CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 36.

Continuous Probability 3

CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 36.

Continuous Probability 3

CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 36.

Continuous Probability 3

- 1. Review: CDF, PDF
- 2. Review: Expectation
- 3. Review: Independence
- 4. Meeting at a Restaurant
- 5. Breaking a Stick
- 6. Maximum of Exponentials
- 7. Quantization Noise
- 8. Replacing Light Bulbs
- 9. Expected Squared Distance
- 10. Geometric and Exponential

Key idea:

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0, 1];

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0, 1]; throw a dart in a target.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome],

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event].

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0, 1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event]. Instead, one starts by defining Pr[event].

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event]. Instead, one starts by defining Pr[event]. Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]]$

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0, 1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event]. Instead, one starts by defining Pr[event]. Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X < x]$

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$. Examples: Uniform in [0, 1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event]. Instead, one starts by defining Pr[event]. Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \Re$.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$. Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target. Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event]. Instead, one starts by defining Pr[event]. Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{R}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define Pr[outcome], then Pr[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{R}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF)

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X.

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X.

 $f_X(\cdot)$ is the probability density function

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X.

 $f_X(\cdot)$ is the probability density function (PDF)

Key idea: For a continuous RV, Pr[X = x] = 0 for all $x \in \Re$.

Examples: Uniform in [0,1]; throw a dart in a target.

Thus, one cannot define *Pr*[outcome], then *Pr*[event].

Instead, one starts by defining *Pr*[event].

Thus, one defines $Pr[X \in (-\infty, x]] = Pr[X \le x] =: F_X(x), x \in \mathfrak{N}$. Then, one defines $f_X(x) := \frac{d}{dx}F_X(x)$. Hence, $f_X(x)\varepsilon = Pr[X \in (x, x + \varepsilon)]$.

 $F_X(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X.

 $f_X(\cdot)$ is the probability density function (PDF) of X.

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable *X* with pdf f(x) is defined as

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable *X* with pdf f(x) is defined as

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable X with pdf f(x) is defined as - -----E

$$\Xi[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable X with pdf f(x) is defined as - -----E

$$\Xi[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

$$E[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable X with pdf f(x) is defined as - 00 E

$$\Xi[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

$$E[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

(c) The expectation of a function of multiple random variables is defined as

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable *X* with pdf f(x) is defined as

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

$$E[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

(c) The expectation of a function of multiple random variables is defined as

$$E[h(\mathbf{X})] = \int \cdots \int h(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 \cdots dx_n.$$

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable *X* with pdf f(x) is defined as

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

$$E[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

(c) The expectation of a function of multiple random variables is defined as

$$E[h(\mathbf{X})] = \int \cdots \int h(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 \cdots dx_n.$$

Justifications:

Definitions: (a) The **expectation** of a random variable *X* with pdf f(x) is defined as

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx.$$

(b) The expectation of a function of a random variable is defined as

$$E[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$$

(c) The expectation of a function of multiple random variables is defined as

$$E[h(\mathbf{X})] = \int \cdots \int h(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 \cdots dx_n.$$

Justifications: Think of the discrete approximations of the continuous RVs.

Independent Continuous Random Variables Definition:

Definition: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if

Definition: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if

 $Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$

Definition: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if

 $Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$

Theorem:

Independent Continuous Random Variables Definition: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if and only if
$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof:

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition:

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs X and Y are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n.$$

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n.$$

Theorem:

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if and only if

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if and only if

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=f_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots f_{X_n}(x_n).$$

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs $X_1, ..., X_n$ are mutually independent if and only if

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=f_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots f_{X_n}(x_n).$$

Proof:

$$Pr[X \in A, Y \in B] = Pr[X \in A]Pr[Y \in B], \forall A, B.$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs *X* and *Y* are independent if and only if

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y)=f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Definition: The continuous RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent if

$$Pr[X_1 \in A_1, \ldots, X_n \in A_n] = Pr[X_1 \in A_1] \cdots Pr[X_n \in A_n], \forall A_1, \ldots, A_n$$

Theorem: The continuous RVs $X_1, ..., X_n$ are mutually independent if and only if

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=f_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots f_{X_n}(x_n).$$

Proof: As in the discrete case.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6,

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

The complement is the sum of two rectangles.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

The complement is the sum of two rectangles. When you put them together, they form a square

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

The complement is the sum of two rectangles. When you put them together, they form a square with sides 5/6.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Thus, $Pr[meet] = 1 - (\frac{5}{6})^2 =$

Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

The complement is the sum of two rectangles. When you put them together, they form a square with sides 5/6.

Two friends go to a restaurant independently uniformly at random between noon and 1pm.

