

Statistics in meteorology without tears

Part II: The three kinds of probabilities

There are three types of probabilities: **the classical, the frequentist and the Bayesian**

1. **The classical applies to the probabilities when tossing of a die ($1/6$) or a coin ($1/2$).**
2. **The frequentist applies to analyses of historical observation sets (to derive e.g. climatologically based probabilities).**
3. **The Bayesian, subjective or degree of belief is used by e.g. to summarize or update one's preliminary assessment considering new available information.**

The classical definition of probability helps us play games and add probabilities.



Probability theory grew out of the interest in gambling



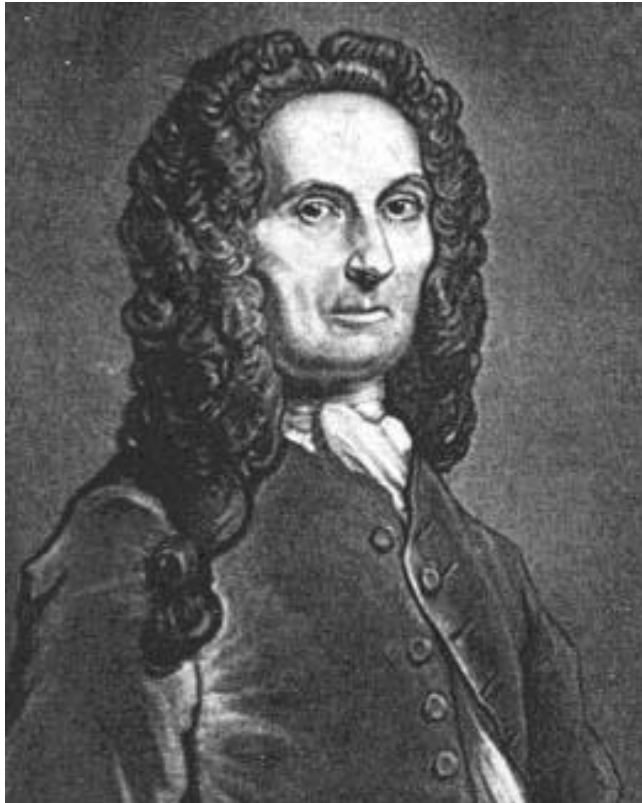
But people have gambled since the last ice age or even before that – so why did it take so long for probability theory to develop?

Why did this knowledge not “spill over” into science?

Because people did not have any perception of *randomness*
(*except perhaps Cicero and some other Romans*)



Everything was decided
by Him! Throwing a die
was also a way to find
out His opinion



Abraham De Moivre
1667-1754

From causes to effects
Deduction
Direct probabilities
Combinatorics

THE
DOCTRINE
OF
CHANCES:
OR,
A Method of Calculating the Probability
of Events in Play.



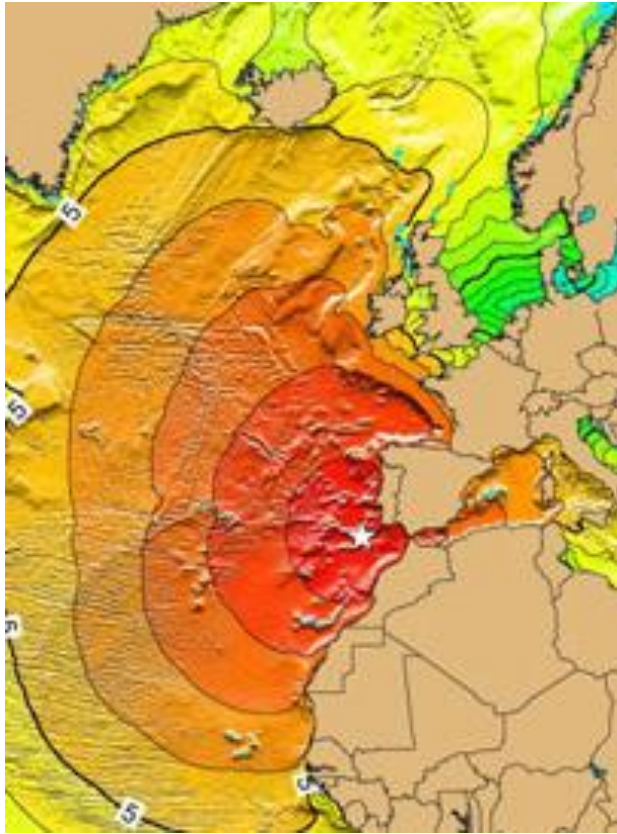
1718

By *A. De Moivre*. F. R. S.

L O N D O N:

Printed by *W. Pearson*, for the Author. MDCCLXVIII.

The Lisbon earthquake and tsunami 1755



made people start doubt the existence of an all mighty God that decided everything.

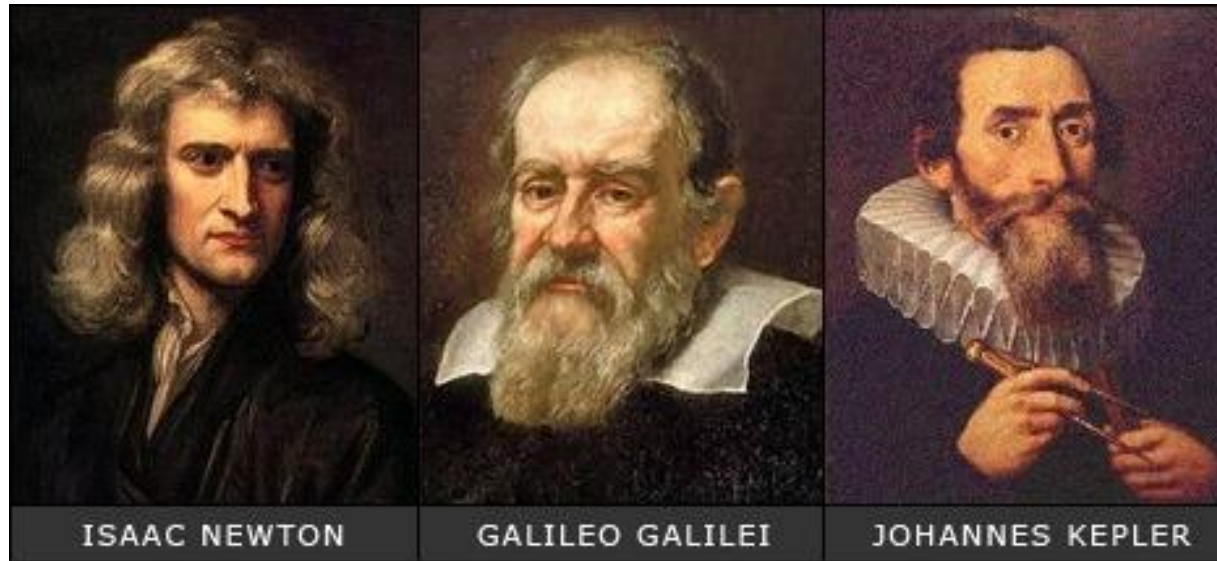
From 1750's ideas about randomness in science

