### STAT 431 — Applied Bayesian Analysis — Course Notes

# **Probability Review**

Spring 2019

# Sample Space and Events

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sample space: all possible outcomes (fully specified)
event: subset of sample space
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Eg: Two coin flips

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S \ = \ \mathsf{sample} \ \mathsf{space} \ = \ \{HH,\,HT,\,TH,\,TT\} event A \ = \ \mathsf{both} \ \mathsf{flips} \ \mathsf{same} \ = \ \{HH,\,TT\}
```

[ Illustrate ... ]

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The usual set operations apply to events:

$$A \cup B =$$
**union** of  $A$  and  $B$  = outcomes in either (or both)

$$A \cap B$$
 = intersection of  $A$  and  $B$  = outcomes in both

$$\overline{A}$$
 = **complement** of  $A$  = outcomes not in  $A$ 

Events A and B are **disjoint** if

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$
 (the null set)

## Probability

**probability**: assigns to each event A a number  $\mathrm{P}(A)$ , with such properties as

- $\triangleright$  0  $\leq$  P(A)  $\leq$  1
- $ightharpoonup P(\emptyset) = 0 \quad (\emptyset \text{ is the "null event"})$
- ightharpoonup P(S) = 1 (S is the sample space)
- ▶ if A and B are disjoint,

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

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$$ightharpoonup$$
 if  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  are disjoint,

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_{i})$$

$$\triangleright P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

### Eg: two fair coin flips

$$A=$$
 both heads  $B=$  both tails 
$$P(A)=? \qquad P(B)=? \qquad P(\overline{A})=?$$
 
$$P(A\cup B)=? \qquad P(A\cap B)=?$$

# Conditioning

If  $P(B) \neq 0$ , the **conditional probability** of A given B is

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

(P(A) is sometimes called the **marginal probability** of A)

Conditional probabilities behave like ordinary probabilities:

e.g. 
$$0 \le P(A \mid B) \le 1$$

e.g. 
$$P(\overline{A} \mid B) = 1 - P(A \mid B)$$

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#### Note:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B) P(A \mid B)$$
  $(P(B) \neq 0)$   
=  $P(A) P(B \mid A)$   $(P(A) \neq 0)$ 

In general,

 $joint = marginal \times conditional$ 

Eg: two fair coin flips

$$A = \{HH, TT\} \qquad B = \{HH, HT, TH\}$$

$$P(A) = ?$$
  $P(B) = ?$   $P(A \cap B) = ?$ 

$$P(A \mid B) = ?$$

$$P(B \mid A) = ?$$

[Interpret ... ]

### Bayesian perspective:

$$M =$$
a particular model for the data  $D =$ (event of) the data

$$\mathrm{P}(M) = \mathrm{probability}$$
 of  $M$  if we have no other information 
$$= \mathrm{"prior"}$$

$$\mathrm{P}(D \mid M) = \mathrm{probability}$$
 given to  $D$  when  $M$  is true 
$$= \mathrm{``likelihood''}$$

$$P(M \mid D)$$
 = probability of  $M$  after observing  $D$  = "posterior"

# Bayes' Rule

[ Illustrate sample space ... ]

Notice:

$$P(A) = P((A \cap B) \cup (A \cap \overline{B}))$$

# Bayes' Rule

[ Illustrate sample space ... ]

### Notice:

$$P(A) = P((A \cap B) \cup (A \cap \overline{B}))$$
$$= P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap \overline{B})$$

# Bayes' Rule

[ Illustrate sample space ... ]

#### Notice:

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{P}(A) &= \mathrm{P}\big((A \cap B) \, \cup \, (A \cap \overline{B})\big) \\ &= \mathrm{P}(A \cap B) \, + \, \mathrm{P}\big(A \cap \overline{B}\big) \\ &= \mathrm{P}(B) \, \mathrm{P}(A \mid B) \, + \, \mathrm{P}\big(\overline{B}\big) \, \mathrm{P}\big(A \mid \overline{B}\big) \end{split}$$
 (provided  $0 < \mathrm{P}(B) < 1$ )

### Bayes' Rule (simple form):

$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

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$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

$$= \frac{P(B) P(A \mid B)}{P(B) P(A \mid B) + P(\overline{B}) P(A \mid \overline{B})}$$

(provided all conditional probabilities exist)

Eg: Say the pop. of Cyprus is 80% Greek, 20% Turkish.

Suppose English is spoken by 90% of the Greeks and 50% of the Turks.

