# PROBABILITY THEORY MM 4

#### MM 4: Special probability distributions

**Topics:** 

Discrete distributions:

Bernoulli, binomial, geometric, Poisson

#### Quizz

Suppose X has mean 2 and variance 3

- Compute Var(3X)
  - 3
  - 9
  - 27
- Compute Var(3X+4)
  - 27
  - 31
  - 43

- Compute E[X<sup>2</sup>]
  - **4**
  - 7
- Compute Var(X^2)
  - **-** 9
  - Can not be computed from infomration given

#### Quizz

- Can the following be negative:
  - A r.v. X
  - E[X]
  - $E[X^2]$
  - Var(X)
  - Cov(X,Y)

#### Quiz

- If you have a pdf (pmf), can you find a cdf?
- Is the opposite true?

#### The nth moment of r.v. X

- The mean value is sometimes called the first moment of X.
- Definition. The nth moment of X is defined by

$$E[X^n] = \sum_{i} x_i^n p(x_i)$$

$$E[X^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$$

## Moment generating function

 Definition. The moment generating function of a r.v. X is defined for all values t by

$$\varphi(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \sum_{i} e^{tx_i} p(x_i)$$

$$\varphi(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx$$

- This function is called moment generating function, because all moments of X can be obtained by successively differentiating it.
- There is a one-to-one correspondence between the moment generating function and the distribution function of a r.v.: the mgf uniquely determines the distribution and vice versa.

# How to obtain E[X] and Var(X) from moment generating function?

$$\varphi'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} E[e^{tX}] = E[\frac{d}{dt}(e^{tX})] =$$

$$= E[Xe^{tX}]$$

$$\varphi'(0) = E[X]$$

$$\varphi''(t) = \frac{d}{dt} E[Xe^{tX}] = E[\frac{d}{dt}(Xe^{tX})] =$$

$$= E[X^{2}e^{tX}]$$

$$\varphi''(0) = E[X^{2}]$$

$$Var(X) = \varphi''(0) - \varphi'(0)^{2}$$

#### Example: covariance

joint pdf for X and Y:  $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} ce^{-x}e^{-y}, & 0 \le y < x < \infty \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

The constant c is found from the normalization condition:

$$1 = \int_{0}^{+\infty} \int_{0}^{x} ce^{-x}e^{-y}dydx = \frac{c}{2} = 7 \quad c = 2$$

## Example: covariance (ctnd)

The marginal pdfs:  

$$f_X(x) = \int_0^x 2e^{-x}e^{-y} dy = 2 e^{-x} (1-e^{-x}), x \in [0,\infty)$$
  
 $f_Y(y) = \int_0^\infty 2e^{-x}e^{-y} dx = 2e^{-2y}, y \in [0,\infty)$   
 $E[X] = \frac{3}{2}, Var(X) = \frac{5}{4}$   
 $E[Y] = \frac{1}{2}, Var(Y) = \frac{1}{4}$ 

## Example: covariance (ctnd)

$$E[XY] = \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{x} xy \cdot 2e^{-x}e^{-y}dydx =$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} 2xe^{-x}(1-e^{-x}-xe^{-x})dx = 1$$

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$Corr(X,Y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{54}}\sqrt{14} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

#### What should we learn today?

- A number of r.vs. arises in many diverse, unrelated applications →
   learn them
- What are the main facts about these distributions:
  - Their cdf and pdf
  - Mean and variance
  - Moment generating function
- In which situations the special distributions arrise and how are they interrelated?

#### Bernoulli r.v.

- An experiment with 2 possible outcomes (success or failure) is called a Bernoulli trial.
- The indicator of event A is called the Bernoulli r.v., since it describes outcome of a Bernoulli trial.

$$E[I] = p Var(I) = p(1-p)$$

 Every Bernoulli trial, regardless of the definition of A, is equivalent to the tossing of a biased coin.

