Algorithmic Randomness and Probabilistic Laws

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The concept of probability

- has many aspects;
- related to beliefs and credences;
- related to the world.

Our focus:

- Probabilistic laws of nature.
- Those laws of nature that involve probabilities in their statements.
- Examples: probabilistic laws in quantum mechanics and statistical mechanics.

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Relations to conceptual issues about probability:

- scientific explanation,
- randomness,
- independence,
- typicality,
- objective probability,
- Principal Principle,
- perhaps Cournot's Principle.

Some background:

- Jeff: foundations of quantum mechanics
- Eddy: laws of nature; typicality; Cournot's principle.

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A simple example:

- Repeated tosses of a coin
- It produces: an infinite ω -sequence of results $\langle r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$.
- Each possible sequence describes a possible world.
- Let Ω^L be the set of all such worlds that accord with a law L.

Consider the probabilistic law L:

Probabilistic Law L

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One might think of L as descriptive of a fundamentally random process, something like starting with a sequence of spin-1/2 particles each in a eigenstate of *z*-spin, then measuring their *x*-spins in turn.

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- Examples: the all-heads world; a world with 1/3 heads.
- Even the full history of a world will fail to determine *L*, in a continuous cardinality of cases.
- Even Ω^L, the full set of worlds compatible with L, does nothing to determine L over any other probabilistic law.

The underdetermination is closely related to empirical coherence.

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Empirical Coherence

A physical law is empirically coherent only if it is always in principle possible for one to have empirical support for the law if the law is in fact true.

cf: Barrett (1996), (1999) and (2020)

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- There are ω-sequences that might occur but would provide no empirical evidence whatsoever for accepting L.
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- In such worlds one would never have any empirical support for accepting the correct probabilistic law even with full evidence.
- There is a continuous cardinality of such worlds.

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How? By appealing to a stronger conception of probability and a correspondingly stronger variety of probabilistic laws.

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Probabilistic Law L*

The ω -sequence of coin tosses $\langle r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$ is <u>random</u> with unbiased relative frequencies of heads and tails.

- Here being <u>random</u> is a property of the ω-sequence. (Outcome randomness)
- The notion should be defined.

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- ... defined in terms of statistical tests that determine whether an ω -sequence exhibits any specifiable pattern.
- Each sequence will either pass or fail a particular test for being random.



- While L is compatible with all ω-sequences of results, L* is not.
- Let Ω^{L^*} be the set of all worlds that accord with the law L^* .
- All worlds in Ω^{L^*} exhibit the random unbiased sequences stipulated by L^* .



- $\Omega^{L^{\star}}$ contains no maverick worlds
- Maverick worlds are those that exhibit a specifiable pattern or fail to exhibit the right relative frequencies or fail to exhibit any relative frequencies at all.

• If *L*^{*} is true, then any physically possible world fully determines *L*^{*}.

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- If *L*^{*} is true, then any physically possible world fully determines *L*^{*}.
- A *L*^{*} law is empirically coherent in the relevant sense, while a *L* law is not.

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- An inquirer in any physically possible world might determine the truth of *L*^{*} by considering the results of coin tosses.
- With complete evidence, one will surely learn it up to an equivalence class of computationally indistinguishable laws.
- A probabilistic law like L* is much like a deterministic law in this way.

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 We define the randomness constraint that every L* world must satisfy.

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- **2** We consider two understandings of a L^* law.
- **③** We discuss the costs and benefits.
- We argue that the second understanding has salient virtues.

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- A random sequence of tosses with an unbiased coin should exhibit an even relative frequency of heads and tails in the limit.
- But this is not sufficient!
- Example of a non-random sequence: an alternating sequence of heads and tails.

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cf: Li and Vitányi (2008), A. Dasgupta (2011), Barrett and Huttegger (2021), Eagle (2021).

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- First pass: an ω -sequence is patternless, and hence random, if and only if there is no finite-length algorithm that produces the sequence.
- A finite-length algorithm would express a regularity, something that one might even think of as a deterministic law.

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- Example: a repeated three-block pattern of one thousand heads followed by one thousand tails followed by one thousand random and unbiased heads and tails.
- The relative frequency of heads and tails in the full sequence is unbiased.
- The sequence cannot be represented by a finite-length algorithm.
- But the sequence is not random!
- We can design a gambling strategy and enjoy unbounded wealth.

