

## LECTURE: BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

### 1. BERNOULLI TRIALS

One of the simplest probability models is that of **Bernoulli trials**. It's just a generalization of coin tossing

#### Definition:

A **Bernoulli trial** is a sequence of experiments with the following properties:

- (1) Each trial has exactly two possible outcomes, designated *success* and *failure*.
- (2) The trials are independent
- (3) For each trial, the probability of success is  $p$  and the probability of failure is  $1 - p$  where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$

#### Examples:

- (1) Flipping a coin, where success = head and failure = tails (or vice-versa)/ If it is a fair coin, then  $p = 1/2$
- (2) Rolling two dice, where success = roll of doubles (like 33) This is how you get out of jail in Monopoly.
- (3) Playing a slot machine in Las Vegas.

Each individual trial is modeled with a Bernoulli random variable

**Definition:**

A **Bernoulli random variable**  $Y$  with parameter  $p$  is a random variable such that

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - p \end{cases}$$

We write  $Y \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

It models a single Bernoulli trial, where 1 indicates success and 0 indicates failure. Its pmf is as follows:

$y$	$p(y)$
0	$1 - p$
1	$p$

**Example 1:**

Suppose  $Y \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ . What is the mean and variance of  $Y$ ?

$$E(Y) = \sum_{\text{all } y} y p(y) = 0(1 - p) + 1(p) = p$$

**Recall: Magic Variance Formula**

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

$$E(Y^2) = \sum_{\text{all } y} y^2 p(y) = 0^2(1 - p) + 1^2(p) = p$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = E(Y^2) - [E(Y)]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p)$$

**Facts:**

If  $Y \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  then  $E(Y) = p$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = p(1 - p)$

**Note:** Notice  $f(p) = p(1 - p)$  is a parabola with a maximum at  $p = \frac{1}{2}$

Bernoulli trials are useful in many situations. Here are two questions we might want to ask about them:

- (1) How many successes do we have out of a *fixed* number of trials?
- (2) How many trials does it take to get our first success?

The first question is answered by the binomial distribution, and the second by the geometric distribution.

## 2. BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

It models the number of successes in a number of Bernoulli trials.

**Example 2:**

Suppose you play a slot machine 10 times, where the probability of winning one play is  $p$ . What is the probability that you win exactly 2 times?

This is an example of a sequence of Bernoulli trial.

Notice that any sequence of 10 plays can be represented in the form WLWWLWLWLL where W is Win and L is lose.

We are looking for sequences with exactly two W, such as LLWLLWLLLL

How many such sequences are there?

This is like asking “What is the probability of getting exactly 2 heads in 10 coin tosses?” Which is  $\binom{10}{2}$

On the other hand, what is the probability of getting such a sequence, like LLWLLWLLLL?

By independence, we have

$$P(\text{LLWLLWLLLL}) = (1-p)(1-p)p(1-p)(1-p)p(1-p)(1-p)(1-p)(1-p) = p^2(1-p)^8$$

So in the end, we get

$$P(2 \text{ wins out of } 10 \text{ trials}) = \binom{10}{2} p^2 (1-p)^8$$

More generally, if you have  $n$  trials and want  $y$  successes, think  $y$  heads in  $n$  coin tosses, the number of such sequences is  $\binom{n}{y}$  and the probability of each sequence is  $p^y(1-p)^{n-y}$  therefore

$$P(y \text{ successes out of } n \text{ trials}) = \binom{n}{y} p^y (1-p)^{n-y}$$

**Definition:**

A discrete random variable  $Y$  has a **binomial distribution** with  $n$  trials and probability of success  $p$  if

$$p(y) = \binom{n}{y} p^y (1-p)^{n-y} \quad y = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

We write  $Y \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$

This models the number of successes out of  $n$  Bernoulli trials, where the probability of a single success is  $p$ .

Let's check that  $Y$  is a well-defined discrete random variable, i.e. the probabilities of all its possible outputs sum to 1.

**Recall: Binomial Theorem**

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

Using the binomial theorem, we see that

$$\sum_{y=0}^n p(y) = \sum_{y=0}^n \binom{n}{y} p^y (1-p)^{n-y} = [p + (1-p)]^n = 1^n = 1$$

**Example 3:**

Let  $Y \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$ . Calculate  $E(Y)$  and  $\text{Var}(Y)$

We could do this directly, but because of the symmetry, let's use the method of indicators!

For each trial  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  let:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if trial } i \text{ is a success} \\ 0 & \text{if trial } i \text{ is a failure} \end{cases}$$

Notice that each  $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  and moreover

$$\text{Then } Y = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{And } E(Y) &= E(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n) \\ &= E(Y_1) + E(Y_2) + \dots + E(Y_n) \\ &= p + p + \dots + p = np \end{aligned}$$

We can do the same thing for the variance, since the  $Y_i$  are “independent” (since Bernoulli trials are independent), so

