

## Events and Probability

### Event

Set of outcomes from an experiment.

### Sample Space

Set of all possible outcomes  $\Omega$ .

### Intersection

Outcomes occur in both  $A$  and  $B$

$$A \cap B \quad \text{or} \quad AB$$

### Disjoint

No common outcomes

$$AB = \emptyset$$

$$\Pr(AB) = 0 \implies \Pr(\emptyset) = 0$$

$$\Pr(A|B) = 0$$

### Union

Set of outcomes in either  $A$  or  $B$

$$A \cup B$$

### Complement

Set of all outcomes not in  $A$ , but in  $\Omega$

$$A\bar{A} = \emptyset$$

$$A \cup \bar{A} = \Omega$$

### Subset

$A$  is a (non-strict) subset of  $B$  if all elements in  $A$  are also in  $B$  —  $A \subset B$ .

$$AB = A \quad \text{and} \quad A \cup B = B$$

$$\forall A : A \subset \Omega \wedge \emptyset \subset A$$

$$\Pr(A) \leq \Pr(B)$$

$$\Pr(B|A) = 1$$

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

### Identities

$$A(BC) = (AB)C$$

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

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

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

### Probability

Measure of the likeliness of an event occurring

$$\Pr(A) \quad \text{or} \quad P(A)$$

$$0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$$

where a probability of 0 never happens, and 1 always happens.

$$\Pr(\Omega) = 1$$

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

### Multiplication Rule

For independent events  $A$  and  $B$

$$\Pr(AB) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B).$$

For dependent events  $A$  and  $B$

$$\Pr(AB) = \Pr(A|B) \Pr(B)$$

### Addition Rule

For independent  $A$  and  $B$

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(AB).$$

If  $AB = \emptyset$ , then  $\Pr(AB) = 0$ , so that

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B).$$

## De Morgan's Laws

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \bar{B}$$

$$\overline{AB} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}.$$

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = 1 - \Pr(\bar{A} \bar{B})$$

$$\Pr(AB) = 1 - \Pr(\bar{A} \cup \bar{B})$$

## Circuits

A signal can pass through a circuit if there is a functional path from start to finish where each component functions independently.

Let  $W_i$  be the event where component  $i$  functions and  $S$  be the event where the system functions, then

$$\Pr(W_i) = p$$

and  $\Pr(S)$  will be a function of  $p$  defined  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ .

## Conditional Probability

The probability of event  $A$  given  $B$  has already occurred

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

$A$  and  $B$  are independent events if

$$\Pr(A|B) = \Pr(A)$$

$$\Pr(B|A) = \Pr(B)$$

the following statements are also true

$$\Pr(A|\bar{B}) = \Pr(A)$$

$$\Pr(\bar{A}|B) = \Pr(\bar{A})$$

$$\Pr(\bar{A}|\bar{B}) = \Pr(\bar{A})$$

## Probability Rules with Conditional

$$\Pr(\bar{A}|C) = 1 - \Pr(A|C)$$

$$\Pr(A \cup B|C) = \Pr(A|C) + \Pr(B|C) - \Pr(AB|C)$$

$$\Pr(AB|C) = \Pr(A|BC) \Pr(B|C)$$

## Conditional Independence

Given  $\Pr(A|B) \neq \Pr(A)$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  are conditionally dependent given  $C$  if

$$\Pr(A|BC) = \Pr(A|C).$$

Futhermore

$$\Pr(AB|C) = \Pr(A|C) \Pr(B|C).$$

Conversely

$$\Pr(A|B) = \Pr(A)$$

$$\Pr(A|BC) \neq \Pr(A|C)$$

$$\Pr(AB|C) = \Pr(A|BC) \Pr(B|C)$$

Pairwise independence does not imply mutual independence for three events. Independence should not be assumed unless explicitly stated.

## Marginal Probability

The probability of an event irrespective of the outcome of another variable.

