



# Probability and Random Process

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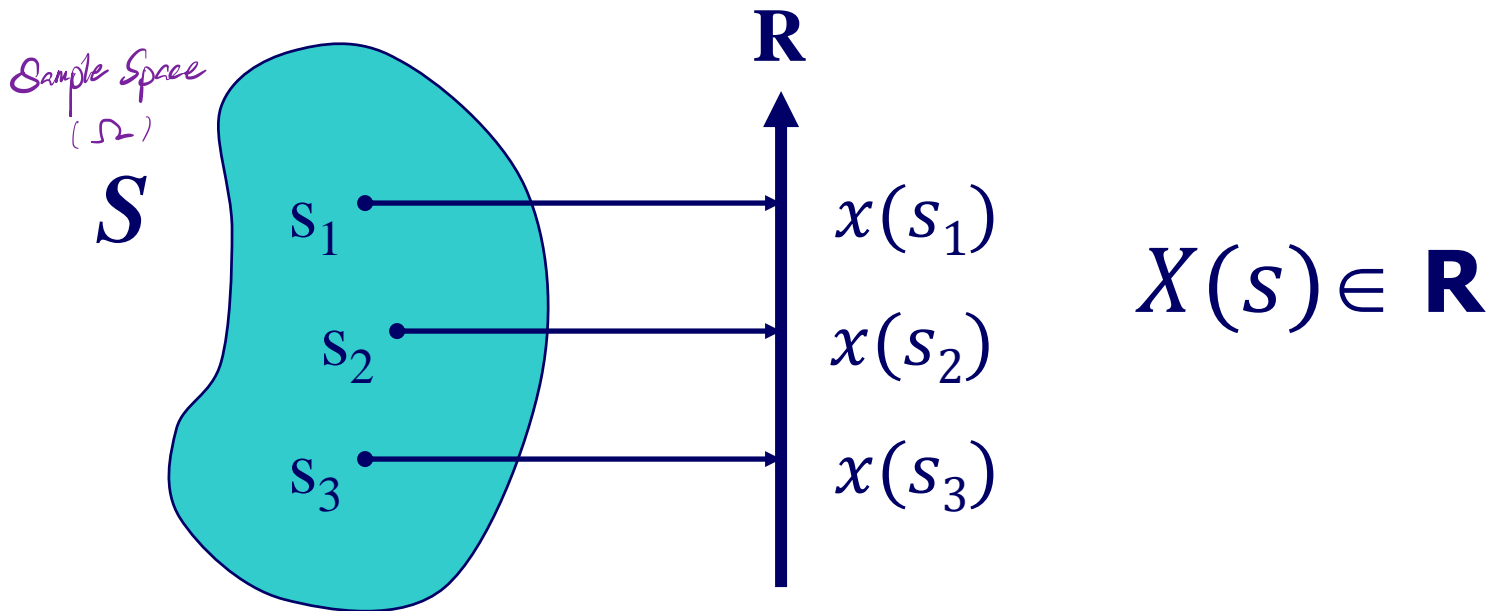
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- 2. Random Variables
  - Introduction to Random Variables
  - PMF and Discrete Random Variables
  - PDF and Continuous Random Variables
  - Gaussian CDF
  - Conditional Probability
  - Function of a RV
  - Expectation of a RV
  - Transform Methods and Probability Generating Function
  - Probability Bounds



# Introduction to Random Variables

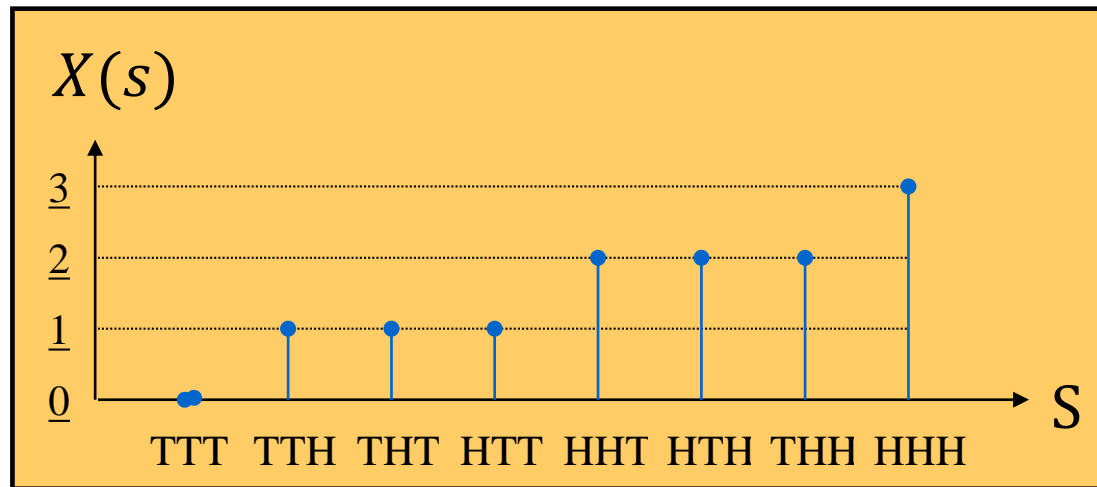
- A **random variable (RV)** is a **function** that maps outcomes in a sample space to the real numbers.



