

UNIT 1

Part 1

UNIT - I : Probability

(2) copies

Syllabus :-

1. probability introduced through sets and relative frequency
2. Experiments, sample spaces - Discrete, continuous sample spaces
3. Events
4. probability definitions and Axioms
5. Mathematical model of experiments
6. probability as a relative frequency
7. joint probability
8. conditional probability
9. total probability
10. Bayes theorem
11. Independent events
- * 12. Bernoulli trials.

Ch. RAJA

M.G.I.T.

1. Set definition Tableau rule
 2. Null set $(\emptyset) \uparrow$
 3. finite set | Empty set | void set (\emptyset)
 4. Infinite sets
 5. Subset, proper subset, superset
 $(A \subseteq B)$ $(A \subset B)$ $(B), A$
 6. mutually exclusive sets (No common elements)
or (Disjoint sets)
 7. Universal set
 8. Singleton set or elementary set
 9. Countable set
 10. Uncountable set
- 27/06/08

1. Set operations
 - ① E, d
 - ② $\cup \cap \setminus$
 - ③ complement
2. Algebra of sets
 - C.L
 - A.L
 - D.L
 - Demorgan's law
 - Duality principle

§ Terminology associated with probability theory :-

- ① Experiment
- ② outcome, event
- ③ Random experiment

↳ Occurrence

↳ Equally Likely Events

↳ Mutually Exclusive Events

↳ Exhaustive Events

Independent Events ?

Two events are

said to be independent, if happening or failure

of one does not affect the happening or failure

of the other.

otherwise, the events are said to be Dependent.

a) Sample Space:

b) Discrete Sample Space

c) Continuous Sample Space

① Relative frequency definition

② Classical or coincident definition

③ Axioms of probability

PROBABILITY AND RANDOM VARIABLES

EC 2103

4 credits

(COMMON FOR ECE & BME)

IInd B.Tech(ECE) I-Sem

UNIT - I

- { Concept of probability
- { Random variables : Discrete and continuous
- { Probability distribution and density functions
- { Functions of random variables
- { Joint and conditional probability density functions
- { Examples of probability density functions.
- { Gaussian and Rayleigh density functions.

Books to be followed

1. probability, Random variables & Random signal principles
- Peyton Z. Peebles, TMH, 4th Ed.
2. probability, Random variables and stochastic processes
- Papoulis & Unnikrishnan
PHI, 4th edition
3. Communication systems Analog & Digital
- R.P. Singh & S.D. Sopre, TMH
4. Statistical Theory of communication
- S.P. Eugene Xavier, New Age publications, 2002
-
- 8.5. probability, statistics and Random processes.
- K. Murugesan Anuradha publications
- P. Guruswamy publications
- 8.6. probability, Random Variables & Random processes
HWEI
- Hwei Hsu
- Tata McGrawHill
- 8.7. signals, systems & communications
- B.P. Lathi, B.S. Publications, 2002
8. probability methods of signal and system analysis
- R. Cooper, D.C. Gilem, Oxford, 3rd edition, 1999
9. probability and Random processes with Applications to signal processing - Harry Stark and John W. Woods Pearson Edition, 3rd edition

f) Introduction, Applications.

f) Deterministic phenomena or predictable phenomena

f) probabilistic phenomena or unpredictable phenomena.

f) Experiments or (Trial)

f) event or outcome

f) Random Experiment

f) Random Signal.

f) Random Variable

Set Theory
probability def ←
relative freq

SET DEFINITIONS

1. Set + content

Tabular method [Roster method]

Rule method [property method]
[(set or collection)

2. Countable and uncountable sets

or aggregate or class

3. Empty or null set (\emptyset)

Element of Object
or member

4. finite and infinite sets

5. Proper sets and Subsets
 $(A \subset B)$

sets

6. Mutually Exclusive or disjoint

7. Universal set or sample set or Sample Space

SET OPERATIONS

(products)

i) Union and Intersection

ii) Equality and difference

iii) Complement

Algebra of sets

i) Commutative law

4) De Morgan's Law

§ Occurrence

§ Equally likely events

§ mutually exclusive events

§ Exhaustive Events

§ probability definition

Relative frequency or A posteriori probability

classical definition or A priori probability

§ Axioms of probability

§ Some useful laws of probability

§ Joint probability

§ Conditional probability

§ Total probability

§ Bayes theorem

§ ~~Some~~ Independent Events

§ problems on probability

§ problems on Bayes theorem

§ previous question paper problems

→ ← ~~new~~ ← →

{ Mathematical model of Experiments

{ Joint probability (Addition theorem)

→ problems on dice

{ Conditional probability (Multiplication theorem or chain rule)

s Random Variable \leftarrow Definition
Example

p conditions for a function to be a random variable

p types of Random Variables

{ discrete

{ continuous

{ mixed

{ probability distribution function CDF
of discrete R.V.

CDF

↓
Cumulative D.F

{ continuity & PDF (properties)

{ probability density function (pdf)
of discrete R.V

or probability mass function

{ properties of pdf

problems

Sum of two Random

Variables

distribution function $F_{X+Y}(x,y)$

{ Joint probability

density function $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$

{ Joint probability

conditional probability distribution function

conditional probability

density function

statistical Independence

joint function

Experiment : Any process or observation is referred to be experiment.

Outcome : The results of an observation are called outcome or end result of the experiment. is called outcome.

Random Experiment : An experiment whose outcome is not known in advance is called random experiment.

or
whose outcome cannot be predicted
Eq: Roll of a die, toss of a coin,
drawing a card from a deck,
selecting a message signal for transmission
from several messages

Random Event : Is an outcome or set of outcomes at a random experiment.

Event : Set of possible outcomes. / set of outcomes

REFERENCE Books :-

(6)

1. principles of communication systems
→ by Taub and Schilling (TMH)
2. communication systems by A.B. Carlson (McGraw-Hill)
3. Electronic Communication Systems,
by Kennedy (TMH)
4. Statistical Theory of communication
New Age International publishers
by S.P. Eugene Xavier.
5. probability, Random Variables and Random
signal principles → by P.E. Peebles, (Mc-Graw Hill)

CONCEPT OF PROBABILITY :-

Introduction :-

If an experiment is repeated under essentially homogeneous and similar conditions, we generally come across two types of situations.

They are

1. The result or what is usually known as the outcome is unique or certain.
2. The result is not unique, but may be one of the several possible outcomes.

The phenomena covered by (i) are known as "deterministic" or "predictable" phenomena. By a deterministic phenomenon, we mean one in which the result can be predicted with certainty.

for Example : 1) for a perfect gas

$$V \propto \frac{1}{P} \text{ i.e. } PV = \text{const}$$

provided temperature remains the same

2) The velocity v of a particle after time t'

$$v \text{ is given by } v = u + at$$

where u is the initial velocity and a is the acceleration. This equation uniquely determines v , if the right-hand quantities are known.

3) Ohm's law $I = V/R$ or $E = IR$

V is the potential difference, I is the current, E is the

the conductor and R & the resistance, uniquely determines the value of C as soon as E and R are given.

A deterministic (approach) model is defined as a model which stipulates that the conditions under which an experiment is performed, and determine the outcome of the experiments. For number of situations the deterministic model suffice

However, the phenomena covered by ②, which do not lend themselves to deterministic approach are known as "unpredictable" or "probabilistic" phenomena. For example

- i) In tossing of ~~a~~ a coin, one of not ~~sure~~ sure if a head or tail will be obtained
- ii) If a light tube has lasted for t hours nothing can be said about its further life. It may fail to function any moment.

we often hear such statements

"It is likely to rain today"

"I have a fair chance of getting admission"

In each case we are not certain of the outcome, but we wish to assess the chances of our predictions coming true.

The "phrase" "probable" is often used

in our daily conversation, which means "Likely".

The probability of happening of an event means that the amount of Likelihood (chance) of the happening of that event.

Short History:- Galileo (1564-1642), an Italian mathematician, was the first to attempt at a quantitative measure of the probability, while dealing with some problems related to the theory of dice in gambling.

probability & diff Set Theory
Relative frequency

Random Signal :- Time waveform, which can be characterized only in some probabilistic

Random Variable Manner. In other words, random signal is a desired or undesired waveform.

Random Variable :- are the changing values of observation without any fixed expected time dependency.

Random Experiment :- An experiment, whose outcome is not known in advance.

Random Event :- Random event is an outcome or a set of outcomes of random experiment.

outcome :- The end result of an experiment.

Introduction :-

The application of probability calculations made human beings to do things with expectation. cyclons and other natural calamities are random events, which may be occurring many times without any previous indication. These events possibility can be guessed if these are observed in certain time period.

After the observation of wind movements, temperature, pressure and other meteorological data during various years the department can be able to assess the possibility of occurrence of atmospheric disturbance. To observe these similarities of all these data and to know the variations of the data, there should be certain mathematical principles, probability theory, correlation & signals, random signal analysis - all these help to access the problem.

This subject is needed for a communication engineer as he involved in the observation of random signal. Today as computer communication and other fields in communication, increased need, we are facing a problem of

Information measurement can be analysed
using probability theory developed by mathematicians

SET DEFINITIONS

SET— A set is defined as collection of objects.

The objects are called elements of set, and may be anything whatsoever. we may have a set of voltages, a set of airplanes, a set of chairs, or even set of sets. Sometimes called as class of sets. A set is usually denoted by a capital letters, while an element is represented by a lower case letter.

Thus, if "a" is an element of set "A", then

we write

$$a \in A,$$

if "a" is not an element of "A", we write

$$a \notin A$$

A set is specified by the content of two braces: $\{ \cdot \}$. Two methods exist for specifying content, 1) Tabular method and the 2) Rule method or Set Builder form

In the Tabular Method, the elements are enumerated explicitly. for example, the set of all the integers between 5 and 10 would be $\{6, 7, 8, 9\}$.

In the Rule method a set's content is given by some rule such as,

for example, $\{ \text{integers from 1 to 1000 inclusive} \}$
 would be cumbersome to write explicitly using
 the tabular method. The rule method is usually
 more convenient to use when the set is very large.

COUNTABLE SET \rightarrow A set is said to be countable if its elements can be put in one-to-one correspondence with the natural numbers, which are the integers 1, 2, 3, etc.

Uncountable Set \rightarrow If a set is not countable,

"Uncountable"
 It is called "Uncountable".

Empty Set or Null Set \rightarrow If the set has no elements, then it is called as Empty set or Null set. The empty set is represented by symbol " \emptyset ".

Finite Set \rightarrow A finite set is one that is either empty or has elements that can be counted, with the counting process terminating. In other words, it has a finite number of elements. Eg $\{ 1, 2, 3, 4 \}$

Infinite Set \rightarrow If a set is not finite, it is called "infinite" set. An infinite set having countable elements is called "countably infinite".

Eg: $\{ \text{integers} \}$

g Singleton set: A set contains only one element & called Singleton set

$$A = \{ a \}$$

Subset if every element of set "A" is also an element in another set "B", "A" is said to be contained in "B". "A" is known as subset of "B". and we write

$$A \subseteq B$$

$$A \{ 2, 3 \}$$

$$B \{ 2, 3, 4 \}$$

If at least one element exists in "B" which is not in A, then "A" is a proper subset of B, denoted by

$$A \subset B$$

$$\emptyset \subseteq A$$

Mutually Exclusive Two sets A and B, are

called disjoint or mutually exclusive, if

they have no common elements.

Universal set The largest or all-encompassing

set of objects under discussion in a given situation is called the "Universal set". All sets are subsets of the universal set.

Note: If A is subset B, then B is referred to as superset of A

$$B \supset A$$

SET OPERATIONS

1) Equality and Difference

Two sets A and B are equal, if all elements in A are present in B and all elements in B are present in A; that is if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. For equal sets, we write

$$A = B$$

The difference of two sets A and B, denoted $A - B$, is the set containing all elements of A that are not present in B.

$$A - B \neq B - A$$

2) UNION And Intersection

The Union (call it C) of two sets A and B is written

$$C = A \cup B$$

It is the set of all the elements of A or B or both. The Union of sometimes called the "Sum of two sets."

The Union of N sets A_n , $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$, become

$$C = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots \cup A_N$$

The Intersection (call it D) of two sets A and B

is written as

$$D = A \cap B$$

is the set of all elements common to both A and B. The Intersection is also called a "product of two sets".

The intersection of N sets A_n , $n=1, 2, 3, \dots, N$,

become

$$D = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap \dots \cap A_N$$

$$= \bigcap_{n=1}^N A_n$$

Complement

The complement of set A, denoted by \bar{A} , is the set of all the elements not in A.

Thus $\bar{A} = S - A$

$$\bar{\emptyset} = S, \quad \bar{S} = \emptyset$$

$$A \cup \bar{A} = S \quad \text{and} \quad A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$$

Illustrate, intersection, Union, and complement by taking own example with the four sets

$$S = \{ \text{ integers } 1 \leq \text{ integer} \leq 12 \}$$

$$A = \{ 1, 3, 5, 12 \}$$

$$B = \{ 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 \}$$

$$C = \{ 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 \}$$

$$A \cup B, A \cap C, B \cup C, A \cap B$$

$$A \cap C$$

$$B \cap C$$

A
B
C

Sol $A \cup B = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 \}$

$$A \cup C = \{ 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12 \}$$

$$B \cup C = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 \}$$

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$A \cap C = \{ 1, 3 \}$$

$$B \cap C = \{ 6, 7, 8 \}$$

$$\bar{A} = \{ 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 \}$$

$$\bar{B} = \{ 1, 3, 4, 5, 12 \}$$

$$\bar{C} = \{ 2, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12 \}$$

Algebra of Sets & COMMUTATIVE LAW

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

ASSOCIATIVE Law :-

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup B \cup C$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap B \cap C$$

DISTRIBUTIVE law :-

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

Demorgan's Law :- (English mathematician) (1806 - 1871)

States that complement of a union (intersection) of two sets A and B equals the intersection (union) of the complements \bar{A} and \bar{B} . Thus,

$$(\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}) = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

$$(\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}) = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$$

Note :- if we replace unions by intersections, intersections by unions and sets by their complements, then the identity is preserved.

{ Verify De Morgan's laws by using Example

Set S : $A = \{2 < a \leq 16\}$, $B = \{5 < b \leq 22\}$
(3 to 16) (6 to 24)

when $S = \{2 < s \leq 24\}$
(3 to 24)

Sol : To verify, $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ - ①

$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ - ②

$\overline{A \cup B} = \{2 < c \leq 5, 16 < c \leq 24\}$

$\overline{A} = S - A = \{16 < a \leq 24\}$

$\overline{B} = S - B = \{2 < b \leq 5, 22 < b \leq 24\}$

Then $\overline{A \cup B} = \{2 < c \leq 5, 16 < c \leq 24\}$

De Morgan law is verified

—————
e

$\overline{A} = S - A = (17 \text{ to } 24)$

$\overline{B} = S - B = \cancel{(3, 24)} (3, 4, 5 \cancel{, 22, 24})$

$A \cap \overline{B} = \cancel{3 \text{ to } 16} (6 \text{ to } 16)$

$\overline{A \cap B} = (3, 4, 5 \cancel{, 17 \text{ to } 24}) \overset{24}{\cancel{, 22, 24}}$

Duality principle This principle states : if in an identity we replace Union by intersection, intersection by union, S by ϕ and ϕ by S, then the identity is preserved.

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

verifying duality principle

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

for three sets $A = \{1, 2, 4, 6\}$

$$B = \{2, 6, 8, 10\}$$

$$C = \{3 \leq c \leq 4\}$$

Sol : $A \cap (B \cup C) = \{2, 4, 6\}$

$$A \cap B = \{2, 6\}$$

$$\cancel{A \cap C} = \{4\}$$

$$(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) = \{2, 4, 6\}$$

$$B \cup C = \{2, 3 \leq c \leq 4, 6, 8, 10\}$$

Important Terms :-

(2)

If outcome is end result of the Experiment

- Trial: single performance of the Exp is called a trial

Random Experiment is An Experiment whose outcome

is not known in advance

Random Event is Random Event of an outcome

or a set of outcomes of a random Experiment

occurrence is an event of a random Experiment

is said to have occurred, if the Experiment

terminates in an outcome that belongs to

the event.

