Chapter 4: Special Probability Distributions

1 DISCRETE DISTRIBUTIONS

- Recall that for a discrete random variable X, the number of possible values (i.e., R_X) is **finite** or **countable**.
- The elements of R_X can be listed as x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots
- In this section, we study some classes of discrete random variables.

Discrete Uniform Distribution

DEFINITION 1

- If RV X assumes the values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$ with equal probability, then X follows a **discrete uniform distribution**.
- *The p.f. for X is given by*

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{k}, \qquad x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k,$$

and 0 otherwise.

THEOREM 2

Suppose X follows the discrete uniform distribution with $R_X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_k\}$, we have

• The expectation is given by

$$\mu_X = E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i f_X(x_i) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i.$$

• *The variance is given by*

$$\sigma_X^2 = V(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i^2 - \mu_X^2.$$

Example 4.1

- A bulb is selected at random from a box that contains a 40-watt bulb, a 60-watt bulb, an 80-watt bulb, and a 100-watt bulb.
- Each bulb has 1/4 probability of being selected.
- Let X = the watts of the bulb being selected. Then X follows a uniform distribution, and

$$R_X = \{40, 60, 80, 100\}.$$

$$f_X(x) = 1/4$$
, for $x = 40, 60, 80, 100$,

and 0 otherwise.

• We can compute the expectation:

Variance can also be computed:

$$E(X) = \sum_{i} x_i f_X(x_i) = 40 \cdot (1/4) + 60 \cdot (1/4) + 80 \cdot (1/4) + 100 \cdot (1/4) = 70$$

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$$V(X) = E(X^{2}) - (E(X))^{2}$$

$$= 40^{2} \cdot (1/4) + 60^{2} \cdot (1/4) + 80^{2} \cdot (1/4) + 100^{2} (1/4) - 70^{2}$$

$$= 500.$$

L-example 4.1

- Toss a fair die, X = the number on the top face. Then X follows a uniform distribution.
- $R_X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, and

$$f_X(x) = 1/6$$
, for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$,

and 0 otherwise.

Expectation can be computed by

$$E(X) = \sum_{i} x_i f_X(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{6} i\left(\frac{1}{6}\right) = 3.5.$$

• Variance can be computed by

$$V(X) = \sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} f_{X}(x_{i}) - (E(X))^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{6} i^{2} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right) - 3.5^{2} = \frac{35}{12}.$$

Bernoulli Trial, Bernoulli Random Variable and Bernoulli Process

DEFINITION 3 (BERNOULLI TRIAL)

- A **Bernoulli Trial** is a random experiment with only two possible outcomes.
- One is called a "success", and the other a "failure".
- We code the two outcomes as "1" (success) and "0" (failure).

DEFINITION 4 (BERNOULLI RANDOM VARIABLE)

- Let X = number of success in a Bernoulli trial; then X has only two possible values: 1 or 0, and is called a **Bernoulli random variable**.
- Denote by p ($0 \le p \le 1$) the probability of success of the Bernoulli trial. Then X has the p.f.:

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} p & x = 1 \\ (1-p) & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

and = 0 for other values of x.

• This p.f. can also be written by

$$f_X(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$$
, for $x = 0$ or 1.

• We often denote $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$, and denote q = 1 - p. Then the p.f. becomes $f_X(1) = p$ and $f_X(0) = q$.

THEOREM 5

For a Bernoulli RV defined above, we have

$$\mu_X = E(X) = p$$
 $\sigma_X^2 = V(X) = p(1-p) = pq.$

REMARK (PARAMETERS)

- In occasions, $f_X(x)$ may rely on one or more unknown quantities; different values of the quantities lead to different probability distributions.
- Such a quantity is called a **parameter** of the distribution.
- *p* is the parameter in the Bernoulli distribution.
- The collection of the distributions that are determined by one or more unknown parameters is called a **family of probability distributions**.
- So the aforementioned Bernoulli distributions determined by the parameter *p* is a family of probability distributions.

Example 4.2 The following are all examples of Bernoulli trials:

- A coin toss Say we want heads, then H="heads" is success, and T="tails" is failure.
- Rolling a die Say we only care about rolling a 6. The outcome space is binarized to "success"= $\{6\}$ and "failure" = $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$.
- Polls
 Choosing a voter at random to ascertain whether that voter will vote "yes" in an upcoming referendum.

Example 4.3

- A box contains 4 blue and 6 red balls.
- Draw a ball from the box at random.
- What is the probability that a blue ball is chosen?

Solution:

- Let X = 1 if a blue ball is drawn; and X = 0 otherwise.
- Then *X* is a Bernoulli random variable.
- P(X = 1) = 4/10 = 0.4.
- Furthermore, the p.f. for *X* is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0.4 & x = 1 \\ 0.6 & x = 0 \end{cases}.$$

DEFINITION 6 (BERNOULLI PROCESS)

- A Bernoulli process consists of a sequence of repeatedly performed independent and identical Bernoulli trials.
- Correspondingly, a Bernoulli process generates a sequence of **independent and identically distributed, i.i.d.** Bernoulli random variables: $X_1, X_2, X_3, ...$

We are able to define several useful distributions based on Bernoulli trial and Bernoulli process. These distributions include:

- Binomial distribution;
- Negative Binomial distribution; Geometric distribution;
- Poisson distribution.

Binomial Distribution

If we have several (say n) i.i.d. Bernoulli trials, we can establish the binomial distribution to address some interesting questions. For example,

- A student randomly guesses at 5 multiple-choice questions. What is the number of questions the student guessed correctly?
- Randomly pick a family with 4 kids. What is the number of girls amongst the kids?
- Urn has 4 black balls and 3 white balls, draw 5 balls with replacement. How many black balls will there be?

DEFINITION 7 (BINOMIAL RANDOM VARIABLE)

A **Binomial random variable** counts the number of successes in n trials in a Bernoulli Process. That is, suppose we have n trials where

- the probability of success for each trial is the same p,
- the trials are independent.

Then the number of successes, denoted by X, in the n trials is a Binomial random variable.

We say X has a binomial distribution and write it as $X \sim B(n, p)$.

The probability of getting exactly x successes is given as

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$
, for $x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n$.

It can be shown that E(X) = np, and V(X) = np(1-p).

The theoretical development for Binomial distribution will be given in a lecture meeting.

