

this conditional
 time: probability
 next discrete
 time: distributions

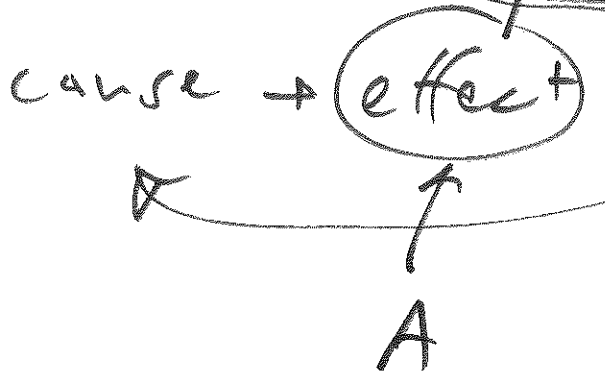
read 25 ch.
 1, 2, 1st half
 of ch. 3

AMS131
 7 Aug 17
 ①

office hours now
 posted on ^{course} web page

village
 some people
 dying

why?



exhaustive
 list of
 possible
 causes

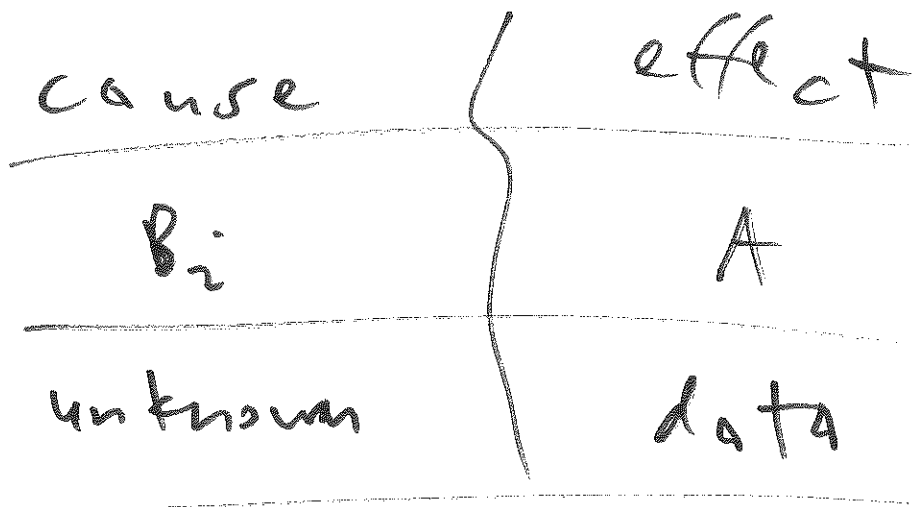
- bad water
- bad air
- bad food
- disease

B_i

$P(A | B_i) = P(\text{effect} | \text{cause})$ easier

or $P(B_i | A) = P(\text{cause} | \text{effect})$ harder
 but the goal

Bayes wanted to reverse order
 of conditioning:



Thm:

optimal information processing

$$p(\text{cause} | \text{effect}) = p(\text{unknown} | \text{data})$$

$$= p(\text{unknown}) p(\text{data} | \text{unknown})$$

(a priori)

before data

after

info. about unknown

data arrives

info. ~~about~~ unknown

time →

prior info.

data info

(posteriori) posterior info.

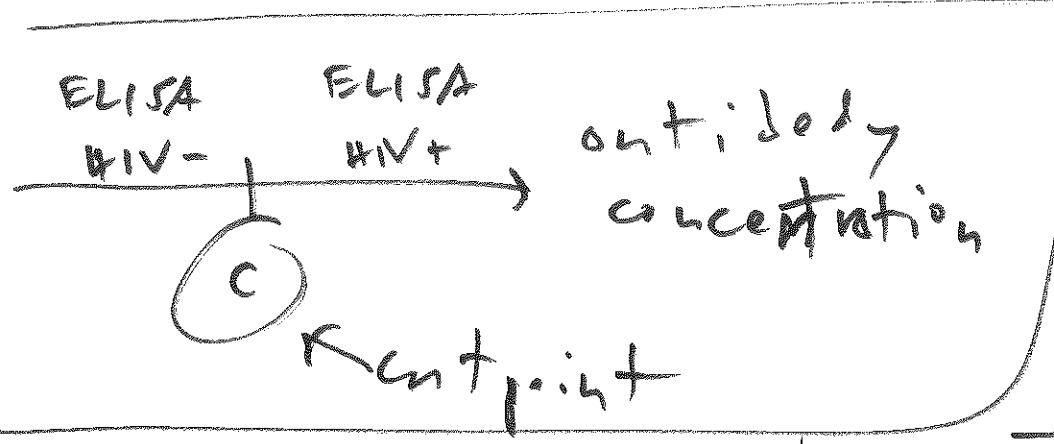
$$(\text{posterior info}) = \frac{(\text{prior info}) \cdot (\text{data info})}{(\text{annoying/normalizing constant})}$$

