

# Continuous Distributions

## The Gamma dist.

$X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$  has

$$\text{pdf } f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha) \beta^\alpha} \text{ for } x > 0. \\ (\alpha > 0, \beta > 0)$$

$$EX = \alpha \beta$$

$$\text{Var} X = \alpha \beta^2$$

$$\text{mgf } M_X(t) = \left( \frac{1}{1 - \beta t} \right)^\alpha, \quad t < \frac{1}{\beta}.$$

Calculation of moments done earlier.

Derivation of mgf:

$$E e^{tX} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} \cdot \frac{x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha) \beta^\alpha} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-x(\frac{1}{\beta} - t)} dx$$

which is finite when  $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$

$$\text{Now let } \frac{1}{\beta'} = \frac{1}{\beta} - t$$

$$\text{so that } \beta' = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\beta} - t} = \frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t}.$$

Then integral becomes

$$= \frac{(\beta')^\alpha}{\beta^\alpha} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta'} dx}{\underbrace{\Gamma(\alpha)(\beta')^\alpha}_{\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta') \text{ pdf}}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\beta'}{\beta}\right)^\alpha \cdot 1 = \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^\alpha \text{ for } t < \frac{1}{\beta}.$$

### Closure Property

If  $X_1, X_2$  independent

$$X_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1, \beta),$$

$$X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_2, \beta),$$

then  $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \beta)$

$$\text{Proof: } M_{X_1 + X_2}(t) = M_{X_1}(t) M_{X_2}(t)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_2} = \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}$$

$$= \text{mgf of } \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \beta). \text{ QED.}$$

## The Exponential Distribution (Exp( $\beta$ ))

$$\text{pdf } f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-x/\beta} \text{ for } x > 0 \ (\beta > 0),$$

$$EX = \beta, \text{ Var } X = \beta^2,$$

$$\text{cdf } F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\beta} \text{ for } x > 0,$$

$$P(X > x) = e^{-x/\beta} \text{ for } x > 0,$$

$$\text{mgf } M_X(t) = \frac{1}{1 - \beta t} \text{ for } t < 1/\beta,$$

Exp( $\beta$ ) same as Gamma( $1, \beta$ ).

## The (Continuous) Memoryless Property

If  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$ , then

$$P(X - t > s \mid X > t) = P(X > s) \quad (*)$$

for all  $s, t > 0$

or equivalently,

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

for all  $s, t > 0$

Converse : If the r.v.  $Y$  satisfies (\*), then  $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$  for some value of  $\beta$ .

## Failure rate (hazard rate)

Suppose  $X$  has pdf  $f(x)$ , cdf  $F(x)$ ,  
and  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x < 0$ .

Define the hazard function

$$h(t) = \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \frac{P(t < X \leq t + \delta | X > t)}{\delta}$$

$$\left( = \frac{f(t)}{1 - F(t)} \text{ by exercise 3.25} \right).$$

Then  $P(t < X \leq t + \delta | X > t) \approx h(t) \delta$   
for small  $\delta$ .

Fact:  $X \sim \exp(\beta)$  iff  $h(t) = \frac{1}{\beta}$   
for all  $t$ .

The exponential distn. has a constant  
hazard rate, and it is the only distn.  
with this property.

(Note: "constant hazard rate" property is  
equivalent to "memoryless" property.)

Proof of one direction:

Suppose  $X \sim \exp(\beta)$ . Then

$$h(t) = \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \frac{P(t < X \leq t + \delta | X > t)}{\delta}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{P(t < X \leq t + \delta)}{P(X > t)}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{F(t + \delta) - F(t)}{1 - F(t)}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \frac{(1 - e^{-(t+\delta)/\beta}) - (1 - e^{-t/\beta})}{\delta e^{-t/\beta}}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-\delta/\beta}}{\delta} \right) = \frac{1}{\beta}$$

by L'Hospital's.

Fact: If  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$  are iid  $\exp(\beta)$ ,  
then  $X \equiv \min Z_i \sim \exp(\beta/n)$ .

"Proof": (heuristic)

$X$  has the memoryless property.

Thus  $X \sim \exp(\xi)$  for some value  $\xi$ .

What is  $\xi$ ?

Determine  $\xi$  by considering the failure rate.

