

## Week - 3

**Deterministic phenomenon** : whose outcome can be predicted with a very high degree of confidence

**Stochastic phenomenon** : Phenomenon which can have many possible outcomes for same experimental conditions. Outcomes can be predicted with limited confidence

**Sources of errors in observed outcomes -**

- Model Error - Lack of knowledge of generating process
- Measurement Error - Errors in sensors used for observing outcomes

**Types of random phenomenon -**

- (i) Discrete : outcomes are finite
- (ii) Continuous : Infinite no. of outcomes.

**Sample Space** - Set of all possible outcomes of a random phenomena

**Event** - Subset of the sample space

**Probability Measure** - is a function that assigns a real value to every outcomes of a random phenomena, which satisfies following axioms -

- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$  (Probabilities are non-negative and less than one for any event A)
- $P(S) = 1$  (one of the outcomes should occur)
- For two mutually exclusive events A and B  
 $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

### Independent Events $\rightarrow$

Two events are independent if occurrence of one has no influence on occurrence of other

Formally, A & B are independent if & only if  
 $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B)$

### Mutually Exclusive Events $\rightarrow$

Two events are mutually exclusive if occurrence of one implies other event does not occur

### Some rules of probability $\rightarrow$

- If  $B \subseteq A$ ,  $P(B) \leq P(A)$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

### Conditional Probability $\rightarrow$

If two events A & B are not independent, then information available about the



outcome of event A can influence the predictability of event B

$$\rightarrow P(B|A) = P(A \cap B) / P(A) \text{ if } P(A) > 0$$

$$\rightarrow P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A) \Rightarrow \text{Bayes formula}$$

$$\rightarrow P(A) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) + P(A|B^c) \cdot P(B^c)$$

Eg: In a manufacturing process, 1000 parts are produced, of which 50 are defective. We randomly take a part from the day's production.

Outcomes : { A = Defective part B = Non-defective part }

$$P(A) = 50/1000, P(B) = 950/1000$$

Suppose we draw a second part, without replacing the first part

Outcomes : { C = Defective part D = Non-defective part }

$$P(C) = 50/1000 \text{ (no information about outcome of first draw)}$$

$$P(C|A) = 49/999 \text{ (given that first draw was of defective part)}$$

$$P(C|B) = 50/999 \text{ (given that first draw was of non-defective part)}$$

$$P(C) = 49/999 * 50/1000 + 50/999 * 950/1000 = 50/1000$$

$$P(A|C) = P(A \cap C) / P(C) = P(C|A) \cdot P(A) / P(C) = 49/999$$

Random Variable  $\rightarrow$

A random variable (RV) is a map from sample space to a real line such that there is a unique real no. corresponding to every outcome of sample space

(i) Discrete RV

Eg: throw of a dice or coin

(ii) Continuous RV

Eg: sensor readings, time interval b/w failures

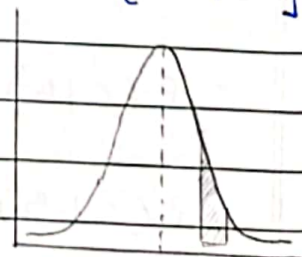
Probability Mass/Density Functions  $\rightarrow$

For a discrete RV, the probability mass function assigns a probability to every outcome in sample space

For a continuous RV, the probability density function  $f(x)$  can be used to assign a probability to every interval on a real line.

Continuous RV can take any value  $[-\infty, \infty]$  (area under the curve).

$$P(a < x < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



Cumulative density function

$$F(b) = P(-\infty < x < b) = \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$$

## Binomial Mass Function →

Probability of obtaining  $k$  heads in  $n$  coin tosses with  $p$  being the probability of obtaining a head in any toss

