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In this session we will discuss and learn the concepts of Inferential Statistics.



## **Introduction to Probability**

The two main counting principles through which you can calculate the probability for the outcomes:

- 1. **Permutations**: A permutation is a way of arranging a selected group of objects in such a way that the order is of significance.
  - When there are 'n' objects to be arranged among 'r' spaces, the permutation value is given by the formula n!

2. <u>Combinations:</u> When you just have to choose some objects from a larger set, and the order is of no significance, then the rule of counting that you use is called combination.

If you want to choose 'r' objects from a larger set of 'n' objects, then the number of ways in which you can do that is given by the formula

$$^{n}C_{r}=rac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$



#### What is probability?

$$Probability = rac{No \ of \ desired \ outcomes}{Total \ no \ of \ possible \ outcomes}$$

Probability values have the following two major properties:

- Probability values always lie in the range of 0-1: The value is 0 in the case of an impossible event and 1 in the case of a sure event.
- The probabilities of all outcomes for an experiment always sum up to 1.





#### Important terms related to probability

**Experiment:** Essentially, any scenario for which you want to compute the probabilities for that scenario to be considered an experiment. It is of two types:

- Deterministic: Outcome is the same every time.
- Random: Outcome can take many possible values.

**Sample Space:** A sample space is nothing but a list of all possible outcomes of a random experiment. It is denoted by  $S = \{all \text{ the possible outcomes}\}$ .

**Event:** It is a subset, i.e., a part of the sample space that you want to be true for your probability experiment.





#### **Types of Events**

**Independent Events:** If you have two or more events and the occurrence of one event has no bearing whatsoever on the occurrence/s of the other event/s, then all the events are said to be independent of each other.

**Disjoint or Mutually Exclusive Events:** Now, two or more events are mutually exclusive when they do not occur at the same time; i.e., when one event occurs, the rest of the events do not occur.

#### Complement rule for probability

It states that if A and A' are two events that are mutually exclusive/disjoint and are complementary/negation of each other, then

$$P(A) + P(A') = 1$$





#### **Rules of Probability**

**Addition Rule:** When you have the individual probabilities of two events A and B, denoted by P(A) and P(B), the addition rule states that the probability of the event that either A or B will occur is given by

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

where  $P(A \cup B)$  denotes the probability that either the event A or B occurs. P(A) denotes the probability that the event A occurs

P(B) denotes the probability that the event B occurs

 $P(A \cap B)$  denotes the probability that both the events A and B occur simultaneously.





**Multiplication Rule**: When an event A is not dependent on event B and vice versa, they are known as independent events. And the multiplication rule allows us to compute the probabilities of both of them occurring simultaneously, which is given as

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)*P(B)$$

# Comparison between Addition Rule and Multiplication Rule

- The addition rule is generally used to find the probability of multiple events when either of the events can occur at that particular instance.
- The multiplication rule is used to find the probability of multiple events when all the events need to occur simultaneously.





# **Basics of Probability**

#### Question:

- 1. A bag with 2 balls -- one blue and one red
- 2. You are required to pick a ball front he bag put it back in.
- 3. Repeat this process 4 times.
- 4. If you get a red ball on all four occasions, you win 200 rupees.
- 5. If you get any other combination, you lose 10 rupees.

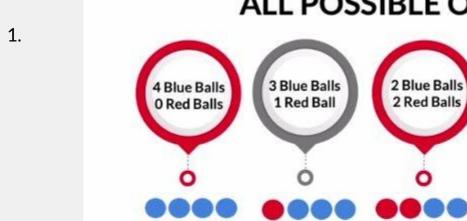
#### **Solution:** The approach:

- 1. Find possible combinations
- 2. Find probability of each combination
- 3. Use the probability to estimate profit/loss per player



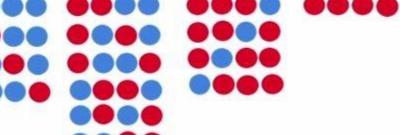


**ALL POSSIBLE OUTCOMES** 











#### Quantify outcome using random variable:

$$X = Number of Red Balls$$

$$X = X = 3$$

$$X = 2$$

Finding the probability distribution, which is a distribution giving us the probability for all possible values of X.

