

# Distributions, Populations, and Samples

Ling250/450: Data Science for Linguistics

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  - E.g. **how likely** is it to get heads on a coin flip? To get a 6 on a die roll? That the Bills will win the Superbowl next year?

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  - Example:  $X$  is the result of rolling a die
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- If the **sum of probabilities** equals 1, this defines a **probability distribution**

# Probability distributions

- A probability distribution expresses the **likelihood of all possible outcomes**, which must **add up to 1** (conceptually the same as 100%)
- Can often be expressed in a **table** (if the variable is **discrete**)

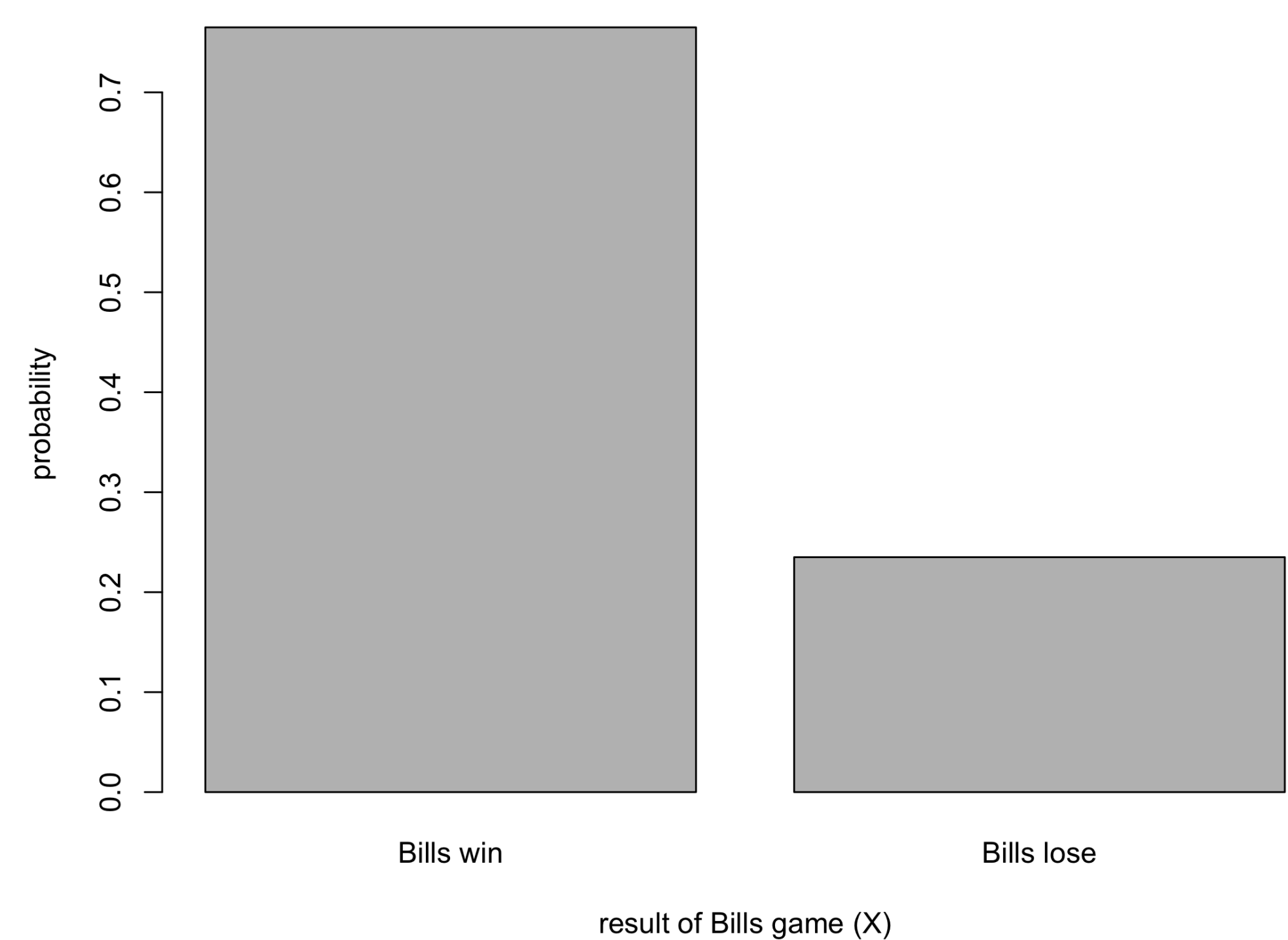
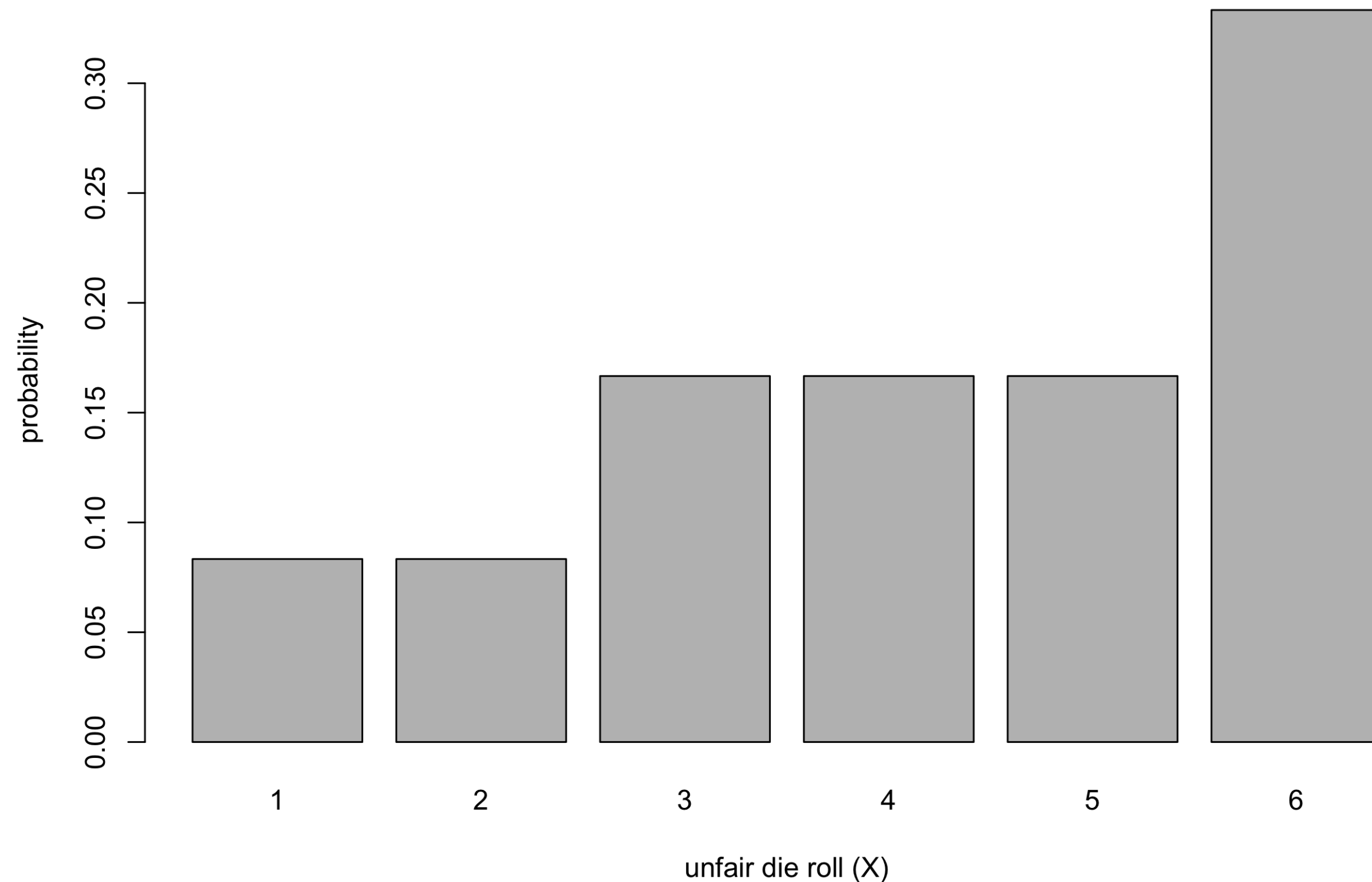
Outcome	Probability
$X = 1$	$1/6$
$X = 2$	$1/6$
$X = 3$	$1/6$
$X = 4$	$1/6$
$X = 5$	$1/6$
$X = 6$	$1/6$

Outcome	Probability
$X = \text{heads}$	$1/2$
$X = \text{tails}$	$1/2$

Outcome	Probability
$X = \text{Bills win}$	0.765
$X = \text{Bills lose}$	0.235

# Visualizing distributions

- Discrete distributions can also be visualized as a **bar plot**
- This is often called a **Probability Mass Function**



# What is a probability anyway?

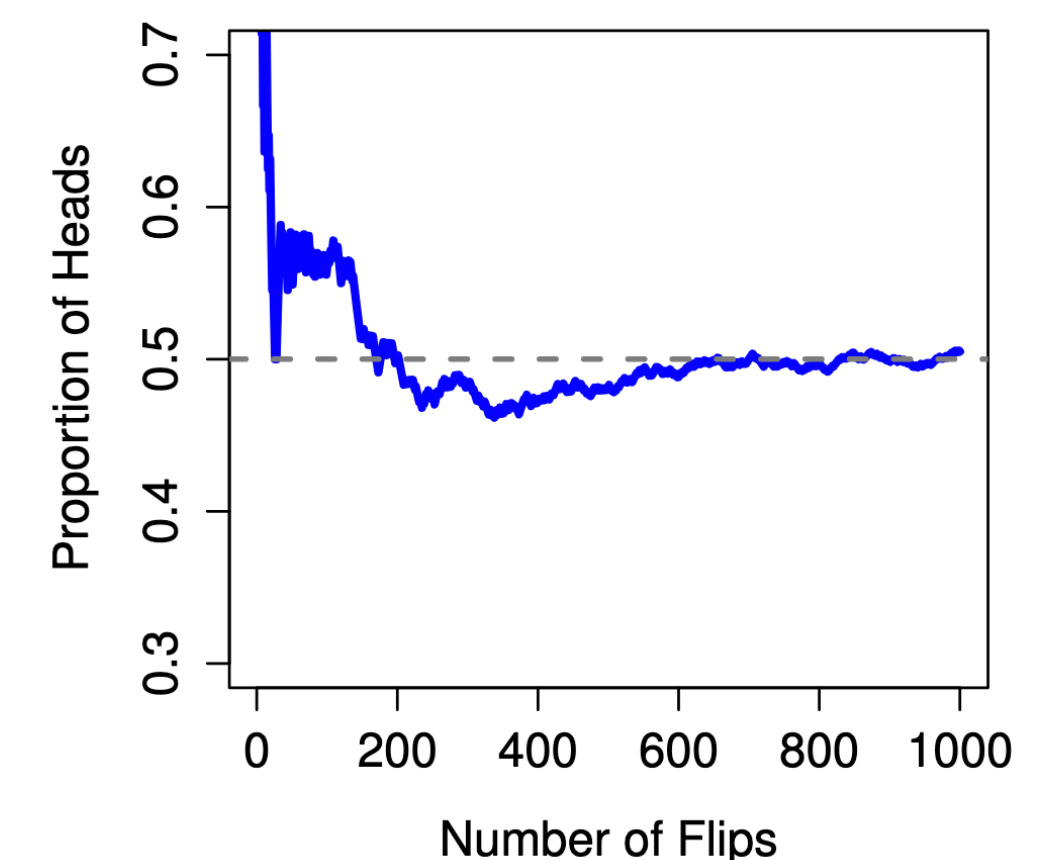
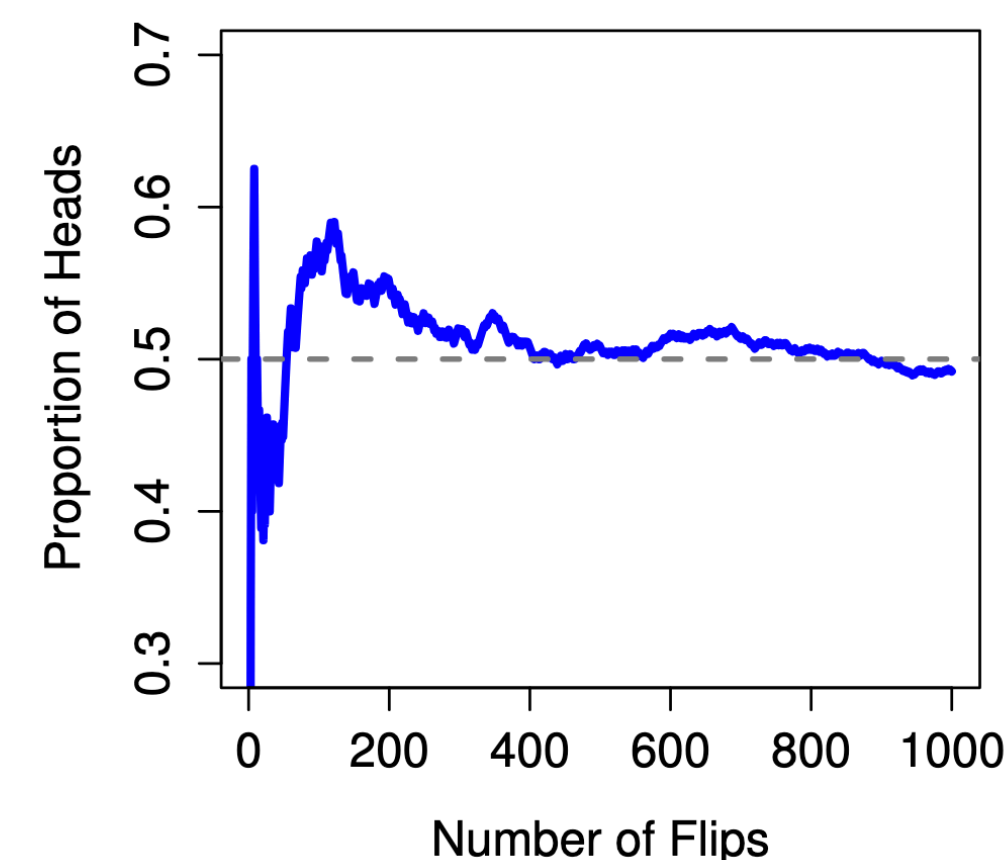
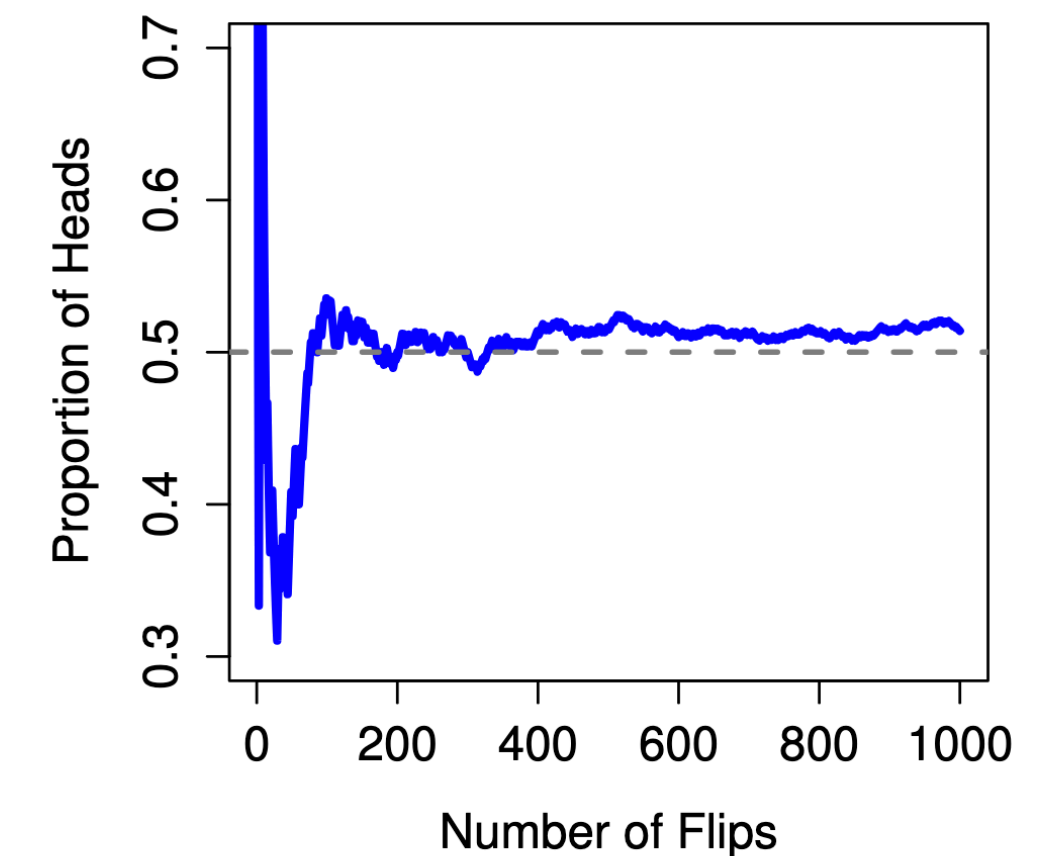
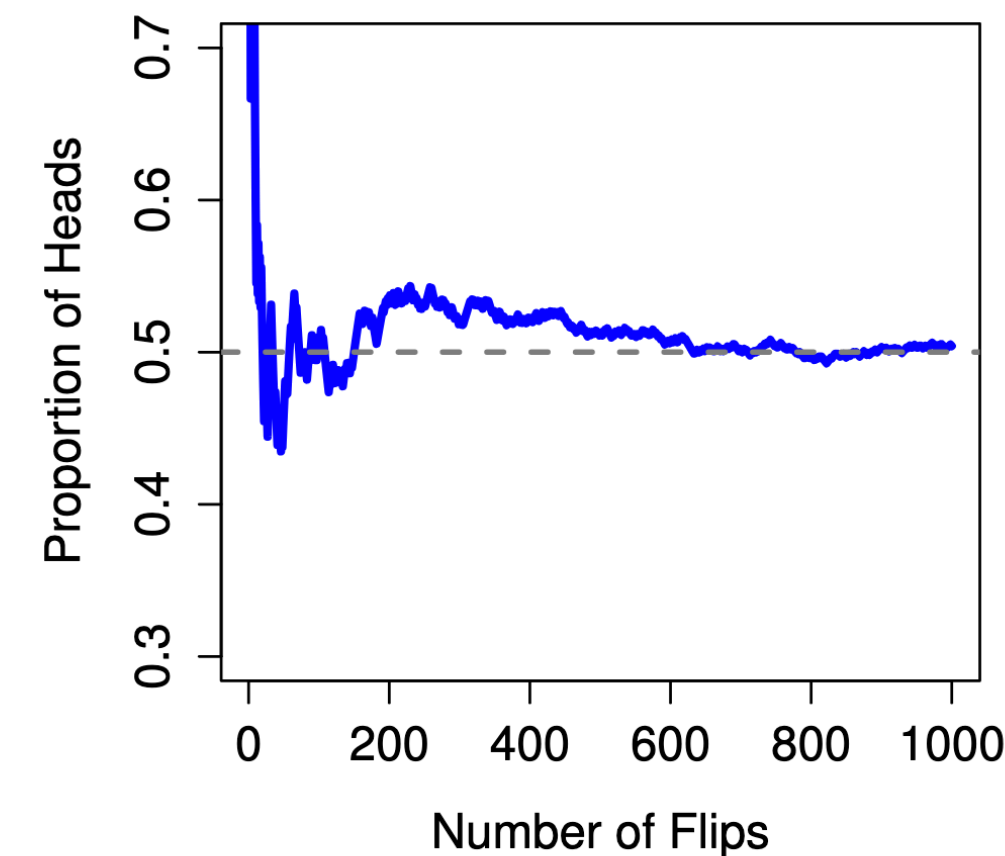


