

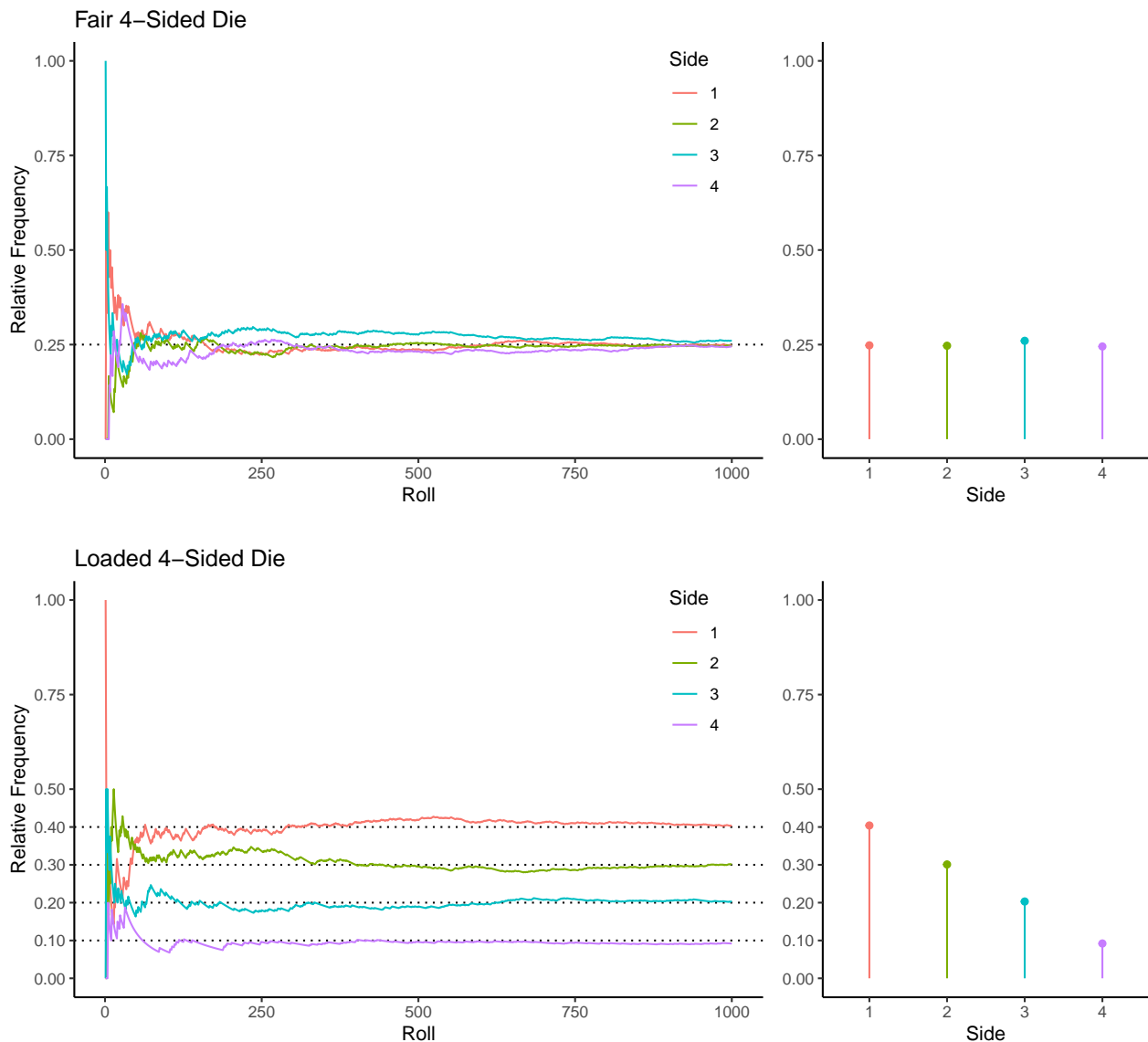
Monday, Jan 30

## Probability and Relative Frequency

*Probability* is a measurement of the “likelihood” of an event as a number between 0 and 1. These measurements follow the mathematical rules of *probability theory*.

How can we connect probabilities with empirical observations? The *Law of Large Numbers* states that a *relative frequency* will tend to “approach” (in some sense) the *probability* of an event as the number of observations increases.