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- One might write a very short program that takes advantage of the regularity.
- One can eventually shorten the algorithmic representation of finite initial segments of the sequence by more than any constant *c*.
- This observation provides the key idea behind Kolmogorov-Chaitin randomness.
Kolmogorov-Chaitin Randomness

An ω -sequence is Kolmogorov-Chaitin random if and only if there is a constant c such that all finite initial segments are c-incompressible (by a prefix-free Turing machine).

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An ω -sequence is Kolmogorov-Chaitin random if and only if there is a constant c such that all finite initial segments are c-incompressible (by a prefix-free Turing machine).

- An initial segment is *c*-incompressible if and only if it is not representable by an algorithm that is *c* shorter than the initial segment.
- A prefix-free Turing machine is a universal Turing machine that is self-delimiting and hence can read its input in one direction without knowing what, if anything, comes next.

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Let's turn to the second condition regarding "generic/typical." First-pass: an ω -sequence x is random only if x satisfies all typicality properties.

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- We need to restrict the class of typicality properties.

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Too strong!

- Being different from x is a typicality property.
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- We need to restrict the class of typicality properties.

Martin-Löf (1966) offers a remarkably simple and satisfactory solution.

Martin-Löf Randomness

An ω -sequence is Martin-Löf random if and only if it belongs to every effective full-measure set, i.e. it belongs to no effective measure-zero set.

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An ω -sequence is Martin-Löf random if and only if it belongs to every effective full-measure set, i.e. it belongs to no effective measure-zero set.

- Martin-Löf: a set $E \subset 2^{\omega}$ is effective measure-zero iff there is a uniformly effective sequence of open sets, $G_1, G_2, ...$ such that, for all $n, E \subset G_n$ and $\mu(G_n) < 1/n$.
- Uniformly effective open: the entire sequence of open sets is determined by a single program.

cf: A. Dasgupta 2011.

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Upshot: Martin-Löf randomness is simple and natural, and very surprisingly it is equivalent to seemingly different characterizations of randomness.

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Upshot: Martin-Löf randomness is simple and natural, and very surprisingly it is equivalent to seemingly different characterizations of randomness.

cf: Church-Turing thesis; Martin-Löf-Chaitin thesis.

We use Martin-Löf randomness to specify the law L^* as a constraint on the set of physically possible worlds:

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Probabilistic Law L_{ML}^{\star}

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We use Martin-Löf randomness to specify the law L^* as a constraint on the set of physically possible worlds:

Probabilistic Law L^{*}_{ML}

The ω -sequence of coin tosses $\langle r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$ is Martin-Löf random with unbiased relative frequencies of heads and tails.

Here <u>all</u> of the worlds in $\Omega^{L_{ML}^{\star}}$ are random with well-defined unbiased relative frequencies.

Hence,

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• a non-dogmatic inquirer will surely infer unbiased relative frequencies in the limit;

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Hence,

- a non-dogmatic inquirer will surely infer unbiased relative frequencies in the limit;
- inasmuch as all initial segments of her data will be *c*-incompressible, she will have as good of evidence as possible that the data are patternless and hence randomly distributed.

• Martin-Löf randomness is not the only way that one might characterize a probabilistic coin-toss law.

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- There are other algorithmic notions of randomness to choose from.
- Schnorr randomness is a closely-related notion with many of the same virtues.

A Schnorr test is a special kind of Martin-Löf test, requiring a more stringent definition of "effective measure-zero."

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A Schnorr test is a Martin-Löf test where the measures μ(U_n) are themselves uniformly computable. A class C ⊂ 2^ω is Schnorr null if there is a Schnorr test {U_n}_{n∈ω} such that C ⊆ ∩_n U_n. And a sequence S ∈ 2^ω is Schnorr random if and only if {S} is not Schnorr null.

As with Martin-Löf randomness, we might use the notion of Schnorr randomness to specify a probabilistic constraining law:

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Probabilistic Law L_S^{\star}

The ω -sequence of coin tosses $\langle r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$ is <u>Schnorr random</u> with unbiased relative frequencies of heads and tails.



Since there are sequences that are Schnorr random but not Martin-Löf random, L_{MI}^{\star} and L_{S}^{\star} are different laws.

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- L_{ML}^{\star} and L_{S}^{\star} are different laws.
- But they are in a strong sense empirically equivalent.
- No effective procedure would determine whether a particular sequence is Martin-Löf random or Schnorr random but not Martin-Löf random. (Barrett and Huttegger 2021)
- If one is limited to Turing-strength computation, one would never be able to distinguish between L_{ML}^{\star} and L_{S}^{\star} no matter what empirical evidence one had.

