

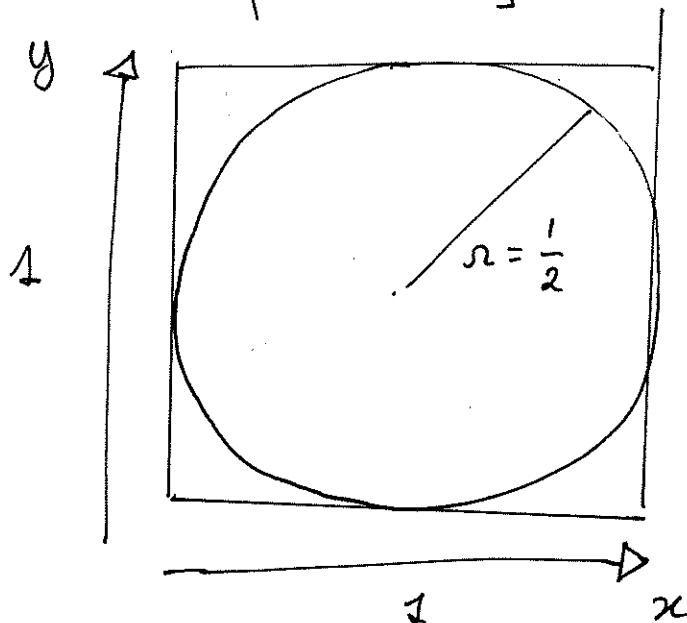
Spring 2022

Probability & Bayes I

1 / Buffon's Needle

In 1773, Buffon claims he can calculate π by dropping a needle.

[For this lecture, consider a simplified experiment.]



Setup: drop a needle "randomly" on a unit square and record the position where the needle falls.

Denote (x_1, y_1) the positions of the needle...

Question: What are the odds the needle falls in the circle?

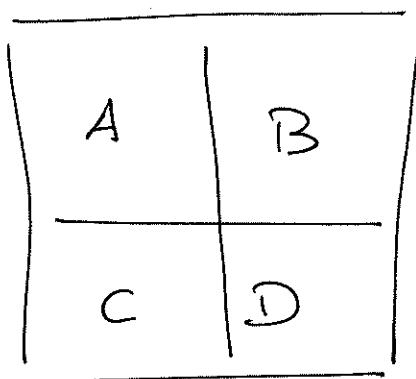
More

Questions: - Is this experiment practical?

- What conditions must, when dropping, the needle must be met?

→ Needle can hit any point with the same probability:

- $x \sim \text{uniform}(0, 1)$
- $y \sim \text{uniform}(0, 1)$



- Partition square in 4 equal squares
- What is the prob the needle falls in square A?

$$\Pr(A) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

- If we partition the square into N equal squares, probability we fall into one particular square is

$$\Pr(a) = \frac{1}{N}.$$

- Area of surface determines probability of falling in that surface.

Back to circle!!!

Area of the circle is

$$A_{\odot} = \pi r^2 = \pi \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Thus probability of falling in circle is $\frac{\pi}{4}$.

Idea: Estimate $\Pr(\odot) = \frac{\pi}{4}$, and then get estimate for π .

Suppose we drop N needles.

Then an estimator for $\Pr(\odot)$ is the fraction of needles which fall into the circles.

Question: how many needles do we need to drop?

Exercise: In R, simulate Buffon's experiment, and estimate $\Pr(\odot)$.

Compare your estimate of $\Pr(\odot)$ to the true value $\pi/4$ for varying values of N .

Does the accuracy of the estimator improve with N ?

To study this question, consider the random variable

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & , \text{ if needle falls in circle} \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Probability mass function

We can associate a p.m.f with X :

$$\Pr(X=1) = p$$

$$\Pr(X=0) = 1-p$$

More generally,

$$\Pr(X=x) = p^x (1-p)^{(1-x)}$$

(Bernoulli dist.)

Exercise : Show that the above ~~example~~ formulation is consistent with the case where $X=1$ and $X=0$.

Other example : Poisson distribution.

X can be any integer, $0, 1, 2, \dots, +\infty$, and $\Pr(X=x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$

Property: summing the p.m.f over all possible outcomes returns 1.

