Lecture 30: Probability Theory

Chapter 2.4-2.5

One Last Time

You have a new hypothesis testing machine. For any hypothesis test it either concludes:

- "reject H_0 in favor of H_A ". Call this a \oplus 've result
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The machine has the following performance specifications:

- $\alpha = \Pr(\text{Reject } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ true}) = \Pr(\oplus | H_0)$
- ▶ Power = $1 \beta = \Pr(\text{Reject } H_0 \text{ when } H_A \text{ true}) = \Pr(\oplus | H_A)$

How Reliable Are Your Test Results?

Test conclusion

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Truth	H_0 true	True Negative (TN)	False Positive (FP)	
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Related Alternative Measure of Reliability

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= $1 - \frac{TP}{TP + FP} = 1$ - Positive Predictive Value

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As an alternative, you can try to control the FDR.

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In this case, you would set your false discovery rate to 10 percent.

Random Variable

A random process or variable with a numerical outcome is called a random variable, and is typically denoted by an upper case letter. E.g. X, Y, or Z

Easy example: Coin flips. Say we flip a fair coin n=10 times with probability $p=\frac{1}{2}$ of heads.

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How many heads do you expect to get?

$$n \times p = 10 \times \frac{1}{2} = 5$$

Slightly more complicated example: Say you have a random variable X:

X	2	3	4	10	11
Pr(X = x)	$\frac{15}{100}$	$\frac{25}{100}$	$\frac{10}{100}$	$\frac{30}{100}$	$\frac{20}{100}$

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Is the value we expect to observe:

$$\frac{2+3+4+10+11}{5} = 6?$$

No, each of the x's have different probability of occurring.

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For each x, we assign weight Pr(X = x). i.e. for all x, we have $x \cdot Pr(X = x)$:

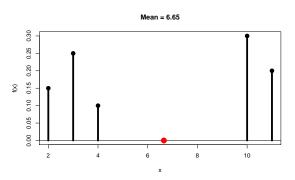
Expected Value

The expected value is a weighted average of all possible values x. This can be thought of as a measure of center:

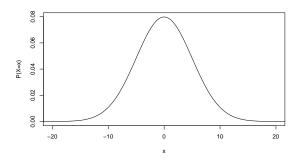
This is also called the mean and expectation of X. Typically denoted by μ .

Expected Value

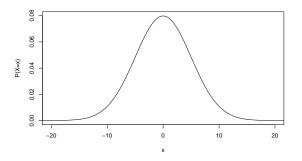
You can also think of the mean as the center of mass or balance point (marked with red point):



Consider the following (continuous) distribution with $\mu=0$. Let's build a measure of expected "spread".

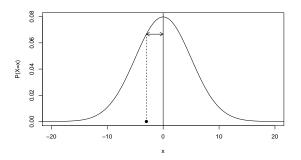


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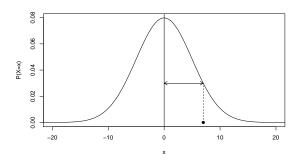


Let's define "spread" as the absolute deviation from μ : $|x-\mu|$. i.e. +'ve & -'ve deviations of the same magnitude are treated the same.

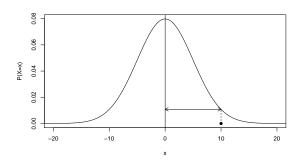
When x=-3.0, the abs. deviation from μ is $|-3.0-\mu|=3.0$. Note P(X=x)=0.066.



When x=7.0, the abs. deviation from μ is $|7.0 - \mu| = 7.0$. Note P(X=x) = 0.030.



When x=10.0, the abs. deviation from μ is $|10.0-\mu|=10.0$. Note P(X=x)=0.011.



So say we do this for all x and take a weighted average of the $|x - \mu|$ where the weights are P(X = x).

Voilà: Our notion of expected spread.

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Why square? Treats +'ve and -'ve deviations as the same, but also easier to do calculus on x^2 than |x|.

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In general, we have an unknown population parameter θ and an estimator $\widehat{\theta}$.

Sample Mean as an Estimator

Bias

One property we want our estimators to have is unbiasedness. i.e.

i.e. we expected the estimator's value to be the unknown parameter.

Recall from Lecture 1.3

One example of a non-representative sample is a biased sample. For example, convenience samples are samples where individuals who are easily accessible are more likely to be included.

Recall from Lecture 1.3

- 1. The Royal Air Force wants to study how resistant their airplanes are to bullets. They study the bullet holes on all the airplanes on the tarmac after an air battle against the Luftwaffe (German Air Force).
- 2. I want to know the average income of Reed graduates in the last 10 years. So I get the records of 10 randomly chosen Reedies. They all answer and I take the average.
- Imagine it's 1993 i.e. almost all households have landlines. You
 want to know the average number of people in each household in
 Portland. You randomly pick out 500 phone numbers from the
 phone book and conduct a phone survey.
- 4. You want to know the prevalence of illegal downloading of TV shows among Reed students. You get the emails of 100 randomly chosen Reedies and ask them "How many times did you download a pirated TV show last week?"