L-example 4.2 (Theory of the Binomial Distribution)

• Based on the definition of binomial distribution: "X is the number of successes in n trials in a Bernoulli Process", so $X \sim B(n,p)$ if and only if

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \ldots + X_n,$$

with X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n being i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) RVs.

• We are able to derive the p.f. for *X* as follows.

- Consider a specific realization of $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$, namely $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = x$.
- Because X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) RVs, we have

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_n = x_n)$$

$$= P(X_1 = x_1)P(X_2 = x_2)...P(X_n = x_n)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} p^{x_i} q^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i} q^{n-\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}$$

$$= p^x q^{n-x}.$$

- Note that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = x$ means: out of n trials, x are observed as success and the rest as failure.
- For the collection of n trials, how many such outcomes are possible? The answer is $\binom{n}{x}$, since it is equivalently to choosing x trials out of n to take success, and the rest take failure.
- Furthermore, for different choices of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$,

$$\{X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n\}$$

are mutually exclusive events.

We have

$$P(X = x) = P\left(\bigcup_{\substack{x_1, \dots, x_n : \sum x_i = x}} \{X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n\}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{x_1, \dots, x_n : \sum x_i = x}} P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n)$$

 $= \sum_{x_1,\dots,x_n:\sum x_i=x} p^x q^{n-x} = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}.$

• We can also derive other characteristics of the binomial distribution based on the expression

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \ldots + X_n$$

• Expectation is given by

$$E(X) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \ldots + E(X_n) = p + p + \ldots + p = np.$$

• Because of the independence of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , variance is

$$V(X) = V(X_1 + X_2 + ... + X_n) = V(X_1) + V(X_2) + ... + V(X_n)$$

= $pq + pq + ... + pq = npq$.

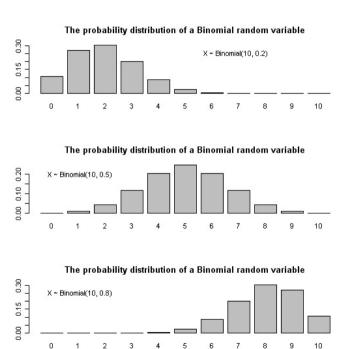
REMARK

• When n = 1, the p.f. for the binomial RV X is reduced to

$$f_X(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$$
, for $x = 0, 1$.

• It is the p.f. for the Bernoulli distribution. Therefore Bernoulli distribution is a special case of the binomial distribution.

The p.f. for B(10,0.2), B(10,0.5), and B(10,0.8) are compared below.



Example 4.4

- Flip a fair coin 10 independent times.
- What is the probability of observing exactly 6 heads?

Solution:

- Let X = number of heads in 10 flips.
- Each flip of the coin can be observed as a Bernoulli trial, with probability of getting head (success) p = 0.5.
- Then *X* is the number success out of 10 Bernoulli trials; so $X \sim B(10, 0.5)$.
- We can compute

$$P(X=6) = {10 \choose 6} (0.5)^6 (1-0.5)^{10-6} = 0.205.$$

L-example 4.3 Pat Statsdud failed to study for the next statistics quiz.

Pat's strategy is to rely on luck. The quiz consists of 10 multiple-choice questions. Each question has five possible answers, only one of which is correct. Pat plans to guess the answer to every question.

- (a) What is the probability that Pat gets two answers correct?
- (b) What is the probability that Pat fails the quiz? (suppose it is considered a failed quiz if a grade on the quiz is less than 50%, i.e. 5 questions out of 10).

Solution: Let *X* denote the number of correct answers. Then $X \sim B(10,0.2)$.

(a) The probability that he gets two correct answers is given by

$$P(X = 2) = {10 \choose 2} (0.2)^2 (0.8)^8 \approx 0.302.$$

(b) The probability that he fails is given by

$$P(\text{fail quiz}) = P(X \le 4)$$

= $P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3) + P(X = 4)$
 $\approx 0.967.$

To compute $P(X \le 4)$ for $X \sim B(10, 0.2)$:

- (A) Method 1: use an online R compiler:
 - Browse to https://rdrr.io/snippets/
 - Enter the command

```
pbinom(4, 10, 0.2, lower.tail = TRUE)
```

- unto the compiler.
- Ctrl-Enter or Run to obtain the answer.

- For $X \sim B(n, p)$.
- pbinom(x, n, p) gives $P(X \le x)$.
 - pbinom(x, n, p, lower.tail=FALSE) gives
- P(X > x).

- dbinom(x, n, p) gives P(X = x).

- (B) Method 2: use R Shiny app Radiant:
 - Browse to https://vnijs.shinyapps.io/radiant
 - Select Basics > Probability Calculator.
 - Select Binomial as the Distribution.
 - Select *n* as 10, *p* as 0.2.
 - Select Values as the Input type.
 - Select 4 as the upper bound, P(X = 4), $P(X \le 4)$, P(X > 4) are included.

L-example 4.4

- A man claims to have extrasensory perception (ESP).
- As a test, a fair coin is flipped 10 times, and he is asked to predict the outcome in advance.
- The man gets 7 out of 10 correct.
- What is the probability that he would have done at least this well if he had no ESP? That is, he gets 7 or more out of 10 correct.

Solution:

- Without ESP, the probability that he guesses correctly for each outcome is 0.5.
- Let X = number of correct guesses out of 10 guesses. Then $X \sim B(10, 0.5)$.
- We have

$$P(X \ge 7) = P(X = 7) + P(X = 8) + P(X = 9) + P(X = 10)$$

$$= {10 \choose 7} 0.5^7 0.5^3 + {10 \choose 8} 0.5^8 0.5^2 + {10 \choose 9} 0.5^9 0.5^1 + {10 \choose 10} 0.5^{10} 0.5^0$$

$$= 0.1719.$$

Negative Binomial Distribution

- Consider a Bernoulli process, where the Bernoulli experiments can be repeated an arbitrary number of times.
- The interest could be how many trials are needed so that a certain number of successes occur.
- Set X = number of trials until the kth success occurs. Then X follows a **negative binomial distribution**; denoted by $X \sim NB(k, p)$, where p is probability of success for each Bernoulli trial.
- In comparison with binomial distribution: the random variable "X" is the number of successes out of a fixed number *n* of trials.

DEFINITION 8 (NEGATIVE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION)

- $X = number \ of \ i.i.d.$ Bernoulli(p) trials until the kth success occurs; then X follows a **negative binomial distribution**, denoted by $X \sim NB(k,p)$.
- The p.f. of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) = {x-1 \choose k-1} p^k (1-p)^{x-k},$$

for
$$x = k, k + 1, k + 2, ...$$

• It can be shown that E(X) = k/p and $V(X) = (1-p)k/p^2$.

