

# Quantitative Methods

## Human Sciences, 2020–21

Elias Nosrati

Lecture 5: 12 November 2020

Today: some revision

Today: some revision

- ▶ Probability and conditional probability

## Today: some revision

- ▶ Probability and conditional probability
- ▶ Random variables

## Today: some revision

- ▶ Probability and conditional probability
- ▶ Random variables
- ▶ Probability distributions

## Recap on probability

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .



## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

$$\mathbb{P} : S \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

$$\mathbb{P} : S \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

- ▶ Three axioms of probability:

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

$$\mathbb{P} : S \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

- ▶ Three axioms of probability:
  1.  $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$  for any event  $A$ .

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

$$\mathbb{P} : S \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

- ▶ Three axioms of probability:
  1.  $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$  for any event  $A$ .
  2.  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$ .

## Recap on probability

- ▶ We need three things to define a probability:
  1. A sample space:  $S$ .
  2. A class of well-defined events:  $A$ ,  $A^c$ ,  $B$ ,  $A - B$ , etc.
  3. A probability function:  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ .
- ▶ The probability function takes an event as input and gives you a number between 0 and 1 as output:

$$\mathbb{P} : S \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

- ▶ Three axioms of probability:
  1.  $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$  for any event  $A$ .
  2.  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$ .
  3. If  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are disjoint events, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(A_n).$$



# Interpretations of probability

# Interpretations of probability

- ▶ Frequentist view: a long-run frequency over many repetitions of an experiment.

# Interpretations of probability

- ▶ Frequentist view: a long-run frequency over many repetitions of an experiment.
- ▶ Bayesian view: a degree of belief about the event in question.

# Interpretations of probability

- ▶ Frequentist view: a long-run frequency over many repetitions of an experiment.
- ▶ Bayesian view: a degree of belief about the event in question.
- ▶ It is possible to assign probabilities to hypotheses like “Joe Biden will win the election” or “the defendant is guilty” even though we cannot repeat the same election or the same crime over and over again.

# Counting with story proofs

## Counting with story proofs

- ▶ Choosing the complement:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$$

## Counting with story proofs

- ▶ Choosing the complement:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$$

- ▶ Choosing a team captain:

$$\binom{n}{k} k = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

## Counting with story proofs

- ▶ Choosing the complement:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$$

- ▶ Choosing a team captain:

$$\binom{n}{k} k = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

- ▶ Choosing junior and senior committee members:

$$\binom{m+n}{k} = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{m}{j} \binom{n}{k-j}.$$



## Counting with story proofs

- ▶ Choosing the complement:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$$

- ▶ Choosing a team captain:

$$\binom{n}{k} k = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

- ▶ Choosing junior and senior committee members:

$$\binom{m+n}{k} = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{m}{j} \binom{n}{k-j}.$$

(*Vandermonde's identity.*)

# More counting

## Books

Alison Flood

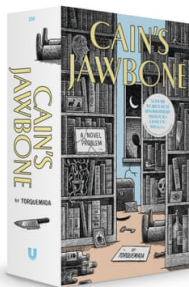
Tue 10 Nov 2020 12:11 GMT



430

## Literary puzzle solved for just third time in almost 100 years

**British comedy writer John Finnemore has solved Cain's Jawbone, a murder mystery that has 32m possible combinations**



▲ Cain's Jawbone by Edward Powys Mathers. Photograph: Unbound

One of the world's most fiendish literary puzzles - a murder mystery in which all the pages are out of order - has been solved for just the third time in almost a century.

# Conditional probability

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- ▶ We can then write joint probabilities as

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B \mid A).$$

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- ▶ We can then write joint probabilities as

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B \mid A).$$

- ▶ Independence: joint = product of marginals.

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- ▶ We can then write joint probabilities as

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B \mid A).$$

- ▶ Independence: joint = product of marginals.
- ▶ Independence  $\nRightarrow$  conditional independence!



## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- ▶ We can then write joint probabilities as

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B \mid A).$$

- ▶ Independence: joint = product of marginals.
- ▶ Independence  $\nRightarrow$  conditional independence!
- ▶ Bayes' Rule:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \mid A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

## Conditional probability

- ▶ Conditional probability allows us to update our beliefs in light of new evidence:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- ▶ We can then write joint probabilities as

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B \mid A).$$

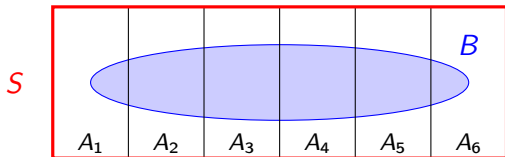
- ▶ Independence: joint = product of marginals.
- ▶ Independence  $\nRightarrow$  conditional independence!
- ▶ Bayes' Rule:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \mid A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

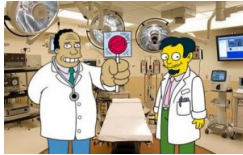
- ▶ Law of Total Probability:

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(B \mid A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

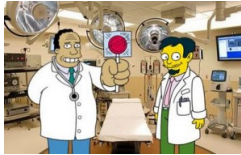
# Visualising the Law of Total Probability



# Simpson's paradox

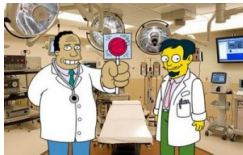


# Simpson's paradox



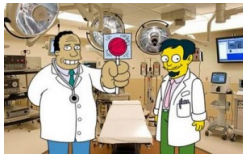
- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.

