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Announcements

- PS2 is due tonight at 11.59p!
- PS3 is out!
 - It has six parts
 - They are not ordered by difficulty
 - You should be able to do them all using information from lecture today
 - Start soon!
- Really enjoying seeing people around the department, at office hours, and active in Slack

Check-In

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A Note on Searching

- Everything we really do is a search problem
- The challenge is that the search spaces are often infinite
- All of the models we pick and assumptions we make limit the size of the search space
- The algorithms we use define how we carry out the search
- Good choice of models/assumptions/algorithms allow us to take intractable problems and solve them relatively quickly and easily!

Motivating Problem

Buffon's Needle

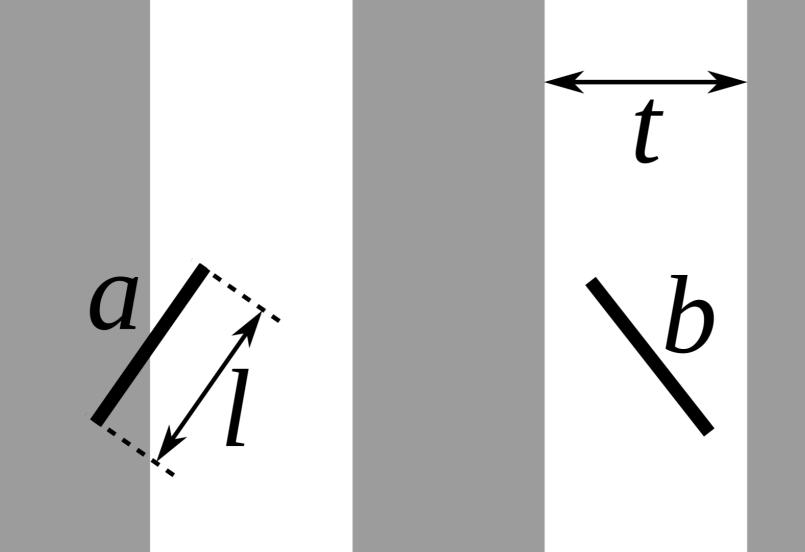
Suppose we have a floor made of parallel strips of wood, each with the same width, and we drop a needle onto the floor. What is the probability that the needle will lie across a line between two strips?

Buffon's Needle

Suppose we have a floor made of parallel strips of wood, each with the same width, and we drop a needle onto the floor. What is the probability that the needle will lie across a line between two strips?

More Specifically:

Given a needle of length l dropped on a floor with parallel lines distance t apart, what is the probability that the needle will lie across a line when landing?



Tools

Randomization

Randomization

- Some problems are hard to solve in a straightforward way
 - The function to optimize could be really tricky
 - The search space could be really huge
 - There might be an easier solution, but you don't know what it is
 - No clean closed form solution may exist!
- For these cases, we can leverage randomization to get approximate solutions
 - If we are willing to invest more time, we can get more precise solutions
- Are there downsides?

 - It can be guaranteed that you will eventually find the right answer, but sometimes there is no guarantee
 on when
 - Sometimes having a nice closed form solution is what you actually need
- If you have a better choice, typically you want to use that!

Content warning: This is the most British experiment ever

Muriel Bristol (1888-1950)

British phycologist



Muriel Bristol (1888-1950)

British phycologist (studied algae)



Muriel Bristol (1888-1950)

- British phycologist (studied algae)
- Claimed she can tell by taste alone if a cup of tea was made by pouring milk into tea or tea into milk



• British statistician, biologist, and geneticist



- British statistician, biologist, and geneticist
- Called the "greatest statistician of all time"



- British statistician, biologist, and geneticist
- Called the "greatest statistician of all time"
- Noted eugenicist



- British statistician, biologist, and geneticist
- Called the "greatest statistician of all time"
- Noted eugenicist
- Thought Bristol's claim was nuts, so devised an experiment to test her tea-tasting ability



Step 1: Pour eight cups of tea, with four having milk added first and four having tea added first

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Step 2: Cups are presented in a random order, and Muriel has to identify them

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Step 2: Cups are presented in a random order, and Muriel has to identify them

Question: Assuming she does not have any special ability and randomly guessed, what is the probability she would get all eight correct?

