

# Lecture - 9

## MS Theory I

Review

## Moment Generating Functions (Not just for generating moments!)

- Generate moments

⇒ ⇒ Characterize a dist'n (used to show convergence)

**Definition 2.3.6** Let  $X$  be a random variable with cdf  $F_X$ . The *moment generating function (mgf) of  $X$*  (or  $F_X$ ), denoted by  $M_X(t)$ , is

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E} e^{tX},$$

provided that the expectation exists for  $t$  in some neighborhood of 0. That is, there is an  $h > 0$  such that, for all  $t$  in  $-h < t < h$ ,  $\mathbb{E} e^{tX}$  exists. If the expectation does not exist in a neighborhood of 0, we say that the moment generating function does not exist.

More explicitly, we can write the mgf of  $X$  as

$$M_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx \quad \text{if } X \text{ is continuous,}$$

or

$$M_X(t) = \sum_x e^{tx} P(X = x) \quad \text{if } X \text{ is discrete.}$$

It is very easy to see how the mgf generates moments. We summarize the result in the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.3.7** If  $X$  has mgf  $M_X(t)$ , then

$$\mathbb{E} X^n = M_X^{(n)}(0),$$

where we define

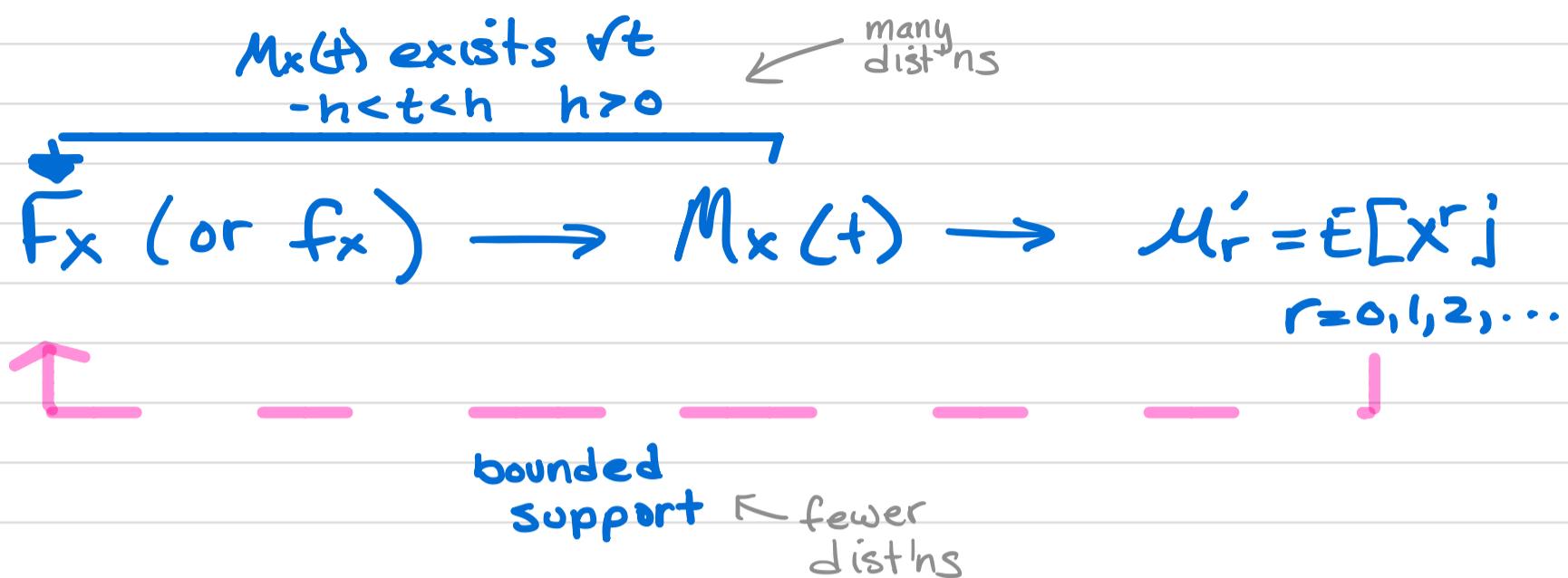
$$M_X^{(n)}(0) = \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0}.$$

← How to get moments from mgf.  
(derivatives easier than integrals).

