

Probability

Outline:

1. Axioms of the Probability Calculus
2. Key Principles
3. Bayes' Theorem: computations and applications
4. Interpretations of probability:
 - objective
 - subjective
5. Bayes' Theorem: philosophical issues

1. The Probability Calculus

- Notation: $\&$, \vee , \sim , \leftrightarrow ,
- $P(p)$: the probability of p
- *Equivalent formulations*: statements or *outcomes*

Axioms of unconditional and conditional probability

- (1) (*Positive*): For any p [and q], $0 \leq P(p)$ [and $0 \leq P(p / q)$].
- (2) (*Tautology*): If t is a tautology, then $P(t) = 1$ [and $P(t / q) = 1$].
- (3) (*Additivity*): If p and q are mutually exclusive (can't both be true), then:
- $P(p \text{ or } q) = P(p) + P(q)$;
 $[P(p \text{ or } q / r) = P(p / r) + P(q / r), \text{ for any statement } r]$
- (4) (*Conjunction*): $P(p \& q) = P(q) P(p / q)$
 $= P(p) P(q / p)$

Def: p and q are independent if $P(p / q) = P(p)$

Note: Conditional probability is generally either defined by (4) or taken to be primitive.

2. Key principles

Proposition 1: If p and q are mutually exclusive and $P(q) \neq 0$, then $P(p / q) = 0$.

Proposition 2: $P(\sim p) = 1 - P(p)$

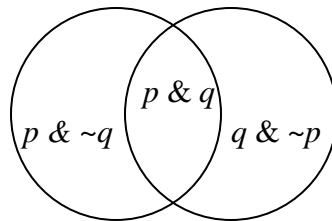
Corollary: If f is a logical contradiction, then $P(f) = 0$ (since $\sim f$ is a tautology, so that $P(\sim f) = 1$).

Proposition 3: If p and q are equivalent, then $P(p) = P(q)$.

Proposition 4: If $p \supset q$, then $P(p) \leq P(q)$.

Corollary: $0 \leq P(p) \leq 1$ for any p (since $p \supset t$ and $P(t) = 1$).

Proposition 5: $P(p \vee q) = P(p) + P(q) - P(p \& q)$



Proposition 6: If $P(q) \neq 0$, then

$$P(p / q) = P(p \& q) / P(q).$$

Proposition 7: If p and q are independent, then $P(p \& q) = P(p)P(q)$.

Question: Why can't we define conditional probability as the probability of a conditional:

$$P(p / q) = P(q \supset p)$$

Proposition 8: Suppose p_1, \dots, p_n are mutually exclusive, i.e., $p_i \sim p_j$ for all i, j .

Then $P(p_1 \vee \dots \vee p_n) = P(p_1) + \dots + P(p_n)$.

Proposition 9 (Theorem of Total Probability): Suppose q_1, \dots, q_n are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Then for any sentence p ,

$$P(p) = P(p \ \& \ q_1) + \dots + P(p \ \& \ q_n)$$

Corollary: Under the same assumptions,

$$P(p) = P(p / q_1)P(q_1) + \dots + P(p / q_n)P(q_n) \text{ (just apply the conjunction axiom).}$$

Countable additivity

Consider an infinite disjunction: $H_1 \vee H_2 \vee \dots$ where H_i means you get your first heads on toss i .

Then $H \leftrightarrow H_1 \vee H_2 \vee \dots$ (where H is ‘coin eventually comes up heads’).

If coin is fair, $P(H) = 1$, and $P(H_i) = 1/2^i$. So we have

$$P(H) = \Sigma P(H_i) = P(H_1) + P(H_2) + \dots$$

In general, P is *countably additive* if $P(p_1 \vee p_2 \dots) = \Sigma P(p_i)$.

(De Finetti’s lottery: a counterexample to countable additivity as a requirement for subjective probability)

3. Bayes' Theorem

Version A:

$$P(p / q) = \frac{P(p) \cdot P(q / p)}{P(q)}$$

Version B:

$$P(p / q) = \frac{P(p) \cdot P(q / p)}{P(p) \cdot P(q / p) + P(\sim p) \cdot P(q / \sim p)}$$

Version C:

$$P(p_1 / q) = \frac{P(p_1) \cdot P(q / p_1)}{P(p_1) \cdot P(q / p_1) + P(p_2) \cdot P(q / p_2) + \dots + P(p_n) \cdot P(q / p_n)}$$

Terminology

- The *posterior probability* of p relative to q , $P(p / q)$, appears on the left.
- The *prior probability* of p , $P(p)$.
 - Connection to plausibility
 - *Open-mindedness* about p : $0 < P(p) < 1$:
- The *likelihood* of the evidence q given p , $P(q / p)$
 - If $P(q / p) = 0$, no evidence will raise probability of p
 - If $P(q / p) = 1$, q provides strong evidence for p (unless E is totally unsurprising even if $\sim p$)
- The *expectedness* of the evidence q , $P(q)$.
 - Surprising evidence has greater power to raise probability of p

c) Prior probabilities

Objection: where do prior probabilities come from?

- Symmetry of a chance set-up: lotteries, dice, card games
- Statistical frequencies

But what if neither of these applies?

Example: Some coins are biased to 75% tails; others are fair. No idea of the frequency of biased coins.

Convergence Argument: Bayesians say you should use your best guess as the prior probability. Widely divergent prior probabilities will “wash out” or converge, given a large amount of data.