

Random Processes - Solutions 4

PHYS 10471

4.1 Write $p = 0.99$, for success of 1 interception.

Prob. of 100 (independent!) successful interceptions
 $= p^{100} = 0.366$

[Could regard this as a special case of the binomial distribution: prob. of k successful interceptions $= P_k = \binom{100}{k} p^k (1-p)^{100-k}$.]

If the enemy wants to have a better than 50% chance of getting a missile through, they need

$$1 - p(\text{all intercepted}) > 0.5$$

$$\text{or } p(\text{all intercepted}) = p^N < 1 - 0.5 = 0.5;$$

$$\text{i.e. } N > \frac{\log 0.5}{\log p} = \frac{\log 0.5}{\log 0.99} = 68.97$$

\Rightarrow at least 69 missiles.

4.2 Prob. that gen. works $= p = 0.9$; $q = 1-p = 0.1$

prob. that k out of 5 gen.

$$\text{work} = P_k = \binom{5}{k} p^k q^{5-k} \quad [\text{Binomial dist.}]$$

Hence prob. that at least 3 out of 5 work

$$= P_3 + P_4 + P_5$$

$$= \binom{5}{3} p^3 q^2 + \binom{5}{4} p^4 q^1 + p^5$$

$$= 0.0729 + 0.32805 + 0.59049$$

$$= 0.99144 \quad (\text{about } 99\%).$$

4.3 Let $N = 32$ 740 471.

Prob. of N_r wins in a given prize category follows a Binomial distribution

$$P_{N_r} = \binom{N}{N_r} P_r^{N_r} (1-P_r)^{N-N_r}$$

$$\underline{\text{Mean}} : \langle N_r \rangle = N P_r$$

$$\underline{\text{Standard dev.}} : \sigma_{N_r} = (N P_r (1-P_r))^{1/2} \\ = (\langle N_r \rangle (1-P_r))^{1/2}.$$

Approximate values:

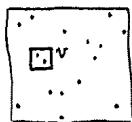
r	P_r	σ_{N_r}	$\langle N_r \rangle - \langle N_r \rangle$
3	0.0176	753	4876
4	9.69×10^{-4}	178	-1725
5	1.84×10^{-5}	24.6	-181
6	7.15×10^{-8}	1.5	-0.3

The observed results fall many standard deviations away from the expected values (except for $r=6$).

Assuming that the lottery is not fixed, the problem must lie in our assumption (Problem 2.3) that players choose their numbers at random: certain numbers (7?) might be favoured, and others (13?) avoided.

Exercise: [difficult!!] analyse the lottery results over a long period to discover what combinations of #s are avoided/favoured. Make sure that your own choices are unlikely to be shared with other players, assuming that you don't want to share the big prize!

4.4.



N independent trials, with probability $p = v/V$ of "success" [= "molecule in v "], and $q = 1-p$ of "failure".

It's a typical application of the binomial distribution, so $P_k(mv) = \binom{N}{k} p^k q^{N-k}$

$$= \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}$$

Mean: $\langle k \rangle = Np = Nv/V$

Stander: $\sigma_k = (Npq)^{1/2} = (Nv(v-v))^{1/2}/V$

For $V \gg v$ and $\bar{n} = N/V = \text{const.}$,

$$\langle k \rangle = \bar{n}v$$

$$\sigma_k = (\bar{n}v[1 - \frac{v}{V}])^{1/2} \approx (\bar{n}v)^{1/2}$$

We'd expect that, in this limit the binomial distribution goes over to the Poisson distribution, which has $\langle k \rangle = \sigma_k^2$.

$$\langle k \rangle = \sigma_k^2 = \bar{n}\lambda^3$$

[We can use the Poisson limit here because λ^3 is a tiny fraction of $V \equiv$ the whole atmosphere.]

Ideal gas law: $PV = Nk_B T$
↑ Boltzmann's const.

$$\Rightarrow \bar{n} = \frac{N}{V} = \frac{P}{k_B T} = \frac{10^5}{1.4 \times 10^{-23} \times 273} = 2.6 \times 10^{25} \text{ m}^{-3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle k \rangle = \sigma_k^2 = \bar{n}\lambda^3 \\ = 2.6 \times 10^{25} \times (5 \times 10^{-7})^3 \\ = 3.3 \times 10^6$$

Hence typical variation in density (as a fraction of the whole) in vol λ^3 is

$$\frac{\sigma_k}{\langle k \rangle} = \frac{\langle k \rangle^{1/2}}{\langle k \rangle} = \langle k \rangle^{-1/2} \approx 5.5 \times 10^{-4}$$

In general,

$$\frac{\sigma_k}{\langle k \rangle} = \langle k \rangle^{-1/2} = (\bar{n}\lambda^3)^{-1/2} \propto \lambda^{-3/2}$$

which is bigger for shorter wavelengths (blue light). So blue light "sees" larger (relative) density variations than red, and is scattered more strongly. This blue-enriched scattered light gives the colour of the sky.

Similarly, light reaching us directly from the sun is red-enriched, because some of the photons of blue light have been scattered in other directions (and are seen as "blue sky" by other observers).

4.5. One-dimensional random walk, $N=100$

steps d_i which are equally likely to be $\pm d$.

If the total displacement is X ,

$$(a) \langle X \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^N d_i \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle d_i \rangle = 0$$

(since $\langle d_i \rangle = (+d) \times \frac{1}{2} + (-d) \times \frac{1}{2} = 0$.)

