

# Information Theory: Probability Background

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# 1 Famous Inequalities In Probability Theory

In this section, we review some famous and also useful inequalities.

**Theorem 1.** (Markov's Inequality) For any nonnegative random variable  $X$  and any  $t > 0$ ,

$$p(X \geq t) \leq \frac{EX}{t}$$

*Proof.*

$$tp(X \geq t) = \int_t^{+\infty} tp(X = x)dx \leq \int_t^{+\infty} xp(X = x)dx \leq \int_0^{+\infty} xp(X = x)dx = EX$$

So  $p(X \geq t) \leq \frac{EX}{t}$ .

We can easily construct a random variable that satisfies the equality. For example, let  $X = 1$  (i.e.  $p(X = 1) = 1$ ). Then  $p(X \geq 1) = \frac{EX}{1} = 1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** (Chebyshev's Inequality) For any random variable  $Y$  with mean value  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ ,

$$p(|Y - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}$$

*Proof.* Let  $X = (Y - \mu)^2$ . Then by Markov's inequality,

$$p(|Y - \mu| > \epsilon) = p(X > \epsilon^2) \leq \frac{EX}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{D(Y - \mu) + [E(Y - \mu)]^2}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}$$

$\square$

Note that we will use the Chebyshev's inequality to prove the weak law of large number.

## 2 Convergence of Random Variables

We define convergence on a sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots$ . We usually use three different definitions of convergence.

### 2.1 Convergence In Probability

**Definition.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converges to  $X$  in probability if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$$

Or to write it in epsilon-N language

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \forall \delta > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > N, p(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) < \delta$$

Usually denoted as  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ .

## 2.2 Convergence In Mean

**Definition.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converges to  $X$  **in the  $p$ -th mean** (or **in the  $L^p$ -norm**) if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(|X_n - X|^p) = 0, 1 \leq p < +\infty$$

Or to write it in epsilon-N language

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > N, E(|X_n - X|^p) = 0 < \epsilon$$

Usually denoted as  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$ .

**Note.**

- (1) We usually use  $p = 2$ , and  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^2} X$  is also called  $X_n$  converges **in mean square**.
- (2)  $1 \leq q < p < +\infty, X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{L^q} X$ .

## 2.3 Convergence With Probability 1

**Definition.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converges to  $X$  **with probability 1** (or **almost surely**) if

$$p\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X\right) = 1$$

Or more explicitly,

$$p\left\{\omega \in \Omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\right\} = 1$$

Usually denoted as  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ .

## 2.4 Relationship

We can prove that the  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converges to  $X$  either in mean or with probability 1 implies that it also converges in probability.

**Theorem 3.**  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ .

**Theorem 4.**  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ .

## 3 Law of Large Number

**Definition.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are **i.i.d.** if they are independent of each other and obey the same distribution.

**Note.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  can be treated as a sequence or many random variables. It depends on the context.

**Theorem 5.** (Strong Law of Large Number, Strong LLN) For i.i.d.  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , let  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then

$$p\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{X}_n = E(X_1)\right) = 1$$

Or  $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} E(X_1)$ .

**Theorem 6.** (Weak Law of Large Number, Weak LLN) For i.i.d.  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , let  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then  $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} EX_1$ .

*Proof.* We assume that  $DX_1 = \sigma^2$ .

By Chebyshev's inequality, we have

$$p(|\bar{X}_n - EX_1| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{D\bar{X}_n}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}$$

where  $D\bar{X}_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n DX_i}{n^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .

Then we take  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and we have  $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} EX_1$ . □

**Note.** Sometimes if the random variables are not well-defined, then the strong one may not hold. For example, when  $EX_1$  does not exist. However, they share the same premises. So if the strong one holds, then the weak one will hold.

## 4 Stochastic Process

**Definition.** A **(discrete) stochastic process** is an indexed sequence of random variables.

The random variables can be related to each other. For example,  $X_{i+1} = X_i + 1$ .

There are many different types of stochastic processes. Here we focus on the stationary process.

**Definition.** A stochastic process is **stationary** if the joint distribution of *any subset* of the sequence of random variables is *time-shift-invariant*. That is,

$$\forall n, t, p(X_{i_1} = x_1, X_{i_2} = x_2, \dots, X_{i_n} = x_n) = p(X_{i_1+t} = x_1, X_{i_2+t} = x_2, \dots, X_{i_n+t} = x_n)$$

**Note.** The random variables in a stationary stochastic process obeys the same distribution since  $\forall x, p(X_1 = x) = p(X_2 = x) = \dots$ .

## 5 Markov Chain

### 5.1 Basic Definition

**Definition.** For random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , where  $n \geq 3$ ,  $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$  form a **Markov chain** if

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1) \cdots p(x_n|x_{n-1})$$

**Note.** It is easy to check that  $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$  iff  $X_n \rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_1$ . So sometimes we use another notation  $X_1 \leftrightarrow X_2 \leftrightarrow \dots \leftrightarrow X_n$  to represent this symmetry.

Actually, there is another equivalent definition, often seen in books about stochastic processes.

**Definition.** A discrete stochastic process  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is said to be a **Markov chain** if

$$p(x_{n+1}|x_n, x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_{n+1}|x_n)$$

We can see their equivalence by chain rule.

### 5.2 Basic Properties

**Theorem 7.**  $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$  iff

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &\rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3 \\ (X_1, X_2) &\rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4 \\ &\vdots \\ (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n-2}) &\rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow X_n \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* By induction. □

**Theorem 8.**  $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \iff X \perp Z|Y$ , i.e.  $X$  and  $Z$  and  $X$  are conditionally independent given  $Y$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \iff p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(y|x)p(z|y) \iff p(x, z|y) = p(x|y)p(z|y)$ . □

**Corollary 1.**  $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \iff I(X; Z|Y) = 0$ .

**Corollary 2.** If  $Z = f(Y)$ , then  $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ .

### 5.3 Time-invariance And Transition Matrix

**Definition.** A Markov chain is **time-invariant** if  $p(x_{n+1}|x_n)$  is independent of  $n$ . That is,  $\forall n, p(X_{n+1} = a|X_n = b) = p(X_2 = a|X_1 = b)$ .

**Note.** We assume that all  $X_i$ 's are defined in the same alphabet.

For convenience, we usually represent  $p(x_2|x_1)$  with a **transition matrix**  $P$ , where  $P_{ij} = p(X_2 = x_j|X_1 = x_i)$ . And sometimes  $p(y|x)$  just denotes the transition matrix from  $X$  to  $Y$ .

For a time-invariant Markov chain, if the transition matrix and initial distribution are determined, then the whole stochastic process is determined.

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