



## Probability of Replication

Replication Summer School 2026 — Day 2 of 3

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## Probability Calculus

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Yesterday we asked what *replication* is. Today we ask: what is the *probability that a study replicates*?

This is Chapter 3 of the book [1]. To get there, we need some **probability calculus** as a tool.

Today's arc:

- **Part 1.** Probability calculus — an algebraic approach.
- **Part 2.** Applications to evidence — diagnostic testing, the base-rate fallacy, likelihood ratios, *etc.*
- **Part 3.** Miller's *probability of replication*: ARP, IRP,  $p_{\text{rep}}$ .

[Tomorrow: extension to Hierarchical Bayesian Models.]

Probability calculus is a *general theory* of probability over sentences of a logical language. It has just two ingredients:

- **Truth-functional logic** (boolean/truth-functional connectives, truth tables, possible worlds).
- **High-school algebra** (simple real arithmetic).

For  $n$  atomic sentences there are  $2^n$  (describable) *possible worlds*  $w_i$  (*viz.*, rows of a truth-table). We assign to each possible world a *basic probability*  $\Pr(w_i) = a_i$ .

$P$	$R$	$\Pr(w_i)$
$\top$	$\top$	$a_1$
$\top$	$\perp$	$a_2$
$\perp$	$\top$	$a_3$
$\perp$	$\perp$	$a_4$

☞  $a_i$  is the (rational) *degree of confidence* we assign to “ $w_i$  is the actual world.”

(C1) each  $a_i$  is on the unit interval,

(C2) the sum of the  $a_i$ 's equals 1.

The (unconditional) probability of *any* sentence  $p$  is the sum of the  $a_i$ 's over the worlds in which  $p$  is true:

$$\Pr(p) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{w_i \models p} \Pr(w_i)$$

$$\Pr(P) = a_1 + a_2. \quad \Pr(P \ \& \ R) = \Pr(P \ \mathbf{and} \ R) = a_1.$$

$$\Pr(P \vee R) = \Pr(P \ \mathbf{or} \ R) = a_1 + a_2 + a_3.$$

Any assignment of real numbers to the  $a_i$  which satisfies both (C1) and (C2) is called a *probability distribution*.

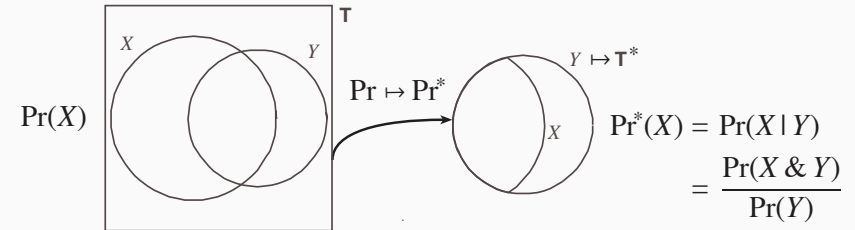
☞ *The algebraic approach to probability calculus*: translate Pr claims into algebraic claims involving the  $a_i$ 's. If the resulting claim is true *for all probability distributions*, then the original claim is a *theorem of probability calculus*.

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**Conditional probability** of  $X$  on the supposition that  $Y$ :

$$\Pr(X | Y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\Pr(X \ \& \ Y)}{\Pr(Y)}, \quad \mathbf{if} \ \Pr(Y) > 0.$$

Conditioning on  $Y$  is like *zooming in on the  $Y$ -worlds*, i.e., like *moving to a new  $\Pr^*$  which is such that  $\Pr^*(Y) = 1$* .



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With our definition of CP in hand, we can express all the theorems of probability calculus. Two we'll be using:

**Negation rule.**  $\Pr(\neg p) = 1 - \Pr(p)$ .

**Law of total probability.** If  $0 < \Pr(q) < 1$ :

$$\Pr(p) = \Pr(p | q) \cdot \Pr(q) + \Pr(p | \neg q) \cdot \Pr(\neg q).$$

Recall:  $E$  is an experiment,  $R$  is its result, and  $P$  is a phenomenon (or hypothesis). If  $\Pr(P), \Pr(R) > 0$ , then the ratio definition immediately yields the following.

**Bayes's Theorem:**

$$\Pr(P | R) = \frac{\Pr(R | P) \cdot \Pr(P)}{\Pr(R)}.$$

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Using the law of total probability for the denominator, we can write this in a more perspicuous and useful form:

$$\Pr(P | R) = \frac{\Pr(R | P) \cdot \Pr(P)}{\Pr(R | P) \cdot \Pr(P) + \Pr(R | \neg P) \cdot \Pr(\neg P)}.$$

Some Terminology:

- $\Pr(P)$  — *prior* (or *base rate*) of  $P$ .
- $\Pr(R | P)$  — *likelihood* of  $P$  on  $R$  (true positive rate).
- $\Pr(R | \neg P)$  — *likelihood* of  $\neg P$  on  $R$  (false positive rate).
- $\Pr(P | R)$  — *posterior* of  $P$  on  $R$ .