# What is a probability anyway?

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  - This is **more complex** than we often give it credit for
  - Maybe something like "we **expect** both outcomes to be **equally likely**"
- **Frequentist perspective**: it is the **overall frequency** of an outcome when the experiment is **repeated many times**
  - Example: simulating many coin flips



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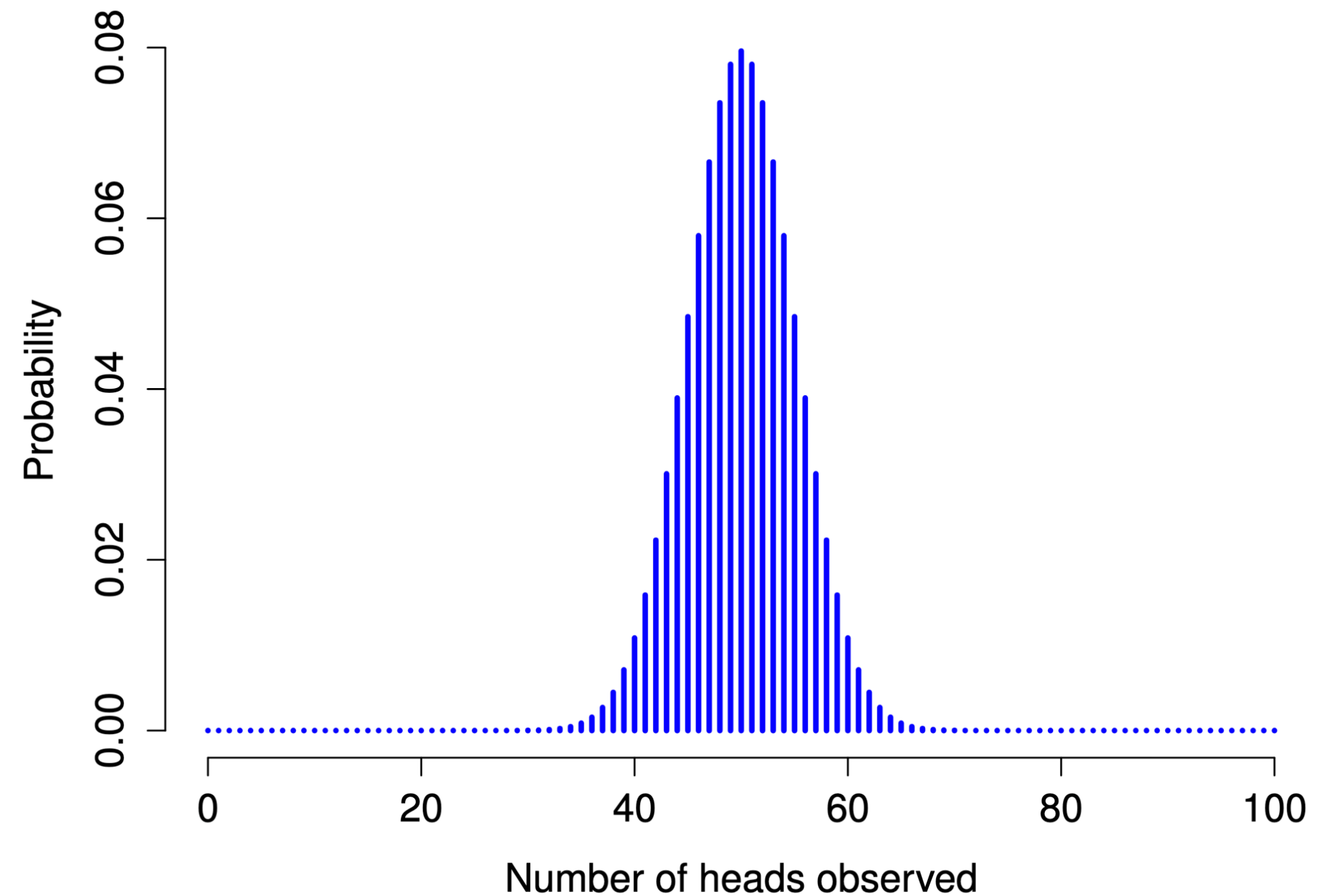
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- Is the result of the Bills' second game independent of their first?
  - **NO!** This is a bad assumption for many reasons (e.g. injuries, morale)

# Important distributions

# Binomial Distribution

- Distribution of **number of "successful" outcomes** in a set of **repeated experiments**
- Example: if we flip a coin 100 times, **how many heads** should we expect?
- "Success" just means **one of two possible outcomes** (e.g. heads vs. tails; win vs. lose; pass vs. fail)





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  - **Random variable** ( $X$ ): the variable representing the **overall number of successes**
- The following can be read " $X$  is distributed according to the Binomial Distribution with success rate  $\theta$  and  $N$  total trials"

$$X \sim \text{Binomial}(\theta, N)$$

# Binomial formula

$$P(X) = \frac{N!}{X!(N-X)!} \theta^X (1-\theta)^{(N-X)}$$

↑  
Ignore this  
part for now!

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- $(1 - \theta)^{(N-X)}$ : probability of getting tails the other  $(N - X)$  times

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- $\theta^X(1 - \theta)^{(N-X)}$  gives the probability for a **specific** sequence of  $X$  heads and  $N - X$  tails
  - Ex: the sequence [H, T, T, H] has probability  $\theta^2(1 - \theta)^2$
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  - [T, T, H, H] has the **exact same probability**
- Binomial Coefficient gives the **number of distinct ways** to get  $X$  heads and  $(N - X)$  tails

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- **More important:** remember what the parts of the equation **mean!**
- Understanding the gist of it is more important than memorizing

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  - `x`: the **outcome value** for which you want the probability (e.g. number of heads)
  - `size`: the total **number of trials** ( $N$ )
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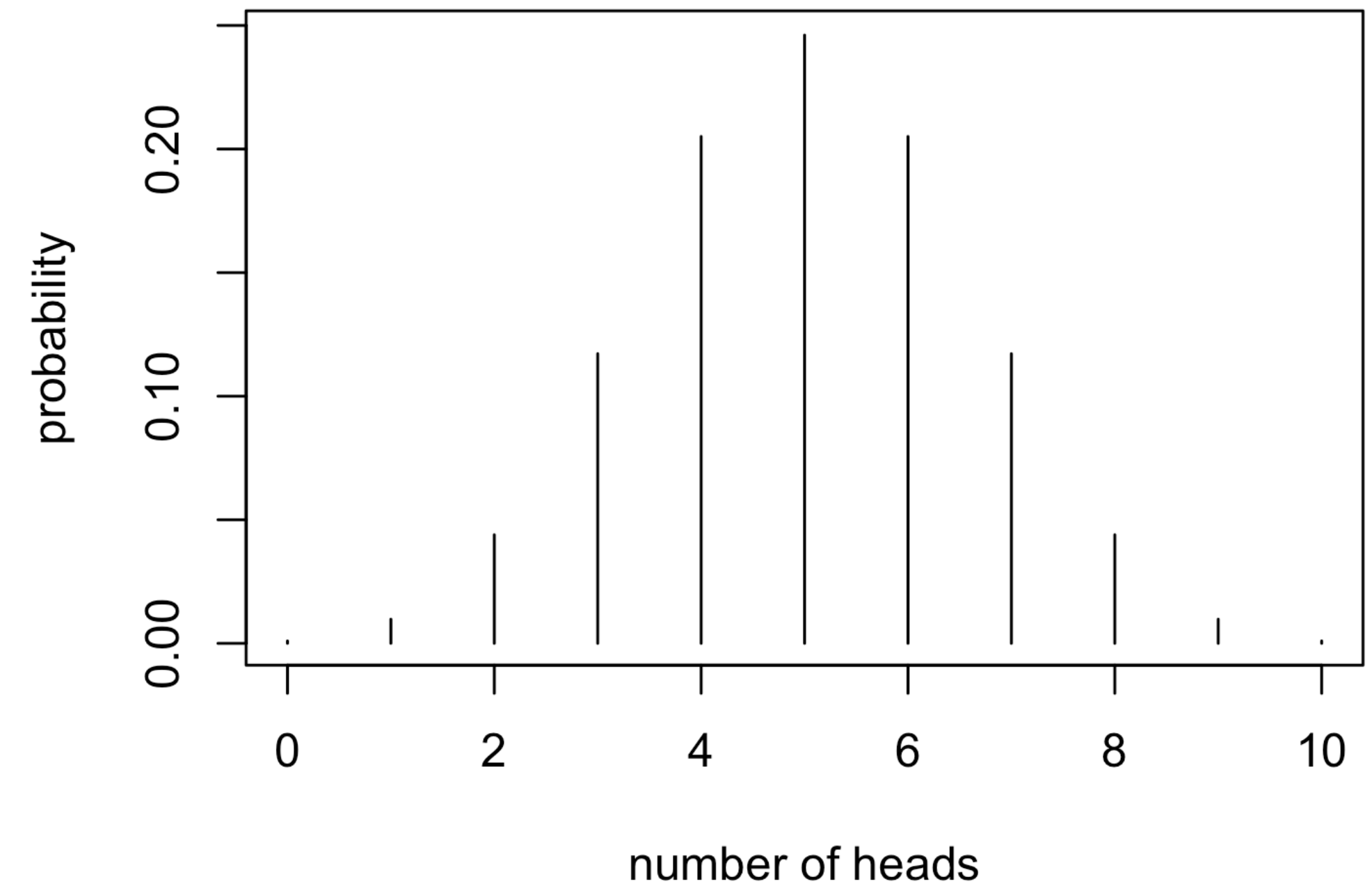
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- Probability that we get 50 heads out of 100 flips of a fair coin:

```
> dbinom(x=50, size=100, prob=0.5)
[1] 0.07958924
```

# Binomial Distribution in R

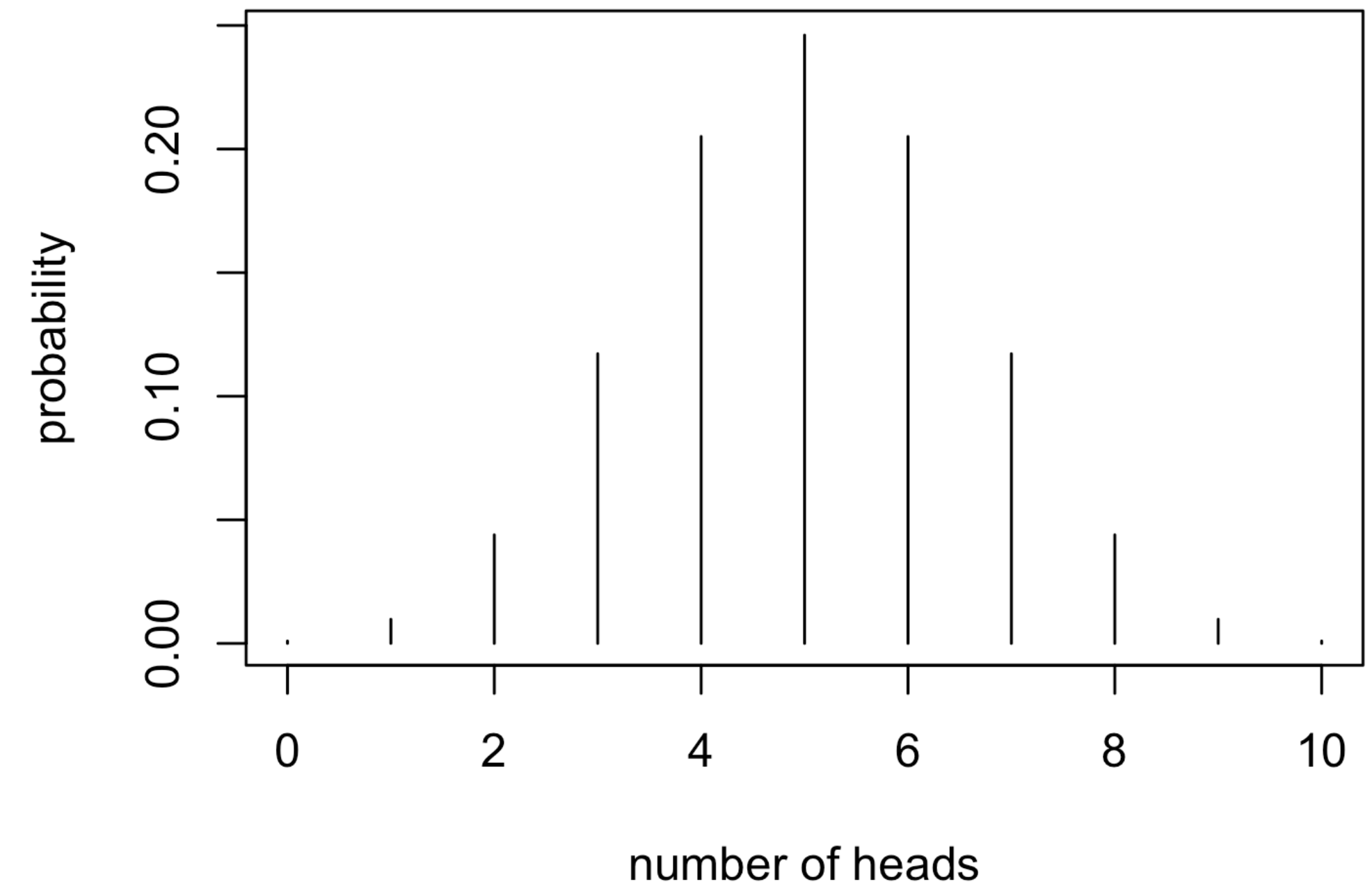
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> ten_binom = dbinom(x=c(0:10), size=10, prob=0.5)
> ten_binom
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- I.e. the probability for **each** of the input values

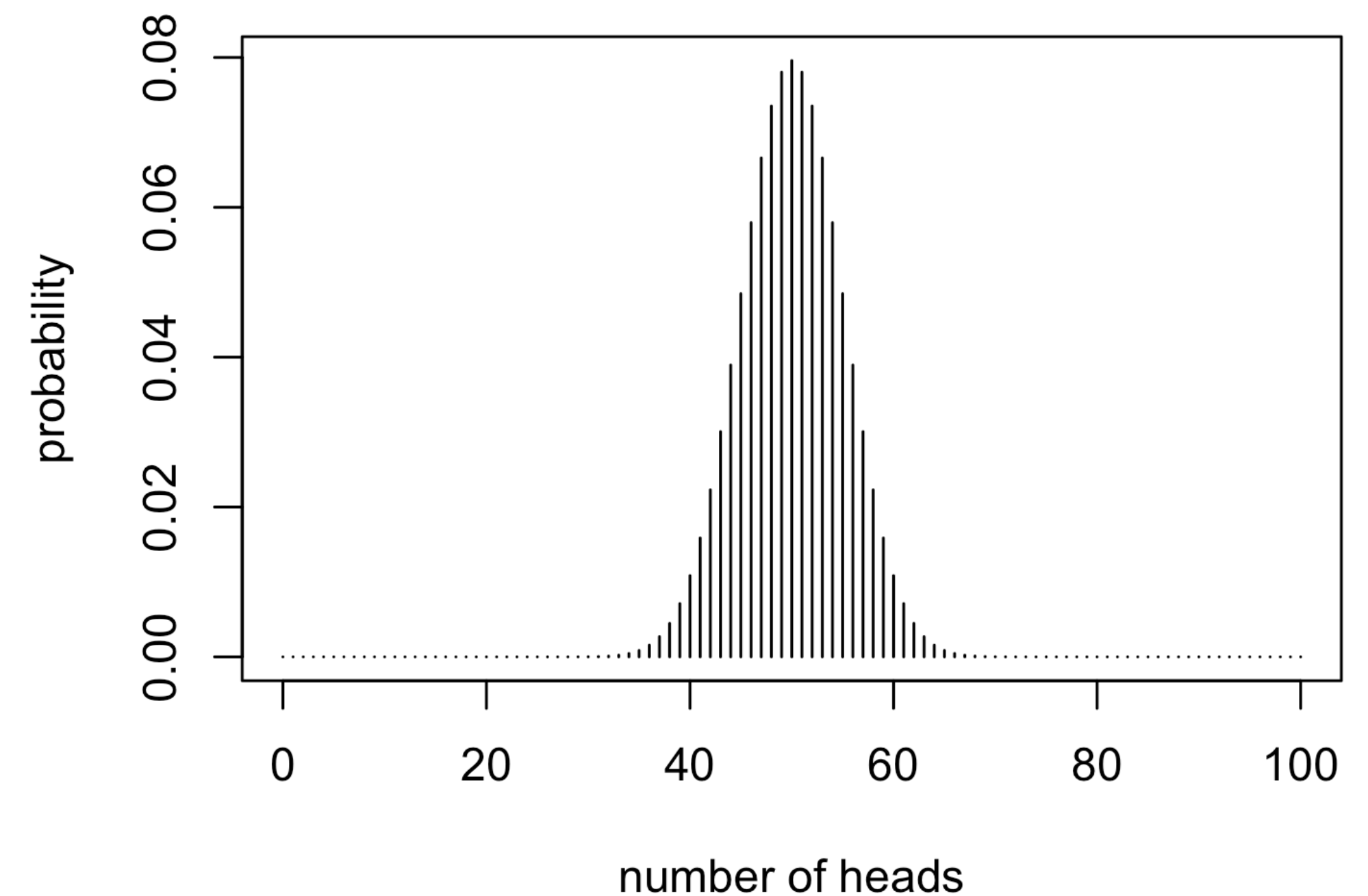
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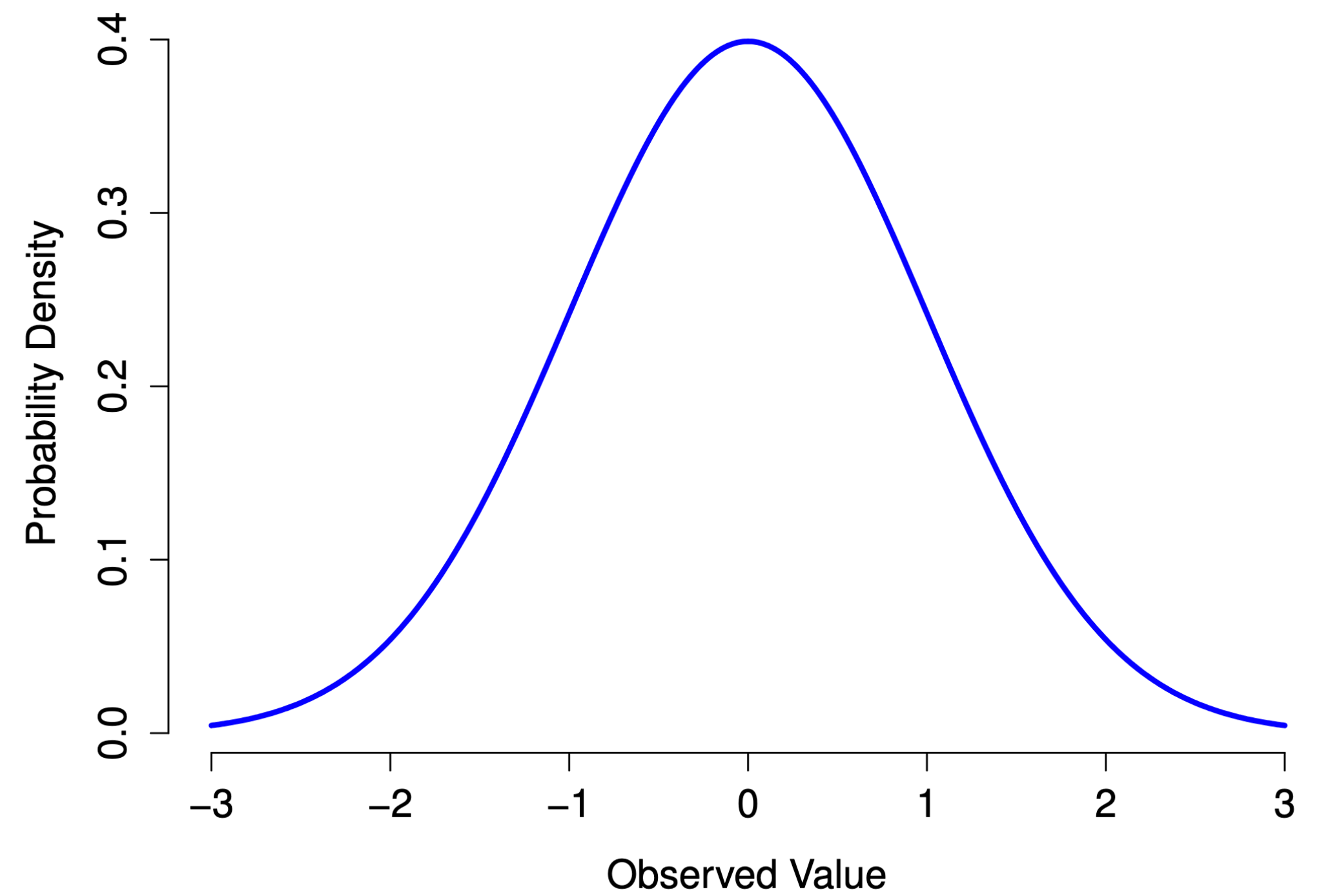
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- If you provide a **vector** as the argument for  $x$ , you will **get a vector out**
  - I.e. the probability for **each** of the input values
- This is the easiest way to **plot** a distribution in R
  - (There are better-looking ways though)

```
> hundred_binom = dbinom(x=c(0:100), size=100, prob=0.5)
> plot(x=c(0:100), y=hundred_binom, type='h', xlab="number of heads", ylab="probability")
```

