



Università
degli Studi di
Messina

DIPARTIMENTO DI INGEGNERIA

Computer System Analysis

Probability and Random
variables

Probability models

- The study of random phenomena
 - Their future behavior is not predictable in deterministic fashion
- Such phenomena are capable of mathematical descriptions
- Ideal probabilistic model of real world situation
 - Lists of all possible outcomes and associated probabilities

Probability theory

- Mathematical tool for managing experiment whose outcome is not known a priori
- Introduced in the late 17th century in the context of gamblings
- Notable mathematicians in probability theory were Pascal, Fermat, DeMoivre, Laplace, Bernoulli, Kolmogorov, Markov

An example

- The number of request arrivals to a WEB server in a fixed time interval $(0, t]$
- The number of arrivals is assumed to have a specific distribution (*Poisson*)
- We replace a complex physical situation with a simple model
 - Only one parameter
 - We can predict the future

Random experiment

- An experiment whose outcome is uncertain
- Random experiment
- Outcomes
 - Possible results an experiment can produce
 - Discrete
 - Continuous
 - Mixed

Sample space

The set of all the possible outcomes of a random experiment

- We will denote it with \mathcal{S}
- \mathcal{S} depends on the experiment, but also on the purpose the experiment is carried out
- \mathcal{S} can be either finite or infinite

Events

- An *event* is a subset of S
- A statement of conditions defining a subset is equivalently an event
 - The set of outcomes such that the statement is true
- A trial is a single performance of the experiment
- Only one outcome can occur on any trial

Definitions

- The sample space S is said *universal* event
- The null set is said *null* or *impossible* event
- The event $\{s\}$, $s \in S$, is said *elementary* event

Algebra of events

- Let E_1 be an event of S
- The complement of E_1 is

$$\overline{E_1} = S - E_1 = \{s \in S | s \notin E_1\}$$

- Intersection of two events:

$$E_3 = E_1 \cap E_2 = \{s \in S | s \in E_1 \text{ and } s \in E_2\}$$

- Union of two events:

$$E_3 = E_1 \cup E_2 = \{s \in S | s \in E_1 \text{ or } s \in E_2\}$$

Algebra of events

- Two events are *mutually exclusive* or *disjoint* events when

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

- It is not possible for both of them to occur in the same trial
- All the definitions above can be easily extended to more events

Algebra of events

- Classical relationships hold
- Commutative laws: $A \cup B = B \cup A$, $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- Associative laws:
$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C, \quad A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C,$$
- Distributive laws:
$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$
- Identity laws: $A \cup \emptyset = A$, $A \cap S = A$
- Complementarity laws: $A \cup \overline{A} = S$, $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$

Graphical representation

- Events could be represented with Venn diagrams
- It is the usual notation for managing sets

Example: dice roll

- $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- "The outcome is 1" is an event (elementary)
- "The outcome is either 1 or 3 or 4" is an event
- "The outcome is an even number" (equivalent to "The outcome is 2, 4 or 6") is an event

Probability

- We assign probabilities to events in the sample space
- Probability represents the “tendency” of an event to be the outcome
- We will denote the probability of an event $A \in S$ with $P(A)$
- Interpretation: the *relative frequency*

Kolmogorov's axioms

- $\forall A \in S, P(A) \geq 0$
- $P(S) = 1$
- $\forall A, B \in S : A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- **If** $A_j \cap A_k = \emptyset, \forall j \neq k$ **then**

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

Properties

- $\forall A \in S, P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$
- $P(\emptyset) = 0$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Pascal/Laplace definition

- $S = \{ E_1, E_2, \dots, E_N \}$
- $P(E_1) = P(E_2) = \dots = P(E_N)$
- $A = E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_{N_A}$

then

$$P(A) = \frac{N_A}{N}$$

- The probability is evaluated as the ratio of favorable events over possible events