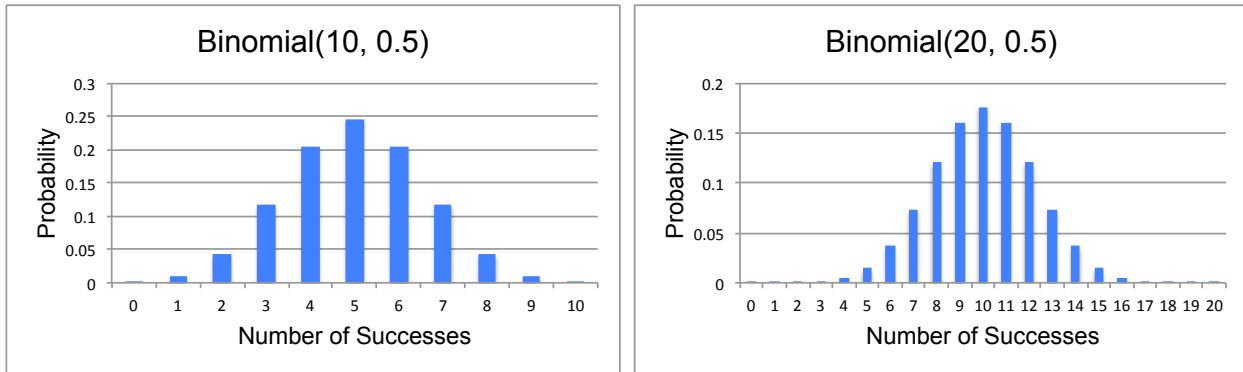
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= \text{Var}(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n) \\ &= \text{Var}(Y_1) + \text{Var}(Y_2) + \dots + \text{Var}(Y_n) \\ &= p(1-p) + p(1-p) + \dots + p(1-p) = np(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

**Fact:**

If  $Y \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$ , then  $E(Y) = np$  and  $\text{Var}(Y) = np(1-p)$

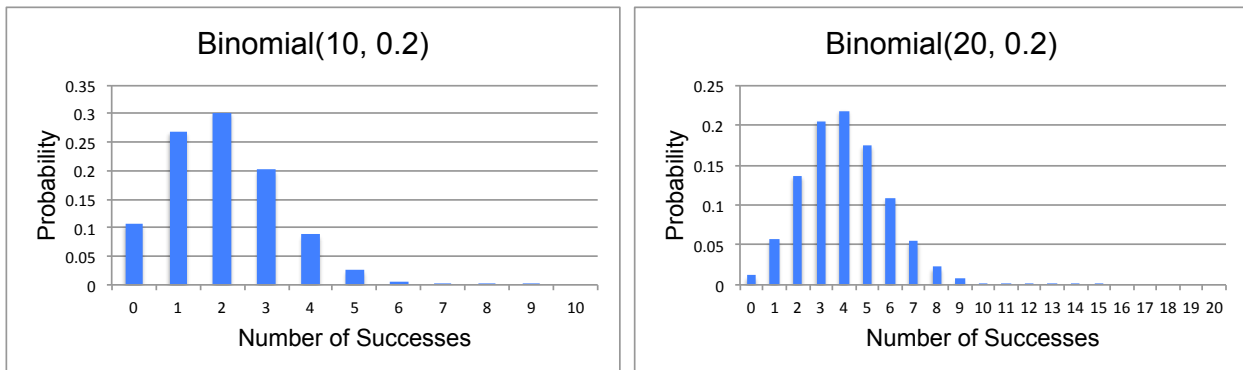
**Histograms:** Let’s look at histograms of the binomial distribution for a few choices of parameters.

First here are histograms for  $p = 1/2$  (fair coin):



These distributions are perfectly symmetric around the mean, which is expected for the case where  $p = 1/2$ . Note that as  $n$  increases, these look more and more like “bell curves”. For large enough  $n$ , we will be able to approximate the (discrete) binomial distribution by the (continuous) normal distribution.

The histograms look a bit different for  $p$  significantly different from  $1/2$ . These histograms are for  $p = 0.2$ .



These are not symmetric. Since  $p < 1/2$ , the distributions are skewed to the left, which is what we expect since failure is more likely than success. Although not to the same extent as the case where  $p = 1/2$ , these also start to look like bell curves as  $n$  increases. We will also be able to approximate these by normal distributions for large  $n$ , but the

farther  $p$  is from  $1/2$ , the larger  $n$  will need to be for this approximation to be reasonable.

#### Example 4:

When a certain variety of pea plant is cross-fertilized, the offspring have white flowers  $1/4$  of the time and purple flowers  $3/4$  of the time

- (a) You cross-fertilize 20 of these pea plants. What is the probability that 5 of them are white?
- (b) What is the probability that we will have at least 2 white flowers?
- (c) What is the expected number of white flowers?

We can model this problem as a sequence of 20 Bernoulli trials, with “success” defined as having a white flower.

Since we are looking for the number of successes in a fixed number of trials, this is a binomial distribution. Let  $X \sim \text{Binom}(20, 1/4)$

- (a) Using the binomial pmf:

$$P(X = 5) = \binom{20}{5} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^5 \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{15} \approx 0.2$$



(b) Let  $A =$  “at least two white flowers.” It is much easier here to consider  $A^c = 0$  or 1 white flower

$$\begin{aligned} P(A^c) &= P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) \\ &= \binom{20}{0} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^0 \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{20} + \binom{20}{1} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^1 \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{19} \\ &= \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{20} + 20 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{19} \approx 0.024 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c) = 0.976$

(c) The expected value of a binomial random variable is  $np$ . For this case, we have  $n = 20$  and  $p = 0.25$ , thus

$$E(X) = np = (20)(0.25) = 5$$