The frequentist definition of probabilities involves statistical calibration, climatological risk estimations and verification of probability forecasts.

$$BS = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (p_i - o_i)^2$$

The Brier Score, use to verify probabilistic (weather) forecasts

Before the 1800's there was a poor understanding of randomness in measurement errors

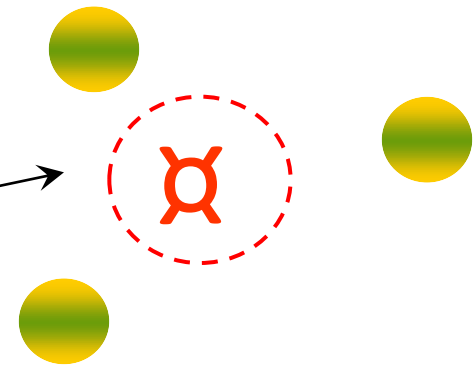


1. Scientists had the routine to select their “best” measurement
2. They didn't understand that measurement errors add up and randomly cancel out
- 3. They disliked averages of observations since these did not normally agree with measured values**

18th century view on observation errors

1. Astronomers in the 1600:s and 1700:s tried to find out which of their diverging observations was the “right” one
2. In the late 1700’ it was realized that that the observations should be combined **even if the result did not agree with any of the observations**

Where is Jupiter?



3. **The first mathematical discussion on statistical inference**

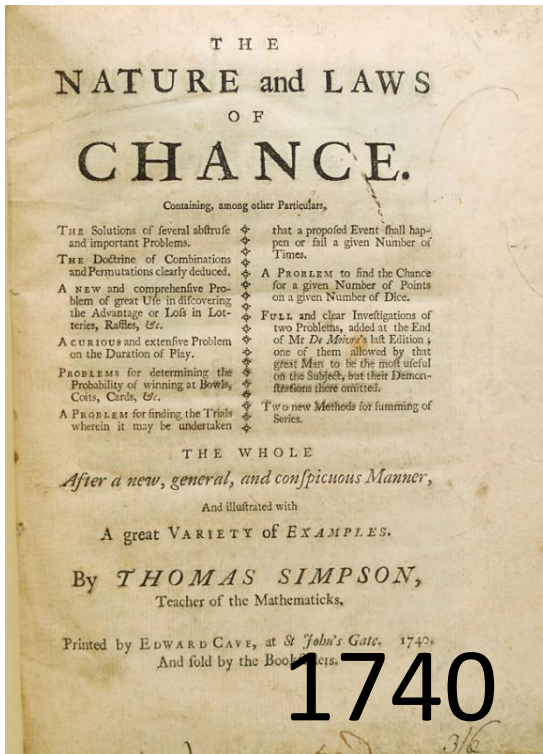


Thomas
Simpson
1710-61
Mathematician

XIX. *A Letter to the Right Honourable George Earl of Macclesfield, President of the Royal Society, on the Advantage of taking the Mean of a Number of Observations, in practical Astronomy: By T. Simpson, F. R. S.*

1755

My Lord,
Read April 10, 1755. **I**T is well known to your Lordship, that the method practised by astronomers, in order to diminish the errors arising from the imperfections of instruments, and of the organs of sense, by taking the Mean of several observations, has not been so generally received, but that some persons, of considerable note, have been of opinion, and even publickly maintained, that one single observation, taken



Only accepted 50-60 years later thanks to the works by Lagrange and Gauss

The subjective or Bayesian probabilities measure our degree of belief



Probability

Denmark-Sweden
football

After 78 minutes:

0 – 1

Will Denmark
win?

A Bayesian approach avoids over-confident probabilities such as Concorde before 2000 being the world's safest air plane



$$\frac{0}{100\ 000^h} < \frac{1}{1\ 000\ 000^h}$$

Concorde
Some other airline

accidents
accidents

...after the 2000 crash the most unsafe

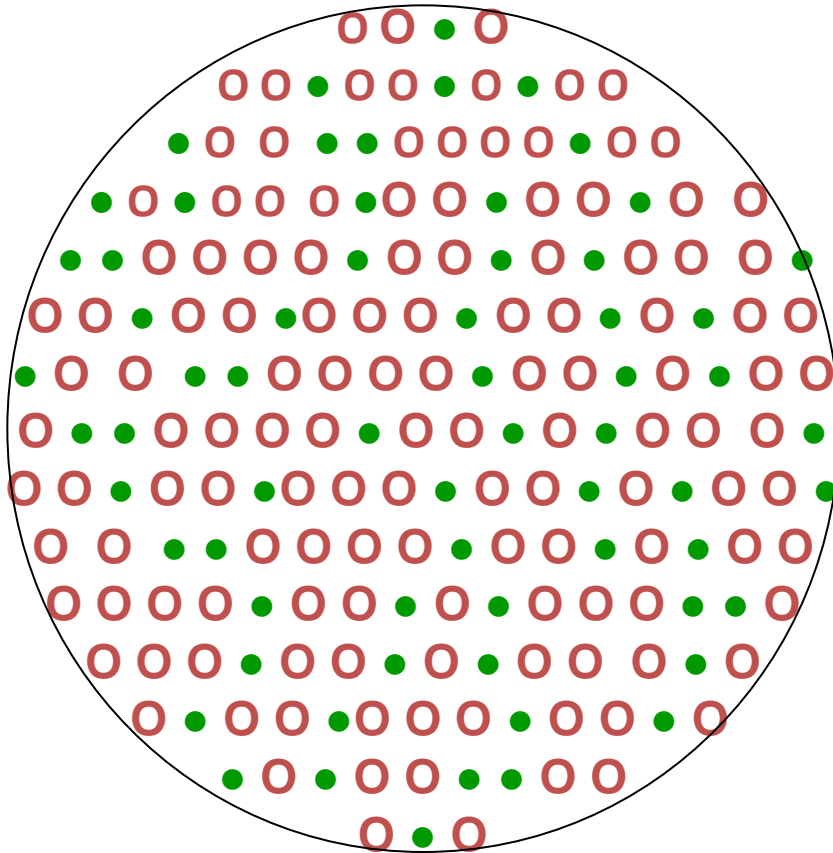


$$\frac{1}{100\ 000^h} > \frac{1}{1\ 000\ 000^h}$$

A Bayesian would **not**, before 2000, have regarded Concord as the world's safest airplane

