

Review of Basic Concepts/Definitions

① Sample Space: Set of all possible outcomes of an "experiment", denoted as  $S$   
 $x_i \in S \rightarrow p_i$

② Distribution: mapping of outcomes in sample space  $\rightarrow$  probabilities

(i) all probabilities are  $\in [0, 1]$

(2)  $\sum p_i = 1$ .

③ Random: a function mapping outcomes in sample space to unique real #s.

④ Independence: Two events  $A, B \in S$  are independent (denoted  $A \perp B$ ) if  
 $IP(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot IP(B)$

⑤ Conditional Probability: If  $P(B) > 0$  then

$$IP(A|B) = \frac{IP(A, B)}{IP(B)}$$

$\underbrace{IP(A|B)}_{\text{probability of A occurring given that B occurs}}$ 
 $\leftarrow$  probability they both occur  
 $IP(B) \leftarrow$  probability B occurs

Note: If  $A \perp B$   $IP(A|B) = \frac{IP(A, B)}{IP(B)} = \frac{IP(A) IP(B)}{IP(B)} = IP(A) \quad \smile$

⑥ Baye's Formula:

$$\textcircled{a} IP(A|B) = \frac{IP(A, B)}{IP(B)}$$

$$\textcircled{b} IP(B|A) = \frac{IP(B, A)}{IP(A)} = \frac{IP(A, B)}{IP(A)} \Rightarrow \textcircled{c} IP(A, B) = IP(B|A) IP(A)$$

Thus we can plug  $\textcircled{c}$  into  $\textcircled{a}$  and obtain

$$IP(A|B) = \frac{IP(B|A) IP(A)}{IP(B)} \quad \smile$$

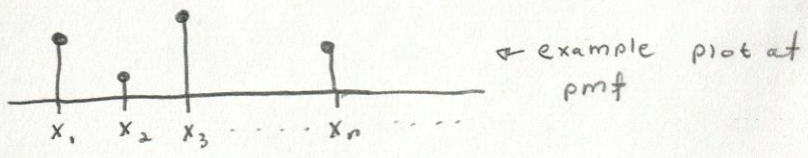


Discrete Random Variables → implies that possible outcomes are countable! or finite!

(PMF) The Probability mass function describes probabilities of outcomes for discrete random variables. For a general discrete random variable

$X$ , the probability mass function is  $p(x_i) = P(X=x_i)$  where  $x_i \in \{x_1, \dots\}$  sample space for  $X$

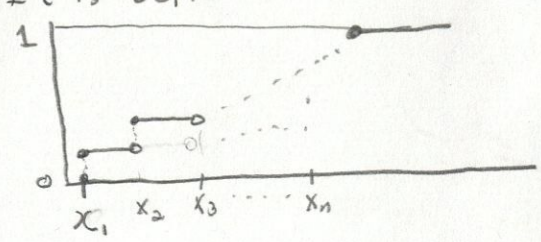
And  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i) = 1$



The CDF

The cumulative distribution function is an equivalent manner of specifying probabilities. It is defined as

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} P(x_i)$$



Continuous Random Variables → implies that set of possible outcomes are infinite

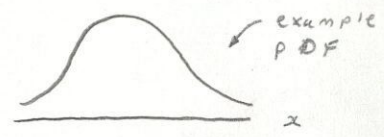
The probability density function is the analog of the PMF except it is for continuous random variables.

Since our random variable is continuous, and thus can take on  $\infty$  many values we have  $P(X=x) = 0$  where  $x \in$  sample space of  $X=S$

Instead we consider  $P(X \in A) = \int_A p(t) dt$  where  $A \subset S$ .

$p(x)$  is the PDF and  $\int_S p(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$

Unlike the PMF, the PDF is smooth.



The CDF for a continuous random variable is defined in the same way as for discrete random variables. For  $\downarrow$

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(t) dt$$

→ Note: Evaluating the PDF at a point is not the probability of that value.

