





Lecture 7
Discrete Random Variables (p4)

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# Discrete Random Variable's topics

- Discrete probability distributions
- Joint distributions
- Mathematical expectation
- Variance, Standardized random variables
- Moments and Moment generating function
- Covariance & correlation
- Special Probability Distributions

- Two teams, the Yankees and the Giants, play a 7-game series. If the Yankees win each game with probability p=0.5 independently of any other game, what is the probability the Yankees win the series (win 4 games)?
- We need to use the binomial probability to calculate this probability.
- Binomial probabilities arise in numerous application, not just sports.

- Suppose that we have an experiment: tossing a coin **repeatedly**. Then each toss is called a *trial*.
- In any single *trial*, there will be a probability associated with a particular event. In some cases, this probability will not change from one trial to the next.
- → These trials are said to be *independent* and *identical*, and are often called **Bernoulli trials**.

- Let *p* be the probability that an event will happen in any single Bernoulli trial (called *the probability of success*)
- Then q = 1 p is the probability that the event will fail to happen in any single trial (called *the probability of failure*).
- The probability that the event will happen exactly *x* times in *n* trials is given by the following probability function:

$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x} \tag{*}$$

where the random variable X denotes the number of successes in n trials and x = 0, 1, ..., n.

• The discrete probability function (\*) in previous slide is often called the binomial distribution since for x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n, it correspond to successive terms in the binomial expansion

$$(q+p)^n = q^n + \binom{n}{1}q^{n-1}p + \binom{n}{2}q^{n-2}p^2 + \dots + p^n = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x}p^xq^{n-x}$$

• The special case of a binomial distribution with n=1 is also called the Bernoulli distribution.

**Example**: the probability of getting exactly 2 heads in 6 tosses of a fair coin is:

$$P(X = 2) = {6 \choose 2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{6-2} = \frac{6!}{2!4!} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{6-2} = \frac{15}{64}$$

**Example**: Two teams, the Yankees and the Giants, play a 7-game series. If the Yankees win each game with probability p=0.5 (equal ability) independently of any other game, what is the probability the Yankees win the series (win 4 games)?

Recall: 
$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x}$$

$$P(X=4) = {7 \choose 4} p^4 q^{7-4} = \frac{7!}{4! (7-4)!} 0.5^4 0.5^{7-4} = 0.2734$$

b) If they are playing 9-game series, what is the probability of winning 5 games out of 9?

$$P(X=5) = {9 \choose 5} p^5 q^{9-5} = \frac{9!}{5! (9-5)!} 0.5^5 0.5^{9-5} = 0.2461$$

Winning 4 out of 7 is more probable than winning 5 out of 9.

# The Binomial Distribution Summary

A binomial distribution simply is the probability of a success or failure outcome in an experiment that is repeated multiple times. The binomial is a type of distribution that has only two possible outcomes.

For example: a coin toss has either head or tail, taking a test is either pass or fail.

There are many real-life applications of binomial distribution:

- Calculating the successful probability of a new drug introduced to cure a disease.
- Correcting the errors in the digital communication system.

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#### In-class exercise

#### **Binary Communications**:

For a bit-error-rate (BER) of  $10^{-3}$  in a binary data stream,

- a) What is the probability of 1 error in a 32-bit word?
- b) What is the probability of 0 error in a 32-bit word?
- c) What is the probability of having 1 or mores error in a 32-bit word?

# Some Properties of the Binomial Distribution

Mean	$\mu = np$
Variance	$\sigma^2 = npq$
Standard Deviation	$\sigma = \sqrt{npq}$
Moment Generating Function	$M(t) = (q + pe^t)^n$

#### **Example:**

In 100 tosses of a fair coin, the expected or mean number of heads is  $\mu = np = 100 * 0.5 = 50$ , while the standard deviation is  $\sigma = \sqrt{npq} = \sqrt{100 * 0.5 * 0.5} = 5$ .