That is, the  $n$ th moment is equal to the  $n$ th derivative of  $M_X(t)$  evaluated at  $t = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.3.11** Let  $F_X(x)$  and  $F_Y(y)$  be two cdfs all of whose moments exist.

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  have bounded support, then  $F_X(u) = F_Y(u)$  for all  $u$  if and only if  $\mathbb{E} X^r = \mathbb{E} Y^r$  for all integers  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .
- If the moment generating functions exist and  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t$  in some neighborhood of 0, then  $F_X(u) = F_Y(u)$  for all  $u$ .

Review

**Theorem 2.3.12 (Convergence of mgfs)** Suppose  $\{X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is a sequence of random variables, each with mgf  $M_{X_i}(t)$ . Furthermore, suppose that

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} M_{X_i}(t) = M_X(t), \quad \text{for all } t \text{ in a neighborhood of 0,}$$

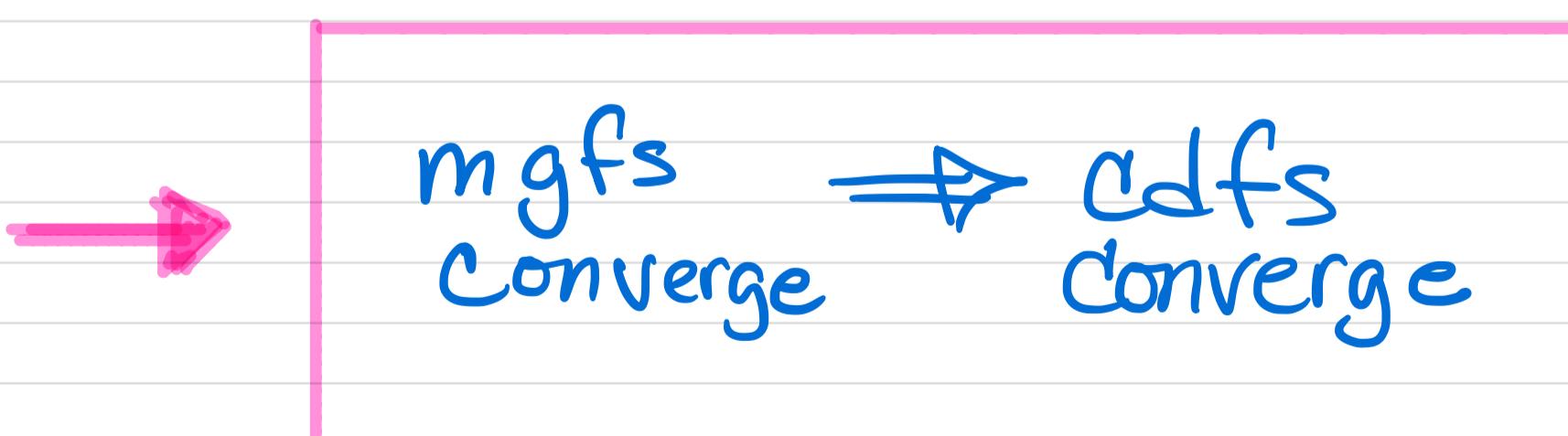
and  $M_X(t)$  is an mgf. Then there is a unique cdf  $F_X$  whose moments are determined by  $M_X(t)$  and, for all  $x$  where  $F_X(x)$  is continuous, we have

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_i}(x) = F_X(x).$$

That is, convergence, for  $|t| < h$ , of mgfs to an mgf implies convergence of cdfs.

