Paisson process.

Recall that a sequence of random variables {\(\text{X}\)n,n\(\text{zo} \) \(\text{Satisfies} \) the Markov property if, conditional on the event {\(\text{X}\)n=i\(\text{z}, \) events related to the collection {\(\text{X}\)m, m=n\(\text{z} \) \(\text{are independent of events related to {\(\text{Z}\)m, m=n\(\text{z} \).

Birth processes have a similar property.

Theorem 4.2.8

Weak Markov Property

Let N(+) be a birth process and T a fixed time. Conditional on the event {NITI=i}, the evolution of the process after fine T is independent of the evolution prior to T.

Proof

This is a direct causequeuce of Detn 4.2.1(d).

The property is "weak" because T is a fixed constant.

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It turns out to be useful to allow T to be a random variable. But, the analogous conclusion cannot hold for all random T, since if T "looks into the future" as well

Next time: expand the discussion as the past, then information about the past may be relevant to the future.

We have to restrict the class of candom times, here is a useful example.

Definition 4.2.7

Arandom time T is a <u>stapping</u> time for the process N(t) if for all $t \ge 0$, the indicator function of the event $\{T \le t\}$ is a function of the values $\{N(s), S \le t\}$ of the process up to time to

In plain words, we can decide whether or not T has occurred by time t knowing only the values of the process up to time t.

Example 4.2.5

The arrival times T., Ta, ... are stapping times.

 $T_{n=j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N(s) \neq n, s < T_n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

For a fixed k, the kth time N visits state n is a stapping time.

and (4.2.9) follows.

To treat more general B,

PLAINITE, B) = E(ZAINITE, B)

= E(E(IA/NOT)=i, B, H)/NOT)=i,B))

H= {N(s): 5 = T3. = P(A | W(t)=i)

E/1A/N(+)=i,B,H)=P(AIN(T)=i) arguing as above.

§ 4.3 More on Peisson Processes

We have investigated two continuous time processes so far, the Poisson process and a natural generalization to birth processes.

Refore continuing to consider other processes, we return to explore further properties of the Poisson process.

while Poisson processes are special, they still with scriptising frequency in nature. Part of the reason is the Law of Rare

Events. We begin by exploring the connection between the two.

Informally, the Law of Place Events says that where a certain event may occur in any of a large number of possibilities, but where the probability that the event occurs in any given possibility is small, then the total number of events that occur fellows approximately a Poisson distribution.

To be precise, consider a large number N of independent Bernoulli trials, where the probability p of success on each trial is small and ransiant from trial to trial. Let Imp be the number of successes in N trials, where Imp Follows a binomial distribution

(4.3.1) $P(X_{N,p} = k) = \frac{N!}{k! (N-k)!} P^{k} (1-p)^{N-k}, k = 0,1,...,N$

We now consider the limit as N > 00 and p > 0, while we keep $\mu = Np > 0$ constant. We have

 $P(X_{N,p}=k) = N(N-1) \cdots (N-k+1) \frac{P^{k}(1-P)^{N}}{k! (1-P)^{k}}$

Substituting P= PN,

$$P(X_{N,p}=k) = N(N-1) \cdots (N-k+1) \frac{\binom{n}{N}^{k} \binom{1-\frac{n}{N}^{N}}{k!} \binom{1-\frac{n}{N}^{N}}{k!} \frac{\binom{n}{N}^{k}}{\binom{1-\frac{n}{N}^{N}}{k!}}$$

$$= 1 \cdot (1-\frac{1}{N}) \cdots (1-\frac{k-1}{N}) \frac{\mu^{k} (1-\frac{n}{N})^{N}}{k!} \frac{(1-\frac{n}{N})^{N}}{k!} \frac{(1-\frac{n}{N})^{N}}{k!} \frac{\binom{n}{N}^{N}}{\binom{n}{N}^{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{\binom{n}{N}^{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{\binom{n}{N}^{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{\binom{n}{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{\binom{n}{N}^{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{\binom{n}{N}} \frac{\binom{n}{N}}{$$

Theorem 4.3.1 Law of Prane Events

If In.p is the number of successes in N Bernoulli

trials with a probability of success P , then

If $\mu = Np$ is carstant,

14.3.2)
$$\lim_{N\to\infty} P(X_{N,p}=k) = \frac{\mu^k \bar{e}^{\mu}}{k!}$$
 $PN=\mu$

which is the Poisson Distribution with parameter p.

