

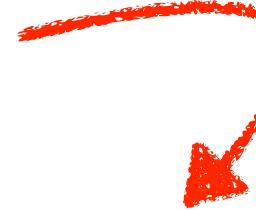
Probability and statistical thinking

Biofísica Guatemala 2025

Javier Aguilar

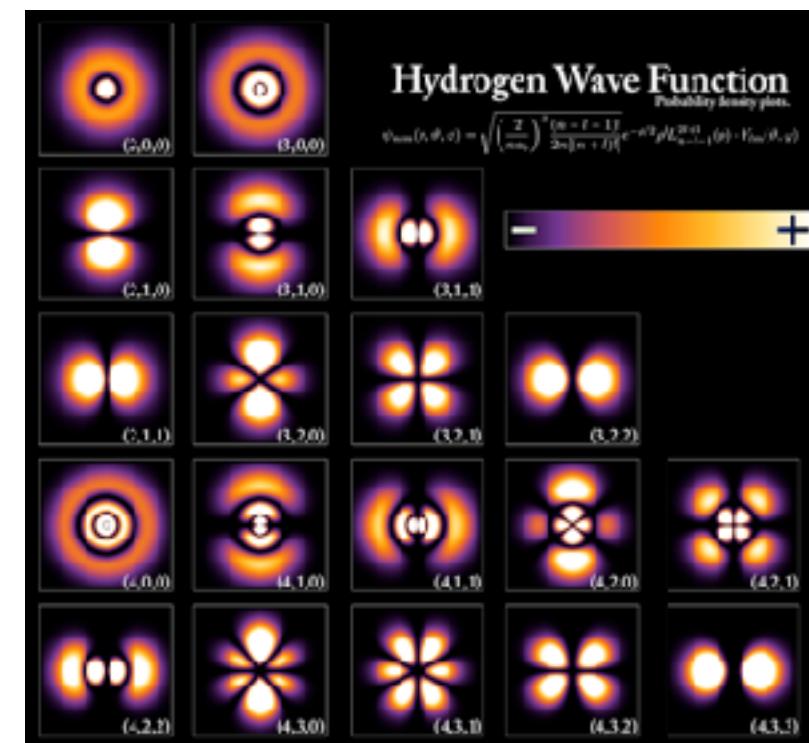
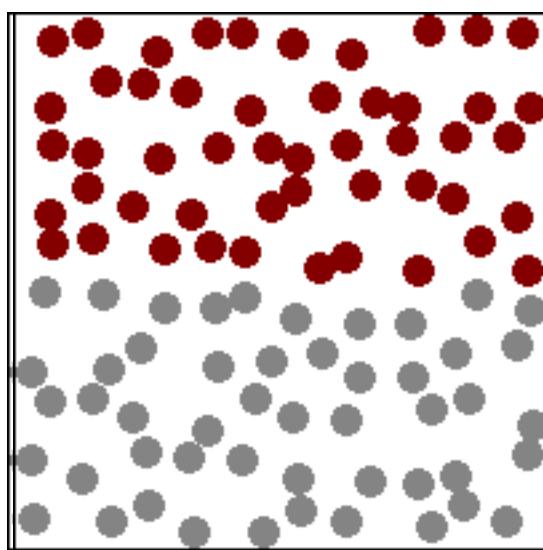
Aim and success

Probability is the logic of uncertainty



Luck. Coincidence. Randomness. Risk. Doubt. Fortune. Chance.

Physics

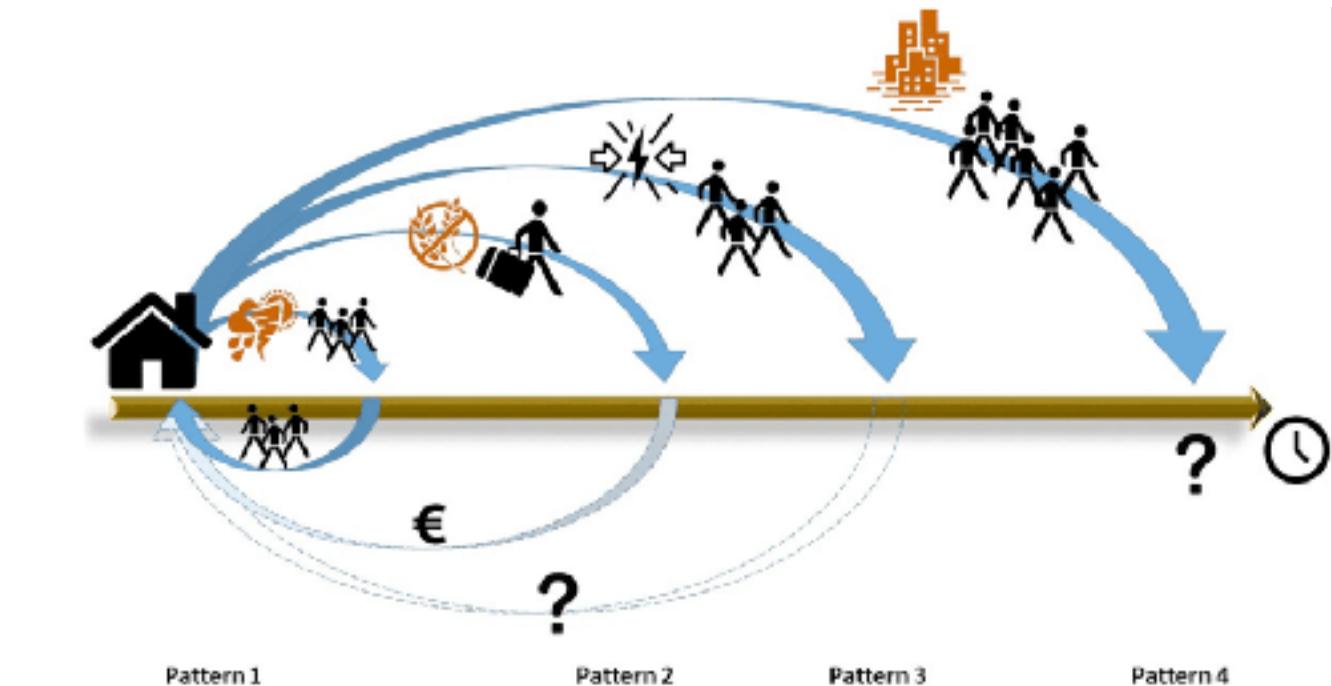


Finance

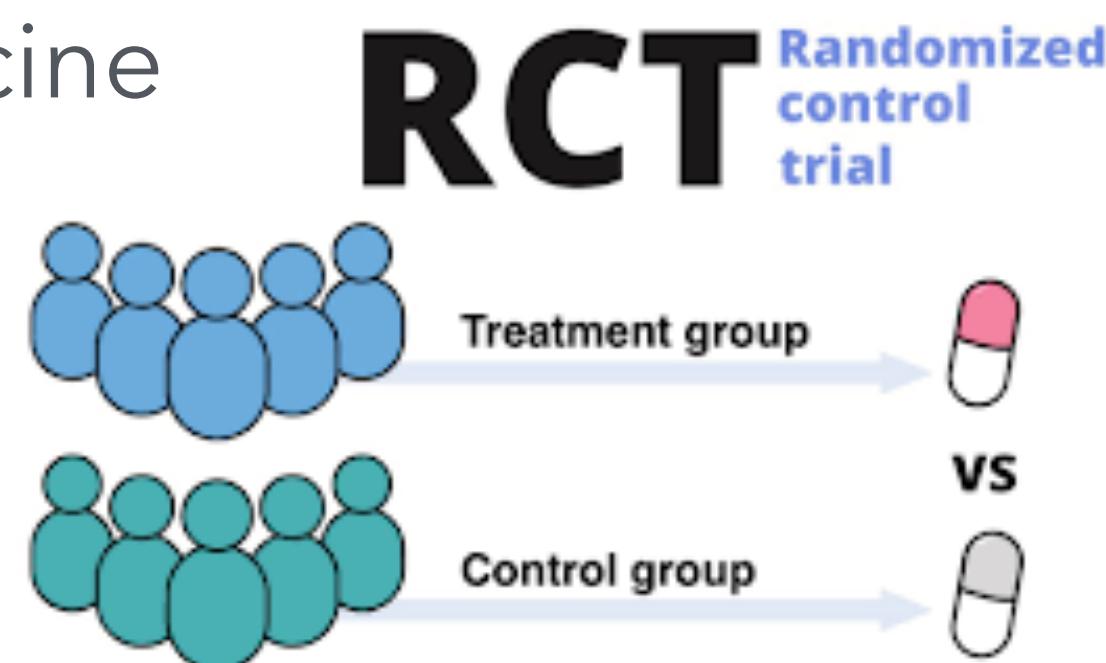
Table 1: Detailed description of stock market indices of countries classified according to regions.



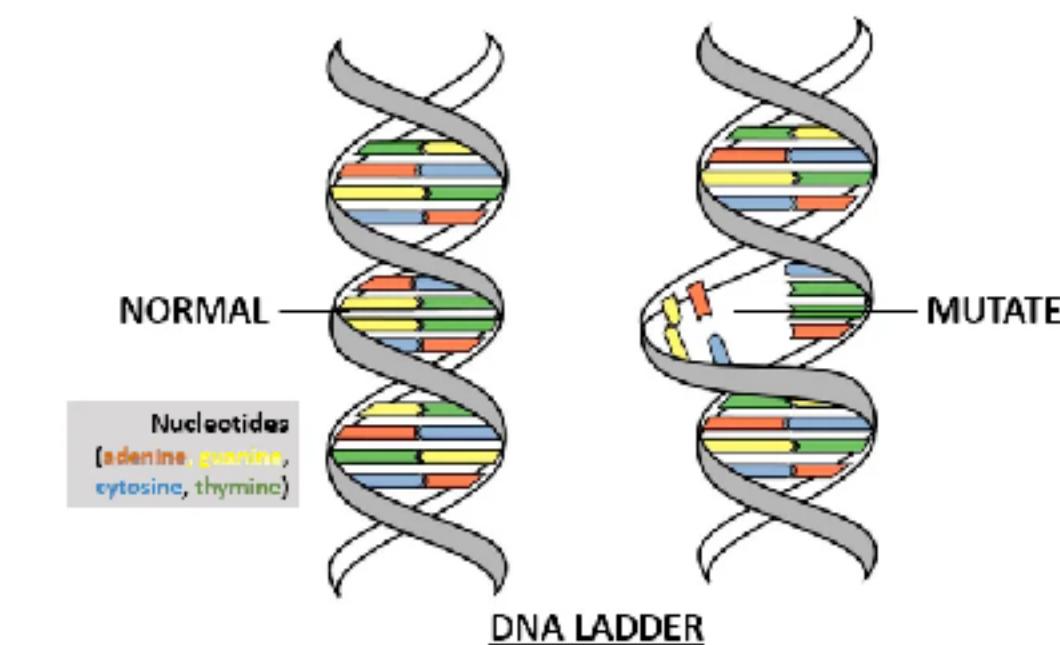
Social sciences



Medicine



Biology



Weather forecast

	M	T	W	TH	F	S	S
Chance of rainfall	70%	80%	90%	80%	60%	20%	0%

History

“Since traveling was onerous (and expensive), and eating, hunting and wenching generally did not fill the 17th century gentleman's day, two possibilities remained to occupy the empty hours, praying and **gambling**; many preferred the latter.”

Chris Van den Broeck



Cardano



Fermat



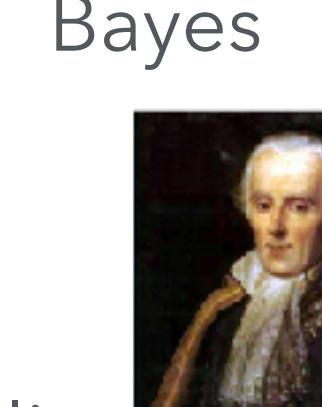
Pascal



Bernoulli



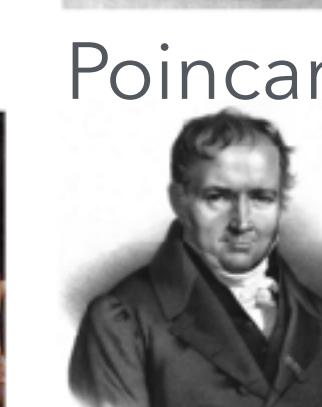
Huygens



Bayes



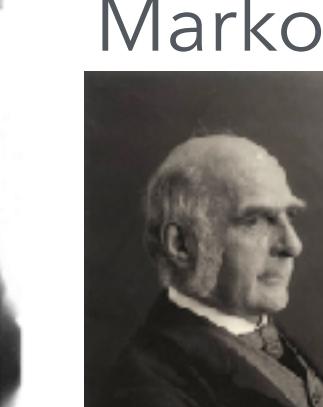
Laplace



Poincaré



Poisson



Markov



Galton



Fisher



Kolmogorov

Lévy

The rising of probability and statistical thinking

XVI

XVII

XVIII

XIX

XX

XXI



Gombaud

In 1654 a French nobleman poses a gambling question:
Is it better to bet on a double six in 24 throws of
two dices or one six in 4 throws?

Law of large numbers

Bayes theorem

Notion of standard deviation

Systematic use of statistics

First book on probabilities:
Generating functions

Probability postulates

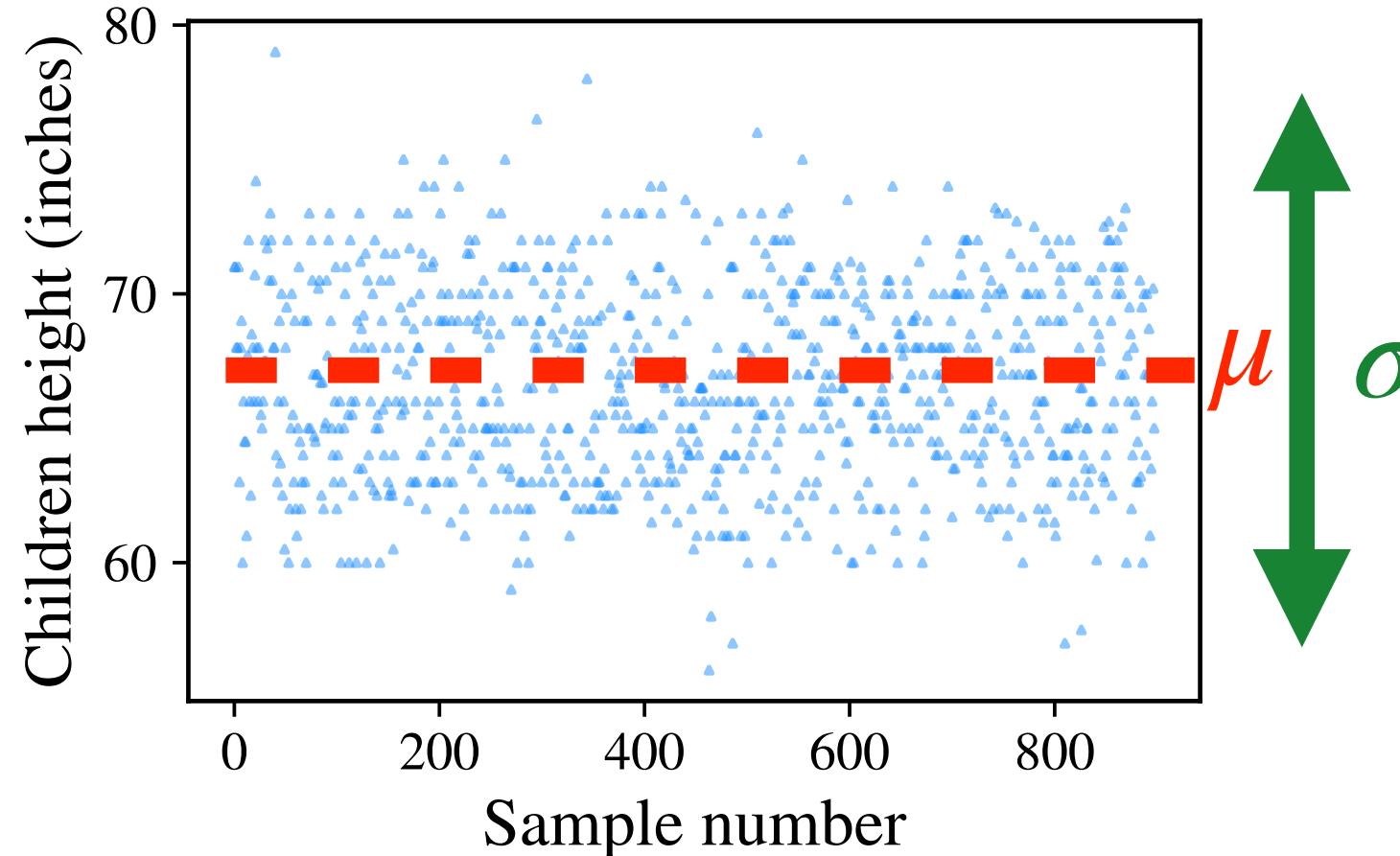
Statistics

Characterizing observed randomness

Data

family	father	mother	gender	height	kids	male	female	
0	1	78.5	67.0	M	73.2	4	1.0	0.0
1	1	78.5	67.0	F	69.2	4	0.0	1.0
2	1	78.5	67.0	F	69.0	4	0.0	1.0
3	1	78.5	67.0	F	69.0	4	0.0	1.0
4	2	75.5	66.5	M	73.5	4	1.0	0.0
...
893	136A	68.5	65.0	M	68.5	8	1.0	0.0
894	136A	68.5	65.0	M	67.7	8	1.0	0.0
895	136A	68.5	65.0	F	64.0	8	0.0	1.0
896	136A	68.5	65.0	F	63.5	8	0.0	1.0
897	136A	68.5	65.0	F	63.0	8	0.0	1.0

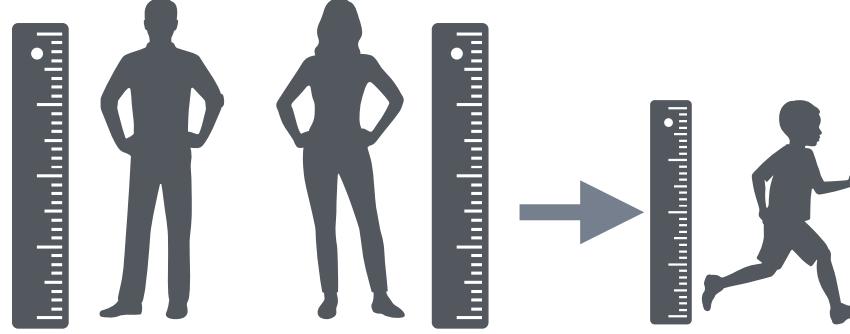
898 rows × 8 columns



Sir Francis Galton
(1822-1911)



Case of study:
Human height heritage
Mean, variance, histogram, correlations



Summary statistics

measures: N

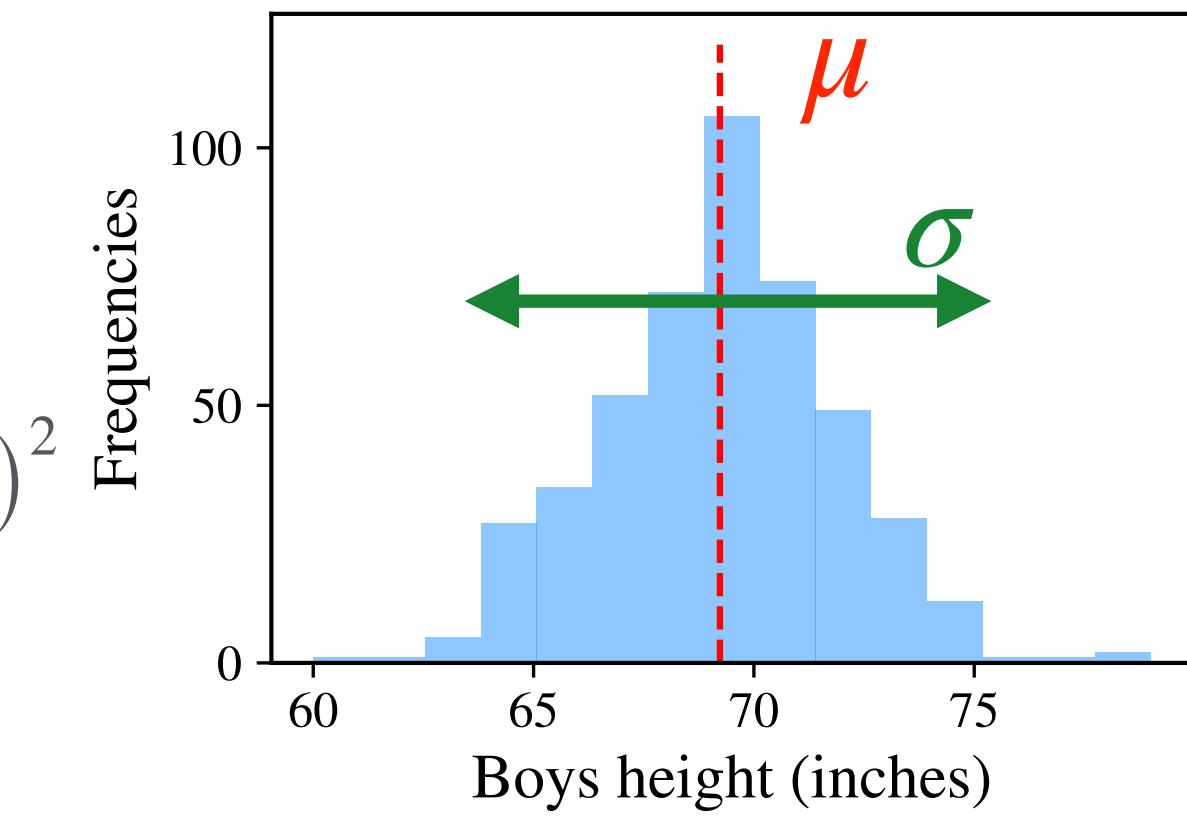
measures:
 x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N

Frequency:
(histogram)

$$\text{Sample Mean: } \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

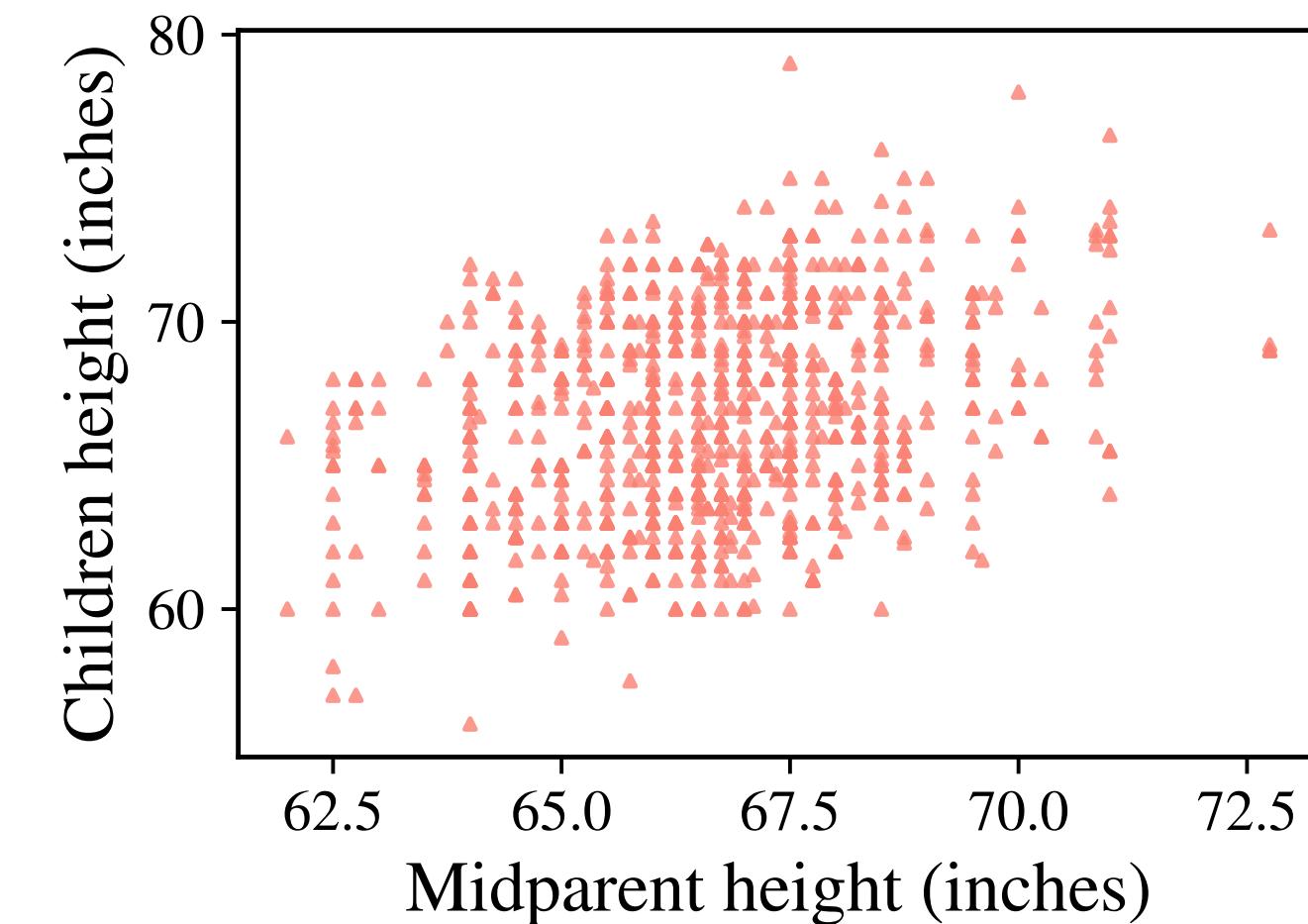
$$\text{Sample Variance: } \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N I(x_i \in [x, x + dx])$$



Correlations

$$\hat{\rho} \sim 0.3$$



$$\text{"Midparent" height: } h_m = \frac{1}{2} (h_{\text{father}} + h_{\text{mother}})$$

$$\text{Sample Covariance: } \hat{C} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \hat{\mu}_x)(y_i - \hat{\mu}_y)$$

$$\text{Pearson's coefficient: } \hat{\rho} = \frac{\hat{C}}{\hat{\sigma}_x \hat{\sigma}_y} \in [-1, 1]$$

$\hat{\rho} > 0$ The two variables tend to increase together

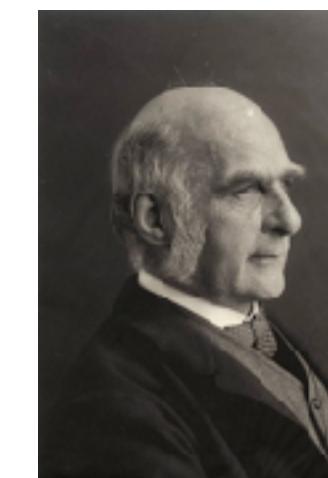
$\hat{\rho} < 0$ If one increases the other tends to decrease

$\hat{\rho} \approx 0$ Decorrelated variables

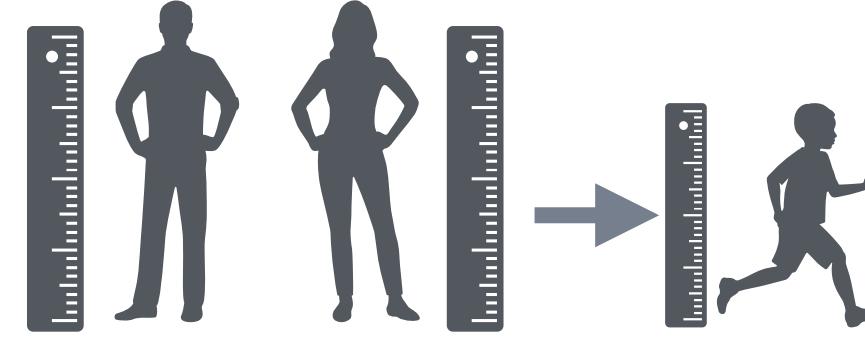
Statistics

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Case of study:
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Linear regression

Best straight line fit to data

$$y = ax + \beta$$

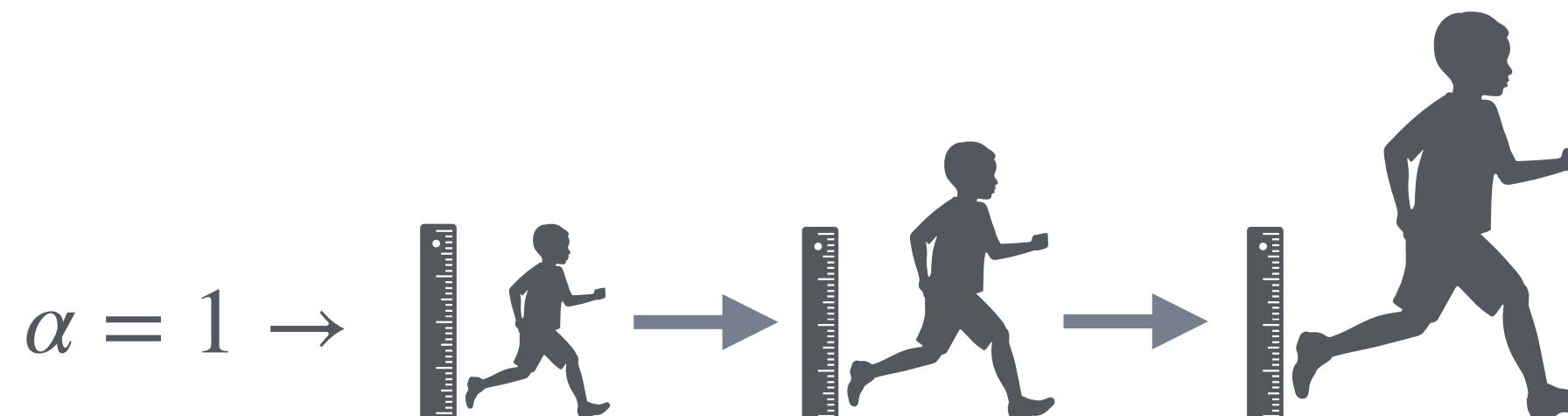
$$\alpha = \frac{\hat{C}}{\hat{\sigma}_x^2} = \rho \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\hat{\sigma}_x}$$

$$\beta = \hat{\mu}_y - \alpha \hat{\mu}_x$$

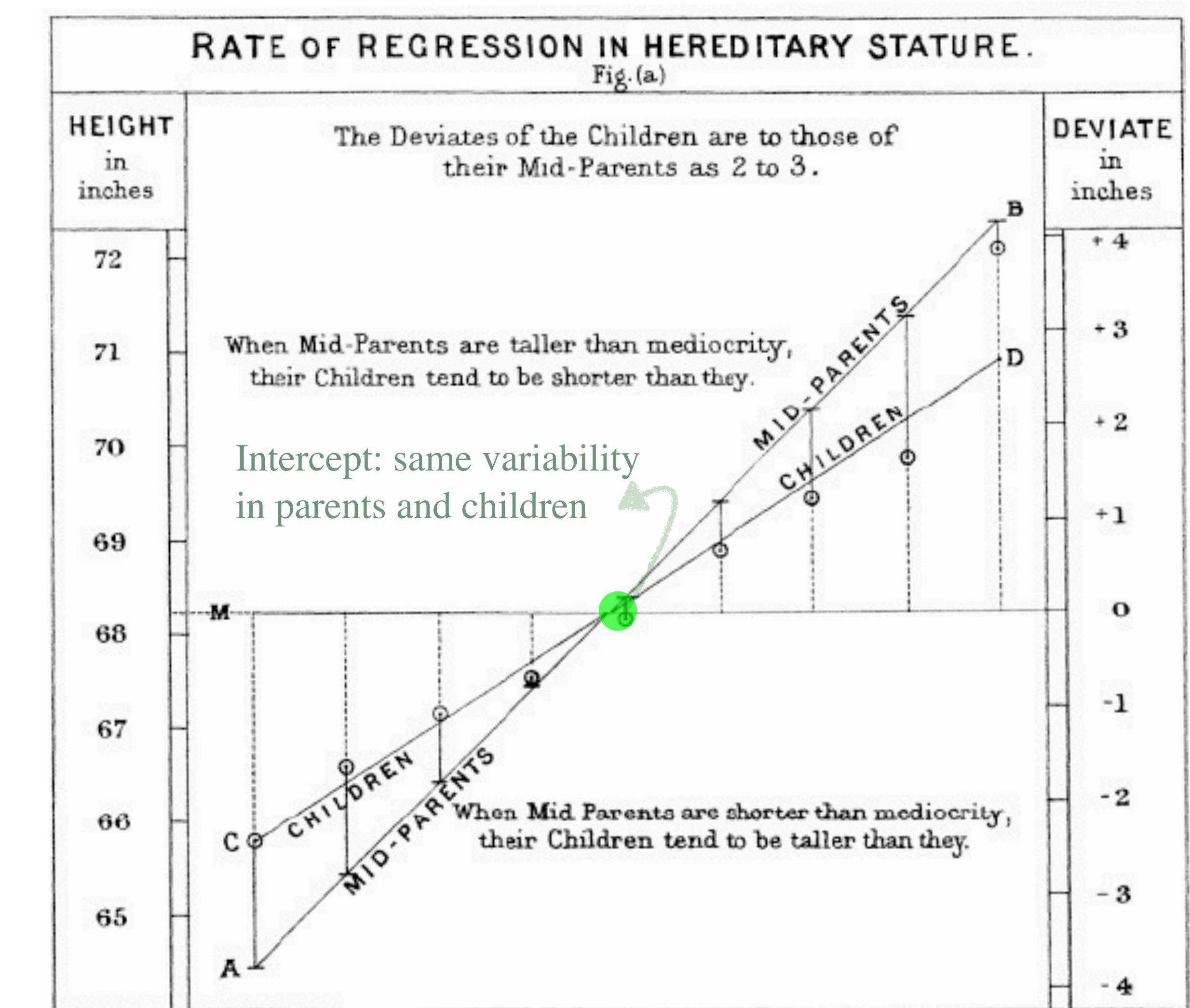
$$\alpha = \frac{2}{3}$$

Variability controlled through generations

Regression to mediocrity

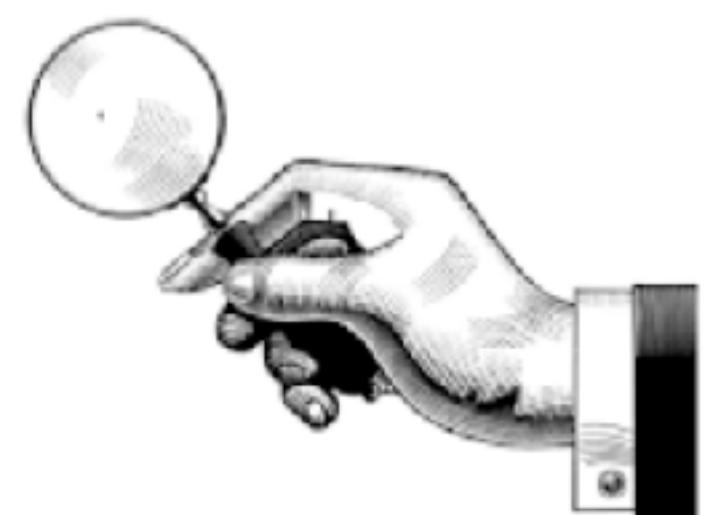


$$\alpha = 1 \rightarrow$$



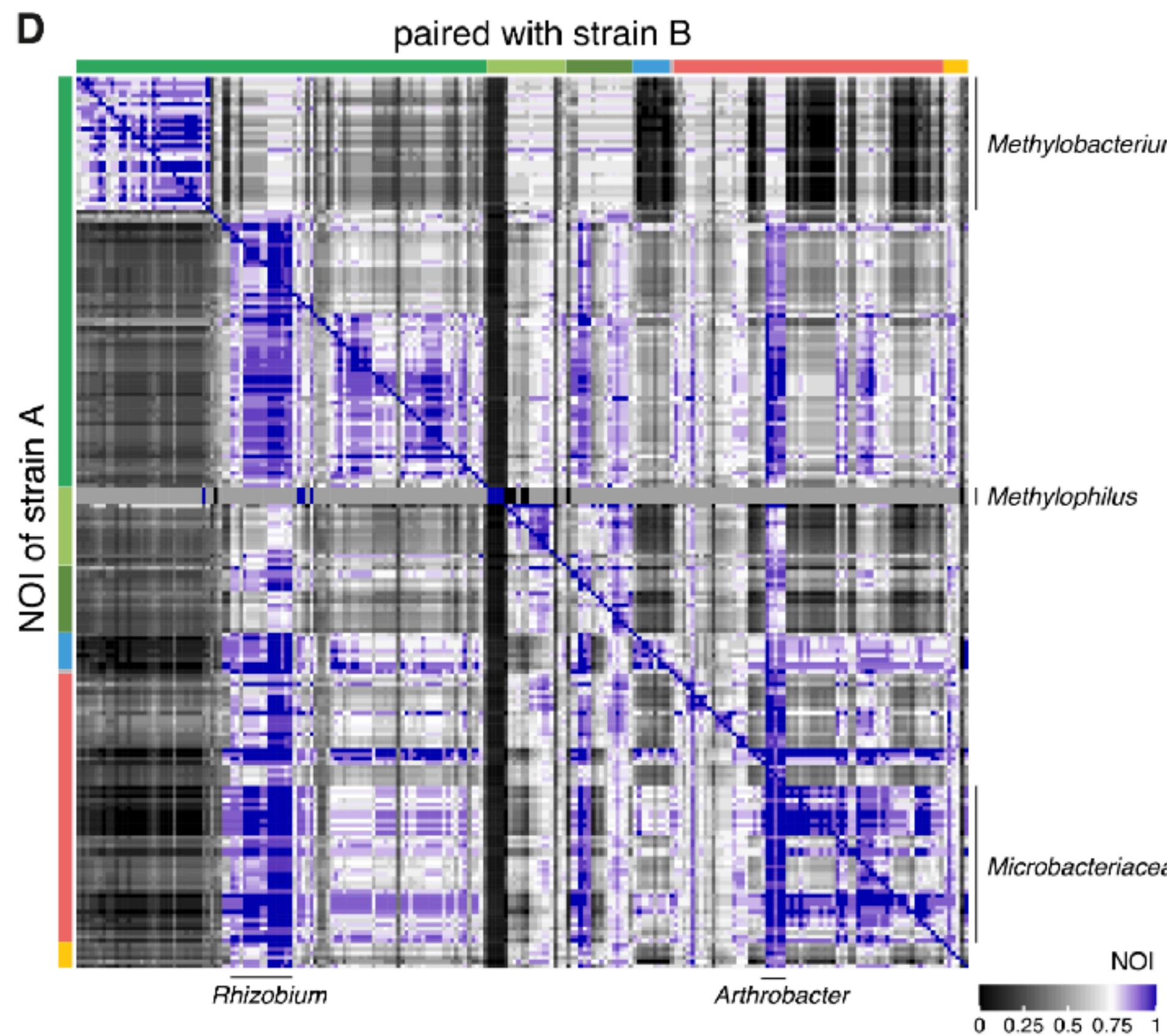
Statistics

Characterizing observed randomness



THE DEVIL IS
IN THE DETAIL

How to visualize complex data?



