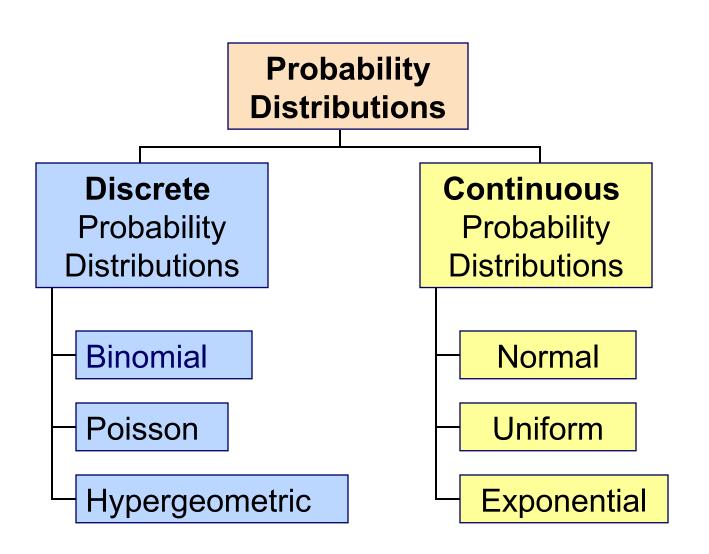
# DISCRETE AND CONTINUOUS PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

#### PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION

• It describes how the outcomes of an experiment are expected to vary

#### **Probability Distributions**



### DISCRETE PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

• A discrete random variable is a variable that can assume only a countable number of values

#### Many possible outcomes:

- number of complaints per day
- number of TV's in a household
- number of rings before the phone is answered

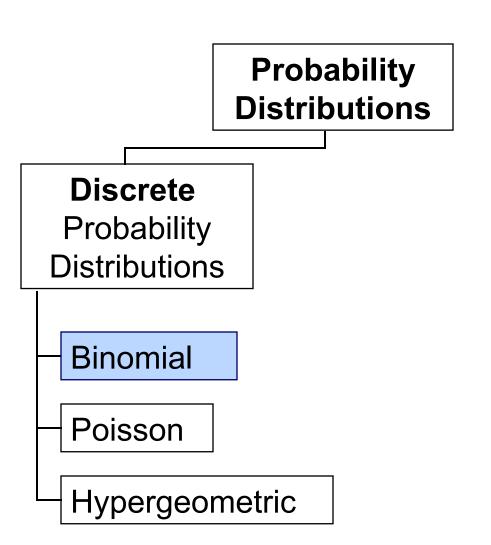
#### Only two possible outcomes:

- gender: male or female
- defective: yes or no
- spreads peanut butter first vs. spreads jelly first

### CONTINUOUS PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

- A continuous random variable is a variable that can assume any value on a continuum (can assume an uncountable number of values)
  - thickness of an item
  - time required to complete a task
  - temperature of a solution
  - height, in inches
- These can potentially take on any value, depending only on the ability to measure accurately.

#### The Binomial Distribution



# THE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- Characteristics of the Binomial Distribution:
  - A trial has only two possible outcomes "success" or "failure"
  - There is a fixed number, n, of identical trials
  - The trials of the experiment are independent of each other
  - The probability of a success, p, remains constant from trial to trial
  - If p represents the probability of a success, then (1-p) = q is the probability of a failure

### BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION SETTINGS

- A manufacturing plant labels items as either defective or acceptable
- A firm bidding for a contract will either get the contract or not
- A marketing research firm receives survey responses of "yes I will buy" or "no I will not"
- New job applicants either accept the offer or reject it

### COUNTING RULE FOR COMBINATIONS

• A combination is an outcome of an experiment where x objects are selected from a group of n objects

$$C_x^n = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}$$

where:

$$n! = n(n - 1)(n - 2) \dots (2)(1)$$
  
 $x! = x(x - 1)(x - 2) \dots (2)(1)$   
 $0! = 1$  (by definition)

### BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION FORMULA

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

P(x) = probability of **x** successes in **n** trials, with probability of success **p** on each trial

x = number of 'successes' in sample,(x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n)

p = probability of "success" per trial

q = probability of "failure" = (1 - p)

n = number of trials (sample size)