# Simpson's paradox



- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.
- ▶ Each surgery results in success or failure.

# Simpson's paradox

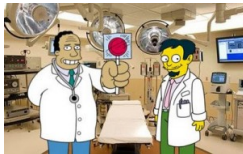


- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.
- ▶ Each surgery results in success or failure.
- ▶ Their respective records:

Dr. H.	Heart	Plaster
Success	70	10
Failure	20	0

Dr. N.	Heart	Plaster
Success	2	81
Failure	8	9

# Simpson's paradox



- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.
- ▶ Each surgery results in success or failure.
- ▶ Their respective records:

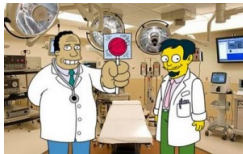
Dr. H.	Heart	Plaster
Success	70	10
Failure	20	0

Dr. N.	Heart	Plaster
Success	2	81
Failure	8	9

- ▶ Dr. Hibbert consistently performs better in each category.



# Simpson's paradox



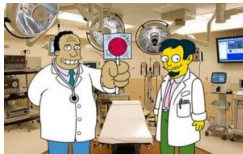
- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.
- ▶ Each surgery results in success or failure.
- ▶ Their respective records:

Dr. H.	Heart	Plaster
Success	70	10
Failure	20	0

Dr. N.	Heart	Plaster
Success	2	81
Failure	8	9

- ▶ Dr. Hibbert consistently performs better in each category.
- ▶ However, when we compare *aggregate* surgery success rates, Dr. Nick's record is better (83% versus 80%).

# Simpson's paradox



- ▶ Two doctors, Dr. Hibbert and Dr. Nick, each perform two types of surgeries: heart surgery and plaster removal.
- ▶ Each surgery results in success or failure.
- ▶ Their respective records:

Dr. H.	Heart	Plaster
Success	70	10
Failure	20	0

Dr. N.	Heart	Plaster
Success	2	81
Failure	8	9

- ▶ Dr. Hibbert consistently performs better in each category.
- ▶ However, when we compare *aggregate* surgery success rates, Dr. Nick's record is better (83% versus 80%). Why?

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶ A: a successful surgery.

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.
- ▶  $C$ : heart surgery.

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.
- ▶  $C$ : heart surgery.
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C), \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C^c) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C^c),\end{aligned}$$

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.
- ▶  $C$ : heart surgery.
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C), \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C^c) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C^c),\end{aligned}$$

but nonetheless

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) > \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c).$$



## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.
- ▶  $C$ : heart surgery.
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C), \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C^c) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C^c),\end{aligned}$$

but nonetheless

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) > \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c).$$

- ▶ This is made possible by the fact that Dr. Hibbert is much more likely than Dr. Nick to perform heart surgery, which is inherently riskier.

## Simpson's paradox and the importance of conditioning

- ▶  $A$ : a successful surgery.
- ▶  $B$ : Dr. Nick is the surgeon.
- ▶  $C$ : heart surgery.
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C), \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B, C^c) &< \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c, C^c),\end{aligned}$$

but nonetheless

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) > \mathbb{P}(A \mid B^c).$$

- ▶ This is made possible by the fact that Dr. Hibbert is much more likely than Dr. Nick to perform heart surgery, which is inherently riskier.
- ▶ The association between surgeon and outcome is *confounded* by surgery type: we need to condition on whether or not  $C$  occurred.

## Recap on random variables

## Recap on random variables

- ▶ A random variable assigns a numerical value to each possible outcome of an experiment.

## Recap on random variables

- ▶ A random variable assigns a numerical value to each possible outcome of an experiment.
- ▶ It is a *function*:  $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

## Recap on random variables

- ▶ A random variable assigns a numerical value to each possible outcome of an experiment.
- ▶ It is a *function*:  $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Discrete and continuous random variables.

## Recap on probability distributions

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .



## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:
  1. Density is non-negative:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:
  1. Density is non-negative:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .
  2. All densities sum to unity.

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:
  1. Density is non-negative:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .
  2. All densities sum to unity.
- ▶ Another way to encode the distribution: the *cumulative density function*,  $F(x)$ .

## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:
  1. Density is non-negative:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .
  2. All densities sum to unity.
- ▶ Another way to encode the distribution: the *cumulative density function*,  $F(x)$ .
- ▶  $F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$ : sum of all densities up to  $x$ .



## Recap on probability distributions

- ▶ The probability distribution of a random variable  $X$  assigns a probability measure to every conceivable realisation of  $X$ .
- ▶ Commonly encoded by a probability density function,  $f(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Discrete random variable:  $f(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ .
- ▶ Continuous random variable:  $f(X = x)$  is the density at  $x$ .
- ▶ Two requirements:
  1. Density is non-negative:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .
  2. All densities sum to unity.
- ▶ Another way to encode the distribution: the *cumulative density function*,  $F(x)$ .
- ▶  $F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$ : sum of all densities up to  $x$ .
- ▶ Famous distributions: Bernoulli, Binomial, Poisson, Uniform, Exponential, Normal, etc.