- $X$  has two meanings
  - $X$  is a variable
  - $X$  is a function

# RV Example 1

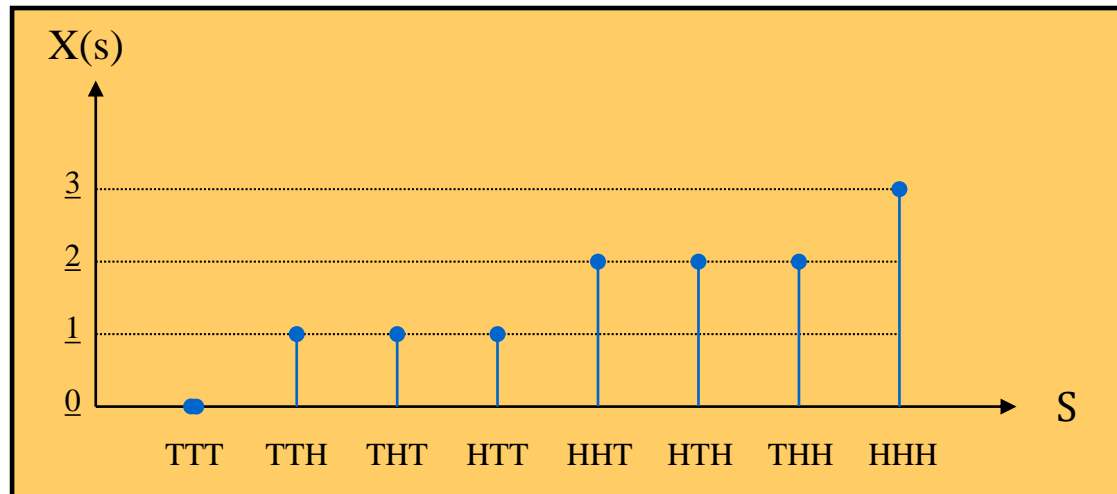
- The sample space  $S$  comprises the ordered outcomes of tossing a fair coin three times.



Let  $X(s)$  be the number of heads in three tosses.

- To be a random variable, a function must satisfy:
  1. The event  $\{X(s) \leq x\}$  must correspond to a valid event on  $S$  (i.e. a member of the field of events in the probability triplet) for every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ .
  2.  $\Pr(X(s) = +\infty) = \Pr(X(s) = -\infty) = 0$

# Return to Example 1



Let the event  $B$  be  $B = \{X(s) \leq 1.5\}$

$$B = \{X(s) \leq 1.5\} = \{TTT, TTH, THT, HTT\}$$

Then,

$$P(B) = \frac{1}{2}$$

# Cumulative Distribution Function

- The cumulative distribution function (CDF) is a real-valued function on  $\mathbf{R}$ , denoted  $F_X(x)$ , and defined

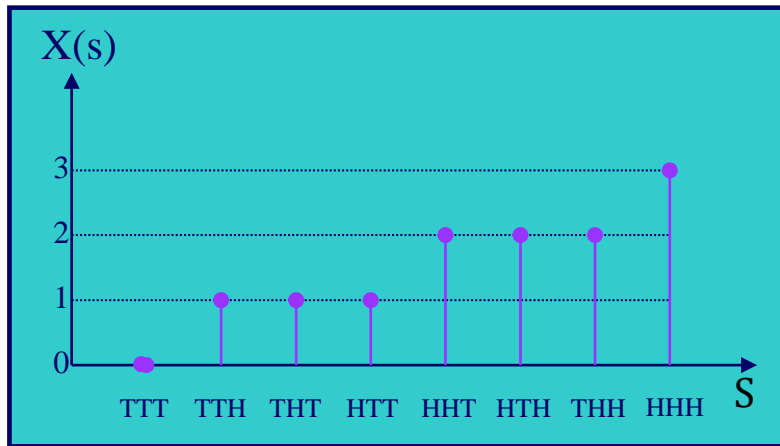
$$F_X(x) = \Pr(X(s) \leq x)$$

*Subscript names the random variable*

*$x$  is just a “dummy variable” that is used as a threshold*



# Evaluating the CDF



$$= \Pr(X(s) \leq 3)$$

$$F_X(3) = 1$$

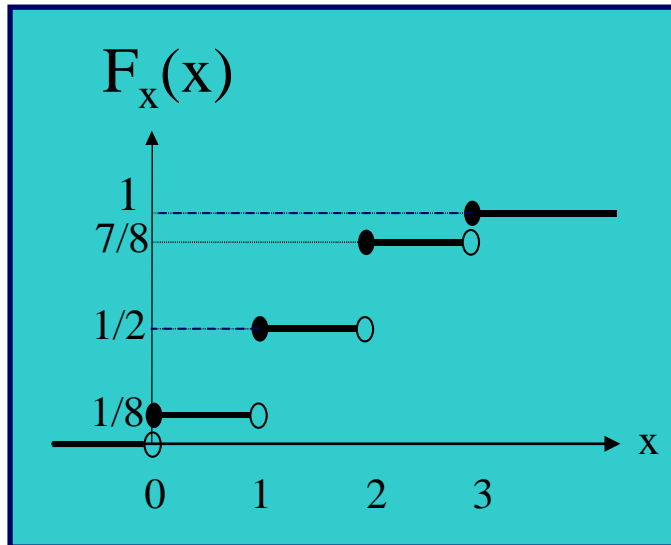
$$F_X(2.9) = \frac{7}{8}$$

$$F_X(1.9) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$F_X(0.9) = \frac{1}{8}$$