**Example:** Flip a coin four times, let x = # heads:

$$n = 4$$

$$p = 0.5$$

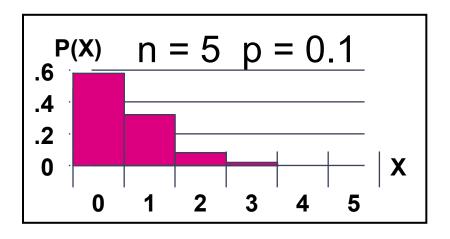
$$q = (1 - .5) = .5$$

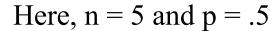
$$x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$$

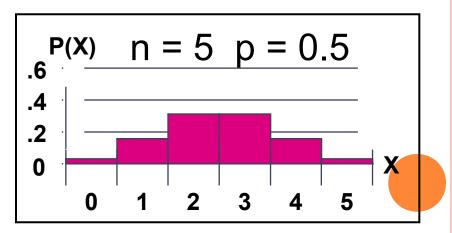
#### BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

• The shape of the binomial distribution depends on the values of p and n

Here, n = 5 and p = .1







### BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION CHARACTERISTICS

• Mean

$$\mu = E(x) = np$$

#### Variance and Standard Deviation

$$\sigma^2 = npq$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{npq}$$

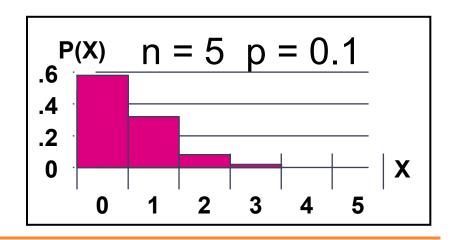
Where 
$$n = \text{sample size}$$
  
 $p = \text{probability of success}$   
 $q = (1 - p) = \text{probability of failure}$ 

#### BINOMIAL CHARACTERISTICS

#### Examples

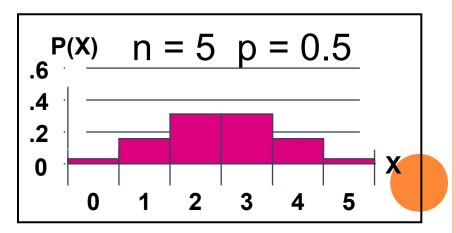
$$\mu = np = (5)(.1) = 0.5$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{npq} = \sqrt{(5)(.1)(1-.1)}$$
  
= 0.6708



$$\mu = np = (5)(.5) = 2.5$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{npq} = \sqrt{(5)(.5)(1-.5)}$$
= 1.118



#### USING BINOMIAL TABLES

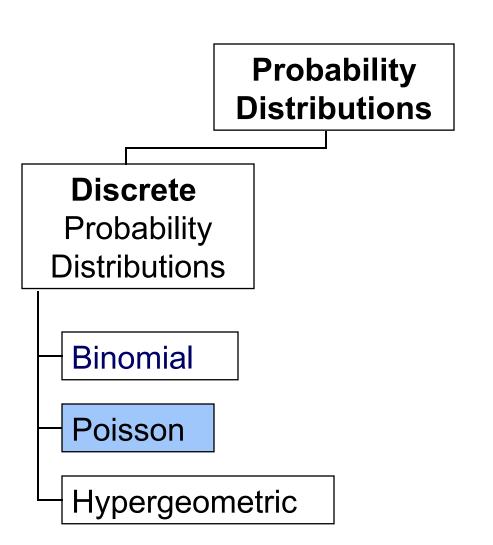
n = 10									
X	p=.15	p=.20	p=.25	p=.30	p=.35	p=.40	p=.45	p=.50	
0	0.1969	0.1074	0.0563	0.0282	0.0135	0.0060	0.0025	0.0010	10
1	0.3474	0.2684	0.1877	0.1211	0.0725	0.0403	0.0207	0.0098	9
2	0.2759	0.3020	0.2816	0.2335	0.1757	0.1209	0.0763	0.0439	8
3	0.1298	0.2013	0.2503	0.2668	0.2522	0.2150	0.1665	0.1172	7
4	0.0401	0.0881	0.1460	0.2001	0.2377	0.2508	0.2384	0.2051	6
5	0.0085	0.0264	0.0584	0.1029	0.1536	0.2007	0.2340	0.2461	5
6	0.0012	0.0055	0.0162	0.0368	0.0689	0.1115	0.1596	0.2051	4
7	0.0001	0.0008	0.0031	0.0090	0.0212	0.0425	0.0746	0.1172	3
8	0.0000	0.0001	0.0004	0.0014	0.0043	0.0106	0.0229	0.0439	2
9	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0005	0.0016	0.0042	0.0098	1
10	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0003	0.0010	0
	p=.85	p=.80	p=.75	p=.70	p=.65	p=.60	p=.55	p=.50	X

