STA286 Lecture 12

Neil Montgomery

Last edited: 2017-02-08 10:01

a (strange) new way to completely characterize the distribution

of a random variable (note: section 7.3 of book)

One of the main points of this course so far: we essentially care about the *distribution* of a random variable X, which maps events $X \in A$ to probabilities $P(X \in A)$.

So far we have the following ways (only) to characterize a random variable's distribution, depending on the circumstances:

1. Cumulative distribution function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ (you take on faith that this does the job)

One of the main points of this course so far: we essentially care about the *distribution* of a random variable X, which maps events $X \in A$ to probabilities $P(X \in A)$.

So far we have the following ways (only) to characterize a random variable's distribution, depending on the circumstances:

- 1. Cumulative distribution function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ (you take on faith that this does the job)
- 2. (Discrete only) Probability mass functions p(x) (equivalent to cdf)

One of the main points of this course so far: we essentially care about the *distribution* of a random variable X, which maps events $X \in A$ to probabilities $P(X \in A)$.

So far we have the following ways (only) to characterize a random variable's distribution, depending on the circumstances:

- 1. Cumulative distribution function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ (you take on faith that this does the job)
- 2. (Discrete only) Probability mass functions p(x) (equivalent to cdf)
- 3. (Continuous only) Probability density functions f(x) (equivalent to cdf)

One of the main points of this course so far: we essentially care about the *distribution* of a random variable X, which maps events $X \in A$ to probabilities $P(X \in A)$.

So far we have the following ways (only) to characterize a random variable's distribution, depending on the circumstances:

- 1. Cumulative distribution function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ (you take on faith that this does the job)
- 2. (Discrete only) Probability mass functions p(x) (equivalent to cdf)
- 3. (Continuous only) Probability density functions f(x) (equivalent to cdf)

One of the main points of this course so far: we essentially care about the *distribution* of a random variable X, which maps events $X \in A$ to probabilities $P(X \in A)$.

So far we have the following ways (only) to characterize a random variable's distribution, depending on the circumstances:

- 1. Cumulative distribution function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ (you take on faith that this does the job)
- 2. (Discrete only) Probability mass functions p(x) (equivalent to cdf)
- 3. (Continuous only) Probability density functions f(x) (equivalent to cdf)

We will use whichever one is most convenient for a given situation.

mean, variance, and "moments"

E(X) gives a little bit of information about a random variable.

mean, variance, and "moments"

E(X) gives a little bit of information about a random variable.

 $Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$ gives a little bit *more* information about a random variable.

(c.f. Markov's and Chebyshev's inequalities.)

mean, variance, and "moments"

E(X) gives a little bit of information about a random variable.

 $Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$ gives a little bit *more* information about a random variable.

(c.f. Markov's and Chebyshev's inequalities.)

Definition: For integers $k \ge 0$, $E(X^k)$ (if it exists) is called the kth moment of a random variable.

Note: calculating all these moments is not the point at all. The concept itself is what is important.

If turns out that if *all* moments exist:

$$\{E(X), E(X^2), E(X^3), E(X^4), \ldots\}$$

then this sequence usually gives a characterization of the distribution of X.

(I'll tell you how to know when this "sometimes" is, momentarily.)

If turns out that if all moments exist:

$$\{E(X), E(X^2), E(X^3), E(X^4), \ldots\}$$

then this sequence usually gives a characterization of the distribution of X.

(I'll tell you how to know when this "sometimes" is, momentarily.)

If turns out that if all moments exist:

$$\{E(X), E(X^2), E(X^3), E(X^4), \ldots\}$$

then this sequence usually gives a characterization of the distribution of X.

(I'll tell you how to know when this "sometimes" is, momentarily.)

$$M_X(t) = 1 + E(X)\frac{t}{1!} + E(X^2)\frac{t^2}{2!} + E(X^3)\frac{t^3}{3!} + E(X^4)\frac{t^4}{4!} \cdots$$

If turns out that if all moments exist:

$$\{E(X), E(X^2), E(X^3), E(X^4), \ldots\}$$

then this sequence usually gives a characterization of the distribution of X.

(I'll tell you how to know when this "sometimes" is, momentarily.)

$$M_X(t) = 1 + E(X)\frac{t}{1!} + E(X^2)\frac{t^2}{2!} + E(X^3)\frac{t^3}{3!} + E(X^4)\frac{t^4}{4!} \cdots$$
$$= E\left(1 + Xt + X^2\frac{t^2}{2!} + X^3\frac{t^3}{3!} + X^4\frac{t^4}{4!} + \cdots\right)$$

If turns out that if all moments exist:

$$\{E(X), E(X^2), E(X^3), E(X^4), \ldots\}$$

then this sequence usually gives a characterization of the distribution of X.

