SOC6302 Statistics for Sociologists

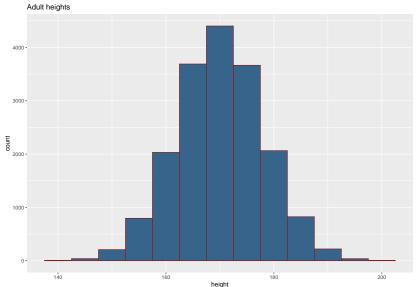
Monica Alexander

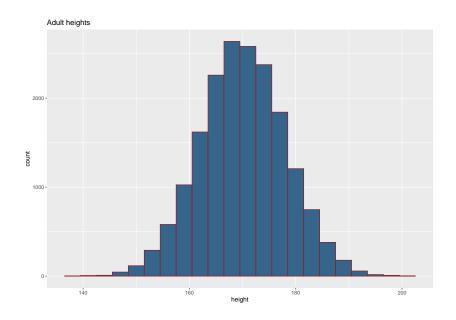
Week 5: Probability and sampling distributions

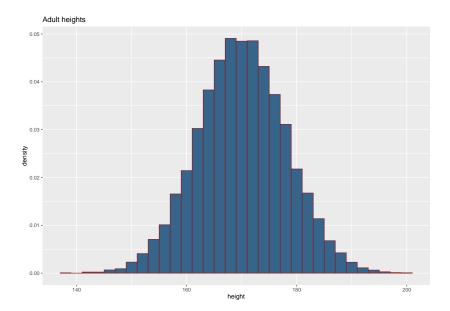
Where are we at

- Probability concepts
 - Additive rule, mutually exclusive events, multiplicative rule, independence, complements
- Probability distributions
 - ► Discrete RV = probability mass function
 - Continuous RV = probability density function
- Probabilities as areas

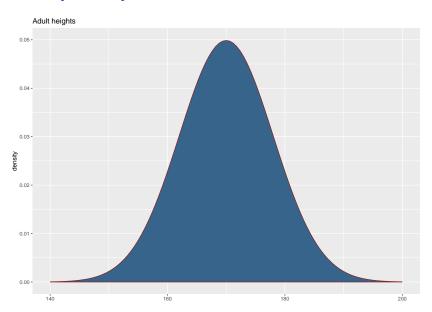
A continuous probability distribution is just a histogram with infinitely small bins



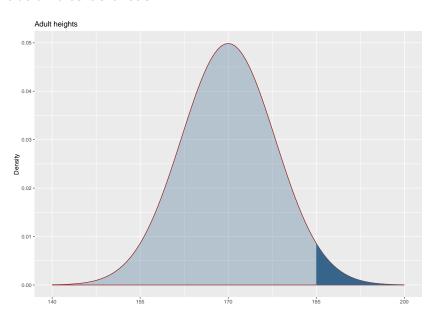




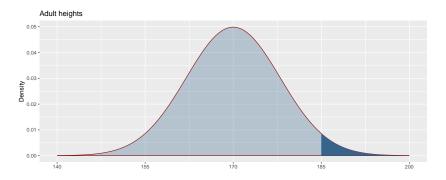
Probability density function



Probabilities as areas



Probabilities as areas

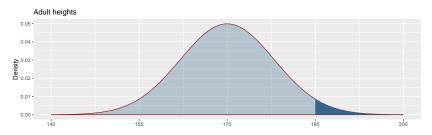


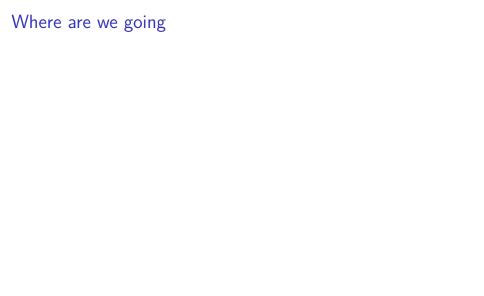
- The probability that height is greater than 185cm i.e. P(X > 185)
- ► Like summing up very tiny histogram bins above a certain point