How to interpret summary statistics?

What measures the central tendency?

Mean, mode or median

How many sigmas?

Chebyshev's theorem

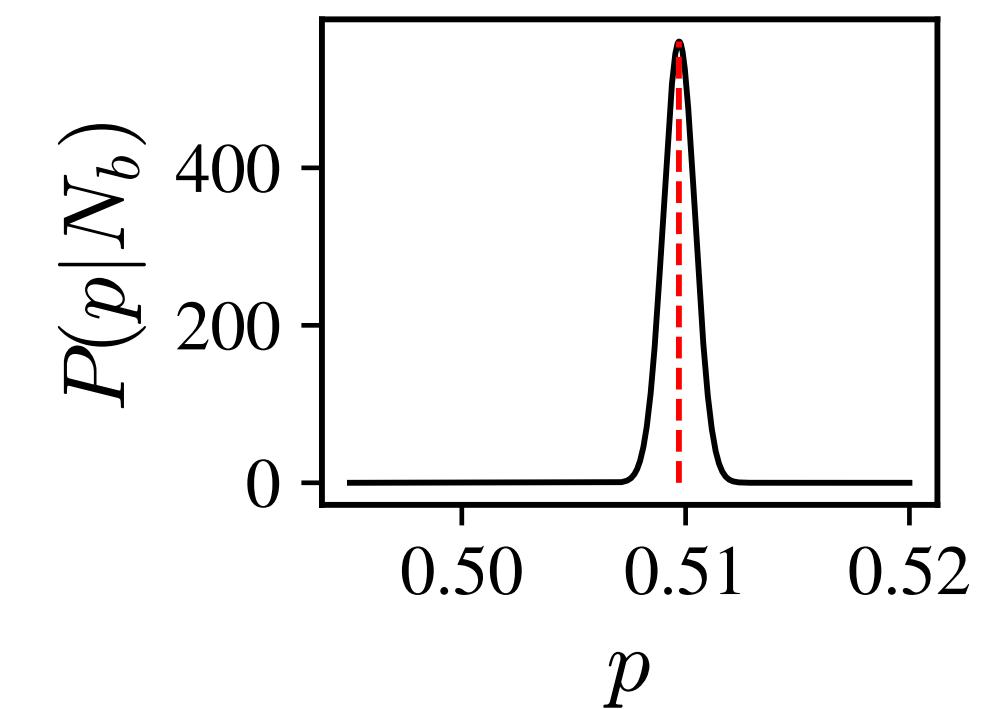
Is it correlation or causation?

Modeling

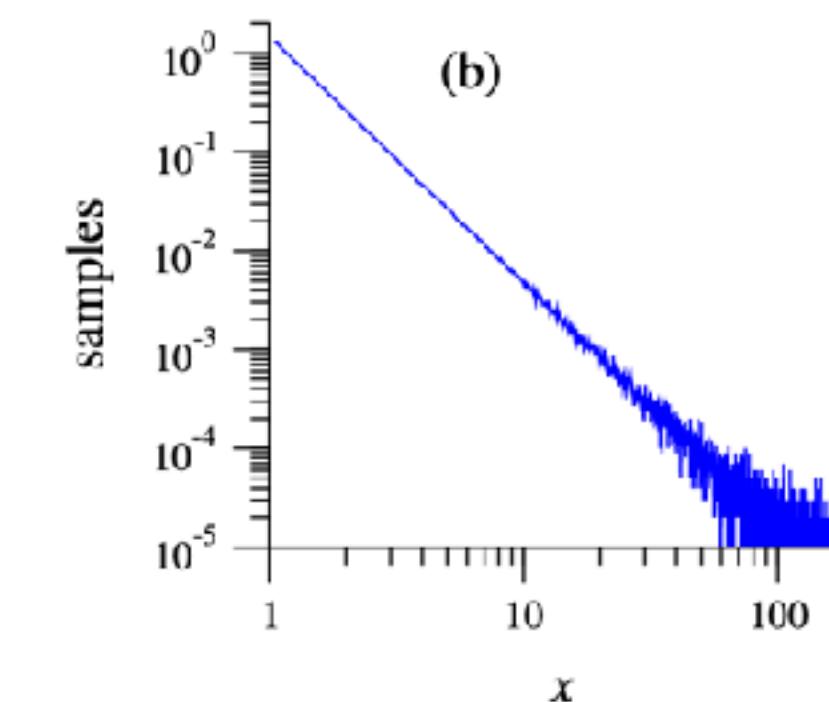


How to deal with fluctuations?

Confidence intervals

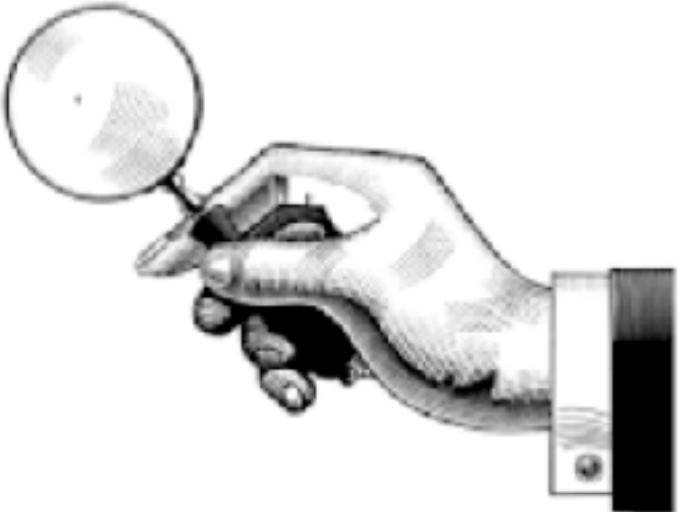


Logarithmic vs. linear binning



Statistics

Characterizing observed randomness



THE DEVIL IS
IN THE DETAIL

Discrete data

$$\hat{x}_i \in \{a, b, c, \dots\}$$

$$\rightarrow \hat{x}_i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

Frequency estimate

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N I(\hat{x}_i = x) \in [1, N]$$

Probability estimate

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \hat{f}(x) \in [0, 1]$$

Example:

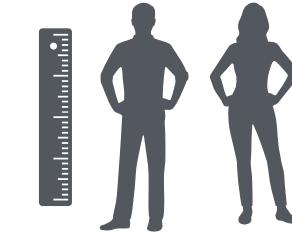
$$\rightarrow \hat{x}_1 = 4 \quad \hat{x}_2 = 6 \\ \hat{x}_3 = 1 \quad \hat{x}_4 = 4$$

$$\hat{f}(1) = 1 \quad \hat{f}(4) = 2 \quad \hat{f}(3) = 0$$

$$\hat{p}(1) = \frac{1}{4} \quad \hat{f}(4) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \hat{p}(3) = 0$$

Continuous data

$$\hat{x}_i \in [a, b]$$



$$\rightarrow \hat{x}_i \in [0 \text{ m}, 4 \text{ m}]$$

$$I(\hat{x}_i = x) = 0$$

Two real numbers are never equal:
real numbers have zero measure

$$\hat{f}(x, \Delta x) = \sum_{i=1}^N I(\hat{x}_i \in [x, x + \Delta x]) \quad \text{Frequency estimate}$$

$$\hat{p}(x, \Delta x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{f}(x, \Delta x)$$

Probability estimate

Example:

$$\hat{f}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 30 \text{ in.}) = 896$$

$$\hat{p}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 30 \text{ in.}) = 1$$

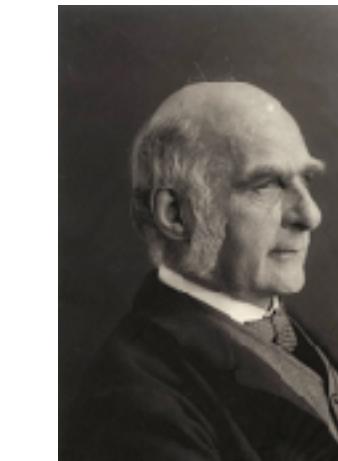
$$\hat{f}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 5 \text{ in.}) = 31$$

$$\hat{p}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 5 \text{ in.}) \approx 0.03$$

$$\hat{f}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 0 \text{ in.}) = 0$$

$$\hat{p}(x = 55 \text{ in.}, \Delta x = 5 \text{ in.}) \approx 0$$

Galton's data



Probability estimators: normalized histograms



Getting rid of bins

Probability density function (estimate)

$$\hat{\rho}(x) = \frac{\hat{p}(x, \Delta x)}{\Delta x} \in [0, \infty]$$

Cumulative distribution function (estimate)

$$\hat{F}_{<}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(\hat{x}_i < x) \in [0, 1]$$

$$\hat{F}_{>}(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(\hat{x}_i > x) \in [0, 1]$$

$$\hat{F}_{<}(x) + \hat{F}_{>}(x) = 1$$

Probability

Modeling randomness



Andréi Kolmogórov
(1903 - 1987)

How to assign probabilities?

Method I: Maximum ignorance
Symmetric guess

$$P(H) = P(T) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Kolgomorov's receipt for probability theory

Ingredient 1: Sample space
(all possible outcomes)

H: heads

T: tails

Ingredient 2: Random variable
(Each outcome has a number)

$$X(H)=1 \quad X(T)=0$$

Ingredient 3: Define probabilities
(each outcome has a probability)

$$\begin{aligned} P(H) &\in [0,1] & P(H) + P(T) &= 1 \\ P(T) &\in [0,1] \end{aligned}$$

Jacob Bernoulli
(1654 - 1705)

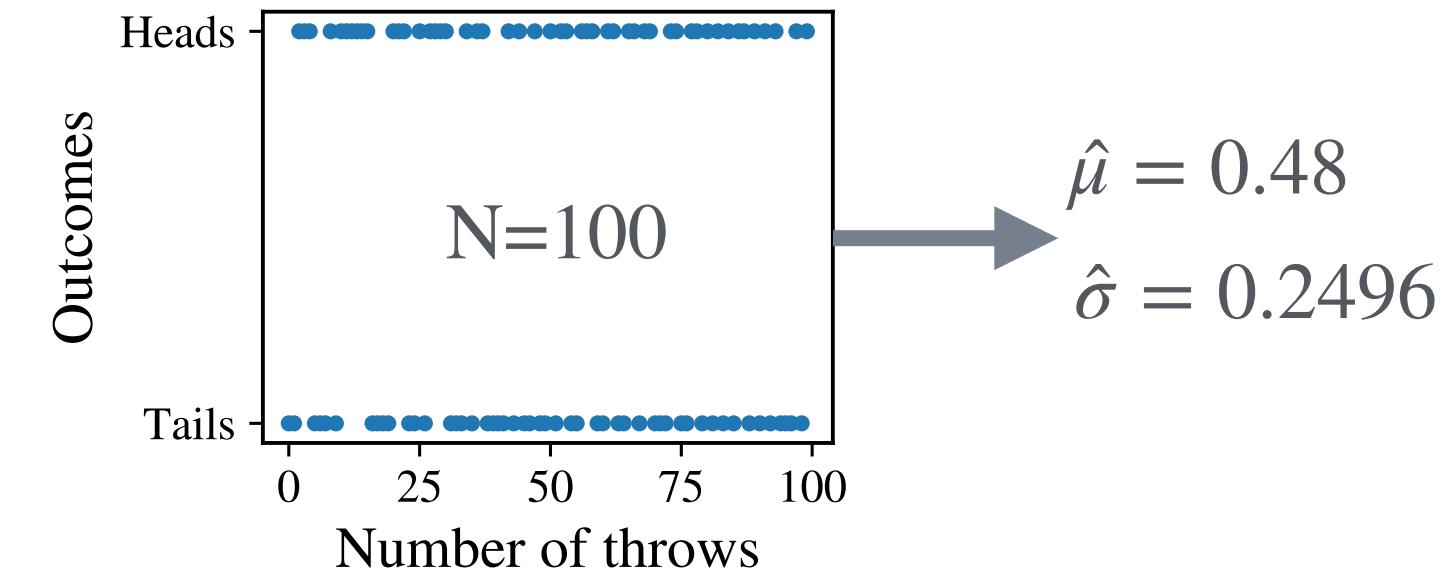
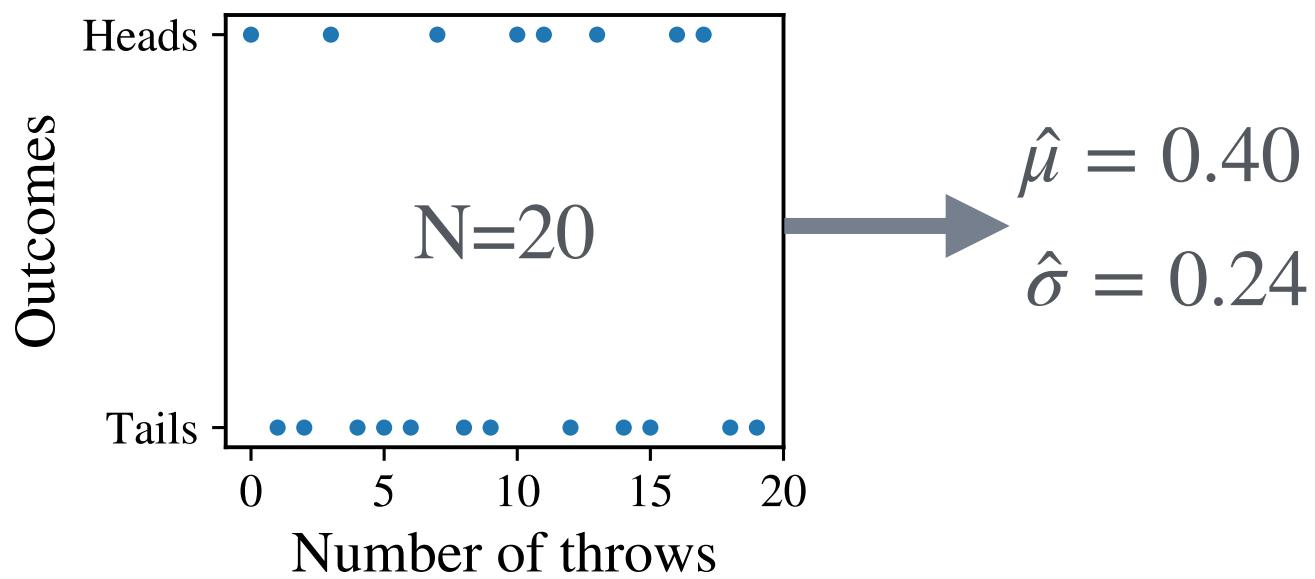


Case of study:

Flipping coins
Bernoulli distribution
Law of large numbers



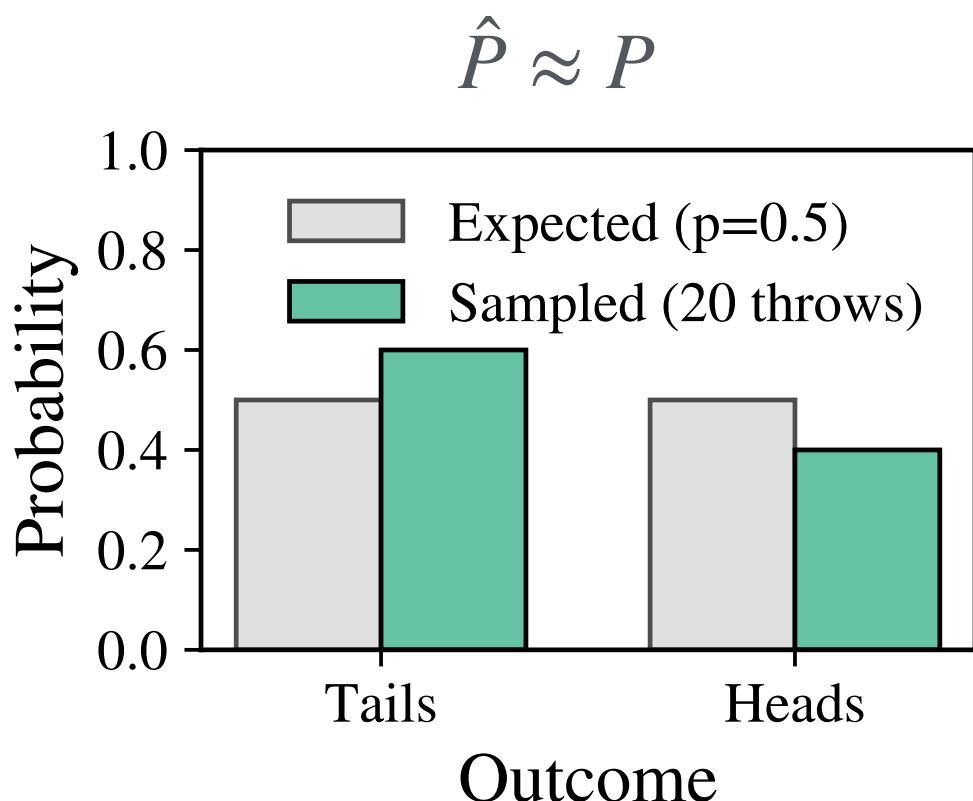
Moments



$$\langle X \rangle = E(X) = \mu = \sum_{x \in \Omega} x P(X = x) = 0.5 \rightarrow \hat{\mu} \approx \mu$$

$$\langle (X - \mu)^2 \rangle = \text{var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2 = 0.25 \rightarrow \hat{\sigma} \approx \sigma$$

Probabilities



Law of large numbers

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{P}(X \in A) = P(X \in A)$$

$$Z = z(X)$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{Z} = E(Z)$$

Probability

Modeling randomness

How to assign probabilities of one die?



Method I: Maximum entropy/ignorance
Symmetric guess

$$P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

How to assign probabilities of two dice?

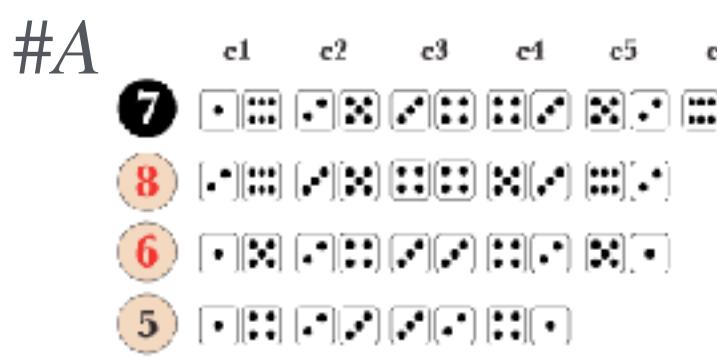


Method II: Intuitive definition of probability

$$P(A) = \frac{\#A}{\#\Omega}$$

$$\#\Omega = 6^2 = 36$$

1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6



$$P(7) = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(4) = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$P(12) = \frac{1}{36}$$



Antoine Gombaud
(1607-1684)



Blaise Pascal
(1623-1662)



Pierre Fermat
(1607-1665)

Which is more likely?

Game A:

Rolling, at least, one six in
4 throws of one die



Game B:

Rolling, at least, one double six in
24 throws of two dice

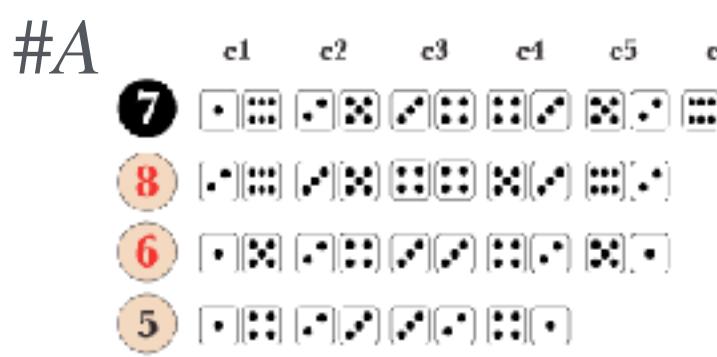


$\times 24$

How to assign probabilities of two dice?



Method II: Intuitive definition of probability



Computing probabilities

$$P(V) + P(V^C) = 1 \rightarrow P(V) = 1 - P(V^C) \text{ (Either it rains or it doesn't)}$$

V_1, \dots, V_n Independent events $\rightarrow P(V_1, \dots, V_n) = P(V_1)P(V_2)\dots P(V_n)$

$$P(A \text{ wins}) = 1 - P(A \text{ loses}) = 1 - \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^4 \approx 0.52$$

$$P(B \text{ wins}) = 1 - P(B \text{ loses}) = 1 - \left(\frac{35}{36}\right)^{24} \approx 0.49$$

Game B loses on average, game A wins on average

Case of study:

Throwing dices

Uniform distribution

Binomial distribution



Probability

Modeling randomness



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(1607-1684)



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Case of study:

Throwing dices
Uniform distribution
Binomial distribution



Central limit theorem:

For any R.V. X with $\mu = E(X), \sigma^2 = Var(X) < \infty$

Let us define $Y := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X^{(i)}$, Then

$$E(Y) \approx \mu \quad Var(Y) \approx \sigma^2/N \quad \rho(y) \approx G\left(x; \mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}\right)$$
$$G(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{(y - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Probability

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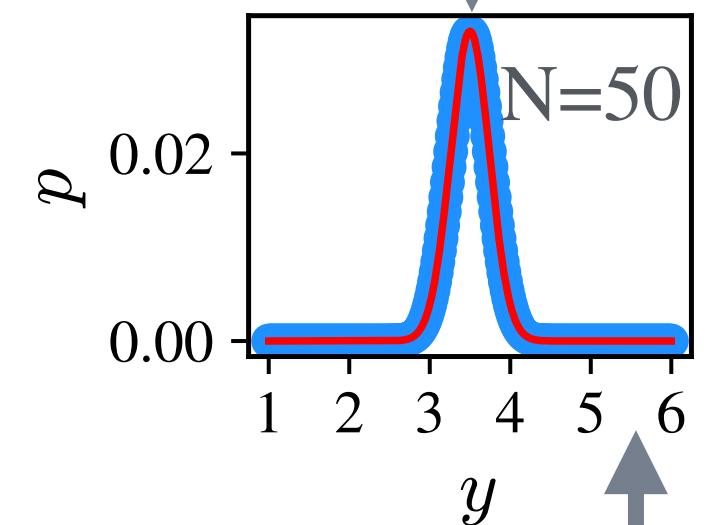
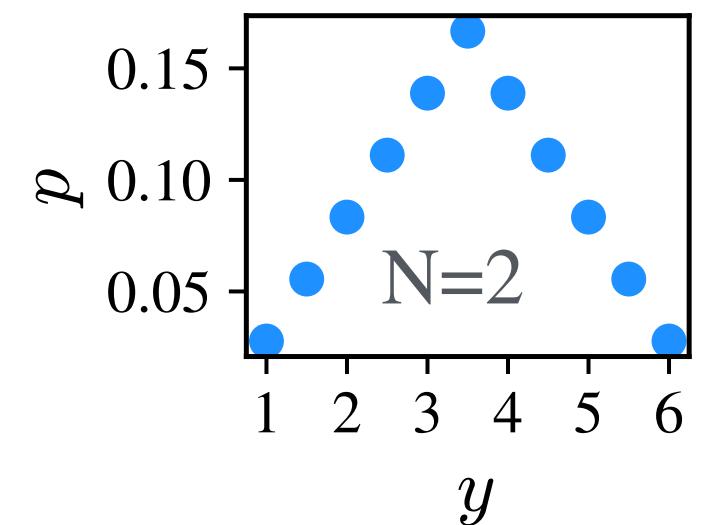
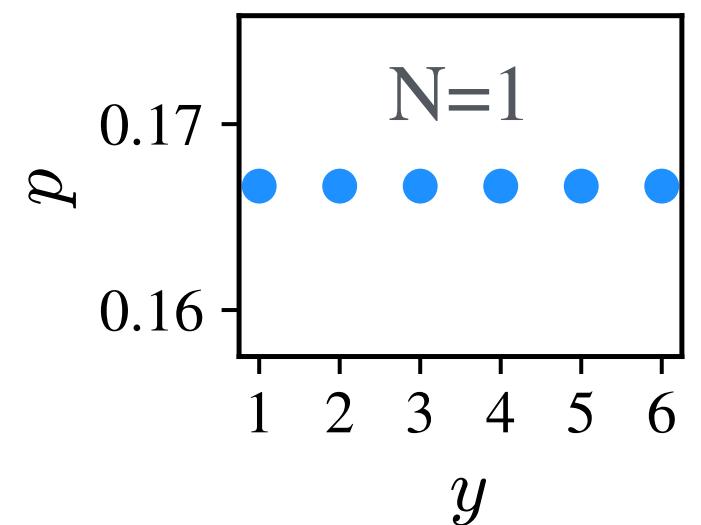
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Deviations from the mean become rarer!



Very likely!

Very unlikely!

Probability

Modeling randomness



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Case of study:

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Binomial distribution



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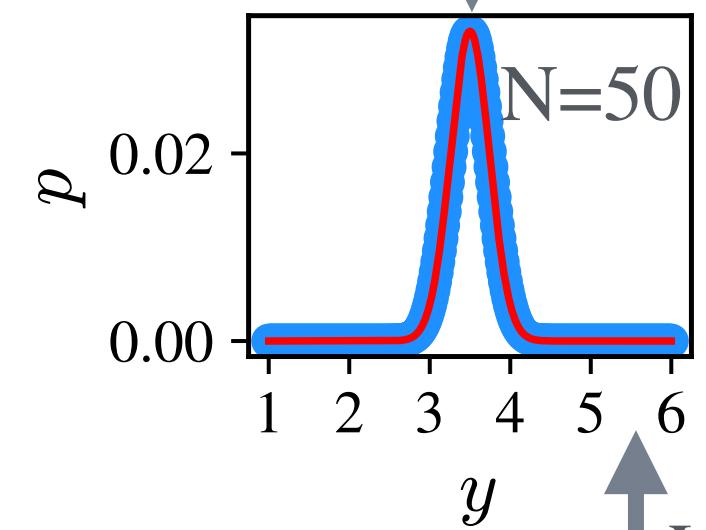
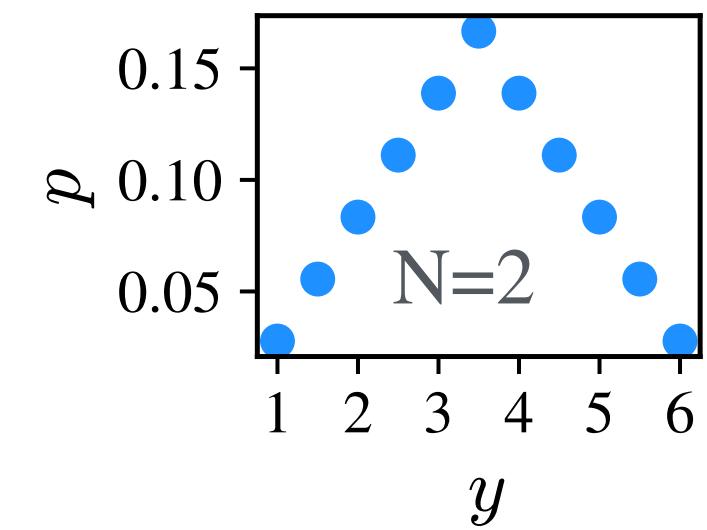
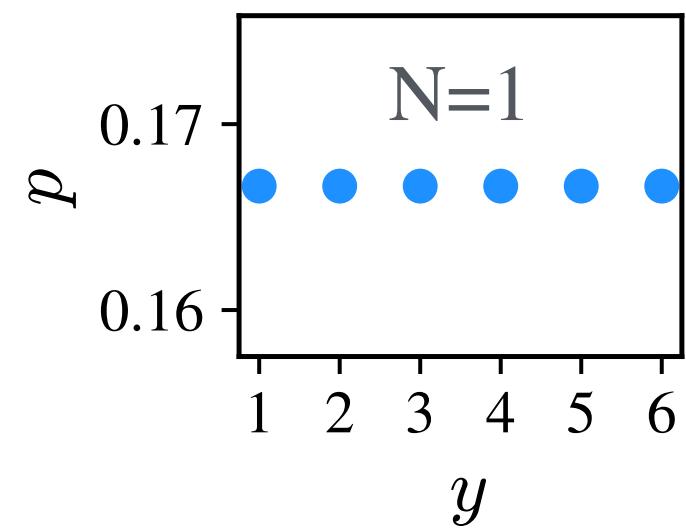
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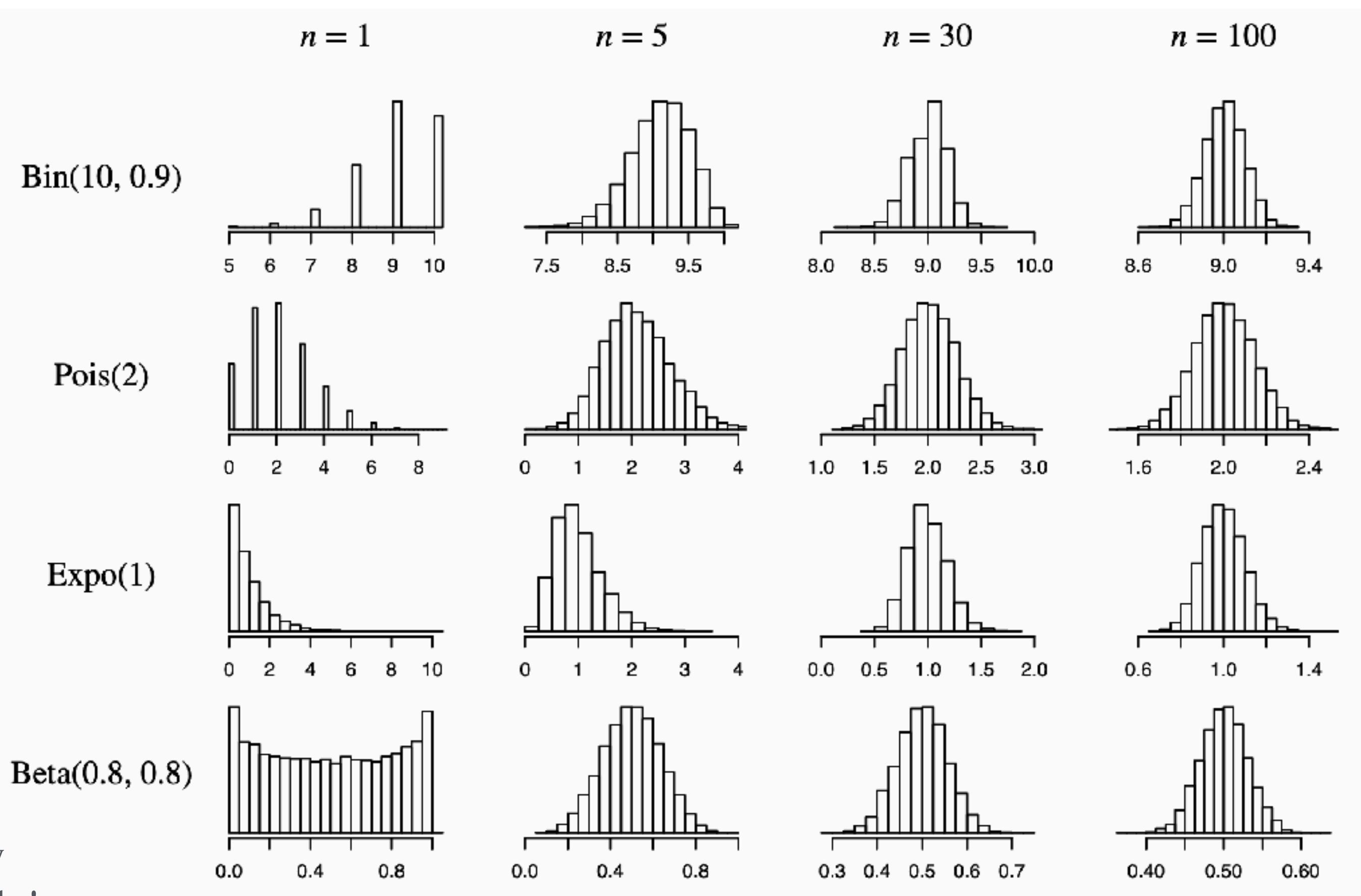
$$G(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Deviations from the mean become rarer!



