

# W03 Notes

## Repeated trials

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### 01 Theory

#### Repeated trials

When a single experiment type is repeated many times, and we assume each instance is *independent* of the others, we say it is a sequence of **repeated trials** or **independent trials**.

The probability of any sequence of outcomes is derived using independence together with the probabilities of outcomes of each trial.

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A simple type of trial, called a **Bernoulli trial**, has two possible outcomes, 1 and 0, or success and failure, or  $T$  and  $F$ . A sequence of repeated Bernoulli trials is called a **Bernoulli process**.

- Write sequences like  $TFFTTF$  for the outcomes of repeated trials of this type.
- Independence implies

$$P[TFFTTF] = P[T] \cdot P[F] \cdot P[F] \cdot P[T] \cdot P[T] \cdot P[F]$$

- Write  $p = P[T]$  and  $q = P[F]$ , and because these are all outcomes (exclusive and exhaustive), we have  $q = 1 - p$ . Then:

$$P[TFFTTF] \ggg pqpppq \ggg p^3q^3$$

- This gives a formula for the probability of any sequence of these trials.

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A more complex trial may have three outcomes,  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ .

- Write sequences like  $ABBACABCA$  for the outcomes.
- Label  $p = P[A]$  and  $q = P[B]$  and  $r = P[C]$ . We must have  $p + q + r = 1$ .
- Independence implies

$$P[ABBACABCA] \ggg pqqprpqrp \ggg p^4q^3r^2$$

- This gives a formula for the probability of any sequence of these trials.
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Let  $S$  stand for the *sum of successes* in some Bernoulli process. So, for example, “ $S = 3$ ” stands for the event that the number of successes is exactly 3. The probabilities of  $S$  events follow a **binomial distribution**.

Suppose a coin is biased with  $P[H] = 20\%$ , and  $H$  is ‘success’. Flip the coin 20 times. Then:

$$P[S = 3] \gg \gg \binom{20}{3} \cdot (0.2)^3 \cdot (0.8)^{17}$$

Each outcome with exactly 3 heads and 17 tails has probability  $(0.2)^3 \cdot (0.8)^{17}$ . The *number* of such outcomes is the number of ways to choose 3 of the flips to be heads out of the 20 total flips.

The probability of at least 18 heads would then be:

$$\begin{aligned} P[S \geq 18] &\gg \gg P[S = 18] + P[S = 19] + P[S = 20] \\ &\gg \gg \binom{20}{18} \cdot (0.2)^{18} \cdot (0.8)^2 + \binom{20}{19} \cdot (0.2)^{19} \cdot (0.8)^1 + \binom{20}{20} \cdot (0.2)^{20} \cdot (0.8)^0 \end{aligned}$$

With three possible outcomes,  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , we can write sum variables like  $S_A$  which counts the number of  $A$  outcomes, and  $S_B$  and  $S_C$  similarly. The probabilities of events like “ $(S_A, S_B, S_C) = (2, 3, 5)$ ” follow a **multinomial distribution**.

## 02 Illustration

### ≡ Example - Multinomial: Soft drinks preferred

Folks coming to a party prefer Coke (55%), Pepsi (25%), or Dew (20%). If 20 people order drinks in sequence, what is the probability that exactly 12 have Coke and 5 have Pepsi and 3 have Dew?

#### Solution

The multinomial coefficient  $\binom{20}{12, 5, 3}$  gives the number of ways to assign 20 people into bins according to preferences matching the given numbers,  $C = 12$  and  $P = 5$  and  $D = 3$ .

Each such assignment is one sequence of outcomes. All such sequences have probability  $(0.55)^{12} \cdot (0.25)^5 \cdot (0.2)^3$ .

