

## Probability, 2

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Frank Edwards

## Three kinds of probability

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

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

The marginal probability of an event B is

$$P(B)$$

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

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# Voter files

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

##	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:  $P(\text{Black}) = ?$

```
voters %>%  
  count(race, name = "voters") %>%  
  mutate(p = voters/sum(voters))
```

```
##      race voters      p  
## 1   asian    175 0.01920336  
## 2   black   1194 0.131021617  
## 3 hispanic  1192 0.130802151  
## 4   native    29 0.003182267  
## 5   other    310 0.034017338  
## 6   white   6213 0.681773291
```

Is a woman:  $P(\text{Woman}) = ?$

```
voters %>%  
  count(gender) %>%  
  mutate(n = n/sum(n))
```

```
##   gender      n  
## 1      f 0.5358279  
## 2      m 0.4641721
```



# Joint probability

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

$P(\text{Black and woman}) = ?$

```
voters %>%  
  count(gender, race) %>%  
  mutate(n = n/sum(n)) %>%  
  pivot_wider(names_from = gender, values_from = n)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 3  
##   race      f      m  
##   <chr>    <dbl> <dbl>  
## 1 asian    0.00911 0.0101  
## 2 black    0.0744  0.0566  
## 3 hispanic 0.0731  0.0577  
## 4 native   0.00187 0.00132  
## 5 other    0.0173  0.0167  
## 6 white    0.360   0.322
```

## What is the probability that a voter is a woman?

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 3
##   race          f      m
##   <chr>      <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 asian    0.00911 0.0101
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```

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:

$$P(\text{Asian}|\text{man}) = ?$$

```
voters %>%  
  filter(gender=="m") %>%  
  count(race) %>%  
  mutate(n=n/sum(n))
```

```
##      race      n  
## 1   asian 0.021749409  
## 2   black 0.121985816  
## 3 hispanic 0.124349882  
## 4   native 0.002836879  
## 5    other 0.035933806  
## 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:

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

```
voters %>%  
  count(gender, race) %>%  
  mutate(n = n/sum(n))%>%  
  pivot_wider(names_from = gender, values_from = n)
```

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## # A tibble: 6 x 3  
##   race      f      m  
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```

# Conditioning on more than one variable

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

$$P(\text{white} | \text{male and over 60})$$

```
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      f      m  
##   <lg1> <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  asian    0.00219 0.00187  
## 8 TRUE  black    0.0189  0.0132  
## 9 TRUE  hispanic 0.0182  0.0142  
## 10 TRUE native  0.000658 0.000549  
## 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.

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

$$A \perp B$$

if and only if

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

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?



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

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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:

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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.

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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

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## Rewriting as probabilities

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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

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



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:

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

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

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

```
(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. What would the probability of a true positive be if the test were more sensitive? Say 0.95?

## Random Variables

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- Each value is mutually exclusive
- The set of all values is exhaustive (the sample space  $\Omega$ )
- Discrete random variables take a finite number of values (e.g. TRUE, FALSE)
- Continuous random variables are real numbers, and take on an infinite number of values



## The simplest random variable: the binary Bernoulli

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Bernoulli (binary) variables are typically represented as  $[0, 1]$  or  $[T, F]$ .

They can also be two-level character variables, like  $[\text{pass}, \text{fail}]$  or  $[\text{plaid}, \text{stripes}]$ .

## A coin flip as a Bernoulli random variable

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$$P(X = 1) = p$$

$$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$$

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In this notation, we name the variable  $X$ , note that it is randomly distributed  $\sim$ , name the distribution it follows *Bernoulli*, and list the parameters for that distribution  $p$ .

## Let's flip some coins

```
set.seed(12345)
sample_of_flips<-rbinom(5, 1, 0.5)
table(sample_of_flips)
```

```
## sample_of_flips
## 0 1
## 1 4
```

## Let's flip some coins

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set.seed(12345)
sample_of_flips<-rbinom(5, 1, 0.5)
table(sample_of_flips)
```

```
## sample_of_flips
## 0 1
## 1 4
```

This is the result of taking 5 draws from a Bernoulli random variable with probability 0.5.