L-example 4.5

- We derive the probability function of the negative binomial distribution.
- We can interpret the event X = x as follows,

```
{X = x} = {\text{used } x \text{ trials until the } k \text{th success occurs}}
= {\text{observe } k - 1 \text{ successes in the first } x - 1 \text{ trials}}
\cap {x \text{th trial is a success}}
= A \cap B.
```

Based on binomial distribution,

$$P(A) = P(\text{observe } k - 1 \text{ successes in the first } x - 1 \text{ trials})$$
$$= {x-1 \choose k-1} p^{x-1} (1-p)^{x-k}$$

• Since the last trial is the Bernoulli trial,

$$P(B) = P(xth trial is a success) = p$$

• *A* and *B* are independent; therefore, we have

$$P(X = x) = P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) = {x - 1 \choose k - 1} p^{x - 1} (1 - p)^{x - k} \cdot p.$$

Example 4.5

- Keep rolling a fair die, until the 6th time we get the number 6.
- What is the probability that we need to roll the die 10 times?

Solution:

- Let X = number of rolls to get the 6th number 6. $X \sim NB(6, 1/6)$.
- Using the p.f. of negative binomial distribution:

$$P(X = 10) = {10 - 1 \choose 6 - 1} (1/6)^6 (1 - 1/6)^4 = 0.001302.$$

L–example 4.6 In an NBA championship series, the team that **wins four games out of seven is the winner**. Suppose that teams A and B face each other in the championship games and that **team A has probability 0.55 of winning a game over team B**.

- (a) What is the probability that team A will win the series in 6 games?
- (b) What is the probability that team A will win the series?

<u>Solution</u>: Suppose that Teams A and B can continuously play games. Let

X = number of games that A needs to win 4 games

and for each game, the chance that A will win is 0.55. Therefore $X \sim NB(4, 0.55)$.

(a) The question is asking

$$P(X=6) = {6-1 \choose 4-1} 0.55^4 (1-0.55)^{6-4} = 0.1853.$$

(b) The probability that Team A will win is

$$P(X = 4) + P(X = 5) + P(X = 6) + P(X = 7)$$

$$= {4-1 \choose 4-1} 0.55^{4} (1-0.55)^{4-4} + {5-1 \choose 4-1} 0.55^{4} (1-0.55)^{5-4}$$

$$+ {6-1 \choose 4-1} 0.55^{4} (1-0.55)^{6-4} + {7-1 \choose 4-1} 0.55^{4} (1-0.55)^{7-4}$$

$$= 0.6083.$$

Question: Can Part (b) be solved using binomial distribution instead?

For $X \sim NB(k, p)$, we can use an online \mathbb{R} compiler:

- Browse to https://rdrr.io/snippets/
- Command:
 - dnbinom(x-k, k, p) computes P(X = x);
 - pnbinom(x-k, k, p) computes $P(X \le x)$;
 - pnbinom(x-k, k, p, lower.tail = F) computes P(X > x).

Geometric Distribution

Geometric distribution is a special case of the negative binomial distribution.

DEFINITION 9 (GEOMETRIC DISTRIBUTION)

- $X = number \ of \ i.i.d.$ Bernoulli(p) trials until the first success occurs; then X follows a **geometric distribution**, denote by $X \sim G(p)$.
- The p.f. of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1}p.$$

• We have E(X) = 1/p and $V(X) = (1-p)/p^2$.

L-example 4.7

- At a "busy time", a telephone exchange is very near capacity, so callers have difficulty placing their calls.
- It may be of interest to know the number of attempts necessary in order to make a connection.
- Suppose that we let p = 0.05 be the probability of connection during a busy time.
- We are interested in knowing the probability that 5 attempts are necessary for a successful call.

Solution:

- Let X = number of attempts needed for the first successful call.
- Then $X \sim G(p)$ or $X \sim NB(1, p)$, where p = 0.05.
- We have

$$P(X = 5) = (1 - p)^{5-1}p = 0.95^{4}(0.05) = 0.0407.$$

Poisson Distribution

DEFINITION 10 (POISSON RANDOM VARIABLE)

The **Poisson random variable** X denotes the number of events occurring in a **fixed period of time or fixed region**.

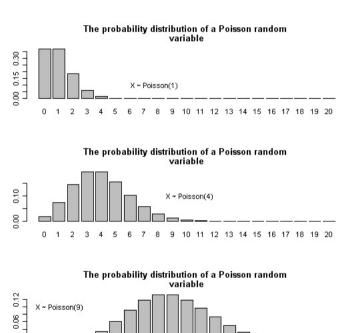
We denote $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ where parameter $\lambda > 0$ is the expected number of occurrences during the given period/region; its p.m.f. is given by

$$f_X(k) = P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}$$

where k = 0, 1, ... is the number of occurrences of events.

It can be shown that $E(X) = \lambda$, and $V(X) = \lambda$.

The p.f. for Poisson(1), Poisson(4), and Poisson(9) are compared below.



8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

Example 4.6 The "fixed period of time or fixed region" given in the definition can be time period of any length, e.g., a minute, a day, a week, a month etc., and region of any size.

Examples of events that may be modeled by the Poisson Distribution:

- (a) The number of spelling mistakes one makes while typing a single page.
- (b) The number of times a web server is accessed per minute.
- (c) The number of road kill (animals killed) found per unit length of road.

- (d) The number of mutations in a given stretch of DNA after a certain amount of radiation exposure.
- (e) The number of unstable atomic nuclei that decayed within a given period of time in a piece of radioactive substance.
- (f) The distribution of visual receptor cells in the retina of the human eye.
- (g) The number of light bulbs that burn out in a certain amount of time.

L–example 4.8 The number of infections *X* in a hospital each week has been shown to follow a Poisson distribution with a mean of 3.0 infections per week. What is the probability that

- (a) there is **no** infection for a week?
- (b) there are **less than** 4 infections for a week?

Solution: It follows that

(a)
$$P(X=0) = e^{-3}$$
.

(b)
$$P(X < 4) = e^{-3} \left(1 + 3 + \frac{3^2}{2!} + \frac{3^3}{3!} \right)$$
.

