## ON PROBABLE CONDITIONALS

## ZVONIMIR ŠIKIĆ

University of Zagreb

## ABSTRACT

We compare supports $A \uparrow B$ (i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)>$ $\operatorname{pr}(B))$ with conditionals $A \rightarrow B$ and prove that the basic properties of supports are exactly the opposite to those of conditionals.

Keywords: probable conditionals

We are interested in probable conditionals which could be $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)$ "probability of, $B$ if $A$ " or $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$ "probability of $B$, if $A$ ".
Lewis famously proved that they are not the same; what he assumes about the conditionals is evident from his proof, (cf. Lewis pp. 297-230):
If $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)$ is the same as $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$ then

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B) \\
& \quad+\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B \mid-B) \operatorname{pr}(-B) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(B \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B)) \operatorname{pr}(B) \\
& \quad+\operatorname{pr}(-B \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B)) \operatorname{pr}(-B) \\
=1 & p r(B) \\
\quad & +\operatorname{pr}((-B \& A) \rightarrow B) \operatorname{pr}(-B) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(B) \\
\quad & +\operatorname{pr}(B \mid-B \& A) \operatorname{pr}(-B) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(B)+0 \operatorname{pr}(-B) \\
= & \operatorname{pr}(B)
\end{array}
$$

Hence, for every $A$ and every $B$ we have $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)=\operatorname{pr}(B)$ and this is a contradiction. The whole point is that $\operatorname{pr}(B \rightarrow-B)=\operatorname{pr}(-B)$ could be positive, whereas $\operatorname{pr}(-B \mid B)$ is necessarily zero.

For classical conditional $\rightarrow$ we prove the same (even more elementary):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B) & =\operatorname{pr}(-A \vee B) \\
& =\operatorname{pr}(-A \vee A B) \\
& =\operatorname{pr}(-A)+\operatorname{pr}(A B) \\
& =\operatorname{pr}(-A)+\operatorname{pr}(A) \operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \\
& =1-x+x c,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x=\operatorname{pr}(A)$ and $c=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$. Hence $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$, i.e. $1-x+x c=$ $c$, only if $\operatorname{pr}(A)=x=1$ or $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)=c=1$, i.e. if $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)=1$.
Yet more elementary than that, take $S=E \rightarrow T=$ If "it is even on the dice", then "it is trwo on the dice". Then $\operatorname{pr}(-(E \rightarrow T))=p r($ even $\&$ not two $)=1 / 3$, i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(E \rightarrow T)=2 / 3$, but $\operatorname{pr}(T \mid E)=1 / 3$.
As a matter of fact, it is easy to prove that (for classical conditional $\rightarrow$ ) $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B) \geq \operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$ for every $A$ and $B$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B) & =\operatorname{pr}(-(A(-B))) \\
& =1-\operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) \\
\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) & =\operatorname{pr}(B A) / \operatorname{pr}(A) \\
& =(\operatorname{pr}(A)-\operatorname{pr}(A(-B))) / \operatorname{pr}(A) \\
& =1-\operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) / \operatorname{pr}(A)
\end{aligned}
$$

But $\operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) \leq \operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) / \operatorname{pr}(A)$ (because $\operatorname{pr}(A) \leq 1$ ) and then $1-\operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) \geq 1-\operatorname{pr}(A(-B)) / \operatorname{pr}(A)$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B) \geq \operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$, which was to be proved.
It also fallows that $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)$ only if $\operatorname{pr}(A)=1$ or $\operatorname{pr}(A(-B))=0$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(-(A(-B)))=1$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(A \rightarrow B)=1$ (in accordance with what we have already proved).
Another kind of probable conditional is $A \uparrow B$, which means " $A$ makes $B$ more probable" ("A supports $B$ ") and which is defined as $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)>\operatorname{pr}(B)$. We could also define $A \downarrow B$, which means " $A$ makes $B$ less probable" (" $A$ subverts $B$ ") as $p r(B \mid A)<$ $\operatorname{pr}(B)$. The independence relation $A \perp B$, is defined as $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)=\operatorname{pr}(B)$.
For lot of people it is tempting to transfer the properties of conditionals to properties of supports. This is quite a common error.
People think: "if $A$ supports $B$ and $B$ supports $C$, then $A$ supports $C$ " (i.e. they think of "supports" as transitive). Confronted with a concrete counterexample: $A="$ baving white hair", $B=$ "being over 50 ", $C=$ "being completely bald", they change their minds.

