

Theory of Random Number Generation

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Summary

- Required Properties for Random Bit Generator
 - **Unpredictability, Unbiasedness, Independence**
- Components of Cryptographically Secure Random Bit Generator
 - TRNG (Entropy Source) + PRNG (Pseudorandom Number Generator)
- Methods for Evaluating the Security of Random Bit Generator
 - Estimation of entropy for the output sequence from TRNG
 - Statistical randomness tests for the output sequence from RNG
- Types of Random Bit Generators
 - Hardware/Software-based Random Bit Generators
 - Operating System-based Random Bit Generators
 - Various Standard Pseudorandom Number Generators

Functions of RBG (Random Bit Generator)

Provides random numbers required for cryptographic systems An essential element (algorithm) for the operation of cryptographic systems and modules Required Properties: Unpredictability, Unbiasedness, Independence between bits

Ideally, the output should be akin to the results of "coin tossing." Applications of Random Bit Generator

Generation of Key and Initialization Vector (IV) used in symmetric-key cryptography (block/stream ciphers) Generation of various parameters in public-key cryptography: prime number generation, probabilistic public-key cryptography, etc. Generation of various parameters used in cryptographic protocols: nonce, salt, etc.

Chapter 2

Probability Theory

2.1 Introduction

Definition 2.1.

- An **experiment** is the process of observing a phenomenon that has variation in its outcomes.
- The **sample space** S associated with an experiment is the collection of all possible distinct outcomes of the experiment.
- An **event** A, B is the set of elementary outcomes possessing a designated feature. ($A, B \subseteq S$)

Remark 2.1.

- Union: $A \cup B$
- Complement: A^C
- Intersection: $A \cap B$ (simply, AB)
- A, B are mutually disjoint $\iff A \cap B = \emptyset$

2.2 Axioms of Probability

2.2.1 Kolmogorov's Axiom

Kolmogorov's Axiom

Axiom. The probability is a function $\Pr : 2^\Omega \rightarrow [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ satisfies

(A1) $\forall \text{event } A, 0 \leq \Pr[A] \leq 1$.

(A2) $\Pr[\Omega] = 1$.

(A3) (Countable Additivity) $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P[A_i]$, where $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ is a countable set.

Remark 2.2. A probability is a function $\Pr : 2^\Omega \rightarrow [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Proposition 2.1. Let $A, B \subseteq \Omega$.

$$(1) \Pr[A] = \Pr[AB^C] + \Pr[AB]$$

$$(2) \Pr[B] = \Pr[AB] + \Pr[A^C B]$$

$$(3) \Pr[A \cup B] = \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] - \Pr[AB]$$

$$(4) \Pr[A \cup B] = \Pr[AB^C] + \Pr[AB] + \Pr[A^C B]$$

$$(5) \Pr[A^C] = 1 - \Pr[A]$$

$$(6) A \subseteq B \implies \Pr[A] \leq \Pr[B]$$

2.2.2 Conditional Probability and Independent

Conditional Probability

Definition 2.2. The **conditional probability** of A given B is denoted by $\Pr[A|B]$ and defined by the formula

$$\Pr[A|B] = \frac{\Pr[AB]}{\Pr[B]} \quad \text{with} \quad \Pr[B] > 0.$$

Equivalently, this formula can be written as **multiplication law of probability**:

$$\Pr[AB] = \Pr[A|B] \Pr[B].$$

Example 2.1.

- (1) Start with a *shuffled deck of cards* and distribute all 52 cards to 4 player, 13 cards to each. What is the probability that each player gets an Ace?
- (2) Next, assume that you are a player and you get a single Ace. What is the probability now that each player gets an Ace?

Solution.

