

# STAT 102: Week 9

**Ricky's Section**

# Introductions and Attendance

**Introduction:** Name

**Question of the Week:** What is one word to describe your Spring Break?

# Midterm Recap

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## Overall...

- We're very proud of all your learning/growth!
  - Many of you came in with no coding background
- Be sure you're making the most of all the resources
  - Workshop, section, OH, 1-on-1 OH, Slack
- Improvement is taken into consideration

## Some Important Things I Noticed

- Set a timer on the Oral Component
- Don't "over-explain" an answer—just say what you need
- Remember the 3 ways power can increase
- Remember the differences between Type I error and Type II error (and if they can occur)

## Debrief

- Thoughts? Questions? Comments? Concerns?
- Anything you found surprising?
- Any concepts you want me to go over?
- We also can skip this if everyone just wants to move on

# **Content Review: Week 9**

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# Foundations of Probability

- **Probability**: A value between 0 and 1 (intuitively, a “long-term frequency”)
  - **Naive probability** is all favorable outcomes / all possible outcomes
  - *Ex: Probability of getting dealt an ace is  $4/52 = 0.077$*
- **Outcome**: Result after conducting an **experiment**
  - *Ex: After the experiment, I get dealt the ace of hearts*
- **Sample space**: Set of all possible **outcomes** of **experiment**
  - *Ex: There are 52 cards I could've been dealt*
- **Event**: Collection of **outcomes**
  - *Ex: The event I get dealt an ace is the collection of 4 specific outcomes*
  - *If  $A$  = the event I get dealt an ace, then  $P(A) = 0.077$*



# More on Probability

- **Disjoint events**: Events that CANNOT occur at the same time
  - *Ex: The event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt a king are disjoint*
  - *Now, the event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt a red card are NOT disjoint. Why?*
- **Independent events**: Knowing one event happens gives no info on the other
  - *Ex: If I flip a fair coin twice, the event I get heads on the 1st flip and the event I get heads on the 2nd flip are independent*
  - *Now, the event I get dealt an ace and the event I get dealt another ace afterwards (assuming no reshuffling) are NOT independent. Why?*
- **Conditional probability**:  $P(A | B)$  is probability of A, knowing B occurred
  - *Ex: Given I got dealt a red card, what is the probability I got dealt the ace of hearts? It's NOT  $1/52$  anymore. Why?*

# Our Toolkit

- **Union**:  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
- **Intersection**:  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B | A) = P(B) P(A | B)$
- **Complement Rule**:  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^C)$ ,  $P(A | B) = 1 - P(A^C | B)$
- **Def. of Conditional Probability**:  $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$
- **Bayes' Rule**:  $P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B)$
- **LOTP**:  $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^C) P(B^C)$

# Union and Disjoint Events

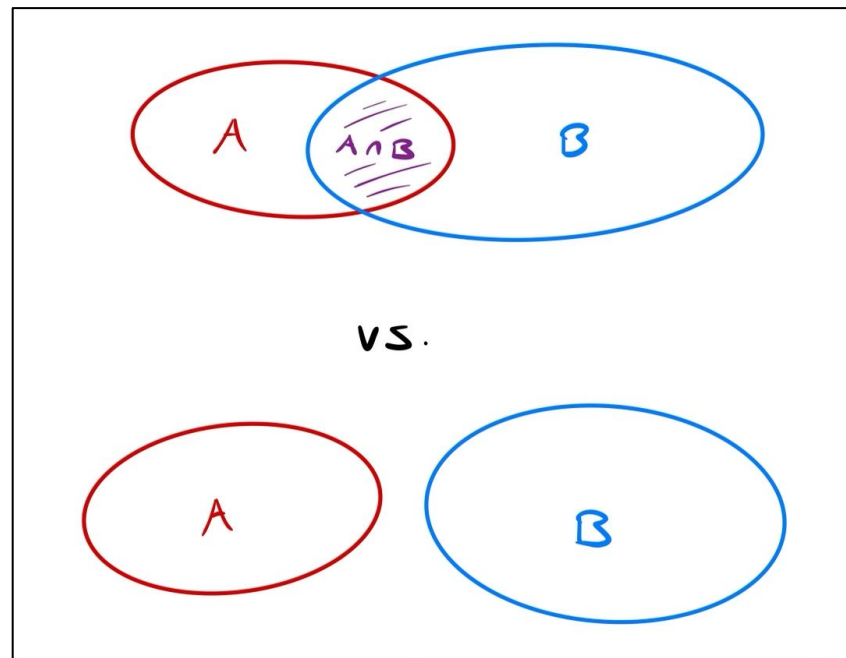
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

- *Ex: Probability of getting a king or a red card is  $4/52 + 26/52 - 2/52 = 28/52$*

- What happens if A and B are **disjoint**?

