

# Lecture 4: Sampling and Probability Distributions

Thomas Chadeaux

PO7001: Quantitative Methods I

# Probability Theory

- Sample space: collection of all possible outcomes of an experiment
  - E.g., rolling a die:  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- An event is a subset of the sample space
  - E.g., the event  $A$  that an even number is obtained is  $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$ .

- The probability of any event is non-negative

$$P(A) \geq 0 \quad \forall A \in S, \text{ where } S \text{ is the sample space}$$

- The probability of 'anything' occurring among all possible events is 1

$$P(S) = 1$$

- If two events are disjoint, the probability that one or the other will occur is the sum of their individual probabilities.

$$P(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$

- A variable: characteristics, quantity that can be measured or counted
- A random variable: variable that can take a set of values with some associated probability.
  - More formally: a random variable is a real-valued function that is defined on  $S$ , the sample space. I.e., a function that maps the sample space  $S$  to the real numbers.
    - E.g., number of heads in an experiment with three coin tosses:

$$X(\{H, T, H\}) = 2$$

$$X(\{H, H, H\}) = 3$$

$$X(\{T, T, H\}) = 1$$

- E.g., drawing a random person from a population and recording her height. This height is a random variable (in this case the sample space is the list of all possible people, and the function is a mapping of the form:

$$f(i) = \begin{cases} 178 & \text{if } i = \textit{John} \\ 164 & \text{if } i = \textit{Beth} \\ 192 & \text{if } i = \textit{Ella} \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{cases}$$

- If a variable can only take on a finite number of values, we call it discrete.
  - e.g., number of students in the classroom
- A variable that can take on any real value is called continuous
  - e.g., temperature

- A random variable has a probability distribution, which specifies the probability that its value takes on a certain value or falls within any given interval.
- Random variables can be
  - discrete  $\rightarrow$  probability *mass* function
  - continuous  $\rightarrow$  probability density function

- Analogous to a frequency distribution, but derived from theory rather than observed data
- A probability distribution is a mathematical description of a random process in terms of the probabilities of its events.
- A probability distribution is like a frequency distribution where  $N = \infty$ .
- Note: terminology can be quite confusing, as many names refer to the same thing, with small (and inconsistent) variations. For practical purposes:
  - Probability density function = probability distribution function = probability function = probability distribution
  - However, be careful not to confuse “density function” with *cumulative* density function (more below)



- For a discrete variable, the probability function is

$$f(x) = P(X = x)$$

- E.g., for a coin toss,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } x = \text{Heads} \\ 0.5 & \text{if } x = \text{Tails} \end{cases}$$

- Probability distribution for a single coin flip:

Event	Probability
Heads	0.5
Tails	0.5

- Simple example: the discrete uniform distribution has probability mass function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{N}$

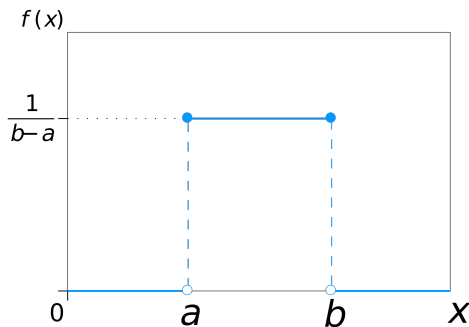
- Just like in the discrete case, the probability distribution function ('p.d.f.') assigns a probability to every possible outcome.
- More precisely, the pdf  $f$  is such that the probability that  $X$  takes a value in the interval is the integral of  $f$  over the interval:

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

## E.g., the Uniform Distribution

For example, the uniform distribution has pdf:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



