

Wiener Process as Limiting form of Random Walk

In (1), put $nT = t$, $md = x$ and $d^2 = \alpha T$ and take limits as $T \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$.

In the limit, $\{X(t)\}$ becomes a continuous process.

$$\text{Now } \frac{m}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{x/d}{\sqrt{t/T}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{d^2 t/T}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{\alpha t}} \quad (2)$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n}{4} &= E\{X^2(nT)\} \\ &= nd^2 \\ &= n\alpha T \\ &= \alpha t \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

If we use (2) and (3) in (1), when we proceed to limits,

$$P\{x \leq X(t) \leq x + dx\} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\alpha t}} e^{-x^2/2\alpha t} dx, -\infty < x < \infty$$

i.e., the pdf of Wiener process $\{X(t)\}$ is

$$f_{x(t)}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\alpha t}} e^{-x^2/2\alpha t}$$

which is $N(0, \sqrt{\alpha t})$.

(ii) Obviously, the random walk $\{X(nT)\}$ is a process with independent increments.

i.e., $\{X(n_2 T) - X(n_1 T)\}$ and $\{X(n_1 T) - X(0)\}$ are independent.

Since Wiener process $\{X(t)\}$ is the limiting form of random walk, $\{X(t_2) - X(t_1)\}$ and $X(t_1)$ are independent.

Let $t_1 < t_2$

Then

$$E[\{X(t_2) - X(t_1)\} \times X(t_1)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= E\{X(t_2) - X(t_1)\} \times E\{X(t_1)\} \\
 &= 0 \quad [\text{since } E\{X(t)\} = 0]
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e., $E\{X(t_1) \times X(t_2)\} = E\{X^2(t_1)\}$

$$= \alpha t_1 \quad [\text{since } \text{Var}\{X(t)\} = \alpha t]$$

i.e., $R(t_1, t_2) = \alpha t_1$

Similarly, when $t_2 < t$, $R(t_1, t_2) = \alpha t_2$.

$$\therefore R(t_1, t_2) = \alpha \min(t_1, t_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 C(t_1, t_2) &= R(t_1, t_2) - \mu(t_1) \times \mu(t_2) \\
 &= \alpha \min(t_1, t_2) \quad [\text{since } \mu(t) = 0]
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 14 If $X(t)$ with $X(0) = 0$ and $\mu = \alpha t$, i.e.,

Properties of $R(\tau)$

1. $R(\tau)$ is an even function of τ

Proof $R(\tau) = E\{X(t) \times X(t - \tau)\}$

$$\begin{aligned} R(-\tau) &= E\{X(t) \times X(t + \tau)\} \\ &= E\{X(t + \tau) \times X(t)\} \\ &= R(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $R(\tau)$ is an even function of τ .

2. $R(\tau)$ is maximum at $\tau = 0$

i.e., $|R(\tau)| \leq R(0)$

Proof Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is

$$\{E(XY)\}^2 \leq E(X^2) \times E(Y^2)$$

Put

$$X = X(t) \text{ and } Y = X(t - \tau)$$

Then

$$\{E(X(t) \times X(t - \tau))\}^2 \leq E\{X^2(t)\} \times E\{X^2(t - \tau)\}$$

i.e.,

$$\{R(\tau)\}^2 \leq [E\{X^2(t)\}]^2$$

[since $E\{X(t)\}$ and $\text{Var}\{X(t)\}$ are constant for a stationary process]

i.e.,

$$\{R(\tau)\}^2 \leq \{R(0)\}^2$$

Taking square-root on both sides

$$|R(\tau)| \leq R(0) \quad [\text{since } R(0) = E\{X^2(t)\} \text{ is positive}]$$

3. If the autocorrelation function $R(\tau)$ of a real stationary process $\{X(t)\}$ is continuous at $\tau = 0$, it is continuous at every other point.

Proof Consider $E[\{X(t) - X(t - \tau)\}^2]$

$$\begin{aligned} &= E\{X^2(t)\} + E\{X^2(t - \tau)\} - 2E\{X(t) \times X(t - \tau)\} \\ &= R(0) + R(0) - 2R(\tau) \\ &= 2[R(0) - R(\tau)] \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Since $R(\tau)$ is continuous at $\tau = 0$, $\lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} R(\tau) = R(0)$

i.e,

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \{\text{R.S. of (1)}\} = 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \{ \text{L.S. of (1)} \} = 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \{ X(t - \tau) \} = X(t)$$

i.e. $X(t)$ is continuous for all t (2)

Consider

$$R(\tau + h) - R(\tau)$$

$$= E[X(t) \times X\{t - (\tau + h)\}] - E[X(t) \times X(t - \tau)]$$

$$= E[X(t) \{ X(t - \tau - h) - X(t - \tau) \}]$$
(3)

Now

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [X\{(t - \tau) - h\} - X(t - \tau)] = 0, \text{ by (2)}$$

\therefore

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \{ \text{R.S. of (3)} \} = 0$$

\therefore

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \{ \text{L.S. of (3)} \} = 0$$

i.e.,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \{ R(\tau + h) \} = R(\tau)$$

i.e.,

$$R(\tau) \text{ is continuous for all } \tau$$

4. If $R(\tau)$ is the autocorrelation function of a stationary process $\{X(t)\}$ with no periodic component, then $\lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} R(\tau) = \mu_x^2$, provided the limit exists.