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One should already expect law L* to be empirically indistinguishable from L, insofar as one expects a sequence of coin tosses governed by a traditional probabilistic law L to be such that one can detect no discernible pattern. Moving from a standard probabilistic law to a L^* law eliminates one variety of empirical underdetermination, but it reveals two others.

- One should already expect law L* to be empirically indistinguishable from L, insofar as one expects a sequence of coin tosses governed by a traditional probabilistic law L to be such that one can detect no discernible pattern.
- One will be unable to distinguish between different versions of L* like L^{*}_{ML} and L^{*}_S, insofar as one is limited to Turing-strength computations.
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- One should already expect law L* to be empirically indistinguishable from L, insofar as one expects a sequence of coin tosses governed by a traditional probabilistic law L to be such that one can detect no discernible pattern.
- One will be unable to distinguish between different versions of L* like L^{*}_{ML} and L^{*}_S, insofar as one is limited to Turing-strength computations.

Since Martin-Löf randomness has the sort of properties we want and as it is arguably the standard algorithmic notion (Dasgupta 2011), we shall understand L^* as L^*_{MI} .

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We've defined what it means to be a L^* law.

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We've defined what it means to be a L^* law.

- Tighter fit between the law and its corresponding set of possible worlds.
- Quite different from a *L* law.

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What kind of physical law is L^* ?

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What kind of physical law is *L**? And how does it govern the world?

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• a generative chance* law;

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- a generative chance* law;
- a probabilistic* constraining law.

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- a generative chance* law;
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These are meant to be non-Humean laws. Later, we will discuss the implications for Humeanism.

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• L* tells us that each toss is generated by unbiased chances*,

- L^{\star} tells us that each toss is generated by unbiased chances^{*},
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- L* tells us that each toss is generated by unbiased chances*,
- where a chance^{*} process behaves just like an ordinary chance process...
- ...except that it can <u>never</u> produce an infinite sequence that fails to be Martin-Löf random or fails to exhibit well-defined relative frequencies.

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- The sequence of tosses will pass every finitely specifiable test for statistical independence.
- But since the full sequence must satisfy the constraint imposed by the law, a chance* process is <u>holistically</u> constrained.

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- The constraint is not felt on any finite set of tosses, nor is it discoverable by effective means.
- But it does require that a relationship hold between the full sequence of tosses that is generated by the process in the limit.
- This interdependence between outcomes may be incompatible with the usual intuitions behind wanting a generative law.
- It may also be incompatible with how causal explanation works more generally.

A more natural interpretation:

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- L* tells us which sequences of outcomes are physically possible, namely those that satisfy the frequency constraint and the randomness constraint imposed by the law.
- It meshes well with Chen and Goldstein's (2022) minimal primitivism account (MinP), according to which laws are certain primitive facts that govern the world by constraining the physical possibilities of the entire spacetime and its contents.

Understood this way, L^* addresses problems encountered by both non-Humean and Humean accounts of laws.

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We will start with the former.

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- Precisely how do probabilistic laws govern?
- According to the standard view, probabilistic laws do not rule out any world.
- Instead, they merely assign some numbers between zero and one to (measurable) subsets in the space of all ω -sequences.
- This raises a puzzle: what do these numbers between zero and one represent in physical reality?

• Some non-Humeans appeal to gradable notions...

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One might make sense of non-gradable notions of physical possibility and impossibility.

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- Suppose a probabilistic law assigns a 0.2 probability to the next outcome being heads.
- "The chance setup has a 0.2 propensity to bring about a heads-outcome in the next toss."
- "The current state of affairs necessitates the state of affairs of a heads-outcome to 0.2 probability."

One might make sense of non-gradable notions of physical possibility and impossibility. But gradable notions such as propensities and degrees of necessitation are much less clear.

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- Those that fail either the frequency constraint or the randomness constraint.
- We can do away with gradable notions such as propensities or probabilities of necessitation altogether.
- In their place, we require only non-gradable notions of physical possibilities and impossibilities.

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In this way, L^* removes a major obstacle to a unified understanding of probabilistic and non-probabilistic laws.

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Let's turn to Humeanism.

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Humeans may also find it useful to adopt L^* , for two reasons.