#### Examples:

$$n = 10, p = .35, x = 3$$
:  $P(x = 3|n = 10, p = .35) = .2522$ 

$$n = 10, p = .75, x = 2$$
:  $P(x = 2|n = 10, p = .75) = .0004$ 

#### The Poisson Distribution



#### THE POISSON DISTRIBUTION

- Characteristics of the Poisson Distribution:
  - The outcomes of interest are rare relative to the possible outcomes
  - The <u>average number of outcomes of interest per time</u> or space interval is  $^{66}\lambda^{99}$
  - The number of outcomes of interest are random, and the occurrence of one outcome does not influence the chances of another outcome of interest
  - The probability of that an outcome of interest occurs in a given segment is the same for all segments

#### POISSON DISTRIBUTION FORMULA

$$P(x) = \frac{(\lambda t)^{x} e^{-\lambda t}}{x!}$$

#### where:

t = size of the segment of interest

x = number of successes in segment of interest

 $\lambda$  = expected number of successes in a segment of unit size

e = base of the natural logarithm system (2.71828...)

#### POISSON DISTRIBUTION CHARACTERISTICS

• Mean

$$\mu = \lambda t$$

Variance and Standard Deviation

$$\sigma^2 = \lambda t$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda t}$$

where  $\lambda$  = number of successes in a segment of unit size t = the size of the segment of interest

#### USING POISSON TABLES

	λt								
$  \mathbf{x}  $	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.40	0.50	0.60	0.70	0.80	0.90
0	0.9048	0.8187	0.7408	0.6703	0.6065	0.5488	0.4966	0.4493	0.4066
1	0.0905	0.1637	0.2222	0.2681	0.3033	0.3293	0.3476	0.3595	0.3659
2	0.0045	0.0164	0.0333	0.0536	0.0758	0.0988	0.1217	0.1438	0.1647
3	0.0002	0.0011	0.0033	0.0072	0.0126	0.0198	0.0284	0.0383	0.0494
4	0.0000	0.0001	0.0003	0.0007	0.0016	0.0030	0.0050	0.0077	0.0111
5	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0004	0.0007	0.0012	0.0020
6	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0003
7	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Example: Find P(x = 2) if  $\lambda$  = .05 and t = 10

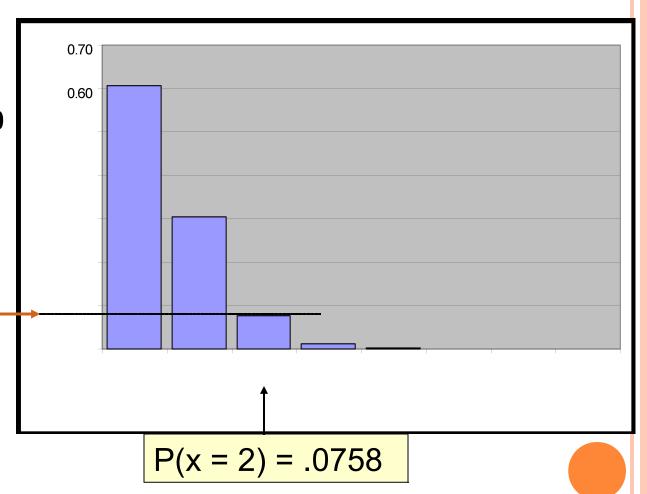
$$P(x=2) = \frac{(\lambda t)^{x} e^{-\lambda t}}{x!} = \frac{(0.50)^{2} e^{-0.50}}{2!} = .0758$$