$$F_X(-0.1) = 0$$

# The CDF from Example 1



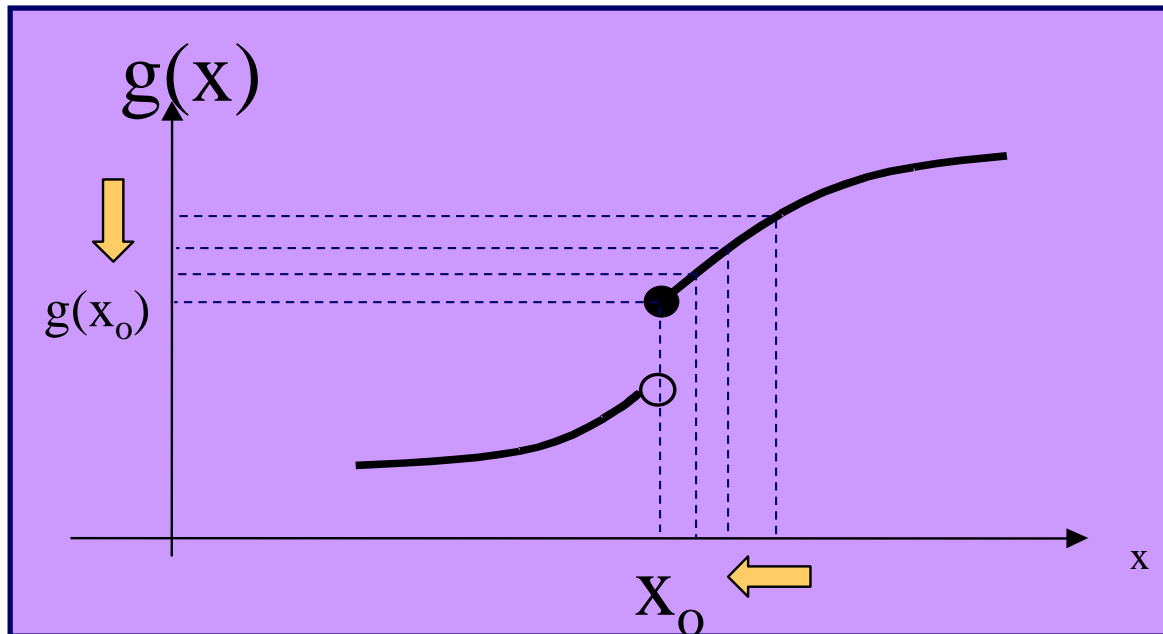
$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1/8, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1/2, & 1 \leq x < 2 \\ 7/8, & 2 \leq x < 3 \\ 1, & x \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Observe that  $F_X(x)$  is **continuous from the right**.

# Right Continuity

- A function  $g(x)$  is continuous from the right at  $x_0$  when

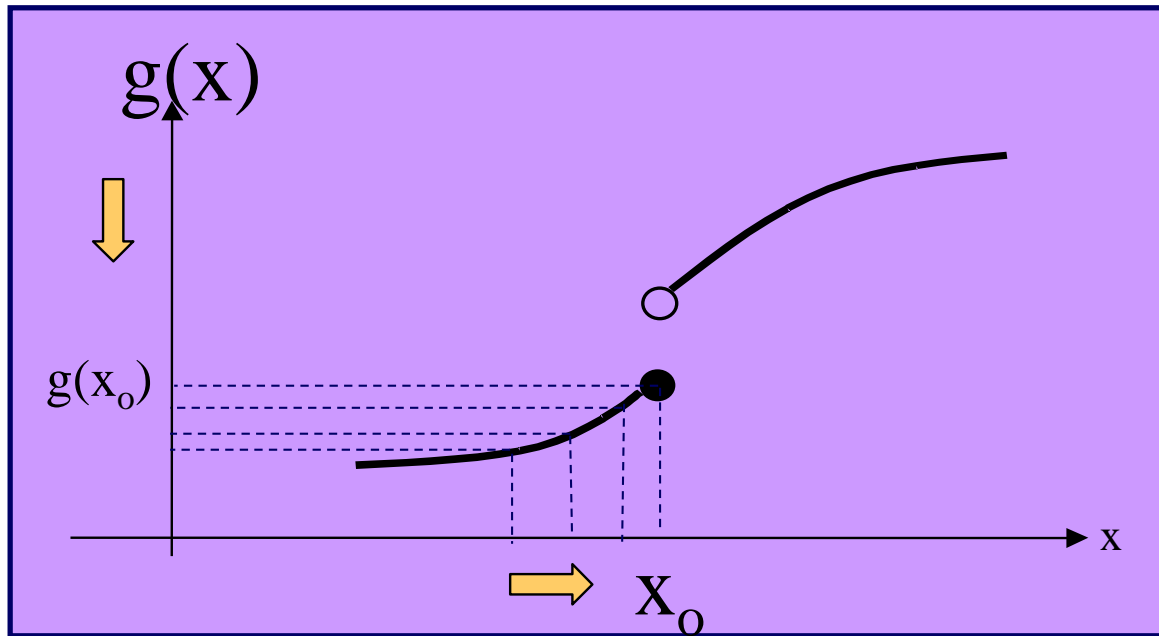
$$\lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon > 0}} g(x_0 + \varepsilon) = g(x_0)$$



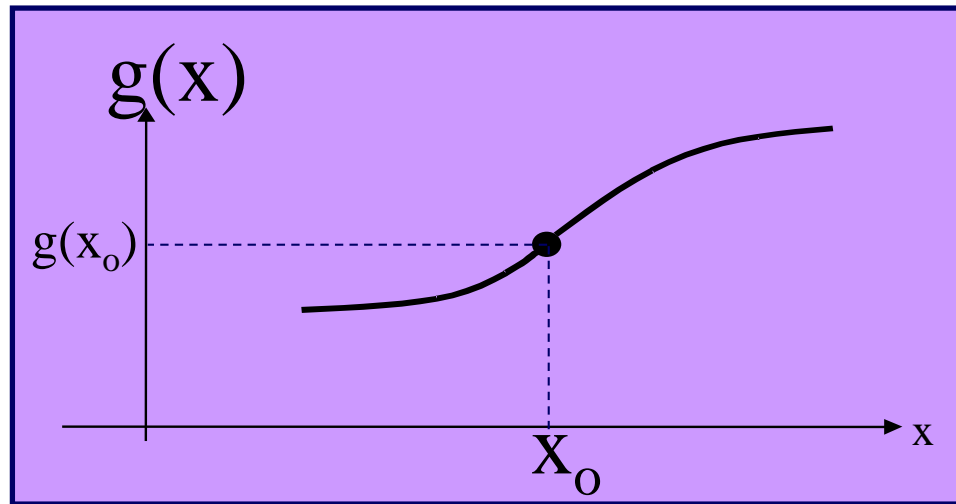
# Left Continuity

- $g(x)$  is continuous from the left at  $x_0$  when

$$\lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon > 0}} g(x_0 - \varepsilon) = g(x_0)$$



- $g(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if it is both left-continuous and right continuous at  $x_0$ .



