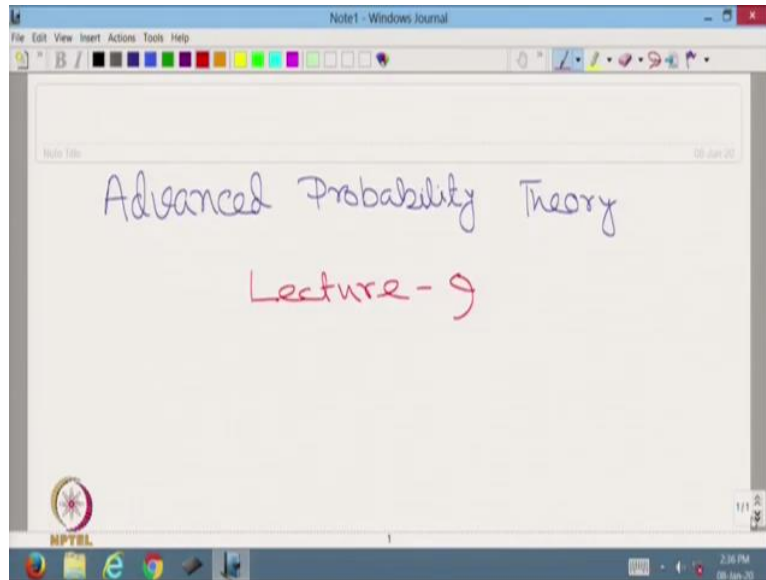


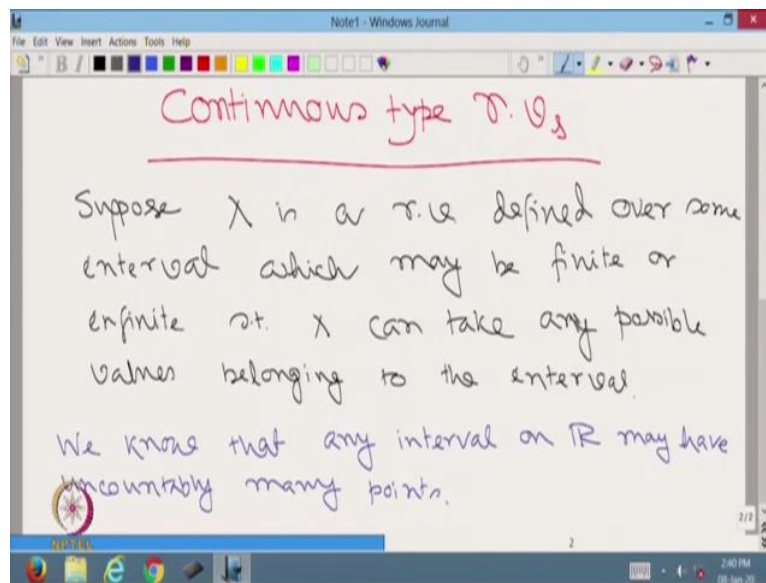
**Advanced Probability Theory.**  
**Professor Niladri Chatterjee.**  
**Department of Mathematics.**  
**Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi.**  
**Lecture 9**

(Refer Slide Time: 0:27)



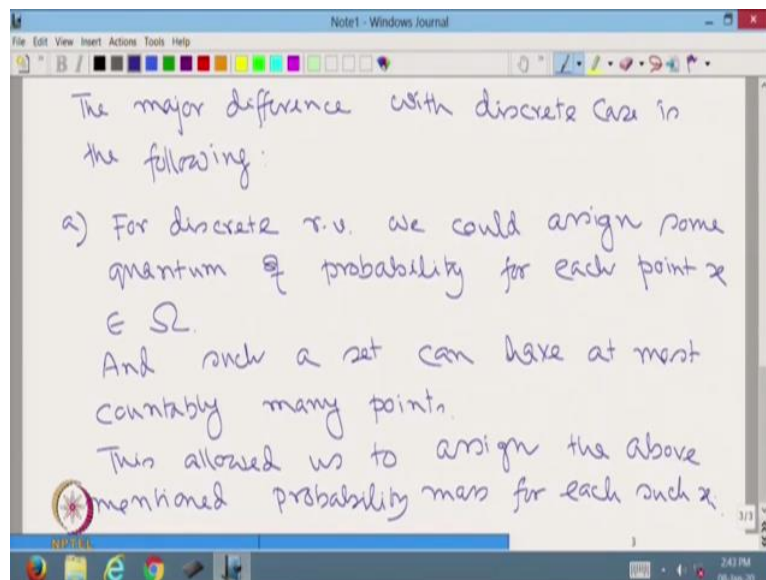
Welcome students to the MOOC's lecture series on Advanced Probability Theory. This is lecture number 9. In the last few classes, we have studied discrete random variables and in particular, we have seen Bernoulli, Binomial, Poisson, negative binomial and hypergeometric distributions, which are discrete distributions on a finite interval on the real line or the entire positive side of the real line that we have seen. In today's class, we shall start with continuous type random variables and that we will continue for next lecture as well.

(Refer Slide Time: 1:21)



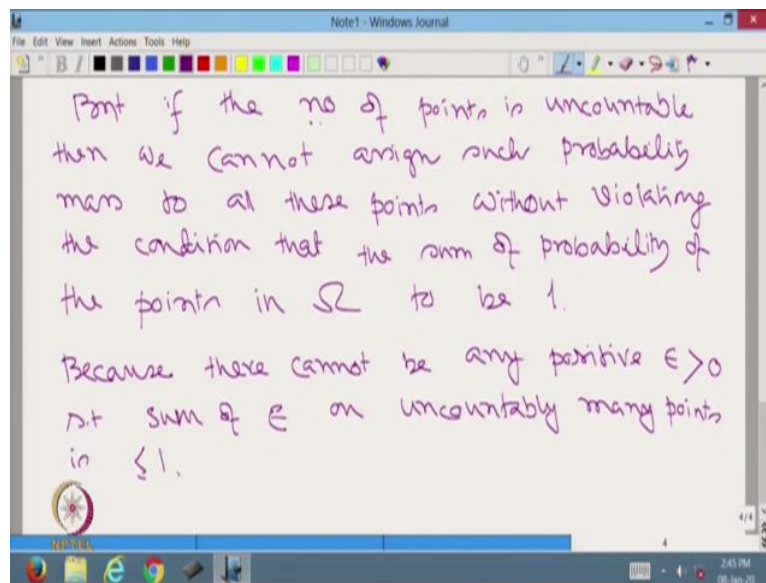
So, we are looking at continuous type random variables. Suppose,  $x$  is a random variable defined over some interval which may be finite or infinite, such that  $x$  can take any possible values belonging to that interval. Now, we know that any interval on  $\mathbb{R}$  may have unaccountably many points. So, what difference does it make?

