Probability, 1

Frank Edwards

Probability

How often, on average, does an event occur?

Probability is a set of tools for describing randomness.

Probability helps us sort signal (patterns) from noise.

Two core theories

Frequentist: Probability is the proportion of times an event occurs if we repeat an experiment under the same conditions many times

```
flip_n_coins<-function(x){
  flip<-rbinom(x, 1, 0.5)
  flip<-ifelse(flip==1, "Heads", "Tails")
  return(flip)
}</pre>
```

```
flip_n_coins<-function(x){
  flip<-rbinom(x, 1, 0.5)
  flip<-ifelse(flip==1, "Heads", "Tails")
  return(flip)
}
flip_n_coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"</pre>
```

```
flip_n_coins<-function(x){
  flip<-rbinom(x, 1, 0.5)
  flip<-ifelse(flip==1, "Heads", "Tails")
  return(flip)
}
flip_n_coins(1)

## [1] "Heads"

flip_n_coins(1)</pre>
```

```
flip_n_coins<-function(x){
  flip < -rbinom(x, 1, 0.5)
  flip<-ifelse(flip==1, "Heads", "Tails")</pre>
  return(flip)
flip_n_coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
flip_n_coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
flip_n_coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
```

```
flip_n_coins<-function(x){
  flip < -rbinom(x, 1, 0.5)
  flip<-ifelse(flip==1, "Heads", "Tails")</pre>
  return(flip)
flip n coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
flip n coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
flip_n_coins(1)
## [1] "Heads"
What is \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} where x_i = 1 when the coin is heads?
```

[1] 0.2

```
sum((flip_n_coins(5)=="Heads")/5)
```

5

```
sum((flip_n_coins(5)=="Heads")/5)

## [1] 0.2

sum((flip_n_coins(20)=="Heads")/20)

## [1] 0.5
```

```
sum((flip_n_coins(5)=="Heads")/5)

## [1] 0.2

sum((flip_n_coins(20)=="Heads")/20)

## [1] 0.5

sum((flip_n_coins(50)=="Heads")/50)

## [1] 0.6
```

```
sum((flip n coins(5)=="Heads")/5)
## [1] 0.2
sum((flip_n_coins(20)=="Heads")/20)
## [1] 0.5
sum((flip_n_coins(50)=="Heads")/50)
## [1] 0.6
sum((flip_n_coins(1000)=="Heads")/1000)
## [1] 0.478
```

```
sum((flip n coins(5)=="Heads")/5)
## [1] 0.2
sum((flip n coins(20)=="Heads")/20)
## [1] 0.5
sum((flip_n_coins(50)=="Heads")/50)
## [1] 0.6
sum((flip n coins(1000)=="Heads")/1000)
## [1] 0.478
sum((flip_n_coins(100000)=="Heads")/100000)
## [1] 0.4981
```

Frequentist probability

If n_x is the number of heads, and n_t is the number of coin flips, then the probability of heads is

$$P(x) \approx \frac{n_x}{n_t}$$

$$P(x) = \lim_{n_t \to \infty} \frac{n_x}{n_t}$$

Bayesian probability

Bayesian: Probability is a subjective judgment about the likelihood that an event occurs, with endpoints at 0 (never occurs) and 1 (always occurs). Repeat experiments are often nonsensical.

Bayesian probability

Bayesian: Probability is a subjective judgment about the likelihood that an event occurs, with endpoints at 0 (never occurs) and 1 (always occurs). Repeat experiments are often nonsensical.

I have strong prior information that a fair coin will be heads half of the time, and tails half of the time. If I flip coins and see different patterns, I may change my beliefs about the likelihood of a heads.

Definitions

Deterministic processes do not include randomness. For example, if I drop a ball, it will fall (because gravity).

Definitions

Deterministic processes do not include randomness. For example, if I drop a ball, it will fall (because gravity).

Stochastic events include randomness. For example, if I flip a fair coin, it will be heads half of the time.

Definitions

Deterministic processes do not include randomness. For example, if I drop a ball, it will fall (because gravity).

Stochastic events include randomness. For example, if I flip a fair coin, it will be heads half of the time.

Nearly all social processes are have random components, and can be treated as *stochastic*.

