

# **CENG 222**

## **Statistical Methods for Computer Engineering**

### **Week 3**

#### Chapter 3

#### Families of discrete distributions

# Bernoulli distribution

- A random variable with two possible values, 0 and 1, is called a *Bernoulli variable*
- The distribution of such a r.v. is called the *Bernoulli distribution*
- Any random experiment with a binary outcome is called a *Bernoulli trial*
- Generic outcome names: *successes* and *failures*

# Not equally likely outcomes

- In general,  $f(1) = f(0) = 0.5$  does NOT hold when the binary outcomes are not equally likely
- If  $f(1) = p$ , what is  $E(X)$  and  $Var(X)$ ?

# What about “non 0-1”, binary outcomes?

- Example:
  - What if the two possible outcomes are 5 and 9 with  $f(5) = 0.3$  and  $f(9) = 0.7$ ?
  - What is the expected value?

# What about “non 0-1”, binary outcomes?

- Example:
  - What if the two possible outcomes are 5 and 9 with  $f(5) = 0.3$  and  $f(9) = 0.7$ ?
  - What is the expected value?
  - It is just a shifted and rescaled standard Bernoulli trial.
    - $X = 4B + 5$
    - $E(X) = E(4B + 5) = 4E(B) + 5 = 4 \cdot 0.7 + 5 = 7.8$

# Binomial distribution

- Number of successes in a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials
  - $n$ : number of trials
  - $p$ : probability of success
- $f_x(x) = P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}$
- Expected value and variance:
  - A binomial variable  $X$  is a sum of  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials.
  - $E(X) = np$ ,  $Var(X) = npq$

# Using distribution tables

- Table A2, *cdf* of Binomial distribution
- *pdf* can be obtained by difference of two consecutive entries
- Example 3.16
- Example 3.17
  - Using *binocdf*( $x, n, p$ ) function of MATLAB

# Geometric distribution

- The number of Bernoulli trials needed to get the first success
- The support is the set of integers  $[1..\infty]$
- $f_x(x) = P(X = x) = pq^{x-1}$
- The support is unbounded
  - Check that  $\sum_x f_x(x) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} p(1-p)^{x-1} = 1$
- Expected value and variance:
  - $E(X) = 1/p$ ,  $Var(X) = (1-p)/p^2$



# Geometric distribution

- Example 3.20 St. Petersburg Paradox
- Gambling with a guaranteed strategy to win a desired amount
  - Even when  $p$  is less than 0.5!
  - Start with the desired amount
  - Double betting amount every time you loose
  - Stop when you win the first time
  - E.g if  $p=0.2$  the expected number of bets to win is 5!

# Geometric distribution

- So what's the paradox?
- What is the amount of money,  $Y$ , needed to follow the strategy?
  - $Y = D2^{X-1}$  where  $D$  is the desired amount and  $X$  is the number of bets needed to win.
  - $E(Y) = \text{infinity}$  when  $p \leq 0.5$  (the paradox)

# Negative Binomial distribution

- In a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials, the number of trials needed to obtain  $k$  successes
  - It can be considered as the *inverse* of the Binomial, where, we now fix the number of successes and count the number of trials  $n$  to reach that number of successes
- It is a generalization of the Geometric distribution

# Negative Binomial distribution

- $f_x(x) = P(X = x) = \binom{x-1}{k-1} p^k q^{x-k}$
- Expected value and variance:
  - A negative binomial variable  $X$  is a sum of  $k$  independent Geometric variables.
  - $E(X) = k/p$ ,  $Var(X) = k(1-p)/p^2$
- Example 3.21
  - $k = 12$ ,  $p = 0.95$ ,  $P(X > 15) = ?$
  - $P(X > 15) = 1 - F_X(15)$
  - Can be solved by using the Binomial distribution with  $n = 15$ ,  $p = 0.95$ ,  $P(Y < 12) = F_Y(11)$ .

# Poisson distribution

- The number of rare events occurring within a fixed period of time
- It has a single parameter
  - $\lambda$  : frequency, average number of events
  - $f_x(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$
  - $E(X) = \lambda, \text{Var}(X) = \lambda$
- Example 3.22

# Poisson approximation of Binomial distribution

- Poisson distribution can be used to approximate Binomial distribution when  $n$  is large and  $p$  is small
  - E.g.,  $n \geq 30$  and  $p \leq 0.05$
  - $np = \lambda$
- Example 3.25 The Birthday Problem