- $P(A \cap B) = 0$  because A and B cannot occur simultaneously
  - Thus, for **disjoint events**,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

- Use Venn diagrams



# Intersection and Independent Events

- $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B | A) = P(A | B) P(B)$

- *Ex: Probability of getting a king and getting a red card is  $(1/13)(2/4) = 2/52$*

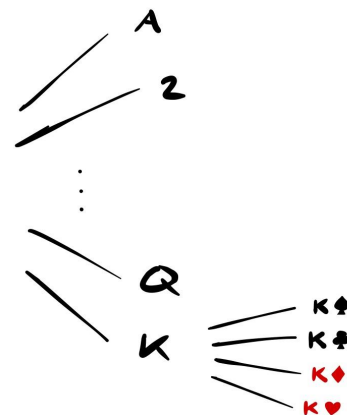
- What happens if A and B are **independent**?

- $P(B | A) = P(B)$  because A happening gives no information on B
  - Thus, for **independent events**,  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$

- $P(A \cap B)$  is  $P(A)$  and  $P(B, \text{ given } A)$

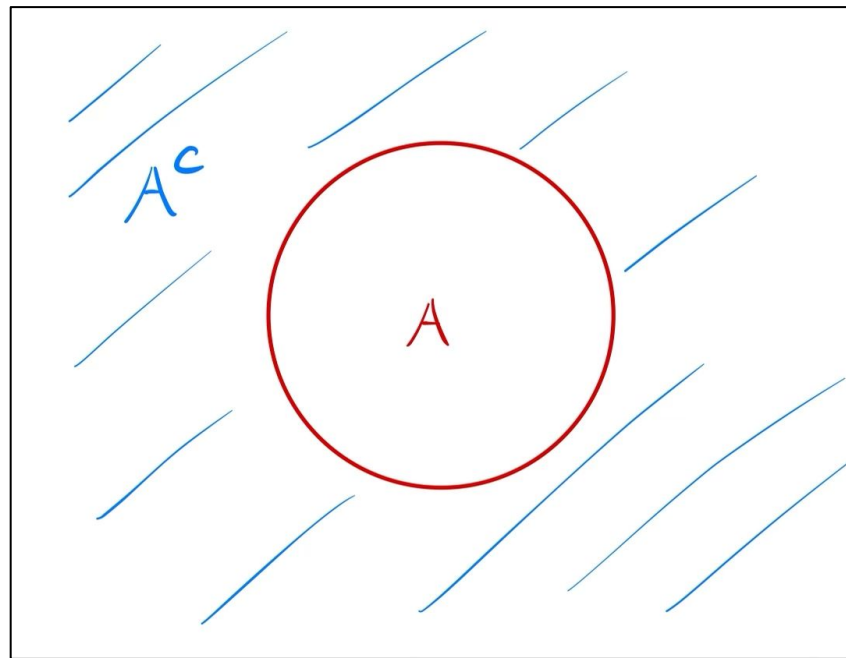
$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B | A)$$

$$P(\text{getting a king and getting a red card}) = (1/13)(2/4)$$



# Complement Rule

- $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$ 
  - *Ex: Probability of rolling a 6 ( $\frac{1}{6}$ ) is 1 minus probability of NOT rolling a 6 ( $1 - \frac{5}{6}$ )*
  - This is because all possible outcomes in sample space sum to 1
- **Conditional probabilities** are still probabilities, so...
  - $P(A | B) = 1 - P(A^c | B)$
- Use Venn diagrams

