

(1) Continuous Random Variables Lecture 5

The Beta distribution

The Beta distribution is a continuous distribution on the interval $(0,1)$. It is a generalization of the uniform random variable over $(0,1)$.

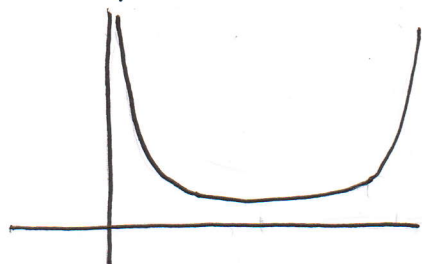
Def: A random variable X is said to have the Beta distribution with parameters a and b , where $a > 0$ and $b > 0$ if the pdf is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta(a,b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} \quad 0 < x < 1$$

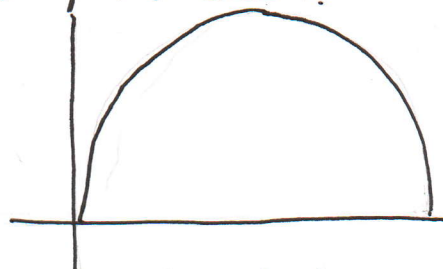
where the constant $\beta(a,b) = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx$ is chosen to make the pdf integrate to 1. We write $X \sim \text{Beta}(a,b)$.

Observe that $\text{Beta}(1,1)$ is just the uniform distribution over $(0,1)$. In general

- if $a < 1$ and $b < 1$, the pdf is U-shaped and opens upward. If $a > 1$ and $b > 1$ the pdf opens downward.



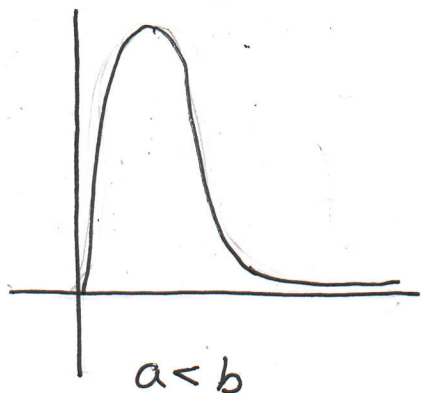
$$a < 1 \quad b < 1 \\ (a=0.5, b=0.5)$$



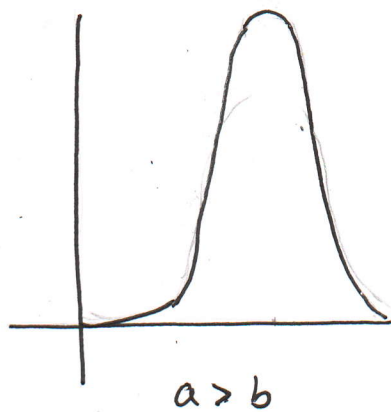
$$a > 1 \quad b > 1 \\ (a=1.5, b=1.5)$$

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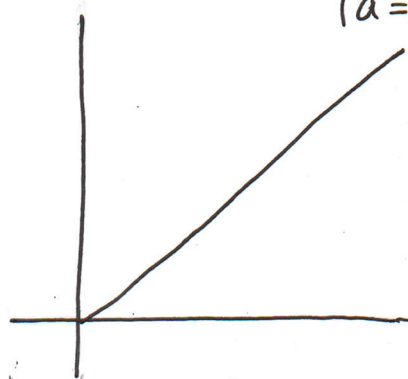
• If $a=b$ the pdf is symmetric about $\frac{1}{2}$. If $a>b$ the pdf favors values larger than $\frac{1}{2}$, if $a<b$, the pdf favors values smaller than $\frac{1}{2}$.



$a < b$
($a=2, b=8$)



$a > b$
($a=2, b=1/2$)



$a > b$
($a=2, b=1$)

By definition, the constant $\beta(a, b) = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx$.

In the special case where a and b are positive integers,

Thomas Bayes figured out how to do the integral using

a combinatorial argument rather than calculus.

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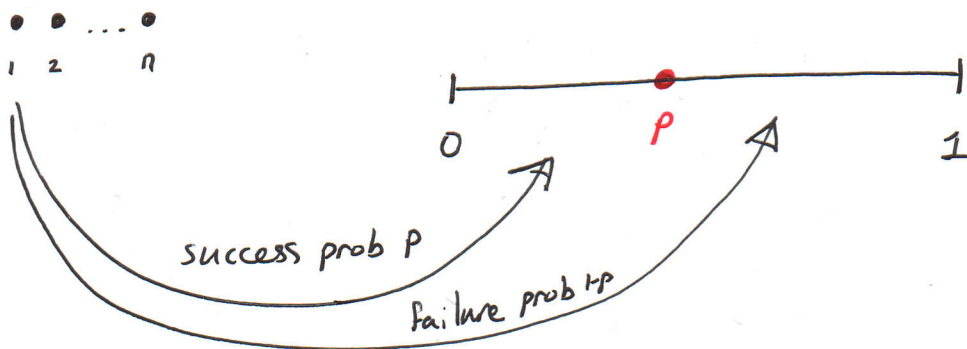
Proposition: $\int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} dx = \frac{1}{n+1}$

For any integer $0 \leq k \leq n$,

Proof: Randomly pick $n+1$ points on the unit interval $[0,1]$. Color n of these points black and one point red, (You may imagine these points as atoms that are colored prior to being placed).

