

# cox-theorem-notes

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This document summarises some of the relations due to Cox's Theorem [1], particularly as they relate to the discussion by Van Horn [2]. Note that here we are aiming more for explicability than formal exactness.

## 1 The Calculus of Plausible Inference

### 1.1 Propositional calculus

We start with the notion of Boolean propositions, denoted by  $A, B, C$ , et cetera, that must take on values of either **True** or **False**. However, our knowledge about the truth values of these propositions is always contextual, and depends on some background knowledge, denoted by  $X$ . Hence,  $A \mid X$  denotes the proposition that  $A$  is conditionally **True** given  $X$ . Conversely,  $\neg A \mid X$  denotes the proposition that  $A$  is conditionally **False** given  $X$ . Similarly,  $A \wedge B \mid X$  denotes *both*  $A$  and  $B$  being conditionally **True**, and  $A \vee B \mid X$  denotes *either*  $A$  or  $B$  (or both) being conditionally **True**.

### 1.2 Credibility of propositions

In the case where we do not know with certainty that some proposition  $A \mid X$  is definitely **True** or definitely **False**, then we instead have some degree of *belief* in its truth value. Formally, we encapsulate the degree of belief via some *credibility* (or *plausibility*) function  $c(\cdot)$ , such that  $c(A \mid X)$  denotes our subjective measure of the credibility of the proposition  $A \mid X$ .

In a unimodal calculus of credibility, we suppose that credibility is denoted by a single, real number, such that a higher number indicates more certainty that the proposition is **True**, and a lower number indicates more certainty that the proposition is **False**. However, we further require that the calculus of credibility remains consistent with the calculus of propositional logic. In particular, if we know that  $A \mid X$  is **True**, then the assigned credibility must attain its maximum value  $T \doteq c(\text{True})$ . Conversely, if we know that  $A \mid X$  is **False**, then the assigned credibility must attain its minimum value  $F \doteq c(\text{False})$ . Hence, in general, we have  $F \leq c(A \mid X) \leq T$ .

Note, however, that we have neither defined nor proscribed any given values of  $T$  and  $F$ . In particular, we have not ruled out  $F = -\infty$  or  $T = +\infty$ . However, we can assume that  $F < T$ , otherwise we will always be stuck with a singular (and thus unexpressive) value of credibility for every proposition. Also note that we are assuming that credibility values are dense in the interval  $[F, T]$ . This is essentially the *universality* axiom.

### 1.3 Credibility of negation

Suppose that our background knowledge changes from  $X$  to  $X'$ , such that our (conditional) degree of belief in some proposition  $A$  increases, i.e.  $c(A \mid X') \geq c(A \mid X)$ . It follows, for our unimodal calculus of credibility, that our degree of belief in the converse proposition  $\neg A$  must decrease, i.e.  $c(\neg A \mid X') \leq c(\neg A \mid X)$ . In general, we suppose that our degrees of belief in the contrary propositions  $A \mid X$  and  $\neg A \mid X$  are related via some *complementation* function  $s(\cdot)$ , such that  $c(\neg A \mid X) = s(c(A \mid X))$  and  $c(A \mid X) = s(c(\neg A \mid X))$ .

It immediately follows that  $s(\cdot)$  is self-invertible in the sense that  $s(s(x)) = x$  for any valid credibility  $x = c(A \mid X)$ . Clearly, by construction,  $s(x)$  is a monotonically decreasing function of  $x$ . Furthermore, for consistency with the calculus of propositional logic, we observe that knowing that  $A \mid X$  is **True** is equivalent to knowing that  $\neg A \mid X$  is **False**, such that  $s(T) = F$  and  $s(F) = T$ .

### 1.4 Credibility of conjunction

We now turn to the conjunctive proposition  $A \wedge B \mid X$ , and its credibility  $c(A \wedge B \mid X)$ . Observe that if  $B \mid X = \mathbf{True}$ , then it follows logically that  $A \wedge B \mid X = A \mid X$ . Conversely, if  $B \mid X = \mathbf{False}$  then  $A \wedge B \mid X = \mathbf{False}$ . Hence, we might suppose that  $c(A \wedge B \mid X)$  depends upon  $c(A \mid X)$  and  $c(B \mid X)$ .

