# probability theory and random variables

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- determination of the number of events
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- independent events
- random variables (discrete, continuous)
- concept of expected value

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- sample based decisions on population have error rates because each sample differs from each other by chance
- probability deals with uncertainty about random events

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- experiment: any behaviour or operation about our observations (a much broader definition than scientific terminology)
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- they are all repeatable + observations vary for each different experiment

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- some experiments have limited number of elements in sample space while some have infinite number of elements

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- e.g. how many heads in a two-coins toss
- e.g. how many aces in 13-card draw from a 52-deck
- events are combinations of elements that we care for in the sample space

 we can <u>never</u> know A event will happen or not after an experiment



2.2

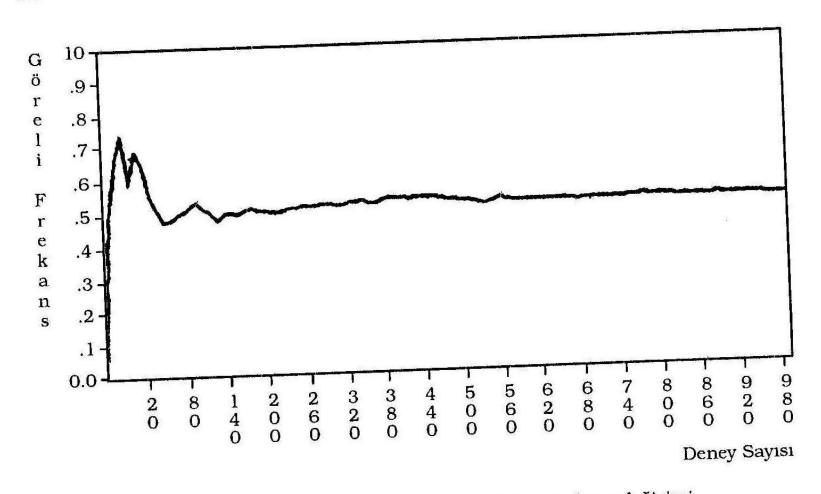
- we can <u>never</u> know A event will happen or not after an experiment
- however we can have an expectation about the probability that it will happen or not
- this expectation leads to a need for probability theory



- relative frequency: event / all repetition of events
- properties of relative frequency



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- and... stability



Şekil 2.3. Tekrarlanan bir deneyde göreli frekansların değişimi.

Deney	No	1	2	3	4	5	10	20	50	100	200	300	500	1000
Gözler Yazı S		0	1	2	3	3	7	13	24	54	102	158	264	522
Göreli Freka		0	0.50	0.67	0.75	0.60	0.70	0.65	0.48	0.54	0.51	0.53	0.53	0.52



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- properties of probability



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- properties of probability
- properties of P(A)

finite sample spaces and events with equal frequencies



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- simple events: events consisting only a single element of sample space
- events with equal frequencies (must be careful! e.g. blood types differ A, B, AB, O)
- 1. be careful about equality of probabilities
- 2. be careful about defining sample space (sometimes you can transform a sample space into an equal probability one -> taking 3 different sized bottles from a bag -> marking!) (and be careful about equality of different combinations of elements in an event)



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- multiplication method
- addition method
- permutation
- combination
- mixed

# conditional probability



 aspirin & LSD example, with or without putting back

# conditional probability



$$S = \begin{bmatrix} (1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(1,4),(1,5),(1,6) \\ (2,1),(2,2),(2,3),(2,4),(2,5),(2,6) \\ (3,1),(3,2),(3,3),(3,4),(3,5),(3,6) \\ (4,1),(4,2),(4,3),(4,4),(4,5),(4,6) \\ (5,1),(5,2),(5,3),(5,4),(5,5),(5,6) \\ (6,1),(6,2),(6,3),(6,4),(6,5),(6,6) \end{bmatrix}$$