Define $X = 0, 1, \dots, n$ to be the number of atoms before the red one. If we first place the red particle at position $0 \leq p \leq 1$ and then assign randomly the position for all others we see that X becomes a binomial random variable with parameters (n, p) . That is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = k | \text{Red at } p) &= P(X = k | R = p) \\ &= \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$



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Since R is a uniform random variable with density function $f(p) = 1$, we can apply Bayes formula to compute $P(X=k)$ as follows:

Let $R_m = \frac{j}{m}$ $1 \leq j \leq m$ with $P(R_m = \frac{j}{m}) = f(\frac{j}{m}) \frac{1}{m}$.

Then R_m is a discrete r.v. that is a good approximation for R when n is large.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } P(X=k) &= \sum_{j=1}^m P(X=k | R = \frac{j}{m}) P(R = \frac{j}{m}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{j}{m}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{j}{m}\right)^{n-k} f\left(\frac{j}{m}\right) \frac{1}{m} \longrightarrow \int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} f(p) dp \\ &= \int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} dp \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, since the $n+1$ particles are placed randomly on the interval, it follows that all orderings of the particles are equally likely. That is, if the particles are labeled by numbers $1, 2, \dots, n, n+1$ where the $n+1$ particle is red, all $(n+1)!$ orderings are equally likely.

$$\text{Thus } P(X=k) = \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

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In particular, the above argument shows that if a and b are positive integers then

$$\int_0^1 \binom{a+b-2}{a-1} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx = \frac{1}{a+b-1}$$

Hence

$$\beta(a, b) = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx = \frac{(a-1)!(b-1)!}{(a+b-1)!}$$

The Beta distribution is a very useful tool in predicting the likelihood of an event from data gathered through experiments.

Ex. We have a coin that lands Heads with unknown probability p . Our goal is to infer the value of p after observing the outcomes of n tosses of the coin. The larger that n is, the more accurately we should be able to infer (or estimate) p .

If the coin is completely unknown to us, we might assume the default setting that p is equally likely

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to be any value between 0 and 1. That is, the default assumption that p is uniformly distributed seems natural and unbiased. More generally therefore, we may assume that the random variable $W = p$ has Beta distribution with parameters a, b . That is $W \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$

(W stands for Wahrscheinlichkeit - probability in German)

Suppose we now perform a sequence of n independent tosses and find that k of them landed Heads. How should the pdf of W be updated?

Let $X = \#$ of successes (Heads). Given the pdf

$$f(p) = \frac{1}{\beta(a, b)} p^{a-1} (1-p)^{b-1} \text{ of } W,$$

we need to compute the marginal density function

$$g(p) = f|_{X=k}(p).$$

Perhaps the simplest way to go about it is to note

that g must have the property $P(p \leq W \leq p+dp | X=k)$

$$= g(p) dp$$

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* Recall: Probability at point p is the area of a thin rectangular column of height $g(p)$ and width dp .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } g(p)dp &= P(p \leq W \leq p+dp | X=k) \\ &= \frac{P(X=k | p \leq W \leq p+dp) P(p \leq W \leq p+dp)}{P(X=k)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Conditioning on } W, P(X=k) &= \sum_p P(X=k | W \in [p, p+dp]) \\ &\cdot P(W \in [p, p+dp]) \approx \binom{n}{k} \sum_p p^k (1-p)^{n-k} f(p) dp \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } P(X=k) = \int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} f(x) dx.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly, } P(X=k | p \leq W \leq p+dp) &\approx P(X=k | W=p) \\ &= \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } P(p \leq W \leq p+dp) = f(p) dp$$

$$\text{Thus } g(p)dp = \frac{\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} f(p) dp}{\int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} f(x) dx}.$$

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In particular $g(p) = C p^k (1-p)^{n-k} f(p) =$

$= \tilde{C} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} p^{a-1} (1-p)^{b-1}$ where

$$\tilde{C} = \frac{\binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{\beta(a,b)}}{\int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} f(x) dx}$$

But $p^k (1-p)^{n-k} p^{a-1} (1-p)^{b-1} = p^{a+k-1} (1-p)^{b+n-k-1}$

and $\int_0^1 g(p) dp = 1$.

$$\text{Thus } \tilde{C} = \frac{1}{\int_0^1 p^{a+k-1} (1-p)^{b+n-k-1} dp} = \frac{1}{\beta(a+k, b+n-k)}$$

and $W|_{x=k} \sim \text{Beta}(a+k, b+n-k)$.

Ex. A coin is tossed 1000 times, 550 tosses come up Heads. Estimate the probability that the coin lands Heads.