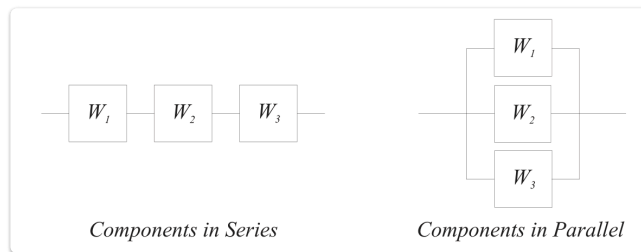
The answer is therefore:

$$\binom{20}{12, 5, 3} \cdot (0.55)^{12} \cdot (0.25)^5 \cdot (0.2)^3 \gg \gg \frac{20!}{12! 5! 3!} \cdot (0.55)^{12} \cdot (0.25)^5 \cdot (0.2)^3$$

## Reliability

## 03 Theory

Consider some process schematically with **components in series** and **components in parallel**:



- Each component has a probability of success or failure.
- Event  $W_i$  indicates ‘success’ of that component (same name).
- Then  $P[W_i]$  is the probability of  $W_i$  succeeding.

Success for a *series* of components requires success of *each* member.

- Series components *rely on each other*.
- Success of the whole is success of part 1 AND success of part 2 AND part 3, etc.

Failure for *parallel* components requires failure of *each* member.

- Parallel components represent *redundancy*.
- Success of the whole is success of part 1 OR success of part 2 OR part 3, etc.

For series components, stack successes:

$$P[W] = P[W_1 W_2 W_3] = P[W_1] \cdot P[W_2] \cdot P[W_3]$$

For parallel components, stack failures:

$$P[W^c] = P[W_1^c W_2^c W_3^c]$$

$$\gg \gg (1 - P[W_1])(1 - P[W_2])(1 - P[W_3])$$

E.g. if  $P[W_i] = p$  for all components  $i$ , then:

- Series components:  $P[W] = p^3$
- Parallel components:  $P[W] = 1 - (1 - p)^3$

To analyze a complex diagram of series and parallel components, bundle each:

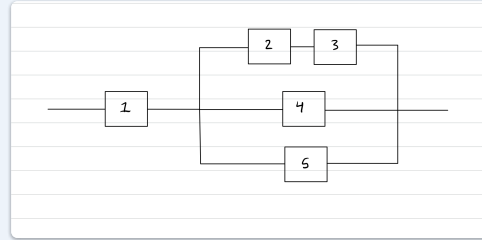
- pure series set as a single compound component with its own success probability (the product)
- pure parallel set as a single compound component with its own success probability (using the failure formula)

This is like the analysis of resistors and inductors.

## 04 Illustration

### Example - Series, parallel, series

Suppose a process has internal components arranged like this:



Write  $W_i$  for the event that component  $i$  succeeds, and  $W_i^c$  for the event that it fails.

The success probabilities for each component are given in the chart:

1	2	3	4	5
92%	89%	95%	86%	91%

Find the probability that the entire system succeeds.

#### Solution

For intersections, use  $P[AB] = P[A]P[B]$  (independence) and for unions, use  $P[A \cup B] = 1 - P[A^c B^c]$ .

So  $P[(W_2 W_3)^c] = 1 - (.89)(.95)$  and:

$$\text{success} = W_1 (W_2 W_3 \cup W_4 \cup W_5)$$

$$\ggg P[\text{success}] = (.92) \left( 1 - \left( 1 - (.89)(.95) \right) (.14)(.09) \right) \ggg \approx \mathbf{0.918}$$

## Random variables

### 05 Theory

#### Random variable

A **random variable (RV)**  $X$  on a probability space  $(S, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is a function  $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

So  $X$  assigns to each *outcome* a *number*.

Note: The word ‘variable’ indicates that an RV outputs *numbers*.

Random variables can be formed from other random variables using mathematical operations on the output numbers.

Given random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , we can form these new ones:

$$\frac{1}{2}(X + Y), \quad X \cdot Y, \quad \cos X, \quad X^2, \quad \text{etc.}$$

Suppose  $s \in S$  is some particular outcome. Then, for example,  $(X + Y)(s)$  is by definition  $X(s) + Y(s)$ .

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Random variables determine events.

- Given  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , the event “ $X = a$ ” is equal to the set  $X^{-1}(a)$
- That is: the set of outcomes mapped to  $a$  by  $X$
- That is: the event “ $X$  took the value  $a$ ”

Such events have probabilities. We write them like this:

$$P[X = a] \ggg P[X^{-1}(a)]$$

This generalized to events where  $X$  lies in some range or set, for example:

$$P[a \leq X < b], \quad P[X \in \{2, 4, 5, 6, 9\}]$$

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The axioms of probability translate into rules for these events.