Quick Aside: Combinatorics

- Combinatorics is concerned with (among other things) counting
- Today, we need to think about counting *combinations* of items from a set

Quick Aside: Combinatorics

- Combinatorics is concerned with (among other things) counting
- Today, we need to think about counting *combinations* of items from a set

For a set of n items, the number of ways to select k elements is:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

How many possible ways can you select four "tea before milk" cups from eight?

$$\binom{8}{4} = \frac{8!}{4!(8-4)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}{(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4)(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4)} = 70$$

• There's only one way to get them all right, so we can find the probability assuming she's randomly guessing (the null hypothesis of no ability)

$$P(ext{All correct}) = rac{1}{70} pprox 1.43\%$$

• *Fisher's Exact Test* is a method to build the exact distribution of possible outcomes, so we get an exact *p*-value for any outcome

Fisher's Exact Test

- Enumerate all possible outcomes
- Compute the probability of each number of successes
- Look at the distribution and compute *p*-values

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Successes	Combinations	p-value
0	$\binom{4}{0} imes \binom{4}{4} = 1$	1.0000
1	$\binom{4}{1} imes\binom{4}{3}=16$	0.9857
2	$\binom{4}{2} imes \binom{4}{2} = 36$	0.4286
3	${4\choose 3} imes {4\choose 1} = 16$	0.2429
4	$\binom{4}{4} imes \binom{4}{0} = 1$	0.0143

- Permutation tests are a form of exact test used when comparing two separate samples
- Often you want to know if two samples came from two different distributions (they have different means, or different variances, or something else)
- Permutation tests are similar to Fisher's exact test, but we look at the value we want to test against a
 distribution constructed from every possible permutation of group assignments

- Say I have test scores from two groups of ten students, and group one has a higher mean score
- I want to say if I really think group one is higher ability than group two
- I divide the pool of 20 students into two even groups in every possible way
 - 184,756 possible group assignments
- I compute the difference in mean score between the two groups
- I see if the original difference is extreme relative to the distribution of possible differences!

- 1. Figure out every possible group assignment in your data
- 2. Compute the summary statistic of interest for each possible group assignment
- 3. Find the probability of the statistic being that value (or more extreme) from this distribution

- *Upside*: The answer is correct!
- *Downside*: If you have 40 objects evenly divided into two groups, there are well over 2 billion possible group assignments, so this usually doesn't work well at all
- So, what if we just... didn't?
- Big idea: Permutation test and other types of exact tests are just way too much work for datasets of any reasonable size
- The numbers of permutations are often too large for computers to deal with
- So, what if we started doing a permutation test, and then just stopped part way through?
- We can instead sample from possible permutations
- Randomly sampling from our data will eventually converge to the true answer
- Note that *eventually* is doing some work here

Monte Carlo Methods

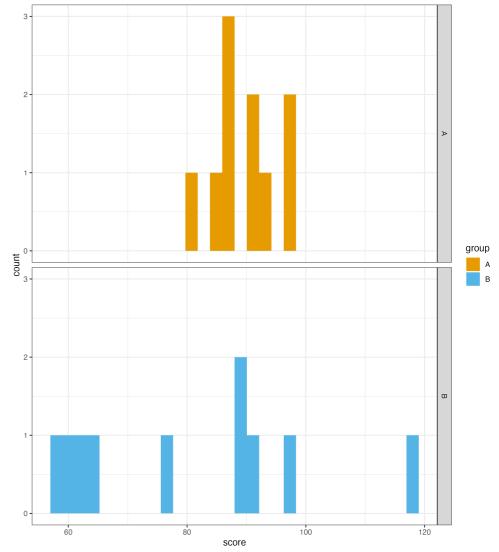


Monte Carlo Methods

- Leverages the fact that randomly sampling from your data will converge to the true answer
- Works in *tons* of situations
- General task:
 - 1. Specify the possible inputs
 - 2. Randomly sample from the possible inputs
 - 3. Perform some calculation on each sample
 - 4. Repeat a bunch of times
 - 5. Aggregate the results

Remember the test scores from two groups of students, where group one had a higher mean score?