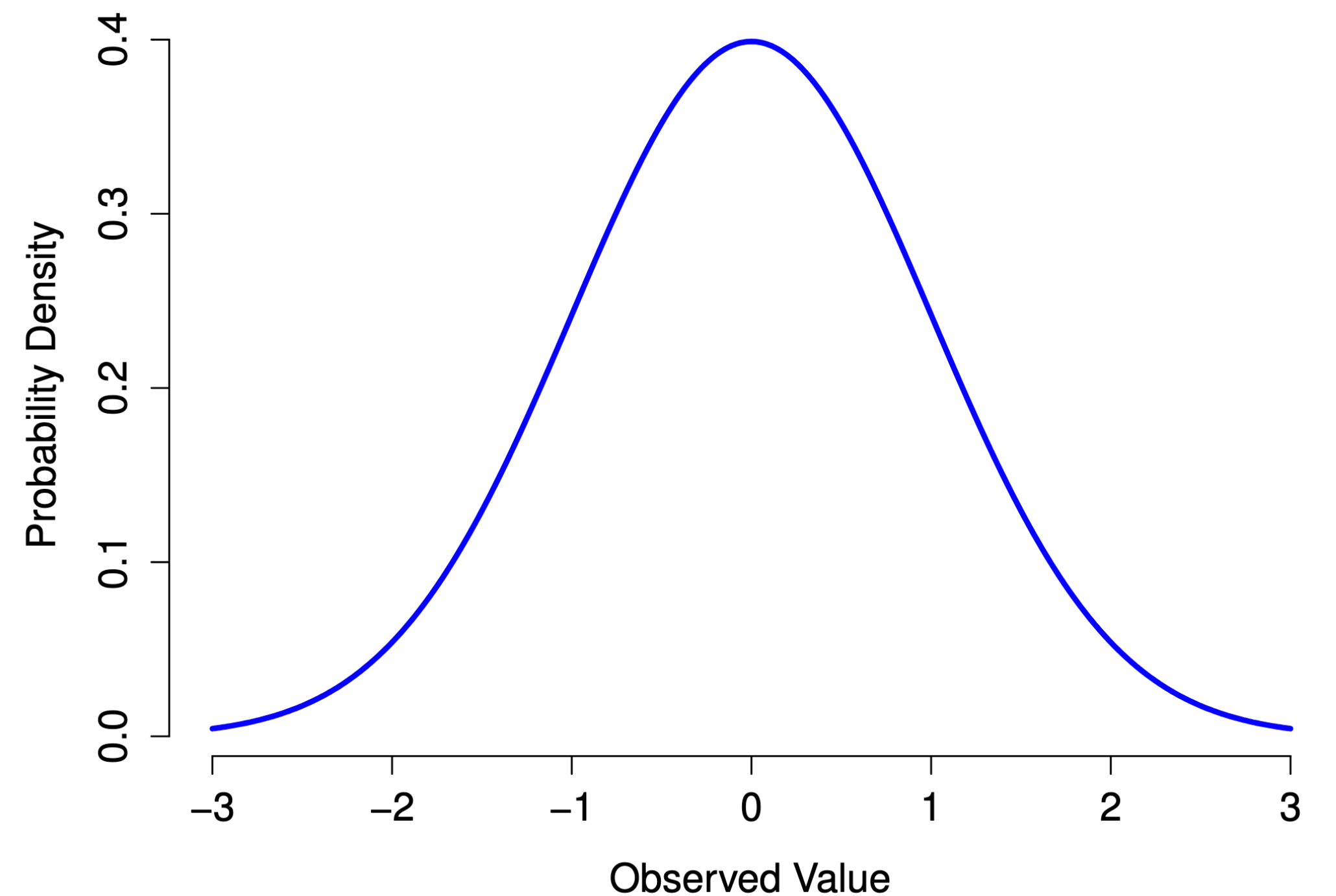


# Normal Distribution



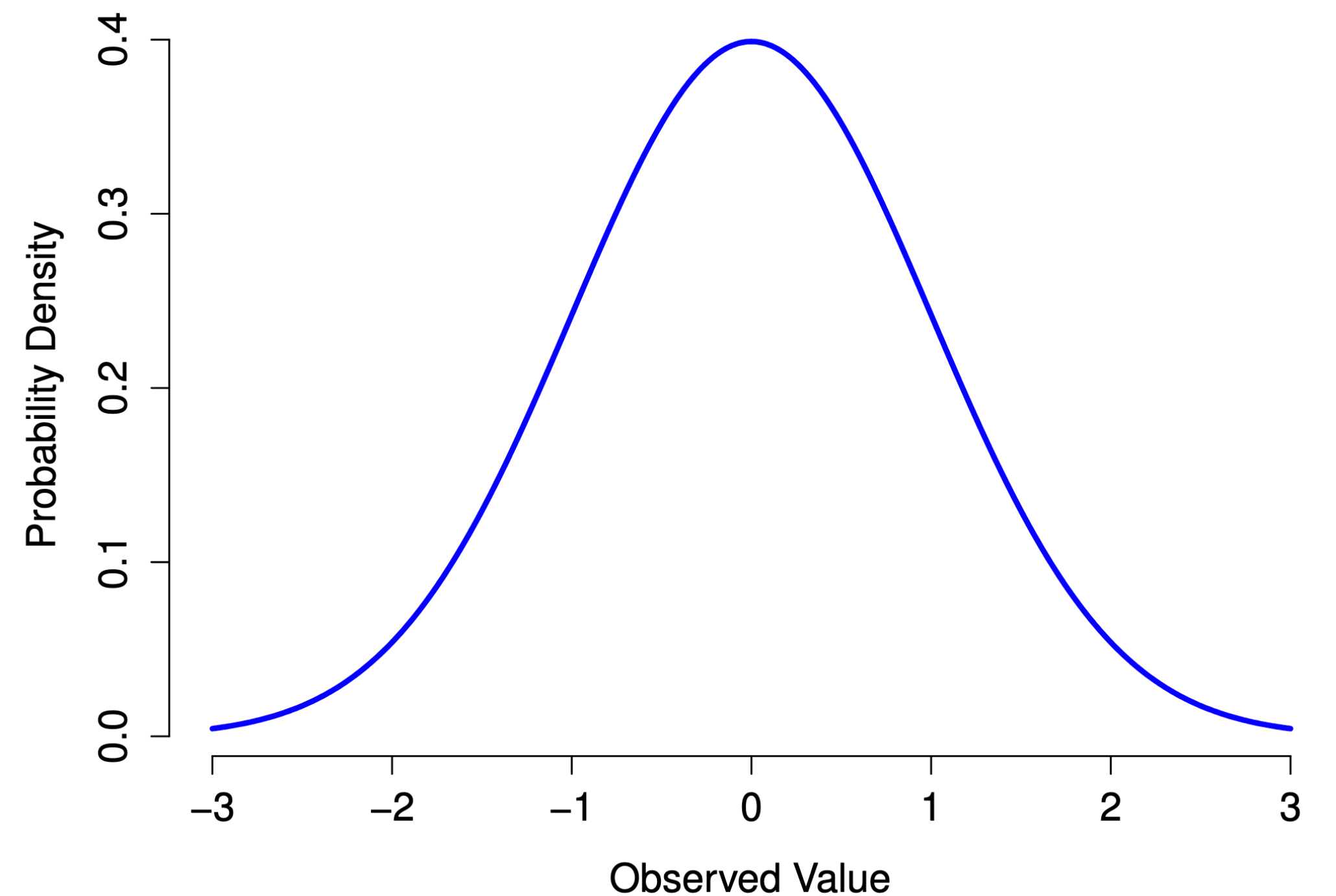
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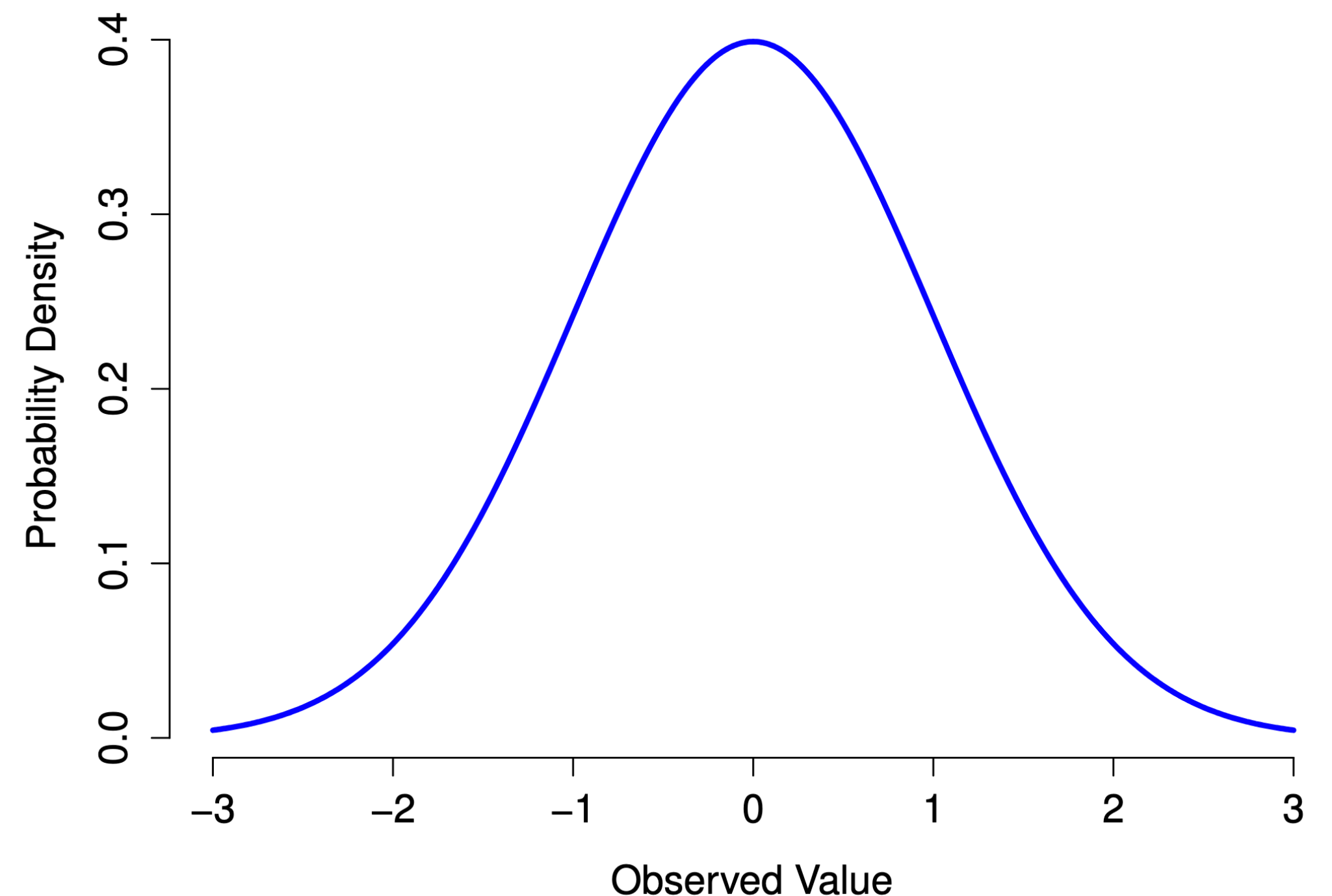
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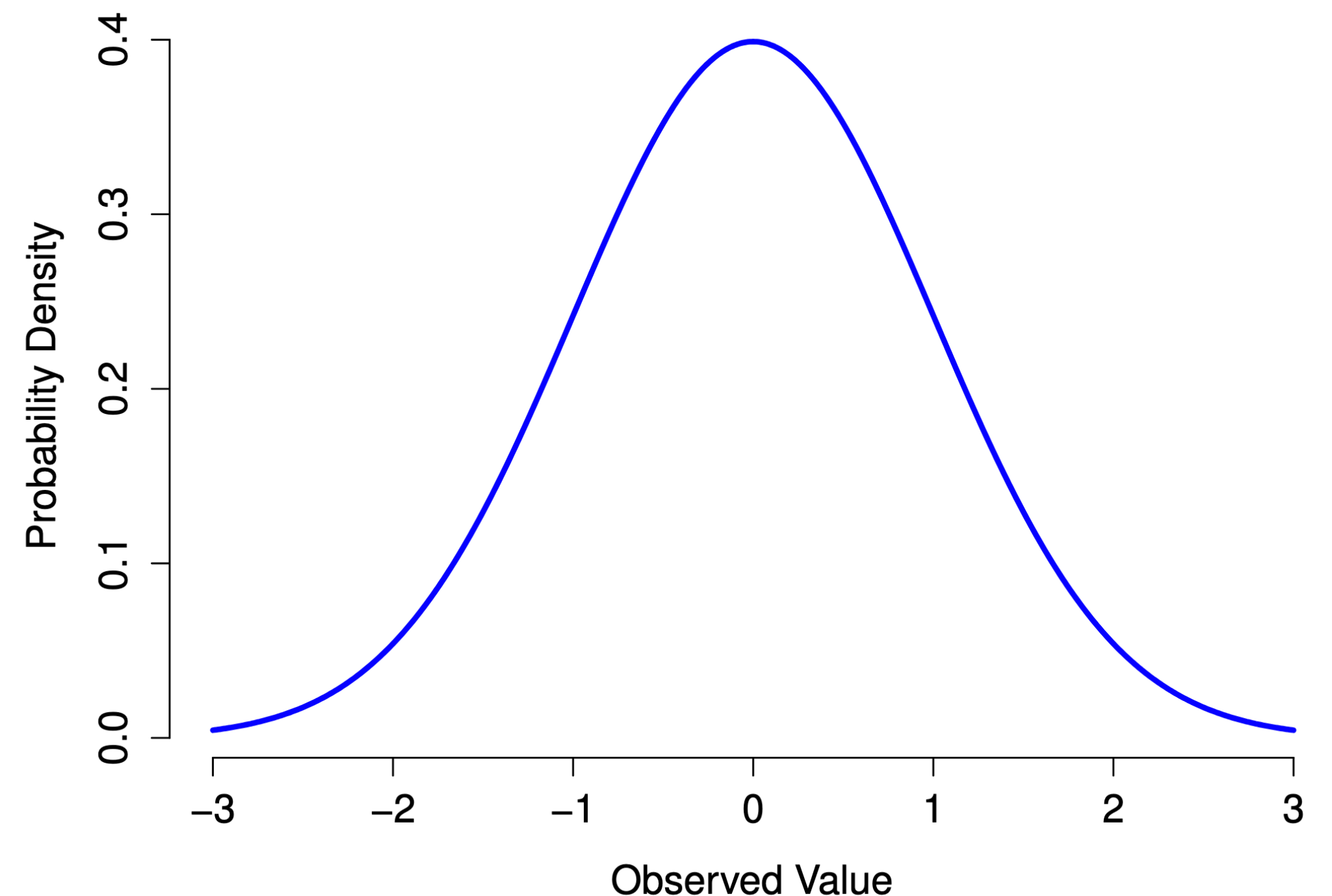
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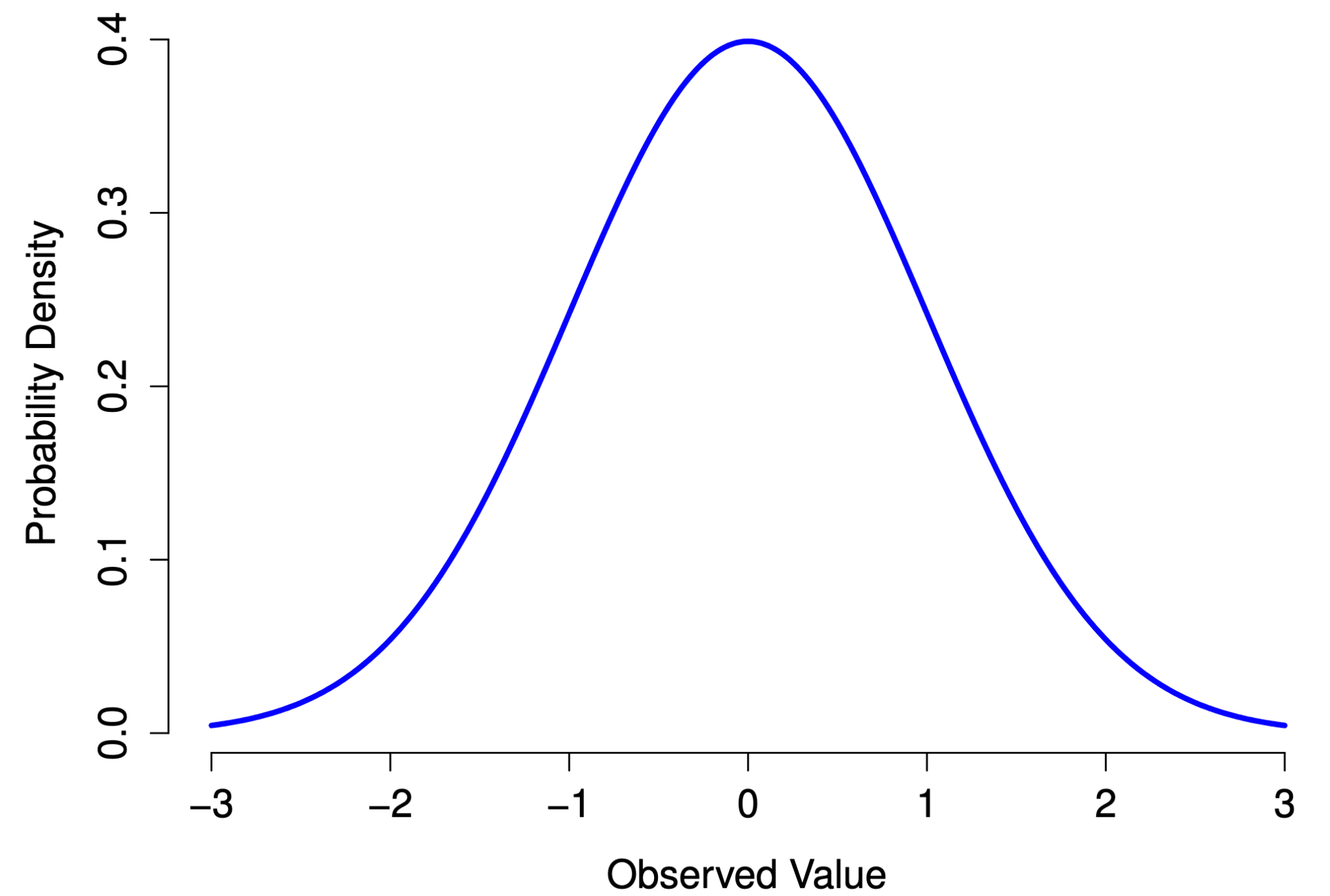