Example: (Bernoulli)

$$\Pr(X=1) + \Pr(X=0) = p + 1 - p = 1.$$

Example: (Poisson)

$$\sum_{x=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{+\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^\lambda = 1,$$

where we use a Taylor expansion of the exponential e^λ .

- Distributions also admit an expectation value, also termed the mean.
 - ↳ this is the sum of all possible outcomes weighted by their probability mass.

Example (Bernoulli)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}X &= (1) \Pr(X=1) + (0) \Pr(X=0) \\ &= (1) \cdot p + (0) \cdot (1-p) = p\end{aligned}$$

~~REMEMBER THESE~~

Can interpret this through the lens of a population mean.

Suppose $p = 0.7$.

→ corresponds to a hypothetical population where 70 individuals have $X = 1$ dollars, and 30 individuals have $X = 0$ dollars.

Then, on average, each individual has 0.7 dollars.

Example (Poisson)

$$\mathbb{E} X = \lambda \quad (\text{proof omitted})$$

Suppose, in Bernoulli example, we do not survey all 100 people, but only 10 people.

How can we estimate the population mean?

$$\rightarrow \text{Sample mean: } \hat{p} = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} x_i$$

- Is this estimator unbiased?

→ assume X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{10} are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.).

Property : If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d, with expectation value μ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i \right) \\ = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{E} X_i = \frac{1}{N} N\mu = \mu. \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow Sample mean is unbiased.

Variance:

The mean tells us what happens on average.

The variance measures how much we might expect variables to deviate from the mean, i.e. their average behavior.

Example:

- If the temperature is 30°F every day, the mean temperature is 30°F and the variance is 0.
- If the temperature is 0°F one day and 60°F the next day, the mean temperature is 30°F but the variance is $(30^\circ\text{F})^2$.

Definition :

$$\text{Var } X = E((X - EX)^2)$$

The standard deviation is $SD = \sqrt{\text{Var } X}$.

Property: $\text{Var } X = EX^2 - (EX)^2$

Exercise: In the Bernoulli case,
show that

$$\text{Var } X = p \cdot (1 - p).$$

Remark: when $p = 0$ or $p = 1$,
the variance is 0. Does this make sense?

Exercise: Show that the variance is
maximized for $p = \frac{1}{2}$.

Property: let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ (i.e. a is constant).
Then

$$\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X).$$

Exercise: Prove the above equation.

A consequence of the above result
is that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Var} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{N^2} \text{Var} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N X_i \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \text{Var} X_i \quad (\text{by independence of the } X_i\text{'s}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{N^2} N \text{Var} X \\
 &= \frac{1}{N} \text{Var} X.
 \end{aligned}$$

Question : what happens as N grows ?

