#### **STAT 111**

#### Recitation 1

#### Mo Huang

Email: mohuang@wharton.upenn.edu

Office Hours: Wednesdays 3:00 - 4:00 pm, JMHH F96

Slides (adapted from Gemma Moran): github.com/mohuangx/STAT111-Fall2018

September 7, 2018

#### Logistics

- ► Section 201: 11:00 am 11:50 am
- Section 202: 12:00 pm 12:50 pm
- Every Friday, I will:
  - 1. Collect the homework for that week;
  - 2. Give you your graded homework; and
  - 3. Give you the homework for the week after (also posted on Canvas).
- ▶ If you do not collect your homework, it will be available in the STAT 111 box in the Statistics Department (4th Floor, JMHH).
- ▶ If you know in advance that you will not be able to attend a recitation, give your homework to Professor Ewens on Thursdays or put it in my mailbox (at entrance to the Statistics Department)
- Questions about course materials should be asked during office hours or in an email to Professor Ewens.

### Statistics and Probability

- ▶ Probability theory is *deductive* (or "top-down logic"). We start with a theory and then consider the implications resulting from that theory.
- Statistics is inductive (or "bottom-up logic"). We start with finite observations and then attempt to make objective statements about the world from a sample.
- Statistical methods use probability theory to draw conclusions from observed data.

### Statistics and Probability: Example

- ▶ We currently cure an illness with some medicine ("current medicine") which cures 80% of patients.
- A new medicine is proposed ("new medicine") which cures 1,643 people out of 2,000.

#### Statistics and Probability: Example

- We currently cure an illness with some medicine ("current medicine") which cures 80% of patients.
- A new medicine is proposed ("new medicine") which cures 1,643 people out of 2,000.

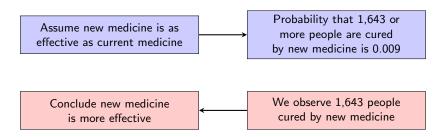
Is the new medicine more effective?

### Statistics and Probability: Example

- ▶ We currently cure an illness with some medicine ("current medicine") which cures 80% of patients.
- A new medicine is proposed ("new medicine") which cures 1,643 people out of 2.000.

#### Is the new medicine more effective?

#### Probability theory

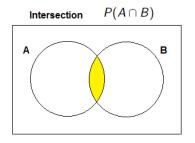


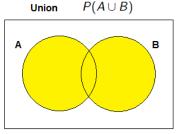
#### Statistics

Probability: Axioms

### Probability: Axioms

- ▶  $0 \le P(A) \le 1$ , where A is any event.
- ▶  $P(A^C) = 1 P(A)$  where  $A^C$  is the complement of A.
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$





Probability: Independence

## Probability: Independence

- ▶ A and B are independent if and only if  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
- ► Conditional probability:  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$

Suppose A and B are independent. Then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$$

So we have two definitions of independence:

- 1.  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
- 2. P(A|B) = P(A)

Q1: A smoke alarm consists of two parts, A and B. If there is smoke, part A will detect it with probability 0.96 and part B will detect it with probability 0.98. The probability that they both detect it is 0.95. What is the probability that smoke will not be detected?

Q1: A smoke alarm consists of two parts, A and B. If there is smoke, part A will detect it with probability 0.96 and part B will detect it with probability 0.98. The probability that they both detect it is 0.95. What is the probability that smoke will not be detected?

A1: Let A be the event that part A detects smoke and let B be the event that part B detects smoke. What is the event that smoke is not detected?

Q1: A smoke alarm consists of two parts, A and B. If there is smoke, part A will detect it with probability 0.96 and part B will detect it with probability 0.98. The probability that they both detect it is 0.95. What is the probability that smoke will not be detected?

A1: Let A be the event that part A detects smoke and let B be the event that part B detects smoke. What is the event that smoke is not detected?