# conditional probability



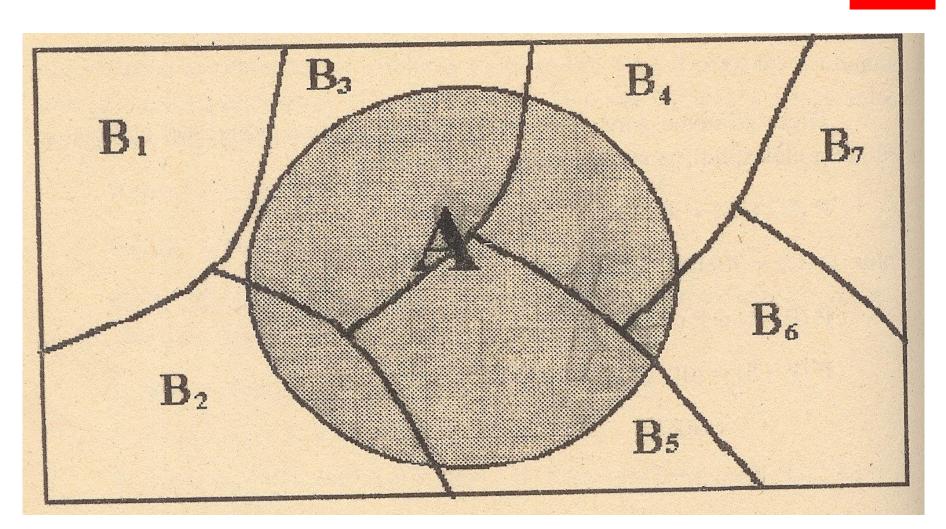
properties of conditional probability



# conditional probability



**2.7** 

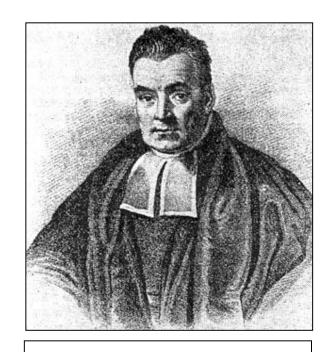


# Bayes theorem

- return to LSD/aspirin example again:
  - some different queries e.g.
    - realizing that the pill is defective, what's the probability that it has been produced in first factory?
    - realizing that second pill is LSD, what's the probability that first pill was also LSD

### **Bayesian Probability**

- The term bayesian came into use in 1950's
- Contrasts with frequency probability

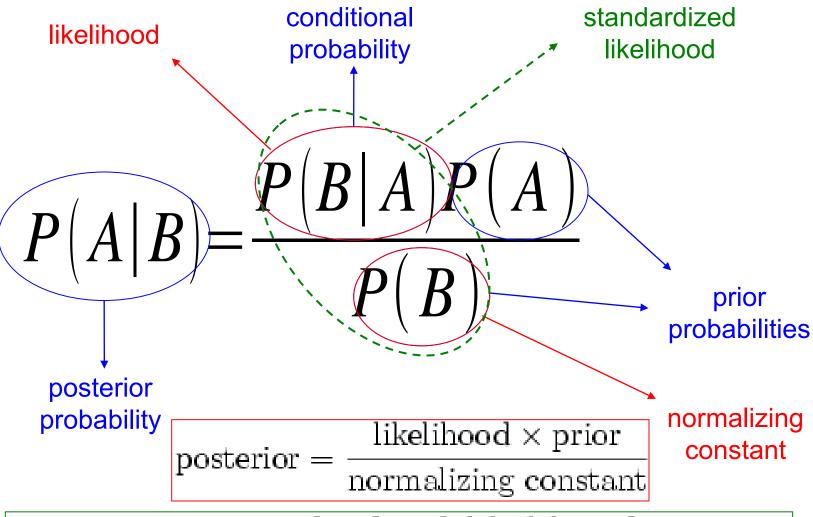


Thomas Bayes (1702 – 1761) British Mathematician

# Bayesians v.s. Frequentists

- Frequentists assign probabilities to random events according to their <u>frequencies of occurence</u> or <u>subsets of populations as proportions of the whole</u>
- Bayesian assign probabilities to propositions that are <u>uncertain</u>
- 1) You have a box of white and black balls, but knowledge as to the quantities
- 2) You have a box from white ONE drawn n balls, half black and roughnous that the
  - 3) Your and you know that there are same of white and black balls 0.5