Classical probabilities

rain 30% dry 70%



Ensemble of ∞ independent NWP

Selecting three balls yields

● ● ● 3% of cases

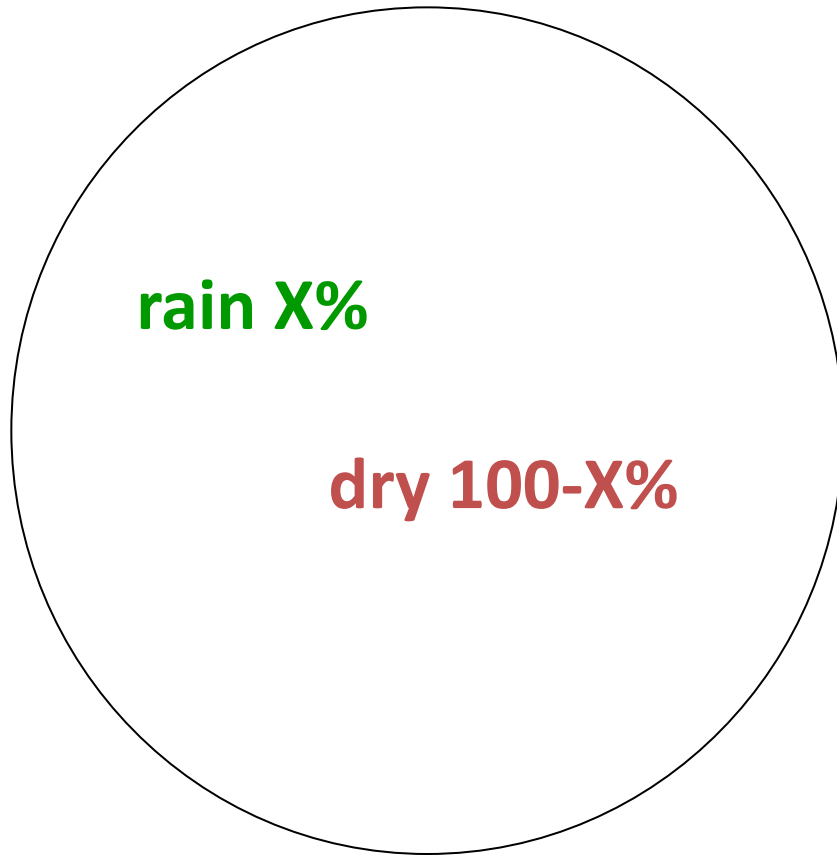
● ● ○ 19% - “ -

● ○ ○ 44% - “ -

○ ○ ○ 34% - “ -

... with a risk of 56% of misrepresentation

Inverse or Bayesian probabilities:



Ensemble of ∞ independent NWP

Selecting three balls
and getting



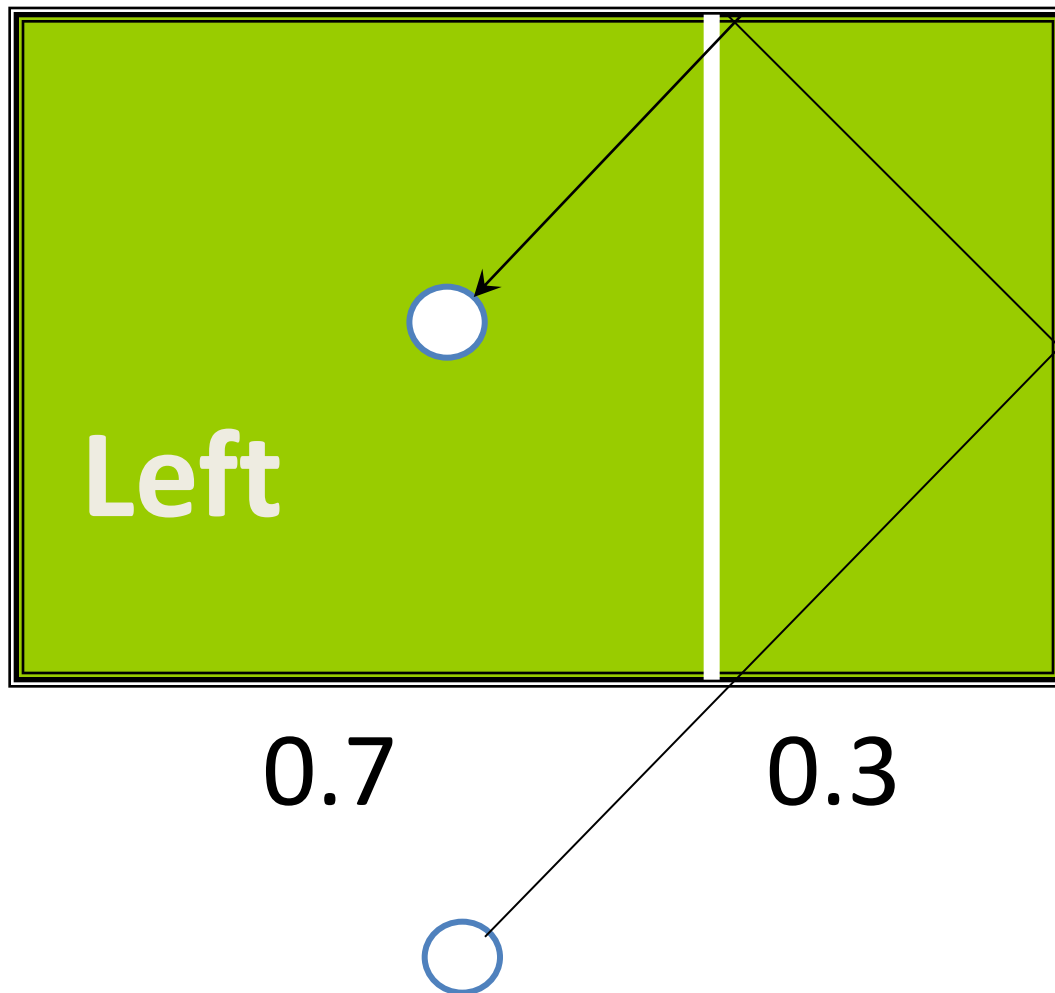
What does that tell
us about the
proportions

X and **100 - X**?