Proof $R(\tau) = E[X(t) \times X(t - \tau)]$

When τ is very large, $X(t)$ and $X(t - \tau)$ are two sample functions (members) of the process $\{X(t)\}$ observed at a very long interval of time.

Therefore, $X(t)$ and $X(t - \tau)$ tend to become independent [$X(t)$ and $X(t - \tau)$ may be dependent, when $X(t)$ contains a periodic component, which is not true].

$$\therefore \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \{ R(\tau) \} = E\{X(t)\} \times E\{X(t - \tau)\}$$

$$= \mu_x^2$$

[since $E\{X(t)\}$ is a constant]

i.e., $\mu_x = \sqrt{\lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} R(\tau)}$

σ^2

Example 3 Prove that the random process $\{X(t)\}$ with constant mean is mean-ergodic, if $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T C(t_1, t_2) dt_1 dt_2 \right] = 0$

Solution As per mean-ergodic theorem, the condition for the mean-ergodicity of the process $\{X(t)\}$ is

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_T)\} = 0, \text{ where}$$

$$\bar{X}_T = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T X(t) dt \text{ and } E(\bar{X}_T) = E\{X(t)\}$$

Now $\bar{X}_T^2 = \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T X(t_1) X(t_2) dt_1 dt_2$

$$\therefore E\{\bar{X}_T^2\} = \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T R(t_1, t_2) dt_1 dt_2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \text{Var}(\bar{X}_T) &= E\{\bar{X}_T^2\} - E^2(\bar{X}_T) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T [R(t_1, t_2) - E\{X(t_1)\} E\{X(t_2)\}] dt_1 dt_2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T C(t_1, t_2) dt_1 dt_2. \tag{1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the condition $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_T)\} = 0$ is equivalent to the condition

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T C(t_1, t_2) dt_1 dt_2 \right] = 0$$

Hence the result.

$E\{X^2(t)\} = R(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f) df$, which is the given property.

3. The spectral density function of a real random process is an even function.

Proof $S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(\tau) e^{-i\omega\tau} d\tau$, by definition

$$\therefore S(-\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(\tau) e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau$$

Putting $\tau = -u$,

$$S(-\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(-u) e^{-i\omega u} du$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(u) e^{-i\omega u} du$$

[since $R(\tau)$ is an even function of τ]

$$= S(\omega)$$

Therefore, $S(\omega)$ is an even function of ω .

4. The spectral density of a process $\{X(t)\}$, real or complex, is a real function of ω and non negative.

Proof $R(\tau) = E\{X(t)X^*(t + \tau)\}$

$$\therefore R(-\tau) = E\{X(t) X^*(t - \tau)\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore R^*(-\tau) &= E\{X(t + \tau) X^*(t)\} \\ &= R(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

$$(or) \quad R^*(\tau) = R(-\tau)$$

$$\text{Now } S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(\tau) e^{-i\omega\tau} d\tau \quad (1)$$

$$\therefore S^*(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R^*(\tau) e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(-\tau) e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau \text{ by (1)}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(u) e^{-i\omega u} du, \text{ by putting } u = -\tau$$

$$= S(\omega)$$

Hence $S(\omega)$ is a real function of ω .

Note: It will be proved that $S(\omega) \geq 0$, in Worked Example 14).

5. The spectral density and the autocorrelation function of a real WSS process form a Fourier cosine transform pair.

Proof $S(w) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(t) \{ \cos wt - i \sin wt \} dt$

$$= 2 \int_0^{\infty} R(\tau) \cos \omega \tau d\tau$$

[since $R(\tau)$ is even]

= Fourier cosine transform of $[2R(\tau)]$

$$R(\tau) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) (\cos \tau\omega + i \sin \tau\omega) d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty S(\omega) \cos \tau\omega d\omega$$

[since $S(\omega)$ is even]

= Fourier inverse cosine transform of $\left[\frac{1}{2} S(\omega) \right]$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda t_3} \lambda^{n_3} t_1^{n_1} (t_2 - t_1)^{n_2 - n_1} (t_3 - t_2)^{n_3 - n_2}}{0 \quad |n_1| \quad |n_2 - n_1| \quad |n_3 - n_2|}, & n_3 \geq n_2 \geq n_1 \\ , & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Mean and Autocorrelation of the Poisson Process

The probability law of the Poisson process $\{X(t)\}$ is the same as that of a Poisson distribution with parameter λt .

$$\therefore E\{X(t)\} = \text{Var}\{X(t)\} = \lambda t$$

$$\therefore E\{X_2(t)\} = \lambda t + \lambda^2 t^2 \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{xx}(t_1, t_2) &= E\{X(t_1) X(t_2)\} \\ &= E[X(t_1) \{X(t_2) - X(t_1) + X(t_1)\}] \\ &= E[X(t_1) \{X(t_2) - X(t_1)\}] + E\{X^2(t_1)\} \\ &= E[X(t_1)] E[X(t_2) - X(t_1)] + E\{X^2(t_1)\}, \end{aligned}$$

since $\{X(t)\}$ is a process of independent increments.

