

Basic Probability Concepts

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An Introduction to R

- 1 Random Variables
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 - Manifest and Latent Random Variables
 - Continuous and Discrete Random Variables
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 - The Multivariate Normal Distribution
 - The Lognormal Distribution
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Random Variables

Random Variables

- The term *random variable* has a technical definition that we discussed in Psychology 310
- For our purposes, it will suffice to consider a random variable to be a random process with numerical outcomes that occur according to a distribution law

Example (Uniform (0,1) Random Variable)

A random process that generates numbers so that all values between 0 and 1, inclusive, are equally likely to occur is said to have a $U(0,1)$ distribution.

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Manifest and Latent Variables

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- In advanced applications, we will refer to *manifest* and *latent* random variables
- A variable is manifest if it can be measured directly
- A variable is latent if it is an assumed quantity that cannot be measured directly
- The dividing line between manifest and latent variables is often rather imprecise

Example (Manifest Variable)

Your grade on an exam is a manifest random variable.

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Continuous and Discrete Random Variables

- A continuous random variable has an uncountably infinite number of possible outcomes because it can take on all values over some range of the number line
- A discrete random variable takes on only a countable number of discrete outcomes
- As we saw in Psychology 310, discrete random variables can assign a probability to a particular numerical outcome, while continuous random variables cannot

Example (Discrete Random Variable)

Suppose you assign the number 1 to all people born male, and 2 to all people born female. This random variable is discrete, because it takes on only the values 1 and 2.

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- Probability distributions are frequently used to provide succinct models for quantities of scientific interest
- We observe distributions of data, and assess how well the distributions conform to the specified model
- While observing the distribution of the data, we may hypothesize the general family of the distribution, but leave open the question of the values of the parameters
- In that case, we talk of *free parameters* to be estimated

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More Complex Applications

Using Probability Distributions

- In more complex applications, such as multilevel modeling, we may model data emanating from a particular distribution family at one level (say kids within a school)
- At another level, we might model the parameters for the schools as having a distribution across schools
- For example, we might hypothesize that the parameters across schools have a normal distribution
- In that case, the size of the variance of that distribution would indicate how much the schools show variation on a particular characteristic
- In the slides that follow, we shall examine some of the more useful distributions we will encounter early in the course

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The Normal Distribution

The Normal Distribution

- The *normal distribution* is a widely used continuous distribution
- The normal distribution family is a two-parameter family
- Each normal distribution is characterized by two parameters, the mean μ and the standard deviation σ .
- Shaped like a bell, the normal pdf is sometimes referred to as the *bell curve*
- The *central limit theorem*, discussed on pages 13–14 of Gelman & Hill, explains why many quantities have a distribution that is approximately normal
- The normal distribution family is *closed under linear transformations*, i.e., any normal distribution may be transformed into any other normal distribution by a linear transformation

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The Multivariate Normal Distribution

The Multivariate Normal Distribution

- The *multivariate normal distribution* is a continuous multivariate distribution having two matrix parameters, the vector of means μ and the covariance matrix Σ
- Any linear combination of multi-normal variables has a normal distribution
- As we saw in Psychology 310, the mean and variance of the linear combination is determined by μ , Σ , and the linear weights

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- If X is normally distributed, then $y = e^x$ is said to have a *lognormal* distribution. If Y is lognormally distributed, the logarithm of Y has a normal distribution
- In R, `dlnorm` gives the density, `plnorm` gives the distribution function, `qlnorm` gives the quantile function, and `rlnorm` generates random deviates

The Lognormal Distribution

Some Basic Facts

The Lognormal Distribution

- It is common, when referring to a normal distribution, to use the abbreviations $N(\mu, \sigma)$ or $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
- It is important to realize that, when referring to a lognormal distribution for a variable Y , the convention is to refer to the parameters μ and σ *from the corresponding normal variable* $X = \ln(Y)$
- In this case, the actual mean and variance of Y are not μ and σ^2 , but rather are

$$E(Y) = e^{\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2},$$
$$\text{Var}(Y) = (e^{\sigma^2} - 1)e^{2\mu + \sigma^2}$$

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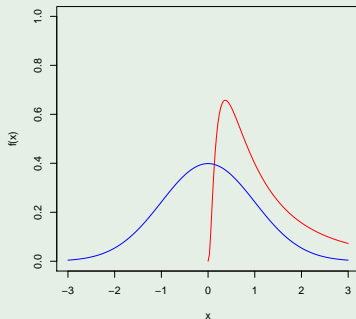
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Example (The Lognormal Distribution)

Here is a picture comparing the lognormal and corresponding normal distribution.