Bayes's billiard table experiment



Bayes's experiment as it would have been set up by (de Moivre) a classicist:



Throwing 3 balls

Prob(RRR)= 3%

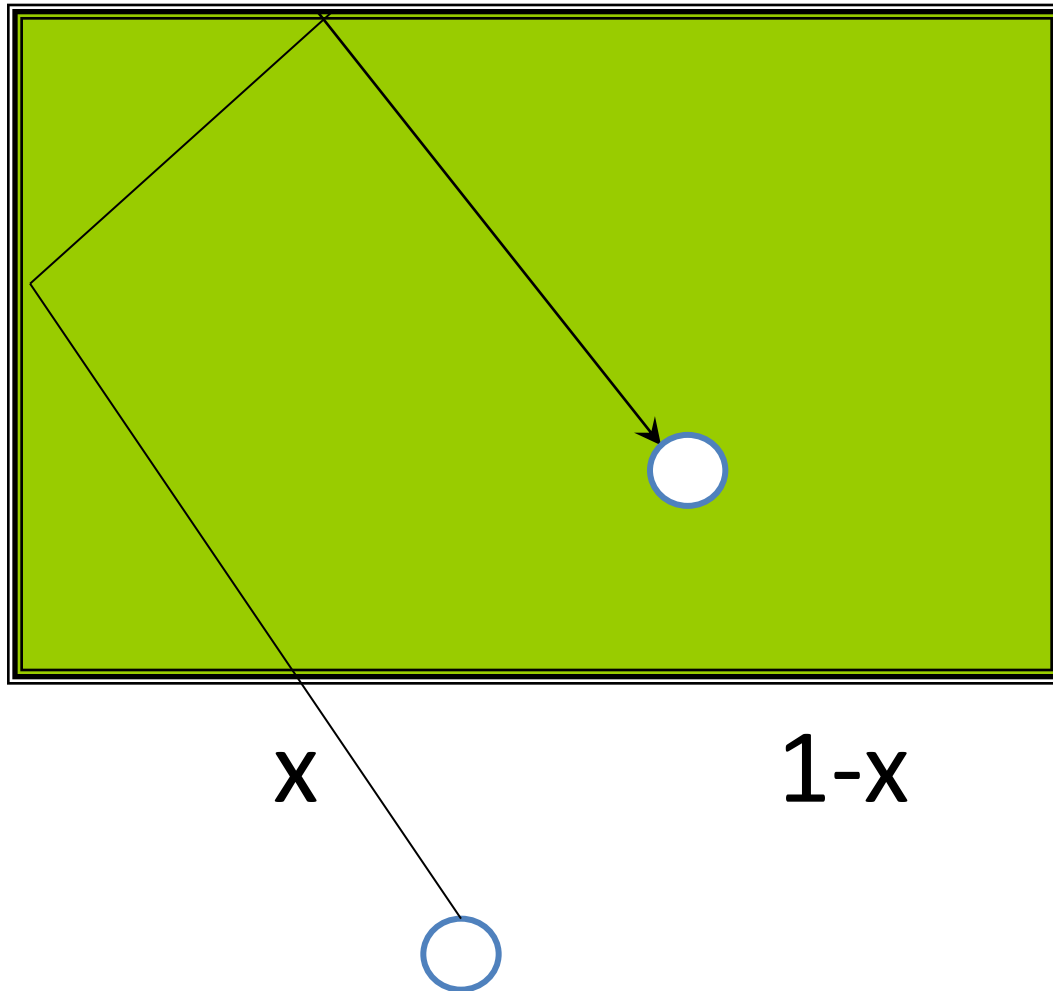
Prob(RRL,RLR,LRR)=19%

Prob(RLL,LRL,LLR)=44%

Prob(LLL)=34%

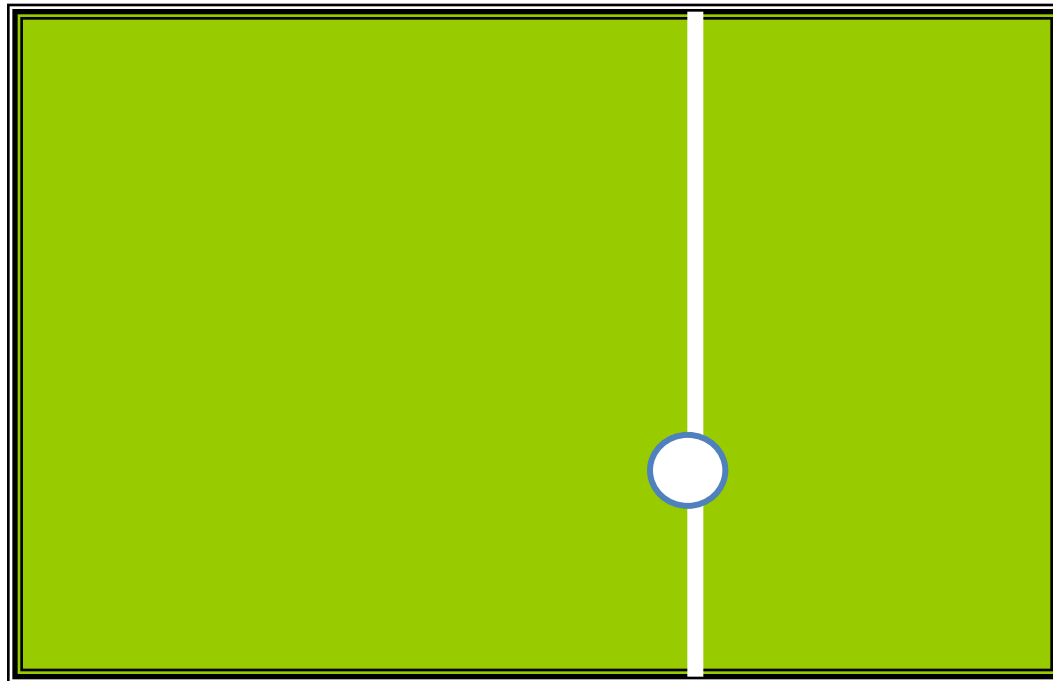
Thomas Bayes' experiment

(defining the white line)



Thomas Bayes' experiment

(defining the white line)



x

$1-x$

Thomas Bayes' experiment

The thrower (Thomas Bayes) doesn't know where the white line is, and is only told, afterwards, on which side of the white line the ball ends up