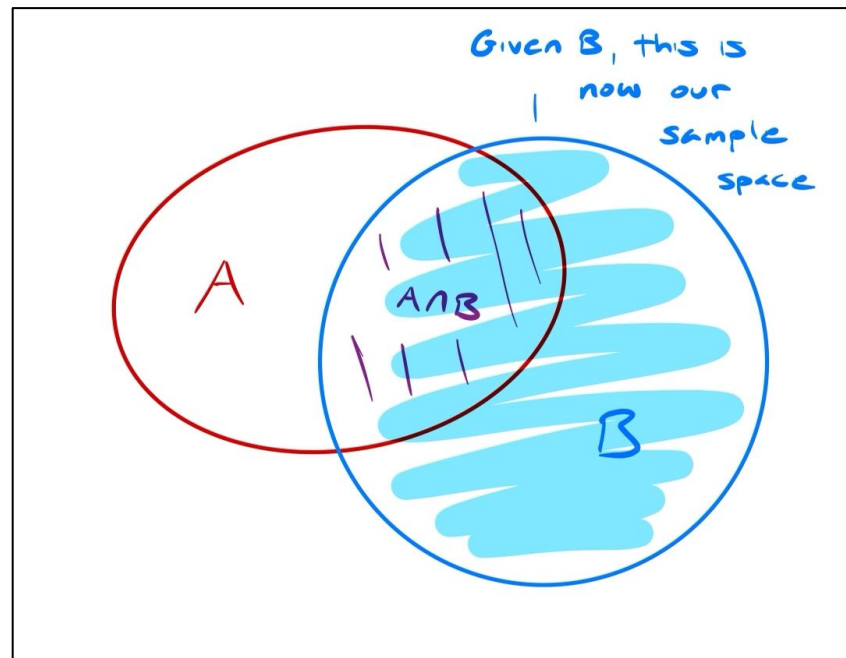


# Conditional Probability

- Two ways to tackle this
- $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$  by definition
  - **Conditioning** on B means we now live in B—it's our new sample space
  - Divide by  $P(B)$  so the total prob. is 1
- $P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B)$  by

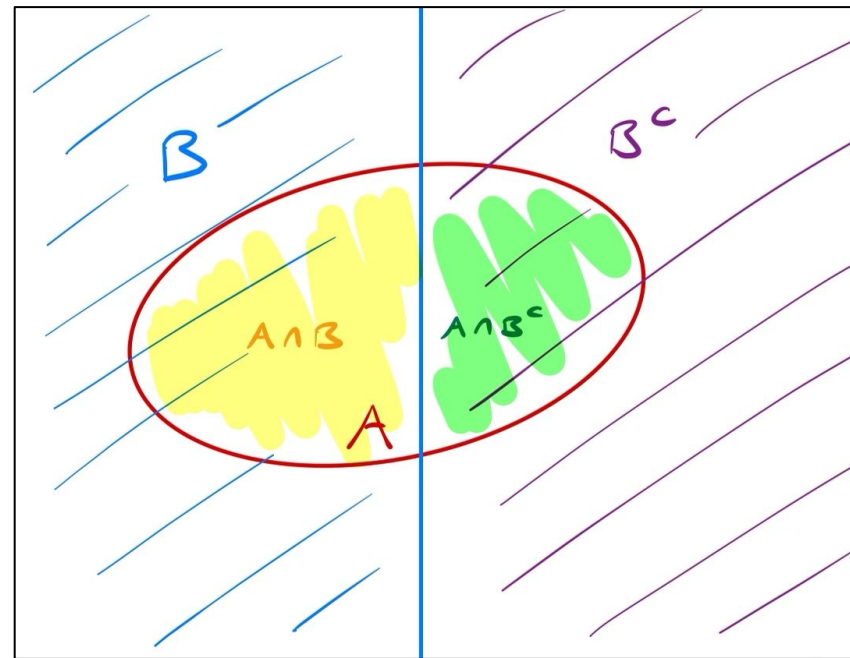
## Bayes' Rule

- Remember the definition of **intersection** from two slides ago?
- Use Venn diagrams



# Law of Total Probability (LOTP)

- $P(A) = P(A \mid B) P(B) + P(A \mid B^C) P(B^C)$
- What are the two ways  $P(A)$  can happen?
  - We can partition the **sample space** with  $B$  and  $B^C$
  - $P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^C)$
  - By **intersection** and **disjoint**,  $P(A) = P(A \mid B) P(B) + P(A \mid B^C) P(B^C)$
- Use Venn diagrams