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lambda t_1, \lambda (t_2 - t_1) + \lambda t_1 + \lambda^2 t_1, \text{ if } t_2 \geq t_1 \\ &= \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 + \lambda t_1, \text{ if } t_2 \geq t_1 \end{aligned} \quad [\text{by (1)}]$$

or $R_{xx}(t_1, t_2) = \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 + \lambda \min(t_1, t_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} C_{xx}(t_1, t_2) &= R_{xx}(t_1, t_2) - E\{X(t_1)\} E\{X(t_2)\} \\ &= \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 + \lambda t_1 - \lambda^2 t_1 t_2 \\ &= \lambda t_1, \text{ if } t_2 \geq t_1 \end{aligned}$$

or $= \min(t_1, t_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} r_{xx}(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{C_{xx}(t_1, t_2)}{\sqrt{\text{var}\{X(t_1)\} \text{var}\{X(t_2)\}}} \\ &= \frac{\lambda t_1}{\sqrt{\lambda t_1 \lambda t_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{t_1}{t_2}}, \text{ if } t_2 \geq t_1 \end{aligned}$$

Note Poisson process is not a stationary process.

Properties of Poisson Process

1. The Poisson process is a Markov process.

Proof Consider $P[X(t_3) = n_3 | X(t_2) = n_2, X(t_1) = n_1]$

$$= \frac{P[X(t_1) = n_1, X(t_2) = n_2, X(t_3) = n_3]}{P[X(t_1) = n_1, X(t_2) = n_2]}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t_3-t_2)} \lambda^{n_3-n_2} (t_3-t_2)^{n_3-n_2}}{|n_3-n_2|}$$

[refer to the second-and third-order probability functions of the Poisson process]

$$= P[X(t_3) = n_3 | X(t_2) = n_2]$$

This means that the conditional probability distribution of $X(t_3)$ given all the past values $X(t_1) = n_1, X(t_2) = n_2$ depends only on the most recent value $X(t_2) = n_2$.

That is, the Poisson process possesses the Markov property. Hence the result.

2. Additive property: Sum of two independent Poisson processes is a Poisson process.

Proof We have already derived in Chapter IV the characteristic function of a Poisson distribution with parameter λ as $e^{-\lambda(1-e^{i\omega})}$

Therefore, the characteristic functions of $X_1(t)$ and $X_2(t)$ are given by

$$\phi_{X_1(t)}(\omega) = e^{-\lambda_1 t(1-e^{i\omega})} \text{ and } \phi_{X_2(t)}(\omega) = e^{-\lambda_2 t(1-e^{i\omega})}$$

Since $X_1(t)$ and $X_2(t)$ are independent,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_{X_1(t)+X_2(t)}(\omega) &= \phi_{X_1(t)}(\omega) \phi_{X_2(t)}(\omega) \\ &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t(1-e^{i\omega})}\end{aligned}$$

which is the characteristic function of Poisson distribution with parameter $(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t$.

Therefore, $\{X_1(t) + X_2(t)\}$ is a Poisson process.

Alternative proof

Let

$$X(t) = X_1(t) + X_2(t).$$

$$\begin{aligned}P\{X(t) = n\} &= \sum_{r=0}^n P\{X_1(t) = r\} P\{X_2(t) = n-r\} \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{e^{-\lambda_1 t} (\lambda_1 t)^r}{|r|} \frac{e^{-\lambda_2 t} (\lambda_2 t)^{n-r}}{|n-r|} \\ &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t} \frac{1}{|n|} \sum_{r=0}^n nC_r (\lambda_1 t)^r (\lambda_2 t)^{n-r} \\ &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^n / |n|\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $X_1(t) + X_2(t)$ is a Poisson process with parameter $(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t$.

Note The additive property holds good for any number of independent Poisson processes.

3. Difference of two independent Poisson processes is not a Poisson process.

Proof Let $X(t) = X_1(t) - X_2(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} E\{X(t)\} &= E\{X_1(t)\} - E\{X_2(t)\} \\ &= (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)t \\ E\{X^2(t)\} &= E\{X_1^2(t)\} + E\{X_2^2(t)\} - 2E\{X_1(t)\} E\{X_2(t)\} \\ &\quad \text{(by independence)} \\ &= (\lambda_1^2 t^2 + \lambda_1 t) + (\lambda_2^2 t^2 + \lambda_2 t) - 2(\lambda_1 t)(\lambda_2 t) \\ &= (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t + (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)^2 t^2 \\ &\neq (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)t + (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)^2 t^2 \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $E\{X^2(t)\}$ for a Poisson process $\{X(t)\}$ with parameter λ is given by $E\{X^2(t)\} = \lambda t + \lambda^2 t^2$.