x



$1-x$



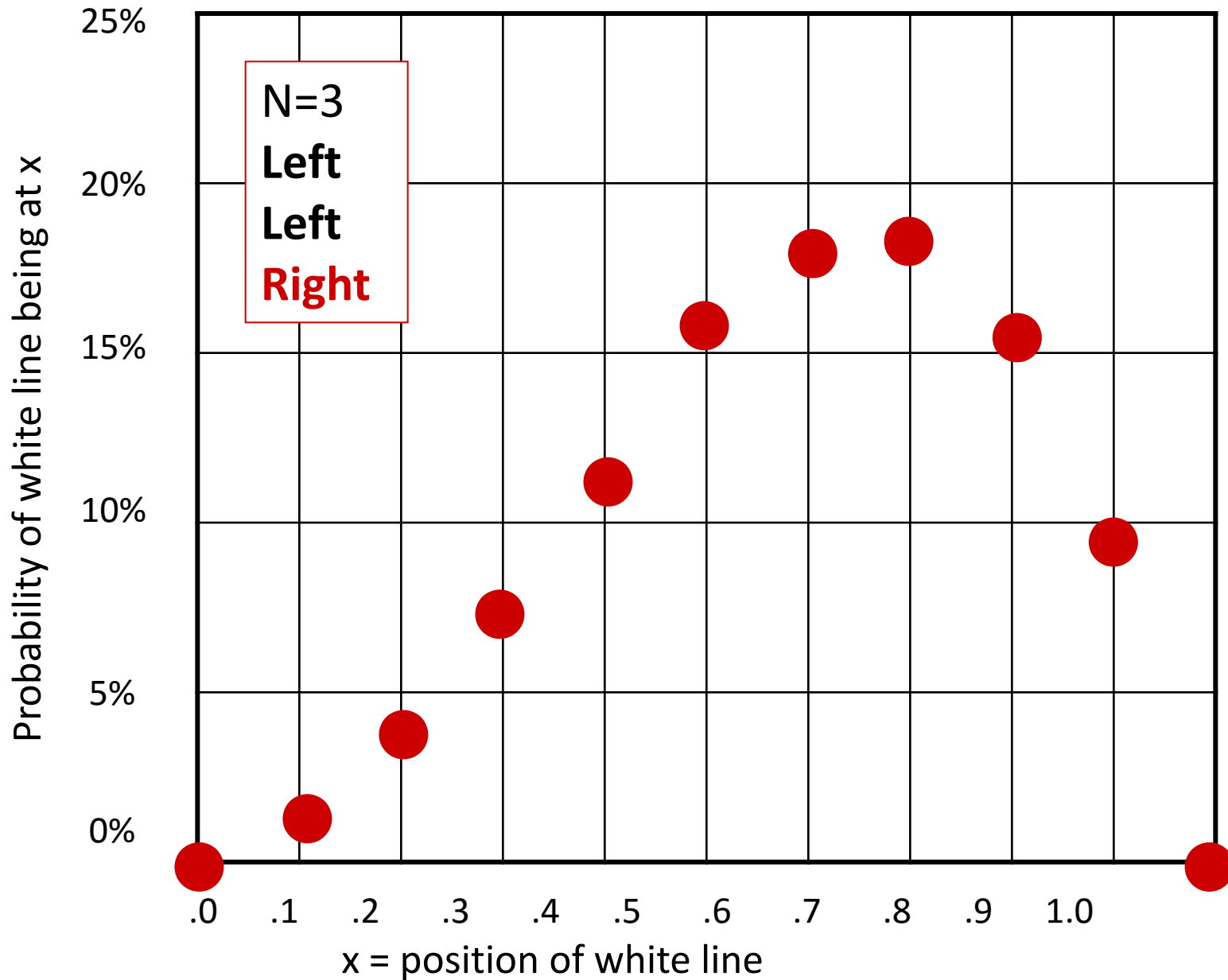
Left

Left

Right

This can be solved by using the non-controversial “Bayes Rule”

$$\text{prob}(\mathbf{A} | \mathbf{B}) = \frac{\text{prob}(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \text{prob}(\mathbf{B} | \mathbf{A})}{\text{prob}(\mathbf{B})}$$