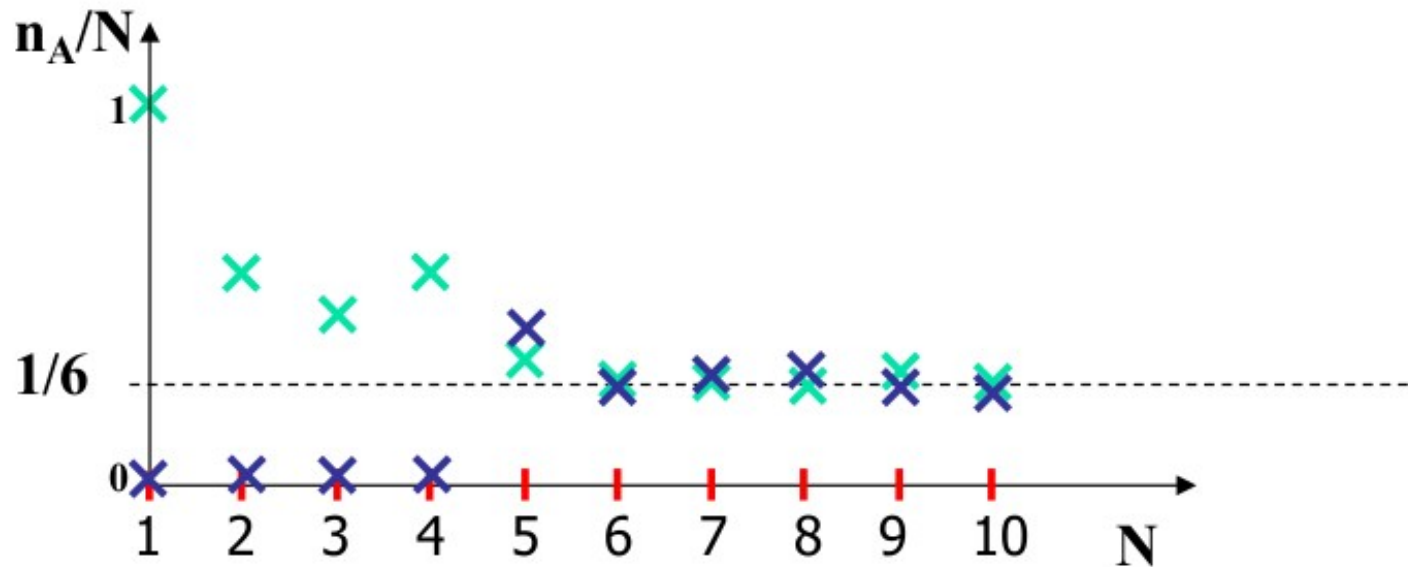
Relative frequency

- N trials of a random experiment
- N_A number of trials with A as outcome

$$P(A) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N}$$

Example: roll dice

- $A=\{2\}$



Generic problem

1. Identify the sample space \mathcal{S}
2. Assign probabilities
3. Identify the events of interest
4. Compute desired probabilities

Conditional probability

- Let us suppose we know that the outcome of an experiment is contained in $B \in \mathcal{S}$
- $P(B) \neq 0$
- Considering a sample point

$$P(s|B) = \begin{cases} \frac{P(s)}{P(B)} & \text{if } s \in B \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin B \end{cases}.$$

- The sample space is restricted to B

Conditional probability

- Probability of an event A may change if we have added information
- Conditional probability is the probability of A given that B occurs: $P(A|B)$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A|B) &= \sum_{s \in A} P(s|B) \\ &= \sum_{s \in A \cap \overline{B}} P(s|B) + \sum_{s \in A \cap B} P(s|B) \\ &= \sum_{s \in A \cap B} P(s|B) \\ &= \sum_{s \in A \cap B} \frac{P(s)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \quad P(B) \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Summarizing

- Let us consider two events, A e B , whose single probability is not null
- The conditioned probability is:

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

where $P(A, B)$ is their joint probability

- Intuition: the probability the event A happens considering it only if the event B happens also

