

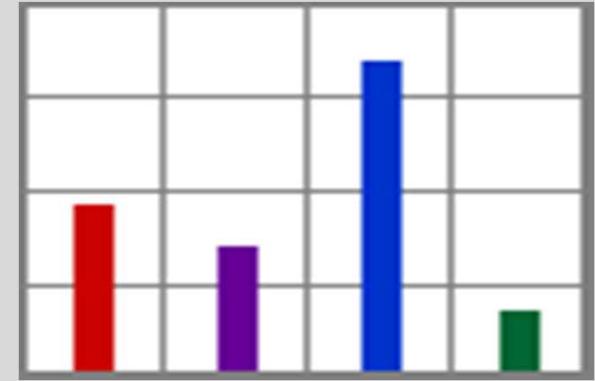
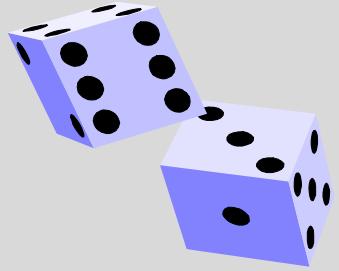
ANNEX: PROBABILITY BASIC CONCEPTS APPLIED TO PATTERN RECOGNITION

Grado en Ingeniería Informática
Curso 2014 / 15

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Topics

1. Concepts
2. Classical probability
3. Frequently discrete distributions
4. Frequently continuous distributions



CONCEPTS

Probability concept

□ **PROBABILITY:** is the scientific discipline that studies the laws of chance.

➤ ¿Cómo osamos hablar de leyes del azar? ¿No es, acaso, el azar la antítesis de cualquier ley?

Bertrand Russell

➤ Es un hecho destacable que una ciencia que empezó analizando juegos de azar acabe convirtiéndose en el más importante objeto del conocimiento humano.

Pierre Simon Laplace

Probability concept

❑ Simple problems:

- ❑ Remove cards from a deck
- ❑ Throwing a coin
- ❑ Throw a dice

❑ Complex problems:

- ❑ Genetics
- ❑ Stock market
- ❑ General Elections
- ❑ Nuclear physics
- ❑ Test scores of some subjects
- ❑ ALMOST ANY PROBLEM OF NATURE

Random experiment

- ❑ Anything that conducted under the same conditions, provide an impossible result to predict a priori.
- ❑ For example:
 - ❑ Throw a dice
 - ❑ Draw a card from a deck
 - ❑ A coin is tossed. If heads, a ball is drawn from a U1 urn with a given composition of colored balls and if tails, a ball from a U2 urn, with another given composition of colored balls, is drawn.

Random experiment

- An **experiment** is **random** if the following conditions are met:
 - It can be repeated indefinitely, always in the same conditions;
 - Before you realize it, you can not predict the results to be obtained;
 - The result obtained, e , belongs to a previously known set of possible outcomes. This possible outcomes set, we will call the **sample space**.

Sample space

- It is the possible outcomes collection of the experiment
- EXAMPLES:
 - Flipping a coin and observe the results:
 $E = \{\text{HEADS (H)}, \text{TAILS (T)}\}$
 - Throw a dice:
 $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - Throwing two coins
 $E = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}, \text{TT}\}$

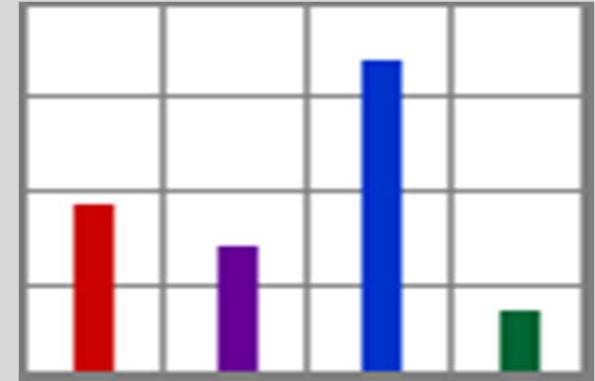
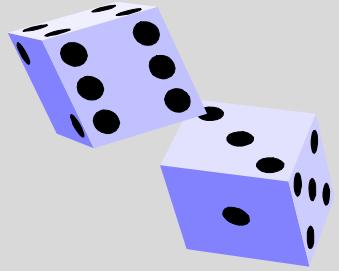
Sample space

- Experiment: Throwing two dice

$E = (1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (1,5), (1,6)$
 $(2,1), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), (2,6)$
 $(3,1), (3,2), (3,3), (3,4), (3,5), (3,6)$
 $(4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (4,4), (4,5), (4,6)$
 $(5,1), (5,2), (5,3), (5,4), (5,5), (5,6)$
 $(6,1), (6,2), (6,3), (6,4), (6,5), (6,6)$

Event concept

- Event: Any subset of E (sample space).
- Examples:
 1. When thrown 3 times a coin, the sample space is:
 $E = \{\text{HHH}, \text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{HTT}, \text{THH}, \text{THT}, \text{TTH}, \text{TTT}\}$
 2. The event or event goes "at least two heads" is:
 $S = \{\text{HHH}, \text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{THH}\}$
 3. The event "at least one tails" is listed:
 $S = \{\text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{HTT}, \text{THH}, \text{THT}, \text{TTH}, \text{TTT}\}$



CLASSICAL PROBABILITY

Classical probability

- Laplace defines the probability of an event A as:

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{Number of favorable cases}}{\text{Number of possible cases}}$$

- If we throw a dice, what is the probability $P(A)$ of $A = \text{greater than or equal to } 5$? And the probability of $B = \text{odd}$?
- **Solution:** The six possible cases are equally likely, each has probability $1/6$
- $P(A) = 2/6 = 1/3$ as $A = \{5,6\}$ has two favorable cases.
- $P(B) = 3/6 = 1/2$ as $B = \{1, 3, 5\}$ has three favorable cases

Probability axiom

□ Probability P is called any function that assigns to each event E of the sample space to a numerical value $P(A)$, verifying the following axioms:

(1) No negative: $0 \leq P(A)$

(2) Normalization: $P(E) = 1$

(3) Additivity: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

if $A \cap B = \emptyset$

(where \emptyset is the empty set).



Kolmogorov, 1933

Probability function

- Probability function assigns each variable value corresponding probability.
- In the experiment, "*Throwing a dice*", the probability function $f(k)$ is:

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| X | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| $f(k) = P(X=k)$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ |

Probability function

- In the experiment, "*Throwing a loaded dice,*" the probability function $f(k)$ might be:

| X | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|
| $f(k)=P(X=k)$ | $1.5/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $1/6$ | $0.5/6$ |

Continuous case

- **Problem:** what if the events are not a discrete variable, but continuous?
- Examples:
 - Take a fish out of water, and measure its length
 - The quotation on the stock value
 - The time spent in a 1500m race.
- In this case, there would be infinite possible cases?
- To solve the problem, we introduce a new concept

Probability distribution function

- Given a random variable X the probability distribution function $F(X)$ assigned to X defined on a probability event.

$$F(a) = P(X \leq a)$$

- F must satisfy that:
 - F must be continuous and monotone increasing

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

Probability distribution function

□ Discrete case

$$F(x) = \sum_{t=-\infty}^x f(t)$$

□ Continuous case

$$F(x) = \int_{t=-\infty}^x f(t)$$

Probability density function

- Mathematically, the probability density function is the derivative of F
- The probability density function should meet $f(x) \geq 0$, and that the integral of f in $[-\infty, \infty]$ is 1

$$F(a) = P(X \leq a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) \cdot dx$$

$$f(x) \geq 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

Example: the golden

- It has a high and compact body.
- Commonly called to present a yellow band on the front of the head and between the eyes.
- Its back is silver-gray, yellow-gray flanks with some golden shimmer, also presented to the height of the gill opening a dark spot.
- It can grow to 70 cm, and its most common size 20-50 cms.



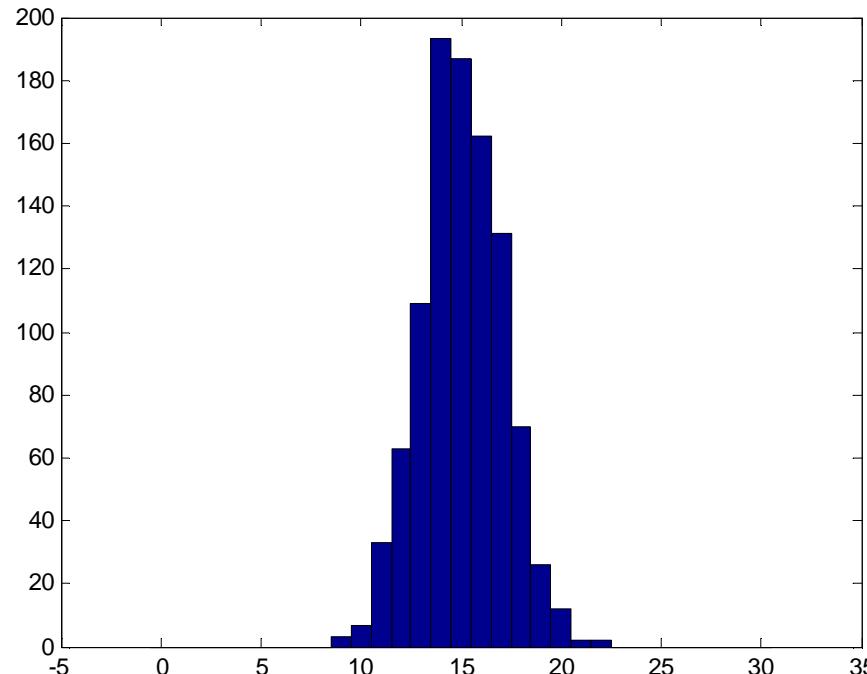
Gold distribution (discrete variable)

```
x=floor(15+2*randn(1,1000));
```

```
x= [ 11  16  13  15  11  18  18  18  
     15  14  17  14  19  15  17  12  
     16  11  15  13  15  13  15  14  
     12  18  16  15  14 ...]
```

Histogram concept (discrete variable)

```
hist(x,0:30)  
s=hist(x,0:30)  
bin = 12; length(find(x==bin))
```



Question

- How can we turn the histogram on a probability function?