# Recapping Our Toolkit: Notes

- **Union:**  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ 
  - For **disjoint** events,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$  because  $P(A \cap B) = 0$
- **Intersection:**  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B | A) = P(B) P(A | B)$ 
  - For **independent** events,  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$  because  $P(A | B) = P(A)$
- **Complement Rule:**  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^C)$ ,  $P(A | B) = 1 - P(A^C | B)$ 
  - Use when you see “**at least**” (e.g., “Find the probability of rolling a 5+ at least once in 3 rolls”)
- **Def. of Conditional Probability:**  $P(A | B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$
- **Bayes’ Rule:**  $P(A | B) = P(B | A) P(A) / P(B)$
- **LOTP:**  $P(A) = P(A | B) P(B) + P(A | B^C) P(B^C)$ 
  - Use for **wishful thinking** (e.g., “I really wish I knew which factory the cone came from”)
- In general with probability, **start by defining events**



# One More Probability!

- **Positive predictive value (PPV)**: In a diagnostic test, the probability that a person has the disease, given that they tested positive for it (**true positive**)
- $PPV = P(D | T^+)$ , where  $D$  is event of having disease and  $T^+$  is event of testing positive

$$\begin{aligned} P(D|T^+) &= \frac{P(D \cap T^+)}{P(T^+)} = \frac{P(D \cap T^+)}{P(D \cap T^+) + P(D^c \cap T^+)} = \frac{P(T^+|D)P(D)}{P(T^+|D)P(D) + P(T^+|D^c)P(D^c)} \\ &= \frac{(\text{sens})(\text{prev})}{(\text{sens})(\text{prev}) + (1 - \text{spec})(1 - \text{prev})} \end{aligned}$$

What are the 2 main strategies for finding unconditional probability, such as  $P(A)$ ?

# Question:

What are the 2 main strategies for finding unconditional probability, such as  $P(A)$ ?

Complement rule and LOTP.

We often use complement for “at least” (e.g., “Find the probability of rolling a 5+ at least once in 3 rolls”).

We often use LOTP for “wishful thinking” (e.g., “I really wish I knew which factory the cone came from”).

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If I roll a fair 6-sided dice twice, what is the probability that I land 5 or higher at least once?

## Question:

If I roll a fair 6-sided dice twice, what is the probability that I land 5 or higher at least once?

By **complement rule**,  $P(\text{rolling } 5+ \text{ at least once}) = 1 - P(\text{not rolling } 5+ \text{ either turn})$ .

Since rolls are **independent**,  $P(\text{not rolling } 5+ \text{ either turn}) = P(\text{not rolling } 5+ \text{ on a turn}) \times P(\text{not rolling } 5+ \text{ on a turn})$ .

We know  $P(\text{not rolling } 5+ \text{ on a turn}) = 4/6 = 2/3$ . Thus,  $1 - (2/3)(2/3) = 5/9$ .

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Every upperclassman has a probability  $p$  of buying a scooter. If they live in the Quad,  $p = 1/10$ . Otherwise,  $p = 1/20$ . What is the probability a randomly selected upperclassman buys a scooter?

## Question:

Every upperclassman has a probability  $p$  of buying a scooter. If they live in the Quad,  $p = 1/10$ . Otherwise,  $p = 1/20$ . What is the probability a randomly selected upperclassman buys a scooter?

Let  $B$  be the event they buy a scooter and  $Q$  be the event they're in the Quad.

$P(B) = P(B \mid Q) P(Q) + P(B \mid Q^C) P(Q^C)$   
by LOTP.  $P(B) = (1/10)(3/12) + (1/20)(9/12) = 0.0625$ .

Notice the “wishful thinking”—we really wanted to know whether they were in the Quad or not.

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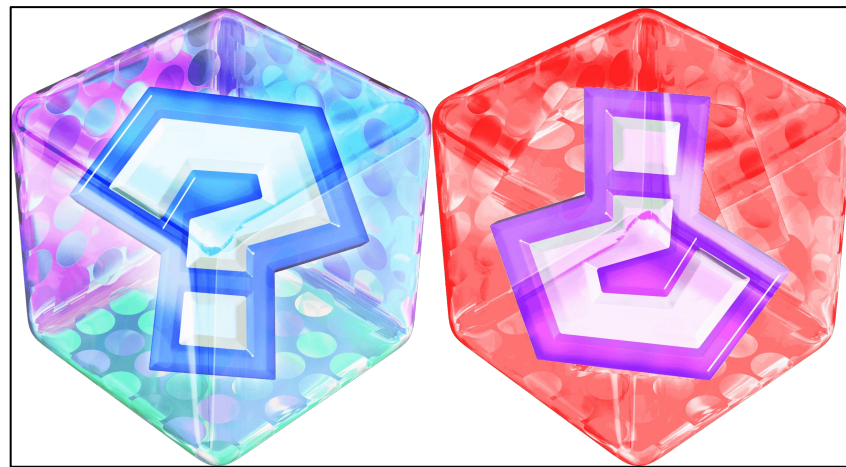
# Random Variables