Independent events

- Two events are independent when

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

meaning that B does not affect A

- Also

$$P(A, B) = P(A)P(B|A) = P(B)P(A|B)$$

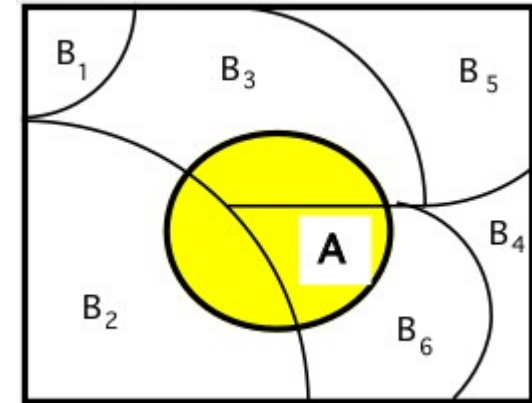
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Total probability theorem

$$B_i \cap B_k = \emptyset$$

$$B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_N = S$$



$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(A|B_i) P(B_i)$$

Example

- We are waiting for an incoming phone call between 8:00 p.m and 9:00 p.m.
- Compute the probability the phone rings between 8:20 p.m and 8:30 p.m.

Example

- Let us consider two coins $m1$ and $m2$
- Compute the following probability

$$P(m1=\text{heads} \mid m2=\text{heads})$$

Example

- The random experiment: to roll two dice
- Estimate the probability to have the outcome $d1="1"$ and $d2="3"$

Example

- The random experiment: to roll two dice
- Let us consider two events:

$$A \equiv \{ (d_1, d_2) : d_1 + d_2 \leq 4 \}$$

$$B \equiv \{ (d_1, d_2) : d_1 \leq 4 \}$$

How much is $P(A|B)$?

Example

- The random experiment: to roll two dice
- The first trial produces "6" as outcome
- How much is the probability to have "6" again in the second trial?

Bayes' theorem

If

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = S; \quad B_i \cap B_k = \emptyset, \quad \forall i, k$$

then

$$P(B_k|A) = \frac{P(A|B_k)P(B_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}$$

Bayes' theorem (cont.)

- When an even A is casued by different events B_k
- $P(A/B_k)$ is the probability to have A due to B_i (*a priori probability*)
- $P(B_k/A)$ is the probability that the cause of A is B_k (*a posteriori probability*)

Bayes' theorem (cont.)

- The Bayes' theorem allows to re-evaluate assumptions (B_k) on the basis of experimental data
- Given an event A , it gives the probability B_k is its cause

An example: software test

A software house has developed a method of software testing which is 100% positive when a bug exists, but also in 5% of correct software cases.

It is also seen that new versions of software are affected by bugs in 1% of cases.

What is the probability that in the event of a positive test on a new version of this software is really buggy?

Solution: software test (1)

We want to infer *a posteriori* knowledge, in specific conditions, given *a priori* knowledge on the conditions:

A priori knowledge

P(T S)	Test (T)	State (S)
0.05	positive	correct
0.95	negative	correct
1	positive	bug
0	negative	bug

We know $P(T|S)$

We would like to know $P(S=b|T=p)$

Software test (2)

Constrains

$$P(T=p \mid S=c) + P(T=n \mid S=c) = 1$$

$$P(T=p \mid S=b) + P(T=n \mid S=b) = 1$$

Experimental data

$$P(S=b)=0.01 \text{ e } P(S=c)=0.99$$

Software test (3)

$$\begin{aligned} P(S=b|T=p) &= P(T=p|S=b) P(S=b) / \\ &\quad (P[T=p|S=b] P[S=b] + P[T=p|S=c] P[S=c]) = \\ &= 1*0.01 / (1*0.01 + 0.05*0.96)= \\ &= 0.168 \end{aligned}$$

Random variables: motivation

- Sample space is made of different kind of "objects"
 - Not necessarily numbers
- It is often useful to associate numbers to the outcomes
- Random variables create association and give a compact (abstract) representation of a random experiment
- Probabilistic computation is performed in terms of random variables

Definition

A random variable (r.v.) X on a sample space S is a function

$$X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

that assigns a real number $X(s)$ to each sample point $s \in S$

- Such that $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, X(s) \leq x$ is an event
- A r.v. partitions S into a mutually exclusive and exhaustive set of events

Random variable

- Function (measurable) from the outcomes of the experiment to a real number
- Ex: toss a coin
 - Sample space $\rightarrow S = \{head, tail\}$
 - r.v. $X : S \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
- Discrete
- Continuous
- Mixed

Discrete r.v.