People also think: "If $A$ supports $C$ and $B$ supports $C$, then their conjunction does so even more". Confronted with a concrete counterexample: A crime is committed by two men, one in a red jacket another in a black coat. $A=$ "first witness recognized the suspect as the man in the red jacket", $B=$ "second witness recognized the (same) suspect as the man in the black coat", $C=$ "the suspect is guilty", they change their minds. There are other concrete counterexamples in ch. 6. of Carnap's Logical Foundations of Probability.

It seems that people do not err in concrete contexts and do err in abstract contexts. There is a lot of psyhological research on this topic. Perhaps the most famous is the Wason selection task (cf. Wason). People have a hard time solving it in abstract contexts but can usually solve it correctly in concrete contexts, in particular when the concrete context is policing a social rule (cf. Cosmides, Tooby). This is the reason that an abstract analysis of supports $\uparrow$ (compared to conditionals $\rightarrow$ ) could be of some interest.

The basic properties of conditionals are:
(1) $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ is valid (transitivity)
(2) $A \rightarrow B \Rightarrow B \rightarrow A$ is not valid (converse fallacy)
(3) $A \rightarrow B \Rightarrow-B \rightarrow-A$
is valid (contraposition)
(4) $A \rightarrow B \Rightarrow-A \rightarrow-B$ is not valid (inverse fallacy)
(5) $C \rightarrow A, C \rightarrow B \Rightarrow C \rightarrow A \& B$
(6) $C \rightarrow A(C \rightarrow B) \Rightarrow C \rightarrow A \vee B$ is valid (conjunction introduction) is valid (disjunction introduction)
(7) $A \rightarrow C(B \rightarrow C) \Rightarrow A \& B \rightarrow C$
(8) $A \rightarrow C, B \rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \vee B \rightarrow C$

The corresponding properties of $A \uparrow B$, except (3), are exactly the opposite:
(i) Property (2) is valid for $\uparrow$ (the relation is symmetrical).
(ii) Property (4) is valid for $\uparrow$.
(iii) Property (1) is not valid for $\uparrow$ (the relation is not transitive).
(iv) Properties (5), (6), (7) and (8) are not valid for $\uparrow$.

It is easy to prove that:
(i) The symmetry of $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ follows from $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{pr}(A)$.

Namely, if $B \uparrow A$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B)>\operatorname{pr}(A)$ but it is not the case that $A \uparrow B$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \leq \operatorname{pr}(B)$ then $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B)>\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{pr}(A)$ and we have a contradiction with $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{pr}(A)$.

Similarly, if $B \downarrow A$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B)<\operatorname{pr}(A)$ but it is not the case that $A \downarrow B$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \geq \operatorname{pr}(B)$ then $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B)<\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{pr}(A)$ and we again have a contradiction with $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{pr}(B)=\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{pr}(A)$.
(ii) It is easy to prove that $A \uparrow B$ iff $A \downarrow-B$ and $A \downarrow B$ iff $A \uparrow-B$.

From $A \uparrow B$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)>\operatorname{pr}(B)$, it follows that $1-\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)<1-\operatorname{pr}(B)$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(-B \mid A)<\operatorname{pr}(-B)$ i.e. $A \downarrow-B$.

From $A \downarrow B$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)<\operatorname{pr}(B)$, it follows that $1-\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)>1-\operatorname{pr}(B)$ i.e. $\operatorname{pr}(-B \mid A)>\operatorname{pr}(-B)$ i. e. $A \uparrow-B$.