- $g(x)$  is a continuous function if it is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ .

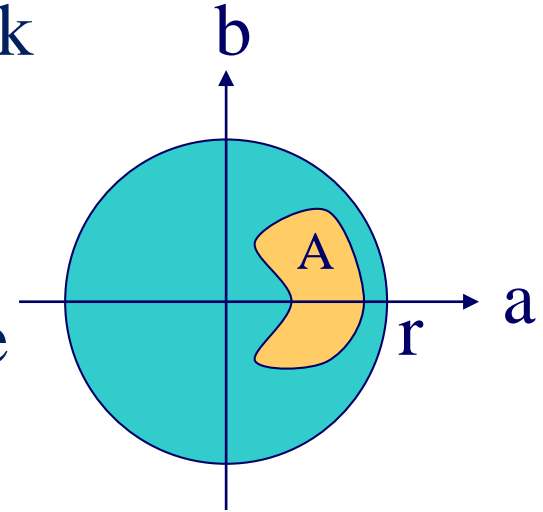
# Random Variable Example -- I

- A point is chosen at random on a disk of radius  $r$ :

$$S = \{(a, b) : \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \leq r\}$$

- “At random” means that if  $A$  is some subset of  $\Omega$ , then

$$\Pr((a, b) \in A) = \frac{\text{area of } A}{\pi r^2}$$

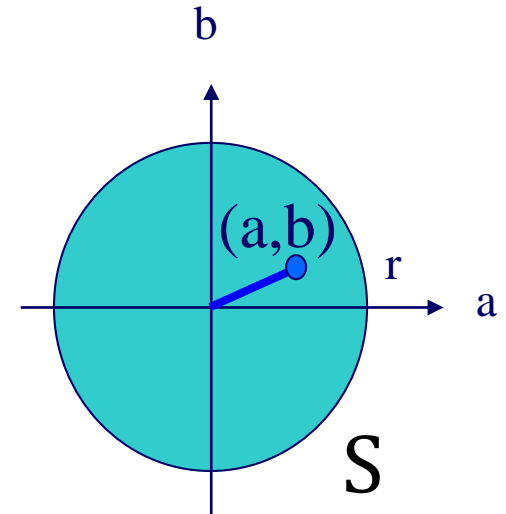


# Random Variable Example -- II

- Let the random variable  $X$  be defined

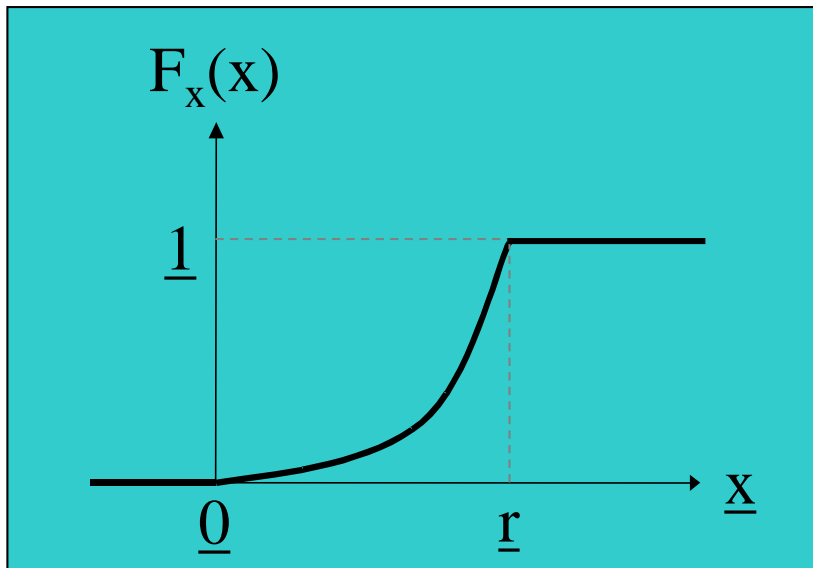
$$X(s) = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

= distance of point  $s$  with coordinates  $(a,b)$ , from the origin



# CDF for Ex. 2

$$F_x(x) = P[X(s) \leq x] = \frac{\pi x^2}{\pi r^2} \begin{cases} 1 & x > r \\ \frac{x^2}{r^2} & 0 \leq x \leq r \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

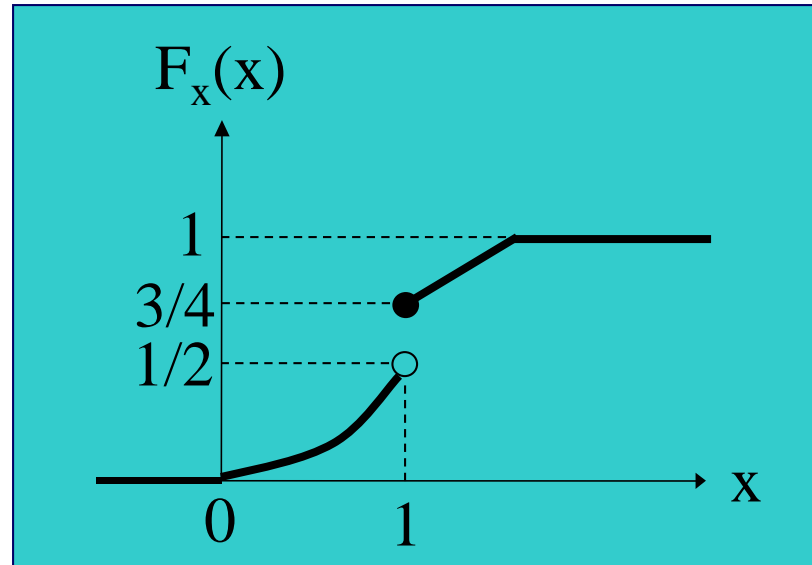




# Properties of CDFs

1.  $0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1$  for all  $x \in R$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F_X(x) = 1$
3.  $F_X(x)$  is non - decreasing.
4.  $F_X(x)$  is right - continuous.
5.  $P(X(s) < x_0) = \lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon > 0}} F_X(x_0 - \varepsilon) = \text{limit from the left at } x_0.$
6.  $P(a < X(s) \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$

