Lecture 8

Part 2 Probability and Distributions

ECON2843 1/34

Example

- ▶ A student sitting a statistics quiz decides to answer each of the ten multiple choice questions entirely by chance.
- ▶ Each question has five options, only one of which is correct.
- ▶ Let X be the number of questions the student answers correctly.
- ▶ Then $X \sim Bin(n = 10, p = 0.2)$.

ECON2843 2 / 34

Example

What is the probability the student gets half the answers correct?

$$P(X=5) = \frac{10!}{5!(10-5)!} \times 0.2^5 \times (1-0.2)^5 = 0.0264$$

What is the probability that the student passes, i.e., gets five or more correct?

$$P(X \ge 5) = P(X = 5) + P(X = 6) + P(X = 7)$$

$$+P(X = 8) + P(X = 9) + P(X = 10)$$
= a lot of calculations!

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ECON2843 3 / 34

Binomial Tables

- ▶ There are tables available that list $P(X \le k)$ for different values of k, n and p.
- From tables, look up n = 10 and p = 0.2.

$$P(X \ge 5) = 1 - P(X \le 4)$$

= 1 - 0.9672 (from tables)
= 0.0328

ECON2843 4 / 34

Binomial Tables

▶ What is the probability the student gets half the answers correct?

$$P(X = 5) = P(X \le 5) - P(X \le 4)$$
= 0.9936 - 0.9672 (from tables)
= 0.0264

ECON2843 5 / 34

Binomial Tables

- ➤ The binomial tables are a tool to make life easier by helping us calculate binomial probabilities for frequently used values of n and p.
- ▶ However, they are not a substitute for knowing and being able to use the binomial probability distribution formula not all values of n or p will be tabulated!

ECON2843 6 / 34

That's all for discrete probability distribution, let's talk about continuous ones now.

ECON2843 7 / 34

Continuous Random Variable

- A continuous random variable takes on an uncountable number of possible values.
- Cannot list all possible values in any systematic way.
- ▶ It is impossible to assign a non-zero probability to each possible value *and* still have all probabilities add up to 1.
- ➤ Therefore, for a continuous random variable *X*, the following is true for *any* value of *x*:

$$P(X = x) = 0$$

ECON2843 8 / 34

Continuous Probability Distribution?

- So what do we do about the probability distribution for a continuous random variable?
- Although P(X = x) = 0 for any value x, it turns out we can find probabilities of the form:

$$P(a < X < b)$$

Note:

Discrete:

$$P(X \le x) \ne P(X < x)$$

Continuous:

$$P(X \le x) = P(X < x)$$

9/34

Flashback to Histograms

- ► Histograms were a useful way to visually display the *distribution* of continuous data.
- Constructing a histogram involved:
 - ▶ Dividing range of possible values into intervals or "classes".
 - Counting number of observations that fall into each interval.
 - ▶ Setting height of each interval to be the frequency (count).

ECON2843 10 / 34

Flashback to Histograms

- ▶ Let's change the height of each interval in the histogram.
- ▶ Suppose we instead set the height of each interval to be:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Interval Height} &= \frac{\text{Count}}{\text{Total Count} \times \text{Interval Width}} \\ &= \text{Proportion} \times \frac{1}{\text{Interval Width}} \end{aligned}$$

ECON2843 11 / 34

Flashback to Histograms

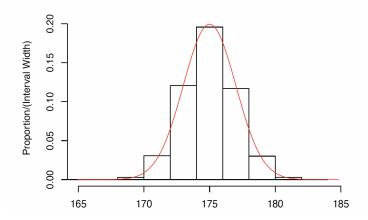
The area of a rectangle corresponding to any particular interval is equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \text{Interval Height} \times \text{Interval Width} \\ &= \text{Proportion} \times \frac{1}{\text{Interval Width}} \times \text{Interval Width} \\ &= \text{Proportion} \end{aligned}$$

That is, the area of each rectangle is equal to the probability of an observation falling into that interval.

Measure 10,000 Heights

▶ Histogram with 10 intervals.

