

A Modern History of Probability Theory

Kevin H. Knuth

Depts. of Physics and Informatics

University at Albany (SUNY)

Albany NY USA

A Modern History of Probability Theory

Kevin H. Knuth
Depts. of Physics and Informatics
University at Albany (SUNY)
Albany NY USA

A Long History



The History of Probability
Theory

Anthony J.M. Garrett

MaxEnt 1997, pp. 223-238

... la théorie des probabilités n'est, au fond
que le bon sens réduit au calcul ...

... the theory of probabilities is basically just
common sense reduced to calculation ...



Pierre Simon de Laplace
Théorie Analytique des Probabilités

They say that Understanding ought to work by the rules of right reason. These rules are, or ought to be, contained in Logic; but the actual science of logic is conversant at present only with things either certain, impossible, or entirely doubtful, none of which (fortunately) we have to reason on. Therefore the true logic for this world is the calculus of Probabilities, which takes account of the magnitude of the probability which is, or ought to be, in a reasonable man's mind.

J. CLERK MAXWELL



Taken from Harold Jeffreys "Theory of Probability"

The terms certain and probable describe the various degrees of rational belief about a proposition which different amounts of knowledge authorise us to entertain. All propositions are true or false, but the knowledge we have of them depends on our circumstances; and while it is often convenient to speak of propositions as certain or probable, this expresses strictly a relationship in which they stand to a corpus of knowledge, actual or hypothetical, and not a characteristic of the propositions in themselves. A proposition is capable at the same time of varying degrees of this relationship, depending upon the knowledge to which it is related, so that it is without significance to call a proposition probable unless we specify the knowledge to which we are relating it. To this extent, therefore, probability may be called subjective. It is not, that is to say, subject to human caprice. A proposition is not probable because we think it so. When once the facts are given which determine our knowledge, what is probable or improbable in these circumstances has been fixed objectively, and is independent of our opinion. The Theory of Probability is logical, therefore, because it is concerned with the degree of belief which it is rational to entertain in given conditions, and not merely with the actual beliefs of particular individuals, which may or may not be rational.



John Maynard Keynes

Meaning of Probability

deriving the laws of probability from more fundamental ideas has to engage with what 'probability' means.

This is a notoriously contentious issue; fortunately, if you disagree with the definition that "I proposed, at the *Laws of Probability*, get out 1997 allows other definitions to be preserved."

Meaning of Probability

The function $p(x|y)$ is often read as 'the probability of x given y '

This is most commonly interpreted as the probability that the proposition x is true given that the proposition y is true.

This concept can be summarized as a **degree of truth**

Concepts of Probability:
- degree of truth

Meaning of Probability

Laplace, Maxwell, Keynes, Jeffreys and Cox all presented a concept of probability based on a **degree of rational belief**.

As Keynes points out, this is not to be thought of as subject to human capriciousness, but rather what an ideally rational agent ought to believe.

Concepts of Probability:

- **degree of truth**
- **degree of rational belief**

Anton Garrett discusses Keynes as conceiving of probability as a **degree of implication**. I don't get that impression reading Keynes. Instead, it seems to me that this is the concept that Garrett had (at the time) adopted.

Garrett uses the word *implicability*.

Concepts of Probability:

- **degree of truth**
- **degree of rational belief**
- **degree of implication**

Concepts of Probability:

- ~~degree of truth~~
- ~~degree of rational belief~~
- **degree of implication**

Jeffrey Scargle once pointed out that if probability quantifies truth or degrees of belief, one cannot assign a non-zero probability to a model that is known to be an approximation.



One cannot claim to be making inferences with any honesty or consistency while entertaining a concept of probability based on a degree of truth or a degree of rational belief.

Concepts of Probability:

- ~~degrees of truth~~
-
-

Jeffrey
or deg
mode

Can I give you a “Get-Out”
like Anton did?

truth
y to a

One c
consi

on a degree of truth or a degree of rational belief.

esty or
based

Concepts of Probability:

- ~~degree of truth~~
- ~~degree of rational belief~~ within a hypothesis space
- ~~degree of rational belief~~
- ~~degree of implication~~
- ~~degree of implication~~

Jeffrey Scargle once pointed out that if probability quantifies truth or degrees of belief, one cannot assign a non-zero probability to a model that is known to be an approximation.



One cannot claim to be making inferences with any honesty or consistency while entertaining a concept of probability based on a degree of truth or a degree of rational belief.

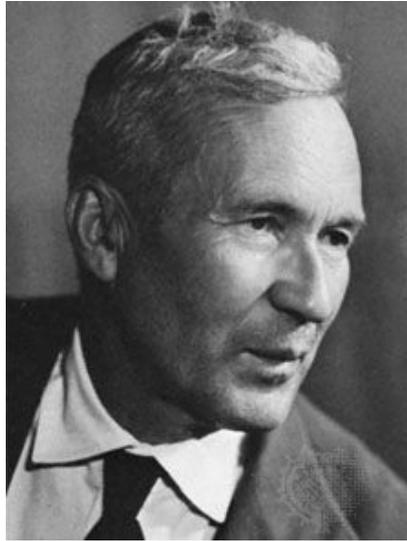
Three Foundations of Probability Theory



Bruno de Finetti - 1931

Foundation Based on
Consistent Betting

Unfortunately, the most commonly presented foundation of probability theory in modern quantum foundations



Andrey Kolmogorov - 1933

Foundation Based on
Measures on Sets
of Events

Perhaps the most widely accepted foundation by modern Bayesians



Richard Threlkeld Cox - 1946

Foundation Based on
Generalizing Boolean
Implication to Degrees

The foundation which has inspired the most investigation and development

Three Foundations of Probability Theory

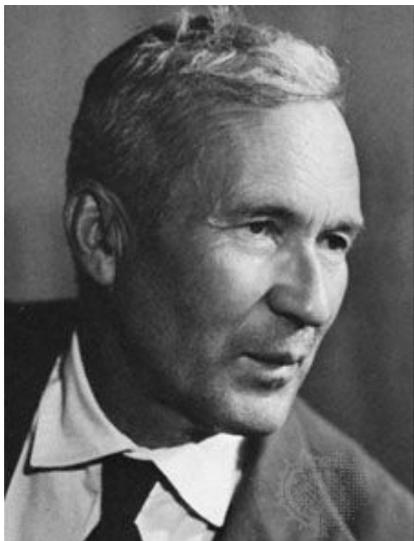


Bruno de Finetti - 1931

Foundation Based on
Consistent Betting

Unfortunately, the most
commonly presented
foundation of probability
theory in modern
quantum foundations

Three Foundations of Probability Theory



Axiom I

Probability is quantified by a non-negative real number.

Axiom II

Probability has a maximum value $\Pr(e) \leq 1$ such that the probability that an event in the set E will occur is unity.

Axiom III

Probability is σ -additive, such that the probability of any countable union of disjoint events $e_1, e_2, \dots \in E$ is given by $\Pr(e_1 \cup e_2 \cup \dots) = \sum_i \Pr(e_i)$.

Andrey Kolmogorov - 1933

Foundation Based on Countable Measures on Sets of Events

Perhaps the most widely accepted foundation by modern Bayesians

It is perhaps the both the conventional nature of his approach and the simplicity of the axioms that has led to such wide acceptance of his foundation.

Three Foundations of Probability Theory



Richard Threlkeld Cox - 1946

Foundation Based on
Generalizing Boolean
Implication to Degrees

The foundation which
has inspired the most
investigation and
development

Axi Axiom 0

Pro Probability quantifies the reasonable credibility of a
pro proposition when another proposition is known to be true

Axi Axiom I

The The likelihood $c \cdot b | a$ is a function of $b|a$ and $c | b \cdot a$
 $c \cdot b | a = F(b|a, c | b \cdot a)$

Axi Axiom II

The There is a relation between the likelihood of a
pro proposition and its contradictory
 $\sim b|a = S(b | a)$

In Physics we have a saying,

“The greatness of a scientist is measured by how long he/she retards progress in the field.”

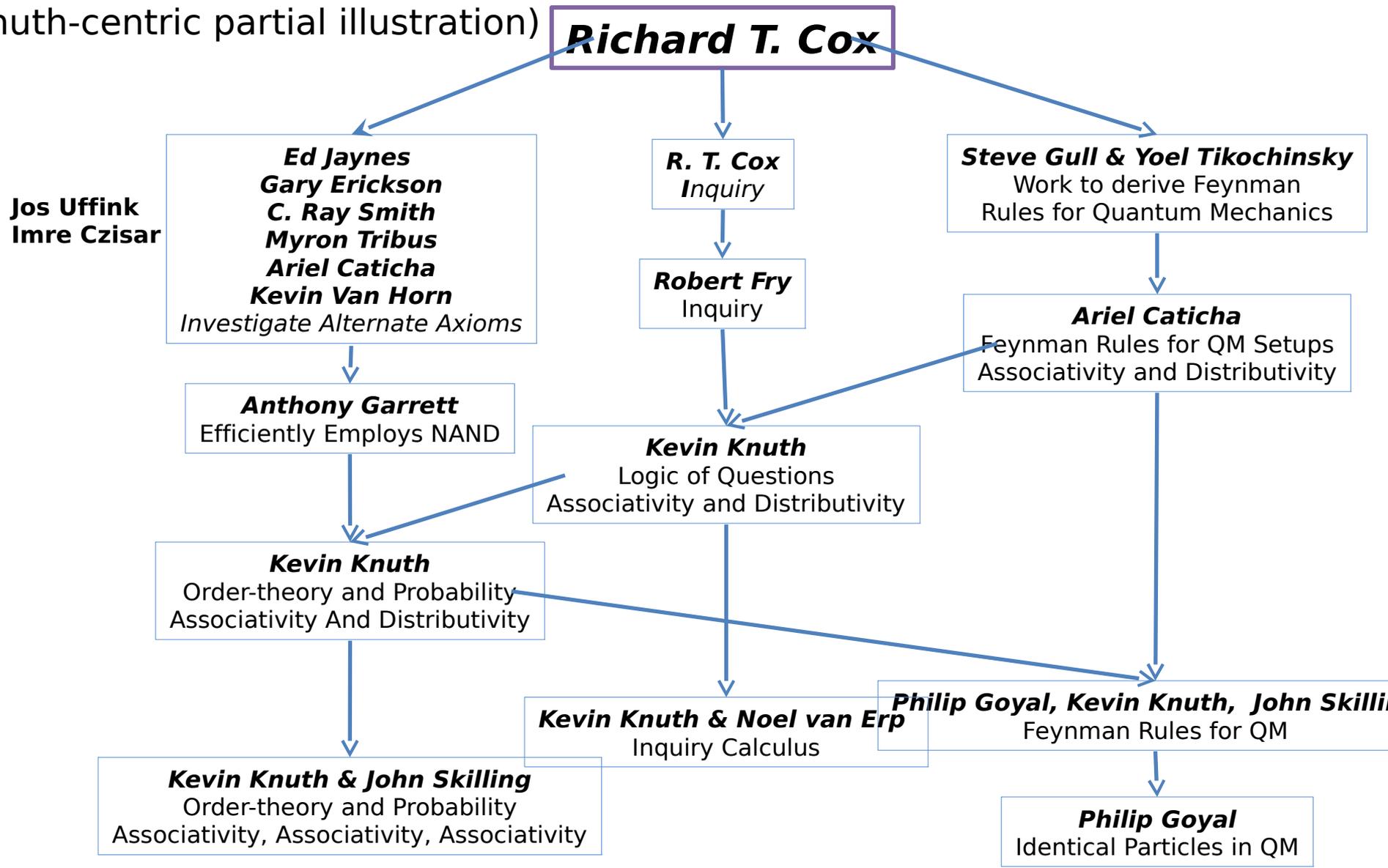
Kolmogorov left few loose ends and no noticeable conceptual glitches to give his disciples sufficient reason or concern to keep investigating.

Cox, on the other hand, proposed a radical approach that raised concerns about how belief could be quantified as well as whether one could improve upon his axioms despite justification by common-sense.