## Describing a probability distribution: probability mass

We use a probability mass function to show how likely each value is in a random variable

The probability mass function (PMF) of a variable  $X$  is defined as the probability that a variable takes on a particular value  $x$ .

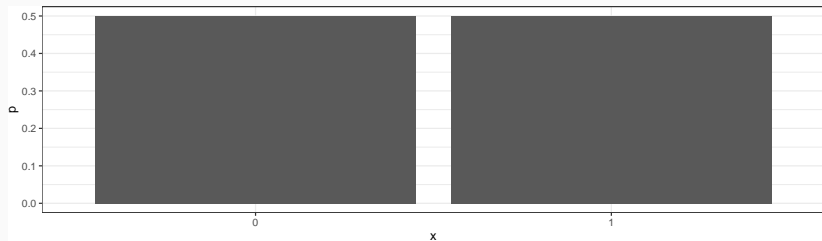
$$PMF(x) = P(X = x)$$

For a Bernoulli variable,  $PMF(X = 1) = p$  and  $PMF(X = 0) = 1 - p$

## The probability mass function for our coin flip

$$PMF(X = 1) = p = 0.5$$

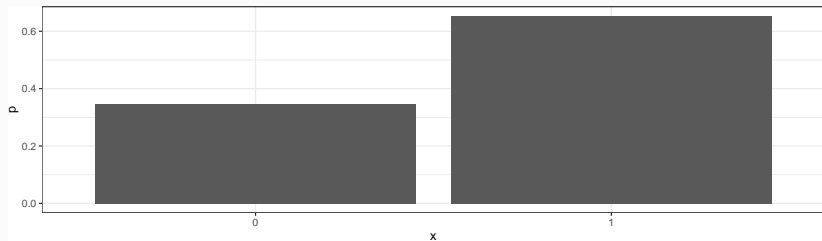
$$PMF(X = 0) = 1 - p = 0.5$$



## The probability mass function for passing the bar in NJ ( $p=0.653$ )

$$PMF(X = 1) = p = 0.653$$

$$PMF(X = 0) = 1 - p = 0.347$$



## Describing a probability distribution: cumulative probability

How likely is a variable to take a value less than or equal to a specified value?

We define the cumulative distribution function as the sum of all probabilities up to a value  $x$

$$CDF(X) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{k \leq x}^x PMF(k)$$

The CDF always ranges from 0 to 1, and never decreases as  $x$  increases.

Uniform random variables have an equal probability of taking any real value within a given interval  $[a, b]$ .



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# Uniform random variables

Let's simulate it! 10 draws

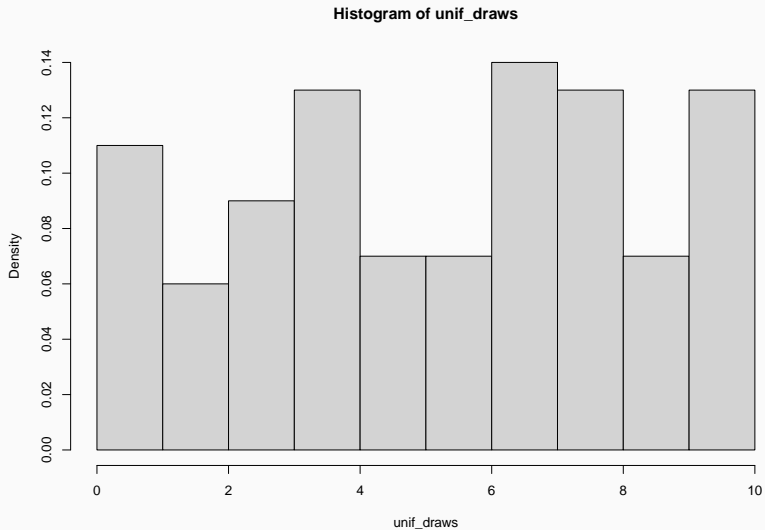
```
unif_draws<-runif(10, min=0, max=10)  
unif_draws
```

```
## [1] 1.66371785 3.25095387 5.09224336 7.27705254 9.89736938 0.34535435  
## [7] 1.52373490 7.35684952 0.01136587 3.91203335
```

