

# ME 102: Lecture 5

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## Empirical rule of normal datasets

If a data set is approximately normal with sample mean  $\bar{x}$  and sample standard deviation  $s$ , then the following statements are true.

1. Approximately 68 percent of the observations lie within

$$\bar{x} \pm s$$

2. Approximately 95 percent of the observations lie within

$$\bar{x} \pm 2s$$

3. Approximately 99.7 percent of the observations lie within

$$\bar{x} \pm 3s$$

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## Example Problem

The following stem and leaf plot gives the scores on a statistics exam taken by industrial engineering students.

9	0,1,4
8	3,5,5,7,8
7	2,4,4,5,7,7,8
6	0,2,3,4,6,6
5	2,5,5,6,8
4	3,6

Use it to assess the empirical rule.

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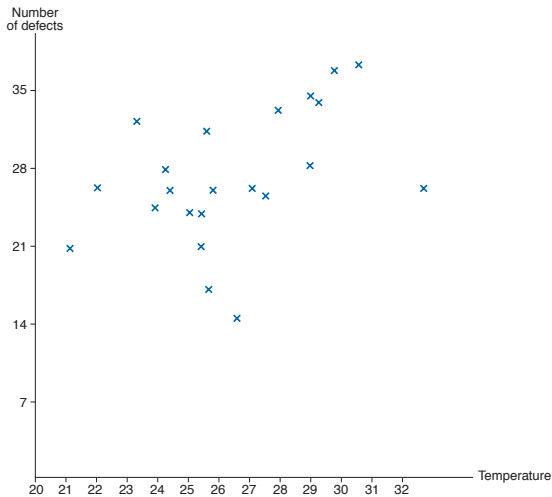
## Paired data sets: Example Problem

TABLE 2.8 *Temperature and Defect Data*

Day	Temperature	Number of Defects
1	24.2	25
2	22.7	31
3	30.5	36
4	28.6	33
5	25.5	19
6	32.0	24
7	28.6	27
8	26.5	25
9	25.3	16
10	26.0	14
11	24.4	22
12	24.8	23
13	20.6	20
14	25.1	25
15	21.4	25
16	23.7	23
17	23.9	27
18	25.2	30
19	27.4	33
20	28.3	32
21	28.8	35
22	26.6	24

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## Example Problem



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## Paired data sets and correlations

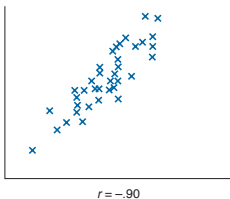
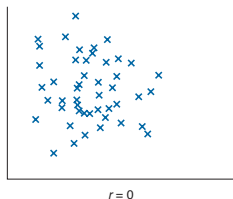
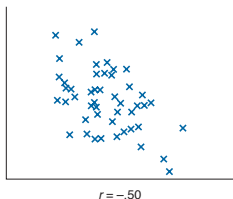
Let  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  denote, respectively, the sample standard deviations of the  $x$  values and the  $y$  values. The sample correlation coefficient, call it  $r$ , of the data pairs  $(x_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$  is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{(n-1)s_x s_y} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \end{aligned}$$

When  $r > 0$  we say that the sample data pairs are positively correlated, and when  $r < 0$  we say that they are negatively correlated.

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## Different correlations



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## Properties of $r$

1.  $-1 \leq r \leq 1$
2. If for constants  $a$  and  $b$ , with  $b > 0$ ,

$$y_i = a + bx_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

then  $r = 1$ .

3. If for constants  $a$  and  $b$ , with  $b < 0$ ,

$$y_i = a + bx_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

then  $r = -1$ .

4. If  $r$  is sample correlation coefficient for the data pairs  $x_i, y_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  then it is also the sample correlation coefficient of the data pairs.

$$a + bx_i, \quad c + dy_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

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provided that  $b$  and  $d$  are both positive or both negative



## Example Problem

The following data gives the resting pulse rates (in beats per minute) and the years of schooling of 10 individuals.

Person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Years of school	12	16	13	18	19	12	18	19	12	14
Pulse rate	73	67	74	63	73	84	60	62	76	71

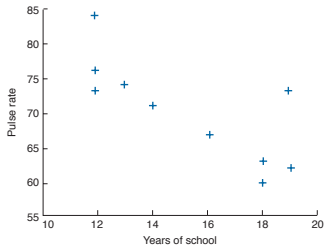
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## Example Problem

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Pulse rate	73	67	74	63	73	84	60	62	76	71	

scatter diagram of these data is presented in the figure. The sample correlation coefficient for these data is  $r = 0.7638$ .



