Probability and Statistical Inference

Course Cheat Sheet

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Data Type

· Categorical

Ordinal

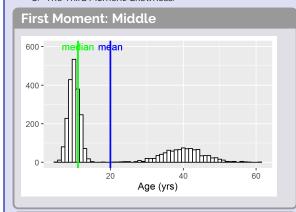
Interval

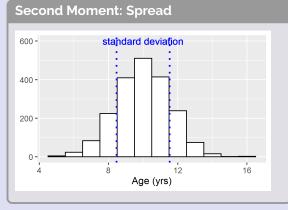
Ratio

Measures of Location

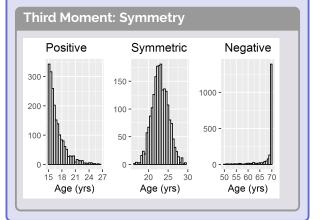
Different aspects of a distribution of data can be summarised by the measures of location:

- 1. The First Moment: Mean. Mode or Median:
- 2. The Second Moment: Variance, Standard Deviation;
- 3 The Third Moment: Skewness





Measures of Location (cont.)



Mathematical Probability

Definitions

Define some event A that can be the outcome of an experiment. $\Pr(A)$ is the probability of a given event A will happen.

- Pr(A) is between 0 and 1, $0 \le Pr(A) \le 1$;
- Pr(A) = 1, means it will definitely happen:
- Pr(A) = 0, means it will definitely not happen;
- Pr(A) = 0.05, is arbitrarily considered unlikely.

Sample Space and Events

The **Sample Space**, S, of an experiment is the universal set of all possible outcomes for that experiment, defined so, no two outcomes can occur simultaneously. For example

- Throwing a die S = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6;
- Tossing two coins S = HH, TH, HT, TT.

An event, A, is a subset of the sample space S. For example:

- Throwing a die S=3,4,6;
- Tossing two coins S = TH, TT

Axioms of Probabilities

For an event A subset S associated a number Pr(A), the probability of A, which must have the following properties

- $Pr(A \cap B) = 0$; $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B)$;
- Probability of the Null Event $\Pr(\emptyset) = 0$;
- The probability of the complement of A , $\Pr(\bar{A}) = 1 \Pr(A)$;
- $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) Pr(A \cap B)$.

Conditional Probability

The Conditional Probability $\Pr(A|B)$ denotes the probability of the event A occurring given that the event B has occurred,

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}.$$

Example: The rain in Ireland

A normal probability would be what is the probability it is going to rain, $\Pr(\text{rain})$. A conditional probability would, be what is the probability it is going to rain **given** that you are in Ireland, $\Pr(\text{rain}|\text{Ireland})$.

$$\Pr(\text{rain}|\text{Ireland}) = \frac{\Pr(\text{rain} \bigcap \text{Ireland})}{\Pr(\text{Ireland})},$$

where the probability of rain is $\Pr(\text{rain}) = 0.3$, the probability of being in Ireland is $\Pr(\text{Ireland}) = 0.4$) and the probability of being in Ireland and it raining is $\Pr(\text{rain}) \text{ Ireland} = 0.2$.

$$\Pr(\text{rain}|\text{Ireland}) = \frac{0.2}{0.4} = 0.5,$$

You could be interested in the probability that you are in Ireland given that it is raining,

$$\Pr(\text{Ireland}|\text{rain}) = \frac{\Pr(\text{rain} \bigcap \text{Ireland})}{\Pr(\text{rain})} = \frac{0.2}{0.3} = 0.75.$$