- 1. Randomly sample from the possible group assignments
- 2. Compute mean differences
- 3. Repeat a bunch of times
- 4. Look at the distribution



```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){
2  # TODO: Reassign groups
3  # TODO: Compute means
4  # TODO: Return difference in means
5  mean_diff <- NA
6  return(mean_diff)
7 }</pre>
```

```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){
2  # TODO: Reassign groups
3  new_groups <- sample(data[['group']])
4  # TODO: Compute means
5  # TODO: Return difference in means
6  mean_diff <- NA
7  return(mean_diff)
8 }</pre>
```

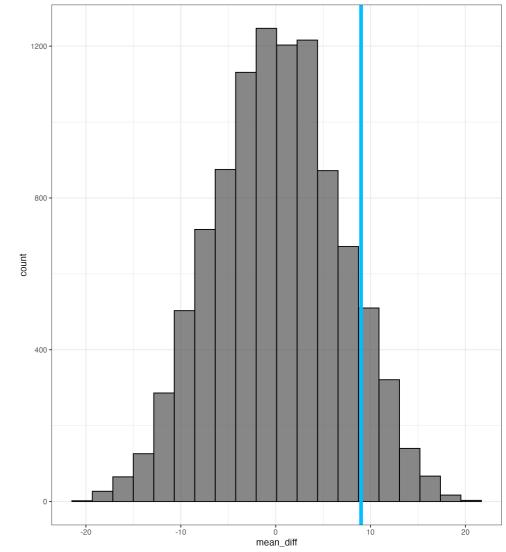
```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){
2
3  # TODO: Reassign groups
4  new_groups <- sample(data[['group']])
5
6  # TODO: Compute means
7  mean_A <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'A'])
8  mean_B <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'B'])
9
10  # TODO: Return difference in means
11  mean_diff <- NA
12  return(mean_diff)
13 }</pre>
```

```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){
2
3  # TODO: Reassign groups
4  new_groups <- sample(data[['group']])
5
6  # TODO: Compute means
7  mean_A <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'A'])
8  mean_B <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'B'])
9
10  # TODO: Return difference in means
11  mean_diff <- mean_A - mean_B
12  return(mean_diff)
13 }</pre>
```

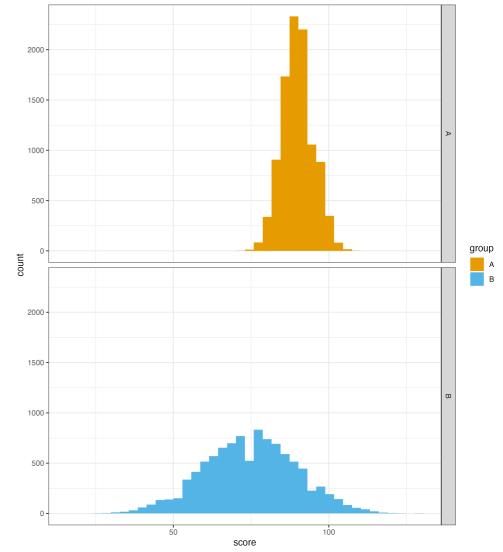
```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){</pre>
      # TODO: Reassign groups
      new_groups <- sample(data[['group']])</pre>
      # TODO: Compute means
      mean_A <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'A'])</pre>
      mean_B <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'B'])</pre>
 9
10
      # TODO: Return difference in means
11
      mean_diff <- mean_A - mean_B</pre>
      return(mean diff)
13
14
    ReassignScores(test_data)
```

```
1 ReassignScores <- function(data){</pre>
      # TODO: Reassign groups
      new_groups <- sample(data[['group']])</pre>
      # TODO: Compute means
      mean_A <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'A'])</pre>
      mean_B <- mean(data[['score']][new_groups == 'B'])</pre>
 9
10
      # TODO: Return difference in means
11
      mean_diff <- mean_A - mean_B</pre>
      return(mean diff)
13
14
    ReassignScores(test_data)
17 # [1] -0.2
```

