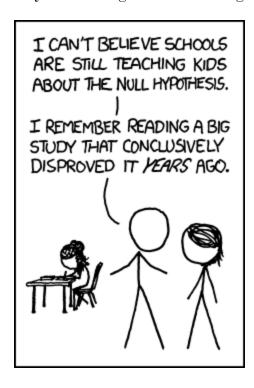
Chapter 2: Probability for Statistical Computing

We will **briefly** review some definitions and concepts in probability and statistics that will be helpful for the remainder of the class.

Just like we reviewed computational tools (R and packages), we will now do the same for probability and statistics.



i.e. you may reed to do some refreshing outside of class as well.

$\underline{https://xkcd.com/892/}$

Alternative text: "Hell, my eighth grade science class managed to conclusively reject it just based on a classroom experiment. It's pretty sad to hear about million-dollar research teams who can't even manage that."

1 Random Variables and Probability

Definition 1.1 A random variable is a function that maps sets of all possible outcomes of an experiment (sample space Ω) to \mathbb{R} .

Example 1.1

Example 1.2

Example 1.2

Mandomly Select 25 deer
$$\mathcal{E}$$
 test for CWD Cohronic washing disease)

Sample space \mathcal{E} +, - m CWD test \mathcal{E} .

 $X = \{0 \text{ or } 1\}$ observe X_1, \dots, X_{25}

Note $P = \sum_{i=1}^{25} X_i / 25$ is also a r.v.!

Example 1.3

Types of random variables –

Discrete take values in a countable set.

Continuous take values in an uncountable set (like \mathbb{R})

Ex 1.3
$$\leftarrow$$
 X; \in R P from Ex 1.2 \leftarrow P \in [0,1].

1.1 CDFs and PDFs 3

1.1 Distribution and Density Functions

Definition 1.2 The probability mass function (pmf) of a random variable X is f_X defined for discrete R.V.'s. by

$$f_{\widehat{\mathcal{S}}}(x) = P(X=x)$$
 soprines when he r.v. is obvious we will omit the subscript.

where $P(\cdot)$ denotes the probability of its argument.

There are a few requirements of a valid pmf

regularity
$$\{1, f(x) \ge 0 \ \forall x.\}$$

$$\{2, \sum_{x} f(x) = 1\}$$

$$\{3, \sum_{x} f(x) = 1\}$$

$$\{4, \sum_{x} f(x) = 1\}$$

$$\{5, \sum_{x} f(x) = 1\}$$

$$\{6, \sum_{x$$

Example 1.4 Let $\Omega =$ all possible values of a roll of a single die $= \{1, \ldots, 6\}$ and X be the

outcome of a single roll of one
$$die \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$$
.

$$f(1) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(3) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(7) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(8) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(8) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(8) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$f(8) = \frac{1}{6}$$

A pmf is defined for **discrete variables**, but what about **continuous**? Continuous variables do not have positive probability pass at any single point.

Definition 1.3 The probability density function (pdf) of a random variable X is f_X defined by

$$P(X \in A) = \int\limits_{x \in A} \underbrace{f_X(x)} dx.$$
 for $A \subset \mathbb{R}$.

X is a continuous random variable if there exists this function $f_X \geq 0$ such that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, this probability exists.

For f_X to be a valid pdf,

1.
$$f_x(x) \ge 0 + x \in \mathbb{R}$$
.

2.
$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{\chi}(x) dx = 1$$

Again
$$X = \{x : f_X(x) > 0\}$$
 is the "support" of our R.V. X.

There are many named pdfs and cdfs that you have seen in other class, e.g.

Example 1.5 Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{c(4x - 2x^2)}{0} & 0 < x < 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
Find c and then find $P(X > 1)$

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) = \int_{0}^{2} \frac{c(4x - 2x^2)}{c(4x - 2x^2)} dx + \int_{0}^{2} dx + \int_{0}^{2} dx$$

$$= \left[2x^2 - \frac{2x^3}{3} \right]_{0}^{3} = c \left[\frac{8}{3} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{mat}} | \Rightarrow c = \frac{3}{8}$$

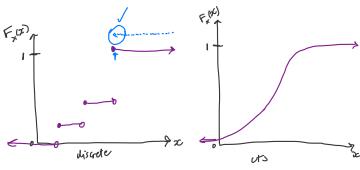
$$P(X>1) = \int_{8}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{8}^{\frac{3}{8}} (4x - 2x^{2}) dx + \int_{2}^{\infty} p dx = \frac{3}{8} \left[2x^{2} - \frac{2x^{3}}{3}\right]^{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Definition 1.4 The cumulative distribution function (cdf) for a random variable X is F_X defined by

$$F_X(x)=P(X\leq x),\quad x\in\mathbb{R}.$$

The cdf has the following properties

- 1. Fx is non-decreasing.
- 2. Fx is right continuous.
- 3. $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F_x(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x\to\infty} F_x(x) = 1$



A random variable X is *continuous* if F_X is a continuous function and *discrete* if F_X is a step function.