 $A \cup B = \mathsf{Smoke}$  is detected  $\to [A \cup B]^C = \mathsf{Smoke}$  is not detected

- Q1: A smoke alarm consists of two parts, A and B. If there is smoke, part A will detect it with probability 0.96 and part B will detect it with probability 0.98. The probability that they both detect it is 0.95. What is the probability that smoke will not be detected?
- A1: Let A be the event that part A detects smoke and let B be the event that part B detects smoke. What is the event that smoke is not detected?

$$A \cup B = \text{Smoke is detected} \rightarrow [A \cup B]^C = \text{Smoke is not detected}$$

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

$$= 0.96 + 0.98 - 0.95$$

$$= 0.99$$

$$P([A \cup B]^C) = 1 - P(A \cup B)$$

$$= 0.01$$

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

$$P(A) = P(2, 4 \text{ or } 6)$$
  
=  $1/9 + 1/9 + 1/9$   
=  $3/9$ 

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

$$P(A) = P(2, 4 \text{ or } 6)$$
  $P(B) = P(4, 5 \text{ or } 6)$   
=  $1/9 + 1/9 + 1/9$  =  $1/9 + 2/9 + 1/9$   
=  $4/9$ 

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

$$P(A) = P(2, 4 \text{ or } 6)$$
  $P(B) = P(4, 5 \text{ or } 6)$   
 $= 1/9 + 1/9 + 1/9$   $= 1/9 + 2/9 + 1/9$   
 $= 3/9$   $= 4/9$   
 $P(A \cap B) = P(4 \text{ or } 6)$   
 $= 1/9 + 1/9$   
 $= 2/9$ 

Q2: A six-sided die is biased such that an odd number is twice as likely to occur as an even number. That is, the probability of an odd number is 2/9 and an even number is 1/9. Let A be the event that an even number occurs. Let B be the event that a number greater than or equal to 4 occurs. Find P(A), P(B),  $P(A \cup B)$  and  $P(A \cap B)$ .

$$P(A) = P(2, 4 \text{ or } 6)$$
  $P(B) = P(4, 5 \text{ or } 6)$   
 $= 1/9 + 1/9 + 1/9$   $= 1/9 + 2/9 + 1/9$   
 $= 3/9$   $= 4/9$   
 $P(A \cap B) = P(4 \text{ or } 6)$   $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$   
 $= 1/9 + 1/9$   $= 3/9 + 4/9 - 2/9$   
 $= 2/9$   $= 5/9$ 

A2: 
$$P(A) = 3/9$$
,  $P(B) = 4/9$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = 2/9$ ,  $P(A \cup B) = 5/9$ 

Q3: Following Q2, find P(A|B).

A2: 
$$P(A) = 3/9$$
,  $P(B) = 4/9$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = 2/9$ ,  $P(A \cup B) = 5/9$ 

Q3: Following Q2, find P(A|B).

A3:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
$$= \frac{2/9}{4/9}$$
$$= 1/2$$

A2: 
$$P(A) = 3/9$$
,  $P(B) = 4/9$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = 2/9$ ,  $P(A \cup B) = 5/9$ 

Q3: Following Q2, find P(A|B).

A3:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
$$= \frac{2/9}{4/9}$$
$$= 1/2$$

Q4: Are A and B independent?

A2: 
$$P(A) = 3/9$$
,  $P(B) = 4/9$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = 2/9$ ,  $P(A \cup B) = 5/9$ 

Q3: Following Q2, find P(A|B).

A3:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
$$= \frac{2/9}{4/9}$$
$$= 1/2$$

Q4: Are A and B independent?

A4: No, because  $P(A|B) \neq P(A)$ . (Recall P(A) = 1/3).

Q5: An unfair coin (P(H) = 0.4) was flipped twice. Given that on at least one flip a head occurred, what is the probability that a head occurred on both flips?

Q5: An unfair coin (P(H) = 0.4) was flipped twice. Given that on at least one flip a head occurred, what is the probability that a head occurred on both flips?

A5: We want to find P(HH|at least one H).

Q5: An unfair coin (P(H) = 0.4) was flipped twice. Given that on at least one flip a head occurred, what is the probability that a head occurred on both flips?

A5: We want to find P(HH|at least one H).

$$P(\text{at least one } H) = P(HH) + P(HT) + P(TH)$$
$$= (0.4)^2 + (0.4)(0.6) + (0.6)(0.4)$$
$$= 0.64.$$

Q5: An unfair coin (P(H) = 0.4) was flipped twice. Given that on at least one flip a head occurred, what is the probability that a head occurred on both flips?