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- Has important **math properties**, and **occurs in nature**

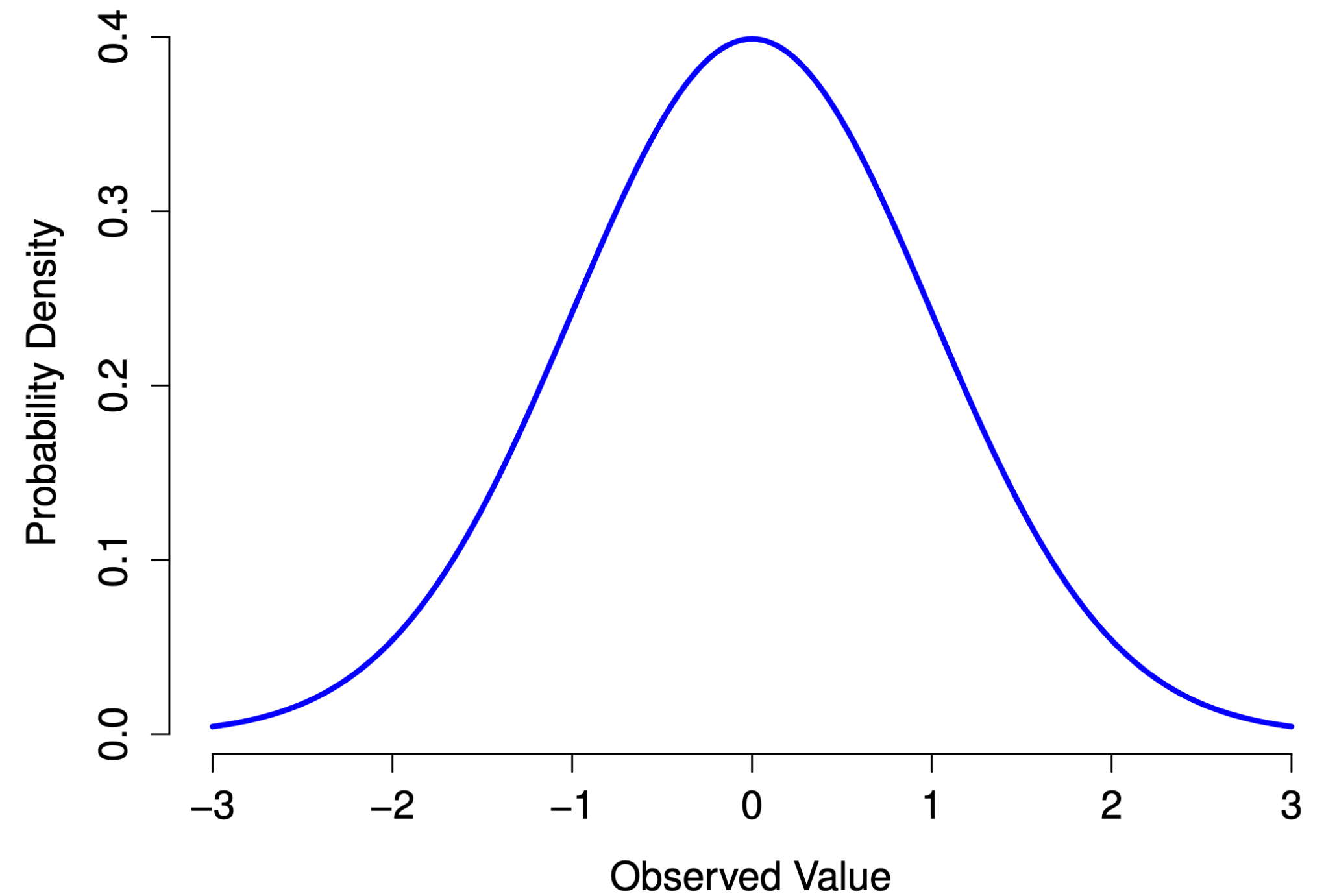


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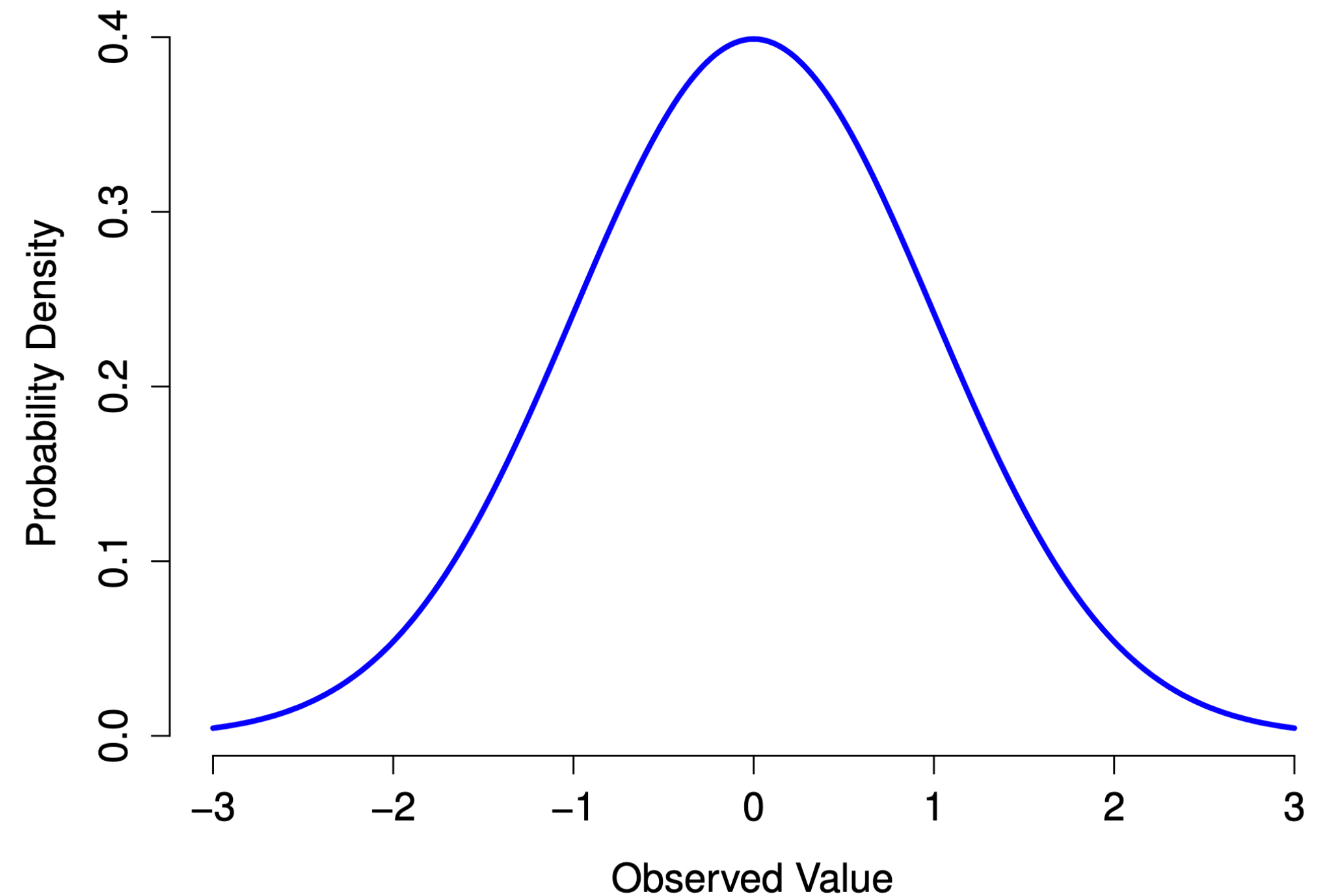
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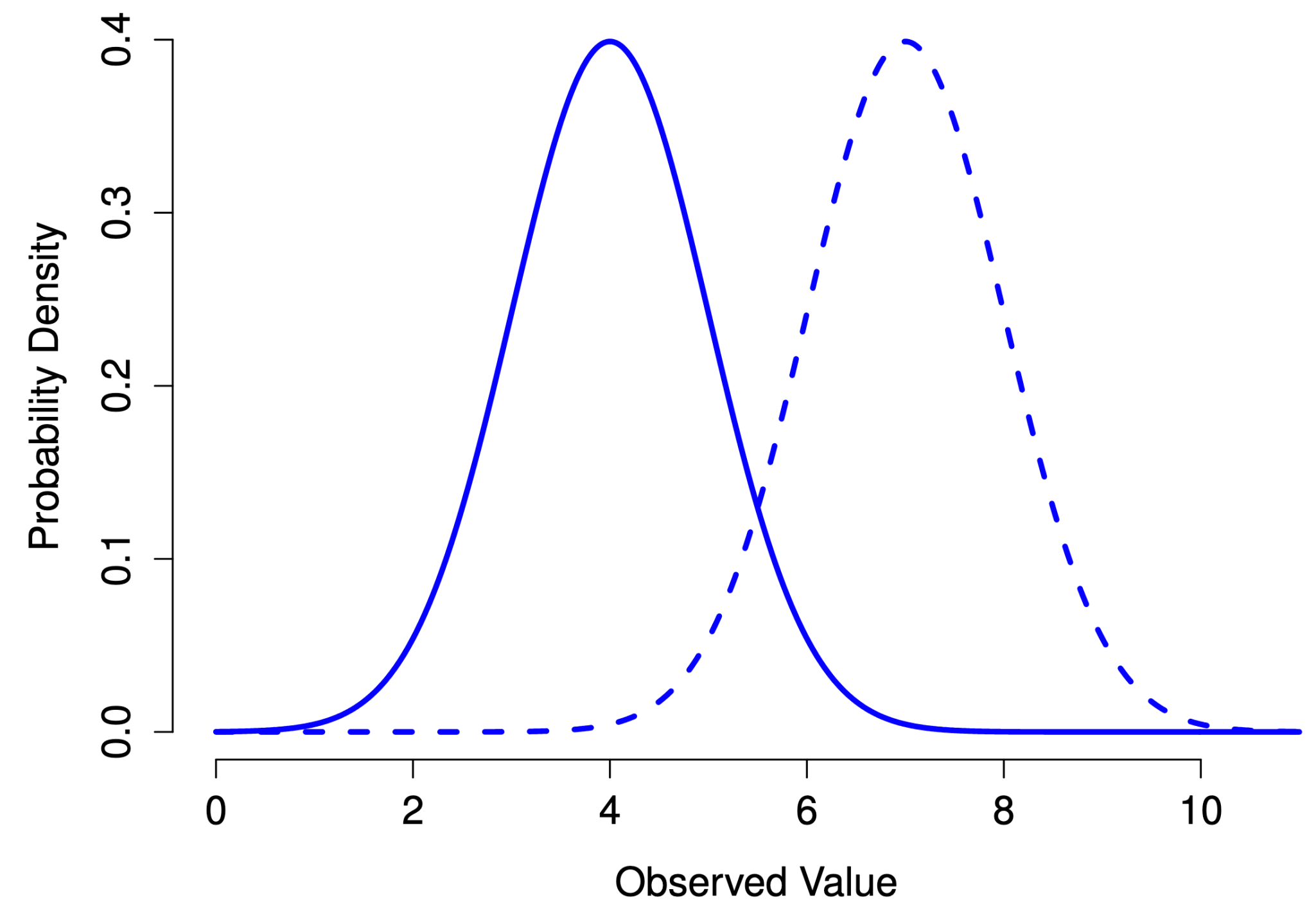
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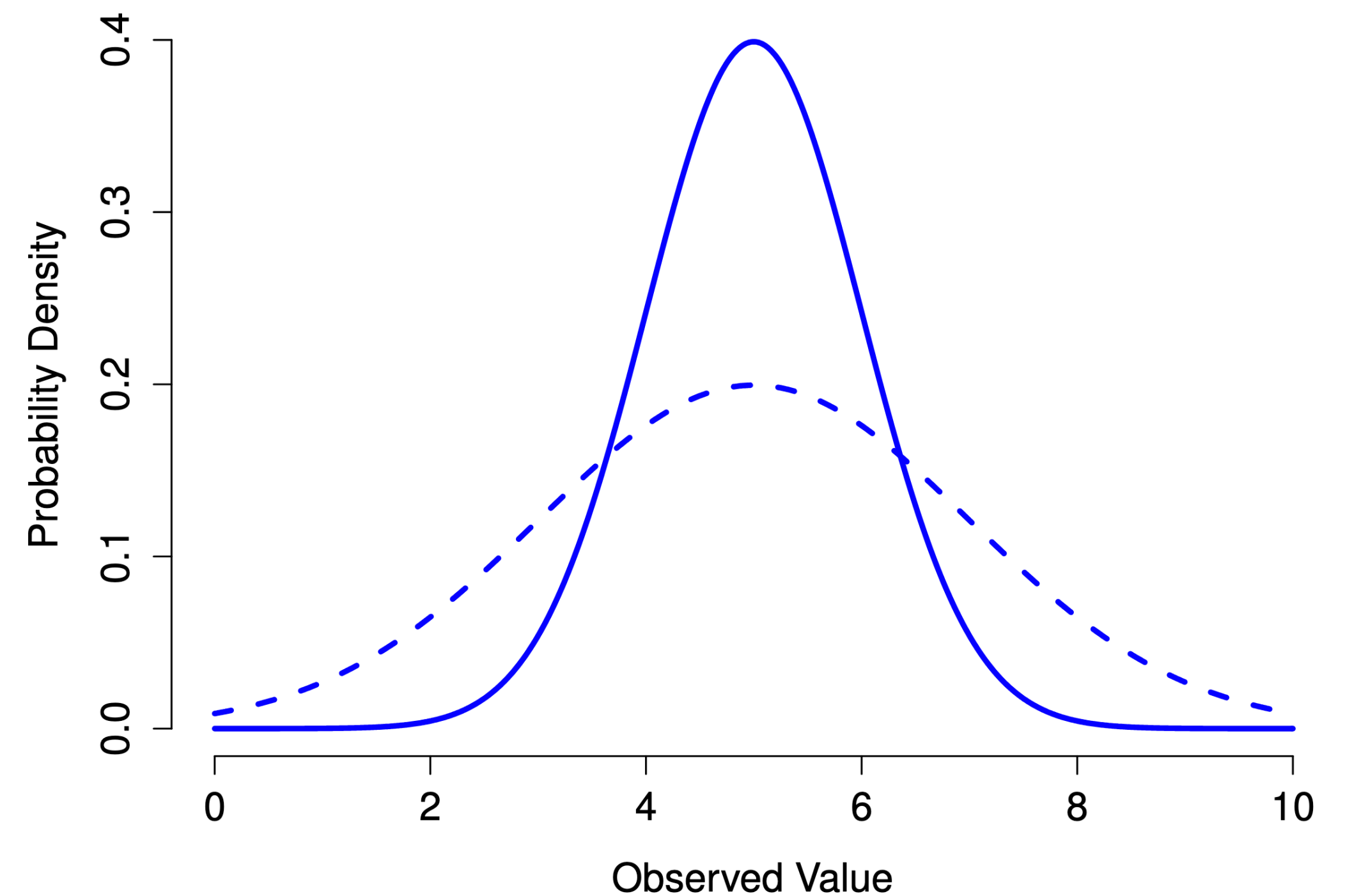