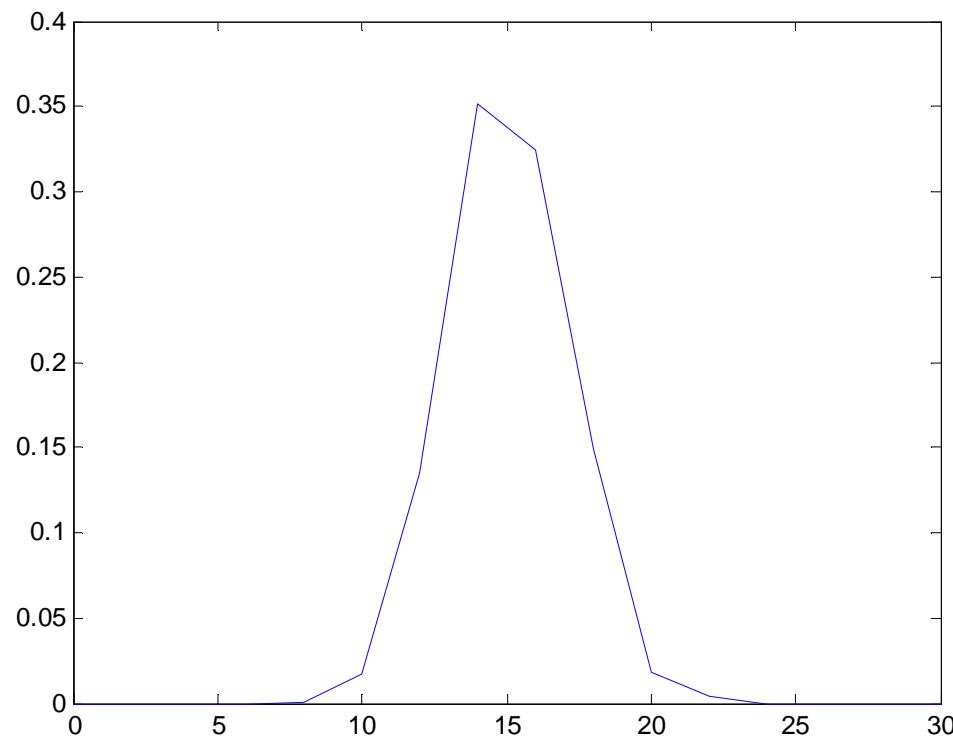
Probability concept (discrete variable)

```
s = hist(x,0:2:30)
f = s / length(x)
plot(0:2:30,f)
```

$$f(X) \approx P(x==X)$$

```
F = cumsum(f)
plot(0:2:30,F)
```

$$F(X) \approx P(x<=X)$$



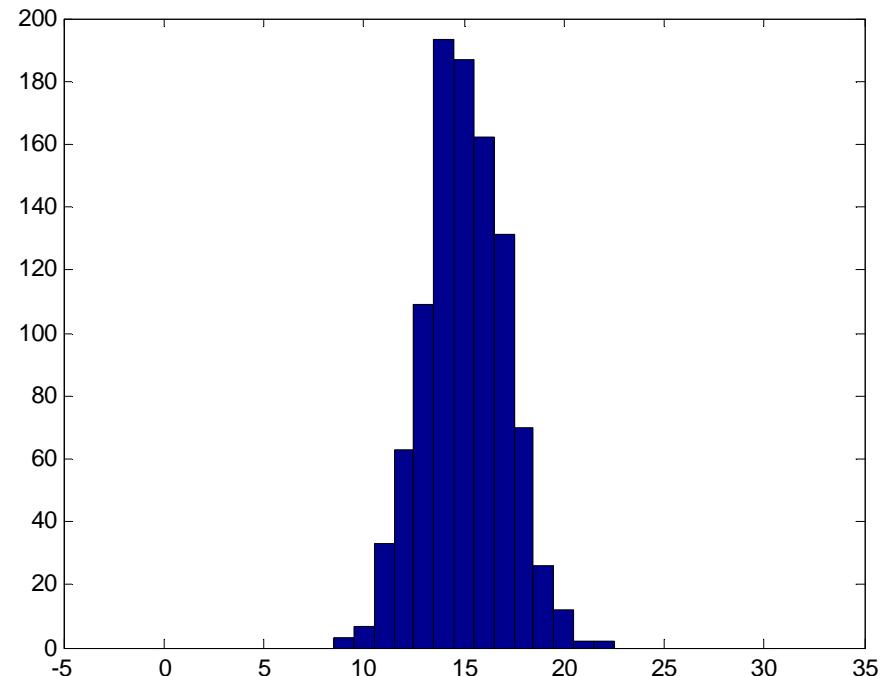
Golden distribution (continuous variable)

~~x=floor(15+2*randn(1,1000));~~

x= [11.21 16.14 13.18 15.16 11.22
16.19 11.21 15.14 13.07 15.09
12.14 18.92 16.81 15.27 ...]

Histogram concept (continuous variable)

```
hist(x,0:30)
s=hist(x,0:30)
bin = 10; length(find((x>bin-0.5) & (x<bin+0.5)))
```



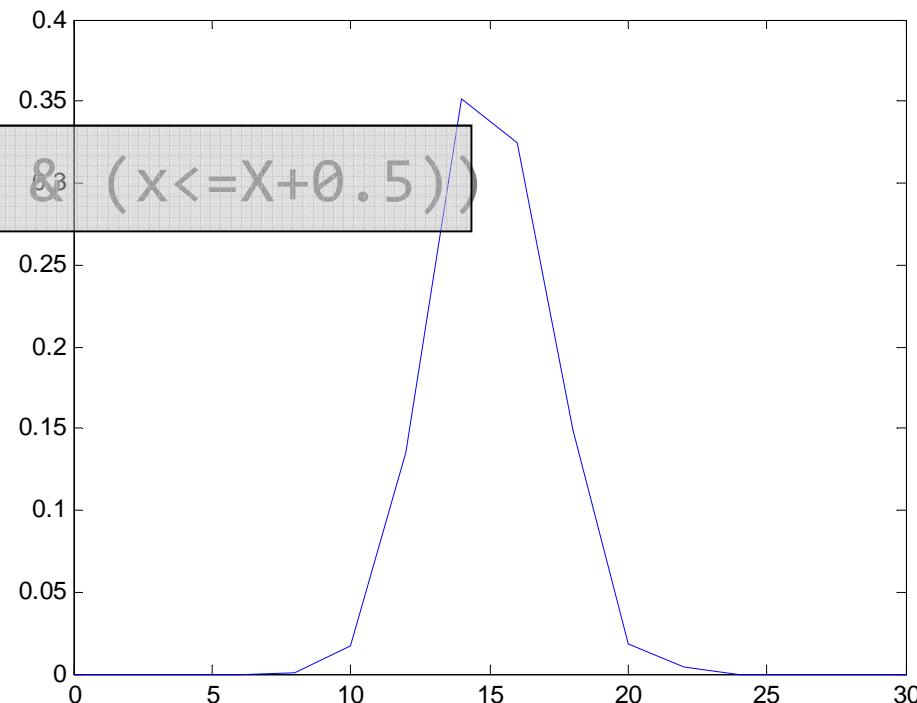
Probability concept (continuous variable)

```
s = hist(x,0:2:30)
f = s / length(x)
plot(0:2:30,f)
```

$$f(x) \approx P((x>=x-0.5) \& (x<=x+0.5))$$

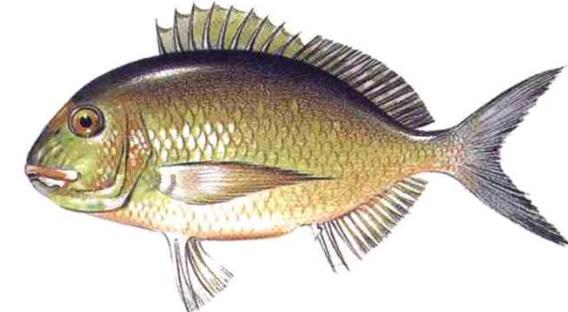
```
F = cumsum(f)
plot(0:2:30,F)
```

$$F(x) \approx P(x<=X)$$

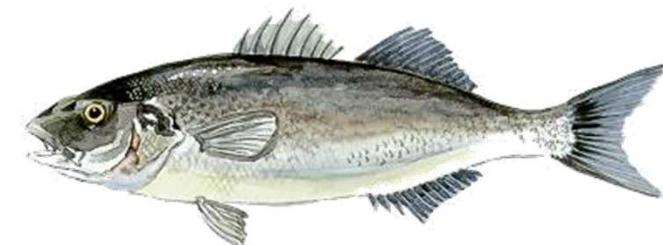


Problem: classify fish by its length

```
x=15+2*randn(1,1000);  
plot(x,0,'.b','MarkerSize',5)  
hold on
```

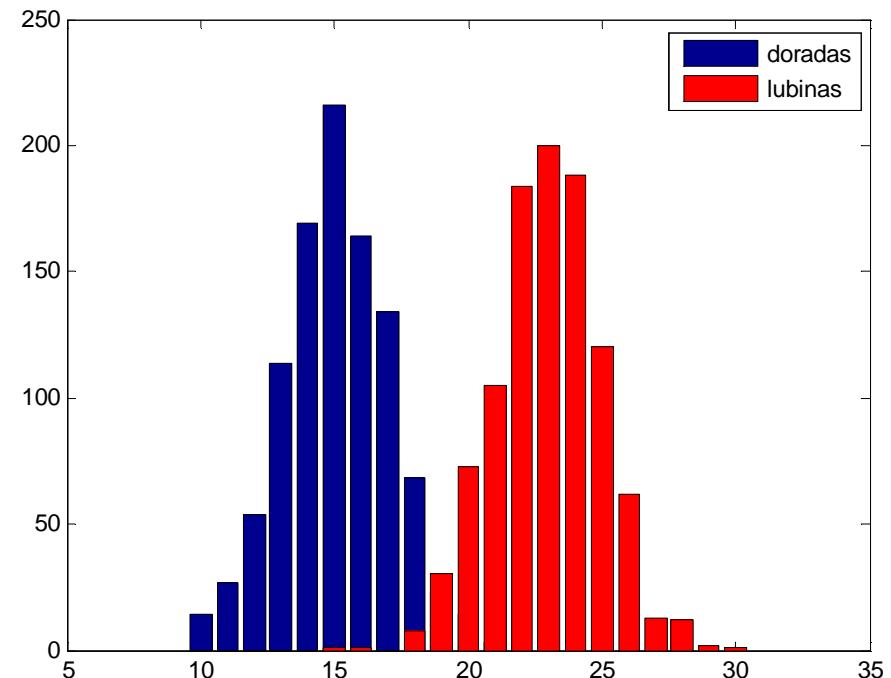


```
y=23+2*randn(1,1000);  
plot(y,1,'.r','MarkerSize',5)  
axis([0 40 -10 10])
```