Very likely!
Very unlikely!

Robustness of statistical patterns



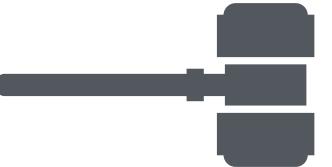
Probability

Modeling randomness

Sally Clark
(1964-2007)



Case of study:
Prosecutor's fallacy
Bayes theorem



Conditioned probabilities:

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

Joint probability
Prob. of A GIVEN B

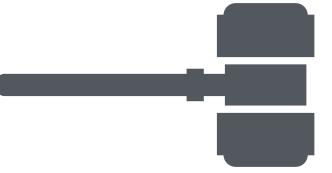
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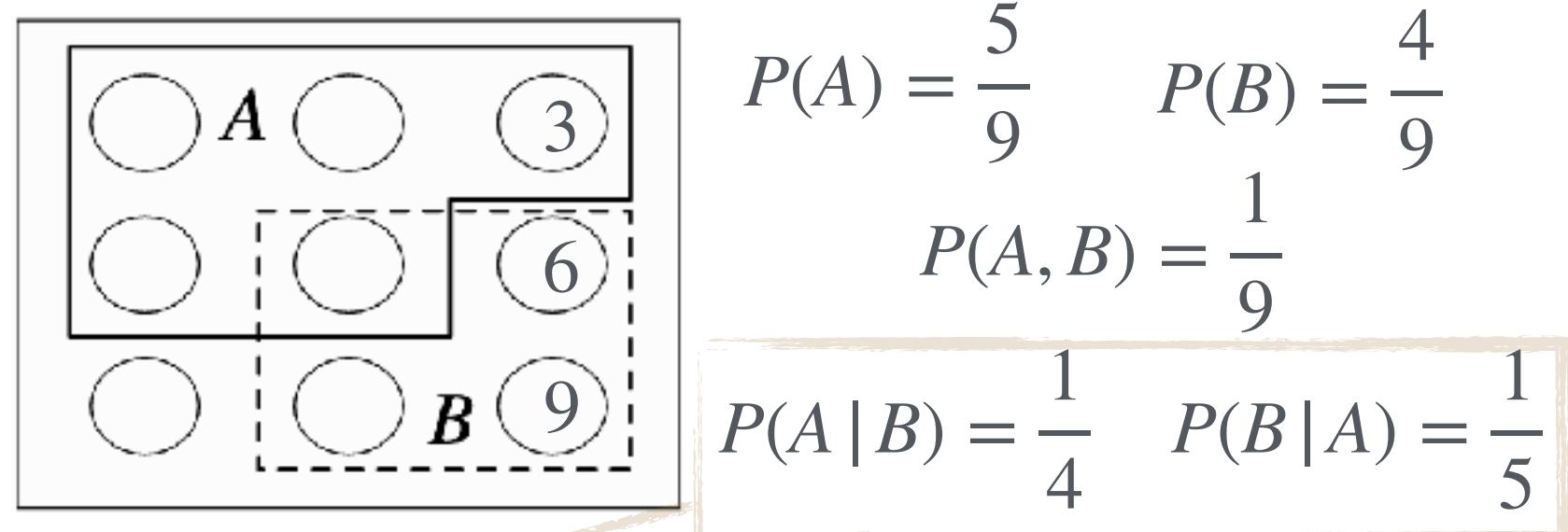
$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

Joint probability

Prob. of A GIVEN B

Example: Uniform discrete distribution

$$X \in \{1, 2, \dots, 9\} \quad A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \quad B = \{5, 6, 8, 9\}$$



Conditioning is **not** symmetric

Probability

Modeling randomness

Conditioned probabilities:

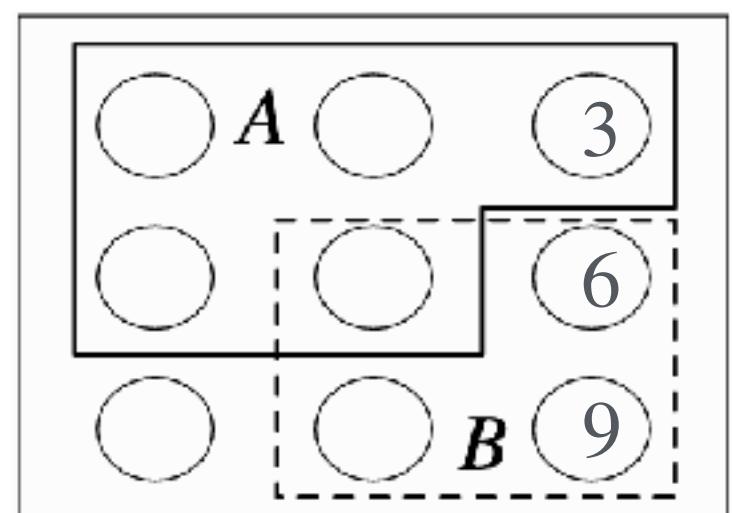
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Joint probability

Prob. of A GIVEN B

Example: Uniform discrete distribution

$$X \in \{1, 2, \dots, 9\} \quad A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \quad B = \{5, 6, 8, 9\}$$



$$P(A) = \frac{5}{9} \quad P(B) = \frac{4}{9}$$

$$P(A, B) = \frac{1}{9}$$

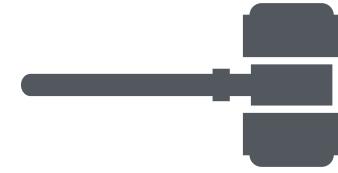
$$P(A | B) = \frac{1}{4} \quad P(B | A) = \frac{1}{5}$$

Conditioning is **not** symmetric

Sally Clark
(1964-2007)



Case of study:
Prosecutor's fallacy
Bayes theorem



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

E = Evidence: two babies sadly die at very young age in one family

I = Sally is innocent of the crime

G = Sally is guilty of the crime

Knowledge : If Sally is innocent, the event is very unlikely $P(E | I) \approx \frac{1}{73 \cdot 10^6}$

Fallacy: $P(I | E) \approx P(E | I) \sim 0$

Solution : The probability that Sally was a murderer was ALSO very small

$$P(I | E) = P(E | I) \frac{P(I)}{P(E)} \quad P(E) = P(E | I)P(I) + P(E | G)P(G)$$

Knowledge : Two infanticides are extremely unlikely, $P(G) \approx \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^9}$

Truth: $P(I | E) \approx 0.9 \rightarrow$ It was more likely that Sally was innocent

ALL PROBABILITIES ARE CONDITIONED
PROBABILITIES ARE SERIOUS: USED TO TAKE DECISIONS

Probability

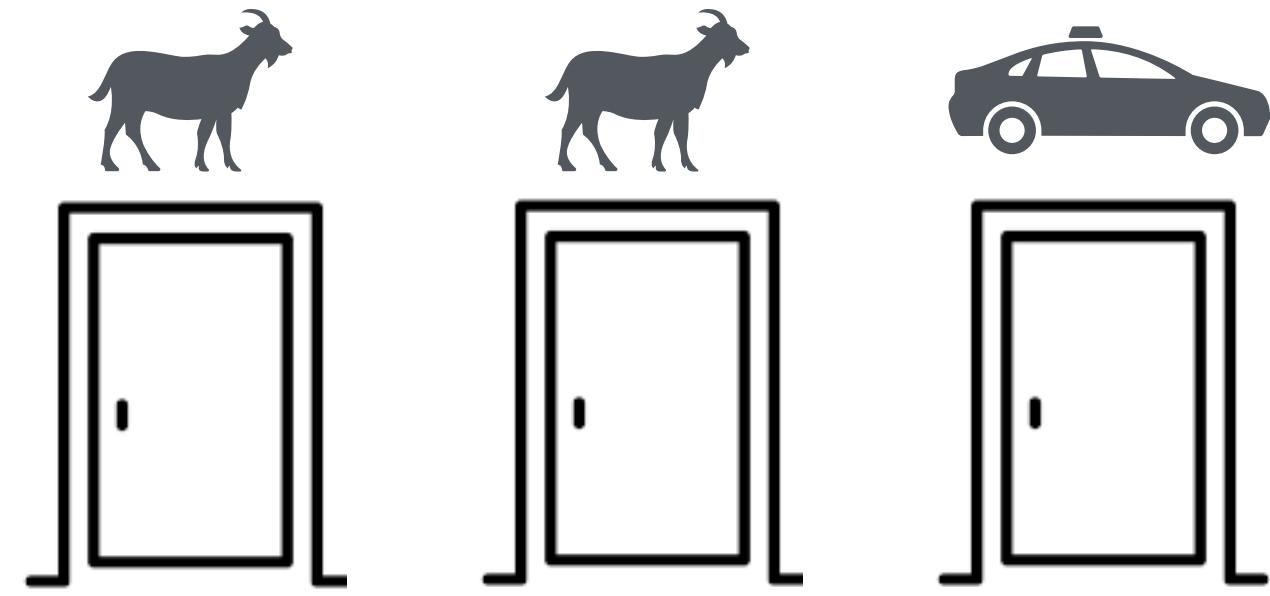
Modeling randomness



Marilyn vos Savant
(1946 -)

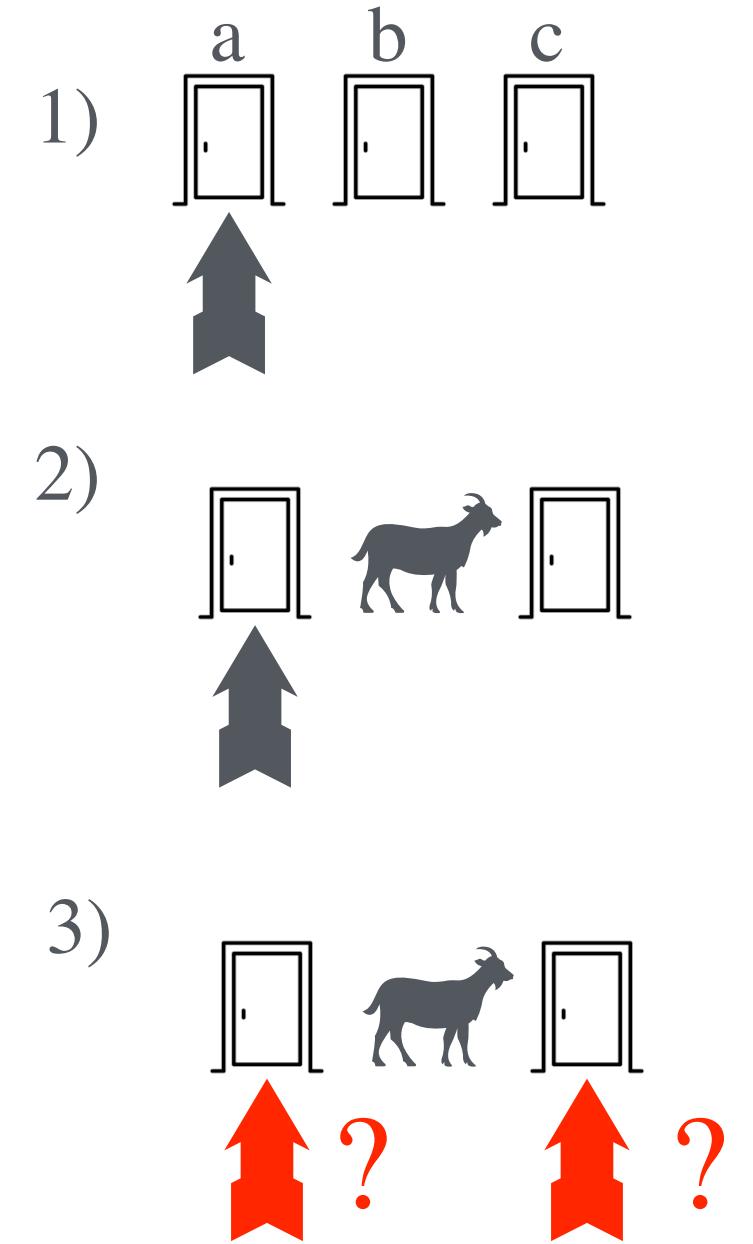


Case of study:
Monty Hall paradox
Conditioned probabilities



Rules:

- 1) Choose one door.
- 2) M.H. opens another door with no prize.
- 3) Stay with your initial choice or change.



Probability

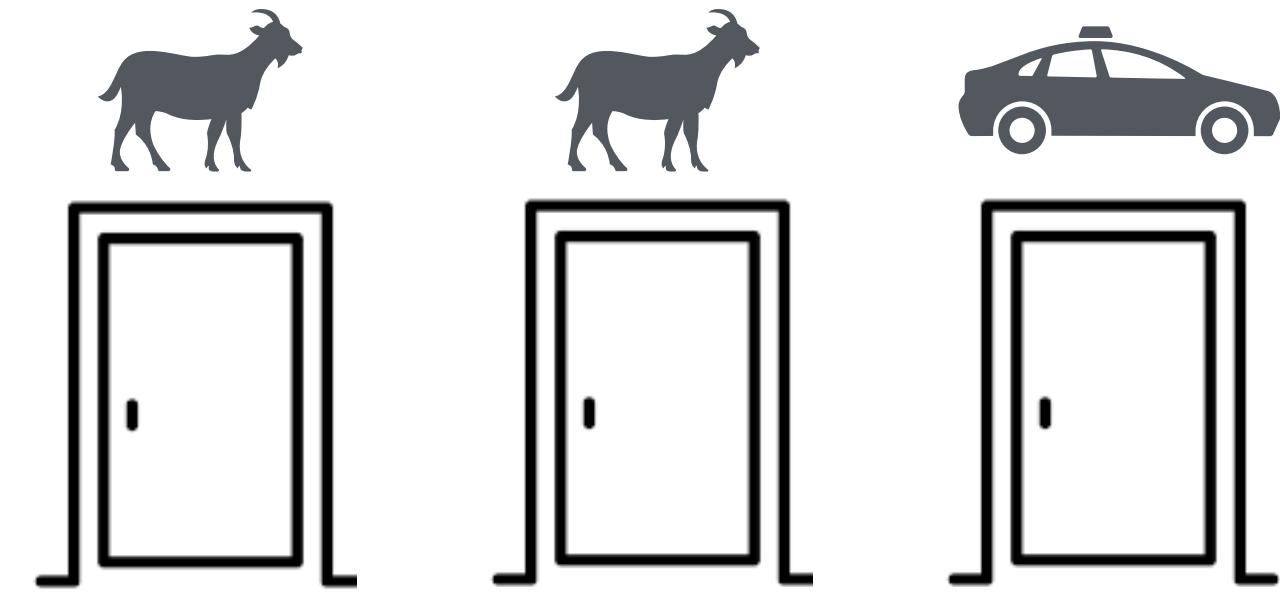
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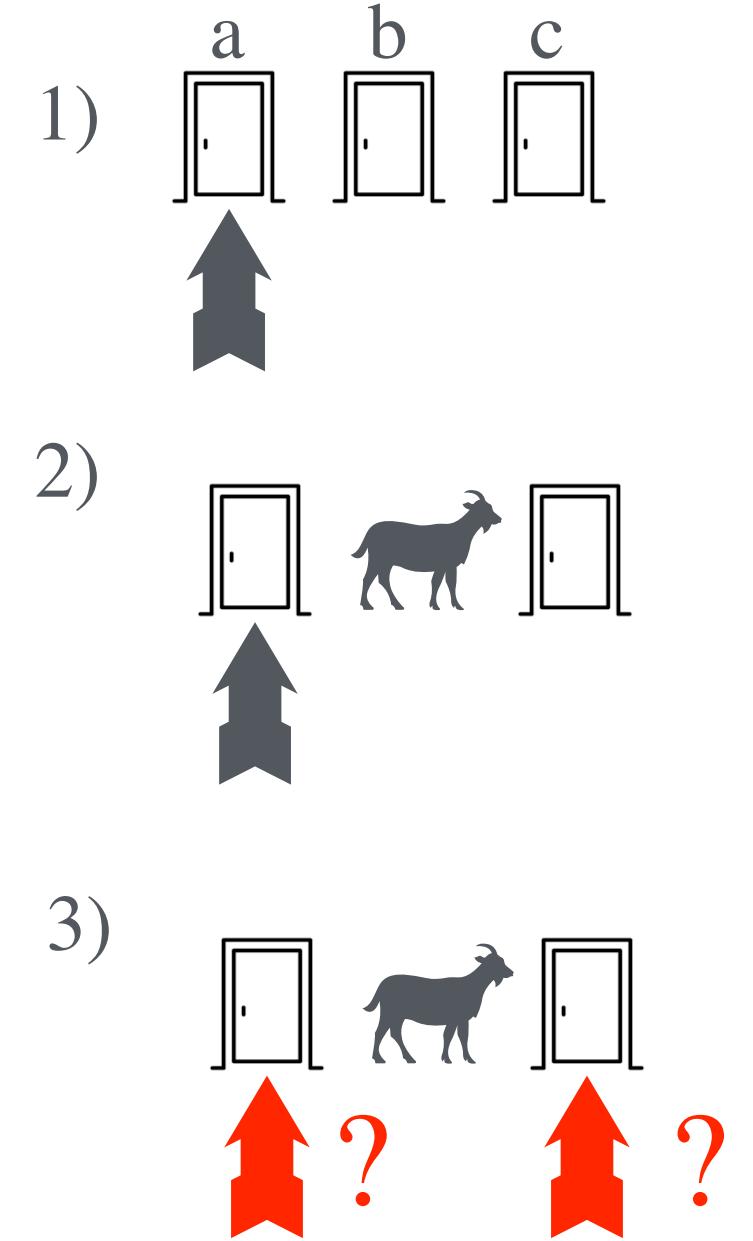


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Q: Is there a winner strategy?

- It doesn't matter if we stay or change.
- It is better to stay.
- It is better to change.

Reasoning 1:

M.H. provides information that favors one choice.

$$P(\text{win}) > 1/2.$$

Reasoning 2:

M.H. is just goofing around.

$$P(\text{win}) = 1/2$$

Probability

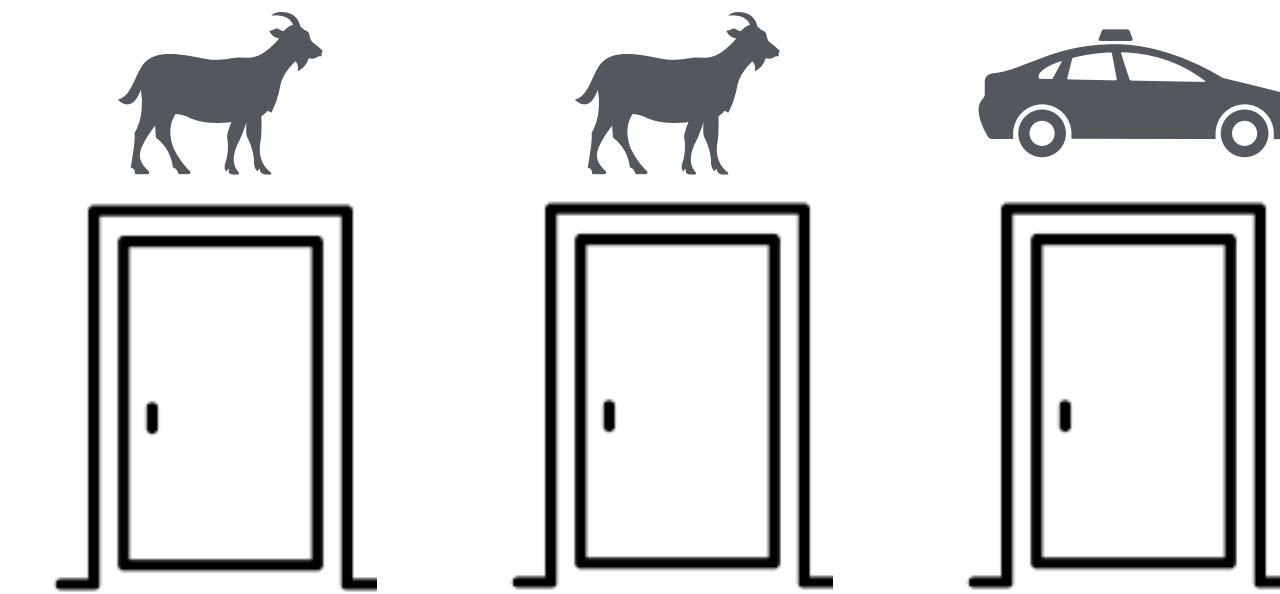
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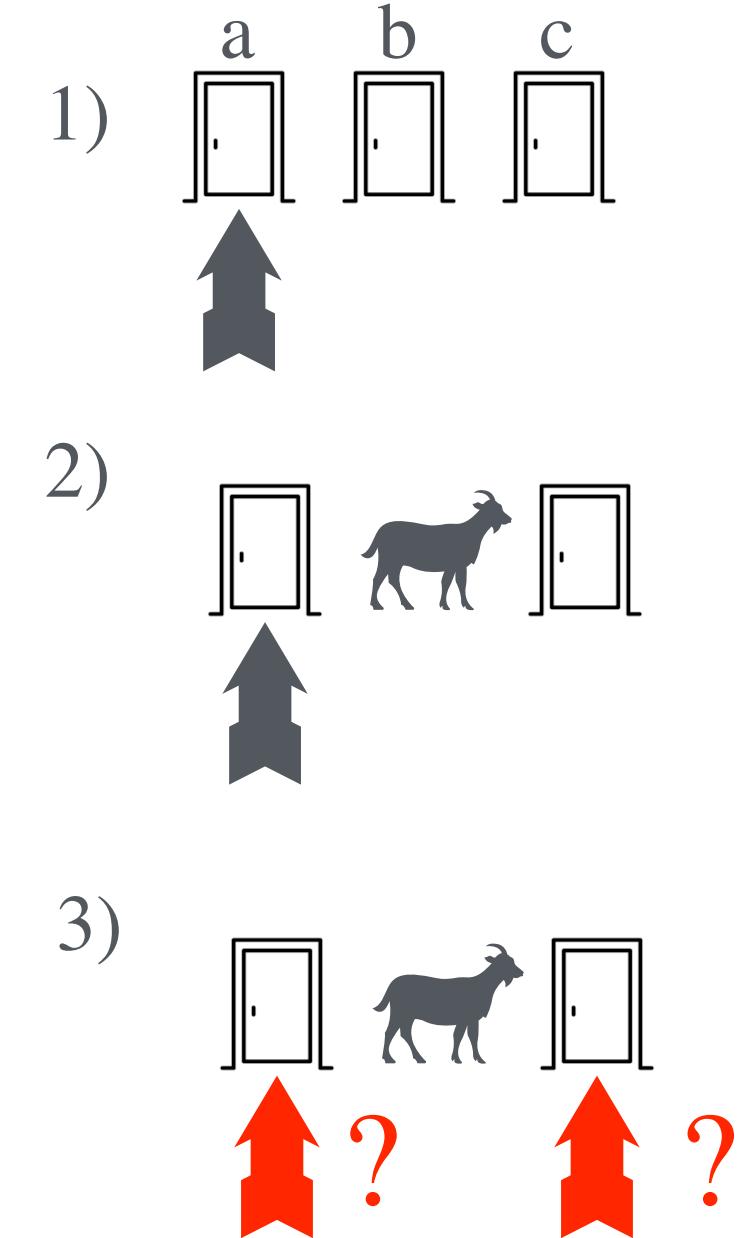


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C: Where is the car

M: Where is M.H.

$C, M \in \{a, b, c\}$

$$P(C = a | M = b) = P(\text{win staying}) = ?$$

Say we choose the door "a" and M.H. shows a goat in door "b"

$$P(C = b | M = b) = 0$$

$$P(C = c | M = b) = P(\text{win changing}) = ?$$

What do we know?

$$P(M = b | C = a) = 1$$

$$P(M = b | C = B) = 0$$

$$P(M = b | C = B) = 1/2$$

Bayes: $P(C = a | M = b) = \frac{P(M = b | C = a)P(C = a)}{P(M = b)} = \frac{2}{3} \longrightarrow P(C = a | M = b) = \frac{1}{3}$

A: It is more likely to win if we change!!

Inference

Connecting experiments and models

Karl Pearson
(1857-1936)



Case of study:
German tank problem
Method of moment
Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)



Data:

In WWII Allies captured n serial numbers of German tanks

$$0 > s_1 > s_2 > \dots > s_n$$

Q: What was the total number of tanks?

A (Naive): using the uniform distribution

H: It is equally likely to “sample” any serial number.

H: Assuming continuous range.

H: Counts with replacement.

$$s_i \sim U_{[0,N]}$$

$$P(s_i \in [s, s + ds]) = \frac{ds}{N}, \quad s \in [0, N].$$

Inference

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Method of moments:

$$\begin{aligned} E(s_i) &= \frac{N}{2} \\ \hat{\mu} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \end{aligned} \longrightarrow \hat{N}_m = 2\hat{\mu}$$

Maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\begin{aligned} L(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n | N) &= N^{-n}, \quad N \geq s_n, \quad 0 > s_1 \\ \ell &= \log(L) = -n \log(N) \\ \partial_N \ell &= -\frac{n}{N} < 0 \end{aligned} \longrightarrow \hat{N}_{MLE} = s_n$$

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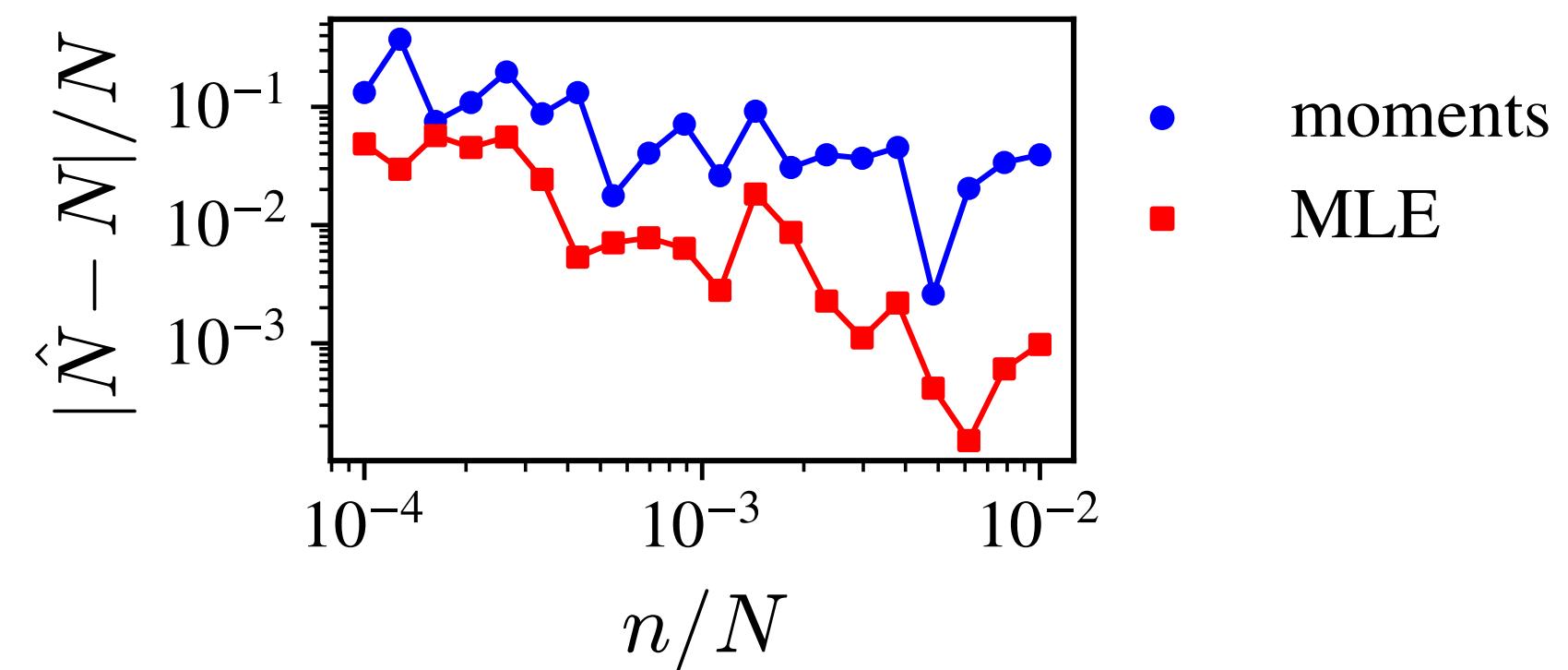
Comparing the methods:

Method of moments is unbiased

$$E(\hat{N}_m) = N$$

MLE is consistent

$$E(\hat{N}_{MLE}) = \frac{n}{n+1}N$$



Inference

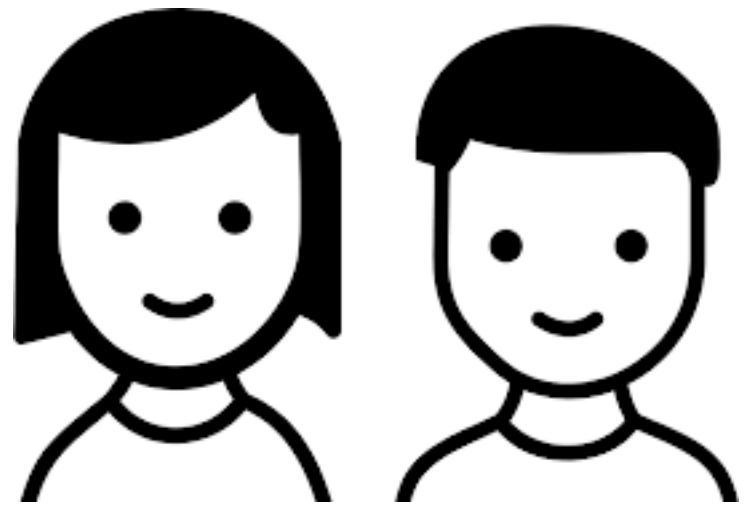
Connecting experiments and models

Pierre-Simon
Laplace
(1749-1827)



Case of study:

Asymmetry in birth rates
Bayesian inference
Beta distribution



Data:

There are more male than female newborns:

Laplace data: 251527 boys and 241945 girls

Q: How **robust** is this observation?