What's the prob. and English-speaking Cypriot is Greek?

$$A =$$
 speaks English  $B =$  is Greek

Expression for the desired probability?

$$P(B) = ?$$
  $P(\overline{B}) = ?$   $P(A \mid \overline{B}) = ?$ 

Answer?

Now generalize ...

Suppose  $B_1, B_2, B_3, \ldots$  form a **partition** of S:

- ► all are disjoint
- $\blacktriangleright \bigcup_{\mathsf{all}\ j} B_j = S \quad \text{(exhaustive)}$

Also, assume  $P(B_j) \neq 0$ , all j.

### Law of Total Probability:

$$P(A) = \sum_{\mathbf{all} \ i} P(B_j) \ P(A \mid B_j)$$

[ Illustrate ... ]

### Bayes' Rule (for probabilities):

If  $B_1, B_2, \ldots$  is a partition,

$$P(B_i \mid A) = \frac{P(B_i) P(A \mid B_i)}{\sum_{\text{all } j} P(B_j) P(A \mid B_j)}$$

(The previous special case had  $B_1 = B$ ,  $B_2 = \overline{B}$ .)

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(The previous special case had  $B_1 = B$ ,  $B_2 = \overline{B}$ .)

$$P(B_i \mid A) \propto P(B_i) P(A \mid B_i)$$

(since the denominator doesn't depend on i)

Bayesian application:

$$M_1, M_2, \ldots =$$
 distinct models for the data 
$$D =$$
 (event of) the data

By Bayes' Rule,

$$P(M_i \mid D) \propto P(M_i) P(D \mid M_i)$$
  
posterior  $\propto$  prior  $\times$  likelihood

The (inverse) proportionality constant

$$\sum_{\mathsf{all}\ i} \mathrm{P}(M_j) \ \mathrm{P}(D \mid M_j)$$

is called the **normalizing constant**.

Eg: Waldo (revisited)



### Independent Events

Events A and B are **independent** if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$$

(otherwise **dependent**)

If  $P(B) \neq 0$ , this is the same as

$$P(A \mid B) = P(A)$$

 $({\sf conditional} \ = \ {\sf marginal})$ 

Events A and B are **conditionally independent** given C if

$$P(A \cap B \mid C) = P(A \mid C) P(B \mid C)$$

Note: A and B are not necessarily independent!

Often there are data events that are independent conditional on the model:

$$P(D_1 \cap D_2 \mid M) = P(D_1 \mid M) P(D_2 \mid M)$$

That is, the likelihood may factor.

### Random Variables and Distributions

random variable: real-valued function on the sample space

May be ...

- discrete: takes values in a countable set
   e.g. binomial, geometric, Poisson
- continuous: takes values on a continuum
   e.g. normal, exponential, gamma

The **distribution** of a random variable X is characterized by its **density**:

Discrete density:

$$p(x) = P(X = x)$$

(sometimes called a "mass function")

▶ Continuous density: p(x) such that

$$\int_{G} p(x) dx = P(X \in G)$$

(often called a p.d.f.)

The **joint distribution** of random variables X and Y can often be characterized by a **joint density** 

Both discrete:

$$p(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y) = P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\})$$

► Jointly continuous:

$$\int_{G_1} \int_{G_2} p(x, y) \, dy \, dx = P(X \in G_1, Y \in G_2)$$

The individual densities of X and Y are their **marginal** densities, which define their **marginal** distributions.

Eg:

$$p(x) \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \displaystyle \sum_{\text{all } y} p(x,y), & \ Y \text{ discrete} \\ \\ \displaystyle \int p(x,y) \ dy, & \ Y \text{ continuous} \end{array} \right.$$

## Conditioning

The **conditional distribution** of X given Y is characterized by the **conditional density** 

$$p(x \mid y) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)}$$
 (wherever  $p(y) > 0$ )

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Note:

$$p(x,y) = p(y) p(x \mid y) = p(x) p(y \mid x)$$

is another example of the general form

$$joint = marginal \times conditional$$

This idea can be used to define the joint density when X and Y are of different types.

For example, if X is continuous and Y is discrete, let

$$p(x,y) = p(y) p(x \mid y) = p(x) p(y \mid x)$$

where

$$p(x \mid y) =$$
a continuous density for each  $y$   $p(y \mid x) =$ a discrete density for each  $x$ 

(Use whichever of these is most convenient.)