- (1) If any ordering of cards is equally likely, then any position of the four Aces in the deck is also equally likely. There are

$$\binom{52}{4} = \frac{52!}{4!48!}$$

possibilities for the positions (slots) for the 4 aces. Out of these, the number of positions that give each player an Ace 13^4 pick the first slot among the cards that the first player gets, then the second slot among the second player's card, then the third and the fourth slot. Therefore, the answer is $\frac{13^4}{\binom{52}{4}} \approx 0.1055$.

- (2) After you see that you have a single Ace, the probability goes up the previous answer need to be divided by the probability that you get a single Ace, which is

$$\frac{13 \cdot \binom{39}{3}}{\binom{52}{4}} \approx 0.4388.$$

Note that

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)}{P(B)}.$$

The answer then becomes $\frac{13^4}{13 \cdot \binom{39}{3}} \approx 0.2404$.

□

Independence

Definition 2.3. Two events A and B are **independent** if

$$\Pr[A|B] = \Pr[A]$$

Equivalent conditions are

$$\Pr[B|A] = \Pr[B] \quad \text{or} \quad \Pr[AB] = \Pr[A]\Pr[B]$$

Remark 2.3. $\Pr[A] = \Pr[A|B] = \frac{\Pr[AB]}{\Pr[B]} \implies \Pr[AB] = \Pr[A]\Pr[B]$.

Example 2.2. Suppose we roll a dice once. Let the universal set is $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

(1) (Independent but Not Disjoint) Let

$$A = \{1, 3, 5\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \{3, 6\}.$$

Then $A \cap B = \{3\} \neq \emptyset$, that is, A and B are not disjoint. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[A] &= \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}, & \Pr[B] &= \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}, \\ \Pr[A|B] &= \frac{\Pr[AB]}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{1/6}{1/3} = \frac{1}{2}, & \Pr[B|A] &= \frac{\Pr[BA]}{\Pr[A]} = \frac{1/6}{1/2} = \frac{1}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\Pr[A|B] = \Pr[A]$ and $\Pr[B|A] = \Pr[B]$. That is, A and B are mutually independent.

(2) (Not Independent but Disjoint) Let

$$A = \{1, 3, 5\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \{2, 4, 6\}.$$

Then $A \cap B = \emptyset$, that is, A and B are disjoint. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[A] &= \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}, & \Pr[B] &= \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}, \\ \Pr[A|B] &= \frac{\Pr[AB]}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{0}{1/2} = 0, & \Pr[B|A] &= \frac{\Pr[BA]}{\Pr[A]} = \frac{0}{1/2} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\Pr[A|B] \neq \Pr[A]$ and $\Pr[B|A] \neq \Pr[B]$. That is, A and B are not independent.

Rule of Total Probailtiy

Proposition 2.2. *Let events A_1, \dots, A_n are satisfies*

(1) $\Pr[A_i] > 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

(2) $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$

(3) $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \Omega$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[B] &= \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[B|A_i] \Pr[A_i] \\ &= \Pr[B|A_1] \Pr[A_1] + \Pr[B|A_2] \Pr[A_2] + \dots + \Pr[B|A_n] \Pr[A_n].\end{aligned}$$

Proof. $B = B \cap \Omega = B \cap \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (B \cap A_i)$. □

2.2.3 Bayes' Theorem**Bayes' Theorem**

Theorem 2.3.

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|\bar{B})P(\bar{B})}$$

The posterior probability of \bar{B} is then $P(\bar{B}|A) = 1 - P(B|A)$.

Remark 2.4.

$$\Pr[B | A] = \frac{\Pr[A|B] \cdot \Pr[B]}{\Pr[A]} \iff \text{Posterior} = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \cdot \text{Prior}}{\text{Evidence}}.$$

2.3 Random Variables

Random Variable

Definition 2.4. A **random variable** X is real-valued function on Ω the space of outcomes:

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

In other words, a random variable is a number whose value depends upon the outcome of a random experiment.

Remark 2.5. Sometimes, when convenient, we also allow X to have the value ∞ or, more rarely, $-\infty$.