☞ Bayes's Theorem is foundational in the application of probability to the evaluation of evidence.

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## Applications: Evidence and Diagnostic Testing

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A classic application: **diagnostic testing**. Specifically, the so-called “Base-Rate Fallacy” (BRF) case:

$E$  = a mammogram test/experiment.

$R$  = a positive result from a mammogram test.

$P$  = the presence of breast cancer in the patient.

$\Pr(R | P) = 0.85$  (*sensitivity / true positive rate*).

$\Pr(R | \neg P) = 0.085$  (*false-positive rate*).

$\Pr(P) = 0.01$  (*prior / base rate*).

**Question.** A patient tests positive. What is  $\Pr(P | R)$ ? (Many people — including experts — would guess *a high number*.)

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We can use Bayes’s theorem to calculate the posterior:

$$\Pr(P | R) = \frac{0.85 \cdot 0.01}{0.85 \cdot 0.01 + 0.085 \cdot 0.99} = \frac{0.0085}{0.09265} \approx 0.092.$$

Even with a positive mammogram, the patient is *still much more likely to be cancer-free* ( $\approx 91\%$  vs.  $9\%$ ).

The fact that people *underestimate*  $\Pr(P | R)$  is called the **base-rate fallacy** (Kahneman & Tversky [5], Eddy [2]). People tend to neglect priors when the evidence is *highly relevant*.

Gigerenzer & Hoffrage [4] showed that performance on this task improves if the same problem is presented in *natural frequencies* rather than probabilities.

 Interestingly, these results are some of the most well replicated in modern cognitive psychology.

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*Algebraic Solution:* solving three equations w/three unknowns determines a *unique* Pr-distribution.


$$\Pr(P) = a_1 + a_2 = 0.01, \quad \Pr(R | P) = \frac{a_1}{a_1 + a_2} = 0.85$$

$$\therefore a_1 = 0.0085, \quad a_2 = 0.0015.$$

$$\Pr(R | \neg P) = \frac{a_3}{a_3 + a_4} = 0.085, \quad a_3 + a_4 = 0.99$$

$$\therefore a_3 = 0.08415, \quad a_4 = 0.90585.$$

$P$	$R$	$a_i$
$\top$	$\top$	$a_1 = 0.0085$
$\top$	$\perp$	$a_2 = 0.0015$
$\perp$	$\top$	$a_3 = 0.08415$
$\perp$	$\perp$	$a_4 = 0.90585$

  $\Pr(P | R) = \frac{\Pr(P \& R)}{\Pr(R)} = \frac{a_1}{a_1 + a_3} = \frac{0.0085}{0.09265} \approx 0.092.$

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Two Bayesian ways to model “how strongly  $R$  supports  $P$ ”:

**Posterior.**  $\Pr(P | R)$ . “How *probable* is  $P$ , given  $R$ ?”

**Likelihood ratio.** “How *relevant* is  $R$  to  $P$ ?”

$$LR(P, R) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\Pr(R | P)}{\Pr(R | \neg P)}$$

“How much more probable is  $R$  if  $P$  than if  $\neg P$ ?”

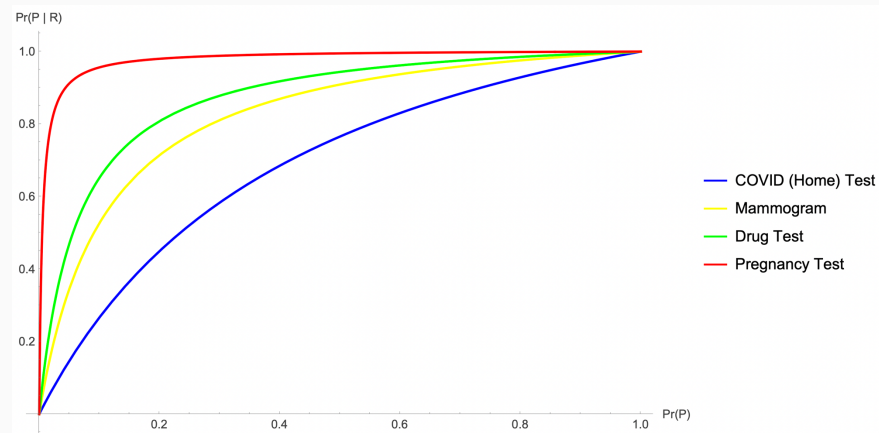
Bayes’s theorem, written in *odds form*:

$$\frac{\Pr(P | R)}{\Pr(\neg P | R)} = LR(P, R) \cdot \frac{\Pr(P)}{\Pr(\neg P)}$$

*Posterior odds* = *likelihood ratio*  $\times$  *prior odds*.

