



Statistics for Astronomers: Lecture 2, 2020.09.23

Prof. Sundar Srinivasan

IRyA/UNAM





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Probability: Classical vs. Frequentist vs. Bayesian. Kolmogorov Axioms. Conditional and marginal probability. Independence and exclusivity. Law of Total Probability from union of pairwise disjoint, collectively exhaustive sets. Bayes' Theorem.



Random variables and probability distributions



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Random: Uncertain, no "pattern" can be detected.



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Random variable: A function that assigns a numerical value to each distinct outcome. The set of assigned numerical values is the state space S. A random variable is a mapping from the sample space to the state space; $X : \Omega \longrightarrow S$.



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Convention:

X: random variable, x: value assigned to random variable.

"Probability that X has value x": P(X = x), $P_x(x)$ (x discrete) or $p_x(x)$ (x continuous).

Specifying $P_x(x)$ or $p_x(x)$ for all $x \in S$, the state space results in a probability distribution.

Discrete: mass function (PMF). Continuous: density function (PDF).

Note: I won't abbreviate "probability distribution function", so that "PDF" is unambiguous.



3 balls are drawn (w/o replacement) from a box containing 2 red balls and 8 yellow balls. Sketch the probability distribution for the colour of the third ball.



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$$P_{x_1}(x_3) = \sum_{x_2 \in S} \sum_{x_1 \in S} P(X_3 = x_3 | X_2 = x_2, X_1 = x_1) P(X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = x_1) P(X_1 = x_1)$$



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The state $X_3 = 0$ ("third ball is red") can be achieved in three ways (see Ω).



3 balls are drawn (w/o replacement) from a box containing 2 red balls and 8 yellow balls. Sketch the probability distribution for the colour of the third ball.

Sample space: $\Omega = \{p_{M}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}, q_{00}\}$. State space: $S = \{0, 1\}$. Random variables: X_1 , X_2 , X_3 (one for the colour of each ball), each draws values from S. The PMF for X_3 is obtained by marginalising over X_1 and X_2 :

$$P_{x_1}(x_3) = \sum_{x_2 \in S} \sum_{x_1 \in S} P(X_3 = x_3 | X_2 = x_2, X_1 = x_1) P(X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = x_1) P(X_1 = x_1)$$

The state $X_3 = 0$ ("third ball is red") can be achieved in three ways (see Ω).

$$P(X_3 = 0) = P(X_3 = 0|X_2 = 1, X1 = 0) P(X_2 = 1|X_1 = 0) P(X_1 = 0) + P(X_3 = 0|X_2 = 0, X1 = 1) P(X_2 = 0|X_1 = 1) P(X_1 = 1) + P(X_3 = 0|X_2 = 1, X1 = 1) P(X_2 = 1|X_1 = 1) P(X_1 = 1) = \frac{2}{10} \cdot \frac{8}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{2}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{7}{9} \cdot \frac{2}{8} = \frac{1}{5}$$



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The state $X_3 = 0$ ("third ball is red") can be achieved in three ways (see Ω).

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$$+ P(X_{3} = 0|X_{2} = 0, X1 = 1) P(X_{2} = 0|X_{1} = 1) P(X_{1} = 1)$$

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$$= \frac{2}{10} \cdot \frac{8}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{2}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{7}{9} \cdot \frac{2}{8} = \frac{1}{5}$$

$$\implies P(X_{3} = 1) = 1 - P(X_{3} = 0) = \frac{4}{5}.$$

Sum of numbers displayed on two dice after one throw (discrete distribution):

State space = $\{2, 3, ..., 11, 12\}$



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(Tim Stellmach/Public Domain)



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$$P(X = 4)$$
 makes sense, is finite.
 $P(4 \le X \le 7) = \sum_{i=1}^{7} P(X = i) = \frac{18}{36} = \frac{18}{36}$