"Clearly"

$$h_X(t) = n h_{Z_1}(t) = n \cdot \frac{1}{\beta}.$$

$$\text{But } h_X(t) = \frac{1}{\xi}.$$

$$\text{Thus } \frac{1}{\xi} = \frac{n}{\beta} \Rightarrow \xi = \frac{\beta}{n}.$$

A more formal proof uses:

Lemma: If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent with cdf's  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n$ , then

$$F_{\min X_i}(t) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - F_i(t)) \quad \text{and}$$

$$F_{\max X_i}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n F_i(t).$$

Consequences of Lemma:

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. with cdf  $F$ , then

$$F_{\min X_i}(t) = 1 - (1 - F(t))^n$$

$$F_{\max X_i}(t) = (F(t))^n$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are iid  $\exp(\beta)$  rv's, then

$$F_{\min X_i}(t) = 1 - (e^{-t/\beta})^n = 1 - e^{-t/(\beta/n)} \quad \text{for } t \geq 0,$$

(Thus  $\min X_i \sim \exp(\beta/n)$ .)

$$F_{\max X_i}(t) = (1 - e^{-t/\beta})^n \quad \text{for } t \geq 0.$$

## Proof of Lemma:

$$F_{\max X_i}(t) = P\left(\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i \leq t\right)$$

$$= P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{X_i \leq t\}\right)$$

(since  $\max X_i \leq t$  if and only if  
all the values  $X_i$  are  $\leq t$ )

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \leq t) \quad \text{by independence}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n F_i(t)$$

$$F_{\min X_i}(t) = P(\min X_i \leq t) = 1 - P(\min X_i > t)$$

$$= 1 - P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{X_i > t\}\right) \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{since } \min X_i > t \\ \text{iff } \underline{\text{all}} \text{ the values} \\ X_i \text{ are } > t \end{array}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i > t) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - F_i(t))$$

Problem: (The "K stall" problem.)

A room is lit by  $K$  light bulbs.  
The lifetimes of the bulbs are iid  $\text{Exp}(\beta)$ .  
How long until the room is in total  
darkness?

Find the mean and variance of the  
time until total darkness.

Solution: Assume  $k$  lightbulbs with lifetimes  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k \sim \text{iid exp}(\beta)$ .

Define

$$Z_{(1)} = Z_{(1:k)} = \min(Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k) \\ = \text{time at which first bulb burns out,}$$

$$Z_{(i)} = Z_{(i:k)} = \text{time at which } i^{\text{th}} \text{ bulb burns out,}$$

$$Z_{(k)} = Z_{(k:k)} = \text{time at which last bulb burns out} \\ = \text{time until total darkness} \\ = \max(Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k).$$

Note that  $Z_{(1)} < Z_{(2)} < \dots < Z_{(k)}$  with probability one (that is, ties have probability zero).

Consider the identity

$$Z_{(k)} = Z_{(1)} + (Z_{(2)} - Z_{(1)}) + \dots + (Z_{(k)} - Z_{(k-1)}).$$

The Memoryless Property implies:

If at any time  $j$  bulbs remain, the amount of time until the next bulb burns out does not depend on how long the bulbs have been in operation.

At time  $Z_{(i:k)}$  there are  $k-i$  bulbs remaining. The memoryless property says they are all as good as new. The time until the next bulb burns out is the minimum of  $k-i$  exponential rv's which are iid  $\exp(\beta)$ . Thus

$$Z_{(i+1:k)} - Z_{(i:k)} \sim \exp\left(\frac{\beta}{k-i}\right)$$

and this rv is independent of what has happened already  $Z_{(1)}, Z_{(2)}, \dots, Z_{(i)}$ .

Thus (intuitively)

$Z_{(1)}, Z_{(2)} - Z_{(1)}, \dots, Z_{(k)} - Z_{(k-1)}$   
are independent exponential rv's

with  $Z_{(1)} \sim \exp\left(\frac{\beta}{K}\right)$  and

$$Z_{(i+1)} - Z_{(i)} \sim \exp\left(\frac{\beta}{K-i}\right).$$

Thus

$$Z_{(K)} = Z_{(1)} + (Z_{(2)} - Z_{(1)}) + \dots + (Z_{(K)} - Z_{(K-1)})$$

implies

$$\begin{aligned} E Z_{(K)} &= E Z_{(1)} + E(Z_{(2)} - Z_{(1)}) + \dots \\ &\quad + E(Z_{(K)} - Z_{(K-1)}) \\ &= \frac{\beta}{K} + \frac{\beta}{K-1} + \frac{\beta}{K-2} + \dots + \frac{\beta}{2} + \beta \end{aligned}$$

and (by independence)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var } Z_{(K)} &= \text{Var}(Z_{(1)}) + \text{Var}(Z_{(2)} - Z_{(1)}) \\ &\quad + \dots + \text{Var}(Z_{(K)} - Z_{(K-1)}) \\ &= \left(\frac{\beta}{K}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\beta}{K-1}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)^2 + \beta^2. \end{aligned}$$

