

Section Solution 9: Final Section

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1. Debugging Null Hypotheses Code

While testing the efficacy of a new drug, Skylar Pharmaceuticals has collected 1000 data samples. Most of the samples came from patients who were treated with the drug, but the rest came from patients who received a placebo. Skylar observed that the sample mean blood pressure in the treated group was 80, while the sample mean blood pressure in the placebo group was 86.

To demonstrate the difference is statistically significant, Skylar implemented the following to produce a p-value. The code showed that the result was not statistically significant. However! Their code is not right. Point out the errors and the corresponding fixes:

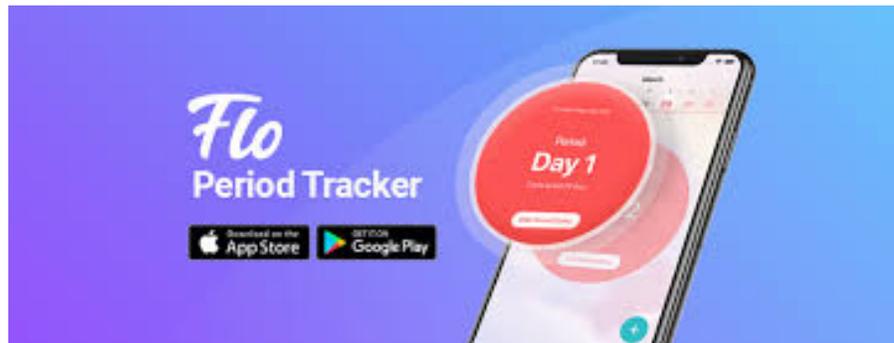
```
import numpy as np
# list_treat has blood pressures of each patient who was treated
# list_placebo has blood pressures of each patient who received a placebo
# both are ordinary 1-d numpy array
def pvalue(list_treat, list_placebo):
    whole = np.concatenate([list_treat, list_placebo])
    threshold = np.mean(list_treat) - np.mean(list_placebo)
    counter, num_trials = 0, 100000
    for trial in range(num_trials):
        sample_treat = resample(list_treat, 500)
        sample_placebo = resample(list_placebo, 500)
        mean_treat = np.mean(sample_treat)
        mean_placebo = np.mean(sample_placebo)
        new_diff = np.abs(mean_treat - mean_placebo)
        if new_diff == threshold: counter += 1
    return counter/num_trials

def resample(whole, num_samples):
    return np.random.choice(whole, num_samples, replace=True)
```

- As written, the threshold will be -6, so `new_diff` can never be smaller than `threshold`! Because we're really only concerned with magnitudes, Skylar should replace `threshold` with `np.abs(threshold)`.
- To simulate the null hypothesis, we should sample from our new combined distribution. As a result both calls to `resample` should pass in `whole`, not `list_treat` or `list_placebo`.

- Though we're now sampling from our new combined distribution, we want to stay true to the design of the original experiment in every other way. Therefore we should make sure `sample_treat` has as many elements as `list_treat` and `sample_placebo` has as many elements as `list_placebo`. The 500s should be replaced with `len(list_treat)` and `len(list_placebo)` respectively.
- When bootstrapping, we count up how many times we see a result as dramatic or more dramatic than ours under the null hypothesis. As a result, we should check if `new_diff` is greater than or equal to `threshold`.

2. Flo. Tracking Menstrual Cycles



Let X represent the length of a menstrual cycle: the number of days, as a continuous value, between the first moment of one period to the first moment of the next, for a given person. X is parameterized by α and β with probability density function:

$$f(X = x) = \beta \cdot (x - \alpha)^{\beta-1} \cdot e^{-(x-\alpha)^\beta}$$

- a. For a particular person, $\alpha = 27$ and $\beta = 2$. Write a simplified version of the PDF of X .

$$f(X = x) = 2 * (x - 27) * e^{-(x-27)^2}$$

- b. For a particular person, $\alpha = 27$ and $\beta = 2$. Write an expression for the probability that they have their period on day 29. In other words, what is the $P(29.0 < X < 30.0)$?

$$P(29.0 < X < 30.0) = \int_{29.0}^{30.0} 2 * (x - 27) * e^{-(x-27)^2}$$

Okay if expression inside integral is incorrect, as long as it's the same answer as part (a).

- c. For a particular person, $\alpha = 27$ and $\beta = 2$. How many times more likely is their cycle to last **exactly** 28.0 days than exactly 29.0 days? You do not need to give a numeric answer. Simplify your expression.

$$\frac{f(X = 28)}{f(X = 29)} = \frac{2 * (28 - 27) * e^{-(28-27)^2}}{2 * (29 - 27) * e^{-(29-27)^2}} = \frac{e^3}{2}$$

- d. A person has recorded their cycle length for 12 cycles stored in a list: $m = [29.0, 28.5, \dots, 30.1]$ where m_i is the recorded cycle length for cycle i . Use MLE to estimate the parameter values α and β . Assume that cycle lengths are IID.

You don't need a closed form solution. Derive any necessary partial derivatives and write up to three sentences describing how a program can use the derivatives in order to choose the most likely parameter values.

Define our likelihood function:

$$L(\alpha, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{12} f(m_i)$$

Now log likelihood to make the math easier later:

$$LL(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{12} \log f(m_i)$$

$$\alpha = \arg \max_{\alpha} LL(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$\beta = \arg \max_{\beta} LL(\alpha, \beta)$$

Log of the pdf simplifies:

$$\log f(m) = \log \beta + (\beta - 1) \log(m - \alpha) - (m - \alpha)^2$$

Now take partial derivative w.r.t α and β :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} LL(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{12} 2(m_i - \alpha) - \frac{\beta - 1}{m_i - \alpha}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} LL(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{12} \frac{1}{\beta} + \log(m_i - \alpha)$$

we can use gradient ascent to maximize LL. This computes gradient w.r.t each parameter α, β then moves the parameters a small step in the direction of the gradient.