- **Random variable**: A function that maps each **event** in the **sample space** to a number
- Intuitively, think of a r.v. as an unknown value that “crystallizes” to a certain number AFTER an **experiment**
  - *Ex:  $X$  is a r.v. for the number of heads I get after flipping 10 coins.  $X$  could be 0, 1, ..., or 10. After the experiment, it “crystallizes” to one of those numbers.*



# A Silly (but Helpful) Intuition for Random Variables

- Think of **random variables** as mystery boxes in Mario Kart
- It's unknown what it will crystallize to, but we can still describe the random variable with probabilities
  - For example, there's a pretty low probability this random variable will crystallize to a bullet bill



## Two Types of Random Variables

- **Discrete r.v.s**: Can crystallize to countable numbers
- Usually, **discrete r.v.s** are counted
  - *Ex: The number of people who show up to a party tomorrow (could be 0, 1, 2, ...)*

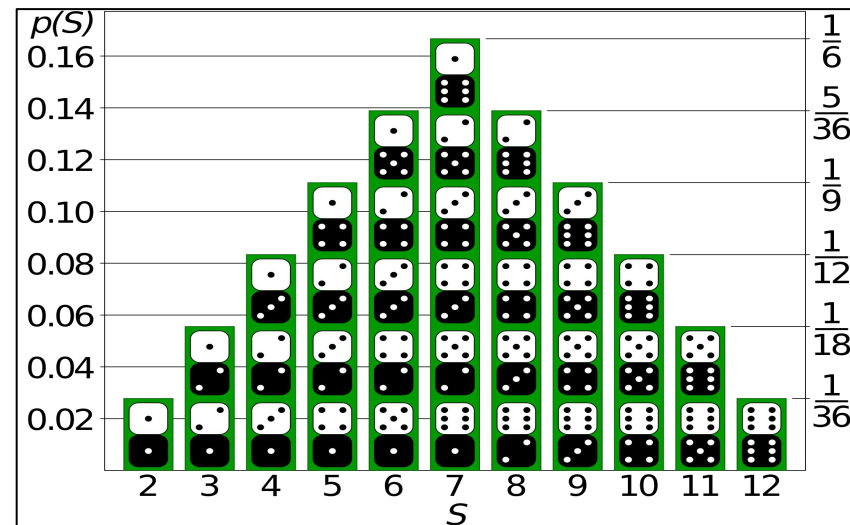
- **Continuous r.v.s**: Can crystallize to any real number in an interval
- Usually, **continuous r.v.s** are measured
  - *Ex: The temperature at noon tomorrow (could be any real number above absolute zero)*

# Probability Distributions

- **Probability distributions**: Functions that give probabilities of all possible outcomes for a **r.v.**
  - Intuitively, it describes a **r.v.** through its probabilities
  - We can learn a lot about a **r.v.** by its **probability distribution**
- For **discrete r.v.s**, we use **Probability Mass Functions (PMFs)**
  - $f(x) = P(X = x_i)$
  - “Probability of big X (r.v.) crystallizing to little x (a certain value)”
- For **continuous r.v.s**, we use **Probability Density Functions (PDFs)**
  - $f(x)$ , where  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$
  - For continuous r.v.s, the probability of X crystallizing to a certain value is 0, so we’re concerned with X crystallizing to any value within some interval

# PMFs for Discrete Random Variables

- **PMF**:  $f(x) = P(X = x_i)$ 
  - “Probability of big X (r.v.) crystallizing to little x (a certain value)”
- **PMF must sum to 1**
  - Intuitively, all possible probabilities should sum to 1



$x_i$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
$P(X = x_i)$	1/36	2/36	3/36	4/36	5/36	6/36	5/36	4/36	3/36	2/36	1/36

## Expected Value, Variance, and SD

- These are useful **summary statistics** to describe a **r.v.**
- **Expected value**: Weighted **mean** of a **r.v.**
  - $E(X) = \sum x_i P(X = x_i) = \mu$
  - We're weighing each possible crystallization by its probability
- **Variance**: Measure of **spread** of a **r.v.**
  - $\text{Var}(X) = \sum (x_i - \mu)^2 P(X = x_i) = \sigma^2$
- **SD**: Average distance of all points from the **mean** of a **r.v.**
  - $\text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} = \sigma$

What is the expected value of a dice roll? Interpret the meaning in context.

