

Lecture 1: Jan 5. Review of random variables Ross 4.2-4.5, 5.1-5.2

1.1 Definitions

- (i) **Definition:** A random variable X is a real-valued function on the sample space.
- (ii) **Definition:** A random variable X is *discrete* if it can take only a discrete set of values.
- (iii) **Definition:** A *continuous* random variable X is one that takes values in $(-\infty, \infty)$. That is, in principle. In practice, some values may be impossible.

1.2 Examples

- (i) Discrete (finite): the number of heads in 10 tosses of a fair coin.
- (ii) Discrete (countable): the number of traffic accidents in a large city in a year.
- (iii) Continuous (bounded range): A random number between a and b : values in the interval (a, b) .
- (iv) Continuous (unbounded range): The waiting time until the bus arrives: values in $(0, \infty)$.

1.3 Probability mass function (pmf) or density (pdf)

- (i) **Definition:** The *probability mass function* (p.m.f.) of a discrete random variable X is the set of probabilities $P(X = x)$ for each of the values $x \in \mathcal{X}$ that X can take.
- (ii) $P(X = x) \geq 0$ for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $\sum_x P(X = x) = 1$ where the sum is over all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- (iii) **Definition:** The *probability density function* (p.d.f.) of a continuous random variable X is a non-negative function f_X defined for all values x in $(-\infty, \infty)$ such that for any subset B for which $X \in B$ is an event

$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f_X(x) dx$$

- (iv) X takes some value in $(-\infty, \infty)$ so

$$1 = P(-\infty < X < \infty) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx$$

1.4 Examples

- (i) Example (i): *Binomial*: $B(10, \frac{1}{2})$. $P(X = x) = \binom{10}{x} (1/2)^{10}$ for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 10$.
- (ii) Example (ii): *Poisson*: $Po(\mu)$ mean μ . $P(X = x) = \exp(-\mu)\mu^x/x!$ for $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$.
- (iii) Example (iii): *Uniform p.d.f.*

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{(b-a)} \text{ for } a \leq x \leq b \text{ and } f_X(x) = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

- (iv) Example (iv): *Exponential p.d.f.*

$$f_X(x) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x) \text{ for } x \geq 0 \text{ and } f_X(x) = 0 \text{ if } x < 0.$$

1.5 Expectations of (functions of) random variables

- (i) Discrete case (Ross, 4.3):

If X is discrete with p.m.f. $P(X = x) = p_X(x) > 0$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$, the *expected value* of X denoted $E(X)$ is $E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x p_X(x)$, provided this sum exists and is finite.

- (ii) Continuous case (Ross 5.2)

If X is continuous with p.d.f. $f_X(x)$, $f_X(x) \geq 0$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$. the *expected value* of X denoted $E(X)$ is $E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$, provided this integral exists and is finite. (Note $f_X(x) dx \approx P(x < X \leq x+dx)$.)

- (iii) Functions of a random variable:

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x)p_X(x) \text{ (discrete), or } E(g(X)) = \int_x g(x)f_X(x) dx \text{ (continuous).}$$

- (iv) Variance: If $E(X) = \mu$, $\text{var}(X) = E(X - \mu)^2$. In fact, $\text{var}(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$. Note $\text{var}(X) \geq 0$.

Lecture 2: Jan 7. Review of Continuous random variables Ross 5.3-5.

2.1 The probability density function: definition and basic properties.

(i) For a subset of the real line B :

$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f_X(x) dx$$

(ii) In fact, events can be made up of unions and intersections of intervals of the form $(a, b]$:

$$P(a < X \leq b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$$

(iii) Note the value at the boundary does not matter:

$$P(X = a) = \int_a^a f_X(x) dx = 0 \quad \text{for any continuous random variable.}$$

(iv) Note: $f_X(x) = 0$ is possible for some x -values (see the p.m.f).

For example, if $X \geq 0$ (as in the waiting-time example), $f(x) = 0$, if $x < 0$.

2.2 The cumulative distribution function of X is

$$F_X(x) = P(-\infty < X \leq x)$$

The cdf is defined for any random variable, but it is most useful for continuous random variables. In this case

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(z) dz \quad \text{and} \quad f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x)$$

2.3 The Uniform distribution on (a, b) .

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(b-a)} \quad \text{for } a \leq x \leq b \quad \text{and } f(x) = 0 \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

If $a = 0$ and $b = 1$, $f_X(x) = 1$ and $F_X(x) = x$ on $0 < x < 1$. $E(X) = 1/2$, $\text{var}(X) = 1/12$.