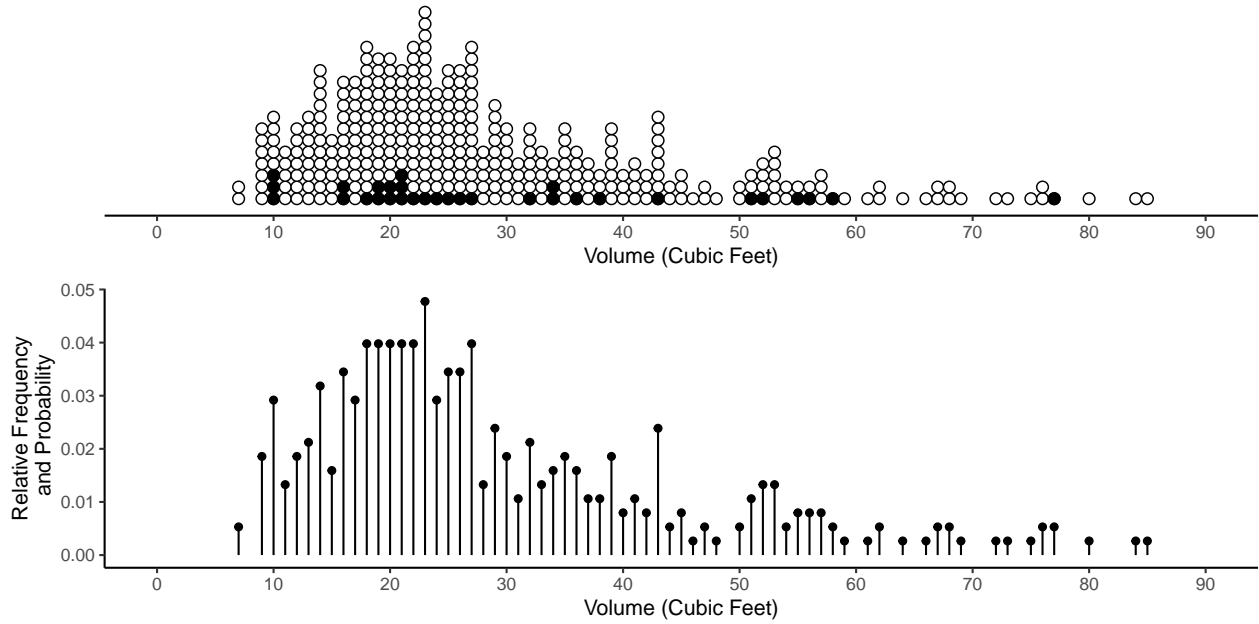
**Example:** Consider rolling a 4-sided die many times and looking at the distribution of the sides.



In a *survey* the relative frequencies for the distribution of the *population* of observations become probabilities if we select units *at random*.

**Example:** Consider a survey of tree volume.

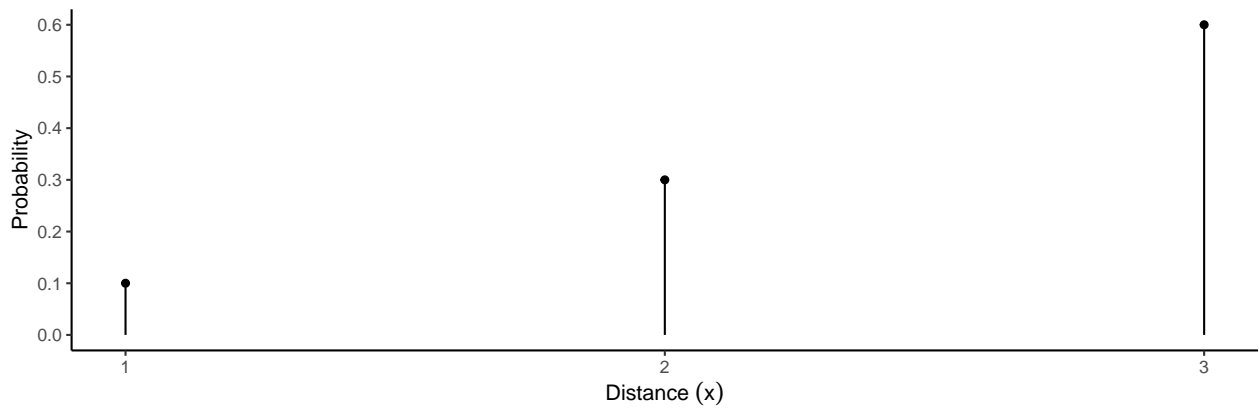
Distribution of Population of Observations