For example, additivity leads to:

$$P[X < 0] + P[X = 0] + P[0 < X \leq 3] + P[3 < X] = 1$$

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A **discrete** random variable has probability concentrated at a discrete set of real numbers.

- A ‘discrete set’ means *finite or countably infinite*.
- The distribution of probability is recorded using a **probability mass function (PMF)** that assigns probabilities to each of the discrete real numbers.
- Numbers with nonzero probability are called **possible values**.

#### PMF

The PMF function  $P_X(k)$ , for  $X$  a discrete RV, is defined by:

$$P_X(k) = P[X = k]$$

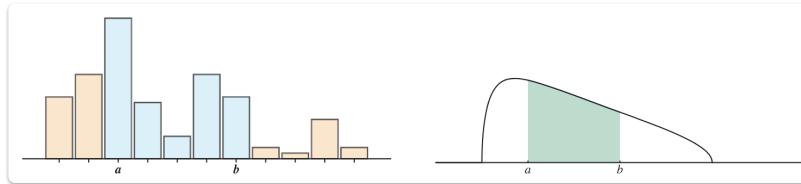
A **continuous** random variable has probability spread out over the space of real numbers.

- The distribution of probability is recorded using a **probability density function (PDF)** which is *integrated over intervals* to determine probabilities.

## PDF

The PDF function for  $Y$  (a CRV) is written  $f_Y(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and probabilities are calculated like this:

$$P[a \leq Y \leq b] = \int_a^b f_Y(x) dx$$



For any RV, whether discrete or continuous, the distribution of probability is encoded by a function:

## CDF

The **cumulative distribution function (CDF)** for a random variable  $X$  is defined for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  by:

$$F_X(x) = P[X \leq x]$$

Notes:

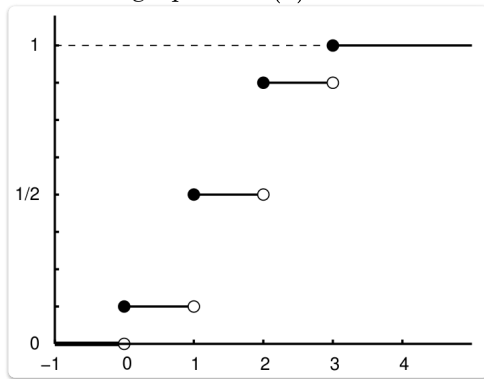
- Sometimes the relation to  $X$  is omitted and one sees just “ $F(x)$ .”
- Sometimes the CDF is called, simply, “the distribution function” because:

### The CDF works for a discrete, continuous, or mixed RV

- PMF is for discrete only
- PDF is for continuous only
- CDF covers both and covers *mixed* RVs

The CDF of a discrete RV is always a stepwise increasing function. At each step up, the jump size matches the PMF value there.

From this graph of  $F_X(x)$ :



we can infer the PMF values based on the jump sizes:

$P_X(-1)$	$P_X(0)$	$P_X(1)$	$P_X(2)$	$P_X(3)$	$P_X(4)$
0	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8	0

For a discrete RV, the CDF and the PMF can be calculated from each other using formulas.

#### PMF from CDF from PMF

Given a PMF  $P_X(x)$ , the CDF is determined by:

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{k_i \leq x} P_X(k_i)$$

where  $\{k_1, k_2, \dots\}$  is the set of possible values of  $X$ .

Given a CDF  $F_X(x)$ , the PMF is determined by:

$$P_X(k) = F_X(k) - \lim_{x \rightarrow k^-} F_X(x) = \text{"jump" at } k$$

## 06 Illustration

### Example - PDF and CDF: Roll 2 dice

Roll two dice colored red and green. Let  $X_R$  record the number of dots showing on the red die,  $X_G$  the number on the green die, and let  $S$  be a random variable giving the total number of dots showing after the roll, namely  $S = X_R + X_G$ .

- Find the PMFs of  $X_R$  and of  $X_G$  and of  $S$ .
- Find the CDF of  $S$ .
- Find  $P[S = 8]$ .