Equally Likely - A set of events is said to be

equally likely, if one of them cannot be

expected to happen in preference to any other.

For Example: In tossing a coin the turning up

of the head or tail is equally likely

Mutually Exclusive - A set of events is said

to be mutually exclusive, if the occurrence of

one of them does not prevent the occurrence

of the others. For example: In tossing a coin,

they
cannot
occur
together
at
the
same
time

either the head or tail will turn up.

(21)

Exhaustive Events :- A set of events is said to be exhaustive, if it includes all the possible outcomes. In tossing a coin, either the head or tail turns up. There is no other possibility and therefore these are the Exhaustive Events.

f Sample space :- (S or U)

A Sample Space of a set S , that consists of all possible outcomes of a random experiment.

Eg :- Consider the experiment of rolling a single (unbiased) fair die. The result of the experiment of observing the number that shows up. This experiment may show any number from one through six. The set of all possible outcomes $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ is called the

Sample space, S or probability space.

The set of likelihood of particular outcome, for eg $\{3\}$ is called an Event.

Sample space $\rightarrow S : \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

Event : $\{3\}$

: $\{6\}$

: $\{2, 6\}$

Note :- An event is the subset of the Sample space.

Discrete Sample Space :-

In die-tossing experiments, S is a finite set of 6^{th} elements, such Sample spaces are said to be discrete and finite.

Continuous Sample space :- (Innumerable & infinite)

Eg: obtain a number by spinning a pointer on a wheel of chance numbered from 0 to 12. Here any number is from 0 to 12 can result and $S = \{0 \leq S \leq 12\}$. Such a Sample Space is called continuous.

Definitions of probability :-

There are several definitions available to understand probability. Among them, two of the mostly used definitions are

1. Relative frequency definition

2. Classical definition or axiomatic definition

Relative frequency definition is

Suppose an experiment is repeated n times, and one of the possible outcome A , occurs n_A times.

Now, the relative frequency of occurrence of A is

$\frac{n_A}{n}$. This ratio $(\frac{n_A}{n})$ is not predictable, if

n is very large [unless n is very large].

we know from experience that when an experiment is repeated too many times,

the relative frequency of a particular outcome approaches a fixed limit. The limiting value is called

relative frequency of occurrence i.e.

probability of outcome A .

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n_A}{n} \right)$$

This probability, determined at the limit of the relative frequency of occurrence is known as probability determined

Example 8- In rolling the die, let the outcome
 : A corresponds to the appearance of '3' on
 the die. In four tosses, the number 3
 may not appear at all, or it may appear
 all the four times, or any number of times
 in between. Thus

$\frac{0,1,2,3,4}{4}$

with $n = 4$

$$\frac{\eta_A}{\eta} = 0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{4} (=1)$$

f classical definition) or Axiomatic definition) &

The probability of an event 'A' consisting of n_A outcomes equals the ratio $\left(\frac{n_A}{N}\right)$, provided the outcomes are equally likely to occur i.e.

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{Number of possible favourable outcomes, } (n_A)}{\text{Total number of possible equally likely outcomes, } (N)}$$

for Example & Assume that bag contains 9 balls

out of which 5 are red and 4 are white. Then, in a single draw, the probability to select a white ball is $4/9$. This is because out of 9 possible outcomes of the experiment, i.e. any one of 9 balls may be drawn, four are favourable to our interest. Thus, the probability of the event is determined without conducting the event i.e. prior to the event, and is also known as ~~After~~ Apriori probability.

Axioms of Probability

The probability of event A, denoted by $P(A)$, is so chosen as to satisfy the following "Three" axioms.

- i) $P(A) \geq 0$, non-negative, zero or if $P(A)=0$, impossible event
- ii) $P(S) = 1$
Event is certain

$$\text{iii)} \quad P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^N A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^N P(A_n)$$

Some useful Laws of probability

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

if A and B are mutually exclusive
[No common elements]

$$P(A \cap B) = \emptyset = \{\}$$

Then

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

if $A \cup A^c = S$ and $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$, then A^c is called the complement of A. i.e

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

$$\bar{A} = S - A$$

$$P(\bar{A}) = P(S) - P(A)$$

$$\bar{A} = S - A$$

$$P(\bar{A}) = P(S) - P(A)$$

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

Joint Probability: (Compound probability or
law of addition of probability or
Addition Theorem)

Consider an Experiment 'A' whose outcomes are $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ and Experiment 'B' whose outcomes are $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m\}$.

If the two Experiments A and B have some common elements, they are not mutually exclusive, i.e. those elements correspond to the simultaneous or joint occurrence of the Experiments A and B.

The probability $P(A \cap B)$ or sometimes simply

$P(A \cap B)$ denotes the probability of simultaneous occurrence of the events A and B, that is called Joint probability or compound probability of the two events.

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cup B)$$

It is also called as Law of addition of probability.

It may also be written thus

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$\leq P(A) + P(B)$$

If the events 'A' and 'B' are mutually exclusive then $P(A \cap B) = 0$

28

one card is drawn from the deck of 52 cards, what is the probability of the card being either red or a King?

(Nov 2007 Reg Exam Set-1)

Solution :-

Let A represent an event that the card is red, and B represents that the card is King. for a card to be either red or a King, it is required to find $A \cup B$

$$P(A) = 26/52 = 1/2$$

$$P(B) = 4/52 = 1/13$$

$$P(A \cap B) = 2/52 = 1/26$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= 1/2 + 1/13 - 1/26$$

$$= \frac{13+2-1}{26} = 14/26$$

$$= 7/13 \checkmark$$

Ans

Red - 26
Black - 26

King - 4
Red - 3
Black - 3

7/13 ✓
right

Two dice are rolled. find the probability that the sum of the numbers thrown is 7.

36

$$S = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (1,5), (1,6), \\ (2,1), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), (2,6), \\ (3,1), (3,2), (3,3), (3,4), (3,5), (3,6), \\ (4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (4,4), (4,5), (4,6), \\ (5,1), (5,2), (5,3), (5,4), (5,5), (5,6), \\ (6,1), (6,2), (6,3), (6,4), (6,5), (6,6)\}$$

$P\{$ getting a sum of 7 $\}$

$$= \frac{\text{No of times getting a sum of 7}}{\text{Total number of times}}$$

$$= \frac{6}{36} = \underline{\underline{\frac{1}{6}}}$$

Hence the required probability = $\underline{\underline{\frac{1}{6}}}$

In a team of communication Engineers, 80% know probability theory, 75% know the information theory, and 70% know the both probability theory and information theory. Calculate the percentage of Engineers who know neither probability theory nor information theory?

Sol 3

$$P(A) = 0.8$$

$$P(B) = 0.75$$

$$P(A \cap B) = 0.7$$

$$\text{probability of not knowing both} = P(A' \cup B') \\ = P(\overline{A \cap B})$$

$$P(A' \cup B') = P(\overline{A \cap B})$$

$$= 1 - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= 1 - 0.7$$

$$= \underline{\underline{0.3}}$$

Thus, the Engineers who know neither probability theory nor information theory is 30%

A bag containing 12 balls numbered from 1 to 12
 If a ball is taken at random, what is the
 probability it having a ball with a number
 which is multiple of either 2 or 3?

$$P(A) = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12\} : \frac{6}{12}$$

$$P(B) = \{3, 6, 9, 12\} : \cancel{\frac{4}{12}} \frac{4}{12}$$

$$\text{and } P(A \cap B) = \{6, 12\}, \frac{2}{12}$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{12}$$

$$\frac{6+4-2}{12} = \frac{8}{12} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Hence, the required probability = $\frac{2}{3}$

conditional probability (Multiplication Theorem)

Consider the two experiments A and B with outcomes $\{A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_n\}$ and $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m\}$ respectively, some times the probability of occurrence of an event B_j may depend on the occurrence of a related event A_i :

For example, Assume that box contains five green colour pens and one red colour pen. Let us take a pen from the box. Then, without replacing the first pen, the probability of getting a red pen if we take another pen, the probability of getting a red pen in the second time depends on the outcome of the first draw. i.e. if we had taken a red pen on the first time itself, there is no more red pen in the box. Thus, we have a situation in which the outcome of the second experiment is conditional on the outcome of the first experiment.

The probability of the outcome B_j given that A_i is known is called conditional probability of $B_i | A_i$.

If N_A represents the number of times an event A happens, N_B represents the number of times event B happens and N_{AB} represents the number of times of joint happening, then

$$P(B|A) = \frac{N_{AB}}{N_A} = \frac{N_{AB}/N}{N_A/N} = \frac{P(AB)}{P(A)}$$

for $P(A) > 0$

Similarly $P(A|B) = \frac{N_{AB}}{N_B} = \frac{N_{AB}/N}{N_B/N}$

$$= \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}, \text{ for } P(B) > 0$$

$$\therefore P(B|A) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(A)}$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}$$

they may be simply written as

$$P(AB) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A)$$

$$P(AB) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B)$$

These expressions represents chain rule of theorem of multiplication. This is also called law of multiplication of probability.

Total probability

Given that N mutually exclusive events B_n ,
for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$, whose union equals to the
sample space S . On the ^{same} sample space,
the probability of any event A , $P(A)$ can be
written in terms of conditional probabilities, i.e.

$$P(A) = \sum_{n=1}^N P(A|B_n) P(B_n)$$

Thus we get \Rightarrow known of the total probability
of event A

or formulae for the probability in terms of theorem on probability of causes.

BAYES' Theorem & [Rule of Inverse probability]

There are two forms available to Bayes' theorem,

- Using the conditional probability, we have

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}$$

$$\text{and } P(B|A) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(A)}$$

Substituting $P(AB) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A)$ and

$P(AB) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B)$ respectively

in the above two equations, we arrive at,

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A) \cdot P(B|A)}{P(B)}$$

$$\text{and } P(B|A) = \frac{P(B) \cdot P(A|B)}{P(A)}$$

These relations constitute Bayes' Theorem,

provided $P(A) \neq 0$ and $P(B) \neq 0$

- Using the total probability, if B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n are

set it mutually exclusive and exhaustive
sets of events, then,

$$P(A) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N P(A|B_n) \cdot P(B_n)}{P(B) \cdot P(A|B)}$$

Independent Events

Two Events A and B are said to be statistically independent or mutually independent if the probability of occurrence of one event is not affected by the occurrence of the other event i.e. $P(A|B) = P(A)$ and $P(B|A) = P(B)$. Therefore, mathematically, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} P(AB) &= P(A) \cdot P(B|A) \\ &= P(A) \cdot P(B) \end{aligned}$$

$$P(AB) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

Nov - 2005 - Eng - JNTU - Set - 2

- ① In a single throw of two dice, what is the probability of obtaining a sum of at least 10? (8 M)

. At least 10 means 10, 11, and 12
ie $(5, 5), (4, 6), (6, 4), (5, 6), (6, 5), (6, 6)$

∴ Required probability = $6/36$
 $= \frac{1}{6}$

① A die is tossed, find the probabilities of the events $A = \{\text{odd number shows up}\}$.

$B = \{\text{number larger than 3 shows up}\}$, $A \cup B$ and $A \cap B$.

$$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

Sol:

$$P(A) = \left\{1, 3, 5\right\} = \frac{3}{6}$$

$$P(B) = \left\{4, 5, 6\right\} = \frac{3}{6}$$

$$A \cup B = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, P(A \cup B) = \frac{5}{6}$$

$$A \cap B = \{5\}, P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6}$$

② In a box there are 500 colored balls: 75 black, 150 green, 175 red, 70 white and 30 blue. What are the probabilities of selecting a ball at each color.

Sol: $P(B) = \frac{75}{500}$

$$P(G) = \frac{150}{500}$$

$$P(R) = \frac{175}{500}$$

$$P(W) = \frac{70}{500}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{30}{500}$$

Q When two dice are thrown, find the probability of getting the sum of 10 or 11?

$$10 \rightarrow P(A) = \left\{ (5,5), (4,6), (6,4) \right\} = \frac{3}{36}$$

$$11 \rightarrow P(B) = \left\{ (5,6), (6,5) \right\} = \frac{2}{36}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = 0$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= \frac{3}{36} + \frac{2}{36} = \frac{5}{36}$$

at least 10 means 10 or 11 or 12

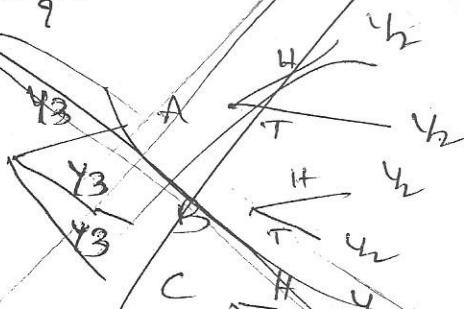
$$(5,5), (4,6), (6,4), (5,6), (6,5), (6,6)$$

$$= \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

~~Ans 1/6~~

~~find the probability of three half-rupee coins falling all heads up when tossed simultaneously?~~

$$P(\text{H}) = \frac{1}{2}$$



$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{8}$$

$$(H \cdot H \cdot H) + (H \cdot H \cdot T) + (H \cdot T \cdot H) + (T \cdot H \cdot H)$$

Nov 2006 reg - IITJU | Feb 2008 supply set - IITP
 Nov 2006 reg - IITD | In a box there are 100 resistors having
 reg. sets 1/2 | resistance and tolerance as shown table. Let a
 resistor be selected from the box and assume
 each resistor has the same likelihood of
 being chosen. Three events : ~~A~~
 A as "draw a 47- Ω resistor", ~~B~~
 B as "draw a resistor with 5% tolerance",
 and C as "draw a 100- Ω resistor".
(10 marks)

- 1) $P(A \cap B)$ 2) $P(A|C)$ 3) $P(B|C)$
 4) $P(A|B)$ 5) $P(A|C)$ 6) $P(B|C)$
 or determine joint and conditional probabilities

Resistors (Ω)

		Tolerance		Total
		5%	10%	
Tolerance	Total	10	14	24
		28	16	44
	100	24	8	32
Total		62	38	100

Solutions

1) ~~$P(A \cap B)$~~

$$P(A) = \frac{44}{100}$$

$$P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{62}{100}$$

$$P(C) = \frac{32}{100}$$

$$\frac{28}{62}$$

2) $P(A \cap B) = P(47- \Omega \cap 5\%) = \frac{28}{100}$

$$P(A|r) = 0$$

$$P(B|C) = \frac{P(B \cap C)}{P(C)}$$

3) $P(A|C) = P(47- \Omega \cap 100- \Omega) = 0$

$$= 24$$

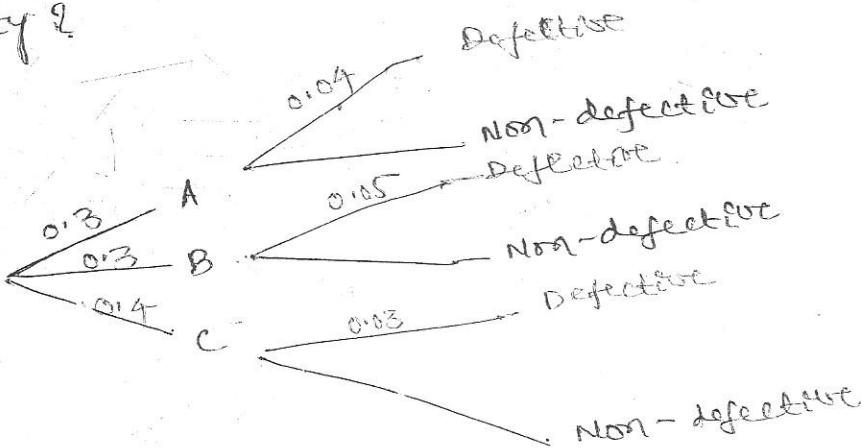
(1998 Regular)

- Q. In a bolt factory machines A, B and C manufacture respectively 30%, 30% and 40% of the total of their output. 4, 5, 3 percent of defective bolts. A bolt is drawn at random from the product and is found defective. What are the probabilities that it has been manufactured by machines A, B and C?