Inference

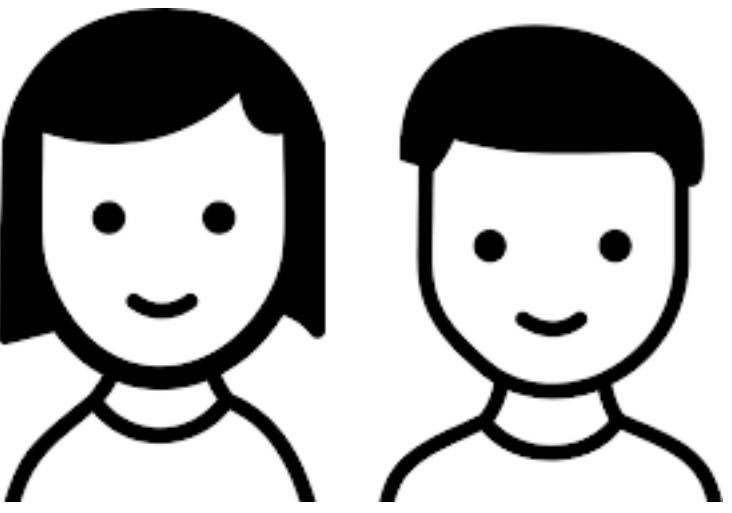
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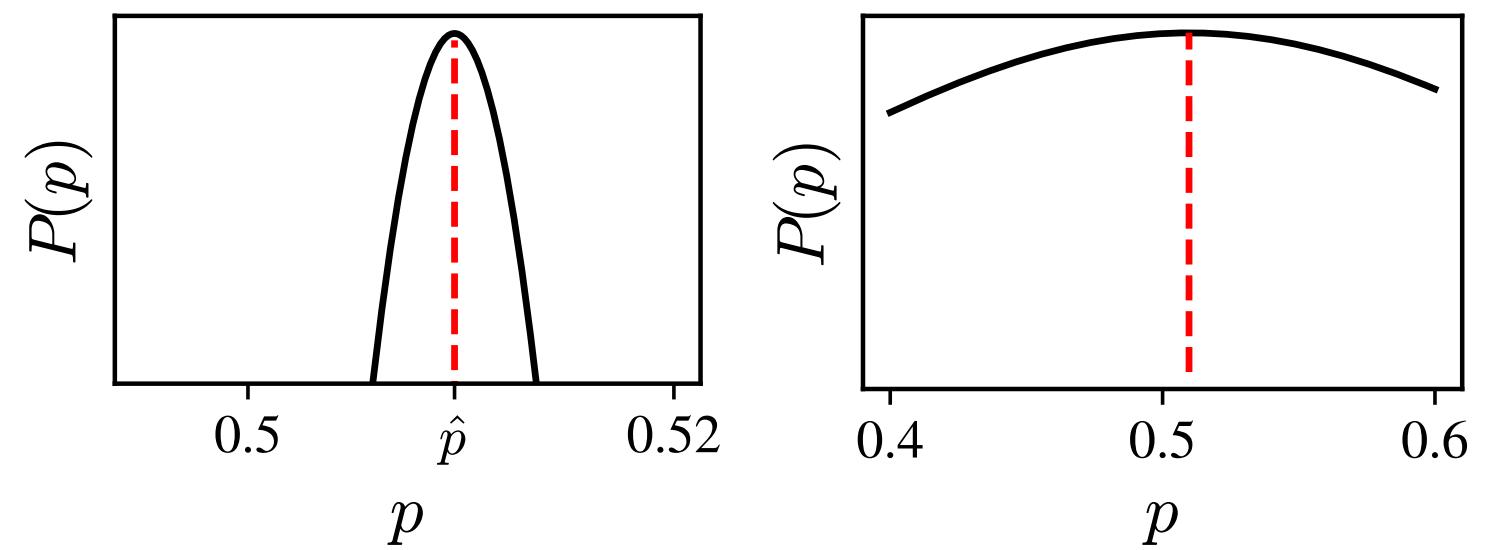
Q: How **robust** is this observation?

$$N = N_b + N_g = 493472$$

$$N_b \sim B(N, p)$$

$$E(N_b) = Np \rightarrow \hat{p} = N_b/N = 0.5097$$

Real feature Due to fluctuations



Inference

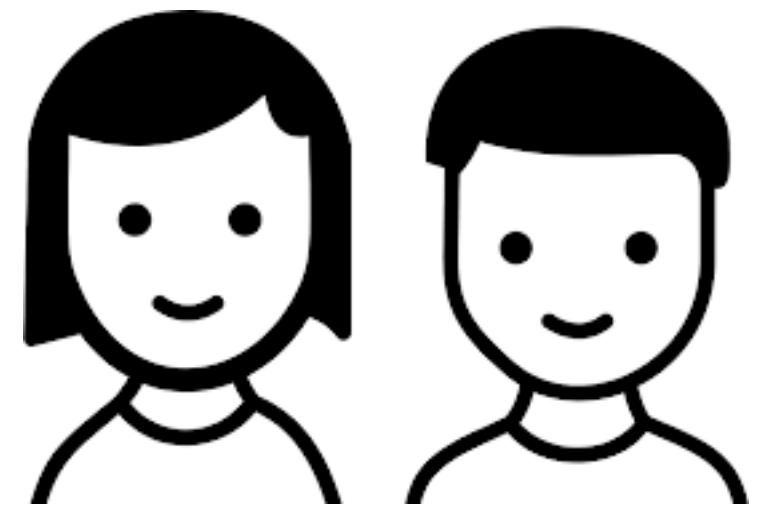
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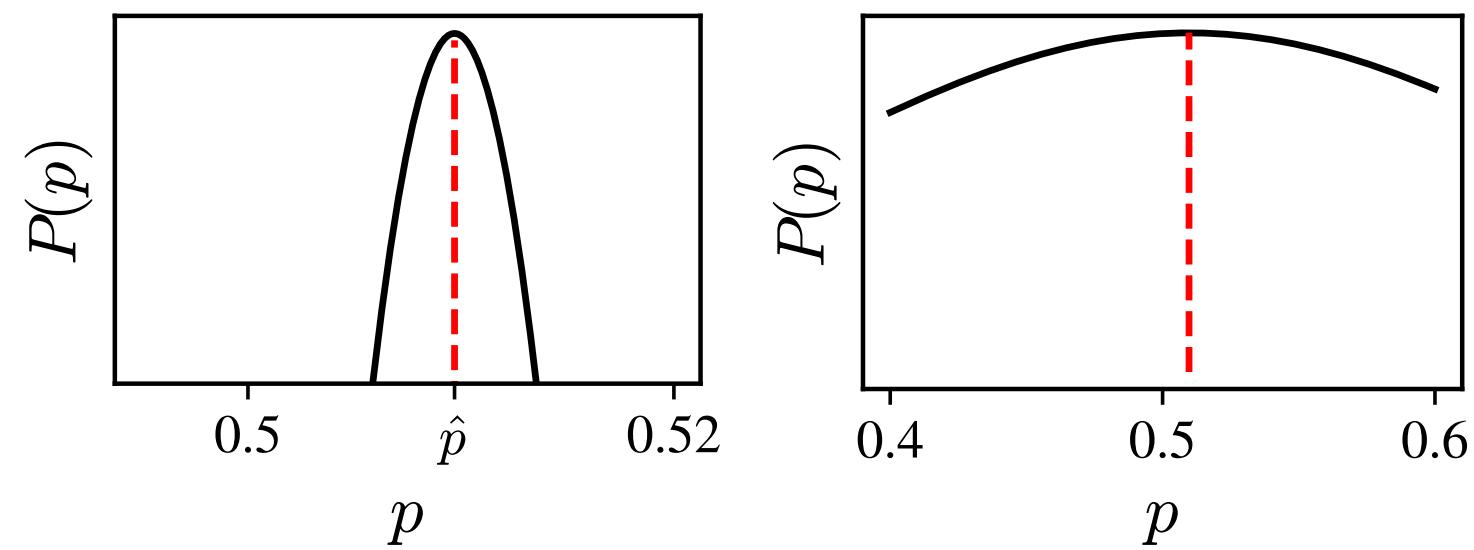
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Bayes method

Prior

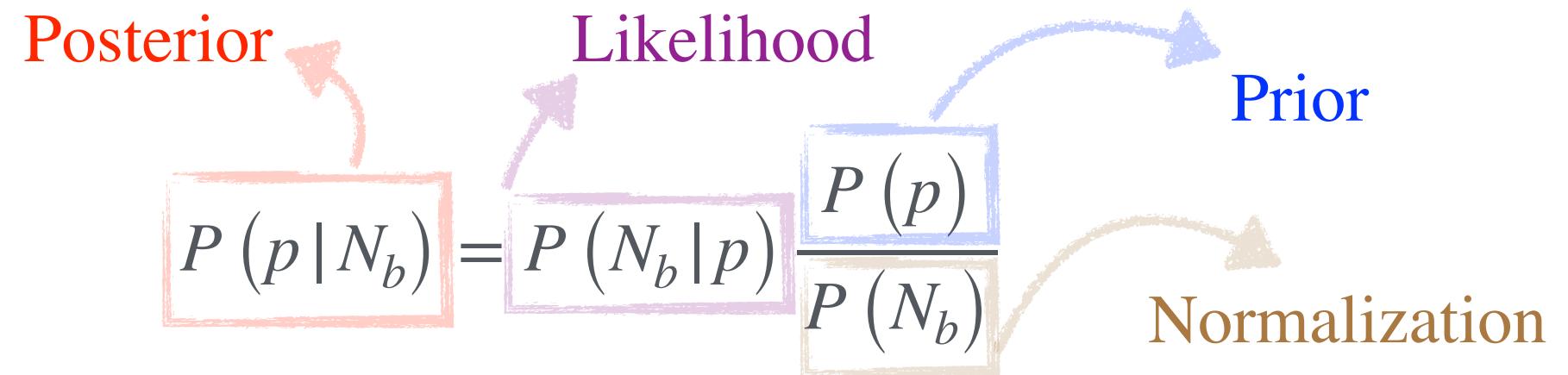
$$P(p) = 1, \quad p \in [0,1]$$

Likelihood

$$P(N_b|p) = p^{N_b}(1-p)^{N-N_b} \binom{N}{N_b}$$

Normalization

$$P(N_b) = \int dp P(p) P(N_b|p)$$



Assumed: based on experimenter's belief.

Known: model evaluated on data.

Computed: independent of p.

Inference

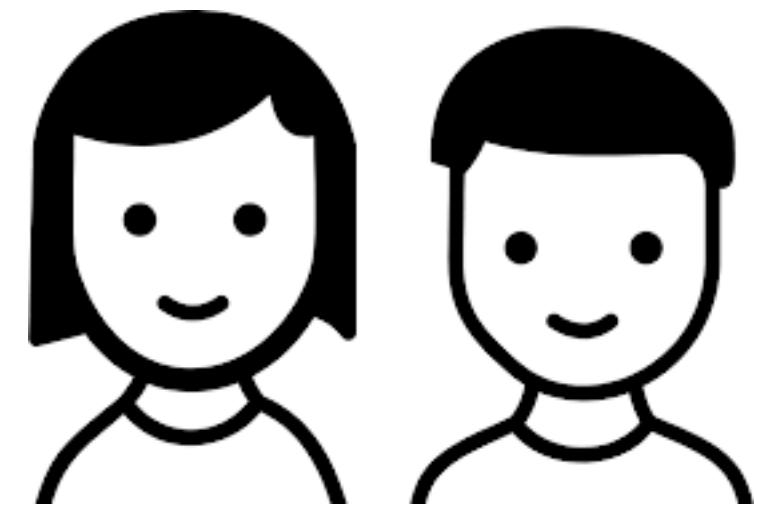
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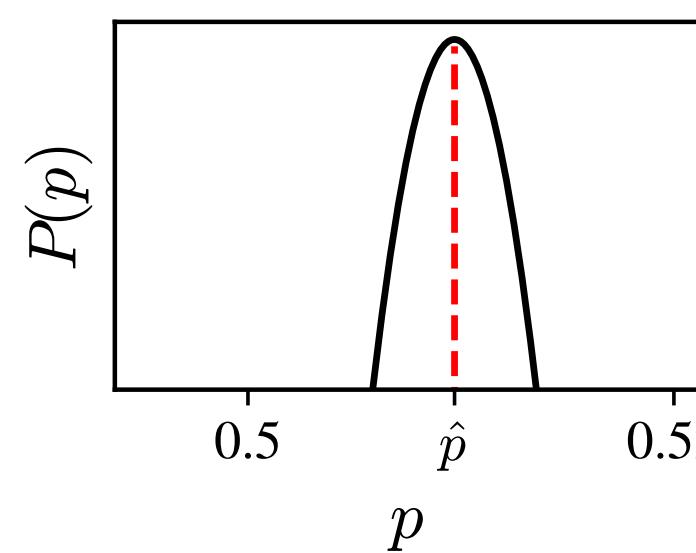
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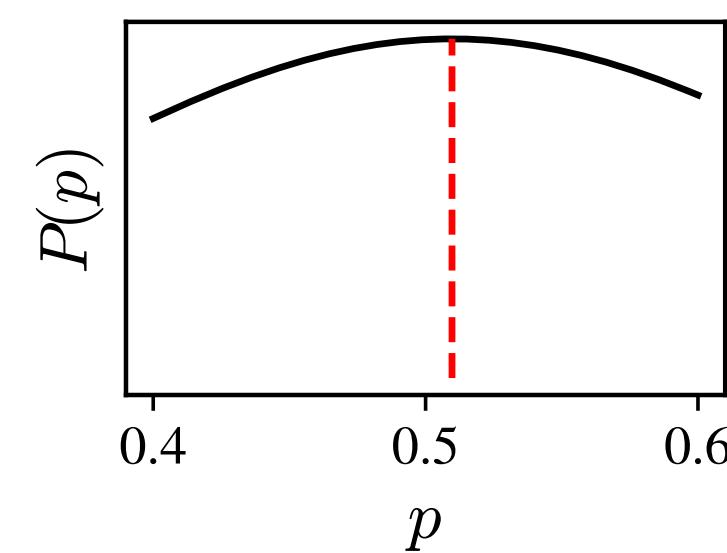
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Real feature



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Bayes method

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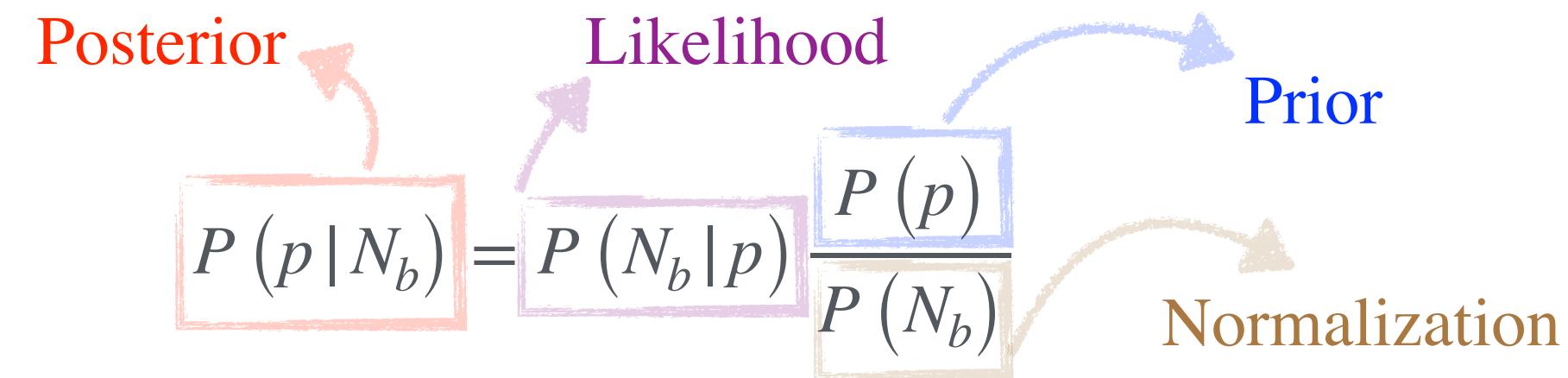
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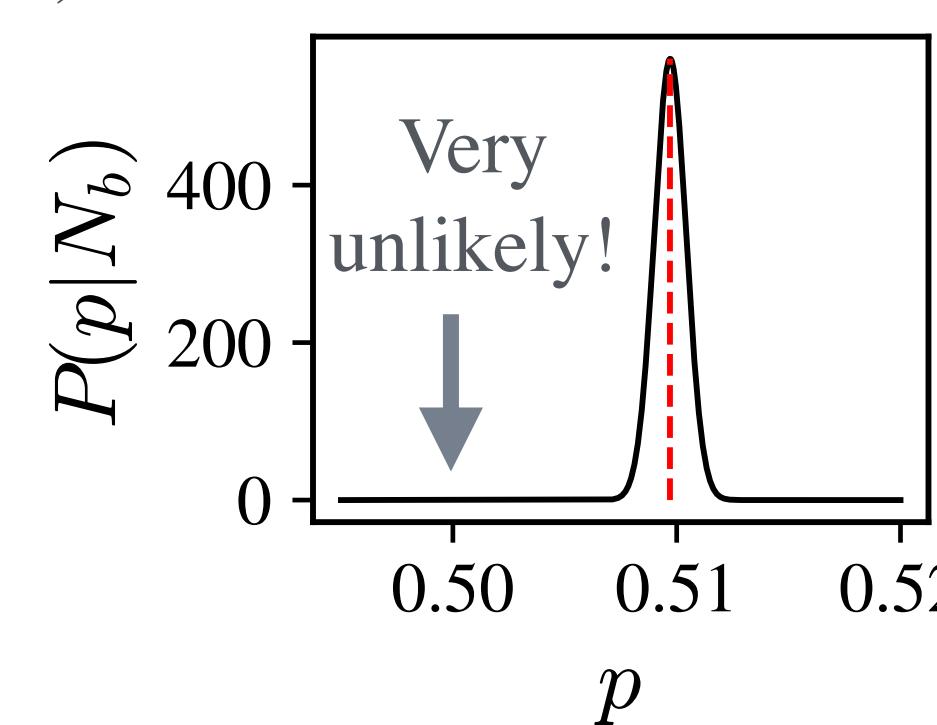
Known: model evaluated on data.

Computed: independent of p.

Uniform prior (no prior information) $\rightarrow P(p|N_b) = Z^{-1} p^{N_b}(1-p)^{N-N_b}$ (Beta distribution)

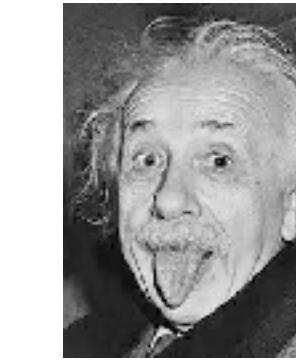
We can trust the result!!

$$P(p \leq 0.5) \sim 10^{-42}$$



Stochastic processes

Marian
Smoluchowski
(1872-1917)



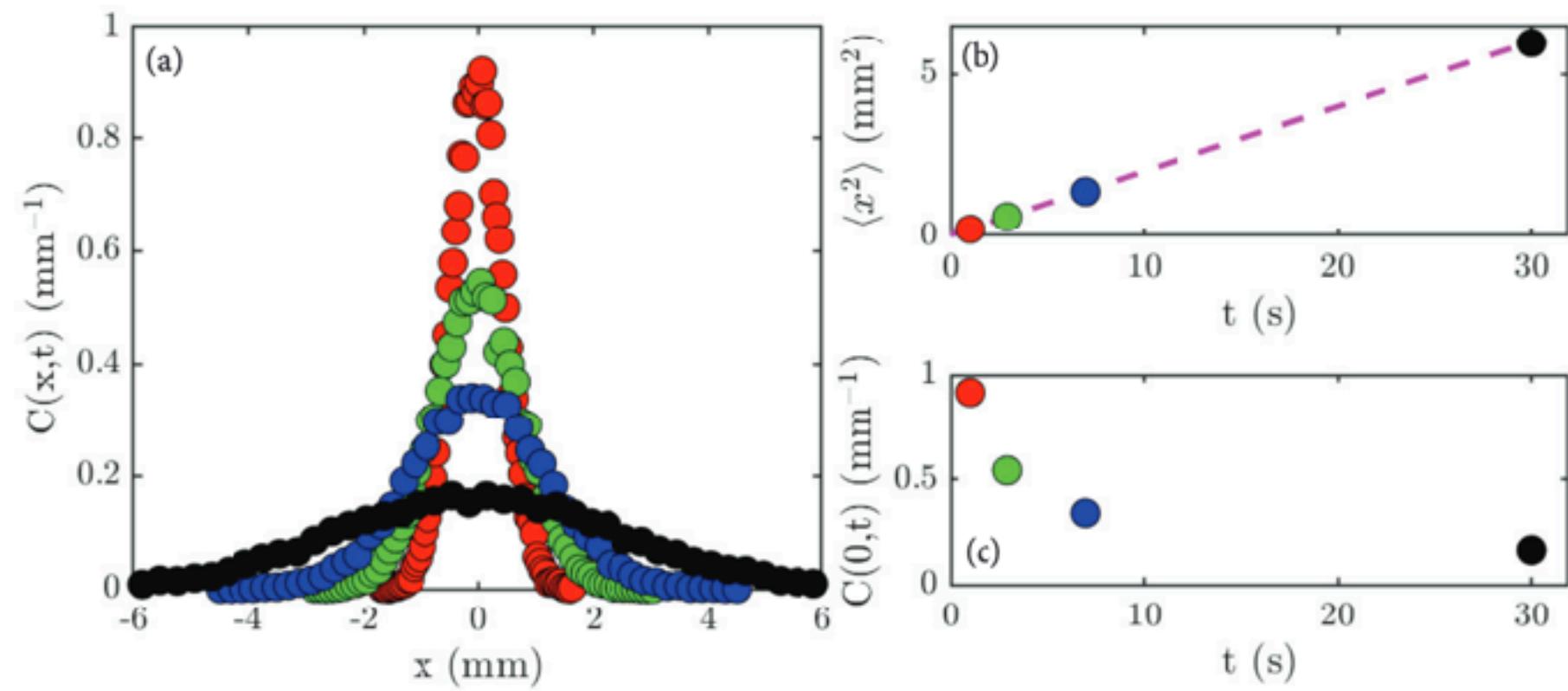
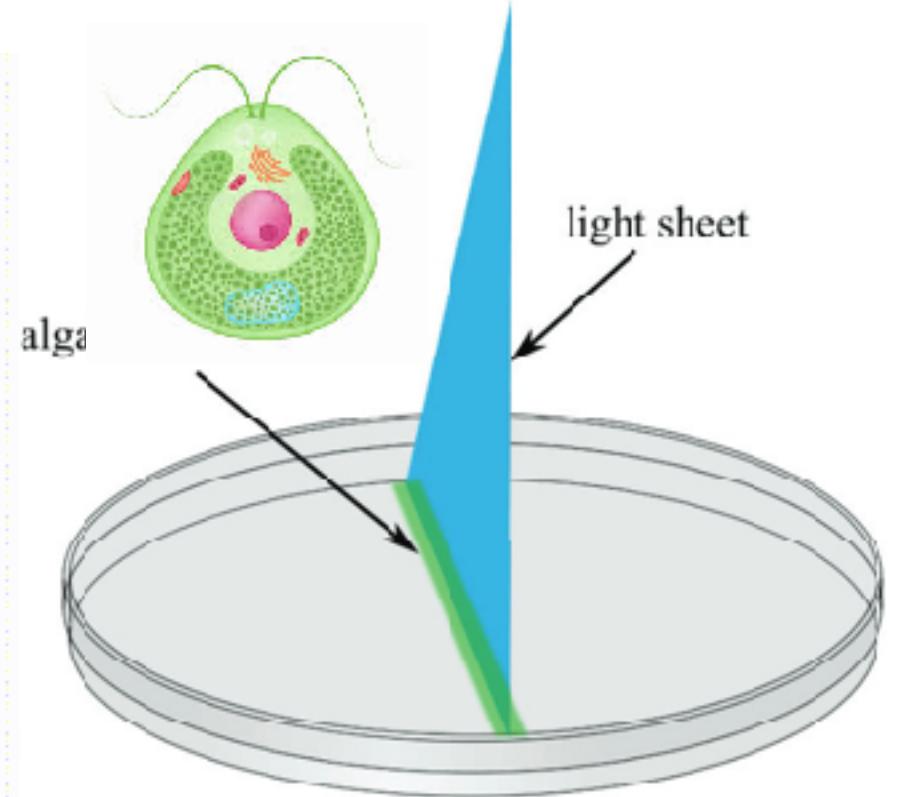
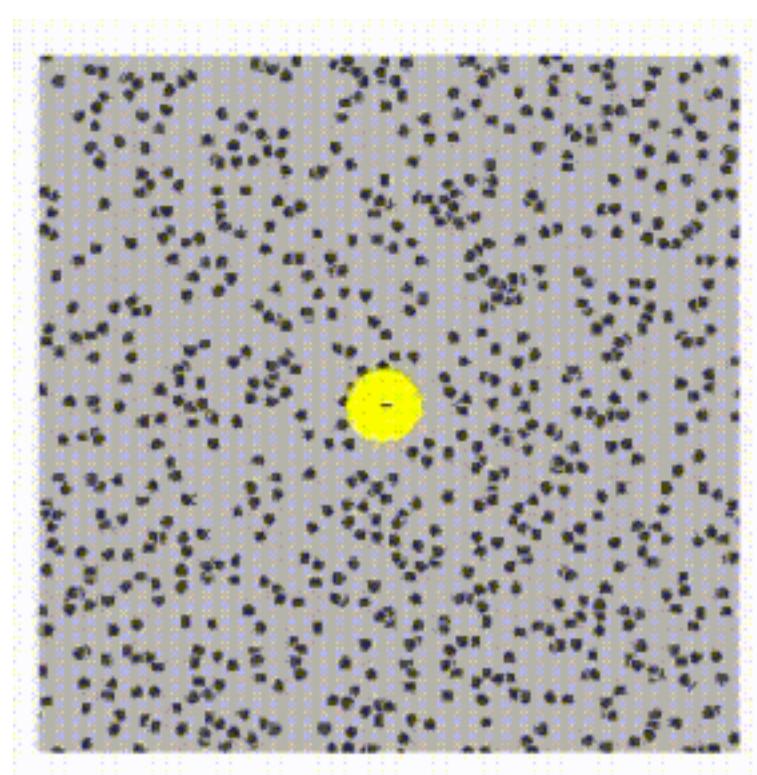
Albert
Einstein
(1879-1955)



Case of study:
Diffusion, random walks
Markov chains, Fokker-Planck eq.

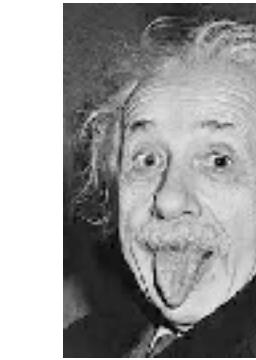


Q: Origin of statistical patterns
in erratic movements?



Stochastic processes

Marian Smoluchowski (1872-1917)



Robert Brown (1857-1936)



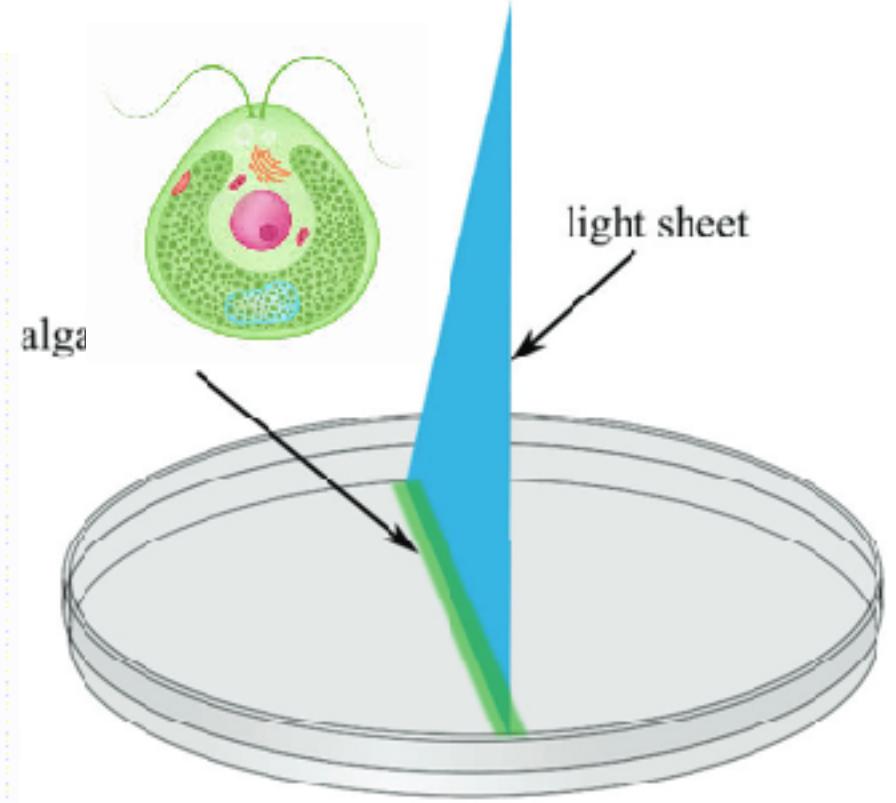
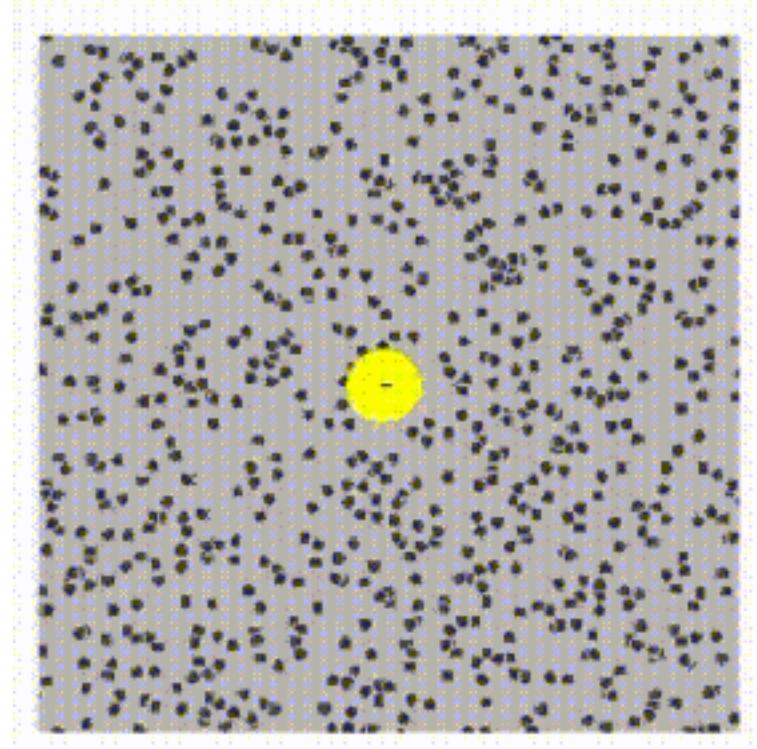
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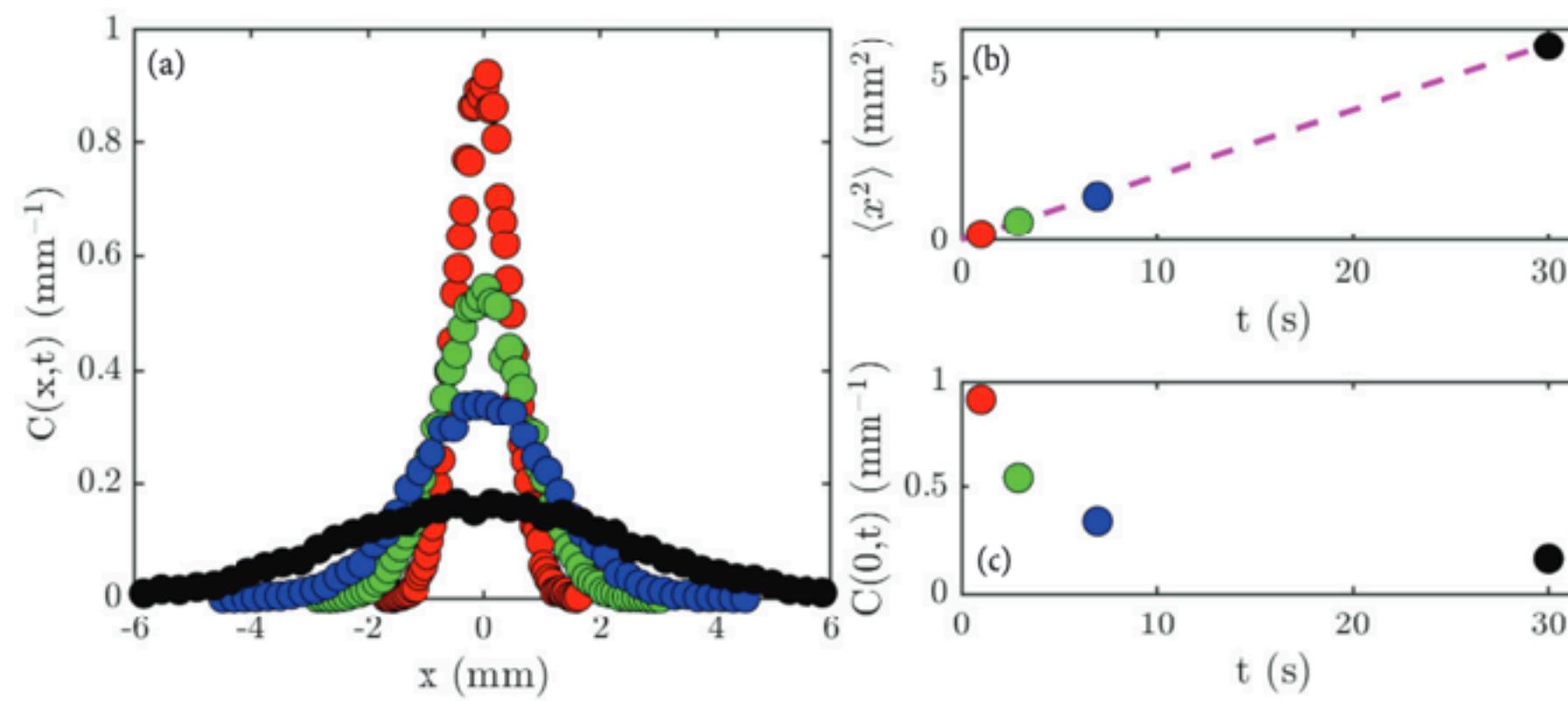
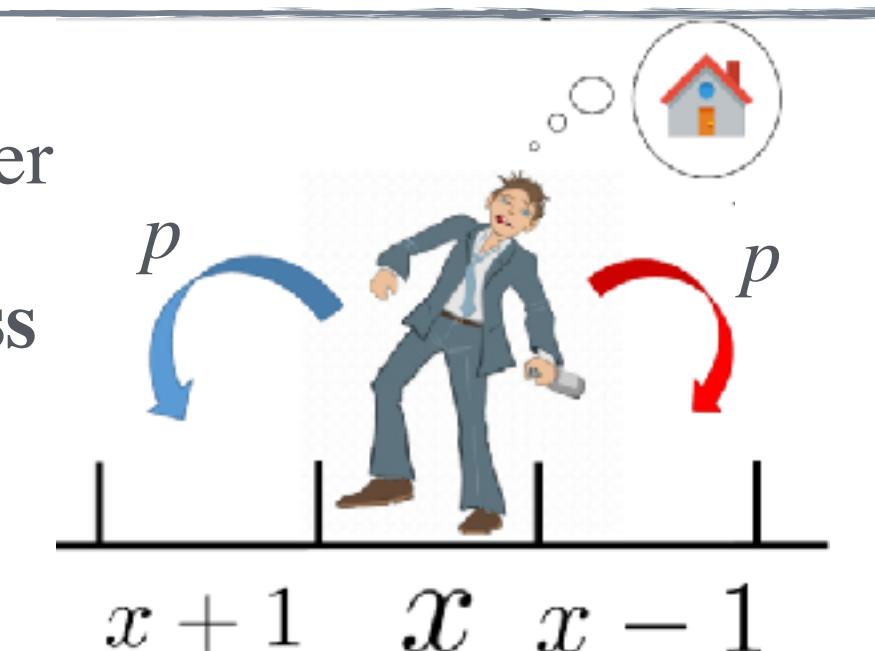
Random walk