A general process for working with the joint distribution of X and Y:

- 1. Specify the marginal density of X
- 2. Specify the conditional density of Y given X
- 3. Use the product of these densities as their joint density

## Example: Uniform-Binomial

$$X \quad \sim \quad \text{uniform}(0,1)$$
 
$$Y \mid X = x \quad \sim \quad \text{binomial}(n,x)$$
 (\$n\$ is a given "number of trials", \$x\$ is "success prob.")

# Example: Uniform-Binomial

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \sim & \mathrm{uniform}(0,1) \\ \\ Y \mid X = x & \sim & \mathrm{binomial}(n,x) \end{array}$$

(n is a given "number of trials", x is "success prob.")

So

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$p(y \mid x) = \binom{n}{y} x^y (1-x)^{n-y} \qquad y = 0, \dots, n$$

... and the "joint density" is

$$p(x) \, p(y \mid x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{y} \, x^y \, (1-x)^{n-y} & 0 < x < 1, \ y = 0, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for X is (of course)

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is (for y = 0, ..., n)

$$p(y) = \int p(x) p(y \mid x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \binom{n}{y} x^y (1-x)^{n-y} dx$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \int_0^1 \underbrace{x^y (1-x)^{n-y}}_{\text{"legred" of a beta density}} dx$$

The marginal density for Y is (for y = 0, ..., n)

$$\begin{split} p(y) &= \int p(x) \, p(y \mid x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \binom{n}{y} \, x^y \, (1-x)^{n-y} \, dx \\ &= \binom{n}{y} \int_0^1 \underbrace{x^y \, (1-x)^{n-y}}_{\text{``kernel'' of a beta density}} \, dx \end{split}$$

Recall density of  $beta(\alpha, \beta)$  distribution:

$$\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha - 1} (1 - x)^{\beta - 1} \qquad 0 < x < 1$$

(see Cowles, Table A.2)

Thus, for  $y = 0, \ldots, n$ ,

$$\begin{split} p(y) &= \binom{n}{y} \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)} \\ &\cdot \int_0^1 \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)} \, x^y \, (1-x)^{n-y}}_{\text{beta}(y+1,\,n-y+1) \, \text{density}} \, dx \end{split}$$

Thus, for  $y = 0, \ldots, n$ ,

$$p(y) = \binom{n}{y} \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)}$$

$$\cdot \int_0^1 \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}}_{\text{beta}(y+1,n-y+1) \text{ density}} x^y (1-x)^{n-y} dx$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \frac{y! (n-y)!}{(n+1)!} \cdot 1$$

Thus, for 
$$y = 0, \ldots, n$$
,

$$\begin{split} p(y) &= \binom{n}{y} \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)} \\ &\cdot \int_0^1 \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)} \, x^y \, (1-x)^{n-y}}_{\text{beta}(y+1,\,n-y+1) \text{ density}} \, dx \\ &= \binom{n}{y} \frac{y! \, (n-y)!}{(n+1)!} \, \cdot \, 1 \\ &= \frac{n!}{y! \, (n-y)!} \, \frac{y! \, (n-y)!}{(n+1) \cdot n!} \, = \, \frac{1}{n+1} \end{split}$$

So the marginal distribution of Y is a "discrete uniform" distribution:

$$p(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} & y = 0, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

[ Illustrate ... ]

# Bayes' Rule

Bayes' Rule (for densities):

$$p(y\mid x) \ = \ \frac{p(y)\,p(x\mid y)}{C}$$

where

$$C \ = \ p(x) \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \displaystyle \sum_{\text{all } y} p(y) \, p(x \mid y), & Y \text{ discrete} \\ \\ \displaystyle \int p(y) \, p(x \mid y) \, dy, & Y \text{ continuous} \end{array} \right.$$

C is the **normalizing constant**.

#### Bayesian application:

Suppose the model is (fully) defined by a **parameter**  $\theta$ .

Let y be the observed data.

Then

$$\begin{array}{cccc} p(\theta \mid y) & \propto & p(\theta) & \cdot & p(y \mid \theta) \\ \\ \text{posterior} & \propto & \text{prior} & \times & \text{likelihood} \end{array}$$

where the proportionality is in  $\theta$  (for fixed y).

(The likelihood is sometimes written as  $L(\theta; y)$ .)

### More Variables

Densities can be extended to three or more variables.

E.g. X, Y, and Z could have a joint density defined by

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x) p(y \mid x) p(z \mid x, y)$$

where conditioning on two variables is defined as, e.g.