- (b) Explain briefly the axiomatic approach to

probability?

Solution:-



The probability that a bolt drawn to be defective is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X) &= 0.3 \times 0.04 + 0.3 \times 0.05 + 0.4 \times 0.03 \\ &= 0.012 + 0.015 + 0.012 \\ &= \underline{\underline{0.039}} \end{aligned}$$

The probability that it was made by machine A is

$$P(A|X) = \frac{P(A) \cdot P(X|A)}{P(X)} = \frac{0.3 \times 0.04}{0.039} = \underline{\underline{0.307}}$$

The probability that it was made by machine "B"

$$P\left(\frac{B}{X}\right) = \frac{P(B) \cdot P(X|B)}{P(X)}$$
$$= \frac{0.3 \times 0.05}{0.039} = \underline{\underline{0.384}}$$

The probability that it was made by machine "C"

$$P\left(\frac{C}{X}\right) = \frac{P(C) \cdot P(X|C)}{P(X)}$$
$$= \frac{0.4 \times 0.03}{0.039} = \underline{\underline{0.307}}$$

Nov-2007 Reg-JNTU-sets-4
Nov-2006-Reg-JNTU-sets-1
q. set=3

1. find the probability of tossing half-rupee coins

tossing all heads up when tossed simultaneously. (6m)

$2^3 = 8$ sample points

Sol:

Sample space : { HHH, HHT, HTH, THH, HTT, THT, TTH, TTT }

$\therefore \frac{1}{8}$ ans ✓

(Nov-2007 Reg-JNTU-sets-3)

2. When two dice are thrown, find the probability of getting the sum as 10 or 11 (8m) ~~(10)~~

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$P(A)$: getting sum = 10, i.e. (5,5), (4,6) (6,4)

$P(B)$: getting sum = 11, i.e. (5,6) (6,5)

$P(A \cap B)$: 10 & 11

$$P(A) = \frac{3}{36}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{2}{36}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = 0$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= \frac{3}{36} + \frac{2}{36} - 0 = \frac{5}{36}$$

f Mathematical Model of Experiments :-

The real experiment is defined mathematically by three things :

1. Assignment of Sample space
2. definition of Events of interest.
3. making probability assignments to Events, such that the axioms are satisfied.

Eg on Mathematical Model of Experiment-



Two fair dice are tossed simultaneously. Let x and y denote the numbers on the first and second die respectively. find

$$P(A) \quad \textcircled{1} \quad P(x+y=7) : \quad \cancel{6/36} \quad 6 \times \frac{1}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(B) \quad \textcircled{2} \quad P(8 < \text{sum} \leq 11) : \quad \frac{9}{36} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(C) \quad \textcircled{3} \quad P(10 < \text{sum}) : \quad \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$$

$\downarrow \{(6,5), (5,6), (6,6)\}$

Exercise : $P(B \cap C) = \frac{2}{36}$

$$P(B \cup C) = \frac{10}{36} = \frac{5}{18}$$

Prob : when two dice are thrown; determine the probabilities from axiom 3 for the following

(4) $P(B \cap C)$ Those Events.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad A = \{ \text{sum} = 7 \}$$

(5) $P(B \cup C)$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad B = \{ 8 < \text{sum} \leq 11 \}$$

$\textcircled{3} \quad C = \{ 10 < \text{sum} \}$ and determine

Demonstrate duality principle

$$A \{ 1, 2, 4, 6 \}$$

$$B \{ 2, 6, 8, 10 \}$$

$$C \{ 3 \leq c \leq 4 \}$$

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup A \cap C$$

$$\{ 2, 4, 6 \}$$

$$A \cap B = \{ 2, 6 \}$$

$$(A \cap C) = \{ 4 \}$$

$$\text{or } A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

both are
Same
ideologically

① In a box there are 80 resistors each having the same size and shape. Of the 80 resistors 18 are 10 Ω , 12 are 22 Ω , 33 are 27 Ω , and 17 are 47 Ω . If the experiment of randomly drawing out one resistor from the box with each one being "equally likely" to be drawn, then find the probability of each.

$$P(10\Omega) = \frac{18}{80}$$

$$P(27\Omega) = \frac{33}{80}$$

$$P(22\Omega) = \frac{12}{80}$$

$$P(47\Omega) = \frac{17}{80}$$

~~G2, G3, G4, 78, 77, 92, 80, B1, L612~~

~~21/07/09~~

~~20CE-2~~

① A set A has three elements a_1, a_2 and a_3 .

Determine all possible subsets of A.

$$2^3 = 8$$

so

$$\{a_1, a_2, a_3\} \rightarrow ①$$

$$(4) \rightarrow ②$$

$$\{a_1\}, \{a_2\}, \{a_3\} \rightarrow ③$$

$$\{a_1, a_2\}, \{a_1, a_3\}, \{a_2, a_3\} \rightarrow ④$$

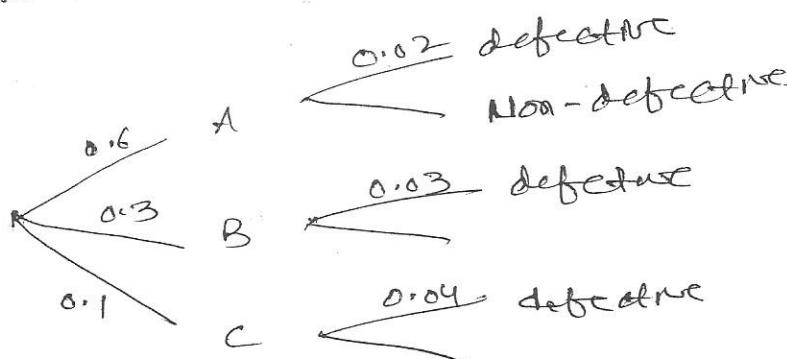
② Two sets are given by $A = \{-6, -4, -0.5, 0, 1.6, 8\}$

and $B = \{-0.5, 0, 1, 2, 4\}$ find

① $A - B$ ② $B - A$ ③ $A \cup B$ ④ $A \cap B$.

- ① Three machines A, B and C produce respectively 60%, 30% and 10% of the total number of defective items at a factory. The % age of defective output of these machines are respectively 2%, 3% and 4%.
- ② find the probability that the item is defective, when randomly selected (0.025)
- ③ find the probability that the defective item is from machine C. (0.16)

Sol.



$$④ P(\text{Defective item}) = (0.6 \times 0.02) + (0.3 \times 0.03) + (0.1 \times 0.04)$$

$$P(Y) = 0.025$$

$$⑤ P(\text{Defective item is from machine C}) =$$

$$P(C|Y) = \frac{P(Y \cap C)}{P(Y)} = \frac{\frac{0.1 \times 0.04}{0.025}}{0.025} = \frac{4/25}{0.025} = \underline{\underline{0.16}}$$

99 Regular

(a) A box of unmarked IC's contains 200 logic inverters, 100 dual 4-input positive AND gates, 50 dual J-K flip-flops, 25 decade counters and 25 four bit shift registers.

i) If an IC is selected at random, what is the probability that it is a dual JK flip-flop $\frac{50}{200} = \frac{1}{4}$

ii) What is the probability that an IC selected randomly is not a logic inverter $1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

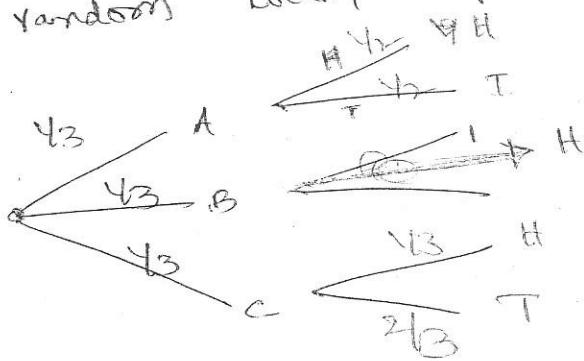
iii) If the first IC selected is found to be a 4-bit shift register, what is the probability that the second IC selected will also be a 4-bit shift register

$$\frac{25C_1}{400C_1} \times \frac{24C_1}{399C_1} = \frac{1}{266}$$

A box contains 3 coins. One coin is fair, one coin is two headed and one coin is weighted so that the probability of heads appearing is $\frac{1}{3}$. A coin is selected at random and tossed. Find the probability that head appears.

Solution:

one coin can be drawn from 3 coins with a probability of $\frac{1}{3}$.

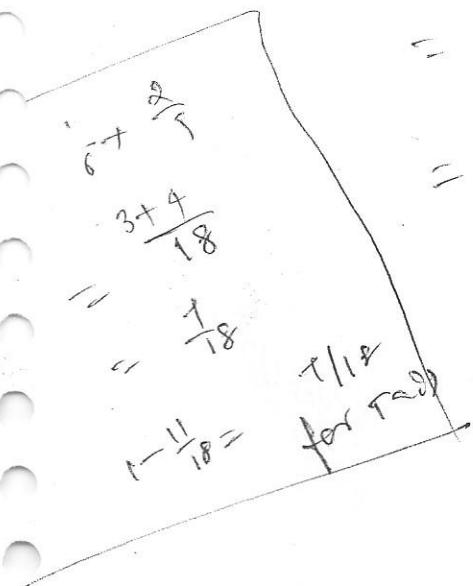


The probability that head appears is

$$\left(\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times 1\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}$$

$$= \frac{3+6+2}{18} = \frac{11}{18}$$



A1

A box contains 6 green bally, 4 black bally,
and 10 yellow ~~bally~~ bally.

All bally are equally likely to be drawn.

What is the probability of drawing 2
green bally from the box, if the ball on the
first draw is not replaced.

$$\frac{5}{20} \times \frac{8}{19} = \frac{3}{38}$$

42

$$= \cancel{0.189} \quad 0.789$$

$$1.5 / 19$$



prove that $p(A) = 1 - p(A')$

P- exercise
P- practice
Q- questions
1-1-5

TUTORIAL - UNIT - 1

State every possible subset of the set of

Letters $\{a, b, c, d\}$

Sol: There are $2^4 = 16$ possible subsets (events)

They are $\emptyset,$

$\{a\}$

$\{b\}$

$\{c\}$

$\{d\}$

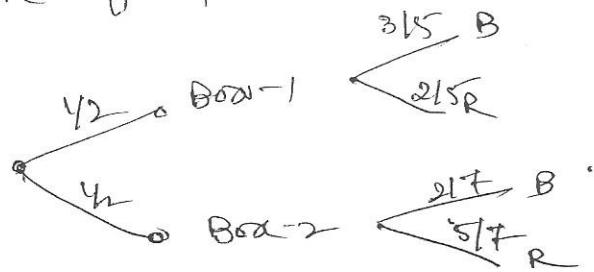
$(a, b), (a, c), (a, d), (b, c), (b, d), (c, d)$

$(a, b, c), (a, b, d), (a, c, d), (b, c, d)$

$= \{a, b, c, d\}$

H.Tech

Q. A box contains 3 blue and 2 red marbles, while another box contains 2 blue and 5 red marbles. A marble drawn at random from one of the boxes turns out to be blue. What is the probability that it came from the first box?



$$\text{Q1} P(\text{selected to be blue}) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{5}$$

$$= 31\%$$

$$\text{Q2} P(\text{selected to be from box-1}) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times 3/5}{(31\%)}$$

$$= \frac{31}{31} \text{ atm}$$

3. A Bag contains 2 green and 3 black balls. A sample of size 4 is made. What is the probability that the sample is in the order (B₁G₂B₃G₄)?

Sol :- Sample of size 4 means that taking out four balls from the bag one by one (without replacing)

$$P(B_1) = 3/5$$

$$P(G_2) = 2/4$$

$$P(B_3) = 2/3$$

$$P(G_4) = 1/2$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(B_1 G_2 B_3 G_4) &= P(B_1) \cdot P(G_2 | B_1) \cdot P(B_3 | B_1 G_2) \cdot P(G_4 | B_1 G_2 B_3) \\ &= \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} = \underline{1/10} \text{ atm} \end{aligned}$$

Q) Show that, of two events A and B are, ^{independent}

i) A' and B' are independent

ii) A' and B are "

iii) A and B' are "

Sol:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A)$$

$$= P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$$\text{Now, } P(A' \cap B') = P(A \cup B)$$

$$= 1 - [P(A) + P(B) - \underbrace{P(A \cap B)}_{P(A) \cdot P(B)}]$$

$$= [1 - P(B)] - P(A)[1 - P(B)]$$

$$= [1 - P(B)][1 - P(A)]$$

$$= P(B') \cdot P(A')$$

$$= P(A') \cdot P(B')$$

Hence, A' and B' are two independent Event

$$\begin{aligned} ii) P(A' \cap B) &= P(B) - P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(B) - P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ &= P(B)[1 - P(A)] \\ &= P(B) \cdot P(A') \end{aligned}$$

B and A' are independent

$$\begin{aligned} iii) P(B' \cap A) &= P(A) - P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(A) - P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ &= P(A)[1 - P(B)] \\ &= P(A) \cdot P(B') \end{aligned}$$

~~A & B independent~~

- ⑤ If A, B , and C are mutually independent events,
show that $(A \cup B)$ and C are also independent.

Sol:

$$P[(A \cup B) \cap C] = P(A \cup B) \cdot P(C)$$

$$\text{L.H.S} = P[(A \cup B) \cap C]$$

$$= P[(A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C)]$$

we know that $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

$$= P(A \cap C) + P(B \cap C) - P(A \cap B \cap C)$$

$$= P(A) \cdot P(C) + P(B) \cdot P(C) - P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C).$$

$$= P(C) [P(A) + P(B) - \underbrace{P(A) \cdot P(B)}_{P(A \cap B)}]$$

$$= P(C) [P(A \cup B)]$$

$$= P(C) \cdot P(A \cup B) \Leftarrow \text{R.H.S}$$

$A \cup B$ and C are independent

Feb 2008, SPPU - Set - 4

Prob: From a regular deck of 52 cards, one card is

selected. Defining event A as "select a King",

B as "select a Jack or Queen" and C as

"select heart". Verify  A, B and C events are
(8 marks)

independent (pair wise)

Sol:

$P(A)$: probability of selecting a King = $4/52$

$P(B)$: probability of selecting a Jack or Queen

$$2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{52} \right)$$

$$\frac{4}{52} + \frac{4}{52} = \frac{2}{13}$$

$$\frac{2}{13}$$

$P(C)$: probability of selecting a heart = $13/52$

Note: Two events A and B are said to be mutually independent if they satisfy the condition

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cdot B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cdot B) =$ probability of selecting a King and
Jack or Queen in
one card = 0

$P(B \cap C) = P(B \cdot C) =$ probability of selecting a card,
a Jack or Queen with heart

$$= \frac{1}{52} + \frac{4}{52} = \frac{2}{52}$$

$P(A \cap C) = \cancel{P(A)}$ $P(A \cap C) =$ probability of selecting a King with heart = $\frac{1}{52}$

$$\therefore P(A \cap B) = 0$$

$$\therefore P(A) \cdot P(B) = \frac{1}{13} \cdot \frac{2}{13} = \frac{2}{169}$$

$$\therefore P(A \cap B) \neq P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

Hence the events A and B are not independent.

$$P(B \cap C) = \frac{2}{52}$$

$$P(B) \cdot P(C) = \frac{2}{13} \cdot \frac{1}{52} = \frac{2}{169}$$

$$P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C), \text{ satisfied.}$$

Hence the events B and C are independent.

$$P(A \cap C) = \frac{1}{52}$$

$$P(A) \cdot P(C) = \frac{1}{13} \cdot \frac{1}{52} = \frac{1}{169}$$

$$\therefore P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C), \text{ satisfied.}$$

Hence the events A and C are independent

→ ←

prob: A lot of 100 Semiconductor Chaps contains 20 that are defective. Two chaps are selected at random, without replacement, from the lot.