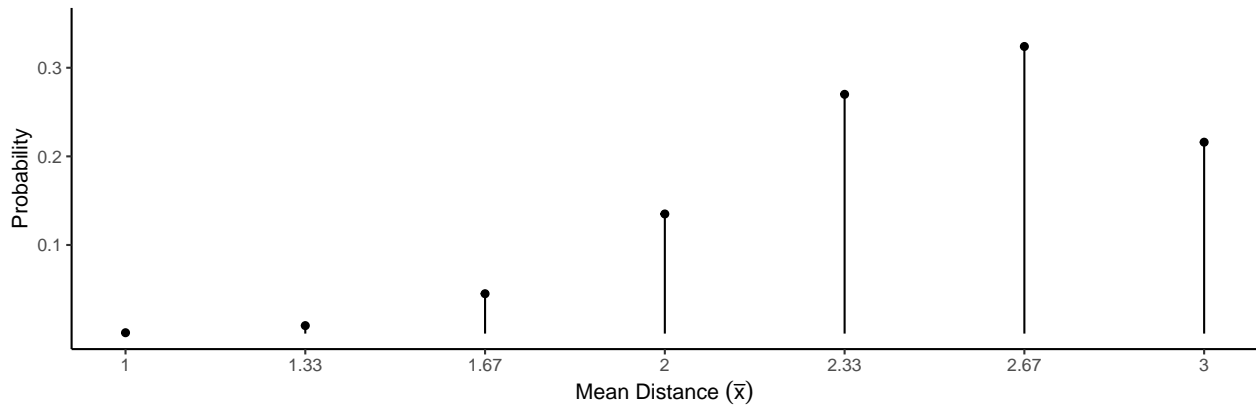
In an *experiment* the probabilities are determined by the underlying process that produces the observations.

**Example:** Suppose we are studying the distance that a toy trebuchet will throw a projectile.

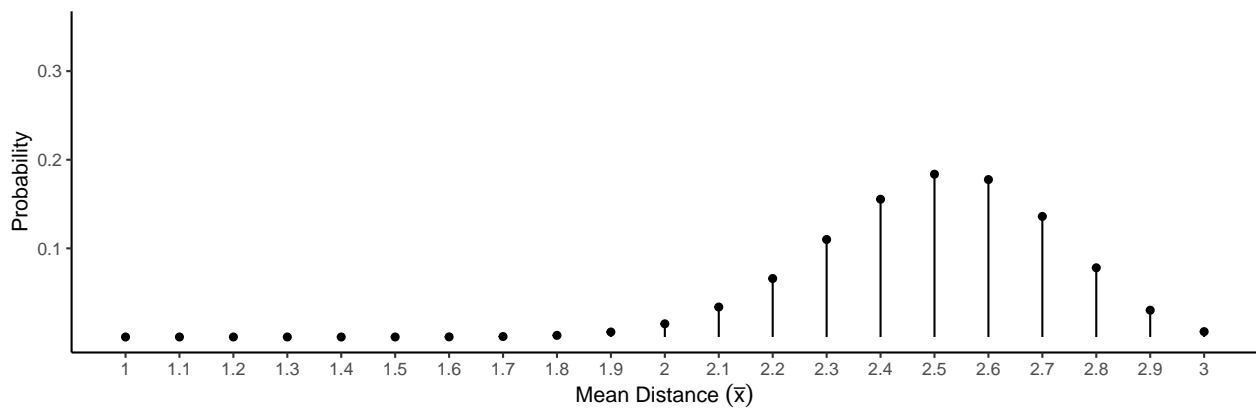
First consider observing the distance ( $x$ ) of *one* throw.



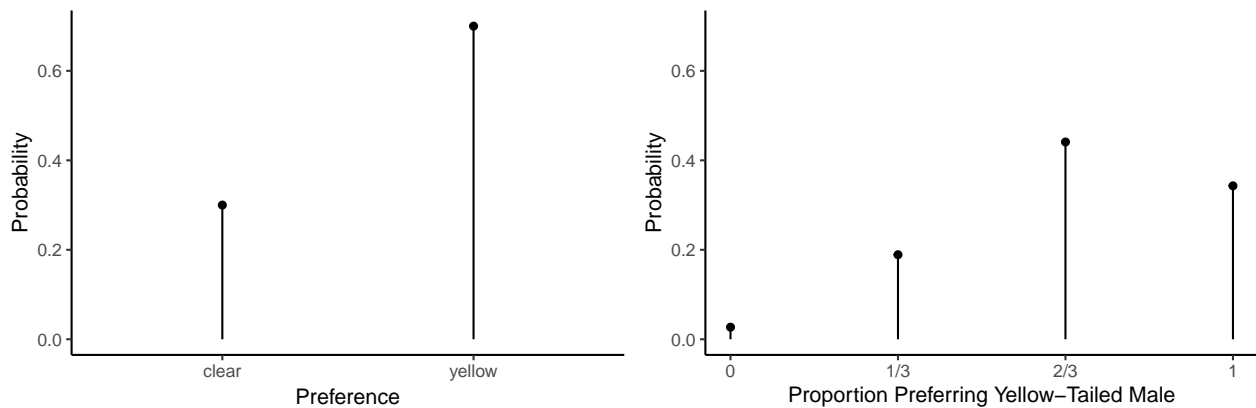
Now consider observing the *mean* distance (i.e.,  $\bar{x}$ ) of a sample of  $n = 3$  throws.