Example 4.3.1

Alarge number of care pass through an intersection on any given day, while the chance of an accident is small. We might expect the number of accidents on a given

day to be approximately Poisson distributed.

Before computers, (4.3.2) was actually used to compute binomial probabilities for large N. We don't do this now, but a slight change makes things interesting.

Suppose the probability of success varies from trial to trial. Let II, Iz, ... be independent Bernoulli randown variables with

P(I:=1) = pi, P(I:=0)= 1-Pi

and set $S_N = I_1 + \cdots + I_N$ be the number of successes in Ntrials. Now

 $P(S_N = k) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{N}{i!} P_i^{Y_i} (1 - P_i)^{N-Y_i}$

where & denotes the som over all 0,1-

valued Yis such that Yitint York. This is not very easy to evaluate.
It towns out

Theorem 4.3.2 Law of Rare Events, Version 2 $(4.3.3) | P(S_N = k) - \frac{\mu^k \tilde{e}^k}{k!} | \leq \sum_{i=1}^N P_i^2, \mu = P_i + \dots + P_N.$ This is most useful when Epis is small.

Proof see your text, pg. 285

Now we cannect this discussion to Poisson Journesses.

Recall

Theorem 4.1.1

Let N(t) be a Poisson process. Then, (4.1.1) $P(N(t)=j)=\frac{(\lambda t)^{j}}{j!}e^{-\lambda t}$, j=0,1,2,...

Alternate proof

Divide the interval [o,t] into n subintervals of equal length $h=\pm/n$, and set

 $I_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if there is an event in } (li-i) = 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Sn = I, + ... + In counts the number of

sobjectervals that contain at least one event,

 $P_i = P(\Sigma_i = 1) = \lambda \frac{t}{n} + o(\frac{t}{n})$

by the assumed properties of a Poisson process.

Using (4.3.3),

$$|P(S_n=k) - \frac{\mu^k \bar{e}^{\mu}}{k!}| \leq n \left(\frac{\lambda t}{n} + o(\frac{t}{n})\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{(\lambda t)^2}{n} + \partial \lambda t o(\frac{t}{n}) + n o((\frac{t}{n})^2),$$

where $\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_i = \lambda t + no(\frac{t}{n})$

Now $o(h) = o(\frac{t}{n})$ has order smaller than hand

$$no(\frac{t}{n}) = t \frac{o(t/n)}{t/n} = t \frac{o(h)}{h} \frac{1}{(h \to 0)} o.$$

Letting n-20,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(S_n = k) = \frac{\mu k e^{\mu}}{k!}, \mu = \lambda t.$$

Finally, we observe that Sn differs from N(t) only if one of the subintervals contains two or more events. But

$$P(N(1) \neq S_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(number of events in (li-1) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$$

 $\leq 1.0(\frac{t}{n})$ by assumption

We now discover other distributions that are associated with Poisson processes.

Theorem 4.3.3

The arrival time T_n has the gamma distribution with probability density function (4.3.4) $f(t) = \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} e^{\lambda t}$ $n=1,2,..., t\geq 0$

The event {Tn \le t} occurs if and only if there are at least n events in (0,t]. Since N(t) has the Poisson distribution with mean \lambdat, we obtain the cdif. of Tn via

$$F_{T_n}(t) = P(T_n \le t) = P(N(t) \ge n)$$

$$= \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda t)^k e^{-kt}}{k!} = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}}{k!}$$

Differentiating

$$F_{(n)}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(1 - e^{-\lambda t} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda t}{1!} + \frac{(\lambda t)^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{(\lambda t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right) \right)$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \bar{e}^{\lambda t}.$$

Theorem 4.3.4

For
$$0 < s \neq t$$
, $0 \leq k \leq n$,

 $(4.3.5) P(N(s)=k |N(t)=n) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} (\frac{s}{t})^k (1-\frac{s}{t})^{n-k}$

$$P(N(s)=k|N(t)=n) = \frac{P(N(s)=k,N(t)=n)}{P(N(t)=n)}$$

$$= \frac{P(N(s)=k, N(t)-N(s)=n-k)}{P(N(t)=n)}$$

$$=\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \leq \frac{k(t-s)^{n-k}}{t^n}$$

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The next result says that conditioned on a fixed total number of events in an interval, the times of occurence of