☞ In our mammogram case,  $LR(P, R) = 10$ , which is pretty high. Generally,  $LR(P, R) \geq 8$  is thought to indicate that  $R$  constitutes *strong evidence in favor of  $P$*  [8].

	COVID	Mammogram	Drug Test	Pregnancy Test
TPR: $\Pr(R   P)$	0.98	0.85	0.93	0.985
FPR: $\Pr(R   \neg P)$	0.3	0.085	0.055	0.005
Relevance: $LR(P, R)$	3.27	10	16.9	197



## Miller’s Probability of Replication

### Miller [6]: “What is the probability of replicating a statistically significant effect?”

Two different probabilities to distinguish:

- **Aggregate Replication Probability (ARP).** Across a research field, the probability that *a randomly chosen significant result* will replicate.
- **Individual Replication Probability (IRP).** For a *specific* observed study, the probability that *this study* will replicate.

☞ ARP is about *a field*; IRP is about *a particular study*. Both are formally defined; but, they often disagree. For simplicity, I will only discuss a *very naïve* model of ARP.

**Setup.** Think of  $E$  as a generic study in a field; and, let:

$P$ : the (hypothesized) phenomenon is real

$R$ :  $E$  produces a significant result

$R'$ : the result of a replication  $E'$  of  $E$  is significant with the same sign

Three parameters:

$\pi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr(P)$  — proportion of real phenomena in the field.

$\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr(R | \neg P)$  — Type I error (false positive) rate.

$1 - \beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr(R | P)$  — power (1 - Type II error).

👉 Miller gives a Bayesian **Aggregate Replication Probability**:

$p_{\text{ARP}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr(R' | R)$  — given that  $E$  produces a significant result, what is the probability that  $E'$  will too?

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### Why ARP can be low: a (naïve) Bayesian explanation.

Among studies returning a significant result  $R$ , some are *true positives* ( $P$ ) and some are *false positives* ( $\neg P$ ).

By Bayes's theorem (in our diagnostic-testing form)

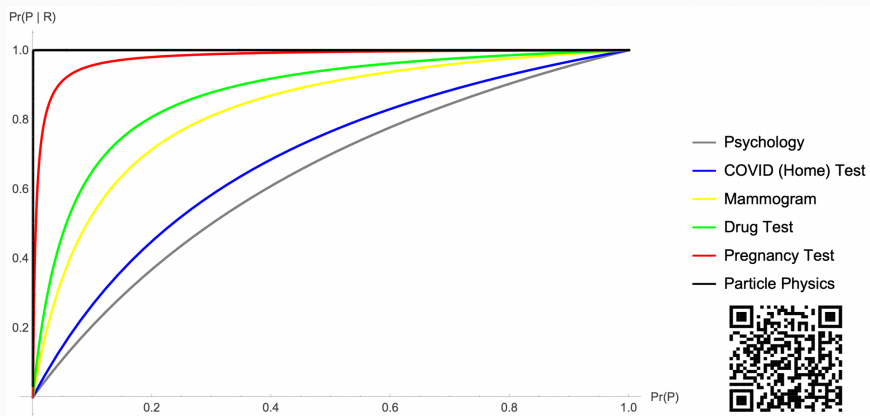
$$\Pr(P | R) = \frac{\pi(1 - \beta)}{\pi(1 - \beta) + (1 - \pi)\alpha}$$

Suppose  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $1 - \beta = 0.80$ , and  $\pi = 0.10$ . Then, we will have  $\Pr(P | R) \approx 0.64$ . About a third of the time,  $R$  will constitute *misleading evidence* in favor of  $P$ .

👉 Miller's ARP is just the BRF / diagnostic-testing problem applied to *scientific findings* — where  $\pi$  is the base rate of real phenomena in the field,  $\alpha$  is the false-positive rate, and  $1 - \beta$  is the sensitivity / true positive rate.

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	Psychology	COVID	Mammogram	Drug Test	Pregnancy Test	Particle Physics
TPR: $\Pr(R   P)$	0.35	0.98	0.85	0.93	0.985	0.5
FPR: $\Pr(R   \sim P)$	0.15	0.3	0.085	0.055	0.005	0.0000003
Relevance: LR(P, R)	2.33	3.27	10	16.9	197	$1.67 \times 10^6$



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## References

- [1] <http://filippogambarota.github.io/replicability-book/>
- [2] D. Eddy, *Probabilistic reasoning in clinical medicine*, 1982.
- [3] A. Gelman and J. Carlin, *Beyond power calculations: assessing type S and type M errors*, 2014.
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- [6] J. Miller, *What is the probability of replicating a statistically significant effect?*, 2009.
- [7] S. Pawel and L. Held, *Probabilistic forecasting of replication studies*, 2020.
- [8] R. Royall, *Statistical Evidence: A Likelihood Paradigm*, Chapman & Hall, 1997.

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