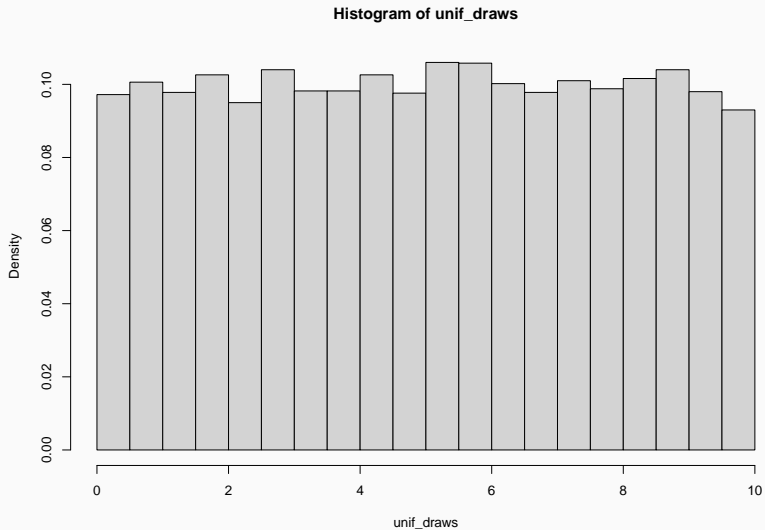
```
hist(unif_draws, freq=F)
```



## Uniform random variable: 100 draws



## Uniform random variable: 10000 draws



## Properties of uniform random variables

For a uniform random variable on the interval  $[a, b]$ , the probability of drawing any value between  $a$  and  $b$  is

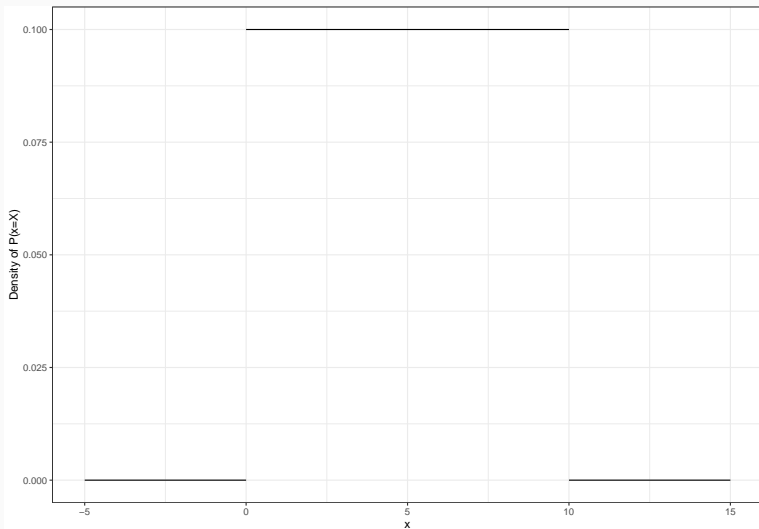
$$\frac{1}{b - a}$$

Formally, the PDF (density, not mass for continuous) and CDF are defined as

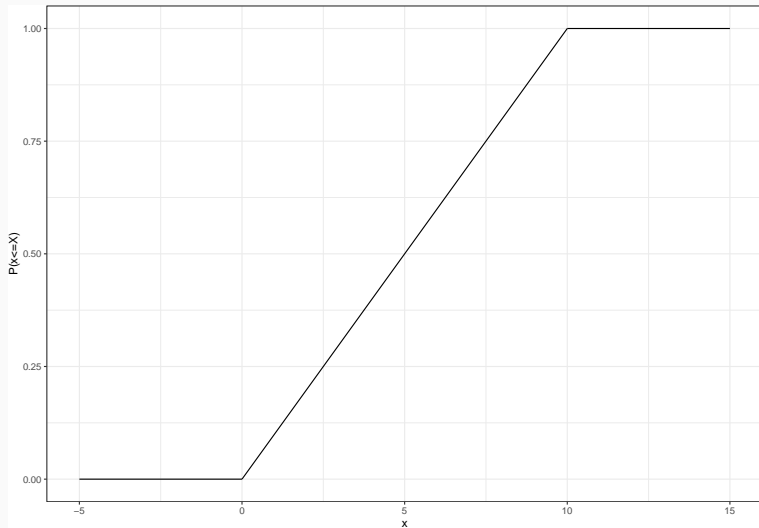
$$\text{PDF: } \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{CDF: } \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{for } x \in [a, b] \\ 1 & \text{for } x \geq b \end{cases}$$

