

**Notation.** Let ‘the degree of belief in proposition  $x$ ’ be denoted by  $B(x)$ . The negation of  $x$  (NOT- $x$ ) is written  $\bar{x}$ . The degree of belief in a conditional proposition, ‘ $x$ , assuming proposition  $y$  to be true’, is represented by  $B(x|y)$ .

**Axiom 1.** Degrees of belief can be ordered; if  $B(x)$  is ‘greater’ than  $B(y)$ , and  $B(y)$  is ‘greater’ than  $B(z)$ , then  $B(x)$  is ‘greater’ than  $B(z)$ .  
 [Consequence: beliefs can be mapped onto real numbers.]

**Axiom 2.** The degree of belief in a proposition  $x$  and its negation  $\bar{x}$  are related. There is a function  $f$  such that

$$B(x) = f[B(\bar{x})].$$

**Axiom 3.** The degree of belief in a conjunction of propositions  $x, y$  ( $x$  AND  $y$ ) is related to the degree of belief in the conditional proposition  $x|y$  and the degree of belief in the proposition  $y$ . There is a function  $g$  such that

$$B(x, y) = g[B(x|y), B(y)].$$

**Box 2.4.** The Cox axioms.  
 If a set of beliefs satisfy these axioms then they can be mapped onto probabilities satisfying  $P(\text{FALSE}) = 0$ ,  $P(\text{TRUE}) = 1$ ,  $0 \leq P(x) \leq 1$ , and the rules of probability:  

$$P(x) = 1 - P(\bar{x}),$$
 and  

$$P(x, y) = P(x|y)P(y).$$

coming up heads is  $1/2$ ? If we say that this frequency is the average fraction of heads in long sequences, we have to define ‘average’; and it is hard to define ‘average’ without using a word synonymous to probability! I will not attempt to cut this philosophical knot.

Probabilities can also be used, more generally, to describe *degrees of belief* in propositions that do not involve random variables – for example ‘the probability that Mr. S. was the murderer of Mrs. S., given the evidence’ (he either was or wasn’t, and it’s the jury’s job to assess how probable it is that he was); ‘the probability that Thomas Jefferson had a child by one of his slaves’; ‘the probability that Shakespeare’s plays were written by Francis Bacon’; or, to pick a modern-day example, ‘the probability that a particular signature on a particular cheque is genuine’.

The man in the street is happy to use probabilities in both these ways, but some books on probability restrict probabilities to refer only to frequencies of outcomes in repeatable random experiments.

Nevertheless, degrees of belief *can* be mapped onto probabilities if they satisfy simple consistency rules known as the Cox axioms (Cox, 1946) (figure 2.4). Thus probabilities can be used to describe assumptions, and to describe inferences given those assumptions. The rules of probability ensure that if two people make the same assumptions and receive the same data then they will draw identical conclusions. This more general use of probability to quantify beliefs is known as the *Bayesian* viewpoint. It is also known as the *subjective* interpretation of probability, since the probabilities depend on assumptions. Advocates of a Bayesian approach to data modelling and pattern recognition do not view this subjectivity as a defect, since in their view,

you cannot do inference without making assumptions.

In this book it will from time to time be taken for granted that a Bayesian approach makes sense, but the reader is warned that this is not yet a globally held view – the field of statistics was dominated for most of the 20th century by non-Bayesian methods in which probabilities are allowed to describe only random variables. The big difference between the two approaches is that