# **Decision Theory**



Thomas Bayes, Pierre Simon de Laplace,, Bruno de Finetti, Alan Turing, Irving Good, Leonard Jimmie Savage, Dennis Lindley, Arnold Zellner, Kathryn Chaloner, Susie Bayarri, Daniel Kahneman Who am I?

### Anders Nordgaard

Reader and Forensic specialist in statistics Swedish Police Authority – National Forensic Centre.

Former senior lecturer and director of studies at the Division of Statistics (and Machine Learning), LiU.

Nowadays, adjunct lecturer at this division (up to 20 % of full time)

Teaching this course Examiner of Master's thesis work

Easiest way of contact: andno100@gmail.com

# A course on decision making under uncertainty – Reasoning with probabilities

• <u>Course responsible and tutor:</u>

Anders Nordgaard (andno100@gmail.com, Anders.Nordgaard@liu.se)

• <u>Course web page:</u>

www.ida.liu.se/~732A66

*Note:* There is no course room in Lisam for this course (due to ignorance with the course responsible)

### • <u>Teaching:</u>

Lectures on theory Seminars with complex problems Discussion of assignments

- <u>Course literature:</u>
  - Peterson M.: An Introduction to Decision Theory 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 2017. ISBN 9781316606209 (paperback), 9781316585061 (digital)



### • Course literature:

 Peterson M.: An Introduction to Decision Theory 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 2017. ISBN 9781316606209 (paperback), 9781316585061 (digital)

#### Former course literature also works:

- Winkler R.L.: An Introduction to Bayesian Inference and Decision 2nd ed. Probabilistic Publishing, 2003 ISBN 0-9647938-4-9
- Electronic version available for purchase or lending: https://archive.org/details/introductiontoba00robe/page/n8/mode/1up
- The relevant exercises from this book will temporarily be uploaded to the course web
- Additional literature:
  - Taroni F., Bozza S., Biedermann A., Garbolino P., Aitken C. : Data analysis in forensic science A Bayesian decision perspective, Chichester: Wiley, 2010
  - Gittelson S. (2013). Evolving from Inferences to Decisions in the Interpretation of Scientific Evidence. Thèse de Doctorat, Série criminalistique LVI, Université de Lausanne. ISBN 2-940098-60-3. Available at http://www.unil.ch/esc/files/live/sites/esc/files/shared/These\_Gittelson.pdf

### • Examination:

- Assignments (compulsory to pass)
- Final oral exam (compulsory, decides the grade)

Assignments:

- There will be 3-4 assignments
- Co-working is permitted...
- ...but each student must submit their own solution
- Insufficient solutions will need supplementary submission

### Oral exam:

- Normally in a group of 2 students (occasionally 1 student, never 3 or more)
- A discussion on the course contents and concepts with practical examples
- 2 hours duration (1 student: 1 hour)
- Individual feedback and grading

### Outcome of Evaluate course evaluation for study year 2021/22

- Response rate: 22%
- No questions sticking out in the multiple choice questions
- Free-text answers on question 6 and 7:

6. What changes do you consider to be possible that would improve the course with respect to, for example, content, teaching principles, administration, teaching ng methods, or examination forms?

Make it a normal paper exam or only examination project

### 7.

Give examples of content, teaching principles, teaching methods, examination forms, or any other aspect of the course that you consider to have been particularly successful.

oral exam

## Opinions taken up at oral exams:

- Connections to machine laerning
- Prepared topics seminar
- Shorter sessions
- Shorter course period (finish entire course by Christmas)
- Mixture of lecture and problem discussion
- One more assignment less difficult
- More on game theory
- Use Lisam: Extra exercises, QA:s, summaries of key points
- Case examples
- More software use less maths
- Tell the purpose of each lecture at the beginning
- Presentations by students
- Follow-up on all assignments
- Explain the notation
- Larger assignment
- Repetition problem discussion
- Roadmap

# Who are you?

Name

Background

Expectations on this course

# Lecture 1: Probabilities

*Purpose:* To repeat and extend previous knowledge of probability calculus.



# The concept of probability





Category	Frequency	Probability ?
	9	0.6
<b>F</b>	3	0.2
	3	0.2

The *probability* of an event is...

- the degree of belief in the event (that the event has happened)
- a measure of the size of the event relative to the size of the universe



The universe, all events in it and the probabilities assigned to each event constitute the *probability space*. Probability of event= *P*(*Event*)

- $0 \le P(Event) \le 1$
- P(Universe) = 1
- If two events, *A* and *B* are mutually exclusive then

P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B)

**"Kolmogorov axioms"** (finite additivity variant)

This does not mean that...

"probabilities and stable relative frequencies are equal" (*Frequentist definition of probability*)

merely...

If any event is assigned a probability, that probability must satisfy the axioms.

### Example: Coin tossing

Suppose you toss a coin. One possible event is "heads", another is "tails"

If you assign a probability p to "heads" and a probability q to "tails they both must be between 0 and 1.