# The law of large numbers for Bernoulli trials

**Theorem 4-1**: (Law of large numbers for Bernoulli trials)

Let X be the random variable giving the number of successes in n Bernoulli trials, so that X/n is the proportion of successes. Then if p is the probability of success and  $\epsilon$  is any positive number,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left( \left| \frac{X}{n} - p \right| \ge \epsilon \right) = 0$$

In other words, in the long run, it becomes extremely likely that the proportion of successes, X/n, will be as close as you like to the probability of success in a single trial, p.

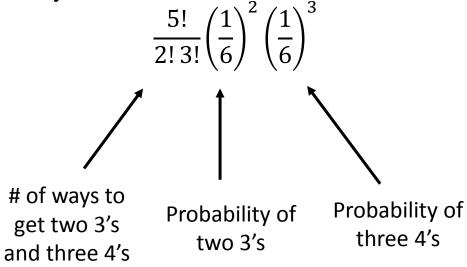
**Example**: The probability of getting a 3 when tossing a fair die is 1/6.

The law of large numbers states that the probability of the proportion of 3 in n tosses differing from 1/6 by more than any value  $\epsilon > 0$  approaches zero as  $n \to \infty$ .

- The multinomial distribution is a generalization of the binomial distribution.
- Consider the following example: Rolling a fair die 5 times, what is the probability of getting **two** 3's and **three** 4's?

We are taking an event with multiple possible outcomes (a finite no.), and repeating that event a given number of times.

The required probability is:



• Suppose that events  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$  are mutually exclusive, and can occur with respective probabilities  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$  where  $p_1 + p_2 + ... + p_k = 1$ . If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$  are the random variables respectively giving the number of times that  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$  occur in a total of n trials, so that  $X_1 + X_2 + ... + X_k = n$ , then

$$P(X_1 = n_1, X_2 = n_2, \dots, X_k = n_k) = \frac{n!}{n_1! \, n_2! \cdots n_k!} p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$$

is the joint probability function for the random variable  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_k$ .

Note: 
$$n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k = n$$
.

This distribution, which is a generalization of the binomial distribution, is called *the multinomial distribution*.

• The expected number of times that  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$  will occur in n trials are  $np_1, np_2, ..., np_k$  respectively, i.e.,

$$E(X_1) = np_1, E(X_2) = np_2, \dots, E(X_k) = np_k$$

**Example**: If a fair die is tossed 12 times, the probability of getting 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 points exactly twice each is:

$$P(X_1 = 2, X_2 = 2, \dots, X_6 = 2) = \frac{12!}{2!2!2!2!2!} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 = \frac{1925}{559,872} = 0.00344$$

**Example:** A box contains 5 red balls, 4 white balls, and 3 blue balls. A ball is selected at random from the box, its color is noted, and then the ball is replaced. Find the probability that out of 6 balls selected in this manner, 3 are red, 2 are white, and 1 is blue.

#### **Method 1 (using combinatorial analysis):**

The prob. of choosing any red ball is 5/12, then the probability of choosing 3 red balls is  $(\frac{5}{12})^3$ . Similarly, the probability of choosing 2 white balls is  $(\frac{4}{12})^2$ , and choosing 1 blue ball is  $(\frac{3}{12})^1$ .

The probability of choosing 3 red, 2 white, and 1 blue in that order is:  $\left(\frac{5}{12}\right)^3 * \left(\frac{4}{12}\right)^2 * \left(\frac{3}{12}\right)^1$ 

$$\left(\frac{5}{12}\right)^3 * \left(\frac{4}{12}\right)^2 * \left(\frac{3}{12}\right)^1$$

But the same selection can be achieved in various other orders, and the number of these different ways is:  $\frac{6!}{3!2!1!}$ 

The required probability is:

$$\frac{6!}{3! \ 2! \ 1!} * \left(\frac{5}{12}\right)^3 * \left(\frac{4}{12}\right)^2 * \left(\frac{3}{12}\right)^1 = \frac{625}{5184}$$

**Example**: A box contains 5 red balls, 4 white balls, and 3 blue balls. A ball is selected at random from the box, its color is noted, and then the ball is replaced. Find the probability that out of 6 balls selected in this manner, 3 are red, 2 are white, and 1 is blue.