RV ' $x$ ' represents no. of heads obtained

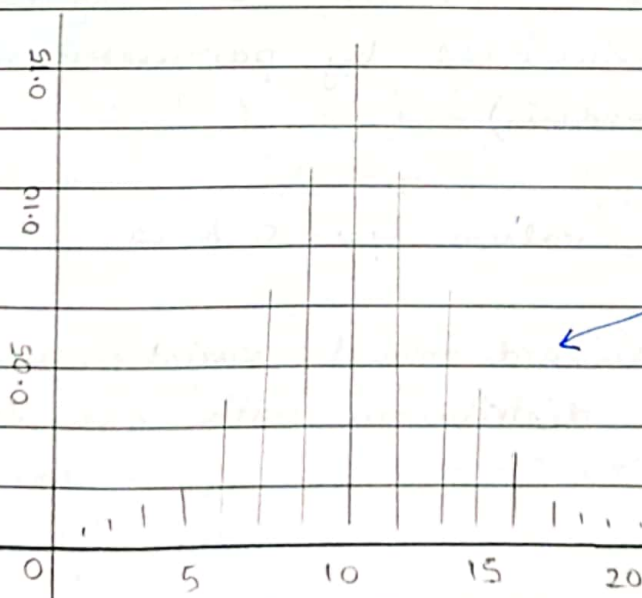
- Sample space :  $[0, 1, 2, \dots, n]$

$$f(x) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

- One outcome :  $\underbrace{HH \dots H}_{k \text{ times}} \underbrace{TT \dots T}_{n-k \text{ times}}$

- Probability Mass function characterised by one parameter  $p$ .

- For large  $n$ , it tends to a Gaussian distribution.



Binomial Mass Function  
for  $n = 20$  &  $p = 0.5$



## Gaussian or Normal Density Function

Distribution used to characterise random errors in data.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

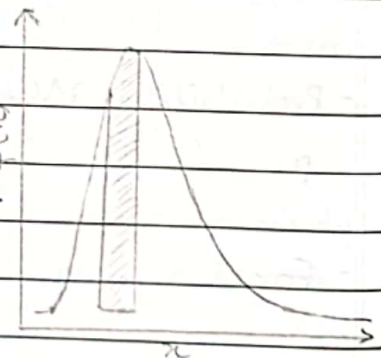
Probability density function is characterised by two parameters  $\mu$  &  $\sigma$

Density function is symmetric

In case of standard normal distribution,  $\mu = 0$  &  $\sigma = 1$

Chi-square density function  $\rightarrow$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)} x^{n/2-1} e^{-x/2}$$



Density is characterised by parameter  $n$  (degrees of freedom)

NOTE: RV 'n' only takes values b/w 0 &  $\infty$ .

$\rightarrow$  Square of a standard normal variable will be a Chi-Square distribution with one degree of freedom.

E stands for Expectation

classmate

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Moments of a Probability Density Function →

Similar to describing a function using derivatives, a PDF can be described by its moments.

For continuous distributions →

$$E[x^k] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) dx$$

For discrete distributions →

$$E[x^k] = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^k p(x_i)$$

Mean (or first moment) :  $\mu = E[x]$

Variance :  $\sigma^2 = E[(x-\mu)^2] = E[x^2] - \mu^2$

Standard deviation = Square root of variance =  $\sigma$

Properties of Gaussian RVs →

Mean :  $E[x] = \mu$  (value at which the density function attains the highest probability)

Variance :  $E[(x-\mu)^2] = \sigma^2$  (how wide the distribution will be)

width of the distribution

Symbolically,  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

→ Standard Gaussian RV  $z \sim N(0, 1)$

→ If  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $y = ax + b$   
Then  $y \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$

→ Standardisation

If  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  
Then  $z = \frac{(x - \mu)}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$

### Computation of Probability using R

- Function to compute probability given a value  $x$

- Lower tail probability =  $P(-\infty < x < x)$   
 $= \int_{-\infty}^x f(x) dx$

- Functions phorm ( $x$ , mean, std, 'lower.tail' = TRUE/FALSE)

If lower.tail = TRUE, it will give area b/w  $-\infty$  and  $x$

If lower.tail = ~~TRUE~~ FALSE, it will give area b/w  $x$  and  $\infty$

# Default value is true.

Other functions in R →

→ Function to compute  $x$  given probability  $p$



- Function  $qnorm(p, mean, std, 'lower.tail' = TRUE/FALSE)$

- lower tail probability =  $P(-\infty < x < X)$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^X f(x) dx = p$$

(Inverse probability function)

→ Function  $dnorm$  to compute density function value

→ Function  $rnorm$  to generate random numbers from the distribution

Joint Probability Distribution Function of two RVs →

Joint PDF of two RVs  $x$  &  $y$  :  $f(x, y)$

-  $P(x \leq a, y \leq b) = \int_{-\infty}^b \int_{-\infty}^a f(x, y) dx \cdot dy$

- Covariance b/w  $x$  &  $y$  :  $\sigma_{xy} = E[(x - \mu_x)(y - \mu_y)]$

- Correlation b/w  $x$  &  $y$  :  $\rho_{xy} = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$