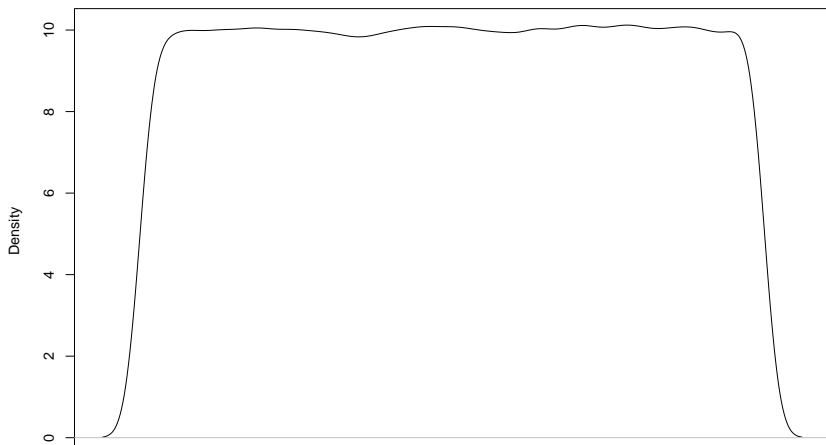
- Note that the pdf can take values greater than 0
  - Exercise: in R, plot the density function of a uniform distribution over the interval  $[0.2, 0.3]$

## E.g., the Uniform Distribution

- Note that the pdf can take values greater than 0
  - Exercise: in R, plot the density function of a uniform distribution over the interval  $[0.2, 0.3]$

```
plot(density(runif(500000, 0.2, 0.3), bw=0.002))
```

`density.default(x = runif(5e+05, 0.2, 0.3), bw = 0.002)`



## The *Cumulative* distribution function

The cumulative distribution function,  $F(x)$ , (note the use of a capital letter) is the function

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) \text{ for } -\infty < x < \infty$$

For example, suppose you flip a coin twice times and observe the number of Heads. Then

$$F(-1) = 0$$

$$F(0) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$F(0.5) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$F(1) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$F(2) = 1$$

$$F(23) = 1$$

## Note: law of large numbers

- Law of large numbers: as  $N$  increases, the sample mean of a distribution approaches its theoretical mean
- e.g.:

```
mean(rnorm(10))
```

```
## [1] -0.02142639
```

```
mean(rnorm(1000))
```

```
## [1] 0.05273785
```

```
mean(rnorm(100000))
```

```
## [1] 0.001950097
```

```
mean(rnorm(1000000))
```

```
## [1] 0.0006181567
```

- Greek vs Roman letters
  - greek letters used for *population* statistics:  $\mu$  is the mean,  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation,  $\sigma^2$  is the variance, etc.
  - Roman letters for *sample* statistics:  $\bar{x}$ ,  $s$  and  $s^2$



## Important Distributions

- A Bernoulli random variable has only two possible values: 0 and 1.
- A Bernoulli( $p$ ) random variable is defined by  $P(X = 1) = p$ 
  - For example, the toss of one fair coin follows a Bernoulli(.5) distribution.
- The Bernoulli( $p$ ) random variable has probability mass function over possible outcomes  $k$ :

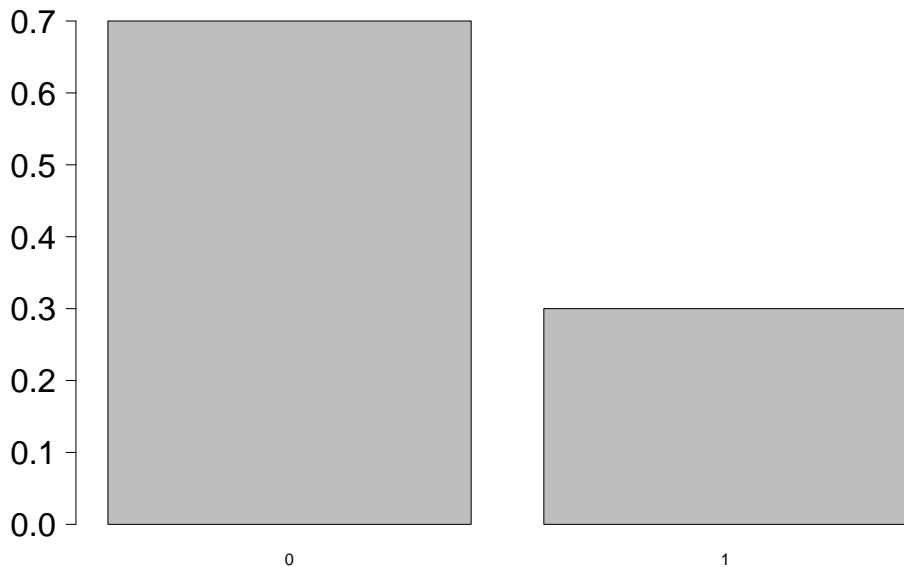
$$f(k, p) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } k=1 \\ 1 - p & \text{if } k=0 \end{cases}$$