A5: We want to find P(HH|at least one H).

$$P(\text{at least one } H) = P(HH) + P(HT) + P(TH)$$

$$= (0.4)^{2} + (0.4)(0.6) + (0.6)(0.4)$$

$$= 0.64.$$

$$P(HH|\text{at least one } H) = \frac{P(HH \cap \text{at least one } H)}{P(\text{at least one } H)}$$

$$= \frac{P(HH)}{P(\text{at least one } H)}$$

$$= \frac{(0.4)^{2}}{0.64}$$

$$= 0.25$$

▶ A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.

▶ A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.

#### Fair coin-flipping example:

A parameter  $\theta$  is the underlying probability of obtaining a head.  $\theta = 0.5$ .

- ► A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.
- ▶ A random variable is a numerical outcome of interest in a future experiment. Can be modeled by a probability distribution which depends on the parameter. Represented by capital letters.

#### Fair coin-flipping example:

A parameter  $\theta$  is the underlying probability of obtaining a head.  $\theta = 0.5$ .

- ► A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.
- ➤ A random variable is a numerical outcome of interest in a future experiment. Can be modeled by a probability distribution which depends on the parameter. Represented by capital letters.

#### Fair coin-flipping example:

- ightharpoonup A parameter  $\theta$  is the underlying probability of obtaining a head.  $\theta = 0.5$ .
- A random variable X is the number of heads obtained in 10 tosses. Can be modeled by a binomial distribution dependent on  $\theta$ .

- ► A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.
- ▶ A random variable is a numerical outcome of interest in a future experiment. Can be modeled by a probability distribution which depends on the parameter. Represented by capital letters.
- ▶ Data is the realization or observed value of a random variable after performing the experiment. Represented by lower-case letters.

#### Fair coin-flipping example:

- ightharpoonup A parameter  $\theta$  is the underlying probability of obtaining a head.  $\theta = 0.5$ .
- A random variable X is the number of heads obtained in 10 tosses. Can be modeled by a binomial distribution dependent on  $\theta$ .

- ► A parameter represents some underlying numerical constant of a phenomenon. Represented by Greek letters.
- ▶ A random variable is a numerical outcome of interest in a future experiment. Can be modeled by a probability distribution which depends on the parameter. Represented by capital letters.
- Data is the realization or observed value of a random variable after performing the experiment. Represented by lower-case letters.

#### Fair coin-flipping example:

- A parameter  $\theta$  is the underlying probability of obtaining a head.  $\theta = 0.5$ .
- A random variable X is the number of heads obtained in 10 tosses. Can be modeled by a binomial distribution dependent on  $\theta$ .
- ▶ Data x = 6 is observing 6 heads in 10 tosses, a realization of X.

#### Random Variables

- ► Two types of random variables: discrete and continuous.
- A discrete random variable is a random variable that can only take on a countable set of numbers.
- ► The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is the range of values it can take *and* the probabilities of these values.

#### Random Variables

- ► Two types of random variables: discrete and continuous.
- A discrete random variable is a random variable that can only take on a countable set of numbers.
- ► The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is the range of values it can take *and* the probabilities of these values.
- ► For example:
  - Let X be the number of heads I toss if I toss a fair coin 3 times.

#### Random Variables

- ► Two types of random variables: discrete and continuous.
- A discrete random variable is a random variable that can only take on a countable set of numbers.
- ► The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is the range of values it can take *and* the probabilities of these values.
- For example:
  - Let X be the number of heads I toss if I toss a fair coin 3 times.

X	0	1	2	3
P(X=x)	0.125	0.375	0.375	0.125

Table: Probability distribution of X.

### Random Variables: Mean

► The mean of a random variable (expected value) is the long-run average of realizations of the random variable over repeated experiments.

### Random Variables: Mean

- ► The mean of a random variable (expected value) is the long-run average of realizations of the random variable over repeated experiments.
- ▶ This mean of random variable X is different from the sample mean, which is the average of a *finite* number of observations (x).