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We will now prove the first three properties of the sample correlation coefficient  $r$ . That is, we will prove that  $|r| \leq 1$  with equality when the data lie on a straight line. To begin, note that,

$$\sum \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} - \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right)^2 \geq 0$$
$$\sum \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{s_x^2} + \sum \frac{(y_i - \bar{y})^2}{s_y^2} - 2 \sum \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{s_x s_y} \geq 0$$
$$n - 1 + n - 1 - 2(n - 1)r \geq 0$$

showing that

$$r \leq 0$$

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Note also that  $r = 1$  if and only if there is equality in first equation on the previous slide. That is,  $r = 1$  if and only if for all  $i$

$$\frac{\bar{y} - y_i}{s_y} = \frac{\bar{x} - x_i}{s_x}$$

$$y_i = \bar{y} - \frac{s_y}{s_x} \bar{x} + \frac{s_y}{s_x} x_i$$

That is,  $r = 1$  if and only if the data values  $(x_i, y_i)$  lie on a straight line having a positive slope.

To show that  $r \geq -1$ , with equality if and only if the data values  $(x_i, y_i)$  lie on a straight line having a negative slope, start with

$$\sum \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} + \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right)^2 \geq 0$$

and use an argument analogous to the one just given.

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## Probability

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## Sample space and Events

This set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is known as the **sample space** of the experiment and is denoted by  $S$ . Some examples are the following.

1. If the outcome of an experiment consists in the determination of the sex of a newborn child, then

$$S = g, b$$

where the outcome  $g$  means that the child is a girl and  $b$  that it is a boy.

2. If the experiment consists of the running of a race among the seven horses having post positions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, then

$$S = \{\text{all orderings of } (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)\}$$

The outcome  $(2, 3, 1, 6, 5, 4, 7)$  means, for instance, that the number 2 horse is first, then the number 3 horse, then the number 1 horse, and so on.

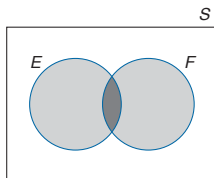
3. Suppose we are interested in determining the amount of dosage that must be given to a patient until that patient reacts positively. One possible sample space for this experiment is to let  $S$  consist of all the positive numbers. That is, let

$$S = (0, \infty)$$

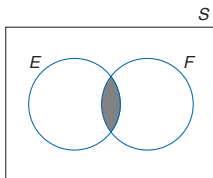
where the outcome would be  $x$  if the patient reacts to a dosage of value  $x$  but not to any smaller dosage.

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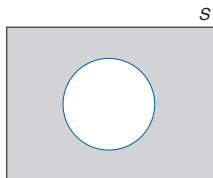
## Venn Diagrams



(a) Shaded region:  $E \cup F$



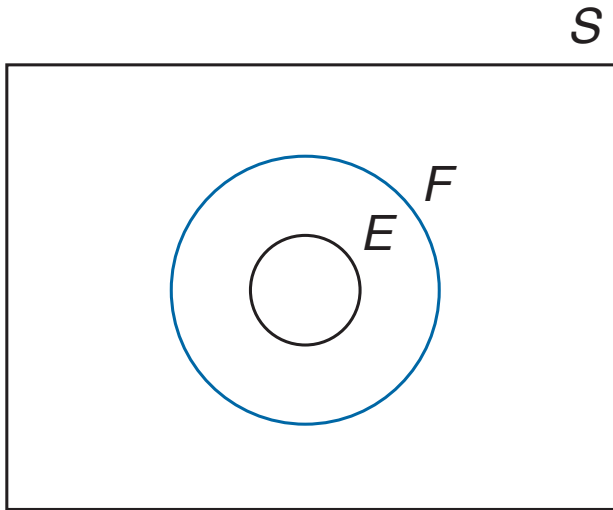
(b) Shaded region:  $EF$



(c) Shaded region:  $E^c$

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## Venn Diagrams



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## Algebra of Events

Commutative Law

$$E \cup F = F \cup E$$

$$EF = FE$$

Associative Law

$$(E \cup F) \cup G = E \cup (F \cup G)$$

$$(EF)G = E(FG)$$

Distributive Law

$$(E \cup F)G = EG \cup FG$$

$$EF \cup G = (E \cup G)(F \cup G)$$

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## Algebra of Events

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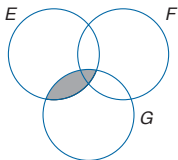
### De Morgan's Laws

$$(E \cup F)^c = E^c F^c$$

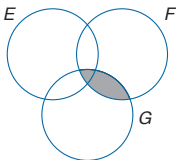
$$(EF)^c = E^c \cup F^c$$

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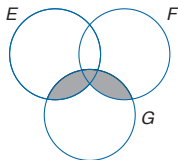
## Proof of Distributive Law



