STAT 100: Week 8

Ricky's Section

Introductions and Attendance

Introduction: Name

<u>**Question of the Week</u>**: If you could add one consistent item to HUDS, what would it be?</u>

Important Reminders



https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSfKv FGvsooqm-IvtxKx3Vf6bBzSJE2jamK1gklAzL6Nk XE8w/viewform

Midterm Recap

Overall...

- We're very proud of all your learning/growth!
 - Many of you came in with no coding background
- Be sure you're making the most of all the resources
 - Workshop, section, OH, 1-on-1 OH, Slack
- Improvement is taken into consideration

Some Important Things I Noticed

- Set a timer on the Oral Component
- Don't "over-explain" an answer—just say what you need
 <u>The p-value formula</u>: "If {the null hypothesis were true}, then the probability of observing {our test statistic} or {more extreme} would be {p-value}."
 - Ex: If the coin was fair so that the true probability of heads is 50%, then the probability of observing 80% heads of more would be 0.01. Because 0.01 is such a low probability, we have evidence to reject the null hypothesis.



- Thoughts? Questions? Comments? Concerns?
- Anything you found surprising?
- Any concepts you want me to go over?
- We also can skip this if everyone just wants to move on

Content Review: Week 8

Foundations of Probability

- **<u>Probability</u>**: A value between o and 1 (intuitively, a "long-term frequency")
 - Naive probability is all favorable outcomes / all possible outcomes
 - *Ex: Probability of getting dealt an ace is* 4/52 = 0.077
- <u>Outcome</u>: Result after conducting an experiment
 - Ex: After the experiment, I get dealt the ace of hearts
- <u>Sample space</u>: Set of all possible outcomes of experiment
 - Ex: There are 52 cards I could've been dealt
- <u>Event</u>: Collection of outcomes
 - Ex: The event I get dealt an ace is the collection of 4 specific outcomes
 - If A = the event I get dealt an ace, then P(A) = 0.077

More on Probability

- **<u>Disjoint events</u>**: Events that CANNOT occur at the same time

- Ex: The event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt a king are disjoint
- Now, the event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt a red card are NOT disjoint. Why?
- **<u>Independent events</u>**: Knowing one event happens gives no info on the other
 - Ex: If I flip a fair coin twice, the event I get heads on the 1st flip and the event I get heads on the 2nd flip are independent
 - Now, the event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt another ace afterwards (assuming no reshuffling) are NOT independent. Why?
- <u>**Conditional probability**</u>: P(A | B) is probability of A, knowing B occured
 - *Ex: Given I got dealt a red card, what is the probability I got dealt the ace of hearts? It's NOT 1/52 anymore. Why?*

<mark>Our Toolkit</mark>

- <u>Union</u>: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
- <u>Intersection</u>: $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B \mid A) = P(B) P(A \mid B)$
- Complement Rule: $P(A) = 1 P(A^C)$, $P(A | B) = 1 P(A^C | B)$
- **Def. of Conditional Probability**: $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$
- **<u>Bayes' Rule</u>**: P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B)
- **LOTP**: $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^{C}) P(B^{C})$

Union and Disjoint Events

- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
 - Ex: Probability of getting a king or a red card is 4/52 + 26/52 - 2/52 = 28/52
- What happens if A and B are disjoint?
 - $P(A \cap B) = o$ because A and B cannot occur simultaneously
 - Thus, for **disjoint events**, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- Use Venn diagrams



Intersection and Independent Events

- $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B \mid A) = P(A \mid B)$ P(B)
 - Ex: Probability of getting a king and a red card is (1/13)(2/4) = 2/52
- What happens if A and B are **independent**?
 - P(B | A) = P(B) because A happening gives no information on B
 - Thus, for **independent events**, $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$
- $P(A \cap B)$ is P(A) and P(B, given A)



Complement Rule

- $P(A) = 1 P(A^{C})$
 - Ex: Probability of rolling a 6 (%) is 1 minus probability of NOT rolling a 6 (1 - %)
 - This is because all possible outcomes in sample space sum to 1
- **Conditional probabilities** are still probabilities, so...
 - $P(A \mid B) = 1 P(A^C \mid B)$
- Use Venn diagrams



Conditional Probability

- Two ways to tackle this
- $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$ by **definition**
 - **Conditioning** on B means we now live in B—it's our new sample space
 - Divide by P(B) so the total prob. is 1
- P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B) by
 - Bayes' Rule
 - Remember the definition of intersection from two slides ago?
- Use Venn diagrams