However, if  $B \mid X = \mathbf{True}$ , then  $B$  is consistent with, and adds nothing to, the background knowledge  $X$ . In other words, the new knowledge  $X' \doteq B \wedge X$  is still just  $X$ . Hence, if  $B \mid X = \mathbf{True}$  then it follows that  $A \mid X = A \mid B \wedge X$ . Similarly, if  $B \mid X = \mathbf{True}$ , then it follows that  $B \mid A \wedge X = \mathbf{True}$  for any proposition  $A$  that is consistent with  $X$ . Consequently, we might suppose that  $c(A \wedge B \mid X)$  also depends upon both  $c(A \mid B \wedge X)$  and  $c(B \mid A \wedge X)$ .

In general, we therefore suppose that the credibility of the proposition  $A \wedge B \mid X$  depends on the atomic credibilities of  $x = c(A \mid X)$ ,  $y = c(B \mid X)$  and  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X)$ ,  $z = c(B \mid A \wedge X)$ . We thus posit a *conjunctive* function  $f(\cdot)$  such that  $c(A \wedge B \mid X) = f(x, y, w, z)$ . Since each atomic credibility, taken in turn, might or might not influence  $c(A \wedge B \mid X)$ , we see that there are  $2^4 = 16$  distinct functions, each with a distinct argument signature. These arbitrary functions, enumerated as  $f_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 16$ , are listed in the first column of the table below.

Note that if  $c(A \wedge B \mid X)$  is defined by any particular function  $f_i$ , then this relation must hold for all propositions  $A$  and  $B$ , and any (consistent) background knowledge  $X$ . In particular, if we suppose that  $B \mid X = \mathbf{True}$ , then (from above) we have  $y = c(B \mid X) = T$  and  $z = c(B \mid A \wedge X) = T$ , and also  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X) = c(A \mid X) = x$ , and finally  $c(A \wedge B \mid X) = c(A \mid X) = x$ .

These values give us the constraints listed in the second column of the table. We may therefore immediately rule out functions  $f_1$ ,  $f_3$ ,  $f_5$  and  $f_{10}$  as being inconsistent, since their respective constraints imply that a constant left-hand side must equal a variable right-hand side.

By a similar argument, we deduce that if, alternatively, we suppose that  $A \mid X = \mathbf{True}$ , then we obtain  $x = c(A \mid X) = T$ ,  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X) = T$ ,  $z = c(B \mid A \wedge X) = c(B \mid X) = y$  and  $c(A \wedge B \mid X) = c(B \mid X) = y$ . These values give us the constraints listed in the third column of the table. Consequently, we may further rule out functions  $f_2$ ,  $f_4$  and  $f_7$  as being inconsistent.

Continuing these arguments, suppose now that  $A \mid X = \neg B \mid X$ . Then we obtain that  $c(A \wedge B \mid X) = F$ , along with  $x = c(A \mid X) = c(\neg B \mid X) = s(c(B \mid X)) = s(y)$ , and  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X) = F$  and  $z = c(B \mid A \wedge X) = F$ . These values form the constraints listed in the fourth column of the table. We now rule out function  $f_6$  on the basis that the constraint implies that both  $f_6(x, y) = F$

and  $y = s(x)$ ; informally, the intersection of these two curves cannot hold for the dense subset  $x \in [F, T]$  (as is required by the universality axiom). Note that Van Horn [2] uses a more detailed, multi-faceted argument to formally make this conclusion.

Finally, suppose now that  $A \mid X = B \mid X$ . Consequently, we obtain  $x = c(A \mid X) = c(B \mid X) = y$ , along with  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X) = T$ ,  $z = c(B \mid A \wedge X) = T$ , and  $c(A \wedge B \mid X) = c(A \mid X) = x$ . These values form the constraints listed in the fifth column of the table. Hence, we now also eliminate function  $f_{11}$ .