- A r.v. defined over a discrete sample space is a discrete r.v.
 - A r.v. over a continuous sample space could be either continuous or discrete

Example - Discrete random variable

- Toss a coin

$$S = \{ head, tail \}$$
$$X(head) = 1, \quad X(tail) = 0$$

$$P\{X = 0\} = 0.5$$
$$P\{X = 1\} = 0.5$$

- Constrain

$$\sum_i P(X = x_i) = 1.0$$

Example - Continuous random variable

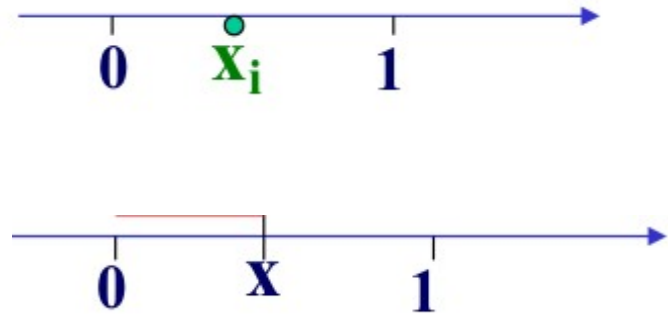
- Uniform generation of a real random number in $[0,1]$

$$S=[0, 1]$$

$$X(x_i)=x_i$$

$$P\{X=x_i\}=0.0$$

$$P\{X \leq x\} = \frac{x-0.0}{1.0-0.0} = x$$



The probability mass function

- An event in terms of r.v. is defined as

$$A_x = \{s \in S | X(s) = x\}$$

thus

$$P(A_x) = P([X \equiv x]) = \sum_{X(s)=x} P(s)$$

- The probability mass function of X is

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_{X(s)=x} P(s)$$

Properties

1) $0 \leq p_X(x) \leq 1$

2) $\sum_i p_X(x_i) = 1$

Probability of events

- We are interested in computing probabilities of subsets A
- Notation: $[X \in A] \quad P(X \in A)$
- Other notation:
 - $A = (a, b), \quad P[X \in (a, b)] = P(a < x < b)$
 - $A = (a, b], \quad P(a < x \leq b)$
 - $A = (-\infty, x], \quad P(X \leq x)$
- In general: $P(X \in A) = \sum_{x_i \in A} p_X(x_i)$

Cumulative distribution Function (CDF)

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

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} F_x(t) = 0, \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} F_x(t) = 1$$

$F_x(t)$: *monotonic, non decreasing function*

$$0 \leq F_x(t) \leq 1; -\infty < t < +\infty$$

$$P(a < X \leq b) = P(X \leq b) - P(X \leq a) = F(b) - F(a)$$

Toss a coin

- $S = \{\text{head}, \text{tail}\}$
- $X: S \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
 - $X(\text{head}) = 0$
 - $X(\text{tail}) = 1$

$$F_X(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ q & 0 \leq t < 1 \\ 1 & t \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad q = 0.5$$