X_t → Position of the (drunk) walker

Transition probabilities only depend on current state: **Markov process**

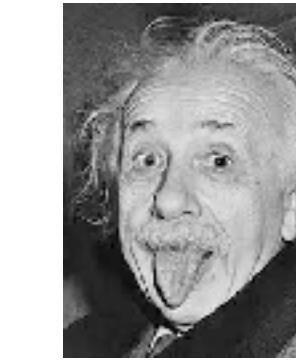
$$p = P(X_{t+\Delta t} = x \pm \Delta x | X_t = x) \quad 1 - p = P(X_{t+\Delta t} = x | X_t = x)$$

$$P_t(x) = P(X_t = x | X_0 = x_0)$$



Stochastic processes

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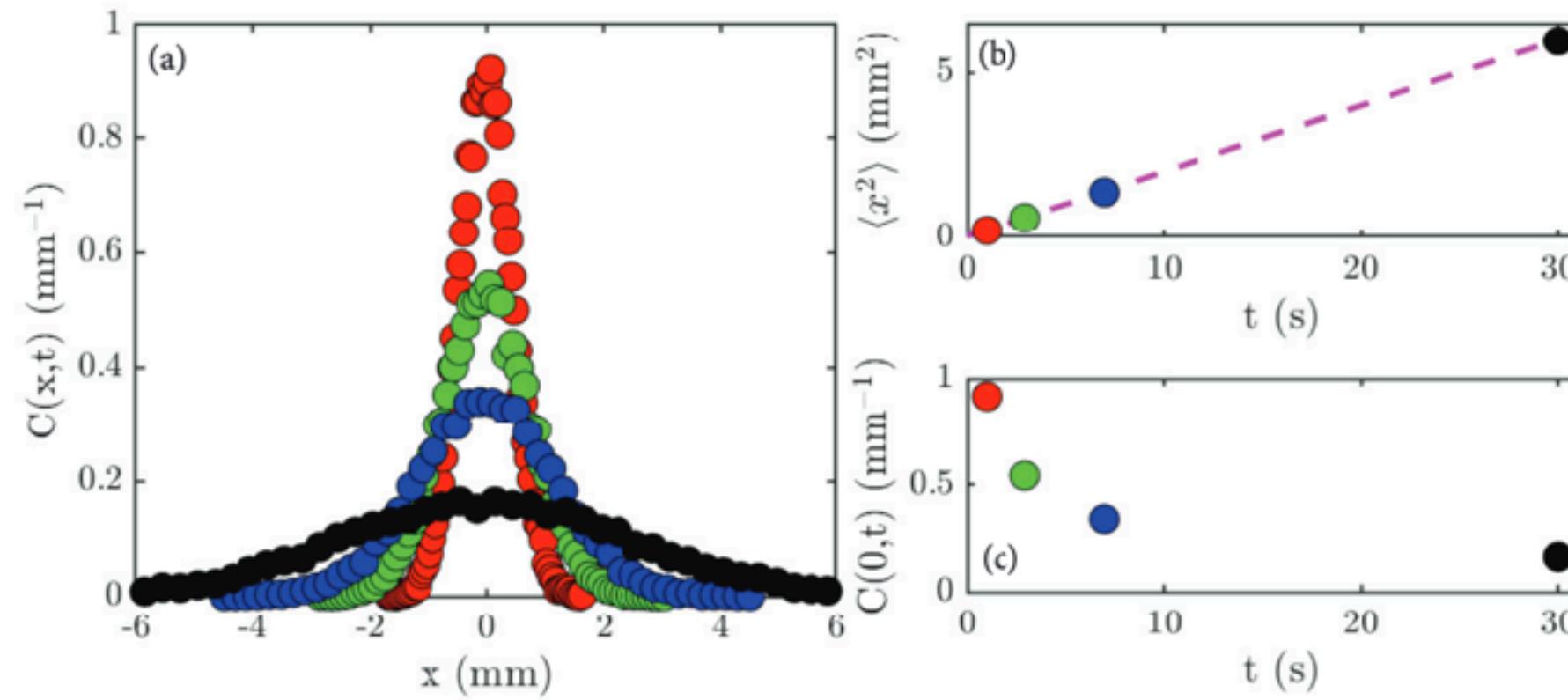
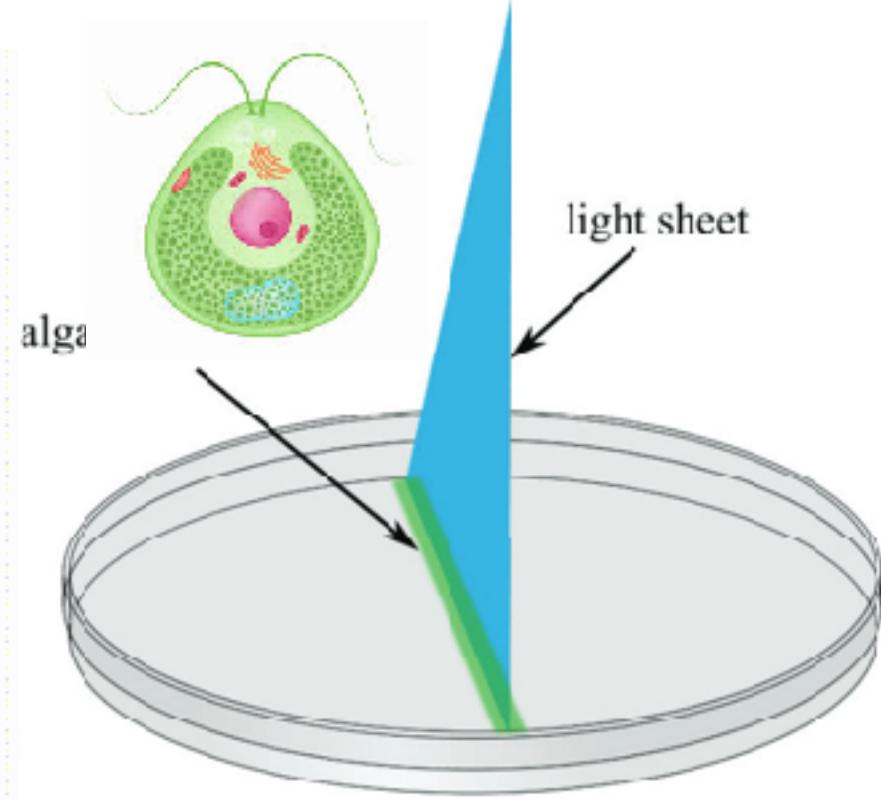
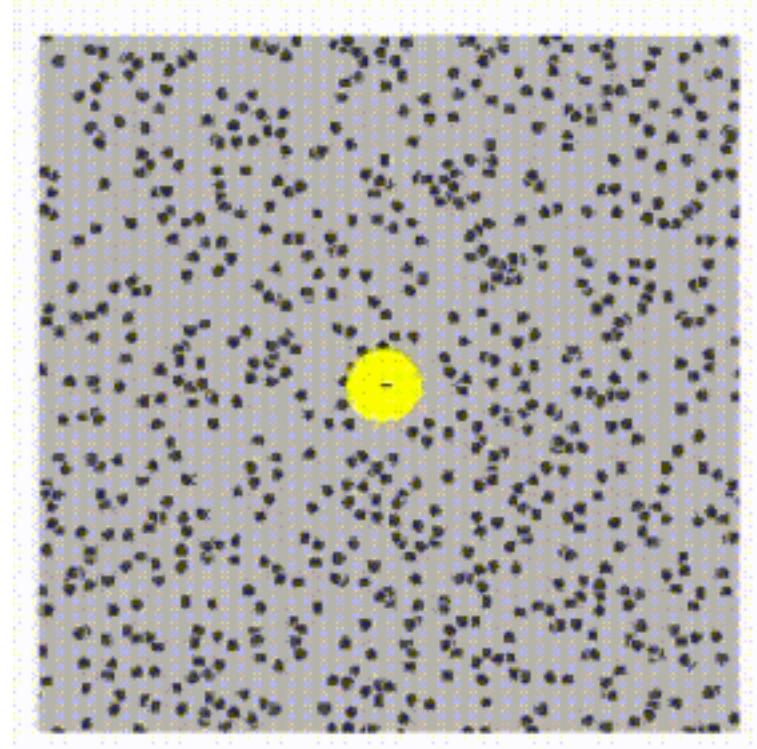


Case of study:

Diffusion, random walks
Markov chains, Fokker-Planck eq.



Q: Origin of statistical patterns in erratic movements?



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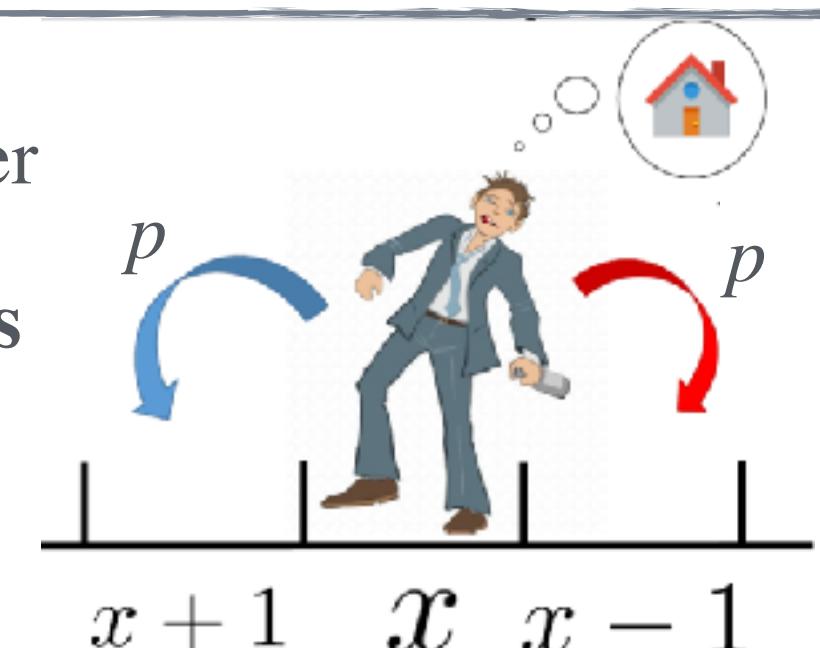
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Continuum limit

$$\partial_t P_t(x) = \frac{D^2}{2} \partial_x^2 P_t(x)$$



Diffusion eq.

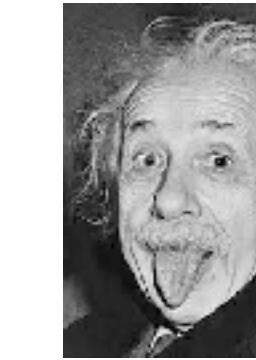
$$D^2 = \frac{p}{\Delta t} \Delta x^2$$

Jumping prob. Per unit of time

Size of jumps squared

Stochastic processes

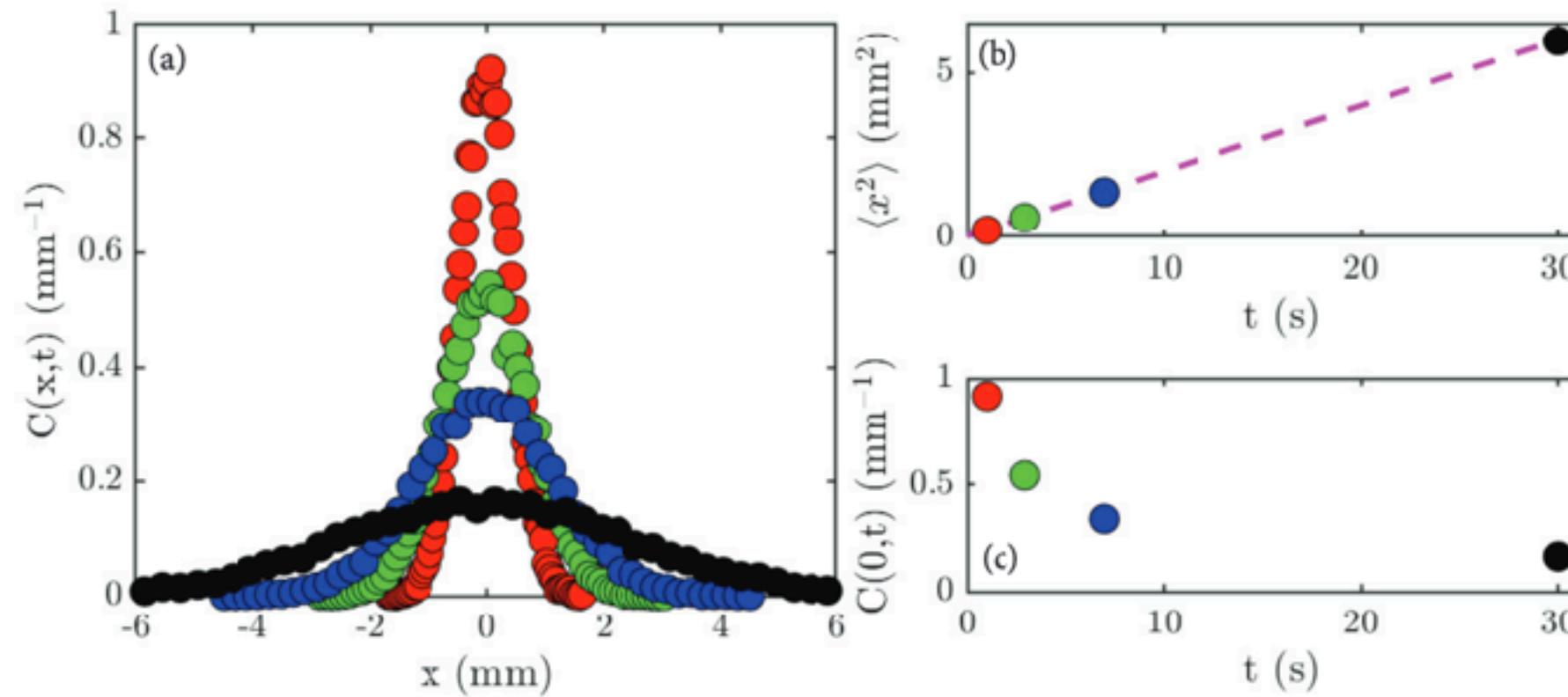
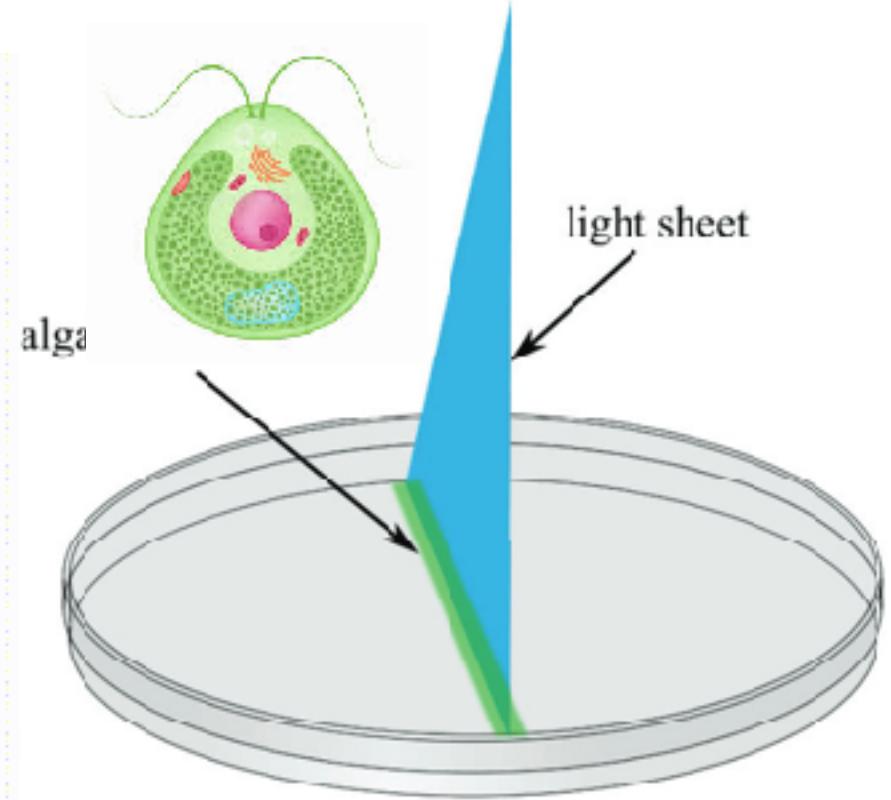
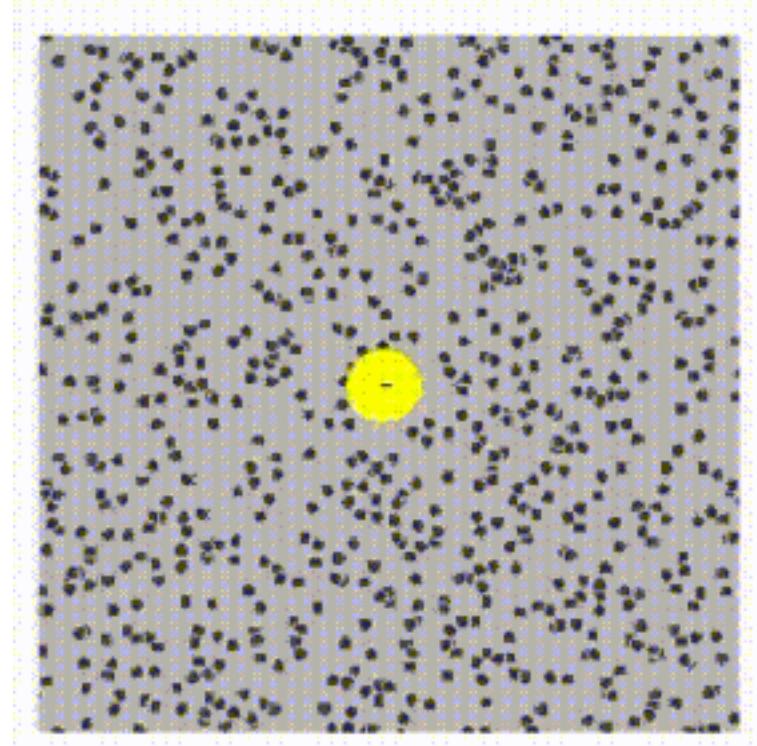
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$$D^2 = \frac{p}{\Delta t} \Delta x^2$$

$$P_t(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi D^2 t}} e^{-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2D^2 t}}$$

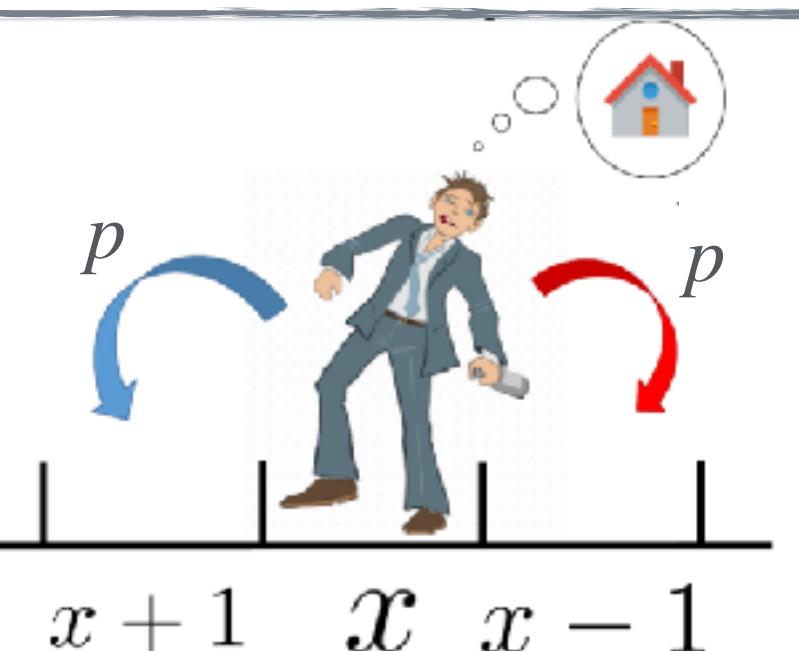
$$\langle X_t \rangle = x_0$$

$$\sigma^2(X_t) = D^2 t$$

$$\Delta l \sim D\sqrt{t}$$

Case of study:

Diffusion, random walks
Markov chains, Fokker-Planck eq.



Diffusion eq. Jumping prob. Per unit of time

Size of jumps squared

Signature of Diffusion

Stochastic processes

Norbert
Wiener
(1894-1964)



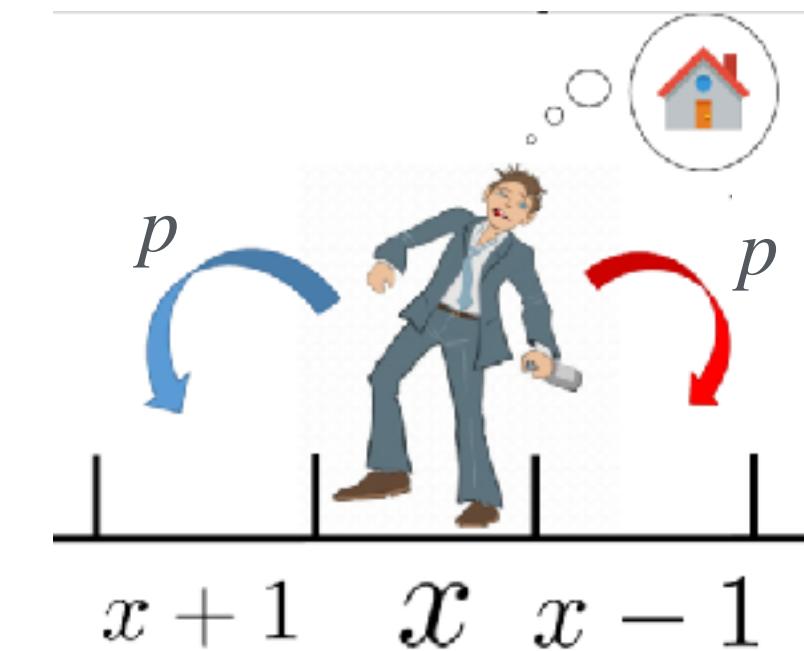
Paul
Langevin
(1872-1946)



Case of study:
Diffusion, random walks
Markov chains, Fokker-Planck eq.



Discrete space and time



Continuous space and time

$$\partial_t P_t(x) = \frac{D^2}{2} \partial_x^2 P_t(x)$$

Trajectories??

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_t = ??$$

Stochastic processes

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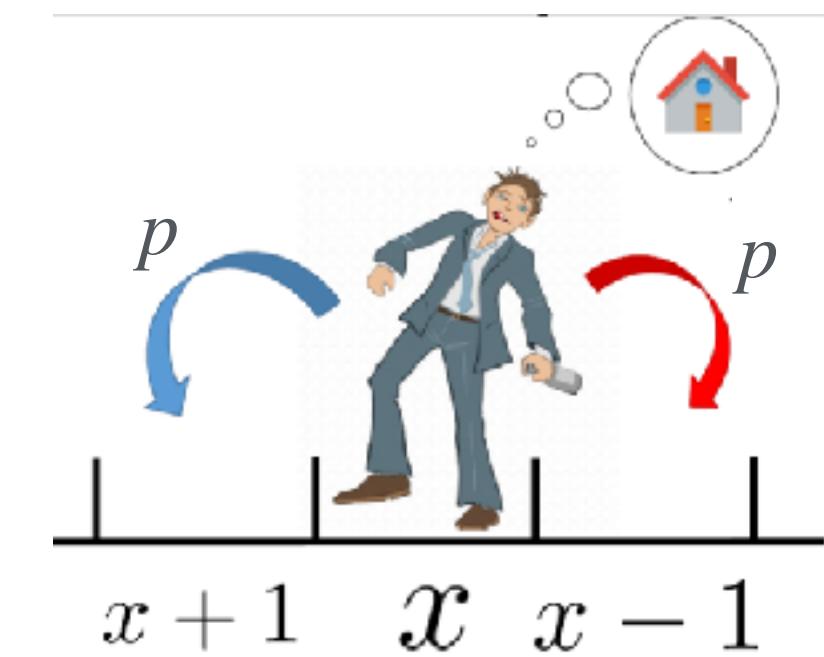
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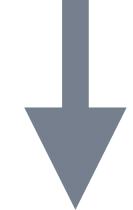
Trajectories??

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_t = ??$$

Deterministic dynamics:

ODE

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_t = A(X_t)$$



$$X_{t+\Delta t} = X_t + A(X_t)\Delta t$$

Euler Method

Stochastic processes

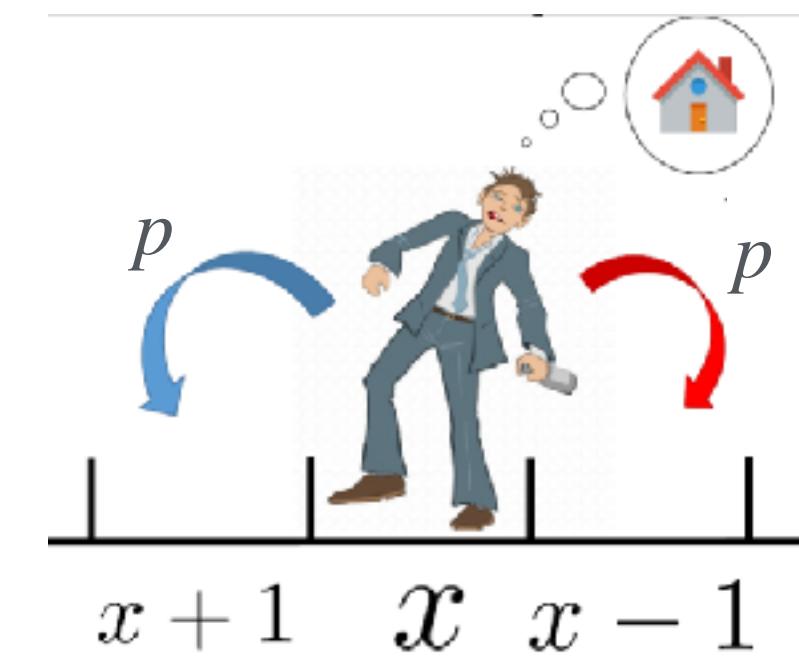


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ODE

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Euler Method

Stochastic dynamics:

$$\frac{d}{dt} X_t = A(X_t) + B(X_t) \xi(t)$$

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta t} \xi(t) = \Delta W_t \sim G(0, \Delta t)$$

Euler-Maruyama Method

$$X_{t+\Delta t} = X_t + A(X_t) \Delta t + B(X_t) \Delta W_t$$

$$P(\Delta W_t \in [w, w+dw]) = \frac{1}{2\pi\Delta t} e^{-\frac{w^2}{2\Delta t}} dw$$

Stochastic processes

Norbert Wiener
(1894-1964)



Paul Langevin
(1872-1946)

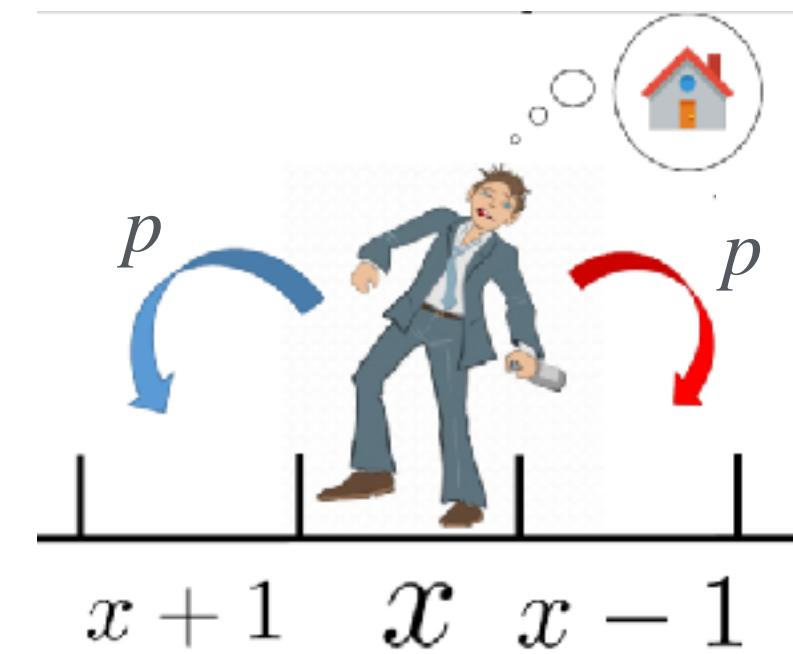


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Euler-Maruyama Method

$$X_{t+\Delta t} = X_t + A(X_t) \Delta t + B(X_t) \Delta W_t$$

$$P(\Delta W_t \in [w, w+dw]) = \frac{1}{2\pi\Delta t} e^{-\frac{w^2}{2\Delta t}} dw$$

SDE

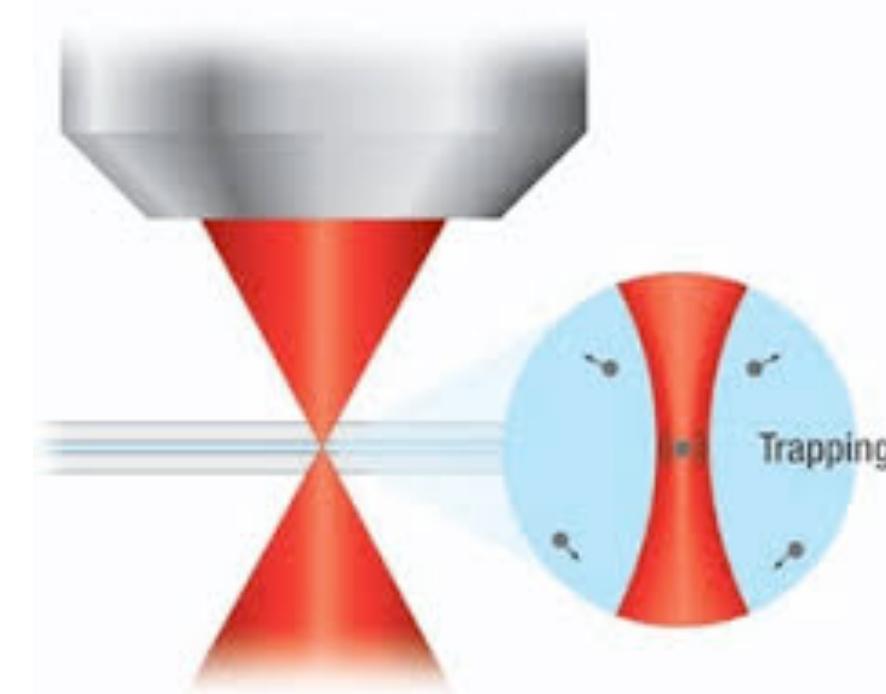
$$\frac{d}{dt} X_t = A(X_t) + B(X_t) \xi(t)$$

Fokker-Planck eq.

$$\partial_t \rho_t(x) = - \partial_x (A(x) \rho_t(x)) + \partial_x^2 (B^2(x) \rho_t(x))$$

Optical tweezers

Ibáñez et.al. 2024



Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process

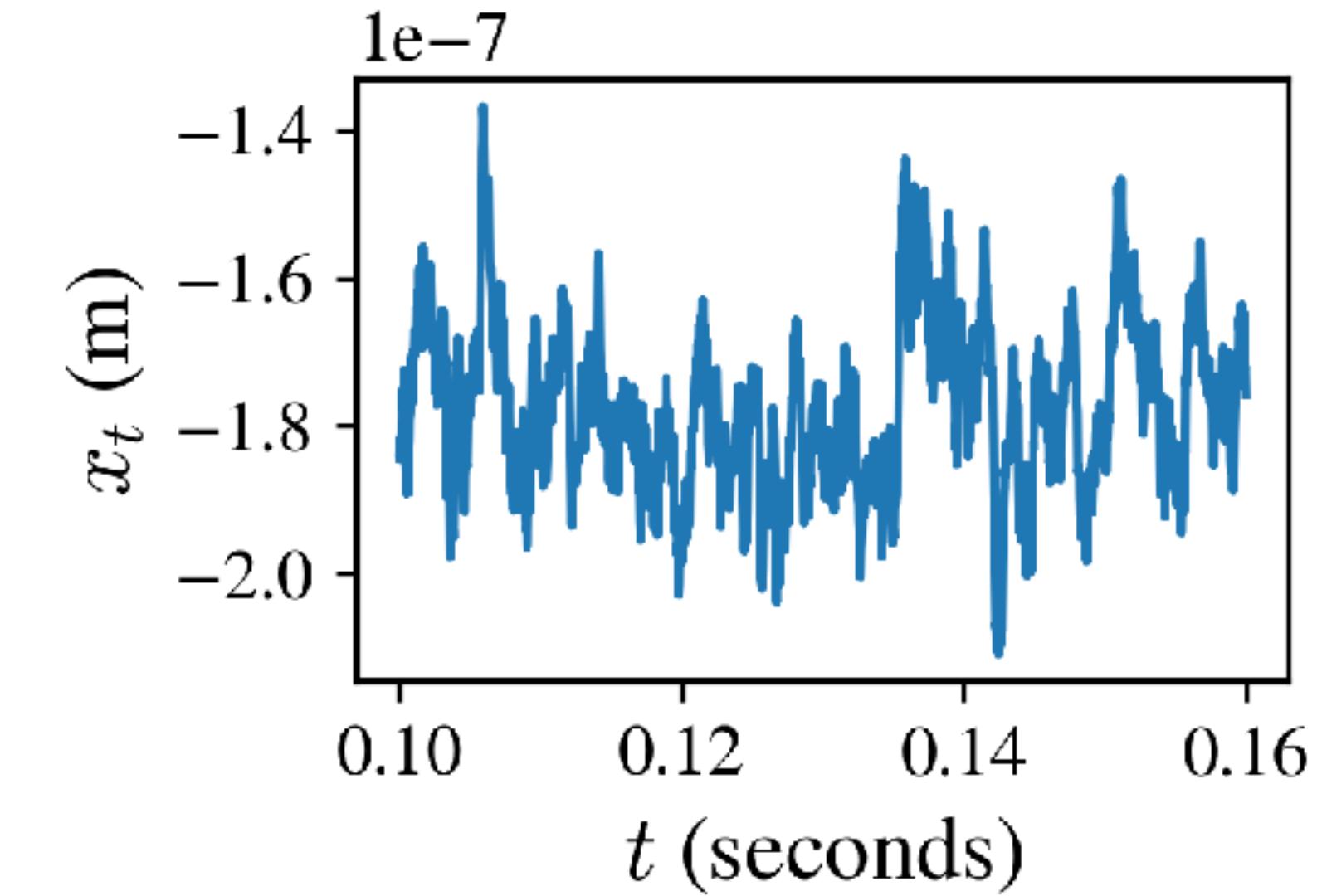
$$\frac{d}{dt}X_t = -k(X_t - \mu) + D\xi(t) \rightarrow \partial_t\rho_t(x) = k\partial_x((x - \mu)\rho_t(x)) + \frac{D^2}{2}\partial_x^2\rho_t(x)$$

Stationary properties (with zero current)

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \rho_t(x) = \rho(x) \rightarrow 0 = \partial_x((x - \mu)\rho(x)) + \frac{D^2}{2k}\partial_x^2\rho(x) \rightarrow \rho(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2k}{2\pi D^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{2k(x - \mu)^2}{2D^2}\right)$$

In general (equilibrium stationary distributions)

$$\partial_t\rho_t(x) = -\partial_x(A(x)\rho_t(x)) + \partial_x^2(B(x)\rho_t(x)) \rightarrow \rho(x) = \frac{1}{B(x)} \exp\left(-\int^x \frac{A(s)}{B(s)} ds\right)$$



Miguel Ibáñez

Probability

Modeling randomness

William Feller
(1906 - 1970)



Case of study:
Waiting time paradox
Exponential distribution
Poisson distribution