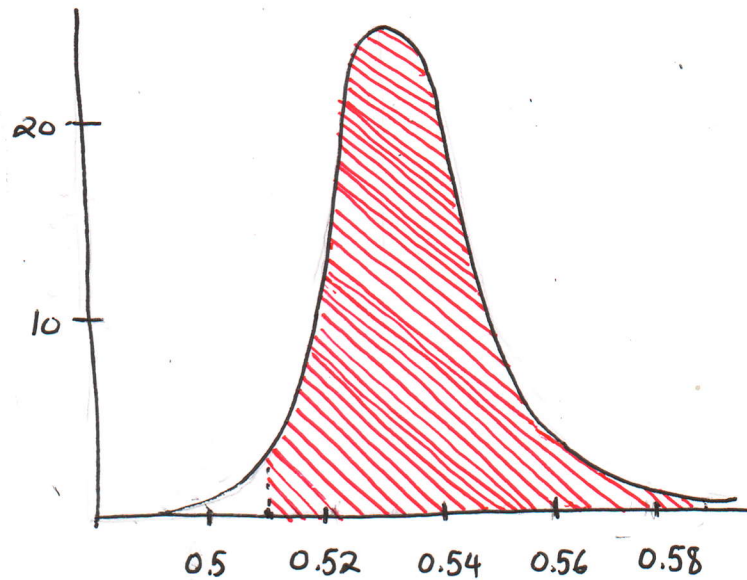
Solution: A priori knowing nothing about the coin we estimate that $P(\text{Heads}) = p$ is uniformly distributed over $[0, 1]$. Hence $p \sim \text{Beta}(1, 1)$. Letting $X = \#$ of Heads

we get $P|_{x=550} \sim \text{Beta}(1+550, 1+1000-550)$

$= \text{Beta}(551, 451)$

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Using integration software, we see that the likelihood of the true probability of the coin to be a value between 0.51 and 0.59 is over 0.989.

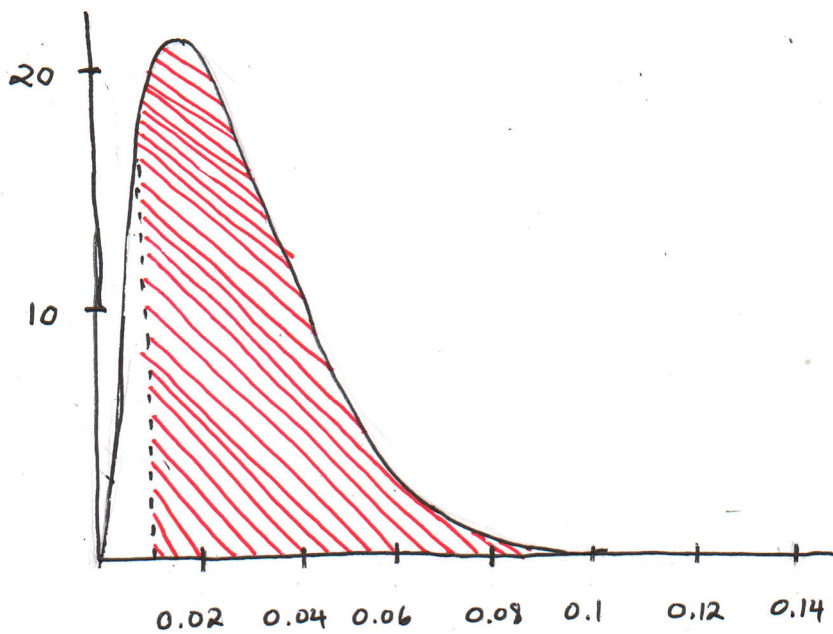


The likelihood this coin is fair is less than $\frac{1}{B(551, 451)} \int_0^{0.51} p^{550} (1-p)^{450} dp$
 ≈ 0.00569

Ex. In a city of 12,000,000 inhabitants it is wished to estimate the number of people that contracted a certain disease. 100 subjects are randomly selected and carefully tested for the illness. Only 2 are found sick. What should be concluded about the prevalence of the disease in the general population?

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Solution: Assuming the default probability is uniformly distributed (i.e. $p \sim \text{Beta}(1,1)$). The results of the study upgrade p to $\text{Beta}(1+2, 1+98) = \text{Beta}(3, 99)$



Using integration software, we see that the probability of the actual frequency being between 1% and 10% is 0.917

Ex. A new medicine against migraine is going through trials. n participants are admitted to the study.

(a) What is the probability that X , the number of participants whom the medicine helps, is equal to k ?

(b) Given that all the participants in the study are positively affected, what is the probability that the true potency p of the drug is greater or equal to $\frac{1}{2}$?

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Solution:

(a) By default, the probability p that drug is effective is $p \sim \text{Beta}(1,1)$.

$$\text{Thus } P(X=k) = \int_0^1 \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} dp = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

(b) Given that drug worked on all n participants, we update $p \sim \text{Beta}(n+1,1)$.

$$\text{Now } \int_0^1 p^n dp = \frac{1}{n+1} \quad \text{so } \beta(n,1) = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\text{Hence } P(p \geq \frac{1}{2}) = (n+1) \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 p^n dp = p^{n+1} \Big|_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}$$