- For Bernoulli( $p$ ),

$$\mu = p, \sigma^2 = p(1 - p)$$

- Exercise: prove that for Bernoulli( $2p$ ),  $\sigma^2 = 2p(1 - 2p)$
- The Bernoulli distribution is a special case of the binomial distribution, i.e., the case where  $n = 1$  (see below)
  - Note: we often talk about a Bernoulli 'trial' to denote an experiment where the result is 1 or 0 (success/failure), the trials are independent, and the probability of success stays the same ( $p$ )
- Exercise: graph the probability mass function of a Bernoulli(.3) variable.

## PMF of A Bernoulli(.3) variable



# Binomial Distribution

- Counts the number of successes in Bernoulli trials
- E.g., let  $X$  = number of Heads from flipping a (fair) coin 5 times
  - Note: like all variables, this takes a particular outcome and converts it into a number
  - This variable could take any number in  $[0,5]$ . i.e., we could get 0 Heads, 1 Heads, ... 5 Heads
- Question: What is the probability that we get 2 Heads, 3 Heads, etc?
- Possible outcomes:  $\{H, T, H, T, T\}$ ,  $\{T, T, T, H, T\}$ , etc.
  - How many possible outcomes? 2 for the first flip, 2 for the second, etc. So  $2^5 = 32$  equally likely possibilities.
- First, let's think about the probability that we get 0 Heads. There is only one way to get this:  $\{T, T, T, T, T\}$ , which is one of the 32 possible outcomes. So  $P(X = 0) = \frac{1}{32}$
- How about  $P(X = 1)$ ? There are 5 ways to get that, so  $P(X = 1) = \frac{5}{32}$
- The binomial distribution counts the number of successes in Bernoulli trials, and there is a formula for it, though we won't go into details

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k},$$

where

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

- E.g., what is the probability that we get one Heads if we toss a coin twice?

$$P(X = k) = \binom{2}{1} .5^1 (1 - .5)^{2-1} = \frac{2 \times 1}{1(2-1)!} \times .25 = 0.5$$

Check in R:

```
dbinom(1, 2, .5)
```

```
## [1] 0.5
```

- E.g., what is the probability that we get 12 Heads if we toss a coin 20 times?

$$P(X = k) = \binom{20}{12} .5^{12} (1 - .5)^{20-12} \quad (1)$$

$$= \frac{20 \times 19 \times \dots \times 2 \times 1}{12!(20 - 12)!} \times 0.0000009536742 \quad (2)$$

$$\approx 0.12 \quad (3)$$

```
dbinom(12, 20, .5)
```

```
## [1] 0.1201344
```

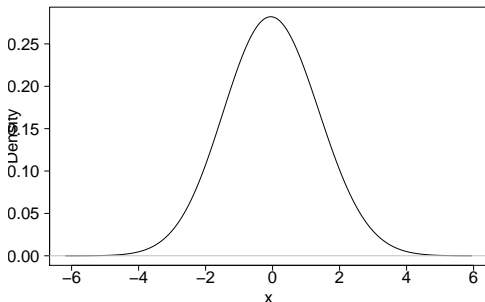
# Generate a random Binomial Distribution

```
# Let our experiment be the flipping of a coin 20 times. We repeat that exp  
binom.experiment <- (rbinom(1000, 20, .5))  
hist(binom.experiment)
```



# The normal distribution

- The most important distribution in statistics
- It is:
  - Symmetric
  - continuous
  - unimodal
  - follows a specific mathematical form involving two parameters: the mean and the variance. We write for example  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  to say that  $X$  is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- A variable  $X$  is normally distributed if, loosely, it has a 'bell' like curve.





