**Example:** Flaws occur randomly along a thin copper wire. Let y denote the number of flaws in a length of L millimeters of wire and suppose that the average number of flaws in L millimeters is  $\lambda$ .

- Partition the length of wire into n subintervals of small length, say, 1 micrometer each.
- If the length of subintervals is small enough, the probability that more than one flaw occurs in the subinterval is negligible.
- Every subinterval has the same probability of containing a flaw, say  $p = \lambda/n$ .
- A subinterval contains a flaw is independent of other subintervals.

So we can model the distribution of y as approximately a Bin(n,p) random variable with n large and  $np = \lambda$ .

#### Approximate Bin(n,p)

with n large and  $np = \lambda$ 

$$P(y) = {n \choose y} p^{y} (1-p)^{n-y}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-y+1)}{y!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{y} \left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-y}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-y+1)}{n^{y}} \left(\frac{\lambda^{y}}{y!}\right) \left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-y}$$

$$\approx \frac{\lambda^{y}}{y!} \left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n}$$

$$\approx \frac{\lambda^{y}}{y!} e^{-\lambda}$$

where the last approximation comes from

$$\log \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n = n \log \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)$$
$$= n\left(-\frac{\lambda}{n} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{\lambda^2}{n^2} - \cdots\right) \approx -\lambda$$

### **Poisson Distribution**

Consider a particular event occurs during a given unit (or interval) of time, assume that

- the events occur randomly through the interval.
- the probability that an event occurs in a given unit of time is the same for all the units.
- the number of events that occur in a given unit of time is independent of the number that occur in other units.

Such random experiment is called a **Poisson Process** 

Let  $\lambda$  denote the mean or expected number of events in each unit.

The random variable y denotes the number of events occurring during that unit is a **Poisson** random variable with parameter  $\lambda$ 

$$p(y) = \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!}$$
  $(y = 0, 1, 2, ...)$ 

Mean and Variance

$$\mu = \lambda \quad \sigma^2 = \lambda$$

**Show that**  $\mathbb{E}(y) = \lambda$  where y is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda$ .

$$\mathbb{E}(y) = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} y \cdot p(y)$$

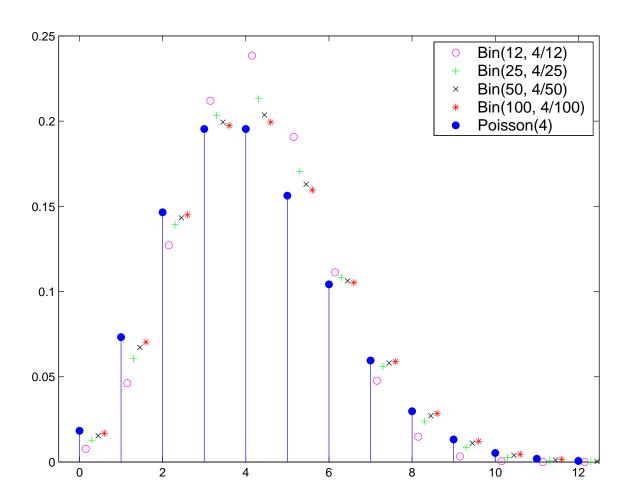
$$= \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} y \times \frac{\lambda^{y} e^{-\lambda}}{y!}$$

$$= \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{y} e^{-\lambda}}{(y-1)!}$$

$$= \lambda \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{y-1} e^{-\lambda}}{(y-1)!}$$

$$= \lambda \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x} e^{-\lambda}}{(x)!} \quad x = y - 1$$

The following figure shows how Poisson approximates Binomial distribution.



#### **Consistent Units**

**Example:** For the case of the copper wire, suppose that the number of flaws follows a Poisson distribution with a mean of 2.3 flaws per millimeter.

Determine the probability of exactly 1 flaw in 2 millimeters of wire.