- (a) what is the probability that the first one selected is defective?
- (b) what is the probability that the second one selected is defective given that first ~~one~~ one was defective?
- (c) what is the probability that both are defective?

sol: Let A denote the Event that the first one

(a) selected is defective : $P(A) = \frac{20}{100} = 0.2$

(b) $P(B|A)$; let B denote the Event that the second one is defective.

$$P(B|A) = \frac{\cancel{19}}{99} = 0.192$$

(c) the probability that both are defective is

$$P(A \cap B) = P(AB) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A)$$

$$= \frac{20}{100} \times \frac{19}{99}$$

$$= \underline{0.0384}$$

prob: Two cards are drawn at random from a deck. Find the probability that both are aces

Sol:

$$P(A) = \frac{4}{52}$$

(with replacement)

$$P(B|A) = \frac{3}{51}$$

Spades + hearts + clubs
13 13 13
+ diamonds
(13)

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cdot B) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A)$$

$$= \frac{4}{52} \times \frac{3}{51} = \frac{1}{221}$$

feb 2008 - sample sets - 4 (JNTU)

prob:

Show that two elements cannot be both mutually exclusive and statistically independent.
What are the conditions for two events to be independent?

sol:

Let A and B be events in a sample space.

$$\therefore P(A) \neq 0 \text{ and } P(B) \neq 0$$

$$P(A) \cdot P(B) \neq 0$$

Let A and B be mutually exclusive events,

$$P(A \cap B) = P(\emptyset) = 0$$

$$\therefore P(A \cap B) \neq P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

A and B cannot be independent.

NOTE: (The condition for independent is: $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$)

1. Determine probabilities of system error and correct system transmission of symbols for an elementary binary communication system shown in Fig UNIT - I
- consisting of a transmitter that sends one of the two possible symbols (a 1 or a 0) over a channel to a receiver. The channel occasionally causes errors to occur
- Let A, B, C are three sets which consist of elements $A = \{1, 2, 5, 7\}$, $B = \{6, 7, 8\}$, $C = \{3, 6, 8, 9\}$ check whether it satisfies distributive law.
3. A fair die is tossed twice. find the probability of getting 4, 5 or 6 on the 1st toss and a 1, 2, 3 or 4 on 2nd toss.
4. If two coins are tossed simultaneously what is the probability of getting head and tail simultaneously?
5. A and B throws a pair of dice. A wins if he throws 6 before B throws 7 and B wins if he throws 7 before A throws 6. If A begins then show that his chance of winning is $30/61$.
6. A letter is known to have come either from LONDON or CLIFTON. On the postmark, only the consecutive letters 'ON' are legible. What is the chance that it came from LONDON.
7. Find the probability of 4 turning atleast once in two tosses of a fair die.
8. A pack contains 4 white and 2 green pencils, another pack contains 3 white and 5 green pencils. If one pencil is drawn from each pack, find the probability that (i) both are white (ii) one is white and another is green.
9. In a team of communication engineers, 80% know probability theory, 75% know information theory and 70% know both probability theory and information theory. calculate the % of engineers who know neither probability theory nor information theory.
10. An experiment consists of rolling a single die. Two events are defined

UNIT 1

Part 2

{ Random Variables :- or Stochastic Variables or simply a variable.

INTRODUCTION :- The probability theory gives an idea

of the characteristics of outcomes of an Experiment.

The outcome of the Experiment may be a descriptive one (drawing a King out of a pack of

52 cards) or a numerical one (getting 4 in

the rolling of a die). It will be more convenient

to define characteristics if all the outcomes

of the Experiment are always numerical values

instead of descriptive. Thus Random Variable

concept is such an important powerful tool

in solving practical probability problems:

{ Definition :- "A Random Variable may be defined

as a rule or functional relationship that

assigns real numbers to each possible outcome

of a random Experiment".

The random variable is represented

by a boldface letter x or y etc., and the

real numbers x (y) are called the values

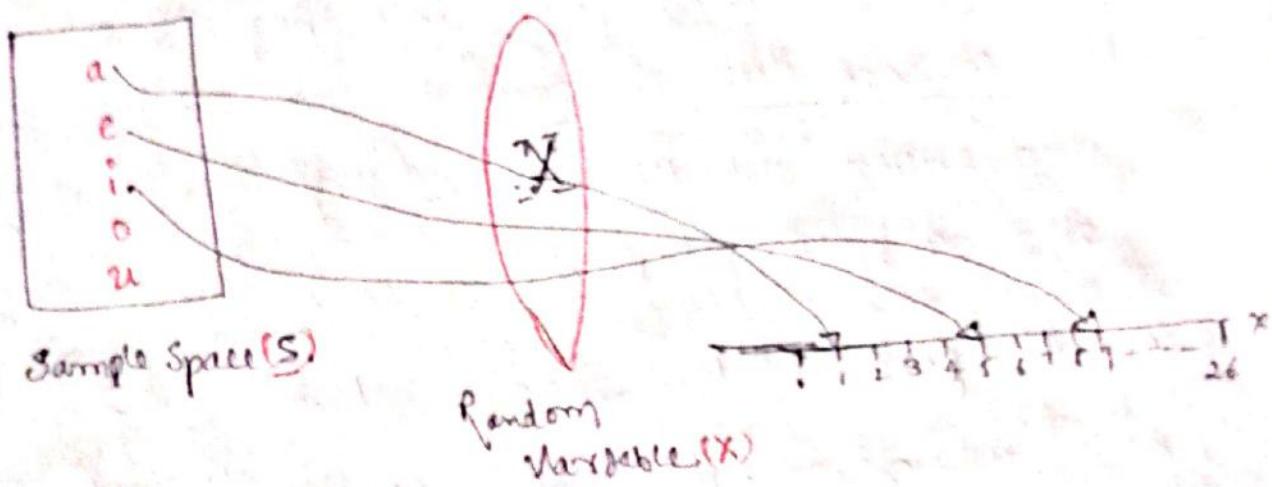
of random variable. The values of random

variable are represented by a lower case

letter, x or y --- etc..

Example - 1 Consider an Experiment of car race. In this particular experiment, the desired outcome of the "name of the person who is winning the race", all the possible outcomes constitute the sample space. Every outcome of the experiment is called an event. In the car race experiment, d_i represent the name of the persons driving the cars. If a real number $X(d_i)$ is given to each possible outcome, then this representation is called a random variable.

Example 2 Consider a Sample Space, S consisting of the alphabets "a, e, i, o, and u". We take a random variable X in such a way that each outcome (alphabet) corresponds to a real number. The real number may be assigned so as to represent the particular alphabet. For example, the letter "a" is the first letter in English letters and hence the real number to be assigned is "1". The letter "e" is assigned to number "5", "i" to "9", "o" to "15" and "u" to 21.



Thus, the random variable X can be considered to a function that maps all the elements of the space into points on the real line or same party thereof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= 1 \\
 e &= 5 \\
 i &= 9 \\
 o &= 15 \\
 u &= 21
 \end{aligned}$$

Conditions for a function to be a Random Variable

The following are the necessary conditions to be satisfied by a random variable.

- (1) It is not necessary that the sample space points map uniquely, i.e. more than one outcome may map to a single real value.
i.e. $X(d_1) = X(d_2) = -2$
- (2) But, the random variable must not be multi-valued, i.e. every point in the sample space must correspond to only one real value

$$X(d_1) = 1$$

$$X(d_2) = 2$$
- (3) The set $\{X \leq x\}$ shall be an event for any real number x , i.e. the probability of this event, denoted by $P\{X \leq x\}$ is equal to the sum of the probabilities of all the elementary events corresponding to $\{X \leq x\}$.
- (4) $P\{X = -\infty\} = 0$ and $P\{X = \infty\} = 0$

Types of Random Variables :-

The Random Variable may be a continuous,

a discrete or mixed.

- 1) Discrete Random Variable :- If a Random Variable assumes only a finite numbers of distinct values, then the random variable is called discrete Random Variable. The Sample Space for the discrete Random Variable can be discrete, continuous or a mixture of discrete and continuous.

Eg:- Take an Example of tossing a coin, we

know the outcomes of head or tail.

or Non-discrete

- 2) Continuous Random Variable :- If a Random Variable assumes non countable (infinite) number of values, it is called Continuous Random Variable.

Eg: Sound intensity (to human being), the

can occupy a range of value but not definite number of values hence outcome of a continuous random variable.

If it predictability of the event outcome

is not possible, then the output may take any value and it is called as continuous random variable

③ Mixed Random Variable : It is one for which some of its values are discrete and some are continuous. This type of random variable is not very common.

Discrete Random Variable

— probability distribution functions
or cumulative distribution functions

The probability distribution function associated with a random variable X is defined as the probability that the outcome of an experiment will be one of the outcomes for which $X(\omega) \leq x$, where x is any real number.

The probability $P\{X \leq x\}$ is the probability of the event $\{X \leq x\}$. It is a number that depends on x . That is, it is a function of x , we call this function, denoted $F_X(x)$, the cumulative distribution function of the random variable X .

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

$$\text{where } P(X \leq x) = \sum_i p_i = \sum_{i=1}^N P(X=x_i)$$

Example 6 The feature of probability distribution

function can become clear, if we consider the example of throwing of two dice. There are

36 possible outcomes. Since each die may show any number from 1 through 6. The sample space is written as

CDF of Distribution function

apparent, Any real number
from a to b is an

$$F(x) = P\{X \leq x\}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

- Q: consider the random experiment as a
tossing a die. (let X be the random variable)
thus, the probability distribution of X is

$X=x_i$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$P(X=x_i)$	$1/6$	$1/6$	$1/6$	$1/6$	$1/6$	$1/6$

The CDF of this random variable is

$$F_X(1) = P(X \leq 1) = 1/6 = P(X=1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(2) &= P(X \leq 2) = P(X=1) + P(X=2) \\ &= 1/6 + 1/6 = 2/6 \end{aligned}$$

$$F_X(3) = P(X \leq 3) = P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3) = 3/6$$

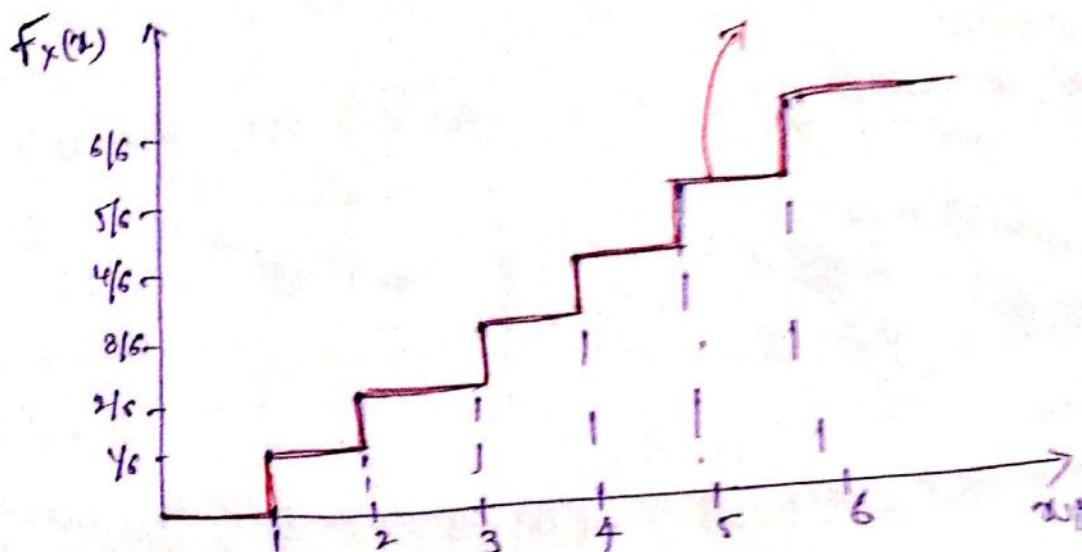
$$F_X(4) = P(X \leq 4) = \dots = 4/6$$

$$F_X(5) = P(X \leq 5) = \dots = 5/6$$

$$F_X(6) = P(X \leq 6) = \dots = 6/6 = 1$$

The above CDF is plotted for different values of w_i taken by $x^{(i)}$.

(stair step wave form)



They, above plot is a stairstep form. The above random variable is discrete random variable, and for any discrete random variable, the CDF plot is a stair step (staircase) function.

Thus, CDF of a discrete random variable can be expressed as

$$F_x(w) = \sum_{i=1}^N I(x=x_i) \cdot u(x-x_i)$$

or

$$\sum_{i=1}^N p(x_i) \cdot u(x-x_i)$$

where $P(x_i)$ is the probability at $x = x_i$

and $u(x-x_i)$ is the unit step function
defined from $x = x_i$.

where $u(x)$ is the unit step function defined by

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

finally, $F_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) u(x - x_i)$

Note: 1. The CDF plot of a continuous random variable will be
a continuous function.

2. The CDF plot of a discrete random variable is
discontinuous, but not a staircase function.

Properties of Distribution function

The following are the forms of the important properties of the probability distribution functions.

1) $F_x(-\infty) = 0$ $(-\infty < x < \infty)$
 $\Rightarrow 0 \leq \frac{1}{2}$

2) $F_x(+\infty) = 1$ $f_x(x) = P(X \leq -x)$
 $P(X \leq +\infty) = 1$

3) $0 \leq F_x(x) \leq 1$ $F_x(+\infty) = P(X \leq +\infty)$
 $= P(1) = 1$

4) $F_x(x_1) \leq F_x(x_2)$, if $x_1 < x_2$

This property states that $F_x(x)$ is a non-decreasing function if $x_1 < x_2$.

5) $P\{x_1 < X \leq x_2\} = F_x(x_2) - F_x(x_1)$

6) $F_x(x^+) = F_x(x)$

This property states that $F_x(x)$ is a function continuous from right.

Note: Properties 1, 2, 4 and 6 may be used to test whether a function, say, $G_x(x)$, could be a valid distribution function.

The probability density function (PDF) is also called the frequency function of probability mass function.

The probability density function of $f(x)$ is defined as the derivative of the probability distribution function, $F(x)$ of the random variable x . It is called as "frequency function".

The probability density function of a discrete random variable is often known as "probability mass function".

$$f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx} [F_x(x)]$$

{ probability density function : (pdf)
 (or frequency function or prob. mass function)

$$f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx} [F_x(x)]$$

i.e. change in CDF is named as pdf

Illustration:

Consider the CDF plot

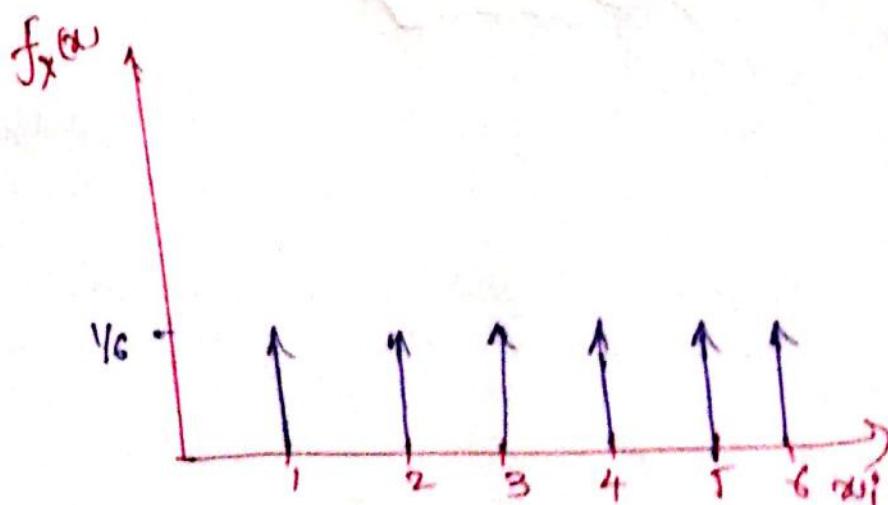
from $x_0 = -\infty$ to $x_1 = 0$, there is no change in
 CDF, hence $\text{pdf} = 0$

At $x_1 = 1$, the CDF is changed by $\frac{1}{6}$, the pdf at that
 point is $x_1 = 1$ of $\frac{1}{6}$

from $x_1 = 1$ to $x_2 = 2$, No change in CDF, and
 hence $\text{pdf} = 0$

At $x_2 = 2$ CDF changes from $\frac{1}{6}$ to $\frac{2}{6}$ i.e. by $\frac{1}{6}$,
 and so $\text{pdf} = \underline{\frac{1}{6}}$

Thus, the plot of pdf is given as



Thus, we get its d.r.v. as (discrete r.v.).