#### **Method 2 (using multinomial distribution):**

$$P(red at any drawing) = \frac{5}{12}$$

$$P(white at any drawing) = \frac{4}{12}$$

$$P(blue at any drawing) = \frac{3}{12}$$

The required probability is:

$$P(3 \ red, 2 \ white, 1 \ blue) = \frac{6!}{3! \ 2! \ 1!} * \left(\frac{5}{12}\right)^3 * \left(\frac{4}{12}\right)^2 * \left(\frac{3}{12}\right)^1 = \frac{625}{5184}$$

#### In-class exercise

You are having a source that produces 4 symbols: 0, 1, 2, 3 with probabilities  $p_0 = 0.4$ ,  $p_1 = 0.3$ ,  $p_2 = 0.2$ ,  $p_3 = 0.1$ .

One sequence of 20 symbols is: 1, 2, 0, 2, 0, 3, 2, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 2, 1, 0, 2, 2, 3, 1, 1. The counts are  $N_0 = 4$ ,  $N_1 = 8$ ,  $N_2 = 6$ ,  $N_3 = 2$ .

What is the probability of this particular set of counts?

# The Hypergeometric Distribution

- Suppose that a box contains b blue marbles and r red marbles. Let us perform n trials of an experiment in which a marble is chosen at random, its color is observed, and then the marble is put back in the box. (sampling with replacement)
- If *X* is the random variable denoting the number of blue marbles chosen (successes) in *n* trials, then using the binomial distribution, the probability of exactly *x* successes is:

$$P(X = x) = {n \choose x} \frac{b^x r^{n-x}}{(b+r)^n}, \quad x = 0, 1, ..., n$$

since 
$$p = \frac{b}{b+r}$$
, and  $q = 1 - p = \frac{r}{b+r}$ 

## The Hypergeometric Distribution

• If we modify the event so that *sampling is without replacement*, i.e., the marbles are not replaced after being chosen, then:

$$P(X = x) = \frac{\binom{b}{x}\binom{r}{n-x}}{\binom{b+r}{n}}, \quad x = \max(0, n-r), \dots, \min(n, b)$$

This is the *hypergeometric distribution*.

• The *mean* and *variance* for this distribution are:

$$\mu = \frac{nb}{b+r}, \qquad \sigma^2 = \frac{nbr(b+r-n)}{(b+r)^2(b+r-1)}$$

# Relation btw Hypergeometric and Binomial Distribution

• Let the total number of blue and red marbles be N, while the proportions of blue and red marbles are p and q=1-p respectively, then:

$$p = \frac{b}{b+r} = \frac{b}{N}, q = \frac{r}{b+r} = \frac{r}{N}$$
 or  $b = Np, r = Nq$ 

The hypergeometric distribution, its mean and variance will become:

$$P(X = x) = \frac{\binom{Np}{x} \binom{Nq}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}, \qquad (*)$$

$$\mu = np, \qquad \sigma^2 = \frac{npq(N-n)}{N-1} \qquad (**)$$

• Note that as  $N \to \infty$  (or N is large compared with n), (\*) and (\*\*) will become:

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}$$

$$\mu = np, \qquad \sigma^{2} = npq$$

This indicates that for large *N*, sampling without replacement is practically identical to sampling with replacement. In other words, hypergeometric distribution is identical with binomial distribution when *N* is large.

## Reference

Notes, equations, and figures in the lecture are based on or taken from materials in the course textbook:

"Probability and Statistics", by Spiegel, Schiller and Srinivasan, ISBN 987-007-179557-9 (McGraw-Hill/Schaun's)