# Bayes' Theorem



 $posterior = standardised likelihood \times prior.$ 

# **Derivation from Conditional Probability**

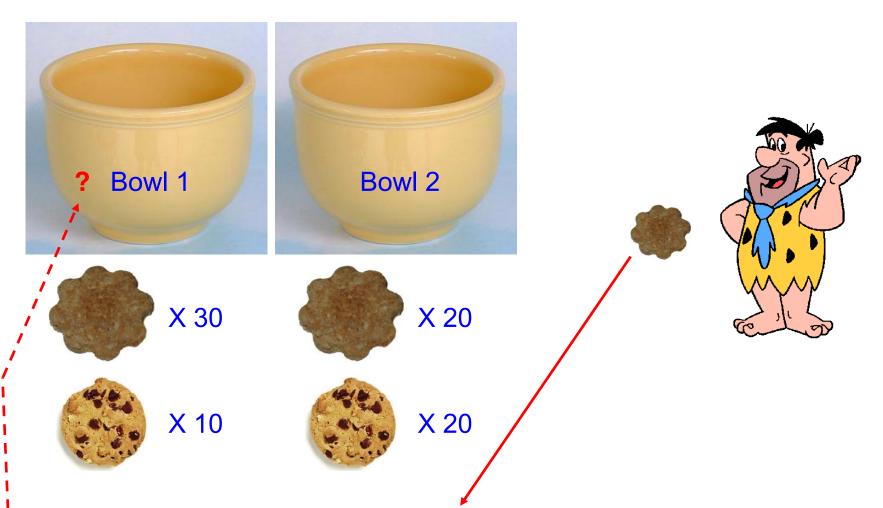
$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}. \qquad \Pr(B|A) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(A)}.$$

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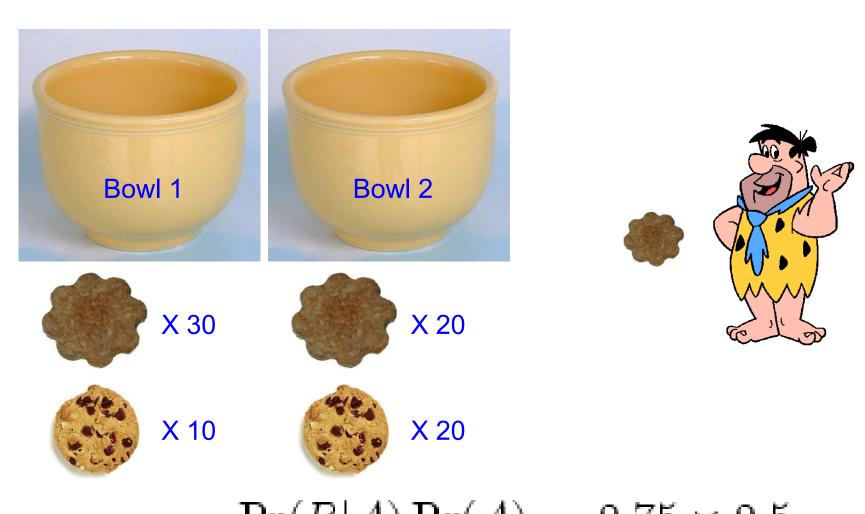
# Example (Cookie)





- Fred picked a plain cookie
- '• What is the probability that he picked it from bowl 1?

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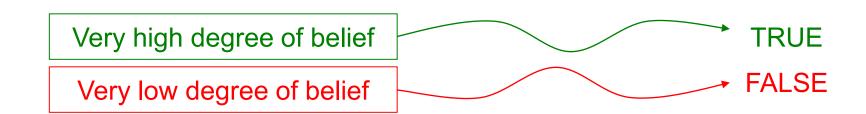


$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A)\Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)} = \frac{0.75 \times 0.5}{0.625} = 0.6$$

### Bayesian Inference

"For billions of years, the sun has risen after it has set. The sun has set tonight.

- With very high probability (or <u>I strongly believe that</u> or it is true that) the sun will rise tomorrow.
- With very low probability (or <u>I do not at all believe</u> that or it is false that) the sun will not rise tomorrow."



### independent events

- previous topics covered:
  - -P(B|A)=0 (mutually exclusive events)
  - -P(B|A)=1 (event<sub>A</sub> is subset of event<sub>B</sub>)

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- statistical independence

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- in another words; random variable is a function that mathematically assigns values to elements of sample space

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- if the elements of sample space are countable, they are called "discrete random variables"
- if the elements of sample space are uncountable, they are called "continuous random variables"

#### discrete random variables

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- properties of the probability distribution of discrete random variables

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- if a random variable can take infinitely many number of values, they are called continuous random variables
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- need to rely on relative frequencies of observations (the higher the # of samples, the more precise the distribution is)

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- how to calculate the area below the curve? (integrals or readily available tables)
- there are also methods to check whether selected f(y) and real relative frequency curve of population are relevant (covered in further topics)

### expected value



 calculating the mean value of a function defined on a theoretic population

#### references