## Probability Density function for $X \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10)$



## Cumulative Distribution Function for $X \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10)$





## A note on CDF for continuous variables

Recall that a CDF for a discrete variable is the sum of all probabilities for values  $x \leq X$

We can't sum over each value when  $X$  is continuous. Instead, we'll take the integral

$$CDF(x) = P(x \leq X) = \int_{-\infty}^x PDF(x)dx$$

## The expectation of a random variable

The expectation of a random variable  $E(X)$  is the mean of a random variable.

Be careful not to confuse  $E(X)$  and  $\bar{x}$ .

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For a discrete variable, the expectation is the sum of all values of  $x$  weighted by their probability, given by the PDF  $f(x)$ .

$$E(X) = \sum_x x \times f(x)$$

## Variance and standard deviation of a random variable

The standard deviation  $sd$  is

$$sd = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

And the sample variance is  $sd^2$

## Variance and standard deviation of a random variable

The standard deviation  $sd$  is

$$sd = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

And the sample variance is  $sd^2$

## Variance defined

For a random variable  $X$ , the variance is defined via the expectation instead of sample mean

$$V(X) = E[\{X - E(X)\}^2]$$

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$$V(X) = E[\{X - E(X)\}^2]$$

Note the similarities in the two equations

$$V(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

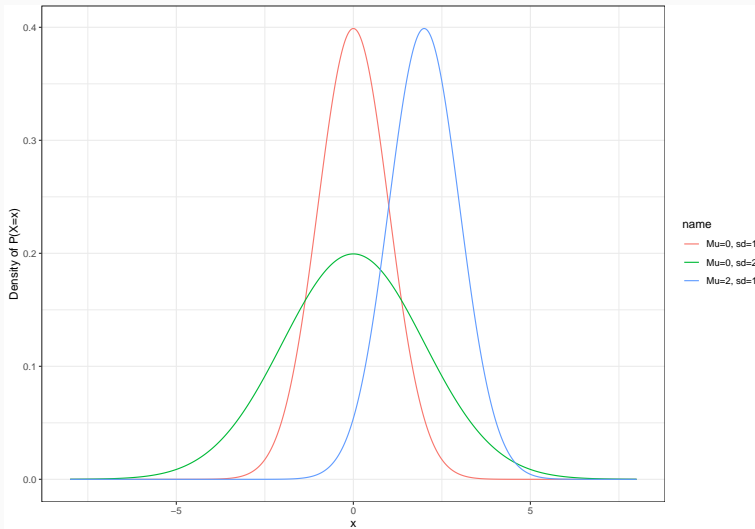
# The Normal Distribution

The Normal (Gaussian) distribution is continuous, and takes on values from  $[-\infty, \infty]$ . It has two parameters, the mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  (or variance  $\sigma^2$ ).

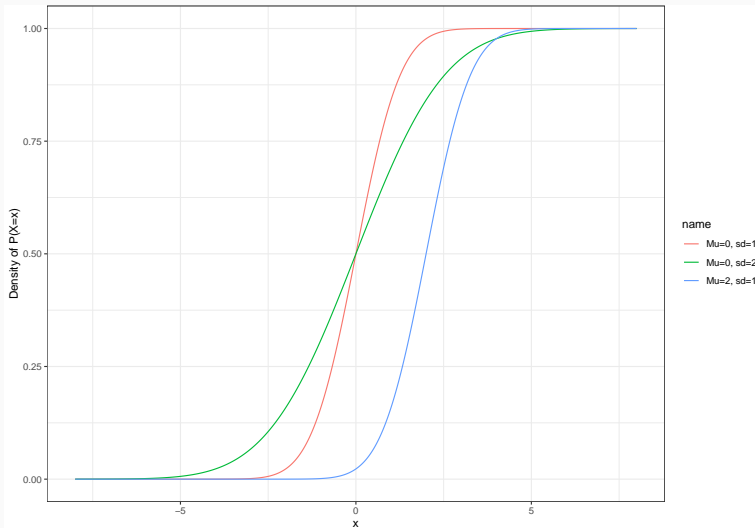
- $\mu$  determines the location of the distribution
- $\sigma$  determines the spread of the distribution