## Total Probability

Given  $A = AB \cup A\bar{B}$

$$\Pr(A) = \Pr(AB) + \Pr(A\bar{B})$$

$$\Pr(A) = \Pr(A|B) \Pr(B)$$

$$+ \Pr(A|\bar{B}) \Pr(\bar{B})$$

In general, partition  $\Omega$  into disjoint events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$ , such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = \Omega$

$$\Pr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A|B_i) \Pr(B_i)$$

## Bayes' Theorem

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A) \Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

## Combinatorics

### Number of Outcomes

Let  $|A|$  denote the number of outcomes in an event  $A$ .

For  $k$  disjoint events  $\{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$  where the  $i$ th event has  $n_i$  possible outcomes,

### Addition Principle

Number of possible samples from any event

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i \right| = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$$

### Multiplication Principle

Number of possible samples from every event

$$\left| \bigcap_{i=1}^k S_i \right| = \prod_{i=1}^k n_i$$

## Counting Probability

If  $S_i$  has equally likely outcomes

$$\Pr(S_i) = \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$$

## Ordered Sampling with Replacement

Number of ways to choose  $k$  objects from a set with  $n$  elements

$$n^k$$

## Ordered Sampling without Replacement

Number of ways to arrange  $k$  objects from a set of  $n$  elements, or the  $k$ -permutation of  $n$ -elements

$${}^n P_k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

for  $0 \leq k \leq n$ .

An  $n$ -permutation of  $n$  elements is the permutation of those elements.

$${}^n P_n = n!$$

## Unordered Sampling without Replacement

Number of ways to choose  $k$  objects from a set of  $n$  elements, or the  $k$ -combination of  $n$ -elements

$${}^n C_k = \frac{{}^n P_k}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

for  $0 \leq k \leq n$ .

## Unordered Sampling with Replacement

Number of ways to choose  $k$  objects from a set with  $n$  elements

$$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$$

Distribution	Restrictions	PMF	CDF	E (X)	Var (X)
$X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$	$x \in \{a, \dots, b\}$	$\frac{1}{b-a+1}$	$\frac{x-a+1}{b-a+1}$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a+1)^2-1}{12}$
$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$	$p \in [0, 1], x \in \{0, 1\}$	$p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$	$1-p$	$p$	$p(1-p)$
$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$	$x \in \{0, \dots, n\}$	$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$	$\sum_{u=0}^x \binom{n}{u} p^u (1-p)^{n-u}$	$np$	$np(1-p)$
$N \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$	$n \geq 1$	$(1-p)^{n-1} p$	$1 - (1-p)^n$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$
$Y \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$	$y \geq 0$	$(1-p)^y p$	$1 - (1-p)^{y+1}$	$\frac{1-p}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$
$N \sim \text{NB}(k, p)$	$n \geq k$	$\binom{n-1}{k-1} (1-p)^{n-k} p^k$	$\sum_{u=k}^n \binom{u-1}{k-1} (1-p)^{u-k} p^k$	$\frac{k}{p}$	$\frac{k(1-p)}{p^2}$
$Y \sim \text{NB}(k, p)$	$y \geq 0$	$\binom{y+k-1}{k-1} (1-p)^y p^k$	$\sum_{u=0}^y \binom{u+k-1}{k-1} (1-p)^u p^k$	$\frac{k(1-p)}{p}$	$\frac{k(1-p)}{p^2}$
$N \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$	$n \geq 0$	$\frac{\lambda^n e^{-\lambda}}{n!}$	$e^{-\lambda} \sum_{u=0}^n \frac{\lambda^u}{u!}$	$\lambda$	$\lambda$

Table 1: Discrete probability distributions.