Therefore, $\{X_1(t) - X_2(t)\}$ is not a Poisson process.

4. The interarrival time of a Poisson process, i.e., the interval between two successive occurrences of a Poisson process with parameter λ has an exponential distribution with mean $1/\lambda$.

Proof Let two consecutive occurrences of the event be E_i and E_{i+1} .

Let E_i take place at time instant t_i and T be the interval between the occurrences of E_i and E_{i+1} . T is a continuous RV.

$$\begin{aligned} P(T > t) &= P\{E_{i+1} \text{ did not occur in } (t_i, t_i + t)\} \\ &= P\{\text{No event occurs in an interval of length } t\} \\ &= P\{X(t) = 0\} \\ &= e^{-\lambda t} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the cdf of T is given by

$$F(t) = P\{T \leq t\} = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$$

Therefore, the pdf of T is given by

$$f(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \quad (t \geq 0)$$

which is an exponential distribution with mean $1/\lambda$.

5. If the number of occurrences of an event E in an interval of length t is a Poisson process $\{X(t)\}$ with parameter λ and if each occurrence of E has a constant probability p of being recorded and the recordings are independent of each other, then the number $N(t)$ of the recorded occurrences in t is also a Poisson process with parameter λp .

Proof $P\{N(t) = n\} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P\{E \text{ occurs } (n+r) \text{ times in } t \text{ and } n \text{ of them are recorded}\}$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{n+r}}{[n+r]} (n+r) C_n p^n q^r, \quad q = 1-p$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{n+r}}{\lfloor n+r \rfloor} \frac{\lfloor n+r \rfloor}{\lfloor n \rfloor \lfloor r \rfloor} p^n q^r \\
 &= \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda p t)^n}{\lfloor n \rfloor} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda q t)^r}{\lfloor r \rfloor} \\
 &= \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda p t)^n}{\lfloor n \rfloor} e^{\lambda q t} \\
 &= \frac{e^{-\lambda p t} (\lambda p t)^n}{\lfloor n \rfloor}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3 If $\{N_1(t)\}$ and $\{N_2(t)\}$ are 2 independent Poisson processes with parameters λ_1 and λ_2 respectively, show that

$$P[N_1(t) = k \cap N_1(t) + N_2(t) = n] = nC_k p^k q^{n-k}, \text{ where}$$

$$P = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} \text{ and } q = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}.$$

Solution Required conditional probability

$$= \frac{P[\{N_1(t) = k\} \cap \{N_1(t) + N_2(t) = n\}]}{P\{N_1(t) + N_2(t) = n\}}$$

$$= \frac{P[\{N_1(t) = k\} \cap \{N_2(t) = n - k\}]}{P\{N_1(t) + N_2(t) = n\}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{e^{-\lambda_1 t} (\lambda_1 t)^k}{k!} \times \frac{e^{-\lambda_2 t} (\lambda_2 t)^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}}{\frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t} \{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t\}^n}{n!}}$$

(by independence and additive property)

$$= \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} \frac{(\lambda_1 t)^k (\lambda_2 t)^{n-k}}{\{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)t\}^n}$$

$$= nC_k \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} \right)^k \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} \right)^{n-k}$$

$$= nC_k p^k q^{n-k}$$

Example 8 If $\{X(t)\}$ is a Poisson process, prove that

$$P\{X(s) = r/X(t) = n\} = nC_r \left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^r \left(1 - \frac{s}{t}\right)^{n-r} \text{ where } s < t$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X(s) = r/X(t) = n\} &= \frac{P[\{X(s) = r\} \cap \{X(t) = n\}]}{P\{X(t) = n\}} \\ &= \frac{P\{X(s) = r \cap X(t-s) = n-r\}}{P\{X(t) = n\}} \\ &= \frac{P\{X(s) = r\} P\{X(t-s) = n-r\}}{P\{X(t) = n\}} \quad (\text{by independence}) \\ &= \frac{e^{-\lambda s} (\lambda s)^r / [r]! e^{-\lambda(t-s)} [\lambda(t-s)]^{n-r} / [n-r]!}{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^n / [n]!} \\ &= \frac{[n]!}{[r]! [n-r]!} \frac{s^r (t-s)^{n-r}}{t^n} \\ &= nC_r \left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^r \left(1 - \frac{s}{t}\right)^{n-r} \end{aligned}$$

Mean and Variance of the Binomial Distribution

We have already found out $E(X)$ and $\text{Var}(X)$ for the binomial distribution $B(n, p)$ using the moment generating function in Example 3 in Worked Example 4 (d). Here we shall find them directly using the definitions of $E(X)$ and $\text{Var}(X)$.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_r x_r p_r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n r \cdot nC_r p^r q^{n-r} \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n r \cdot \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} p^r q^{n-r} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= np \cdot \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{(n-1)!}{(r-1)!(n-1-(r-1))!} p^{r-1} q^{(n-1)-(r-1)} \\ &= np \sum_{r=1}^n (n-1) C_{r-1} \cdot p^{r-1} \cdot q^{(n-1)-(r-1)} \\ &= np (q+p)^{n-1} \\ &= np \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= \sum_r x_r^2 p_r = \sum_0^n r^2 p_r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \{r(r-1) + r\} \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} p^r q^{n-r} \\ &= n(n-1)p^2 \sum_{r=2}^n (n-2)C_{r-2} p^{r-2} q^{n-r} + np, \quad [\text{by (1) and (2)}] \\ &= n(n-1)p^2 (q+p)^{n-2} + np \\ &= n(n-1)p^2 + np \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X^2) - \{E(X)\}^2 \\ &= n(n-1)p^2 + np - n^2p^2 \\ &= np(1-p) \\ &= npq \end{aligned}$$