2.3.1 Discrete Random Variables

Discrete Random Variable

Definition 2.5. A **discrete random variable** X has finitely or countably many values

$$x_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots$$

and

$$p(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$$

with $i = 1, 2, \dots$, is called the **probability mass function** of X .

Remark 2.6. A probability mass function p has the following properties:

- (1) $x = x_i, i \in I \implies p(x) = \Pr[X = x_i]$
- (2) $0 \leq p(x) \leq 1, \sum_{x \in X} p(x) = 1.$
- (3) $\Pr[a < X \leq b] = \sum_{a < x \leq b} p(x).$

Discrete Probability Distribution

Definition 2.6. The **probability distribution** of a discrete of a random variable X is described as the function

$$f(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$$

which gives the probability for each value and satisfies:

1. $0 \leq f(x_i) \leq 1$ for each value x_i of X
2. $\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i) = 1$

Expectation(Mean) and Standard Deviation of a Probability Distribution

Definition 2.7.

- The **mean** of X or **population mean**

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \mu \\ &= \sum (\text{Value} \times \text{Probability}) = \sum x_i f(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

Here the sum extends over all the distinct values x_i of X .

- The **Variance and Standard Deviation of X** is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \text{Var}[X] = \sum (x_i - \mu)^2 f(x_i) \\ \sigma &= \text{sd}[X] = +\sqrt{\text{Var}[X]} \end{aligned}$$

- Alternative Formula for Hand calculation:**

$$\sigma^2 = \sum x_i^2 f(x_i) - \mu^2$$

Example 2.3 (Calculating a Population Variance and Standard Deviation). Calculate the variance and the standard deviation of the distribution of X that appears in the left two columns of below table.

x	$f(x)$	$xf(x)$	$(x - \mu)$	$(x - \mu)^2$	$(x - \mu)^2 f(x)$	$x^2 f(x)$
0	.1	0	-2	4	.4	0
1	.2	.2	-1	1	.2	0.2
2	.4	.8	0	0	.0	1.6
3	.2	.6	1	1	.2	1.8
4	.1	.4	2	4	.4	1.6
Total	1.0	$2.0 = \mu$			$1.2 = \sigma^2$	$5.2 = \sum x^2 f(x)$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = 1.2$$

$$\text{sd}(X) = \sigma = \sqrt{1.2} = 1.095$$

$$\sigma^2 = 5.2 - (2.0)^2 = 1.2$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{1.2} = 1.095$$

2.3.2 Bernoulli

Note.

- The sample space $S = \{ S, F \}$.
- The probability of success $p = P(S)$, the probability of failure $q = P(F)$.
- $0 \leq p \leq 1, q = 1 - p$.

Binomial Distribution

Definition 2.8. The **binomial distribution** with n trials and success probability p is described by the function

$$f(x) = P[X = x] = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$$

for the possible values $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

Example 2.4 (An Example of the Binomial Distribution). The elementary outcomes of 4 samples, the associated probabilities, and the value of X are listed as follows.

FFFF	SFFF	SSFF	SSSF	SSSS
	FSFF	SFSF	SSFS	
	FFSF	SFFS	SFSS	
	FFFS	FSSF	FSSS	
		FSFS		
		FFSS		

Value of X	0	1	2	3	4
Probability of each outcome	q^4	pq^3	p^2q^2	p^3q	p^4
Number of outcomes	$1 = \binom{4}{0}$	$4 = \binom{4}{1}$	$6 = \binom{4}{2}$	$4 = \binom{4}{3}$	$1 = \binom{4}{4}$

Value x	0	1	2	3	4
Probability $f(x)$	$\binom{4}{0} p^0 q^4$	$\binom{4}{1} p^1 q^3$	$\binom{4}{2} p^2 q^2$	$\binom{4}{3} p^3 q^1$	$\binom{4}{4} p^4 q^0$

Mean and Standard Deviation of the Binomial Distribution

Definition 2.9.