The Lognormal Distribution

Applications

Applications of the Lognormal

- When independent processes combine multiplicatively, the result can be lognormally distributed
- For a detailed and entertaining discussion of the lognormal distribution, see the article by Limpert, Stahel, and Abbt (2001) in the reading list

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The Binomial Distribution

- This discrete distribution is one of the foundations of modern categorical data analysis
- The binomial random variable X represents the number of “successes” in N outcomes of a *binomial process*
- A binomial process is characterized by
 - N independent trials
 - Only two outcomes, arbitrarily designated “success” and “failure”
 - Probabilities of success and failure remain constant over trials
- Many interesting real world processes only approximately meet the above specifications
- Nevertheless, the binomial is often an excellent approximation

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Characteristics of the Binomial Distribution

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- The binomial distribution is a two-parameter family, N is the number of trials, p the probability of success
- The binomial has pdf

$$Pr(X = r) = \binom{N}{r} p^r (1 - p)^{N-r}$$

- The mean and variance of the binomial are

$$E(X) = Np$$

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Normal Approximation to the Binomial

- The $B(N, p)$ distribution is well approximated by a $N(Np, Np(1 - p))$ distribution as long as p is not too far removed from .5 and N is reasonably large
- A good rule of thumb is that both Np and $N(1 - p)$ must be greater than 5
- The approximation can be further improved by *correcting for continuity*

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The Poisson Distribution

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- When events arrive without any systematic “clustering,” i.e., they arrive with a known average rate in a fixed time period but each event arrives at a time independent of the time since the last event, the exact integer number of events can be modeled with the Poisson distribution
- The Poisson is a single parameter family, the parameter being λ , the expected number of events in the interval of interest
- For a Poisson random variable X , the probability of exactly r events is

$$Pr(X = r) = \frac{\lambda^r e^{-\lambda}}{r!}$$

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- The Poisson is a single parameter family, the parameter being λ , the expected number of events in the interval of interest
- For a Poisson random variable X , the probability of exactly r events is

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Characteristics of the Poisson Distribution

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- The Poisson is used widely to model occurrences of low probability events
- A random variable X having a Poisson distribution with parameter λ has mean and variance given by

$$E(X) = \lambda$$

$$Var(X) = \lambda$$

Sampling Distributions

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- As discussed in your introductory course, we frequently sample from a population and obtain a statistic as an estimate of some key quantity
- Over repeated samples, these estimates show variability
- This variability is like noise, degrading the signal that is the parameter
- The known or hypothetical *sampling distribution* of the statistic allows us to gauge how accurate our parameter estimate is (at least in the long run)

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- For any hypothesized value of p , this tells us, through our knowledge of the normal distribution, how likely we would be to observe a value of .47
- We can use this, in turn, to evaluate which values of p are “reasonable” in some sense

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Confidence Intervals

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- A *confidence interval* is a numerical interval constructed on the basis of data
- Such an interval is called a 95% (or .95) confidence interval if it is constructed so that it contains the true parameter value at least 95% of the time *in the long run*
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Simple Normal Theory Confidence Intervals

Normal Theory Confidence Intervals

- In Psychology 310 we learned about simple symmetric confidence intervals based on the normal distribution
- If a statistic $\hat{\theta}$ used to estimate a parameter θ has a normal sampling distribution with mean θ and sampling variance $Var(\hat{\theta})$, then we may construct a 95% confidence interval for θ as

$$\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96\sqrt{Var(\hat{\theta})}$$

- In general, a consistent estimator $\widehat{Var}(\hat{\theta})$ may be substituted for $Var(\hat{\theta})$ in the above

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- As we saw in Psychology 310, frequently linear combinations of parameters are of interest
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Example (Confidence Intervals Via Simulation)

- An example of the simulation approach can be found on page 20 of Gelman & Hill
- They assume that, with $N = 500$ per group, the distribution of the sample proportion can be approximated very accurately with a normal distribution
- In the problem of interest, the experimenter has observed sample proportions \hat{p}_1 and \hat{p}_2 , each based on samples of 500
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- For each pair, the ratio \hat{p}_1/\hat{p}_2 is computed
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