Mean and Variance of Geometric Distribution

$$E(X) = \sum_r x_r p_r$$

$$= \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r q^{r-1} p$$

$$= p[1 + 2q + 3q^2 + \dots + \infty]$$

$$= p(1-q)^{-2} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$E(X^2) = \sum_r x_r^2 p_r$$

$$= \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r^2 q^{r-1} p$$

$$= p \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \{r(r+1) - r\} q^{r-1}$$

$$= p[\{1 \times 2 + 2 \times 3q + 3 \times 4q^2 + \dots + \infty\} - \{1 + 2q + 3q^2 + \dots + \infty\}]$$

$$= p[2(1-q)^{-3} - (1-q)^{-2}]$$

$$= p \left(\frac{2}{p^3} - \frac{1}{p^2} \right) = \frac{1}{p^2} (2-p) = \frac{1}{p^2} (1+q)$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{p^2} (1+q) - \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{q}{p^2}.$$

Note Sometimes the probability mass function of a geometric RV X is taken as

$$P(X=r) = q^r p; r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty \text{ where } p+q=1$$

It is this definition that was given in chapter II. If this definition is assumed, then

$$E(X) = \frac{q}{p} \text{ and } \text{Var}(X) = \frac{q}{p^2} \quad [\text{see example (5) in section 4(d)}]$$

Moments of the Uniform Distribution $U(a, b)$

Raw moments μ_r of the uniform distribution $U(a, b)$ about the origin are given by
 $\mu'_r = E\{X^r\}$, where X follows $U(a, b)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_a^b x^r \frac{1}{b-a} dx \\ &= \frac{b^{r+1} - a^{r+1}}{(r+1)(b-a)} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\therefore E(X) = \text{Mean of } U(a, b) = \mu'_1 = \frac{1}{2} (b+a) \quad (2)$$

Central moments μ_r of the uniform distribution $U(a, b)$ are given by

$$\mu_r = E[\{X - E(X)\}^r]$$

$$= E\left\{ \left(X - \frac{1}{2}(b+a) \right)^r \right\}$$

$$= \int_a^b \frac{\left\{ x - \frac{1}{2}(b+a) \right\}^r}{b-a} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{-c}^c t^r dt, \text{ on putting } t = x - \frac{1}{2}(b+a) \text{ and } c = \frac{1}{2}(b-a)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{1}{r+1} \cdot \left(\frac{b-a}{2} \right)^r & \text{if } r \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Thus } \mu_{2n-1} = 0 \text{ and } \mu_{2n} = \frac{1}{2n+1} \cdot \left(\frac{b-a}{2} \right)^{2n} \text{ for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{In particular, } \mu_2 = \text{variance of } U(a, b) = \frac{1}{12} (b-a)^2 \quad (4)$$

$$\mu_3 = 0 \text{ and } \mu_4 = \frac{1}{80} (b-a)^4$$

The absolute central moments v_r of the uniform distribution $U(a, b)$ are given by

$$v_r = E\{|X - E(X)|^r\}$$

$$= \int_a^b \frac{\left| x - \frac{1}{2}(b+a) \right|^r}{b-a} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{-c}^c |t|^r dt, \text{ on putting } t = x - \frac{1}{2}(b+a) \text{ and } c = \frac{1}{2}(b-a)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{2}{b-a} \int_0^c t^r dt, \quad (\text{since the integrand is an even function of } t) \\
 &= \frac{1}{r+1} \cdot \left(\frac{b-a}{2} \right)^r
 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Definition: $E(|X - E(X)|)$ is called the *mean deviation* (MD) about the mean of the RV X or of the corresponding distribution.

Thus the MD about the mean of the distribution $U(a, b)$ is given by

$$\nu_1 = \frac{1}{4} (b-a)$$

2. Exponential distribution

Definitions: A continuous RV X is said to follow an *exponential distribution* or *negative exponential distribution* with parameter $\lambda > 0$, if its probability density function is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We note that $\int_0^\infty f(x) dx = \int_0^\infty \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = 1$ and hence $f(x)$ is a legitimate density

function.