- It has the pdf

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

- With this formula, we can actually reconstruct the curve. For example, let  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ . Then:

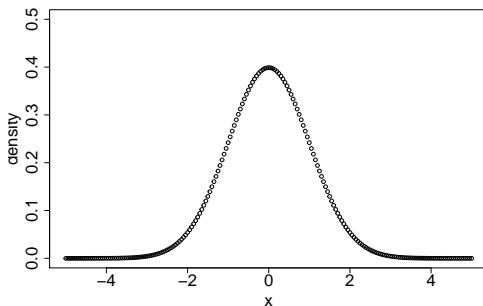
$$f(0) = \frac{1}{1\sqrt{2\pi}} e^0 =$$

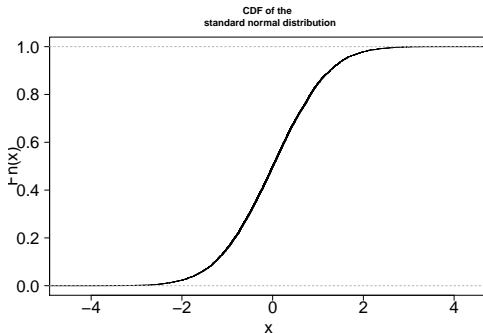
```
# Check with R  
dnorm(0)
```

```
## [1] 0.3989423
```

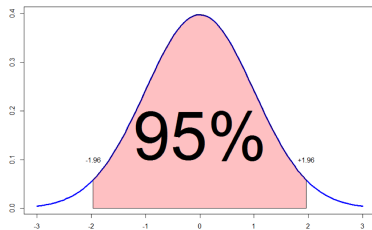
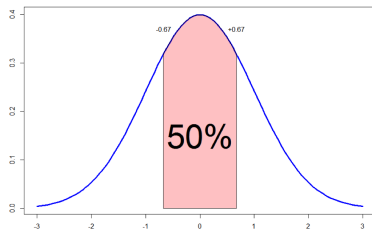
## Normal curve: p.d.f.

```
plot(c(-5,5), c(0,0.5), type='n', xlab='x', ylab='density', cex.axis=2, cex  
for(i in seq(-5,5, 0.05)){  
  points(i, dnorm(i))  
}
```





# The area under the normal curve



You often need to standardize a variable that follows a normal distribution, in particular to transform it into a *standard* normal distribution.

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

# Many other distributions that we will come across

- Exponential distribution
- lognormal distribution
- t-distribution
- F-distribution
- $\chi^2$  (chi-squared) distribution

- d, p, q, and r functions

- d: You know  $x$  and want the *density* at this point. I.e.,  $f(x)$

```
r dnorm(0)
```

```
## [1] 0.3989423
```

- p: you know  $x$  and want the *area* up to this point. I.e., it gives you  $F(x)$

```
r pnorm(0)
```

```
## [1] 0.5
```

- q: you have the area and want to know the corresponding  $x$ . I.e., it gives you the inverse of the cdf. For example, you want to know which point splits the area in two:

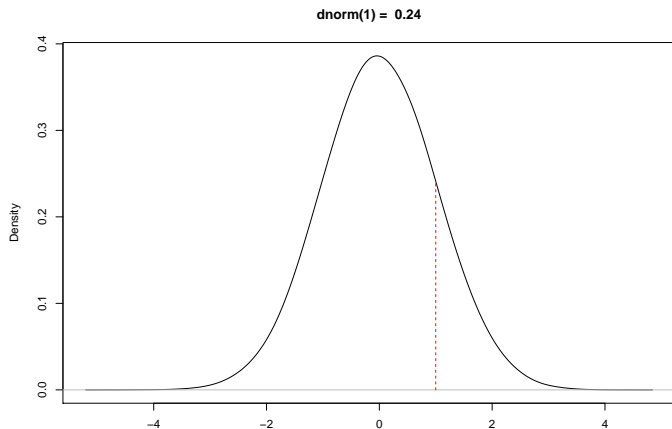
```
r qnorm(0.5)
```

```
## [1] 0
```

- r: you want to generate random numbers from that distribution

- These functions work on many distributions:

- `rnorm()` for the normal distribution
- `rchisq()` for the chi-squared distribution
- `rf()` for the F-distribution
- `rbinom()` for the binomial
- `rt()` for the t distribution





# The central limit theorem

- For a large number of samples, the distribution *of the sample means* will be normally distributed, *no matter what the shape of the original distribution*

Graphical Illustration of the Central Limit Theorem