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> p(S)6 36 0.16 <u>5</u> 36 0.14 0.12 4 36 0.10 3 0.08 36 . 8 <u>2</u> 36 0.06 0.04 1 36 0.02 ••• 5 Ś

(Tim Stellmach/Public Domain)

P(X = 4) makes sense, is finite. $P(4 \le X \le 7) = \sum P(X = i) = \frac{18}{36} = \frac{1}{2}.$

Actual departure time of Flight 1522 (continuous distribution): State space = $(5.4, \infty)$



8:44 AM

$$P(8:00 \text{ AM} < T < 8:44 \text{ AM}) = \int p_X(x) dx$$
 is finite.
8:00 AM





If a random variable X has probability distribution is $P_X(x)$ (discrete) or $p_X(x)$ (continuous), we say that X is drawn from the PMF/PDF: $X \sim P_X(x)$ or $X \sim p_X(x)$.



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Population: the underlying probability distribution.



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Sample: the results of a finite number of experiments/draws from the population (a subset).



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Experiment performed a finite number of times; sample unable to faithfully reproduce the population – statistics (quantities derived from the sample) are only guesses at (estimates of) the corresponding parameters (values that describe the population). Convention: Greek symbols for parameters (e.g., μ , σ), Latin symbols for statistics (e.g., \bar{x} , s).



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"More data is required."



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Sample of outcomes obtained from rolling two dice 14 times. $\bar{x} = 7.43$, sample variance (discussed later) = 6.67

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Sample distribution seems uniform, results in a larger sample mean/variance than the true (population) values.



Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

Definition (Cumulative distribution function)

A function $F_X(x)$ of a random variable X such that $F_X(x)$ is the probability that $X \le x$. For a discrete PMF: For a continuous PDF:

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{x_i \le x} P(X = x_i).$$

For a continuous PDF: $F_{X}(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{0}^{t=x} p_{X}(t) dt$



Cumulative distribution function (CDF)



From this definition, the probability of the variable ranging between two values *a* and *b* is $P(a < X \le b) = F_x(x = b) - F_x(x = a).$ For a PDF, this is also equal to $\int_{t=a}^{t=b} p_x(t) dt.$



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The CDF is a monotonically increasing function.

For a discrete random variable, it is constant in between values.

For the continuous case, the PDF is the derivative of the CDF w.r.t. x.

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Definition (Quantile function)

The inverse of the CDF, a function Q(p) that returns the value of x such that $F_x(X \le x) = p$.



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e.g., Q(p = 0.5) is the median (equal "mass" on either side of x = Q(0.5)). Q(p = 0.25) and Q(p = 0.75) are the first and third quartiles.



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Definition (Independent and identically distributed variables)

Two random variables X and Y are said to be iid if and only if they are mutually independent and drawn from the same distribution:

 $F_{X,Y}(x,y) = F_X(x) \times F_Y(y)$ $F_X(x) = F_Y(x)$



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Heteroskedastic: originally iid observations + measurement errors that aren't identical. Typical case in astronomy.



Expectation value

Definition (Expectation value)

The expectation value E[g(X)] of a function g(X) of a random variable X, is the weighted average of g(X), with the weights being the associated probabilities:

Discrete:
$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(x_i) P(X = x_i).$$
 Continuous: $E[g(X)] = \int_{t=-\infty}^{t=-\infty} g(x) p_X(x) dx.$



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Linearity: $E[\alpha g(X) + \beta h(X)] = \alpha E[g(X)] + \beta E[h(X)].$ (\sum and \int are linear operators!) Independence: $X \perp Y \Longrightarrow E[XY] = E[X]E[Y].$


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Mean $\equiv E[X]$. An estimate of the distribution's location or central tendency.

Variance, $Var[X] \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2] = (\text{standard deviation})^2$. An estimate of spread.



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Variance, $Var[X] \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2] = (\text{standard deviation})^2$. An estimate of spread. Why the square? What is E[X - E(X)]? The expression for the variance can be simplified: $Var[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$.