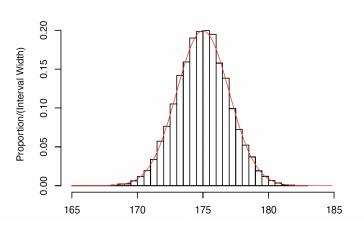


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ECON2843 13 / 34

Measure 10,000 Heights

▶ Histogram with 50 intervals.

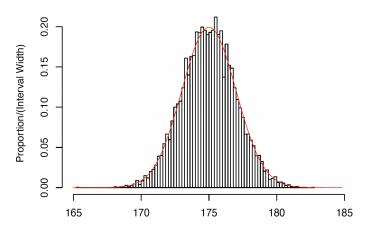


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ECON2843 14 / 34

Measure 10,000 Heights

▶ Histogram with 100 intervals.

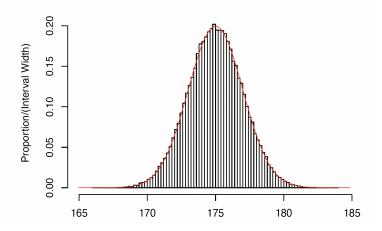


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ECON2843 15 / 34

Measure 100,000 Heights

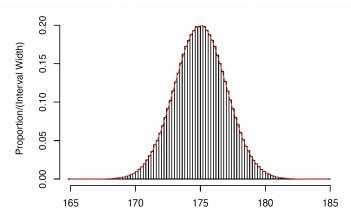
▶ Histogram with 100 intervals.



ECON2843 16 / 34

Measure 1,000,000 Heights

▶ Histogram with 100 intervals.



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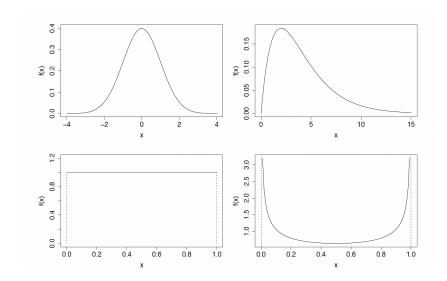
ECON2843 17 / 34

Probability Density Function

- As the number of observations and intervals both approach infinity, histograms of continuous data will approach a smooth curve (red line).
- ▶ The function that describes this curve is called the probability density function (PDF) and is denoted by f(x).
- ➤ Can be thought of as the continuous analogue of the discrete probability distribution.

ECON2843 18 / 34

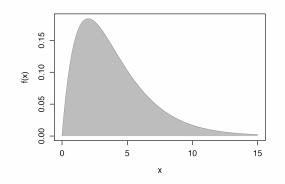
Examples of PDFs



ECON2843 19 / 34

Important Properties

- ▶ The PDF, f(x), of a continuous random variable X must satisfy:
 - 1. $f(x) \ge 0$ for all x (non-negative)
 - 2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$ ((total area under curve equals 1).



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ECON2843 20 / 34

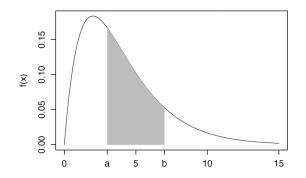
Why is the PDF Important?

- ▶ Just like with the discrete probability distribution, probability density functions represent populations.
- ➤ Once we know the probability density function of a continuous random variable, we know everything about that variable.
- ▶ We can use it to calculate probabilities and also population parameters like the mean (expected value) and variance.

ECON2843 21 / 34

Calculating Probabilities

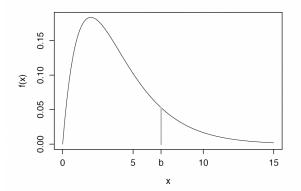
- ▶ The probability that *X* lies between *a* and *b* is equal to area under the PDF between the points *a* and *b*.
- ▶ It is calculated by $P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$



ECON2843 22 / 34

Calculating Probabilities

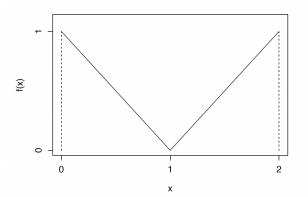
- ▶ Recall that the probability X will equal any specific value is always zero, i.e., P(X = x) = 0 for all x.
- \blacktriangleright We can see that as $a \to b$, then the area $\to 0$.