# Question:

What is the expected value of a dice roll? Interpret the meaning in context.

Formula:  $E(X) = \sum x_i P(X = x_i)$ .

X, the **r.v.** for the value of a dice roll, can “crystallize” to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 (with  $\frac{1}{6}$  probability of each).

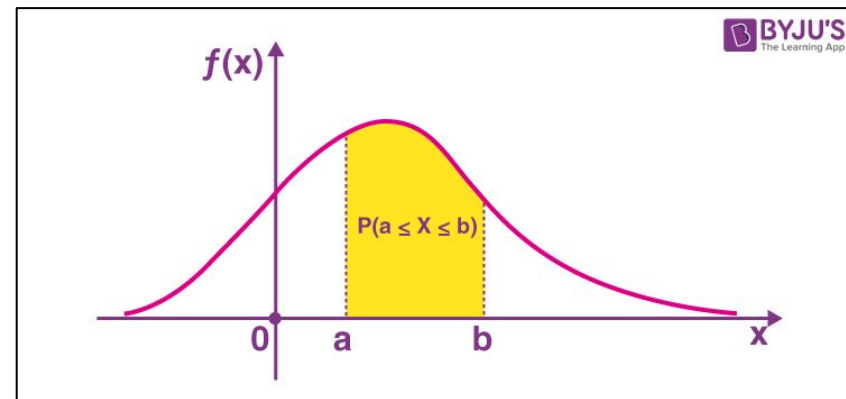
$$E(X) = 1(\frac{1}{6}) + 2(\frac{1}{6}) + 3(\frac{1}{6}) + 4(\frac{1}{6}) + 5(\frac{1}{6}) + 6(\frac{1}{6}) = 3.5$$

This is the weighted **mean**. On average, we expect the value of our roll to be 3.5.

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# PDFs for Continuous Random Variables

- **Continuous r.v.s** are trickier because the probability  $X$  crystallizes to any one value is 0
- **PDF:**  $f(x)$ , where  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- Intuitively and visually, think of **PDF as a shape whose area represents probability**
  - Thus, the area of the entire shape is 1
  - $f(x)$  evaluated at any certain point is NOT probability; here, probability is AREA





# Special Types of Random Variables

- The really important types of **r.v.s** (which show up often) have names
- If your r.v. matches the “story” of a named random r.v., it makes your life easier
- $X \sim \text{Name}(\text{Value(s) of Key Parameter(s)})$ 
  - *Ex:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(100, 0.10)$  is read as “ $X$  is distributed binomial with parameters 100 and 10”*
- **Parameters**: Named **r.v.s** are families, so **parameters** specify the **distribution** with a certain shape/center/spread
  - *Ex:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(100, 0.10)$  is different from  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(100, 0.50)$*

## More on the “Mystery Box” Example...

- This **r.v.** can crystallize to any real number between 0 and 1 with equal probability
  - So this r.v. is “distributed **Unif(0, 1)**”
- That **r.v.** can crystallize to only 0 or 1, where it crystallizes to 1 with probability  $p$ ; otherwise, it will crystallize to 0
  - So this r.v. is “distributed **Bern(p)**”



## One More Thing...

- $=$  and  $\sim$  are DIFFERENT
- $\mathbf{X = 1}$  says the r.v.  $X$  crystallizes to the value of 1
  - Recall this is a specific **event**, so we can calculate  $P(X = 1)$
- $\mathbf{X \sim \text{Bern}(0.5)}$  says the r.v.  $X$  is distributed Bernoulli with  $p = 0.5$
- Even if two r.v.s are **identically distributed**, they can still be different
  - *Ex:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.5)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.5)$  are identically distributed, but they can crystallize to different values*
  - *Imagine  $X$  counts the number of heads in 10 coin flips while  $Y$  counts the number of tails*