We also accept valid closed-form solutions. For example, can perform gradient descent on α , then update β by computing closed-form optimal value (given some value of α):

$$\beta = -\frac{12}{\sum_{i=1}^{12} \log(m_i - \alpha)}$$

Note: Flo is a real “AI based” app that helps people track their period lengths. The real world distribution of periods is thought to be a mixture distribution between a normal and a weibull distribution [1]. This problem only has you estimate parameters for a simplified Weibull [2].

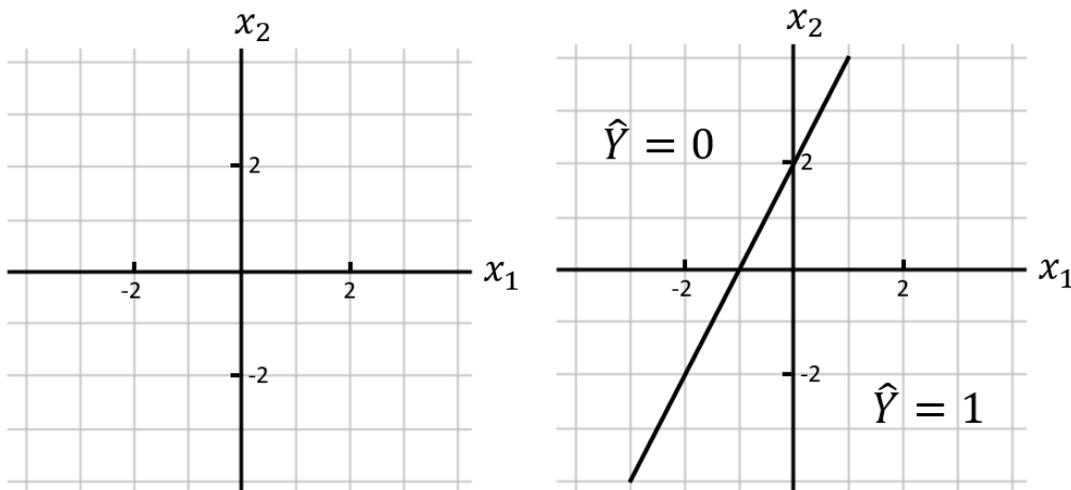
[1]: Modeling menstrual cycle length using a mixture distribution.

<https://academic.oup.com/biostatistics/article/7/1/100/243078>

[2]: Weibull Distribution.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Weibull_distribution

3. Logistic regression



Suppose you have trained a logistic regression classifier that accepts as input a data point (x_1, x_2) and predicts a class label \hat{Y} . The parameters of the model are $(\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2) = (2, 2, -1)$. On the axes, draw the decision boundary $\theta^T \mathbf{x} = 0$ and clearly mark which side of the boundary predicts $\hat{Y} = 0$ and which side predicts $\hat{Y} = 1$.

$\theta^T \mathbf{x}$ can be expanded as $2 + 2x_1 - x_2 = 0$ because $x_0 = 1$ by definition. The prediction is 1 when $\theta^T \mathbf{x} > 0$. For example, the origin $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$ yields $\theta^T \mathbf{x} = 2$, which gives us the prediction $\hat{Y} = 1$.

See the graph above, to the right of the original.

4. Beta Exam Distributions

Suppose hundreds of thousands (that is, a sufficiently large number) of student scores on a 150-question exam are distributed according to the following random variable:

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^{50} M_i + 0.5 \sum_{j=1}^{100} W_j \tag{1}$$

Each of the M_i are independent and identically distributed (IID) Beta random variables, $M_i \sim \text{Beta}(a_M = 10, b_M = 2)$. The W_j are separate IID Beta random variables $W_j \sim \text{Beta}(a_W = 8, b_W = 4)$, where all W_j are independent of all M_i . If we sample 100 student scores R_1, \dots, R_n IID according to the distribution of R above, what is the distribution of the sample mean \bar{R} ?

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[M_i] &= \frac{\alpha_M}{\alpha_M + \beta_M} = 0.83333 \\
 E[W_i] &= \frac{\alpha_W}{\alpha_W + \beta_W} = 0.66667 \\
 \text{Var}(M_i) &= \frac{\alpha_M \beta_M}{(\alpha_M + \beta_M)^2 (\alpha_M + \beta_M + 1)} = 0.01068 \\
 \text{Var}(W_i) &= \frac{\alpha_W \beta_W}{(\alpha_W + \beta_W)^2 (\alpha_W + \beta_W + 1)} = 0.01709
 \end{aligned}$$

We can compute R 's expectation using linearity of expectation. Because R is a sum of independent RVs, we can compute R 's variance by summing up the variance of the independent M_i and W_i 's as below:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[R] &= 50 E[M_i] + 0.5 \cdot 100 E[W_i] && = 75 \\
 \text{Var}(R) &= 50 \text{Var}(M_i) + 0.25 \cdot 100 \text{Var}(W_i) && = 0.961
 \end{aligned}$$

As an aside, R can be approximated as $R \sim N(75, 0.961)$, since the sums of both question types M_i and W_i respectively approach Normal distributions according to the Central Limit Theorem, and the sum of independent Normal distributions is itself a Normal distribution.

The distribution of the sample mean \bar{R} is then given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{R} &= \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} R_i \sim N\left(75, \frac{1}{100} \cdot 0.961\right) \\
 &\sim N(75, 0.0096)
 \end{aligned}$$