Probability and statistics ESWC summer school 2016

Jan Rupnik

Jožef Stefan Institute

Outline

- Basics of probability
 - Definition
 - Laws
 - Random variables
- Statistical inference
 - Estimation
 - Hypothesis testing

Basics of probability

- Definition
- Laws
- Random variables
 - Distributions
 - Discrete variables
 - Continuous variables
 - Expected value, variance
 - Joint distributions
 - Independence
 - Combinations
 - Sampling

Probability: defintion

- The **probability** of an event refers to the likelihood that the event will occur
- If an experiment has n outcomes that are **equally likely** and a subset of r outcomes are classified as successful, then the probability of a successful outcome is $\frac{r}{n}$
- Example: urn with 3 red and 2 white balls, $Pr(\text{pick red}) = \frac{3}{5}$

Probability: definition

- The **relative frequency** of an event is the number of times an event occurs, divided by the total number of trials. Probability can be seen as a long-term relative frequencies (number of trials goes to infinity)
- Example: coin toss with two events: H, T. $Pr(H) = \frac{\#H \text{ in } n \text{ experiments}}{\#H \text{ in } n \text{ experiments}}$

Bayesian interpretations (belief)

Probability: notation

- $Pr(A \cap B)$ probability of A and B both occurring (intersection)
- Pr(A') probability of A NOT occurring (complement)
- Pr(A|B) probability of A occurring given that B occurred (conditional)
- $Pr(A \cup B)$ probability of A or B occurring (union)
- $Pr(A \cap B) = 0$ events are mutually exclusive (**disjoint**)

Probability: notation

- Example 6 sided dice, events: E_1 , E_2 , E_3 , E_4 , E_5 , E_6 :
 - $Pr(E_3 \cap E_1) = 0$
 - $Pr(E_3 | E_{>2}) = \frac{1}{4}$
 - $Pr(E_3 \cup E_1) = 1/3$
 - $Pr(E_4') = 5/6$

Probability: laws

- $Pr(A) \in [0,1]$
- Pr(A) = 1 Pr(A')
- $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A)Pr(B|A)$
 - If $Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A)Pr(B)$ we say that events are **independent**
 - If Pr(A ∩ B |C) = Pr(A|C)Pr(B|C) we say that events are conditionally independent

Probability: laws

- $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) Pr(A \cap B)$
- $Pr(\bigcup_i A_i) \leq \sum_i Pr(A_i)$, where A_1, A_2 ... is a countable set (**Boole's** inequality)
- If $B_1, B_2, ...$ are mutually disjoint, whose union is the entire space, then: $Pr(A) = \sum_n Pr(A \cap B_n)$ (total probability)

Probability: random variables

- Maps from events to real numbers
- Example:
 - events represent tossing a fair coin n times (2ⁿ mutually exclusive equally probable events)
 - X(e) = #heads obtained in the event e
 - X(e) = 100 if all *n* flips of *e* result in heads and 0 instead
- When the value of a variable is determined by a chance event, that variable is called a **random variable**

Probability: random variables

- **Discrete** random variables map to a countable set
 - total of roll of two dices: 2,3, ..., 12
 - customer count: 0,1,2, ...
- Continuous random variables map to an uncountable set of numbers
 - Task completion time (nonnegative)
 - Price of a stock (nonnegative)
 - Stock price move

Probability: distributions

- Probability distribution specifies the probability for a random variable to assume a particular value
 - *X*: $event \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ random variable
 - Pr: $event \rightarrow [0,1]$ probability
- For discrete variables $P(x) \equiv Pr(X = x)$ is called probability mass function (**pmf**)
- For continuous variables $f_X(x)$ is called probability density function (**pdf**) such that $Pr(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$
- Cumulative density function (**cdf**) is defined as:

$$F_X(b) = \Pr(X \le b) = \int_{\infty}^{b} f_X(x) dx$$

Probability: discrete distributions

- Example:
 - Bernoulli: X(H) = 1, X(T) = 0. P(X = 1) = p, P(X = 0) = 1-p
 - Multinomial (example: unfair dice)
 - events represent tossing a fair coin n times (2ⁿ mutually exclusive equally probable events)
 - *X*(*e*) = #heads obtained in the event *e*

