

Inductive Logic and Confirmation  
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# Inductive Logic for Rich Languages

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# What this talk is about

Several items in statistics and inductive logic keep me busy:

- The analogical prediction rules pioneered by **Carnap, Jeffrey, Hintikka**, and many of his students and followers.
- The representation theorem by **de Finetti** linking prediction rules to **Bayesian** statistical inference.
- The idea of rich languages from **Gaifman and Snir** and the convergence theorems that follow from that.
- The notion of a random sequence developed by **von Mises**, and their use in a frequentist theory of chance.

I take this talk as a good occasion to connect these dots.

## **What will emerge?**

An enrichment of inductive logic that fits better with Bayesian statistics and its use of hypotheses.



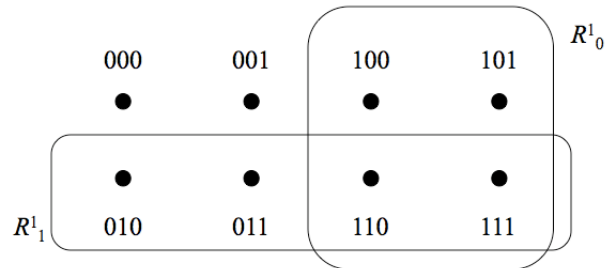
Such an inductive logic can naturally accommodate analogy considerations and universal hypotheses.

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# 1 Inductive logic

A Carnapian prediction rule is a probability distribution over an algebra of observation events  $\mathcal{R}$ . For  $t$  events the algebra is  $\{0, 1\}^t$ .



Results  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_i$  occurring after time  $t$  are denoted with the element  $R_t^{s_1 s_2 \cdots s_i}$ . If  $t$  is zero we omit it.

### **Conditioning on a given sequence**

A prediction rule defines a probability distribution  $P$  over the observation algebra. Let  $t_q$  be the number of occurrences of  $q$  in the sequence  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_t$ .

$$P(R_t^q | R^{s_1 \cdots s_t}) = \frac{t_q + \gamma_q \lambda}{t + \lambda}.$$

The prediction rule fully determines a probability over  $\mathcal{R}$ . We accommodate the sequence  $s_1 s_2 \cdots s_t$  by simple conditioning.

## **Universal and analogical predictions**

Several interesting classes of prediction rules were developed. Imagine the results are ternary,  $q \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  for apple, pear, and banana.

- Hintikka systems factor in that one of the fruits may never be observed.
- Analogical predictions bring out that, e.g., observing apples may favor pears over banana's.

We can encode these inductive effects directly into a prediction rule and hence into a probability assignment over  $\mathcal{R}$ .

## 2 De Finetti's representation theorem

Any Bayesian inference over Bernoulli hypotheses corresponds to a rule whose predictions are invariant under permutations in the order of observations:

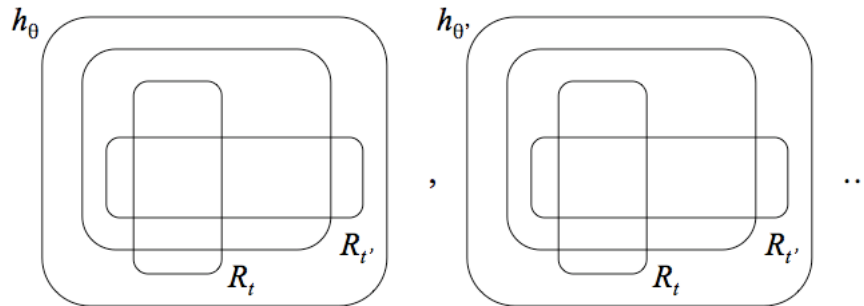
$$\text{Exchangeable } P(R_t^q | R^{s_1 \dots s_t}) \iff \begin{cases} \text{Prior } P(h_\theta) \\ \text{Likelihoods } P_\theta(R_t^q | R^{s_1 \dots s_t}) \\ \text{Bayesian updating with } P_\theta(\cdot) = P(\cdot | h_\theta). \end{cases}$$

De Finetti used this theorem to argue that we can dispose of the metaphysically suspicious story about hypotheses altogether.



## Bayesian statistical inference

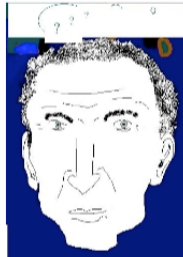
If we construct a probability model for Bayesian inference over statistical hypotheses, the latter indeed appear as supra-empirical.



The hypothesis  $h_\theta$  shows up as a distribution  $P_\theta$  over a tagged observation algebra,  $h_\theta \times \mathcal{R}$ .

### 3 Gaifman's rich language

Gaifman and Snir's [1982] paper is most well-known for the convergence theorems: Bayesian inference converges to truth values, priors wash out.



I will now focus on their use of rich languages: they show how to express statistical hypotheses in a space of possible observations.

## Hypotheses as elements in $\sigma(\mathcal{R})$

We construct an idealised sample space consisting of infinitely long samples:  $\{0, 1\}^\Omega$ .