# Example of CDF Property 5



$$P(X \leq 1) = F_X(1) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$P(X < 1) = \lim_{\substack{\epsilon > 0 \\ \epsilon \rightarrow 0}} F_X(1 - \epsilon) = \frac{1}{2}$$

# Proof of CDF Property 6

Let  $a < b$ , then

$$\{X(s) \leq b\} = \{X(s) \leq a\} \cup \{a < X(s) \leq b\}$$



*Disjoint events*

It follows that

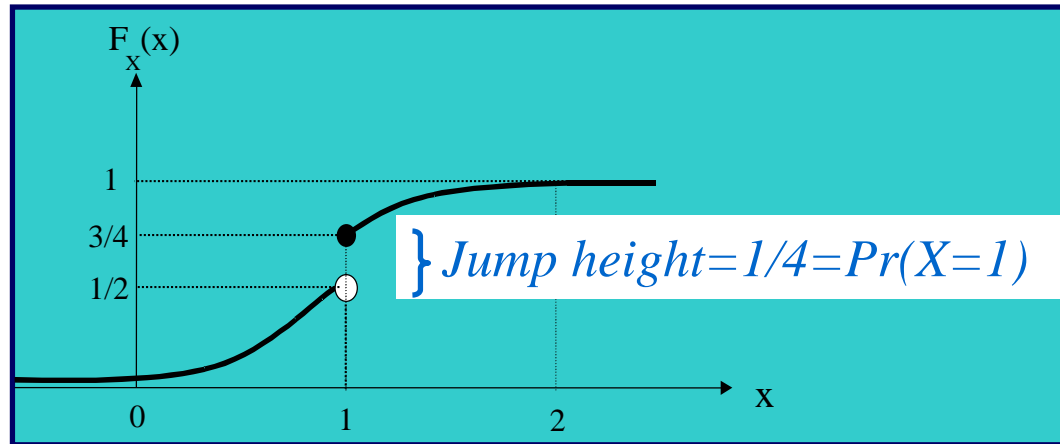
$$\Pr(X(s) \leq b) = \Pr(X(s) \leq a) + \Pr(a < X(s) \leq b)$$

Using the definition of  $F_X(x)$ ,

$$F_X(b) = F_X(a) + \Pr(a < X(s) \leq b)$$

$$P(X = a) = \text{discontinuity height at } a = F_X(a) - \lim_{\substack{\varepsilon > 0 \\ \varepsilon \rightarrow 0}} F_X(a - \varepsilon)$$

$$P(X = 1) = 3/4 - 1/2 = 1/4$$



- Simplification for notation: there is no  $s$ -dependence indicated by the notation - it is still assumed.  $X$  is just simpler to write than  $X(s)$

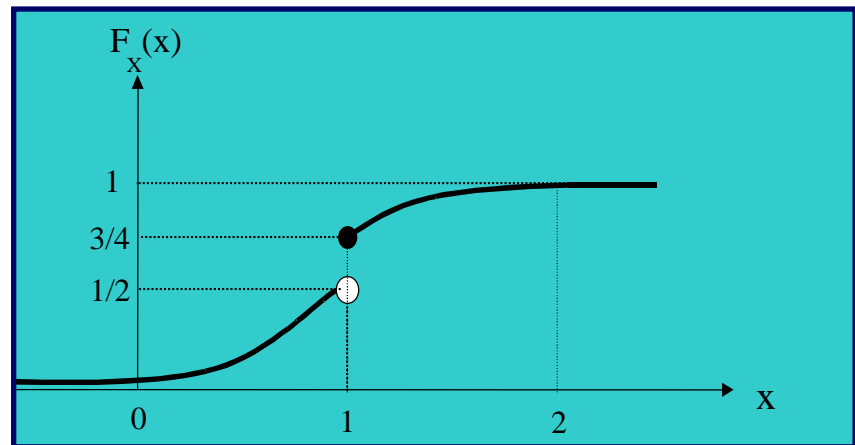
# Proof of $P(X = a)$

$$\{X \leq a\} = \{X < a\} \cup \{X = a\}$$

$$P(X \leq a) = P(X < a) + P(X = a)$$

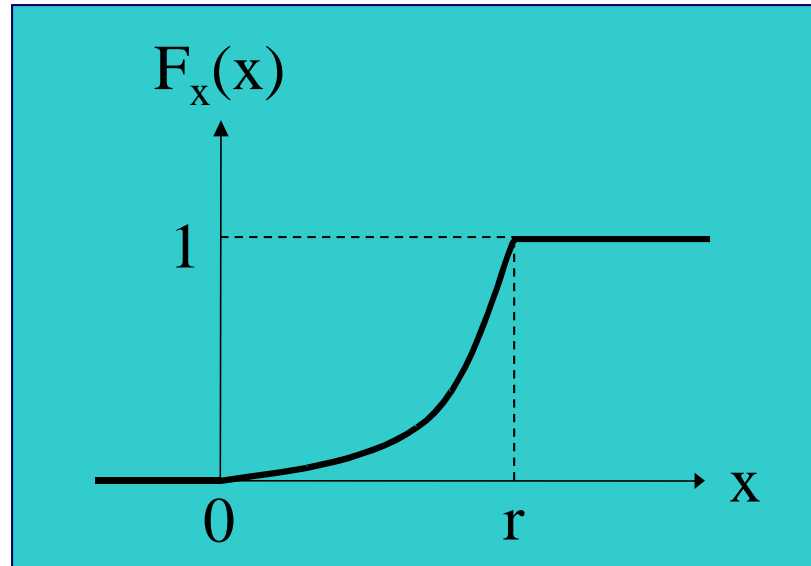
$$F_X(a) = \lim_{\substack{\varepsilon > 0 \\ \varepsilon \rightarrow 0}} F_X(a - \varepsilon) + P(X = a)$$