ECON2843 23 / 34

Calculating Probabilities

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -x+1, & 0 \le x < 1\\ x-1, & 1 \le x \le 2 \end{cases}$$



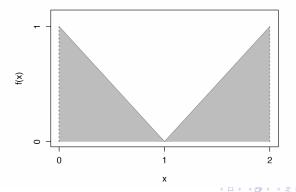


ECON2843 24 / 34

Is f(x) a Valid PDF?

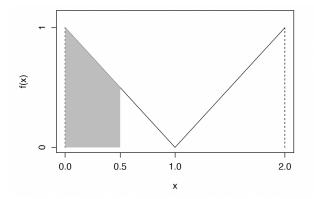
- From the graph, $f(x) \ge 0$ for all $0 \le x \le 2$.
- ▶ The total area under the curve is equal to:

$$\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 1 + \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 1 = 1$$



N2843 25 / 34

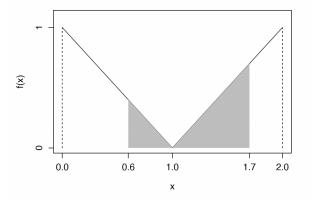
Find P(X < 0.5)



$$P(X < 0.5) = P(X < 1) - P(0.5 < X < 1)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 1 - \frac{1}{2} \times 0.5 \times 0.5 = \frac{3}{8}$$

ECON2843 26 / 34

Find P(0.6 < X < 1.7)



$$P(0.6 < X < 1.7) = P(0.6 < X < 1) + P(1 < X < 1.7)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 0.4 \times 0.4 + \frac{1}{2} \times 0.7 \times 0.7 = \frac{13}{40}$$

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ECON2843 27 / 34

Expected Value

Let X be a continuous random variable with PDF f(x). The **expected value** (or **population mean**) of X is defined to be:

$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

▶ The **expected value** of g(X), where g(X) is some function of X, is defined to be:

$$\mu = E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx$$

ECON2843 28 / 34

Variance

Let X be a continuous random variable with PDF f(x) and $\mu = E(X)$. The **(population) variance** of X is defined to be:

$$\sigma^2 = V(X) = E((X - \mu)^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

A shortcut formula for the variance is given below:

$$V(X) = E(X^{2}) - (E(X))^{2} = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} f(x) dx\right) - \mu^{2}$$

29 / 34

Special Continuous Distributions

- ► There are a number of special continuous distributions, some of which we will encounter in this course:
 - Uniform distribution.
 - Normal distribution.
 - ▶ t-distribution.
 - ▶ *F*-distribution.
 - Chi-squared distribution.
 - Exponential distribution.
 - Cauchy distribution.

ECON2843 30 / 34

Uniform Distribution

▶ A continuous random variable X is said to have a uniform distribution between a and b if its PDF is given by the following function:

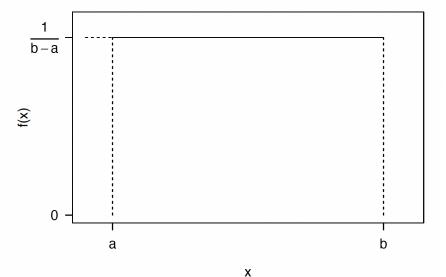
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, \quad a \le x \le b$$

- ▶ We use the notation $X \sim U(a, b)$.
- ► There are two parameters that define a uniform distribution, namely, a and b.

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ECON2843 31 / 34

Probability Density Function of Uniform Distribution



CON2843 32 / 34

Expected Value and Variance

- ▶ Let $X \sim U(a,b)$.
- ▶ The **expected value** of *X* is given by:

$$E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

► The **variance** of *X* is given by:

$$V(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

ECON2843 33 / 34

Expected Value

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} x \times \frac{1}{b-a} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right] \Big|_{a}^{b}$$

$$= \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2(b-a)}$$

$$= \frac{(b+a)(b-a)}{2(b-a)}$$

$$= \frac{a+b}{2}$$

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ECON2843 34 / 34