Note: When no other function is specified, "expectation value" refers to the mean, E(X).



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Some properties of the variance of a random variable

By definition, non-negative.



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2) For any constant α :

- $Var(\alpha) = 0$, because $E[\alpha] = \alpha$.
- $Var(X + \alpha) = Var(X) i.e.$, invariant w.r.t. a location parameter.
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For constants α, β and random variables X, Y,
 Var(αX + βY) = ??
 Evaluate this expression using the definition of variance in terms of expectation values.



 $Var(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha^2 Var(X) + \beta^2 Var(Y) + 2\alpha\beta \overbrace{E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]}^{\text{interpretation?}}$ (1)

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If $X \perp Y$, then (Y - E[Y]) independent of (X - E[X]) for any (X, Y) pair. \implies the term quantifies a dependence between X and Y.



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If X and Y are not independent, then (X - E[X])(Y - E[Y]) > 0 if both deviations are in the same direction, and < 0 if the variables deviate from their means in opposite directions.



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Definition (Covariance)

The covariance is a measure of joint variability of two random variables: Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]. By definition, Cov(X, X) = Var(X).



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Therefore,
$$Var(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha^2 Var(X) + \beta^2 Var(Y) + 2\alpha\beta Cov(X, Y)$$
.

If the two variables are uncorrelated, then the third term vanishes.

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Correlation coefficient

The sign of Cov(X, Y) probes a linear relationship between the two variables X and Y.

We can define a scale-invariant of Cov(X, Y) instead:



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By definition, $\rho_{XX} = 1$. "Perfect correlation". $\rho_{XX} = -1$: "perfect anticorrelation".



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Two-dice example



 X_1, X_2 : random variables for the values on the $1^{\rm st}$ and $2^{\rm nd}$ die after each throw, we record $X_1 + X_2$ each time.



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As # measurements $N\uparrow,$ variance on the mean of N measurements $\downarrow.$

Sample mean approaches population mean.

See Law of Large Numbers.

Some common probability distributions



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Attributes of probability distributions via Python/Scipy

(See documentation for each distribution in scipy.stats)

- rvs random variates (sample from the distribution)
- pmf/pdf PMF or PDF
- logpmf/logpdf log of the PMF or PDF
- cdf CDF
- logcdf log of the CDF
- ppf percent point function (inverse of cdf; percentiles)
- stats Mean('m'), variance('v'), skew('s'), kurtosis('k') (also see mean, median, var, std)
- expect Compute expectation value of a function of this random variable
- interval Confidence interval



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```
Generate 10 samples from scipy.stats.bernoulli:
    from scipy.stats import bernoulli
    p = 0.25 #probability of success
    print(bernoulli.rvs(p, size = 10)) #10 random deviates
    [0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0] #possible output
```





Distribution of # successes in *n* independent experiments (*n* Bernoulli trials).



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Distribution of # successes in n independent experiments (n Bernoulli trials). Distribution = probability of k successes (and n - k failures) in n trials: $P(X = k) = {n \choose k} p^k (1 - p)^{(n-k)}$ (Binomial distribution)



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Examples:

The number of heads obtained in *n* tosses of a fair coin = Binomial $(n, p = \frac{1}{2})$.

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Mean: E[X] = np (demonstrated on following slide)



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Compute probability of 2 successes in 10 trials

from scipy.stats import binom
n, k, p = 10, 2, 0.25 #total trials, num successes, prob of 1 success
print(binom.pmf(k, n, p)) #prob of k successes in n trials

0.28156757354736334 #output

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$$= \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} n \binom{n-1}{s} p^{s+1} (1-p)^{n-s-1} \quad (\text{setting } s = k-1)$$

$$= np \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{s} p^{s} (1-p)^{n-1-s} = np \quad \text{using Eq. (2)}$$

Similarly, we can compute Var[X] using $k(k-1)\binom{n}{k} = n(n-1)\binom{n-2}{k-2}$