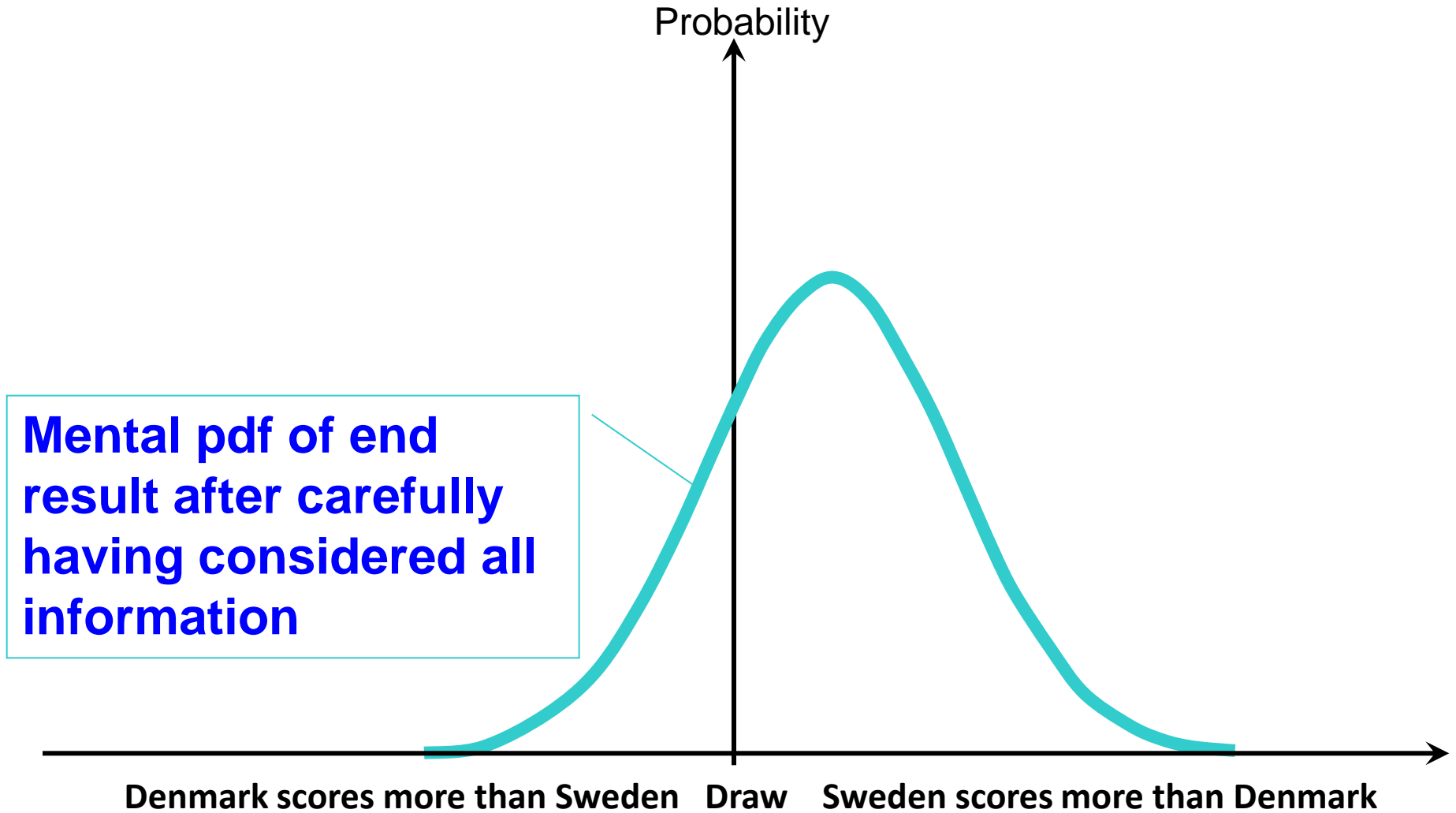
Updating of subjective probabilities

Denmark-Sweden football

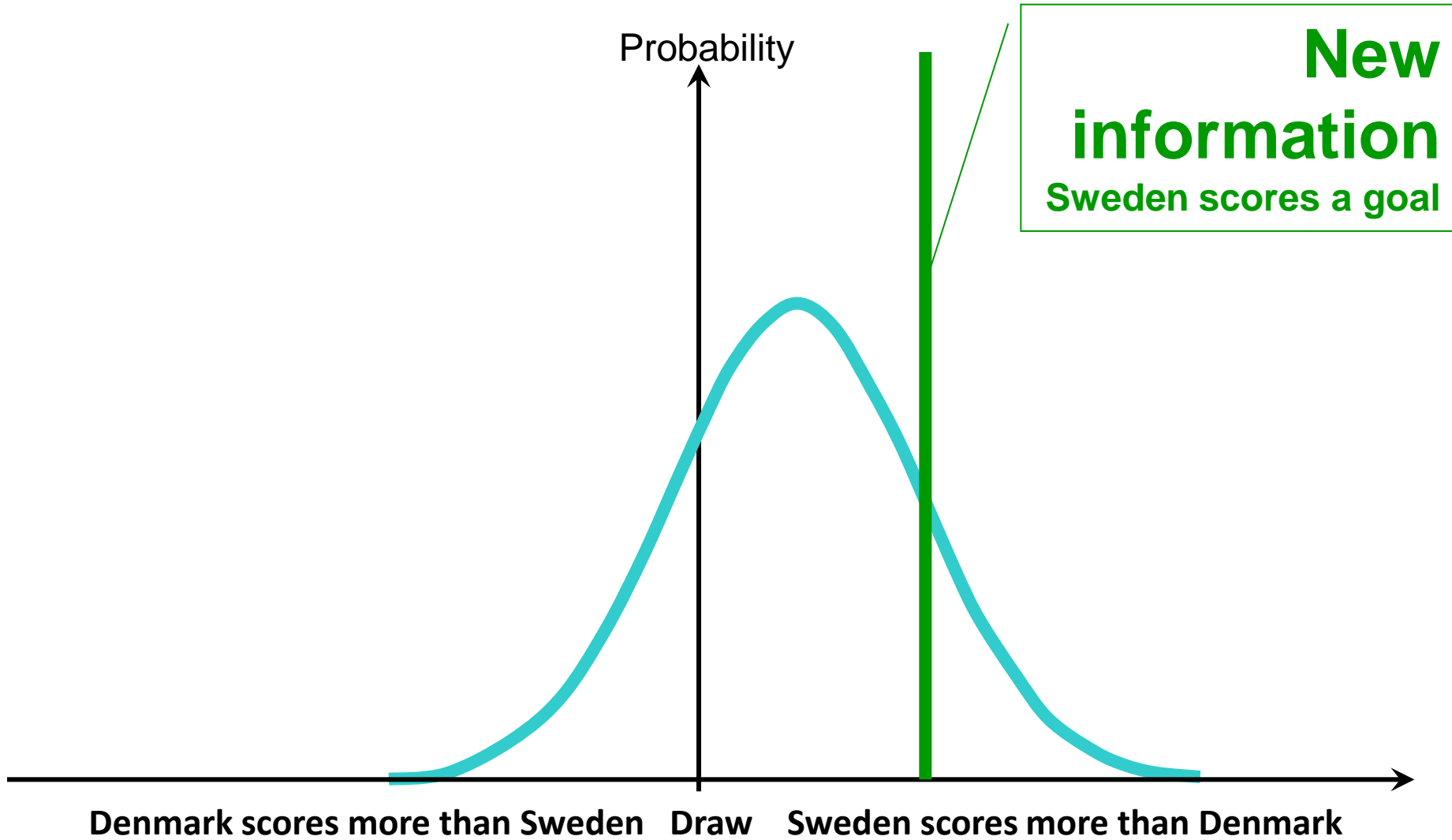
After 78 minutes: 0 - 1



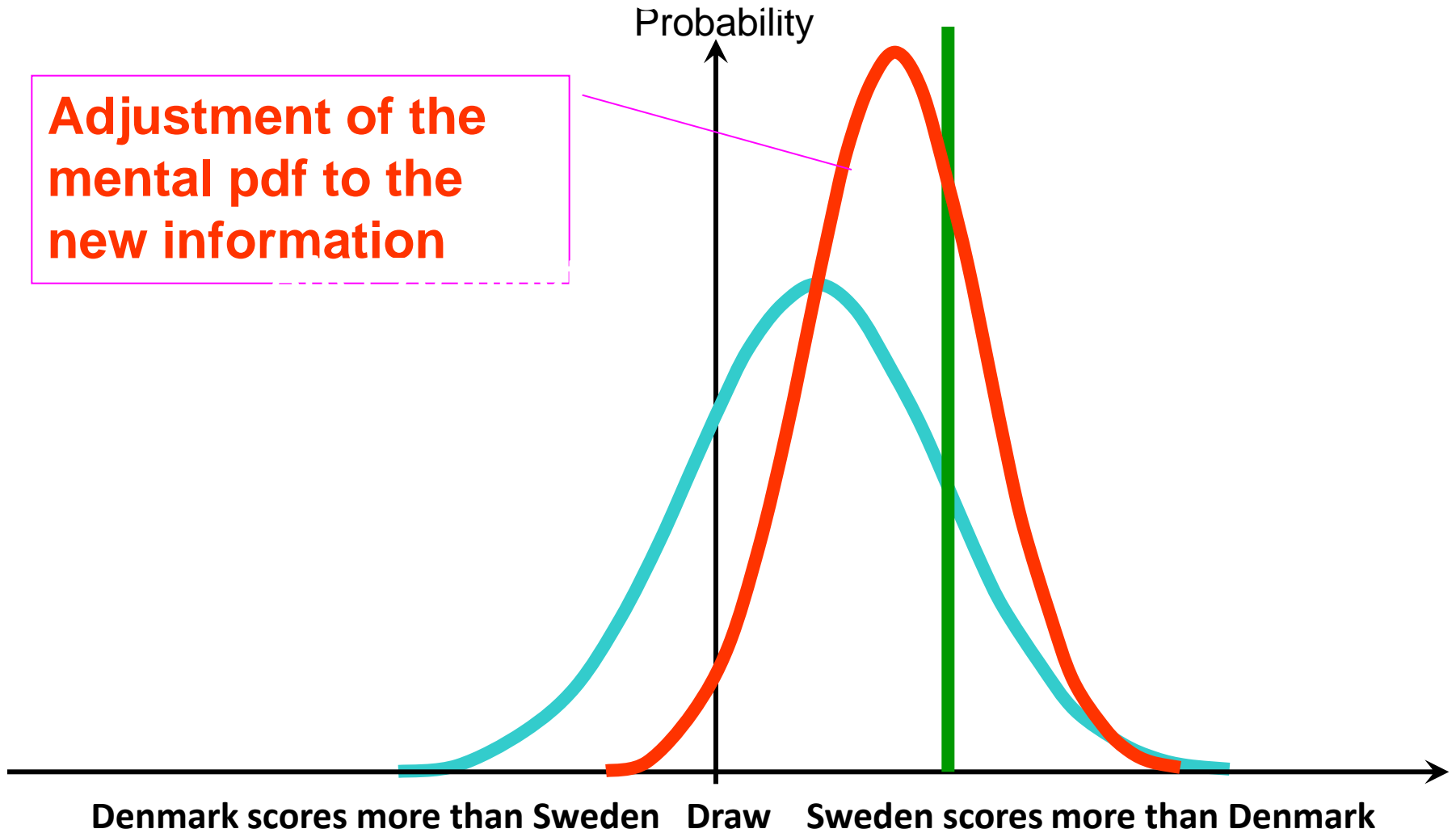