[likelihood]

LTP

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$

$$\therefore P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(B_j) \cdot P(A|B_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^k P(B_j) \cdot P(A|B_j)}$$



$A = \{ \text{true HIV+} \}$
 not $A = \{ \text{true HIV-} \}$

$\oplus = \{ \text{ELISA says +} \}$
 $\ominus = \{ \text{ELISA says -} \}$

sensitivity = 0.96
 $P(+|A)$

specificity = 0.97
 $P(-| \text{not } A)$

prevalence =
 $P(A) = 0.4\%$

2 0.004

↑
 syse. ELISA says ⊕ for a given ⊕
 blood sample: what $P(A|+)$ is?

method
 1:
 Bayes's
 Then
 directly

$$P(A|+) =$$

$$\frac{P(A) \cdot P(+|A)}{P(+)}$$

.004 prevalence

sensitivity
 .96
 $P(+|A)$

$P(+)$

↑ annoying
 we usually
 constant

we want $P(+)$

this is how to think

about unless we know

truth ($A, \text{not } A$)

because we do know $P(+|A)$

and we can work out $P(-|A)$

from that & also

$$P(+|\text{not } A)$$

$$= 1 - P(-|\text{not } A) = 1 - \text{specificity}$$

$$= .03$$

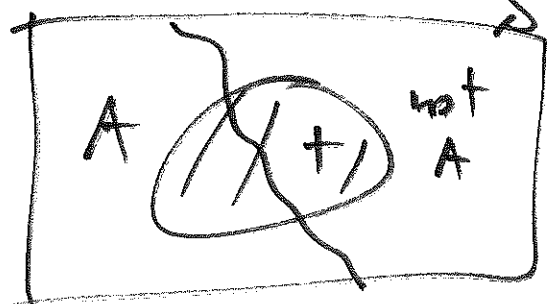
when looking for a partition, Dennis Lindley (1920-2014) suggests: ⑤

(finding a partition) = ("extending the conversation")

a useful partition B_1, \dots, B_k has 2 properties: $P(B_i) > 0$ & known & $P(+ | B_i)$ is also known

I don't know $P(+)$ but I do know something about $P(+ | A)$ and $P(+ | \text{not } A)$

↑ data ↑ unknown truth



$$P(+)=P(A) \cdot P(+|A) + \textcircled{6}$$

$$P\left(\frac{\text{not}}{A}\right) \cdot P(+|\text{not } A)$$

$$= (.004)(0.96) + (.996)(.03)$$

$$\therefore P(A|+) = \frac{(.004)(0.96)}{(.004)(0.96) + (.996)(.03)}$$

positive ↗

$$= \frac{384}{3372} \doteq 0.11 (\%)$$

~~the~~ false positive rate = (hypo)

$$1 - P(\text{not } A|+) = 0.89$$

$$P(A|-) = \text{false negative rate}$$
$$= \frac{16}{96628} \doteq .0002 = 0.02\%$$

method
2x2
contingency
table

		truth		
		has HIV (A)	no HIV (not A)	
what ELISA says	+	384	2,988	3,372
	-	16	96,612	96,628
		400	99,600	100,000

$P(A) = \text{prevalence} = .004$

Specificity

$P(A | +) = \frac{384}{3372} = 0.11 (!)$

(utility)
blood bank

utility
function

		truth	
		A	not A
ELISA	+	✓	wasted food unit of blood
	-	healy bud	✓

somebody gets HIV from bad blood

optimal
decision-
making
Bayesian
decision theory

method
3:
odds

if $P(C) = p$ then odds in favor
of C are/is $\frac{p}{1-p}$ ⑧

Bayes's theorem in odds form

$$\left[\frac{P(A|+)}{P(\overset{\text{not}}{A}|+)} \right]_{\text{data}} = \left[\frac{P(A)}{P(\overset{\text{not}}{A})} \right]_{\text{prior odds in favor of A}} \cdot \left[\frac{P(+|A)}{P(+|\overset{\text{not}}{A})} \right]_{\text{likelihood ratio or Bayes factor}}$$

$$P(A|+) = \frac{P(A) \cdot P(+|A)}{P(+)}$$

$$P(\overset{\text{not}}{A}|+) = \frac{P(\overset{\text{not}}{A}) \cdot P(+|\overset{\text{not}}{A})}{P(+)}$$

posterior odds in favor of A

$$= \left(\frac{.004}{.996} \right) \left(\frac{0.96}{1 - 0.97} \right)$$

$\frac{96}{3}$ ← sens.
1 - spec.