# The Normal PDF



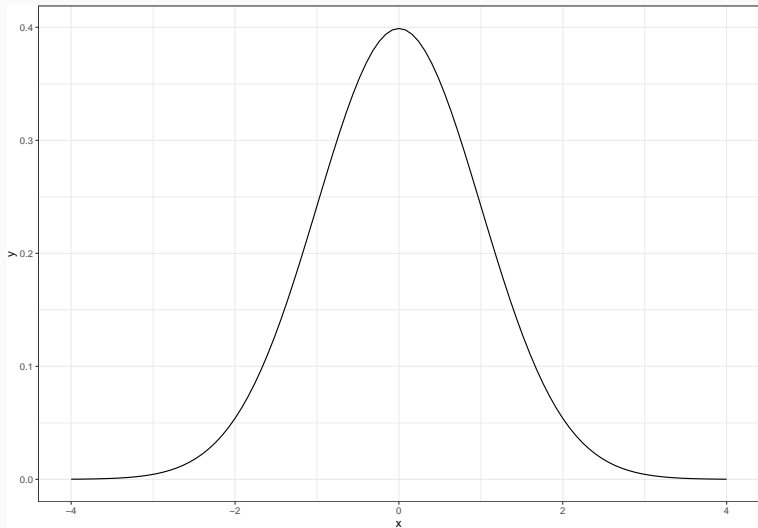
# The Normal CDF



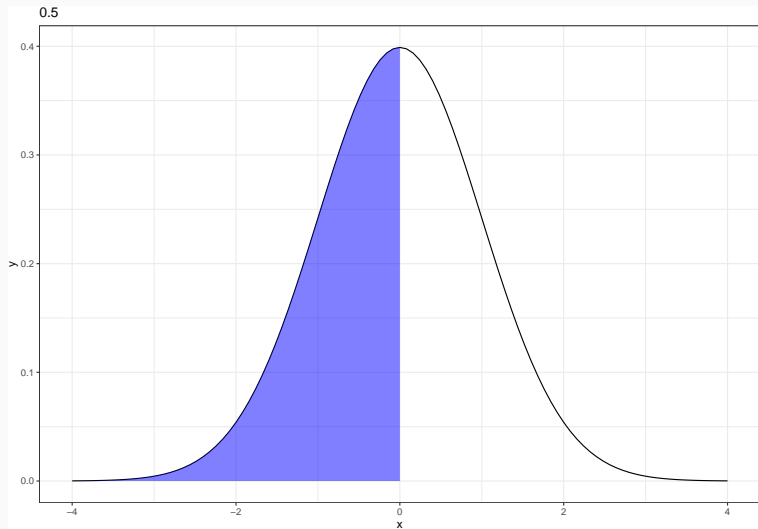
## Special features of Normal distributions:

- The sum of many random variables from other distributions are often Normal
- For  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $Z = X + c$  is also Normal:  $Z \sim (\mu + c, \sigma^2)$
- $Z = cX$  is distributed  $Z \sim N(c\mu, (c\sigma)^2)$
- Z-scores of a Normal random variable are  $N(0, 1)$

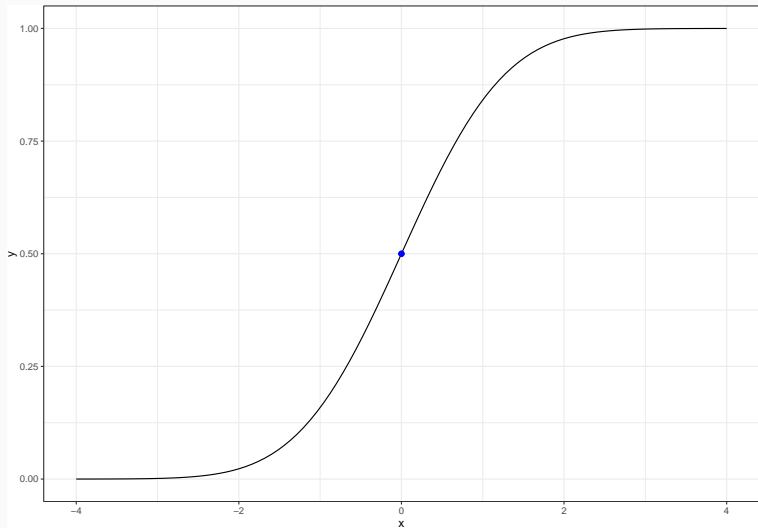
## Area under the curve: interpreting the PDF and CDF