(I'll tell you how to know when this "sometimes" is, momentarily.)

$$M_X(t) = 1 + E(X)\frac{t}{1!} + E(X^2)\frac{t^2}{2!} + E(X^3)\frac{t^3}{3!} + E(X^4)\frac{t^4}{4!} \cdots$$

$$= E\left(1 + Xt + X^2\frac{t^2}{2!} + X^3\frac{t^3}{3!} + X^4\frac{t^4}{4!} + \cdots\right)$$

$$= E(e^{tX})$$

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

$$\left. \frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0}$$

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

$$\left. \frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \right]_{t=0}$$

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

$$\frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \bigg|_{t=0} = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \right]_{t=0}$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d^r}{dt^r} e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \bigg|_{t=0}$$

Definition: $M_X(t)$ is called the *moment generating function*, or mgf, for X (small print: has to converge on an interval containing 0.)

Important fact: the mgf (if it exists) characterizes the distribution of X.

$$\frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \Big|_{t=0} = \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \right]_{t=0}
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d^r}{dt^r} e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \Big|_{t=0}
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \Big|_{t=0} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r f(x) \, dx = E(X^r)$$

mgf example

Reconsider the generic "observe until the first defective item" example, in which a defective item is produced with probability p. The pmf of the number of items X is:

$$p(x) = (1-p)^{x-1} p \text{ for } x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, \}$$

mgf example

Reconsider the generic "observe until the first defective item" example, in which a defective item is produced with probability p. The pmf of the number of items X is:

$$p(x) = (1-p)^{x-1} p \text{ for } x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, \}$$

The mgf of X is:

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} e^{tx} (1-p)^{x-1} p$$

$$= pe^t \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} [e^t (1-p)]^{x-1}$$

$$= \frac{pe^t}{1 - (1-p)e^t}$$

mgf example

Reconsider the generic "observe until the first defective item" example, in which a defective item is produced with probability p. The pmf of the number of items X is:

$$p(x) = (1-p)^{x-1} p \text{ for } x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

The mgf of X is:

$$egin{aligned} M_X(t) &= E\Big(e^{tX}\Big) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} e^{tx} (1-p)^{x-1} p \ &= p e^t \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} [e^t (1-p)]^{x-1} \ &= rac{p e^t}{1 - (1-p) e^t} \end{aligned}$$

Tedious calculus shows $M_X'(t) = \frac{pe^t}{(1-(1-p)e^t)^2}$, which when evaluated at 0 is $\frac{1}{p}$. (I hope!)

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

$$M_{X+Y}(t)$$

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = E\left(e^{t(X+Y)}\right)$$

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = E\left(e^{t(X+Y)}\right) = E\left(e^{tX}e^{tY}\right)$$

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = E\left(e^{t(X+Y)}\right) = E\left(e^{tX}e^{tY}\right) = E\left(e^{tX}\right)E\left(e^{tY}\right)$$

Recall that if X and Y are independent, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). This can extend easily to:

$$E(g(X)h(Y)) = E(g(X))E(h(Y))$$

Now, consider the random variable X + Y with X and Y independent. What could be said about the *distribution* of X + Y? This is a difficult problem!

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = E\left(e^{t(X+Y)}\right) = E\left(e^{tX}e^{tY}\right) = E\left(e^{tX}\right)E\left(e^{tY}\right) = M_X(t)M_Y(t)$$

distributions with names, because they are used all the time to model actual things

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

"The Foo Distribution"

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

"The Foo Distribution"

Typically the Foo Distribution will only be specified up to some constants that are called parameters. The parameters often have some meaning or another.

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

"The Foo Distribution"

Typically the Foo Distribution will only be specified up to some constants that are called parameters. The parameters often have some meaning or another.

Notation: $X \sim \text{Foo}(\delta, \nu)$

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

"The Foo Distribution"

Typically the Foo Distribution will only be specified up to some constants that are called parameters. The parameters often have some meaning or another.

Notation: $X \sim \text{Foo}(\delta, \nu)$

This is pronounced: "X has a Foo distribution with parameters δ and ν ."

a few conventions

Some families of random variables are common enough that they get their own names.

"The Foo Distribution"

Typically the Foo Distribution will only be specified up to some constants that are called parameters. The parameters often have some meaning or another.