Law of Total Probability (LOTP)

- $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^{C})$ $P(B^{C})$
- What are the two ways P(A) can happen?
 - We can partition the sample space with B and B^C
 - $P(A) = P(A \cap B) \text{ or } P(A \cap B^C)$
 - By intersection and disjoint, $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^{C}) P(B^{C})$
- Use Venn diagrams



Recapping Our Toolkit: Notes

- **<u>Union</u>**: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
 - For **disjoint** events, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ because $P(A \cap B) = o$
- **Intersection**: $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B \mid A) = P(B) P(A \mid B)$
 - For **independent** events, $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$ because P(A | B) = P(A)
- **<u>Complement Rule</u>**: $P(A) = 1 P(A^C)$, $P(A | B) = 1 P(A^C | B)$
 - Use when you see "**at least**" (e.g., "Find the probability of rolling a 5+ at least once in 3 rolls")
- **Def. of Conditional Probability**: $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$
- **<u>Bayes' Rule</u>**: P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B)
- **LOTP**: $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^{C}) P(B^{C})$
 - Use for **wishful thinking** (e.g., "I really wish I knew which factory the cone came from")
- In general with probability, **start by defining events**

What are the 2 main strategies for finding unconditional probability, such as P(A)?

Question:

What are the 2 main strategies for finding unconditional probability, such as P(A)? Complement rule and LOTP.

We often use complement for "at least" (e.g., "Find the probability of rolling a 5+ at least once in 3 rolls").

We often use LOTP for "wishful thinking" (e.g., "I really wish I knew which factory the cone came from").

One More Probability!

Positive predictive value (PPV): In a diagnostic test, the probability that a person has the disease, given that they tested positive for it (true positive)
 PPV = P(D | T⁺), where D is event of having disease and T⁺ is event of testing positive

$$P(D|T^{+}) = \frac{P(D \cap T^{+})}{P(T^{+})} = \frac{P(D \cap T^{+})}{P(D \cap T^{+}) + P(D^{C} \cap T^{+})} = \frac{P(T^{+}|D)P(D)}{P(T^{+}|D)P(D) + P(T^{+}|D^{C})P(D^{C})}$$
$$= \frac{(\text{sens})(\text{prev})}{(\text{sens})(\text{prev}) + (1 - \text{spec})(1 - \text{prev})}$$

If I roll a fair 6-sided dice twice, what is the probability that I land 5 or higher at least once?

Question:

If I roll a fair 6-sided dice twice, what is the probability that I land 5 or higher at least once? By **complement rule**, P(rolling 5+ at least once) = 1 - P(not rolling 5+ either turn).

Since rolls are **independent**, P(not rolling 5+ either turn) = P(not rolling 5+ on a turn) × P(not rolling 5+ on a turn).

We know P(not rolling 5+ on a turn) = $4/6 = \frac{2}{3}$. Thus, $1 - (\frac{2}{3})(\frac{2}{3}) = \frac{5}{9}$.

Random Variables

- <u>Random variable</u>: A function that maps each event in the sample space to a number
- Intuitively, think of a r.v. as an unknown value that
 - "crystallizes" to a certain number AFTER an **experiment**
 - <u>Ex</u>: X is a r.v. for the number of heads I get after flipping 10 coins. X could be 0, 1, ..., or 10. After the experiment, it "crystallizes" to one of those numbers.

A Silly (but Useful) Intuition for Random Variables

- Think of **random variables** as mystery boxes in Mario Kart
- It's unknown what it will crystallize to, but we can still describe the random variable will probabilities
 - For example, there's a pretty low probability this random variable will crystallize to a bullet bill



Two Types of Random Variables

- <u>Discrete r.v.s</u>: Can crystallize to countable numbers
- Usually, **discrete r.v.s** are counted
 - Ex: The number of people who show up to a party tomorrow (could be 0, 1, 2, ...)