We are interested to r.v. where the parameter is the time, thus $t > 0$

Examples

- Bernoulli probability mass function
- Binomial probability mass function

Continuous random variable

- The sample space is not enumerable
- It is required that the definition of $X(s)$ is such that $X(s) \leq x$ is an event
- It is a function that assigns a real number to each sample point in S such that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \{s | X(s) \leq x\}$$

is an event

- Definition of $F_X(t)$ is extended

Probability distribution function (pdf)

$$f_x(t) = \frac{dF_x(t)}{dt}$$

$$F(t) = \int_0^t f(x) dx$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

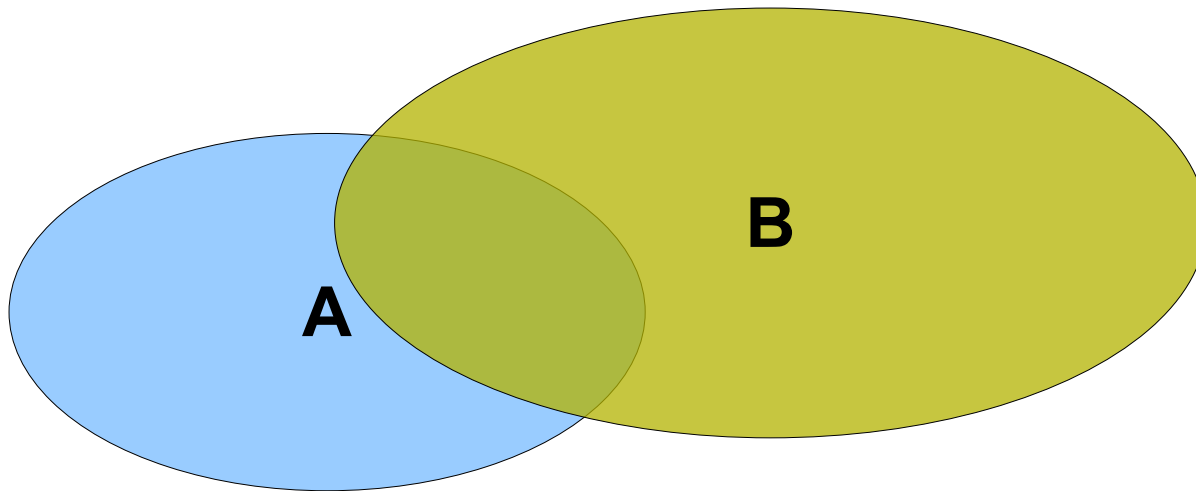
$$P(X \leq t) = \int_0^t f(x) dx$$

$$\Pr(a \leq x \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Sum of two events

Given two events A and B , where $(A \text{ and } B) \neq \emptyset$

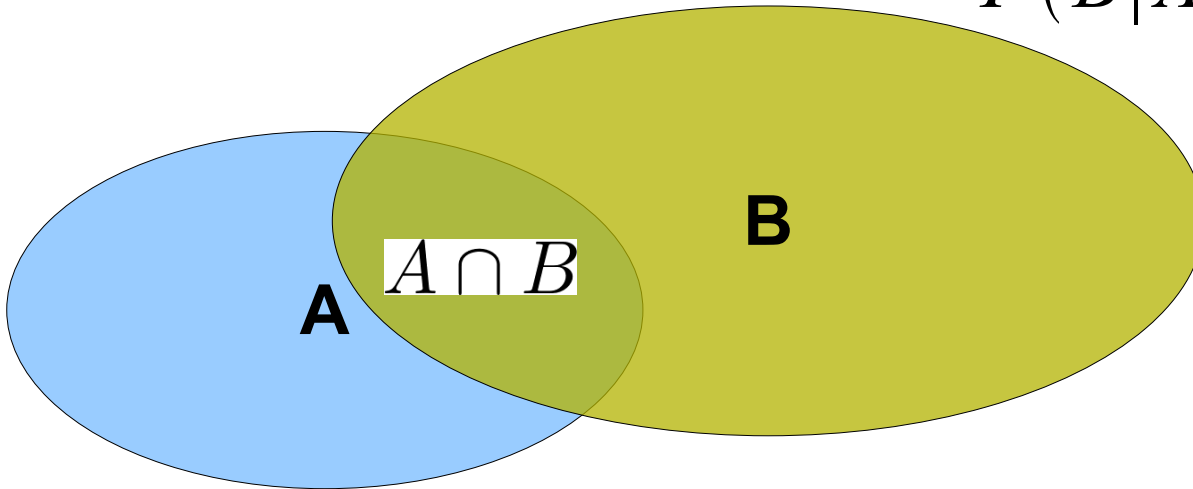
$$P[A \text{ or } B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A, B]$$