#### Example: indicator of an event

- Example: a r.v. I is an indicator of the event A
- The expected value of the indicator of an event is equal to the probability of the event

$$E[I] = 1 \cdot P(A) + 0 \cdot P(A^{c}) = P(A)$$

## Example: indicator of an event

$$I = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if event A occurs} \\ 0, & \text{if event A does not occur} \end{cases}$$

$$Var(I) = E[I^{2}] - E[I]^{2} = E[I] - E[I]^{2} = I^{2} = I^{$$

#### Binomial r.v.

- Let X be a r.v. representing the number of times a certain event A occurs in n trials (number of success in n trials). Denote p probability of success.
- Then X is said to be a binomial r.v. with parameters n and p

$$X \sim b(n, p)$$

Pmf

$$P\{X=i\} = \binom{n}{p} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}, \quad n=0,1,\dots,n$$

$$E[X] = np Var(X) = np(1-p)$$

#### Binomial r.v.: mean and variance

$$X = I_1 + I_2 + ... + I_n$$
where  $I_i$  is a Bernoulli r.v.
$$E[X] = E[I_1 + I_2 + ... + I_n] = E[I_1] + E[X_2] + ... + E[X_n] =$$

$$= P + P + ... + P = np$$

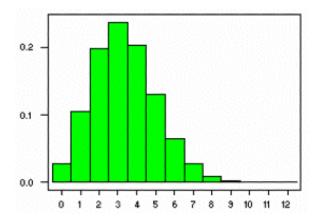
$$= P + P + ... + P = np$$

$$= Var(X) = Var(I_1 + ... + I_n) = Var(I_1) + ... + Var(I_n) =$$

$$= P(I-p) + ... + P(I-p) = np(I-p)$$

$$= n + imes$$

#### Binomial r.v.



Parameters n=20, p=1/6

## Computing the binomial distribution function

$$P\{X \le i\} = \sum_{k=0}^{i} P\{X = k\} = \sum_{k=0}^{i} {n \choose k} P^{k} (1-p)^{n-k}$$

 To optimize the computational process, we can utilize the following relationship between P{X=k+1} and P{X=k}:

$$P\{X = k+1\} = \frac{p}{1-p} \frac{n-k}{k+1} P\{X = k\}$$

Now starting from P(X=0) we can recursively find all other P(X=k)

## Example: n-component system

- A system consists of n components. Each component functions independently with probability p.
- Question: for which values of p is a 5-component system more likely to operate than a 3-component system?

For 5-component system:  

$$P_{1} = P\{X \ge 3\} = P\{X = 3\} + P\{X = 4\} + P\{X = 5\} = 1 - P\{X < 3\} = 1 - P\{X = 0\} - P\{X = 1\} - P\{X = 2\} = 1 - P\{X < 3\} = 1 - P\{X = 0\} - P\{X = 1\} - P\{X = 2\} = 1 - P\{X = 0\} - P\{X = 1\} - P\{X = 1$$

## Example (cntd)

For 3-component system:  

$$P_2 = P \{Y \ge 2 \} = P \{Y = 2 \} + P \{Y = 3 \} =$$

$$= {3 \choose 2} p^2 (1-p) + {3 \choose 3} p^3 (1-p)^{\circ}$$
We would like to choose  $p$  such that  $P_1 \ge P_2$ 

$$\Rightarrow 10 p^3 (1-p)^2 + 5 p^4 (1-p) + p^5 \ge 3 p^2 (1-p) + p^3$$

$$3 (1-p)^2 (2p-1) \ge 0$$

$$P \ge \frac{1}{2}$$

21

#### Why is it called binomial?

N/k	0	1	2	3	4
1	p	q			
2	p <sup>2</sup>	2pq	$q^2$		
3	$p^3$	3p <sup>2</sup> q	3pq <sup>2</sup>	$q^3$	
4	p <sup>4</sup>	4p³q	6p <sup>2</sup> q <sup>2</sup>	4pq <sup>3</sup>	q <sup>4</sup>

Coefficients are the same as in the binomial expansion (p+q)<sup>n</sup>

## The geometric r.v.

- Let a r.v. M be a number of independent Bernoulli trials until the first occurence of a success. M is called a geometric r.v.
- Pmf

$$P\{M = k\} = (1 - p)^{k - 1}p$$

$$E[M] = \frac{1}{p} \qquad Var(M) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