# Binomial Coefficient: The Choose Function

- **Factorial:** For any integer  $n$ ,  $n! = (n)(n - 1)(n - 2) \cdots (1)$ 
  - This counts the number of ways to arrange/permute  $n$  items
  - *Ex:  $5! = (5)(4)(3)(2)(1) = 120$  is the number of ways to arrange the 5 cards in my hand*
- **Definition:**  $\binom{n}{x}$ , read as “ $n$  choose  $x$ ,” is the number of ways to choose  $x$  items from set of  $n$  items, ignoring order
  - *Ex:  $52$  choose  $5 = 2,598,960$  is the number of all possible poker hands you could be dealt*
  - *Notice order doesn't matter, so  $\{A \spadesuit, 5 \heartsuit, 3 \clubsuit, K \diamondsuit, A \heartsuit\}$  and  $\{A \heartsuit, K \clubsuit, 3 \heartsuit, 5 \heartsuit, A \spadesuit\}$  are counted ONCE*
- **Formula:**  $\binom{n}{x} = n! / x! (n - x)!$

What is 5 choose 2?

What is 5 choose 1?

What is 5 choose 0?

# Question:

What is 5 choose 2? What is 5 choose 1? What is 5 choose 0?

$$5 \text{ choose } 2 = 5! / 2!(3!) = 120 / 6 = 10.$$

$$5 \text{ choose } 1 = 5.$$

$$5 \text{ choose } 0 = 1.$$

Using the “story” of the **binomial coefficient**, you don’t have to do math for the last two (but feel free to verify)!

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# Binomial Distribution

- **Story**: A r.v.  $X$  is distributed Binomial (i.e.,  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ ) if it represents the number of successes in  $n$  independent trials, where each trial is a success with probability  $p$ 
  - *Ex:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.5)$  represents the number of heads I'll see in 10 coin flips*
  - *Ex:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(44, 0.25)$  represents the number of correct answers I'll get on the math SAT if I randomly guess each question*
- **PMF**:  $P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$
- **Properties**:  $E(X) = np$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = np(1 - p)$ ,  $\text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$

I randomly guess each question on the math SAT, which has 44 questions, each with 4 options. What is my expected number of correct answers? What is the probability I'll get all 44 correct?



# Question:

I randomly guess each question on the math SAT, which has 44 questions, each with 4 options. What is my expected number of correct answers? What is the probability I'll get all 44 correct?

Let  $C$  be the r.v. for the **number of my correct answers**. We have  $C \sim \text{Bin}(44, 0.25)$  by story of the Binomial.

We know for  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ ,  $E(X) = np$  and  $P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$ .

Thus,  $E(C) = (44)(0.25) = 11$ , and  $P(X = 44) = \binom{44}{44} 0.25^{44} (1 - 0.25)^{44 - 44} = 0.25^{44} = 3.2311743\text{e-}27$ .

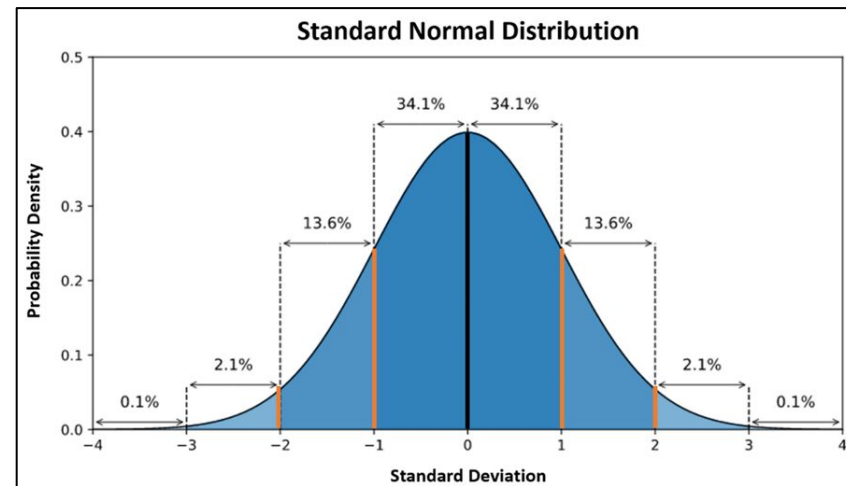
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# The Important Functions for Binomial Distribution