$c(A \wedge B \mid X)$	$B \mid X = \text{True}$	$A \mid X = \text{True}$	$A \mid X = \neg B \mid X$	$A \mid X = B \mid X$
$f_1()$	<del><math>f_1() = x</math></del>	<del><math>f_1() = y</math></del>	$f_1() = F$	<del><math>f_1() = x</math></del>
$f_2(x)$	$f_2(x) = x$	<del><math>f_2(T) = y</math></del>	<del><math>f_2(x) = F</math></del>	$f_2(x) = x$
$f_3(y)$	<del><math>f_3(T) = x</math></del>	$f_3(y) = y$	<del><math>f_3(y) = F</math></del>	$f_3(y) = y$
$f_4(w)$	$f_4(w) = w$	<del><math>f_4(T) = y</math></del>	$f_4(F) = F$	<del><math>f_4(T) = x</math></del>
$f_5(z)$	<del><math>f_5(T) = x</math></del>	$f_5(z) = z$	$f_5(F) = F$	<del><math>f_5(T) = x</math></del>
$f_6(x, y)$	$f_6(x, T) = x$	$f_6(T, y) = y$	<del><math>f_6(x, s(x)) = F</math></del>	$f_6(x, x) = x$
$f_7(x, w)$	$f_7(x, x) = x$	<del><math>f_7(T, T) = y</math></del>	$f_7(x, F) = F$	$f_7(x, T) = x$
$f_8(x, z)$	$f_8(x, T) = x$	$f_8(T, z) = z$	$f_8(x, F) = F$	$f_8(x, T) = x$
$f_9(y, w)$	$f_9(T, w) = w$	$f_9(y, T) = y$	$f_9(y, F) = F$	$f_9(y, T) = y$
$f_{10}(y, z)$	<del><math>f_{10}(T, T) = x</math></del>	$f_{10}(y, y) = y$	$f_{10}(y, F) = F$	$f_{10}(y, T) = y$
$f_{11}(w, z)$	$f_{11}(w, T) = w$	$f_{11}(T, z) = z$	$f_{11}(F, F) = F$	<del><math>f_{11}(T, T) = x</math></del>
$f_{12}(x, y, w)$	$f_{12}(x, T, x) = x$	$f_{12}(T, y, T) = y$	$f_{12}(x, s(x), F) = F$	$f_{12}(x, x, T) = x$
$f_{13}(x, y, z)$	$f_{13}(x, T, T) = x$	$f_{13}(T, y, y) = y$	$f_{13}(x, s(x), F) = F$	$f_{13}(x, x, T) = x$
$f_{14}(x, w, z)$	$f_{14}(x, x, T) = x$	$f_{14}(T, T, z) = z$	$f_{14}(x, F, F) = F$	$f_{14}(x, T, T) = x$
$f_{15}(y, w, z)$	$f_{15}(T, w, T) = w$	$f_{15}(y, T, y) = y$	$f_{15}(y, F, F) = F$	$f_{15}(y, T, T) = y$
$f_{16}(x, y, w, z)$	$f_{16}(x, T, x, T) = x$	$f_{16}(T, y, T, y) = y$	$f_{16}(x, s(x), F, F) = F$	$f_{16}(x, x, T, T) = x$

So far, we have ignored the symmetry that  $A \wedge B \mid X = B \wedge A \mid X$ . This symmetry allows us to swap the labels  $A$  and  $B$  to obtain the same results, implying that we may exchange the pairs  $x = c(A \mid X) \leftrightarrow y = c(B \mid X)$  and  $w = c(A \mid B \wedge X) \leftrightarrow z = c(B \mid A \wedge X)$ . This exchangeability then induces some pairings between formulae:

$$\begin{aligned}
c(A \wedge B \mid X) &= f_8(x, z) = f_8(y, w) = f_9(y, w) = f_9(x, z), \\
c(A \wedge B \mid X) &= f_{12}(x, y, w) = f_{12}(y, x, z) = f_{13}(x, y, z) = f_{13}(y, x, w), \\
c(A \wedge B \mid X) &= f_{14}(x, w, z) = f_{14}(y, z, w) = f_{15}(y, w, z) = f_{15}(x, z, w), \\
c(A \wedge B \mid X) &= f_{16}(x, y, w, z) = f_{16}(y, x, z, w).
\end{aligned}$$

At this juncture, Van Horn [2] disputes the claims of Tribus [3] to have eliminated the final three models.