They agree they will wait for 10 minutes. What is the probability they meet?



Thus, $Pr[meet] = 1 - (\frac{5}{6})^2 = \frac{11}{36}$.

Here, (X, Y) are the times when the friends reach the restaurant.

The shaded area are the pairs where |X - Y| < 1/6, i.e., such that they meet.

The complement is the sum of two rectangles. When you put them together, they form a square with sides 5/6.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You can make a triangle if A < B + C, B < A + C, and C < A + B.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You can make a triangle if A < B + C, B < A + C, and C < A + B.

If X < Y, this means X < 0.5, Y < X + 0.5, Y > 0.5.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You can make a triangle if A < B + C, B < A + C, and C < A + B.

If X < Y, this means X < 0.5, Y < X + 0.5, Y > 0.5. This is the blue triangle.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You can make a triangle if A < B + C, B < A + C, and C < A + B.

If X < Y, this means X < 0.5, Y < X + 0.5, Y > 0.5. This is the blue triangle.

If X > Y, we get the red triangle, by symmetry.

You break a stick at two points chosen independently uniformly at random.

What is the probability you can make a triangle with the three pieces?



Thus, Pr[make triangle] = 1/4.

Let X, Y be the two break points along the [0, 1] stick.

You can make a triangle if A < B + C, B < A + C, and C < A + B.

If X < Y, this means X < 0.5, Y < X + 0.5, Y > 0.5. This is the blue triangle.

If X > Y, we get the red triangle, by symmetry.

Maximum of Two Exponentials

Maximum of Two Exponentials

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent.
Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$.

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z].

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate.

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate. One has

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate. One has

Pr[Z < z] = Pr[X < z, Y < z]

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate. One has

$$Pr[Z < z] = Pr[X < z, Y < z] = Pr[X < z]Pr[Y < z]$$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate.

One has

$$Pr[Z < z] = Pr[X < z, Y < z] = Pr[X < z]Pr[Y < z]$$

= $(1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) =$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z]. We compute f_Z , then integrate. One has

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z < z] &= \Pr[X < z, Y < z] = \Pr[X < z] \Pr[Y < z] \\ &= (1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) = 1 - e^{-\lambda z} - e^{-\mu z} + e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z} \end{aligned}$$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We compute f_Z , then integrate.

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z < z] &= \Pr[X < z, Y < z] = \Pr[X < z] \Pr[Y < z] \\ &= (1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) = 1 - e^{-\lambda z} - e^{-\mu z} + e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$f_Z(z) = \lambda e^{-\lambda z} + \mu e^{-\mu z} - (\lambda + \mu) e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z}, \forall z > 0.$$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We compute f_Z , then integrate.

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z < z] &= \Pr[X < z, Y < z] = \Pr[X < z] \Pr[Y < z] \\ &= (1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) = 1 - e^{-\lambda z} - e^{-\mu z} + e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$f_Z(z) = \lambda e^{-\lambda z} + \mu e^{-\mu z} - (\lambda + \mu) e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z}, \forall z > 0.$$

$$E[Z] = \int_0^\infty z f_Z(z) dz =$$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We compute f_Z , then integrate.

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z < z] &= \Pr[X < z, Y < z] = \Pr[X < z] \Pr[Y < z] \\ &= (1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) = 1 - e^{-\lambda z} - e^{-\mu z} + e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$f_Z(z) = \lambda e^{-\lambda z} + \mu e^{-\mu z} - (\lambda + \mu) e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z}, \forall z > 0.$$

$$E[Z] = \int_0^\infty z f_Z(z) dz = \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{\mu} - \frac{1}{\lambda + \mu}$$

Let $X = Expo(\lambda)$ and $Y = Expo(\mu)$ be independent. Define $Z = \max\{X, Y\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We compute f_Z , then integrate.

One has

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z < z] &= \Pr[X < z, Y < z] = \Pr[X < z] \Pr[Y < z] \\ &= (1 - e^{-\lambda z})(1 - e^{-\mu z}) = 1 - e^{-\lambda z} - e^{-\mu z} + e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$f_Z(z) = \lambda e^{-\lambda z} + \mu e^{-\mu z} - (\lambda + \mu) e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z}, \forall z > 0.$$

$$E[Z] = \int_0^\infty z f_Z(z) dz = \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{\mu} - \frac{1}{\lambda + \mu}$$

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1).

Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ be i.i.d. *Expo*(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, ..., X_n\}$.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

 $Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1).