Exponential distribution

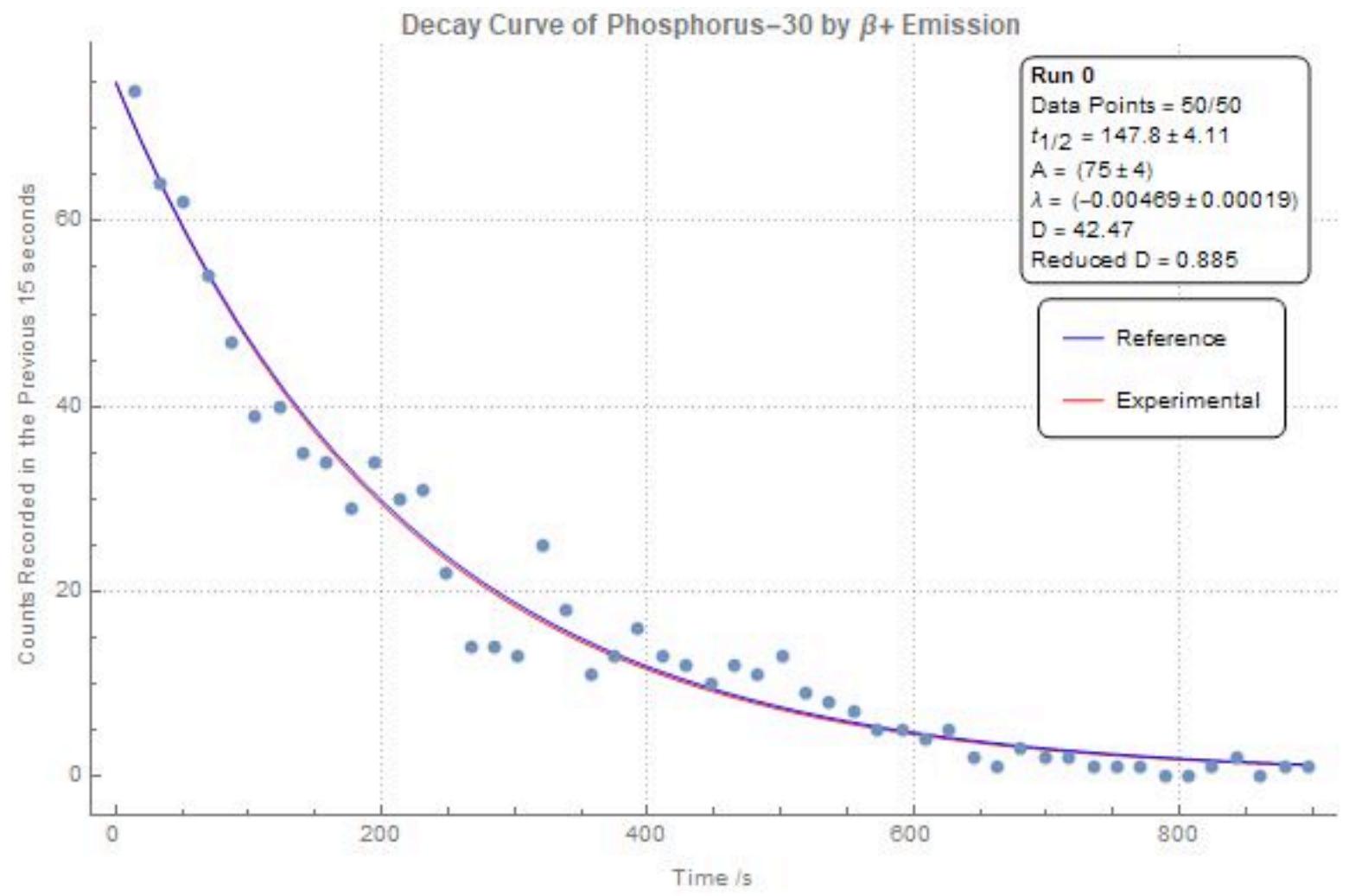
$$P(\Delta t) = we^{-w\Delta t}$$

$$E(\Delta t) = \frac{1}{w}$$

Typical time scale

Memoryless property: $\frac{P(\Delta t)}{P(0)} = \frac{P(\Delta t + t)}{P(t)}$

Example: Radioactive decay



Probability

Modeling randomness

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Exponential distribution

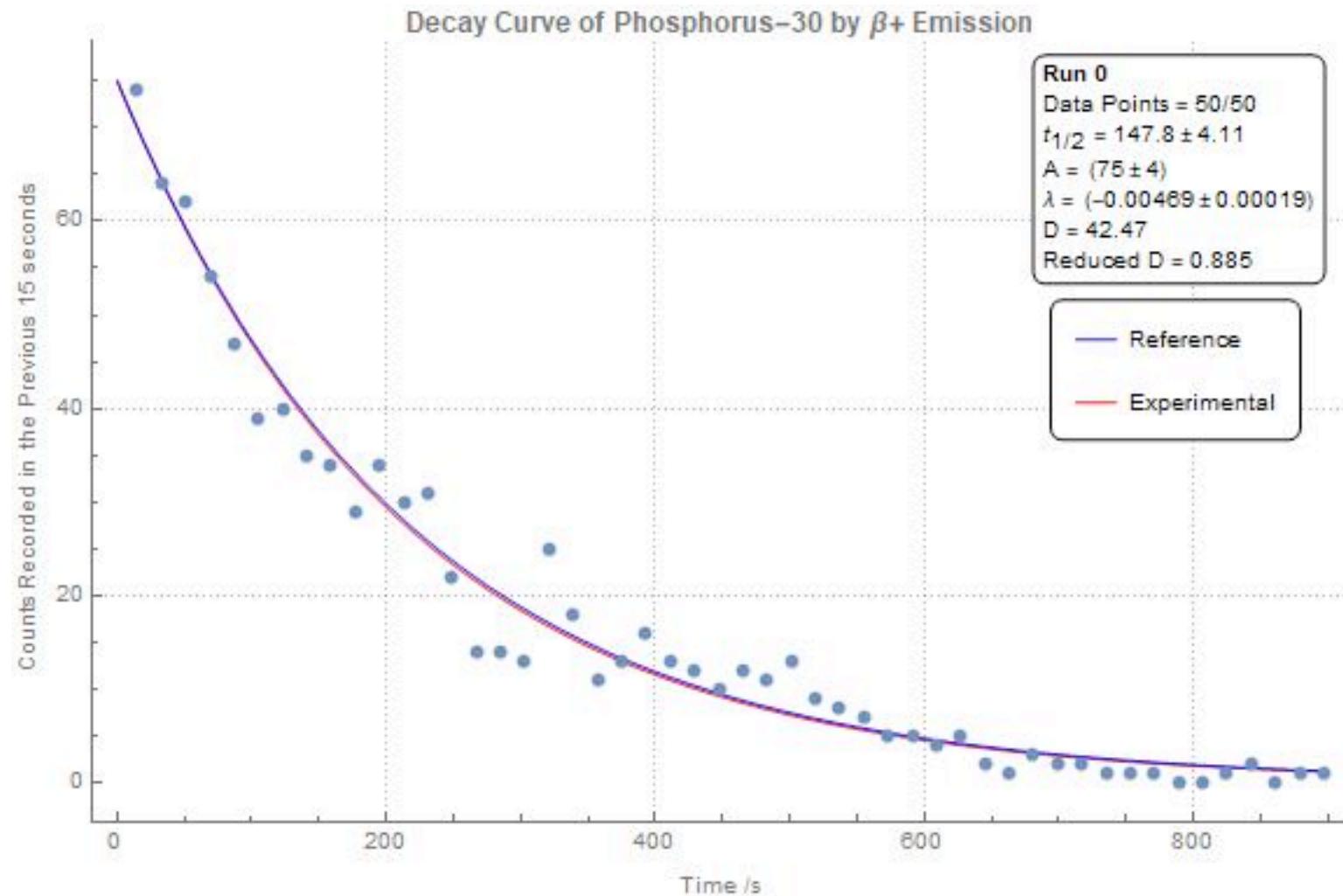
$$P(\Delta t) = we^{-w\Delta t}$$

$$E(\Delta t) = \frac{1}{w}$$

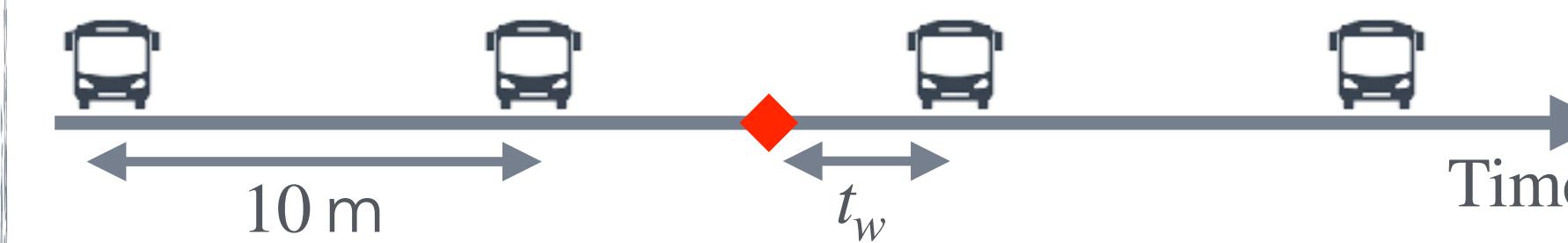
Typical time scale

Memoryless property: $\frac{P(\Delta t)}{P(0)} = \frac{P(\Delta t + t)}{P(t)}$

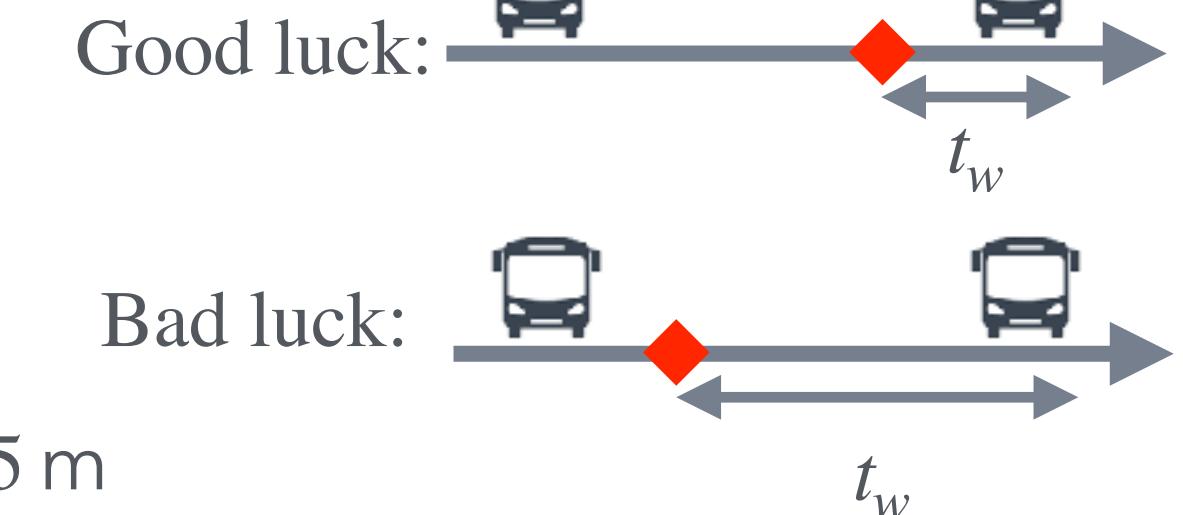
Example: Radioactive decay



Waiting times with deterministic arrivals



Bad luck -good luck compensation: $E[t_w] = \frac{10 \text{ m}}{2} = 5 \text{ m}$



Probability

Modeling randomness

William Feller
(1906 - 1970)



Case of study:
Waiting time paradox
Exponential distribution
Poisson distribution



Exponential distribution

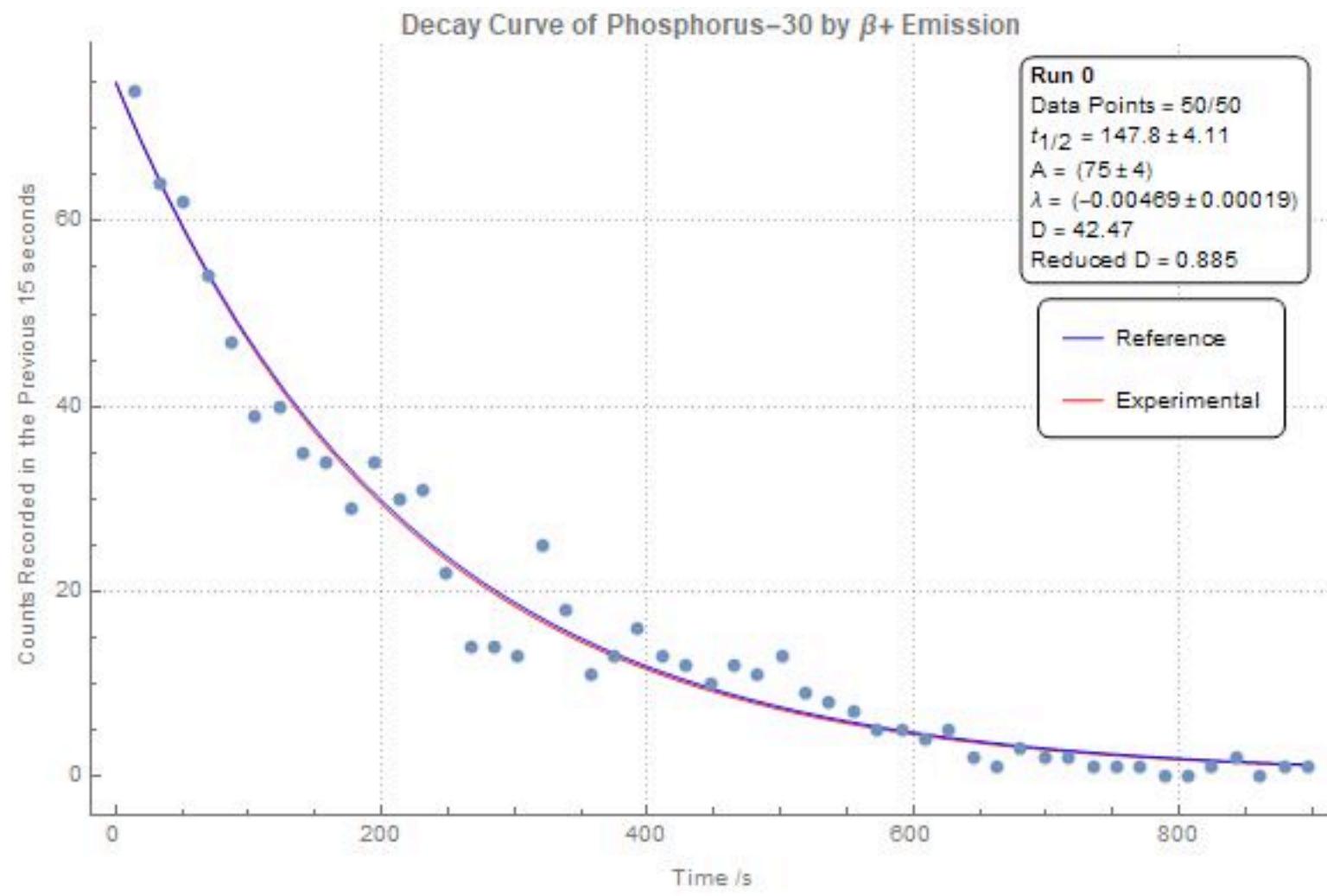
$$P(\Delta t) = w e^{-w\Delta t}$$

$$E(\Delta t) = \frac{1}{w}$$

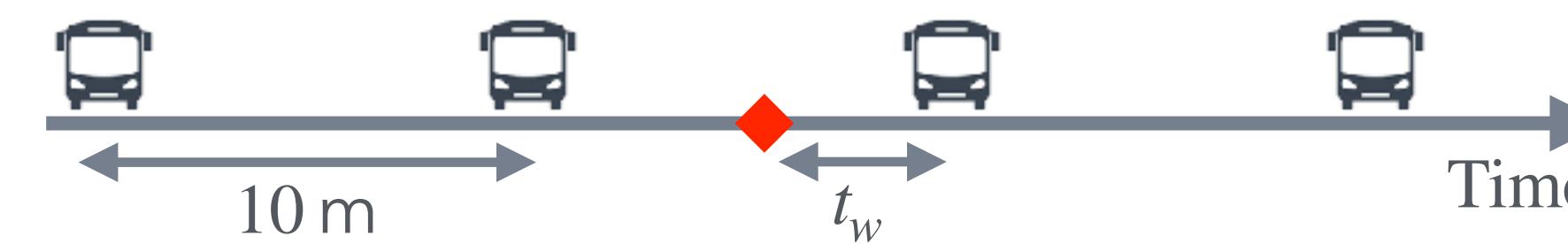
Typical time scale

Memoryless property: $\frac{P(\Delta t)}{P(0)} = \frac{P(\Delta t + t)}{P(t)}$

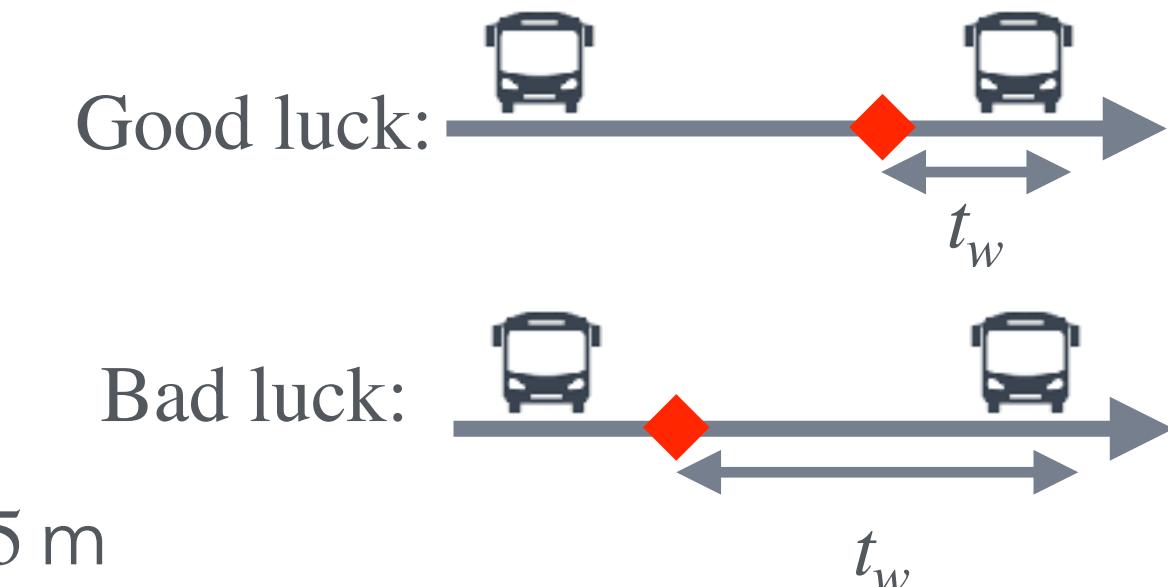
Example: Radioactive decay



Waiting times with deterministic arrivals



Bad luck -good luck compensation: $E[t_w] = \frac{10 \text{ m}}{2} = 5 \text{ m}$



Waiting times with random arrivals



$$P(\Delta t) = 10 e^{-10\Delta t} \text{ m}^{-1}$$

Bad luck -good luck compensation: $E[t_w] = \frac{E[\Delta t]}{2} = 5 \text{ m}$

Memoryless property: Waiting time doesn't depend on arrival time

$$\langle t_w \rangle = \langle t_a + \Delta t | t_a \rangle = 10 \text{ m}$$

Probability

Modeling randomness

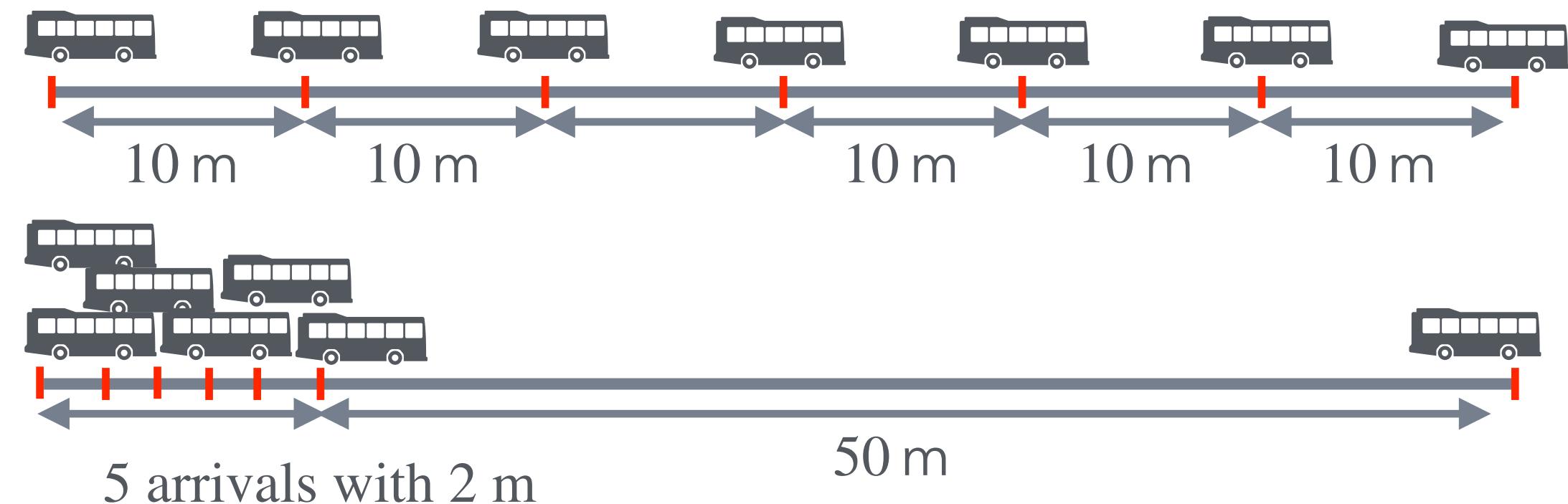
William Feller
(1906 - 1970)



Case of study:
Waiting time paradox
Exponential distribution
Poisson distribution



6 arrivals in one hour:



Probability

Modeling randomness

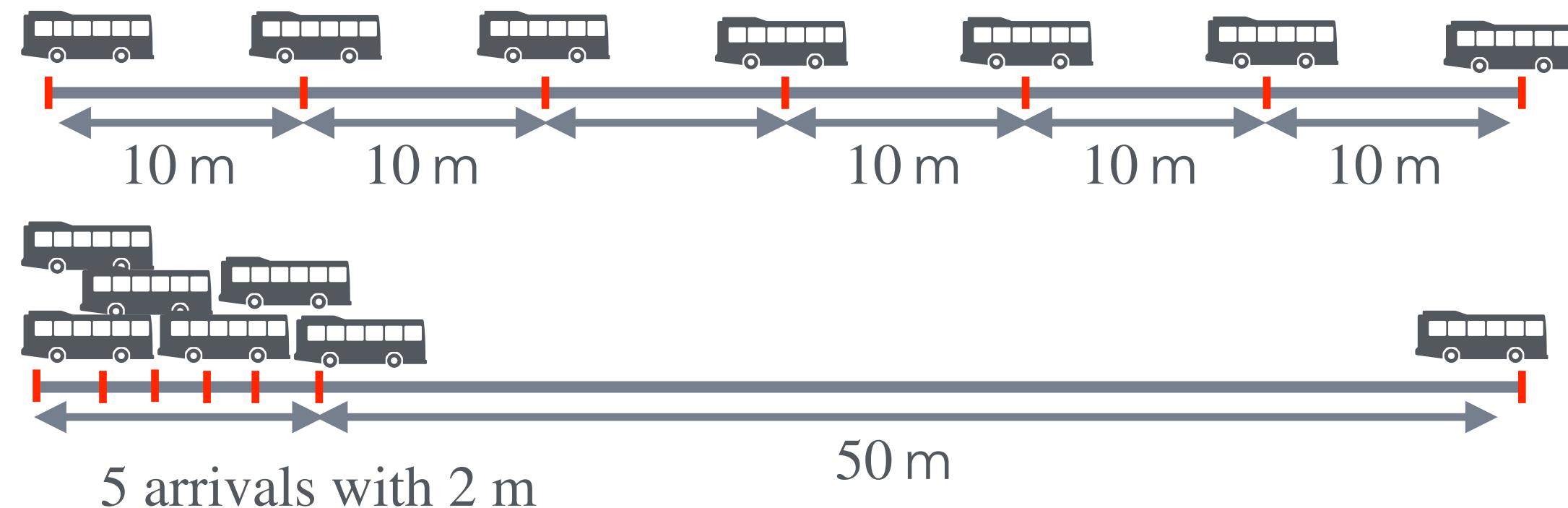
William Feller
(1906 - 1970)



Case of study:
Waiting time paradox
Exponential distribution
Poisson distribution



6 arrivals in one hour:



$$\text{Average time between arrivals} = \frac{1}{6} (5 \cdot 2 + 50) = 10 \text{ m}$$

Prob. Of hitting 2- and 50- time intervals

$$\text{Average observed T.B.A.} = 5 \left(\frac{2}{60} \right) 2 + \left(\frac{50}{60} \right) 50 = 42 \text{ m}$$

It is more likely to arrive in long intervals between arrivals !!!

Probability

Modeling randomness

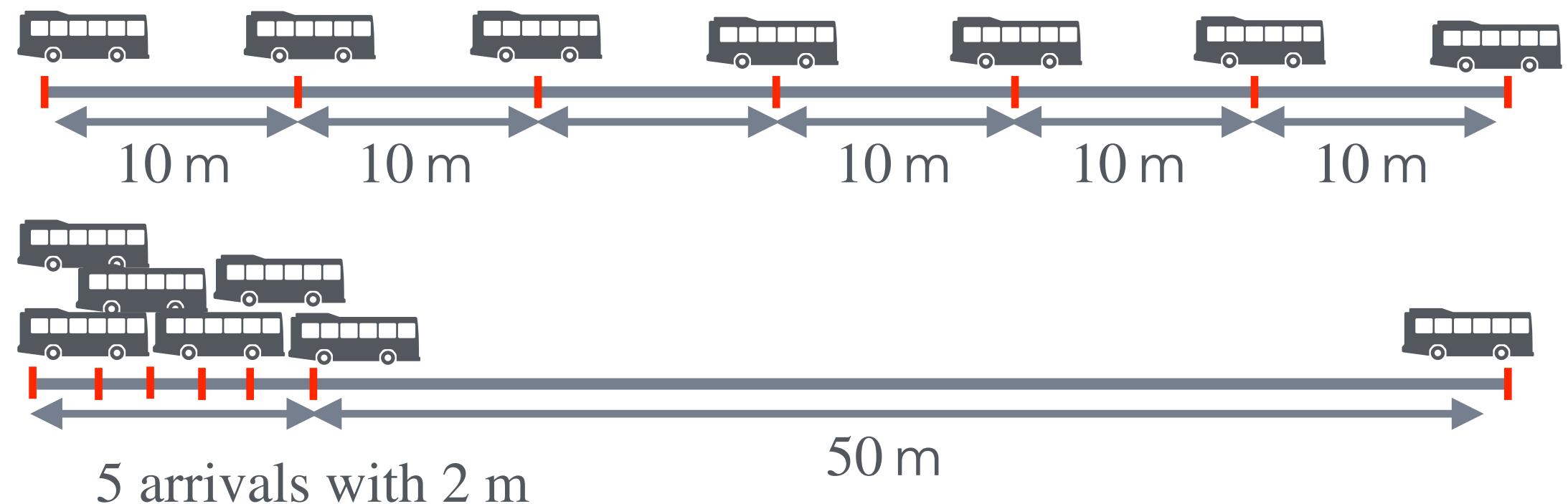
William Feller
(1906 - 1970)



Case of study:
Waiting time paradox
Exponential distribution
Poisson distribution



6 arrivals in one hour:

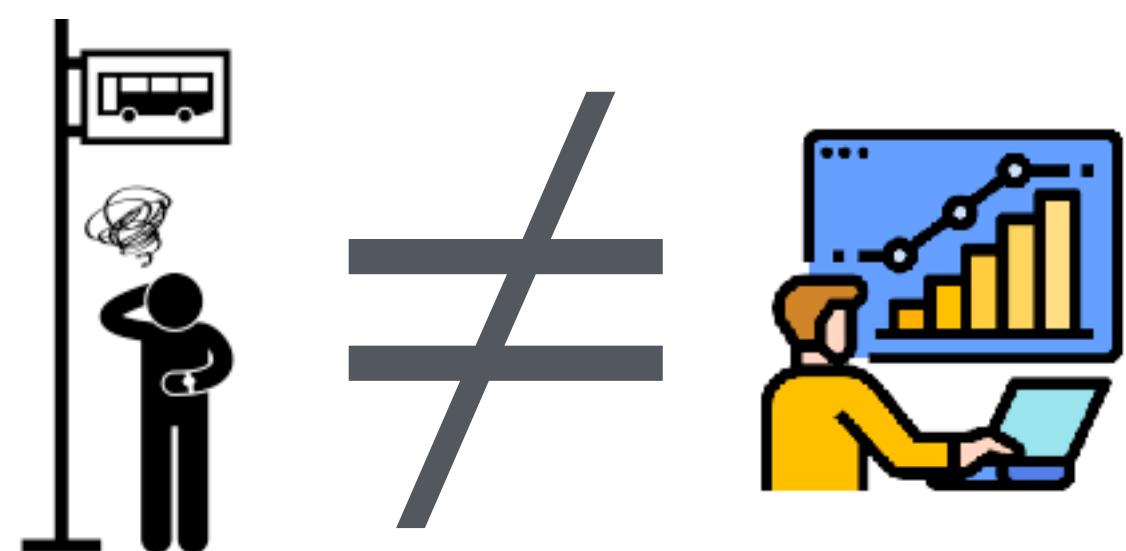


How we gather data alter statistics (Length bias)

$$\text{Average time between arrivals} = \frac{1}{6} (5 \cdot 2 + 50) = 10 \text{ m} \rightarrow \text{Event-based observer}$$

Prob. Of hitting 2- and 50- time intervals

$$\text{Average observed T.B.A.} = 5 \cdot \frac{2}{60} \cdot 2 + \frac{50}{60} \cdot 50 = 42 \text{ m} \rightarrow \text{Random-time observer}$$



It is more likely to arrive in long intervals between arrivals !!!

Stochastic processes



$$P(\Delta t \in [0,dt]) \propto dt$$

$$w = \lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(\Delta t \in [t,t+dt])}{dt}$$

Jumping process: SIS model

Constant population: $N = n + n_s \rightarrow n_s = N - n$



$$w(n \rightarrow n - 1) = \lambda n$$



$$w(n \rightarrow n + 1) = \beta \frac{N - n}{N} n$$

M possible transitions; $w_\nu(n) = w(n \rightarrow n + \nu), \nu = 1, \dots, M$

Stochastic processes



$$P(\Delta t \in [0, dt]) \propto dt$$

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$$w(n \rightarrow n + 1) = \beta \frac{N - n}{N} n$$

M possible transitions; $w_\nu(n) = w(n \rightarrow n + \nu)$, $\nu = 1, \dots, M$

$$\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} P(\nu - \text{reaction happens in } dt) = \lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} w_\nu(n) dt$$

$$\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} P(\text{something happens in } dt) = \lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \sum_\nu w_\nu(n) dt$$

$$\lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} P(\text{nothing happens in } dt) = \lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} 1 - W(n) dt$$

$$P(\text{nothing happens in } \Delta t) = e^{-W(n)\Delta t}$$

$$P(\text{nothing happens in } \Delta t, \nu \text{ happens in } [\Delta t, \Delta t + dt]) = \boxed{W(n) e^{-W(n)\Delta t} dt} \boxed{\frac{w_\nu(n)}{W(n)}}$$

Time between consecutive events are exponentially distributed

Prob. of next state is weighted with the transition rate

Gillespie Algorithm

$$N_t = n \rightarrow \Delta t \sim E(W(n)) \rightarrow P(N_{t+\Delta t} = n + \nu | N_t = n) = \frac{w_\nu(n)}{W(n)}$$

Stochastic processes

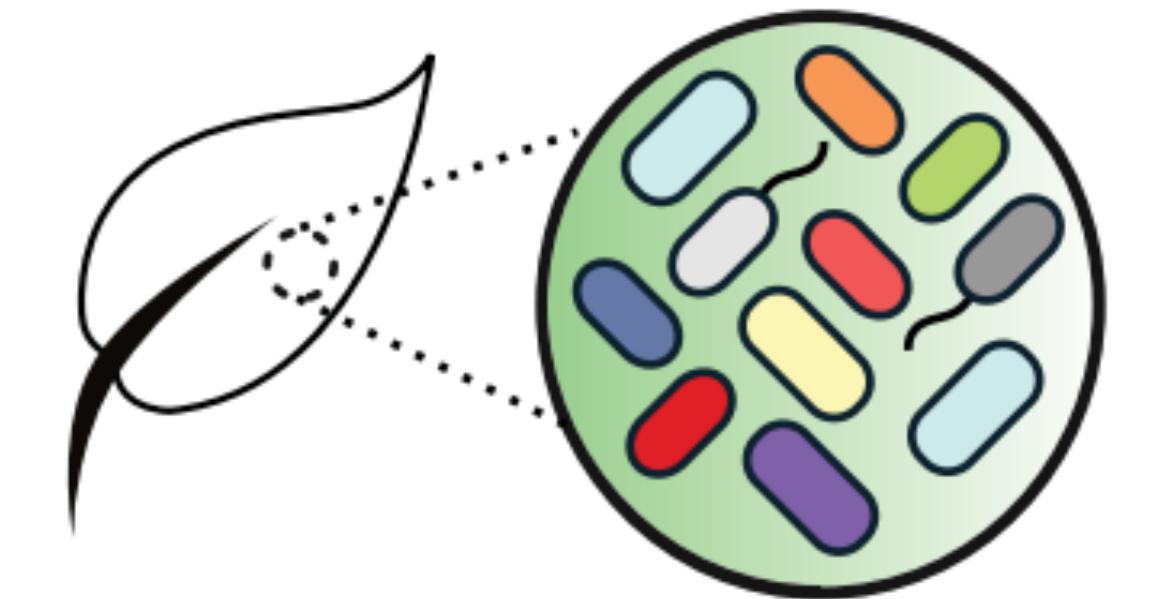
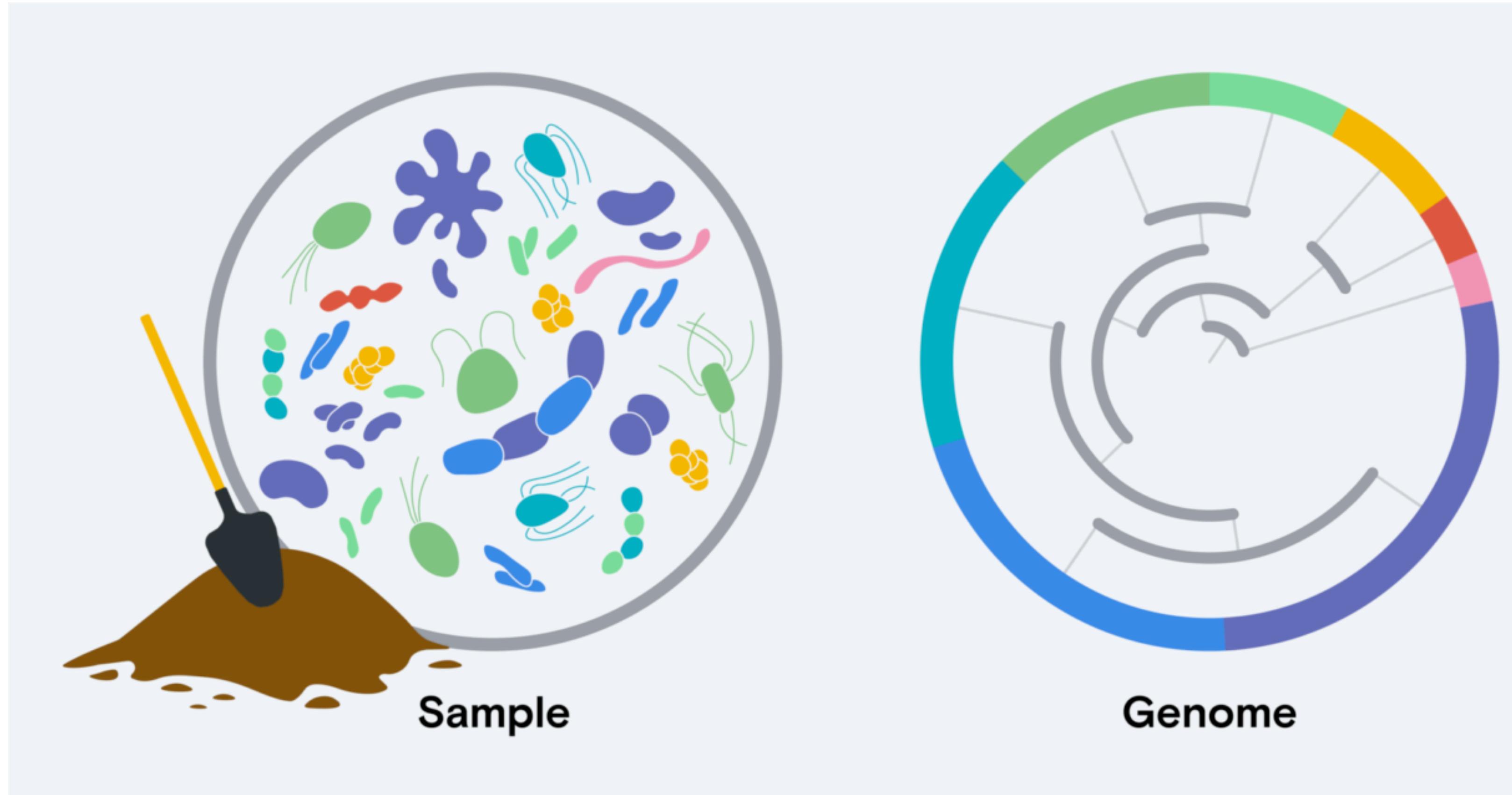
Van Kampen's expansion $w_\nu(n) = w(n \rightarrow n + \nu) = \Omega f_\nu(x), \quad x = \frac{n}{N}$