Thus, p.d.f of a d.r.v can be expressed as

$$f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(F_x(x)) = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N p(x_i) \cdot u(x-x_i) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N p(x_i) \cdot \delta(x-x_i)$$

$$\left[\because \frac{d}{dx}[u(x)] = \delta(x) \right]$$

Note: ① for a continuous random variable the p.d.f is also a continuous function, provided the derivative exists. (step-type discontinuity)

Imp. Note: for a discrete random variable, probability and probability density functions are found to be the same.

54

~~Properties of density function~~

The following are the some of the important properties of the probability density function.

1) $f_x(x) \geq 0$, for all x

2) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) dx = 1$

if $f_x(x)$ is integrated, we get distribution function $F_x(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) dx &= [F_x(x)]_{-\infty}^{\infty} \\ &= F_x(\infty) - F_x(-\infty) \\ &= 1 - 0 \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

The above properties can be used as tests to check whether the given function is a valid probability density function. Both tests must be satisfied for validity.

3) $F_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_x(u) du$

4) $P(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_x(u) du$

$P(X=x) = 0$ for all x

5) If X is a continuous random variable, $P(X=x) = f_x(x) - f_x(x_1)$

A Random Variable X has the following probability function:

Value of X :	x_0 :	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	$p(x)$:	K	$3K$	$5K$	$7K$	$9K$	$11K$	$13K$

- i) find K ii) Evaluate $P(X < 4)$, $P(X \geq 5)$ and
 $P(3 < X \leq 6)$

iii) what is the smallest value of x_0 for which

iv) $P(X \leq x_0) \geq 0.8$?
 K so that $P(X \leq 2) \geq 0.8$

Sol: From the axioms of probability $P(S) = 1$

$$\sum_{x=0}^6 p(x) = 1$$

$$p(0) + p(1) + p(2) + p(3) + p(4) + p(5) + p(6) = 1$$

$$K + 3K + 5K + 7K + 9K + 11K + 13K = 1$$

$$49K = 1$$

$$K = \frac{1}{49}$$

ii) $P(X < 4) = p(0) + p(1) + p(2) + p(3)$

$$= \frac{1}{49} + \frac{3}{49} + \frac{5}{49} + \frac{7}{49}$$

$$= \frac{16}{49}$$

$$P(X \geq 5) = P(X = 5) + P(X = 6)$$

$$= \frac{11}{49} + \frac{13}{49} = \frac{24}{49}$$

$$P(3 < X \leq 6) = P(X=4) + P(X=5) + P(X=6)$$

$$= \frac{9}{49} + \frac{11}{49} + \frac{13}{49} = \frac{33}{49}$$

iii) The minimum value of ω may be determined by trial method, i.e. substituting various values of ω and finding the corresponding distributions?

$$P(X \leq 0) = \frac{4}{49}$$

$$P(X \leq 1) = P(X=0) + P(X=1) = \frac{4}{49} + \frac{3}{49} = \frac{7}{49}$$

$$P(X \leq 2) = P(X=0) + P(X=1) + P(X=2)$$

$$= \frac{4}{49} + \frac{3}{49} + \frac{5}{49} = \frac{12}{49}$$

$$P(X \leq 3) = \frac{1}{49} + \frac{7}{49} = \frac{16}{49}$$

$$P(X \leq 4) = \frac{16}{49} + \frac{9}{49} = \frac{25}{49} \quad \text{✓} \quad \cancel{\omega > 4_2}$$

$$P(X \leq 5) = \frac{25}{49} + \frac{11}{49} = \frac{36}{49} \quad \cancel{\omega > 4_2}$$

\therefore The greatest value of ω for which

$$\cancel{P(3 < X \leq 6)}$$

$$P(X \leq \omega) > 4_2 \quad \text{or} \quad \underline{\underline{\omega}} \quad \text{Any}$$

(iv) $P(X \leq 2) > 0.3$

$$\Rightarrow qk > 0.3$$

$$k > \frac{0.3}{q}$$

$$\text{or } k > \frac{1}{q/30}$$

Q) A random variable X has the discrete random variable in the set $\{-1, -0.5, 0.5, 1.5, 3\}$, the corresponding probabilities are assumed to be $\{0.1, 0.2, 0.1, 0.4, 0.2\}$. plot the distribution function and state if it a discrete or continuous distribution function.

Sol

$$F_x(x) = P\{X \leq x\}$$

$$F_x(-1) = P\{X < -1\} = 0, \text{ because there are}$$

no sample space points in the set $(X < -1)$

only $X = -1$, we obtain the outcome. $P\{X \leq -1\} = P\{X = -1\} = 0.1$

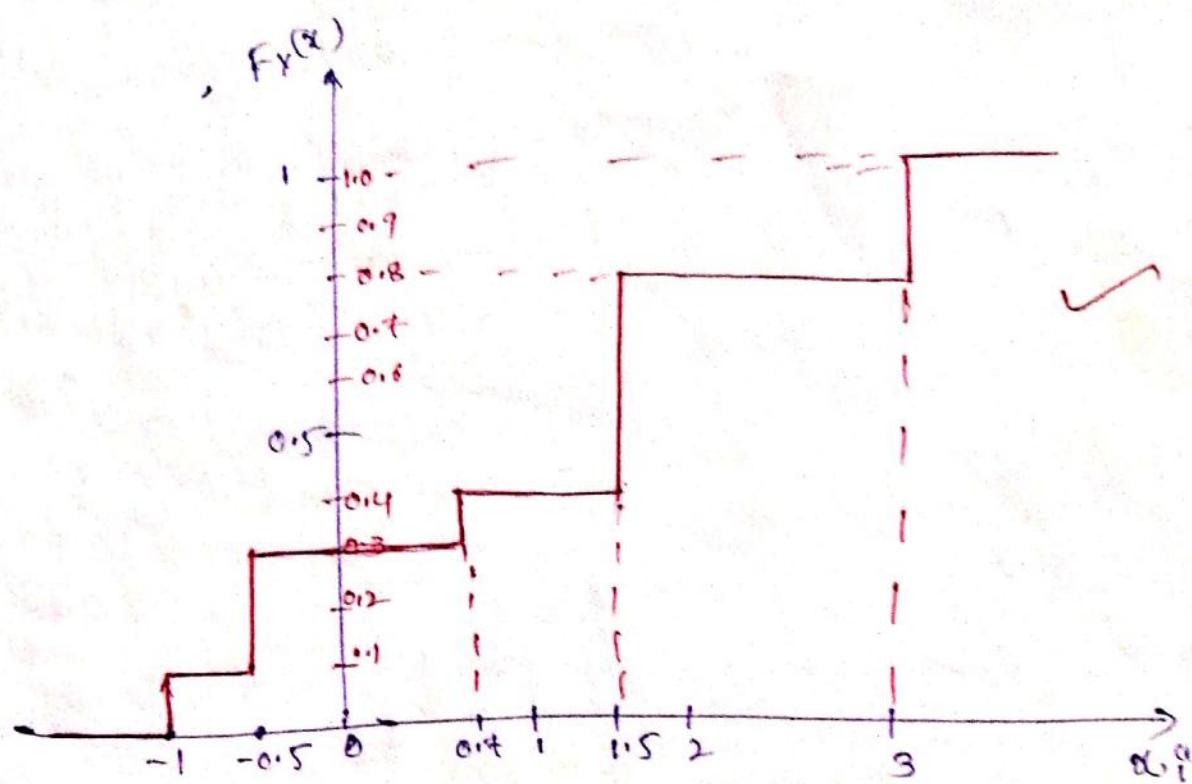
$$\begin{aligned} F_x(-0.5) &= P\{X \leq -0.5\} \\ &= P(X = -1) + (P(X = -0.5)) \\ &= 0.1 + 0.2 \\ &= 0.3. \end{aligned}$$

$$F_x(0.5) = 0.4$$

$$F_x(1.5) = 0.8$$

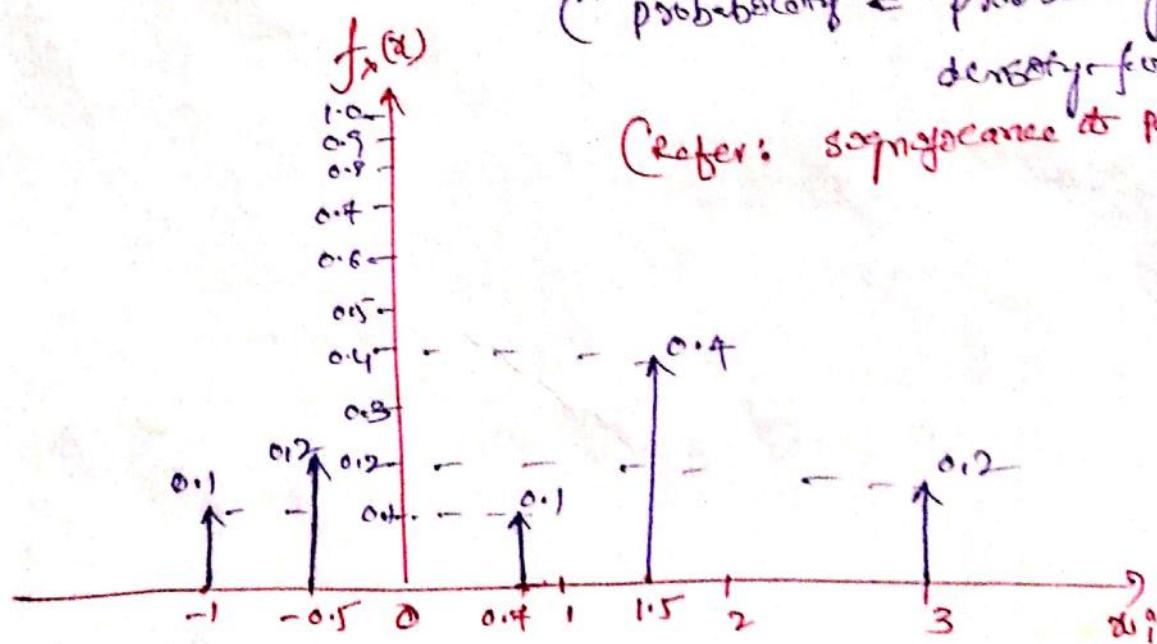
$$F_x(3) = 1.0$$

Distribution function: it discrete Random Variable



density function: it a discrete random variable

(probability = probability density function)
(Refer: significance to pdf)



Result: It a discrete distribution function

UNIT 1

Part 3

Jacob BERNOULLITRIALS

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

Consider an experiment for which there are only two possible outcomes on any trial.

example : flipping a coin, hitting or missing

the target in artillery, passing or failing

an exam,

receiving a 0 or 1 in a computer bit stream

or

winning or losing in a game of chance

for this type of experiment,

let A be the elementary events having

one of the two possible outcomes as its element.

Ā is the only other possible elementary event.

specifically, we shall repeat the basic experiment

N times, and determine the probability that

exactly

A is observed \times K times out of the N trials.

Such repeated experiments are called Bernoulli trials.

Assume that Events are statistically independent.

Let event A occur on any given trial with probability

$$P(A) = p \quad \rightarrow ①$$

$$\text{and} \quad P(\bar{A}) = 1-p \quad \rightarrow ②$$

After N trials of the Experiment, one particular sequence of outcomes has A occurring K times, followed by \bar{A} occurring $(N-K)$ times. Because it is independent of trials, the probability of this one sequence is

$$P(A) \cdot P(A) \cdots \underbrace{P(A)}_{K \text{ terms}} \cdot \underbrace{P(\bar{A}) \cdot P(\bar{A}) \cdots P(\bar{A})}_{(N-K) \text{ terms}} = p^K \cdot (1-p)^{N-K} \quad \rightarrow ③$$

Now, we only need to find the number of such sequences. Some thought will reveal that this is the number of ways of taking K objects at a time from N objects. The number of ways is to be the Binomial Coefficient.

$$(\text{Combination}) \quad \binom{N}{K} = \frac{N!}{K!(N-K)!}$$

$$P\{A \text{ occurs exactly } K \text{ times}\} = \binom{N}{K} p^K \cdot (1-p)^{N-K}$$

f Some other probability distribution and Density functions:-

- ① Binomial
 - ② Poisson
 - ③ Uniform
 - ④ Exponential
 - ⑤ Gaussian
 - ⑥ Rayleigh
- for discrete random variables
- continuous random variables

-

after discussion at

① BINOMIAL :- (Bernoulli trials) .

According to Bernoulli trials

$$P\{A \text{ occurs exactly } k \text{ times}\} = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}.$$

Let $0 < p < 1$ and $N = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ then the

function $f_x(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N+1} \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \delta(x=k)$ — (1)

is called the binomial density function.

Quantity $\binom{N}{k}$ is the binomial coefficient.

$$\binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

nCk

7

The binomial density can be applied to

Bernoulli trials & Experiments. also

- ① It applies to many forms of chance
- ② Detection problems in radar and sonar
- ③ and many experiments having only two possible outcomes on any given trial.
- ④ also used in the study of communication systems.

By Integration of Eq ①, the binomial distribution function is found:

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \cdot u(x-k) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

②

POISSON:

The poisson random variable X has a density and distribution given by.

$$f_X(x) = e^{-b} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b^k}{k!} \delta(x-k)$$

$$\text{and } F_X(x) = e^{-b} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b^k}{k!} u(x-k)$$

where $b > 0$, is a real constant.

where $b > 0$, is a real constant.
 where $b > 0$, is a real constant.
 in such a way that $Np = b$, a constant,
 the poisson case results.

APPLICATIONS:

① poisson R.V. applies to a wide variety of
counting-type applications.

② used for, No of telephone calls made during a period of time.

If the time interval of interest has duration T ,
 and the events being counted (occur) at an average rate of d , then

$$b = dT$$

in the case of

⑧ Uniform \Rightarrow or (Rectangular distribution)

The Uniform probability density and distribution functions are defined by

$$\text{Density} \rightarrow f_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1/(b-a), & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Distribution} \rightarrow F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ (x-a)/(b-a), & a \leq x < b \\ 1 & b \leq x \end{cases}$$

Applications: ① Quantization of signal samples prior to encoding in digital communication systems.

EXPONENTIAL :-

The exponential density and distribution functions are :-

$$\text{density} \rightarrow f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-(x-a)/b}, & x > a \\ 0, & x \leq a \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Distribution : } F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-(x-a)/b}, & x > a \\ 0, & x \leq a \end{cases}$$

Applications : ① The exponential density is useful in describing raindrop sizes when a ~~large~~ large number of rainstorms measurements are made.

RAYLEIGH :-

Two Rayleigh density and distribution functions are:

$$f_x(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)^2}{b}}, & x \geq a \\ 0, & x < a \end{cases}$$

$$F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\frac{(x-a)^2}{b}}, & x \geq a \\ 0, & x < a \end{cases}$$

Applications: ① Two Rayleigh density describes the collapse of one type of noise when passed through a bandpass filter.

② In analysis it is used in various measurement systems.

(German mathematician) Gaussian density or Normal density is

GAUSSIAN :-

A random variable X is called gaussian,
if its density function has the form

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \quad \text{or} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

where

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad \checkmark$$

where μ = mean of the random variable

σ^2 = Variance of the random variable

the Gaussian / Normal distribution or denoted as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (\mu=0)$$

is also called density of gaussian

random variable with zero mean and

Variance σ^2 , denoted as $N(0, \sigma^2)$

13

$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$, is the density of
Gaussian random variable with zero mean and
unit variance, denoted by $N(0, 1)$. This is
referred as "standard normal density".