- Two RVs  $x$  &  $y$  are uncorrelated if  $\sigma_{xy} = 0$

- Two RVs  $x$  &  $y$  are independent if  $f(x, y) = f(x)f(y)$

Multivariate Normal Distribution →

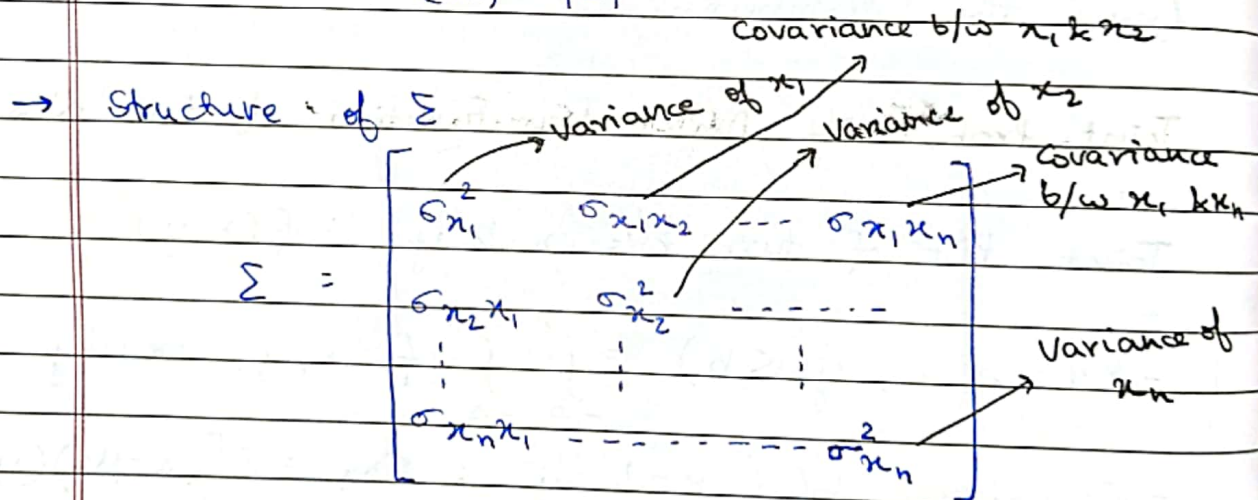
→ A vector of RVs  $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T$

→ Multivariate Gaussian distribution :  $x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$

-  $E[x] = \mu$  : Mean vector

-  $E[(x-\mu)(x-\mu)^T] = \Sigma$  : Variance - covariance matrix

-  $f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-1/2(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}$  : PDF



Population : Set of all possible outcomes of a random experiment characterised by  $f(x)$ .

Sample set (realization) : finite set of observations obtained through an experiment.

Inference : Conclusions derived regarding the population (PDF, parameters) from the sample set.



## Descriptive Statistics (Analysis) -

(i) Graphical

Eg: box plots, probability plots

(ii) Numerical

Eg: Mean, mode, range, variance, moments

## Inferential -

(i) Estimation

(ii) Hypothesis testing

Measures of Central Tendency →

- Mean →

Best estimate in least squares criterion

Unbiased estimate of population mean:  $E[\bar{x}] = \mu$

Affected by outliers

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

- Median →

Represent sample set by a single value

Value of  $x_i$  such that 50% of the values are less than  $x_i$  and 50% of the observations are greater than  $x_i$

Robust wrt outliers in data

Best estimate in least absolute deviation sense



- Mode  $\rightarrow$

Represents sample set by a single value  
Value that occurs most often

Measures of spread -

Represents spread of sample set.

Sample variance :  $s^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2$

Susceptible  
to outliers

- Unbiased estimate of population variance:  
 $E[s^2] = \sigma^2$

- Standard deviation is square root  
of variance

Mean absolute deviation :  $\bar{d} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i - \bar{x}|$   
(MAD)

More robust  
measure

(less susceptible  
to outliers)

Range :  $R = x_{\max} - x_{\min}$

Sample Mean  $\rightarrow$

For any distribution, sample mean is an  
unbiased estimate of population mean.

If  $x_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  & all observations are  
mutually independent, then  $\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{N}\right)$

## Sample Variance $\rightarrow$

For any distribution, sample variance is an unbiased estimate of the population variance.

If  $x_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and all observations are mutually independent,

$$\text{Then } \frac{(N-1) s^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{N-1}$$

$\rightarrow$  Sample variance

$\rightarrow$  population variance

$\hookrightarrow$  chi-square distribution with  $N-1$  degrees of freedom.