(Refer Slide Time: 3:23)



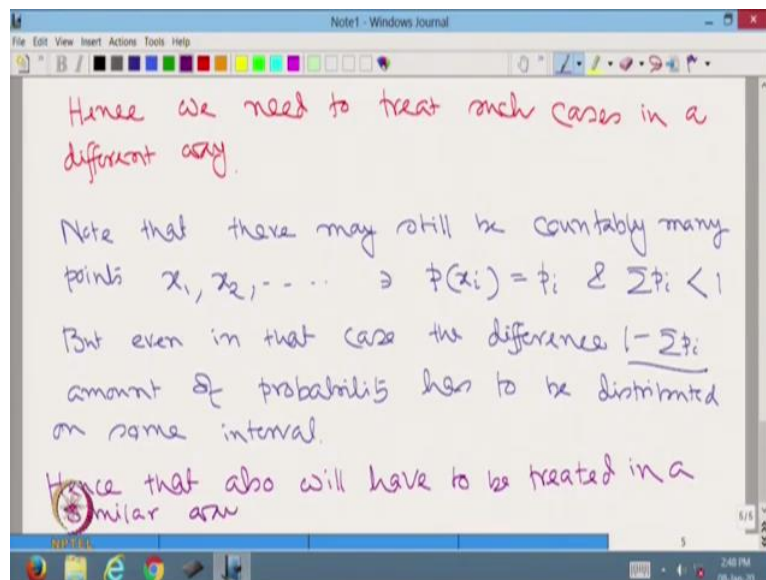
The major difference with discrete case is that, for discrete random variable we could assign some quantum of probability for each point  $x$  belonging to  $\Omega$  and such a set can have at most countably many points. So this allowed us to assign the above mentioned probability mass for each such  $x$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 5:34)



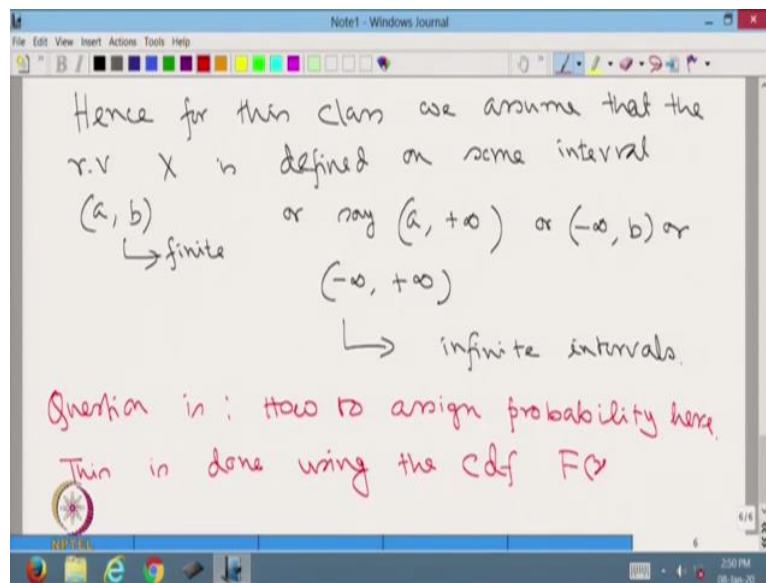
But, if the number of points is uncountable, then we cannot assign such probability mass to all these points without violating the condition that the sum of probabilities of the points in  $\Omega$  to be 1, because there cannot be any positive quantity or epsilon greater than 0, such that sum of an epsilon on uncountably many points is less than equal to 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 7:53)



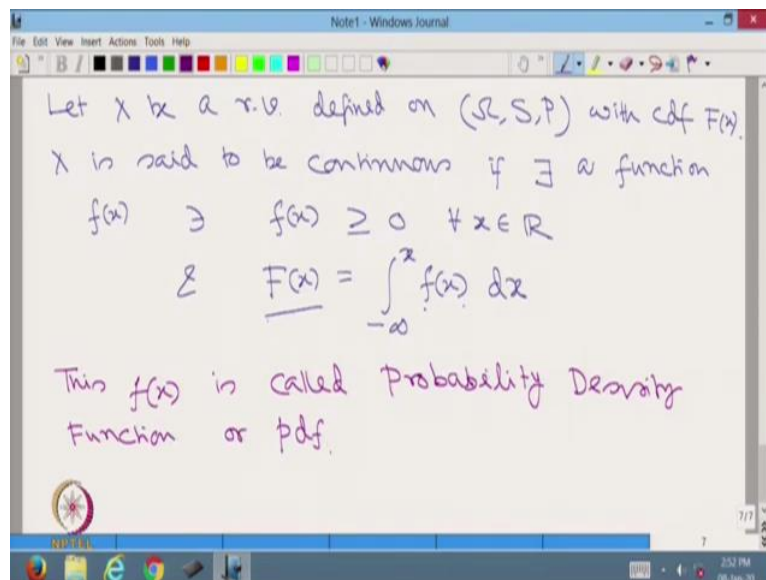
Hence, we need to treat such cases in a different way. Note that, there may be countably many points  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  such that, probability of  $x_i$  is equal to  $P_i$  and  $\sum P_i$  is less than 1, but even in that case the difference  $1 - \sum P_i$ , this quantity has to be distributed on some interval. Hence, that also have to be treated in a similar way.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:13)



Hence, for this class, we assume that the random variable  $X$  is defined on some interval  $a$  to  $b$  which is finite or say some  $a$  to infinity or minus infinity to  $b$  or minus infinity to plus infinity, which are all infinite intervals. Question is, how to assign probability here? This is done using the cumulative distribution function  $F_X$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 12:13)



So, let  $X$  be a random variable defined on  $\Omega, S, P$ , which we all know is the probability space with cdf  $F_X$ .  $X$  is said to be continuous, if there exists a function  $f_X$  such that,  $f_X$  greater than equal to 0 for all  $x$  belonging to  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $F_X$  is equal to minus infinity to  $x$   $f_X dx$ . That is, we get the cumulative distribution function by integrating the function small  $f_X$  in the range minus infinity to  $x$ . This small  $f_X$  is called probability density function or pdf.