Consider $f_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} r^2} e^{-x^2/r^2}$

Take the L.P.E. $\frac{d(f_2)}{dx} = 0$

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} r^2} \cdot e^{-x^2/r^2} \right]' = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{r^2} \left[-\frac{(x^2/r^2)}{r^2} \cdot \frac{e^{-x^2/r^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi} r^2} \right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore x = 0$$

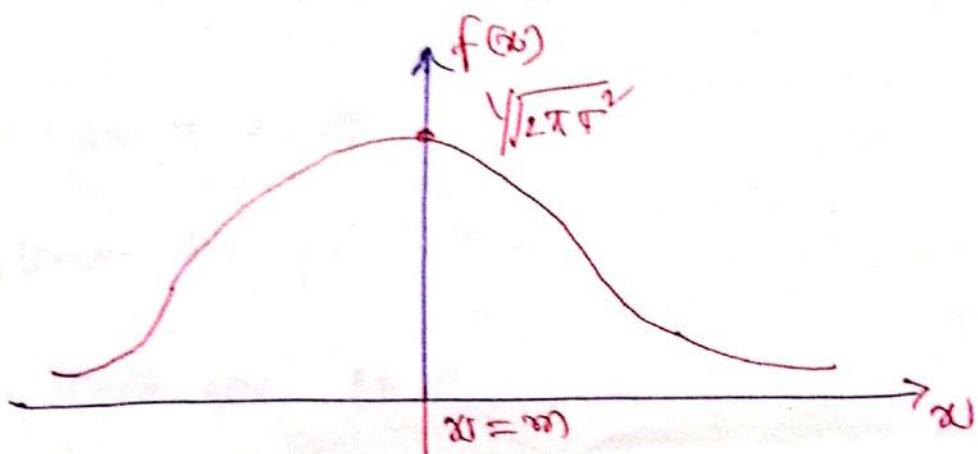
Thus, Gaussian density function has its maximum
at $x = 0$.

The maximum value is $f(0)/\sqrt{2\pi r^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r^2}}$

The Gaussian density function of a bell shaped curve, having its peak at $x = m$ and

- Symmetrical about the mean.

It is plotted as:



The corresponding CDF of a Gaussian random variable is

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x_0) &= \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f_X(x) \cdot dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} e^{-\frac{(x-m)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot dx. \end{aligned}$$

The solution of this integration can be in two different forms:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad F_x(x) = P\{X \leq x\} = 1 - P\{X > x\}$$

$$= 1 - \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot d\omega$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} = p. \Rightarrow x-\mu = \sigma \cdot p.$$

$$d\omega = \sigma \cdot dp.$$

lower limit for $p = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$

Upper limit for $p = \infty$

$$\therefore F_x(x) = 1 - \int_{\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot dp$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \int_{\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}} \cdot dp$$

\star we have $\Phi(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^k e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}} \cdot dp$ named $\underline{\Phi}$ -function

$$\text{thus, } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \int_{\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}} \cdot dp = \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

$$\boxed{\therefore F_x(x) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}$$

(ii)

$$F_x(x) = P(X \leq x) = 1 - P(X > x)$$

$$= 1 - \int_x^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot dx$$

lets $\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}} = p$

$$\Rightarrow dx = \sqrt{2\sigma^2} \cdot dp$$

lower limit for $p = \frac{\mu - \infty}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}$

upper limit for $p = \infty$

$$\therefore F_x(x) = 1 - \int_{\frac{\mu - \infty}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}}^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-p^2} \cdot \sqrt{2\sigma^2} \cdot dp$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \int_{\frac{\mu - \infty}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}}^\infty e^{-p^2} \cdot dp$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \int_{\frac{\mu - \infty}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}}^\infty e^{-p^2} \cdot dp$$

\therefore we have complementary error function

$$\operatorname{erfc}(k) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \int_k^{\infty} e^{-x^2} \cdot dx$$

Thus, $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\frac{x-m}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}}^{\infty} e^{-p^2} \cdot dp = \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{x-m}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right)$

$$\therefore F_x(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{x-m}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

\therefore They, the CDF of a Gaussian random variable can be expressed in terms of φ -function i.e. $\operatorname{erfc}(x)$ or complementary Error function i.e. $\operatorname{erfc}(x)$.

→ Most of the naturally occurring phenomena are characterized by random variable distributed according to Gaussian density function.

§ Conditional Distribution :-

Introduction :-

for two events A and B, the conditional probability of the event A, given that the event B, with $P(B) \neq 0$, is defined as

$$P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A|B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

— (1)

Thus $P(A|B)$ is the probability of the event A, under the condition that the event B has already occurred.

$$F_x(x) = P\{X \leq x\}$$

Conditional Distribution :-

Let A in eq (1) be identified as the event $\{X \leq x\}$ for the random variable X; The resulting probability $P\{X \leq x|B\}$ is defined as the conditional distribution function at x, which we denote

$$F_x(x|B) = P\{X \leq x|B\}$$

$$= \frac{P\{X \leq x \cap B\}}{P(B)}$$

where we use the notation $\{x \leq z \cap B\}$
 to imply the joint event $\{x \leq z\} \cap B$.

$$\text{i.e. } \{x \leq z, B\} \text{ . i.e. } P\{\underset{\leftarrow}{x \leq z}, \underset{\rightarrow}{B}\}.$$

Properties of conditional Distribution :-

$$\textcircled{1} \quad F_x(-\infty | B) = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad F_x(\infty | B) = 1$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad 0 \leq F_x(z | B) \leq 1$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad F_x(x_1 | B) \leq F_x(x_2 | B), \text{ if } x_1 < x_2$$

$$\textcircled{5} \quad P\{\frac{x_1 < x \leq x_2}{B}\} = F_x(x_2 | B) - F_x(x_1 | B)$$

$$\textcircled{6} \quad F_x(x^+ | B) = F_x(x | B)$$

NOTE: Conditional distribution applies to
 discrete, continuous and mixed
 random variables.

§ Conditional Density :-

-: Definition of the conditional distribution functions
 we denote this density by $f_x(w/B)$ (where)

$$f_x(w/B) = \frac{d}{dw} [F_x(w/B)]$$

Properties :-

$$\textcircled{1} \quad f_x(w/B) \geq 0, \forall w$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(w/B) dw = 1$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad f_x(w/B) = \int_{-\infty}^{w/B} f_x(u). du$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad P\left\{ \frac{w_1}{B} < x \leq \frac{w_2}{B} \right\} = \int_{w_1}^{w_2} f_x(u/B) du.$$

* Methods of Defining Underlying Events

one method

(1) Event B_1 is defined in terms R.V. X

Another method

(2) Event B_2 may depend on some other random variable other than X

One way to define event B in terms of X is to be?

$$B = \{X \leq b\}$$

$f_x(\omega | B)$ where b is a real number $-\infty < b < \infty$

$$F_x(\omega | X \leq b) = P\{X \leq \omega | X \leq b\}$$

$$= \frac{P\{X \leq \omega \cap X \leq b\}}{P(X \leq b)}$$

$$f_x(\omega | X \leq b) = \frac{P\{X \leq \omega \cap X \leq b\}}{P(X \leq b)}$$

$$= \frac{P(X \leq b)}{P(X \leq b)} \quad \rightarrow ①$$

$$= 1, \text{ if } \cancel{b \leq \omega}$$

$$F_x(x|x \leq b) = \frac{P\{X \leq x \cap X \leq b\}}{P(X \leq b)}$$

$$= \frac{P(X \leq x)}{P(X \leq b)} = \frac{f_x(x)}{f_x(b)}, \quad x < b \quad \textcircled{2}$$

~~$x < b$~~ \rightarrow ~~$\textcircled{2}$~~

By combining $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$, we obtain

$$f_x(x|x \leq b) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_x(x)}{f_x(b)} & x < b \\ 1 & b \leq x \end{cases} \quad \textcircled{3}$$

The conditional density function derives

from the derivative of $\textcircled{3}$

$$\text{if } f_x(x|x \leq b) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_x(x)}{f_x(b)} = \frac{f_x(x)}{\int_b^x f_x(u) du} & x < b \\ 0 & x \geq b \end{cases}$$

Note: Conditional distribution function is never greater than the ordinary distribution function.

UNIT 1

Part 4

Theory and solved problems

⑤ $F_x(x)$ always lies between [c]

⑥ 1 and -∞ ⑦ → ∞ ⑧ 0 to 1 ⑨ 0 to ∞

⑩ $f_x(x)$ is always [a]

⑪ ② > 0 ③ ≥ 1 ④ ≤ 0 ⑤ ≤ 1

⑫ $\frac{d}{dx} [F_x(B/x)] =$ [a]

⑬ $f_x(B/x)$ ⑭ $F_x(B/x)$ ⑮ $f_x(B/x) \neq 0$

⑯ for a D.R.V, the probability and probability density function are — [a]

⑰ equal ⑱ not equal ⑲ equal to 0

⑳ The CDF plot of a C.R.V will be [b]

㉑ discrete function ㉒ continuous function

㉓ both

[b]

㉔ $F_x(+\infty) =$ —

㉕ 0 ㉖ 1 ㉗ > 1 ㉘ -1

17.07.08

Assessment - UNIT - II

feb-2008-set
Supply New
set-4)

Q. Define and Explain the following density functions

- (i) Binomial
- (ii) Exponential
- (iii) Uniform
- (iv) Rayleigh.

(b) what is the density function of a random

variable X , if X is gaussian. (12+4)m

Q. (i) what are the conditions for the function

to be a random variable? Discuss (4m)

(ii) what do you mean by continuous and
discrete random variable (6m)

Q. Discuss what do you mean by density
function, what is the distribution function
of mixed random variable? (8m)

Q. In an Experiment of fast wheel & chance

i) spun with the numbers 0 to 12 on the

wheel. what is the distribution and density
function explain with plots. (8m)

Nov-2007 - Reg-Set-1

A. M. I.

- ⑤ ① Define Rayleigh density and distribution function) (5 M)

- ② Define and explain Gaussian random variable in brief (5 M)

- ③ Determine whether the following is a valid distribution function. $F(x) = [-e^{-x^2/2}]$, $x \geq 0$ (6 M)

Nov-2007 Reg-Set-2

- ⑥ ① What is binomial density function. Write the equations for binomial distribution function. (6 M)

- ② What do you mean by continuous and discrete random variable? Discuss the conditions for a function to be a random variable (10 M)

Nov-2007-SCE-3 (Reg)

- ③ Define Cumulative probability distribution function and discuss distribution function specific properties. (8 M)

Nov-2007 - Set-4 - Reg

- ④ What is poisson random variable? Explain in brief - (5 M)

- ④ Define conditional distribution and density functions and explain their properties. (10m)

- ⑤ A R.V. X has a PDF $f_x(x) = 3x^2$, $0 \leq x \leq 1$
find 'a' and 'b' such that $0 \leq x \leq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq a) &= \int_{-\infty}^a f_x(x) dx \\ &\quad \text{⑥ } P(X \leq a) = P\{X > a\} \text{ and } (6m) \\ &\quad \text{⑦ } P(X > b) = 0.05 \end{aligned}$$

- ⑧ Define Random Variable and give the concept of random variable

- ⑨ Define conditional PMF? (4m)

- ⑩ A fair coin is tossed 3 times and faces showing up are observed

- ⑪ write the sample description space

- ⑫ If X is no. of heads in each of the outcomes of the exp., find the probability function

- ⑬ Sketch the CDF and PDF (10m)

Jacob BERNOULLI

Swiss mathematician
(1654-1705)

U-2

TRIALS

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

$$\binom{n}{r} = {}^n C_r = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

Consider an experiment for which there are only two possible outcomes on any trial.

Example: flipping a coin, hitting or missing

the target in archery, passing or failing

an exam,

receiving a 0 or 1 in a computer bit stream

or

winning or losing in a game of chance.

for this type of experiment,

let A be the elementary event having

one of the two possible outcomes as its element.

Ā is the only other possible elementary event.

Specifically, we shall repeat the basic experiment

N times, and determine the probability that exactly

A is observed K times out of the N trials.

Such repeated experiments are called Bernoulli trials.

Assume that events are statistically independent.

Let event A occur on any given trial with

probability

$$P(A) = p \quad \leftarrow \textcircled{1}$$

and

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1-p \quad \leftarrow \textcircled{2}$$

After N trials of the experiment, one particular sequence of outcomes has A occurring K times, followed by \bar{A} occurring $(N-K)$ times. Because it is independent at trials, the probability of

the one sequence is

$$\underbrace{p(A) \cdot p(A) \cdots p(A)}_{\substack{\text{K terms} \\ \text{K times}}} \cdots \underbrace{p(\bar{A}) \cdot p(\bar{A}) \cdot p(\bar{A}) \cdots p(\bar{A})}_{\substack{\text{N-K terms} \\ \downarrow}} = p^K \cdot (1-p)^{N-K} \quad \textcircled{3}$$

Now, we only need to find the number of such sequences. Some thought will reveal that this is the number of ways of taking K objects at a time from N objects. The number of known to be the Binomial Coefficient.

(Combinations)

$${N \choose K} = \frac{N!}{K! (N-K)!}$$

$$\therefore \text{Probability of sequence } {N \choose K} p^K (1-p)^{N-K}$$

Note ① When N, K , and $(N-K)$ are large, the factorials are difficult to evaluate. So approximations become useful. One approximation, called Stirling's formula, is

$$m! \approx (2\pi m)^{1/2} m^m \cdot e^{-m}, \quad m \text{ large}$$

$$\therefore P\left\{ \text{A occurs exactly } K \text{ times} \right\} = \binom{N}{K} p^K (1-p)^{N-K}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi NP(1-p)}} \cdot \exp\left[-\frac{(K-NP)^2}{2NP(1-p)}\right]$$

This equation is called "De-moivre - Laplace" approximation.

Note ② If N is very large and p is very small. The poisson approximation is useful.

$$\binom{N}{K} p^K (1-p)^{N-K} = \frac{(NP)^K \cdot e^{-NP}}{K!}$$

{ Some other probability distribution and Density functions:-

- ① Binomial
- ② Poisson } for discrete random variables
- ③ Uniform
- ④ Gaussian } Exponential continuous random variables
- ⑤ Rayleigh

(1) BINOMIAL :- after discussion of
(Bernoulli trials).

According to Bernoulli trials

$$P\{A \text{ occurs exactly } k \text{ times}\} = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}.$$

Let $0 < p < 1$ and $N = 1, 2, \dots$ then the

functions $f_x(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \delta(x=k)$ — (1)

is called the binomial density function. ^{The}

Quantity $\binom{N}{k}$ is the binomial coefficient.

$$\binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

$n \choose k$

The binomial density can be applied to

Bernoulli trial & Experiment. also

- ① It applies to many forms of chance
- ② Detection problems in radar and sonar
- ③ and many experiments having only two possible outcomes on any given trial.
- ④ also used in the study of communication systems.

By Integration of Eq ①, the binomial distribution function is found:

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} e^{-(\lambda - k)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(2)

POISSON:

The poisson random variable X has a density and distribution given by.

$$f_X(x) = \frac{b^x}{e^{-b}} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b^k}{k!} \delta(x-k)$$

and

$$F_X(x) = e^{-b} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b^k}{k!} u(x-k)$$

where $b > 0$, is a real constant.

$N \rightarrow \infty$, and $p \rightarrow 0$, for the binomial case in such a way that $Np = b$, a constant, the poisson case results.

Applications:

① poisson r.v. applies to a wide variety of counting-type applications.

② used for, No of telephone calls made during a period of time

If the time interval of interest has duration T , and the events being counted (occur) at an instant, then $\frac{1}{T}$ is the rate of occurrence.

⑧ Uniform :- or (Rectangular Distribution)

The Uniform probability density and distribution functions are defined by

$$\text{Density} \rightarrow f_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1/(b-a), & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Distribution} \rightarrow F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ (x-a)/(b-a), & a \leq x < b \\ 1 & b \leq x \end{cases}$$

Applications: ① Quantization of signal samples prior to

Encoding in digital communication systems.