Mean and Variance of the Exponential Distribution

Raw moments μ'_r about the origin of the exponential distribution are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu'_r &= E(X^r) \\
 &= \int_0^\infty x^r \cdot \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\lambda^r} \int_0^\infty y^r e^{-y} dy, \quad (\text{on putting } y = \lambda x) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\lambda^r} \Gamma(r+1) \\
 &= \frac{r!}{\lambda^r}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$\therefore E(X) = \text{Mean of the exponential distribution}$

$$= \mu'_1 = \frac{1}{\lambda}, \quad [\text{from (1)}]$$

Putting $r = 2$ in (1), we get

Memoryless Property of the Exponential Distribution

If X is exponentially distributed, then

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = P(X > t), \text{ for any } s, t > 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X > k) &= \int_k^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \left(-e^{-\lambda x} \right)_k^{\infty} = e^{-\lambda k} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } P(X > s + t | X > s) &= \frac{P \{ X > s + t \text{ and } X > s \}}{P \{ X > s \}} \\ &= \frac{P \{ X > s + t \}}{P \{ X > s \}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\lambda(s+t)}}{e^{-\lambda s}}, [\text{by (1)}] \\ &= e^{-\lambda t} = P(X > t). \end{aligned}$$

Note The converse of this result is also true. That is, if $P(X > s + t | X > s) = P(X > t)$, then X follows an exponential distribution. See Example (8) in Worked Example 5(b).]

3. Erlang distribution or General Gamma distribution

Definition: A continuous RV X is said to follow an *Erlang distribution* or *General Gamma distribution* with parameters $\lambda > 0$ and $k > 0$, if its probability density function is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^k x^{k-1} e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(k)}, & \text{for } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We note that } \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx &= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^{\infty} x^{k-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^{\infty} t^{k-1} e^{-t} dt, [\text{on putting } \lambda x = t] \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $f(x)$ is a legitimate density function.

- Note**
- When $\lambda = 1$, the Erlang distribution is called Gamma distribution or simple Gamma distribution with parameter k whose density function is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} x^{k-1} e^{-x}$, $x \geq 0$; $k > 0$.
 - When $k = 1$, the Erlang distribution reduces to the exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$.
 - Sometimes, the Erlang distribution itself is called Gamma distribution.

Mean and Variance of Erlang Distribution

The raw moments μ'_r about the origin of the Erlang distribution are given by

$$\mu'_r = E(X^r)$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^{k+r-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

$$(1) \quad = \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda^{k+r}} \int_0^\infty t^{k+r-1} e^{-t} dt, \text{ (on putting } \lambda x = t)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda^r} \frac{\Gamma(k+r)}{\Gamma(k)}$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean} = E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(k+1)}{\Gamma(k)} = \frac{k}{\lambda}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(k+2)}{\Gamma(k)} - \left(\frac{k}{\lambda} \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \{k(k+1) - k^2\} = \frac{k}{\lambda^2}$$

Reproductive Property of Gamma Distribution

The sum of a finite number of independent Erlang variables is also an Erlang variable. That is, if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent Erlang variables with parameters $(\lambda, k_1), (\lambda, k_2), \dots, (\lambda, k_n)$, then $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ is also an Erlang variable with parameter $(\lambda, k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_n)$.

Let us first find the moment generating function of the Erlang variable X with parameters λ and k and use it to prove this property. MGF of X is given by

$$M_X(t) = E \{e^{tx}\}$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^{k-1} e^{-\lambda x} e^{tx} dx$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^\infty x^{k-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \cdot \frac{1}{(\lambda-t)^k} \int_0^\infty y^{k-1} e^{-y} dy, \quad (\text{on putting } \lambda-t=y).$$

$$= \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^k \quad [\because \text{the integral} = \Gamma(k)]$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{t}{\lambda} \right)^{-k}$$

Now $M_{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}(t) = M_{X_1}(t) M_{X_2}(t) \dots M_{X_n}(t)$ (since X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent)

[Refer to property (4) of MGF given in section 4(d) of chapter (4)]

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left(1 - \frac{t}{\lambda} \right)^{-k_1} \left(1 - \frac{t}{\lambda} \right)^{-k_2} \dots \left(1 - \frac{t}{\lambda} \right)^{-k_n} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{t}{\lambda} \right)^{-(k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_n)} \end{aligned}$$

which is the MGF of an Erlang variable with parameters $(\lambda, k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_n)$. Hence the reproductive property.

Relation Between the Distribution Functions (cdf) of the Erlang Distribution With $\lambda=1$ (or Simple Gamma Distribution) and (Poisson Distribution)

If X is a Poisson random variable with mean λ ,

$$\text{then } P(X \leq K) = \sum_{r=0}^k \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^r}{r!} \quad (1)$$

Differentiating both sides with respect to λ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\lambda} P(X \leq k) &= \sum_{r=0}^k \frac{1}{r!} \{ e^{-\lambda} \cdot r \lambda^{r-1} - e^{-\lambda} \times \lambda^r \} \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \cdot \sum_{r=0}^k \left[\frac{\lambda^{r-1}}{(r-1)!} - \frac{\lambda^r}{r!} \right] \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \left[-1 + \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{1!} \right) + \left(\frac{\lambda}{1!} - \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} \right) + \dots + \left\{ \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} - \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \right\} \right] \\ &= -\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

Integrating both sides of (2) with respect to λ from λ to ∞ , we get

$$\left[\sum_{r=0}^k \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^r}{r!} \right]_{\lambda}^{\infty} = - \int_{\lambda}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k d\lambda$$

$$\text{i.e., } \sum_{r=0}^k \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^r}{r!} = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\lambda!} e^{-y} y^k dy$$

$$\text{i.e., } P(X \leq k) = P(Y \geq \lambda),$$

[where Y is the Erlang variable with parameters 1 and $(k+1)$]

$$\text{or } P(X \leq k) = 1 - P(Y \leq \lambda)$$

Note The above relationship is valid only when the parameter k is a positive integer.