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n \sim B(n, p)$$

- $E[X] = E[X_1] + \cdots + E[X_n] = np$
- $\text{Var}[X] = \text{Var}[X_1] + \cdots + \text{Var}[X_n] = npq$

The binomial distribution with n trials and success probability p has

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mean} &= np \\ \text{Variance} &= npq = np(1 - p) \\ \text{sd} &= \sqrt{npq}\end{aligned}$$

Covariance and Correlation Coefficient of Two Random Variables

Definition 2.10. Let X, Y be a random variables. Then

1. The covariance of them:

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_1)(Y - \mu_2)]$$

2. The correlation coefficient of them:

$$\text{Corr}(X, Y) = E \left[\left(\frac{X - \mu_1}{\sigma_1} \right) \left(\frac{Y - \mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right) \right] = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{sd}(X)\text{sd}(Y)}$$

Remark 2.7. Note that $-1 \leq \text{Corr}(X, Y) \leq 1$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E[(X - \mu_1)(Y - \mu_2)] \\ &= E[XY - \mu_2X - \mu_1Y + \mu_1\mu_2] \\ &= E[XY] - \mu_2E[X] - \mu_1E[Y] + \mu_1\mu_2 \\ &= E[XY] - \mu_1\mu_2.\end{aligned}$$

That is, $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - \mu_1\mu_2$.

Proposition 2.4.

$$(1) \text{Cov}(aX + b, cY + d) = ac \cdot \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$(2) \text{Corr}(aX + b, cY + d) = \begin{cases} \text{Corr}(X, Y) & : ac > 0 \\ -\text{Corr}(X, Y) & : ac < 0 \end{cases}$$

Proof. (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(aX + b, cY + d) &= E[(aX + b) - (a\mu_x + b) \cdot (cY + d) - (c\mu_y + d)] \\ &= E[a(X - \mu_x) \cdot c(Y - \mu_y)] = acE[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] \\ &= ac \cdot \text{Cov}(X, Y). \end{aligned}$$

(2) Note that $\sigma_{aX+b} = \sqrt{\text{Var}(aX + b)} = \sqrt{a^2 \text{Var}(X)} = |a| \sigma_X$. Similarly $\sigma_{cY+d} = |c| \sigma_Y$.

$$\text{Corr}(aX + b, cY + d) = \frac{\text{Cov}(aX + b, cY + d)}{\sigma_{aX+b} \sigma_{cY+d}} = \frac{ac \cdot \text{Cov}(X, Y)}{|a| \sigma_X |c| \sigma_Y} = \frac{ac}{|ac|} \text{Corr}(X, Y).$$

$$\text{Hence, } \text{Corr}(aX + b, cY + d) = \begin{cases} \text{Corr}(X, Y) & \text{if } ac > 0 \\ -\text{Corr}(X, Y) & \text{if } ac < 0 \end{cases}$$

□

Distribution of Sum of Two Probability Variables

Proposition 2.5.

$$(1) \text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$(2) \text{Var}(X - Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) - 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

Two Probability Variables are Independent

Proposition 2.6.

$$(1) E[XY] = E[X] \cdot E[Y]$$

$$(2) \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0, \text{Corr}(X, Y) = 0$$

$$(3) \text{Var}(X \pm Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$$

Proof. (1)

$$\begin{aligned} E[XY] &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_i y_j p(x_i, y_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_i y_j p_1(x_i) p_2(y_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_1(x_i) \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_j p_2(y_j) \\ &= E[X] \cdot E[Y]. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2) \text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X] \cdot E[Y] = 0.$$

□

2.3.3 Continuous Random Variables

Probability Density Function

Definition 2.11. The **probability density function** $f(x)$ describes the distribution of probability for a continuous random variable. It has the properties:

- (1) The total area under the probability density curve is 1.
- (2) $P[a \leq X \leq b] = \text{area under the probability density curve between } a \text{ and } b.$
- (3) $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x .