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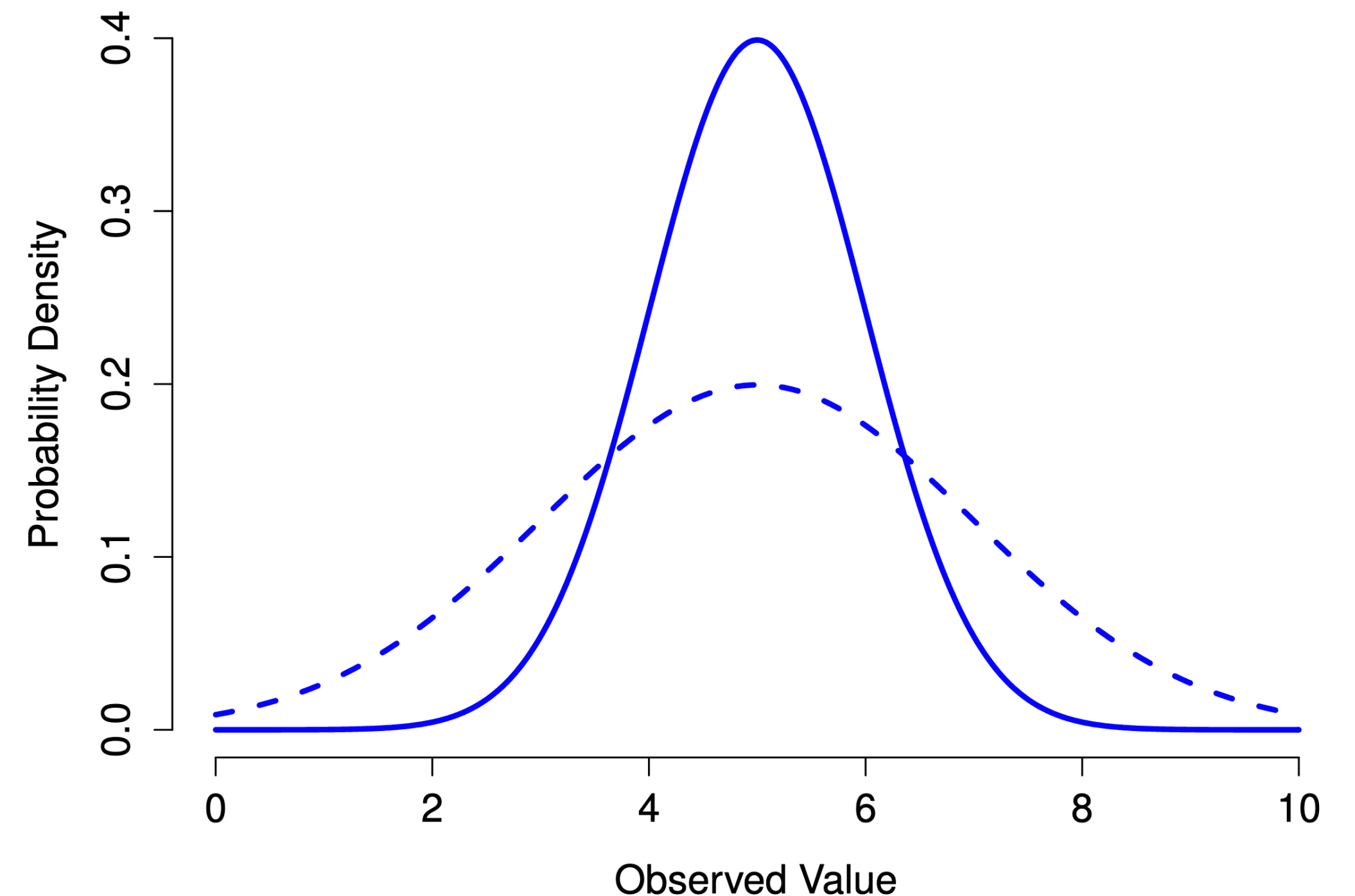
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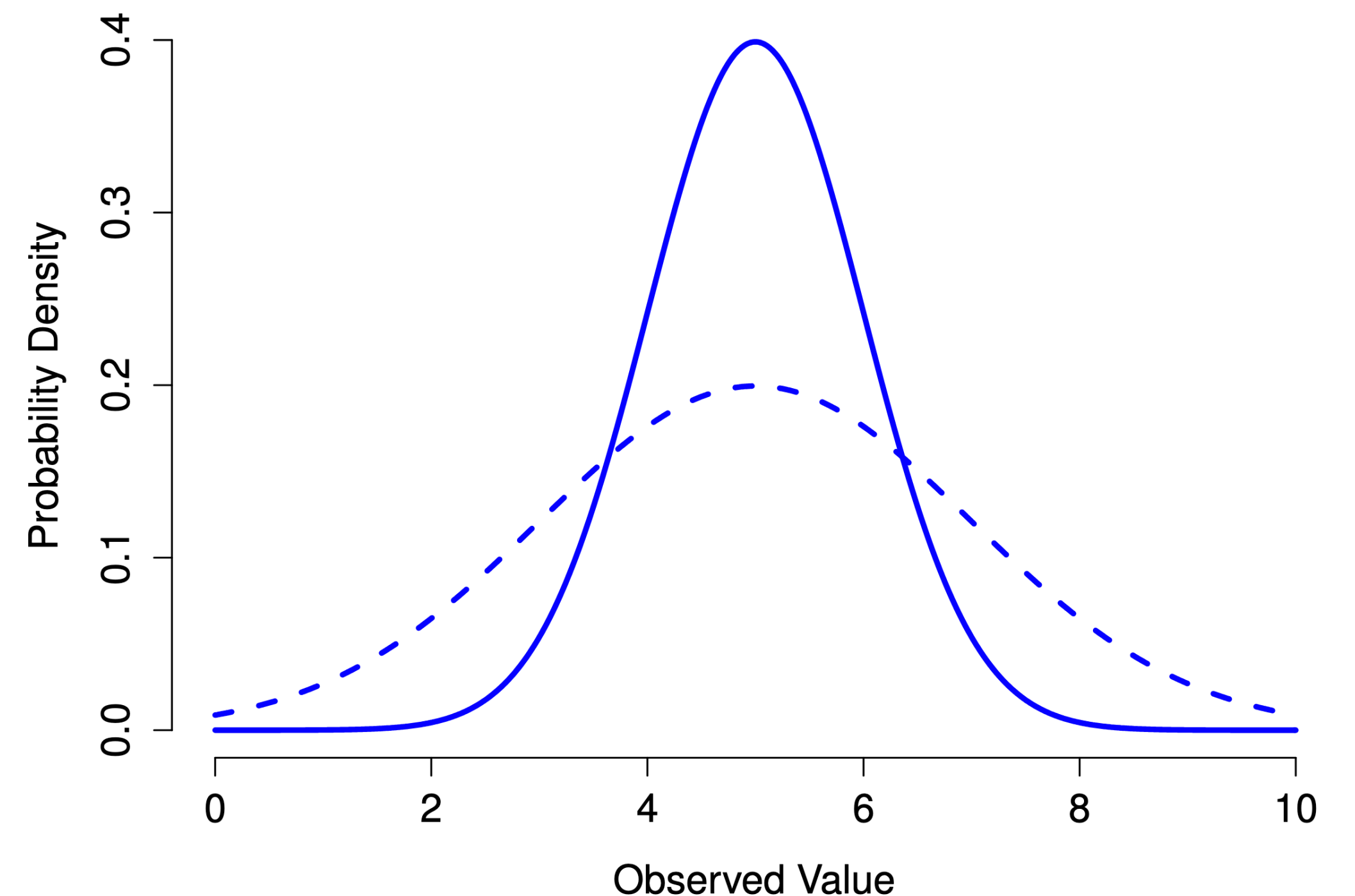
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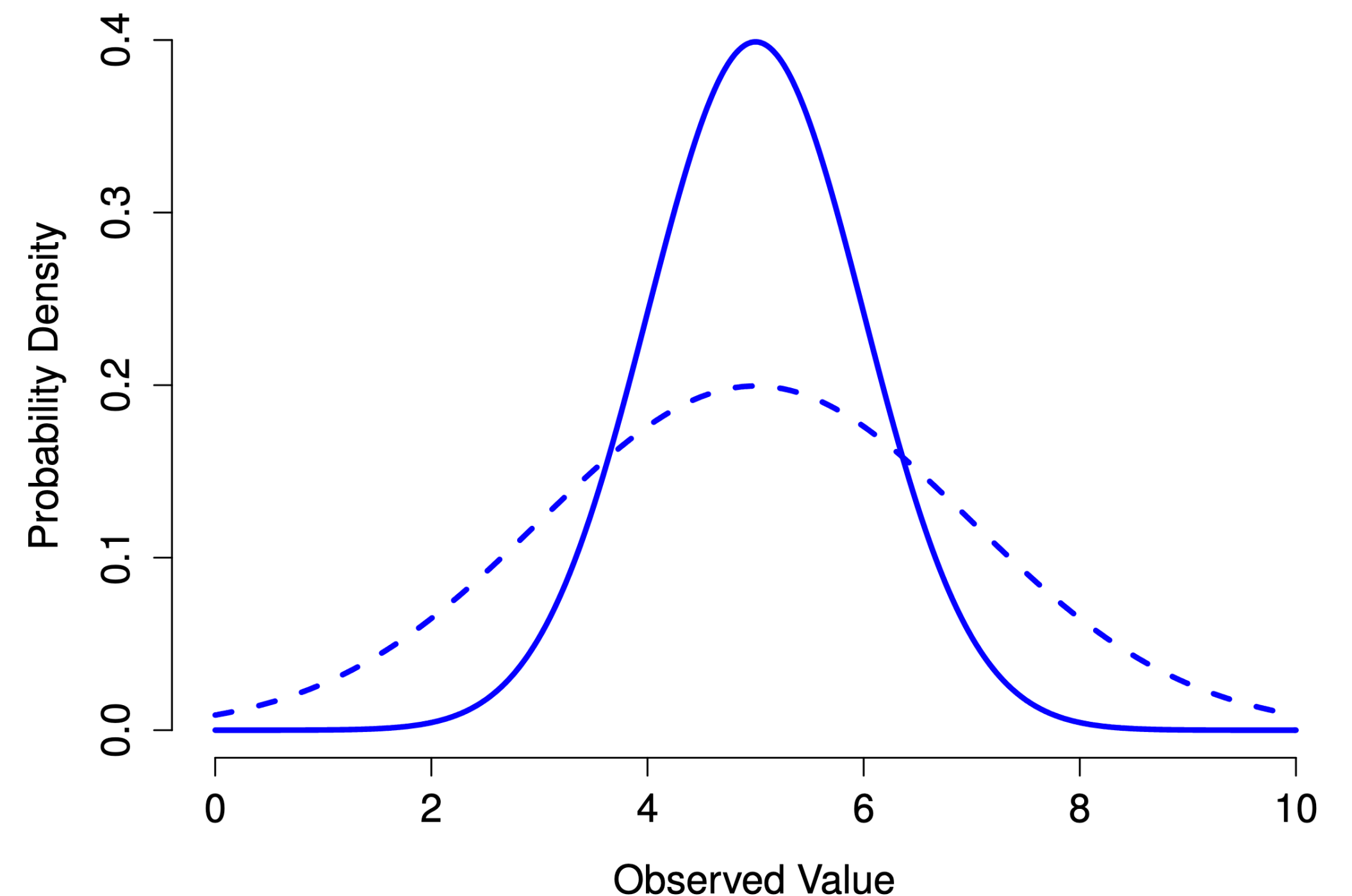
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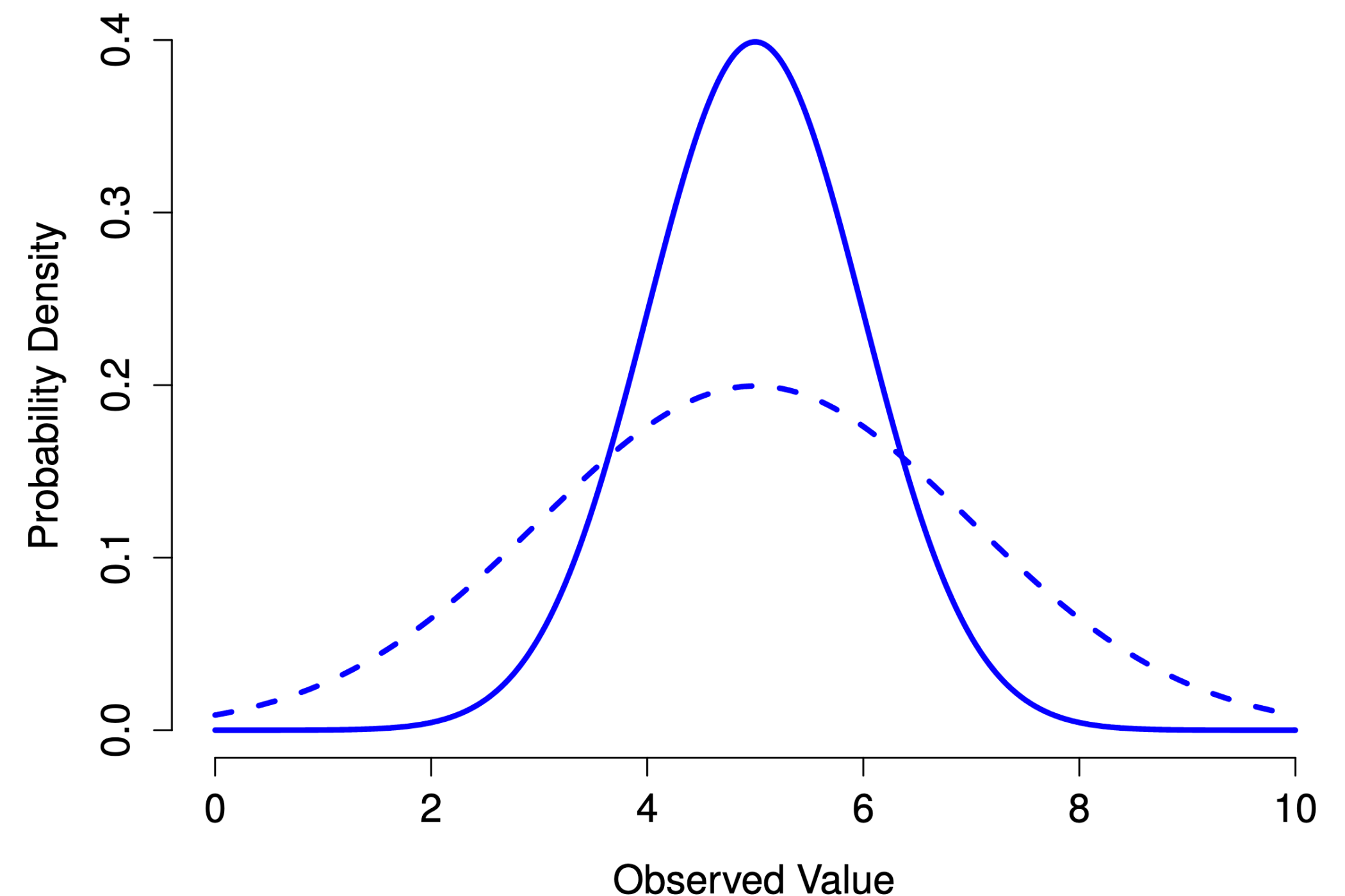
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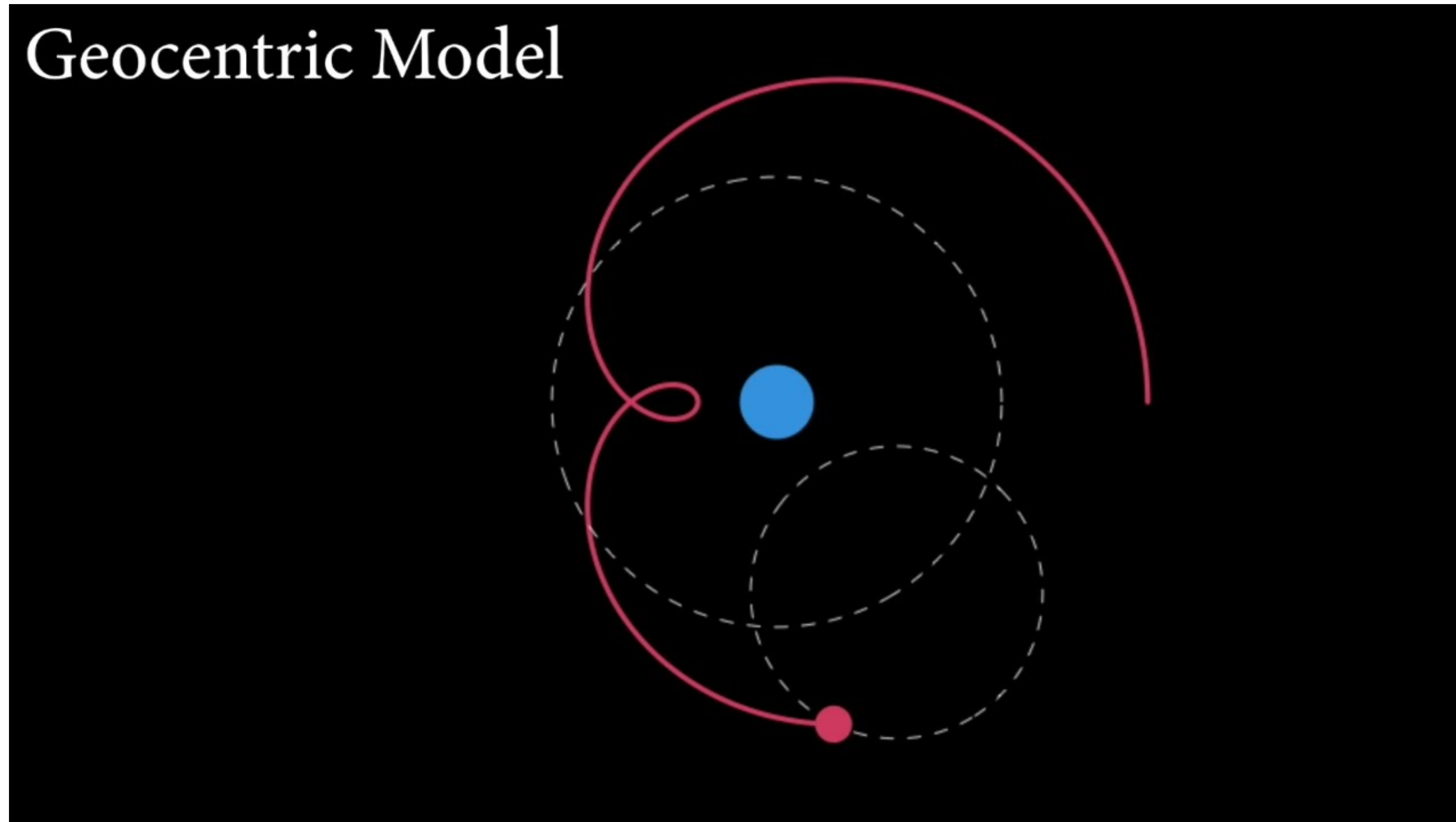


