

APPENDIX 2: PROBABILITY

from Ellery Eells, *Probabilistic Causality*. Cambridge University Press, 1991, pp. 399-402.

In this appendix, I will present some of the basic ideas of the mathematical theory of probability. As in the case of Appendix 1, this will not be a comprehensive or detailed survey -- it is only intended to introduce the basic formal probability concepts and rules used in this book, and to clarify the terminology and notation used in this book. Here I will discuss only the abstract and formal calculus of probability; in Chapter 1, the question of interpretation is addressed.

A probability function, \Pr , is any function (or rule of association) that assigns to (or associates with) each element X of some Boolean algebra B (see Appendix 1) a real number, $\Pr(X)$, in accordance with the following three conditions:

For all X and Y in B ,

(1) $\Pr(X) \geq 0$;

(2) $\Pr(X) = 1$, if X is a tautology (that is, if X is logically true, or $X = \underline{1}$ in B);

(3) $\Pr(X \vee Y) = \Pr(X) + \Pr(Y)$, if $X \& Y$ is a contradiction

(that is, if $X \& Y$ is logically false, or $X \& Y = \underline{0}$ in B).

These three conditions are the probability axioms, also called "the Kolmogorov axioms" (for Kolmogorov 1933). A function \Pr that satisfies the axioms, relative to an algebra B , is said to be a probability function on B -- that is, with "domain" B (that is, the set of propositions of B) and range the closed interval $[0,1]$. In what follows, reference to an assumed algebra B will be implicit.

In Appendix 1, I explained how the propositional calculus is applicable to "propositions" understood as sentences or statements as well as to "propositions" understood as factors or properties -- and the same goes for the probability calculus. Roughly speaking, " $\Pr(X) = r$ " can be understood either as asserting that a sentence or statement X has a probability of r of being true (in a given situation), or as asserting that a factor or property has a probability of r of being exemplified (in a given instance or population). Specifying an interpretation of the propositions is part what must be done to "interpret" a probability function on an algebra; the other part is interpreting " \Pr ". Various interpretations of probability (such as frequency, degree of belief, and partial logical entailment interpretations) are discussed in Chapter 1; here, the focus is on the formal calculus.

Here are some easy consequences of the probability axioms.

(4) $\Pr(\sim X) = 1 - \Pr(X)$, for all X .

Proof: By (1), $\Pr(X \vee \sim X) = 1$; and by (3), $\Pr(X \vee \sim X) = \Pr(X) + \Pr(\sim X)$. So, $1 = \Pr(X) + \Pr(\sim X)$, and thus $\Pr(\sim X) = 1 - \Pr(X)$.

(5) $\Pr(X) = 0$, if X is a contradiction.

Proof: $\sim X$ is a tautology, so by (2), $\Pr(\sim X) = 1$. By (4), $\Pr(\sim X) = 1 - \Pr(X)$. So, $1 = 1 - \Pr(X)$, and thus $\Pr(X) = 0$.

= 0.

(6) $\Pr(\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{Y})$, if \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are logically equivalent.

Proof: \underline{X} and $\sim\underline{Y}$ are mutually exclusive and $\underline{X} \vee \sim\underline{Y}$ is a tautology. So by (2), (3), and (4), $1 = \Pr(\underline{X} \vee \sim\underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{X}) + \Pr(\sim\underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{X}) + 1 - \Pr(\underline{Y})$. So, $1 = \Pr(\underline{X}) + 1 - \Pr(\underline{Y})$, and $0 = \Pr(\underline{X}) - \Pr(\underline{Y})$, and thus $\Pr(\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{Y})$.

(7) $\Pr(\underline{X}) \leq \Pr(\underline{Y})$, if \underline{X} logically implies \underline{Y} .

(8) $0 \leq \Pr(\underline{X}) \leq 1$, for all \underline{X} .

(9) $\Pr(\underline{X} \vee \underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{X}) + \Pr(\underline{Y}) - \Pr(\underline{X} \& \underline{Y})$, for all \underline{X} and \underline{Y} .

The probability of \underline{Y} conditional on (or given) \underline{X} , written $\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X})$, is defined to be equal to $\Pr(\underline{X} \& \underline{Y})/\Pr(\underline{X})$. Note that $\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X})$ is defined only when $\Pr(\underline{X}) > 0$. Since for any \underline{X} and \underline{Y} , $\Pr(\underline{X} \& \underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{Y} \& \underline{X})$ (by (6) above), an immediate consequence of the definition of conditional probability is what is often called the multiplication rule:

(9) $\Pr(\underline{X} \& \underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{X})\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{Y})\Pr(\underline{X}/\underline{Y})$, for all \underline{X} and \underline{Y} .