Van Horn then goes on to prove the standard result of Cox [1], namely that there exists a non-negative function  $g(\cdot)$  with  $g(F) = 0$ , such that  $g(f_8(x, z)) = g(x)g(z)$ . Roughly speaking, we may therefore define the probability function  $p(\cdot) \doteq g(c(\cdot))$ , such that

$$p(A \wedge B \mid X) = p(A \mid X)p(B \mid A \wedge X) = p(B \mid X)p(A \mid B \wedge X),$$

where we have chosen  $g$  to satisfy  $g(T) = g(c(\text{True})) = p(\text{True}) = 1$ . Clearly, we then have  $p(\text{False}) = g(c(\text{False})) = g(F) = 0$ .

At this point, however, we note that functions  $f_{12}$  to  $f_{16}$  cannot have this same factorisation. If they did, then we observe from the table above for  $B \mid X = \text{True}$ , for instance, that

$$g(x) = g(f_{16}(x, T, x, T)) = [g(T)g(x)]^2,$$

which cannot hold true for all  $x \in [F, T]$  unless  $g$  is everywhere zero, unity or infinity.

In fact, a simple dimensional analysis (e.g. supposing that  $c(A \mid X)$  has dimensional units  $[A]$ ) shows that

$$\begin{aligned} g(f_{12}(x, y, w)) &= g(y) \sqrt{g(x)g(w)}, \\ g(f_{13}(x, y, z)) &= g(x) \sqrt{g(y)g(z)}, \\ g(f_{14}(x, w, z)) &= g(z) \sqrt{g(x)g(w)}, \\ g(f_{15}(y, w, z)) &= g(w) \sqrt{g(y)g(z)}, \\ g(f_{16}(x, y, w, z)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(w)} \sqrt{g(y)g(z)}, \end{aligned}$$

are more suitable factorisations that satisfy the constraints of the above table. Furthermore, if we accept that  $p(A \wedge B \mid X) = g(f_8(x, z)) = g(f_9(y, w))$ , then we observe that

$$\begin{aligned} g(f_{12}(x, y, w)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(z)} \sqrt{g(y)g(w)} \sqrt{\frac{g(y)}{g(z)}} = p(A \wedge B \mid X) \sqrt{\frac{p(B \mid X)}{p(B \mid A \wedge X)}}, \\ g(f_{13}(x, y, z)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(z)} \sqrt{g(y)g(w)} \sqrt{\frac{g(x)}{g(w)}} = p(A \wedge B \mid X) \sqrt{\frac{p(A \mid X)}{p(A \mid B \wedge X)}}, \\ g(f_{14}(x, w, z)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(z)} \sqrt{g(y)g(w)} \sqrt{\frac{g(z)}{g(y)}} = p(A \wedge B \mid X) \sqrt{\frac{p(B \mid A \wedge X)}{p(B \mid X)}}, \\ g(f_{15}(y, w, z)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(z)} \sqrt{g(y)g(w)} \sqrt{\frac{g(w)}{g(x)}} = p(A \wedge B \mid X) \sqrt{\frac{p(A \mid B \wedge X)}{p(A \mid X)}}, \\ g(f_{16}(x, y, w, z)) &= \sqrt{g(x)g(z)} \sqrt{g(y)g(w)} = p(A \wedge B \mid X). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, as Van Horn [2] notes,  $f_8$  is clearly the simplest function (along with its equivalent  $f_9$ ) out of the set  $\{f_8, f_9, f_{12}, \dots, f_{16}\}$  of plausible options.

## 2 References

- [1] R.T. Cox (1946): “*Probability, frequency and reasonable expectation*”
- [2] K.S. Van Horn (2003): “*Constructing a logic of plausible inference: a guide to Cox’s Theorem*”
- [3] M. Tribus (1969): “*Rational descriptions, decisions and designs*”