4. Weibull Distribution

Definition: A continuous RV X is said to follow a **Weibull distribution** with parameters $\alpha, \beta > 0$, if the RV $Y = \alpha X^\beta$ follows the exponential distribution with density function $f_Y(y) = e^{-y}$, $y > 0$.

Density Function of the Weibull Distribution

Since $Y = \alpha \cdot X^\beta$, we have $y = \alpha \cdot x^\beta$.

By the transformation rule, derived in chapter 3, we have $f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right|$, where $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$ are the density functions of X and Y respectively.

$$\therefore f_X(x) = e^{-y} \alpha \beta x^{\beta-1} \\ = \alpha \beta x^{\beta-1} e^{-\alpha x^\beta}; x > 0 \quad [\because y > 0]$$

Note When $\beta = 1$, Weibull distribution reduces to the exponential distribution with parameter α .

Mean and Variance of the Weibull Distribution

The raw moments μ'_r about the origin of the Weibull distribution are given by

$$\mu'_r = E(X^r)$$

$$= \alpha \beta \int_0^\infty x^{r+\beta-1} e^{-\alpha x^\beta} dx \\ = \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{y}{\alpha} \right)^{\frac{r}{\beta} + 1 - \frac{1}{\beta}} e^{-y} \left(\frac{y}{\alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{\beta} - 1} dy,$$

$$\text{on putting } y = \alpha x^\beta \text{ or } x = \left(\frac{y}{\alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}}$$

$$= \alpha^{-r/\beta} \int_0^\infty y^{r/\beta} e^{-y} dy$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \alpha^{-r/b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{r}{\beta} + 1\right)} \\
 \therefore \quad \text{Mean} = E(X) = \mu_1' = \alpha^{-\frac{1}{\beta}} \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\beta} + 1\right)} \\
 \text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - \{E(X)\}^2 \\
 &= \alpha^{-2/\beta} \left[\sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\beta} + 1\right)} - \left\{ \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\beta} + 1\right)} \right\}^2 \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Note Weibull distribution finds frequent applications in Reliability Theory. It is assumed as the probability distribution of the time to failure (or length of life) of a component in a system. Other distributions used to describe the failure law are the exponential and normal distributions. See Example (19) in Worked Example 5(b).

7. Additive property of normal distribution

If $X_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ be n independent normal RVs with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2 , then $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$ is also a normal RV with mean $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i$ and variance $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} M_{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i\right)}(t) &= M_{a_1 X_1}(t) \cdot M_{a_2 X_2}(t) \cdots M_{a_n X_n}(t), \quad (\text{by independence}) \\ &= e^{a_1 \mu_1 t + a_1^2 \sigma_1^2 t^2/2} \times e^{a_2 \mu_2 t + a_2^2 \sigma_2^2 t^2/2} \times \cdots \times e^{a_n \mu_n t + a_n^2 \sigma_n^2 t^2/2} \\ &= e^{(\sum a_i \mu_i)t + \sum a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 t^2/2} \end{aligned}$$

which is the MGF of a normal RV with mean $\sum a_i \mu_i$ and variance $\sum a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$. Hence the property.

8. Normal distribution as limiting form of binomial distribution

When n is very large and neither p nor q is very small, the standard normal distribution can be regarded as the limiting form of the standardised binomial distribution.

When X follows the binomial distribution $B(n, p)$, the standardised binomial variable Z is given by $Z = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{npq}}$. As X varies from 0 to n with step size 1, Z

varies from $\frac{-np}{\sqrt{npq}}$ to $\frac{np}{\sqrt{npq}}$ with step size $\frac{1}{\sqrt{npq}}$. When neither p nor q is very

small and n is very large, Z varies from $-\infty$ to ∞ with infinitesimally small step size. Hence, in the limit, the distribution of Z may be expected to be a continuous distribution extending from $-\infty$ to ∞ and having mean 0 and standard deviation 1. In fact the limiting form of the distribution of Z is standard normal distribution as seen below:

If X follows $B(n, p)$, then the MGF of X is given by $M_X(t) = (q + p e^t)^n$.