So, the major difference between probability mass function and probability density function is that, probability mass function associates a quantum of probability to the corresponding point  $x$ . Here, we are not assigning probability to any particular point  $x$ , but we are looking at the event that random variable  $X$  is taking value less than equal to  $x$ . And we are computing that probability by integration, by integrating the probability density function, small  $f_x$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 14:57)

Some important points on continuous Dist'n

1) Since  $F(x) = P(X \leq x) \therefore F(+\infty)$   
 $= \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1.$

2) If  $a < b$  are two real nos then  
 $P(a < x \leq b) = P(X \leq b) - P(X \leq a)$   
 $= F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$

Now, let us discuss some important points on continuous distribution. One, since  $F_x$  is equal to probability  $X$  less than equal to  $x$  therefore,  $F$  of plus infinity is equal to limit  $a$  going to infinity minus infinity to  $a f_x dx$  is equal to, we can write as minus infinity to infinity  $f_x dx$  is equal to 1. Two, if  $a$  less than  $b$  are two real numbers, then probability  $a$  less than  $x$  less than equal to  $b$  is equal to probability  $x$  less than equal to  $b$  minus probability  $x$  less than equal to  $a$  is equal to  $F b$  minus  $F a$  is equal to  $a$  to  $b f_x dx$ .

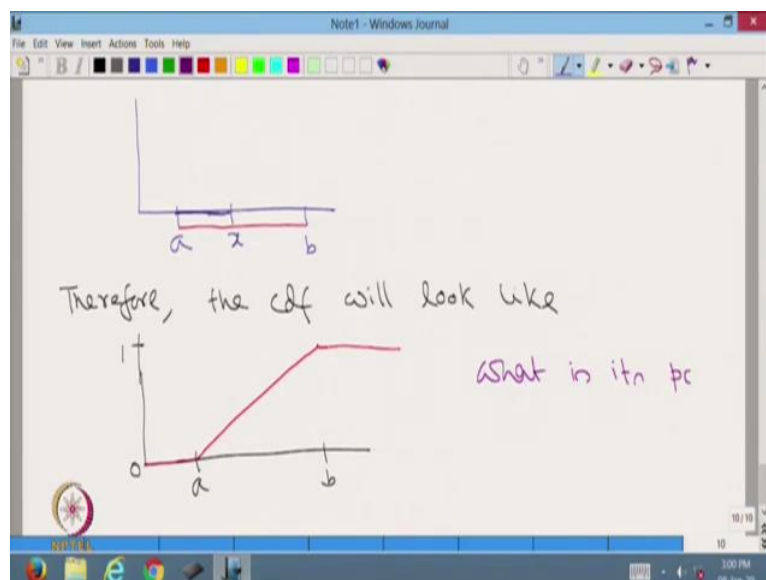
(Refer Slide Time: 16:51)

3) Since we obtain  $F(x)$  by integrating  $f(x)$  we may obtain  $f(x)$  as  $F'(x)$ .  
i.e.  $\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x)$

4) Consider for example: a r.v  $X$  which is uniformly distributed on an interval  $[a, b]$ .  
Its cdf will look as follows: 
$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & \text{if } x > b \end{cases}$$

Three, since we obtain  $F_x$  by integrating small  $f_x$ , we may obtain  $f_x$  as the derivative of the cumulative distribution function capital  $F_x$ , that is  $\frac{d}{dx}$  of  $F_x$  is equal to small  $f_x$ . Four, consider for example, a random variable  $X$  which is uniformly distributed on an interval  $a$  to  $b$ . Therefore, its cdf will look like it is 0 if  $x$  less than  $a$ , it is  $x$  minus  $a$  upon  $b$  minus  $a$  for  $a$  less than equal to  $x$ , less than equal to  $b$  and it is 1 if  $x$  greater than  $b$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 19:09)



This is very obvious, because suppose this is my  $a$  and this is my  $b$ , therefore, for any point  $x$  the probability that the random variable  $X$  less than equal to this  $x$  is as we know that, is length of this interval upon length of the total interval. Therefore, the cdf will look like,



below A it is going to be 0, from a to b, it is linearly increased to 1 and after b it will remain constant at 1. Question is what is its pdf?

(Refer Slide Time: 20:38)

Handwritten notes on a digital whiteboard:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < a \\ \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{for } x > b \end{cases}$$

5) For discrete case  $P_x$  gives the probability  $X=x$ . Therefore  $0 \leq P_x \leq 1 \quad \forall x$ .

Pmt Since pdf is Not to be interpreted as the probability assigned to a point pdf need not be  $\leq 1$  for all  $x$ .

Very obvious,  $f$  of  $x$  is going to be 0 if  $x$  less than  $a$ , this is going to be 1 upon  $b$  minus  $a$  for  $a$  less than equal to  $x$  less than equal to  $b$  and 0 for  $x$  greater than  $b$ . For discrete case,  $P$  of  $x$  gives the probability  $X$  is equal to small  $x$ . Therefore,  $P_x$  is less than equal to 1, greater than equal to 0 for all  $x$ , but, since pdf is not to be interpreted as the probability assigned to a point, pdf need not be less than equal to 1 for all  $x$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 22:29)

Handwritten notes on a digital whiteboard:

Consider for illustration Uniform dist<sup>n</sup> over  $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$

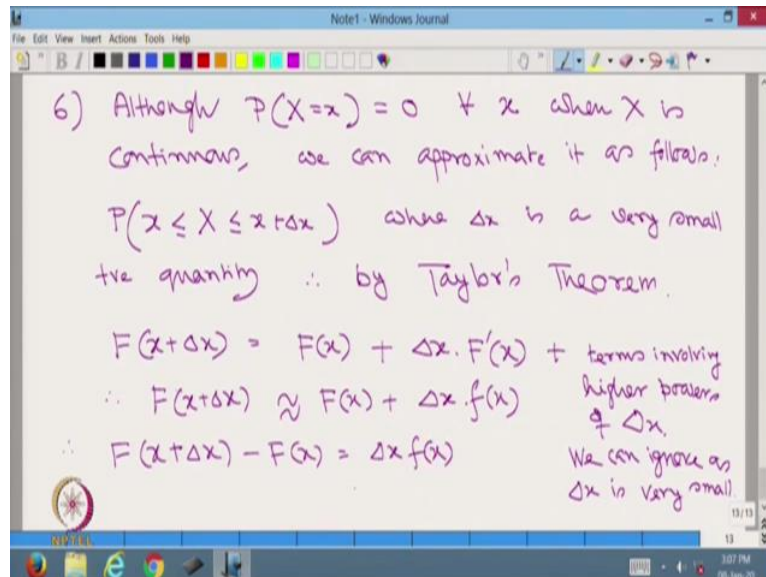
$\therefore$  Its pdf is

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{if } x > \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

Note that pdf at  $x > 1$ .

Consider for illustration, uniform distribution over 0 to half. So, since it is uniform over 0 to half, therefore, its pdf is 0 if  $x$  less than 0, it is 2 if 0 less than equal to  $x$  less than equal to half and is 0 if  $x$  is greater than half. So, note that pdf at  $x$  is greater than 1.