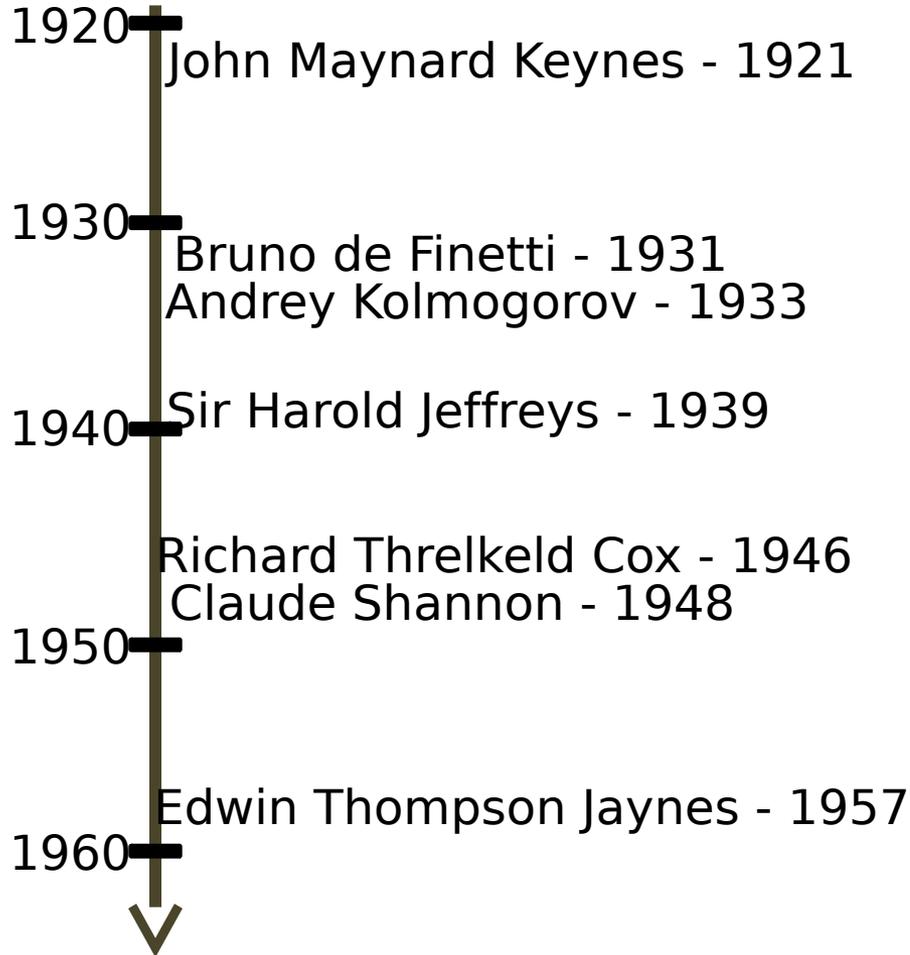
His work was just the right balance between

- Pushing it far enough to be interesting
- Getting it right enough to be compelling
- Leaving it rough enough for there to be remaining work to be done

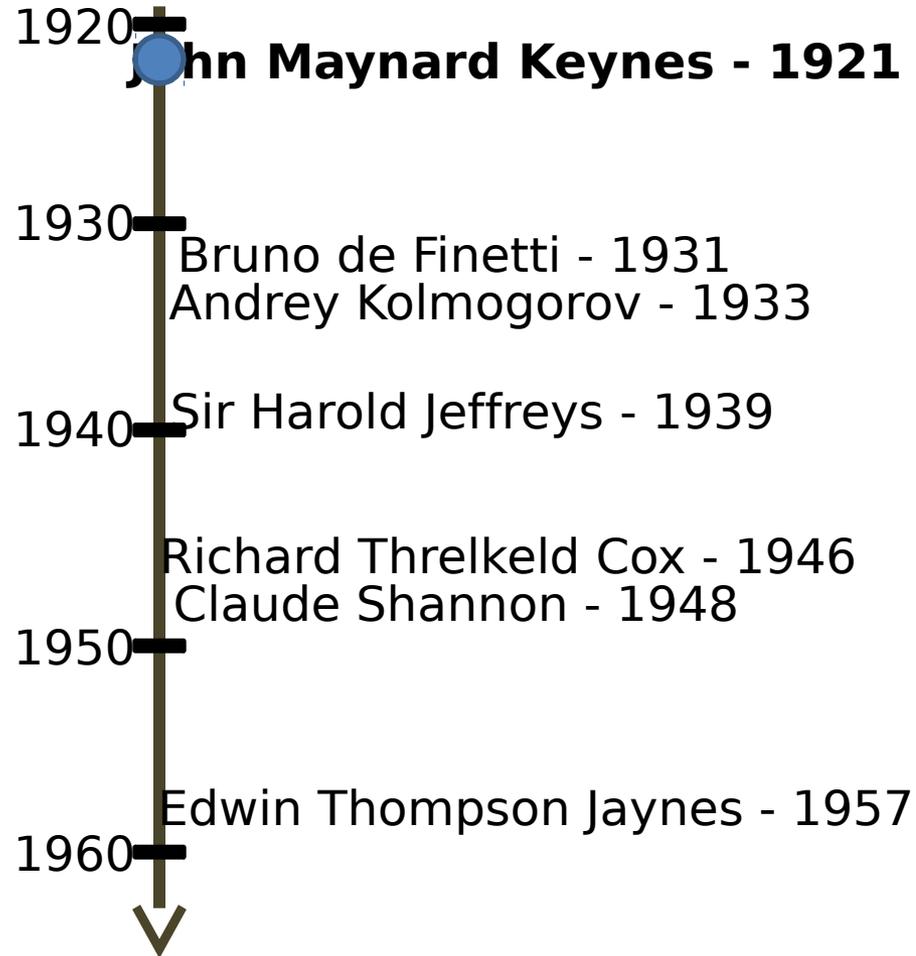
and Work Was Done!
(Knuth-centric partial illustration)



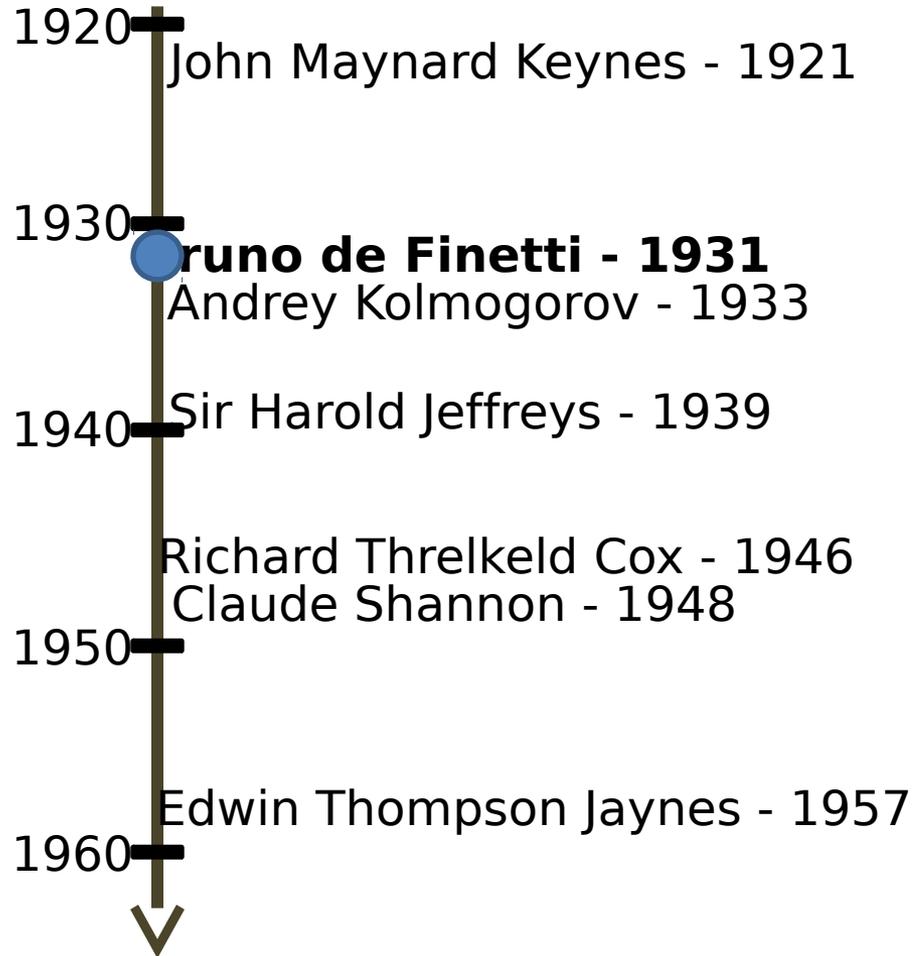
Probability Theory Timeline



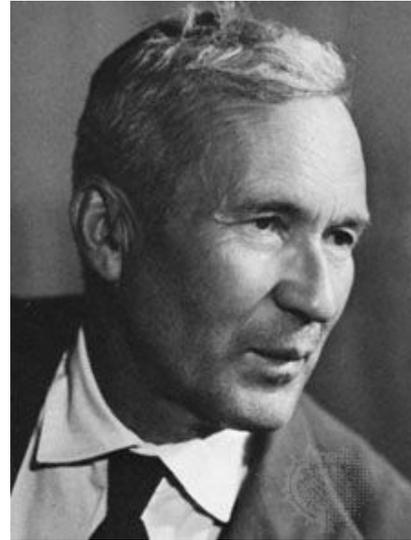
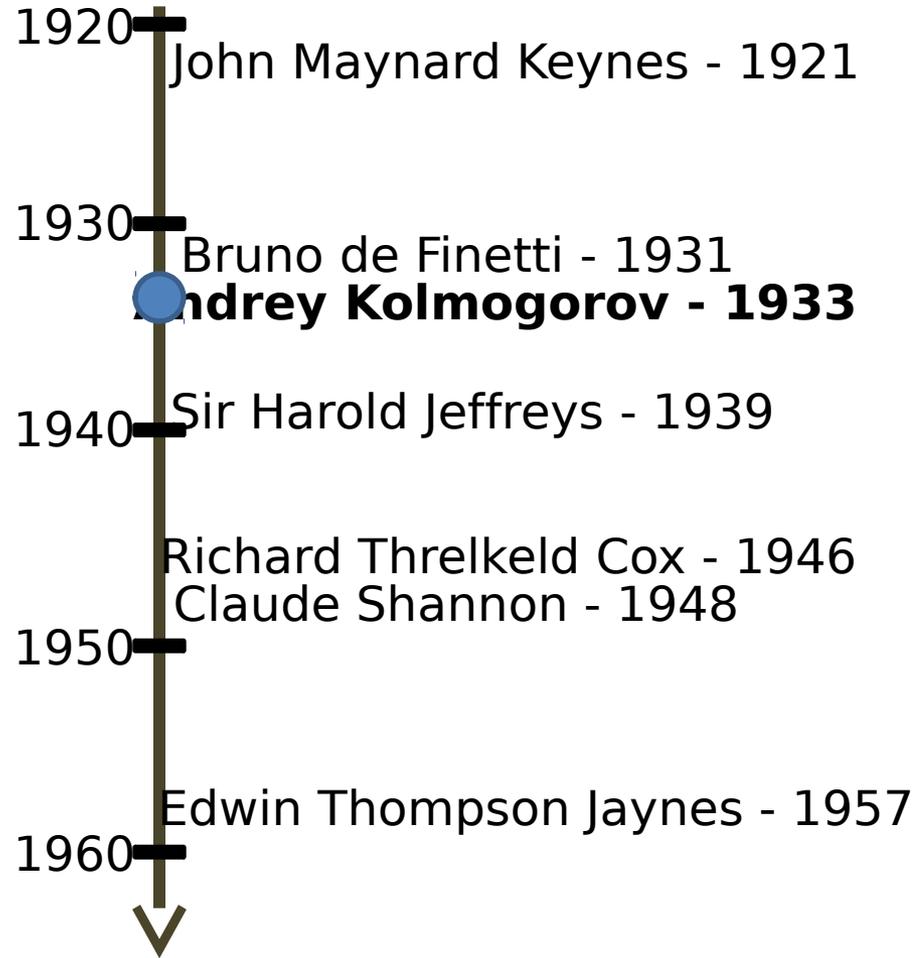
Probability Theory Timeline



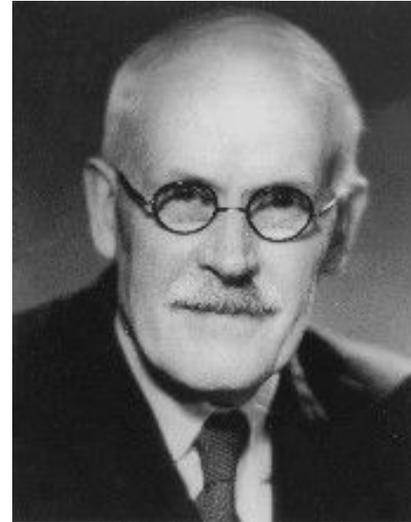
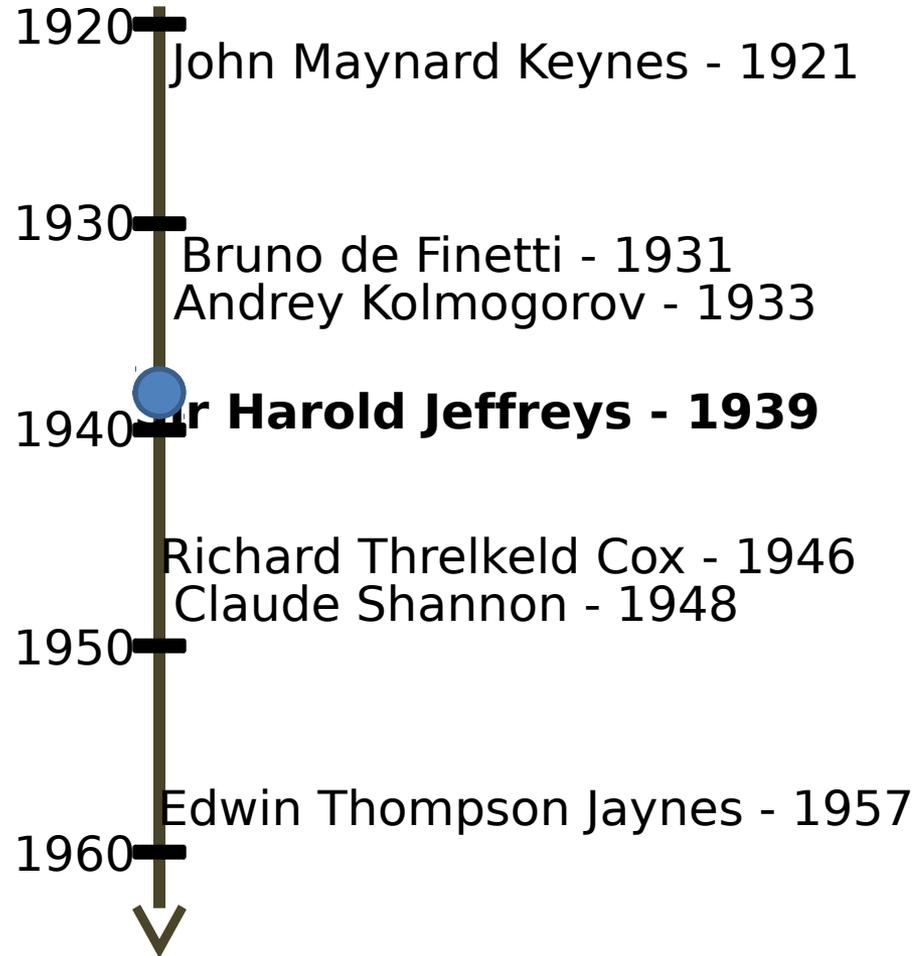
Probability Theory Timeline