Joint event

The probability that two elementary events, A and B , happens during a random experiment

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



Expected value

- It is a sort of “center of gravity” around which all the possible values are spread
- First moment

$$E[X] = \int_0^{+\infty} t f(t) dt$$

Operations

- Stochastic modeling tries to predict system behavior from the knowledge of its components
- The various parts are to be combined in some way

Joint distribution

- Let us consider two r.v. X_1 e X_2 defined over $[0, +\infty)$
 - Ex: failure time of two hard disks of a RAID 0 system storage

- Their joint distribution is defined as

$$F_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = P[(X_1 \leq x_1) \text{ and } (X_2 \leq x_2)]$$

- X_1 and X_2 are said *independent* r.v. iff

$$F_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = F_{X_1}(x_1) F_{X_2}(x_2)$$

Maximum of two r.v.

- X_1 and X_2 are independent and in the range $[0, +\infty)$
- Y_{max} their maximum r.v. and $F_{max}(t)$ the CDF

$$F_{max}(t) = P\{Y_{max} \leq t\} =$$

$$P\{X_1 \leq t \wedge X_2 \leq t\} =$$

$$F_{X_1, X_2}(t, t) =$$

$$F_1(t) F_2(t)$$

- Ex: X_1 and X_2 the failure time of two components $\Rightarrow F_{max}$ is the probability that both are failed

The Maximum of r.v.: an example

- Two threads run concurrently with completion time given by $F_1(t)$ and $F_2(t)$
- Process completion time?

$$F_1(t) = 1 - e^{-4t}; \quad F_2(t) = 1 - e^{-5t}$$

$$F_{\max}(t) = F_1(t)F_2(t) = 1 - e^{-4t} - e^{-5t} + e^{-9t}$$

- The maximum of two independent, exponentially distributed r.v. is **not** an exponentially distributed r.v.

Minimum of two r.v.

- X_1 and X_2 are independent r.v. defined in the range $[0, +\infty)$
- Y_{min} their minimum and $F_{min}(t)$ its CDF

$$\begin{aligned} F_{min}(t) &= P\{Y_{min} \leq t\} = \\ &P\{X_1 \leq t \vee X_2 \leq t\} = \\ &1 - P\{X_1 > t \vee X_2 > t\} = \\ &1 - F_{X_1, X_2}(t, t) = \\ &1 - (1 - F_1(t))(1 - F_2(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Minimum of two r.v.: an example

- Two independent processes execute in parallel with completion time $F_1(t)$ ed $F_2(t)$
- Which is the completion time of one of them?

$$F_1(t) = 1 - e^{-4t}; \quad F_2(t) = 1 - e^{-5t}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\min}(t) &= 1 - (1 - F_1(t))(1 - F_2(t)) = \\ &= 1 - (e^{-4t} e^{-5t}) = \\ &= 1 - e^{-9t} \end{aligned}$$

- The minimum of two independent, exponentially distributed r.v. is an exponentially distributed r.v.

Summation of r.v.

- X_1 and X_2 two independent r.v.
- X_1 followed by X_2
- $F_s(t) = P[X_1 + X_2 \leq t]$

$$F_s(t) = \iint_A f(x, y) dx dy$$

$$A = \{(x, y) | x + y \leq t\}$$

Summation of r.v. (cont.)

$$F_s(t) = \iint_A f(x, y) dx dy = \int_0^t \int_0^{t-x} f(x, y) dy dx$$

by posing $y = z - x$

$$F_s(t) = \int_0^t \int_x^t f(x, z - x) dz dx = \int_0^t \int_0^z f(x, z - x) dx dz$$

$$F_s(t) = \int_0^t \int_0^z f(x, z - x) dx dz$$

Summation of r.v. (cont.)