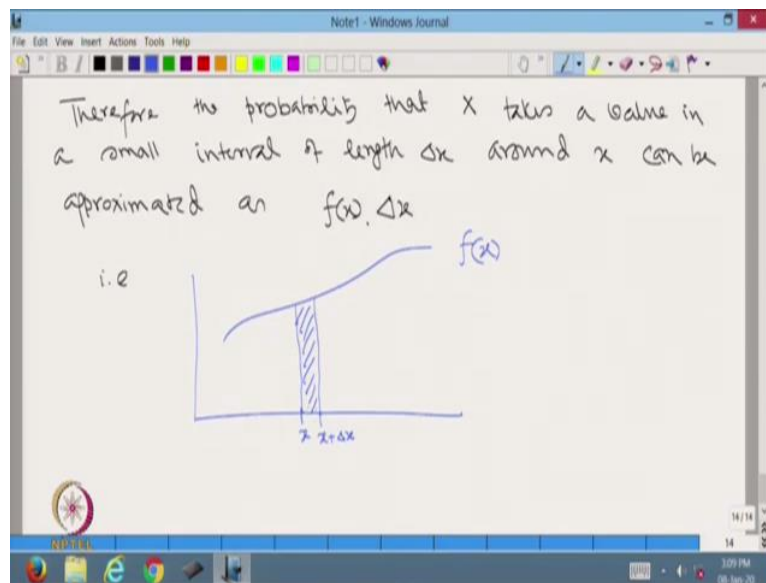
(Refer Slide Time: 23:38)



Six, although probability  $X$  is equal to  $x$  is equal to 0 for all  $x$ . When  $x$  is continuous, we can approximate it as follows. Probability  $X$  less than equal to  $x$  less than equal to  $x$  plus delta  $x$ , where delta  $x$  is a very small positive quantity. Therefore, by Taylor's theorem  $F$  at  $x$  plus delta  $x$  is equal to  $Fx$  plus delta  $x$  times  $F$  prime  $x$  plus terms involving higher powers of delta  $x$ . So, we can ignore them as delta  $x$  is very small. Therefore,  $F x$  plus delta  $x$  can be approximated as a  $Fx$  plus delta  $x$  times smaller  $fx$ , or  $F$  of  $x$  plus delta  $x$  minus  $Fx$  is equal to delta  $x$  times  $fx$ .

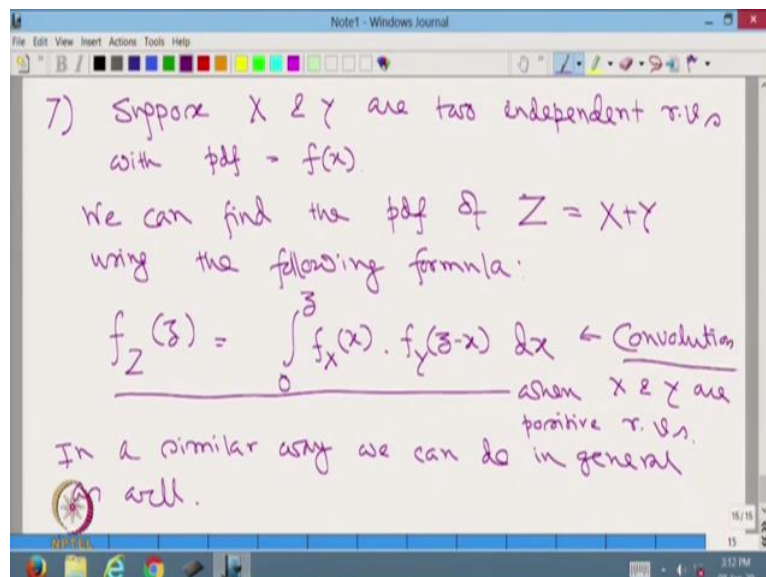


(Refer Slide Time: 26:09)



Therefore, the probability that  $x$  takes a value in a very small interval of length  $\Delta x$  around  $x$  can be approximated as  $f(x)$  times  $\Delta x$ , that is, suppose this is the curve of  $f(x)$  and here it is  $x$ , here it is  $x$  plus  $\Delta x$ . Therefore, this area will approximate the probability of  $X$  taking a value in the small interval  $x$  to  $x$  plus  $\Delta x$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 27:42)



Seven, suppose  $x$  and  $y$  are two independent random variables with pdf is equal to  $f$  of  $x$ , we can find the pdf of  $Z$  is equal to  $x$  plus  $y$  using the following formula,  $F$  at  $Z$  at a point  $z$  is equal to integration  $0$  to  $z$   $f_x$  at  $x$ ,  $f_y$  at  $z$  minus  $x$   $dx$  when  $x$  and  $y$  are positive random variables. In a similar way, we can do in general as well. So, this technique is not something very new for that one.

If you remember with respect to two binomial random variables  $x$  and  $y$ , when  $x$  is binomial in  $P$  and  $y$  is binomial in  $P$ , what is the probability that  $X$  plus  $Y$  takes a value  $z$ . We have summed over all possible combinations of  $X$  and  $y$ , such that their sum is equal to  $Z$ . The same thing we have done here and this technique is called convolution. We shall see some examples of convolution in subsequent part of this lecture or in the next lecture.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:30)

Simple Continuous Distributions

Ex1 Consider the curve  $x(1-x)$   $0 < x < 1$

Suppose we want to use as pdf

$$\int_0^1 x(1-x) dx = \int_0^1 x dx - \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$= \left. \frac{x^2}{2} \right|_0^1 - \left. \frac{x^3}{3} \right|_0^1 = \left( \frac{1}{2} - 0 \right) - \left( \frac{1}{3} - 0 \right) = \frac{1}{6}$$

∴ In order to make it a pdf we need a constant multiplier 6

With that, let us study some simple continuous distributions. So, as you can understand, there can be any number of distributions, we shall study them as different examples. So, example 1, consider the curve  $x$  into  $1$  minus  $x$  when  $0$  less than  $x$  less than  $1$ . Suppose, we want to use it as a pdf, therefore, we integrate  $x$  into  $1$  minus  $x$   $dx$  in the range  $0$  to  $1$ . So, this is equal to  $0$  to  $1$   $x$   $dx$  minus  $0$  to  $1$   $x$  square  $dx$  is equal to  $x$  square by  $2$ ,  $0$  to  $1$ , minus  $x$  cube by  $3$ ,  $0$  to  $1$  is equal to half minus  $0$  minus one third minus  $0$  is equal to  $1$  by  $6$ . Therefore, in order to make it a pdf, we need a constant multiplier  $6$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 32:46)

Handwritten notes on a probability density function  $f(x)$ :

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 6x(1-x) & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{in a pdf}$$

Suppose  $X$  is a r.v s.t  $X \sim f(x)$ .  
Find the probability that  $X \leq \frac{1}{2}$

$$F\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \left( \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \times 6$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{4 \cdot 2} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 3} \right) \times 6 = \left( \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{24} \right) \times 6$$

$$= \frac{2}{24} \times 6 = \frac{1}{2}$$

which is expected as  $f(x)$  is symmetric in  $(0, 1)$  around  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Therefore,  $f(x)$  is equal to 0, if  $x$  is less than equal to 0,  $6x$  into  $1$  minus  $x$ , if  $0$  less than  $x$  less than  $1$  and  $0$  if  $x$  greater than  $1$ , is a pdf or probability density function. Suppose,  $X$  is a random variable, such that  $X$  is distributed as the above  $f(x)$ , find the probability that  $X$  less than equal to half. Therefore,  $F$  of half is equal to  $x$  square by  $2$  in the range  $0$  to half minus  $x$  cube by  $3$ , in the range  $0$  to half multiplied by  $6$ .