Numerical computation for $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$:

- (A) Online R compiler: https://rdrr.io/snippets/
 - dpois(x, lambda) computes P(X = x);
 - ppois (x, lambda) computes $P(X \le x)$;
 - ppois(x, lambda, lower.tail = F) computes P(X > x).
- (B) use R Shiny app Radiant: https://vnijs.shinyapps.io/radiant; similar steps as Binomial distribution to do the computation.

L-example 4.9

- If the average number of oil tankers arriving each day at a port is known to be 10.
- The facilities at the port can handle at most 15 tankers per day.
- What is the probability that on a given day tankers will have to be sent away?

Solution:

- Let X = number of tankers arriving each day.
- We have $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, where $\lambda = 10$.

$$P(X > 15) = \sum_{x=16}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-10}10^x}{x!} = 1 - \sum_{x=0}^{15} \frac{e^{-10}10^x}{x!}$$
$$= 1 - e^{-10} \left(1 + 10 + \frac{10^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{10^{15}}{15!} \right)$$
$$= 0.0487.$$

L–example 4.10 We derive E(X) and V(X), for $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.

• For these derivation, the fundamental idea is to use the fact that for p.m.f. $f_X(x)$, we must have

$$\sum_{x \in R_X} f_X(x) = 1.$$

• We derive E(X) first.

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x f_X(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{(x-1)!}$$
$$= \lambda \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda, \quad \text{set } y = x - 1.$$

• We derive V(X) next.

$$E(X(X-1)) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(x-1) \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{(x-2)!}$$
$$= \lambda^2 \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda^2, \quad \text{set } y = x-2.$$

We can compute
$$V(X)$$
 by
$$V(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = E(X(X-1)) + E(X) - [E(X)]^2$$
$$= \lambda^2 + \lambda - \lambda^2 = \lambda$$

DEFINITION 11 (POISSON PROCESS)

The **Poisson Process** is a continuous time process. We count the number of occurrences within some interval of time. The defining properties of a Poisson Process with rate parameter α are

- the expected number of occurrences in an interval of length T is αT ;
- there are no simultaneous occurrences;
- the number of occurrences in disjoint time intervals are independent.

The number of occurrences in any interval T of a Poisson Process follows a Poisson(αT) distribution.

Example 4.7

- The average number of robberies in a day is four in a certain big city.
- What is the probability that six robberies occurring in two days?

Solution:

- Let X_1 = number of robberies in one day. Then $X_1 \sim \text{Poisson}(4)$ from the condition.
- Let X = number of robberies in two days. Then $X \sim \text{Poisson}(2 \times 4) = \text{Poisson}(8)$.
- We have

$$P(X=6) = \frac{e^{-8}8^6}{6!} = 0.1222.$$

L-example 4.11

A can company reports that the number of breakdowns per 8 hour shift on its machine-operated assembly line follows a Poisson distribution, with a mean of 1.5.

- (a) What is the probability of exactly two breakdowns during the midnight shift?
- (b) What is the probability of fewer than two breakdowns during the afternoon shift?
- (c) What is the probability that no breakdown during three consecutive 8-hour shifts?

Solution: Let X = number of breakdowns in an 8 hour shift. We have $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ with $\lambda = 1.5$.

(a) The probability of exactly 2 breakdowns during the night shift is

$$P(X = 2) = \frac{e^{-1.5}1.5^2}{2!} = 0.251.$$

(b) The probability of fewer than 2 breakdowns during the afternoon shift is

$$P(X < 2) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-1.5}1.5^{0}}{0!} + \frac{e^{-1.5}1.5^{1}}{1!} = 0.5578.$$

(c) • Let Y_1 be a Bernoulli RV, where $Y_1 = 1$ if there is no breakdowns in the 1st 8 hour shift; and $Y_1 = 0$ otherwise. The probability of success is

$$p = P(Y_1 = 1) = P(X = 0) = \frac{e^{-1.5}1.5^0}{0!} = 0.2231.$$

- Similarly define Y_2 and Y_3 as Bernoulli RVs, $Y_i = 1$ if no breakdown in the ith hour shift; and $Y_i = 0$ otherwise; for i = 2, 3.
- Then Y_1, Y_2, Y_3 are i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) RVs. Set $Y = Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3$; then $Y \sim B(3, p)$. On the other hand Y is counting the number of 8-hour shifts without breakdowns.

• "Y = 3" stands for the practical situation that no breakdown during three consecutive 8-hour shifts.

$$P(Y=3) = {3 \choose 3} p^3 (1-p)^0 = 0.0111.$$

• An alternative method: using Poisson process, the number of breakdowns in $24 = 3 \times 8$ hours, denoted by RV Z, follows a Poisson $(3 \times 1.5) = Poisson(4.5)$ distribution. The question is asking

$$P(Z=0) = \frac{e^{-4.5}4.5^{\circ}}{0!} = 0.0111.$$

Proposition 12 (Poisson Approx. of Binomial Distribution)

Let $X \sim B(n,p)$. Suppose that $n \to \infty$ and $p \to 0$ in such a way that $\lambda = np$ remains a constant. Then approximately, $X \sim \text{Poisson}(np)$. That is

$$\lim_{p\to 0; n\to\infty} P(X=x) = \frac{e^{-np}(np)^x}{x!}.$$

The approximation is good when $n \ge 20$ and $p \le 0.05$, or if $n \ge 100$ and $np \le 10$.

Example 4.8

- The probability, *p*, of an individual car having an accident at a junction is 0.0001.
- If there are 1000 cars passing through the junction during certain period of a day, what is the probability of two or more accidents occurring during that period?

Solution:

- Let X = number of accidents among the 1000 cars.
- Then $X \sim B(1000, 0.0001)$. If we compute using binomial distribution,

$$P(X \ge 2) = \sum_{x=2}^{1000} {1000 \choose x} 0.0001^{x} 0.9999^{1000-x}.$$

Computing these numbers is not easy.

• We solve the question using Poisson approximation.

 $P(X \ge 2) = 1 - P(X = 0) - P(X = 1)$

= 0.0047.

 $= 1 - e^{-0.1} - e^{-0.1}(0.1)^{1}/1!$

- n = 1000 and p = 0.0001, hence, $np = \lambda = 0.1$.

L-example 4.12

- In a manufacturing process in which glass items are being produced, defects or bubbles occur, occasionally rendering the piece undesirable for marketing.
- It is known that on the average 1 in every 1000 of these items produced has one or more bubbles.
- What is the probability that a random sample of 8000 will yield fewer than 7 items possessing bubbles?