#### GRAPH OF POISSON PROBABILITIES

#### Graphically:

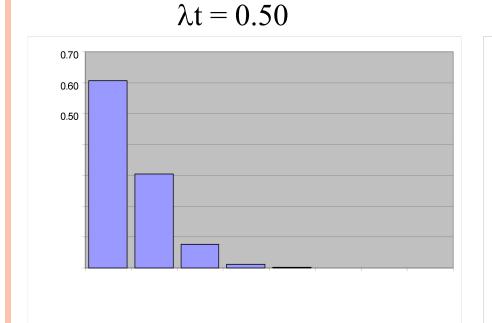
 $\lambda = .05$  and t = 100

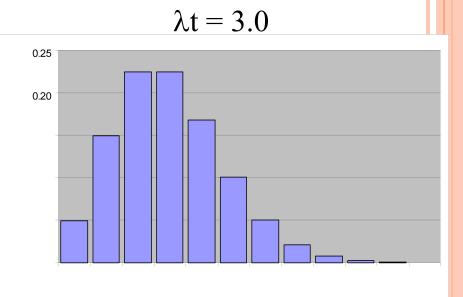
X	$\lambda t = 0.50$
0	0.6065
1	0.3033
2	0.0758
3	0.0126
4	0.0016
5	0.0002
6	0.0000
7	0.0000



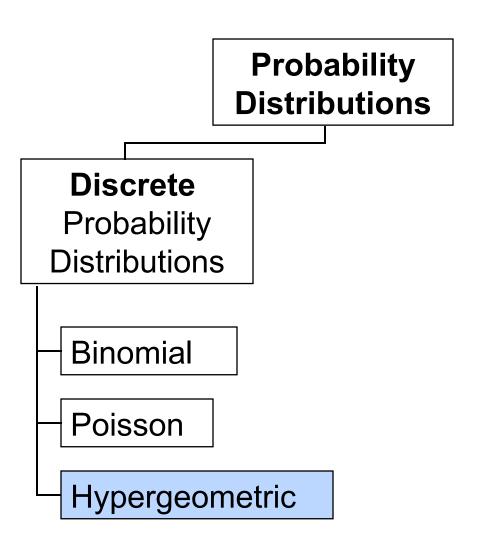
#### POISSON DISTRIBUTION SHAPE

• The shape of the Poisson Distribution depends on the parameters  $\lambda$  and t:





#### The Hypergeometric Distribution



### THE HYPERGEOMETRIC DISTRIBUTION

- "n" trials in a sample taken from a finite population of size N
- Sample taken without replacement
- Trials are dependent
- Concerned with finding the probability of "x" successes in the sample where there are "X" successes in the population

### HYPERGEOMETRIC DISTRIBUTION FORMULA

(Two possible outcomes per trial)

$$P(x) = \frac{C_{n-x}^{N-X} \cdot C_{x}^{X}}{C_{n}^{N}}$$

#### Where

N = Population size

X = number of successes in the population

n = sample size

x = number of successes in the sample

n - x = number of failures in the sample

#### HYPERGEOMETRIC DISTRIBUTION FORMULA

• Example: 3 Light bulbs were selected from 10. Of the 10 there were 4 defective. What is the probability that 2 of the 3 selected are defective?

$$N = 10$$

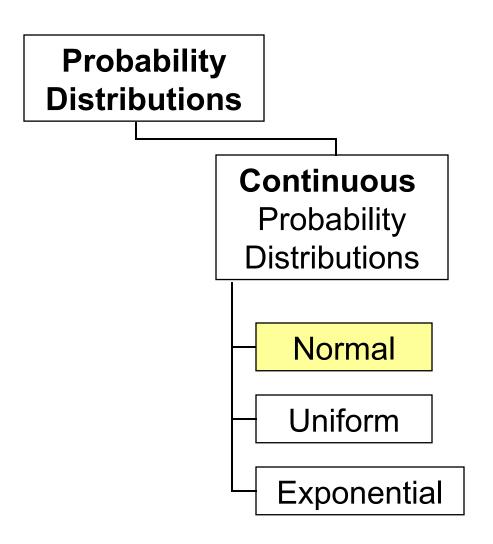
$$X = 4$$

$$n = 3$$

$$x = 2$$

$$P(x=2) = \frac{C_{n-x}^{N-X} C_{x}^{X}}{C_{n}^{N}} = \frac{C_{1}^{6} C_{2}^{4}}{C_{3}^{10}} = \frac{(6)(6)}{120} = 0.3$$