x	P(x)
0	0.0625
1	0.25
2	0.375
3	0.25
4	0.0625





#### In bar chart form:







Finding the expected value for X, the money won by a player after playing the game once:

The expected value (EV) for X was calculated using the formula:

$$EV(X) = x_1 * P(X = x_1) + x_2 * P(X = x_2) + \dots + x_n * P(X = x_n)$$

Another way of writing this is

$$EV(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} x_i * P(X = x_i)$$

Calculating the answer this way, we find the expected value to be +2.

#### In conclusion:

If we conduct the experiment (play the game) infinite times, the average money won by a player would be ₹2. Hence, we decided that we should either decrease the prize money or increase the penalty to make the expected value of X negative. A negative expected value would imply that, on average, a player would be expected to lose money and the house would profit.





# **Probability Distributions**

**Uniform distribution:** It is a discrete probability distribution, where the probability of each outcome is exactly the same.

Eg: The most basic example, in this case, is rolling a die. When you roll an unbiased die, the chances of getting any of the numbers are equally probable.

A discrete uniform distribution is a probability distribution that has 'n' discrete outcomes, and the probability of each of these outcomes is the same, i.e., **1/n**.

**Cumulative probability:** Cumulative probability of X, denoted by F(X), which is the probability that the random variable X takes a value less than or equal to x.

$$F(X) = P(X \le x)$$
 E.g.  $F(2) = P(X \le 2) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)$ 



# Cumulative Probability Distribution Continuous Distribution

Eg:

х	F(x) = P(X ≤ x)
50	0.167
55	0.250
60	0.367
65	0.467
70	0.550
75	0.650
80	0.733
85	0.833
90	0.933
95	0.967
100	1.000

X = Weight of an employee

$$P(X \le 60) = 0.367$$

$$P(60 \le X \le 65) = P(X \le 65) - P(X \le 60)$$
  
= 0.467 - 0.367  
= 0.1

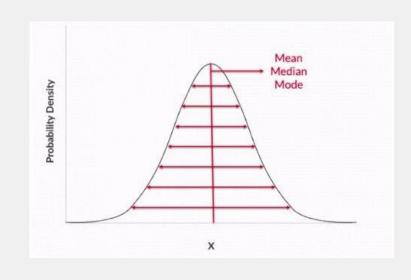




# Continuous Probability Distribution Normal Distribution

**Normal distribution** is a probability distribution that is <u>symmetric about the mean</u>, showing that data near the mean are more frequent in occurrence than data far from the mean. In graph form, normal distribution will appear as a bell curve.

- A normal distribution is the proper term for a probability bell curve.
- In a normal distribution the mean is zero and the standard deviation is 1. It has zero skew and a kurtosis of 3.
- Normal distributions are symmetrical, but not all symmetrical distributions are normal.



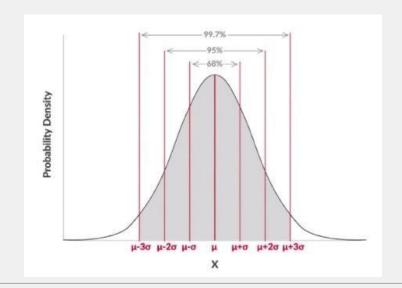




#### 1-2-3 Rule

#### This rule states that there is a:

- 68% probability of the variable lying within 1 standard deviation of the mean.
- 95% probability of the variable lying within 2 standard deviations of the mean.
- 99.7% probability of the variable lying within 3 standard deviations of the mean.





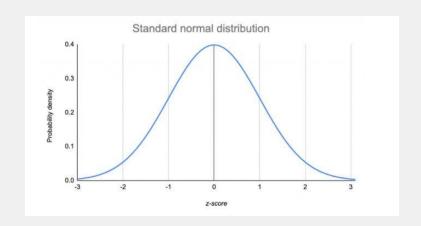


#### Standard normal distribution

The standard normal distribution, also called the z-distribution, is a special normal distribution where the mean is 0 and the standard deviation is 1.