- <u>Continuous r.v.s</u>: Can crystallize to any real number in an interval
- Usually, continuousr.v.s are measured
 - Ex: The temperature at noon tomorrow (could be any real number above absolute zero)

Probability Distributions

- **<u>Probability distributions</u>**: Functions that give probabilities of all possible **outcomes** for a **r.v.**
 - Intuitively, it describes a **r.v.** through its probabilities
 - We can learn a lot about a **r.v.** by its **probability distribution**
- For discrete r.v.s, we use Probability Mass Functions (PMFs)
 - $f(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_i)$
 - "Probability of big X (r.v.) crystallizing to little x (a certain value)"
- For continuous r.v.s, we use Probability Density Functions (PDFs)
 - f(x), where $P(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$
 - For continuous r.v.s, the probability of X crystallizing to a certain value is o, so we're concerned with X crystallizing to any value within some interval

PMFs for Discrete Random Variables

- **<u>PMF</u>**: $f(x) = P(X = x_i)$ _
 - "Probability of big X (r.v.) crystallizing to little x (a certain value)"
- **PMF** must sum to 1

3

2/36

X

 $P(X = x_i)$

2

1/36

Intuitively, all possible probabilities _ should sum to 1



Expected Value, Variance, and SD

These are useful summary statistics to describe a r.v.
<u>Expected value</u>: Weighted mean of a r.v.

- $E(X) = \Sigma X_i P(X = X_i) = \mu$

- We're weighing each possible crystallization by its probability
- **<u>Variance</u>**: Measure of **spread** of a **r.v.**

- Var(X) = $\Sigma (x_i - \mu)^2 P(X = x_i) = \sigma^2$

- <u>SD</u>: Average distance of all points from the mean of a r.v. - $SD(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)} = \sigma$

What is the expected value of a dice roll? Interpret the meaning in context.

Question:

What is the expected value of a dice roll? Interpret the meaning in context. Formula: $E(X) = \Sigma x_i P(X = x_i)$.

X, the **r.v.** for the value of a dice roll, can "crystallize" to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 (with ½ probability of each).

E(X) = 1(%) + 2(%) + 3(%) + 4(%) + 5(%) + 6(%) = 3.5

This is the weighted **mean**. On average, we expect the value of our roll to be 3.5.

PDFs for Continuous Random Variables

- Continuous r.v.s are trickier because the probability X crystallizes to any one value is o
- **<u>PDF</u>**: f(x), where $P(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- Intuitively and visually, think of PDF as a shape whose area represents probability
 - Thus, the area of the entire shape is 1
 - f(x) evaluated at any certain point is NOT probability; here, probability is AREA



Special Types of Random Variables

- The really important types of **r.v.s** (which show up often) have names
- If your r.v. matches the "story" of a named random r.v., it makes your life easier
- X ~ Name(Values of Key Parameters)
 - Ex: $X \sim Bin(100, 10)$ is read as "X is distributed binomial with parameters 100 and 10"
- **<u>Parameters</u>**: Named **r.v.s** are families, so **parameters** specify the **distribution** with a certain shape/center/spread

Normal Distribution

- **Normal distribution**: A
 - symmetric and unimodal "bell shape" that approximates many **distributions**
- $N(\mu, \sigma)$ has 2 parameters
 - μ is mean
 - σ is standard deviation
- Z(0, 1) is Standard Normal
 - o is **mean**
 - 1 is standard deviation



Standardizing and Z-Scores

- <u>Standardizing</u>: Transforming normal r.v. (X) into standard normal r.v. (Z)
 - Comparing in terms of **Z**-scores (standard deviations) is easier
- <u>Z-score</u>: Measure of how many
 SDs the sample statistic is away
 from its mean
 - Z-score = $(X \mu) / \sigma$
 - Z-score for test statistic = (statistic μ) / σ



The Important Functions for Normal Distribution

- pnorm(): Used to calculate probabilities on a normal distribution (often, for p-value during hypothesis test)
 - Ex: What is the **probability** a student scores an 1800 on the SAT if the scores are N(1500, 300)?
- pnorm(q = TEST-STAT, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)

- *Ex: pnorm*(*q* = 1800, mean = 1500, sd = 300) = 0.8413447

- qnorm(): Used to calculate quantiles on a normal distribution (often, for critical value during confidence interval)
 - Ex: What score on the SAT would put a student in the 99th quantile (percentile)?
- qnorm(p = QUANTILE, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)

- *Ex: qnorm(p = 0.99, mean = 1500, sd = 300) = 2197.904*

Why Does Any of This Matter?

- <u>Central Limit Theorem (CLT)</u>: For random samples and a large sample size, the sampling distribution of many sample statistics is approximately normal
 - Thus, when assumptions are met, we can conduct inference using the normal distribution as a good approximation
 - We will revisit inference next week through this lens!

In Closing...

- Probability is hard
 - Don't feel bad if this takes a bit to click
 - Probability is important, but it's not the focus of this course—after this p-set, it should be more chill
- If you're interested in more probability, consider STAT 110!

Questions?

P-Set 5

Have a great rest of your week!