Remark 2.8. With a continuous random variable, the probability that $X = x$ is **always** 0. It is only meaningful to speak about the probability that X lies in an interval.

Remark 2.9. $p(x)$ is called **probability density function** of continuous random variable X if $p(x)$ satisfies:

- (i) $p(x) \geq 0, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1,$
- (ii) $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b p(x) dx.$

Note that

- For any constant $c, \int_c^c p(x) dx = 0.$
- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a < X \leq b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X < b).$

Expectation of a Continuous Random Variable

Definition 2.12.

- Expectation(or Mean) of a Random Variable X
 - a Discrete Random variable: $E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p(x_i)$
 - a Continuous Random variable: $E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(x) dx$
- Expectation and Median of a Continuous Random Variable X
 - Expectation($\mu = E[X]$): the balance point of the probability mass.
 - Median: the value of X that divides the area under the curve into halves.

2.3.4 Normal Random Variable

Normal Random Variable

Definition 2.13. A random variable is **Normal with parameter** $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2 > 0$ or, in short, X is $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, if its density is the function given below.

$$\text{Density : } f(x) = f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right],$$

where $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$.

Proposition 2.7.

$$(1) \text{ For } f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right], \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1.$$

$$(2) EX = \mu.$$

$$(3) \text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2.$$

2.3.5 The Normal Approximation to the Binomial

The Normal Approximation to the Binomial

Theorem 2.8. When np and $np(1 - p)$ are both large, say, greater than 15, the binomial distribution is well approximated by the normal distribution having mean $= np$ and $sd = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$. That is,

$$Z = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{np(1 - p)}} \text{ is approximately } N(0, 1).$$

Mean and Standard Deviation of \bar{X}

Definition 2.14. The distribution of the sample mean, based on a random sample of size n , has

$$\begin{aligned} E[\bar{X}] &= \mu & (= \text{Population mean}) \\ \text{Var}[\bar{X}] &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} & \left(= \frac{\text{Population variance}}{\text{Sample size}} \right) \\ \text{sd}[\bar{X}] &= \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} & \left(= \frac{\text{Population standard deviation}}{\sqrt{\text{Sample size}}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

2.4 Central Limit Theorem

2.4.1 CLT

Central Limit Theorem

Theorem 2.9. Assume that X, X_1, X_2, \dots are independent, identically distributed random variables, with finite $\mu = EX$ and $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X]$. Then,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu n}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \leq x \right] = \Pr [Z \leq x],$$

where Z is standard Normal.

2.4.2 Laws of Large Numbers

Weak Law of Large Numbers

Theorem 2.10. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables, each having finite mean $E[X_i] = \mu$ and variance σ^2 . Then, for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left[\left| \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} - \mu \right| \geq \varepsilon \right] = 0.$$

Strong Law of Large Numbers

Theorem 2.11. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be i.i.d. random variables with a finite first moment, $E[X_i] = \mu$. Then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \mu \quad \text{almost surely as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

2.5 Problem: RBG \rightarrow RNG

Exercise 2.1 (Uniform Distribution). Consider an algorithm

```

Step 1: Drive the RBG independently 4 times to generate a 4-bit integer value  $r$ .
Step 2: If  $r < 10$  then
        return  $r$ 
      else
        go to Step 1

```

Prove that

$$\Pr[\text{output} = n] = \frac{1}{10}$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 9$.

Solution. Let

- $n \leq 2^k = m$ with $n = 10, k = 4$ and $m = 16$
- Output digit = $r \in [0, 9]$.