•
$$P(X = k) = \frac{\binom{n}{k}}{2^n}$$

• X(e) = 100 if all *n* flips of *e* result in heads and 0 instead

•
$$P(X = k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^n}; \text{ if } k = 100\\ 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}; \text{ if } k = 0\\ 0; \text{ else} \end{cases}$$

Probability: continuous distributions

• *U*[*a*, *b*]

• $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$





Lognormal

- If X ~ N(μ, σ) then
 Y = In(X) has a lognormal distribution
- Notation: $lnN(\mu, \sigma)$



Probability: expected value, variance

- Is there a "typical" value (location)? How spread is the distribution is the distribution spikey or flat (spread)? The answers summarize the shape of the distribution.
- Sometimes the distributions are completely defined by a few parameters (summaries)
- Expected value E(X) and variance Var(X) are two very important location and spread measures of distributions
- Standard deviation: $Std(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$

Probability: expected value, variance

- Discrete distribution
 - $E(X) = \sum_i x_i \cdot P(x_i)$
 - $Var(X) = \sum_{i} (x_i E(X))^2 \cdot P(x_i)$

Probability: expected value, variance

- Continuous distribution
 - $E(X) = \int x \cdot f_X(x) dx$
 - $Var(X) = \int (x E(X))^2 \cdot f_X(x) dx$
- Examples
- $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$
 - $E(X) = \mu$
 - $Var(X) = \sigma^2$
- $X \sim lnN(\mu, \sigma)$
 - $E(X) = e^{\mu + \frac{\sigma^2}{2}}$
 - $Var(X) = e^{2\mu + \sigma^2} (e^{\sigma^2} 1)$

Probability: quantiles

- The median of a random variable X is a value m, so that $\Pr(X \ge m) = 0.5$
- The k-th q-quantile is defined similarly as a number x so that $Pr(X < x) \le \frac{k}{q}$
- Quartiles (k=4)



Probability: independence

• If X and Y are random variables we can define a **multivariate random** variable (X, Y) that maps an event *e* to (X(e), Y(e))



• If the random variables are independent, then: P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y)in the discrete case and $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$

Probability: sampling

- How to sample from the uniform distribution?
 - Physical methods
 - Pseudo-random generators
- How to sample from a distribution whose cdf F we know?
- Answer: Inverse transform sampling
 - 1. Generate a random u from Uniform[0,1].
 - 2. Return the value x such that F(x) = u.
- IID (independent identically distributed) samples



Statistical inference

- Probabilities describe populations
- Statistics: generating conclusions about a population from a noisy sample
 - Elections
 - Weather
- Estimation
 - point
 - interval
- Hypothesis testing

Point estimates: mean

- Distributions and parameters vs samples and estimates
- Unknown variable X with a defined mean μ
- We get a **iid** sample of n values $S_n = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$
- Goal: estimate μ based on the sample
- Estimators map samples (sets) to estimates (numbers) of the parameters
- Sample mean estimate: $\mu_* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i$
- How close are μ_* and μ ?
- Note: μ_* is random since it is a function (average) of random quantities

Point estimates: variance

- Distributions and parameters vs samples and estimates
- Unknown variable X
- We get a **iid** sample of n values $S_n = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$
- Estimate Var(X)
 - Sample variance estimator: $\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i}(X_i \mu_*)^2$

Point estimates: bias

- Distributions and parameters vs samples and estimates
- Unknown variable X
- We get a **iid** sample of n values $S_n = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$
- We estimate a parameter (for example μ)
- If we repeatedly did this over many random sample sets S_n and get a set of estimates, would their average be close to the real μ?
- If the answer is **YES** then the estimator is said to be **unbiased**

Point estimates: median

- Distributions and parameters vs samples and estimates
- Unknown variable X
- We get a **iid** sample of n values $S_n = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$
- Estimate median(X)
 - If the pdf of X is normal, then sample median estimator: $median_* = median(S_n)$
 - If the pdf is not symmetric then the sample median estimator may be **biased**
 - Bias: does the average of estimate over many sample sets equal the true parameter