Probability as areas

Important notes

- ► The sum of the whole area under the curve is equal to 1 (because we know all probabilities have to sum to one)
- A value is either greater than or less than/equal to a number
- So can express probabilities as the complement e.g. $P(X > 185) = 1 P(X \le 185)$





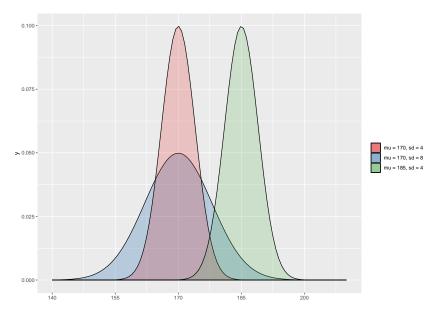


The normal distribution

- One of the most important continuous probability distributions
- Is described by the formula

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

- lacktriangle The shape is determined by two **parameters**, μ and σ
- If we were to plot f(x) as a function of x, we would obtain a normal distribution that would be centered at whatever value of μ we specified, and it would have a standard deviation equal to σ .

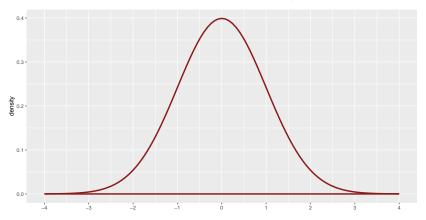


The normal distribution

- Many variables naturally resemble the normal distribution (or can be transformed to be so)
- ► Height, weight, intelligence. . .
- Strong relationships with other distributions
- Many sample statistics are normally distributed (more later)

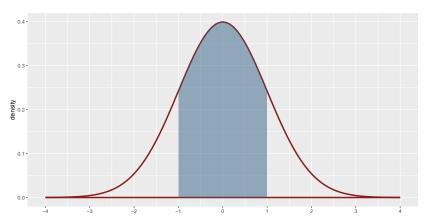
The standard normal distribution

A special case of the normal distribution with $\mu=0$ and $\sigma=1$.



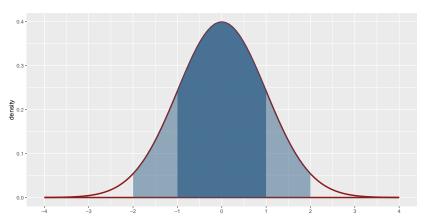
The standard normal distribution

► ~68% of area within 1 standard deviation



The standard normal distribution

► ~95% of the area within 2 standard deviations



Any normal distribution can be transformed into the standard normal

Say X is normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 . We can write this as

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

We can transform X using the z-transformation

$$\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$$

Call this transformed version Z i.e. $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$. Then

$$Z \sim N(0,1)$$

we can refer to the transformed version as **Z-scores**.

- ➤ Z-scores tell you the number of standard deviations by which the value of a raw score is above or below the mean value.
- In the heights example, the mean $\mu=170$ and standard deviation $\sigma=8$.

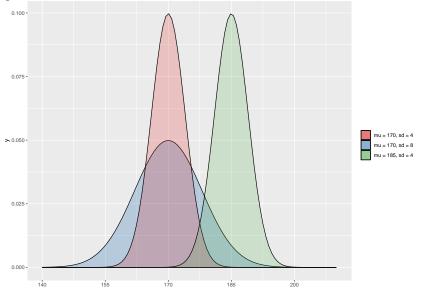
Rohan is 180cm. What is his Z-score?

$$Z = \frac{180 - 170}{8} = 1.25$$

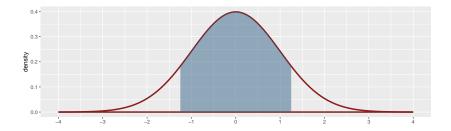
So Rohan is 1.25 standard deviations above the mean height.

► Monica is 168cm, so her Z-score is -0.25. So she is 0.25 standard deviations below the mean height.

Why calculate Z scores?

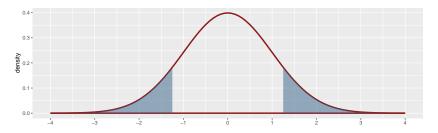


Z-score for person 165cm tall from red v blue v green distribution?