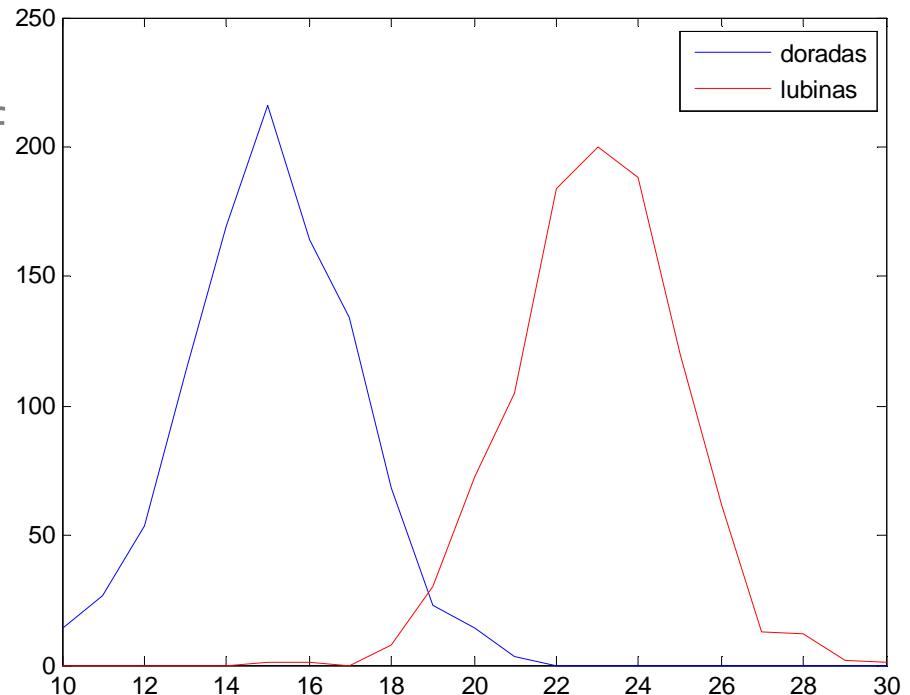
Both species histograms

```
interv=10:30;  
vx=hist(x,interv);  
vy=hist(y,interv);  
bar(interv,vx);hold on;  
bar(interv,vy,'r');hold off  
legend('doradas','lubinas')
```



Both species histograms

```
interv=10:30;  
vx=hist(x,interv);  
vy=hist(y,interv);  
plot(interv,vx);hold on;  
plot(interv,vy,'r');hold off  
legend('doradas','lubinas')
```

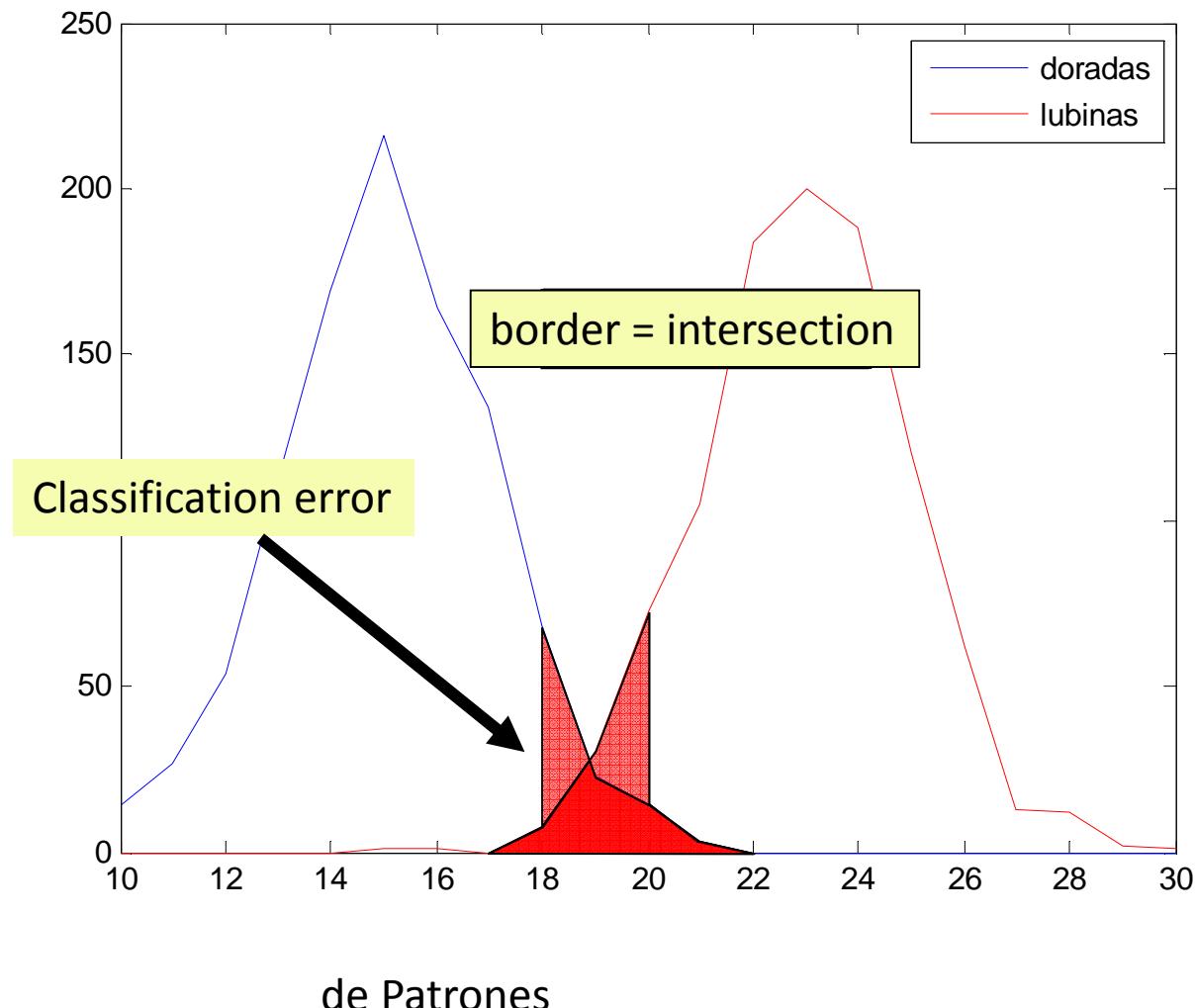


Question

- If we choose a fish at random and measured, and its length is 15.23 cm. Do you know what species it is?
- What if measured 19.54 cm. ?
- At what point do we say that value is more likely to be a golden that a sea bass?

THIS IS A CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM!!

Optimal value = minimum error



Numerical result

```
clc
x=15+2*randn(1,1000);
y=23+2*randn(1,1000);
for Frontera = 17:21
    Err1 = length(find(x>Frontera));
    Err2 = length(find(y<Frontera));
    ErrTotal = Err1 + Err2;
    disp([' Frontera = ' num2str(Frontera)])
    disp([' Err1 Err2 ErrTot'])
    disp([Err1 Err2 ErrTotal])
end
```

Exact value

- In this case, because distributions are equal, symmetric, and the number of data of each species is the same, it can be shown that the true value is:

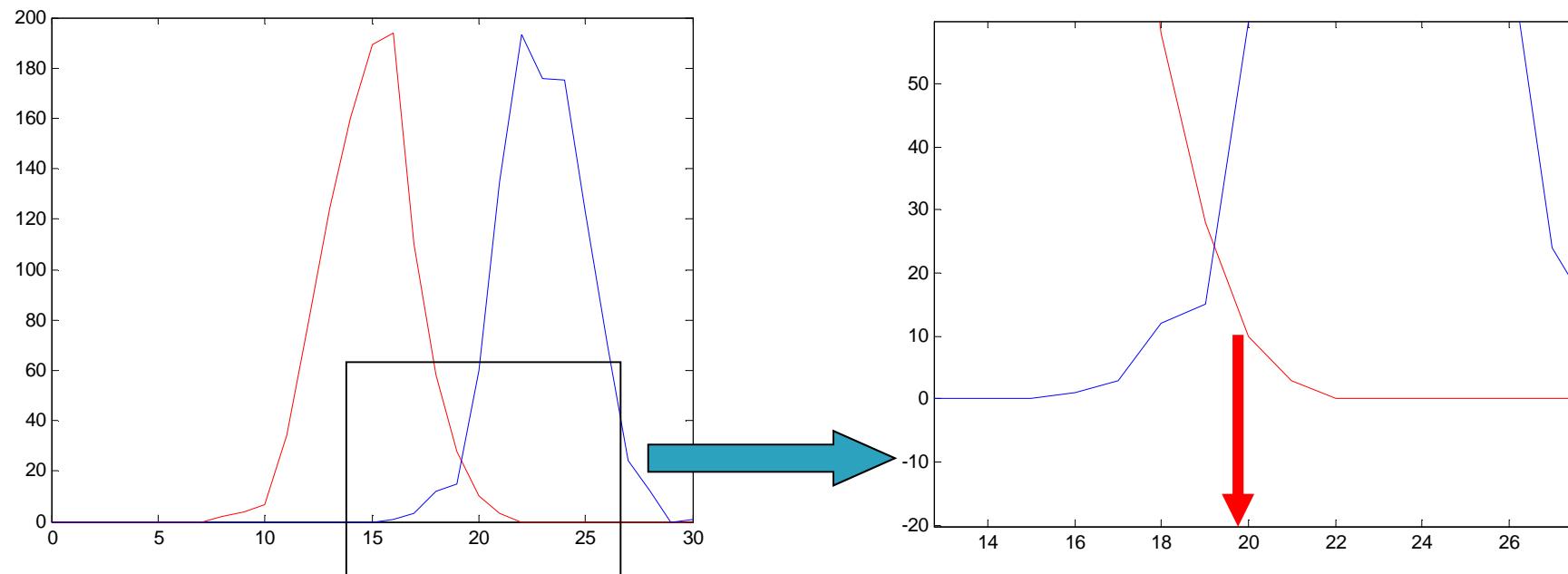
Border = 19 cm.