Notation: $X \sim \text{Foo}(\delta, \nu)$

This is pronounced: "X has a Foo distribution with parameters δ and ν ."

Finally, a collection of random variables is often called a "process". We will examine two processes that are central to probability modeling.

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

Sometimes 1 - p = q is used when convenient.

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

Sometimes 1 - p = q is used when convenient.

$$E(X) = (0)(1-p) + (1)(p) = p$$

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

Sometimes 1 - p = q is used when convenient.

$$E(X) = (0)(1 - p) + (1)(p) = p$$

For variance, use $E(X^2) = 0^2(1-p) + 1^2p = p$, so that $Var(X) = p - p^2 = p(1-p) = pa$

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

Sometimes 1 - p = q is used when convenient.

$$E(X) = (0)(1-p) + (1)(p) = p$$

For variance, use $E(X^2) = 0^2(1-p) + 1^2p = p$, so that $Var(X) = p - p^2 = p(1-p) = pq$

$$SD(X) = \sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

We've seen this one a few times. X has two outcomes: 0 and 1. We say $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The parameter is p = P(X = 1).

pmf
$$p(x) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in 0, 1$$

Sometimes 1 - p = q is used when convenient.

$$E(X) = (0)(1-p) + (1)(p) = p$$

For variance, use $E(X^2) = 0^2(1-p) + 1^2p = p$, so that

$$\mathsf{Var}(X) = p - p^2 = p(1 - p) = pq$$

$$SD(X) = \sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

$$M_X(t)=E(e^{tX})=e^{t\cdot 0}q+e^{t\cdot 1}p=q+e^tp$$

Bernoulli process

The Bernoulli(p) distributions are used as models for anything with two possible outcomes.

Bernoulli process

The Bernoulli(p) distributions are used as models for anything with two possible outcomes.

There is usually more than one at a time. A *Bernoulli process* is a sequence of independent Bernoulli(p) random variables with the same p:

$$X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 \dots$$

Often each X_i is called a (Bernoulli) *trial*, or an *experiment*.

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

To illustrate a probability calculation, fix n = 4; we'll consider P(X = 2).

Trial outcomes

Probability

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

Trial outcomes	Probability
1 1 0 0	$p^2(1-p)^2$

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

Trial outcomes	Probability
1 1 0 0	$p^2(1-p)^2$
1010	p(1-p)p(1-p)

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

Trial outcomes	Probability
1 1 0 0	$p^2(1-p)^2$
1010	$p(1-p)p(1-p) = p^2(1-p)^2$

Fix the number of Bernoulli trials at n, and let X be the count of the 1's that occurred. What is the *distribution* of X?

First, X could be any integer between 0 and n.

Trial outcomes	Probability
1 1 0 0	$p^2(1-p)^2$
1010	$p(1-p)p(1-p) = p^2(1-p)^2$
1001	$ ho^2(1- ho)^2$
0 1 1 0	$ ho^2(1- ho)^2$
0 1 0 1	$ ho^2(1- ho)^2$
0 0 1 1	$ ho^2(1- ho)^2$
	r (r)

There are 6 ways to get 2 1s in 4 trials, so $P(X = 2) = 6p^2(1-p)^2$.

There are 6 ways to get 2 1s in 4 trials, so $P(X = 2) = 6p^2(1-p)^2$.

In general, the number of ways to get k 1s in n trials is:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

There are 6 ways to get 2 1s in 4 trials, so $P(X = 2) = 6p^2(1-p)^2$.

In general, the number of ways to get k 1s in n trials is:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

If X is the number of 1s in n Bernoulli(p) trials, we say:

$$X \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(n, p)$$

There are 6 ways to get 2 1s in 4 trials, so $P(X = 2) = 6p^2(1-p)^2$.

In general, the number of ways to get k 1s in n trials is:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

If X is the number of 1s in n Bernoulli(p) trials, we say:

$$X \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(n,p)$$

pmf
$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$
 for $k \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$

There are 6 ways to get 2 1s in 4 trials, so $P(X=2)=6p^2(1-p)^2$.

In general, the number of ways to get k 1s in n trials is:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

If X is the number of 1s in n Bernoulli(p) trials, we say:

$$X \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(n,p)$$

pmf
$$P(X=k)=\binom{n}{k}p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$$
 for $k\in\{0,1,\ldots,n\}$

Is this actually a valid pmf? Yes, if you recall the *Binomial theorem*:

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n-k}$$

Let a = p and b = 1 - p.