#### Solution

(1) Construct sample space:

Denote outcomes with ordered pairs of numbers  $(i, j)$ , where  $i$  is the number showing on the red die and  $j$  is the number on the green one.

Therefore  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  are integers satisfying  $1 \leq i, j \leq 6$ .

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(2) Create chart of outcomes:

+	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
6	7	8	9	10	11	12

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(3) Define random variables:

We have  $X_R(i, j) = i$  and  $X_G(i, j) = j$ .

Therefore  $S(i, j) = i + j$ .

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(4) Find PMF of  $X_R$ :

Use variable  $k$  for each possible value of  $X_R$ , so  $k = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ . Find  $P_{X_R}(k)$ :

$$P_{X_R}(k) = P[X_R = k]$$
$$\ggg \frac{|\text{outcomes with } k \text{ on red}|}{|\text{all outcomes}|} \ggg \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

Therefore  $P_{X_R}(k) = 1/6$  for every  $k$ .

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(5) Find PMF of  $X_G$  similarly:

$$P_{X_G}(k) = \frac{1}{6} \quad \text{for all } k$$

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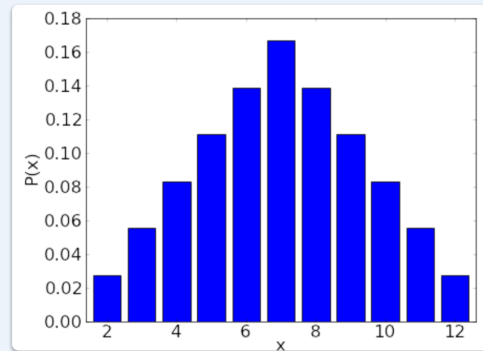
(6) Find PMF of  $S$ :

$$P_S(k) = P[S = k] \ggg \frac{|\text{outcomes with sum } k|}{|\text{all outcomes}|}$$

*Count outcomes along diagonal lines in the chart.*



$k$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
$P_S(k)$	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{1}{36}$



Evaluate:  $P[S = 8] = 5/36$ .

(7) Find CDF of  $S$ :

CDF definition:  $F_S(x) = P[S \leq x]$

Apply definition: add new PMF value at each increment:

$$F_S(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 2 \\ 1/36 & 2 \leq x < 3 \\ 3/36 & 3 \leq x < 4 \\ 6/36 & 4 \leq x < 5 \\ 10/36 & 5 \leq x < 6 \\ 15/36 & 6 \leq x < 7 \\ 21/36 & 7 \leq x < 8 \\ 26/36 & 8 \leq x < 9 \\ 30/36 & 9 \leq x < 10 \\ 33/36 & 10 \leq x < 11 \\ 35/36 & 11 \leq x < 12 \\ 36/36 & 12 \leq x \end{cases}$$

### ≡ Example - Total heads count; binomial expansion of 1

A fair coin is flipped  $n$  times.

Let  $X$  be the random variable that counts the total number of heads in each sequence.

The PMF of  $X$  is given by:

$$P_X(k) = \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

Since the total probability must add to 1, we know this formula must hold:

$$1 = \sum_{\text{possible } k} P_X(k)$$

$$\ggg 1 = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

Is this equation really true?

There is another way to view this equation: it is the binomial expansion  $(x + y)^n$  where  $x = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{2}$ :

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

### ≡ Example - Life insurance payouts

A life insurance company has two clients,  $A$  and  $B$ , each with a policy that pays \$100,000 upon death. Consider events  $D_1$  that the older client dies next year, and  $D_2$  that the younger dies next year. Suppose  $P[D_1] = 0.10$  and  $P[D_2] = 0.05$ .

Define a random variable  $X$  measuring the total money paid out next year in units of \$1,000. The possible values for  $X$  are 0, 100, 200. Now calculate:

$$P[X = 0] \ggg P[D_1^c]P[D_2^c] \ggg 0.95 \cdot 0.90 \ggg 0.86$$

$$P[X = 100] \ggg 0.05 \cdot 0.90 + 0.95 \cdot 0.10 \ggg 0.14$$

$$P[X = 200] \ggg 0.05 \cdot 0.10 \ggg 0.005$$