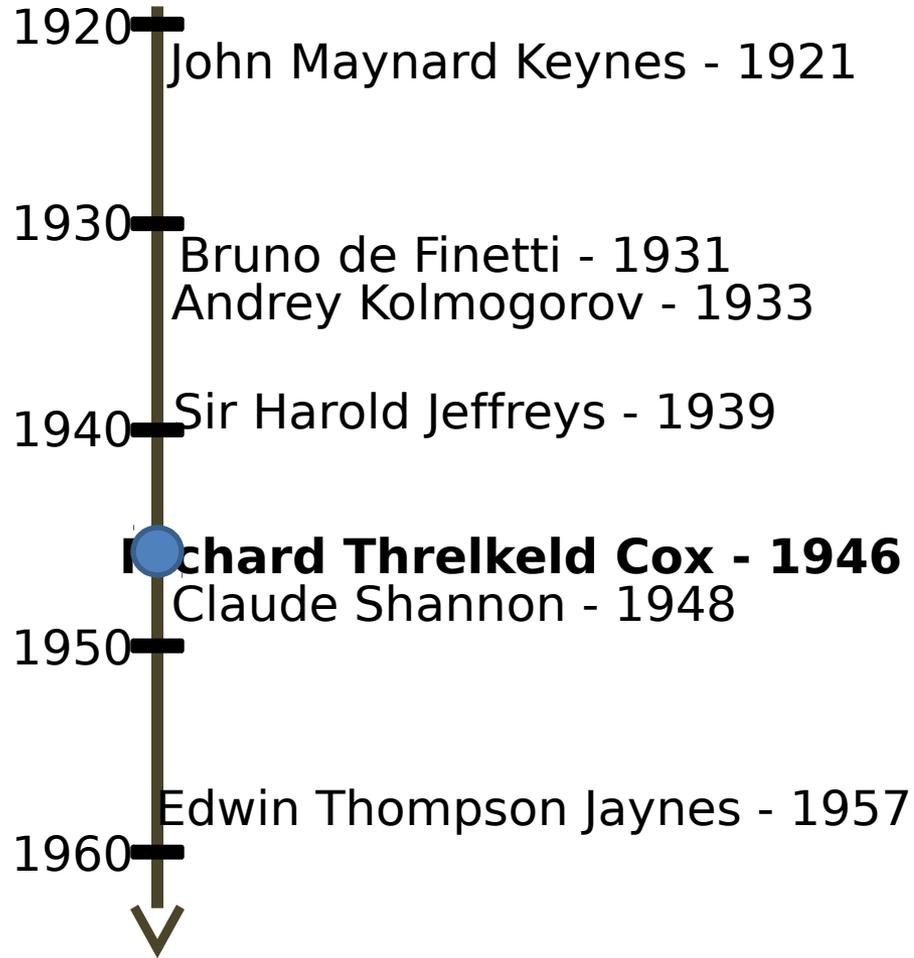
Probability Theory Timeline



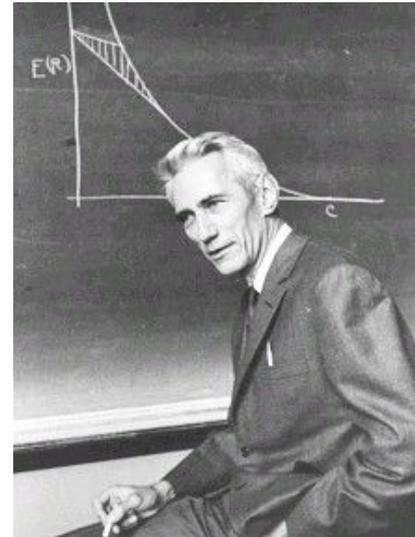
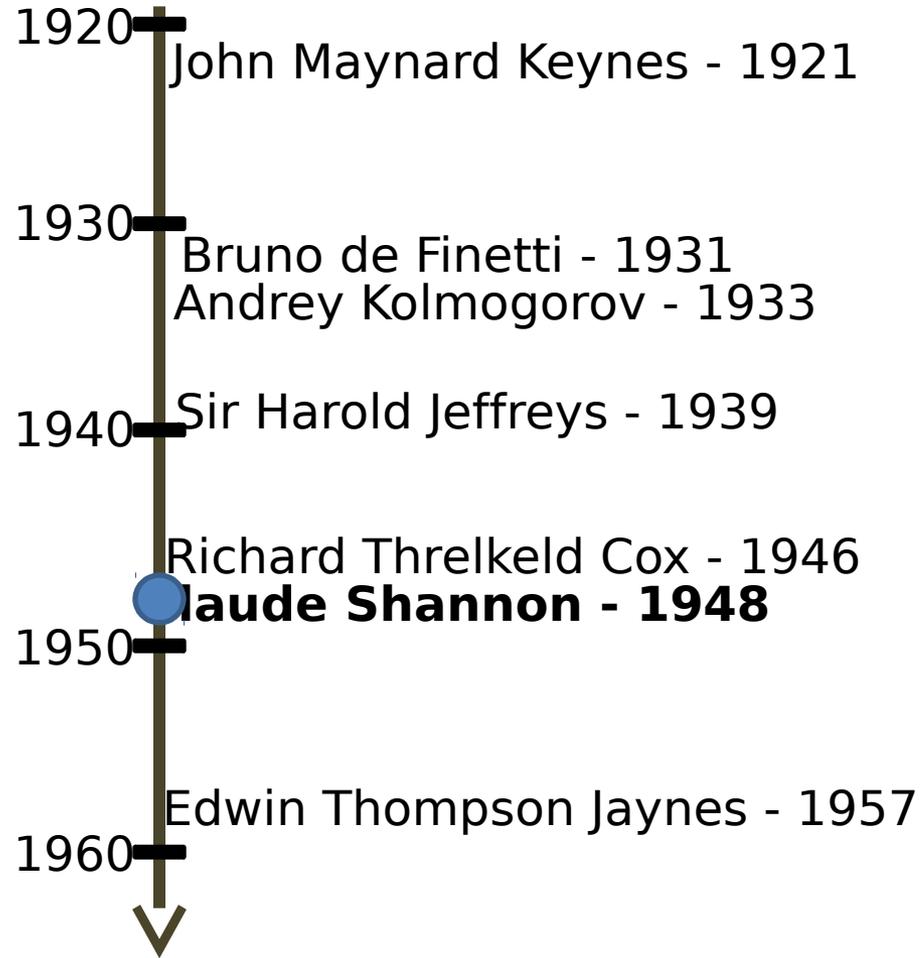
Probability Theory Timeline