Key features probability distributions

## Key features probability distributions

- ▶ Expected value (measure of central tendency):

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \begin{cases} \sum x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

## Key features probability distributions

- ▶ Expected value (measure of central tendency):

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \begin{cases} \sum x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Variance (measure of spread):

$$\mathbb{V}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}(X)]^2.$$

## Key features probability distributions

- ▶ Expected value (measure of central tendency):

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \begin{cases} \sum x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Variance (measure of spread):

$$\mathbb{V}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}(X)]^2.$$

- ▶ Covariance (measure of association):

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])].$$

## Key features probability distributions

- ▶ Expected value (measure of central tendency):

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \begin{cases} \sum x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Variance (measure of spread):

$$\mathbb{V}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}(X)]^2.$$

- ▶ Covariance (measure of association):

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])].$$

- ▶ Notation:  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma^2$ ,  $\sigma_{XY}$ .

# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Law of Large Number:  $\bar{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .



# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Law of Large Number:  $\bar{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- ▶ Central Limit Theorem: after standardisation, the distribution of  $\bar{X}$  approaches a standard Normal distribution.

# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Law of Large Number:  $\bar{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- ▶ Central Limit Theorem: after standardisation, the distribution of  $\bar{X}$  approaches a standard Normal distribution.
- ▶ To standardise, subtract mean and divide by standard deviation:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Law of Large Number:  $\bar{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- ▶ Central Limit Theorem: after standardisation, the distribution of  $\bar{X}$  approaches a standard Normal distribution.
- ▶ To standardise, subtract mean and divide by standard deviation:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

- ▶ Standard Normal distribution:  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sigma^2 = 1$ .

# The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem

- ▶ Law of Large Number:  $\bar{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}(X)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- ▶ Central Limit Theorem: after standardisation, the distribution of  $\bar{X}$  approaches a standard Normal distribution.
- ▶ To standardise, subtract mean and divide by standard deviation:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

- ▶ Standard Normal distribution:  $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$ .
- ▶ Formal notation:  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

What you should know about probability distributions

# What you should know about probability distributions

- ▶ The “story” (first principles).

# What you should know about probability distributions

- ▶ The “story” (first principles).
- ▶ Verify that it *is* a distribution and identify its key features.

# What you should know about probability distributions

- ▶ The “story” (first principles).
- ▶ Verify that it *is* a distribution and identify its key features.
- ▶ How to use (simulate from) the distribution.



# What you should know about probability distributions

- ▶ The “story” (first principles).
- ▶ Verify that it *is* a distribution and identify its key features.
- ▶ How to use (simulate from) the distribution.
- ▶ E.g. `rnorm()`, `dnorm()`, `pnorm()`.

## Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 1.473838
```

# Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 1.473838
```

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 50, sd = 14)
```

```
## [1] 44.27803
```

# Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 1.473838
```

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 50, sd = 14)
```

```
## [1] 44.27803
```

```
rmnorm(1, -5, 7)
```

```
## [1] -20.85814
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)  
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)  
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

```
dnorm(20)
```

```
## [1] 5.520948e-88
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

```
dnorm(20)
```

```
## [1] 5.520948e-88
```

```
dnorm(50)
```

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

## Simulating in **R** (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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



## Simulating in **R** (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

```
pnorm(2) - pnorm(-2)
```

```
## [1] 0.9544997
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

```
pnorm(2) - pnorm(-2)
```

```
## [1] 0.9544997
```

```
pnorm(3) - pnorm(-3)
```

```
## [1] 0.9973002
```

## Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.8698619
```

# Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.8698619
```

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 50, sd = 14)
```

```
## [1] 34.32478
```

# Simulating in R

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
## [1] 0.8698619
```

```
rmnorm(n = 1, mean = 50, sd = 14)
```

```
## [1] 34.32478
```

```
rmnorm(1, -5, 7)
```

```
## [1] 3.651719
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)  
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)  
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

```
dnorm(20)
```

```
## [1] 5.520948e-88
```



## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
x <- seq(-1, 1, 0.5)
dnorm(x)
```

```
## [1] 0.2419707 0.3520653 0.3989423 0.3520653 0.2419707
```

```
dnorm(20)
```

```
## [1] 5.520948e-88
```

```
dnorm(50)
```

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

## Simulating in **R** (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

## Simulating in **R** (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

```
pnorm(2) - pnorm(-2)
```

```
## [1] 0.9544997
```

## Simulating in R (cont.)

```
pnorm(0)
```

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

```
pnorm(1) - pnorm(-1)
```

```
## [1] 0.6826895
```

```
pnorm(2) - pnorm(-2)
```

```
## [1] 0.9544997
```

```
pnorm(3) - pnorm(-3)
```

```
## [1] 0.9973002
```

## The 68-95-99% rule