Summary of Thm 2.3.12

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} M_{X_i}(t) = M_X(t) \quad \sqrt{|t| < h} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{implies}} \quad \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_i}(x) = F_X(x)$$



Review

The approximation:  $P(X=x) \approx P(Y=x)$

$$\text{for } X \sim \text{bin}(n,p) \quad Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda) \quad \lambda = np$$

One rule:  
 $n$  'large'  
 $np$  small

$$\begin{cases} n \geq 20 \\ p \leq .05 \\ np < 10 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Poisson}(\lambda) \text{ pmf: } P(Y=y) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} * I_{[0,1,2,\dots]}^{(y)}$$

$$\text{Recall } M_x(t) = \underset{\text{Binomial}}{[pe^t + (1-p)]^n} \quad \text{and } M_y(t) = \underset{\text{Poisson}}{e^{\lambda(e^t-1)}}$$

$$\text{If } \lambda = np \text{ then } p = \lambda/n$$

$$M_x(t) = [pe^t + (1-p)]^n = [1 + \frac{1}{n}(e^t-1)(np)]^n$$

$$\text{if } p = \frac{\lambda}{n} \quad = [1 + \frac{1}{n}(e^t-1)\lambda]^n \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Now use} \\ \text{Lemma 2.3.14} \end{array}$$

define:

$$a = a_n = (e^t-1)\lambda$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_x(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t-1)} = M_y(t)$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_x(u) = F_y(u) \quad u = \{0,1,2,\dots\}$$

Note: We must recognize  $e^{\lambda(e^t-1)}$  is Mgf of Poisson for this to be useful Thm.

Finally:

**Theorem 2.3.15** For any constants  $a$  and  $b$ , the mgf of the random variable  $aX+b$  is given by

$$M_{aX+b}(t) = e^{bt} M_X(at).$$

→ know dist'n and mgf of  $X$

→ know mgf → dist'n of  $Y = aX+b$   
 (linear transform).

Review

## § 2.4 Differentiating under integral sign

- We will frequently need to interchange integration & differentiation.

- Need to know when legitimate to interchange  $\int + \frac{d}{d\theta}$

- Assume interested in calculating:

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{a(\theta)}^{b(\theta)} f(x, \theta) dx \quad -\infty < a(\theta), b(\theta) < \infty$$

- Use application of Fundamental Thm of Calculus and chain rule.

**Theorem 2.4.1 (Leibnitz's Rule)** If  $f(x, \theta)$ ,  $a(\theta)$ , and  $b(\theta)$  are differentiable with respect to  $\theta$ , then

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{a(\theta)}^{b(\theta)} f(x, \theta) dx = f(b(\theta), \theta) \frac{d}{d\theta} b(\theta) - f(a(\theta), \theta) \frac{d}{d\theta} a(\theta) + \int_{a(\theta)}^{b(\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) dx.$$

Notice that if  $a(\theta)$  and  $b(\theta)$  are constant, we have a special case of Leibnitz's Rule:

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \underbrace{\int_a^b f(x, \theta) dx}_{\text{ft'n of } \theta} = \int_a^b \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta)}_{\text{ft'n } x, \theta} dx. \quad \xleftarrow{\text{partial derivative}}$$

Example Beta ( $\alpha, \beta$ )**Beta( $\alpha, \beta$ )**

pdf  $f(x|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad \alpha > 0, \quad \beta > 0$

mean and variance  $EX = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}, \quad \text{Var } X = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$

mgf  $M_X(t) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \prod_{r=0}^{k-1} \frac{\alpha+r}{\alpha+\beta+r} \right) \frac{t^k}{k!}$

notes The constant in the beta pdf can be defined in terms of gamma functions,  $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$ . Equation (3.2.18) gives a general expression for the moments.

$$f(x|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} * I_{[0,1]}(x)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\alpha!} x^{\alpha-1} * I_{[0,1]}(x) = \alpha x^{\alpha-1} I_{[0,1]}(x)$$

Review

$$f(x|a, b=1) = \alpha x^{\alpha-1} I_{[0,1]}^{(x)}$$

want  $\frac{d}{da} \int_0^1 g(x,a) \alpha x^{\alpha-1} dx$        $g(x,a)$  often something like  $\log(f(x|\alpha)) \dots$  (more later).