Distribution	Restrictions	PMF	CDF	E (X)	Var (X)
$X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$	$a < x < b$	$\frac{1}{b-a}$	$\frac{x-a}{b-a}$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$
$T \sim \text{Exp}(\eta)$	$t > 0$	$\eta e^{-\eta t}$	$1 - e^{-\eta t}$	$\frac{1}{\eta}$	$p(1-p)$
$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$x \in \{0, \dots, n\}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$	$\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \text{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right)\right)$	$\mu$	$\sigma^2$

Table 2: Continuous probability distributions.

	Discrete	Continuous
Valid probabilities	$0 \leq p_x \leq 1$	$f(x) \geq 0$
Cumulative probability	$\sum_{u \leq x} p_u$	$\int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du$
E (X)	$\sum_{\Omega} x p_x$	$\int_{\Omega} x f(x) dx$
Var (X)	$\sum_{\Omega} (x - \mu)^2 p_x$	$\int_{\Omega} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx$

Table 3: Probability rules for univariate X.

## Random Variables

### p-Quantile

Measurable variable whose value holds some uncertainty. An event is when a random variable assumes a certain value or range of values.

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du = p$$

### Median

$$\int_{-\infty}^m f(u) du = \int_m^{\infty} f(u) du = \frac{1}{2}$$

### Lower and Upper Quartiles

$$\int_{-\infty}^{q_1} f(u) du = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{q_2} f(u) du = \frac{3}{4}$$

## Probability Mass Function

$$\Pr(X = x) = p_x$$

## Probability Density Function

$$\Pr(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$$

## Cumulative Distribution Function

Probability that a random variable is less than or equal to a particular realisation  $x$ .

$F(x)$  is a valid CDF if:

1.  $F$  is monotonically increasing and continuous
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

$$\frac{dF(x)}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du = f(x)$$

## Complementary CDF (Survival Function)

$$\Pr(X > x) = 1 - \Pr(X \leq x) = 1 - F(x)$$

## Quantile Function

$$x = F^{-1}(p) = Q(p)$$

## Expectation (Mean)

Expected value given an infinite number of observations. For  $a < c < b$ :

$$E(X) = - \int_a^c F(x) dx + \int_c^b (1 - F(x)) dx + c$$

## Variance

Measure of spread of the distribution (average squared distance of each value from the mean).

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$$

## Standard Deviation

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$$

## Uniform Distribution

Single trial  $X$  in a set of equally likely elements.

## Bernoulli (Binary) Distribution

Boolean-valued outcome  $X$ , i.e., success (1) or failure (0).  $(1-p)$  is sometimes denoted as  $q$ .

## Binomial Distribution

Number of successes  $X$  for  $n$  independent trials with the same probability of success  $p$ .

$$X = Y_1 + \dots + Y_n$$

$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p) : \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

## Geometric Distribution

Number of trials  $N$  up to and including the first success where each trial is independent and has the same probability of success  $p$ .

## Alternate Geometric Distribution

Number of failures  $Y = N - 1$  until a success.

## Negative Binomial Distribution

Number of trials  $N$  until  $k \geq 1$  successes, where each trial is independent and has the same probability of success  $p$ .

$$N = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_k$$

$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Geom}(p) : \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}.$$

## Alternate Negative Binomial Distribution

Number of failures  $Y = N - k$  until  $k$  successes:

## Poisson Distribution

Number of events  $N$  which occur over a fixed interval of time  $\lambda$ .

## Modelling Count Data

- Poisson (mean = variance)
- Binomial (underdispersed, mean > variance)
- Geometric/Negative Binomial (overdispersed, mean < variance)

## Uniform Distribution

Outcome  $X$  within some interval, where the probability of an outcome in one interval is the same as all other intervals of the same length.

$$m = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

## Exponential Distribution

Time  $T$  between events with rate  $\eta$ .

$$m = \frac{\ln(2)}{\eta}$$

## Memoryless Property

For  $T \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ :

$$\Pr(T > s + t | T > t) = \Pr(T > s)$$

For  $N \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$ :

$$\Pr(N > s + n | N > n) = \Pr(N > s)$$

## Normal Distribution

Used to represent random situations, i.e., measurements and their errors. Also used to approximate other distributions.