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let then $A_n = E[Z]$.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let then $A_n = E[Z]$. We see that

$$A_n = E[\min\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}] + A_{n-1}$$

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let then $A_n = E[Z]$. We see that

$$A_n = E[\min\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}] + A_{n-1}$$

= $\frac{1}{n} + A_{n-1}$

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let then $A_n = E[Z]$. We see that

$$A_n = E[\min\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}] + A_{n-1}$$

= $\frac{1}{n} + A_{n-1}$

because the minimum of *Expo* is *Expo* with the sum of the rates.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. Expo(1). Define $Z = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Calculate E[Z].

We use a recursion. The key idea is as follows:

$$Z = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} + V$$

where V is the maximum of n-1 i.i.d. Expo(1). This follows from the memoryless property of the exponential.

Let then $A_n = E[Z]$. We see that

$$A_n = E[\min\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}] + A_{n-1}$$

= $\frac{1}{n} + A_{n-1}$

because the minimum of *Expo* is *Expo* with the sum of the rates.

$$E[Z] = A_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = H(n).$$

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model:

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.
In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis:

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis: We see that *Z* is uniform in $[0, a = 2^{-(n+1)}]$.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis: We see that *Z* is uniform in $[0, a = 2^{-(n+1)}]$.

Thus,

$$E[Z^2] = \frac{a^2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}.$$

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis: We see that *Z* is uniform in $[0, a = 2^{-(n+1)}]$.

Thus,

$$E[Z^2] = \frac{a^2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}.$$

The power of the signal X is $E[X^2] =$

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis: We see that *Z* is uniform in $[0, a = 2^{-(n+1)}]$.

Thus,

$$E[Z^2] = \frac{a^2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}.$$

The power of the signal X is $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

In digital video and audio, one represents a continuous value by a finite number of bits.

This introduces an error perceived as noise: the quantization noise. What is the power of that noise?

Model: X = U[0, 1] is the continuous value. *Y* is the closest multiple of 2^{-n} to *X*. Thus, we can represent *Y* with *n* bits. The error is Z := X - Y.

The power of the noise is $E[Z^2]$.

Analysis: We see that *Z* is uniform in $[0, a = 2^{-(n+1)}]$.

Thus,

$$E[Z^2] = \frac{a^2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}.$$

The power of the signal X is $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$. The signal to noise ratio (SNR)

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

Thus,

$$SNR = 2^{2(n+1)}$$
.

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

Thus,

$$SNR = 2^{2(n+1)}$$
.

Expressed in decibels, one has

 $SNR(dB) = 10 \log_{10}(SNR)$

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

Thus,

$$SNR = 2^{2(n+1)}$$
.

Expressed in decibels, one has

 $SNR(dB) = 10 \log_{10}(SNR) = 20(n+1) \log_{10}(2)$

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

Thus,

$$SNR = 2^{2(n+1)}$$
.

Expressed in decibels, one has

 $SNR(dB) = 10\log_{10}(SNR) = 20(n+1)\log_{10}(2) \approx 6(n+1).$

We saw that $E[Z^2] = \frac{1}{3}2^{-2(n+1)}$ and $E[X^2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

The **signal to noise ratio** (SNR) is the power of the signal divided by the power of the noise.

Thus,

$$SNR = 2^{2(n+1)}$$
.

Expressed in decibels, one has

```
SNR(dB) = 10\log_{10}(SNR) = 20(n+1)\log_{10}(2) \approx 6(n+1).
```

For instance, if n = 16, then $SNR(dB) \approx 112 dB$.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem:

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$. **Proof:**

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units.

Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units.

Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] \approx Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + Pr[X_t = n-1, A]$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units. Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] \approx Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + Pr[X_t = n-1, A]$$

=
$$Pr[X_t = n]Pr[A^c] + Pr[X_t = n-1]Pr[A]$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units. Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1, A] \\ &= & \Pr[X_t = n] \Pr[A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \Pr[A] \\ &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n] (1-\varepsilon) + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units. Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1, A] \\ &= & \Pr[X_t = n] \Pr[A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \Pr[A] \\ &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n] (1-\varepsilon) + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g(n,t) := Pr[X_t = n]$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units. Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1, A] \\ &= & \Pr[X_t = n] \Pr[A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \Pr[A] \\ &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n] (1-\varepsilon) + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g(n,t) := Pr[X_t = n]$ is such that

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Proof: We see how X_t increases over the next $\varepsilon \ll 1$ time units. Let *A* be the event that a burns out during $[t, t + \varepsilon]$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{t+\varepsilon} = n] &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n, A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1, A] \\ &= & \Pr[X_t = n] \Pr[A^c] + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \Pr[A] \\ &\approx & \Pr[X_t = n] (1-\varepsilon) + \Pr[X_t = n-1] \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g(n,t) := Pr[X_t = n]$ is such that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem:
Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is, $Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued)

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$,

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, one gets

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, one gets

$$g'(n,t) = -g(n,t) + g(n-1,t).$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon) \approx g(n,t) - g(n,t)\varepsilon + g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, one gets

$$g'(n,t) = -g(n,t) + g(n-1,t).$$

You can check that these equations are solved by $g(n,t) = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$.