2.4 The exponential distribution with rate parameter λ : $\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$.

$$f(x) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x) \quad \text{for } x \geq 0 \quad \text{and } f(x) = 0 \quad \text{if } x < 0.$$

$F_X(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda x)$ for $x > 0$. $E(X) = 1/\lambda$, $\text{var}(X) = 1/\lambda^2$.

2.5 The Normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

$E(X) = \mu$. $\text{var}(X) = \sigma^2$.

If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $(X - \mu)/\sigma \sim N(0, 1)$.

2.6 Location and scale

(i) A location parameter a shifts a probability density: the pdf is a function of $(x - a)$. For example, we can shift a uniform $U(0, 1)$ pdf to a uniform $U(a, a + 1)$ pdf. If $X \sim U(0, 1)$, $Y = a + X \sim U(a, a + 1)$.

(ii) A scale parameter stretches (or shrinks) a probability density. For example, to transform a Uniform $U(0, 1)$ density to a Uniform $U(a, b)$, we shift by a and scale by $(b - a)$. If $X \sim U(0, 1)$, $Y = a + (b - a)X \sim U(a, b)$.

(iii) The parameter λ^{-1} of an exponential random variable is also a scale parameter.

If $X \sim \mathcal{E}(\lambda)$, then $\lambda X \sim \mathcal{E}(1)$.

If $X \sim \mathcal{E}(\lambda)$, then $Y = kX \sim \mathcal{E}(\lambda/k)$.

(iv) A Normal random variable has both location μ and scale σ .

If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $(X - \mu)/\sigma \sim N(0, 1)$.

If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $Y = aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$.

Lecture 3; Jan 9. Review of the Bernoulli process

3.1: The process

0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1: Each *trial* is *success* (1) or not (0).
 $X_1 X_2 X_3 X_4 \dots$... $X_{25} \dots$: Each X_i is 0 or 1.
 $\dots T_5 \dots T_{10} \dots T_{15} \dots T_{20} \dots T_{25}$: $T_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$
 $- - - Y_1 - - - - Y_2 Y_3 - - Y_4 - - - - - - - - Y_5 - - Y_6 - - - Y_7$: Y_r is r th inter-arrival time
 $\dots W_1 \dots W_2 W_3 \dots W_4 \dots W_5 \dots W_6 \dots W_7$: W_r is total waiting time to r th 1.

The Bernoulli process is defined by X_i independent, with $P(X_i = 1) = p$ and $P(X_i = 0) = (1 - p)$.

$T_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ is number of *successes* (i.e. 1s) in first n trials.

Y_r is the *inter-arrival time*: number of trials from $(r - 1)$ th success to r th.

$W_r = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_r$ is number of trials to r th. success.

$Y_r^* = Y_r - 1$: number of failures (0) before next success (1).

$W_r^* = Y_1^* + \dots + Y_r^*$: number of failures (0) before r th success. **Note:** $W_r > n$ if and only if $T_n < r$.

3.2: Bernoulli and Binomial random variables Ross 4.6

(i) X_i is Bernoulli(p). $P(X_i = 1) = p$, $P(X_i = 0) = (1 - p)$.

$$E(X_i) = p \times 1 + (1 - p) \times 0 = p$$

$$E(X_i^2) = p \times 1^2 + (1 - p) \times 0^2 = p, \text{ so } \text{var}(X_i) = E(X_i^2) - (E(X_i))^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p).$$

$T_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ is Binomial (n, p) .

The probability of each sequence of k 1's and $(n - k)$ 0's is $p^k(1 - p)^{n-k}$ and there are $\binom{n}{k}$ such sequences.

$$P(T_n = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}.$$

Expectations always add: $E(T_n) = E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n) = p + p + \dots + p = np$.

In general variances do NOT add, but here they do: $\text{var}(T_n) = \text{var}(X_1) + \dots + \text{var}(X_n) = np(1 - p)$.

3.3: Geometric and Negative Binomial random variables Ross 4.8.1, 4.8.2

Y_r are independent, and have Geometric (p) distribution: $P(Y = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p$, for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$E(Y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1 - p)^{k-1} p = p / (1 - (1 - p))^2 = 1/p. \text{ var}(Y) = (1 - p) / p^2.$$

$Y^* = (Y - 1)$, $P(Y^* = k) = (1 - p)^k p$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$E(Y_r^*) = E(Y) - 1 = (1 - p) / p$, $\text{var}(Y^*) = \text{var}(Y)$. (Recall $E(aY + b) = aE(Y) + b$ and $\text{var}(aY + b) = a^2 \text{var}(Y)$).