(a) Shaded region:  $EG$



(b) Shaded region:  $FG$



(c) Shaded region:  $(E \cup F)G$   
 $(E \cup F)G = EG \cup FG$

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## Axioms of Probability

### Axiom 1

$$0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$$

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## Axioms of Probability

### Axiom 1

$$0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$$

### Axiom 2

$$P(S) = 1$$

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## Axioms of Probability

### Axiom 1

$$0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$$

### Axiom 2

$$P(S) = 1$$

**Axiom 3** For any sequence of mutually exclusive events  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  (that is, events for which  $E_i E_j = \emptyset$  when  $i \neq j$ ),

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$$

We call  $P(E)$  the probability of the event  $E$ .

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## Proposition 1

Since  $E \cup E^c = S$

$$1 = P(S) = P(E \cup E^c) = P(E) + P(E^c)$$

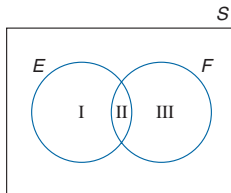
Equivalently

$$P(E^c) = 1 - P(E)$$

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## Proposition 2

$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$$

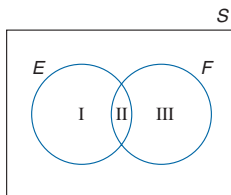


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## Proposition 2

$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$$



### Proof

$$P(E \cup F) = P(I) + P(II) + P(III)$$

$$P(E) = P(I) + P(II)$$

$$P(F) = P(II) + P(III)$$

which shows that

$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$$

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## Sample spaces with equally likely outcomes

For a large number of experiments, it is natural to assume that each point in the sample space is equally likely to occur. That is, for many experiments whose sample space  $S$  is a finite set, say  $S = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ , it is often natural to assume that

$$P(\{1\}) = P(\{2\}) = \dots = P(\{N\}) = p$$

Now it follows from Axioms 2 and 3 that

$$1 = P(S) = P(\{1\}) + P(\{2\}) + \dots + P(\{N\}) = Np$$

which shows that

$$P(\{i\}) = p = \frac{1}{N}$$

from Axiom 3 it follows that for any event  $E$ ,

$$P(E) = \frac{\text{Number of points in } E}{N}$$

In words, if we assume that each outcome of an experiment is equally likely to occur, then the probability of any event  $E$  equals the proportion of points in the sample space that are contained in  $E$ .

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## Generalized Basic Principle of Counting

If  $r$  experiments that are to be performed are such that the first one may result in any of  $n_1$  possible outcomes, and if for each of these  $n_1$  possible outcomes there are  $n_2$  possible outcomes of the second experiment, and if for each of the possible outcomes of the first two experiments there are  $n_3$  possible outcomes of the third experiment, and if, . . . , then there are a total of  $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdots n_r$  possible outcomes of the  $r$  experiments.

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## Generalized Basic Principle of Counting

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### Notation

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

Also since  $0! = 1$

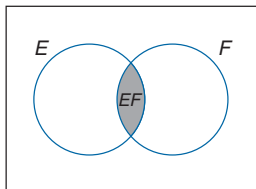
$$\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$$

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# Conditional Probability

Conditional probability of  $E$  given that  $F$  has occurred, and is denoted by

$$P(E|F)$$



A general formula for  $P(E|F)$  that is valid for all events  $E$  and  $F$ . If the event  $F$  occurs, then in order for  $E$  to occur it is necessary that the actual occurrence be a point in both  $E$  and  $F$ ; that is, it must be in  $EF$ . Now, since we know that  $F$  has occurred, it follows that  $F$  becomes our new (reduced) sample space and hence the probability that the event  $EF$  occurs will equal the probability of  $EF$  relative to the probability of  $F$ . That is,

$$P(E|F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)}$$

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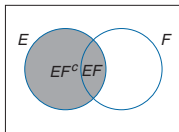
## Bayes Formula

Let  $E$  and  $F$  be events. We may express  $E$  as

$$E = EF \cup EF^c$$

As  $EF$  and  $EF^c$  are clearly mutually exclusive, we have by Axiom 3 that

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= P(EF) + P(EF^c) \\ &= P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)P(F^c) \\ &= P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)[1 - P(F)] \end{aligned}$$



Equation states that the probability of the event  $E$  is a weighted average of the

conditional probability of  $E$  given that  $F$  has occurred and the conditional probability of  $E$  given that  $F$  has not occurred: Each conditional probability is given as much

weight as the event it is conditioned on has of occurring.

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