

## R-Based Probability Distributions

### General Comments

When a parameter name is followed by an equal sign, the value given is the default.

Consider a random variable that has the range,  $a \leq x \leq b$ . The parameter, `lower.tail`, when `TRUE` means that the cumulative distribution function is to be interpreted as running from  $a$  to some specified value of  $x = x'$ . When the parameter is `FALSE` the cumulative distribution function is to be interpreted as running from  $x'$  to  $b$ .

Probability density functions all start with the letter  $d$ . Example, `dbinom()`.

Cumulative distribution functions all start with the letter  $p$ . Example, `pnorm()`.

Inverse cumulative distribution functions all start with the letter  $q$  (which is short for quantile).  
Example, `qt()`.

Random number generators all start with the letter  $r$ . Example, `runif()`.

Full examples of function names are given under **Binomial**.

### Available Distributions

Enter `?Distributions` to get a complete listing. Common distributions in chemical data processing are:

**binomial:** `binom()`, occurs when an experiment has two outcomes, e.g. success or failure. It deals with the distribution of successes out of a specified number of trials. The random variable is discrete. An example is solvent extraction.

**Cauchy (Lorentzian):** `cauchy()`, occurs when observing spectroscopic line shapes, or the Fourier transform of a free-induction decay.

**exponential:** `exp()`, results from a first order process.

**F-statistic:** `f()`, occurs when comparing two experimental variances.

**normal (Gaussian):** `norm()`, the bell-shaped curve that represents the distribution of thermal noise.

**Poisson:** `pois()`, the distribution of counting data. The random variable is discrete.

**t-statistic:** `t()`, occurs when comparing data normalized by the experimental standard deviation.

**uniform:** `unif()`, occurs when a random variable has a constant probability over its entire range, e.g. rolling a die. The random variable can be discrete or continuous.

## Binomial

This *discrete* density function is given by,

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

where  $x$  is the number of successes,  $n$  is the number of trials (called *size* in R), and  $p$  is the probability of observing a success. The range of the random variable is  $0 \leq x \leq n$ . In R the factorial term is given by the strangely-named function, `choose(n, x)`. The mean is given by  $np$  and the variance by  $np(1-p)$ .

In the following function calls, the notation ... signifies that there are less commonly used parameters.

`dbinom(x, size, probability, ...)`,  $x$  is the number of successes, `size` is the number of trials, and `probability` is the probability of observing a success. As an example, `dbinom(5, 10, 0.5)` is the probability of observing 5 heads when tossing a coin 10 times.

`pbinom(q, size, probability)`, the probability of observing 0 to  $q$  successes out of `size` tries, where `probability` is the probability of observing a success. As an example, `pbinom(5, 10, 0.5)` is the probability of observing 0 through 5 heads when tossing a coin ten times.

`qbinom(p, size, probability)`, the value of  $q$  required so that observing 0 to  $q$  successes has a probability of  $p$ . Again, `size` is the number of tries and `probability` is the probability of observing a success. As an example, `q <- qbinom(0.5, 10, 0.5)` yields  $q = 5$  where the range 0 to 5 successes is observed with a 0.5 probability, when tossing a coin 10 times.

`rbinom(n, size, probability)`, generates  $n$  random successes ranging from 0 to `size` in value, when `probability` is the probability of a success. As an example, `rbinom(8, 10, 0.5)` yields, (6, 8, 5, 4, 4, 5, 5, 6) which is the number of heads observed for each of 8 replications of an experiment where a coin is tossed ten times.

## Cauchy

This *continuous* density function is given by,

$$f(x, \mu, \Gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Gamma/2}{(\Gamma/2)^2 + (x - \mu)^2}$$

where  $x$  is the random variable,  $\mu$  is the mean,  $\Gamma$  is the full-width-at-half-maximum (FWMH or peak width). The mean is  $\mu$ . The distribution does not have a finite variance.