here  $a(\theta)=1$  and  $b(\theta)=0$  (both constant)! 

$$\text{so } \frac{d}{da} \int_0^1 g(x,a) \alpha x^{\alpha-1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial a} [g(x,a) \alpha x^{\alpha-1}] dx$$

Example  $U(0,\theta)$ **Uniform( $a, b$ )**

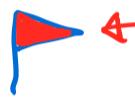
pdf  $f(x|a,b) = \frac{1}{b-a}, \quad a \leq x \leq b$

mean and variance  $EX = \frac{a+b}{2}, \quad \text{Var } X = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$

mgf  $M_X(t) = \frac{e^{bt} - e^{at}}{(b-a)t}$

notes If  $a = 0$  and  $b = 1$ , this is a special case of the beta ( $\alpha = \beta = 1$ ).

Caution:

 ← Sample space is f't'n of parameters that define dist'n!

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\theta} I_{[0,\theta]}^{(x)}$$

$$a(\theta)=0, \quad b(\theta)=\theta$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_0^\theta g(x,\theta) \frac{1}{\theta} dx \neq \int_0^\theta \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} g(x,\theta) \frac{1}{\theta} \right] dx$$


$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_0^\theta g(x,\theta) \frac{1}{\theta} dx &= g(\underline{\theta}, \underline{\theta}) \frac{d}{d\theta} \underline{\theta} \\ &- g(\underline{0}, \underline{\theta}) \frac{d}{d\theta} (\underline{0}) \\ &+ \int_0^\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} g(x,\theta) \frac{1}{\theta} dx \end{aligned}$$

Review

More theorems in C&B to cover when  $0 < x < \infty$  or  $-\infty < x < \infty$   
 $a(\theta) = -\infty$  or  $b(\theta) = \infty$

Can we assume:

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, \theta) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) dx ?$$



above

The property illustrated for the exponential distribution holds for a large class of densities, which will be dealt with in Section 3.4.

→ 'exponential families'

"obviously" the sample space/support won't be a ft'n of  $\Theta$ .

Similarly for 'exponential families' we can assume that we can interchange differentiation and summation.

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \text{ or } \sum_{i=1}^n .$$

More in chapter-3

### 3 Common Families of Distributions

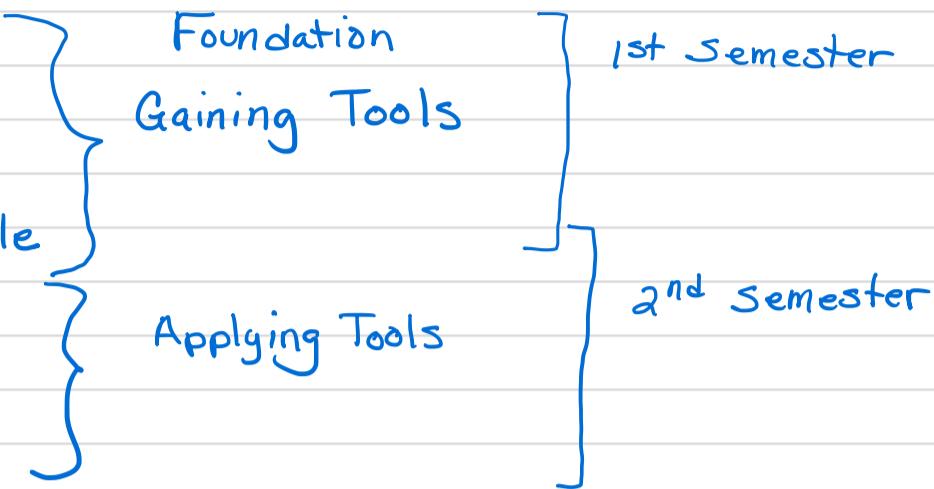
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Discrete Distributions
- 3.3 Continuous Distributions
- 3.4 Exponential Families ←
- 3.5 Location and Scale Families
- ⋮