Then

output	1st iteration	2nd iteration	...	step iteration
0	$\Pr[0] = \frac{1}{m}$	$\Pr[0] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m-n}{m}$...	$\Pr[0] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^{\text{step}-1}$
1	$\Pr[1] = \frac{1}{m}$	$\Pr[1] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m-n}{m}$...	$\Pr[1] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^{\text{step}-1}$
2	$\Pr[2] = \frac{1}{m}$	$\Pr[2] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m-n}{m}$...	$\Pr[2] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^{\text{step}-1}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	...	\vdots
$n-1$	$\Pr[n-1] = \frac{1}{m}$	$\Pr[n-1] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m-n}{m}$...	$\Pr[n-1] = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^{\text{step}-1}$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Pr[\text{output} = r] &= \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m-n}{m} + \dots + \frac{1}{m} \cdot \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^s + \dots \\
 &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{m-n}{m}\right)^s = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{n}{m}\right)^s \\
 &= \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \left(1 - \frac{n}{m}\right)} = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{m}{n} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n}.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Chapter 3

Markov Chains

3.1 Introduction

Markov Chain

Definition 3.1. Let

$$\langle X_n \rangle_{n \geq 0} := \{X_n : n = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

be a stochastic process over a countable set S . Let $\Pr[X]$ is the probability of the random variable X . Then $\langle X_n \rangle_{n \geq 0}$ satisfies **Markov property** if

$$\Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_n = x_n] = \Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} \mid X_n = x_n]$$

for all $n \geq 0$ and all $x_0, \dots, x_{n+1} \in S$. Then $\langle X_n \rangle_{n \geq 0}$ is a **Markov chain**.

Remark 3.1.

- (1) The conditional probability of X_{i+1} is dependent only upon X_i , and upon no earlier values of $\langle X_n \rangle$
- (2) the state of $\langle X_n \rangle$ in the future is unaffected by its history.
- (3) The set S is called the **state space** of the Markov chain.
- (4) The conditional probabilities $\Pr[X_{n+1} = y \mid X_n = x]$ are called the **transition probabilities**.
- (5) Markov chain having **stationary transition probabilities**, i.e., $\Pr(X_{n+1} = y \mid X_n = x)$, is independent of n .

Example 3.1 (*The general two-state Markov chain*). There are two states 0 and 1 with transitions

- $0 \rightarrow 1$ with probability p
- $0 \rightarrow 0$ with probability $1 - p$
- $1 \rightarrow 0$ with probability q
- $1 \rightarrow 1$ with probability $1 - q$.

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[X_{n+1} = 1 \mid X_n = 0] &= p, \\ \Pr[X_{n+1} = 0 \mid X_n = 1] &= q,\end{aligned}$$

and $\Pr[X_0 = 0] = \pi_0(0)$. Since there are only two states, 0 and 1, it follows immediately that

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[X_{n+1} = 0 \mid X_n = 0] &= 1 - p, \\ \Pr[X_{n+1} = 1 \mid X_n = 1] &= 1 - q,\end{aligned}$$

and $\pi_0(1) = \Pr[X_0 = 1] = 1 - \pi_0(0)$. The transition matrix has two parameters $p, q \in [0, 1]$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} T_{00} & T_{01} \\ T_{10} & T_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - p & p \\ q & 1 - q \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that

- $\Pr[A] = \Pr[B \cap A] + \Pr[B^C \cap A]$
- $\Pr[A \cap B] = \Pr[A] \cdot \Pr[B \mid A]$