This is equal to,  $1$  by  $4$  into  $2$  minus  $1$  by  $8$  into  $3$  multiplied by  $6$ , which is equal to  $1$  by  $8$  minus  $1$  by  $24$  multiplied by  $6$ , is equal to  $2$  by  $24$  into  $6$ , is equal to half. Which is expected as  $f(x)$  is symmetric in  $0$  to  $1$  around half.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:18)

Handwritten notes on a probability density function  $f(x)$ :

Ex 2 Suppose  $X$  is r.v s.t  $X \sim C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x$   
 $\& \text{ it is 0 when } x < 0 \text{ or } x > 6, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 6$

Determine the value of  $C$  so the above is a valid pdf.

We integrate  $\int_0^6 C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x \, dx = ?$

We first put  $\frac{\pi}{6} x = y$

$\therefore$  As  $x$  ranges in  $[0, 6]$   $y \in [0, \pi]$

Also,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\pi}{6}$  or  $dx = \frac{6}{\pi} dy$

Example 2, suppose  $X$  is a random variable, such that  $X$  follows the following density function,  $C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 6$ , outside that range it is 0 when  $x$  is less than 0 or  $x$  is greater than 6. Determine  $C$ , such that the above is a valid pdf. So, what we do? We integrate  $C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x$  in the range 0 to 6 is equal to 1. So we first put  $\frac{\pi}{6} x$  is equal to  $y$ . Therefore, as  $x$  ranges in 0 to 6,  $y$  belongs to 0 to  $\pi$ . Also  $dy$  is equal to  $\frac{\pi}{6} dx$  or  $dx = \frac{6}{\pi} dy$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 37:39)

Handwritten notes in a Notepad window showing the integration of the probability density function for Example 2. The text reads:

$$\therefore \int_0^6 C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x \, dx \text{ boils down to}$$

$$C \frac{6}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin y \, dy = C \frac{12}{\pi}$$

To make it a pdf we need value of

$$C = \frac{\pi}{12}$$

Therefore, integration 0 to 6  $C \sin \frac{\pi}{6} x$  boils down to  $C \frac{6}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin y \, dy$  which is, is equal to if you simplify, coming out to be  $C$  into 12 upon  $\pi$ . Therefore, to make it a pdf we need value of  $C$  is equal to  $\frac{\pi}{12}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 38:48)

Handwritten notes in a Notepad window for Example 3. The text reads:

Ex-3 Find  $C$  s.t.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} C(x+1) & -1 \leq x \leq 0 \\ C & 0 < x < 1 \\ C(2-x) & x \in [1, 2] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \text{ is a pdf.}$$

In order to obtain the value of we integrate the function  $f(x)$ .

$$\therefore \int_{-1}^0 C(x+1) \, dx + \int_0^1 C \, dx + \int_1^2 C(2-x) \, dx$$

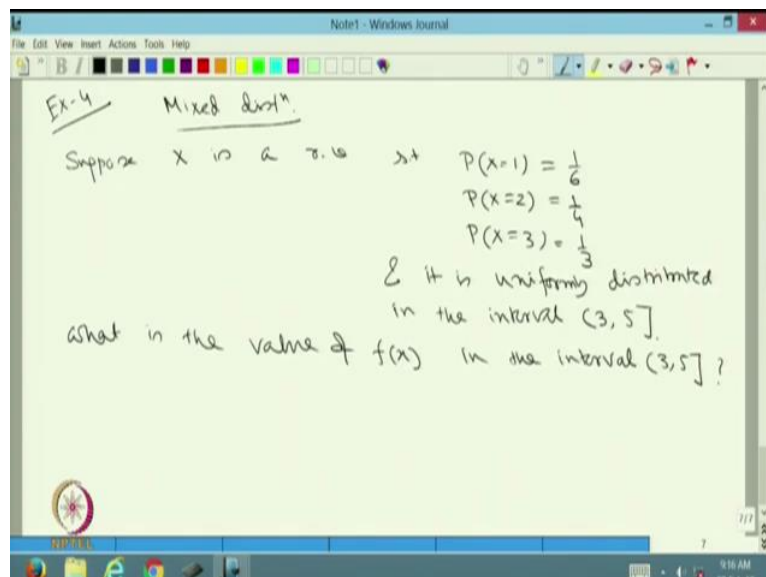
Find the above integral  $I = 2C$

To make it 1 we need value of  $C = \frac{1}{2}$

Example 3, find  $C$  such that  $f_x$  is equal to  $C$  into  $x$  plus 1 for  $-1 \leq x \leq 0$ ,  $C$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  and  $C$  into  $2$  minus  $x$  for  $x$  belonging to  $1, 2$  and it is 0 otherwise. This function  $f_x$  is a pdf, you can easily draw the function which should look like, something like, it should be linear here, it should be constant here and it will again linearly fall down to 2.

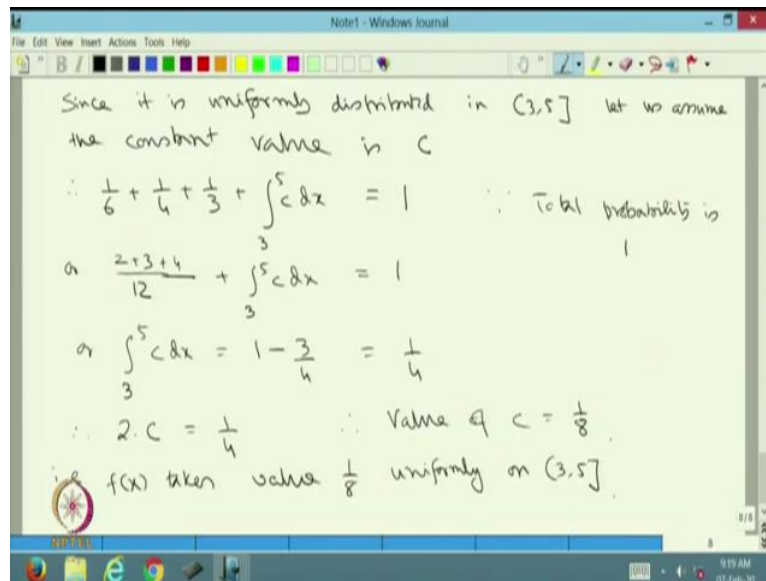
In order to obtain the value of  $C$ , we integrate the function  $f_x$ , that is  $C$  into integration minus 1 to 0,  $x$  plus 1  $dx$  plus  $C$  into 0 to 1  $dx$  plus  $C$  into 2 minus  $x$   $dx$ , for  $x$  belonging to 1 to 2. Find the above integral and we will get this is equal to, if I call it  $I$   $2C$ . Therefore, to make it 1, we need value of  $C$  is equal to half.