In the limit,

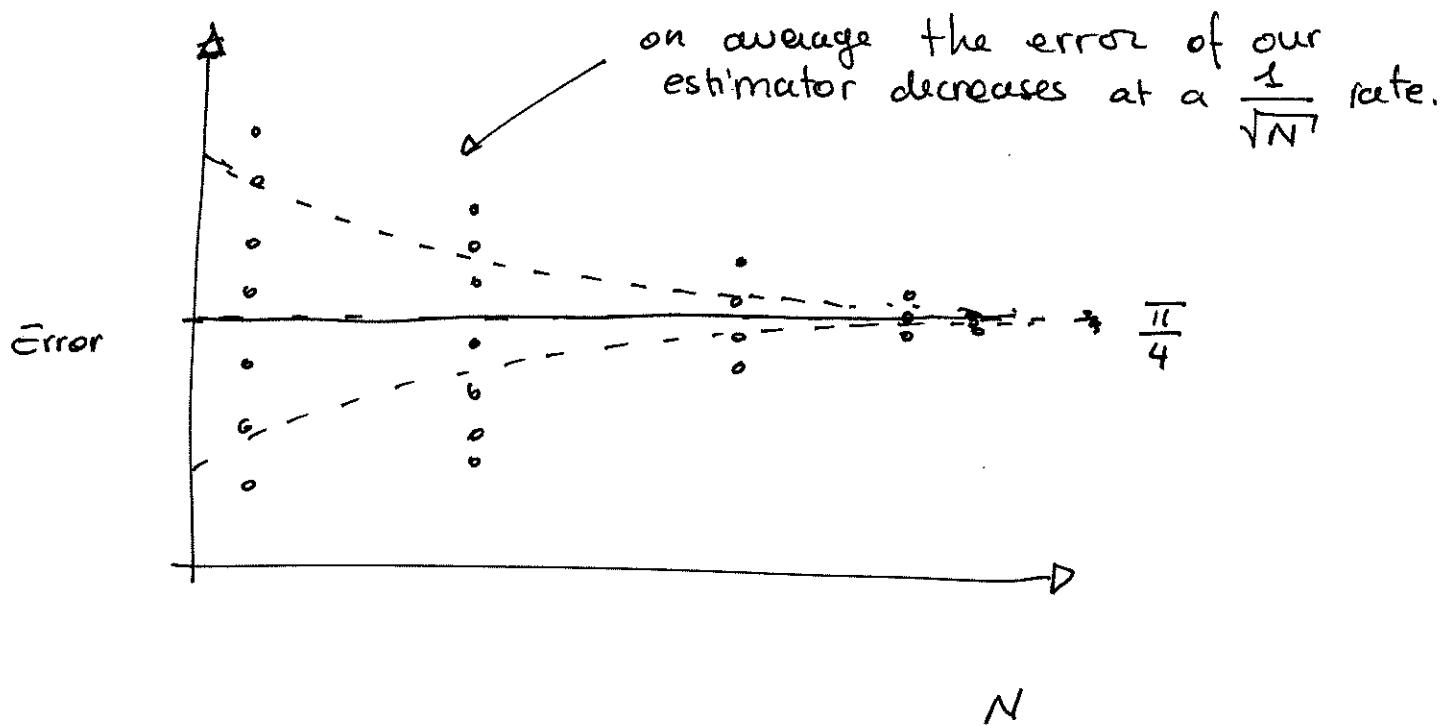
$$\lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} \text{Var}(\bar{X}) = 0,$$

$$\text{where } \bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i X_i.$$

Combined with the unbiasedness property,
we have that the sample mean, \bar{X} ,
is ("with high probability") equal to $\mathbb{E}X$,
when $N \rightarrow +\infty$.

This is the Weak Law of Large Numbers.

Suppose we repeat Buffon's experiment many times, for varying number of trials, N , and compute the error of our estimate.



Exercise: In Buffon's experiment, show that for

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if Needle falls in circle} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Var } X = \frac{3}{16} \pi^2.$$

$$\text{Therefore } \text{Var } \bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \frac{3}{16} \pi^2,$$

$$\text{and } \text{SD}(X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \pi.$$

How does this compare to your simulations in R?

Conditional Probability

- Consider two random variables X and Y . Does knowing the value X teach me something about the potential value of Y ? If so, the variables are dependent.

Example:

X : the weather in the morning in Buffalo

Y : the weather in the afternoon in Buffalo.

The two events are dependent.

Example 2:

X : the weather in the morning in Buffalo.

Y : the weather in the afternoon on Mars.

The two events are independent?

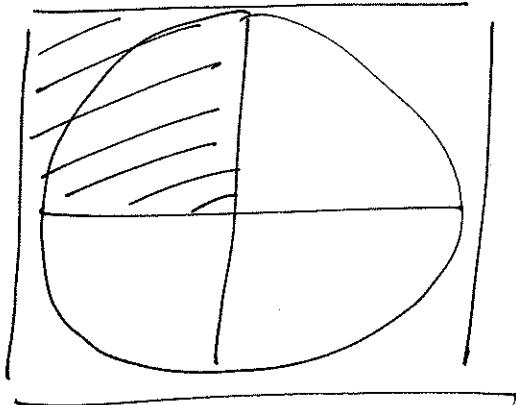
(Depends on your model of weather)

Example 3:

\hat{X} : the position of the first needle.

Y : the position of the second needle.

→ Independent.



Example 4:

Do example 5 first
during lecture...

X : the needle falls in the circle.

Y : the needle falls in the shaded square.