Interval estimate: confidence intervals

- Point estimators take sample sets and return numbers (estimates of the parameters)
- The estimates are random how far are they from the true parameter?
- Interval estimators take sample sets and return intervals
- Confidence interval estimator at level α (example 0.90) will contain the true parameter α fraction cases (90%) if we repeated the experiment many times.
- Each time we will get a **different** parameter estimate and a **different interval** around it (the width will vary as well)

Interval estimate

- N(1,2)
- 100 experimets
- Each time we get

 a different estimate
 μ_{*} and a different
 90% CI
- 87 intervals contain the true mu=1



Interval estimate

- How do we compute the interval given a sample?
- We used a **bootstrap** CI estimate a **resampling** technique
- The idea:
 - Use the sample S_n to generate m new datasets, each time by picking n numbers from S_n with replacement (elements can repeat) to create a sets $S_n^1, S_n^2, \dots S_n^m$
 - [10, 2, 5] -> {[10,10,5], [2,5,10], [5, 2, 2], [5,5,5]...}
- Compute μ_* on the sample S_n and an estimate μ_*^i for S_n^i
 - [17/3] -> {<mark>25/3</mark>, 17/3, 9/3, 15/3...}
- The differences $\{\mu_* \mu_*^1, \mu_* \mu_*^2 \dots, \mu_* \mu_*^m\}$ reveal how much the estimate varies
 - { -8/3, 0, 8/3, 2/3 }

Interval estimate



- Example
 - 100 coin tosses, 54 heads, 46 tails
 - Is the coin fair?
 - This could be a result of an unfair coin with p = 0.54, but would we be surprised if a fair coin resulted in 54H, 46T?
 - What if we threw 1000 coins and got: 540H, 440T?
- Two competing models two hypothesis
 - H_0 : coin is fair p = 0.5
 - H_1 : coin is not fair $p \neq 0.5$

- Example
 - 100 coin tosses, 54 heads, 46 tails
 - Is the coin fair? Is this difference 54-46 very unexpected for fair coins?
- Two competing models two hypothesis
 - H_0 : coin is fair p = 0.5
 - H_1 : coin is not fair $p \neq 0.5$ (two sided test: p < 0.5 or p > 0.5)
- Strategy:
 - Select a confidence level, for example 95%
 - Assume that H_0 is true and generate many sets of 100 tosses
 - Compute the histogram of differences #H #T
 - If 54-46 = 8 is in the top 2.5% or bottom 2.5% (two sided test) then reject the null hypothesis
 - Else, fail to reject (the difference is not large enough)

- Example
 - 100 coin tosses, 54 heads, 46 tails
 - Is the coin fair? Is this difference 54-46 very unexpected for fair coins?



- Example
 - 1000 coin tosses, 540 heads, 460 tails
 - Is the coin fair? Is this difference 540-460 very unexpected for fair coins?



- Example
 - 10000 coin tosses, 5400 heads, 4600 tails
 - Is the coin fair? Is this difference 5400-4600 very unexpected for fair coins?



Hypothesis tests

- Four scenarios
 - H_0 is true, fail to reject
 - *H*₀ is true, reject (FALSE DISCOVERY, Type I error)
 - *H*₀ is false, fail to reject (**Type II error**)
 - *H*₀ is false, reject (**DISCOVERY**)
- The power of a test: if the null is false, will we detect it?
- Larger samples => more power
- Bigger differences => more power (harder it is for the null to discourage us)

Different test outcomes

- Explore how different types of errors arise
- Fix the true parameter p = 0.5 and use a sample size n and see what happens over many scenarios (H_0 is **true**)
- Loop
 - Generate a random sample
 - Test $H_0: p = 0.5$
 - Check result (one of four scenarios)
- Check the error table: how many times did we reject the null?
- How about when H_0

Different test outcomes

- How about when H_0 is false
- Fix the true parameter p = 0.6 and use a sample size n and see what happens over many scenarios (H_0 is **true**)
- Loop
 - Generate a random sample
 - Test $H_0: p = 0.5$
 - Check result (one of four scenarios)
- Check the error table: how many times did we fail to reject the null?