You can view it as  $P(x - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq X \leq x + \frac{\epsilon}{2}) = \int_{x-\frac{\epsilon}{2}}^{x+\frac{\epsilon}{2}} p(x) dx \approx \epsilon p(x)$ . It is true the probability that you will be "near"  $x$ .



## Expectation Values

In general an expectation value is denoted  $E_x[g(x)]$ ; where  $g(x)$  is a function applied to the random variable.

In discrete world this is

$$E_x[g(x)] = \sum_{x_i \in S} g(x_i) \underbrace{p(x_i)}_{\text{pmf for } x}$$

In continuous world this is

$$E_x[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) p(t) dt$$

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  moment is  $E_x[x^n]$

The mean is the 1<sup>st</sup> moment or

$$\mu = E_x[x] = \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i p(x_i) \leftarrow \text{if discrete}$$

$$\mu = E_x[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(t) dt \leftarrow \text{if continuous}$$

The variance is

$$E_x[(x - \overset{\text{the mean}}{\mu})^2] = E_x[x^2] - (E_x[x])^2$$

and the standard deviation is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{V[x]}$$



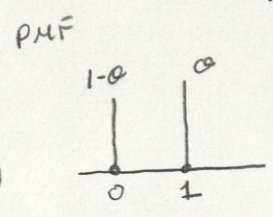
# Discrete Random Variables

① Bernoulli: Describes the outcome at a single trial with probability  $\theta$  of success, and  $1-\theta$  of failure. (like a single coin flip)

For  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$  we have

Mean  $E[X] = \theta$   
 Variance  $V_X[X] = \theta(1-\theta)$

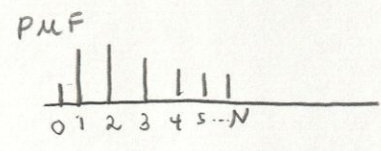
$$P(X=x) = \begin{cases} 1-\theta & x=0 \text{ (failure)} \\ \theta & x=1 \text{ (success)} \end{cases}$$



② Binomial: We perform  $N$  independent identically distributed (iid) Bernoulli trials with probability of success  $\theta$ .  $X$  = the number of successes.  $X \sim \text{Bin}(N, \theta)$

(For example the number of heads you get in  $N$  coin flips)

$$P(X=x) = \binom{N}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{N-x} = \frac{N!}{x!(N-x)!}$$



Mean  $E[X] = N\theta$   
 Variance  $V_X[X] = N\theta(1-\theta)$

③ Geometric: We perform  $N$  iid Bernoulli trials. The number of "failures" until we get a "success" is geometrically distributed.

For  $X \sim \text{Geometric}(\theta)$   
 ↑ probability of success for each trial

The number of coin flips until I get a head is geometrically distributed

$$P(X=x) = \underbrace{(1-\theta)^x}_{x \text{ failures}} \underbrace{\theta}_{1 \text{ success}}$$

Mean  $E[X] = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta}$       Variance  $V_X[X] = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta^2}$

④ Poisson: Consider a binomially distributed random variable with  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\theta \rightarrow 0$  such that  $N\theta = \lambda = \text{const}$ .

The Poisson is often used to model "rare" events

$$P(X=x) = \binom{N}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{N-x} = \frac{N!}{x!(N-x)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^x \left(1-\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^{N-x}$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{N(N-1)\dots(N-x+1)}{N^x}}_{\rightarrow 1 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \underbrace{\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^N}_{\rightarrow 1} \rightarrow e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

Mean:  $\lambda$   
 Variance:  $\lambda$

$$e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$



# The Poisson Process

$N_t = \# \text{ of "events" by time } t$

The Poisson is a type of counting process with rate  $\lambda$  s.t.  $\lambda > 0$

It satisfies the following:

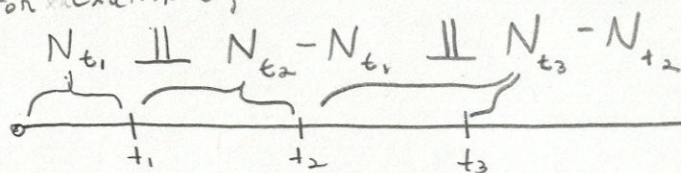
(1)  $N_0 = 0$

(2)  $\{N_t\}$  has stationary + independent increments

(i) stationary means that the distribution of the number of events in a time interval  $(s, s+t]$  only depends on  $t$ , the length of the interval

(ii) independence of increments means that if two intervals are disjoint, then the distribution of the number of events in those intervals are independent from each other.