Solution:

- Let X = number of items processing bubbles.
- Then $X \sim B(8000, 0.001)$.
- Use the Poisson approximation, $\lambda = np = 8000 \times 0.001 = 8$, and hence $X \approx \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.
- The (approximate) probability is

$$P(X < 7) = 1 - P(X \ge 7) \approx 1 - 0.6866 = 0.3134.$$

2 CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTION

- For a continuous random variable X, its range R_X is an interval or a collection of multiple intervals.
- In this section, we study some classes of continuous random variables.

Continuous Uniform Distribution

DEFINITION 13 (CONTINUOUS UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION)

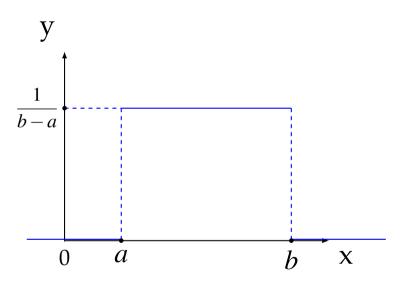
A random variable X is said to follow a **uniform distribution** over the interval (a,b) if its probability density function is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \le x \le b \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$
.

We denote this by $X \sim U(a,b)$.

It can be shown that
$$E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$$
 and $V(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$.

The p.d.f. for the continuous uniform distribution can be drawn as a figure below.



The c.d.f. for the continuous uniform distribution is given by

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a \le x \le b \\ 1 & x > b \end{cases}$$

Example 4.9

- A point is chosen at random on the line segment [0,2].
- What is the probability that the chosen point lies between 1 and 3/2?

Solution:

- Let $X = \text{position of the point. } X \sim U(0,2)$.
- We have

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2}$$
, for $0 \le x \le 2$,

and 0 otherwise.

$$P\left(1 \le X \le \frac{3}{2}\right) = \int_{1}^{3/2} \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} x \Big|_{1}^{3/2} = 1/4.$$

L-example 4.13

- Buses arrive at a specified stop at 15-minute intervals starting at 7:00 am.
- That is, they arrive at 7:00, 7:15, 7:30, 7:45, and so on.
- If a passenger arrives at the stop at a time that is uniformly distributed between 7:00 and 7:30, find the probability that he waits less than 5 minutes for a bus.

Solution: Let *X* denote the arrival time of the passenger (after 7:00am, in minutes). Then $X \sim U(0,30)$.

The passenger waits less than 5 minutes for a bus when and only when he arrives (a) between 7:10-7:15 or (b) 7:25-7:30. So the desired probability is

$$P(10 < X < 15) + P(25 < X < 30) = \frac{15 - 10}{30} + \frac{30 - 25}{30} = \frac{1}{3}$$
.

L-example 4.14 For the continuous uniform distribution, we derive

$$E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}; \quad V(X) = \frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2.$$

• We derive E(X) first

$$E(X) = \int_{a}^{b} x \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \frac{x^{2}}{2} \Big|_{a}^{b}$$
$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \frac{b^{2}-a^{2}}{2} = \frac{a+b}{2}.$$

• We derive V(X) next,

• We derive
$$V(X)$$
 next,
$$E(X^2) = \int_a^b x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_a^b$$

• We derive
$$V(X)$$
 next,







 $=\frac{1}{b-a}\cdot\frac{b^3-a^3}{3}=\frac{a^2+ab+b^2}{3}$.

 $V(X) = E(X^{2}) - [E(X)]^{2} = \frac{a^{2} + ab + b^{2}}{3} - \frac{(a+b)^{2}}{4}$

 $=\frac{1}{12}(a^2-2ab+b^2)=\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}.$



L–example 4.15 We derive the c.d.f. of a continuous uniform distribution.

- We take note that $F_X(x) = 0$ when x < a, and $F_X(x) = 1$ when x > b.
- When $a \le x \le b$,

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t)dt = \int_{-\infty}^a 0 \, dt + \int_a^x \frac{1}{b-a} dt$$
$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot t \Big|_a^x = \frac{x-a}{b-a}.$$

Exponential Distribution

DEFINITION 14 (EXPONENTIAL DISTRIBUTION)

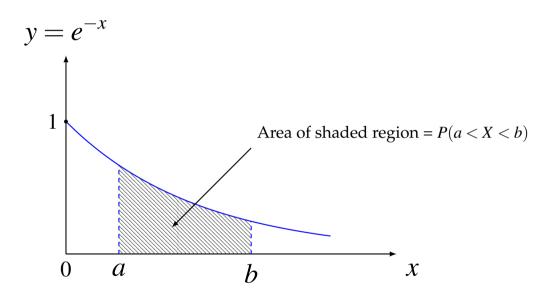
A continuous RV X is said to follow an **exponential distribution** with parameter $\lambda > 0$ if its p.d.f. is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}.$$

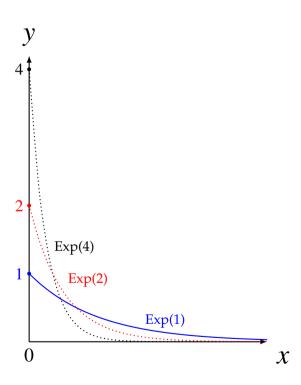
We denote $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.

It can be shown that $E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$ and $V(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$.

The exponential p.d.f. with $\lambda = 1$ is shown below.



The shapes of the p.d.f.s of $Exp(\lambda)$ for $\lambda = 1, 2, 4$.



The c.d.f. of $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ is given by

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

REMARK

• The p.d.f. can be written in the form

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} e^{-x/\mu}, \text{ for } x > 0,$$

and 0 elsewhere.

- The parameters have the relationship $\mu = 1/\lambda$.
- We have

$$E(X) = \mu$$
, $V(X) = \mu^2$, and $F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\mu}$ for $x > 0$.

Example 4.10

- Suppose that the failure time, T, of a system is exponentially distributed, with a mean of 5 years.
- What is the probability that at least two out of five of these systems are still functioning at the end of 8 years?

Solution:

- Since E(T) = 5, therefore $\lambda = 1/5$.
- We have $T \sim \text{Exp}(1/5)$,

$$P(T > 8) = 1 - P(T \le 8) = 1 - F_X(8) = e^{-(1/5) \times 8} = e^{-1.6} \approx 0.2.$$

- Let X = # of systems out of 5 that are still functioning after 8 years.
- Then $X \sim B(5, 0.2)$. Hence,

$$P(X \ge 2) = 0.2627.$$

L–example 4.16 Let X = response time at a certain on-line computer terminal (the elapsed time between the end of a user's inquiry and the beginning of the system's response to that inquiry). X follows an exponential distribution with expected response time equal to 5 seconds.