- By definition

$$F_s(t) = \int_0^t f_s(z) dz$$

thus

$$f_s(z) = \int_0^z f(x, z-x) dx = \int_0^z f_{x1}(x) \cdot f_{x2}(z-x) dx$$

i.e.

$$f_s(t) = f_{x1}(t) \times f_{x2}(t)$$

$$F_s(t) = F_{x1}(t) \times F_{x2}(t)$$

Summation of two r.v.: an example

$$F_1(t) = 1 - e^{-4t}; \quad F_2(t) = 1 - e^{-5t}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_1(t) \times F_2(t) &= \int_0^t \int_0^t (1 - e^{-5(t-x)}) 4 e^{-4x} dx = \\ &= \int_0^t [4 e^{-4t} - 4 e^{-5t} e^{(5-4)x}] dx = \\ &= \int_0^t 4 e^{-4x} dx - 4 e^{-5t} \int_0^t e^x dx = \\ &= [-e^{-4x}]_0^t - 4 e^{-5t} [e^x]_0^t = \\ &= (-e^{-4t} + 1) - e^{-5t} (e^t - 1) = \\ &= 1 - e^{-4t} - 4 e^{-4t} + 4 e^{-5t} = \\ &= 1 + 4 e^{-5t} - 5 e^{-4t} \end{aligned}$$

- Two stages Erlang distribution

Event generator source

- Discrete events: one event into an infinitesimal time interval dt at most
- Constant probability to generate an event in dt : λdt
- Independent events

Stationary Poisson process

Poisson process

- Probability that n events are generated in Δt

$$P[X(\Delta t) = n] \equiv p_n(\Delta t) = \frac{(\lambda \Delta t)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda \Delta t}$$

Poisson process

- Many natural phenomena (counting) are represented by Poisson process
 - Number of accidents in a given time interval
 - Number of shooting stars spotted on August 15th in 20 min.
 - Number of photons emitted by a radioactive source

The observer

- The observer of a Poisson process is interested in the time that elapses between two emissions (r.v.)

- Probability to have no emission in $[0, t[$

$$e^{-\lambda t}$$

- Probability to have one emission only in $(t, t+dt[$

$$\lambda dt$$

- Thus, the probability density function is

$$\lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt$$

The exponential distribution

$$F_x(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$f_x(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$$

- It is widely used in system modeling
 - Telematics (packets inter-arrival time)
 - Electronics (components fault time)
 - Computer engineering (jobs process time)

The *memoryless* property

- Given the r.v. X , representing the component life time
- the r.v. $Y=X-t$ is the remaining life time in t

The *memoryless* property

$$\begin{aligned} F_t(y) &= P(Y \leq y \mid X > t) = P(X - t \leq y \mid X > t) \\ &= P(X \leq y + t \mid X > t) = \frac{P(X \leq y + t, X > t)}{P(X > t)} = \\ &= \frac{P(t < X \leq y + t)}{P(X > t)} = \frac{\int_t^{y+t} f(t) dt}{\int_t^{\infty} f(t) dt} = \\ &= \frac{\int_t^{y+t} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt}{\int_t^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt} = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (1 - e^{-\lambda y})}{e^{-\lambda t}} = 1 - e^{-\lambda y} \end{aligned}$$

- The remaining life time does not depend on the life already spent

The expected value

- The r.v. X such that $F_x(t)=1-e^{-\mu t}$
- Its expected value is

$$E[X] = \int_0^{+\infty} t \cdot f_X(t) dt = \mu \int_0^{+\infty} t \cdot e^{-\mu t} dt$$

- Applying the integration by parts method

$$E[X] = \mu \left[-\frac{t \cdot e^{-\mu t}}{\mu} \right]_0^{+\infty} + \mu \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-\mu t}}{\mu} dt = \frac{1}{\mu}$$