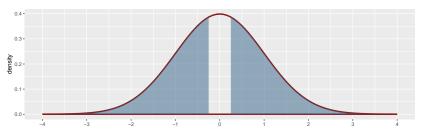


- ▶ Recall that ~95% of the area was within 2 standard deviations.
- ► We can flip this and ask what proportion of the area of a standard normal is within 1.25 standard deviations?
- ightharpoonup The answer is ~79%

- \sim 79% of the area is within 1.25 standard deviations
- ▶ Alternative interpretation: If we randomly draw a value from a standard normal distribution, the value will be between [-1.25,1.25] 79% of the time.
- ▶ Conversely, 21% of values will fall outside that range



- ▶ If the Z-score is small (i.e. the absolute value is close to zero), then the observed value is likely to come from that distribution
- ► E.g. Monica's Z-score was -0.25
 - ▶ 40% of the total area falls outside the [-0.25, 0.25] range
 - So it would be quite likely to observe outside this range, just by chance



- ▶ In contrast it would be less likely to observe something outside the range of Rohan's Z-score [-1.25, 1.25]
- ► If we observed an even bigger Z-score, it would be even less likely

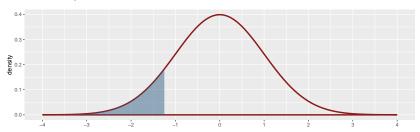
Finding areas under the curve using R

You can find the area under a normal curve in R using the pnorm function, which returns the cumulative probability from $-\infty$ to the value supplied to the pnorm function.

For example, find the area below z = -1.25:

```
pnorm(-1.25)
## [1] 0.1056498
# note that this is short for pnorm(-1.25, mu = 0, sd = 1)
```

This corresponds to



Finding areas under the curve using R

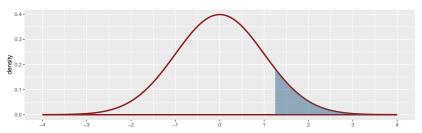
To find the area above 1.25:

```
1-pnorm(1.25)

## [1] 0.1056498

# or
# pnorm(1.25, lower.tail = FALSE)
```

This corresponds to



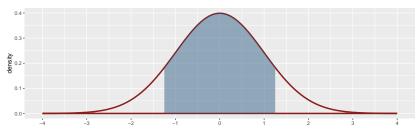
Finding areas under the curve using R

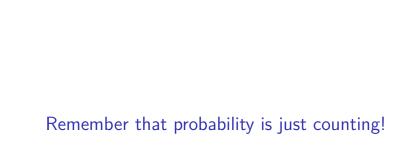
To find the area between -1.25 and 1.25

```
pnorm(1.25) - pnorm(-1.25)
```

[1] 0.7887005

This corresponds to





Probability is just counting

- ► Last week when we first started looking at probability, we were just counting things
- We can approximate Normal probabilities by counting the number of observations above/below a value
- ▶ Imagine we had a dataset of people's heights
- Calculate Z scores, then calculate the proportion of observations below a Z score of -1.25
- ► This would approximate P(Z<-1.25)

Back to simulation

- Last week we were simulating coin flips using the sample function
- We can also simulate 'draws' (i.e. observations) from a Normal distribution

Example simulation in R

- We can generate random draws from a normal distribution in R using the rnorm function.
- ► For example, the following code generates 1000 observations from a standard normal

```
set.seed(1889) # makes sure the random numbers generated are the same each time
# rnorm allows you to simulate values from a normal distribution
z_scores <- rnorm(n = 1000, mean = 0, sd = 1)
z_scores[1:10] # show the first ten draws</pre>
```

```
## [1] 2.4552434 -0.2762338 -0.9449433 -0.8251957 0.4853165 0.3160066
## [7] -1.1079699 -0.7399001 -1.0937371 0.1744686
```

Calculating probabilities by summing

We can then calculate what proportion of the simulated values are above a Z-score of 1.25 or below -1.25:

```
(sum(z_scores< -1.25) + sum(z_scores> 1.25))/1000
## [1] 0.211
```