$$p(z \mid x, y) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(x, y)}$$
 (wherever  $p(x, y) > 0$ )

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The marginal densities would be denoted

$$p(x,y),$$
  $p(x,z),$   $p(y,z),$   $p(x),$   $p(y),$   $p(z)$ 

Marginal densities are obtained by summing/integrating out the other variables, e.g.

$$p(x,z) \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \displaystyle \sum_{\text{all } y} p(x,y,z), & Y \text{ discrete} \\ \\ \displaystyle \int p(x,y,z) \, dy, & Y \text{ continuous} \end{array} \right.$$

Similarly, joint conditionals can be defined as, e.g.

$$p(x, y \mid z) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(z)}$$
 (wherever  $p(z) > 0$ )

Certain rules for marginal densities extend to conditional densities, e.g.

$$p(x, y \mid z) = p(x \mid z) p(y \mid x, z)$$

## Independent Random Variables

X and Y are **independent** when they have a joint density that factors into marginals:

$$p(x,y) = p(x) p(y)$$

Note: If X and Y are independent,

$$p(x \mid y) = p(x) \qquad p(y \mid x) = p(y)$$

Note: If  $p(x \mid y)$  doesn't depend on y (or if  $p(y \mid x)$  doesn't depend on x), then X and Y are independent. (Why?)

Let Z be another random variable.

X and Y are conditionally independent given Z=z if

$$p(x, y \mid z) = p(x \mid z) p(y \mid z)$$

In general, this does not imply that X and Y are (marginally) independent.

### X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if

$$p(x, y \mid z) = p(x \mid z) p(y \mid z)$$
 for all  $z (p(z) > 0)$ 

This is (almost) equivalent to

$$p(x \mid y, z) = p(x \mid z)$$

and to

$$p(y \mid x, z) = p(y \mid z)$$

# Measures of Location and Spread

The **expected value** or **mean** of X is

$$\mathbf{E}(X) \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \displaystyle \sum_{\mathsf{all} \ x} x \, p(x), & X \; \mathsf{discrete} \\ \\ \displaystyle \int x \, p(x) \, dx, & X \; \mathsf{continuous} \end{array} \right.$$

A **median**  $m_X$  of X satisfies

$$\mathrm{P}(X < m_X) ~\leq~ 0.5 ~~ \text{and} ~~ \mathrm{P}(X > m_X) ~\leq~ 0.5$$

A **mode** of X is a value maximizing p(x). It need not exist or be unique.

#### An $\alpha$ -quantile $x_{\alpha}$ of X satisfies

$$P(X < x_{\alpha}) \le \alpha$$
 and  $P(X > x_{\alpha}) \le 1 - \alpha$ 

If X is continuous,

$$P(X \le x_{\alpha}) = \alpha$$

[ Illustrate ... ]

#### The **variance** of X is

$$Var(X) = E((X - \mu_X)^2)$$

where  $\mu_X = E(X)$ .

### An interquartile range (IQR) of X is

$$x_{0.75} - x_{0.25}$$

(i.e. the difference between the first and third quartile)

The **conditional expected value** (or **conditional mean**) of X given Y = y is

$$\mathrm{E}(X\mid Y=y) \ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \displaystyle \sum_{\mathsf{all}\; x} x\, p(x\mid y), & X \; \mathsf{discrete} \\ \\ \displaystyle \int x\, p(x\mid y) \; dx, & X \; \mathsf{continuous} \end{array} \right.$$

The **conditional variance** of X given Y = y is

$$Var(X | Y = y) = E((X - \mu_{X|y})^2 | Y = y)$$

where  $\mu_{X|y} = E(X \mid Y = y)$ .

#### Notational note:

We sometimes write

$$\mathrm{E}(X\mid y)$$
 for  $\mathrm{E}(X\mid Y=y)$   $\mathrm{Var}(X\mid y)$  for  $\mathrm{Var}(X\mid Y=y)$ 

Similarly, write

$$X \mid y \sim \cdots$$
 for  $X \mid Y = y \sim \cdots$ 

## Transformation of Variables

Suppose X is continuous, with density p(x), and let

$$Y = g(X)$$

where g has a differentiable inverse  $g^{-1}$ .

Then Y is continuous, with density

$$p(y) = p(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$

where x is (implicitly) equal to  $g^{-1}(y)$ .

This **transformation-of-variables formula** is sometimes more explicitly written as

$$p_Y(y) = p_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right|$$

where  $p_X$  and  $p_Y$  are densities of X and Y.