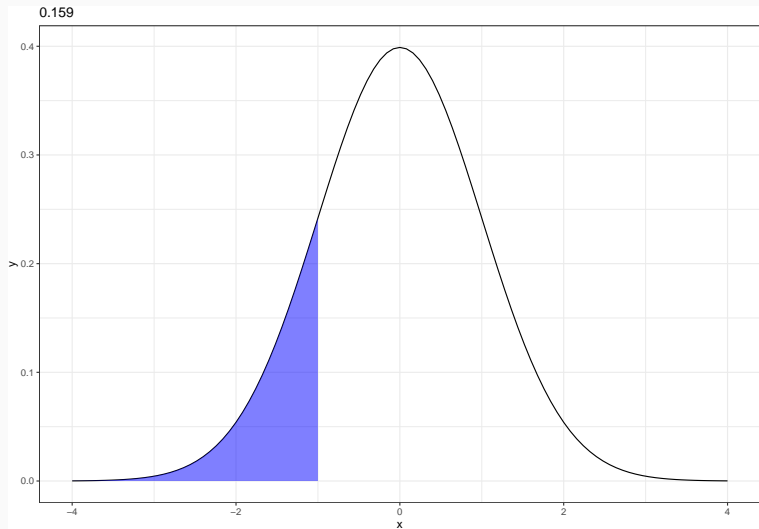
## Area under the curve: interpreting the PDF and CDF



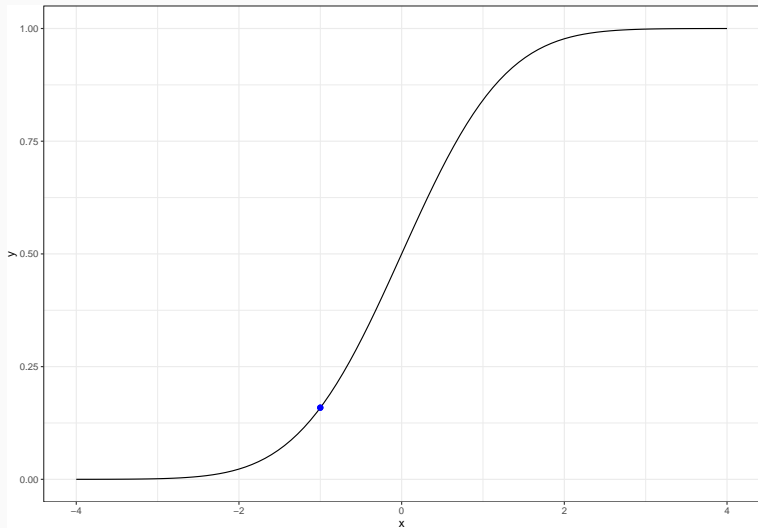
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To obtain a z-score, we subtract the mean and divide by the standard deviation:

$$\text{z-score} = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

For a Normal variable, z-scores are distributed  $z \sim N(0, 1)$

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## Z-scores and area under the curve