$$\text{Therefore, } P(X = a) = F_X(a) - \lim_{\substack{\varepsilon > 0 \\ \varepsilon \rightarrow 0}} F_X(a - \varepsilon)$$



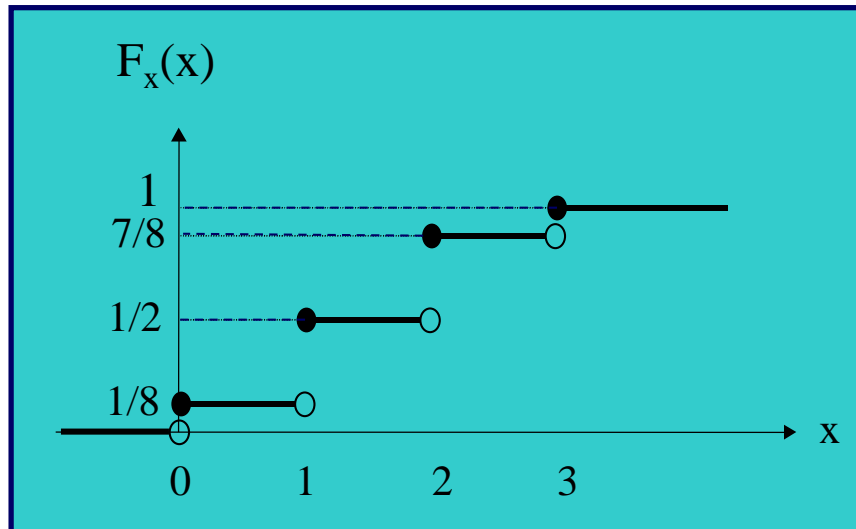
# Continuous Random Variables

- If  $F_X(x)$  is a continuous function (i.e. continuous at all  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ ), then  $X$  is a **continuous random variable**



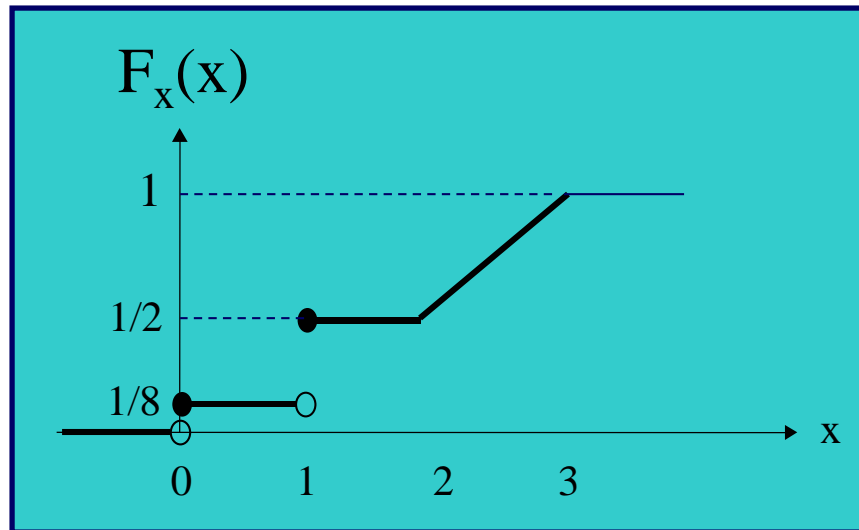
# Discrete Random Variables

- If  $F_X(x)$  is a piecewise constant function (i.e. flat everywhere except at discontinuities), then  $X$  is a **discrete random variable**



# Mixed Random Variables

- If  $X$  is neither continuous nor discrete, then it is mixed





- A random variable (RV) is a function
- The RV is described by its cumulative distribution function (CDF)
- Continuity
  - CDFs are right-continuous
- CDFs properties
- Three classes of RVs:
  - Continuous
  - Discrete
  - Mixed