Let y denote the number of flaws in 2 millimeters of wire. Then, y has a Poisson distribution with

$$\mathbb{E}(y) = 2 \text{ mm} \times 2.3 \text{ flaws/mm} = 4.6 \text{ flaws.}$$

Therefore

$$P(y=1) = e^{-4.6} \times 4.6.$$

It is important to use consistent units in the calculation of probabilities, means and variances involving Poisson random variables

## **Discrete Uniform Distribution**

A random variable y has a **discrete uniform distribution** if

- ullet it takes k possible values  $(y_1,\ldots,y_k)$
- ullet each of the k values has equal probability, that is,

$$p(y = y_i) = 1/k, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

**Examples:** Toss a fair coin (Bernoulli(1/2)), Throw a die...

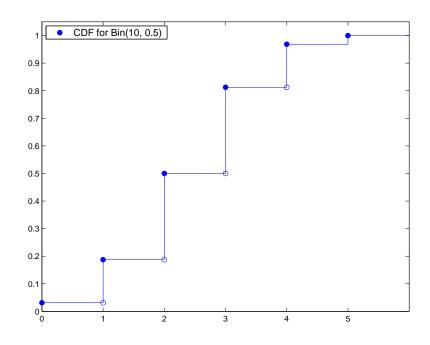
# **Cumulative Distribution Function**

The cumulative distribution function  $F(y_0)$  for a random variable y is equal to

$$F(y_0) = P(y \le y_0).$$

#### **Property of CDF**

- $0 \le F(y) \le 1$ .
- F(y) is a monotonically increasing function.



### **Continuous Random Variable**

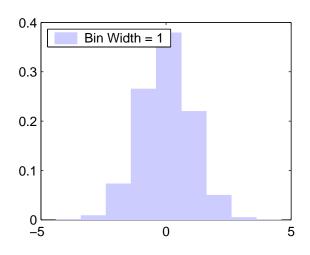
A continuous random variable y is one that has the following three properties

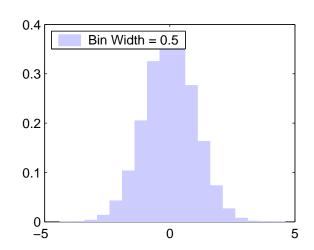
- 1. y takes on an uncountably infinite number of values in the interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .
- 2. The CDF F(y) is continuous.
- 3. The probability that y equals any one particular value is 0.

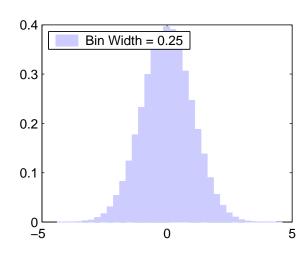
# **Histogram Revisit**

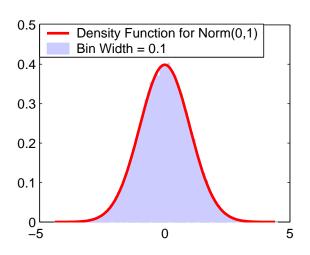
**Histogram** is an approximation to a probability density function.

Height = Relative Freq / Bin Width









### **Density Function**

Motivation

$$\frac{F(y+\delta) - F(y)}{\delta} \to \frac{dF(y)}{dy},$$

when  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ .

• **Definition** If F(y) is the cumulative distribution function for a continuous random variable y, then the **density function** f(y) for y is

$$f(y) = \frac{dF(y)}{dy}$$

It follows from the definition that

$$F(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} f(t) dt$$

#### **Properties of a Density Function**

1.  $f(y) \ge 0$ , and f(y) = 0 for y values that can not occur.

2. 
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = F(\infty) = 1$$

3. 
$$P(a < y < b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$
.

**Example 5.1** Let c be a constant and consider the density function

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} cy & \text{if } 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

a. Find the value of c.

Since  $\int_{\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = 1$ , we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = c \int_{0}^{1} y \ dy = c/2$$
$$\implies c = 2$$

## **Expectation**

The **expected values** of y and g(y) are

$$\mathbb{E}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f(y) dy$$

$$\mathbb{E}[g(y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) f(y) dy$$

#### **Properties of Expectation**

- $\bullet$   $\mathbb{E}(c) = c$ , where c is a constant
- $\mathbb{E}(cy) = c\mathbb{E}(y)$
- $\mathbb{E}[g_1(y) + \cdots g_k(y)] = \mathbb{E}[g_1(y)] + \cdots \mathbb{E}[g_k(y)]$

## **V**ariance

• Let y be a continuous random variable with  $\mathbb{E}(y) = \mu$ , then

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[(y - \mu)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - \mu)^2 f(y) dy$$