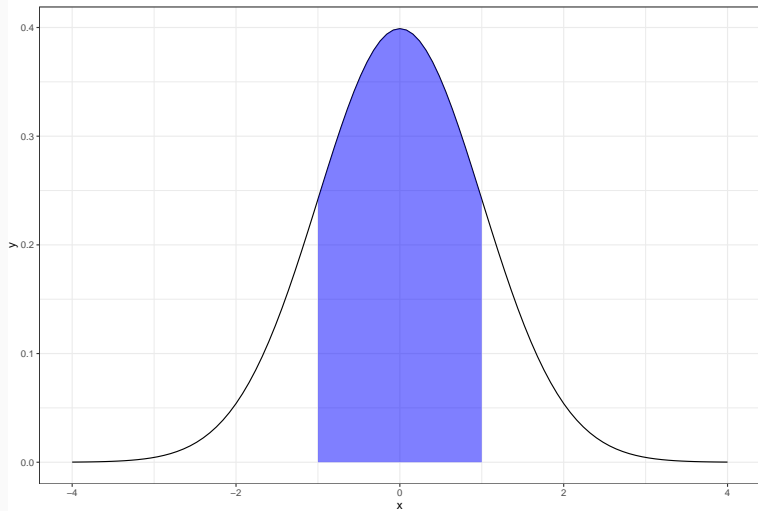
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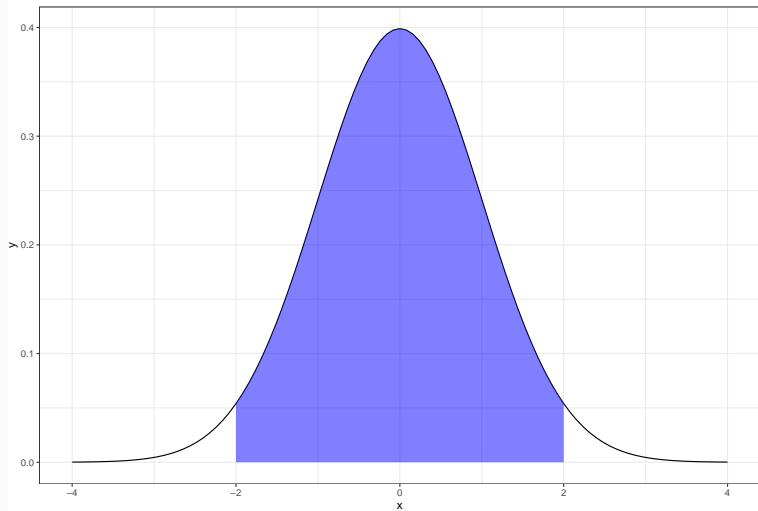
For a Normal variable, z-scores are distributed  $z \sim N(0, 1)$

What does a z-score of 0 indicate? -1? 2?

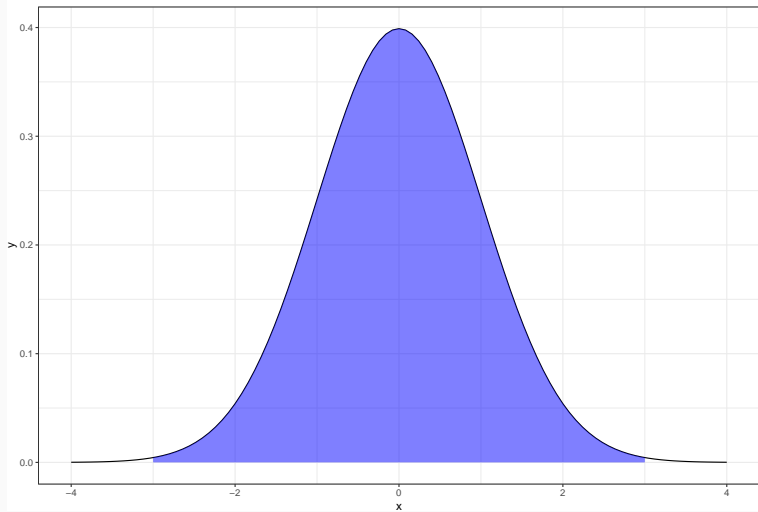
Mean  $\pm$  1 SD = 0.683



Mean  $\pm$  2 SD = 0.954



Mean  $\pm$  3 SD = 0.997



# Useful probability distribution functions

```
### Normal(0,1) probability density function
```

```
dnorm(x = 0, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.3989423
```

```
### Normal(0,1) cumulative distribution function
```

```
pnorm(q = 0, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.5
```

```
### Random draw from a normal(0,1) distribution
```

```
rnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] -0.275962
```

```
### CDF position for a given probability (quantile)
```

```
qnorm(p = 0.75, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6744898
```

```
### You can also use dbinom(), pbinom(), rbinom(), qbinom()
```