# PMF and Discrete Random Variables

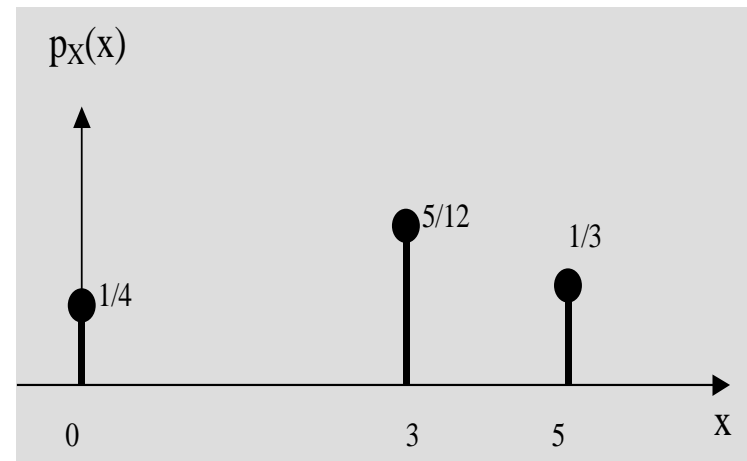
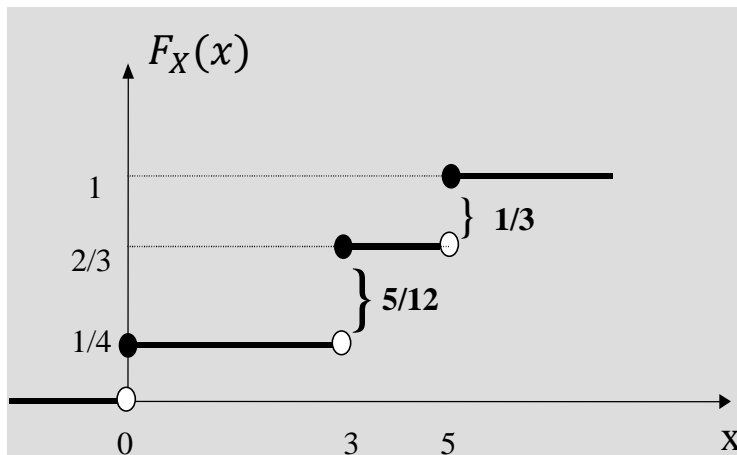
# The Probability Mass Function

- An alternative description of a **discrete random variable** is the **probability mass function (PMF)**.
- The discrete RV maps outcomes in a sample space to the real numbers.
- The PMF indicates the probability that the random variable **exactly equals some value**:

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

- The plot of  $p_X(x)$  is a stem plot, where the sum of the stems is 1.

- Recall that:  $P(X = x_0) = F_X(x_0) - \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} F_X(x_0 - \varepsilon)$
- In other words,  
 $P(X = x_0)$  = the height of the jump in the CDF at  $x = x_0$





# Some Special Discrete Random Variables

- Uniform
- Bernoulli
- Binomial
- Geometric
- Poisson

# The Uniform Random Variable

- $X(s)$  is the Uniform RV if  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  and

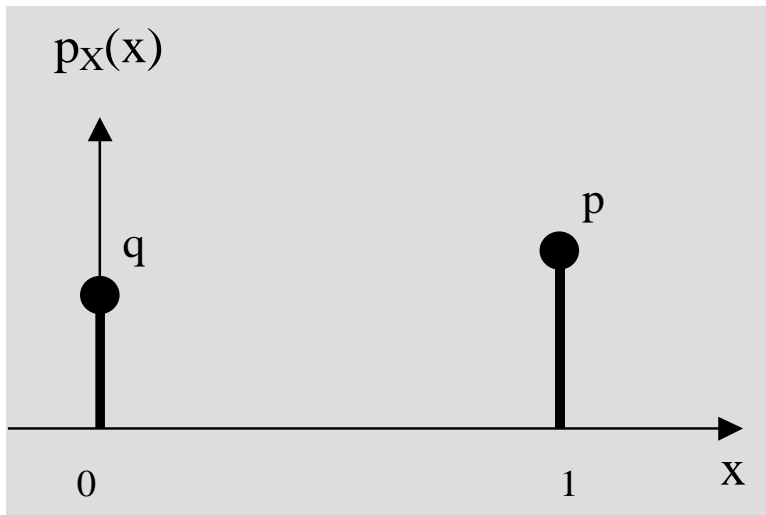
$$p_X(k) = \frac{1}{n}, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Example
  - random number generator
  - toss a fair dice
  - draw a card from a well-shuffled deck of cards

# The Bernoulli Random Variable

- Let  $A$  be an event on  $S$ .  $X(s)$  is the Bernoulli RV that indicates  $A$  if:

$$X(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } s \notin A \end{cases}$$



$$p_X(0) = P(x=0) = q$$

$$p_X(1) = P(x=1) = p$$

# The Binomial Random Variable

- Consider  $n$  Bernoulli Trials and let  $S$  be the Cartesian product sample space for all  $n$  trials.

$X(s)$  number of successes in  $s$  where  $s \in S$

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(k) &= \Pr(k \text{ successes in } n \text{ trials}) \\ &= \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Where the probability of success in one try is  $p$

- The binomial distribution with parameters  $n$  and  $p$  is the discrete probability distribution of the number of successes in a sequence of  $n$  independent yes/no experiments, each of which yields success with probability  $p$ .
- When  $n=1$ , Binomial is equivalent to Bernoulli



# Binomial Properties

$p_X(k)$  takes its maximum value at  $k_{\max} = \lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor$ ,

where the floor function  $\lfloor x \rfloor =$  the greatest integer  $\leq x$

- When  $(n+1)p$  is an integer, the maximum value is achieved at both  $k_{\max}$  and  $k_{\max}-1$ . Can you prove this?

# The Geometric Random Variable

- Consider an infinite sequence of Bernoulli Trials,  $X(s)$  is the number of failures before the first success
  - $p_X(k) = q^k p, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
  - Where the probability of success in one try is  $p$
- Question: can you calculate the summation of  $p_X(k)$ ?
  - $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_X(k) = (1 - q) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^k = (1 - q) \frac{1}{1 - q} = 1$
- Application:
  - In a memoryless binary communication link, where  $q$  is bit error,  $p_X(k)$  describes the probability of getting a burst of errors  $k$  bits long.