- **dbinom()**: Used to calculate **probability** of  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  crystallizing to a certain value (i.e.,  $P(X = k)$ )
  - *Ex: What is the **probability** I see 4 heads if I flip a fair coin 10 times?*
- **dbinom(k = VALUE, n = NUM, p = PROB)**
  - *Ex:  $\text{dbinom}(k = 4, n = 10, p = 0.5) = 105/512$*
- **pbinom()**: Used to calculate **probability** of  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  being less than or equal to a certain value (i.e.,  $P(X \leq k)$ )
  - *Ex: What is the **probability** I see at most 4 heads if I flip a fair coin 10 times?*
- **pbinom(k = VALUE, n = NUM, p = PROB)**
  - *Ex:  $\text{pbinom}(k = 4, n = 10, p = 0.5) = 193/512$*

# Normal Distribution

- **Normal distribution**: A symmetric and unimodal “bell shape” that approximates many distributions
- $N(\mu, \sigma)$  has 2 parameters
  - $\mu$  is mean
  - $\sigma$  is standard deviation
- $Z(0, 1)$  is **Standard Normal**
  - 0 is mean
  - 1 is standard deviation

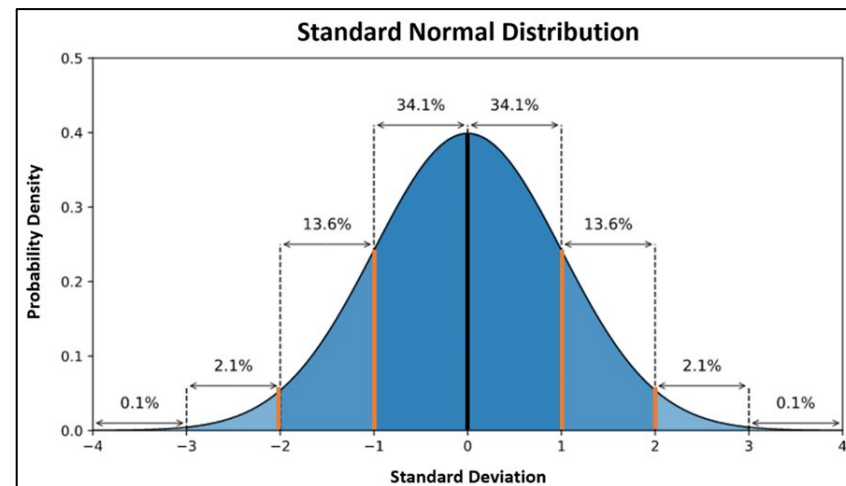


# Standardizing and Z-Scores

- **Standardizing**: Transforming normal r.v. (X) into standard normal r.v. (Z)
  - Comparing in terms of **Z-scores** (standard deviations) is easier
- **Z-score**: Measure of how many SDs the sample statistic is away from its mean

- $Z\text{-score} = (X - \mu) / \sigma$

- Z-score for test statistic =  $(\text{statistic} - \mu) / \sigma$



# The Important Functions for Normal Distribution

- **pnorm()**: Used to calculate **probabilities** on a **Normal distribution** (often, for **p-value** during **hypothesis test**)
  - *Ex: What is the **probability** a student scores an 1800 on the SAT if the scores are  $N(1500, 300)$ ?*
- `pnorm(q = TEST-STAT, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)`
  - *Ex:  $\text{pnorm}(q = 1800, \text{mean} = 1500, \text{sd} = 300) = 0.8413447$*
- **qnorm()**: Used to calculate **quantiles** on a **Normal distribution** (often, for **critical value** during **confidence interval**)
  - *Ex: What score on the SAT would put a student in the 99th **quantile** (percentile)?*
- `qnorm(p = QUANTILE, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)`
  - *Ex:  $\text{qnorm}(p = 0.99, \text{mean} = 1500, \text{sd} = 300) = 2197.904$*

## Why Does Any of This Matter?

- **Central Limit Theorem (CLT)**: For random samples and a large sample size, the sampling distribution of many sample statistics is approximately distributed Normal
  - Thus, when assumptions are met, we can conduct inference using the Normal distribution as a good approximation
  - We will revisit inference next week through this lens!

## In Closing...

- Probability is hard
  - Don't feel bad if this takes a bit to click
  - Probability is important, but it's not the focus of this course—after this p-set, it should be more chill
- If you're interested in more probability, consider STAT 110!

# Questions?

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# P-Set 5

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Have a great rest  
of your week!