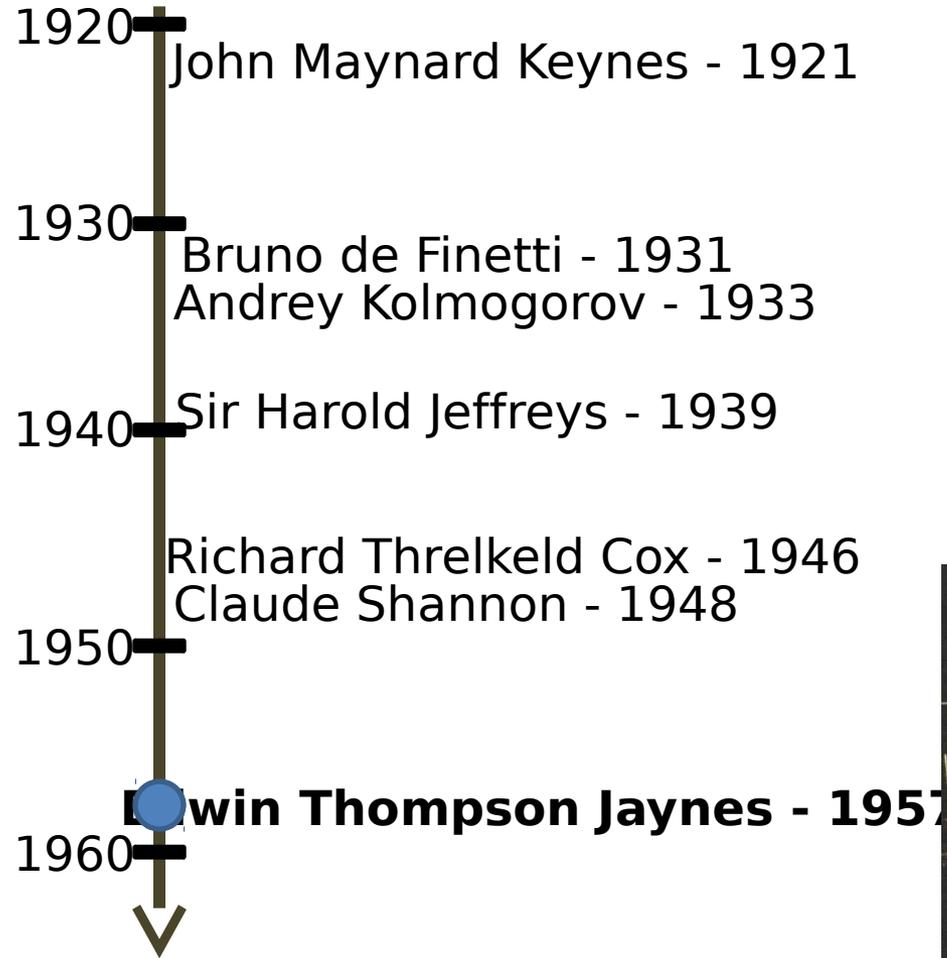
Probability Theory Timeline



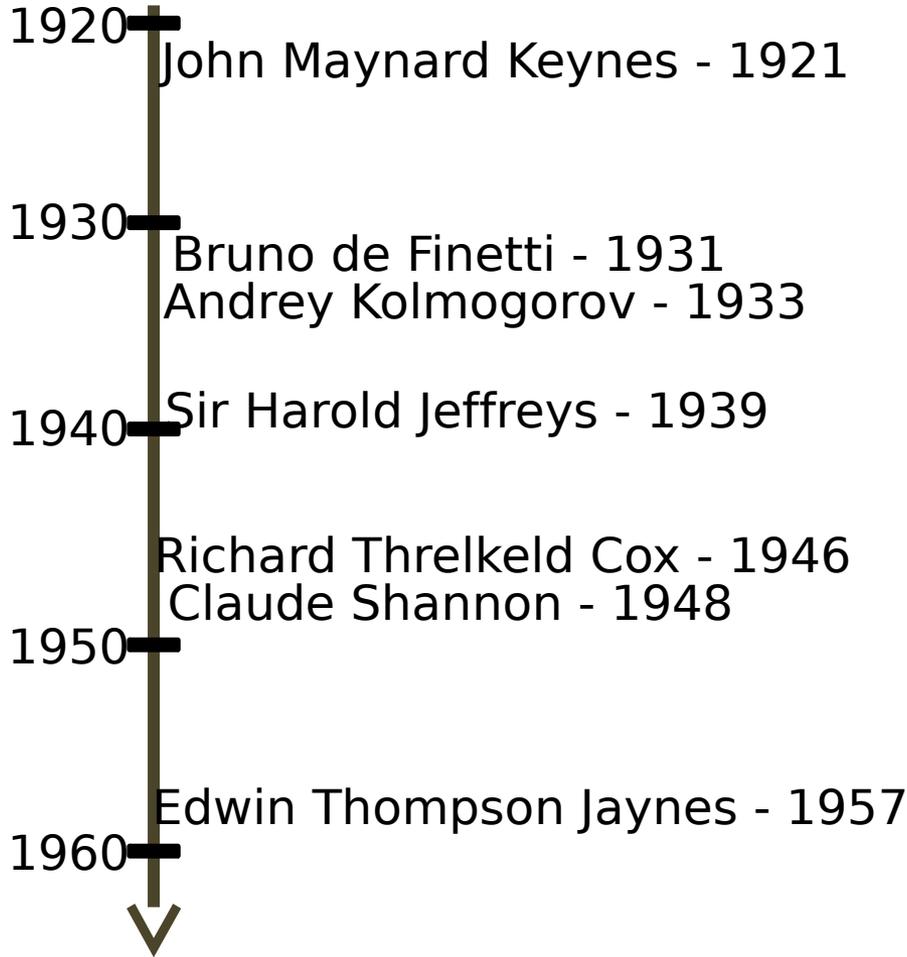
Probability Theory Timeline



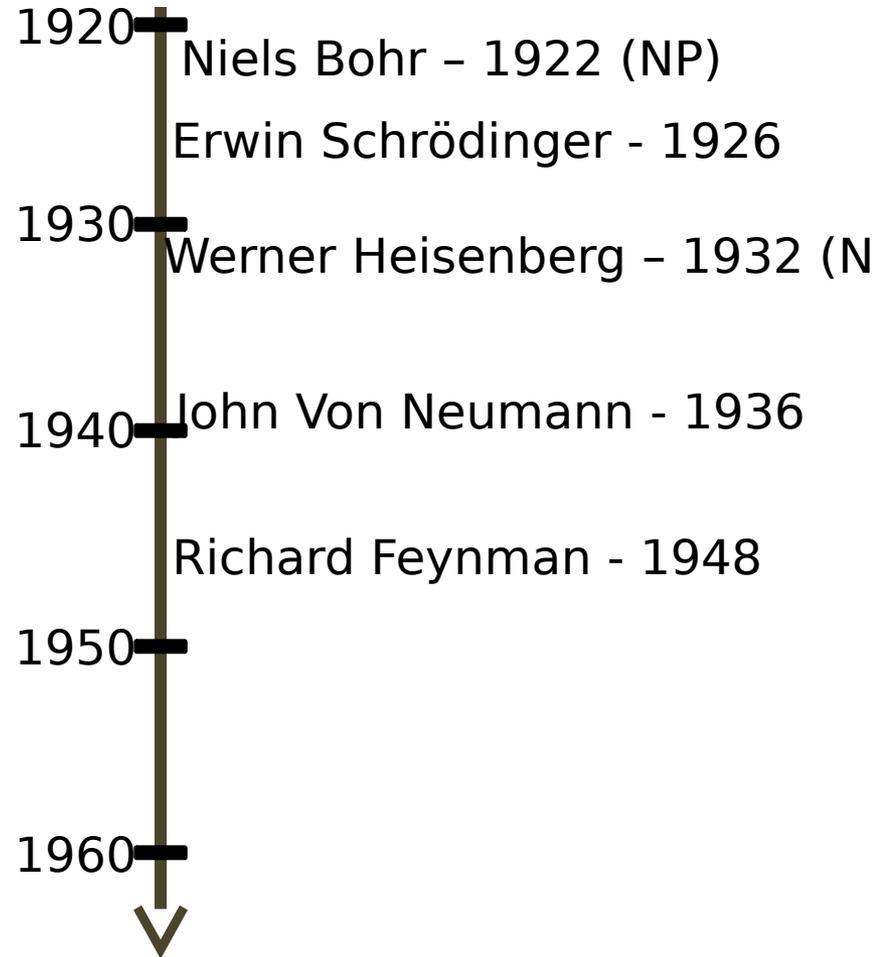
Probability Theory Timeline



Probability Theory Timeline



Quantum Mechanics Timeline



A Curious
Observation

The **Sum Rule for Probability**

$$P(A \text{ or } B | C) = P(A | C) + P(B | C) - P(A \text{ and } B | C)$$

Is very much like
the definition of **Mutual Information**

$$MI(A; B) = H(A) + H(B) - H(A, B)$$

However, one cannot be derived from the other.

A Curious
Observation

In fact, the Sum Rule appears to be ubiquitous

$$P(A \text{ or } B | C) = P(A | C) + P(B | C) - P(A \text{ and } B | C)$$

$$MI(A; B) = H(A) + H(B) - H(A, B)$$

$$m(A \cup B) = m(A) + m(B) - m(A \cap B)$$

$$\chi = F - E + V$$

In Combinatorics the Sum Rule is better known as the **inclusion-exclusion relation**

A MODERN PERSPECTIVE

Lattices

Lattices are partially ordered sets where each pair of elements has a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound

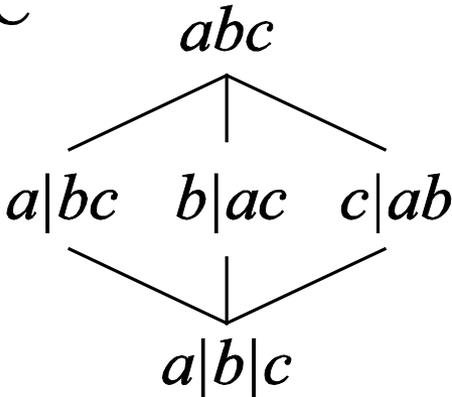
A



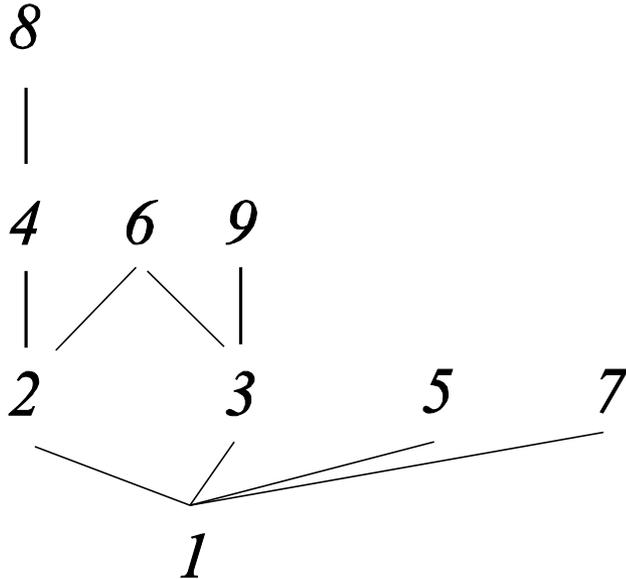
B



C



D



Lattices are Algebras

Structural
Viewpoint

Operational
Viewpoint

$$a \leq b$$



$$a \vee b = b$$

$$a \wedge b = a$$

Lattices

Structural
Viewpoint

Operational
Viewpoint

$$a \leq b \iff \begin{cases} a \vee b = b \\ a \wedge b = a \end{cases}$$

Sets, Is a subset
of

$$a \subseteq b \iff \begin{cases} a \cup b = b \\ a \cap b = a \end{cases}$$

Positive Integers,
Divides

$$a \mid b \iff \begin{cases} \text{lcm}(a, b) = b \\ \text{gcd}(a, b) = a \end{cases}$$

Assertions,
Implies

$$a \rightarrow b \iff \begin{cases} a \vee b = b \\ a \wedge b = a \end{cases}$$

Integers, Is less than or equal
to

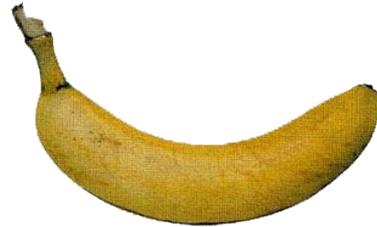
$$a \leq b \iff \begin{cases} \max(a, b) = b \\ \min(a, b) = a \end{cases}$$

What can be said about a system?

states



apple



banana

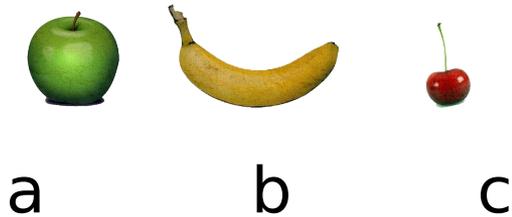


cherry

states of the contents of
my grocery basket

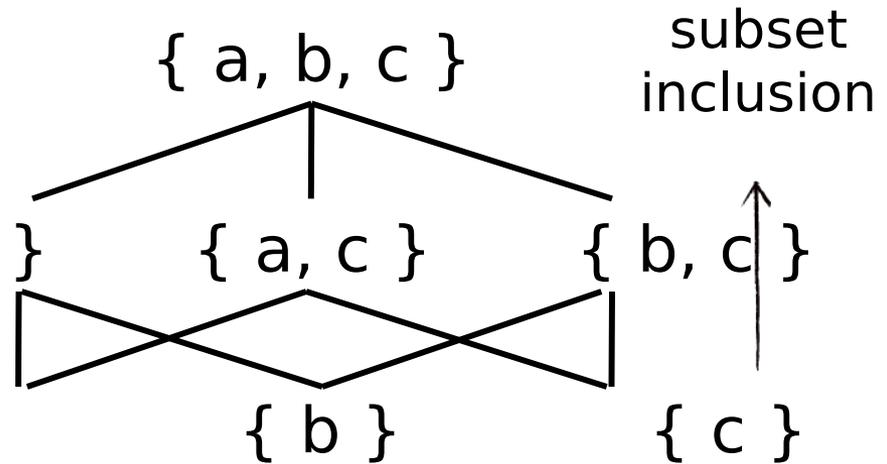
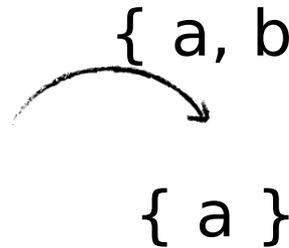
What can be said about a system?

Coarsely describe knowledge by listing a set of potential states



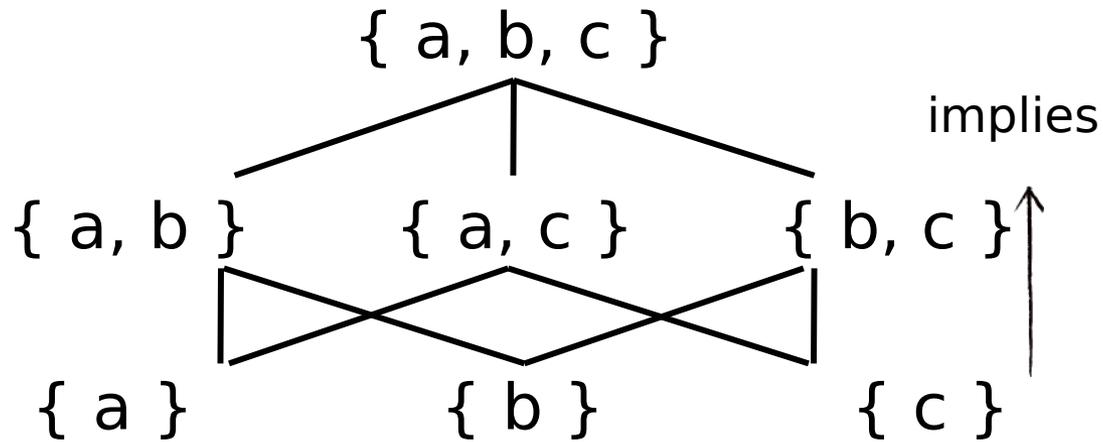
states of the contents of
my grocery basket

powerset



statements
about the contents of
my grocery basket

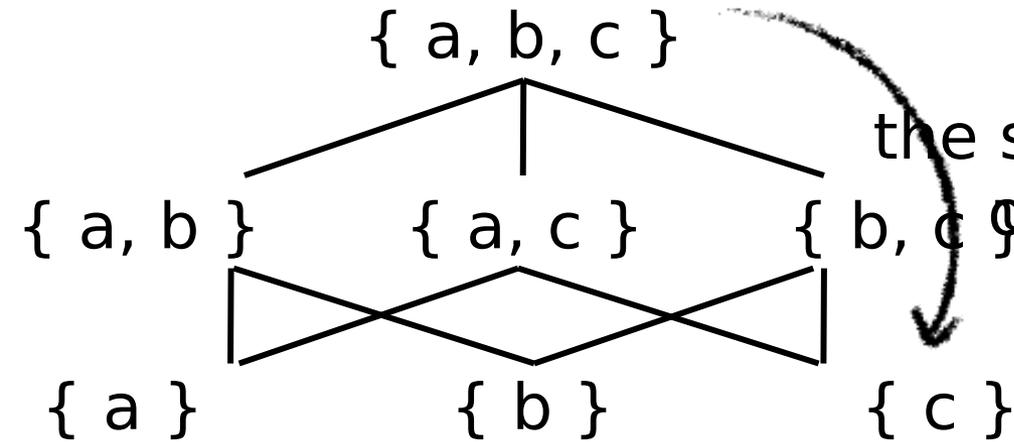
What can be said about a system?



statements
about the contents of
my grocery basket

ordering encodes implication
DEDUCTION

What can be said about a system?