Chapter - 3

## Course Overview

## C&amp;B Chapters:

- 1: Probability Theory
- 2: Transformations / Expectations
- 3: Common Families of Distributions
- 4: Multiple Random Variables
- 5: Properties of a Random Sample
- 6: Principles of Data Reduction
- 7: Point Estimation
- 8: Hypothesis Testing
- 9: Interval Estimation
- 10: Asymptotic Evaluations



## Chapter - 3

- 3.1 Intro
- 3.2 Discrete Dist'n's
- 3.3 Continuous Dist'n's
- 3.4 Exponential families
- 3.5 Location and Scale families
- 3.6 Inequalities and Identities

- We've seen families of dist'n

- Binomial ( $n, p$ )
- Poisson ( $\lambda$ )
- Normal ( $\mu, \sigma^2$ )
- Uniform ( $a, b$ )
- Beta ( $\alpha, \beta$ )
- Gamma ( $\alpha, \beta$ )
- Geometric ( $p$ )
- :

Note 'family' characterized by parameters.

Know parameters, know how random variables behave

↳ See chapter 7 !

- For 'common' dist'n's:

- $f_x(x|\theta)$  pdf "l" given parameter  $\theta$
- $F_x(x|\theta)$
- Sample space (support) of  $X$ .  $\rightarrow I^{(x)}$
- $E[X] = \text{mean}$  { ft'n of
- $\text{Var}[X] = \text{variance}$  } parameters
- mgfs  $\leftarrow$  if exists / helpful

## § 3.2 Discrete Distributions.

- Sample Space of  $X$  countable.

- Usually

$$I_{[0,1,2,\dots]}^{(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0,1,2,\dots] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

or

$$I_{[1,2,3,\dots]}^{(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [1,2,3,\dots] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

or

$$I_{[0,1,2,\dots,n]}^{(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0,1,2,\dots,n] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Usually...  
integers

Discrete Uniform Dist'n: (rolling standard die  $N=6$ )Discrete uniform

pmf  $P(X = x|N) = \frac{1}{N}; \quad x = 1, 2, \dots, N; \quad N = 1, 2, \dots$

get cdf by summing

mean and variance  $EX = \frac{N+1}{2}, \quad \text{Var } X = \frac{(N+1)(N-1)}{12}$

$$I_{[1,\dots,N]}^{(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [1,\dots,N] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

mgf  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N e^{it}$

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^N x \cdot P(X=x|N)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N x * \frac{1}{N}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x = \frac{1}{N} \left( \frac{N(N+1)}{2} \right)$$

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

Prove  $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$  using proof by induction

Show  $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{1+1}{2} = 1 = \frac{(1+1)}{2} = 1$

Assume  $\sum_{i=1}^k i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$

Show  $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i + k+1 = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} //$$

Discrete Uniform cont.

$$E[X] = \frac{N+1}{2}$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$$

$$E[X^2] = \sum_{x=1}^N x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=1}^N x^2 = \frac{(N+1)(2N+1)}{6}$$

Another proof by induction  
(homework).

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{(N+1)(2N+1)}{6} - \left(\frac{N+1}{2}\right)^2 \\ \therefore &= \frac{(N+1)(N-1)}{12} \end{aligned}$$

→ Roll 6 sided die ( $N=6$ )