Then we observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[X_{n+1} = 0] &= \Pr[X_n = 0 \wedge X_{n+1} = 0] + \Pr[X_n = 1 \wedge X_{n+1} = 0] \\ &= \Pr[X_n = 0] \Pr[X_{n+1} = 0 \mid X_n = 0] \\ &\quad + \Pr[X_n = 1] \Pr[X_{n+1} = 0 \mid X_n = 1] \\ &= \Pr[X_n = 0] \cdot (1 - p) + \Pr[X_n = 1] \cdot q \\ &= (1 - p) \cdot \Pr[X_n = 0] + q \cdot (1 - \Pr[X_n = 0]) \\ &= (1 - p - q) \cdot \Pr[X_n = 0] + q.\end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[X_0 = 0] &= \pi_0(0), \\
\Pr[X_1 = 0] &= (1 - p - q)\pi_0(0) + q, \\
\Pr[X_2 = 0] &= (1 - p - q)\Pr[X_1 = 0] + q \\
&= (1 - p - q)^2\pi_0(0) + q(1 + (1 - p - q)), \\
\Pr[X_3 = 0] &= (1 - p - q)\Pr[X_2 = 0] + q \\
&= (1 - p - q)^3\pi_0(0) + q(1 + (1 - p - q) + (1 - p - q)^2), \\
&\vdots \\
\Pr[X_n = 0] &= (1 - p - q)^n\pi_0(0) + q \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 - p - q)^j.
\end{aligned}$$

In the trivial case $p = q = 0$, it is clear that for all n

$$\Pr[X_n = 0] = \pi_0(0) \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr[X_n = 1] = \pi_0(1).$$

Suppose that $p + q > 0$. By the formula $\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j = \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$ for the sum of a finite geometric progression,

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 - p - q)^j = \frac{1 - (1 - p - q)^n}{p + q}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[X_n = 0] &= \frac{q}{p + q} + (1 - p - q)^n \cdot \left(\pi_0(0) - \frac{q}{p + q} \right), \\
\Pr[X_n = 1] &= \frac{p}{p + q} + (1 - p - q)^n \cdot \left(\pi_0(1) - \frac{p}{p + q} \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Suppose that $p, q \notin \{0, 1\}$. Then

$$0 < p + q < 2 \implies |1 - p - q| \leq 1.$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr[X_n = 0] = \frac{q}{p + q} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr[X_n = 1] = \frac{p}{p + q}.$$

Suppose we want to choose $\pi_0(0)$ and $\pi_0(1)$ so that $\Pr[X_n = 0]$ and $\Pr[X_n = 1]$ are independent of n . To do this, we should choose $\pi_0(0) = q/(p + q)$ and $\pi_0(1) = p/(p + q)$. Thus if $\langle X_n \rangle_{n \geq 0}$ start with the initial distribution

$$\pi_0 = \Pr[X_n = 0] = \frac{q}{p + q} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_0(1) = \frac{p}{p + q},$$

then for all n

$$\Pr[X_n = 0] = \frac{q}{p + q} \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr[X_n = 1] = \frac{p}{p + q}.$$

Example 3.2. Let $n = 2$ and $x_0, x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2] \\ &= \Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1] \cdot \Pr[X_2 = x_2 \mid X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1] \\ &= \Pr[X_0 = x_0] \Pr[X_1 = x_1 \mid X_0 = x_0] \cdot \Pr[X_2 = x_2 \mid X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1]. \end{aligned}$$

If the Markov property is satisfied, then

$$\Pr[X_2 = x_2 \mid X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1] = \Pr[X_2 = x_2 \mid X_1 = x_1],$$

which is determined by p and q . In this case

$$\Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2] = \Pr[X_0 = x_0] \Pr[X_1 = x_1 \mid X_0 = x_0] \Pr[X_2 = x_2 \mid X_1 = x_1].$$

Recall that the transition matrix with $p, q \in [0, 1]$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} T_{00} & T_{01} \\ T_{10} & T_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p \\ q & 1-q \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

x_0	x_1	x_2	$\Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2]$
0	0	0	$\pi_0(0)(1-p)^2$
0	0	1	$\pi_0(0)(1-p)p$
0	1	0	$\pi_0(0)pq$
0	1	1	$\pi_0(0)p(1-q)$
1	0	0	$(1-\pi_0(0))q(1-p)$
1	0	1	$(1-\pi_0(0))qp$
1	1	0	$(1-\pi_0(0))(1-q)q$
1	1	1	$(1-\pi_0(0))(1-q)^2$