# The Poisson Random Variable

- In an application where events happen at random points in time, this RV counts the number of events that occur in a specified time interval.
  - Packet arrivals in a computer network
  - Customer arrivals
  - Lighting strikes
  - Photon arrivals
  - Component failures

- $X$  is a **Poisson random variable** with parameter  $\Lambda > 0$  if  $A = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  and

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\Lambda} \Lambda^k}{k!}, & k \in A \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $\Lambda$  is the “average” number of occurrences in the time interval  $T$
- $\Lambda$  can be expressed as  $\lambda T$ 
  - where  $\lambda$  is the “average rate” of occurrences

- Note:

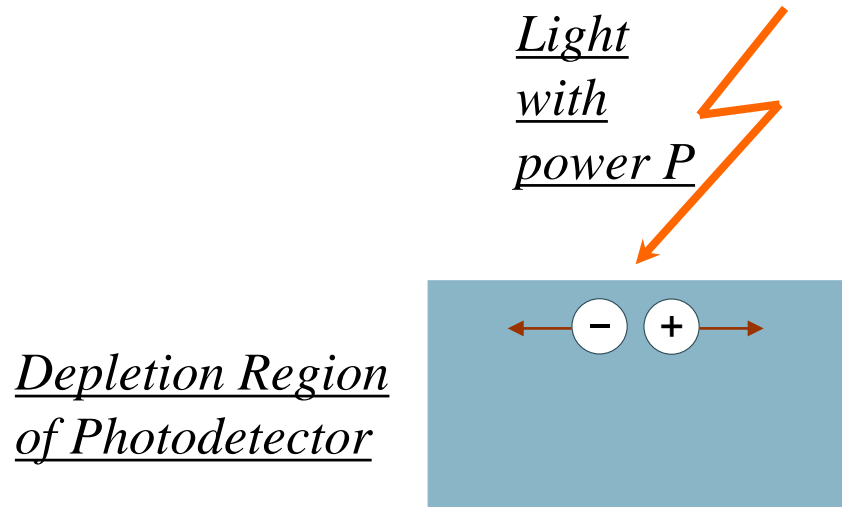
$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda^k}{k!} = e^{\Lambda}$$

- Thus,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_X(k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\Lambda} \Lambda^k}{k!} = e^{-\Lambda} e^{\Lambda} = 1$$

# Example Poisson Application: Photodetection

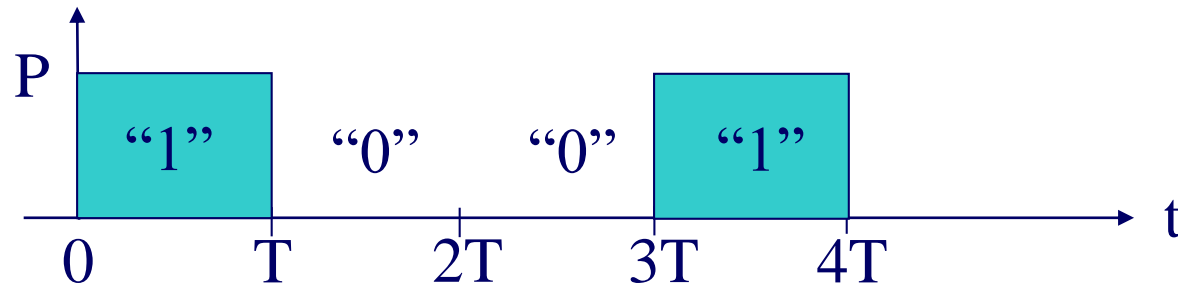
- When a photon of light energy falls on a photodetector, its energy is either absorbed by the lattice or it creates an electron-hole (E-H) pair.
- Because a photodetector is a reverse-biased diode, the E-H pair immediately separates in the depletion region, creating a small current.



# Photon-Counting Receiver Operation

- An idealized receiver used as a “benchmark” for performance.

*Received light power (watts)*



- In the receiver, a “one” is declared if at least one E-H pair is created in the interval  $T$ . A “zero” is declared otherwise.

# Poisson Approximation to Binomial

- Divide time line into  $n$  equal intervals  $\Delta$  wide.  $\Delta$  is small enough that  $\lambda\Delta \ll 1$ .



- Success = at least one event occurs in an interval  $n\Delta$



- Good when  $n$  is large,  $p$  is small, and  $np$  is on the order of  $n\lambda\Delta$  infrequent success



# Poisson Approximation to Binomial

- Success is when at least one event occurs in an interval  $n\Delta$

$$p = 1 - e^{-\lambda\Delta} \approx \lambda\Delta$$

$$q \approx 1 - \lambda\Delta$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(k \text{ events in } n\Delta) &= \frac{(\lambda n\Delta)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda n\Delta} \\ &\approx \binom{n}{k} (\lambda\Delta)^k (1 - \lambda\Delta)^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

# Accuracy of Approximation

- $N=20, p=0.08$

Binomial Distribution* ( $n = 20$ $p = .08$ )	Poisson Distribution† ( $\lambda = np = 1.6$ )
$P(X = 0) = .1887$	$P(X = 0) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^0}{0!} = .2019$
$P(X = 1) = .3282$	$P(X = 1) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^1}{1!} = .3230$
$P(X = 2) = .2711$	$P(X = 2) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^2}{2!} = .2584$
$P(X = 3) = .1414$	$P(X = 3) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^3}{3!} = .1378$
$P(X = 4) = .0523$	$P(X = 4) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^4}{4!} = .0551$
$P(X = 5) = .0145$	$P(X = 5) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^5}{5!} = .0176$
$P(X = 6) = .0032$	$P(X = 6) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^6}{6!} = .0047$
$P(X = 7) = .0005$	$P(X = 7) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^7}{7!} = .0011$
$P(X = 8) = .0001$	$P(X = 8) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^8}{8!} = .0002$
$P(X = 9) = .0000$	$P(X = 9) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^9}{9!} = .0000$
$P(X = 10) = .0000$	$P(X = 10) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^{10}}{10!} = .0000$
$P(X = 20) = .0000$	$P(X = 20) = \frac{e^{-1.6}(1.6)^{20}}{20!} = .0000$

- The discrete RVs covered were:
  - Uniform
  - Bernoulli
  - Binomial
  - Geometric
  - Poisson
- The Poisson PMF can be used to approximate the Binomial PMF



# Thank You!