`dcauchy(x, location=0, scale=1, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable, `location` is  $\mu$  in the above equation, and `scale` is  $\Gamma/2$ .

All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## Exponential

This *continuous* density function has two common forms,

$$f(x, \lambda) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x) \quad f(t, \tau) = (1/\tau) \exp(-t/\tau)$$

where  $x$  or  $t$  are the random variable,  $1/\lambda$  (or  $\tau$ ) is the mean and  $1/\lambda^2$  (or  $\tau^2$ ) is the variance.

Chemists usually call  $\lambda$  the rate constant and  $\tau$  the lifetime, where  $\lambda = 1/\tau$ .

Note:  $0 \leq x, t \leq \infty$ .

`dexp(x, rate=1, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable and rate is  $\lambda$ .

All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## F-Statistic

This *continuous* density has the form,

$$f(x, \phi_1, \phi_2) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\phi_1 + \phi_2}{2}\right)}{\Gamma(\phi_1/2)\Gamma(\phi_2/2)} \left(\frac{\phi_1}{\phi_2}\right)^{\frac{\phi_1}{2}} x^{\frac{\phi_1-2}{2}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{\phi_1}{\phi_2}\right)x\right)^{-\frac{\phi_1 + \phi_2}{2}}$$

where  $x$  is the random variable,  $\phi_1$  is the numerator degrees of freedom, and  $\phi_2$  is the denominator degrees of freedom.  $\Gamma()$  is the gamma function (in R, `gamma()`).

The mean and variance are of little importance. Note: since variances are positive,  $0 \leq x \leq \infty$ .

`df(x, df1, df2, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable, `df1` is the numerator degrees of freedom, and `df2` is the denominator degrees of freedom.

All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## Normal (Gaussian)

This *continuous* density has the form,

$$f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

where  $x$  is the continuous random variable,  $\mu$  is the mean, and  $\sigma^2$  is the variance.

`dnorm(x, mean=0, sd=1, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable, `mean` is the mean, and `sd` is the standard deviation.

All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## Poisson

This *discrete* Poisson or counting density has the form,

$$f(x, \mu) = \frac{\mu^x}{x!} \exp(-\mu)$$

where  $x$  is the random variable,  $\mu$  is the mean *and* variance. Note:  $0 \leq x \leq \infty$ .

`dpois(x, lambda, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable and `lambda` is the mean.  
All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## t-Statistic

This *continuous* density has the form,

$$f(x, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\phi\pi}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\phi+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\phi}\right)^{-\frac{\phi+1}{2}}$$

where  $x$  is the random variable and  $\phi$  is the degrees of freedom. The mean and variance are of little importance.  $\Gamma$  is the gamma function (not the gamma density!).

`dt(x, df, ...)`,  $x$  is the random variable and `df` is the degrees of freedom.  
All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## Uniform

The *discrete* and *uniform* density functions both have the form,

$$f(x, a, b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

where  $x$  is the random variable over the range,  $a < x \leq b$ . For a discrete variable it is important that the lower bound,  $a$ , is not included. This distinction makes no difference with a continuous random variable since  $<$  and  $\leq$  are only off by the infinitely small amount,  $dx$ . The means are  $(b+a+1)/2$  for discrete and  $(b+a)/2$  for continuous distributions. The variances are  $[(b-a)^2 - 1]/12$  for discrete and  $(b-a)^2/12$  for continuous.