- pmf

$$f_X(x|N=6) = P(X=x) = \frac{1}{6} * I_{[1,2,\dots,6]}^{(x)}$$

$$E[X] = \frac{6+1}{2} = 3.5$$

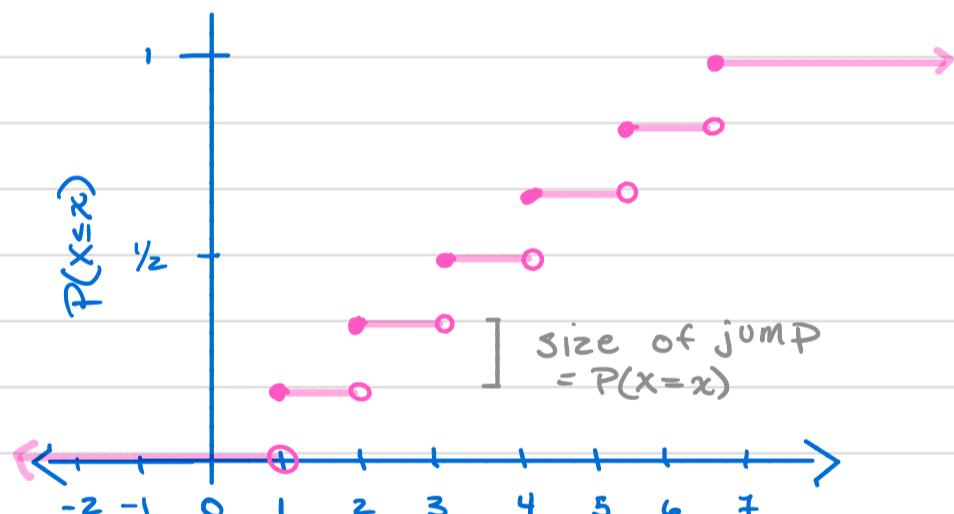
$$\text{Var}[X] = \frac{(7)(5)}{12} = \frac{35}{12} \approx 2.92$$

step function

$$\text{- cdf } P(X \leq x) = \sum_{i=1}^x P(X=i)$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$   
 $x \in [1, 2, \dots, N]$

$$\begin{cases} P(X < 1) = 0 \\ \text{size of jump} = P(X=x) \\ P(X \leq 1) = P(X=1) = 1/6 \\ P(X \leq 2) = P(X=1) + P(X=2) = 2/6 = 1/3 \\ \vdots \\ P(X \leq 6) = P(X=1) + \dots + P(X=6) = 6/6 = 1 \end{cases}$$

→ Roll 3-sided die:  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{3} * I_{[0,1,2,3]}^{(x)}$ 

$$E[X] = 2 \quad \text{Var}[X] = \frac{(4)(2)}{12} = \frac{8}{12} = \frac{2}{3}$$



**Hypergeometric**

*pmf*  $P(X = x|N, M, K) = \frac{\binom{M}{x} \binom{N-M}{K-x}}{\binom{N}{K}}; \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, K;$   
 $M - (N - K) \leq x \leq M; \quad N, M, K \geq 0$

*mean and variance*  $EX = \frac{KM}{N}, \quad \text{Var } X = \frac{KM}{N} \frac{(N-M)(N-K)}{N(N-1)}$

*notes* If  $K \ll M$  and  $N$ , the range  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, K$  will be appropriate.

- derivation of  $E[X]$  in C&B ← somewhat unsatisfying...

- Fun pmf ; Not used often in Biostats

**Bernoulli( $p$ )**

*pmf*  $P(X = x|p) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x}; \quad x = 0, 1; \quad 0 \leq p \leq 1$

*mean and variance*  $EX = p, \quad \text{Var } X = p(1-p)$

*mgf*  $M_X(t) = (1-p) + pe^t$

Binomial  
with  $n=1$

**Binomial( $n, p$ )**

usually parameter  $n$  assumed known

*pmf*  $P(X = x|n, p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}; \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad 0 \leq p \leq 1$

*mean and variance*  $EX = np, \quad \text{Var } X = np(1-p)$

*mgf*  $M_X(t) = [pe^t + (1-p)]^n$

*notes* Related to Binomial Theorem (Theorem 3.2.2). The *multinomial* distribution (Definition 4.6.2) is a multivariate version of the binomial distribution.