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  - The **area under the curve** adds to 1

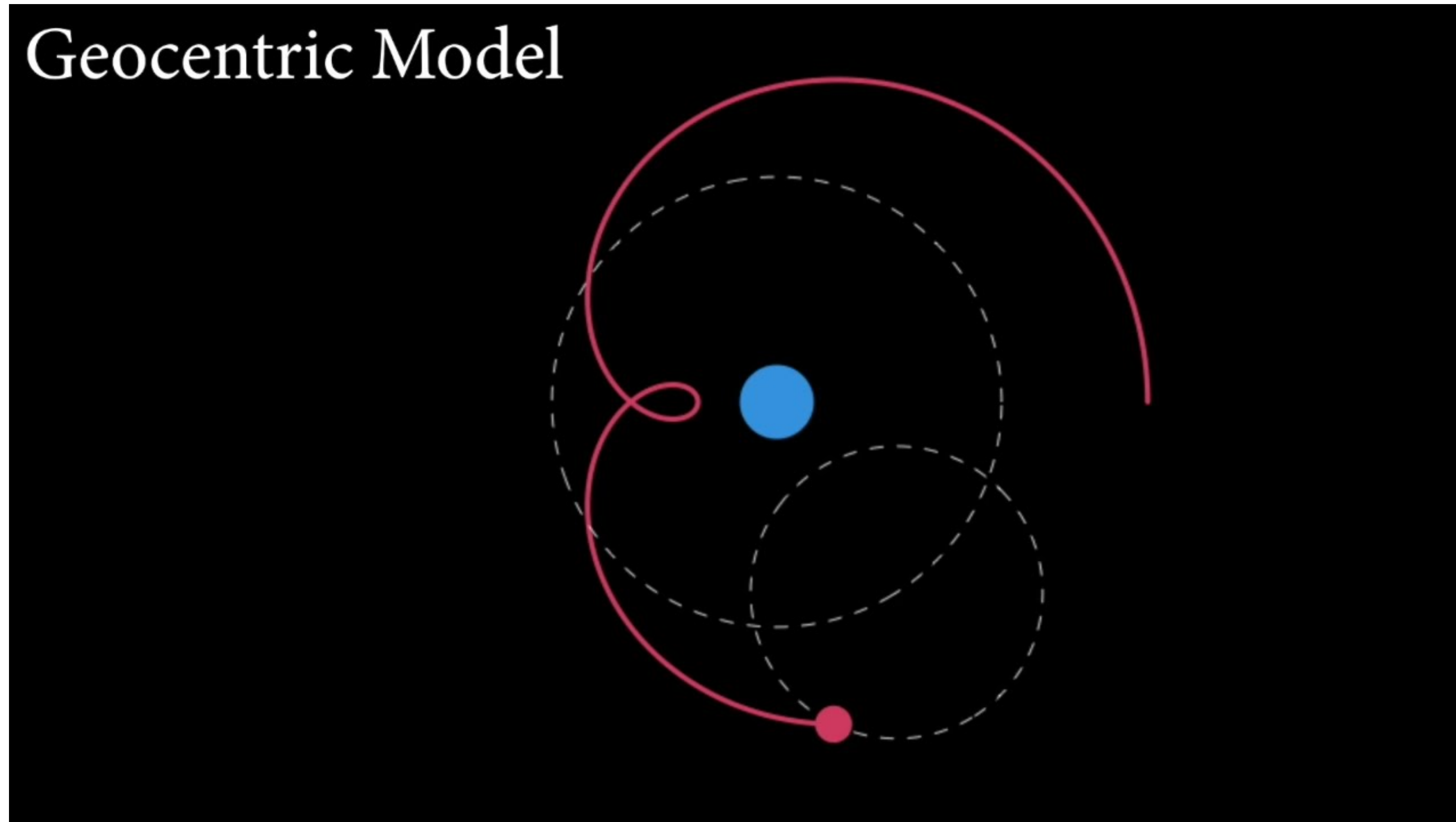


# Visualizing the Normal Distribution



10:42-14:32

# Visualizing the Normal Distribution



10:42-14:32

# Normal Distribution in R

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- Similarly to `dbinom()`, we have `dnorm()`
  - Returns a **probability density** rather than a probability!
  - These are not as interpretable, and can be **greater than 1!**

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> dnorm(x=0, mean=0, sd=0.1)
[1] 3.989423
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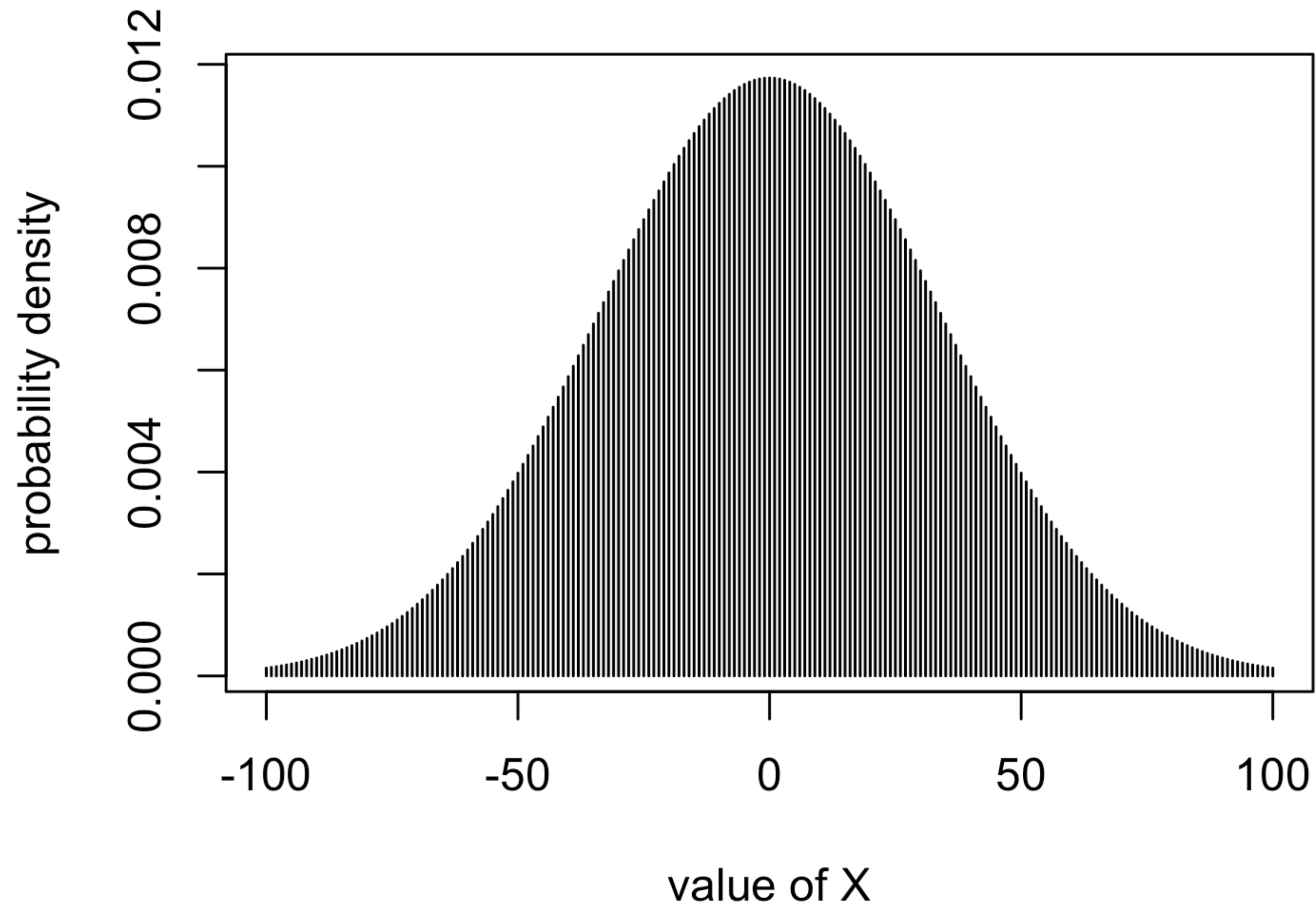
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  - These are not as interpretable, and can be **greater than 1!**
- For continuous variables, we want the probability for  $X$  being in a **certain range**
  - `pnorm()` gives us the **cumulative probability** up to a certain value
  - `pnorm(1.0, mean=0, sd=1) == 0.84` means that 84% of the **probability mass** falls **below 1.0** for this Normal Distribution
  - `pnorm(1.5) - pnorm(1.0)` gives us the probability that  $1.0 \leq X \leq 1.5$  (9.2%)
  - `pbinom()` does the same thing for the Binomial Distribution

```
> pnorm(1.5, mean=0, sd=1) - pnorm(1.0, mean=0, sd=1)
[1] 0.09184805
```

# Plotting the Normal Distribution

```
> norm_values = dnorm(c(-100:100), mean=0, sd=34)
> plot(x=c(-100:100), y=norm_values, type='h', xlab="value of X", y
lab="probability density")
```





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  - Data in the wild doesn't always perfectly fit the model!
- It is often useful to **assume** some aspects of the data are **Normally distributed** (regression in particular assumes **model error** is Normal)
  - This is not always the case! But we'll make simplifying assumptions in this class

# Samples and Populations

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  - Ex: our formant data in `vowels.csv` only **represents 44 speakers**, but we use it to **make generalizations** about English speakers in general!

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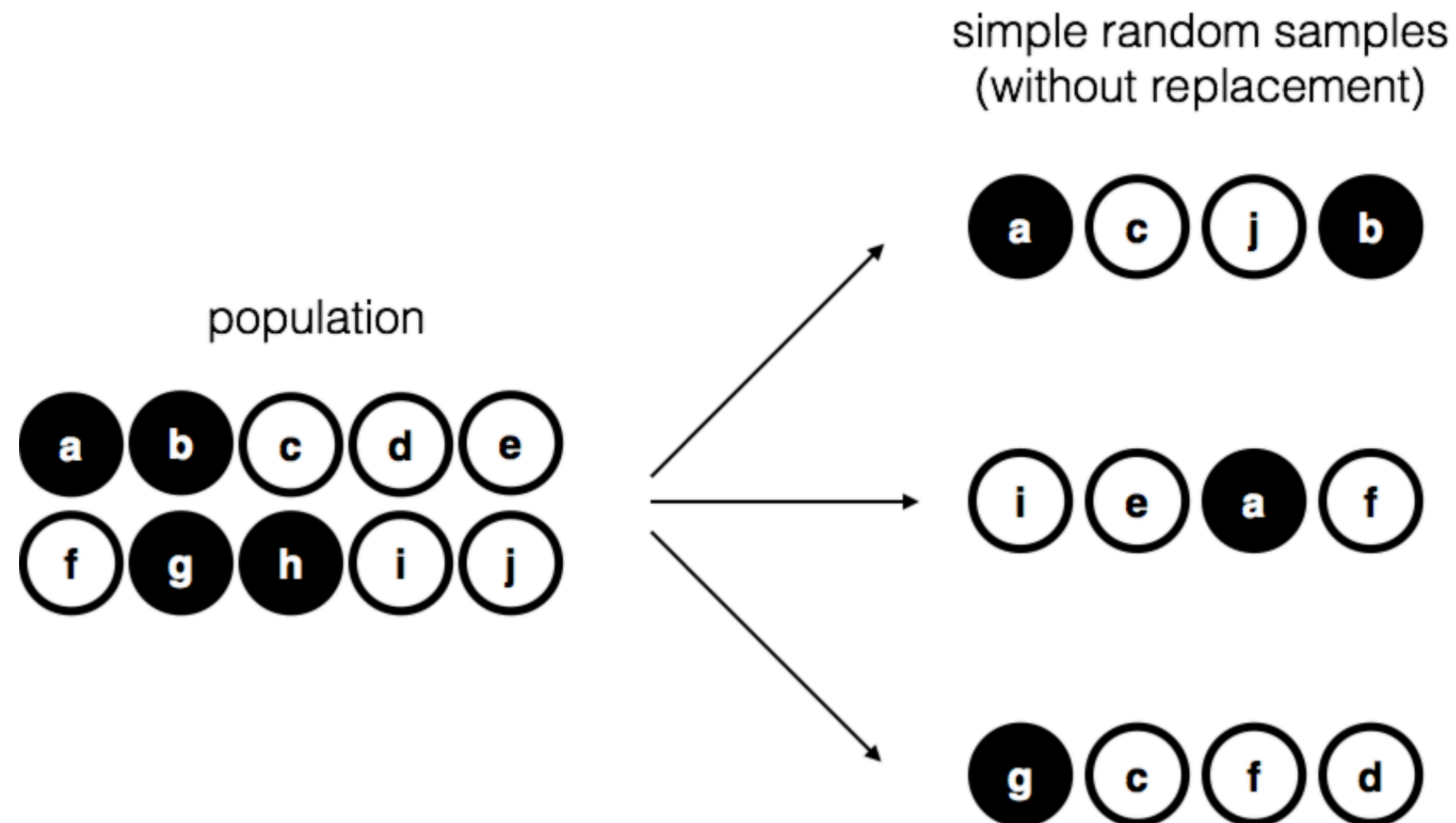
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  - We have a **full accounting** of all speakers of a certain language in a study
  - For most languages, there is **no full accounting** of "all language speakers"
- In **experimental design**, it's important to:
  - Be **precise** about the **population of interest**
  - Be conscious of how the sample **does or does not represent** the population



# Random sampling

- The **ideal** way to sample from a population is **random sampling**
  - I.e. **all members** of the population have an **equal chance of being sampled**
  - This is **essentially impossible** in practice!



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  - The type of person willing to answer a strange number and do a survey is **not representative** of the average American!
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- There are methods to **adjust for sampling bias**, but there is almost no way to be rid of it!

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- The **Law of Large Numbers** is a mathematical proof that most people understand intuitively:
  - The **larger the sample size**, the better the sample **approximates the population**

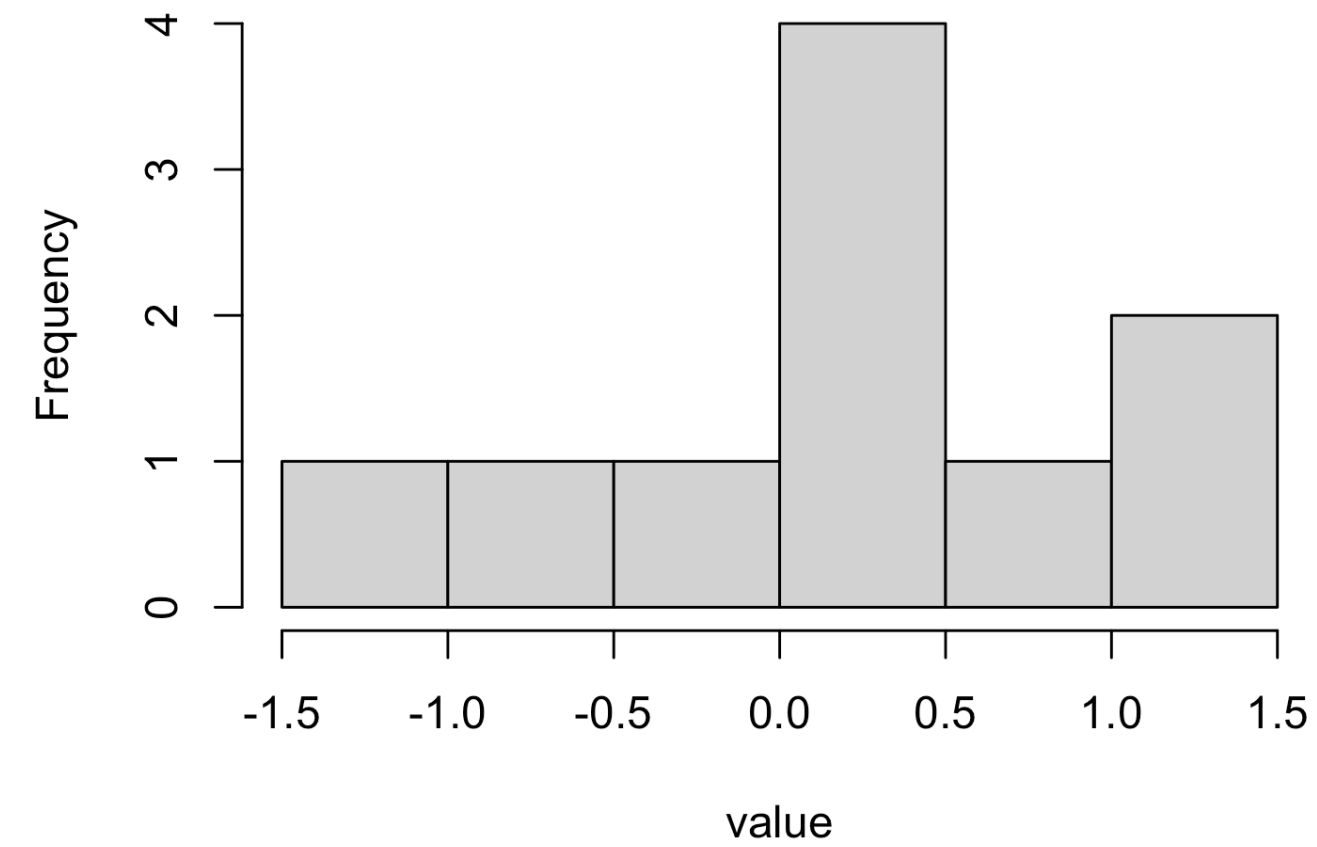
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  - The **larger the sample size**, the better the sample **approximates the population**
- We can observe this by **sampling from a distribution** in R
  - `rnorm()` and `rbinom()` give **random samples** from their respective distributions
  - `rnorm(n=100, mean=0, sd=1)` draws 100 random samples from the Normal
  - Putting the samples into `hist()` shows us the **sample distribution**