## Graphical Analysis $\rightarrow$

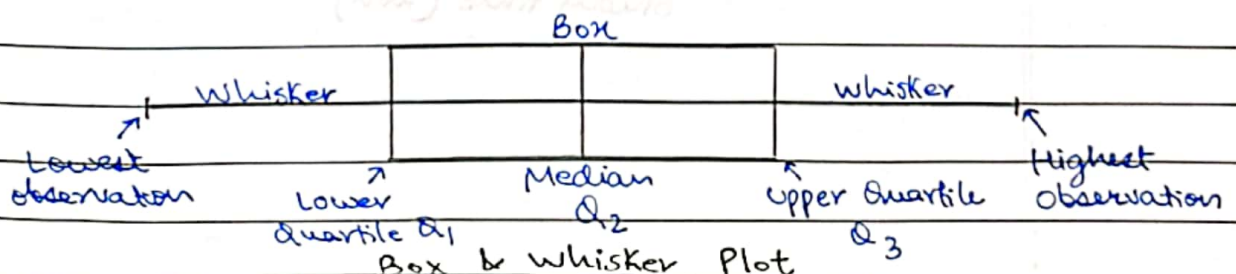
### (i) Histogram

- \* include upper limit of interval in that interval
- \* don't include the <sup>value</sup>  $\frac{n}{n}$  in next interval where it is lower limit

### (ii) Box plot $\rightarrow$

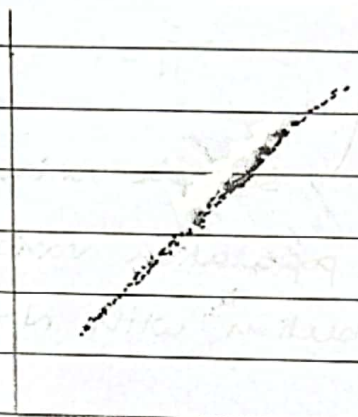
Find quartiles ( $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$  and  $Q_3$ ), minimum and maximum.

Box is b/w  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$ , and whiskers is b/w min & max values



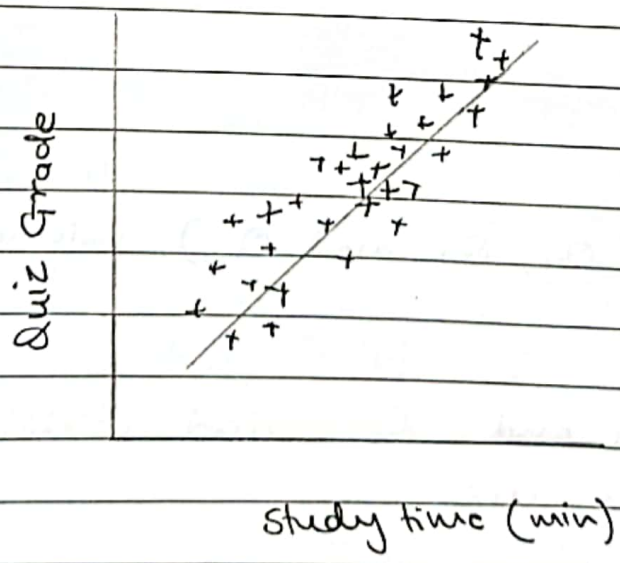
(iii) Probability plot →  
(p-p or q-q plot)

If the points fall on the 45° line, they come from the appropriate distribution



(iv) Scatter Plot →

It plots one random variable against another to examine if there is any dependence





## Hypothesis Testing →

The hypothesis is generally converted to a test of the mean or variance parameter of a population (or differences in means or variances of populations).

A hypothesis is a statement or postulate about the parameters of a distribution (or model).

Null Hypothesis  $H_0$ : The default or states quo postulate that we wish to reject if the sample set provides different sufficient evidence (eg:  $\eta = \eta_0$ ).

Alternative Hypothesis  $H_1$ : The alternative postulate that is accepted if the null hypothesis is rejected (eg:  $\eta < \eta_0$ ).

No hypothesis test is perfect. There are inherent errors since it is based on observations which are random.

The performance of a hypothesis test depends on

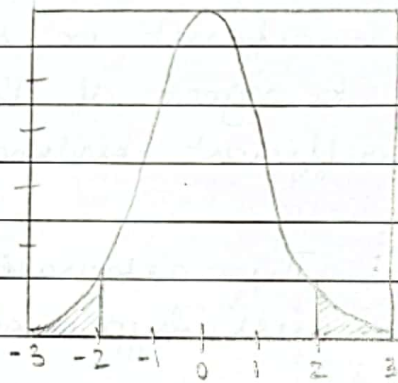
- Extent of variability in data
- No. of observations (sample size)
- Test statistic (function of observations)
- Test criterion (threshold)

Two sided test

$$H_0 : \mu = 0$$

$$H_1 : \mu \neq 0$$

Test statistic standard normal RV  $z$ .