- (a) Find the probability that the response time is at most 10 seconds.
- (b) Find the probability that the response time is between 5 and 10 seconds.

Solution: Since E(X) = 5, we have $X \sim \text{Exp}(1/5)$.

(a)

$$P(X \le 10) = 1 - e^{-10/5} = 0.8647.$$

(b)

$$P(5 \le X \le 10) = P(X \le 10) - P(X < 5)$$

= $(1 - e^{-10/5}) - (1 - e^{-5/5}) = 0.2326$.

Numerical computation for $Exp(\lambda)$ distribution:

- (A) Online R compiler: https://rdrr.io/snippets/
 - dexp(x, lambda) computes $f_X(x)$;
 - pexp(x, lambda) computes $P(X \le x)$;
 - pexp(x, lambda, lower.tail = F) computes P(X > x).
- (B) use R Shiny app Radiant: https://vnijs.shinyapps.io/radiant; similar steps as Binomial distribution to do the computation.

L–example 4.17 We derive E(X) and V(X) for the exponential distribution.

$$E(X) = \int_0^\infty x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \int_0^\infty x d\left(-e^{-\lambda x}\right)$$

$$= -xe^{-\lambda x}\Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty (-e^{-\lambda x}) dx = \int_0^\infty \left(e^{-\lambda x}\right) dx$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\lambda}e^{-\lambda x}\Big|_0^\infty = \frac{1}{\lambda}.$$

$$E(X^{2}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{2} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{2} d\left(-e^{-\lambda x}\right)$$
$$= -x^{2} e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} \left(-e^{-\lambda x}\right) d(x^{2})$$

 $= \frac{2}{\lambda} \int_0^\infty x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \frac{2}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{2}{\lambda^2}.$

Hence,

$$V(X) = \frac{2}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}.$$

L–example 4.18 Find the c.d.f. of the exponential distribution with parameter λ . Solution:

• For x > 0,

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt = -e^{-\lambda t} \Big|_0^x = 1 - e^{-\lambda x},$$

and 0 otherwise.

• Also, we have

$$P(X > x) = e^{-\lambda x}$$
, for $x > 0$.

THEOREM 15

Suppose that X has an exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$. Then for any two positive numbers s and t, we have

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = P(X > t).$$

REMARK

The above theorem states that the exponential distribution has "**no memory**" in the sense:

- Let *X* denote the life length of a bulb.
- Given that the bulb has lasted s time units, i.e., X > s,
- the probability that it will last for the next t units, i.e., X > s + t, is the same as the probability that it will last for the first t units as brand new.

L–example 4.19 We verify the no memory property of exponential distribution.

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = \frac{P(\{X > s + t\} \cap \{X > s\})}{P(X > s)}$$
$$= \frac{P(X > s + t)}{P(X > s)} = \frac{e^{-\lambda(s + t)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(X > t).$$

Normal Distribution

DEFINITION 16 (NORMAL DISTRIBUTION)

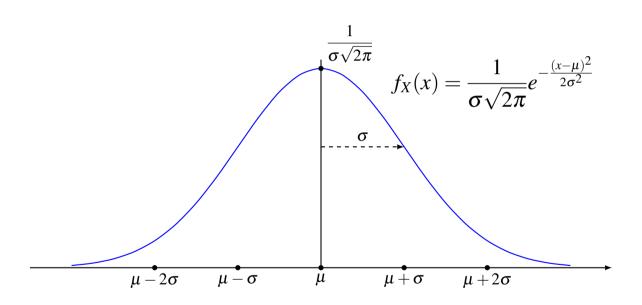
A random variable X is said to follow a **normal distribution** with parameters μ and σ^2 if its probability density function is given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

We denote $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

It can be shown that $E(X) = \mu$ and $V(X) = \sigma^2$.

The p.d.f. of normal distribution is positive over the whole real line, symmetric about $x = \mu$, and bell-shaped; see below.



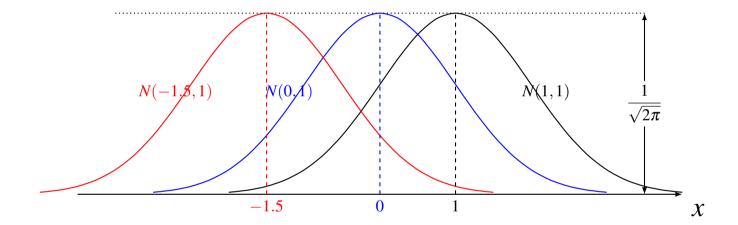
We give some properties of normal distribution.

(1) The total area under the curve and above the horizontal axis is equal to 1.

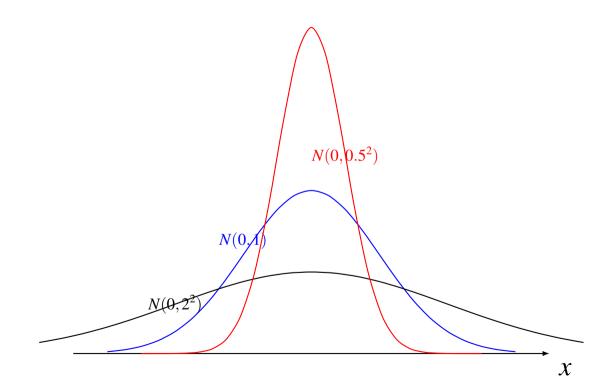
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] dx = 1.$$

This validates that $f_X(\cdot)$ is a p.d.f.

(2) Two normal curves are identical in shape if they have the same σ^2 . But they are centered at different positions when their means are different.



(3) As σ increases, the curve flattens; and vice versa.



(4) If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and let

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma},$$

then Z follows the N(0,1) distribution. Thus E(Z) = 0 and V(Z) = 1.