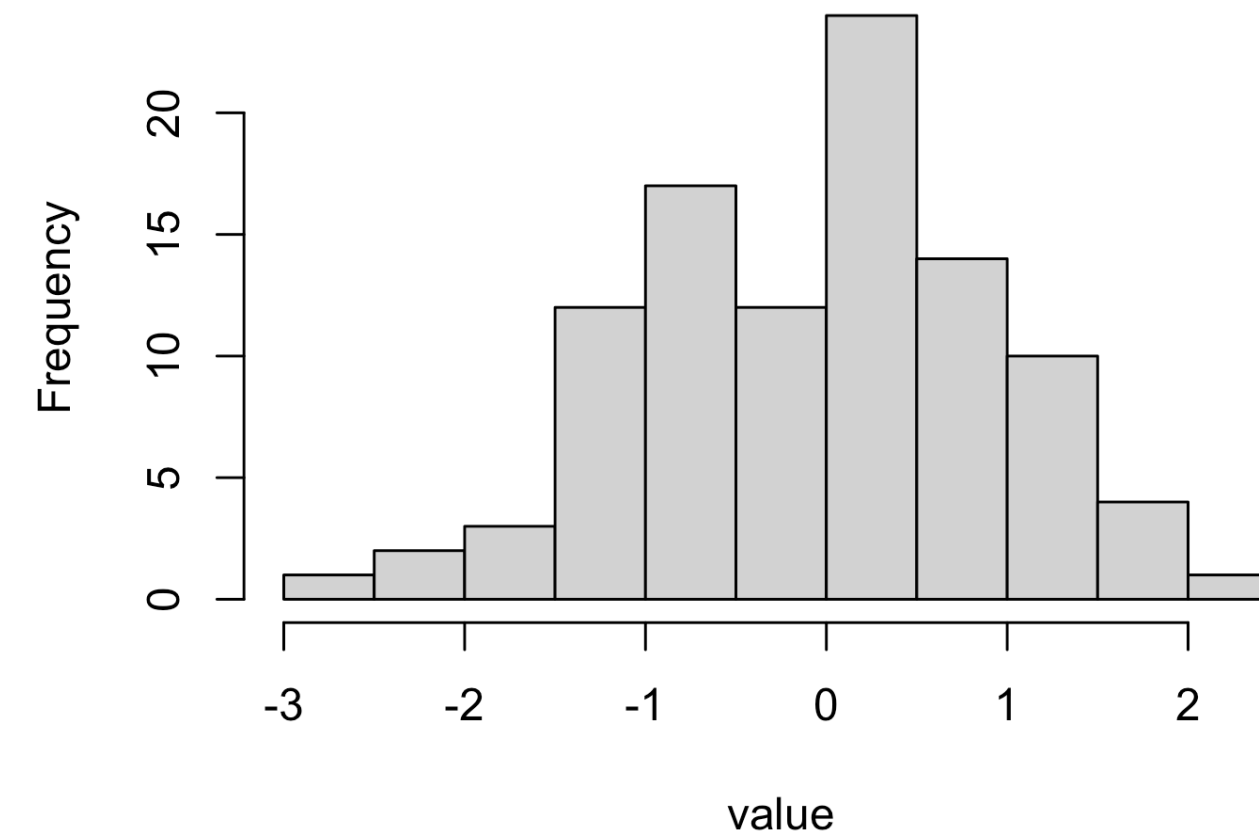


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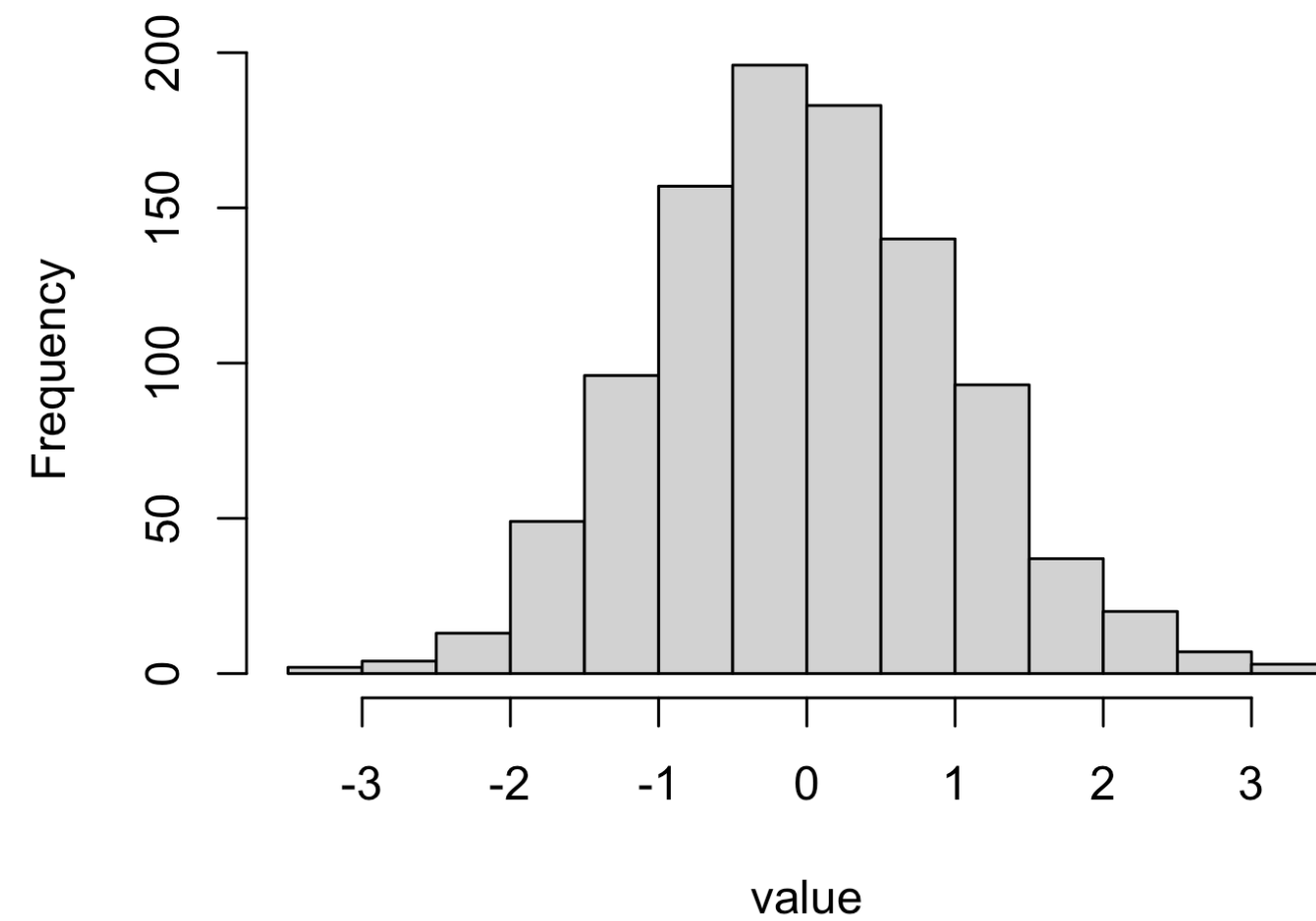
Histogram of  $rnorm(n = 10)$



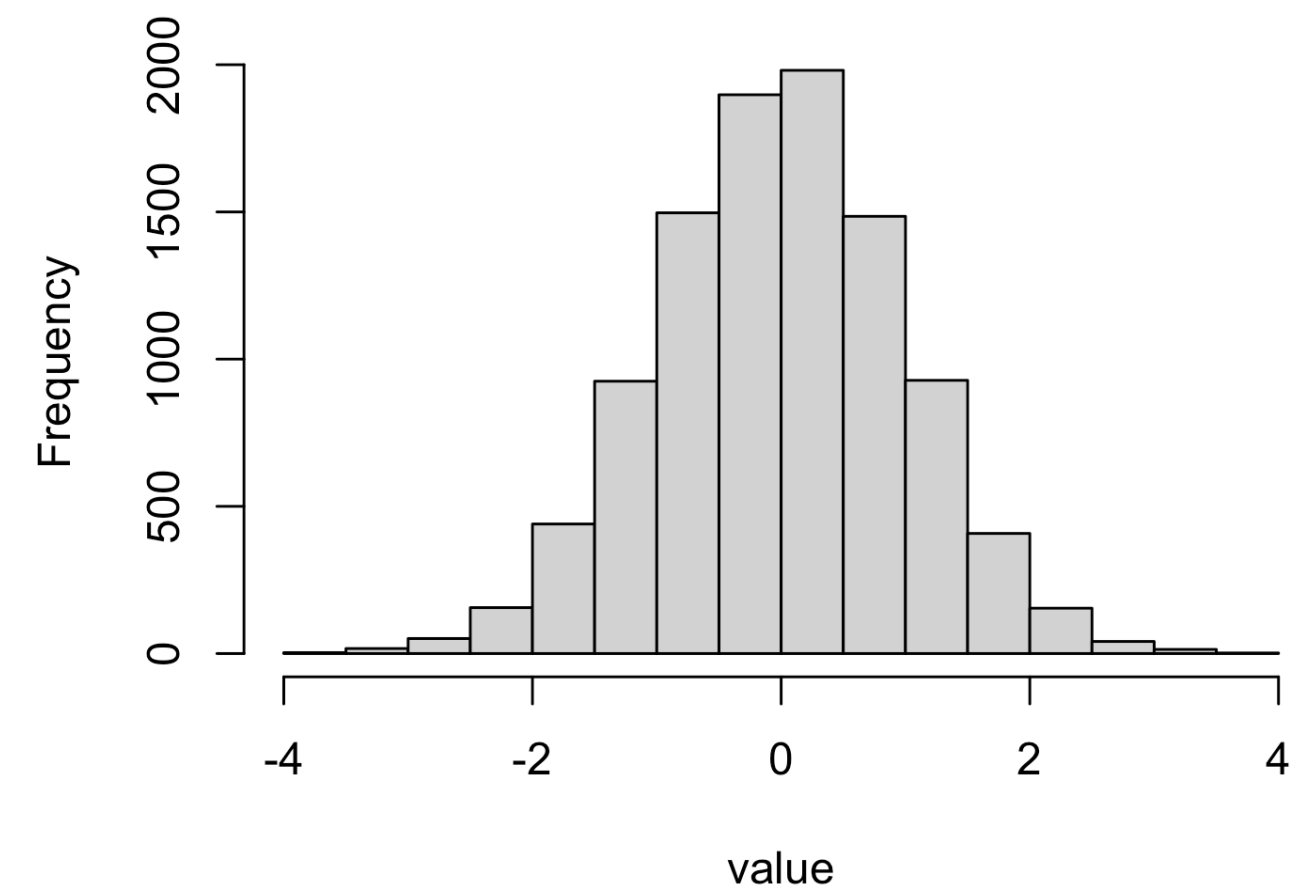
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# Sampling distributions

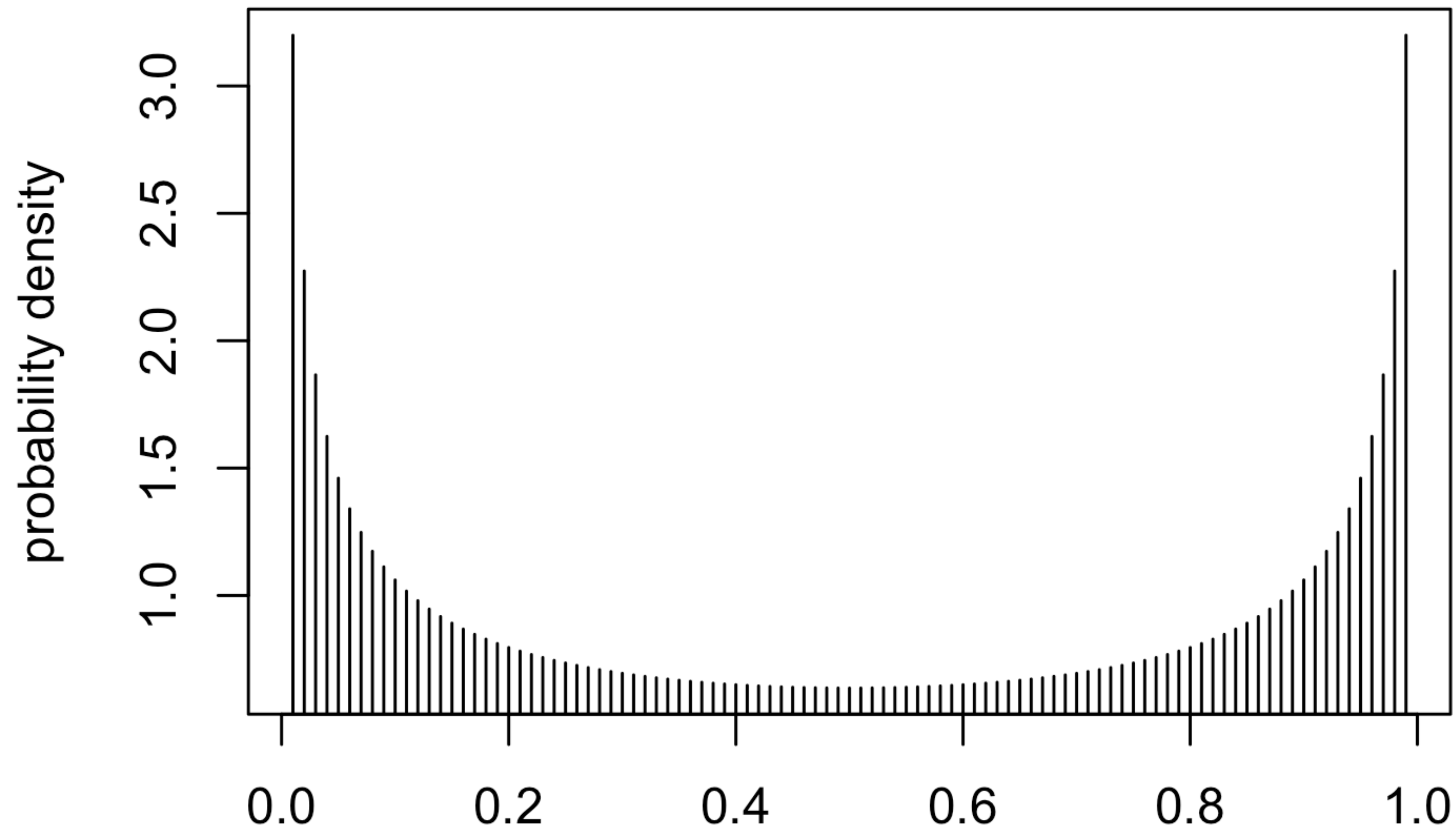
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- Sampling distributions are formed by **sampling many times** from the same population, using a **certain sample size**
  - Example: repeatedly sample **five values** from some population
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- The Sampling Distribution of the Mean is **always Normal**, even if the original distribution is not!

