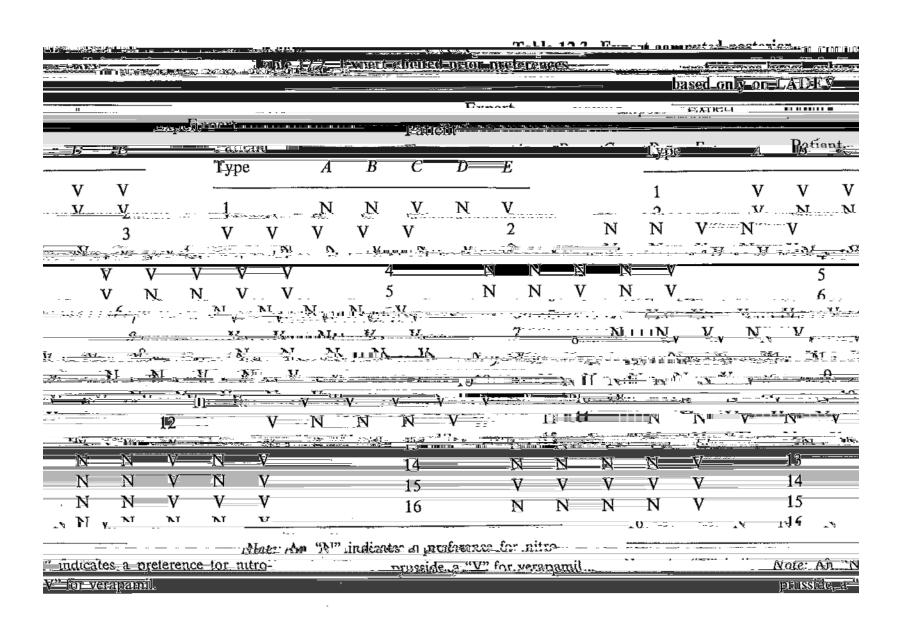


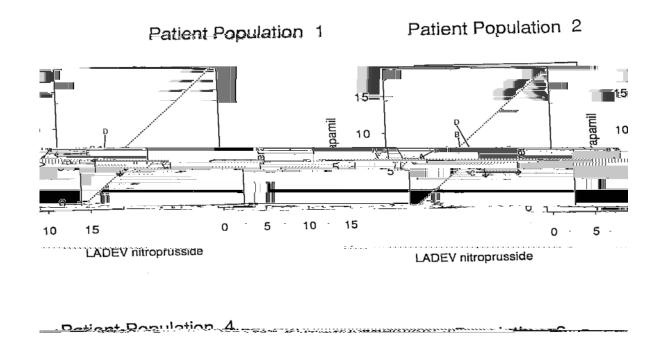
Allocation rule: Patients were admitted sequentially. In each case, based on an updated IP model for the 5 experts – updated by the data acquired to date in the trial – it was determined whether the group of 5 was unanimous: Was one of the two treatments T\* Pareto superior for that patient.

If so, that treatment T\* was used.

If not, so that relative to the set of 5 updated expert opinions each treatment was acceptable with respect to the goal of regulating the patient's mean blood pressure deviation, then the patient was assigned in order to make the outcome most informative, e.g., by balancing the legs of the trial.

The comparison of prior and posterior favored treatments (after 49 patients) is reported in the next slide.





## More informative are shifts from prior to posterior predictive means. Note: The allocation rule does not require randomization!

2.2 *Dilation* for IP sets of probabilities – some things you rather not know! [S & W, 1993]

Let P

#### Heuristic Example

Suppose *A* is a highly *uncertain* event in the added sense of "uncertainty" that comes with a set of probabilities P.

That is

$$P^*(A) - P_*(A) = 1.$$

Let  $\{H,T\}$  indicate the flip of a fair coin whose outcomes are independent of A. That is, P(A,H) = P(A)/2 for each P! P. Define event E by,  $E = \{(A,H), (A^c,T)\}$ .

	Н	Т
Α	E	Ec
Ac	Ec	E

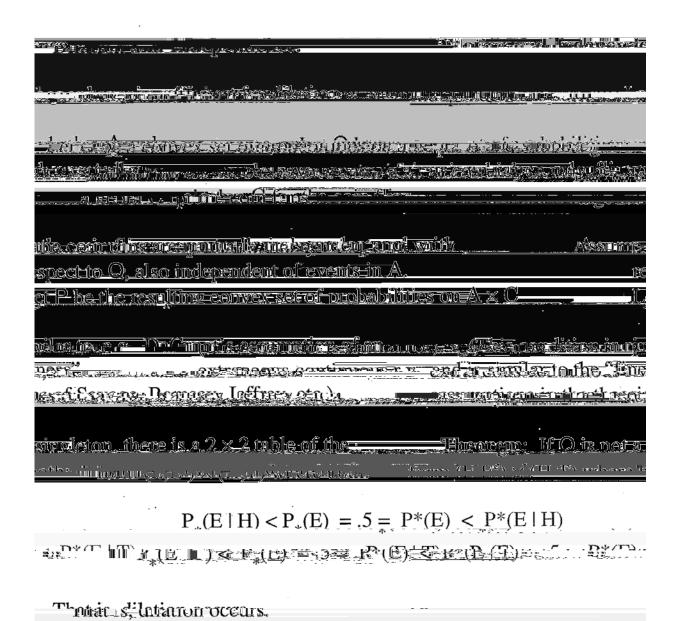
It follows, simply, that P(E) = .5 for each P ! P.

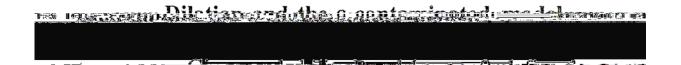
Then

$$0 \quad P_*(E \mid H) < P_*(E) = P^*(E) < P^*(E \mid H) \quad 1$$

and

$$0 \quad P_*(E \mid T) < P_*(E) = P^*(E) < P^*(E \mid T) \quad 1.$$





Dilation creates a new challenge for the design of experiments.

#### Summary of our IP-model of consensus for a team

- Coherent choice does <u>not</u> reduce to binary comparisons between the options available.
- Each two IP sets of probabilities yield different coherent choices.
- Coherent choice is axiomatized by constraints on choice functions that parallel the familiar axioms for coherent (binary) *preferences*.
- Experimental design with respect to an IP-set may permit:
  - The shared data to induce a (familiar) merging of posterior probabilities and a resulting concentration of the posterior IPset.

#### OR

 Dilating the set of IP probabilities, resulting in added uncertainty for sure.

Experimental design for an IP set is not Fisher's Design of Experiments!

#### **Selected References**

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