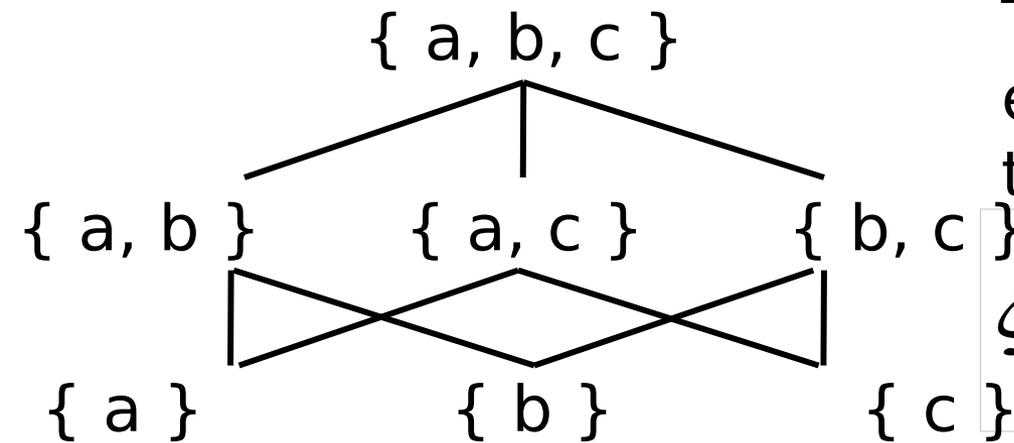


statements
about the contents of
my grocery basket

Quantify to what degree
the statement that the system is
one of three states $\{a, b, c\}$
implies knowing that it is
in some other set of states

inference works backwards

Inclusion and the Zeta Function



The Zeta function encodes inclusion on the lattice.

$$\zeta(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \subseteq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x \not\subseteq y \end{cases}$$

The
function z

$$z(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq y \\ z & \text{if } x \geq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x \wedge y = \perp \end{cases}$$

Continues to encode inclusion, but has generalized the concept to degrees of inclusion.

In the lattice of logical statements ordered by implies, this function describes degrees of implication.

Inclusion and the Zeta Function

The
function z

	\perp	a	b	c	$a \vee b$	$a \vee c$	$b \vee c$	\top
\perp	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
a	1	1	0	0	?	?	0	?
b	1	0	1	0	?	0	?	?
c	1	0	0	1	0	?	?	?
$a \vee b$	1	1	1	0	1	?	?	?
$a \vee c$	1	1	0	1	?	1	?	?
$b \vee c$	1	0	1	1	?	?	1	?
\top	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

$$z(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq y \\ z & \text{if } x \geq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x \wedge y = \perp \end{cases}$$

Are all of the values of the function z arbitrary?

Or are there constraints?

Probability

Changing notation

$$z(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq y \\ z & \text{if } x \geq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x \wedge y = \perp \end{cases}$$

$$P(x|y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \rightarrow x \\ 0 < p < 1 & \text{if } y \not\rightarrow x \\ 0 & \text{if } x \wedge y = \perp \end{cases}$$

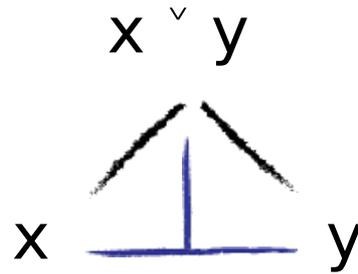
The MEANING of $P(x|y)$ is made explicit via the Zeta function.

These are degrees of implication!

Quantifying Lattices

VALUATION $v : x \in L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

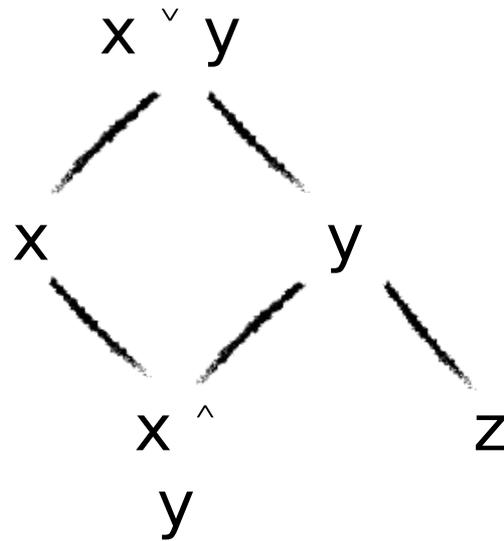
If $y \geq x$ then $v(y) \geq v(x)$



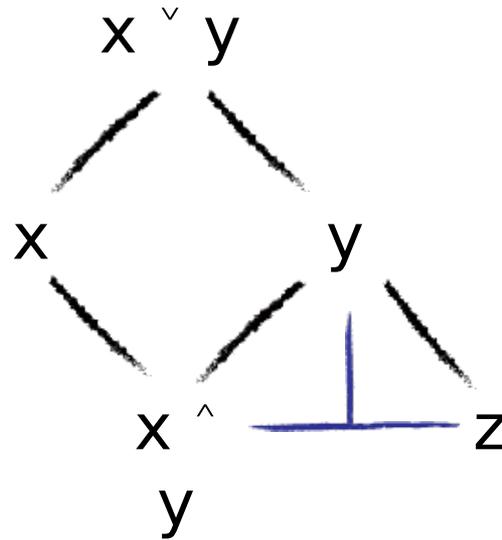
$$v(x \vee y) = v(x) + v(y)$$

Associativity and Order implies Additivity
(up to arbitrary invertible transform)

General Case

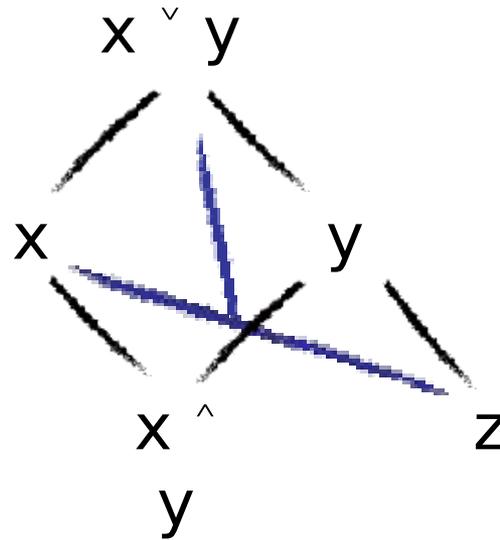


General Case



$$v(y) = v(x \wedge y) + v(z)$$

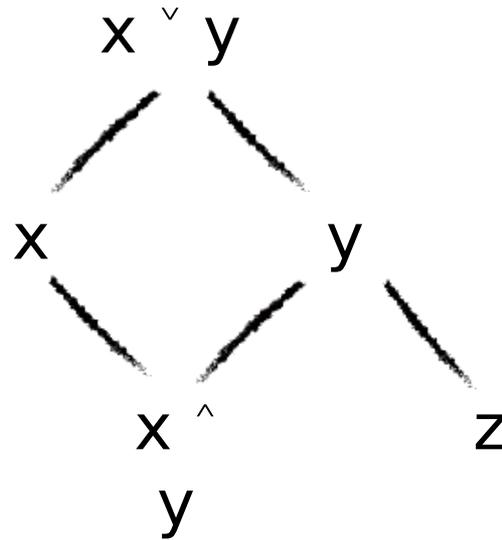
General Case



$$v(y) = v(x \wedge y) + v(z)$$

$$v(x \vee y) = v(x) + v(z)$$

General Case



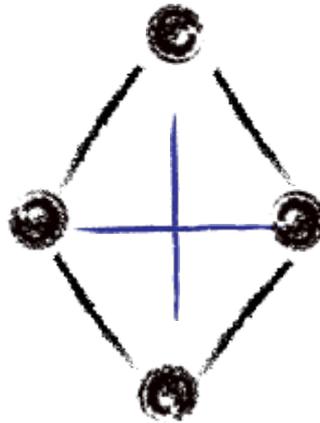
$$v(y) = v(x \wedge y) + v(z)$$

$$v(x \vee y) = v(x) + v(z)$$

$$v(x \vee y) = v(x) + v(y) - v(x \wedge y)$$

Sum Rule

$$v(x \vee y) = v(x) + v(y) - v(x \wedge y)$$



$$v(x) + v(y) = v(x \vee y) + v(x \wedge y)$$

symmetric form (self-dual)

Sum Rule

$$p(x \vee y | i) = p(x | i) + p(y | i) - p(x \wedge y | i)$$

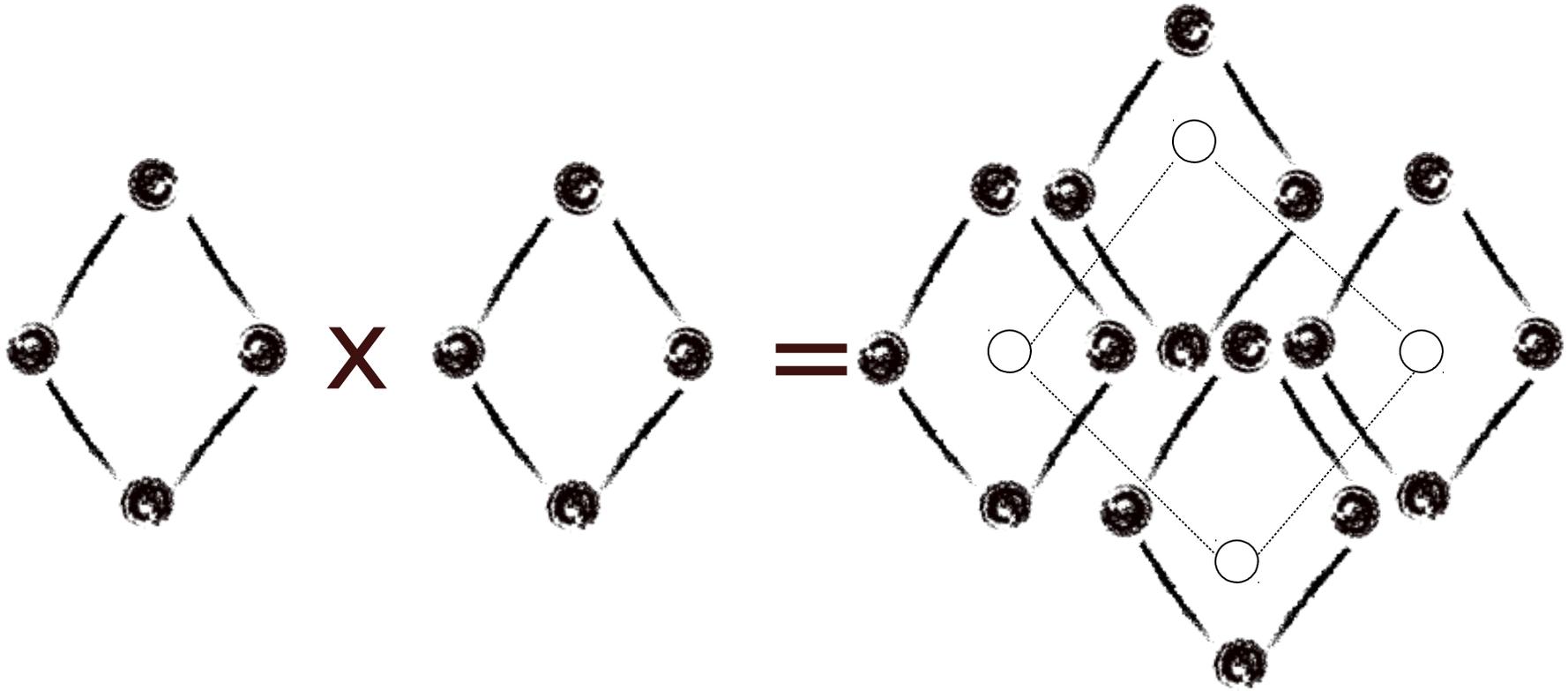
$$MI(X; Y) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y)$$

$$\max(x, y) = x + y - \min(x, y)$$

$$\chi = V + E + F$$

$$\log(\gcd(x, y)) = \log(x) + \log(y) - \log(\text{lcm}(x, y))$$

Lattice Products



Direct (Cartesian) product of two spaces

Direct Product Rule

The lattice product is also associative

$$A \times (B \times C) \quad \text{FILE} \quad (A \times B) \times C$$

After the sum rule, the only freedom left is rescaling

$$v((a, b)) \quad \text{FILE} \quad v(a) v(b)$$

which is again summation (after taking the logarithm)

Context and Bi-Valuations

BI-VALUATION

$$w : x, i \in \mathbb{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Bi-Valuation
 $w(x, i)$