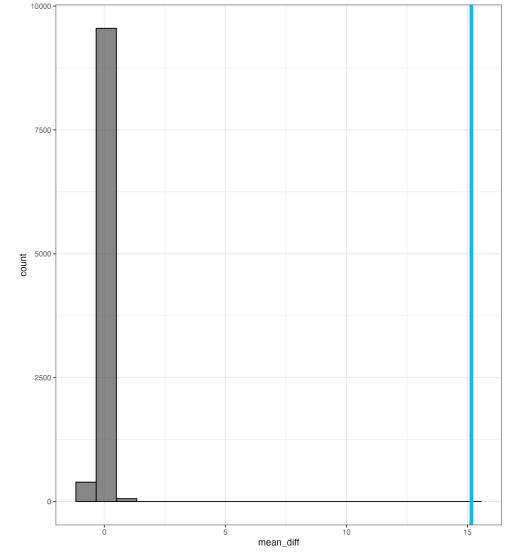
```
mean diff <-
       replicate(1e4, ReassignScores(test_data))
     mean(mean_diff >= true_diff)
     # [1] 0.1015
     data.frame(mean_diff=mean_diff) |>
       ggplot(aes(x=mean_diff)) +
 9
10
       geom_histogram(alpha = 0.7,
                      color = 'black',
11
                      bins = 20) +
12
13
       geom_vline(aes(xintercept=true_diff),
                      linewidth = 2,
14
15
                      color='deepskyblue') +
16
       theme_bw()
```



```
test_data <- data.frame(group = rep(c('A', 'B'), each=1e4),
score = c(round(rnorm(1e4, mean=90, sd=5)),
round(rnorm(1e4, mean=75, sd=15))))
true_diff <- mean(test_data$score[test_data=='A']) - mean(test_data$score[test_data=='B'])
true_diff</pre>
```



```
mean diff <-
       replicate(1e4, ReassignScores(test_data))
     mean(mean_diff >= true_diff)
     # [1] 0
     data.frame(mean_diff=mean_diff) |>
       ggplot(aes(x=mean_diff)) +
 9
10
       geom_histogram(alpha = 0.7,
                      color = 'black',
11
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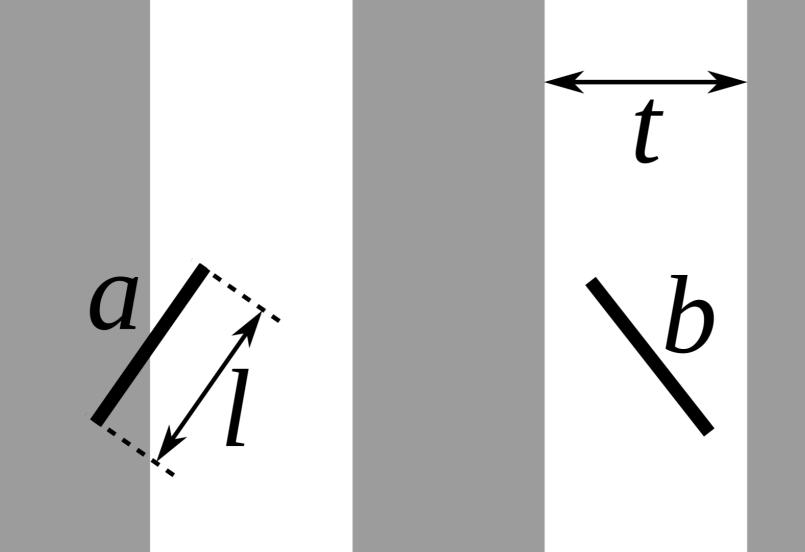
Buffon's Needle

The Problem

Given a needle of length l dropped on a floor with parallel lines distance t apart, what is the probability that the needle will lie across a line when landing?

Plan:

- 1. Write a function that simulates tossing one needle on the floor and returns TRUE if it crosses a line and FALSE otherwise
- 2. Run the function 10^5 times
- 3. Compute the proportion of trials that cross a line