(prior odds) (Bayes factor)

$$\frac{32}{249} = \left(\begin{array}{c} 249 \\ \text{to } 1 \\ \text{against} \\ \text{really HIV+} \end{array} \right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} 32 \text{ to } 1 \\ \text{in favor} \\ \text{of really HIV+} \end{array} \right)$$

$$O = \frac{p}{1-p} \leftrightarrow 1 = \frac{O}{1+O} = \frac{\frac{32}{249}}{1 + \frac{32}{249}} = 0.11$$

Noxk Hsll procted	ELISA: 810 fp rate 89% (0.5%)	$\frac{384}{3372} = \frac{32}{281}$ fn rate .02% (.001%)
	western blot ~ 8100	

Case study:

Monte

Hall

problem

$Y_i = \{ \text{you initially choose door } i \}$

$M_j = \{ \text{Monte Hall then opens door } j \}$

$C_k = \{ \text{car actually behind door } k \}$

$i, j, k = 1, 2, 3$

you pick door 1

opens door 2 to reveal a goat

without loss of generality

(Y_1) & Monte (M_2)

PLAN AHEAD

we want to compare $P(C1 | M2, Y1)$ with $P(C3 | M2, Y1)$.

This is like ELISA.

unknown: location of car	ELISA
data: Monte showing you a goat behind door 2	tree HIV status what ELISA said

we want $P(\text{unknown} | \text{data})$ but problem setup gave us $P(\text{data} | \text{unknown})$

so let's use Bayes's Theorem to reverse order of conditioning

$$\frac{P(C1 | M2, Y1)}{P(C3 | M2, Y1)} = \left[\frac{P(C1)}{P(C3)} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{P(M2, Y1 | C1)}{P(M2, Y1 | C3)} \right]$$

posterior odds prior odds in odds form
 Bayes factor

$P(C2 | M2, Y1) = 0$

Now by the rules $P(C1) = P(C3) = \frac{1}{3}$

so the prior odds are $\frac{P(C1)}{P(C3)} = \frac{1/3}{1/3} = 1$

to evaluate probabilities like $P(M2, Y1 | C1)$, let's use the general form of product rule for and:

$$\frac{P(M2, Y1 | C1)}{P(M2, Y1 | C3)} = \frac{P(Y1 | C1) \cdot P(M2 | Y1, C1)}{P(Y1 | C3) \cdot P(M2 | Y1, C3)}$$

but $Y1$ and Cj are independent so

$$P(Y1 | C1) = P(Y1) = \frac{1}{3} \text{ and}$$

$$P(Y1 | C3) = P(Y1) = \frac{1}{3} \text{ so}$$

$$\frac{P(C1 | M2, Y1)}{P(C3 | M2, Y1)} = \frac{P(M2 | Y1, C1)}{P(M2 | Y1, C3)} = \frac{1/2}{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So: after (A_2) (given y_i, c_j)

the posterior odds is fav- if
car behind door 2 are 2:1,

so $P(C_3 | A_2, y_1) = \frac{2}{3}$ &

you should switch.

Case study:
Cromwell's
Rule
Dennis
Lindley

for any D such that
& any A ,

$P(D) > 0$

(a) if $P(A) = 0$ then $P(A|D) = 0$

and

(b) if $P(A) = 1$ then $P(A|D) = 1$

D = data

A = unknown

$P(A)$ prior information about A

$P(A|D)$ posterior info about A

Cromwell's Rule

Meaning / Any thing you put prior probability $P(A)$ on has to have posterior probability $P(A|D)$ no matter how ~~the~~ the dataset comes out; this destroys the possibility of learning from data.

$$(9) \quad P(A|D) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } D)}{P(D)}$$

but if $P(A) = 0$ (\emptyset)

then $P(A \cap D) = 0$ ✓

$$P(A|D) = \frac{P(A \text{ and } D)}{P(D)} \quad P(A) = 1$$

~~so $(A \cap D) = D$~~
~~and $P(D) / P(D) = 1$~~

A
 $\in S$
 (9.50)

Case Study: | The Rasmussen Report (15)

WASH-1400, "The Reactor Safety Study" (*)

problem | Estimate P (catastrophic accident at nuclear power plant) at a moment in history (1975) when no such events had ever occurred (nuclear power began in about 1955, ...)

3 mile Island 1979 (per year)

"Solution" | Use expert judgment to break down (*) into a collection of simpler events connected together

with (and), (or), ...; for example

(*) = (thing 1 breaks & alarm fails to go off & thing 2 breaks & ...)

Result ^{the v} Estimate of $P(\textcircled{A})$ was (15)
extremely small: 10^{-12} , &
yet only 4 years later: 3 mile
Island

what
went
wrong?

Right calculation:

$$P(\textcircled{A}) = P(\text{thing 1 breaks}) \cdot P(\text{alarm fails} \mid \text{thing 1 breaks})$$

$\cdot P(\text{thing 2 breaks} \mid \text{thing 1 breaks} \ \& \ \text{alarm fails})$...

what they did instead: they assumed independence!

$$P(\textcircled{A}) = \underbrace{P(\text{thing 1 breaks})}_{\text{small}} \cdot \underbrace{P(\text{alarm fails})}_{\text{small}} \cdot \underbrace{P(\text{thing 2 breaks})}_{\text{small}}$$

= tiny just because many numbers close to 0 multiplied