

Lecture 4: Combining and Manipulating Distributions

IB Paper 7: Probability and Statistics

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Waiting times

The bus arrives on average every 15 minutes. Compare the average waiting time for **people arriving randomly** if buses 1) **arrive regularly**, 2) **arrive randomly**.

1) Buses **arrive regularly** every 15 minutes. The waiting time is uniformly distributed in $[0; 15]$, $p(x) = 1/15, 0 \leq x \leq 15$ and zero otherwise. The average is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{15} \int_0^{15} x dx = \frac{1}{15} \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 \right]_0^{15} = \frac{15}{2} \text{ minutes.}$$

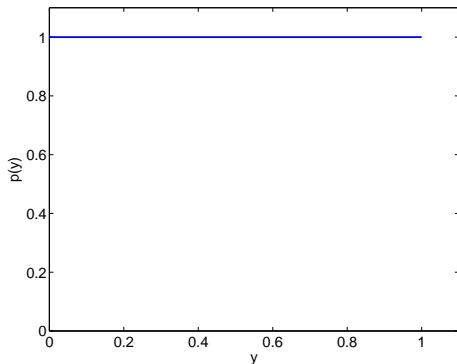
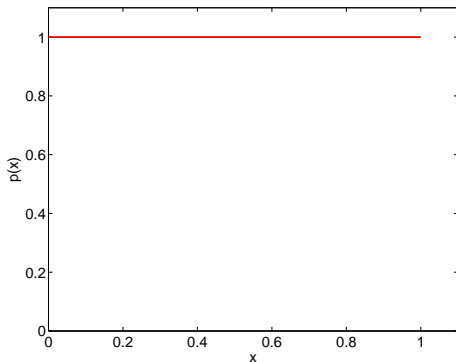
2) Buses **arrive randomly**, according to a Poisson, $Po(\lambda = 1/15)$. Therefore the waiting time to the next event is exponentially distributed $Ex(\lambda = 1/15)$ with expectation

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] &= \int_0^{\infty} x \lambda \exp(-\lambda x) dx = -[x \exp(-\lambda x)]_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-\lambda x) dx \\ &= -\left[\frac{1}{\lambda} \exp(-\lambda x) \right]_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{\lambda} = 15 \text{ minutes} \end{aligned}$$

How is it possible, that when the average bus arrival rate is the same, the average waiting time differs by a factor of 2?

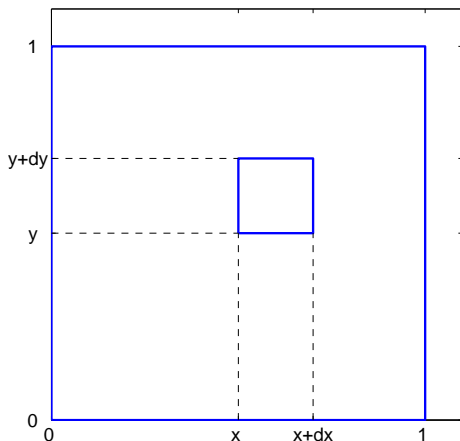
Combining Probabilities

Assume the variables X and Y independent, uniformly distributed



We wish to compute the distribution of the sum of the two random variables, $S = X + Y$.

The joint probability is uniform on the unit square

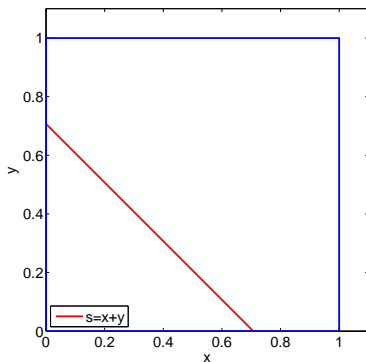


The probability of $x \leq X \leq x + dx$ and $y \leq Y \leq y + dy$.

The joint probability is $p(x, y) = 1$. For independent variables, $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$.

Distribution of the sum based on $F(s)$

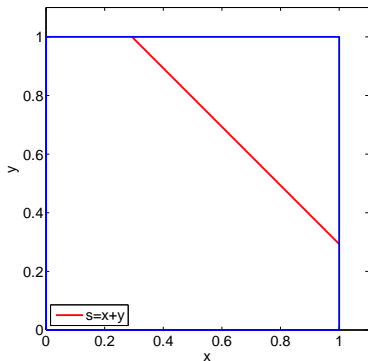
Assume first $0 \leq s \leq 1$. We have $F(s) = p(S < s) = s^2/2$.



Therefore

$$p(s) = \frac{dF(s)}{ds} = s, \text{ where } 0 \leq s \leq 1.$$

For $1 \leq s \leq 2$, we have $F(s) = 1 - (2 - s)^2/2$.



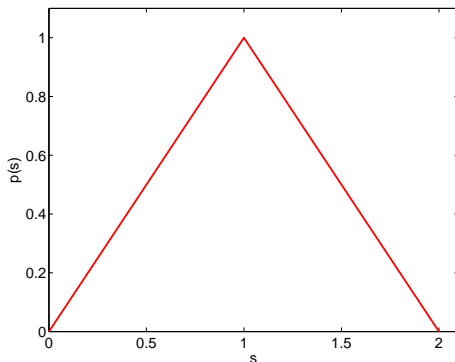
Therefore

$$p(s) = \frac{dF(s)}{ds} = 2 - s, \text{ where } 1 \leq s \leq 2.$$

The distribution of the sum

Thus

$$p(s) = \begin{cases} s & 0 \leq s \leq 1 \\ 2 - s & 1 \leq s \leq 2 \end{cases}$$



It is more likely that the sum is around 1, than that it is close to 0 or 2.