If $Z = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{npq}}$, then

$$M_Z(t) = M_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{npq}}(X - \frac{np}{\sqrt{npq}})}(t) = e^{\frac{-np}{\sqrt{npq}} t} \{q + p e^{t/\sqrt{npq}}\}^n$$

$$\therefore \log M_Z(t) = -\frac{np}{\sqrt{npq}} t + n \log \{q + p e^{t/\sqrt{npq}}\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= -\frac{npt}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \log \left[q + p \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{2npq} + \frac{t^3}{6(npq)^{3/2}} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
 &= -\frac{npt}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \log \left[1 + \left\{ \frac{pt}{\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{pt^2}{2npq} + \frac{pt^3}{6(npq)^{3/2}} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
 &= -\frac{npt}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \left[\frac{pt}{\sqrt{npq}} \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{2\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{6n^2 p^2 q^2} + \dots \right\} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{p^2 t^2}{npq} \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{2\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{6n^2 p^2 q^2} + \dots \right\}^2 + \dots \right] \\
 &= \frac{t^2}{2} + \text{terms containing } \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ and lower powers of } n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log M_Z(t) = \frac{t^2}{2}$$

i.e., $\log_e \left[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_Z(t) \right] = \frac{t^2}{2}$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_Z(t) = e^{t^2/2},$$

which is the MGF of the standard normal distribution. Hence the limit of the standardised binomial distribution, as n tends to ∞ , is the standard normal distribution.

Note We recall De Moivre–Laplace approximation for the sum of a large number of terms of the form $nC_r p^r q^{n-r}$ in terms of the integral of standard normal density function, which was discussed in section 1(c). It was stated that

$$\sum_{r=r_1}^{r_2} nC_r p^r q^{n-r} = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \phi(z) dz$$

where $z_1 = \frac{r_1 - np - \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{npq}}$ and $z_2 = \frac{r_2 - np + \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{npq}}$ and $\phi(z)$ is the density function of the standard normal distribution.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= -\frac{np t}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \log \left[q + p \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{2 npq} + \frac{t^3}{6(npq)^{3/2}} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
 &= -\frac{np t}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \log \left[1 + \left\{ \frac{pt}{\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{pt^2}{2 npq} + \frac{pt^3}{6(npq)^{3/2}} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
 &= -\frac{np t}{\sqrt{npq}} + n \left[\frac{pt}{\sqrt{npq}} \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{2\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{6n^2 p^2 q^2} + \dots \right\} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{p^2 t^2}{npq} \left\{ 1 + \frac{t}{2\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{t^2}{6n^2 p^2 q^2} + \dots \right\}^2 + \dots \right] \\
 &= \frac{t^2}{2} + \text{terms containing } \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ and lower powers of } n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log M_Z(t) = \frac{t^2}{2}$$

i.e., $\log_e \left[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_z(t) \right] = \frac{t^2}{2}$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_Z(t) = e^{t^2/2},$$

which is the MGF of the standard normal distribution. Hence the limit of the standardised binomial distribution, as n tends to ∞ , is the standard normal distribution.

Note We recall De Moivre–Laplace approximation for the sum of a large number of terms of the form $nC_r p^r q^{n-r}$ in terms of the integral of standard normal density function, which was discussed in section 1(c). It was stated that

$$\sum_{r=r_1}^{r_2} nC_r p^r q^{n-r} = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \phi(z) dz$$

where $z_1 = \frac{r_1 - np - \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{npq}}$ and $z_2 = \frac{r_2 - np + \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{npq}}$ and $\phi(z)$ is the density function of the standard normal distribution.

Importance of Normal Distribution

Example 16 If the conditional distribution of Y , given $X = x$, is an exponential distribution with parameter x and if the unconditional distribution of X is an Erlang distribution with parameters $\lambda > 0$ and $k > 2$, prove that the conditional distribution of X , given $Y = y$, is an Erlang distribution with parameters $\lambda + y$ and $k + 1$.

Solution Given: $F_{Y|X}(y) = x e^{-xy}$, $y > 0$ and $x > 0$

$$\text{and } f_X(x) = \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^{k-1} e^{-\lambda x}, x > 0$$

If $f(x, y)$ denotes the joint density function of (X, Y) , then $f_{Y|X}(y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)}$

$$\therefore f(x, y) = \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^k e^{-(\lambda+y)x}, x > 0, y > 0.$$

Now $f_Y(y) =$ the marginal density function of Y

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^\infty f(x, y) dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \cdot \int_0^\infty x^k e^{-(\lambda+y)x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \frac{1}{(\lambda+y)^{k+1}} \cdot \int_0^\infty t^k e^{-t} dt \quad [\text{on putting } (\lambda+y)x = t] \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} \frac{1}{(\lambda + y)^{k+1}} \cdot \Gamma(k+1) = \frac{k \lambda^k}{(\lambda + y)^{k+1}}, \quad y > 0$$

Now $f_{X/Y}(x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^k e^{-(\lambda+y)x}}{\frac{k \lambda^k}{(\lambda+y)^{k+1}}} \quad x > 0 \text{ and } y > 0 \\ &= \frac{(\lambda+y)^{k+1}}{\Gamma(k+1)} \cdot x^k e^{-(\lambda+y)x} \quad x > 0 \end{aligned}$$

This is the density function of an Erlang distribution with parameters $\lambda + y$ and $k + 1$.