### Alternate Solution (Analytic):

$$F_X(t) = F_{\max Z_i}(t) = (F_{Z_1}(t))^k = (1 - e^{-t/\beta})^k$$

so that the pdf of  $X$  is

$$f_X(t) = F'_X(t) = k(1 - e^{-t/\beta})^{k-1} \left( \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-t/\beta} \right) \text{ for } t > 0.$$

Using the pdf we can compute the mean and variance of  $X$  in the usual way.

Another way to compute the mean is to use the result of a homework exercise:

$$\begin{aligned} EX &= \int_0^\infty (1 - F_X(t)) dt \quad \text{for any nonnegative rv } X \\ &= \int_0^\infty (1 - (1 - e^{-t/\beta})^k) dt \quad \text{in this case.} \end{aligned}$$

Setting  $k = 3$  (just for example) and expanding the power gives

$$\begin{aligned} EX &= \int_0^\infty (1 - (1 - e^{-t/\beta})^3) dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty (1 - (1 - 3e^{-t/\beta} + 3e^{-2t/\beta} - e^{-3t/\beta})) dt \\ &= 3\beta - 3 \left( \frac{\beta}{2} \right) + \frac{\beta}{3} \quad \text{which agrees with} \\ &= \frac{\beta}{3} + \frac{\beta}{2} + \beta \quad \text{from the earlier approach.} \end{aligned}$$

We can also obtain the variance in a similar fashion.

Fact: For a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$ , the time until the first arrival has an exponential distribution with mean

$$\beta = \frac{1}{\lambda}.$$

Proof: (Start time from zero.)

Let  $T_1$  = the time of the first arrival,

$S_t$  = the # of arrivals by time  $t$ .

We know  $S_t \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda t)$  so that

$$P(S_t = 0) = \frac{(\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}}{k!} \Big|_{k=0} = e^{-\lambda t}.$$

But  $\{T_1 > t\} = \{S_t = 0\}$  (Think about it!)

Thus  $P(T_1 > t) = P(S_t = 0) = e^{-\lambda t}$

and  $P(T_1 \leq t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$ .

This is the cdf of  $\text{Exp}(1/\lambda)$  distn.

A Connection between the Gamma distn.  
and the Poisson distn.  
(via the Poisson process)

Fact: A process of arrivals is a  
Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$   
if and only if  
the interarrival times are i.i.d.  
exponential rv's with mean  $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ .

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Notation: Let (time starts from zero)

$T_r$  = time of  $r^{\text{th}}$  arrival,

$S_t$  = # of arrivals during  $(0, t)$ .

The interarrival times are

$$T_1, T_2 - T_1, T_3 - T_2, \dots, T_r - T_{r-1}, \dots$$

Note that

$$T_r \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \frac{1}{\lambda}) \quad (\text{by fact above})$$

$$S_t \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda t) \quad (\text{by defn. of Poisson process})$$

Thus

$$\{T_r > t\} = \{S_t < r\}$$

implies  $P(T_r > t) = P(S_t < r)$

which leads to

$$\int_t^\infty \underbrace{\frac{\lambda^r x^{r-1} e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(r)}}_{\text{Gamma}(\alpha=r, \beta=\frac{1}{\lambda}) \text{ pdf}} dx = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \underbrace{\frac{(\lambda t)^i e^{-\lambda t}}{i!}}_{\text{Poisson}(\lambda t) \text{ pmf}}.$$

This formula can also be derived by repeated integration by parts.

## Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

Let  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$  be iid with finite mean  $\mu$ .  
(That is,  $E|X_i| < \infty$  and  $EX_i = \mu$ .)

Define  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{S_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .

### Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN):

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{X}_n = \mu\right) = 1$$

In words: the sequence  $\bar{X}_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , converges to  $\mu$  with probability 1 (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

This result implies the ...

### Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \varepsilon) = 1 \quad \text{for all } \varepsilon > 0,$$

$$\text{or} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) = 0 \quad \text{for all } \varepsilon > 0.$$

• If  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$  also has a finite variance  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ , then we can say more:

$$\text{Var}(S_n) = n\sigma^2, \quad \text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}(S_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n},$$

and Chebyshev's Inequality (see text, p. 122) implies

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon) < \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2} \quad (\text{which} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty).$$

## Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are iid from a distribution with  $EX_i = \mu$  and  $\text{Var } X_i = \sigma^2 < \infty$ ,

then  $\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma^2} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$  (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ )

and, equivalently,

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1) \text{ (as } n \rightarrow \infty)$$

where  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and  $\bar{X}_n = S_n/n$ .

### Informal Statement

For "large"  $n$ ,

$$S_n \sim \text{approx } N(n\mu, n\sigma^2),$$

$$\bar{X}_n \sim \text{approx } N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}).$$

How large should  $n$  be?

## Normal Distribution

If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

$$X + c \sim N(\mu + c, \sigma^2)$$

$$cX \sim N(c\mu, c^2\sigma^2)$$

$$aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$$

$$\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq b) &= P\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \leq \frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \\ &= \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right), \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

## Normal Approximation

Suppose  $X$  has mean  $\mu$ , variance  $\sigma^2$ , and a distribution which is approximately normal.

Let  $X^* \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

$$P(X \leq b) \approx P(X^* \leq b) = \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

## The Continuity Correction

The normal distribution is continuous. If a normal approximation is used for a discrete distribution, caution is required.

When using a normal approximation to the distribution of an **integer-valued** random variable  $X$ , greater accuracy is usually obtained by using the “continuity correction”.

Let  $X^*$  be a normal random variable with the same mean and variance as  $X$ . For integers  $b$  and  $c$ , the continuity correction is:

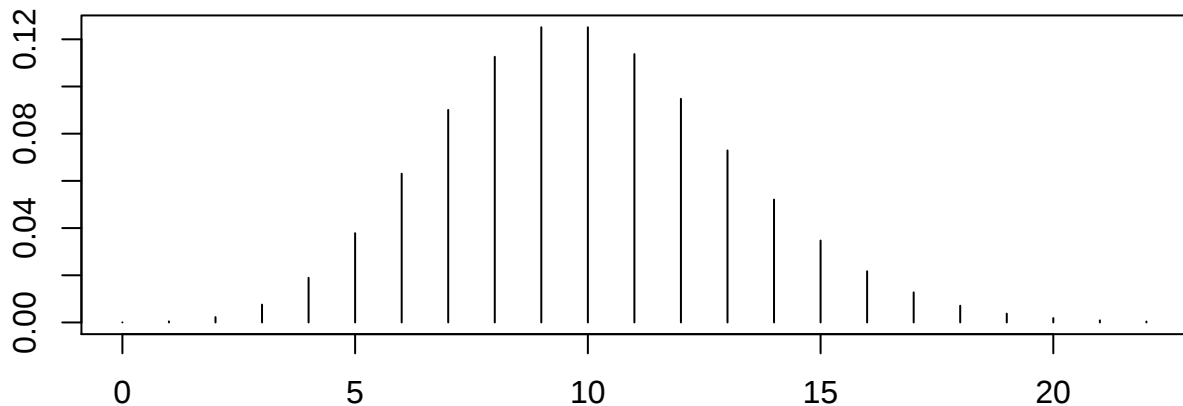
$$\begin{aligned}P(X = b) &\approx P(X^* \in [b - .5, b + .5]) \\P(b \leq X \leq c) &\approx P(b - .5 < X^* < c + .5) \\P(X \geq b) &\approx P(X^* > b - .5) \\P(X \leq c) &\approx P(X^* < c + .5)\end{aligned}$$

The continuity correction essentially amounts to replacing each of the “spikes” in the pmf of  $X$  by a rectangle of the same height with width one. This converts the pmf (a series of spikes) into a density (pdf) which looks like a histogram (a series of rectangles). The normal distribution is then used as an approximation to this histogram.