We say that *Z* has a standardized normal distribution; the p.d.f. of *Z* is given by

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right).$$

REMARK

- The importance of the standardized normal distribution is that it can be tabulated.
- Consider $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$; if we are to compute $P(x_1 < X < x_2)$ for any real values x_1, x_2 , we can use the transformation $Z = (X \mu)/\sigma$. In particular,

$$x_1 < X < x_2 \Longleftrightarrow \frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma} < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < \frac{x_2 - \mu}{\sigma}$$

• Let $z_1 = (x_1 - \mu)/\sigma$ and $z_2 = (x_2 - \mu)/\sigma$; then

$$P(x_1 < X < x_2) = P(z_1 < Z < z_2).$$

• By convention, we use $\phi(\cdot)$ and $\Phi(\cdot)$ to denote the p.d.f. and c.d.f. of the standard normal distribution respectively. That is,

of the standard normal distribution respectively. That is,
$$\phi(z) = f_{z}(z) = \frac{1}{z^{2}/2}$$

$$\phi(z) = f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}$$

$$\Phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{z} \phi(t) dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{z} e^{-t^2/2} dt.$$

• Therefore, for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and any real numbers x_1, x_2 ,

Therefore, for
$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 and any real numbers x_1, \dots

$$P(x_1 < X < x_2) = \Phi\left(\frac{x_2 - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

- However, calculating the probabilities for the normal probabilities is challenging because
 - there is no close formula for $\Phi(z)$;
 - so the computation relies on numerical integration.
- Instead, $\Phi(z)$ can be tabulated, or computed based on some statistical software.

• The standard normal distribution has the following properties:

$$\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{z} > 0) \quad \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{z} < 0) \quad \mathbf{f}(0) \quad 0.5$$

$$\star P(Z \ge 0) = P(Z \le 0) = \Phi(0) = 0.5;$$

* For any z, $\Phi(z) = P(Z \le z) = P(Z \ge -z) = 1 - \Phi(-z)$;

* If $Z \sim N(0,1)$, then $\sigma Z + \mu \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

 $\star -Z \sim N(0,1);$

Example 4.11 Given $X \sim N(50, 100)$, find P(45 < X < 62).

Solution: We have $\mu = 50$, $\sigma = 10$.

$$P(45 < X < 62) = P\left(\frac{45 - 50}{10} < \frac{X - 50}{10} < \frac{62 - 50}{10}\right)$$

$$= P(-0.5 < Z < 1.2)$$

$$= P(Z < 1.2) - P(Z \le -0.5)$$

$$= \Phi(1.2) - \Phi(-0.5),$$

where $\Phi(1.2)$ and $\Phi(-0.5)$ can either be computed from some statistical software or obtained from a table.

L–example 4.20 When $X \sim N(65, 25)$, compute $P(47.5 < X \le 80)$.

Solution: we have $\mu = 65$, $\sigma = 5$;

$$P(47.5 < X \le 80) = P\left(\frac{47.5 - 65}{5} < \frac{X - 65}{5} \le \frac{80 - 65}{5}\right)$$

$$= P(-3.5 < Z \le 3)$$

$$= P(Z \le 3) - P(Z \le -3.5)$$

$$= P(Z \le 3) - P(Z \ge 3.5)$$

$$= P(Z \le 3) - (1 - P(Z < 3.5))$$

$$= 0.99865 - 1 + 0.999767 = 0.998417.$$

Numerical computation for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

- (A) Online R compiler: https://rdrr.io/snippets/
 - dnorm(x, mu, sigma) computes $f_X(x)$;
 - pnorm(x, mu, sigma) computes $P(X \le x)$;
 - pnorm(x, mu, sigma, lower.tail = F) computes P(X > x).
- (B) use R Shiny app Radiant: https://vnijs.shinyapps.io/radiant; similar steps as Binomial distribution to do the computation.

L-example 4.21

- An expert witnesses in a paternity suit testifies that the length (in days) of pregnancy is approximately normally distributed with parameters $\mu = 270$ and $\sigma = 10$.
- The defendant in the suit is able to prove that he was out of the country during a period that began 290 days before the birth of the child and ended 240 days before the birth.
- If the defendant was, in fact, the father of the child, what is the probability that the mother could have had a very long or a very short pregnancy indicated by the testimony?

Solution: Let X denote the length of the pregnancy and assume that the defendant is the father; then $X \sim N(270, 10^2)$. The probability of the birth could occur within the indicated duration is

$$P(X > 290 \text{ or } X < 240)$$

$$= P(X > 290) + P(X < 240)$$

$$= P\left(\frac{X - 270}{10} > \frac{290 - 270}{10}\right) + P\left(\frac{X - 270}{10} < \frac{240 - 270}{10}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \Phi(2) + \Phi(-3)$$

$$= 1 - \Phi(2) + [1 - \Phi(3)] = 0.0241.$$

DEFINITION 17 (QUANTILE)

The α th (upper) quantile (0 $\leq \alpha \leq$ 1) of the RV X is the number x_{α} that satisfies

$$P(X \ge x_{\alpha}) = \alpha$$
.

• Specifically, we denote by z_{α} the α th (upper) quantile (or 100α percentage point) of $Z \sim N(0,1)$. That is

percentage point) of
$$Z \sim N(0,1)$$
. That is
$$P(Z > z_{\alpha}) = \alpha.$$

- For example, $z_{0.05} = 1.645$, $z_{0.01} = 2.326$.
- Since the p.d.f. of Z, i.e., $\phi(z)$, is symmetrical about 0, therefore

$$P(Z \ge z_{\alpha}) = P(Z \le -z_{\alpha}) = \alpha.$$

Example 4.12 Find *z* such that

- (a) P(Z < z) = 0.95;
- (b) $P(|Z| \le z) = 0.98$.

Solution:

(a) We need *z* such that

$$P(Z > z) = 1 - P(Z < z) = 0.05;$$

therefore $z = z_{0.05} = 1.645$.

(b) We have

$$0.98 = P(|Z| \le z) = 1 - P(|Z| > z)$$

= 1 - P(Z > z) - P(Z < -z) = 1 - 2P(Z > z),

which implies P(Z > z) = 0.01; therefore $z = z_{0.01} = 2.326$.

L-example 4.22

- On a common test, the average grade was 74 and the standard deviation was 7. Suppose that the grades are given as integers.
- If 12% of the class are given A's, and the grades are assumed to follow a normal distribution,
- what is the lowest possible A and the highest possible B?

Solution:

• We want to find *x* such that P(X > x) = 0.12.

$$P(X > x) = P\left(Z > \frac{x - 74}{7}\right) = 0.12,$$

where Z = (X - 74)/7.

• On the other hand, using a statistical software, P(Z > z) = 0.12 implies z = 1.175.

• By setting (x - 74)/7 = 1.175, we obtain

$$x = 74 + (1.175)7 = 82.225.$$

• Hence, the lowest possible A is 83 and the highest possible B is 82.