- Normally this is not the case
- What if I do not know the exact solution?

Solution 1

□ Draw histograms of both species, and find the cutoff

```
sx=hist(x,0:30);plot(0:30,sx,'r');hold on;  
sy=hist(y,0:30);plot(0:30,sy, 'b');hold off;
```



Solution 1 problems

- Inaccuracy due to discretization on
 - The narrower each histogram bar is more accurately
 - But I have less value per bar
 - COMMITMENT

I need to get all the fish of the sea for the exact value of the optimal frontier !!

Solution 2

- We assume that the distributions are symmetrical and equal in form
 - $m_x = \text{mean}(x)$
 - $m_y = \text{mean}(y)$
 - Frontera = $(m_x+m_y) / 2$

- QUESTIONS
 - What method works best?
 - What is easier?
 - What is faster to compute?
 - Which method is more rigorous?

Solution 2 problem

- What if the distributions are not symmetrical?

```
x=15+sum(randn(5,1000).^2);  
y=23+sum(randn(5,1000).^2);  
sx=hist(x,0:40);plot(0:40,sx, 'r');hold on;  
sy=hist(y,0:40);plot(0:40,sy, 'b');hold off;  
title(num2str(0.5*(mean(x)+mean(y))))
```

Solution 2 problem

- What if the distributions are not equal in shape?

```
x=15+2*randn(1,1000);  
y=23+4*randn(1,1000);  
sx=hist(x,0:40);plot(0:40,sx, 'r');hold on;  
sy=hist(y,0:40);plot(0:40,sy, 'b');hold off;  
title(num2str(0.5*(mean(x)+mean(y))))
```

Solution 2 problem

- What if there is a number of different individuals for each species?

```
x=15+2*randn(1,3000);
y=23+2*randn(1,97000);
sx=hist(x,0:40);plot(0:40,sx,'r');hold on;
sy=hist(y,0:40);plot(0:40,sy, 'b');hold off;
title(num2str(0.5*(mean(x)+mean(y))))
```

General problem

- For everything to work best, we would have to draw and measure **ALL** of sea bream and sea bass
- Because it is impossible to work with a representative **SAMPLE** of the population
- The more items are in my sample, and more representative, the better the estimates

Solution 3

- Take a representative sample of each type of fish
- Best estimate probability density function (shape and parameters) for each type of fish
- Adjust density function to account for the number of individuals in each class
- Find the intersection of two curves analytically and give that value as the optimal boundary

Watch out for special cases

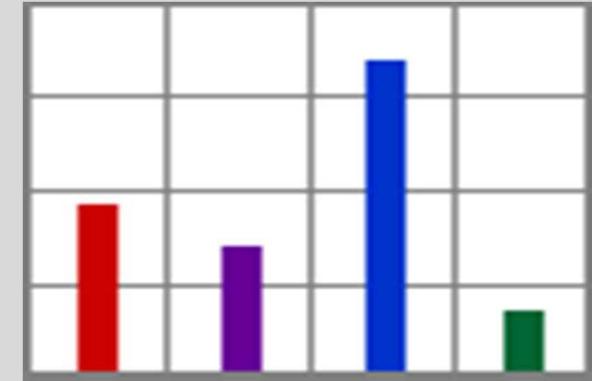
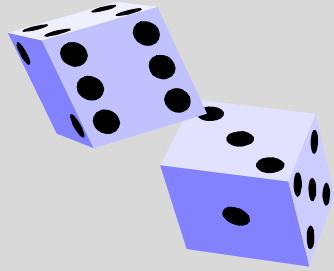
- What happens if the distributions are centered at the same point, but have different widths?

```
x=15+4*randn(1,10000);
y=15+2*randn(1,10000);
sx=hist(x,0:40);plot(0:40,sx,'r');hold on;
sy=hist(y,0:40);plot(0:40,sy, 'b');hold off;
title(num2str(0.5*(mean(x)+mean(y))))
legend('doradas', 'lubinas')
```

Solution 3 problems

- Best estimate probability density function of a population from a sample
- Best estimate the number of individuals in the population of each class from a sample

!!! MORE STATISTICS !!!



FREQUENTLY DISCRETE DISTRIBUTIONS

Uniform distribution

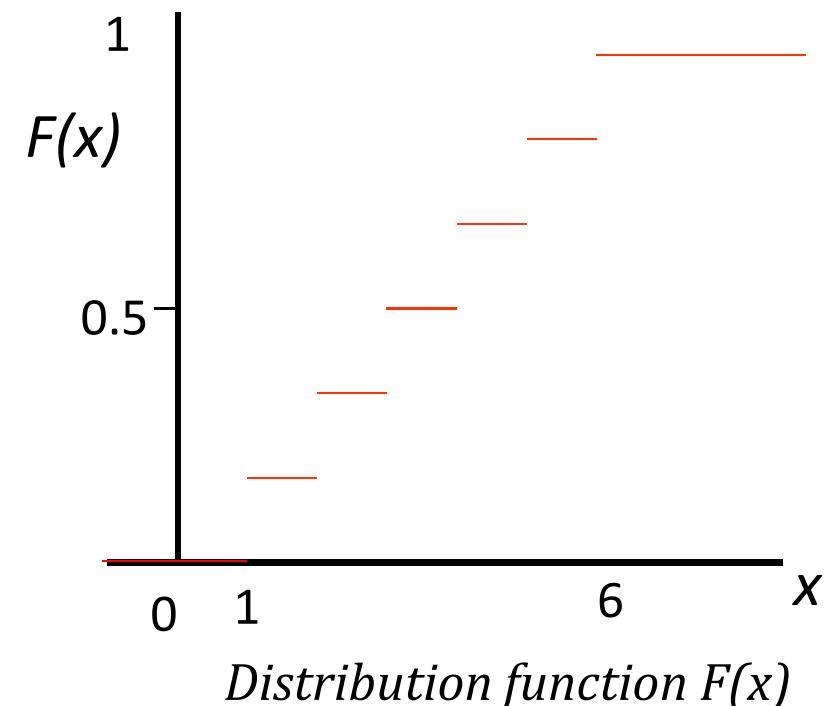
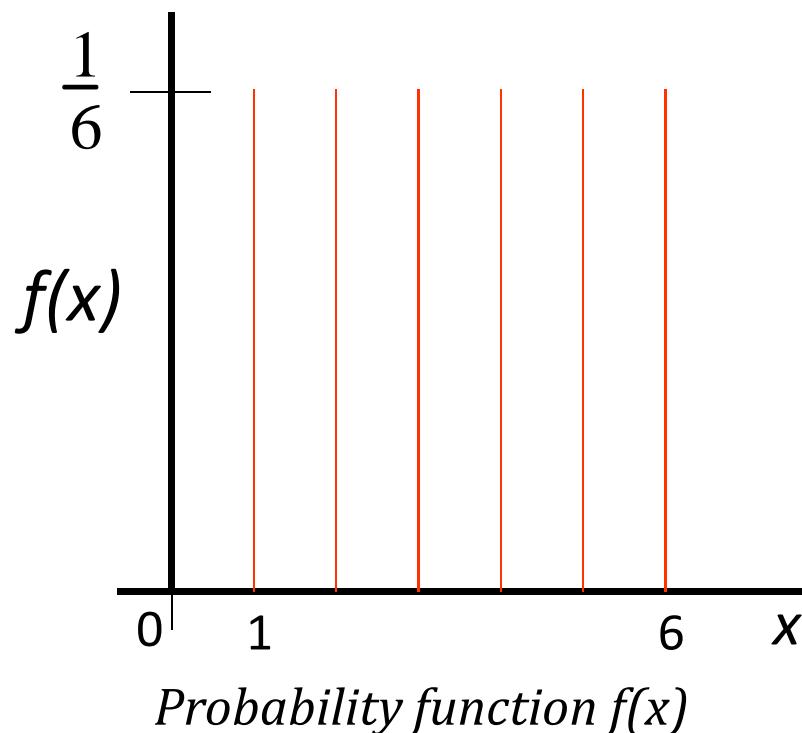
- If all elementary events are equally likely, we can say that X is uniformly distributed.
- If the sample space consists of n simple events ($0 < n < \infty$), then the discrete probability function is defined as

$$p(x) = 1 / n$$

- Examples:
 - Throwing a coin ($n = 6$)
 - Throwing a dice ($n = 2$)

Uniform distribution. Example: throwing a dice

- X has the possible values $x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ once with probability $1/6$



Bernouilli distribution

- The experiment result supports only two outcomes: success (1) or failure (0)
- A typical Bernoulli experiment is throwing a coin with probability p for heads and $(1 - p)$ to tails
- If the probability of success is p :