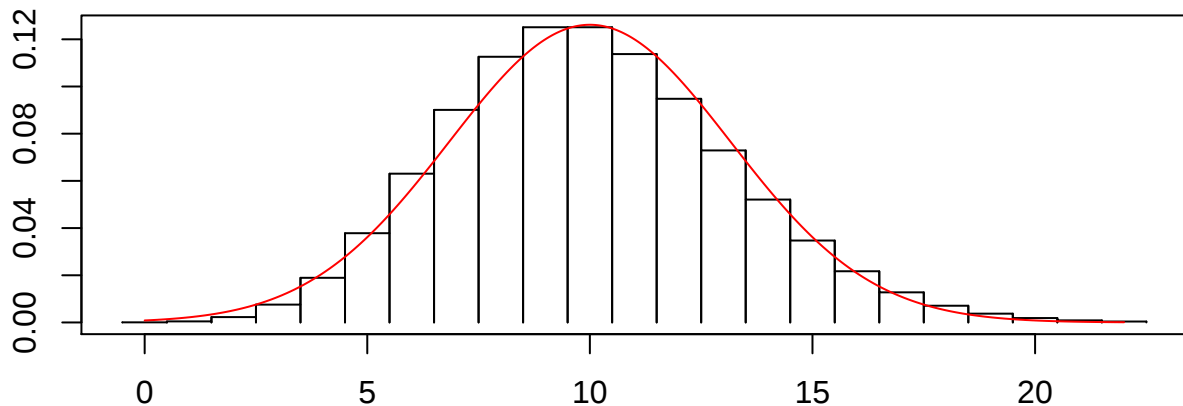
After using the continuity correction, we standardize the random variable  $X^*$  in the usual way. If  $X$  and  $X^*$  have mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $Z = \frac{X^* - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$ . For example

$$P(b \leq X \leq c) \approx P\left(\frac{b - .5 - \mu}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{c + .5 - \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

**Poisson pmf (lambda=10)**



**Corresponding pdf + Normal(10,10) pdf**



## Normal Approximations

### Binomial distn.

If  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  and  $n$  is large, then

$$X \sim \text{approx Normal}(\mu = np, \sigma^2 = np(1-p)).$$

Argument:  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$  where

$Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$  are iid Bernoulli( $p$ ).

Now use CLT.

### Poisson distn.

If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  and  $\lambda$  is large, then  $X \sim \text{approx Normal}(\mu = \lambda, \sigma^2 = \lambda)$ .

Argument: Fix a value  $\lambda_0$ .

Let  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$  be iid Poisson( $\lambda_0$ ).

Then  $\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda = n\lambda_0)$ .

Now let  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and use CLT.

## Negative Binomial distn

If  $X \sim \text{Neg Bin}(r, p)$  and  $r$  is large,  
then  $X \sim \text{approx } N(\mu = \frac{r}{p}, \sigma^2 = r \cdot \frac{1-p}{p^2})$

Argument:  $X = \sum_{i=1}^r Z_i$  where

$Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_r$  are iid Geometric( $p$ )

Now use CLT.

## Gamma distn.

If  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $\alpha$  is large,  
then  $X$  is approximately Normal.

Argument: Fix a value  $\alpha_0$ .

Let  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$  be iid  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_0, \beta)$ .

Then  $\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i \sim \text{Gamma}(n\alpha_0, \beta)$ .

Now let  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and use CLT.

## Beta distn

If  $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  with both  $\alpha, \beta$  large,  
then  $X$  is approx. Normal.

and others...

## Comments on C5

Suppose

$n$  people support candidate A.

$n$  people support B.

Each person votes with probability  $p$ .

People decide independently.

Let  $X = \#$  who vote for A,

$Y = \#$  who vote for B.

Then  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent with a

Binomial  $(n, p)$  distribution  
which is approximately

Normal  $(\mu = np, \sigma^2 = np(1-p))$   
if  $n$  is sufficiently large.

$$P(\text{tie}) = P(X=Y) = P(X-Y=0).$$

Recall: If  $X, Y$  independent with

$$X \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \text{ and } Y \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2),$$

$$\text{then } X+Y \sim N(\mu_1+\mu_2, \sigma_1^2+\sigma_2^2)$$

$$\text{and } X-Y \sim N(\mu_1-\mu_2, \sigma_1^2+\sigma_2^2).$$

Thus, for  $n$  large,

$$\begin{aligned} D \equiv X-Y &\sim N(\mu-\mu, \sigma^2+\sigma^2) \\ &\quad \text{(approximately)} \\ &\sim N(0, 2\sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

Let  $D^* \sim N(0, 2\sigma^2)$ .