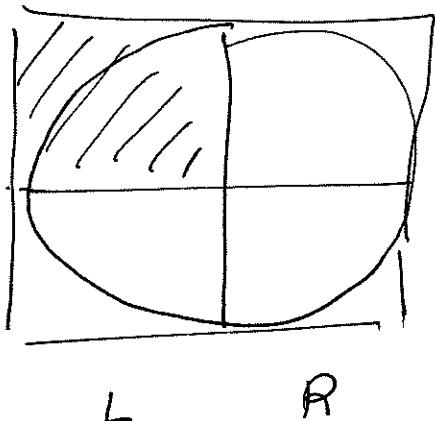
$$P(X) = \frac{\pi}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad P(X|Y) = \frac{\pi/4 / 4}{1/4} = \frac{\pi}{4} = P(X)$$

this is the prob of X given Y .

$$P(Y) = \frac{1}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{4} = P(Y)$$

\Rightarrow The two events are independent!

Example 5:



X : the needle falls in the left side.

Y : the needle falls in the shaded square.

$$P(Y) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{2}$$

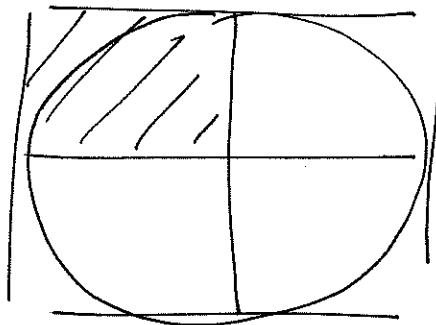
$$P(X) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad P(X|Y) = 1.$$

\Rightarrow Events are dependent.

Joint distribution / Probability

We can ask what is the probability that two events happen conjointly.

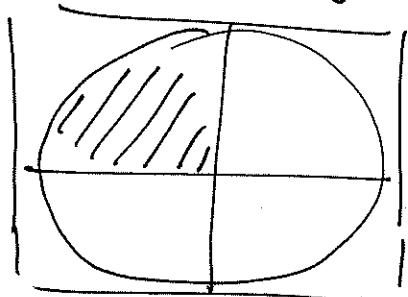
Example :



X : the needle falls in the circle.

Y : needle falls in shaded square.

The probability that X and Y happen simultaneously is given by the shaded area below.



$$P(X, Y) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{16}$$

Property : $P(X, Y) = P(X) P(Y|X)$.

In example 4 (above),

$$\begin{aligned} P(X, Y) &= P(X) P(Y|X) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{16}. \end{aligned}$$

this is the case when X and Y are independent.

In example 5, $P(X, Y) = P(X) P(Y|X)$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4} \neq P(X) \cdot P(Y).$$

Bayes' rule :

$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(Y|X)P(X)}{P(Y)}$$

Proof : $P(Y|X)P(X) = P(Y, X)$.

~~Then~~ $= P(Y)P(X|Y)$

Then

$$\frac{P(Y|X)P(X)}{P(Y)} = \frac{P(Y)P(X|Y)}{P(Y)} = P(X|Y)$$

Example (Mammogram)

Interested in test with a certain error rate.

		Truth	
		B	\bar{B}
Test	B	0.9	0.1
	\bar{B}	0.2	0.8

$A = \{\text{Test is positive}\}$

$B = \{\text{Patient has cancer}\}$

Denote \bar{A} the complementary event, i.e. patient has negative test.
Same with \bar{B} .

False positive rate : $P(A|\bar{B}) = 0.1$

False negative rate : $P(\bar{A}|B) = 0.2$

Question: Given that we have a positive test, what is the probability of having cancer?
i.e.

$$P(B|A) ?$$

Let's use Bayes' rule:

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

The true positive rate, $P(A|B)$, is

$$P(A|B) = 1 - P(\bar{A}|B) = 1 - 0.2 = 0.8.$$

Next the positive rate is

$$P(A) = P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|\bar{B})P(\bar{B}).$$

We are missing one piece of information to answer the question: the rate of individuals with cancer.

Let's look it up... $P(B) = 0.04$.

Then $P(\bar{B}) = 0.96$.

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|\bar{B})P(\bar{B}) \\ &= (0.8)(0.04) + (0.1)(0.96) \\ &= 0.128. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} P(B|A) &= \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)} \\ &= \frac{(0.8)(0.04)}{0.128} = 0.25. \end{aligned}$$

Lower than expected!!

How can we make sense of this?

Suppose there 1,000 people:

- 40 have cancer, 960 don't. All get tested.
- Among the people with cancer,
8 test negative, 32 test positive.
- Among those without cancer,
96 test positive, 864 test negative.

=> The population of people who test positive is dominated by patients without cancer.