Bayes Theorem

Bayes Theorem states

$$Pr(A|B) = \frac{Pr(B|A)P(A)}{Pr(B)}.$$

Example: Diagnostic test

The probability that an individual has a rare disease is $\Pr(\mathsf{Disease}) = 0.01$. The probability that a diagnostic test results in a positive (•) test *given you have* the disease is $\Pr(+|\mathsf{Disease}) = 0.95$. On the other hand, the probability that the diagnostic test results in a positive (•) test *given you do not have* the disease is $\Pr(+|\mathsf{No Disease}) = 0.1$. This raises the important question if you are given a positive diagnosis, what is the probability you have the disease $\Pr(\mathsf{Disease}|+)$? From Bayes Theorem we have:

$$\Pr(\text{Disease}|+) = \frac{\Pr(+|\text{Disease}) \Pr(\text{Disease})}{\Pr(+)}$$

The probability of a positive test is,

Pr(+) = Pr(+|Disease) Pr(Disease) + Pr(+|No Disease) Pr(No Disease),

$$Pr(+) = 0.1085.$$

$$\Pr(\text{Disease}|+) = \frac{\Pr(+|\text{Disease}) \Pr(\text{Disease})}{\Pr(+)} = \frac{0.95 \times 0.01}{0.1085} = 0.0875576.$$

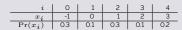
This can also be done in a simple table format, by assume a population of 10,000

[Group	+ Diagnosis	- Diagnosis	Total
ſ	Disease	95	5	100
ſ	No Disease	990	8,910	9,900
[Total	1,085	8,915	10,000

From the table we can calculate the same answer, $\Pr(\mathsf{Disease}|+) = \frac{95}{1085}$

Discrete Distribution

Probability Mass Functions



The expected value of the distribution is:

$$\mu = E[X] = \Sigma_i x_i p(x_i),$$

 $\Sigma_i x_i p(x_i) = -1\times 0.4 + 0\times 0.1 + 1\times 0.3 + 0.1\times 2 + 0.2\times 3 = 0.7,$ The variance of the distribution is:

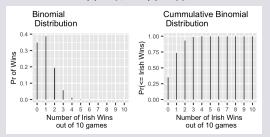
$$Var[X] = \Sigma_i(x_i - \mu)^2 p(x_i) = \Sigma_i(x_i - 0.7)^2 p(x_i).$$

Binomial Distribution

The formula for the Binomial distribution is

$$Pr(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}, k = 0, 1, 2, ...n,$$

$$E[k] = np$$
, $Var[k] = npq$.

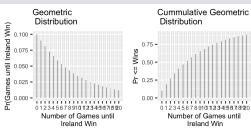


Geometric Distribution

The formula for the Geometric distribution is:

$$Pr(k) = q^{(k-1)}p, k = 1, 2, ...$$

$$E[k] = \frac{1}{p}, \quad Var[k] = \frac{q}{p^2}.$$



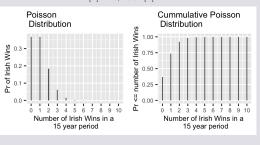
Discrete Distribution

Poisson Distribution

The formula for the Poisson distribution is:

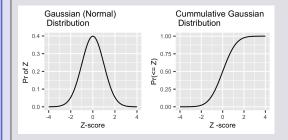
$$\Pr(k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}, \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$E[k] = \lambda, \ Var[k] = \lambda.$$

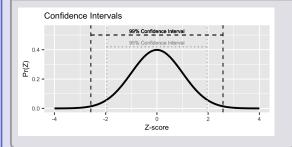


Continuous Distribution

Normal Distribution



Confidence Intervals



Hypothesis Testing

Five steps for Hypothesis testings

- 1. State the Null Hypothesis H_0 ;
- 2. State an Alternative Hypothesis H_{alpha} ;
- 3. Calculate a Test Statistic (see below);
- 4. Calculate a p-value and/or set a rejection region;
- 5. State your conclusions.

z-test

Continuous Data

The test statistic is given by

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0, 1),$$

where \bar{x} is the observed mean, μ is the historical mean, σ is the standard deviation and n is the number of observations.

Do supplements make you faster?