(  $D$  is approx  $N(0, 2\sigma^2)$ .  
  $D^*$  is exactly  $N(0, 2\sigma^2)$  )

Since  $D$  is integer-valued, the continuity correction gives

$$P(D=0) \approx P(-\frac{1}{2} < D^* < \frac{1}{2})$$

$$= P\left(\frac{-\frac{1}{2}-0}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}} < \frac{D^*-0}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}} < \frac{\frac{1}{2}-0}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}\right)$$

$$= P(-\epsilon < Z < \epsilon)$$

$$\text{where } Z = \frac{D^*-0}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}} \sim N(0,1)$$

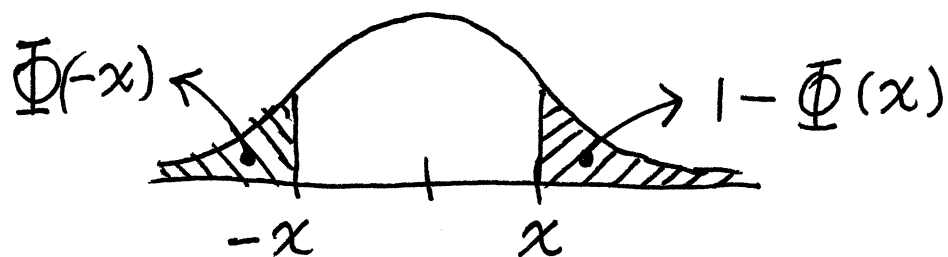
$$\text{and } \epsilon = (\frac{1}{2}-0)/\sqrt{2\sigma^2}.$$

Note: If  $n$  is large,  $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$  is also large so that  $\epsilon$  will be small.

$$= \Phi(\epsilon) - \Phi(-\epsilon) \quad \text{where } \Phi \text{ is the cdf of } N(0,1)$$

$$= \Phi(\epsilon) - (1 - \Phi(\epsilon)) = 2\Phi(\epsilon) - 1$$

by symmetry of the  $N(0,1)$  distn.



$$\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x) \text{ for all } x.$$

Thus, to compute  $P(\text{tie})$  you

calculate  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2np(1-p)}}$

and use tables or computer to get

$$2\Phi(\epsilon) - 1.$$

### Problem with Tables

Tables typically give  $\Phi(z)$  or  $P(Z > z)$  for  $z = 0.00, 0.01, 0.02, \dots, 3.49$  (say).

If  $\epsilon$  is small, rounding to the nearest tabled  $z$ -value loses a lot of accuracy.

Better to use ...

Good approximation for small  $\epsilon$

Let  $\phi(z) = \frac{e^{-z^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \text{pdf for } N(0,1).$

Then  $P(\text{tie})$  is approximately

$$P(-\epsilon < \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ N(0,1)}}{Z} < \epsilon) = \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \phi(z) dz$$

$$\approx (2\epsilon) \phi(0) = \frac{2\epsilon}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad \text{when } \epsilon \text{ is small.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } P(\text{tie}) &\approx \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2np(1-p)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi np(1-p)}}. \end{aligned}$$

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When  $n = 2,000,000$ , and  $p = 0.8$   
you get

$$P(\text{tie}) \approx .0004987$$

Note that  $\epsilon = .000625$  which rounds  
to zero giving  $2 \underbrace{\Phi(0)}_{.5} - 1 = 0.$

Problem actually wants

$P(\text{Joe makes a difference})$

$= P(\text{Joe breaks a tie}) + P(\text{Joe creates a tie})$

$= P(D=0) + P(D=1)$

(assuming Joe votes for B)

$= P(0 \leq D \leq 1)$

$\approx P(-.5 \leq D^* \leq 1.5)$

$= P\left(\frac{-.5}{\sqrt{2}\sigma^2} < Z < \frac{1.5}{\sqrt{2}\sigma^2}\right)$

$\approx \underbrace{\left[\frac{1.5}{\sqrt{2}\sigma^2} - \left(-\frac{.5}{\sqrt{2}\sigma^2}\right)\right]}_{\text{width of interval of integration}} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi}}_{\text{density of } Z \text{ at zero}} \text{ (when } n \text{ is large)}$

$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}\sigma^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}\sigma^2}$

$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi np(1-p)}} = .000997$   
when  $n = 2000000$ ,  
 $p = .8$ .

