

# A Few Common Distributions

①

(Chapter 5 - or at least the parts we'll be using. A large part of this summarizes things we've already seen.)

## Discrete Distributions

### 1. Discrete uniform distribution

A finite sample space with  $n$  elements.

Each  $\omega \in \Omega$  gets an equal weight

$$\text{is } m(\omega) = \frac{1}{n}$$

### 2. Bernoulli trial

$$\Omega = \{\text{success, failure}\}$$

The probability of success,  $m(\text{success}) = p$ ,

& — " — failure,  $m(\text{failure}) = q = 1 - p$

To be interesting, we need  $0 < p < 1$ .

### 3. Binomial distribution

(2)

Perform  $n$  Bernoulli trials with probability of success  $p$  & probability of failure  $q = 1 - p$ .  
← independent of one another

$X$  counts the number of successes in  $n$  trials

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

### 4. Geometric distribution

← independent!

Repeat Bernoulli trials with probability of success  $p$  & " " failure  $q$

until the first success occurs.

$X$  counts how many trials you performed to get the first success

$$P(X=k) = P(\text{first success occurred on the } k^{\text{th}} \text{ trial})$$

$$m(k) = q^{k-1} p$$

(note: geometric series happen here)

$$a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$$

$$= a \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

As long as  $|r| < 1$ ,

$$a + ar + ar^2 + \dots$$

$$= \frac{a}{1-r}$$

## 5. Negative Binomial

independent (3)

Repeat Bernoulli trials until the  $k^{\text{th}}$  success.

(prob. of success =  $p$   
— — — failure =  $q = 1-p$ )

$X$  counts the number of trials required for the  $k^{\text{th}}$  success to occur.

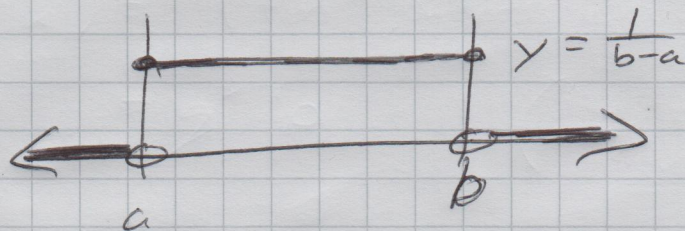
$$m(x) = P(X=x) = \binom{x-1}{k-1} p^k q^{x-k}$$

## Continuous Distributions

### 1. Continuous uniform distribution

Probability distributed equally over  $[a, b]$ .

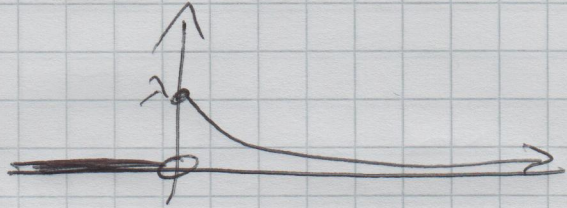
$$\text{Density function: } f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$$



## 2. Exponential distribution

(4)

$$\text{Density function: } f(t) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

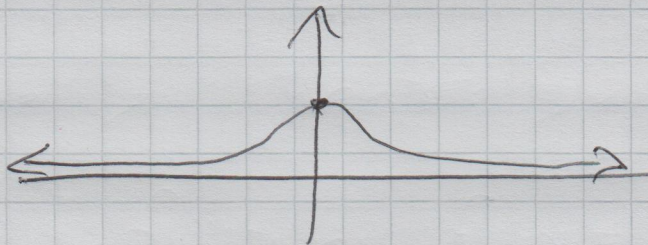


$\lambda$  is a constant  $> 0$

## 3. Standard Normal distribution

$$\text{Density function: } \overset{\text{phi } \phi}{g}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2}$$

(The classic "bell curve" ...)



$Z$  - the random variable

$$P(2 \leq Z \leq 4) = \int_2^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

has "no antiderivative in elementary terms"

How do we compute with it?

We'll use a Standard Normal Table ⑤  
to approximately compute it.

eg  $P(2 \leq z \leq 4)$

$$= P(z \leq 4) - P(z \leq 2)$$

is close enough to 1 to be indistinguishable  
to the value.

$$\approx 1 - P(z \leq 2.00)$$

$$\approx 1 - 0.9772$$

$$\approx 0.0228$$

4. Normal distribution with mean  $\mu$   
& variance  $\sigma^2$   
( $\sigma > 0$ )

Density function:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(t-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Standard normal has  $\mu = 0$  &  $\sigma = 1$ .

⑥

Fact: If  $X$  has a normal distribution  
with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$

then  $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$  has a

standard normal distribution.

This means that we can  
use standard normal tables  
to compute probabilities for other  
~~the~~ normal distributions:

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma} \leq Z \leq \frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$