**Theorem 3.2.2 (Binomial Theorem)** For any real numbers  $x$  and  $y$  and integer  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$(3.2.4) \quad (x + y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}. \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } x=y=1 \\ (1+1)^n = 2^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \end{array} \right]$$

## Poisson Dist'n

**Poisson( $\lambda$ )**

$$\text{pmf} \quad P(X = x|\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!}; \quad x = 0, 1, \dots; \quad 0 \leq \lambda < \infty$$

$$\text{mean and variance} \quad EX = \lambda, \quad \text{Var } X = \lambda$$

$$\text{mgf} \quad M_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

- Model wait times (time between hormone pulses).
- Number successes in given time (small time interval)
- Count data (often  $E[X] = \text{Var}[X]$  not valid medical research).

$$f_X(x) = P(X=x|\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!} * I_{[0, 1, 2, \dots]}(x)$$

Recall:

$$\text{Tool: } e^y = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{y^i}{i!}$$

Show pmf sums to 1.

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} P(X=x|\lambda) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = 1$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{x e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x \cdot \lambda^{x-1}}{x(x-1)} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!}$$

$$\text{let } y = x-1 \quad \begin{array}{l} x=1 \Rightarrow y=0 \\ x=\infty \Rightarrow y=\infty \end{array}$$

$$E[X] = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = \lambda$$

$$\text{Similarly: } \begin{aligned} \text{Var}[X] &= \lambda \\ M_X(t) &= e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right] \begin{array}{l} \text{homework} \\ (\text{after exam}) \end{array}$$

→ Hormone Pulse Example (Waiting time)

- A hormone pulses on average 5 times in 3 hours
- Find probability there are no pulses in next hour.
- Find probability there are at least 2 pulses.

$X = \# \text{ pulses in hour}$  Possible  $X = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$X \sim \text{Poisson } (\lambda) \quad \lambda ?$

$$\lambda = E[X] = 5 \text{ pulses / 3 hours} = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$P(0 \text{ pulses in next hour}) = P(X=0) = \frac{e^{-\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^0}{0!} = .189$$

$$P(\geq 2 \text{ calls in next hr}) = 1 - P(X=0) - P(X=1)$$

$$= 1 - .189 - \frac{e^{-\frac{5}{3}} \left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^1}{1!} = .496$$

//

→ Poisson Approx. to Binomial

Recall mgf of Binomial  $\xrightarrow{\text{converges}}$  Mgf of Poisson  
(Ex 2.3.13)  $\Rightarrow$  cdfs converge n large  
np small

$$\text{If } X \sim \text{Bin}(1500, \frac{1}{500}) \quad P(X \leq 2) = \sum_{x=0}^2 \binom{1500}{x} \left(\frac{1}{500}\right)^x \left(\frac{499}{500}\right)^{1500-x} = .4230$$

easy in R; tough by hand...

$$E[X] = np = \frac{1500}{500} = 3$$

→ Poisson approx.

$$P(X \leq 2) \approx \sum_{x=0}^2 \frac{e^{-3} 3^x}{x!} = e^{-3} \left[ \frac{3^0}{0!} + \frac{3^1}{1!} + \frac{3^2}{2!} \right] = .4232$$

## Negative Binomial

# trials to  $r^{\text{th}}$  success,  $r$  fixed & known.

$X = \text{trial } r^{\text{th}} \text{ success}$

$r$  successes ;  $(x-r)$  failures [note last must be success!]

→ in  $(x-1)$  trials have  $(r-1)$  successes

success on  $r^{\text{th}}$  trial

$$P \left[ \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^{(r-1)} (1-p)^{(x-1)-(r-1)} \right]$$

$$I_{[r, r+1, r+2, \dots]}^{(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [r, r+1, \dots] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$= \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r} * I_{[r, r+1, r+2, \dots]}^{(x)}$$

Alternative form (homework)

 $y = \# \text{failures to } r^{\text{th}} \text{ success}$  $r \text{ successes} + y \text{ fail} \quad y = x - r \rightarrow x = y + r \quad y = x - r$ 

$$\binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r} I_{\{r, r+1, \dots\}}^{(x)}$$

 $\downarrow$ 

$$\binom{r+y-1}{y} p^r (1-p)^y I_{\{0, 1, \dots\}}^{(y)}$$

If  $x=r \quad y=0$   
 $x=r+1 \quad y=1$   
 $\vdots$

$r+y$  trial success  
need  $(r-1)$  fail  
 $(r+y-1)$  trials  
 $y \rightarrow$  success  
 $(r+y-1) - (r-1) = y$