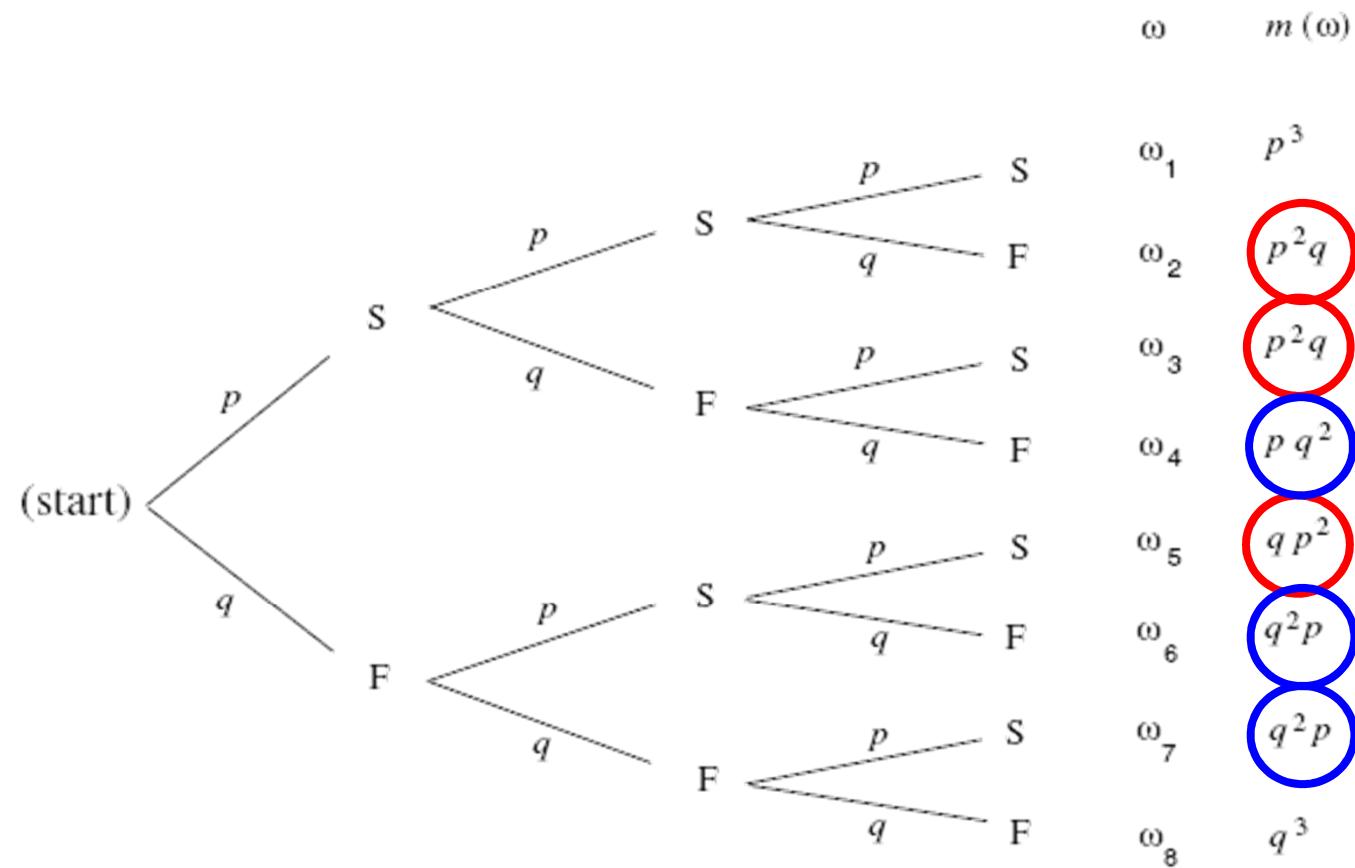
$$f(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x} \quad x = 0, 1$$

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - p, & \text{para } x = 0 \\ 1, & \text{para } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Binomial distribution

- The binomial distribution appears when we are interested in the **number of times that an event A occurs (successes)** in n independent trials of a Bernoulli experiment
- Eg .: number of heads in 3 tosses of a coin.

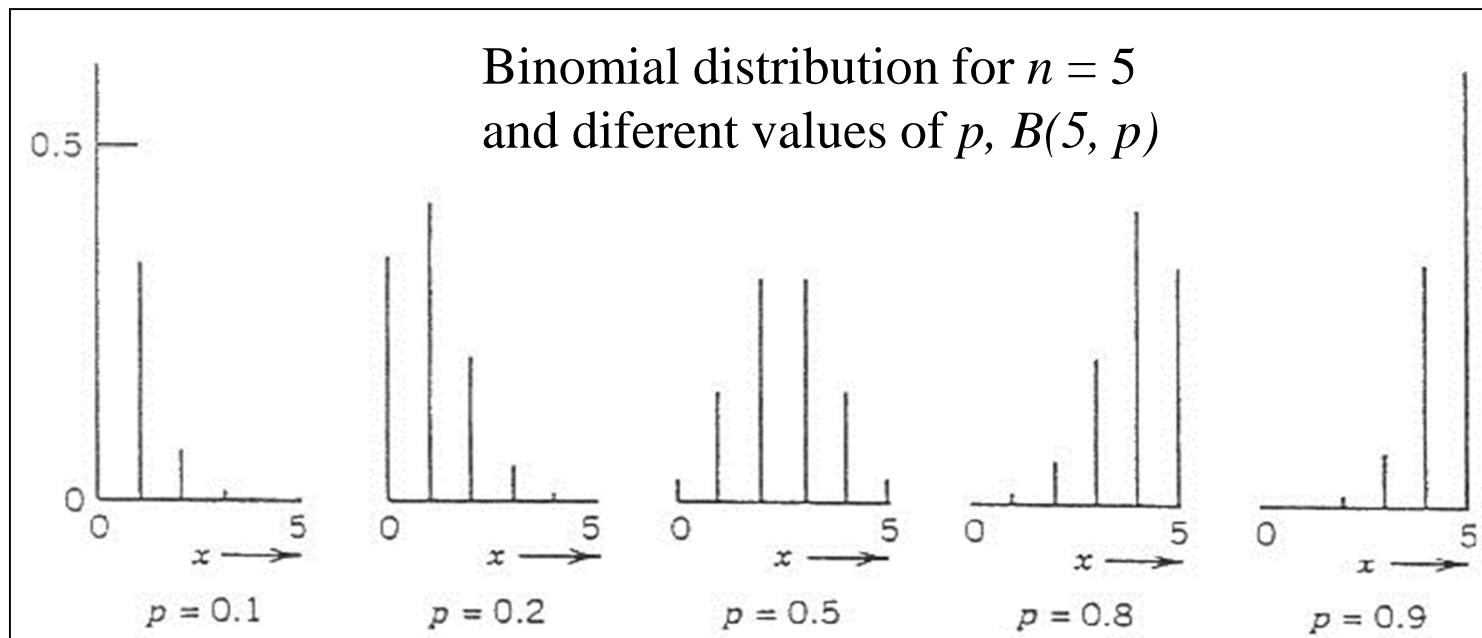
Binomial distribution.No. of faces in 3 pitches



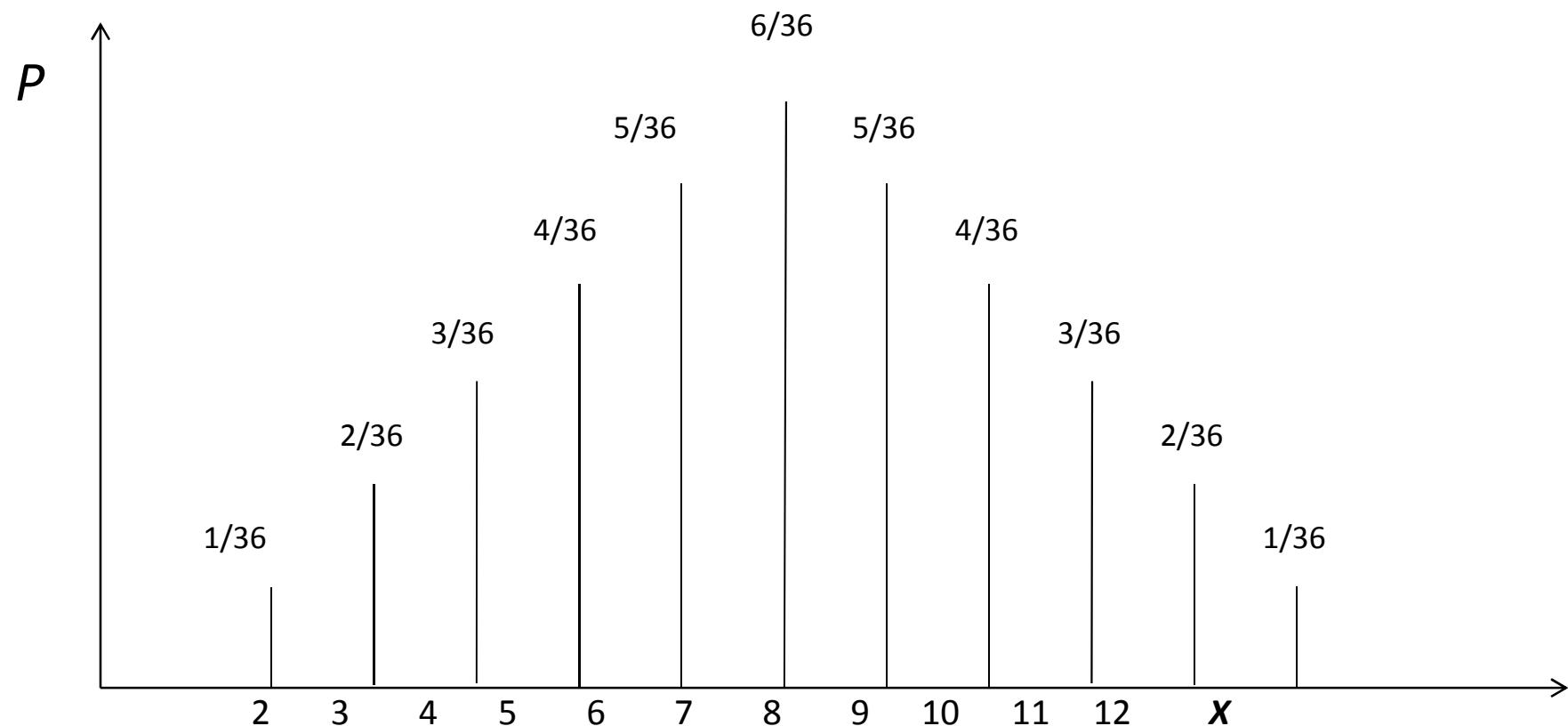
Binomial distribution

□ In this case, the likelihood function is:

$$B(n, p) = p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$



Binomial Distribution Example: two dice rolled



Proposed issues

- ❑ 30% of UCA students are myopic. If it gets to 20 students randomly, what is the probability that at most there are two myopic?
- ❑ A coin is thrown 10 times. What is the probability that they leave within 3 heads?
- ❑ A farmer plant 12 tomato plants. On average, 15% die the first winter. Calculate the probability that more than one die this winter
- ❑ Light bulbs are packaged in boxes 20. One light bulb of 10 is defective medium. What is the probability that a box has two defective bulbs?