Definitions and axioms

 $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ Experiment: an action that produces stochastic events

Definitions and axioms

- Experiment: an action that produces stochastic events
- Sample space $(\Omega)\!:$ a set of all possible outcomes of the experiment

Definitions and axioms

- Experiment: an action that produces stochastic events
- Sample space (Ω) : a set of all possible outcomes of the experiment
- Event: a subset of the sample space

Example: coin flips

- Experiment
 - 1. flip a coin
 - 2. roll a dice

Example: coin flips

- · Experiment
 - 1. flip a coin
 - 2. roll a dice
- \cdot Sample space Ω
 - 1. {Heads, Tails}
 - 2. {1,2,3,4,5,6}

Example: coin flips

- Experiment
 - 1. flip a coin
 - 2. roll a dice
- \cdot Sample space Ω
 - 1. {Heads, Tails}
 - 2. {1,2,3,4,5,6}
- Event
 - 1. Heads, tails, not heads, heads or tails, heads and tails
 - 2. 3, even number, anything but 6

Probability with equal likelihood of events

If all outcomes are equally likely, and *n* represents the number of elements in a given set, then probability *P* of event *A* is:

$$P(A) = \frac{n_A}{n_\Omega}$$

Probability axioms

1. The probability of any event A is non-negative: $P(A) \ge 0$

Probability axioms

- 1. The probability of any event A is non-negative: $P(A) \ge 0$
- 2. If an experiment is conducted, the probability that one of the outcomes in the sample space occurs is 1: $P(\Omega)=1$

Probability axioms

- 1. The probability of any event A is non-negative: $P(A) \ge 0$
- 2. If an experiment is conducted, the probability that one of the outcomes in the sample space occurs is 1: $P(\Omega)=1$
- 3. Addition rule: If events A and B are mutually exclusive:

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

Probability that an event doesn't occur

$$1 - P(\text{not } A) = P(A)$$

Probability that an event doesn't occur

$$1 - P(\operatorname{not} A) = P(A)$$

If
$$P(\text{rolling a 6}) = \frac{1}{6}$$
 then $P(\text{not rolling a 6}) = 1 - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{5}{6}$

Law of total probability

$$P(A) = P(A \text{ and } B) + P(A \text{ and not } B)$$

Law of total probability

$$P(A) = P(A \text{ and } B) + P(A \text{ and not } B)$$

Assume the sample space for A is [eats pizza, does not eat pizza], and the sample space for B is [happy, unhappy].

Law of total probability

$$P(A) = P(A \text{ and } B) + P(A \text{ and not } B)$$

Assume the sample space for A is [eats pizza, does not eat pizza], and the sample space for B is [happy, unhappy].

If
$$P(\text{eats pizza}) = 0.5$$
 and $P(\text{eats pizza, happy}) = 0.4$, then $P(\text{eats pizza, unhappy}) = 0.1$

General addition rule

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

If P(happy) = 0.5, then P(eats pizza or happy) = 0.6

Three kinds of probability

Joint probability

The joint probability of two events (A and B) occurring is expressed as

P(A and B)

Marginal probability

The marginal probability of an event B is

P(B)

Conditional probability

The conditional probability of event A occurring given that event B occurred is the ratio of the joint probability of A and B divided by the marginal probability of B

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } B)}{P(B)}$$

Working with some real data

Voter files

```
data("FLVoters")
voters<-na.omit(FLVoters)
head(voters)</pre>
```

```
##
       surname county VTD age gender race
## 1
        PIEDRA
                  115 66
                           58
                                   f white
## 2
         LYNCH
                  115 13
                           51
                                   m white
## 4
       LATHROP
                  115 80
                           54
                                   m white
## 5
        HUMMEL
                  115
                       8
                           77
                                   f white
## 6 CHRISTISON
                  115
                      55
                           49
                                   m white
## 7
         HOMAN
                  115 84
                          77
                                   f white
```

Marginal probability

What is the probability that a randomly sampled voter in the population is Black: P(Black) = ?

```
voters %>%
 count(race, name = "voters") %>%
 mutate(p = voters/sum(voters))
##
       race voters
## 1
       asian 175 0.019203336
## 2
       black 1194 0.131021617
## 3 hispanic 1192 0.130802151
      native 29 0.003182267
## 4
## 5
     other 310 0.034017338
## 6
     white 6213 0.681773291
```

Is a woman: P(Woman) = ?

Joint probability

What is the probability that a voter is a Black woman:

P(Black and woman) = ?

6 white 0.360 0.322

What is the probability that a voter is a woman?

Use the law of total probability:

$$P(A) = P(A \text{ and } B) + P(A \text{ and not } B)$$

put differently, for all categories of B i:

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A \text{ and } B_i)$$

Conditional probability

If a voter is a man, what is the probability that he is Asian:

```
P(Asian|man) = ?
```

```
voters %>%
  filter(gender=="m") %>%
  count(race) %>%
  mutate(n=n/sum(n))
##
       race
## 1
       asian 0.021749409
## 2
       black 0.121985816
## 3 hispanic 0.124349882
## 4
      native 0.002836879
      other 0.035933806
## 5
## 6
      white 0.693144208
```

Conditional probability

Alternatively, we can use the definition of conditional probability as the ratio of the joint probability to the marginal probability:

$$P(Asian|man) = \frac{P(Asian and man)}{P(man)}$$

Conditioning on more than one variable

What is the probability that a male voter over age 60 is white?