(Refer Slide Time: 41:44)



Example 4. Mixed distribution suppose  $X$  is a random variable, such that probability  $X$  is equal to 1 is equal to 1 by 6, probability  $X$  is equal to 2 is equal to 1 by 4, probability  $X$  is equal to 3 is equal to 1 by 3, respectively. And it is uniformly distributed in the interval 3 to 5, what is the value of  $f_x$  in the interval 3 to 5? That is the question.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:11)



Since it is uniformly distributed in  $(3, 5]$  let us assume the constant value is  $C$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{3} + \int_3^5 C dx = 1 \quad \therefore \text{Total probability is 1}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{2+3+4}{12} + \int_3^5 C dx = 1$$

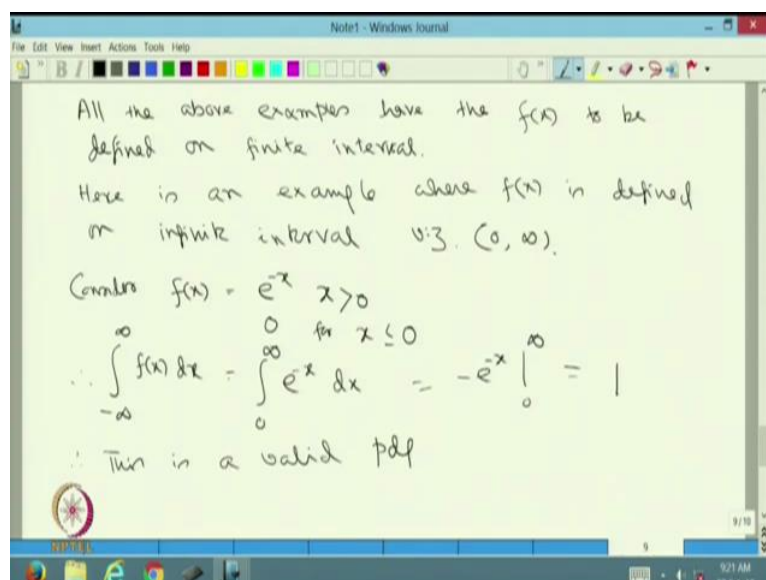
$$\text{or } \int_3^5 C dx = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\therefore 2 \cdot C = \frac{1}{4} \quad \therefore \text{Value of } C = \frac{1}{8}$$

$\therefore f(x)$  takes value  $\frac{1}{8}$  uniformly on  $(3, 5]$

Since, it is uniformly distributed in 3 to 5, let us assume the constant value that it takes is  $C$ , therefore,  $1 \text{ by } 6 \text{ plus } 1 \text{ by } 4 \text{ plus } 1 \text{ by } 3 \text{ plus integration } 3 \text{ to } 5 \text{ } C \text{ dx is equal to } 1$ , since total probability is 1 or  $2 \text{ plus } 3 \text{ plus } 4 \text{ upon } 12 \text{ plus integration } 3 \text{ to } 5 \text{ } C \text{ dx is equal to } 1$  or  $\text{integration } 3 \text{ to } 5, C \text{ dx is equal to } 1 \text{ minus } 3 \text{ by } 4 \text{ is equal to } 1 \text{ by } 4$ . Therefore,  $2 \text{ } C \text{ is equal to } 1 \text{ by } 4$ . Therefore, value of  $C$  is equal to  $1 \text{ by } 8$ , that is  $f_x$  takes value  $1 \text{ by } 8$  uniformly on 3 to 5.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:12)



All the above examples have the  $f(x)$  to be defined on finite interval.

Here is an example where  $f(x)$  is defined on infinite interval viz.  $(0, \infty)$ .

Consider  $f(x) = e^{-x} \quad x > 0$   
 $0 \quad \text{for } x \leq 0$

$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = -e^{-x} \Big|_0^{\infty} = 1$$

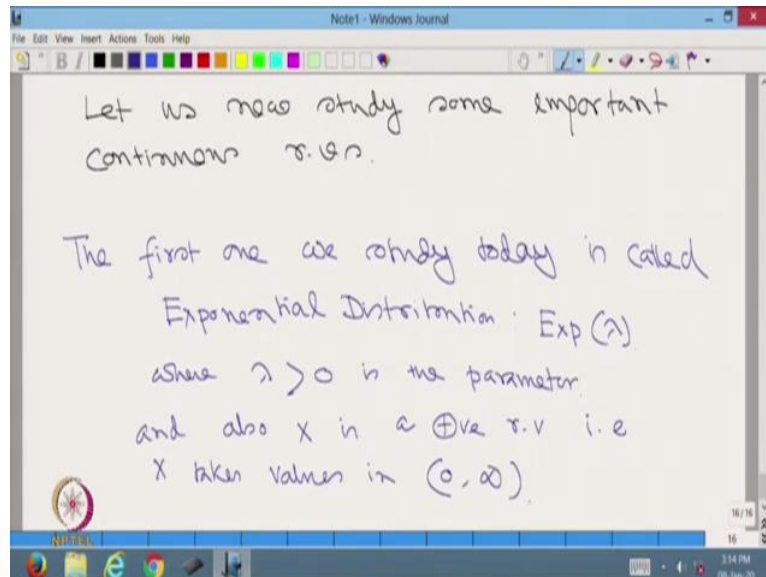
$\therefore$  This is a valid pdf

Now, all the above examples have the  $f_x$  defined on finite intervals. Here is an example, where  $f_x$  is defined on infinite interval, namely 0 to infinity. So, consider  $f_x$  is equal to  $e$  to the power minus  $x$  when  $x$  greater than 0 and 0 for  $x$  less than equal to 0. Therefore,