Solutions : (1) 0.0355 (2) 0.0547 (3) 0.5565 (4) 0.285

Poisson distribution

- Gets the probability that an event occurring x times in a certain time period, knowing that the average number of occurring, λ
- Since x is the occurrences number, $x = 0,1,2,3, \dots$
- The likelihood function is:

$$p(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \quad x = 0,1,2,\dots$$

- Example: Check photon detector

Poisson = binomial limit

- When a binomial distribution the number of trials (n) is large and the probability of success is small, the binomial distribution converges to the Poisson distribution ($\lambda = n \cdot p$)

$$p(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \cdot p^x \cdot (1-p)^{n-x} \quad \text{tomando } \lambda = n \cdot p$$

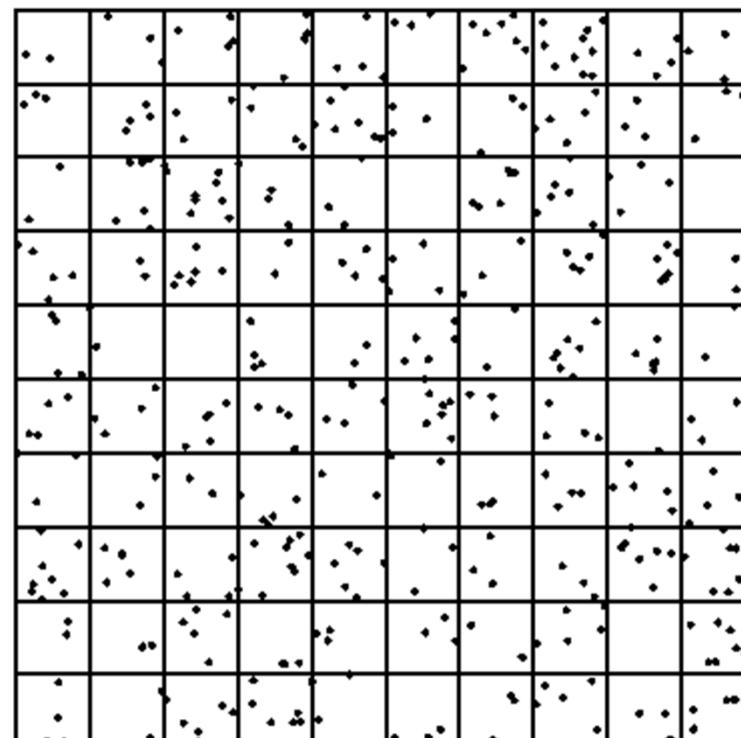
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n-1)(n-x+1)}{x!} \cdot \frac{\lambda^x}{n^x} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n-1)(n-x+1)}{n^x} \cdot \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = 1 \cdot \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} \cdot 1 = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}$$

Example: Bombs over London in World War II (Feller)

400 bombs



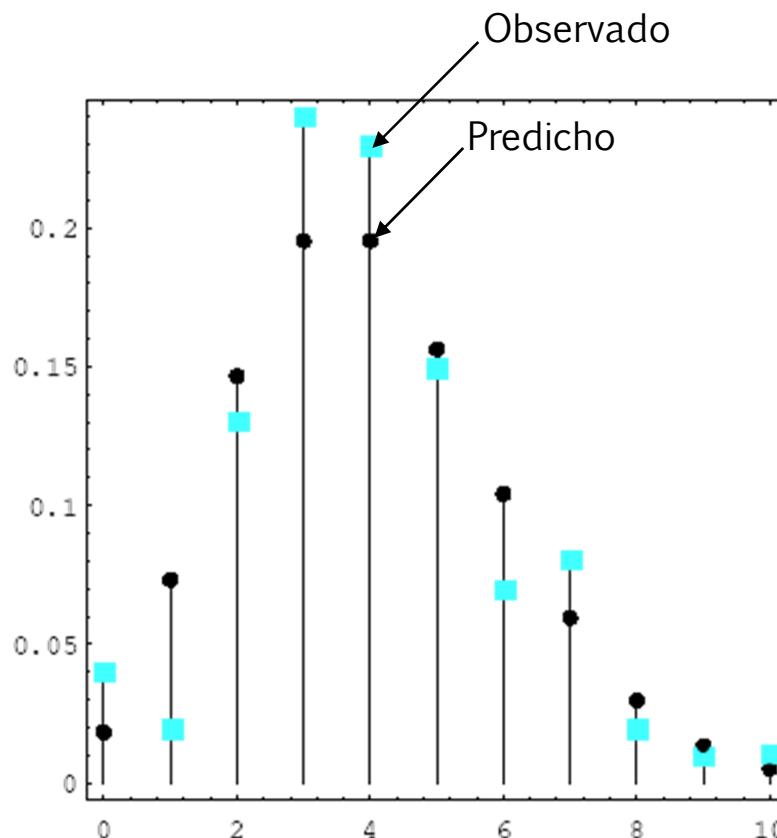
10 x 10

Example: Bombs over London in World War II (Feller)

- Suppose you lived in one of 100 blocks shown in the bottom graph
- The probability that a bomb was dropped on your block was $p = 1/100$
- As bombs fell 400, we can understand the number of hits on your block like the number of successes in Bernoulli experiment with $n = 400$ and $p = 1/100$
- We can use a Poisson with $\lambda = n * p = 400 * 1/100 = 4.$

Example: Bombs over London in World War II (Feller)

$$p(x) = \frac{e^{-4} 4^x}{x!}$$



Proposed issues

1. A secretary makes an average of two errors per page. How likely is it that you write a page without any error?
2. A computer has a "fall" every other day one average. What is the probability that there are 2 falls within a week?
3. They are selling toys with a mean number of failures 8. What is the probability that buying a toy with a single failure?

Solutions : (1) 0.135 (2) 0.185 (3) 0.0027

Other distributions: multinomial

- When there are more than two possible events (A1, A2, A3 ...) with probabilities p1, p2, p3 ... constant and such that:

$$\sum_i p_i = 1$$

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots) = \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! x_3! \dots} p_1^{x_1} \cdot p_2^{x_2} \cdot p_3^{x_3} \dots$$

Other distributions: Geometric

- It consists of repeating a Bernoulli experiment until the first success
- We define the random variable X as the **number of failures until the first success is obtained**

$$f(x) = (1 - p)^x p \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$F(n) = \sum_{x=0}^n (1 - p)^x p = 1 - (1 - p)^{n+1}$$

- Example: either cross = success, how many times do I have to flip a coin to get a cross

Other distributions: negative binomial

- Bernoulli experiment repeated until the r-th success, the number of failures until the r-th success is obtained following the negative binomial distribution.

$$BN(r, p) = P(X = x) = \binom{x+r-1}{x} p^r (1-p)^x, \\ x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- Example: flipping a coin to get 3 heads

Other distributions: negative binomial

- The negative binomial distribution can also be defined as the number of testing until the x appearance of r successes.
- As the number of evidence x , in this case, counts both successes and failures as this definition would be:

$$BN(r, p) = P(X = x) = \binom{x+r-1}{x} p^r (1-p)^x,$$

$$x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- Example: flipping a coin to get 3 heads

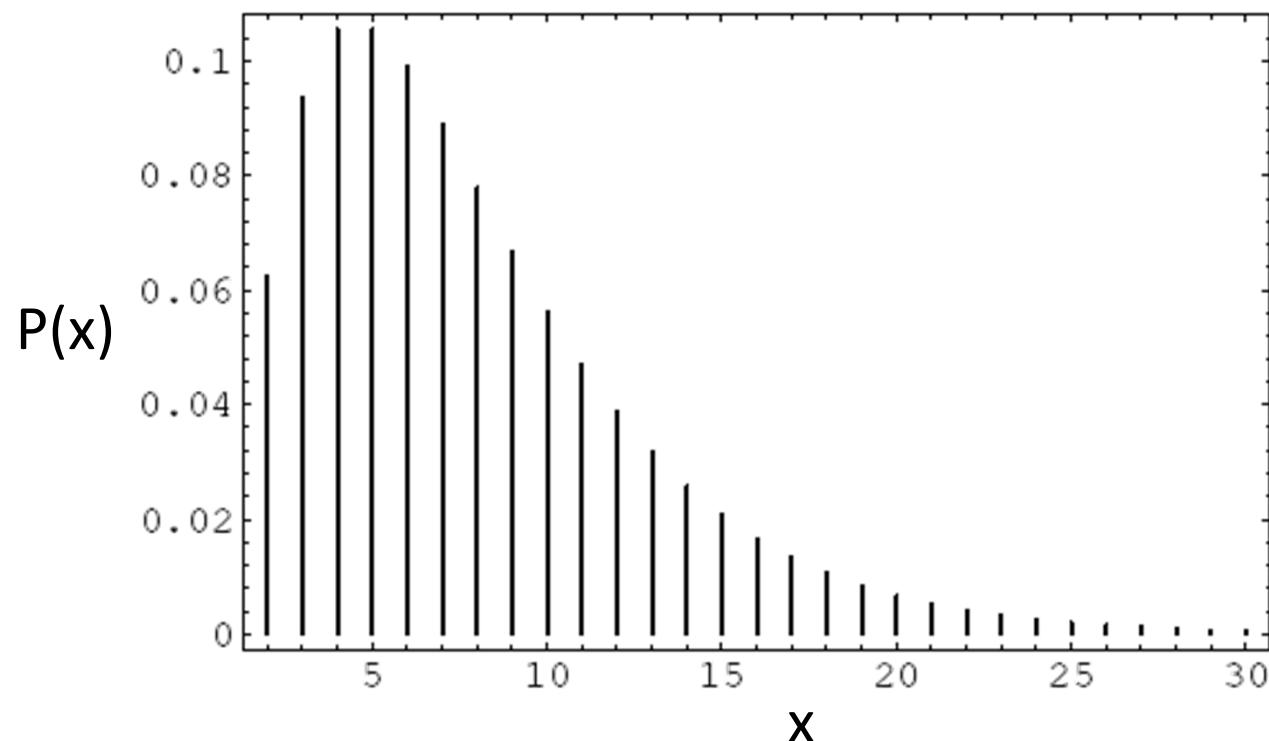
Example

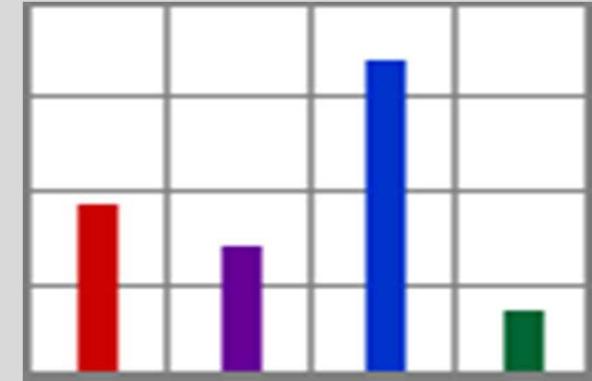
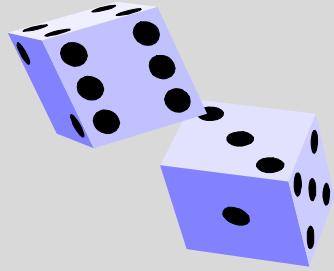
- We have a trick coin with probability of heads equal to $p = 0.25$. The launch until we get 2 sides. The distribution of the number of pitches x is:

$$BN(r = 2, p = 0.25) = P(X = x) = \binom{x-1}{2-1} 0.25^2 (1 - 0.25)^{x-2},$$

$$x = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$

Example





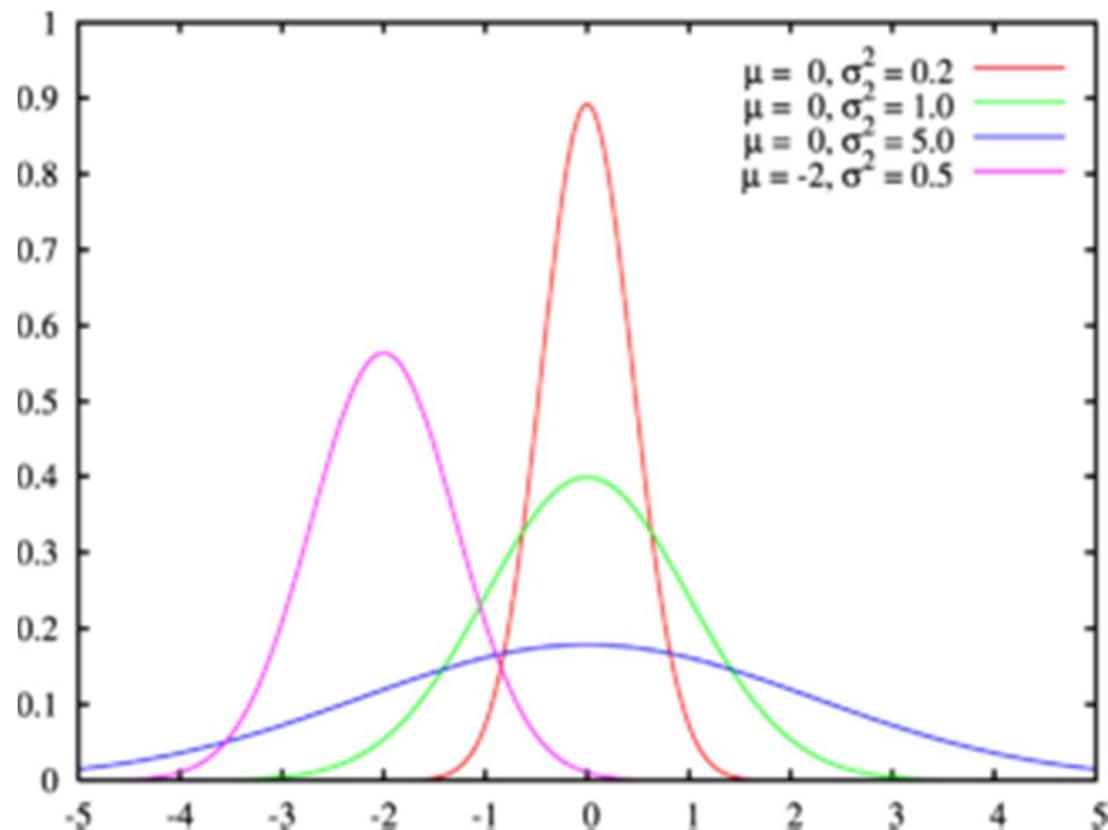
FREQUENTLY CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTIONS

Normal distribution

- Normal, also called Gaussian or Gaussian
- Is the probability distribution that most often appears mainly because there are so many variables associated with natural phenomena that are modeled normal
 - Morphological characters of individuals
 - Physiological characteristics and the effect of a drug
 - Sociological characters consumption of a certain product by the same group of individuals
 - Psychological traits such as IQ
 - Noise level in Telecommunications
 - Errors in measuring magnitudes in experiments
 - Sample statistics such as the mean values
- It is also other distributions limit

Normal distribution: bell shape

- Two factors, the point where it is centered (mean) and the width of the hood (std. Standard)



Normal probability density function

- The probability density function is mathematically defined as:

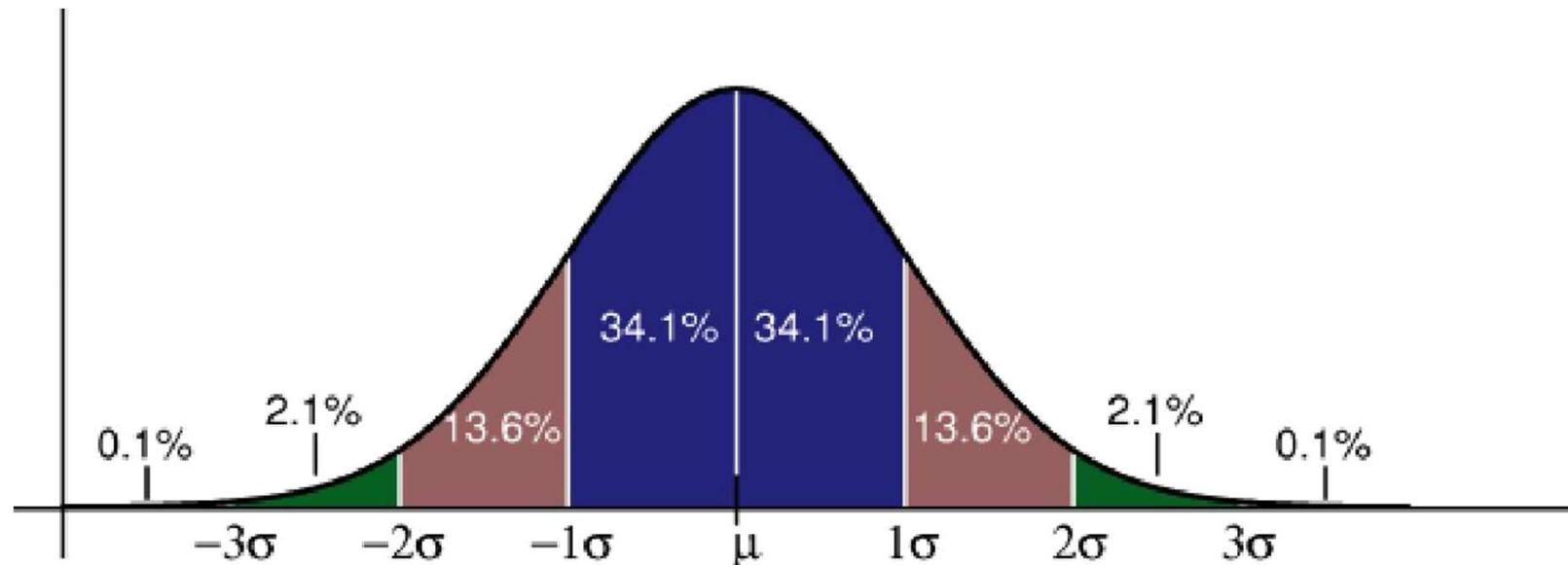
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

where μ (mu) is the mean and σ (sigma) is the standard deviation

- Sigma squared (σ^2) is called the variance.

68-95-99.7 Rule

- ❑ Almost all data is within 3 standard deviations (3σ) of the mean (μ)

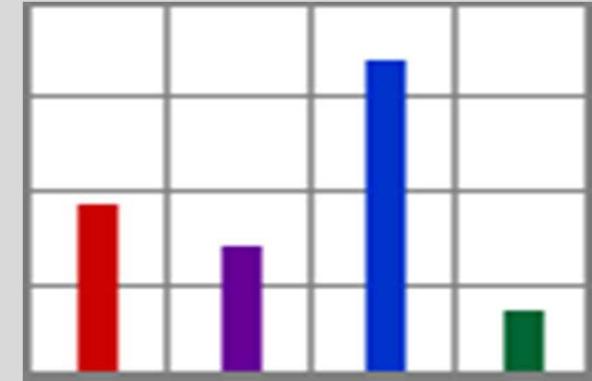
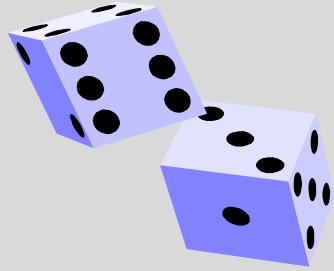


Normal distributions characterization

- If $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$, standard normal distribution.
- Given a normal random variable X with mean μ and standard deviation σ , if we define another random variable

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

then the random variable Z have a standard normal distribution



DRAWING FROM VARIOUS STATISTICAL DISTRIBUTIONS

Normal distribution

```
close all
N = 500;          % Numero de puntos generados
m = 3;            % Media de la distribucion
s = 2;            % Desv. tipica de la distribucion

x=randn(1,N);    % Datos
x=s*x+m;

I = m-3*s:s/5:m+3*s;        % Curva pdf gaussiana
h=normpdf(I,m,s);

p=hist(x,I);              % Histograma obtenido a
partir de x
p=p/N*sum(h);             % Cambio de escala

bar(I,p);hold on;
plot(I,h,'r','LineWidth',3);hold off;
```

Normal distribution N(0,1)

```
close all
suma = randn(1,10000);

intervalo = -5:0.1:5;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo); a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=normpdf(intervalo,0,1); a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Normal distribution $N(\mu,\sigma)$