```
TossNeedle <- function(l, t){
    # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
    # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
    # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
    result <- FALSE
    return(result)
}</pre>
```

```
TossNeedle <- function(l, t){
    # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
    left_edge <- runif(1, min=0, max=t)
    theta <- runif(1, min=-pi/2, max=pi/2)
    # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
    # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
    result <- FALSE
    return(result)
}</pre>
```

```
TossNeedle <- function(l, t){
    # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
    left_edge <- runif(1, min=0, max=t)
    theta <- runif(1, min=-pi/2, max=pi/2)
    # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
    right_edge <- left_edge + l * cos(theta)
    result <- right_edge > t
    # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
    return(result)
}
```

```
TossNeedle <- function(l, t){
    # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
    left_edge <- runif(1, min=0, max=t)
    theta <- runif(1, min=-pi/2, max=pi/2)
    # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
    right_edge <- left_edge + l * cos(theta)
    result <- right_edge > t
    # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
    return(result)
}

TossNeedle(1, 2)
```

```
1 TossNeedle <- function(l, t){
2  # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
3  left_edge <- runif(1, min=0, max=t)
4  theta <- runif(1, min=-pi/2, max=pi/2)
5  # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
6  right_edge <- left_edge + l * cos(theta)
7  result <- right_edge > t
8  # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
9  return(result)
10 }
11
12 TossNeedle(1, 2)
13
14 # [1] FALSE
```

```
1 TossNeedle <- function(l, t){</pre>
     # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
     left_edge <- runif(1, min=0, max=t)</pre>
     theta <- runif(1, min=-pi/2, max=pi/2)
     # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
     right_edge <- left_edge + l * cos(theta)
     result <- right_edge > t
     # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
     return(result)
10
11
   TossNeedle(1, 2)
13
14 # [1] FALSE
16 replicate(3, TossNeedle(1, 2))
```

```
1 TossNeedle <- function(l, t){</pre>
      # TODO: Simulate a needle toss on the floor
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     # TODO: Decide if it crosses a threshold
      right_edge <- left_edge + l * cos(theta)
     result <- right_edge > t
      # TODO: Return TRUE or FALSE depending
      return(result)
10
11
    TossNeedle(1, 2)
13
14 # [1] FALSE
   replicate(3, TossNeedle(1, 2))
17
18 # [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

```
mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 2)))
mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 5)))
mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 10)))
```

```
1 mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 2)))
2
3 # [1] 0.3185
4
5 mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 5)))
6 mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 10)))
```

```
mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 2)))

# [1] 0.3185

mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 5)))

# [1] 0.12809

mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 10)))
```

```
mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 2)))

# [1] 0.3185

mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 5)))

# [1] 0.12809

mean(replicate(1e5, TossNeedle(1, 10)))

# [1] 0.06178
```

Wrap Up

Recap: Monte Carlo Simulations

- Often a much faster way to solve problems than doing it analytically
- The general setup:
 - Write a function to do it once
 - Run the function a lot of times
 - Look at the distribution of the results
- PS3 is just six questions where you do this over and over in different ways
- I think it's very fun, but maybe I'm a sociopath?

Final Thoughts

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