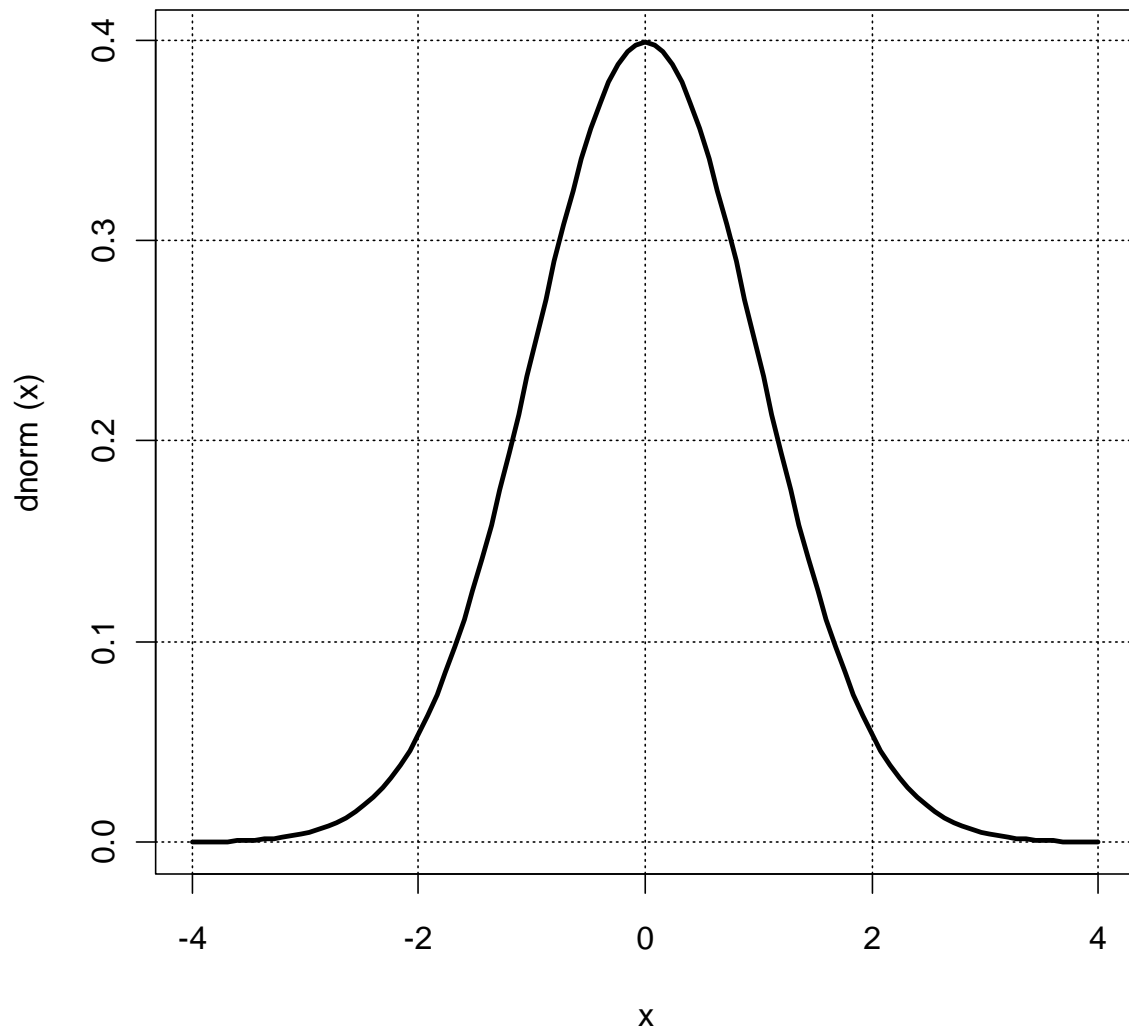
`dunif(x, min=0, max=1, ...)`, where  $x$  is the *continuous* random variable, `min` is  $a$ , and `max` is  $b$ .

All other functions follow the form given under **Binomial**.

## Visualizing the Density Functions

For *continuous* density functions a quick and dirty way to visualize them is to use the `curve()` function. For example,

```
curve(dnorm, -4, 4, lwd=3)  
grid(col='black')
```



For *discrete* density functions use the `barplot()` function. For example,

```
x <- 0:20
p <- dpois(x, 5)
barplot(p, names.arg=as.character(x))
abline(h=c(0.05, 0.10, 0.15), lty=3, col='black')
```