EXPONENTIAL :-

The exponential density and distribution functions are :

$$\text{density} \rightarrow f_x(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-(x-a)/b}, & x > a \\ 0, & x \leq a \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Distribution} : F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{--(x-a)/b}, & x > a \\ 0, & x \leq a \end{cases}$$

Applications: ① The exponential density is useful in describing raindrop sizes when a ~~large~~ large number of rainstorms measurements are made.

RAYLEIGH :-

The Rayleigh density and distribution functions are:

$$f_x(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{b}(x-a) e^{-\frac{(x-a)^2}{b}}, & x \geq a \\ 0, & x < a \end{cases}$$

$$F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\frac{(x-a)^2}{b}}, & x \geq a \\ 0, & x < a \end{cases}$$

Applications : ① The Rayleigh density describes the envelope of one type of noise when passed through a bandpass filter.

② In analysis of error in various measurement systems.

PROBLEMS — UNIT-II

① The density function of a continuous random variable x is

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= ax, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\&= a, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2 \\&= 3a-x, \quad 2 \leq x \leq 3 \\&= 0, \quad \text{elsewhere}\end{aligned}$$

① find ④

② If X_1, X_2, X_3 are three independent observations of x , what is the probability that exactly one of these three is greater than 1.5.

Sol:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 ax \cdot dx + \int_1^2 a \cdot dx + \int_2^3 (3a-x) dx = 1$$

$$= a \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 + a [x]_1^2 + \left[3ax - \frac{ax^2}{2} \right]_2^3 = 1$$

$$= \frac{a}{2} + a + \left[\left(9a - \frac{9a}{2} \right) - (6a - 2a) \right] = 1$$

$$= \frac{a}{2} + a + \frac{a}{2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a = \frac{1}{2}$$

Q2 This can be considered as a case of
Binomial distribution

Let the observations greater than 1.5 be success , and let the probability be p .

$$\therefore p = \int_{1.5}^2 a \cdot dx + \int_2^3 (3-a)dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

Among 3 observations, exactly one should be greater than 1.5 .

That can be approximated by Binomial distribution.

Here $N=3$, $K=1$

$$p = \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } (1-p) = \frac{1}{2}$$

∴ The required probability is

$$P\left\{\text{exactly one time}\right\} =$$

$$\binom{3}{1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^1 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= 3 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{\frac{3}{8}}}$$

① A fair coin is tossed 4 times. Find the probability that there will appear.

② 2 heads ③ 1 tail and 3 heads

④ at least one head ⑤ exactly one head
⑥ not more than one head, use binomial distribution

any: ⑦ $\frac{3}{8}$ ⑧ $\frac{4}{4}$ ⑨ $\frac{15}{16}$ ⑩ $\frac{4}{4}$ ⑪ $\frac{5}{16}$

$$⑦ 4C_2 \cdot (4^2) (4^2)$$

$$⑧ 4C_3 (4^3) (4^1)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} ⑨ 1 - P(X=0) \iff \text{or } P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3) \\ \quad + P(X=4) \\ = 1 - 4C_0 (4^0) (4^0) = 7/8 \end{array} \right.$$

$$⑩ 4C_1 (1^1) (4^3)$$

$$⑪ 4C_0 (4^0) (4^4) + 4C_1 (4^1) (4^3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{16} + \frac{4}{16} = \frac{5}{16}$$

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

$$4C_0 (4^0) (4^4)$$

$$4C_1 (4^1) (4^3)$$

note: $nC_0 = 1$

- ① A die is thrown 6 times. Find the probability that a face 3 will occur
- exactly 3 times
 - at least two times
 - at most once
- (Use Binomial distribution)

Sol :

$$N=6$$

Probability of getting a 3 in one throw of the die = $\frac{1}{6}$.

Let it be the success and the probability p
ie $p = \frac{1}{6}$

~~(a)~~ $(1-p) = 1 - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{5}{6} \rightarrow \text{failure}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{a} \quad p(X=3) &= {}^6C_3 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^3 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{6-3} \\
 &= 0.0585 \\
 &\quad \text{or } p(X=2) + p(X=3) \\
 &\quad + p(X=4) + p(X=5) \\
 &\quad + p(X=6) \\
 \textcircled{b} \quad p(X \geq 2) &= 1 - p(X=0) - p(X=1) \\
 &= 1 - {}^6C_0 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^0 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{6-0} - {}^6C_1 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^1 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{6-1} \\
 &= 1 - \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^6 - \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^5 \\
 &= 0.263
 \end{aligned}$$

mean of one face (3)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{c} \quad p(X=0) + p(X=1) &\Rightarrow {}^6C_0 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^0 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{6-0} + \\
 &+ {}^6C_1 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^1 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{6-1} \\
 &= 0.436
 \end{aligned}$$

- ① A random variable has poisson distribution such that $p(X=3) = p(X=4)$, find $p(6)$.

Sol

$$p(X=k) = \frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^k}{k!}, \quad k=1, 2, 3$$

$$p(X=3) = \frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^3}{3!}$$

$$p(X=4) = \frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^4}{4!}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b^k e^{-b}}{k!}$$

$$f_X(x) = p(X \leq x)$$

$$\text{Since } p(X=3) = p(X=4)$$

$$\frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^3}{3!} = \frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^4}{4!}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 4$$

$$\therefore p(6) = p(X=6) = \frac{e^{-b} \cdot b^6}{6!}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-4} \cdot (4)^6}{6!}$$

$$= \underline{0.104} \checkmark$$

① A random variable x has the following distribution.

x_i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$P(x_i)$	a	3a	5a	7a	9a	11a	13a	15a	17a

① find a (Any : $a = 1/81$)

② find $P(X \leq 3)$, $P(X \geq 3)$ and $P(0 < X \leq 5)$

③ find the smallest value of x , for which $P(X \leq x) \geq 1/2$

$$x_5 = 6$$

④ find the CDF of X :

$$F_X(x) = P\{X \leq x\}$$

② consider the experiment of tossing two dice

simultaneously. Let X be the r.v. defined such that it takes values \rightarrow sum of two faces.

plot of CDF

$$x_i^* = \text{sum}$$

x_i^*	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
$P(x_i^*)$	1/36	2/36	3/36	4/36	5/36	6/36	7/36	8/36	3/36	2/36	1/36

$$\text{CDF} \Rightarrow F_X(x) = P\{X \leq x\}$$

$$F_X(2) = 1/36 \quad F_X(3) = 3/36, \quad F_X(4) = 6/36$$

$$F_X(5) = 10/36, \quad F_X(6) = 15/36, \quad F_X(7) = 21/36$$

$$f_x(8) = 26/36 \quad f_x(9) = 30/36, \quad f_x(10) = 33/36$$

$$f_x(11) = 35/36, \quad f_x(12) = 1$$

① A gaussian r.v Σ having a mean 2 and variance 4. find the probability of $X \leq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq x) &= 1 - Q\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) && \text{since } \sigma^2 = 4 \Rightarrow \sigma = 2 \\ &= 1 - Q\left(\frac{1-2}{2}\right) && x=1 \\ &= 1 - Q(-0.5) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{since } Q(0.5) + Q(-0.5) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow Q(0.5) = 1 - Q(-0.5)$$

$$\boxed{\therefore P(X \leq x) = Q(0.5)}$$

① A random variable x is known to have a distribution function

$$F_x(x) = u(x) \left[1 - e^{-x^2/b} \right], \quad b > 0, \text{ a constant}$$

find its density function

Sol: $f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx} [F_x(x)]$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left[u(x) \cdot \left[1 - e^{-x^2/b} \right] \right]$$

$$= u(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \left[1 - e^{-x^2/b} \right] + \left[1 - e^{-x^2/b} \right] \frac{d}{dx} [u(x)]$$

$$= u(x) \underbrace{\left(1 - e^{-x^2/b} \right)}_{\approx 0} + u(x) \cdot \frac{2x}{b} \cdot e^{-x^2/b}$$

$$= \therefore u(x) \cdot \frac{2x}{b} \cdot e^{-x^2/b}$$

The impulse term disappears because
its coefficient is zero at $x=0$, where

Answe: the impulse exists.

note's
for reference $g(x)$

$$g(x) g(x) = g(x) \cdot \delta(x)$$

UNIT 1

Part 5
Problems

57

Is the function defined as follows a density function?

$$f(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x < 2$$

$$= \frac{1}{18}(3+2x) \quad \text{for } 2 \leq x \leq 4$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{for } x > 4$$

Sol: The probability density function satisfies the relation

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

$$\therefore \int_2^4 \frac{1}{18}(3+2x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{18} [3x + x^2]_2^4$$

$$= \frac{1}{18} \{ (12+16) - (6+4) \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{18} [28 - 10] = \frac{18}{18} = 1$$

Since the relation is satisfied, it is a density function.

A Random Variable X has the following probability distribution

X	$P(X)$
0	0
1	K
2	$2K$
3	$2K$
4	$3K$
5	K^2
6	$2K^2$
7	$7K^2 + K$

find

i) The Value of K

ii) $P(X \leq 3)$

iii) The minimum value of m such that

$$P(X \leq m) > 0.5$$

Sol

$$P(S) = 1$$

$$0 + K + 2K + 2K + 3K + K^2 + 2K^2 + 7K^2 + K = 1$$

$$10K^2 + 9K - 1 = 0$$

$$81 + 40$$

$$K = \frac{-9 \pm \sqrt{49 - 40}}{20}$$

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} b &= 9 \\ a &= 10 \\ c &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{-9 \pm \sqrt{121}}{20}$$

$$\therefore K = \frac{-9+11}{20}, \frac{-9-1}{20}$$

$$= \frac{2}{20}, -1$$

$$\text{Since } = \frac{1}{10}, -1$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq 3) &= P(X=0) + P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3) \\ &= 0 + k + 2k + 2k \\ &= 5k \\ &= 5 \times \frac{1}{10} = \underline{\gamma_2} = 0.5 \end{aligned}$$

(iii)

$$P(X \leq m) > 0.5$$

$$\underline{\gamma} = 4$$

The diameter of an electric cable is assumed to be a continuous random variable X with probability density function $f(x)$

$$f(x) = 6x(1-x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

(i) Check that $f(x)$ describes actually a probability density function

(ii) find $P(0 \leq X \leq 0.5)$

Sol (i) $f(x) = 6x(1-x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$$

$$\int_0^1 6x(1-x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 (6x^2 - 6x^3) dx$$

$$= \left[2x^3 - 2x^4 \right]_0^1$$

$$= (3 - 2) = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

Since $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$, the given function

$f(x)$ is a probability density function.

(ii) $P(0 \leq X \leq 0.5) = \int_0^{0.5} 6x(1-x) dx = [2x^3 - 2x^4]_0^{0.5}$

Consider the probability function $f(x) = ae^{-bx}$,
 where x is a random variable whose
 allowable values ranges from $x = -\infty$ to $x = +\infty$
 find (i) cdf $F(x)$ (ii) The relation ship
 between a and b and (iii) the probability
 that the outcome x lies between 1 and 2.

(i)

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

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ae^{-bx} dx = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 ae^{-bx} dx + \int_0^{\infty} ae^{-bx} dx = 1$$

$$\left[a \cdot \frac{e^{-bx}}{b} \right]_0^{\infty} + \left[-\frac{a}{b} e^{-bx} \right]_0^{\infty} = 1$$

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{a}{b} = 1$$

$$\frac{2a}{b} = 1$$

$$2a = b$$

(ii)

$$P(1 \leq x \leq 2) = \int_1^2 ae^{-bx} dx$$

$$= \int_1^2 ae^{-bx} dx$$

$$= a \left[-\frac{e^{-bx}}{b} \right]_1^2 = \frac{a}{b} \left[e^{-b} - e^{-2b} \right]$$

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{1}{2}$$

(2) density
distribution

X is a continuous random variable with distribution

$$f(x) = Kx \quad 0 \leq x \leq 5 \\ = 0 \quad \text{elsewhere}$$

- find (i) $P(1 \leq x \leq 3)$ (ii) $P(2 \leq x \leq 4)$
 (iii) $P(x \leq 3)$ or ~~$P(x < 3)$~~
 $P(0 \leq x \leq 3)$

Sol

$$\int_0^5 Kx \, dx = 1$$

$$K \cdot \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^5 = 1$$

$$K \cdot \left(\frac{25}{2} \right) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow K = \underline{\underline{\frac{2}{25}}}$$

$$(i) P(1 \leq x \leq 3) = \int_1^3 Kx \, dx = \frac{2}{25} \cdot \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_1^3 \\ = \frac{2}{25} \left[\frac{9}{2} - 1 \right]$$

$$= \frac{2}{25} \times \frac{16}{2} = \underline{\underline{\frac{8}{25}}}$$

$$(ii) \int_2^4 Kx \, dx = \frac{2}{25} \cdot \left(\frac{16}{2} - \frac{4}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2}{25} \times \frac{12}{2} = \underline{\underline{\frac{12}{25}}}$$

$$(iii) \int_0^3 Kx \, dx = \frac{2}{25} \left[\frac{9}{2} \right] = \underline{\underline{\frac{9}{25}}}$$

Example 2.1

In a given experiment, if a random variable X has elements $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ with
Probability Theory & Stochastic Processes

probabilities $P_x(x) = \left[\frac{2}{36}, \frac{8}{36}, \frac{12}{36}, \frac{7}{36}, \frac{5}{36}, \frac{2}{36} \right]$. Draw the distribution function of X .

Solution

Given $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$$P_x(x) = \left\{ \frac{2}{36}, \frac{8}{36}, \frac{12}{36}, \frac{7}{36}, \frac{5}{36}, \frac{2}{36} \right\}$$

Therefore, the distribution function of X is given as

$$F_x(x_1) = P(X \leq x_1) = P(x_1) = \frac{2}{36}$$

$$F_x(x_2) = P(X \leq x_2) = P(x_1) + P(x_2) = \frac{2}{36} + \frac{8}{36} = \frac{10}{36}$$

$$F_x(x_3) = P(X \leq x_3) = P(x_1) + P(x_2) + P(x_3) = \frac{10}{36} + \frac{12}{36} = \frac{22}{36}$$

$$F_x(x_4) = P_x(X \leq x_4) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_4) = \frac{22}{36} + \frac{7}{36} = \frac{29}{36}$$

$$F_x(x_5) = P(X \leq x_5) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_5) = \frac{29}{36} + \frac{5}{36} = \frac{34}{36}$$

$$F_x(x_6) = P(X \leq x_6) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_6) = \frac{34}{36} + \frac{2}{36} = 1$$

Table 2.2 shows the values of distribution function $F_x(x)$ and the Fig 2.2 shows the variation of $F_x(x)$ with x .

X	1	2	3	4	5	6
$P(x)$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{8}{36}$	$\frac{12}{36}$	$\frac{7}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$
$F_x(x)$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{10}{36}$	$\frac{22}{36}$	$\frac{29}{36}$	$\frac{34}{36}$	1

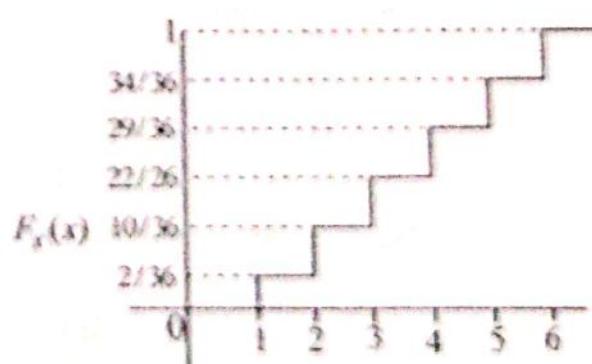


Table 2.2: Probability and PDF of X

Fig 2.2: Distribution function of X

2.2.1 Expression for Distribution Function

Discrete random variable:

If X is a discrete random variable, the distribution function $F_x(x)$ is a cumulative sum of all probabilities of X up to the value x . As x is discrete, the $F_x(x)$ must have a staircase form with step functions. The amplitude of the step is equal to the probability of X at that x value.