Context i
 is explicit



Measure of x
 $v_i(x)$
 with respect to
 Context i

Measure of x
 with respect to
 Context i



Valuation
 $v_i(x)$

Context i
 is implicit

Bi-valuations generalize lattice inclusion to degrees of inclusion

Context is Explicit

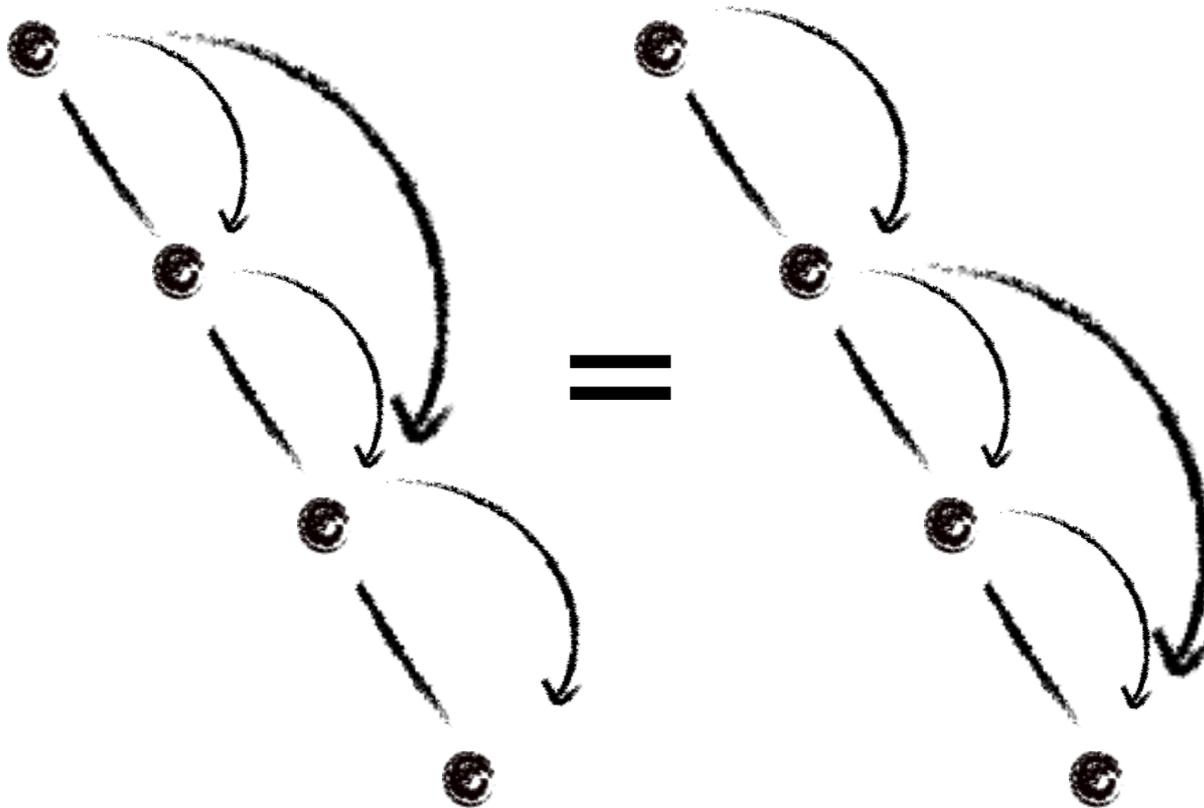
Sum Rule

$$w(x | i) + w(y | i) = w(x \vee y | i) + w(x \wedge y | i)$$

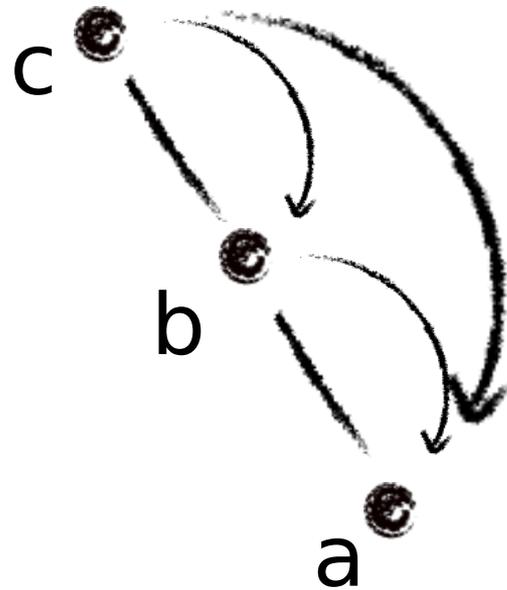
Direct Product Rule

$$w((a, b) | (i, j)) = w(a | i) w(b | j)$$

Associativity of Context



Quantifying Lattices



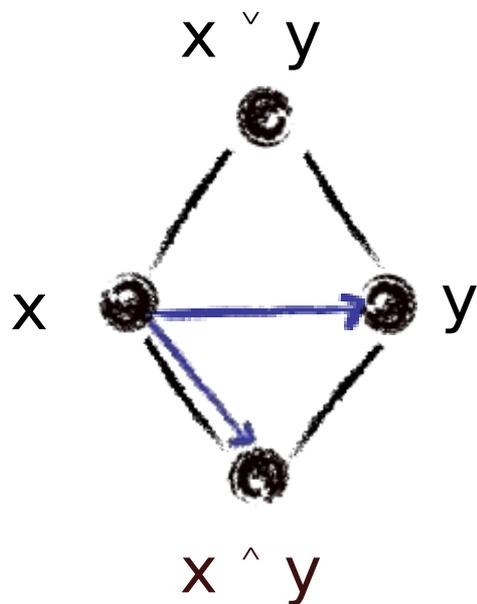
Chain Rule

$$w(a | c) = w(a | b) w(b | c)$$

Lemma

$$w(x | x) + w(y | x) = w(x \vee y | x) + w(x \wedge y | x)$$

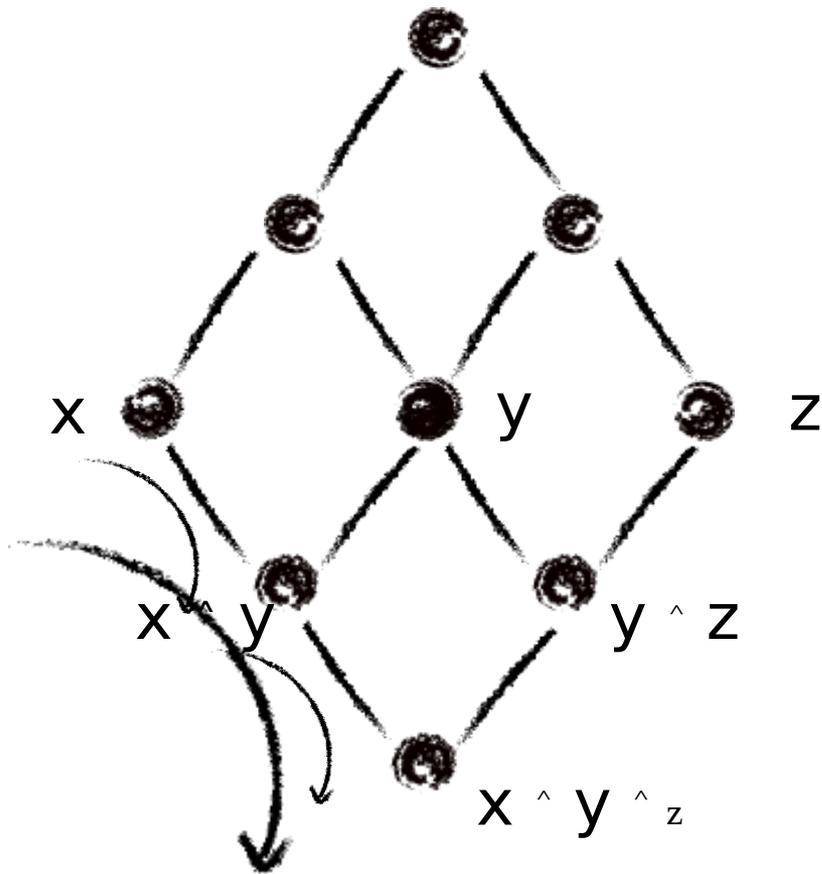
Since $x \leq x$ and $x \leq x \vee y$, $w(x | x) = 1$ and $w(x \vee y | x) =$



$$w(y | x) = w(x \wedge y | x)$$

Extending the Chain Rule

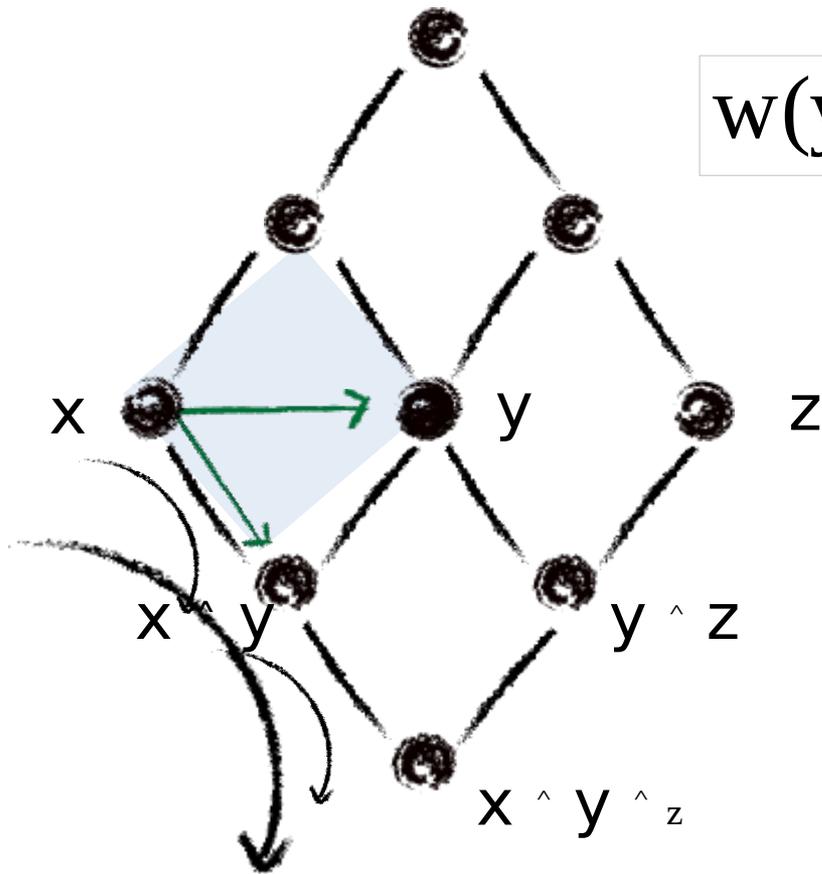
$$w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x) = w(x \wedge y \mid x)w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x \wedge y)$$



Extending the Chain Rule

$$w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x) = w(x \wedge y \mid x) w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x \wedge y)$$

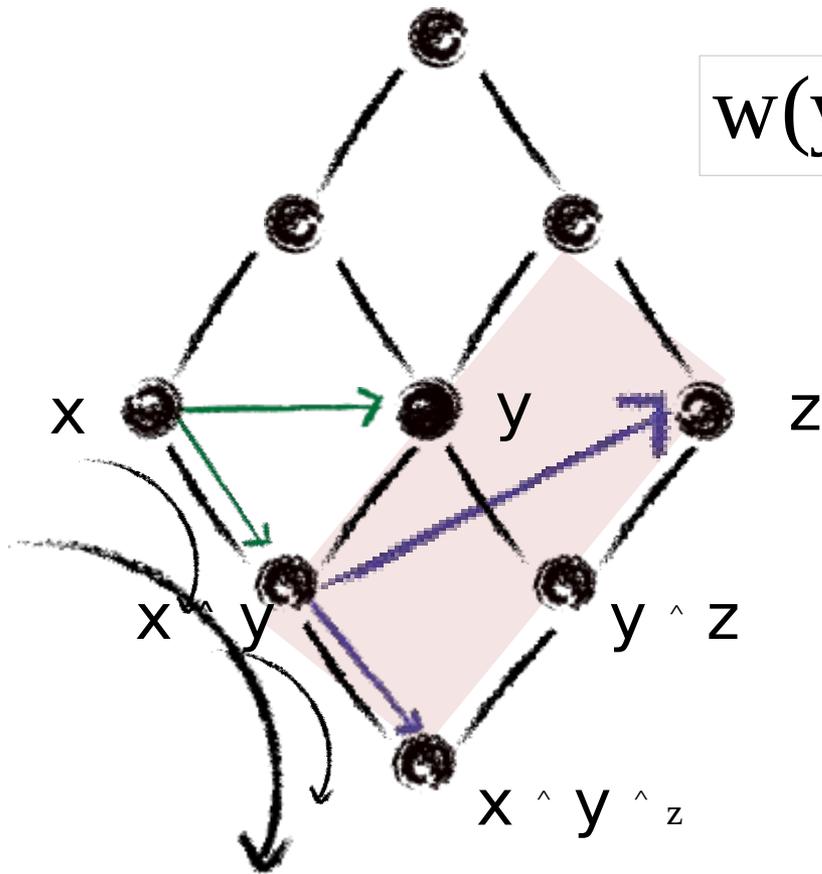
$$w(y \wedge z \mid x) = w(y \mid x) w(z \mid x \wedge y)$$



Extending the Chain Rule

$$w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x) = w(x \wedge y \mid x) w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x \wedge y)$$