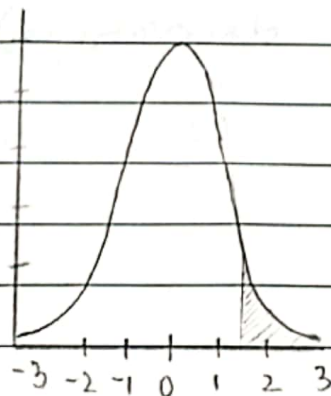
Reject  $H_0$  if  $z \leq -2$  or  $z \geq 2$

One sided test

$$H_0 : \mu = 0$$

$$H_1 : \mu > 0$$

Test statistic standard normal RV  $z$ .



Reject  $H_0$  if  $z \geq 1.5$

# Statistical Power = 1 - Type-II error probability classmate

# Trade-off: If we decrease Type-I error probability, then Type-II error probability will increase.

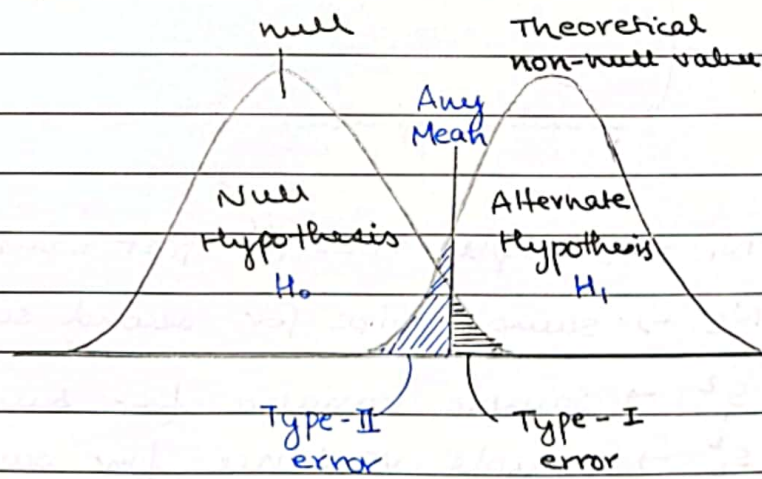
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### Errors in Hypothesis Testing →

Decision → Truth ↓	H <sub>0</sub> is not rejected	H <sub>0</sub> is rejected
H <sub>0</sub> is true	Correct decision Pr = 1 - α	Type-I error Pr = α
H <sub>1</sub> is true	Type-II error Pr = β	Correct Decision Pr = 1 - β

# We can only control the Type-I error probability, not the Type-II error probability.

→ 'α' is also k/a level of significance of the test.



# Test statistic  $Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{SD / \sqrt{NOS}}$

$$\frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{SD / \sqrt{NOS}}$$

SD = Standard Deviation

NOS = No. of samples taken from the total population



## T-Test →

It is a type of inferential statistic used to determine if there is a significant difference b/w the mean of two groups, which may be related in certain features.

Test statistic (assuming unknown but equal variances for two groups) -

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{S_p^2}{N_1} + \frac{S_p^2}{N_2}}} \sim t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2}$$

$$\text{where, } S_p = \frac{(N_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (N_2 - 1)S_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}$$

↓  
pooled variance

$N_1$  → sample size for first sample

$N_2$  → sample size for second sample

$S_1^2$  → sample variance for sample 1

$S_2^2$  → sample variance for sample 2.

## Summary of Useful Hypothesis Tests →

Type of test	Characteristic	Example	Application
z-test	Sum of independent normal variables	Test for a mean or comparison between two group means (variance known)	Test coefficients of a regression model
t-test	Ratio of a standard normal variable and chi-square variables with $p$ degrees of freedom	Test for a mean or comparison between two group means (variance unknown)	Test coefficients of a regression model
chi-square test ( $p$ degrees of freedom)	Sum of $p$ independent standard normal variables	Test for variance	Test quality of regression model
F-test ( $p_1$ and $p_2$ degrees of freedom)	Ratio of two chi-square variables	Test for comparing variances of two groups	Choose between regression models having different number of parameters