Compute the α th (upper) quantile of $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $Z \sim N(0, 1)$:

(A) Online R compiler: https://rdrr.io/snippets/

- qnorm(alpha, mu, sigma, lower.tail = False) computes x_{α} ;
- qnorm(alpha, mu, sigma) computes $x_{1-\alpha}$;
- qnorm(alpha, lower.tail = False) computes z_{α} ;
- qnorm(alpha) computes $z_{1-\alpha}$.
- (B) use R Shiny app Radiant: https://vnijs.shinyapps.io/radiant.

L-example 4.23

- Let X = the amount of sugar which a filling machine puts into "500g" packets.
- The actual amount of sugar filled varies from packets to packets.
- Suppose $X \sim N(\mu, 4^2)$.
- If only 2% of the packets contain less than 500g of sugar.
- What is the actual mean fill of these packets?

Solution: We need

$$0.02 = P(X < 500) = P\left(Z < \frac{500 - \mu}{4}\right) = PP\left(Z > -\frac{500 - \mu}{4}\right),$$

where $Z = (X - \mu)/4$.

On the other hand, from a statistical software, we have P(Z > 2.0537) = 0.02. Therefore

$$-\frac{500-\mu}{4}=2.0537,$$

which leads to $\mu = 508.2$. That is, the mean fill should be 508.2g.

L–example 4.24 The width of a slot of a duralumin in forging is (in inches) normally distributed with $\mu = 0.9000$ and $\sigma = 0.0030$. The specification limits were given as 0.9000 ± 0.0050 .

- (a) What percentage of forgings will be defective?
- (b) What is the maximum allowable value of σ that will permit no more than 1 in 100 defectives when the widths are normally distributed with $\mu = 0.9000$ and σ ?

Solution:

(a) Let *X* be the width of our normally distributed slot. The probability that a forging is acceptable is given by

$$P(0.895 < X < 0.905) = P\left(\frac{0.895 - 0.9}{0.003} < Z < \frac{0.905 - 0.9}{0.003}\right)$$
$$= P(-1.67 < Z < 1.67)$$
$$= 2\Phi(1.67) - 1 = 0.905.$$

So that the probability that a forging is defective is 1 - 0.905 = 0.095. Thus 9.5 percent of forgings are defective.

(b) We need to find the value of σ such that

$$P(0.895 < X < 0.905) \ge \frac{99}{100}$$
.

Now

$$P(0.895 < X < 0.905) = \dots = 2P\left(Z < \frac{0.005}{\sigma}\right) - 1.$$

We thus have to solve for σ so that

$$2P\left(Z < \frac{0.005}{\sigma}\right) - 1 \ge 0.99.$$

or

$$P\left(Z < \frac{0.005}{\sigma}\right) \ge (1 + 0.99)/2 = 0.995.$$

From a statistical software, we have $P(Z \ge 2.576) = 0.005$ so we can use $\frac{0.005}{\sigma} \ge 2.576$ which gives $\sigma \le 0.0019$.

- Recall that when $n \to \infty$, $p \to 0$, and np remains a constant, we can use **Poisson distribution to approximate the binomial distribution**.
- When $n \to \infty$, but p remains a constant (practically, p is not very close to 0 or 1), we can use **normal distribution to approximate** the binomial distribution.
- A good rule of thumb is to use the normal approximation only when

$$np > 5$$
 and $n(1-p) > 5$.

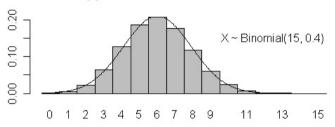
PROPOSITION 18 (NORMAL APPROX. TO BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION)

Let $X \sim B(n, p)$; so that E(X) = np and V(X) = np(1-p). Then as $n \to \infty$,

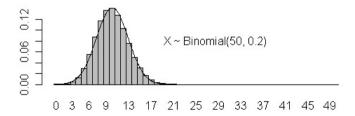
$$Z = \frac{X - E(X)}{\sqrt{V(X)}} = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}$$
 is approximately $\sim N(0,1)$.

Normal Approximation to the Binomial Distribution

Normal Approximation to a Binomial Distribution



Normal Approximation to a Binomial Distribution



L-example 4.25

• If $X \sim B(15, 0.4)$, then

$$P(X = 4) = {15 \choose 4} 0.4^4 (0.6)^{11} = 0.1268.$$

• By normal approximation, we may consider

$$Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2),$$

with $\mu = np = 6$ and $\sigma^2 = npq = 3.6$.

Hence,

$$P(X = 4) = P(3.5 < X < 4.5) \approx P(3.5 < Y < 4.5)$$

$$= P\left(\frac{3.5 - 6}{\sqrt{3.6}} < Z < \frac{4.5 - 6}{\sqrt{3.6}}\right)$$

$$\approx P(-1.32 < Z < -0.79)$$

$$= \Phi(-0.79) - \Phi(-1.32)$$

$$= 0.1214.$$

In this example, we have made the **continuity correction** to improve the approximation. In general, we have

(a)
$$P(X = k) \approx P(k - 1/2 < X < k + 1/2);$$

(b)
$$P(a \le X \le b) \approx P(a - 1/2 < X < b + 1/2);$$

 $P(a < X \le b) \approx P(a + 1/2 < X < b + 1/2);$
 $P(a \le X < b) \approx P(a - 1/2 < X < b - 1/2);$
 $P(a < X < b) \approx P(a + 1/2 < X < b - 1/2).$

(c)
$$P(X \le c) = P(0 \le X \le c) \approx P(-1/2 < X < c + 1/2).$$

(d)
$$P(X > c) = P(c < X \le n) \approx P(c + 1/2 < X < n + 1/2).$$

L-example 4.26

- A system is made up of 100 components, and each of which has a reliability equal to 0.90.
- These components function independently of one another, and the entire system functions only when at least 80 components function.
- What is the probability that the system functioning?

Solution:

- Let X = number of components functioning.
- Then $X \sim B(100, 0.9)$.
- Thus E(X) = (100)(0.9) = 90 and V(X) = (100)(0.9)(0.1) = 9.
- The system is functioning if $80 \le X \le 100$,

$$P(80 \le X \le 100) \approx P\left(\frac{79.5 - 90}{3} < \frac{X - 90}{3} < \frac{100.5 - 90}{3}\right)$$
$$= P(-3.5 < Z < 3.5)$$
$$= \Phi(3.5) - \Phi(-3.5) = 0.9995.$$