```
close all
m = 3;
s = 2;
suma = m + s*randn(1,10000);

intervalo = -5*s:s/10:5*s;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo); a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=normpdf(intervalo,m,s); a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing of a distribution $\chi^2(N)$ from N distributions $N(0,1)$

```
close all
% La suma de N normales N(0,1) al cuadrado
% es una chi2 con N grados de libertad
%
=====
 ==
N = 10;
suma=sum(randn(N,10000).^2);

intervalo = 0:0.1:30;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo); a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=chi2pdf(intervalo,N); a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing of a distribution $\chi^2(N)$ from N distributions $N(0,\sigma)$

% La suma de N normales $N(0,v)$ es una $\chi^2(N)$
% $Y = (v*X1)^2 + (v*X2)^2 + (v*X3)^2$
% $\Rightarrow Y/(v*v)$ es una $\chi^2(3)$
%

=====

```
close all
N = 10;
v = 2;
suma=sum ((v*randn(N,10000)).^2);
suma = suma/(v*v);

intervalo = 0:0.1:30;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=chi2pdf(intervalo,N);
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing of a distribution $\chi^2(N)$ from N distributions $N(\mu, \sigma)$

```
% La suma de N normales N(mu,v) es una chi2(N) no centrada
con
%
% parametro delta = N*mu*mu/(v*v)
% Y = (v*X1+mu)^2 + (v*X2+mu)^2 + (v*X3+mu)^2
=>
%
% Y/(v*v) es una ncx2 con 3 grados de libertad
Y
%
% con delta=3*mu*mu/v/v
%
=====
N = 10;
mu = 4;
v = 2;
suma = sum( (mu+v*randn(N,10000)).^2 );
suma=suma/(v*v);

intervalo = 0:400;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=ncx2pdf(intervalo,N,N*mu^2/(v*v));
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing a distribution F(m, n)

```
% La suma de :  
%      (N normales al cuadrado dividido por N) /  
%      (M normales al cuadrado dividido por M)  
%      es una F con M y N grados de libertad  
%  
%  
%      (X1^2 + X2^2 + X3^2)/3  
%      Y= ----- => Y es una  
%      F(3,2)  
%  
%      (X4^2 + X5^2)/2  
N = 50;  
M = 5;  
sumal=sum(randn(N,10000).^2);  
suma2=sum(randn(M,10000).^2);  
suma=(sumal/N)./(suma2./M);  
  
intervalo = 0:0.1:10;  
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);    a1=a1/sum(a1);  
a2=fpdf(intervalo,N,M);    a2=a2/sum(a2);  
  
plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;  
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing a t-Student

```
% Si x y s son la media y desv. standard de una muestra de tamaño n
% obtenida de una N(mu,sigmacuadrado=n), entonces (x-mu)/s tiene una
% distribucion t de Student con n-1 grados de libertad

close all
N = 20000;           % Numero de puntos generados
n = 5;                % Tamaño de la muestra

datos = sqrt(n) * randn(n,N);
x = mean(datos);
s = std(datos);

I = -5:0.1:5;          % Curva pdf

h1=tpdf(I,n-1);

h2=normpdf(I,0,1);

p=hist(x,I);           % Histograma t-Student obtenido a partir de x
p=p/N*sum(h);          % Cambio de escala

bar(I,p);hold on;
plot(I,h1,'r','LineWidth',3);
plot(I,h2,'g','LineWidth',3);
hold off;
title('Rojo = t-Student , Verde=Normal')
```

Drawing a $\chi^2(N)$ for passage to the limit ($M \rightarrow \infty$)

```
% El limite, cuando M tiende a infinito, de la suma de :  
%   (N normales al cuadrado dividido por N) /  
%   (M normales al cuadrado dividido por M),  
%   todo ello multiplicado por N  
%   cuando M tiende a infinito  
%   es una chi2 con N grados de libertad  
  
%  
%           lim      (X1^2 + X2^2 + X3^2)/3  
%   Y=----- => Y es una chi2  
%   con 3 grados  
%           M->Inf    (X4^2 + X5^2 + ...XM^2)/M  
  
N = 5;  
M = 500; % Aproximacion a Infinito  
sumal=sum(randn(N,10000).^2);  
suma2=sum(randn(M,10000).^2);  
suma = N*(sumal/N)./(suma2./M);  
  
intervalo = 0:0.1:20;  
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);  
a1=a1/sum(a1);  
a2=chi2pdf(intervalo,N);  
a2=a2/sum(a2);  
  
plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;  
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing a $\chi^2(N, \delta)$ not centered

```
% La suma de N normales al cuadrado, de media mu,  
% es una chi2 no central con N grados de libertad,  
Y  
% parametro delta = N * mu * mu  
%  
% Y = (X1+mu)^2 + (X2+mu)^2 + (X3+mu)^2 =>  
% => Y es una ncx2 con 3 grados de lib. y delta  
= 3*mu*mu  
  
%=====  
N = 10;  
mu = 4;  
suma = sum( (mu+randn(N,10000)).^2 );  
  
intervalo = 0:400;  
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);  
a1=a1/sum(a1);  
a2=ncx2pdf(intervalo,N,N*mu^2);  
a2=a2/sum(a2);  
  
plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;  
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing a $F(m,n, \delta)$ not centered

```
% La suma de :
%
%      (N normales al cuadrado de media mul dividido por N) /
%
%      (M normales al cuadrado dividido por M),
%
%      es una F no central con M y N grados de libertad, y delta=N*mul^2
%
%
%      (X1^2 + X2^2 + X3^2)/3
Y=  -----
%
%      (Y1^2 + Y2^2 + ...YM^2)/M
%
%=> Y es una ncf con 3 y M grados de libertad, y delta = 3*M*M,
%
=====
N = 3;
M = 10;
mul=2;
suma1=sum((mul+randn(N,10000)).^2);
suma2=sum(randn(M,10000).^2);
suma = (suma1/N)./(suma2./M);

intervalo = 0:0.1:25;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=ncfpdf(intervalo,N,M,N*mul*mul);
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Drawing a $\chi^2(N, \delta)$ not centered by passage to
 $(M \rightarrow \infty)$ of $F(N, M, \delta)$ not centered



```

% El limite, cuando M tiende a infinito, de la suma de :
% (N normales al cuadrado de media mul y varia v1 dividido por N) /
% (M normales al cuadrado dividido por M),
% todo ello multiplicado por N
% cuando M tiende a infinito
% es una "ncx2" con M y N grados de libertad, y delta=N*mul^2
%
%           lim      (X1^2 + X2^2 + X3^2)/3
% Y=      -----
%          M->Inf    (X4^2 + X5^2 + ...XM^2)/M
%
% => Y es una ncx2 con 3 grados de libertad, y delta=3*mul*mul,
%
=====
N = 3;
M = 500; % Aproximacion a infinito
mul=2;
sumal=sum((mul+randn(N,10000)).^2 );
suma2=sum(randn(M,10000).^2 );
suma = (sumal/N)./(suma2./M) * N;

intervalo = 0:50;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=ncx2pdf(intervalo,N,N*mul*mul);
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;

```

Step to limit the ncf = < ncx

```
% demo 9: El limite, cuando M tiende a infinito, de la suma de :
%           (N normales al cuadrado de media mu1 y varia v1 dividido por N) /
%           (M normales al cuadrado de media mu2 y varia v2),
% todo ello multiplicado por N
% cuando M tiende a infinito
% es una "ncx2" con M y N grados de libertad, y delta=N*mu1^2
%
%           lim      ((mu1+v1*X1)^2 + (mu1+v1*X2)^2 + (mu1+v1*X3)^2)/3
% Y=          -----
%           M->Inf   ((mu2+v2*X4)^2 + (mu2+v2*X5)^2 + ...+(mu2+v2*XM)^2)/M
%
% => Y es una ncx2 con 3 grados de libertad, y delta=3*mu1*mu1,
%
% =====
%
% =====
% !!!!! SOLO FUNCIONA SI mu2 ES IGUAL A 0 !!!!!!!
% =====
N = 3;
M = 200;
mu1=3;
mu2=0;
v1=2;
v2=5;
sumal=0;
for i=1:N,
    sumal=sumal + (mu1+v1*randn(1,10000)).^2;
end;

suma2=0;
for i=1:M,
    suma2= suma2 + (mu2+v2*randn(1,10000)).^2;
end;

if mu2~=0,
    disp('Este caso aun no lo he resuelto');
end;

suma = (sumal/N)./(suma2./M) * N /v1/v1*v2*v2;

intervalo = 0:0.25:25;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=ncx2pdf(intervalo,N,N*mu1*mu1/v1/v1);
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```

Step to limit the ncf = < ncx

```
% demo 10: El limite, cuando M tiende a infinito, de la suma de :
%           (N normales al cuadrado de media mu1 y varia v1 dividido por N) /
%           (M normales al cuadrado de media mu2 y varia v2),
% todo ello multiplicado por N
% cuando M tiende a infinito
% es una "ncx2" con M y N grados de libertad, y delta=N*mu1^2
%
%   lim      ((mu1+v1*X1)^2 + (mu1+v1*X2)^2 + (mu1+v1*X3)^2)/3
% Y=  -----
%       M->Inf   ((mu2+v2*X4)^2 + (mu2+v2*X5)^2 + ...+(mu2+v2*XM)^2)/M
%
% => Y es una ncx2 con 3 grados de libertad, y delta=3*mu1*mu1,
%
% =====
N = 3;
M = 200;
mu1=3;
mu2=0.5;
v1=12;
v2=1;
sumal=0;
for i=1:N,
    sumal=sumal + (mu1+v1*randn(1,10000)).^2;
end;

suma2=0;
for i=1:M,
    suma2= suma2 + (mu2+v2*randn(1,10000)).^2;
end;

if mu2~=0,
    disp('Este caso aun no lo he resuelto');
end;

suma = (sumal/N)./(suma2./M) * N /v1/v1*v2*v2;

intervalo = 0:0.25:25;
a1=hist(suma,intervalo);
a1=a1/sum(a1);
a2=ncx2pdf(intervalo,N,N*( (mu1/v1)^2+(v2/mu2)^2));
a2=a2/sum(a2);

plot(intervalo,a1);hold on;
plot(intervalo,a2,'r');hold on;
```