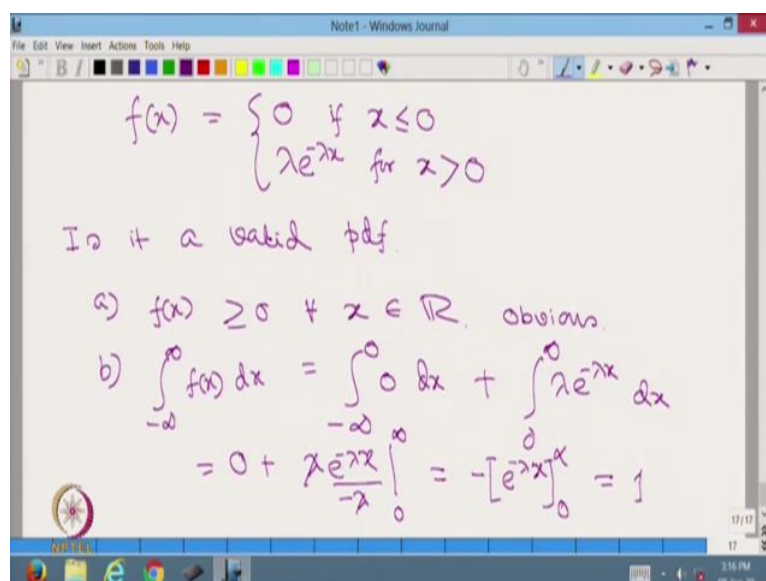
integration minus infinity to infinity  $f(x) dx$  is equal to 0 to infinity  $e$  to the power minus  $x$   $dx$  is equal to minus  $e$  to the power minus  $x$ , 0 to infinity is equal to 1. Therefore, this is a valid pdf.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:06)



With this background, let us now study some important continuous random variables. The first one we study today is called exponential distribution or denoted as  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , where  $\lambda$  greater than 0 is the parameter and also  $X$  is a positive random variable. That is  $X$  takes value in 0 to infinity.

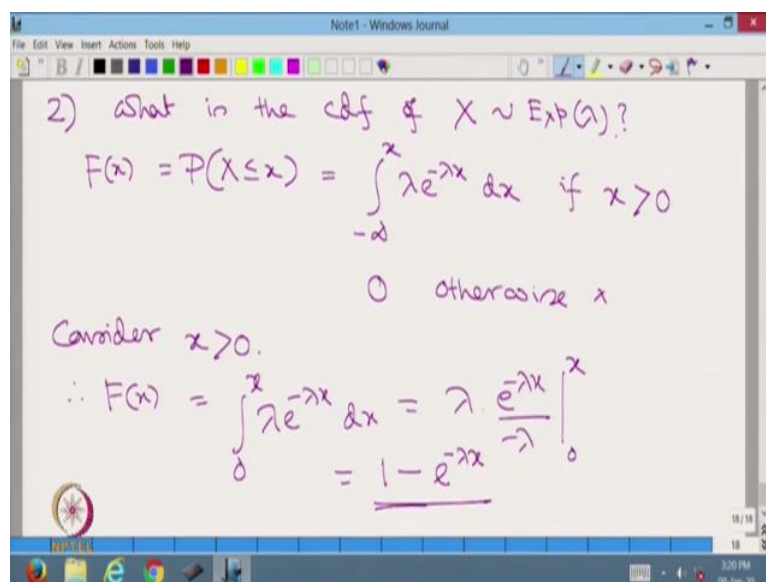
(Refer Slide Time: 48:46)



$f$  of  $x$  is equal to 0, if  $x$  less than equal to 0 and it is  $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  for  $x$  greater than 0. Is it a valid pdf?  $f(x)$  is greater than equal to 0 for all  $x$  belonging to  $\mathbb{R}$ . This is obvious, because when  $x$  is greater than 0 and  $\lambda$  is positive,  $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  will always remain positive. Next we need to check whether this integrates to 1 or not. Therefore,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  is equal to  $\int_{-\infty}^0 0 dx + \int_0^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$ .

Which is equal to 0 plus  $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  divided by  $-\lambda$ , this is going from 0 to infinity, which is equal to  $\lambda$  cancels with  $-\lambda$  remains the minus,  $e^{-\lambda x}$  at plus infinity and on this side it is 0. So, at infinity this is going to be 0, at 0 it is going to be 1, therefore, result is equal to 1. Hence, the above function is a valid probability density function.

(Refer Slide Time: 51:08)



2) What is the cdf of  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ ?

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \quad \text{if } x > 0$$

0 otherwise

Consider  $x > 0$ .

$$\therefore F(x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lambda \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda x}}{-\lambda} \Big|_0^x$$

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

Two, what is the cdf when  $x$  is distributed as exponential  $\lambda$ . So,  $f$  of  $x$  is equal to probability  $x$  less than equal to  $x$  is equal to integration minus infinity to  $x$   $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  if  $x$  is greater than 0 or it is 0 otherwise. Therefore, this is of no interest, therefore, we look at  $x$  greater than 0, therefore,  $f(x)$  is equal to 0 to  $x$   $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  is equal to  $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  upon minus  $\lambda$  in the range 0 to  $x$ , which is coming out to be  $1 - e^{-\lambda x}$ . So, that is going to be the cumulative distribution function for an exponential random variable.

(Refer Slide Time: 52:40)

Properties

① Exponential distn is Memory less.

$$P(X \leq a+t | X > a) = P(X \leq t)$$

Pf:  $P(X \leq a+t | X > a) = \frac{P(X \leq a+t \cap X > a)}{P(X > a)}$

$$= \frac{F(a+t) - F(a)}{1 - F(a)} = \frac{1 - e^{-\lambda(a+t)} - (1 - e^{-\lambda a})}{1 - (1 - e^{-\lambda a})}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda a} - e^{-\lambda(a+t)}}{e^{-\lambda a}} = \frac{e^{-\lambda a}(1 - e^{-\lambda t})}{e^{-\lambda a}} = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} \checkmark$$

Properties, one, exponential distribution is memoryless. What does it mean? It means that probability  $X$  less than equal to  $a$  plus  $t$  given that  $X$  greater than  $a$  is equal to probability  $X$  less than equal to  $t$ . That means that if we know that  $x$  has value greater than  $a$ , then the probability that exists within a distance  $t$  from  $a$  that is same as probability that  $x$  is less than equal to  $t$ . That means, this knowledge that  $X$  is already greater than  $a$  has no effect on the subsequent value that  $X$  may take.

So proof, probability  $x$  less than equal to  $a$  plus  $t$ , given  $x$  greater than  $a$ , we know that from the knowledge of conditional probability, it is probability  $X$  less than equal to  $a$  plus  $t$  and  $x$  is greater than  $a$  divided by probability  $X$  is greater than  $a$ . Now, the numerator is we are saying that  $x$  is greater than  $a$ , but the  $X$  is less than equal to  $a$  plus  $t$ . Therefore, we can write it as  $F$  of  $a$  plus  $t$  minus  $F$  at  $a$  divided by  $1$  minus  $F$  at  $a$ , because probability  $X$  greater than  $a$  is equal to  $1$  minus the cdf at  $a$ , that is  $1$  minus  $F$  at  $a$ .