Means and Variances of sums of independent variables

The mean is

$$\mathbb{E}[S] = \int_0^2 sp(s)ds = \int_0^1 s^2 ds + \int_1^2 s(2-s)ds = \left[\frac{s^3}{3}\right]_0^1 + \left[s^2 - \frac{s^3}{3}\right]_1^2 = 1.$$

And second moment

$$\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \int_0^2 s^2 p(s)ds = \int_0^1 s^3 ds + \int_1^2 s^2(2-s)ds = \left[\frac{s^4}{4}\right]_0^1 + \left[\frac{2s^3}{3} - \frac{s^4}{4}\right]_1^2 = \frac{7}{6},$$

so the variance is $\mathbb{E}[S^2] - \mathbb{E}^2[S] = 1/6$.

Notice:

- The mean of the sum is the sum of the means
- The variance of the sum is the sum of the variances (holds for sums of *independent* variables).

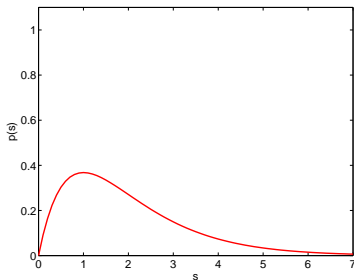
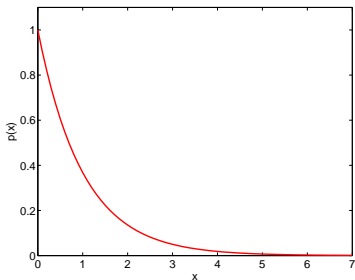
Sums of Variables based on the densities

Assume that X and Y are independent, and $S = X + Y$. What is the distribution of S ?

$$p(S = s) = \int p(X = x)p(Y = s - x)dx$$

Example: Assume $X = \text{Ex}(1)$, i.e. $p(x) = \exp(-x)$, and $Y = \text{Ex}(1)$. Then, $S = X + Y$ has distribution

$$\begin{aligned} p(S = s) &= \int_0^{\infty} p(X = x)p(Y = s - x)dx = \int_0^s \exp(-x) \exp(-s + x)dx \\ &= \exp(-s)[x]_0^s = s \exp(-s). \end{aligned}$$



More on Sums

Example: $p(x)$ and $p(y)$ are independent Gaussian $N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ and $N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$. The sum $S = X + Y$ is also Gaussian $N(\mu_x + \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)$.

Example: The difference $T = X - Y$ is also Gaussian $N(\mu_x - \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)$.

Notice:

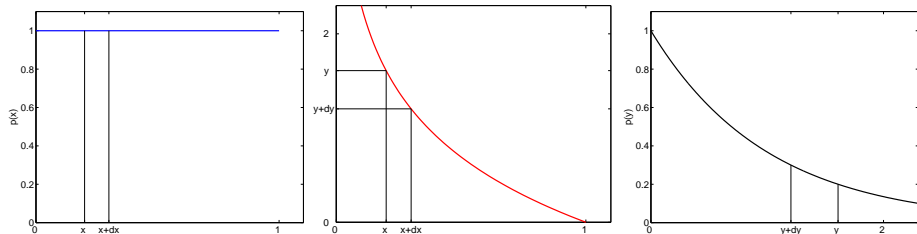
- The sum of two independent Gaussians is again Gaussian
- But, as we saw before, the sum of Exponentials is not Exponential

Gaussians are said to be *closed under addition*.

Because of the central limit theorem, distributions become *more Gaussian* when you add them.

Transformations of continuous variables

The distribution of x is $p(x)$. What is the distribution of $y = f(x)$?



We want the probability of an event in the old variables x to be equal to the probability in the new variables

$$p(x)dx = p(y)dy.$$

The Jacobian

Formally, we have

$$p(y) = p(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|,$$

where $\left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$ is called the **Jacobian**.

Example: $p(x)$ is Gaussian $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, i.e.

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right).$$

What is the distribution of $p(y)$ of $y = \alpha x + \beta$, a linear function of x ?

$$x = \frac{y - \beta}{\alpha}, \quad \text{so} \quad \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| = \frac{1}{\alpha}, \quad \text{and}$$
$$p(y) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\left(\frac{y - \beta}{\alpha} - \mu\right)^2\right),$$

which we recognize exactly as $p(y)$ is $N(\beta + \alpha\mu, \alpha^2\sigma^2)$.

Linear transformations

Linear transformations don't change the shape of the distribution.

- Adding a constant simply shifts the mean of the distribution by that constant.
- Multiplication by a constant
 - scales the mean by the constant, and
 - scales the variance by the *square* of that constant.

The Jacobian for a non-linear transformation

For a linear transformation the Jacobian is just a constant, which makes sure the the probabilities in the new variables normalize.

For non-linear transformations, the Jacobian is more complicated.

Example: $p(x)$ is uniform $[0; 1]$. What is the distribution of $y = -\log(x)$?

Since $x = \exp(-y)$, the Jacobian is $|\exp(-y)| = \exp(-y)$, so

$$p(y) = p(x) \exp(-y) = \exp(-y).$$

So, y follows an exponential distribution, $\text{Ex}(1)$.