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon)\approx g(n,t)-g(n,t)\varepsilon+g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, one gets

$$g'(n,t) = -g(n,t) + g(n-1,t).$$

You can check that these equations are solved by $g(n, t) = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$. Indeed, then

$$g'(n,t) = \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}e^{-t}-g(n,t)$$

Say that light bulbs have i.i.d. *Expo*(1) lifetimes.

We turn a light on, and replace it as soon as it burns out.

How many light bulbs do we need to replace in t units of time?

Theorem: The number X_t of replaced light bulbs is P(t).

That is,
$$Pr[X_t = n] = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$$
.

Proof: (continued) We saw that

$$g(n,t+\varepsilon)\approx g(n,t)-g(n,t)\varepsilon+g(n-1,t)\varepsilon.$$

Subtracting g(n,t), dividing by ε , and letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, one gets

$$g'(n,t) = -g(n,t) + g(n-1,t).$$

You can check that these equations are solved by $g(n, t) = \frac{t^n}{n!}e^{-t}$. Indeed, then

$$g'(n,t) = \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}e^{-t} - g(n,t)$$

= $g(n-1,t) - g(n,t).$

Problem 1:

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis:

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

$$E[(X - Y)^2] =$$

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

$$E[(X-Y)^2] = E[X^2+Y^2-2XY]$$

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$
$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$$

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}.$

Problem 2:

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

Analysis:

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] =$$

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] = E[(X_1 - Y_1)^2] + E[(X_2 - Y_2)^2]$$

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] = E[(X_1 - Y_1)^2] + E[(X_2 - Y_2)^2]$$

= $2 \times \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

Analysis: One has

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] = E[(X_1 - Y_1)^2] + E[(X_2 - Y_2)^2]$$

= $2 \times \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 3:

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

Analysis: One has

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] = E[(X_1 - Y_1)^2] + E[(X_2 - Y_2)^2]$$

= $2 \times \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 3: What about in *n* dimensions?

Problem 1: Pick two points X and Y independently and uniformly at random in [0, 1].

What is $E[(X - Y)^2]$?

Analysis: One has

$$E[(X - Y)^{2}] = E[X^{2} + Y^{2} - 2XY]$$

= $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - 2\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$
= $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 2: What about in a unit square?

Analysis: One has

$$E[||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}||^2] = E[(X_1 - Y_1)^2] + E[(X_2 - Y_2)^2]$$

= $2 \times \frac{1}{6}$.

Problem 3: What about in *n* dimensions? $\frac{n}{6}$.

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar.

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N,

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.
The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact:

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

Analysis:

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

Analysis: Note that

 $Pr[X > t] \approx Pr[first Nt flips are tails]$

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

Analysis: Note that

$$Pr[X > t] \approx Pr[$$
first Nt flips are tails $]$
= $(1 - \frac{p}{N})^{Nt}$

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

Analysis: Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & Pr[X > t] \approx Pr[\text{first } Nt \text{ flips are tails}] \\ & = (1 - \frac{p}{N})^{Nt} \approx \exp\{-pt\}. \end{aligned}$$

The geometric and exponential distributions are similar. They are both memoryless.

Consider flipping a coin every 1/N second with Pr[H] = p/N, where $N \gg 1$.

Let X be the time until the first H.

Fact: $X \approx Expo(p)$.

Analysis: Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X > t] &\approx & \Pr[\text{first } Nt \text{ flips are tails}] \\ &= & (1 - \frac{p}{N})^{Nt} \approx \exp\{-pt\}. \end{aligned}$$

Indeed, $(1 - \frac{a}{N})^N \approx \exp\{-a\}$.



Continuous Probability 3

Continuous RVs are essentially the same as discrete RVs

- Continuous RVs are essentially the same as discrete RVs
- Think that $X \approx x$ with probability $f_X(x)\varepsilon$

- Continuous RVs are essentially the same as discrete RVs
- Think that $X \approx x$ with probability $f_X(x)\varepsilon$
- Sums become integrals,

- Continuous RVs are essentially the same as discrete RVs
- Think that $X \approx x$ with probability $f_X(x)\varepsilon$
- Sums become integrals,
- The exponential distribution is magical:

- Continuous RVs are essentially the same as discrete RVs
- Think that $X \approx x$ with probability $f_X(x)\varepsilon$
- Sums become integrals,
- The exponential distribution is magical: memoryless.