# Example: Beta Distribution

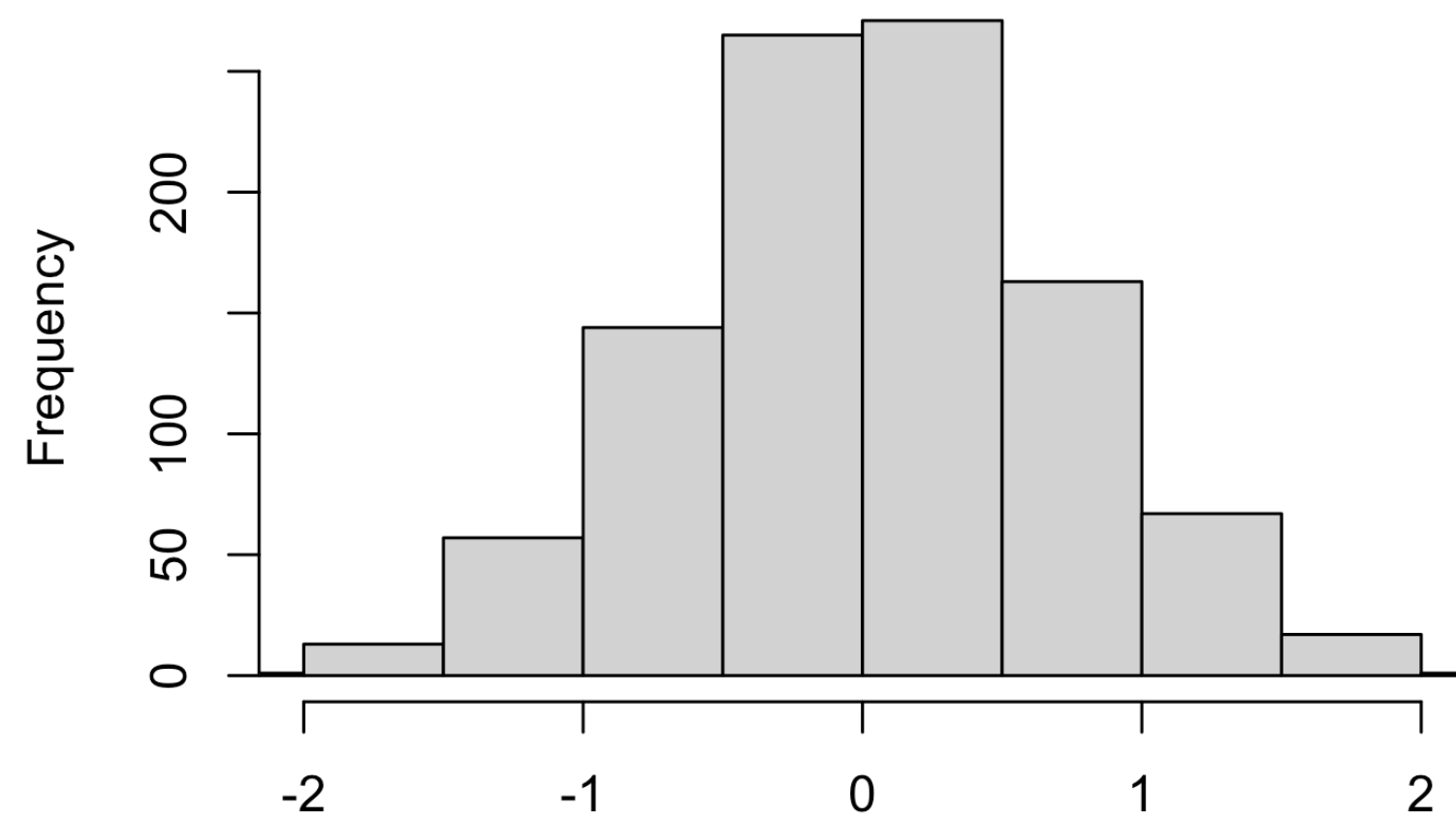
## Beta Distribution



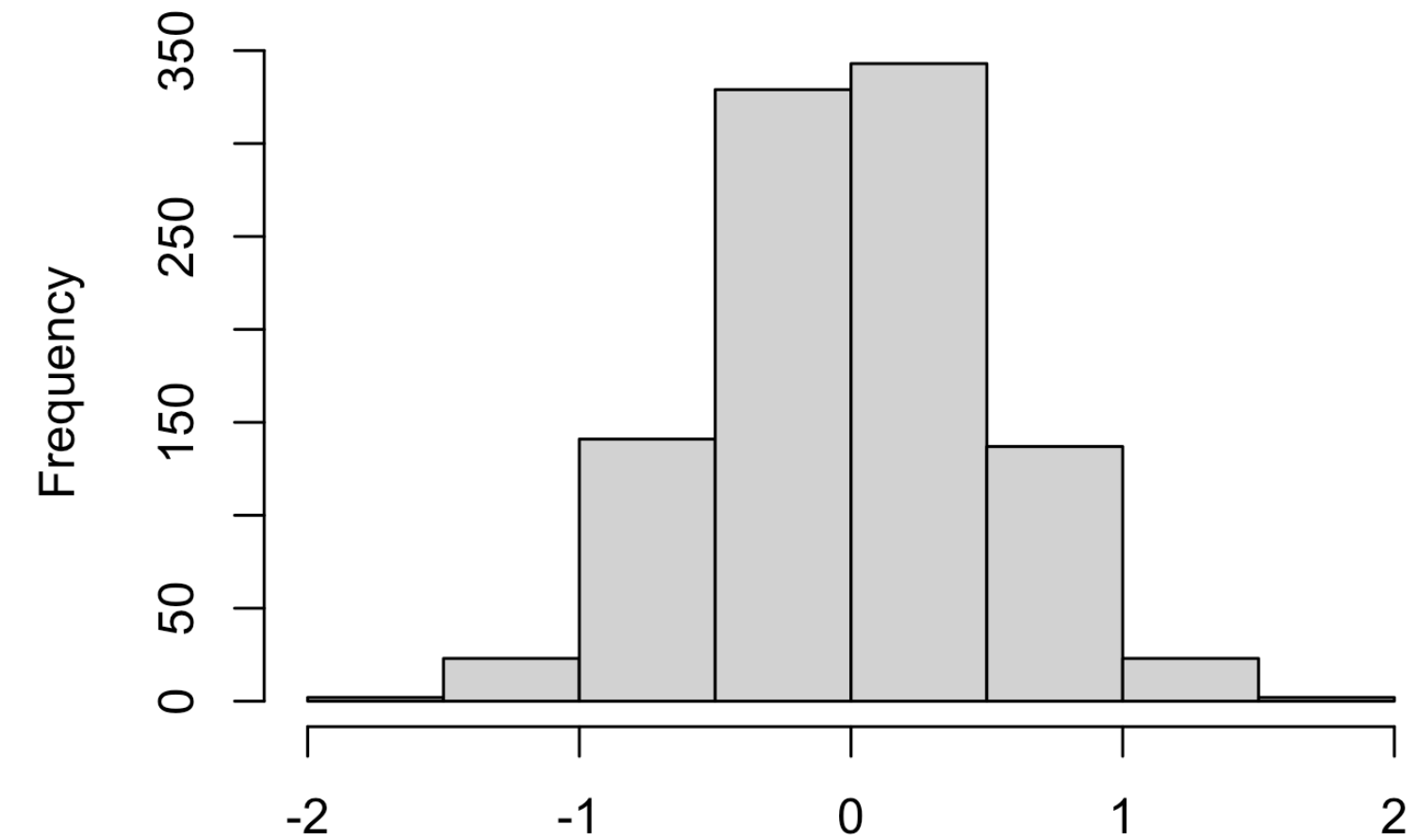
(not  
Normally  
distributed)

# Example: Beta Distribution

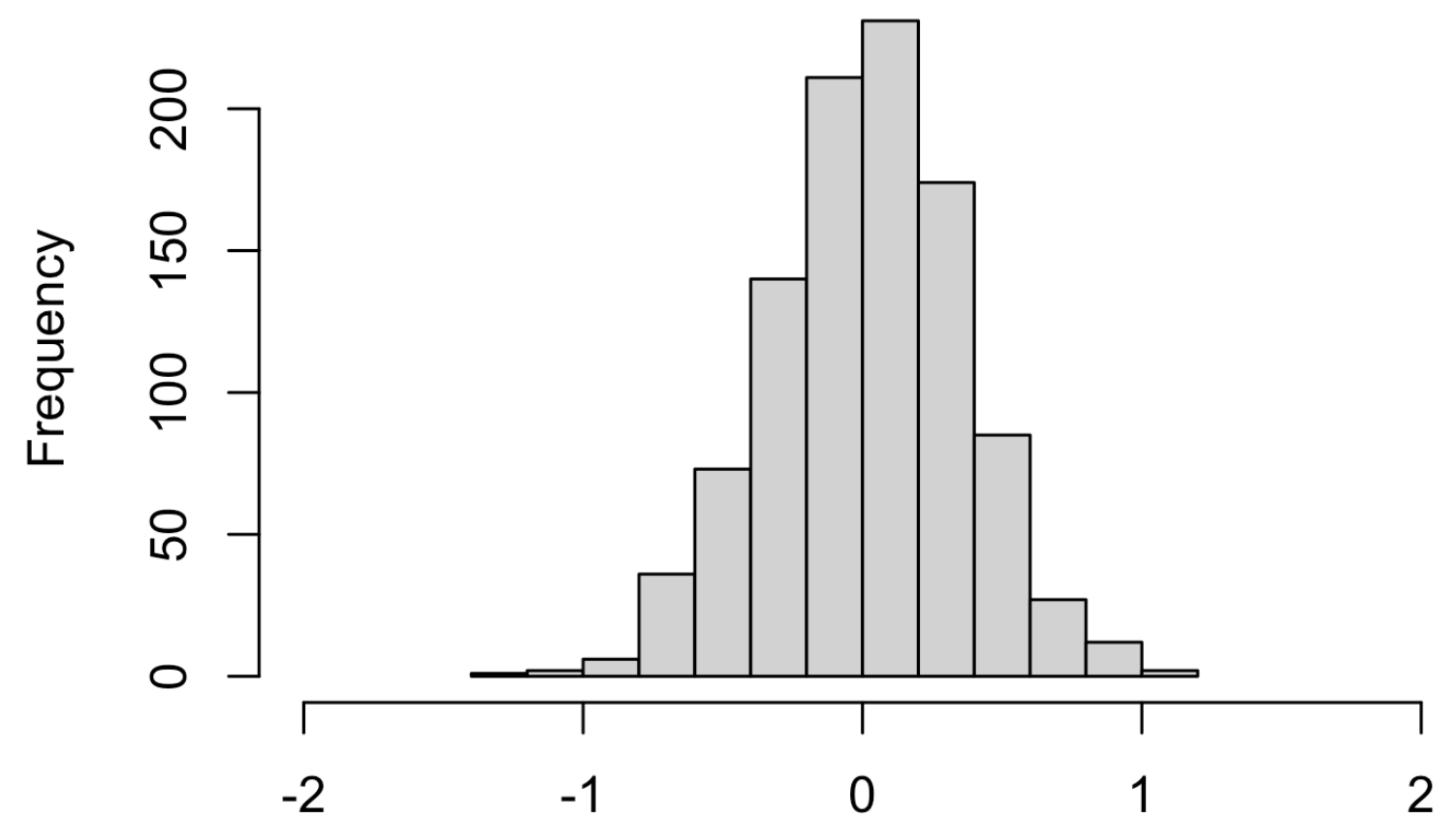
Beta sample means (size 2)



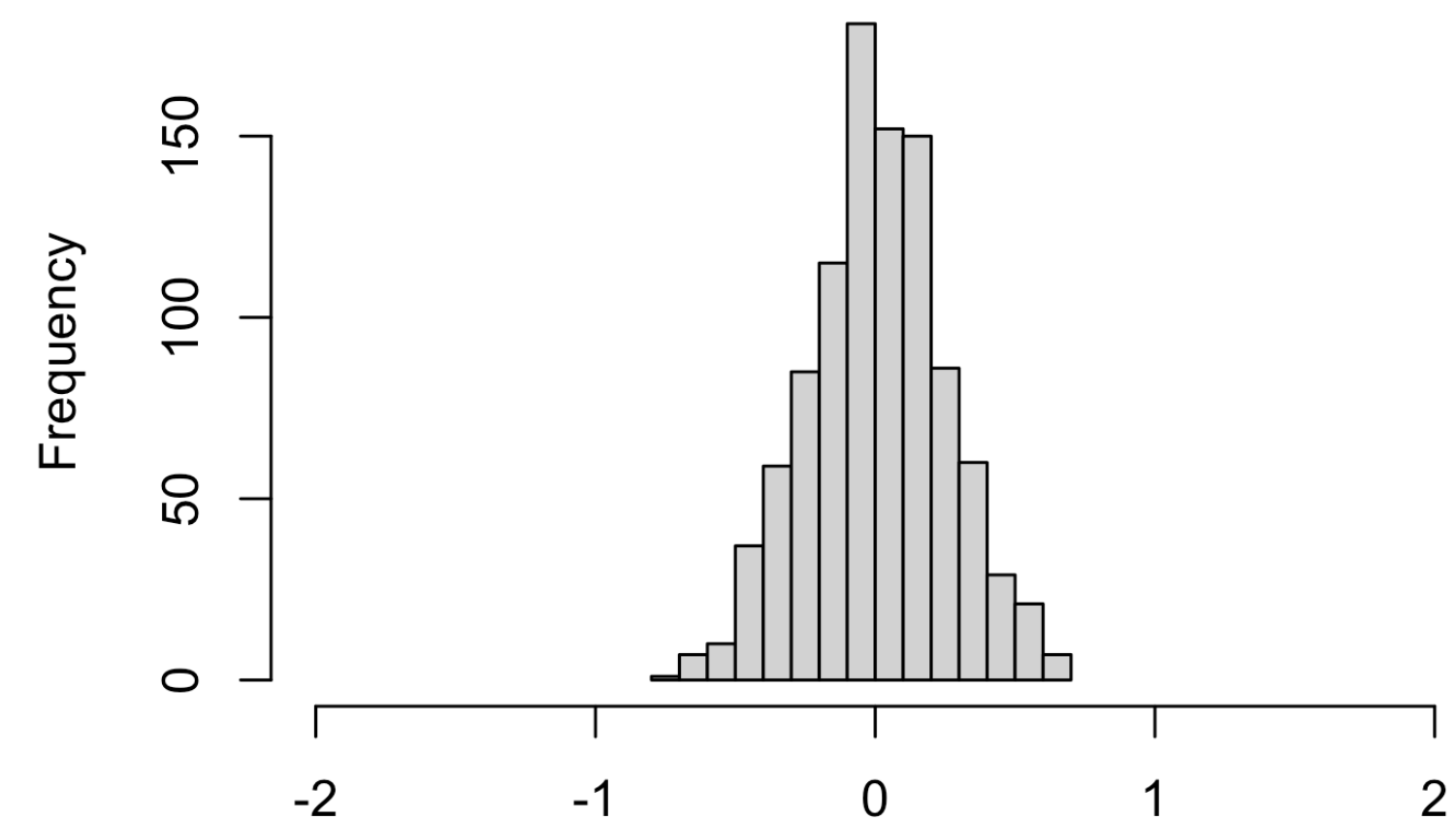
Beta sample means (size 4)



Beta sample means (size 8)



Beta sample means (size 16)



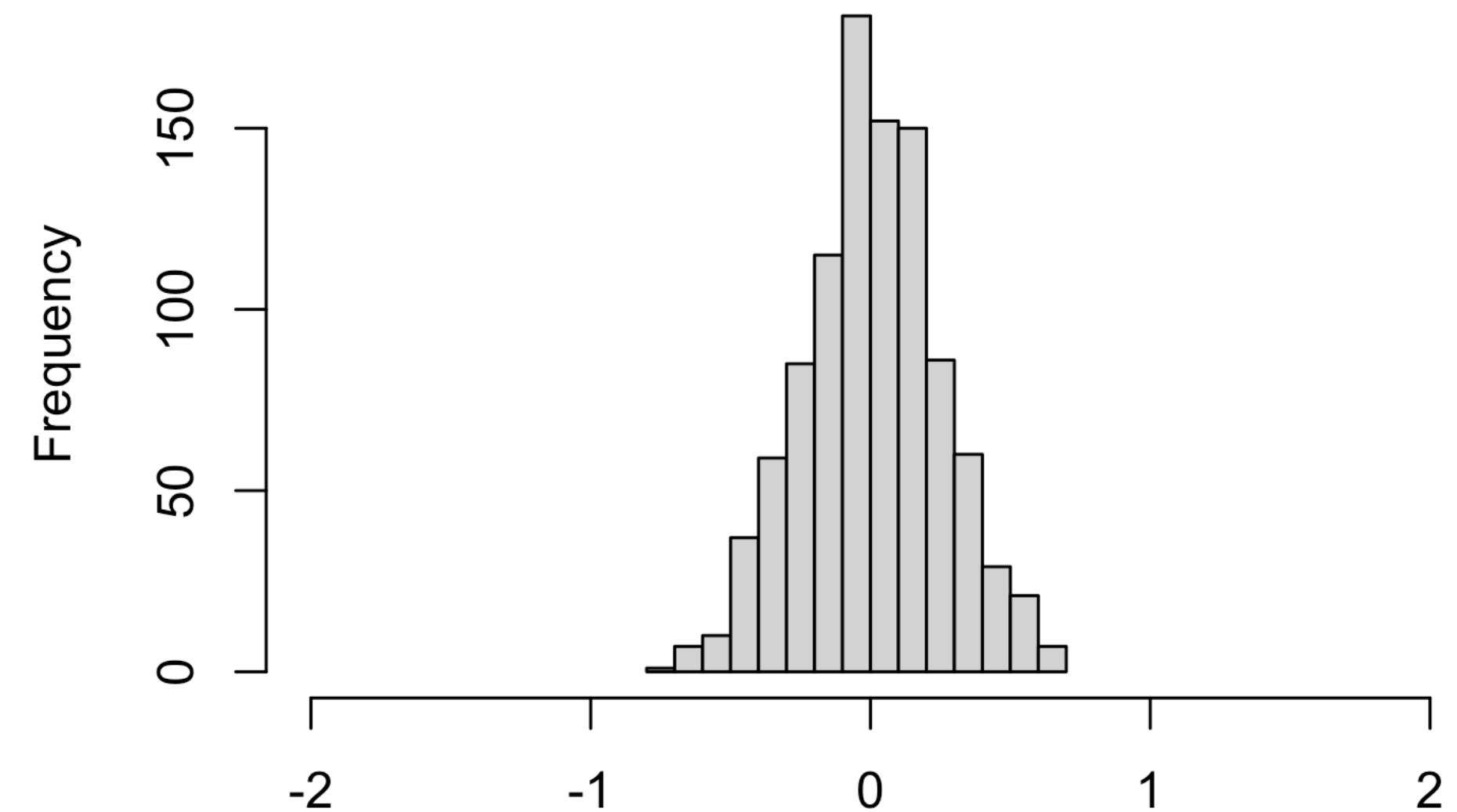
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  - We know by **approximately how much** the **sample mean** deviates from our **population mean**

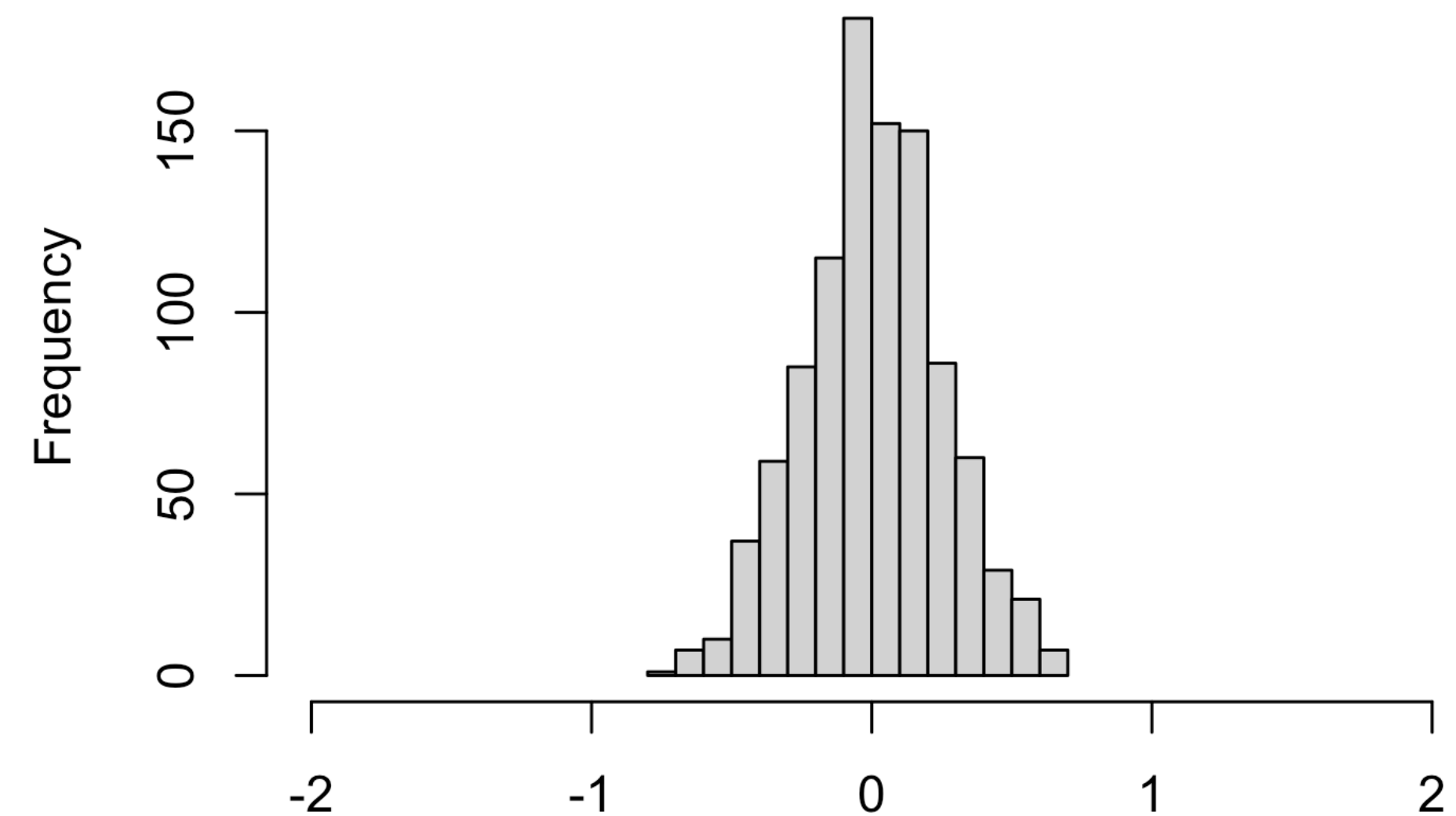
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  - We know by **approximately how much** the **sample mean** deviates from our **population mean**
- This relationship between sample mean and population mean is called the **Standard Error of the Mean (SEM)**
  - This is part of what is known as the **Central Limit Theorem**

Beta sample means (size 16)



$$SEM = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$$

← population standard deviation