As "heads" cannot occur simultaneously with "tails", the probability of "heads or tails" is p + q.

If <u>no other event is possible</u> then "heads or tails" = Universe  $\rightarrow$ p + q = 1



# Relevance, Conditional probabilities

An event *B* is said to be *relevant* for another event *A* if the probability (degree of belief) that *A* is true depends on the state of *B*.

The *conditional* probability of A given that B is true is

 $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)}$ 



If *B* is true then its *complement*  $\overline{B}(B^C, \neg B)$  is *irrelevant* to consider.

If *A* is to be true under these conditions, only the part of *A* inside *B* should be considered.

This part coincides with (A,B)

The measure of the size of this event must be relative to the size of B

#### Example:

Assume you believe that approx. 1% of all human beings carry both a gene for developing disease *A* and a gene for developing disease *B*.

Further you believe that

- 8 % of all human beings carry the gene for developing disease
   A
- 10% of all human beings carry the gene for developing disease *B*.

Then as a consequence your degree of belief that a person who has developed disease *B* also carries the gene for developing disease *A* should be 10% (0.01/0.10) Since 10 % is different from 8 %, carrying the gene for *B* is relevant for carrying the gene for *A*.





Reversing the definition of conditional probability:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)} \Rightarrow P(A,B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B)$$

but also... 
$$P(A, B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)} \text{ and } P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A)}$$

 $\rightarrow$  For sorting out conditional probabilities it is not necessary to assign the probabilities of intersections

# "All probabilities are conditional..."

How a probability is assigned <u>depends on</u> background knowledge.

E.g. if you assign the probability 0.5 for the event "heads" in a coin toss, you have assumed that

- the coin is fair
- the coin cannot land endways



...but it may be the case that you cannot assign any probability to the background knowledge

Let I denote all background knowledge relevant for A

 $\Rightarrow P(A) = P(A|I)$ 

**Extensions:** 

$$P(A, B|I) = P(A|B, I) \cdot P(B|I)$$
  

$$P(A_1, A_2, ..., A_n|I) =$$
  

$$= P(A_1|I) \cdot P(A_2|A_1, I) \cdot \cdots \cdot P(A_n|A_1, A_2, ..., A_{n-1}, I)$$

*Example*: Suppose you randomly pick 3 cards from a well-shuffled deck of cards. What is the probability you will <u>in order</u> get a spade, a hearts and a spade?

I = The deck of cards is well-shuffled  $\Rightarrow$  It does not matter how you pick your cards.

Let  $A_1$  = First card is a spade;  $A_2$  = Second card is a hearts;  $A_3$  = Third card is a spade

$$\Rightarrow P(A_1, A_2, A_3 | I) = P(A_1 | I) \cdot P(A_2 | A_1, I) \cdot P(A_3 | A_1, A_2, I) = = \frac{13}{52} \cdot \frac{13}{51} \cdot \frac{12}{50} \approx 0.015$$

# Relevance and (conditional) independence

If *B* is relevant for *A* then  $P(A|B,I) \neq P(A|I)$ 

If *B* is *irrelevant* for *A* then P(A|B,I) = P(A|I)which in turn gives  $P(A,B|I) = P(A|I) \cdot P(B|I)$ 

In this case *A* and *B* are said to be <u>conditionally independent</u> events. (In common statistical literature only *independent* is used as term.)

Note that it is the background knowledge *I* that determines whether this holds or not.

Note also that if P(A|B,I) = P(A|I) then P(B|A,I) = P(B|I)

Irrelevance is reversible!

Below are four rectangles. Each rectangle represents the universe, so its area is equal to one (1=100%)

Assume that the sets A (green) and B (yellowish) are drawn according to scale (the sizes of the sets are proportional to the probabilities of the events).

In which of the cases below are *A* and *B* <u>definitely</u> conditionally <u>dependent</u> (given *I*)?



# Further conditioning...



### $P(A, B|I) \neq P(A|I) \cdot P(B|I)$



Area of  $A \cap B$  divided by area of A is not equal to area of B divided by area of rectangle.

<u>Inside *C*</u> the area of  $\underline{A \cap B}$  divided by the area of *A* is equal to the area of *B* divided by the area of *C*.

$$P(A, B|C, I) = P(A|C, I) \cdot P(B|C, I)$$

Two events that are conditionally dependent under one set of assumptions may be conditionally *independent* under another set of assumptions



The law of total probability:

 $P(A|I) = P(A, B|I) + P(A, \overline{B}|I) =$ =  $P(A|B, I) \cdot P(B|I) + P(A|\overline{B}, I) \cdot P(\overline{B}|I)$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  Bayes' theorem:

 $P(A|B,I) = \frac{P(B|A,I) \cdot P(A|I)}{P(B|A,I) \cdot P(A|I) + P(B|\overline{A},I) \cdot P(\overline{A}|I)}$