Note that this is very similar to

```
pnorm(-1.25) + 1- pnorm(1.25)
```

```
## [1] 0.2112995
```

Sampling distributions and the central limit

theorem

Why do we care about the Normal distribution so much

- ► It's just one distribution
- It tends to over-simplify the real distribution of outcomes/variables

BUT it turns out that the distribution of summary statistics that we're interested in (e.g. means) tend towards being Normal

this is important for regression and inference

Sampling distributions

A **sampling distribution** is a probability distribution for a statistic based on repeated samples.

Say we are interested in taking a random sample of people's heights, X and calculating the mean height for that sample. So our statistic of interest is the mean height, \bar{X} .

We first take a random sample of 12 people and get the following heights

```
## [1] 180.9 177.2 179.4 181.8 159.2 182.2 184.7 171.3 178.1 170.4 157.5 167.8
```

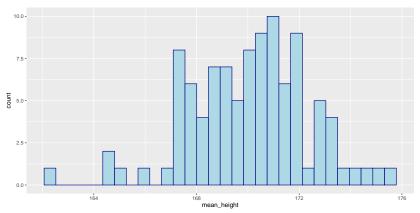
The observed mean height of this sample is 174.2.

We take a random sample of another 12 people and get the following heights:

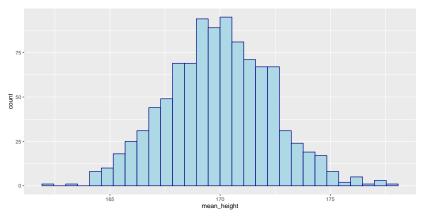
```
## [1] 163.8 158.5 175.5 162.5 166.5 183.0 168.0 174.8 160.2 181.4 173.8 167.6
```

The observed mean height of this sample is 169.6.

Say that I keep doing this process again and again and again, and end up with 100 observations of mean height. I can plot a histogram of these means:

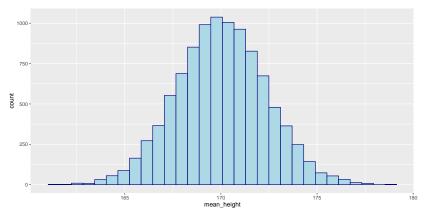


Okay, what if I take 1000 samples. I plot a histogram of the means again



What do you notice?

What about 10,000 samples?



The central limit theorem

The distribution of the sum (or mean) of a set of independent random variables will **tend towards** a normal distribution.

- "tend towards" means as the number of observations of the sum or mean gets larger, the distribution will become more normal
- ► The central limit theorem holds even if the original variables themselves are not normally distributed.

The central limit theorem

For a random variable X with $E(X) = \mu$ and $Var(X) = \sigma^2$, the central limit theorem results in the following distribution for the mean \bar{X} :

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

What does this mean?

- ▶ The mean \bar{X} will be centered at the same value as X
- ▶ The variance of \bar{X} depends on the variance of the original random variable X and also the number of samples of the mean we have, n.

The quantity $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ is also called the **standard error of the mean**.

Sampling heights

Before, we were repeatedly taking a random sample of 12 heights.

When we did this 100 times, we had 100 observations of X. The mean was 170 and the standard error of the mean was 0.078.

When we did this 10000 times, we had 100 observations of \bar{X} . The mean was 170 and the standard error of the mean was 8×10^{-4} .

So the more samples we have, the more sure we are of our estimate of the population mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

The random variables need not be Normal distributed!

- ▶ In the above example, original heights X were Normal distributed, but that isn't required for CLT to hold
- ▶ For any sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n that are drawn randomly from a distribution of expected value μ and variance σ^2
- We can calculate the sample average

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

▶ For large enough n the distribution of \bar{X}_n gets arbitrarily close to the Normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2/n .

Summary

- Normal distribution
- Standard Normal distribution
- Z-scores
- Probabilities of observation a normal variable in a certain range
- Sampling distribution for sample mean
- Central Limit Theorem