Now consider observing the *mean* distance (i.e.,  $\bar{x}$ ) of a sample of  $n = 10$  throws.



**Example:** Suppose we are studying the “preference” of female platies for males with clear versus yellow tails. Consider observing (a) the apparent preference from one observation and (b) the *proportion* of observations out of  $n = 3$  observations where the yellow-tailed male is preferred.



## Random Variables and Probability Distributions

A **random variable** occurs when we assign values to an *event*. An *event* corresponds to a particular *outcome* of a random process. Distance, mean distance, preference, and proportion preferring yellow-tailed male are all *random variables* in the examples above. Random variables can be *quantitative* or *categorical*.

Types of *Quantitative* Random Variables:

1. **Discrete.** A random variable is *discrete* if the possible values are *countable*.
2. **Continuous.** A random variable is *continuous* if the possible values are *not countable*.

The **probability distribution** of a *discrete* random variable consists of (a) the *possible values* of the random variable and (b) their *probabilities*. The distribution can be shown using a plot (as shown earlier) or a table (as shown below).

**Example:** Here are the probability distributions of one observation of the distance a trebuchet throws ( $x$ ), and the mean distance in a sample of  $n = 3$  throws ( $\bar{x}$ ).

$x$	$P(x)$
1	0.1
2	0.3
3	0.6

$\bar{x}$	$P(\bar{x})$
1.00	0.001
1.33	0.009
1.67	0.045
2.00	0.135
2.33	0.270
2.67	0.324
3.00	0.216

**Example:** Here are the probability distributions of one observation of female platy preference ( $x$ ), and the proportion of observations out of  $n = 3$  where the yellow-tailed male is preferred ( $\hat{p}$ ).

$x$	$P(x)$
clear	0.3
yellow	0.7

$\hat{p}$	$P(\hat{p})$
0	0.027
1/3	0.189
2/3	0.441
1	0.343

## Two Important Probability Distributions in Statistical Inference

1. The probability distribution of a *single observation* (a **population distribution**).
2. The probability distribution of a *statistic* (a **sampling distribution**).

## Mean of a Random Variable (Discrete Case)

The mean of a *discrete* random variable is

$$\mu = \sum_x xP(x),$$

where  $x$  denotes a value of the random variable and  $P(x)$  denotes the probability of that value.<sup>1</sup> Note that the  $x$  below the summation sign here indicates that we sum over all values of  $x$ .

<sup>1</sup>We can say that “ $\mu$  is the mean of the probability distribution of the random variable” or, more simply, “ $\mu$  is the mean of the random variable.” Similarly we can say that “ $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of a probability distribution” or that “ $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of a random variable.”

The Law of Large Numbers implies that as the number of observations of a random variable increases, their mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) will tend to “approach” (in some sense)  $\mu$ .

**Example:** Consider the probability distribution of an observation of a single throw of the trebuchet (a *population distribution*).

$x$	$P(x)$
1	0.1
2	0.3
3	0.6

We can confirm that the mean of the random variable  $x$  is  $\mu = 2.5$  m.

**Example:** Consider the probability distribution of the proportion of female platies that prefer the yellow-tailed male from a sample  $n = 3$  observations (a *sampling distribution*).

$\hat{p}$	$P(\hat{p})$
0	0.027
1/3	0.189
2/3	0.441
1	0.343

We can confirm that the mean of the random variable  $\hat{p}$  is  $\mu = 0.7$ .

## Variance of a Random Variable (Discrete Case)

The *variance* of a *discrete* random variable is

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_x (x - \mu)^2 P(x),$$

and the standard deviation is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum_x (x - \mu)^2 P(x)}.$$

**Example:** Consider the probability distribution of an observation of a single throw of the trebuchet (a *population distribution*).

$x$	$P(x)$
1	0.1
2	0.3
3	0.6

Recall that the mean of the random variable  $x$  is  $\mu = 2.5$  m. We can confirm that the standard deviation of  $x$  is  $\sigma \approx 0.67$  m.

**Example:** Consider the probability distribution of the mean distance of a sample of  $n = 3$  throws of the trebuchet (a *sampling distribution*).

$\bar{x}$	$P(\bar{x})$
1.00	0.001
1.33	0.009
1.67	0.045
2.00	0.135
2.33	0.270
2.67	0.324
3.00	0.216

The mean of  $\bar{x}$  is  $\mu = 2.5$  m. We can confirm that the standard deviation of  $\bar{x}$  is  $\sigma \approx 0.39$  m.