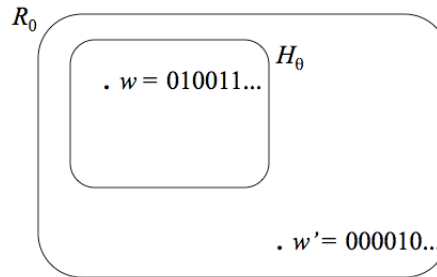
$$w = 010011011001010\dots$$

We can identify the hypothesis  $h_\theta$ , and its distribution  $P_\theta$ , with a particular set of sequences  $w$ , so-called tail events in  $\sigma(\mathcal{R}) \setminus \mathcal{R}$ :

$$H_\theta = \{w : \text{Relative frequency}(w) = \theta \text{ and } w \text{ otherwise random}\}.$$

## Hypotheses as sets of *Kollektivs*

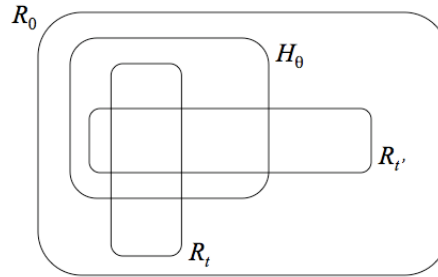
Note that the elements  $w = 00110111\dots$  of  $H_\theta$  are von Mises collectives that instantiate the probability distribution  $P_\theta$ .



This is frequentism in reverse: we presuppose a distribution and use frequentism to relate it to a model of empirical fact.

## Events as distributions

The distribution  $P_\theta$  of hypothesis  $h_\theta$  is thus associated with a particular set  $H_\theta$  that lie *inside* the sample space.



Each set  $H_\theta$  intersects with every observation  $R$  that is assigned some probability by  $P_\theta$ .

## 4 Frequentism as formal semantics

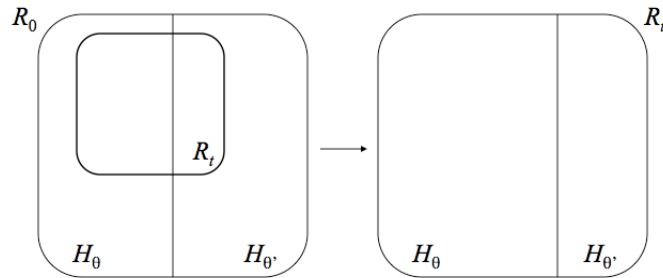
You can be both a Bayesian and a frequentist, much in line with Jeffrey's mixed Bayesianism.



The association of hypotheses and events offers many conceptual advantages.

## Unique extension and convergence

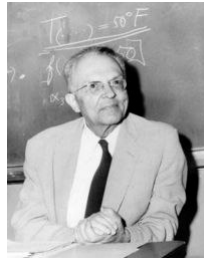
The assignment of probability to a distribution,  $P(H_\theta)$ , becomes automatic:  $P$  extends uniquely from  $\mathcal{R}$  to  $\sigma(\mathcal{R})$ .



The convergence theorems show up as a matter of course: if the observations are separating, they will zoom in on one of the sets  $H_\theta$ .

## Hypotheses fix inductive dependence

Recall that prediction rules fix inductive relations between observations by constraints on the probability over the observation algebra  $\mathcal{R}$ .



For any rule we can find hypotheses that provide an alternative route to fixing the constraints: they enrich the language of inductive logic.



## Why statisticians use hypotheses

In the sciences we hardly ever find statistical analyses that employ inductive relations among observations directly.



One explanation is that statistical hypotheses are a succinct, and perhaps more expressive way of fixing inductive relations among observations.

## 5 Analogical reasoning

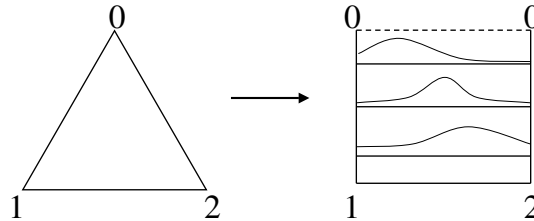
The efficiency of using hypotheses can be illustrated nicely in the context of exchangeable analogical predictions.



By the foregoing, we are looking for a prior over Bernoulli hypotheses that brings out the salient inductive relevances.

## Apples, bananas, pears

Basic idea: among hypotheses that give a high chance to apples, give higher prior probability to the ones that favor pears over bananas.



Observing a single apple will make apples more probable (PIR). But pears will lose less of their probability than bananas, and may even benefit!

## **Analogical and universal prediction rules**

Several classes of prediction rules can be understood in terms of particular classes of priors in this way.

- Hintikka systems: non-zero probability mass on the extremities of the space of statistical hypotheses.
- Skyrms' hyper-Carnapian inductive rules: mixtures of Dirichlet priors over the space of statistical hypotheses.
- Paris and Hill on analogical reasoning: Dirac-delta priors over the space of statistical hypotheses.

## 6 Conclusion

I have shown how De Finetti's representation theorem and Gaifman and Snir's idea of rich languages can help to align inductive logic and Bayesian statistics.

- This elucidates statistical inference by specifying an observational content for statistical hypotheses.
- The idea of frequentist chance is thereby wedded to the Bayesian idea that we assign probability to hypotheses.
- It provides insight into the convergence theorems for Bayesian inference.
- And it suggests why statistical hypotheses are being used in the first place: they make inductive logic more succinct and manageable.

# Thanks!

This talk will be available at <http://www.philos.rug.nl/~romeyn>. For comments and questions, email [j.w.romeijn@rug.nl](mailto:j.w.romeijn@rug.nl).