### Standard Normal Distribution

Given  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , consider

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

so that  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

## Central Limit Theorem

The sum of independent and identically distributed random variables, when properly standardised, can be approximated by a normal distribution, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} X$  with  $E(X) = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$ :

### Average of Random Variables

If  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ :

$$E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

By standardising  $\bar{X}$ , we can define

$$Z = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

so that  $Z \rightarrow N(0, 1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

### Sum of Random Variables

If  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ :

$$E(Y) = n\mu$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = n\sigma^2$$

$$Y \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

## Binomial Approximations

If  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ :

$$X \approx Y \sim N(np, np(1-p))$$

Sufficient for  $np > 5$  and  $n(1-p) > 5$ . If  $np < 5$ :

$$X \approx Y \sim \text{Pois}(np).$$

If  $n(1-p) < 5$ , consider the number of failures  $W = n - X$ :

$$W \approx Y \sim \text{Pois}(n(1-p)).$$

### Continuity Correction

$$\Pr(a \leq X \leq b) =$$

$$\Pr(a - 1 < X < b + 1)$$

must hold for all  $a$  and  $b$ . Therefore

$$\Pr(a \leq X \leq b) \approx$$

$$\Pr\left(a - \frac{1}{2} \leq Y \leq b + \frac{1}{2}\right).$$

### Poisson Approximation

If  $X_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ :

Let  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ :

$$E(X) = n\lambda$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = n\lambda$$

$$X \approx Y \sim N(n\lambda, n\lambda).$$

Sufficient for  $n\lambda > 10$ , and for accurate approximations,  $n\lambda > 20$ .

## Bivariate Distributions

### Bivariate Probability Mass Function

Distribution over the joint space of two discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$\Pr(X = x, Y = y) = p_{x,y} \geq 0$$

$$\sum_{y \in \Omega_2} \sum_{x \in \Omega_1} \Pr(X = x, Y = y) = 1$$

for all pairs of  $x \in \Omega_1$  and  $y \in \Omega_2$ . The joint probability mass function can be shown using a table:

	$y_1$	$\dots$	$y_n$
$x_1$	$p_{1,1}$	$\dots$	$p_{1,n}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\ddots$	$\vdots$
$x_n$	$p_{n,1}$	$\dots$	$p_{n,n}$

### Bivariate Probability Density Function

Distribution over the joint space of two continuous random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$\Pr(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2, y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2)$$

$$= \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} f(x, y) dy dx$$

This function must satisfy

$$f(x, y) \geq 0$$

$$\int_{x \in \Omega_1} \int_{y \in \Omega_2} f(x, y) dy dx = 1.$$

for all pairs of  $x \in \Omega_1$  and  $y \in \Omega_2$ .

$$\Pr(X = x, Y = y) =$$

$$\Pr(X = x | Y = y) \Pr(Y = y)$$

### Marginal Probability

Probability function of each random variable. Must specify the range of values that variable can take.

### Marginal Probability Mass Function

$$p_x = \sum_{y \in \Omega_2} \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$$

$$p_y = \sum_{x \in \Omega_1} \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$$

### Marginal Probability Density Function

$$f(x) = \int_{y_1}^{y_2} f(x, y) dy$$

$$f(y) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x, y) dx$$

### Conditional Probability Mass Function

$$\Pr(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{\Pr(X = x, Y = y)}{\Pr(Y = y)}$$

$$\sum_{x \in \Omega_1} \Pr(X = x | Y = y) = 1$$

### Conditional Probability Density Function

$$f(x | y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f(y)}$$

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x | y) dx = 1$$

### Independence

Two discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if

$$\Pr(X = x | Y = y) = \Pr(X = x)$$

for all pairs of  $x$  and  $y$ .