And this we know that is equal to  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  plus  $t$  minus  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  divided by  $1$  minus  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$ , is equal to  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  plus  $t$  upon  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$ , which is equal to, if we take  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  to be common,  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $t$  upon  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $a$  is equal to  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda$   $t$ .

This we know that is the probability that  $x$  is less than equal to  $t$ . So, we see that probability  $X$  less than equal to  $a$  plus  $t$  given that  $X$  is greater than  $a$  is same as probability  $X$  less than

equal to  $t$ . Therefore, exponential distribution is called memoryless. So, it is very similar to what we have seen with respect to geometric distribution, when we were looking at discrete random variables.

(Refer Slide Time: 57:16)

2) If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are  $n$  independent r.v.s with  $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i)$  ( $\lambda_i > 0 \forall i$ ) then  $\text{Min}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n)$

pf Let  $Z = \text{Min}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  Note that  $n$  is fixed.

$$\therefore P(Z \leq z) = F_Z(z) = 1 - P(X_i > z \forall i=1, \dots, n)$$

$$= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i > z)$$

Now  $P(X_i > z) = 1 - (1 - e^{-\lambda_i z}) = e^{-\lambda_i z}$

Property 2. If  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  are  $n$  independent random variables with  $X_i$ , distributed as exponential with  $\lambda_i$ ,  $\lambda_i > 0$  for all  $i$ , then minimum of  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  is distributed as exponential with  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n$ . Note that  $n$  is fixed. So, proof let  $Z$  equal to minimum of  $X_1, X_2, X_n$ . Therefore, probability  $Z$  less than equal to  $z$  is equal to  $F_Z$  at  $z$  there is the cumulative distribution function for  $z$  is equal to  $1$  minus probability  $X_i$  greater than  $z$  for all  $i$  is equal to  $1$  to  $n$ .

Which is equal to  $1$  minus product of probability  $X_i$  greater than  $z$ ,  $i$  is equal to  $1$  to  $n$ . Now, probability  $X_i$  greater than  $z$  is equal to  $1$  minus  $1$  minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda_i z$  is equal to  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda_i z$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 59:58)

The image shows a handwritten derivation in a Notepad window. The text is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \therefore 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i > z) \\ &= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n e^{-\lambda_i z} \\ &= 1 - e^{-(\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_n)z} = 1 - e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i z} \\ &\therefore \text{pdf of } Z = \frac{d}{dz} (1 - e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i z}) = (\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i) e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i z} \\ &\text{which is the pdf of } \text{Exp}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i\right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, 1 minus product  $i$  is equal to 1 to  $n$  probability  $X_i$  greater than  $z$  is equal to 1 minus product of  $i$  is equal to 1 to  $n$ ,  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda_i z$  is equal to 1 minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda_1 z$  plus  $\lambda_2 z$  up to  $\lambda_n z$ .  $Z$  is equal to 1 minus  $e$  to the power minus  $i$  is equal to 1 to  $n$   $\sum \lambda_i z$ . Therefore, pdf of  $Z$  is equal to  $\frac{d}{dz}$  of 1 minus  $e$  to the power minus  $\sum \lambda_i z$  is equal to  $\sum \lambda_i$  into  $e$  to the power minus  $\sum \lambda_i z$ , which is the pdf of the exponential with parameter  $\sum \lambda_i$ ,  $i$  is equal to 1 to  $n$ .

Thus if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent exponential random variables with the parameters  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  respectively, then the minimum of them will have the distribution exponential  $\sum \lambda_i$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 61:52)

3) If  $X_1, X_2$  are independent r.v.s each  $\sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  what is the pdf of  $X_1 + X_2$ ?

Using convolution:

$$f_{X_1+X_2}(z) = \int_0^z \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \cdot \lambda e^{-\lambda(z-x)} dx$$
$$= \lambda^2 \int_0^z e^{-\lambda z} dx = \frac{\lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}}{\text{pdf}}$$

Point 3, if  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent random variables, each distributed as exponential with  $\lambda$ , what is the pdf of  $X_1 + X_2$ ? So, this is the problem I mentioned some time back, so I will do it using convolution.  $F$  of  $X_1 + X_2$  at a point  $z$  is equal to integration 0 to  $z$   $\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  multiplied by  $\lambda e^{-\lambda(z-x)}$   $dx$ , is equal to  $\lambda^2 \int_0^z e^{-\lambda z} dx$  is equal to  $\lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}$ . Thus we get a new type of density function whose pdf is  $\lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 63:54)

Is it a valid pdf?

Using Gamma integral we can show that this integrates to 1.

We can further show that if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$  then pdf of  $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \sim \frac{\lambda^n}{(n-1)!} e^{-\lambda z} z^{n-1}$

Is it a valid pdf function? Using Gamma integral, we can show that this integrates to 1. Not only that, we can further show that if  $X_1, X_2, X_n$  are independent exponential  $\lambda$  then



pdf of  $X_1$  plus  $X_2$  plus  $X_n$  will be distributed as  $\lambda$  to the power  $n$  upon  $n$  minus 1 factorial  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda x$ ,  $x$  to the power  $n$  minus 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 65:28)

Putting  $n=2$  we have  

$$X_1 + X_2 \sim \frac{\lambda^2}{(2-1)!} e^{-\lambda x} x^{2-1} = \lambda^2 x e^{-\lambda x}$$
 This is a special case of Gamma distribution which as we can understand is a positive r.v. in  $(0, \infty)$

Putting  $n$  is equal to 2, we have  $x_1$  plus  $x_2$  is distributed as  $\lambda$  to the power 2 upon 2 minus 1 factorial  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda x$ ,  $x$  to the power 2 minus 1, which is equal to  $\lambda$  square  $x$  into  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda x$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 67:11)

3) If  $X_1, X_2$  are independent r.v.s each  $\sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  what is the pdf of  $X_1 + X_2$ ?  
 Using convolution:  

$$f_{X_1+X_2}(z) = \int_0^z \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \cdot \lambda e^{-\lambda(z-x)} dx$$

$$= \lambda^2 \int_0^z e^{-\lambda z} dx = \boxed{\frac{\lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}}{\text{pdf}}}$$

If we look at it, we see that that is the pdf that we have got by using convolution. So, this is a special case of gamma distribution which as you can understand is a positive random variable

in 0 to infinity. In the next class, I shall start with gamma distribution in a very general way.  
Till then, thank you so much.