#### The Normal Distribution



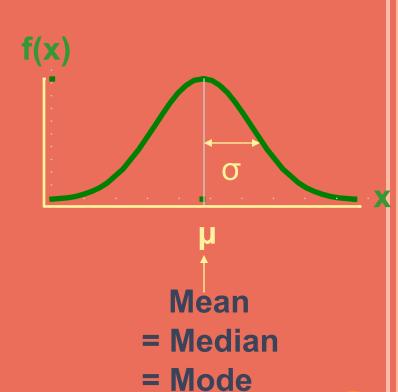
# THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

- Bell Shaped'
- Symmetrical
- Mean, Median and Mode are Equal

Location is determined by the mean,  $\mu$ 

Spread is determined by the standard deviation,  $\sigma$ 

The random variable has an infinite theoretical range:  $+ \infty \text{ to } - \infty$ 

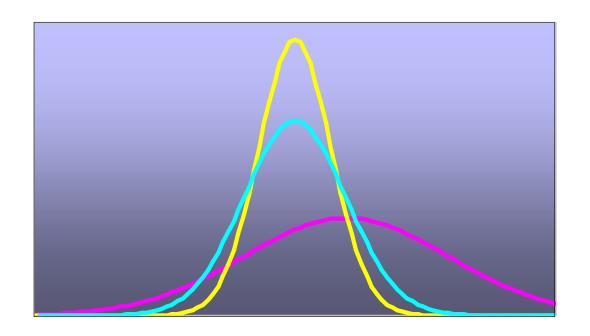


The general formula for the probability density function of the normal distribution is

$$f(x)=rac{e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

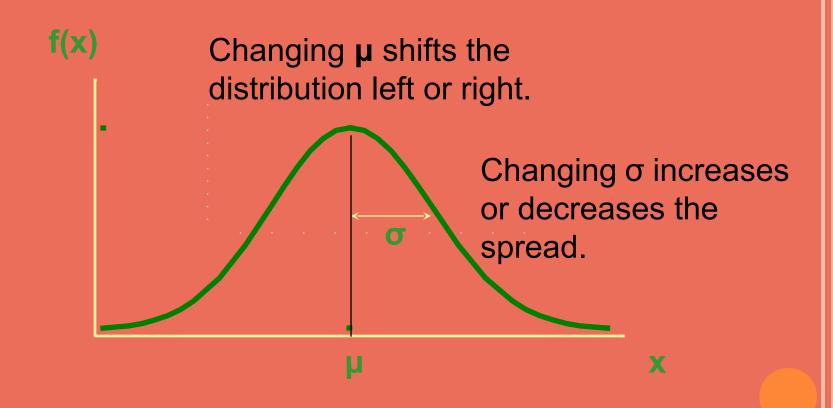
Where  $\mu$  is mean and  $\sigma$  is standard deviation

#### Many Normal Distributions



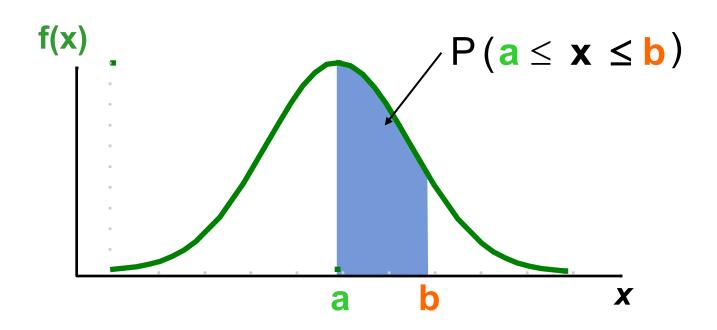
By varying the parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , we obtain different normal distributions

## THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION SHAPE



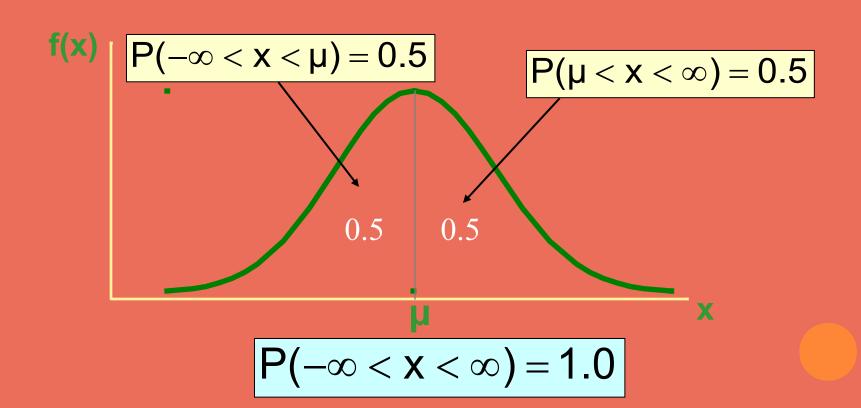
# FINDING NORMAL PROBABILITIES

Probability is measured by the area under the curve



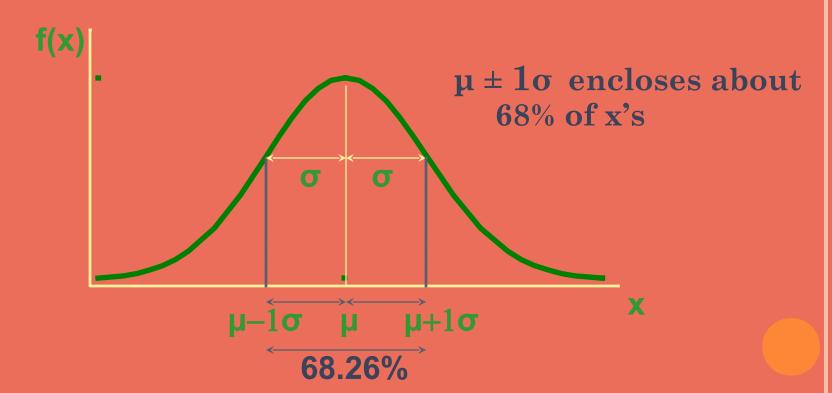
### PROBABILITY AS AREA UNDER THE CURVE

The total area under the curve is 1.0, and the curve is symmetric, so half is above the mean, half is below



#### **EMPIRICAL RULES**

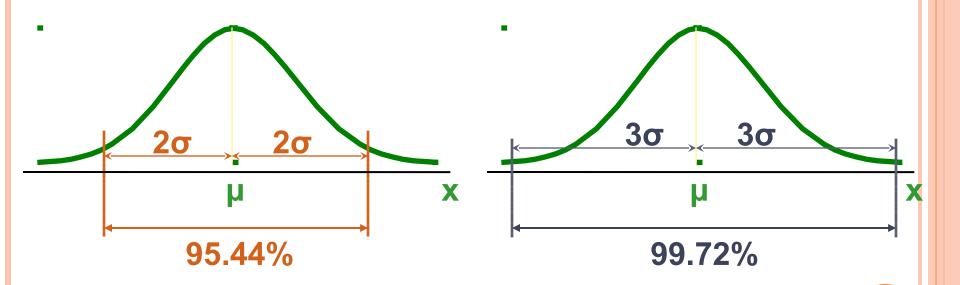
What can we say about the distribution of values around the mean? There are some general rules:



#### THE EMPIRICAL RULE

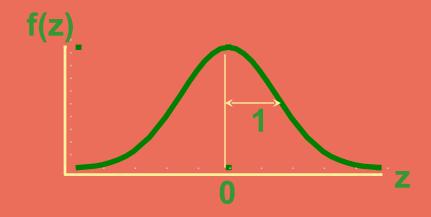
(continued)

- $\mu \pm 2\sigma$  covers about 95% of x's
- $\mu \pm 3\sigma$  covers about 99.7% of x's



### THE STANDARD NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

- Also known as the "z" distribution
- Mean is defined to be 0
- Standard Deviation is 1



Values above the mean have positive z-values, values below the mean have negative z-values

# THE STANDARD NORMAL

- Any normal distribution (with any mean and standard deviation combination) can be transformed into the standard normal distribution (z)
- Need to transform x units into z units

# TRANSLATION TO THE STANDARD NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

• Translate from x to the standard normal (the "z" distribution) by subtracting the mean of x and dividing by its standard deviation:

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

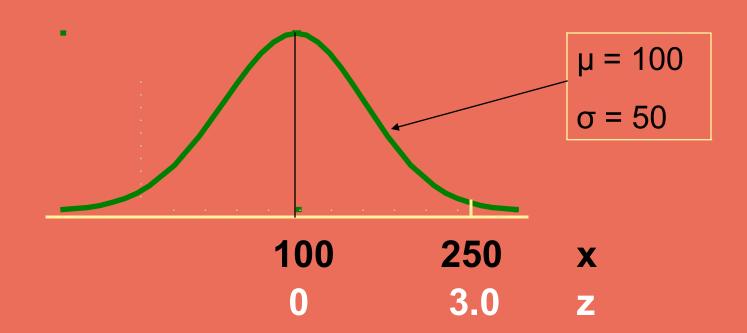
#### EXAMPLE

• If x is distributed normally with mean of 100 and standard deviation of 50, the z value for x = 250 is

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{250 - 100}{50} = 3.0$$

This says that x = 250 is three standard deviations (3 increments of 50 units) above the mean of 100.

### COMPARING X AND Z UNITS



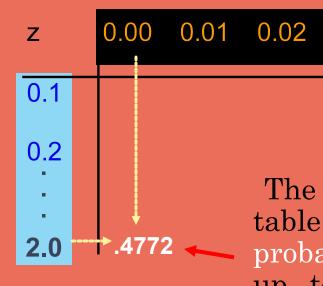
Note that the distribution is the same, only the scale has changed. We can express the problem in original units (x) or in standardized units (z)

### THE STANDARD NORMAL TABLE

(continued)

The column gives the value of z to the second decimal point

The row shows the value of z to the first decimal point



The value within the table gives the probability from z = 0 up to the desired z value

$$P(0 < z < 2.00) = .4772$$

# GENERAL PROCEDURE FOR FINDING PROBABILITIES

To find P(a < x < b) when x is distributed normally:

- Draw the normal curve for the problem in terms of x
- Translate x-values to z-values
- Use the Standard Normal Table

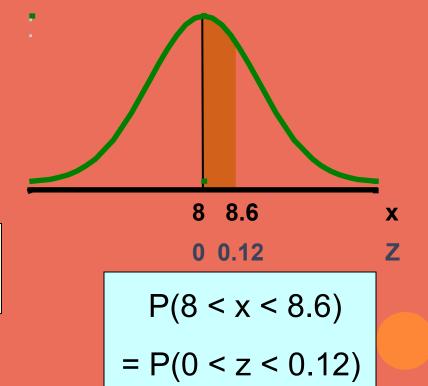
### Z TABLE EXAMPLE

Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0. Find P(8 < x < 8.6)

#### Calculate z-values:

$$z=\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}=\frac{8-8}{5}=0$$

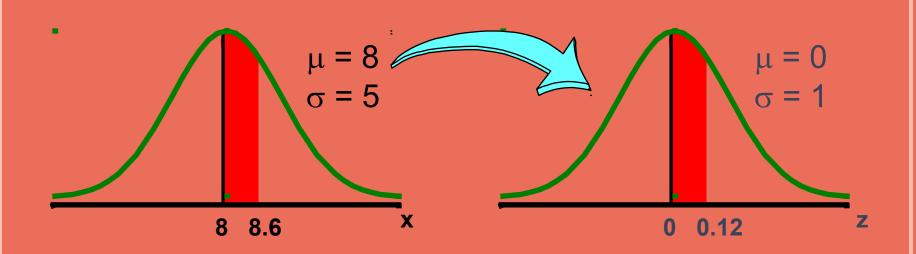
$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{8.6 - 8}{5} = 0.12$$



### Z TABLE EXAMPLE

(continued)

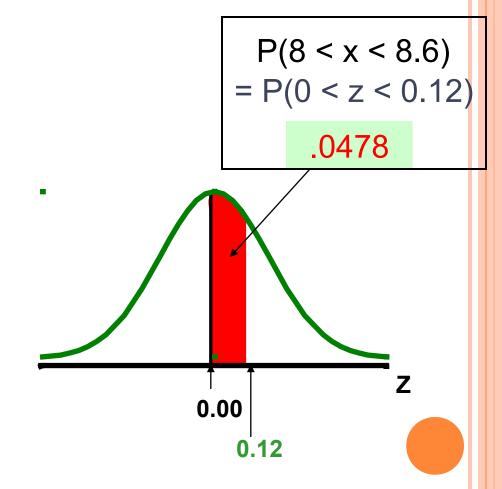
Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0. Find P(8 < x < 8.6)