Two continuous random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if

$$f(x, y) \propto g(x) h(y)$$

so that

$$f(x | y) = f(x).$$

### Conditional Expectation

$$E(X | Y = y) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_1} x p_{x|y}$$

$$E(X | Y = y) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} x f(x | y) dx$$

### Conditional Variance

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Var}(X | Y = y) \\ &= E(X^2 | Y = y) - E(X | Y = y)^2 \end{aligned}$$

### Law of Total Expectation

By treating  $E(X | Y)$  as a random variable of  $Y$ :

$$E(X) = E(E(X | Y))$$

### Joint Expectation

$$E(XY) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_1} \sum_{y \in \Omega_2} xy p_{x,y}$$

$$E(XY) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} xy f(x, y) dy dx.$$

### Transformation Rules

$$E(aX \pm b) = aE(X) \pm b$$

$$E(X \pm Y) = E(X) \pm E(Y)$$

$$\text{Var}(aX \pm b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X \pm Y) &= \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) \\ &\quad \pm 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Cov}(aX + b, cY + d) = ac \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent:

$$E(X | Y = y) = E(X)$$

$$\text{Var}(X | Y = y) = \text{Var}(X)$$

$\text{Var}(X \pm Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$ $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$ $\text{Var}(XY) = \text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)$ $+ E(X)^2 \text{Var}(Y) + E(Y)^2 \text{Var}(X)$ for constants $a, b, c$ , and $d$ .	<b>Negative</b> if an increase in one variable is more likely to result in a decrease in the other variable.  <b>Zero</b> if $X$ and $Y$ are independent. Note that the converse is not true.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <math>\rho(X, Y) &gt; 0</math> iff <math>X</math> and <math>Y</math> have a positive linear relationship.</li> <li>• <math>\rho(X, Y) &lt; 0</math> iff <math>X</math> and <math>Y</math> have a negative linear relationship.</li> <li>• <math>\rho(X, Y) = 0</math> if <math>X</math> and <math>Y</math> are independent. Note that the converse is not true.</li> <li>• <math>\rho(X, Y) = 1</math> iff <math>X</math> and <math>Y</math> have a perfect linear relationship with positive slope.</li> <li>• <math>\rho(X, Y) = -1</math> iff <math>X</math> and <math>Y</math> have a perfect linear relationship with negative slope.</li> </ul>
<b>Covariance</b> Measure of the dependence between two random variables $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))$ $= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$ The covariance of $X$ and $Y$ is:	Describes the direction of a relationship, but does not quantify the strength of such a relationship.  <b>Correlation</b> Explains both the direction and strength of a linear relationship between two random variables. $\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}}$ where $-1 \leq \rho(X, Y) \leq 1$ . The correlation is interpreted as follows:	The slope of a perfect linear relationship cannot be obtained from the correlation.

## Markov Chains

A Markov chain is a discrete time and state stochastic process that describes how a state evolves over time. States are denoted by the random variable  $X_t$  at time step  $t$ .

### Markov Property

$$\Pr(X_t = x_t | X_{t-1} = x_{t-1}, \dots, X_0 = x_0) = \Pr(X_t = x_t | X_{t-1} = x_{t-1})$$

### Homogeneous Markov Chains

A Markov chain is homogeneous when

$$\Pr(X_{t+n} = j | X_t = i) = \Pr(X_n = j | X_0 = i) = p_{ij}^{(n)}$$

### Transition Probability Matrix

A homogeneous Markov chain is characterised by the transition probability matrix  $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ , where  $m$  is the number of states.  $\mathbf{P}$  must fulfil the following properties:

- $p_{i,j} = \Pr(X_t = j | X_{t-1} = i)$
- $p_{i,j} \geq 0 : \forall i, j$
- $\sum_{j=1}^m p_{i,j} = 1 : \forall j$

$\mathbf{P}$  has the following form

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} & & x_{t+1} \\ x_t & & \end{bmatrix}$$

The  $n$ -step transition probability is given by  $\mathbf{P}^n$ .