P(white|male and over 60)

```
voters %>%
 mutate(over60=age>60) %>%
 count(over60, gender, race) %>%
 mutate(n=n/sum(n)) %>%
 pivot wider(names from = gender, values from = n)
## # A tibble: 12 x 4
     over60 race
##
     <lgl> <chr>
                       <dbl>
                                <dbl>
##
   1 FALSE asian
                    0.00691 0.00823
   2 FALSE black
                    0.0555 0.0435
   3 FALSE hispanic 0.0549 0.0436
   4 FALSE native
                   0.00121 0.000768
   5 FALSE other
                    0.0124
                           0.0129
   6 FALSE
           white
                  0.212
                             0.198
   7 TRUE
                    0.00219 0.00187
##
            asian
##
   8 TRUE
           black
                    0.0189
                           0.0132
  9 TRUE
           hispanic 0.0182
                             0.0142
                    0.000658 0.000549
## 10 TRUE
            native
## 11 TRUE
            other 0.00494 0.00373
## 12 TRUE
           white 0.148
                             0.124
```

Conditioning on more than one variable

In general:

$$P(A \text{ and } B|C) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C)}{P(C)}$$

and

$$P(A|B \text{ and } C) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C)}{P(B \text{ and } C)}$$

Independence

Two events are independent if knowledge of one event gives us no information about the other event.

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$
 and $P(B|A) = P(B)$

$$A \perp B$$

if and only if

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Bayes' rule

Recall that a Bayesian perspective treats probability as a subjective opinion about how likely an event is. How should we change our beliefs after we make observations about the world?

Bayes' rule

Recall that a Bayesian perspective treats probability as a subjective opinion about how likely an event is. How should we change our beliefs after we make observations about the world?

Bayes' rule formalizes how we should update our beliefs based on evidence:

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

Bayes' rule

Recall that a Bayesian perspective treats probability as a subjective opinion about how likely an event is. How should we change our beliefs after we make observations about the world?

Bayes' rule formalizes how we should update our beliefs based on evidence:

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

Prior beliefs and evidence

If we have a *prior* belief that event A has P(A) chance of occurring, then we observe some data, represented as event B, we update our beliefs and obtain a *posterior probability* P(A|B).

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

Example: Detecting breast cancer

How good is a mammogram at detecting breast cancer?

What we know: One percent of women have breast cancer. 80 percent of people who have cancer and take a mammogram test positive. 9.6 percent of people who take a mammogram get a positive result when they do not have breast cancer.

Example: Detecting breast cancer

How good is a mammogram at detecting breast cancer?

What we know: One percent of women have breast cancer. 80 percent of people who have cancer and take a mammogram test positive. 9.6 percent of people who take a mammogram get a positive result when they do not have breast cancer.

If you take a mammogram and get a positive result, what is the probability that you have breast cancer?

Rewriting as probabilities

One percent of women have breast cancer

$$P(Cancer) = 0.01$$

Rewriting as probabilities

One percent of women have breast cancer

$$P(Cancer) = 0.01$$

80 percent of people who have cancer and take a mammogram test positive

$$P(\text{Test positive}|\text{Cancer}) = 0.8$$

Rewriting as probabilities

One percent of women have breast cancer

$$P(Cancer) = 0.01$$

80 percent of people who have cancer and take a mammogram test positive

$$P(\text{Test positive}|\text{Cancer}) = 0.8$$

9.6 percent of people who take a mammogram get a positive result when they do not have breast cancer

$$P(\text{Test positive}|\text{No cancer}) = 0.096$$

Using Bayes' rule

The prior probability of having cancer is 0.01. How should we update our belief that someone has cancer based on a positive test?

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

Using the law of total probability, we can rewrite the denominator as:

$$P(B) = P(B|A)P(A) + P(B| \text{ not } A)P(\text{not } A)$$

Using Bayes' rule

We can apply Bayes' rule for A = Cancer, B = positive test:

$$\frac{P(\text{Test positive}|\text{Cancer})P(\text{Cancer})}{P(\text{Test positive})}$$

$$P(\text{Cancer}|\text{Test positive}) = \frac{0.8 \times 0.01}{0.8 \times 0.01 + 0.096 \times 0.99}$$

```
(0.8 * 0.01)/(0.8 * 0.01 + 0.096 * 0.99)
```

[1] 0.07763975

The probability that someone has cancer given a prior probability of one percent and a positive test is about 0.078