Sometimes see  $\binom{r+y-1}{y} = (-1)^y \binom{-r}{y}$ 

$$\binom{r+y-1}{y} = \frac{(r+y-1)(r+y-2)\dots(r)(r-1)(r-2)\dots(1)}{y! [(r-1)!]}$$

$$= (-1)^y \frac{(-r)(-r-1)(-r-2)\dots(-r-y+1)}{(y)(y-1)(y-2)\dots(2)(1)} = (-1)^y \binom{-r}{y}$$

$$P(y=y) = \frac{(-1)^y \binom{-r}{y} p^r (1-p)^y}{I_{\{0, 1, \dots\}}^{(y)}}$$

name: negative binomial

"striking resemblance".

$$E[y] = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} y \binom{r+y-1}{y} p^r (1-p)^y$$

$$= \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} \frac{y}{y} \frac{(r+y-1)!}{(y-1)!(r-1)!} p^r (1-p)^y = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} \frac{r}{r} \frac{(r+y-1)!}{(y-1)!(r-1)!} = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} r \binom{r+y-1}{y-1} p^r (1-p)^y$$

$$z = y-1 \Rightarrow \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} r \binom{r+z}{z} p^r (1-p)^{z+1} = r \frac{(1-p)}{p} \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} \binom{(r+1)+z-1}{z} p^{r+1} (1-p)^z$$

negative binomial pmf

$$E[y] = \frac{r(1-p)}{p}$$

$$\text{Similarly... } \text{Var}(y) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$$

Uses in medical research: Define  $\mu = \frac{r(1-p)}{p}$ 

$$\text{Var}(y) = \mu + \frac{1}{p} \mu^2$$

R Variance is quadratic fn of mean

Analyze count data (vs Poisson)

Poisson limiting case

$$\begin{array}{l} r \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 1 \\ \dots \end{array}$$

Geometric Dist'n (special case of neg binom dist'n,  $r=1$ )# trials to 1<sup>st</sup> success ( $r=1$ )

$$P(X=x|p) = p(1-p)^{x-1} \quad x=1, 2, \dots$$

Show pdf sums to 1 (recall  $|a|<1: \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} a^{x-1} = \frac{1}{1-a}$ )

$$p \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{x-1} = p \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^y = \frac{p}{1-(1-p)} = 1$$

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{p} \quad \text{Var}(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2} \quad \text{from neg binom.}$$

Cool Property: 'memoryless'

$$P(X>s|X>t) = P(X>s-t) \quad \text{If } \begin{matrix} s=5 \\ t=2 \end{matrix}$$

$$P(X>s|X>t)$$

$$P(X>5|X>2) = P(X>3)$$

$$= \frac{P(X>s \text{ and } X>t)}{P(X>t)}$$

$$\frac{P(X>5 \text{ and } X>2)}{P(X>2)}$$

$$= \frac{P(X>s)}{P(X>t)}$$

$$= \frac{P(X>5)}{P(X>2)} = \frac{(1-p)^5}{(1-p)^2} = (1-p)^3$$

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

[ Aside  $P(X>s)$   
 $= P(0 \text{ success } s \text{ trials})$   
 $= (1-p)^s$  ]

$$= (1-p)^{s-t}$$

$$= P(X>s-t)$$

wikipedia (accessed 9/24/18)



Gottfried Wilhelm Leibnitz  
German 1646 - 1716

- Conceiving ideas of differential and integral calculus independently of Newton's (contemporaneous).

Leibnitz calc notation preferred over Newton's.

- refined binary number system



James Bernoulli 1655 - 1705  
Swiss

- Discoverer of 'e'.
- Derived 1<sup>st</sup> version of 'Law of Large Numbers'
- Sided w/ Leibnitz during Leibnitz - Newton calculus controversy.



Baron Simeon Denis Poisson 1781 - 1840  
French

- contributions to math, physics & engineering
- advisor to Dirichlet