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- Lewis: the Principal Principle and Humean supervenience lead to a contradiction.
- Certain histories of the Humean mosaic, called <u>undermining</u> <u>histories</u>, are assigned, according to the Principal Principle, non-zero probability, conditionalized on some probabilistic theory *T* being the best system.
- However, they are assigned, according to Humean supervenience, zero probability, because T would not be the best system had any of its undermining histories been actual.

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Undermining histories, then, are exactly the histories of maverick worlds, as they lack the frequency or randomness patterns exemplified by typical sequences of the standard probabilistic law. • *-laws rules out maverick worlds.

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- If maverick worlds are physically impossible, then there are no physically possible undermining histories that can be used to derive the contradiction.
- The Big Bad Bug is eliminated!
- Inasmuch as restricting to *-laws is also motivated by considerations of underdetermination and empirical coherence, a Humean may find this solution particularly natural.

(2) Adopting \star -laws can avoid appealing to <u>fit</u> as a criterion in the best-system analysis of probabilistic laws, which allows Humeans to bypass difficulties with how to characterize this notion. (cf. Elga 2004)

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- one needs something like <u>fit</u> to choose the winning best system.
- <u>Informativeness</u> as the quantity of worlds being excluded does not distinguish among probabilistic laws like *L*.
- Different candidates compatible with the same set of worlds.
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- then at most one of them is compatible with the ω -sequence,
- thus at most one of them is an axiom in the best system of that ω -sequence.
- The best system analysis of L^* is much like that of $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$.

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- Given any Humean mosaic, one needs criteria such as simplicity and informativeness, but one does not need the statistical criterion of fit, to determine the best system.
- The usual problems associated with fit would not arise for such Humeans!

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A L^* law may be thought of as either a generative chance^{*} law or a probabilistic^{*} constraining law.

The notions of chance^{*} and probability^{*} are subtly different from traditional chance or probability.

• The results of coin tosses on *L*^{*} satisfy every computable test for independence and will hence appear to be statistically independent.

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- The results of coin tosses on *L*^{*} satisfy every computable test for independence and will hence appear to be statistically independent.
- One might say that the results are probabilistically* independent.
- But inasmuch as some sequences are impossible, there is also a sense in which the results of tosses in this full ω-sequence are interdependent.

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- Depending on one's commitments regarding causal explanation, this may lead one to favor understanding L* as a probabilistic* constraining law.
- If one gives up on a generative chance* law, one is left with a useful option for both proponents of governing-law accounts and Humeans.

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- Choice between Martin-Löf and Schnorr randomness.
- A computational sort of empirical underdetermination.

Still, \star -laws also help to eliminate some forms of empirical underdetermination.

Still, *-laws also help to eliminate some forms of empirical underdetermination.

• Unlike traditional probabilistic laws but very much like deterministic laws like F = ma and $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$, one will surely learn L^* on complete evidence in every physically possible world.

• In contrast, if *L* is the true law, there will be a continuous cardinality of maverick worlds such that, if one were to inhabit any of them, one could never learn *L* from the results of the coin tosses.

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- On the usual approach to thinking about laws, one needs special background assumptions to overcome this difficulty.
- One needs to argue that inhabiting a maverick world of the true law is sufficiently unlikely or atypical that one has rational justification for simply ignoring the possibility.
- One needs to know that the world one inhabits, and hence the statistical nature of the sequence of records that one has in fact recorded, is typical or very likely given the true law.

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- ...she cannot infer that the sequence exhibits typical statistical properties given the true law.
- Such an inference requires her to appeal to a background assumption like the Principal Principle or Cournot's Principle.
- While such assumptions may be warranted given one's other commitments, they are not required for empirical coherence if one restricts one's hypotheses to *-laws.

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- We have used algorithmic randomness to characterize two types of probabilistic laws:
 - a generative chance* law;
 - a probabilistic* constraining law.
- We have argued that *-laws provide a novel way of understanding probabilities and chances, and help to address one variety of empirical underdetermination, but they also reveal other varieties that have been underappreciated.
- For all we know, our world might be characterized by a traditional probabilistic law or a *-law.

• The notion of a probabilistic* constraining law has advantages over that of a generative chance* law.

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- It meshes well with the holistic character of the randomness and relative frequency constraints, directly supports a unified governing account of non-Humean laws, and provides independently motivated solutions to issues in the Humean best-system account.
- Both notions are worthy of study and may lead to new ideas concerning the nature of laws.

Thank you for your attention!



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