 Example: applications where we are interested in the time that elapses between the occurrence of events in a sequence of independent experiments

#### Geometric r.v.: mean and variance

$$P\{M = k\} = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$$

$$E[M] = \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} k p (1-p)^{k-1}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{k} = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} k x^{k-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^{2}}$$

$$x = 1-p$$

$$E[M] = p \cdot \frac{1}{(1-(1-p))^{2}} = \frac{p}{p^{2}} = \frac{1}{p}$$

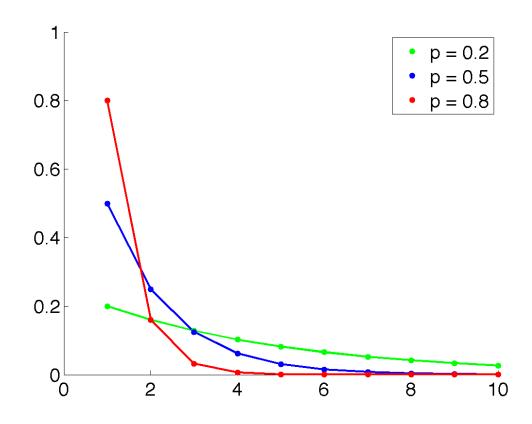
$$E[M] = \frac{1}{p} \qquad Var(M) = \frac{1-p}{n^{2}}$$

M | Probability

1 | p
2 | 
$$(1-p)p$$
3 |  $(i-p)^2p$ 
 $\vdots$ 
 $k |  $(1-p)^{k-l}p$$ 

M2	Pr
1 2 <sup>2</sup>	P
2 3 <sup>2</sup>	(1-p)p $(1-p)^2p$
	( -   -
$k^2$	$(1-p)^{k-1}p$
1	'/

## The geometric r.v.



## The hypergeometric r.v.

- Suppose we have objects of two types: type 1 N objects (acceptable components) and type 2 M objects (defective components). A sample of n objects is randomly chosen without replacement.
- A r.v. X represents a number of type 1 objects in the selection →
  hypergeometric with parameters (N, M, n)
- Pmf

$$P\{X=i\} = \frac{\binom{N}{i} \cdot \binom{M}{n-i}}{\binom{N+M}{n}}$$

$$E[X] = \frac{nN}{N+M} \quad Var(X) = np(1-p)[1 - \frac{n-1}{N+M-1}]$$

## Derivation of formulas for mean and variance of hypergeometric r.v.

$$X = I_{1} + I_{2} + ... + I_{n}$$

$$P\{I_{k} = 1\} = \frac{N}{N+M} = P$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} E[I_{k}] = np = \frac{nN}{N+M}$$

$$I_{k} \text{ are not independent} = >$$

$$Var(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} Var(I_{k}) + 2\sum_{1 \le k < l \le n} Cov(I_{k}, I_{e})$$

$$Var(I_{k}) = P(1-P)$$

$$Cov(I_{k}, I_{e}) = E[I_{k}I_{e}] - E[I_{k}]E[I_{e}]$$

$$E[I_{k}I_{e}] = P\{I_{k}I_{e} = 1\} = P\{I_{k} = 1\}, I_{e} = 1\} = \frac{N}{N+M} \cdot \frac{N-l}{N+M-l}$$

#### Poisson r.v.

A r.v. taking on one of values 0, 1, 2, ... is said to be a Poisson r.v. with parameter λ (λ>0), if pmf is given by

$$P\{X = i\} = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

Moment generating function:

$$\phi(t) = E[e^{tX}] = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

$$E[X] = \lambda$$
  $Var(X) = \lambda$ 

#### Examples

- Examples of events that can be modelled by Poisson distribution:
  - Number of typos (misprints) on a page of a book
  - Number of phone calls at a call center per minute
  - Number of times a web server is accessed per minute
  - Number of pine trees per unit area in a mized forest
  - Number of stars in a given volume of space

— ...