From (9) follows this simple version of Bayes' theorem:

$\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{X}/\underline{Y})\Pr(\underline{Y})/\Pr(\underline{X})$, for all \underline{X} and \underline{Y} .

A proposition \underline{Y} is said to be probabilistically (or statistically) independent of a proposition \underline{X} if $\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{Y})$. Alternatively, and equivalently, \underline{Y} 's being probabilistically independent of \underline{X} can be defined as $\Pr(\underline{X} \& \underline{Y}) = \Pr(\underline{X})\Pr(\underline{Y})$. Thus, probabilistic independence is symmetric: if \underline{Y} is probabilistically independent of \underline{X} , then \underline{X} is probabilistically independent of \underline{Y} , for all \underline{X} and \underline{Y} .

If propositions \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are not probabilistically independent, then there is said to be a probabilistic (or statistical) correlation (or dependence) between \underline{X} and \underline{Y} . The correlation is called positive or negative according to whether $\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X})$ is greater or less than $\Pr(\underline{Y})$. This is sometimes described by saying that \underline{X} is positively or negatively probabilistically relevant to \underline{Y} , or that \underline{X} has positive or negative probabilistic significance for \underline{Y} . It is easy to see that the following six probabilistic relations are equivalent:

$\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X}) > \Pr(\underline{Y})$;

$\Pr(\underline{X}/\underline{Y}) > \Pr(\underline{X})$;

$\Pr(\underline{Y}) > \Pr(\underline{Y}/\sim\underline{X})$;

$\Pr(\underline{X}) > \Pr(\underline{X}/\sim\underline{Y})$;

$\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{X}) > \Pr(\underline{Y}/\sim\underline{X})$;

$\Pr(\underline{X}/\underline{Y}) > \Pr(\underline{X}/\sim\underline{Y})$.

Also, these six relations would remain equivalent if the ">"s were all replaced with "<"s, or with "="s. Thus, the

two kinds of probabilistic correlation (positive and negative), as well as probabilistic independence, are symmetric. If $\Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{Z}\&\underline{X}) = \Pr(\underline{Y}/\underline{Z}\&\sim\underline{X})$, then \underline{Z} is said to screen off any probabilistic correlation of \underline{Y} with \underline{X} .

Two propositions \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are called probabilistically equivalent if $\Pr((\underline{X}\&\underline{Y})\vee(\sim\underline{X}\&\sim\underline{Y})) = 1$. Another way of putting this is as follows. A common propositional connective, not mentioned in Appendix 1, is the biconditional connective, " \leftrightarrow ". The biconditional of two propositions \underline{X} and \underline{Y} is the proposition that is true just in case \underline{X} and \underline{Y} have the same truth value -- that is, either they are both true or they are both false. The biconditional of \underline{X} and \underline{Y} is often expressed as " \underline{X} if and only if \underline{Y} ", or, for short, " \underline{X} iff \underline{Y} " (\underline{X} if \underline{Y} , and \underline{X} only if \underline{Y}). Then \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are probabilistically equivalent just when $\Pr(\underline{X}\leftrightarrow\underline{Y}) = 1$. When two propositions \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are probabilistically equivalent, then they are "interchangeable in all probabilistic contexts". That is, given that \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are probabilistically equivalent, if (possibly truth-functionally complex) propositions $\underline{Z}(\underline{X},\underline{Y})$ and $\underline{W}(\underline{X},\underline{Y})$ result from any (possibly truth-functionally complex) propositions \underline{Z} and \underline{W} , respectively, by changing \underline{X} 's to \underline{Y} 's or \underline{Y} 's to \underline{X} 's, in any way, then $\Pr(\underline{Z}/\underline{W}) = \Pr(\underline{Z}(\underline{X},\underline{Y})/\underline{W}(\underline{X},\underline{Y}))$.

A generalization of the common idea of an average is the statistical idea of expectation, or expected value. Given a variable \underline{N} which can take on the possible values $\underline{n}_1, \dots, \underline{n}_s$, and a probability \underline{Pr} on propositions of the form " $\underline{N} = \underline{n}_i$ ", the expectation, or expected value, of \underline{N} (calculated in terms of the probability \underline{Pr}) is:

$$\text{SUM}_{i=1}^s \underline{Pr}(\underline{N} = \underline{n}_i) \underline{n}_i.$$

If the probabilities in terms of which an expectation is calculated are conditional probabilities, then the expectation is a conditional expectation, or conditional expected value. For example, if \underline{R} is a proposition that may be relevant to the value of \underline{N} , then

$$\text{SUM}_{i=1}^s \underline{Pr}(\underline{N} = \underline{n}_i/\underline{R}) \underline{n}_i$$

is a conditional expectation.