$W_r = Y_1 + \dots + Y_r$. Expectations add, so $E(W_r) = r/p$. Again the variances do add, $\text{var}(W_r) = r(1 - p) / p^2$.

$$P(W_r = k) = P(r - 1 \text{ successes in } k - 1 \text{ trials, and then success}) = \binom{k - 1}{r - 1} (1 - p)^{k-r} p^{r-1} p \text{ for } k = r, r + 1, \dots$$

$W_r^* = W_r - r$, $E(W_r^*) = E(W_r) - r$, $\text{var}(W_r^*) = \text{var}(W_r)$

$$P(W_r^* = k) = P(r - 1 \text{ successes in } r + k - 1 \text{ trials, and then success}) = \binom{r + k - 1}{r - 1} (1 - p)^k p^{r-1} p$$

for $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

3.4 A reminder about the hypergeometric distribution Ross 4.8.3

Example: the number of red fish, in sampling n fish without replacement, from a pond in which there are N fish of which m are red.

$$P(X = x) = \binom{m}{x} \binom{N - m}{n - x} / \binom{N}{n} \text{ for } x = \max(0, m + n - N), \dots, \min(m, n).$$

Lecture 4; Jan 12. Introduction to the Poisson process Ross 4.7, 9.1

4.1 The process

Events occur *randomly and independently* in time, at rate λ .

More formally: the numbers of events N in disjoint time intervals are independent, and the probability distribution of the number of events $N(\ell)$ in an interval depends only on its length, ℓ . Additionally, $P(N(h) = 1) = \lambda h + o(h)$, $P(N(h) \geq 2) = o(h)$.

4.2 The waiting time T to an event

The waiting time T to an event is $> s$, if there are no events in $(0, s)$. That is $P(T > s) = P(N(s) = 0) \equiv P_0(s)$.

$$\begin{aligned}P_0(s+h) &= P_0(s) \times P_0(h) = P_0(s)(1 - \lambda h - o(h)) \\P_0(s+h) - P_0(s) &= -\lambda h P_0(s) + o(h) \\dP_0/P_0 &= -\lambda ds \quad \text{or} \quad \log(P_0) = -\lambda s \quad \text{with} \quad P_0(0) = 1 \\ \text{So } P(T > s) &= P_0(s) = \exp(-\lambda s) \\ \text{So } F_T(s) &= P(T \leq s) = 1 - P(T > s) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda s) \\ \text{So } f_T(s) &= F'_T(s) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda s) \quad \text{on} \quad 0 < s < \infty\end{aligned}$$

That is, regardless of where we start waiting, the waiting time to an event is exponential with rate parameter λ . Recall the “forgetting property” of the exponential: $P(T > t + s | T > t) = P(T > s)$.

4.3 The number of events $N(s)$ in a time interval length s

Let $N(s)$ be the number of events in interval $(0, s)$ and $P_n(s) = P(N(s) = n)$.

Note from 4.2, $P_0(s) = P(T > s) = \exp(-\lambda s)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}P_n(s+h) &= P_n(s)(1 - \lambda h - o(h)) + P_{n-1}(s)(\lambda h + o(h)) + o(h) \\P_n(s+h) - P_n(s) &= \lambda h(P_{n-1}(s) - P_n(s)) + o(h) \\P'_n(s) &= \lambda(P_{n-1}(s) - P_n(s)) \quad \text{letting } h \rightarrow 0\end{aligned}$$

Hence from $P_0(s) = \exp(-\lambda s)$ we could determine P_1, P_2, \dots

Instead, consider $q_n(s) = \exp(-\lambda s)(\lambda s)^n/n!$.

Then $q'_n(s) = \exp(-\lambda s)\lambda^n n s^{n-1}/n! - \lambda \exp(-\lambda s)(\lambda s)^n/n! = \lambda(q_{n-1}(s) - q_n(s))$.

That is, $P_n(s) \equiv q_n(s)$. That is $N(s)$ is a Poisson random variable with mean λs .

4.4 The conditional distribution of times of events

Suppose we know exactly 1 event occurred in $(0, s)$. At what time T did it occur?

This is a continuous random variable: $P(T = t) = 0$ for every t .

Instead consider the cdf $P(T \leq t)$:

$$\begin{aligned}F_T(t) &= P(T \leq t | N(s) = 1) = P(T \leq t \cap N(s) = 1) / P(N(s) = 1) \\ &= P_1(t)P_0(s-t) / P_1(s) = (\lambda t \exp(-\lambda t)) \exp(-\lambda(s-t)) / (\lambda s \exp(-\lambda s)) = t/s\end{aligned}$$

So $F_T(t) = t/s$ on $0 < t < s$, or $f_T(t) = 1/s$, $0 < t < s$.

That is T is uniform on the interval $(0, s)$.