#### When is the Poisson distribution an appropriate model?

- The occurrence of one event does not affect the probability that a second event will occur. That is, events occur independently.
- The rate at which events occur is constant. The rate cannot be higher in some intervals and lower in other intervals.
- The probability of an event in a small interval is proportional to the length of the interval.

Poisson r.v.

Lets verify that it is truly a pmf:  

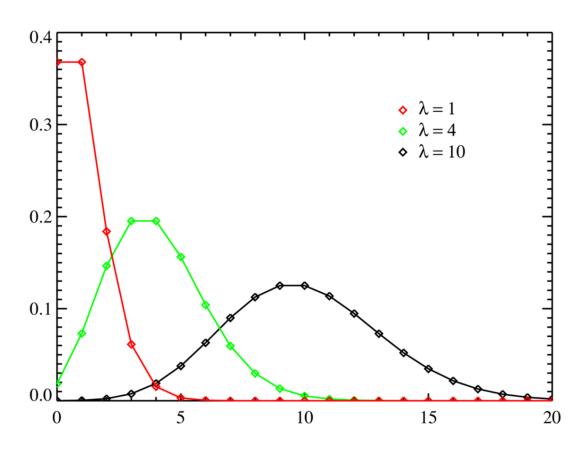
$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P\{X=i\} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{-\lambda} = 1$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{-\lambda} = 1$$

Moment generation function:  

$$\varphi(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{ti} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{i}}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda e^{t})^{i}}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda$$

#### Poisson r.v.



## Approximation for a binomial r.v.

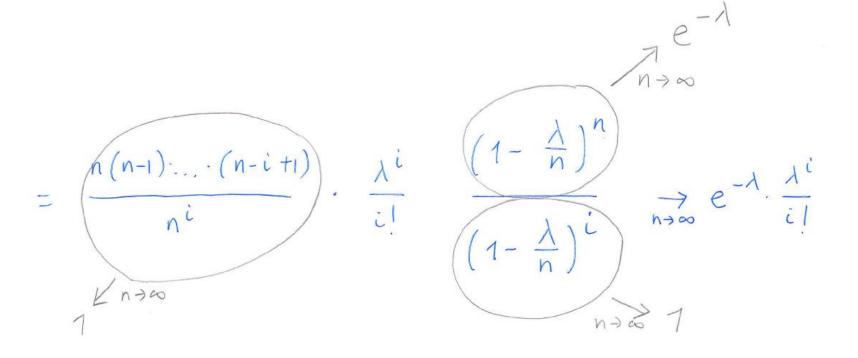
 One of the applications of the Poisson probabilities is to approximate the binomial probabilities – when n is large and p is small.

•  $\lambda = np$ 

33

Let 
$$X \sim b(n,p)$$
. We put  $\lambda = np$   

$$P\{X=i\} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!} p^{i} (1-p)^{n-i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!} (\frac{\lambda}{n})^{i} (1-\frac{\lambda}{n}) =$$



#### Properties of Poisson distribution

- The probability of at least one occurrence of the event in a given time interval is proportional to the length of the interval.
- The probability of two or more occurrences of the event in a very small time interval is negligible.
- The numbers of occurrences of the event in disjoint time intervals are mutually independent.

## Example

 The BER of a communication channel is 10^-3. What is a probability that a block of 1000 bits has five or more errors?

$$X \sim 6(n, p)$$
  $n = 1000$ ,  $p = 10^{-3}$   
Poisson approximation:  $\lambda = np = 1$   
 $P\{X \ge 5\} = 1 - P\{X < 5\} = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{4} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{4} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} = 1 - e^{-1}(1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!}) \approx 0.0036$ 

#### Properties of a Poisson r.v.

- Reproductive property
- Proposition.
  - 1) The sum of independent Poisson r.vs. with parameters  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  is also a Poisson r.v. with parameter  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2$
  - 2) If a Poisson event having mean  $\lambda$  can be independently classified as being of type 1, 2, ... r with respective probabilities

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r(\sum p_i = 1)$$

then type i events are independent Poisson r.v. with means  $\lambda \; p_1 \; , \; \lambda p_2 ... \; \lambda p_r$ 

37