2.6 The Random Variable

If the value of X are $\{x_i\}$, the distribution function can be written mathematically as

$$F_x(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i)u(x - x_i) \quad \dots (2.3)$$

where $u(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$

is the unit step function, and $N = \text{No. of elements in } x$. N may be infinite.

For example in the experiment “Tossing 3 fair coins” explained above the distribution function (from the Table 2.1) is

$$F_x(x) = P(x_1)u(x - x_1) + P(x_2)u(x - x_2) + P(x_3)u(x - x_3) + P(x_4)u(x - x_4)$$

$$F_x(x) = \frac{1}{8}[u(x) + 3u(x-1) + 3u(x-2) + u(x-3)]$$

F

X	0	1	2	3
$P(x)$	1/8	3/8	3/8	1
$F(x)$	1/8	4/8	7/8	1

Table 2.1. Probability and PDF of X

Example 2.2

A random variable X has probabilities shown in Table 2.3

- Find the value of K .
- Find $F_x(x)$, $f_x(x)$ and draw the plots

X	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$P(x)$	0.2	$0.5K$	K	0.1	$0.3K$	K

Table 2.3: Probabilities of X

Solution

If a random variable X has probabilities, we know that, the sum of all probabilities is equal to 1. i.e.,

$$\text{from eq. (2.20), } \sum_{i=1}^6 P(x_i) = 1$$

$$0.2 + 0.5K + K + 0.1 + 0.3K + K = 1$$

$$0.3 + 0.8K = 1$$

$$2.8K = 0.7$$

$$\text{Then } K = \frac{0.7}{2.8} = \frac{7}{28} = \frac{1}{4} = 0.25$$

$$\therefore P(x) = \left\{ 0.2, \frac{0.5}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, 0.1, \frac{0.3}{4}, \frac{1}{4} \right\}$$

$$P(x) = \{0.2, 0.125, 0.25, 0.1, 0.075, 0.25\}$$

The cumulative distribution function, $F_x(x)$ is given by

$$F_x(-3) = P(x_1) = 0.2$$

$$F_x(-2) = P(x_1) + P(x_2) = 0.2 + 0.125 = 0.325$$

$$F_x(-1) = P(x_1) + P(x_2) + P(x_3) = 0.325 + 0.25 = 0.575$$

$$F_x(0) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_4) = 0.575 + 0.1 = 0.675$$

$$F_x(1) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_5) = 0.675 + 0.075 = 0.75$$

$$F_x(2) = P(x_1) + \dots + P(x_6) = 0.75 + 0.25 = 1$$

The cumulative distribution function is

from eq. (2.3), $F_x(x) = \sum P(x_i)u(x-x_i)$

$$F_x(x) = 0.2u(x+3) + 0.125u(x+2) + 0.25u(x+1)$$

$$+ 0.1u(x) + 0.075u(x-1) + 0.25u(x-2)$$

and the density function of X is

from eq. (2.6), $f_x(x) = \sum P(x_i)\delta(x-x_i)$

$$f_x(x) = 0.2\delta(x+3) + 0.125\delta(x+2) + 0.25\delta(x+1)$$

$$+ 0.1\delta(x) + 0.075\delta(x-1) + 0.25\delta(x-2)$$

The plots of $F_x(x)$ and $f_x(x)$ are shown in Fig. 2.9.

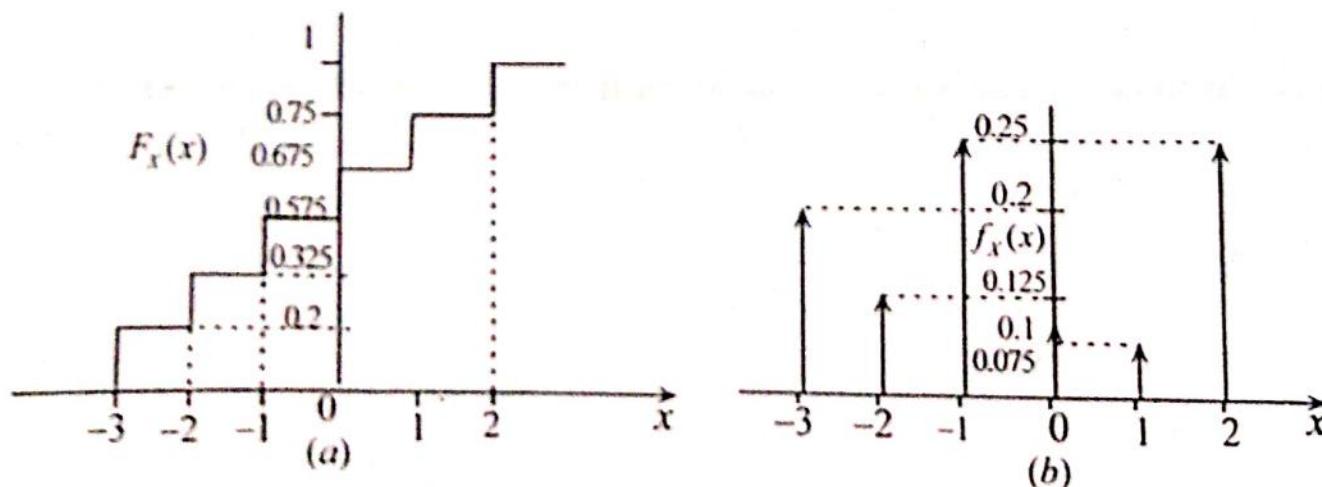


Fig 2.9 : a) Plot for $F_x(x)$ b) Plot for $f_x(x)$

ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS

Example 2.5

If the probability density of a random variable is given by

$$f_X(x) = K(1-x^2) \quad 0 < x < 1$$

Find the value K and $F_X(x)$

Solution

Given the probability density function

$$f_X(x) = K(1-x^2) \quad 0 < x < 1$$

(a) Value of K

If the pdf is valid then

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

$$\int_0^1 K(1-x^2) dx = 1$$

$$K \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = 1$$

$$K \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} \right) = 1$$

$$\frac{2K}{3} = 1$$

$$K = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5$$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{3}{2}(1-x^2) \quad 0 < x < 1$$

(ii) The probability distribution function is given by

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(x) dx$$

$$F_X(x) = \int_0^x \frac{3}{2}(1-x^2) dx$$

or $F_X(x) = \frac{3}{2} \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right)$

$$\therefore F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ \frac{3}{2} \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) & 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

Example 2.15

Consider the experiment of tossing four fair coins. The random variable X is associated with the number of tails showing. Compute and sketch the cumulative distribution function of X

Aug/Sep -2007, June -2003

Solution

Consider the experiment of tossing four fair coins

The Possible events in the sample space are

$\{HHHH, HHHT, HHTH, HTHH, THHH, THTH, TTTH, THHT,$
 $HTTH, HTHT, HHTT, TTTH, TTHT, THTT, HTTT, TTTT\}$

Let X be a discrete random variable shows number of tails.

Therefore from the events,

$$X = \{0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 4\}$$

The probability of each random variable is shown in Table 2.6

X	0	1	2	3	4
$P(X)$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{4}{16}$	$\frac{6}{16}$	$\frac{4}{16}$	$\frac{1}{16}$

Table 2.6: Random variable X with probabilities

The cumulative distribution function of X is

$$F_x(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

$$F_x(0) = P(X \leq 0) = P(0) = \frac{1}{16}$$

$$F_x(1) = P[X \leq 1] = P(0) + P(1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{16} + \frac{4}{16} = \frac{5}{16}$$

$$F_x(2) = P[X \leq 2] = F_x(1) + P(2)$$

$$= \frac{5}{16} + \frac{6}{16} = \frac{11}{16}$$

$$F_X(3) = P[X \leq 3] = F_X(2) + P(3)$$

$$= \frac{11}{16} + \frac{4}{16} = \frac{15}{16}$$

$$F_X(4) = P[X \leq 4] = F_X(3) + P(4)$$

$$= \frac{15}{16} + \frac{1}{16} = \frac{16}{16} = 1$$

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{16}u(x) + \frac{4}{16}u(x-1) + \frac{6}{16}u(x-2) + \frac{4}{16}u(x-3) + \frac{1}{16}u(x-4)$$

$$\text{and } f_X(x) = \frac{1}{16}\delta(x) + \frac{4}{16}\delta(x-1) + \frac{6}{16}\delta(x-2) + \frac{4}{16}\delta(x-3) + \frac{1}{16}\delta(x-4)$$

The cumulative distribution function and probability density function are plotted in Fig.2.18

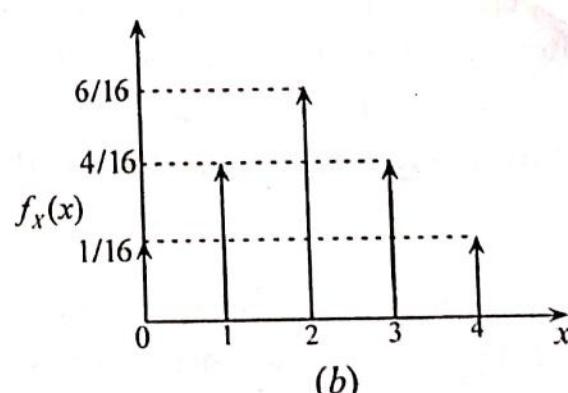
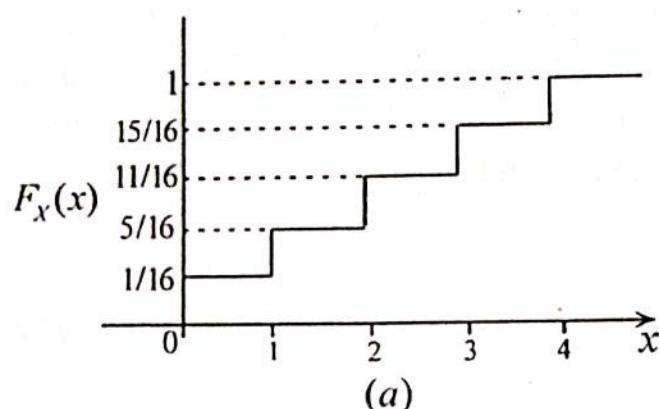


Fig. 2.18: (a) Cumulative distribution function $F_X(x)$ and (b) Probability density function $f_X(x)$

Example 2.17

In experiment where the pointer on a wheel of chance is spun. The possible outcomes are the numbers from 0 to 12 marked on the wheel. The sample space consists of the numbers in the set $\{0 < S \leq 12\}$ and if the random variable X is defined as $X = X(S) = S^2$, map the elements of random variable on the real line and explain. **Feb 2008**

Solution

Here the experiment is the pointer on a wheel of chance is spun the possible outcomes of the experiment are the numbers from 0 to 12.

i.e. the sample space is $S = \{0 \text{ to } 12\}, \{0 \leq x \leq 12\}$

A random variable is given as

$$X = X(s) = S^2$$

Therefore $X = \{0 < X \leq 144\}$.

The points in S are mapped on to the real line as a set $\{0 < x \leq 144\}$, shown in Fig.2.20

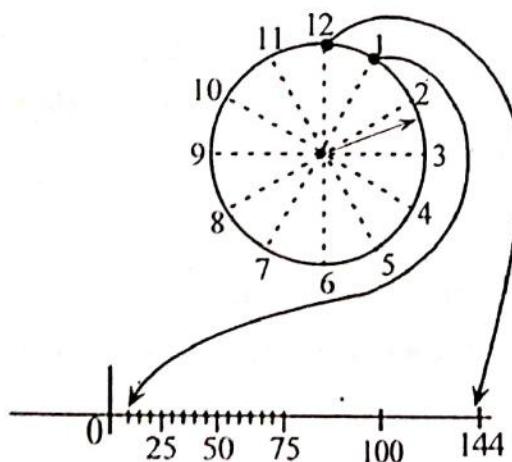


Fig. 2.20: Mapping of S on real line

Example 2.20

A continuous random variable X has a PDF $f(x) = 3x^2$, $0 < x < 1$. Find 'a' and 'b' such that (i) $P\{X = a\} = P\{X > a\}$ and (ii) $P\{X > b\} = 0.05$.

Nov -2006

$$P(X \leq a)$$

2015 Repeated

Solution

Given the probability density function

$$f_X(x) = 3x^2 \quad 0 < x < 1$$

$$(i) \quad P\{X > a\} = 1 - P\{X \leq a\} = 1 - F_X(a)$$

$$= 1 - \int_0^a 3x^2 dx$$

$$= 1 - x^3 = 1 - a^3$$

$$\underbrace{P\{X = a\}}_{= f_X(a)} = 3a^2$$

$$\text{Given that } P\{X = a\} = P\{X > a\}$$

$$3a^2 = 1 - a^3$$

$$P(X = a) = \frac{f_X(a)}{\int_0^1 3x^2 dx}$$

$$a^2(a+3) = 1$$

$$(ii) \quad P\{X > b\} = 1 - P\{X \leq b\} = 0.05$$

$$1 - F_X(b) = 0.05$$

$$F_X(b) = \int_0^b 3x^2 dx = b^3$$

$$\therefore 1 - b^3 = 0.05$$

$$b^3 = 0.05 \quad b = \sqrt[3]{0.05} = 0.3684$$

Example 2.29

Find a value for constant A such that

$$f_x(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < -1 \\ A(1-x^2)\cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right) & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

is a valid probability density function.

May-2011

Solution

Given

$$f_x(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < -1 \\ A(1-x^2)\cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right) & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & x > 1 \end{cases}$$



If the function is a valid probability density function,
then

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

Now

$$\int_{-1}^{1} A(1-x^2)\cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right) dx = 1$$

$$A \left[\left(1 - x^2 \right) \frac{\sin \frac{\pi x}{2}}{\frac{\pi}{2}} \Bigg|_{-1}^{+1} - \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sin \frac{\pi x}{2}}{\frac{\pi}{2}} (-2x) dx \right] = 1$$

$$A \left[0 + \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 x \sin \frac{\pi x}{2} dx \right] = 1$$

$$\frac{4A}{\pi} \left[\frac{x \left(-\cos \frac{\pi x}{2} \right)}{\frac{\pi}{2}} \Bigg|_{-1}^{+1} - \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\left(-\cos \frac{\pi x}{2} \right)}{\frac{\pi}{2}} dx \right] = 1$$

$$\frac{8A}{\pi^2} \left[-x \cos \frac{\pi x}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sin \frac{\pi x}{2} \Bigg|_{-1}^{+1} \right] = 1$$

$$\frac{8A}{\pi^2} \left[-\cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sin \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-(-1) \cos \left(\frac{-\pi}{2} \right) + \frac{2}{\pi} \sin \left(\frac{-\pi}{2} \right) \right) \right] = 1$$

$$\frac{8A}{\pi^2} \left[0 + \frac{2}{\pi} - \frac{2}{\pi} (-1) \right] = 1$$

$$\frac{8A}{\pi^2} \left[\frac{4}{\pi} \right] = 1$$

$$A = \frac{\pi^3}{32}$$

Example 2.32

Let x be a continuous random variable with density function.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{9} + K & 0 \leq x \leq 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- i) Find the value of K ii) Find $P[2 \leq x \leq 5]$

May-2011

Solution

Given

Probability Theory & Stochastic Processes

2. 56 The Random Variable

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{9} + K & 0 \leq x \leq 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(i) If the function is a valid pdf then

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

$$\int \left(K + \frac{x}{9} \right) dx = 1$$

$$\left[Kx + \frac{x^2}{18} \right]_0^6 = 1$$

$$6K + \frac{36}{18} = 1$$

$$6K + 2 = 1$$

$$K = \frac{-1}{6}$$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{x}{9} - \frac{1}{6}$$

$$(ii) P(2 \leq x \leq 5) = \int_2^5 \left(\frac{x}{9} - \frac{1}{6} \right) dx$$

$$= \left[\frac{x^2}{18} - \frac{x}{6} \right]_2^5$$

$$= \left(\frac{25}{18} - \frac{5}{6} \right) - \left(\frac{2^2}{18} - \frac{2}{6} \right) = \frac{25}{18} - \frac{5}{6} - \frac{4}{18} + \frac{2}{6}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} = 0.667$$