Updating of subjective probabilities



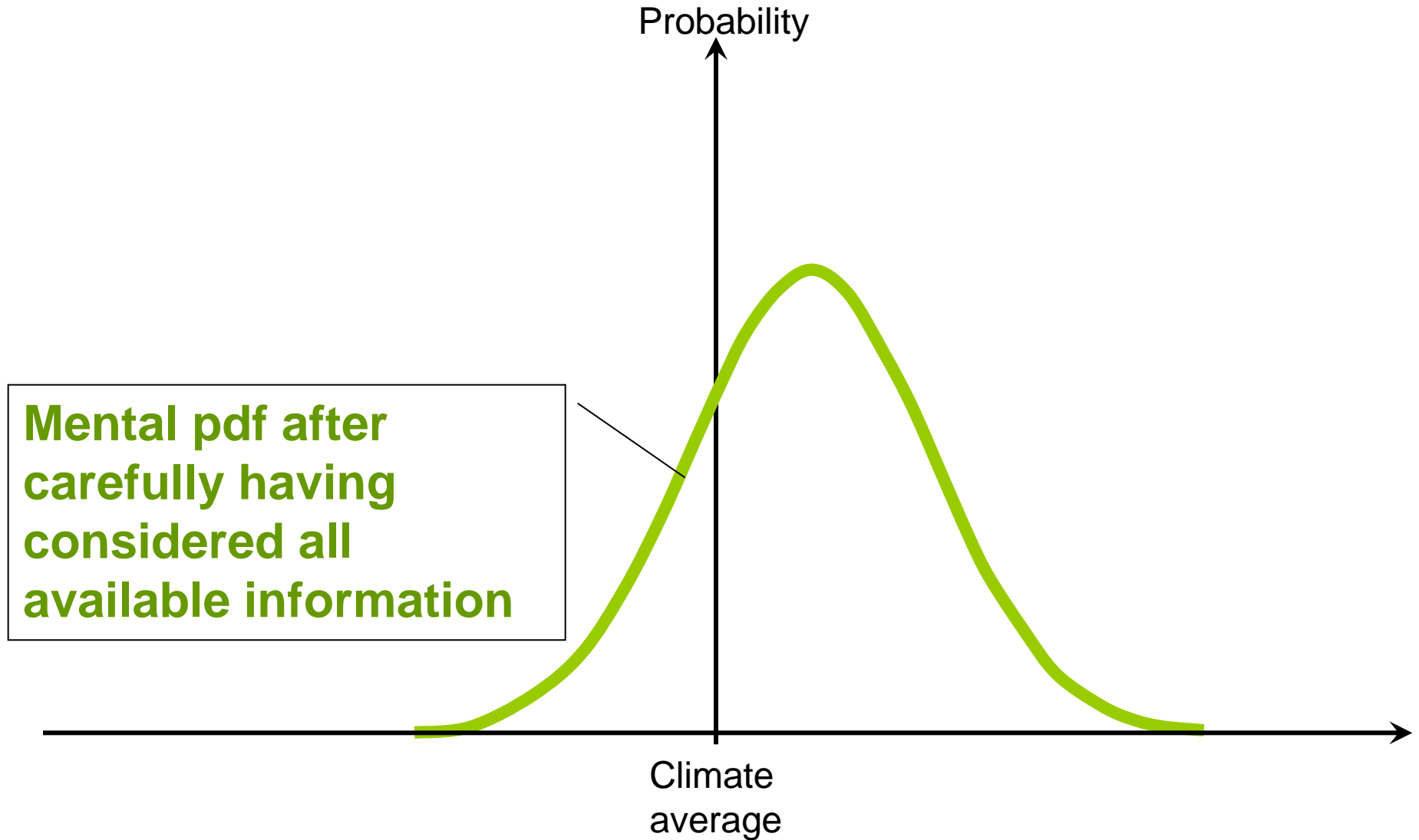
Updating of subjective probabilities



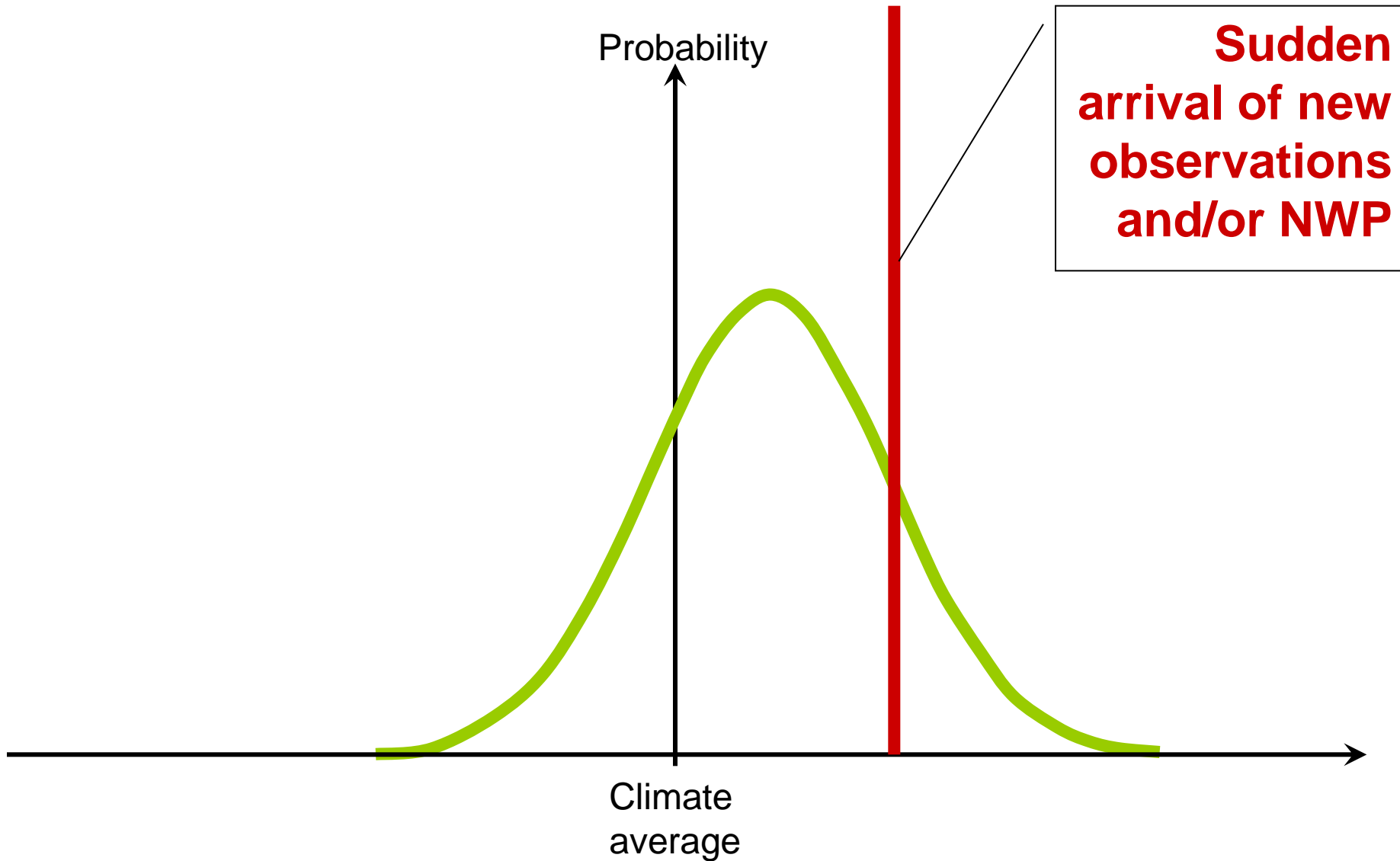
Updating of subjective probabilities