### Unconditional State Probabilities

The unconditional probability of being in state  $j$  at time  $n$  is given by

$$\Pr(X_n = j) = p_j^{(n)}$$

Given multiple states, let  $\mathbf{s}^{(n)}$  denote the vector of all states  $p_j^{(n)}$  at time  $n$ . Then

$$\mathbf{s}^{(n)\top} = \mathbf{s}^{(n-1)\top} \mathbf{P}$$

$$\mathbf{s}^{(n)\top} = \mathbf{s}^{(0)\top} \mathbf{P}^n$$

## Stationary Distribution

At steady-state, the probability of being in a particular state does not change from one step to the next.

$\mathbf{s}^{(n+1)} = \mathbf{s}^{(n)} \implies \mathbf{s}^{(n)\top} = \mathbf{s}^{(n)\top} \mathbf{P}$   
The stationary distribution  $\boldsymbol{\pi}$  satisfies  $\boldsymbol{\pi}^\top = \boldsymbol{\pi}^\top \mathbf{P}$ . To determine  $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ , we must use the equation  $\sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i = 1$ .

### Limiting Distribution

Under certain conditions, each row of  $\mathbf{P}^n$  will be equal to  $\boldsymbol{\pi}^\top$  so that each state moves to the next step with the same probability.  $\boldsymbol{\pi}$  provides the long run probabilities of being in each state and the process forgets where it starts.

A sufficient condition for the above is if  $\mathbf{P}^n$  has positive entries for some finite  $n$ .  
*Note that a stationary distribution does not imply that a limiting distribution exists.*

## Poisson Processes

A Poisson process is a continuous time and discrete state stochastic process that counts events that occur randomly in time (or space).

The rate parameter  $\eta$  is the average rate at which events occur. The rate does not depend on how long the process has been run nor how many events have already been observed.

The number of events that occur randomly on the interval  $(0, t)$ , are denoted by the random variable  $X(t)$ .

$$\Pr(X(0) = 0) = 1.$$

Let  $h$  be a small interval such that at most 1 event can occur during that time, then

$$\Pr(X(t+h) = n+1 | X(t) = n) \approx \eta h$$

$$\Pr(X(t+h) = n | X(t) = n) \approx 1 - \eta h$$

$$\Pr(X(t+h) > n+1 | X(t) = n) \approx 0$$

## Poisson Distribution

A Poisson process has a Poisson distribution with rate  $\eta$ , so that  $X(t) \sim \text{Poisson}(\eta t)$ . Here  $\eta t$  is the expected number of events.

The number of events occurring between  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  is given by  $N(t_1, t_2) \sim \text{Poisson}(\eta(t_2 - t_1))$ .

### Exponential Distribution

Let  $T$  be the time between events of a Poisson process so that  $T$  has an exponential distribution

$$T \sim \text{Exp}(\eta).$$

### Properties of Poisson Processes

1. As the time between Poisson processes has an exponential distribution, the Poisson process inherits the memoryless property,

$$\Pr(T > x + y | T > x) = \Pr(T > y).$$

2. Non-overlapping time intervals of a Poisson process are independent. For  $a < b$  and  $c < d$  where  $b \leq c$ ,

$$\Pr(N(a, b) = m | N(c, d) = n) = \Pr(N(a, b) = m)$$

3. If exactly 1 event occurs on the interval  $(0, a)$ , the distribution of when that event occurs is uniform. Let  $X$  be the time  $x < a$  when the first event occurs,

$$X | (N(0, a) = 1) \sim \text{Uniform}(0, a)$$

4. If exactly  $n$  events occur on the interval  $(0, t)$ , then the distribution of the number of events that occur in  $(0, s)$  is binomial, for  $s < t$ . Let  $X$  be the number of events that occur in  $(0, s)$  for  $s < t$ ,

$$X | (N(0, t) = n) \sim \text{Binomial}\left(n, \frac{s}{t}\right)$$