Example 1.6 Find the cdf for the previous example.

$$F_{\chi}(x) = P(\chi \leq x), \quad \chi \in \mathbb{R}.$$
if $x < 0$, $P(\chi \leq x) = 0$
if $\chi \geq \lambda$, $P(\chi \leq x) = 1$

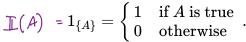
if $\chi \in [0, \lambda), \quad P(\chi \leq x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{3}{8} (4\chi - 3\eta^2) d\eta = \frac{3}{8} \left[2\eta^2 - \frac{2\eta^2}{3} \right]_0^{\infty} = \frac{3}{4} x^2 (1 - \frac{2}{3})$

So $F_{\chi}(x) = \begin{cases} 3/4 x^2 (1 - 2/3) \times \xi (0, \lambda) \\ 1/4 x^2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

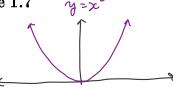
Note $f(x) = F'(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$ in the continuous case.

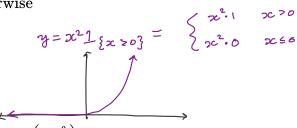
Pdf derive of

Recall an indicator function is defined as



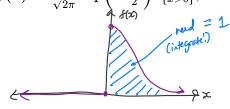
Example 1.7





Example 1.8 If $X \sim N(0,1)$, the pdf is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$.

If $f(x)=rac{c}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\Bigl(-rac{x^2}{2}\Bigr) 1_{\{x>0\}},$ what is c?



We know
$$N(O_1)$$
 symmetric wound O_1 ?
$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow C \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx = \frac{C}{2}$$

Need:
$$1 = \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{c}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{a}\right) \mathbb{I}_{\{x \ge 0\}} dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{c}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{a}\right) dx$$

1.2 Two Continuous Random Variables

 $\mathcal{E}_{\gamma,\gamma}(x,\gamma)$ **Definition 1.5** The *joint pdf* of the continuous vector (X,Y) is defined as

$$P((X,Y)\in A)=\iint\limits_A f_{X,Y}(x,y)dxdy$$

for any set $\mathbf{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.

Joint pdfs have the following properties

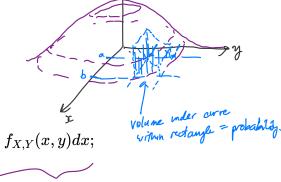
and a support defined to be
$$\{(x,y): f_{X,Y}(x,y)>0\}$$
.

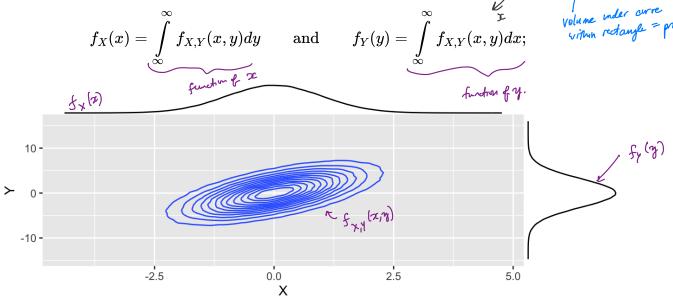
Note we can also have joint dissele r.v.'s where E E fx,y(x,y)=1.

Example 1.9
$$\times$$
, $\forall \omega / \rho df$ $\mathcal{S}_{\chi,\gamma}(x,\gamma)$

$$P(a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d) = \int_{a}^{b} \int_{x,y}^{d} f_{x,y}(x,w) dy dx$$

The marginal densities of X and Y are given by





Example 1.10 (From Devore (2008) Example 5.3, pg. 187) A bank operates both a drive-up facility and a walk-up window. On a randomly selected day, let X be the proportion of time that the drive-up facility is in use and Y is the proportion of time that the walk-up window is in use.