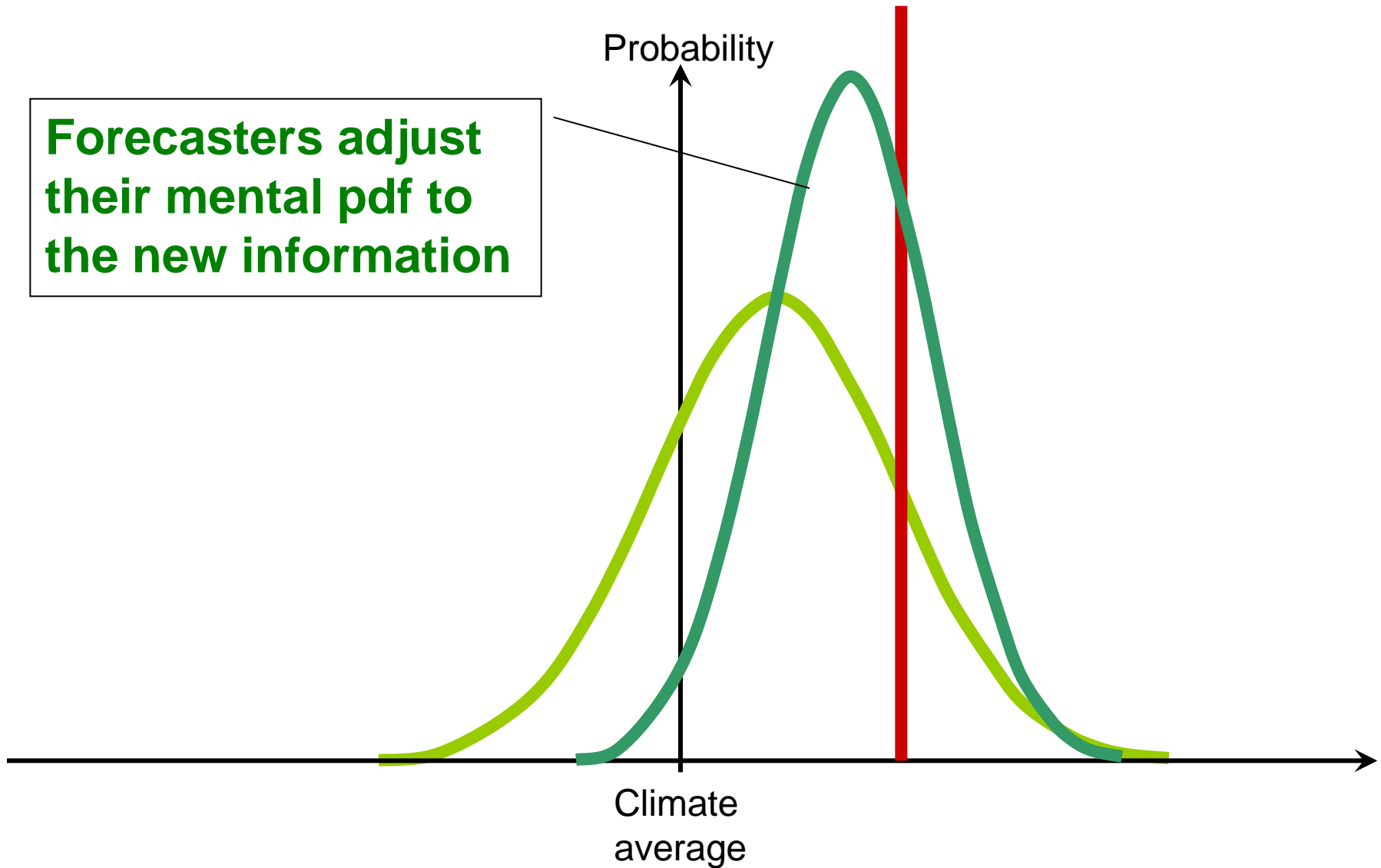
Intuitive Bayesianism among weather forecasters



Intuitive Bayesianism among weather forecasters



Intuitive Bayesianism among weather forecasters



END