STA 313: Topics in Statistics

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"essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful"

George E. P. Box

(one of the great statistical minds of the 20th century).

A random event is an event which has more than one possible outcome. A probability may be associated with each outcome. The outcome of a random event is not predictable, only the possible outcomes and their probabilities are known.

- Probability is the numerical value of the chance of occurrence of one or more possible results of an unpredictable event.
- The set of all possible exclusive elementary events E_i is denoted by Ω. The probability of occurrence of E_i, P(E_i), should have the following properties:

1.
$$P(E_i) > 0$$
 for all *i*.

2. $P(E_i \cup E_j) = P(E_i) + P(E_j)$, E_i and E_j are mutually exclusive.

3. $P(\Omega) = 1$.

Consider the throwing of a die. Suppose that having thrown the die N times, where we obtained "5" k times as a result of the throw. The probability of getting "5" as the result of a throw can be taken to be

$$p=rac{k}{N},$$

i. e. the number k of "fortunate" events divided by the whole number of events N. This ratio is called relative frequency.

The events are called exclusive when the occurrence of one of them implies that none of the others occurs. There are two exclusive events A and B. Consider the event C which we suppose to happen if one of the two events A or B happens. The probability of the event C is given by

P(C) = P(A) + P(B).

The probabilities are given approximately by the relative frequencies: $P(A) \approx \frac{k_A}{n}$ and $P(B) \approx \frac{k_B}{n}$. The event *C* happens $k_C = k_A + k_B$ times and the whole number of the events is *n*.

$$P(C) \approx \frac{k_C}{n} = \frac{k_A + k_B}{n} = \frac{k_A}{n} + \frac{k_B}{n} \approx P(A) + P(B).$$

Law of Multiplication of Probabilities

Suppose that having thrown a die two times. The event A happens, if we get odd number as the result of the first throw. The event B happens, if we get "1" as the result of the second throw. The event C happens if the result of the first throw is A and the result of the second throw is B. The probability of the event C is given by

$$P(C)=P(A)P(B).$$

The probabilities are given approximately by the relative frequencies: $P(A) \approx \frac{k_A}{n}$ and $P(B) \approx \frac{k_B}{n}$. The event *C* happens $k_C = k_A k_B$ times and the whole number of the events is *nn*.

$$P(C) \approx \frac{k_C}{nn} = \frac{k_A k_B}{nn} = \frac{k_A}{n} \frac{k_B}{n} \approx P(A)P(B).$$

There are two random events A and B. The probability that B happens when A happens is given by the conditional probability of B given A written P(B|A):

$$P(B|A) \approx \frac{k_{A \cap B}}{k_A} = \frac{k_{A \cap B}/n}{k_A/n} \approx \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

where the probabilities are approximated with the relative frequencies.

The events A and B are said to be independent if

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

which means that the occurrence of A is irrelevant to the occurrence of B and vice versa.

With a random event A one way associate a random variable X, which takes different possible numerical values $x_1, x_2, ...$ corresponding to different outcomes. The corresponding probabilities $P(x_1), P(x_2), ...$ form a probability distribution of the random variable.

The random variable X and its probability distribution is called discrete, when it can take its value from a finite or infinite set of discrete values $x_1, x_2, ...$ The distribution of the random variable is given by the table:

<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	 xn	
p_1	<i>p</i> ₂	 <i>p</i> _n	

where $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n, ...$ are the possible values of the random variable, while $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n, ...$ are their probabilities. The probability that X takes the value x_i is given by $P(X = x_i) = P(x_i) = p_i$.

The probabilities $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n, ...$ should satisfy the following conditions:

- All should be positive: $p_i > 0$.
- Their sum should be equal to 1: $\sum_{i} p_i = 1$.

The mathematical expectation value E(X) of the random variable X is given by

$$E(X)=\sum_i x_i p_i.$$

The variance V(X) of the random variable X is given by

$$V(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2] = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

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The random variable X is called continuous if it may have any value from the (a, b) interval. The probability that one observation is from the (c, d) subinterval of the (a, b) interval is given by

$$P(c \leq X \leq d) = \int_{c}^{d} f(x) dx,$$

where f(x) the probability density function.

The probability density function f(x) should satisfy the following conditions:

- It should be positive: f(x) > 0.
- Its integral over the whole interval should be 1: $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = 1.$

The cumulative distribution function (cdf) is given by

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt$$

It has the following properties:

• *F*(*a*) = 0,

• 0 < F(x) < 1, if a < x < b.

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The function F(x) is a monotone increasing function:

$$F(x_1) < F(x_2)$$
, if $x_1 < x_2$.

The probability that the random variable X is in the (c, d) interval is given by

$$P(c \leq X \leq d) = F(d) - F(c).$$

The mathematical expectation value E(X) of the random variable X is given by

$$E(X) = \int_a^b x f(x) dx.$$

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The variance V(X) of the random variable X is given by

$$V(X) = \int_{a}^{b} [x - E(X)]^{2} f(x) dx = E(X^{2}) - [E(X)]^{2}.$$

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A random variable Y is said to have a **binomial distribution** based on n trials with success probability p if and only if

$$p(y) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!}p^{y}(1-p)^{n-y}, y = 0, 1, 2, ..., n \text{ and } 0 \le p \le 1.$$

Let Y be a binomial random variable based on n trials and success probability p. Then

$$\mu = E(Y) = np$$
 and $\sigma^2 = V(Y) = npq$.