# SOLUTION: FINDING P(0 < Z < 0.12)

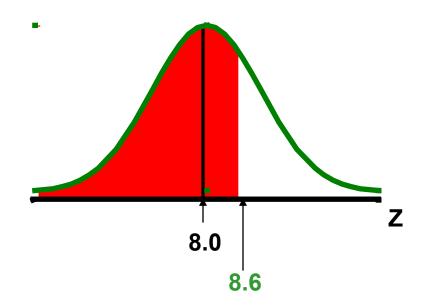
Standard Normal Probability Table (Portion)

Z	.00	.01	.02
0.0	.0000	.0040	.0080
0.1	.0398	.0438	.0478
0.2	.0793	.0832	.0871
0.3	.1179	.1217	.1255



### FINDING NORMAL PROBABILITIES

- Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0.
- •Now Find P(x < 8.6)

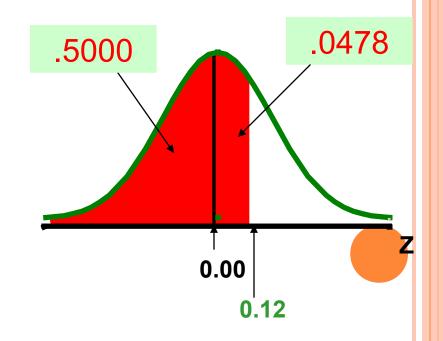


## FINDING NORMAL PROBABILITIES

(continued)

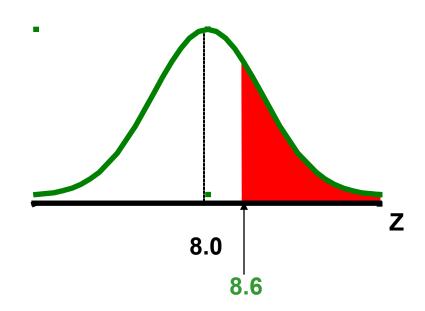
- •Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0.
- •Now Find P(x < 8.6)

$$P(x < 8.6)$$
= P(z < 0.12)
= P(z < 0) + P(0 < z < 0.12)
= .5 + .0478 =  $.5478$ 



### UPPER TAIL PROBABILITIES

- •Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0.
- •Now Find P(x > 8.6)

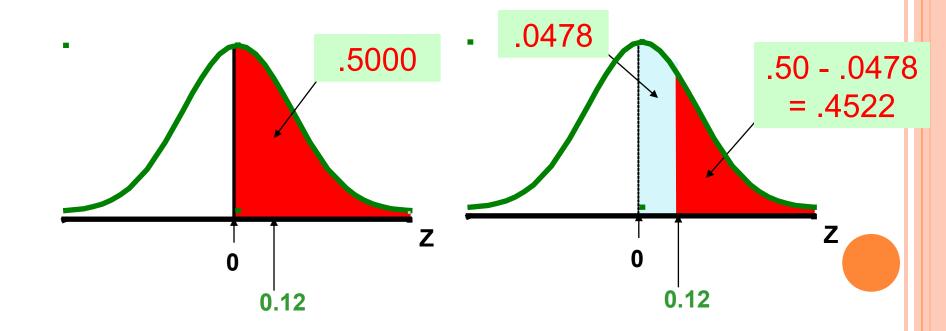


## UPPER TAIL PROBABILITIES

(continued)

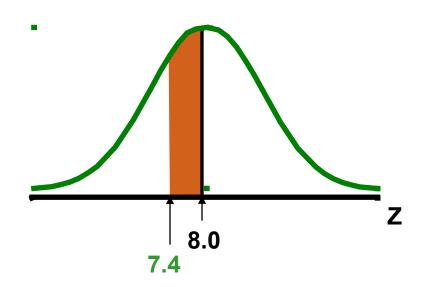
 $\circ$ Now Find P(x > 8.6)...

$$P(x > 8.6) = P(z > 0.12) = P(z > 0) - P(0 < z < 0.12)$$
  
= .5 - .0478 = .4522



### LOWER TAIL PROBABILITIES

- •Suppose x is normal with mean 8.0 and standard deviation 5.0.
- •Now Find P(7.4 < x < 8)



### LOWER TAIL PROBABILITIES

(continued)

Now Find 
$$P(7.4 < x < 8)...$$

The Normal distribution is symmetric, so we use the same table even if z-values are negative:

$$= P(-0.12 < z < 0)$$