# Beta Distribution

$x \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  with  $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$   
has pdf

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \text{ for } 0 < x < 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{where } B(\alpha, \beta) &= \int_0^1 x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}. \end{aligned}$$

Parameters  $\alpha, \beta$  are "shape" parameters.

$$\alpha < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \infty$$

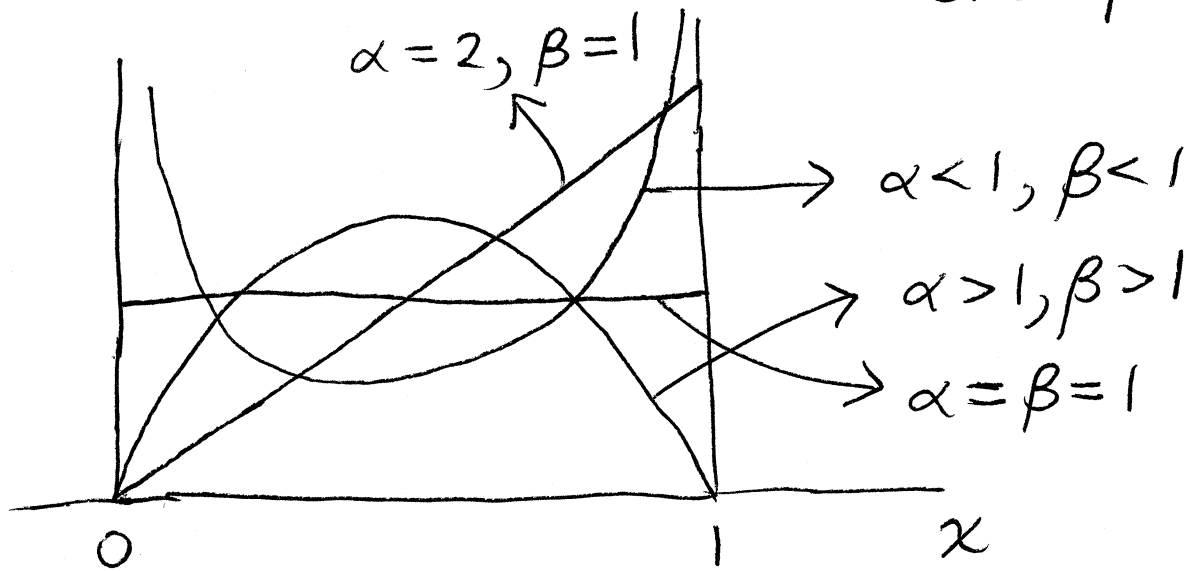
$$\alpha > 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 0$$

$$\beta < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \infty$$

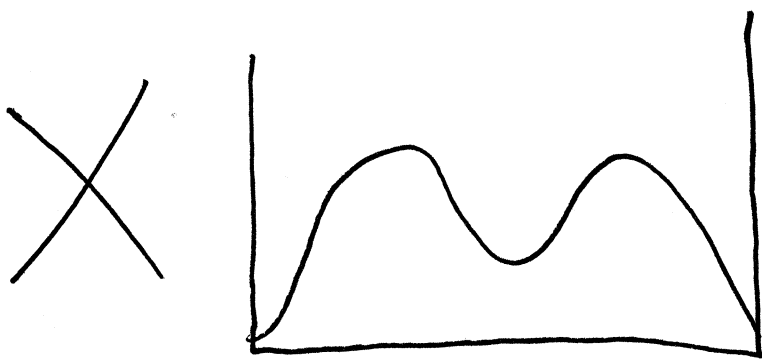
$$\beta > 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 0$$

setting  $\alpha = \beta = 1$  gives Uniform(0,1) distn.

Modifying  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  gives a variety of shapes.



But you cannot get a bimodal distribution



(unless the pdf blows up at 0 and 1 giving modes at 0 and 1)

The Beta distribution is used to model quantities taking values in  $(0,1)$  (such as proportions and probabilities).

For a Beta distribution :

$$EX = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

$$\text{Var} X = \frac{\alpha \beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2 (\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

which are easy consequences of

$$\begin{aligned} EX^k &= \frac{\Gamma(k + \alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + k)} \\ &= \frac{(\alpha + k - 1)(\alpha + k - 2) \cdots \alpha}{(\alpha + \beta + k - 1) \cdots (\alpha + \beta)} \end{aligned}$$

MGF  $M_X(t)$  exists for all  $t$ ,

(since  $X$  is bounded)

but is not useful. (It does not have a simple closed form.)