The the set of possible values for (X,Y) is the square $D=\{(x,y): 0\leq x\leq 1, 0\leq y\leq 1\}$. Suppose the joint pdf is given by

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{6}{5}(x+y^2) & x \in [0,1], y \in [0,1] \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

> Evaluate the probability that both the drive-up and the walk-up windows are used a quarter of the time or less.

er of the time of less.

$$P(0 \le x \le \frac{1}{4}, 0 \le y \le \frac{1}{4}) = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \frac{6}{5} (x + y^{2}) dx dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \frac{6}{5} \left[\frac{2^{2}}{32} + y^{2}x \right]_{x=0}^{x=\frac{1}{4}} dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \frac{6}{5} \left[\frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{4^{2}} \right] dy$$

$$= \frac{6}{5} \left[\frac{3}{32} + \frac{1}{4^{2}} \right]_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{6}{5} \left[\frac{1}{32} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{12} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^{3} \right] = \frac{7}{640} = 0.0109$$

Find the marginal densities for X and Y.

Find the marginal densities for
$$X$$
 and Y .
$$\int_{X} (x) = \int_{0}^{2} \frac{6}{5} (x + y^{2}) dy = \frac{6}{5} \left[xy + \frac{y^{3}}{3} \right]_{y=0}^{1} = \begin{cases} \frac{6}{5} \left(x + \frac{1}{3} \right) & \text{for } x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{o. } \omega. \end{cases}$$

$$f_{y}(y) = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{6}{5}(x+y^{2}) dx = \frac{6}{5} \left[\frac{x^{2}}{2} + xy^{2} \right]_{x=0}^{1} = \begin{cases} \frac{6}{5} \left(\frac{1}{2} + y^{2} \right) & \text{for } y \in (0,1) \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

Compute the probability that the drive-up facility is used a quarter of the time or less.

The probability that the drive-up facility is used a quarter of the time of less.

$$P(\chi \leq \frac{1}{4}) = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} f_{\chi}(x) dx = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \frac{b}{5} (x + \frac{1}{3}) dx = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \left[\frac{x^{2}}{5} + \frac{x}{3} \right]_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{b}{5} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^{2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{11}{80} = 0, 1375$$

2 Expected Value and Variance

Definition 2.1 The expected value (average or mean) of a random variable X with pdf or pmf f_X is defined as

$$E[X] = egin{cases} \sum\limits_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x f_X(x_i) & X ext{ is discrete} \ \int\limits_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \underline{x} f_X(x) dx & X ext{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

Where $\mathcal{X} = \{x : f_X(x) > 0\}$ is the support of X.

This is a weighted average of all possible values \mathcal{X} by the probability distribution.

Example 2.1 Let $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Find E

$$\Rightarrow X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{u.p. p} \\ \text{v.p. i-p} \end{cases} \Rightarrow f(x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{when } x = 1 \\ 1 - p & \text{when } x = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow f(x) = p^{\infty} (1 - p)^{(1 - \infty)} \text{ for } x \in \{0,1\}.$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in X} x f(x) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} x p^{x} (1-p)^{(1-x)} = 0.00 (1-p)^{-1} + 1.0p' (1-p)^{-1} = p$$

Example 2.2 Let
$$X \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$$
. Find $E[X]$.
$$S(x) = \begin{cases} 2e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$E[X] = \begin{cases} x \geq 0 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$U_{X} = \begin{cases} x \geq 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$U_{X} = \begin{cases} x \leq 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

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$$U$$

Definition 2.2 Let g(X) be a function of a continuous random variable X with pdf f_X . Then,

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f_X(x) dx.$$
 somethes this is hard to do by hard (impossible?) $E[g(X)] = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f_X(x) dx.$ $f(X) = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f_X(x) dx$.

Definition 2.3 The *variance* (a measure of spread) is defined as

$$Var[X] = E\left[(X-E[X])^2
ight] \ = E[X^2] - \left(E[X]
ight)^2$$
 computation from

Example 2.3 Let X be the number of cylinders in a car engine. The following is the pmf function for the size of car engines.

$$\overline{x \ 4.0 \ 6.0 \ 8.0} \iff$$
f 0.5 0.3 0.2

Find

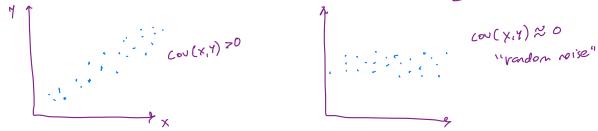
$$E[X] = \sum_{x} x f(x) = 4(0.5) + 6(0.5) + 8(0.2) = 5.4$$

$$Var[X] = E[X^{2}] - (E[X])^{2}$$

$$E[X^{2}] = \sum_{x} x^{2} f(x) = y^{2}(0.5) + 6^{2}(0.3) + 8^{2}(0.2) = 31.6$$

$$\Rightarrow Var(X) = 31.6 - 5.4^{2} = 2.44 \quad easier to interpret sd = \sqrt{Var}X = 1.56$$

Covariance measures how two random variables vary together (their linear relationship).