• Another expression for  $\sigma^2$ 

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}(y^2) - \mu^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^2 f(y) dy - \mu^2$$

$$\sigma^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y^{2} - 2y\mu + \mu^{2}) f(y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^{2} f(y) dy - 2\mu \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f(y) dy$$

$$+ \mu^{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^{2} f(y) dy - 2\mu \cdot \mu + \mu^{2}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^{2} f(y) dy - \mu^{2}$$

Let y be a (discrete or continuous) random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$\mu_{(c+y)} = \mu + c, \quad \mu_{cy} = c\mu.$$
 $\sigma_{(c+y)}^2 = \sigma^2, \quad \sigma_{cy}^2 = c^2\sigma^2.$ 

$$\sigma_{(c+y)}^2 = \mathbb{E}[(c+y) - \mu_{(c+y)}]^2$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[c+y - (c+\mu)]^2$$
$$= \mathbb{E}(y-\mu)^2 = \sigma^2$$

$$\sigma_{cy}^{2} = \mathbb{E}(cy - \mu_{cy})^{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(cy - c\mu)^{2}$$

$$= c^{2}\mathbb{E}(y - \mu)^{2} = c^{2}\sigma^{2}$$

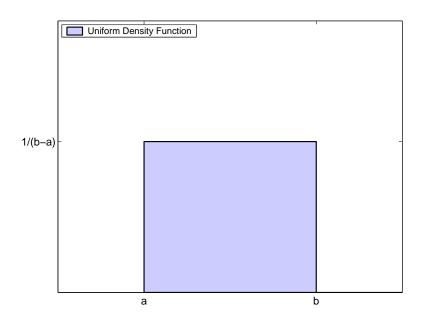
### **Uniform Distribution**

A continuous random variable y with probability density function

$$f(y) = 1/(b-a), \quad a \le y \le b$$

is a continuous uniform random variable

$$\mu = \frac{(a+b)}{2}$$
  $\sigma^2 = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ 



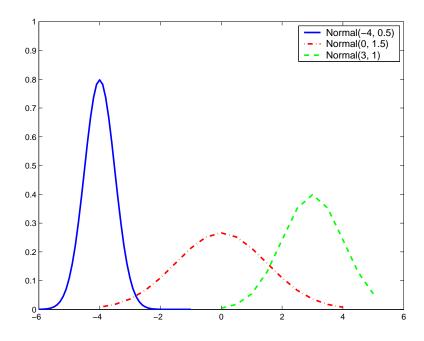
# Normal Distribution

A continuous random variable y with probability density function

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

is a **normal random variable** with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Specially, the normal random variable with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$  is called **standard normal variable**.



• (Theorem 5.4) If y is a normal random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$z = \frac{y - \mu}{\sigma}$$

is a standard normal variable.

- The entries in Table 4 of Appendix II are the area between 0 and z>0 under a standard normal density curve.
- How to get CDF from the table?

Let T(z) denote the entry corresponding to z, then

$$F(z) = \begin{cases} 0.5 + T(z) & \text{if } z \ge 0\\ 0.5 - T(|z|) & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

**Example:** The line width of for semiconductor manufacturing is assumed to be normally distributed with a mean of 0.5 micrometer and a standard deviation of 0.05 micrometer.

1. What is the probability that a line width is greater than 0.62 micrometer?

The value y = 0.62 corresponds to a z value of

$$z = \frac{y - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{0.62 - 0.5}{0.05} = 2.4$$

The entry corresponding to 2.4 in the table is 0.4918, thus

$$P(y \ge 0.62) = P(z \ge 2.4) = 1 - F(2.4)$$
  
= 1 - (0.5 + 0.4918)  
= 0.5 - 0.4918 = 0.0082

2. What is the probability that a line width is between 0.47 and 0.63 micrometer?

$$P(0.47 \le y \le 0.63) = P(-0.6 \le z \le 2.6)$$

$$= F(2.6) - F(-0.6)$$

$$= 0.5 + T(2.6) - (0.5 - T(0.6))$$

$$= 0.2257 + 0.4953 = 0.721$$

3. The line width of 90% of samples is below what value?

From the table, find that the value of z which has CDF equal to 90%, that is,  $z=F^{-1}(0.9)$ . From the table, the closest z value is 1.28. Thus

$$y = \sigma z + \mu = 1.28 \times 0.05 + 0.5 = 0.564.$$