Now, using (i), it is easy to prove (4) for $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ :
$A \uparrow B$ iff $A \downarrow-B$ iff $-B \downarrow A$ iff $-B \uparrow-A$ iff $-A \uparrow-B$
$A \downarrow B$ iff $A \uparrow-B$ iff $-B \uparrow A$ iff $-B \downarrow-A$ iff $-A \downarrow-B$
(iii) Nontransitivity of $\uparrow$ follows from the following example:


From the above figure it follows that $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid A)=1$ and $\operatorname{pr}(B)=1 / 2$ i.e. $A \uparrow B$. Similarly, $\operatorname{pr}(C / B)=2 / 3$ and $\operatorname{pr}(C)=1 / 3$ i.e. $B \uparrow C$. But $\operatorname{pr}(C / A)=0$ and $\operatorname{pr}(C)=1 / 3$ i.e. $A \downarrow C$. Hence, $\uparrow$ is not transitive. (It is easy to construct similar examples which prove the nontransitivity of $\downarrow$ and L.)
(iv) That (5) - (8) are not valid for $\uparrow$ follows from the following example:


From the above figure it follows that $\operatorname{pr}(A \mid C)=3 / 5$ and $\operatorname{pr}(A)=1 / 2$ i.e. $C \uparrow A$. Similarly, $\operatorname{pr}(B \mid C)=3 / 5$ and $\operatorname{pr}(B)=1 / 2$ i.e. $C \uparrow B$. But $\operatorname{pr}(A \& B \mid C)=1 / 5$ and $\operatorname{pr}(A \& B)=3 / 10$ i.e. $C \downarrow(A \& B)$. This proves that (5) is not valid for $\uparrow$.

It also follows that $\operatorname{pr}(C \mid A)=3 / 5$ and $\operatorname{pr}(C)=1 / 2$ i.e. $A \uparrow C$. (Similarly, $\operatorname{pr}(C \mid B)=3 / 5$ and $\operatorname{pr}(C)=1 / 2$ i.e. $B \uparrow C$.) But $\operatorname{pr}(C \mid A \& B)=1 / 3$ and $\operatorname{pr}(A \& B)=1 / 2$ i.e. $(A \& B) \downarrow C$. This proves that (7) is not valid for $\uparrow$.
From nonvalidity of (5) for $\uparrow$, it follows that

$$
-C \uparrow-A,-C \uparrow-B \Rightarrow-C \uparrow(-A \&-B)
$$

is not valid. Then it follows from (ii) that $C \uparrow A, C \uparrow B \Rightarrow C \uparrow-(-A \&-B)$ is not valid. Hence, $C \uparrow A, C \uparrow B \Rightarrow C \uparrow(A \vee B)$ is not valid. This proves that (6) is not valid for $\uparrow$.
From the above proof concerning (7) for $\uparrow$, it follows that

$$
-C \uparrow-A,-C \uparrow-B \Rightarrow-C \uparrow(-A \vee-B)
$$

is not valid. Then it follows from (ii) that $C \uparrow A, C \uparrow B \Rightarrow C \uparrow-(-A \vee-B)$ is not valid. Hence, $C \uparrow A, C \uparrow B \Rightarrow C \uparrow(A \& B)$ is not valid. This proves that (8) is not valid for $\uparrow$.
(It is easy to construct similar examples which prove that (5) - (8) are not valid for $\downarrow$ and $\perp$.)

## REFERENCES

Carnap, R. 1950.Logical Foundations of Probability. University of Chicago Press.
Cosmides, L. and J. Tooby 1992. Cognitive Adaptions for Social Exchange. In The Adapted Mind: Evolutionary Psychology and the Generation of Culture, eds. J. Barkow, L. Cosmides and J. Tooby, pp. 163-228. Oxford University Press.
Lewis, D. 1976. Probabilities of conditionals and conditional probabilities. The Philosophical Review 85(3):297-315.
Wason, P. C. 1968. Reasoning about a rule. Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology 20(3): 273-281.

Received: November 20, 2015
Accepted: March 15, 2016