Stochastic processes

Mean field approximation: Deterministic limit

The metagenomic era

Sequencing of genetic material from all organisms in a particular environment



Goldford et.al. 2018

Human microbiome

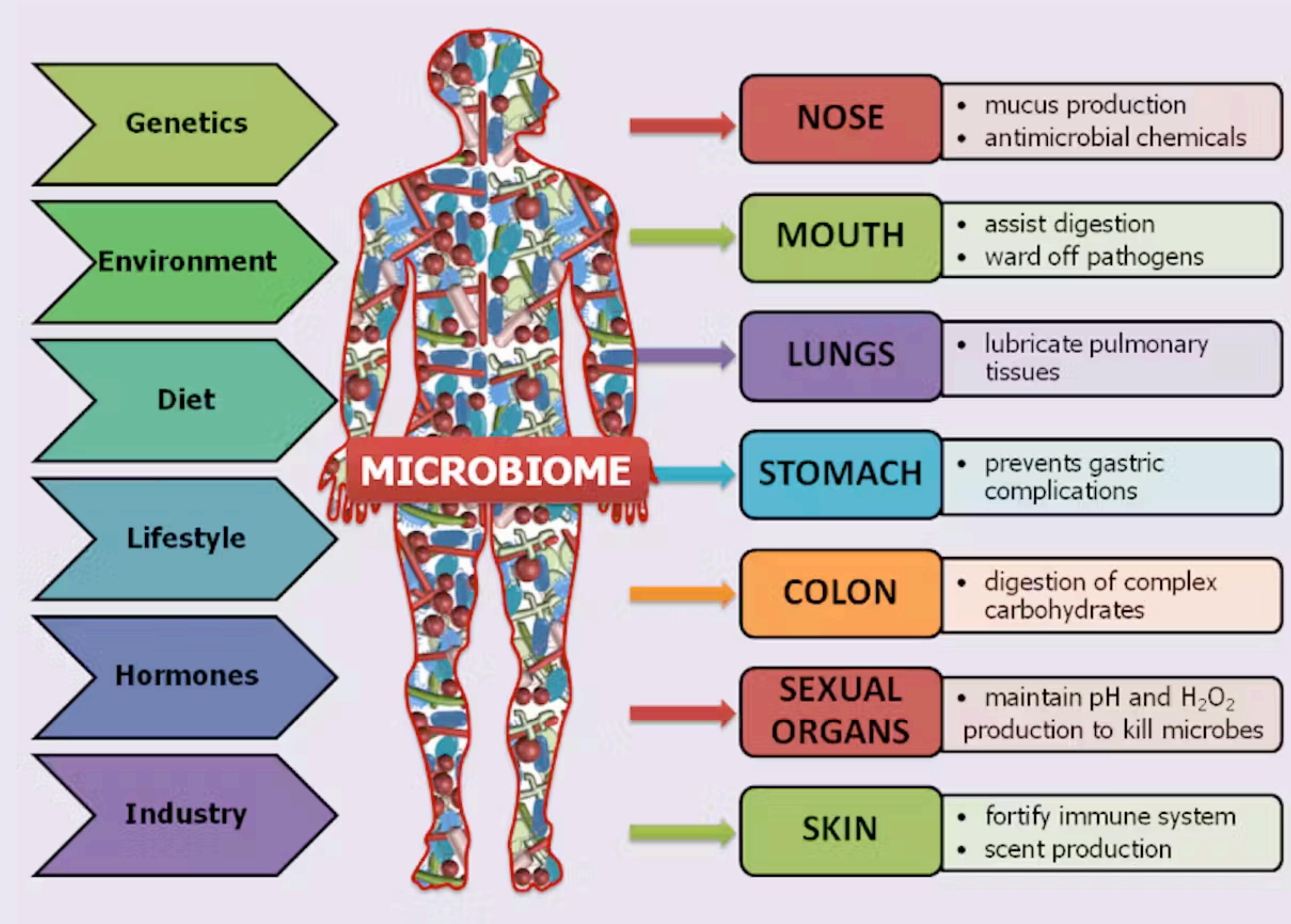
$\frac{\text{Microbiome}}{\text{human cells}} \approx \frac{10}{1}$

Largest 'organ'

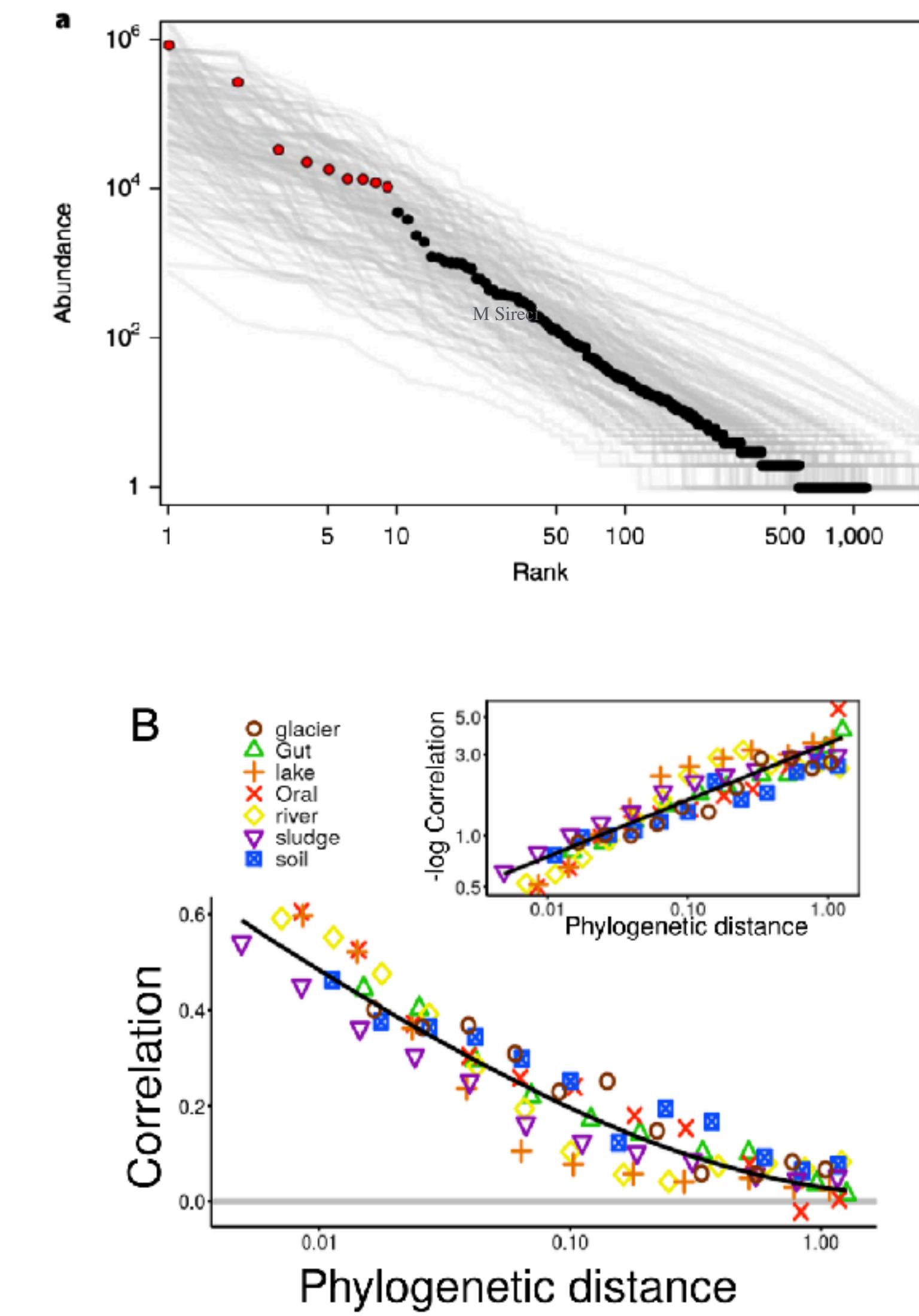
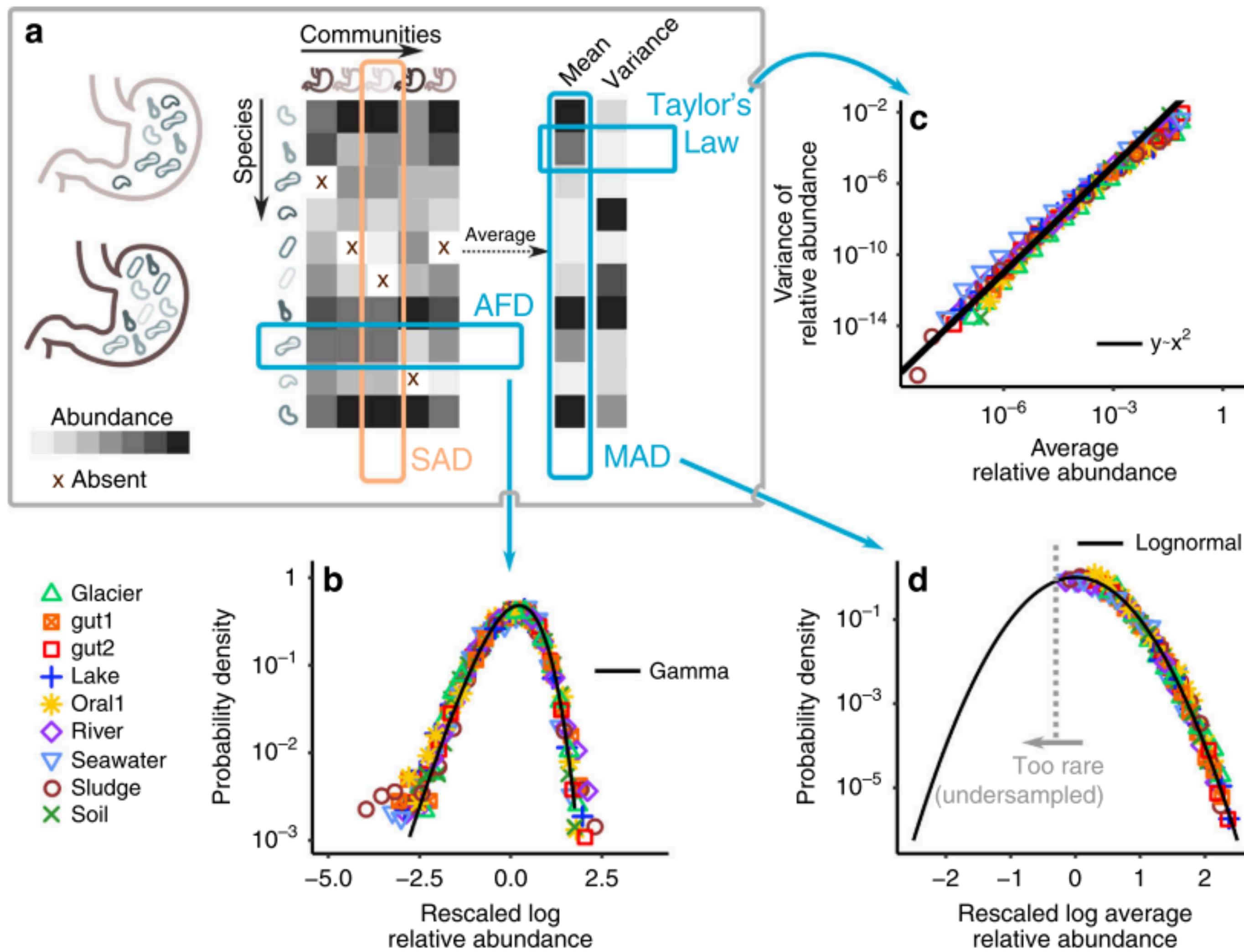
Unique Microbial Fingerprint

The 'Second Brain'

Immune System Powerhouse



Universal macroecological patterns

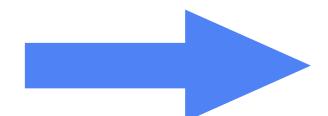
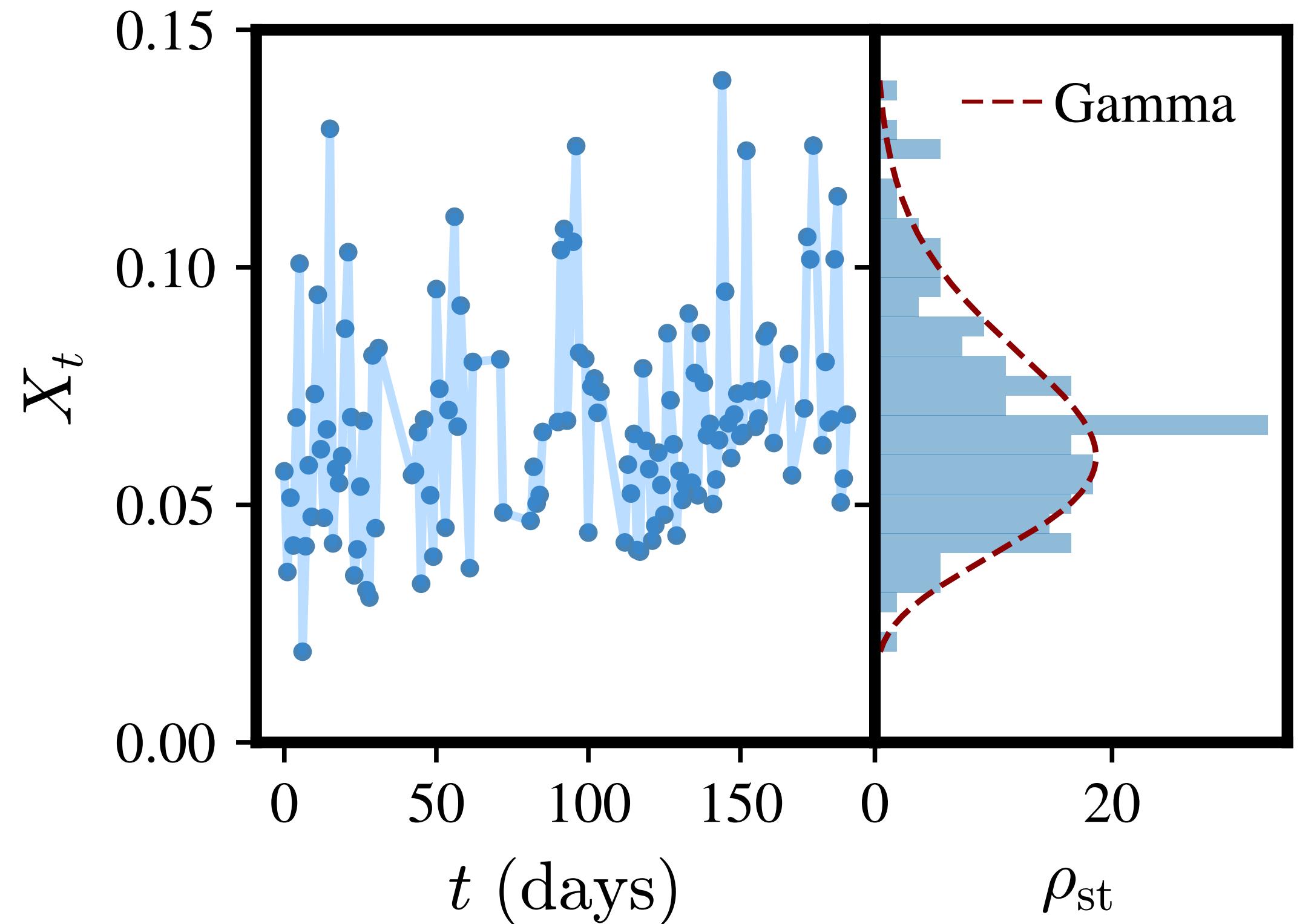


Grilli 2020

Sireci, Muñoz, Grilli 2023

Ser-Giacomi et al. 2018

Modeling microbes density evolution: decoupled theories



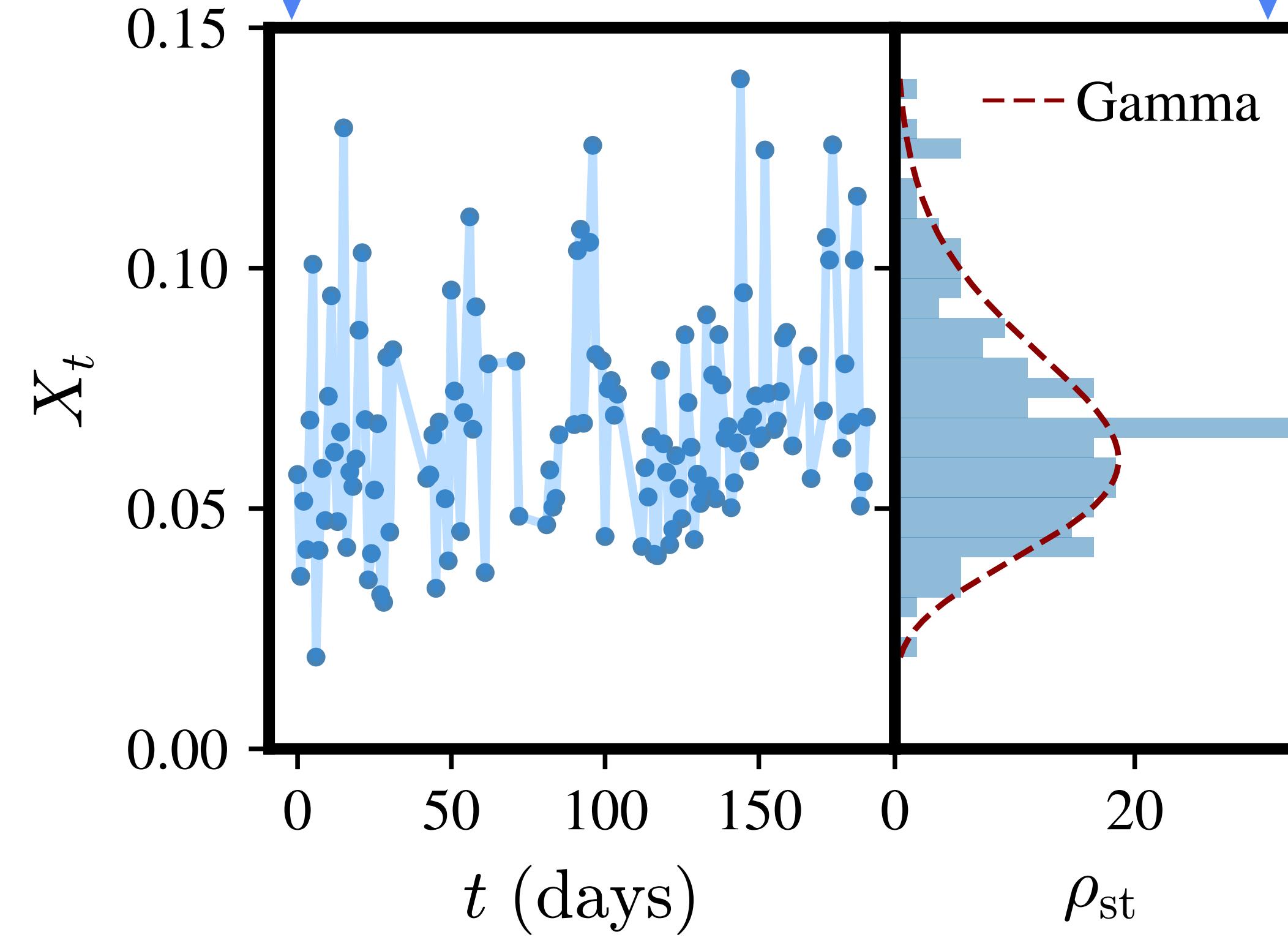
$$dX_t = A(X_t) dt + B(X_t) dW_t$$



Modeling microbes density evolution: decoupled theories

Environmental fluctuations

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t) X_t dt + D X_t dW_t$$



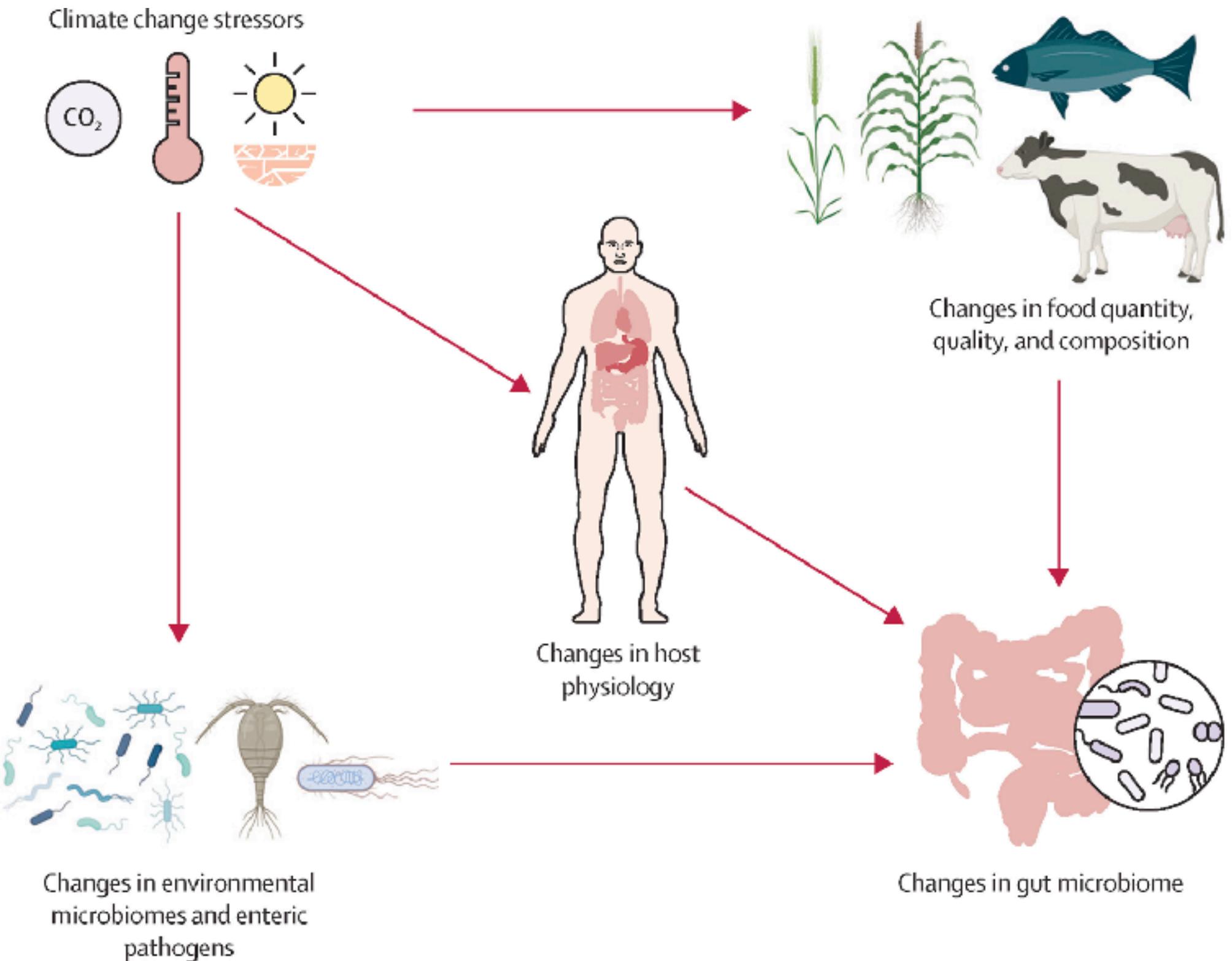
Demographic fluctuations

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t) dt + D \sqrt{X_t} dW_t$$

Modeling microbes density evolution: decoupled theories

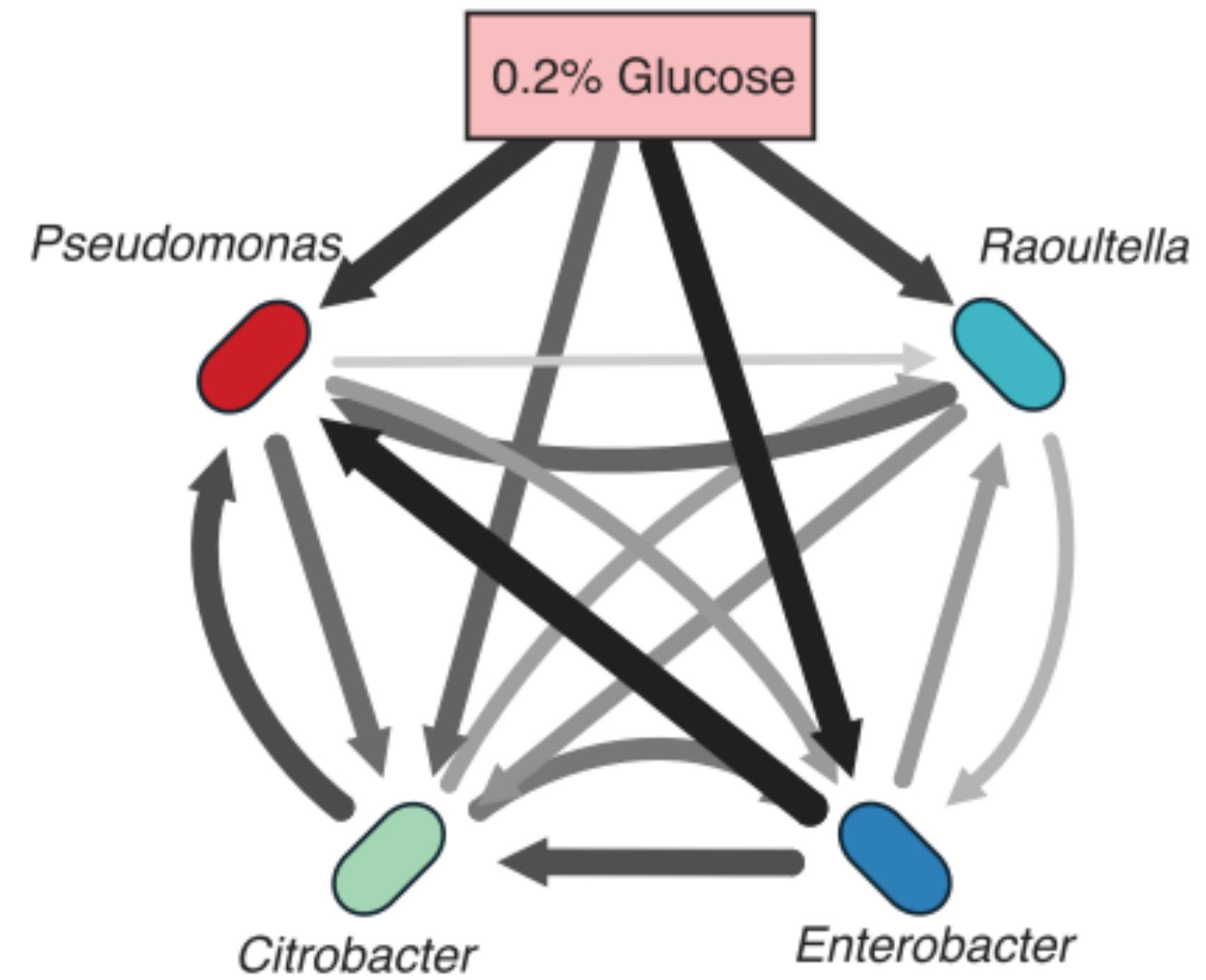
Environmental fluctuations

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t)X_t dt + DX_t dW_t$$



Demographic fluctuations

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t)dt + D\sqrt{X_t}dW_t$$

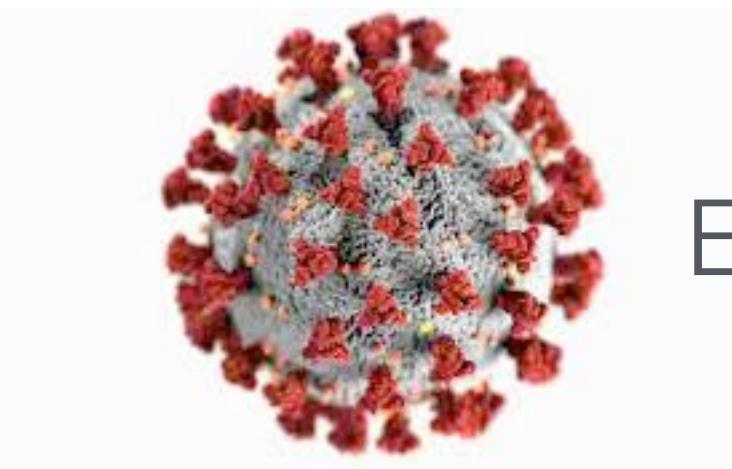


Goldford et.al. 2018

Azaele et.al. 2006

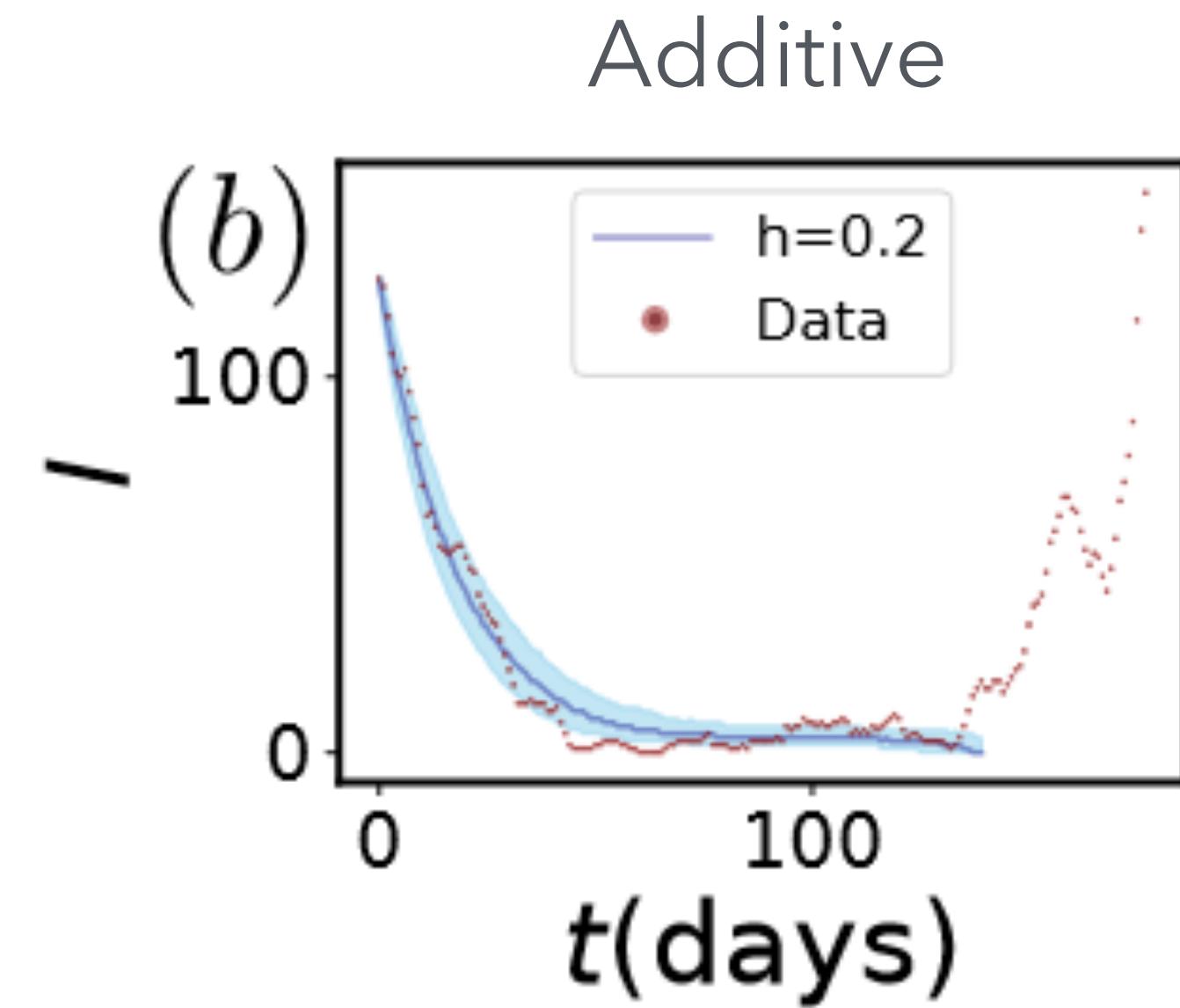
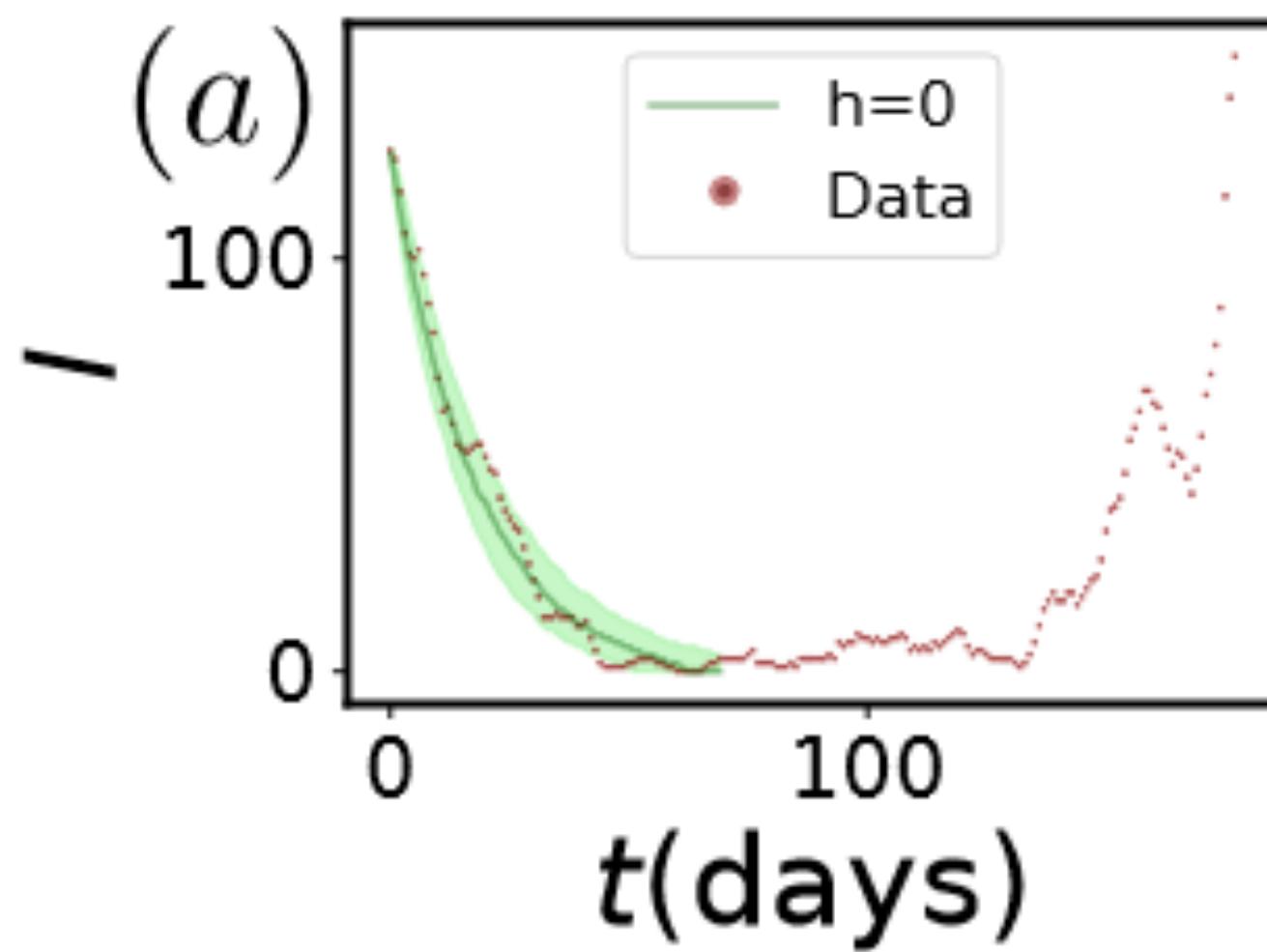
Ashish, O'Dwyer 2023