A random variable Y is said to have a **geometric probability** distribution if and only if

$$p(y) = q^{y-1}p, y = 1, 2, 3, ..., 0 \le p \le 1.$$

If Y is a random variable with a geometric distribution,

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{1}{p}$$
 $\sigma^2 = V(Y) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}.$

A random variable Y is said to have a **Poisson probability** distribution if and only if

$$p(y) = \frac{\lambda^y}{y!}e^{-\lambda}, y = 0, 1, 2, ..., \lambda > 0.$$

If Y is a random variable possessing a Poisson distribution with parameter λ , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \lambda$$
 and $\sigma^2 = V(Y) = \lambda$.

If $\theta_1 < \theta_2$, a random variable Y is said to have a continuous **uniform probability distribution** on the interval (θ_1, θ_2) if and only if the density function of Y is

$$f(y) = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} rac{1}{ heta_2 - heta_1}, & heta_1 \leq y \leq heta_2, \ 0, & ext{elsewhere.} \end{array}
ight.$$

If $\theta_1 < \theta_2$ and Y is a random variable uniformly distributed on the interval (θ_1, θ_2) , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{\theta_1 + \theta_2}{2} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = \frac{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)^2}{12}.$$

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A random variable Y is said to have an **exponential distribution** with parameter $\beta > 0$ if and only if the density function of Y is

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-y/\beta}, & 0 \le y < \infty, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

If Y is an exponential random variable with parameter β , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \beta$$
 and $\sigma^2 = V(Y) = \beta^2$.

A random variable Y is said to have a **Gamma distribution** with parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$ if and only if the density function of Y is

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{\alpha-1}}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)}e^{-y/\beta}, & 0 \le y < \infty, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

where $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$.

The quantity $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is known as the **gamma function**. Direct integration will verify that $\Gamma(1) = 1$. Integration by parts will verify that $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)\Gamma(\alpha - 1)$ for any $\alpha > 1$ and that $\Gamma(n) = (n - 1)!$, provided that *n* is an integer.

If Y has a Gamma distribution with parameters α and β , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \alpha \beta$$
 and $\sigma^2 = V(Y) = \alpha \beta^2$.

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A random variable Y is said to have a normal probability distribution if and only if, for $\sigma > 0$ and $-\infty < \mu < \infty$, the density function of Y is

$$f(y) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left[-rac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}
ight], \quad -\infty < y < \infty.$$

A Normal Distribution is described by a Normal density curve. Any particular Normal distribution is completely specified by two numbers, its mean μ and standard deviation σ . The mean of a Normal distribution is at the center of the symmetric Normal curve. The standard deviation is the distance from the center to the change-of-curvature points on either side. This course uses R. R is an open-source computing package which has seen a huge growth in popularity in the last few years. R can be downloaded from https://cran.r-project.org

Please, download R and bring your laptop next time.

In order to verify the accuracy of their financial accounts, companies use auditors on a regular basis to verify accounting entries. The company's employees make erroneous entries 5% of the time. Suppose that an auditor randomly checks three entries. a. Find the probability distribution for Y, the number of errors detected by the auditor.

b. Construct a graph for p(y).

c. Find the probability that the auditor will detect more than one error.

The probability distribution for a random variable Y is given by

у	p(y)
0	1/8
1	1/4
2	3/8
3	1/4

Find the mean, variance, and standard deviation of Y.

Suppose that Y is a discrete random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 and let W = 2Y. i) Find E(W). ii) Find V(W). A fire-detection device utilizes three temperature-sensitive cells acting independently of each other in such a manner that any one or more may activate the alarm. Each cell possesses a probability of p = 0.8 of activating the alarm when the temperature reaches 100 degrees Celsius or more. Let Y equal the number of cells activating the alarm when the temperature reaches 100 degrees. a. Find the probability distribution for Y.

b. Find the probability that the alarm will function when the temperature reaches 100 degrees.

How many times would you expect to toss a balanced coin in order to obtain the first head?

Suppose that the probability of engine malfunction during any one-hour period is p = 0.2. Find the probability that a given engine will survive two hours.

(Suggestion: Try to solve this problem by "hand" and using R.)

Industrial accidents occur according to a Poisson process with an average of three accidents per month. During the last month, six accidents occurred. Does this number seem highly improbable if the mean number of accidents per month, μ , is still equal to 3? Does it indicate an increase in the mean number of accidents per month?

(Suggestion: Try to solve this problem by "hand" and using R.)

Suppose that Y has a Binomial distribution with n = 2 and p = 1/2. Find F(y), i.e. the cumulative distribution function of Y. (Suggestion: Try to solve this problem by "hand" and using R.)

Let X be a random variable with p(x) given in the table below.

a) Find an expression for the function $F(x) = P(X \le x)$. b) Sketch the function given in part a).

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Suppose that Y possesses the density function

$$f(y) = \left\{ egin{array}{cl} cy, & 0 \leq y \leq 2, \\ 0 & ext{elsewhere.} \end{array}
ight.$$

a. Find the value of c that makes f(y) a probability density function.

- b. Find F(y).
- c. Graph f(y) and F(y).
- d. Use F(y) to find $P(1 \le Y \le 2)$.
- e. Use f(y) and geometry to find $P(1 \le Y \le 2)$.

The proportion of time per day that all checkout counters in a supermarket are busy is a random variable Y with density function

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} cy^2(1-y)^4, & 0 \le y \le 1, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

a. Find the value of c that makes f(y) a probability density function.

b. Find E(Y).

The change in depth of a river from one day to the next, measured (in feet) at a specific location, is a random variable Y with the following density function:

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} k, & -2 \le y \le 2, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

a. Find the value of k that makes f(y) a probability density function.

b. Obtain the cumulative distribution function for Y.

If Y has an exponential distribution and P(Y > 2) = 0.0821, what is a. E(Y). b. $P(Y \le 1.7)$?

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