#### Random Variables: Mean

- ► The mean of a random variable (expected value) is the long-run average of realizations of the random variable over repeated experiments.
- ▶ This mean of random variable X is different from the sample mean, which is the average of a *finite* number of observations (x).
- Let X be a discrete random variable that can take values  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ . Then the mean of X is given by:

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{k} v_i P(X = v_i)$$

$$= v_1 P(X = v_1) + v_2 P(X = v_2) + \dots + v_k P(X = v_k).$$

Note: We use  $\mu$  to denote the mean of a random variable.

Note: Can think of it as a weighted average, weighted by probability.

► The binomial distribution arises if:

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".
  - 3. The experiments are independent.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".
  - 3. The experiments are independent.
  - 4. The probability of a success is the same for each experiment.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".
  - 3. The experiments are independent.
  - 4. The probability of a success is the same for each experiment.
- ► For example:

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.

- ► For example:
  - 1. I plan to toss a coin n times.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".

- ► For example:
  - 1. I plan to toss a coin n times.
  - 2. I can toss either a head or a tail.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".
  - 3. The experiments are independent.

#### ► For example:

- 1. I plan to toss a coin *n* times.
- 2. I can toss either a head or a tail.
- Each coin toss is independent of the next it doesn't matter whether I get a head or a tail on the previous toss.

- ► The binomial distribution arises if:
  - 1. We plan to conduct a fixed number of experiments. We denote the number of experiments as *n*.
  - 2. In each experiment, there are two outcomes: "success" or "failure".
  - 3. The experiments are independent.
  - 4. The probability of a success is the same for each experiment.

#### ► For example:

- 1. I plan to toss a coin *n* times.
- 2. I can toss either a head or a tail.
- Each coin toss is independent of the next it doesn't matter whether I get a head or a tail on the previous toss.
- 4. The probability of getting a head is the same for each toss.

Let X be a binomial random variable where  $\theta = P(\text{success})$  and there are n experiments. Then the probability distribution of X is given by:

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{n-x}, \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Let X be a binomial random variable where  $\theta = P(\text{success})$  and there are n experiments. Then the probability distribution of X is given by:

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{n-x}, \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n.$$

 $\theta$  is called a parameter: a constant whose value may be known or unknown.

Let X be a binomial random variable where  $\theta = P(\text{success})$  and there are n experiments. Then the probability distribution of X is given by:

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{n-x}, \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n.$$

- $\theta$  is called a parameter: a constant whose value may be known or unknown.
- $\binom{n}{x}$  is said as "n choose x": it is the number of ways x successes can occur in n experiments.

Let X be a binomial random variable where  $\theta = P(\text{success})$  and there are n experiments. Then the probability distribution of X is given by:

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{n-x}, \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n.$$

- $m{ heta}$  is called a parameter: a constant whose value may be known or unknown.
- $\binom{n}{x}$  is said as "n choose x": it is the number of ways x successes can occur in n experiments.

Note:  $X \sim \mathcal{B}(n, \theta)$  means "X is a binomial random variable with n experiments and probability of success  $\theta$ ."

## The Binomial Distribution: Mean

For the binomial distribution, we have a simpler formula for the mean: if  $X \sim \mathcal{B}(n, \theta)$ , then the mean of X is

$$\mu = n\theta$$
.

### The Binomial Distribution: Mean

For the binomial distribution, we have a simpler formula for the mean: if  $X \sim \mathcal{B}(n, \theta)$ , then the mean of X is

$$\mu = n\theta$$
.

- ► For example:
  - ▶ On the previous slide, we calculated the mean of a binomial random variable with n = 3 and  $\theta = 0.5$  to be 1.5. This is exactly  $n\theta$ .

#### The Binomial Distribution: Mean

For the binomial distribution, we have a simpler formula for the mean: if  $X \sim \mathcal{B}(n, \theta)$ , then the mean of X is

$$\mu = n\theta$$
.

- ► For example:
  - ▶ On the previous slide, we calculated the mean of a binomial random variable with n=3 and  $\theta=0.5$  to be 1.5. This is exactly  $n\theta$ .

Note: This formula is *only* for the binomial distribution.