The effect of a food supplements on the response time in rats is of interest to a biologist. They have established that the normal response time of rats is $\mu=1.2$ seconds. The n=100 rats were given a new food supplements. The following summary statistics were recorded from the data $\tilde{x}=1.05$ and $\sigma=0.5$ seconds

- 1. The rats in the study are the same as normal rats, $H_0: \bar{x} = 1.2.$
- 2. The rats are different, $H_{\Omega}: \bar{x} \neq 1.2$.
- 3. Calculate a Test Statistic $Z=\frac{1.05-1.2}{\frac{0.5}{\sqrt{100}}}=-3$
- 4. Reject the Null hypothesis h_0 if Z < -1.96 and Z > 1.96
- 5. The data suggests that rats are faster with the new food.

Proportional Data

The test statistic is given by

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

where \hat{p} is the observed proportion, p is the historical proportion, q is the complement q=1-p, and n is the number of observations.

t-test

paired t-test

The test statistic is given by

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{\mu}_0}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim t_{\alpha,df}$$

where \bar{x} is the observed mean, μ_0 is the null mean, s is the standard deviation and n is the number of observations.

unpaired t-test

The test statistic is given by

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}} \sim t_{\alpha, df}$$

where $s_p=\sqrt{\frac{s_{x_1}^2+s_{x_2}^2}{2}}$ is the pooled sample standard deviation, \bar{x}_1 and \bar{x}_2 are the sample means, n_1 and n_2 are the sample sizes.

χ^2 Independence test

The test statistic to test if data are independent of group is given by:

$$\chi^2_{Ind} = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \sim \chi^2_{(r-1)(c-1)}.$$

where O is the observed data, E is the expected data if independent, r is the number of rows and c is the number of columns.

Does ice-cream flavour matter?

An ice-cream company had 500 people sample one of three different ice-cream flavours and asked them to say whether they liked or disliked the ice-cream.

	Vanilla	Chocolate	Strawberry
Liked	130	170	100
Disliked	20	30	50

The χ^2_{Ind} independence test could be used to determine if the enjoyment of the ice-cream depends on the flavour.

χ^2 Goodness of Fit

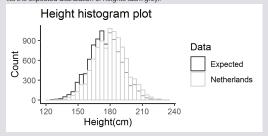
The test statistic to test if data come from a specific distribution is given by:

$$\chi^2_{GoF} = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \sim \chi^2_{k-1},$$

where O is the observed data, E is the expected data from a chosen distribution and k is the number of observation bins.

Does it fit?

The χ^2_{GoF} can test if the observed distribution of the height of Dutch people (grey) fits the expected distribution of heights (dark grey).



Linear Regression

A linear regression is used to model a linear relationship of the dependent variable y and the regressors $x_1, x_2, ...$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + ...,$$

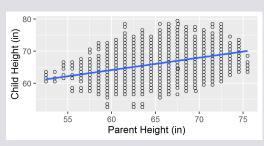
where β_0 , β_1 are the slopes of the regressors.

Height Prediction

A simple linear regression (correlation) is used to predict the height of 744 children y using the height of their parent x,

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

The plot below shows the fit of the model



The parents' height x explained 12.7% of the childrens' height y

Logistic Regression

A logistic regression (or logit model) is used to model the probability of a binary events such as win/lose. The general formula for the Logistic regression is

$$p_i = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}},$$

where

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots$$

and β is the slope corresponding to the predictor variable x.

Sexton Conversion Rate

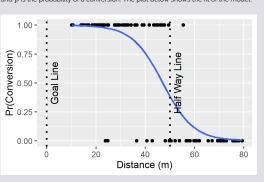
Data from 1000 conversions kicks by Johnny Sexton was acquired; the distance (m) from the goal-line and if the kick was a miss 0 or a conversion 1. The data was fit to a logistic regression. The model was

$$p = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}}$$

where

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \beta_1$$
 Distance

and p is the probability of a conversion. The plot below shows the fit of the model:



The model predicts that at the half-way line (50m) Sexton has a 0.375 probability of

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