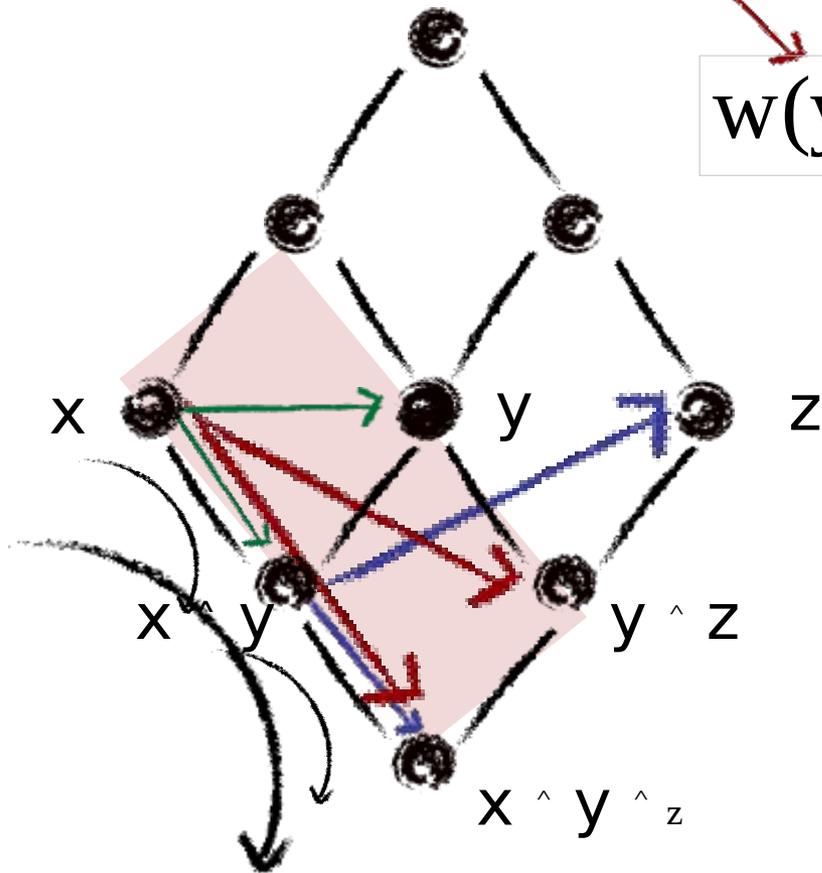
$$w(y \wedge z \mid x) = w(y \mid x) w(z \mid x \wedge y)$$



Extending the Chain Rule

$$w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x) = w(x \wedge y \mid x) w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x \wedge y)$$

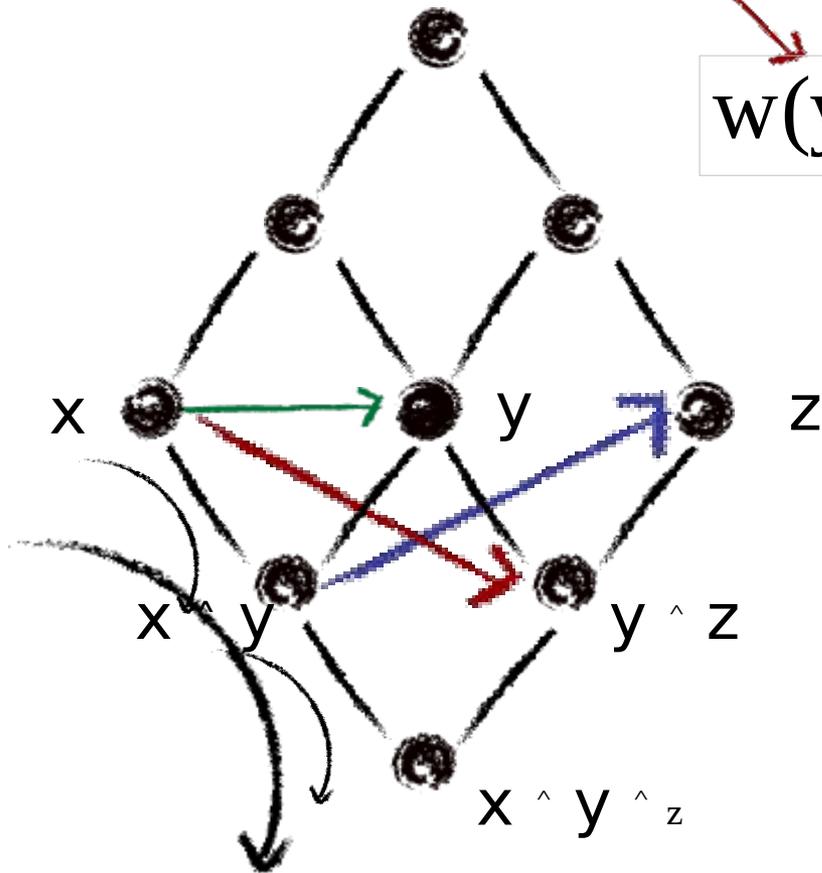
$$w(y \wedge z \mid x) = w(y \mid x) w(z \mid x \wedge y)$$



Extending the Chain Rule

$$w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x) = w(x \wedge y \mid x) w(x \wedge y \wedge z \mid x \wedge y)$$

$$w(y \wedge z \mid x) = w(y \mid x) w(z \mid x \wedge y)$$



Commutativity of the product
leads to **Bayes Theorem...**

$$w(x | y \wedge i) = w(y | x \wedge i) \frac{w(x | i)}{w(y | i)}$$



$$w(x | y) = w(y | x) \frac{w(x | i)}{w(y | i)}$$

Bayes Theorem involves a change of context.