\nearrow
probabilities
of step $\pm d$

(b) Mean-squared displacement

$$\begin{aligned} \langle X^2 \rangle &= \left\langle \left(\sum_{i=1}^N d_i \right)^2 \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^N d_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(\sum_{j>i}^N d_i d_j \right) \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

But $d_i^2 = d^2$, so the first term gives Nd^2 ; and $\langle d_i d_j \rangle = 0$, because (regardless of direction of d_i) d_j is equally likely to be in the same direction as d_i as it is to be in the opposite direction. Hence

$$\langle X^2 \rangle = Nd^2 \Rightarrow x_{\text{rms}} \equiv \langle X^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{N} d.$$

$$(c) \text{ If } k \text{ is # of steps of } +d, \quad X = kd + (N-k)(-d) \\ = (2k-N)d$$

i.e., X and k are related linearly. So if k is approx. Gaussian-distributed for large N , so too is X . From (a) and (b) we know the mean (0) and standard deviation ($\sigma_x = x_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{N} d$) for X . For $N=100$, $\sigma_x = 10d$.

NOW,

$$P(X > \sigma_x) = P(X < -\sigma_x)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(X > \sigma_x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - P(|X| \leq \sigma_x))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(1 - 0.683) = \underline{\underline{0.158}}. \quad (A)$$

[Exact value:

$$P(|X| \leq 10d) = P(X = -10d) + P(X = -8d) + \dots$$

$$\dots + P(X = 10d)$$

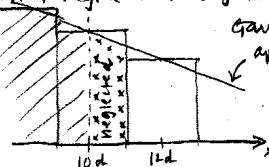
$$= P(X = 0) + 2(P(X = 2d) + P(X = 4d) \\ \dots + P(X = 10d))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{100}} \binom{100}{50} + 2 \left\{ \frac{1}{2^{100}} \binom{100}{51} + \frac{1}{2^{100}} \binom{100}{52} \right. \\ \left. \dots + \frac{1}{2^{100}} \binom{100}{60} \right\}$$

$$= 0.729$$

$$\Rightarrow P(X > 10d) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 0.729) = 0.136.$$

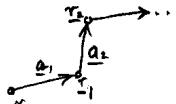
The discrepancy is significant, and is due mainly to the fact that in using the Gaussian approximation we've approximated the above sum (5) by an integral over slightly too small a range:



Gaussian
approximation.

See if you can make a simple correction to (A) to improve agreement with the exact result!

4.6



$$(r_N - r_0)^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i \right)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \cdot a_i + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(\sum_{j=i+1}^N a_i \cdot a_j \right)$$

For independent bond directions, expectation value of 2nd term is 0, so

$$R^2 = \langle (r_N - r_0)^2 \rangle = \underline{Na^2}$$

If instead, $\langle a_i \cdot a_j \rangle = \lambda^{|i-j|} a^2$

$$R^2 = Na^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(\sum_{j=i+1}^N \lambda^{|i-j|} a^2 \right) \quad (P)$$

Make a change of summation variable on the inner sum: $j' = i+k$, where k runs from 1 (giving $j=i+1$) to $N-i$ (giving $j=N$).

The inner sum becomes

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N-i} \lambda^k a^2. \quad @$$

For a sufficiently long molecule ($N \gg 1$), most of the units i are "not very close" to the end of the molecule (in the sense that λ^{N-i} is negligibly small). So we can replace

the upper limit of the sum by ∞ :

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N-i} \lambda^k a^2 \doteq \lambda a^2 (1 + \lambda + \lambda^2 + \dots) = \underbrace{\frac{\lambda a^2}{1-\lambda}}_{\frac{1}{1-\lambda}}$$

Using this approx. for @ in (P) gives

$$R^2 \doteq Na^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(\frac{\lambda a^2}{1-\lambda} \right)$$

$$= Na^2 + 2(N-1) \lambda a^2 / (1-\lambda)$$

\nwarrow neglect this in comparison with N

$$= \underline{\left\{ 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right\} Na^2}.$$

Optional: Exact result for @ is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N-i} \lambda^k a^2 = \frac{(\lambda - \lambda^{N-i+1})}{1-\lambda} a^2$$

$$\Rightarrow R^2 = Na^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left(\frac{\lambda - \lambda^{N-i+1}}{1-\lambda} \right) a^2$$

$$= Na^2 + \frac{2\lambda a^2}{1-\lambda} \left\{ N-1 - \lambda^N \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \lambda^{-i} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right\} Na^2 - \frac{2\lambda a^2}{1-\lambda} \left\{ 1 + \lambda^N \left(\frac{\lambda^{-1} - \lambda^{-N}}{1-\lambda} \right) \right\}$$

$$= \underbrace{\left\{ 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right\} Na^2}_{\text{previous result}} - \underbrace{\frac{2\lambda a^2}{(1-\lambda)^2} \left\{ 1 - \lambda^N \right\}}_{\text{relatively small correction.}} \quad (R)$$

Check: $N=1 \Rightarrow R^2 = a^2$

Expression (R) gives

$$R^2 = \left\{ 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right\} a^2 - \frac{2\lambda a^2}{(1-\lambda)^2} (1-\lambda) = a^2 \checkmark$$

For $N=2$, $R^2 = 2a^2 + 2 \underbrace{\langle \underline{z}_1, \underline{z}_2 \rangle}_{\lambda a^2}$
= $2(1+\lambda)a^2$.

Expression (R) gives

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \left\{ 1 + \frac{2\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right\} 2a^2 - \frac{2\lambda a^2}{(1-\lambda)^2} (1-\lambda^2) \leftarrow (1-\lambda)(1+\lambda) \\ &= \left(\frac{1+\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right) 2a^2 - 2\lambda a^2 \frac{(1+\lambda)}{1-\lambda} \\ &= \left(\frac{1+\lambda}{1-\lambda} \right) \cdot 2a^2 (1-\lambda) = 2(1+\lambda)a^2 \checkmark. \end{aligned}$$