Multiple modeling choices in complex systems

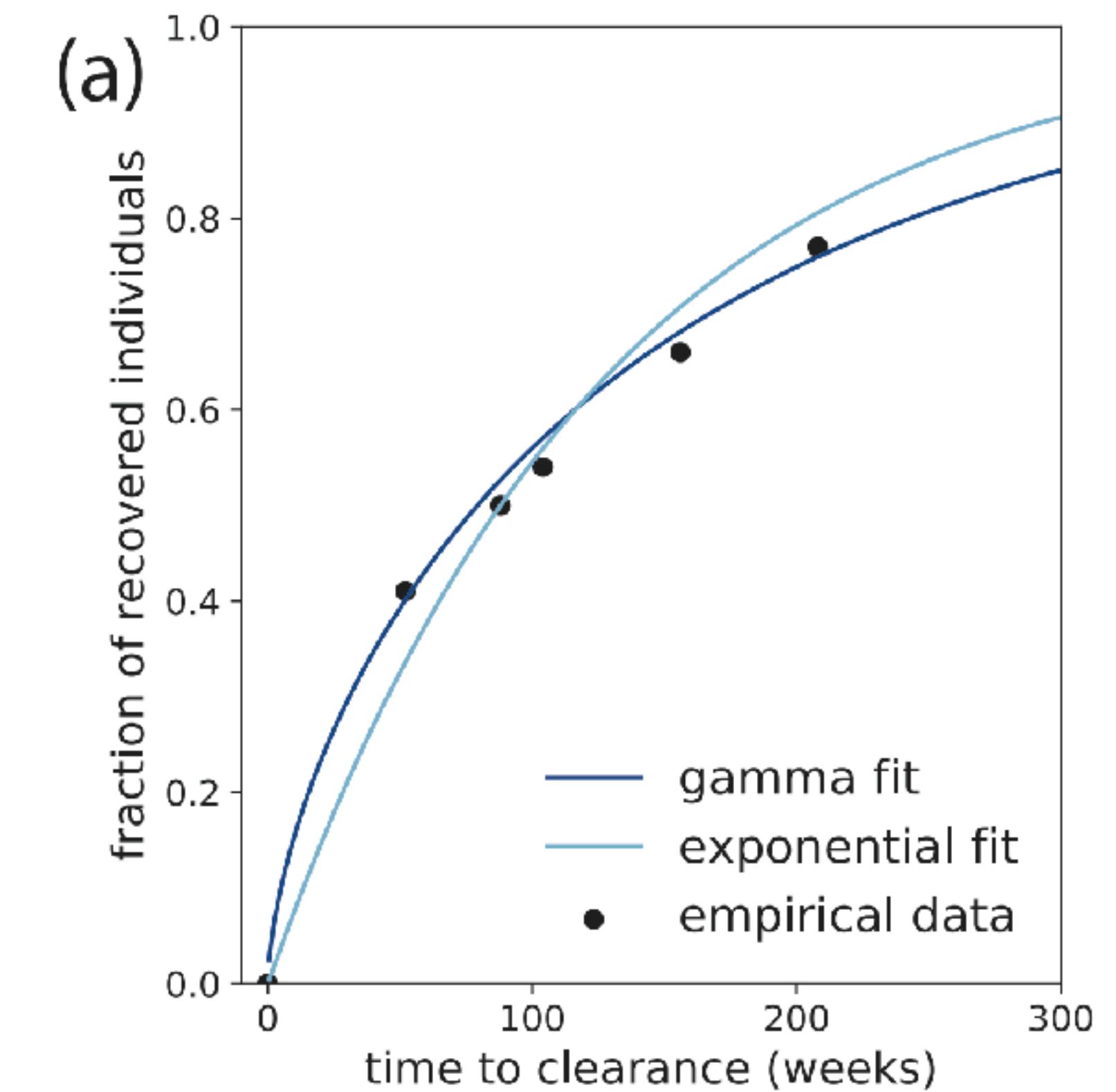


Epidemic modeling

Demographic

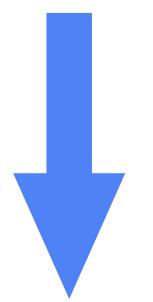


Additive



Question:

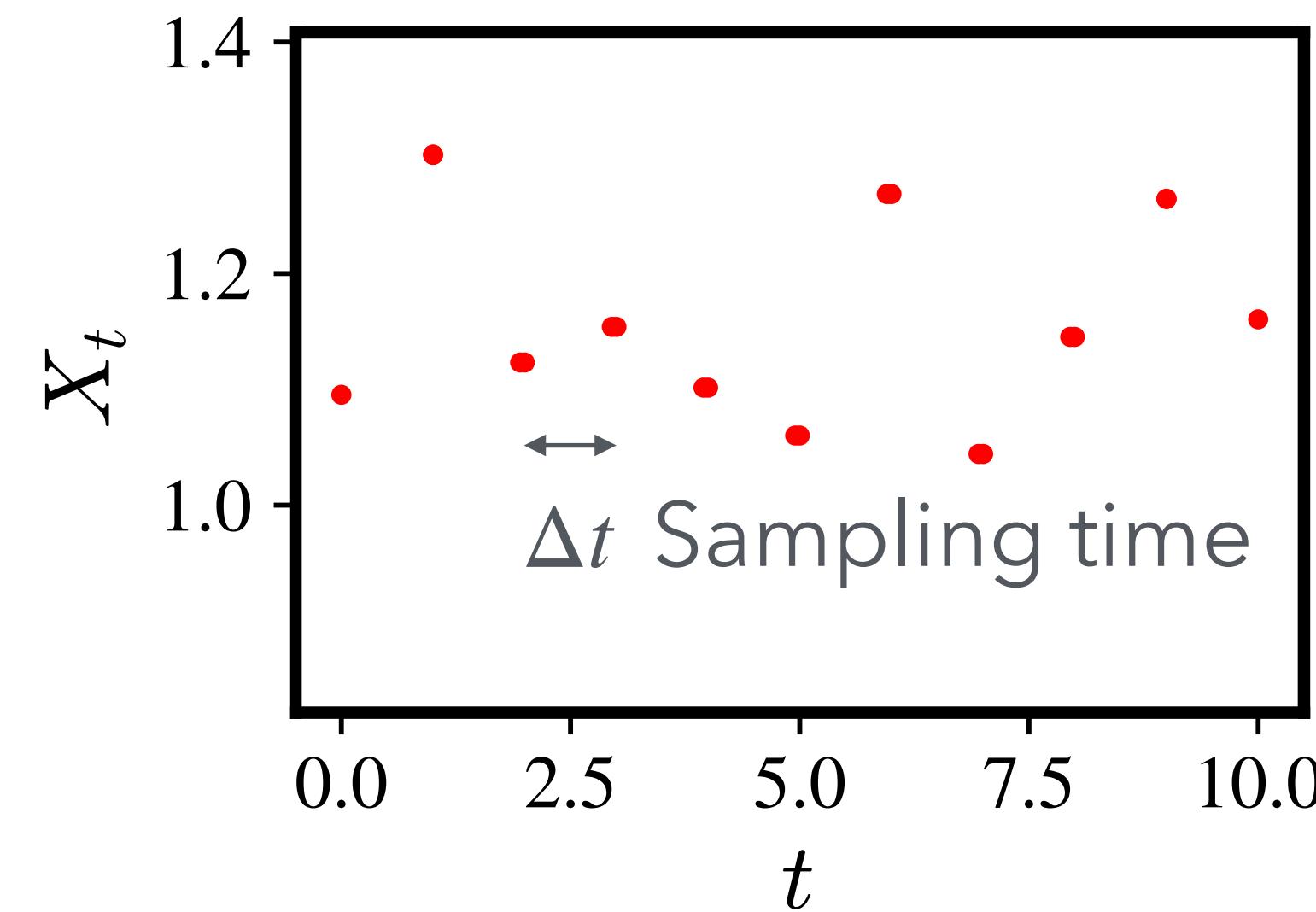
Models encoding different mechanisms provide good fits for the same data !!



Can we infer which is the best description?

?

Data
 $\{x_i, t_i\}_{i=1 \dots, M}$

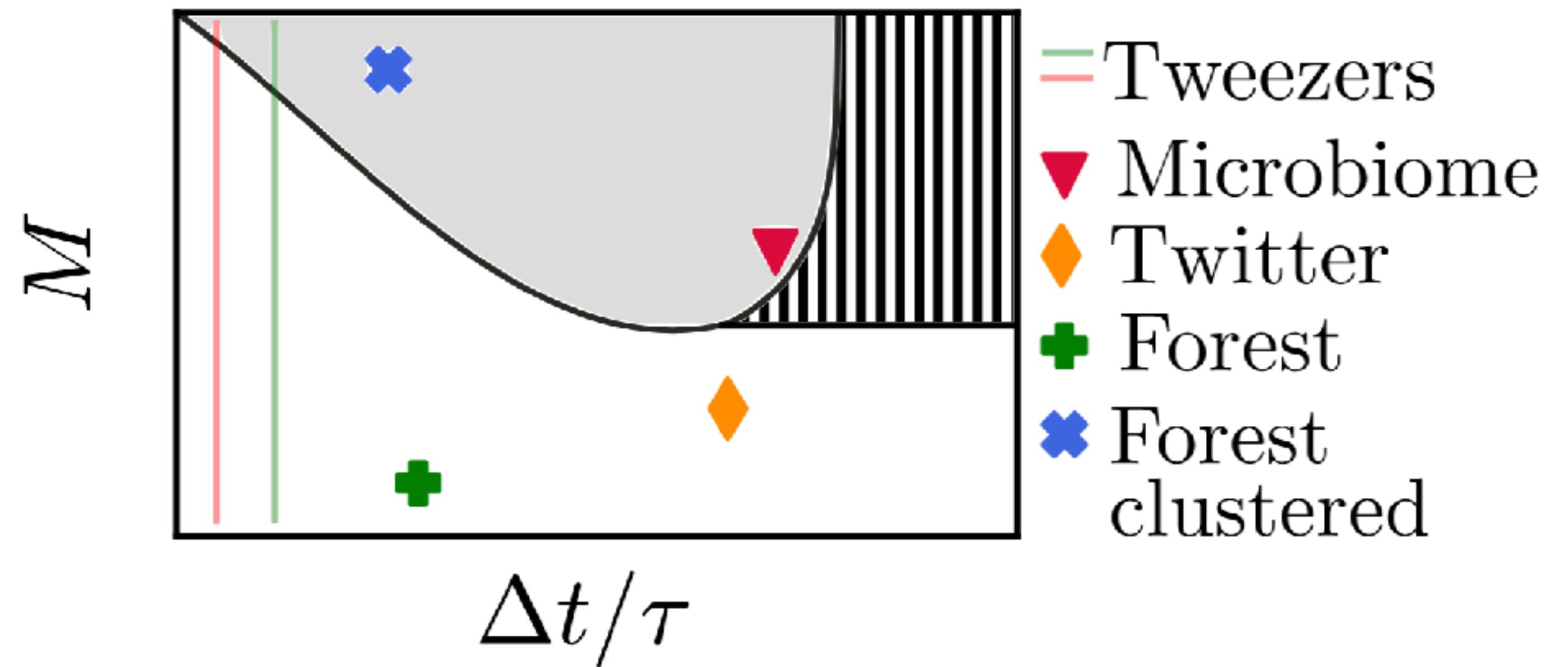
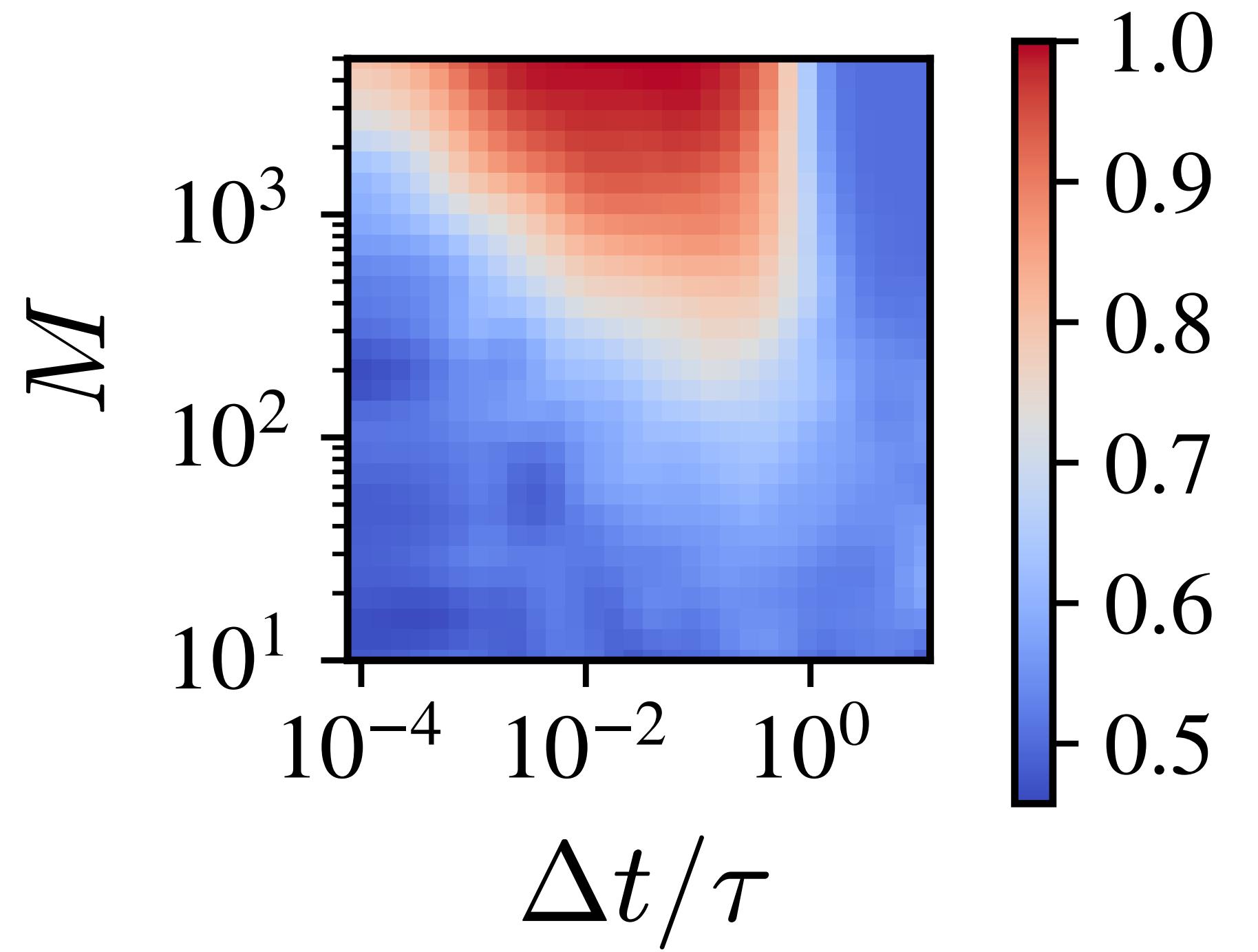


Phase transitions in model distinguishability

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t)X_t dt + DX_t dW_t \quad \text{EN}$$

VS.

$$dX_t = k(\mu - X_t)dt + D\sqrt{X_t}dW_t \quad \text{DE}$$



Measures of interactions: Perturbation experiments



M. femur-rubrum

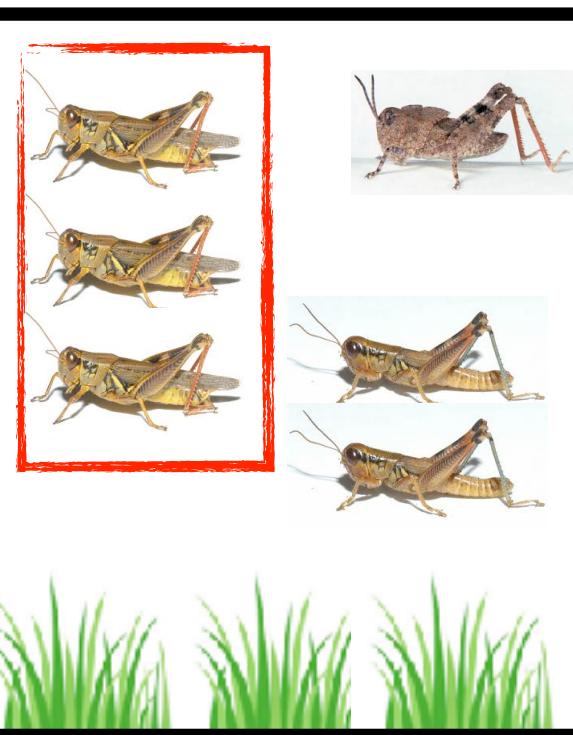


S. collare



P. nebrascensis

Initial
Condition 1

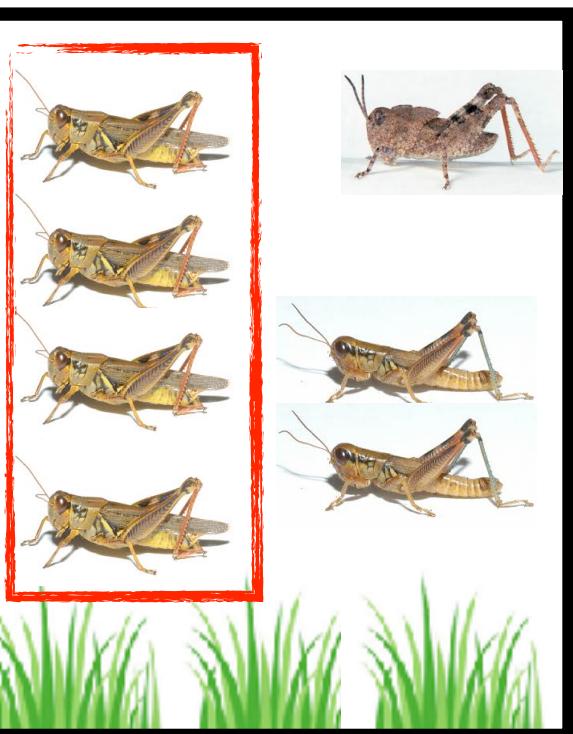


Experiment duration



$g^{(E)}$ [Baseline]

Initial
Condition 2



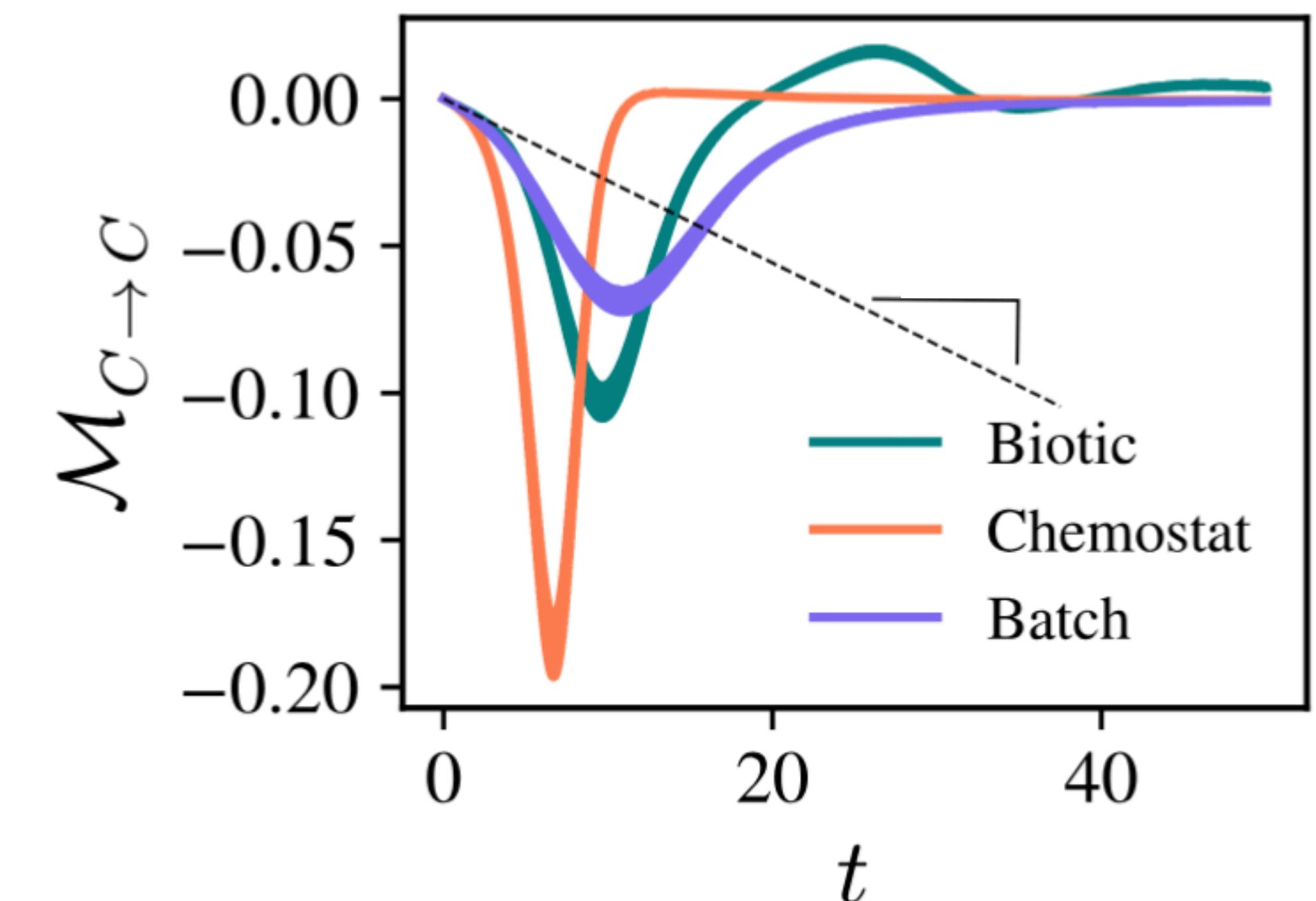
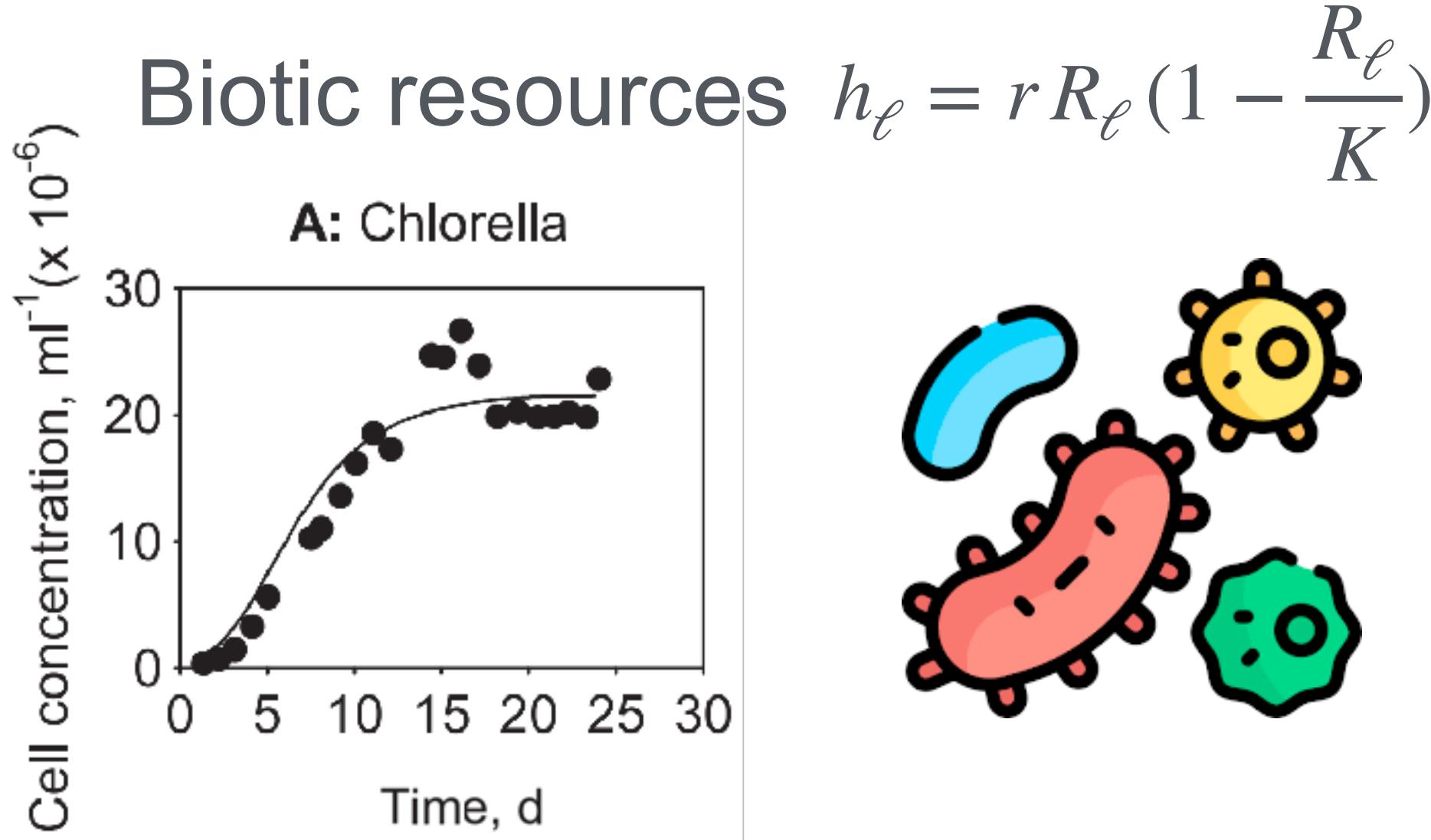
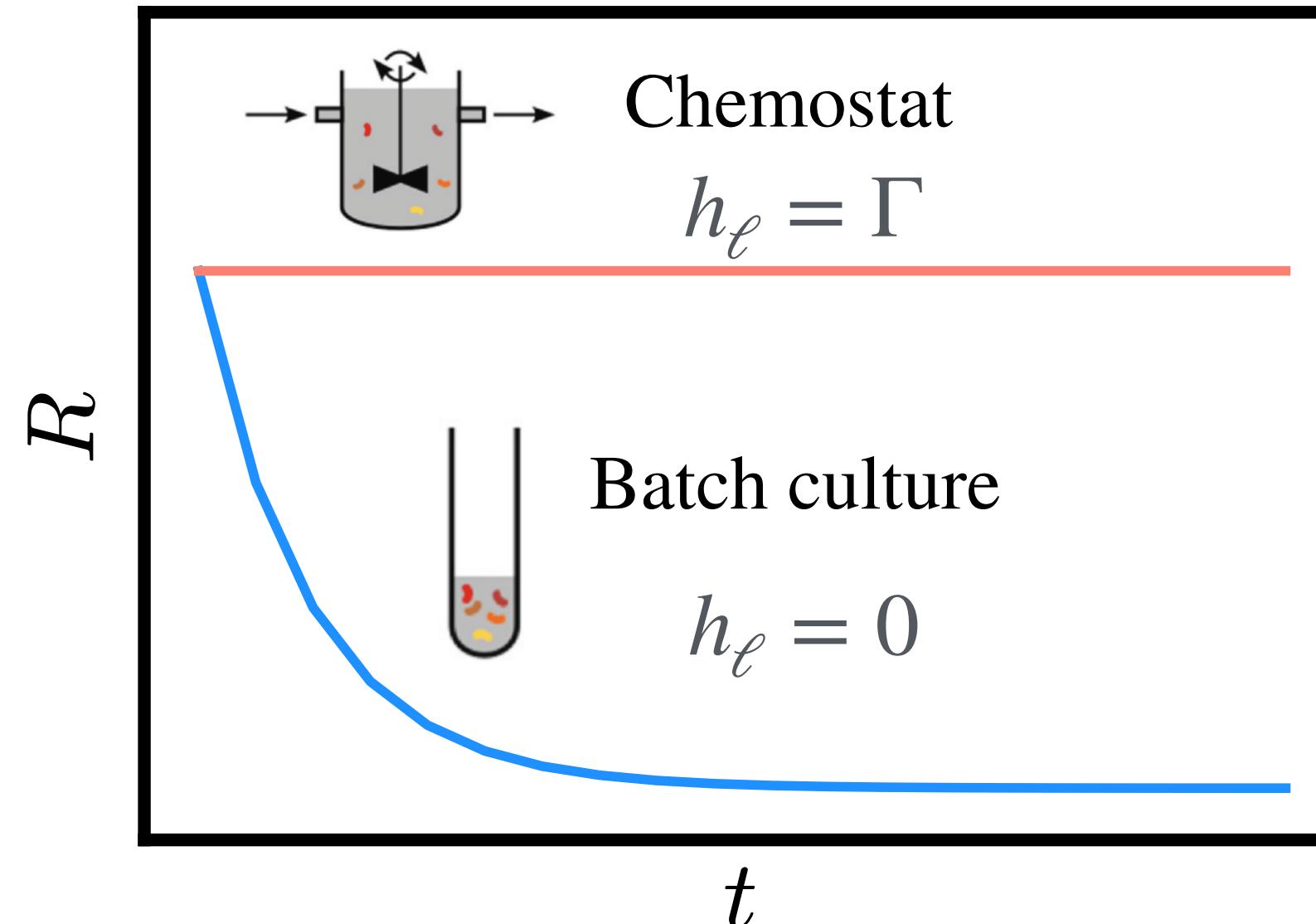
Experiment duration



$g^{(E)}$ [Perturbed]

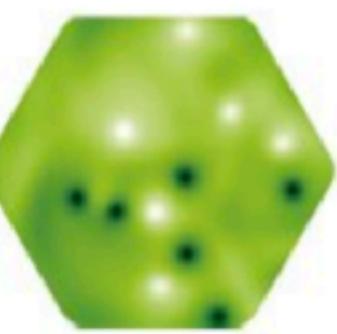
Interactions depend on the experimental protocol

Abiotic resources

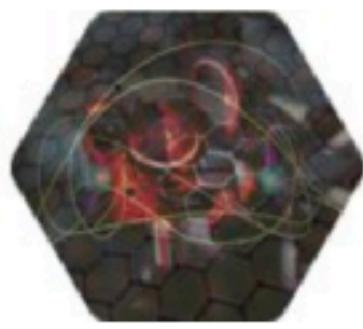


Kiørboe, 2008

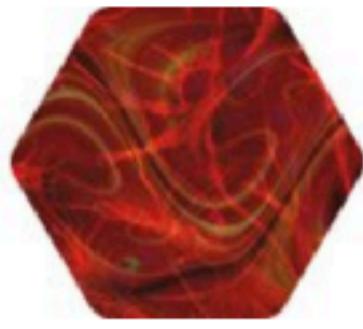
Picot, Shibasaki, Meacock, Mитри 2023



CONCEPTS AND TOOLS



PHOTONICS AND
QUANTUM SYSTEMS



LIFE AND
ENVIRONMENT



SOCIAL AND SOCIO-TECHNICAL
SYSTEMS



Fellowships for the Master's Degree

1. The IFISC offers a limited number of mobility fellowships. One of them is sponsored by the Sicomoro Foundation. Each fellowship covers tuition fee and, additionally for applicants who are non-residents in Mallorca, travel costs up to 500€ and 7000€. Conditions for these grants can be found in the following link. You can apply to them using the form below. 2025/2026 Selected candidates can be found [here](#)
2. CSIC offers JAE-INTRO grants open to those who have scored a minimum of 8/10 in the bachelor's degree. For more information: <https://jaeintro.csic.es/en/>
3. The Spanish Ministry of Education offers general grants as well as collaboration grants. Master students can apply to both of them.
4. Additional grants, awards and general aid for master degree studies at the webpage of the UIB Center of Postgraduate Studies
5. Fellowship offered by Fundación Carolina. Deadline March 12 (2025), 9:00 am Spanish time.
6. Santander Open Academy offers several grants for UIB postgraduate studies. Details can be found [here](#).
7. Other options can be found at European Funding Guide

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Datasets and resources

- [Kaggle Male & Female height and weight](#)
- [Galton height dataset](#)
- [Sally Clark information](#)