Bayesian Probability Theory

Constraint Equations

Sum Rule

$$p(x \vee y | i) = p(x | i) + p(y | i) - p(x \wedge y | i)$$

Direct Product Rule

$$p(a, b | i, j) = p(a | i) p(b | j)$$

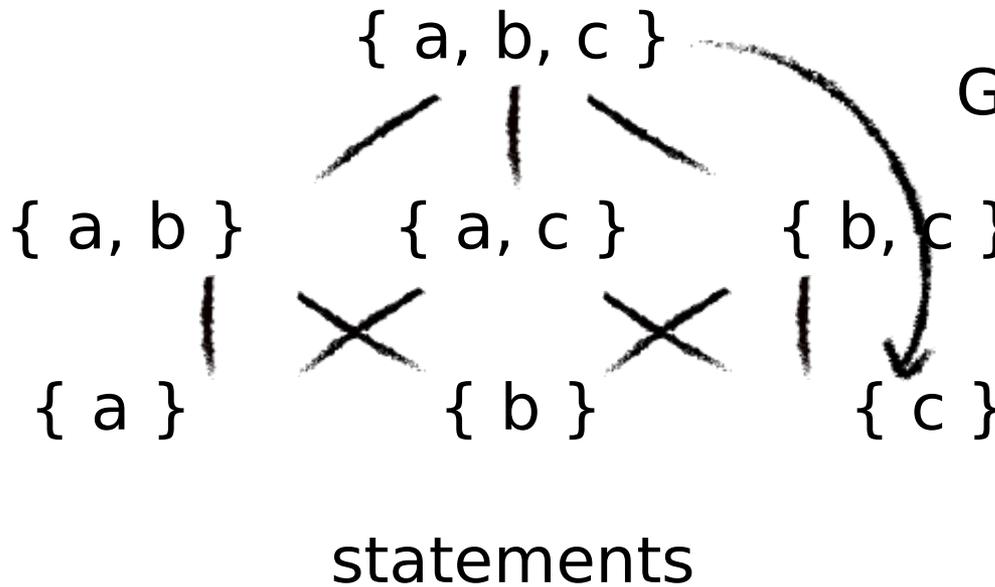
Product Rule

$$p(y \wedge z | x) = p(y | x) p(z | x \wedge y)$$

Bayes Theorem

$$p(x | y) = p(y | x) \frac{p(x | i)}{p(y | i)}$$

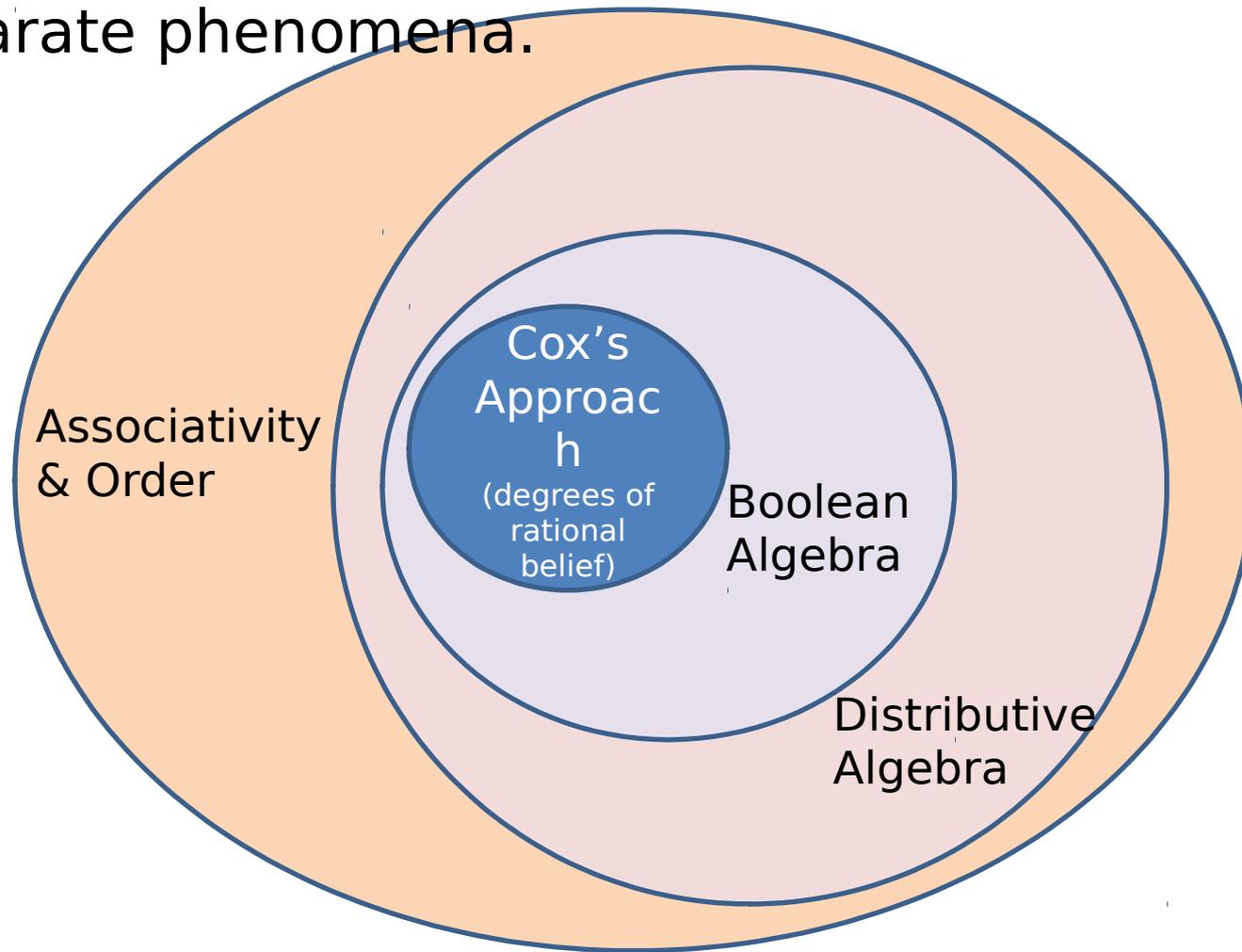
Inference



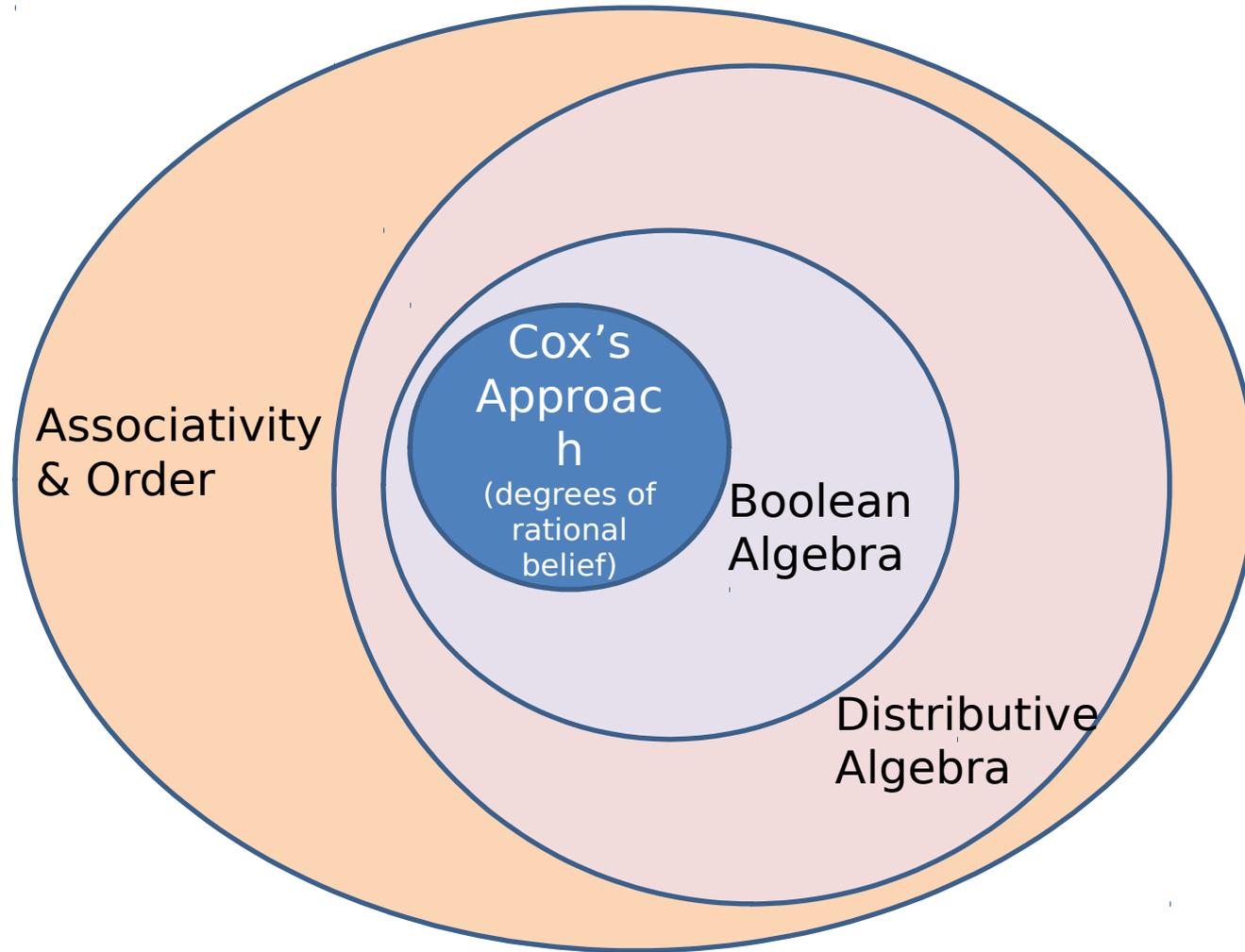
Given a quantification of the join-irreducible elements, one uses the constraint equations to consistently assign any desired bi-valuations (probability)

Foundations are Important.

A solid foundation acts as a broad base on which theories can be constructed to unify seemingly disparate phenomena.



THANK YOU



Quantification of a Lattice

To constrain the form of the function f where $d = f(a, b, c)$ consider the chain given by $x \leq y$.

Since x and y are totally ordered we have that

$$y = f(x, y, x)$$

and

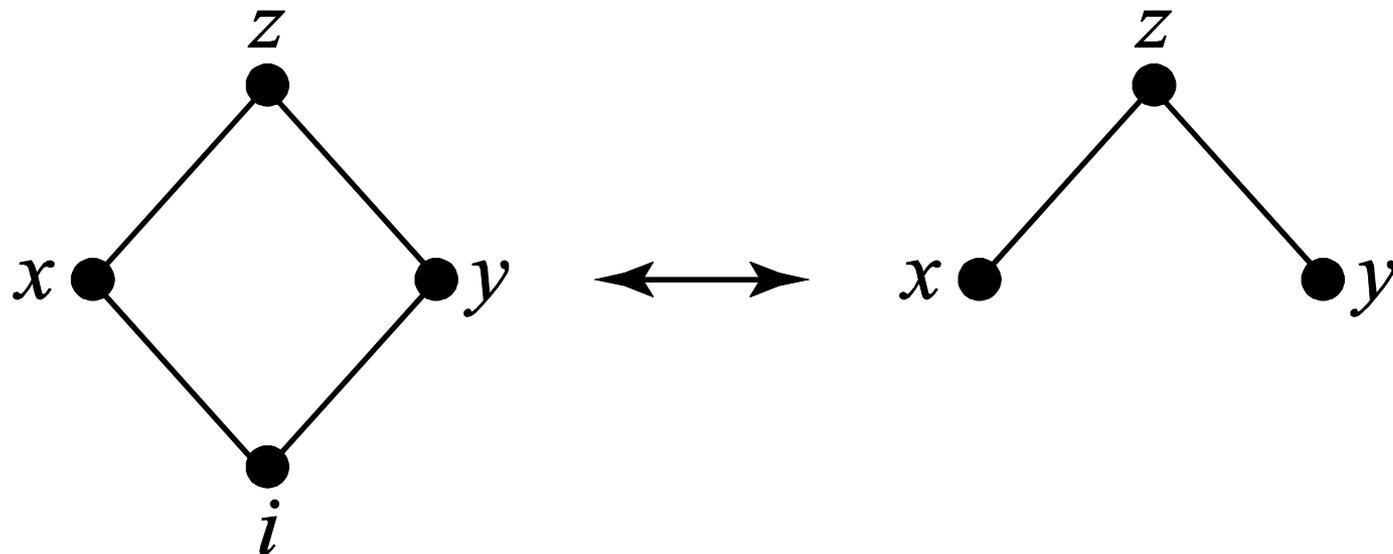
$$y = f(y, x, x)$$

by commutativity.



Quantification of a Lattice

Some lattices are drawn as semi-join lattices where the bottom element is optional

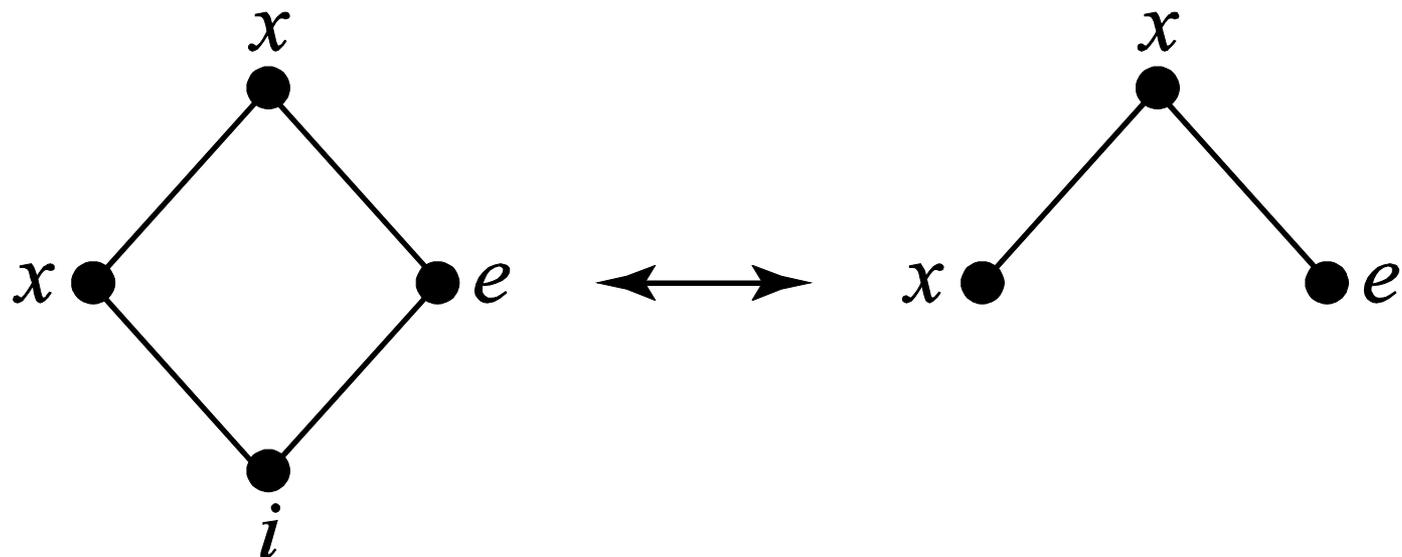


$$z = f(x, y, i) \doteq x \oplus y$$

where \oplus is an real-valued operator to be determined.

Quantification of a Lattice

Consider the identity quantification e , where $x \oplus e = x$



This implies that $f(x, e, x) = i$

Given the chain result: $y = f(x, y, x)$

We have that $f(x, e, x) = e = i$ so that the optional bottom is assigned the \oplus -identity.

Quantification of a Lattice

We have that

$$z = f(y, e, x)$$

Also

$$y = x \oplus z$$

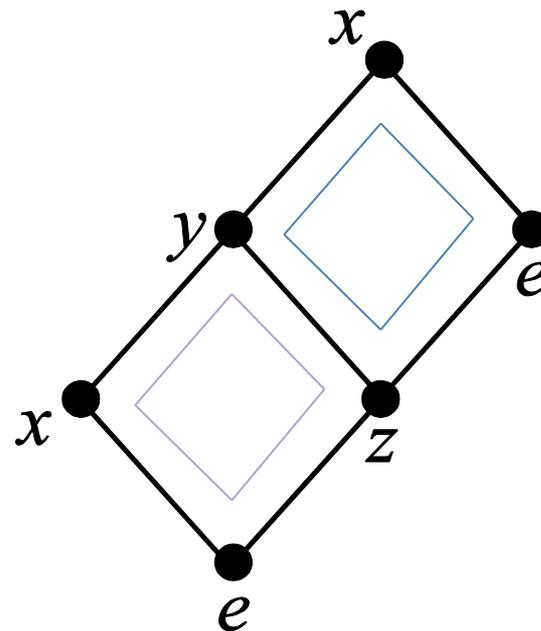
So that

$$z = f(x \oplus z, e, x)$$

Rewriting $f(x \oplus z, e, x) \equiv g(x \oplus z, x)$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned} z &= g(x \oplus z, x) \\ &\equiv (x \oplus z) \ominus x \end{aligned}$$



Quantification of a Lattice

We have that

$$z = f(y, e, x)$$

Also

$$y = x \oplus z$$

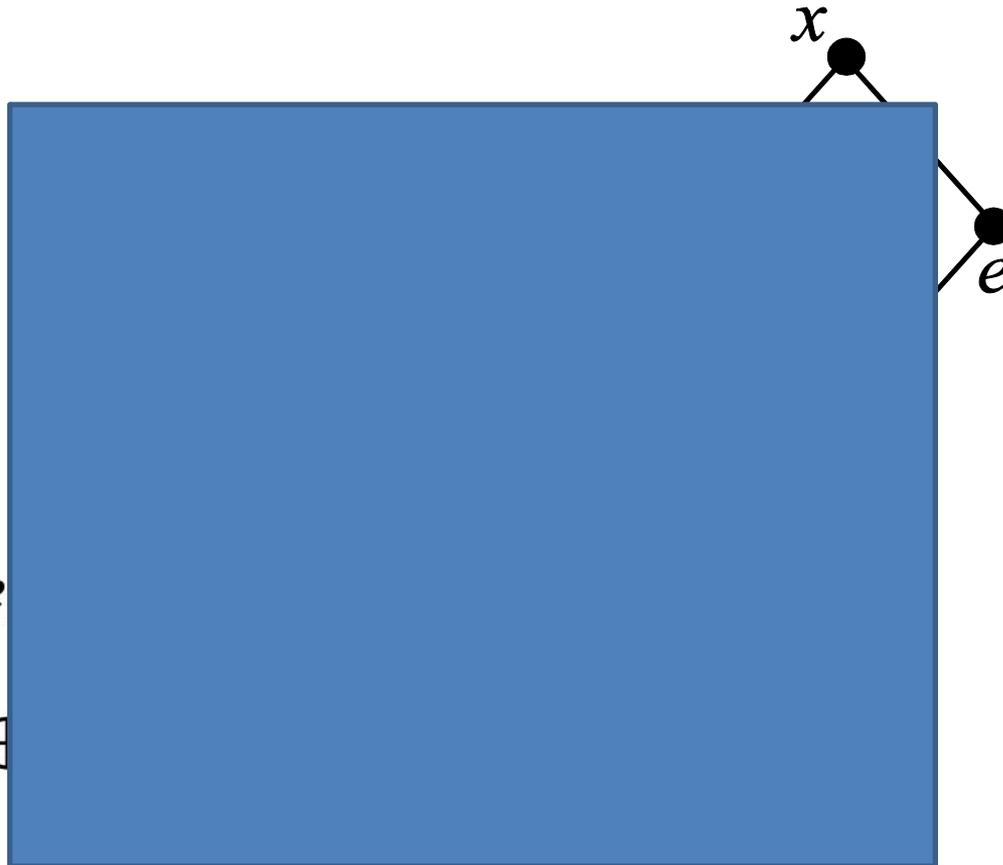
So that

$$z = f(x \oplus z, e, x)$$

Rewriting $f(x \oplus z, e, x)$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned} z &= g(x \oplus z, x) \\ &\equiv (x \oplus z) \ominus x \end{aligned}$$



Sum Rule

Given that \oplus is commutative and associative, we have that it is Abelian.

$$q(x \vee y) = q(x) \oplus q(y) \ominus q(x \wedge y)$$

One can then show that in the case of valuations, \oplus is an invertible transform of the usual addition

(eg. Craigen & Pales 1989; Knuth & Skilling 2012)

$$q(x \vee y) = q(x) + q(y) - q(x \wedge y)$$