For example, let  $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$ . Then



Reminder  
⊥ means independent

For a Poisson process the following is true:

(3) For all  $s, t \geq 0$   $N_{t+s} - N_s \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda t)$

$$P(N_{t+s} - N_s = n) = \exp(-\lambda t) \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!}$$

Thus  $E[N_t] = \lambda t$

## Interarrival times

Let  $T_1$  be the time at the 1<sup>st</sup> event.

Let  $T_n$  be the time between event  $n-1$  and event  $n$ .

Then the arrival times are  $\{T_n, n=1, 2, \dots\}$

What is the distribution of  $T_n$ ?

$n=1$   $P(T_1 > t) = P(N_t = 0) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$  we see that

In general it can be shown that

$P(T_n > t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$  This leads us to the definition of

an Exponential Random variable. An exponential Random variable is characterized by a <sup>rate</sup> parameter  $\lambda$ .

The PDF is  $P(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$

It is MEMORY LESS. The amount of time we will continue to wait for an arrival is independent of how long we have been waiting.



So In general, the exponential can be used to model waiting times between rare events.

Now let's talk about arrival times.

Let  $S_n$  denote the time we wait for arrival  $n$ .

For the  $n$ th arrival to occur we must have arrivals  $n-1, n-2, \dots, 1$  all occur. Remember that  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n$  are the arrival

waiting times between these events, thus

$$S_n = T_1 + T_2 + \dots + T_n. \quad \text{Remember that } T_1, \dots, T_n \sim \text{EXP}(\lambda)$$

It can then be shown that the PDF of  $S_n$  is

$$p(t; n, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \frac{(\lambda t)^{n-1}}{t} \exp(-\lambda t)$$

Thus  $S_n$  is a Gamma distributed random variable.

It can be used to model the time for any multistep process where each step happens at the same rate.

### The Important Moments For Exponential + Gamma Distributions

Exponential:

$$\text{mean} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{variance} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

Gamma:

$$\text{mean} = \frac{n}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{variance} = \frac{n}{\lambda^2}$$

(Note:  $n$  can be non integer!!)



# The Normal Distribution

This is probably the most famous continuous distribution. The story for the normal distribution is that many quantities that are controlled by many subprocesses are often approximately normally distributed as long as none of the subprocesses has a large variance. It is parameterized by  $\mu$  (the mean) and  $\sigma$  (the standard deviation). It is defined for all real numbers and its PDF is:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \text{ for } X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$$

## The Central Limit Theorem

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of <sup>independent identically distributed</sup> iid random variables with mean  $\mu = E[X_i]$  and variance  $\sigma^2 = V[X_i]$

Then  $\bar{X} \overset{\uparrow}{\sim} N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$   
 approximately distributed as

Classic

General: There are other more general variants of the CLT. In the end it is because at the CLT that so many quantities that are the sum of many subprocesses with low variance tend to be normally distributed.

Multivariate Normal Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be normally distributed random variables

Then  $\tilde{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix}$  is a Gaussian random vector,  $\tilde{X} \sim (\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\Sigma})$

$$\tilde{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11}^2 & \sigma_{12} & \dots & \sigma_{1n} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{n1} & \sigma_{n2} & \dots & \sigma_{nn}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{\Sigma}_{ij} = \begin{cases} \sigma_{ij}^2 & i \neq j \\ \sigma_i^2 & i = j \end{cases}$$

if  $X_i \perp X_j$  then  $\sigma_{ij} = 0$

The PDF is

$$p(\tilde{X}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \tilde{\Sigma}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\tilde{X} - \tilde{\mu})^T \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}(\tilde{X} - \tilde{\mu})\right]$$