Any normal distribution can be standardized by converting its values into z-scores. Z-scores tell you how many standard deviations from the mean each value lies.

Converting a normal distribution into a z-distribution allows you to calculate the probability of certain values occurring and to compare different data sets.







## **Samples and Sampling**

Sample is the subset of the population. The process of selecting a sample is known as sampling. Number of elements in the sample is the sample size.



Population/Sample	Term	Notation	Formula
	Population Size	N	Number of items/elements in the population
Population (X <sub>1</sub> , X <sub>2</sub> , X <sub>3</sub> ,, X <sub>N</sub> )	Population Mean	μ	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=N} X_i}{N}$
(\(\gamma_1, \(\gamma_2, \cdot\gamma_3, \ldot\gamma_1, \cdot\gamma_1, \cdot\gamma_	Population Variance	$\sigma^2$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=N} (X_i - \mu)^2}{N}$
Sample	Sample Size	n	Number of items/elements in the sample
(X <sub>1</sub> , X <sub>2</sub> , X <sub>3</sub> ,, X <sub>n</sub> )	Sample Mean	$\bar{X}$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} X_i}{n}$
(Sample of Population)	Sample Variance	S <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}$





## **Sampling Distribution**

A **sampling distribution** is a probability distribution of a statistic obtained from a larger number of samples drawn from a specific population. The sampling distribution of a given population is the distribution of frequencies of a range of different outcomes that could possibly occur for a statistic of a population.

- A sampling distribution is a statistic that is arrived out through repeated sampling from a larger population.
- It describes a range of possible outcomes that of a statistic, such as the mean or mode of some variable, as it truly exists a population.
- The majority of data analyzed by researchers are actually drawn from samples, and not populations.





#### **Properties of Sampling Distribution**

The sampling distribution will follow these three properties:

- Sampling distribution's mean  $(\mu_{\bar{X}})$  sulation mean  $(\mu)$
- Sampling distribution's standard deviation (Standard error) =  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the population's standard deviation and n is the sample size
- For n > 30, the sampling distribution becomes a normal distribution

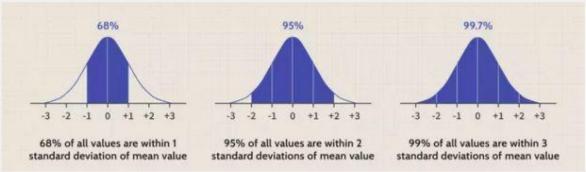




# Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

The **central limit theorem (CLT)** states that the distribution of sample means approximates a normal distribution as the sample size gets larger, regardless of the population's distribution.

- Sample sizes equal to or greater than 30 are often considered sufficient for the CLT to hold.
- A key aspect of CLT is that the average of the sample means and standard deviations will equal the population mean and standard deviation.
- A sufficiently large sample size can predict the characteristics of a population more accurately.





#### **Terminologies**

- The probability associated with the claim is called the **Confidence Level**.
- The maximum error made in the sample mean is called the Margin of Error.
- The final interval of values is called the **Confidence Interval**.

#### **Generalised Formula for Estimating Population Mean**

Sample Mean  $(\bar{X})$ Sample Standard Deviation (S) Sample Size (n)

Confidence Interval (y% confidence level) =

$$(\bar{X}-\frac{Z^*S}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{X}+\frac{Z^*S}{\sqrt{n}})$$

Where Z\* is the Z-score associated with y% confidence level

Confidence Level	Z*
90%	± 1.65
95%	± 1.96
99%	± 2.58





# **Steps for estimating Population Parameters using CLT**

The three steps to follow are as follows:

- First, take a sample of size n.
- Then, find the mean  $\bar{X}$  and standard deviation S of this sample.
- Now, you can say that for y% confidence level, the confidence interval for the population mean mu is given by

$$(\bar{X}-rac{Z^*S}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{X}+rac{Z^*S}{\sqrt{n}}).$$





# **Any Queries?**

Thank You!