Definition 2.4 The *covariance* of X and Y is defined by

Finance of
$$X$$
 and Y is defined by

$$Cov[X,Y] = E\left[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])\right]$$

$$= E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

$$\text{computationally convenient form.}$$

$$\int_{X} g(x,y) f(x,y) dx$$
and Y is defined as

and the *correlation* of *X* and *Y* is defined as

Two variables X and Y are uncorrelated if $\rho(X,Y)=0$.

3 Independence and Conditional Probability

In classical probability, the *conditional probability* of an event A given that event B has occured is

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

Definition 3.1 Two events A and B are independent if P(A|B) = P(A). The converse is $A \text{ and } B \text{ are independent} \Leftrightarrow P(A|B) = P(A) \Leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$ also true, so

$$A \text{ and } B \text{ are independent} \Leftrightarrow P(A|B) = P(A) \Leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$$

Theorem 3.1 (Bayes' Theorem) Let A and B be events. Then,

$$P(A|B) \stackrel{\text{def}^{h}}{=} \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

3.1 Random variables

The same ideas hold for random variables. If X and Y have joint pdf $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$, then the conditional density of X given Y = y is

$$f_{X|Y=y}(x)=rac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_{Y}(y)}.$$

Thus, two random variables X and Y are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y).$$

Also, if
$$X$$
 and Y are independent, then
$$f_{X|Y=y}(x) = \underbrace{f_{X,Y}(x,\gamma)}_{f_{Y}(y)} = \underbrace{f_{X}(x)f_{Y}(x)}_{f_{Y}(y)} = f_{X}(x).$$

4 Properties of Expected Value and Variance

Suppose that X and Y are random variables, and a and b are constants. Then the following hold:

1.
$$E[aX + b] = a = X + b$$

$$2. \ E[X+Y] = \quad \text{E[Y]} + \text{E[Y]}$$

- 3. If X and Y are independent, then E[XY] = Im[X]
- $4. \ Var[b] = \bigcirc$

$$5. \ Var[aX+b] = a^2 \ Var[X]$$

6. If X and Y are independent,
$$Var[X + Y] = Var[X] + Var[Y]$$

5 Random Samples

Definition 5.1 Random variables $\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$ are defined as a *random sample* from f_X if X_1,\ldots,X_n $\widehat{f_{X}}$ independent and identically distributed

Example 5.1

Example 5.1
$$\times, \sim N(\mu_1, 6^2)$$
 may be independent but
$$\times, \sim N(\mu_1, 6^2)$$
 Mot identically distributed.
$$\times_2 \sim N(\mu_2, 6^2)$$
 Not identically distributed.

Theorem 5.1 If $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_X$, then

$$f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i).$$

 $f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i).$ $f(x_i)$ f

Example 5.2 Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be iid. Derive the expected value and variance of the sample

mean
$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
.

$$E[X_n] = E[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i] = \frac{1}{n} E[\hat{S}_i X_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n EX_i = \frac{1}{n} EX_i$$

$$= EX_i$$

$$Var\left[\begin{array}{c} \overline{X}_{n} \end{array}\right] = Var\left[\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \end{array}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}} Var\left[\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \end{array}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} VarX_{i} = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} VarX_{i}$$

6 R Tips

From here on in the course we will be dealing with a lot of **randomness**. In other words, running our code will return a **random** result.

But what about reproducibility??

When we generate "random" numbers in R, we are actually generating numbers that *look* random, but are *pseudo-random* (not really random). The vast majority of computer languages operate this way.

This means all is not lost for reproducibility!

```
set.seed(400)
```

Before running our code, we can fix the starting point (seed) of the pseudorandom number generator so that we can reproduce results.

Speaking of generating numbers, we can generate numbers (also evaluate densities, distribution functions, and quantile functions) from named distributions in R.

