

# Probability and Random Processes

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# Chapter 1

## Information Theory

**Defintion 1.0.1** (Entropy).

$$H(X) = E \left[ -\log_2 p(x) \right] = \sum_{x \in X} -p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$

If  $X \sim B(p)$ , then

$$H(X) = p - \log_2 p + (1 - p) \log_2 (1 - p) \triangleq h(p)$$

called the **binary entropy function**.

**Defintion 1.0.2** (Joint Entropy).

$$H(X, Y) = E \left[ -\log_2 p(x, y) \right] = \sum_x \sum_y -p_{x,y}(x, y) \log_2 p(x, y)$$

If  $X, Y$  are independent, then  $H(X, Y) = H(X) + H(Y)$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} H(X, Y) &= E \left[ -\log_2 p(x, y) \right] \\ &= E \left[ -\log_2 p(x) p(y) \right] \\ &= E \left[ -\log_2 p(x) - \log_2 p(y) \right] \\ &= E \left[ -\log_2 p(x) \right] + E \left[ -\log_2 p(y) \right] \\ &= H(X) + H(Y) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Defintion 1.0.3** (Conditional Entropy).

$$H(Y | X) = E_{XY} \left[ -\log_2 p(y | x) \right] H(X, Y) - H(X)$$

**Defintion 1.0.4** (Mutual Information).

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &\triangleq H(X) - H(X | Y) \\ &= H(Y) - H(Y | X) \\ &= H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$

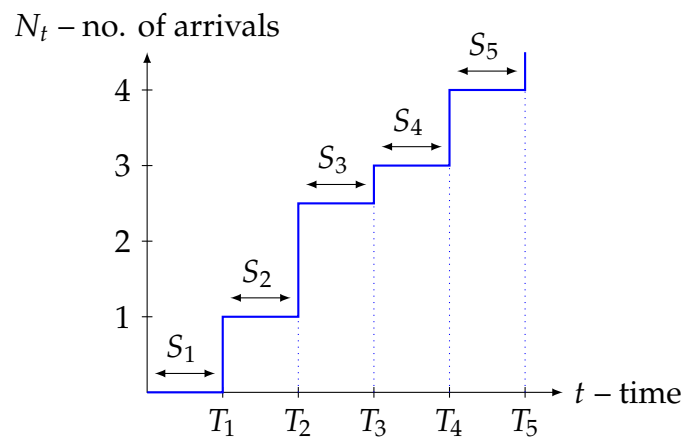
**Theorem 1.0.5** (Asymptotic Equipartition). *If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are iid  $\sim p(X)$ , then*

$$\frac{-\log_2 p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)}{n} \xrightarrow{p} H(X).$$

# Chapter 2

## Poisson Process

A Poisson process is the continuous time analog of “coin flipping” (or Bernoulli) processes. This makes it a good model for arrival processes: photons hitting a detector, packets in a network, number of emails per hour, etc.



Each  $T_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  represents an arrival and generally, each arrival time is defined as

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n S_i$$

where the interarrival times  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ . Thus, every  $S_i$  has the probability density function

$$f_{S_i}(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}; \quad t > 0; \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

and cumulative distribution function

$$F_{S_i}(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}; \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

**Defintion 2.0.1** (Number of Arrivals).

$$N_t = \begin{cases} \max_{n \geq 1} \{n \mid T_n \leq t\} & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & t < T_1 \end{cases}$$

- Recall: *Exponential*( $\lambda$ ) is a memoryless RV

1.  $F_\tau(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda t} & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow f_\tau(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$
2.  $E[\tau] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$  and  $\text{Var}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$
3.  $P(\tau > t + s \mid \tau > s) = P(\tau > t)$
4.  $P(\tau \leq t + \epsilon \mid \tau > t) = \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon); \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{o(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} = 0$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} P(\tau > t + \epsilon \mid \tau > t) &= P(\tau > \epsilon) \\ &= e^{-\lambda \epsilon} \\ &= 1 - \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon) \\ \therefore P(\tau \leq t + \epsilon \mid \tau > t) &= 1 - P(\tau > t + \epsilon \mid \tau > t) \\ &= \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

□

- $P(1 \text{ arrival}) = \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon)$
- $P(2 \text{ arrivals}) = 1 - \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon)$
- $P(3 \text{ arrivals}) = o(\epsilon)$

We can only have one arrival in a particular subinterval with high probability  $\lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon)$ . On the other hand, there are zero arrivals with probability  $1 - \lambda \epsilon + o(\epsilon)$ .

This means that a Poisson process has independent and stationary increments, i.e., for any  $0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_n \leq \dots$ ; if you look at the number of arrivals in  $t_{n+1}$  and  $t_n$ ,  $\{N_{t_{n+1}} - N_{t_n}\}$  are independent and the distribution depends only on the size of the interval  $(t_{n+1} - t_n)$ .

**Theorem 2.0.2.** Let  $N_t :=$  number of arrivals in  $(0, t)$ , then

$$P(N_t = k) = e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!}; \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

*Proof.*

$$P(N_t = k) = \int_{t_1} \int_{t_2} \dots \int_{t_k} f_{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k \mid N_t = k}(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k \mid N_t = k) dt_1 dt_2 \dots dt_k$$

We constrain the region of integration by letting  $S = 0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_k \leq t \leq t_{k+1}$ . Shifting focus to the  $k^{\text{th}}$  dimensional pdf,

$$f_{T_1, \dots, T_k | N_t = k}(t_1, \dots, t_k | N_t = k) = P(T_1 \in (t_1, t_1 + dt_1), \dots, T_k \in (t_k, t_k + dt_k), T_{k+1} > t)$$

where we leverage the fact that  $P(T_{k+1} \in (t_{k+1}, t)) = P(T_{k+1} > t)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow P(T_1 \in (t_1, t_1 + dt_1)) \times \dots \times P(T_k \in (t_k, t_k + dt_k)) \times P(T_{k+1} > t) \\ &= P(S_1 \in (t_1, t_1 + dt_1)) \times \dots \times P(S_k \in (t_k - t_{k-1}, t_k - t_{k-1} + dt_k)) \times P(S_{k+1} > t - t_k) \\ &= (\lambda e^{-\lambda t_1} dt_1) \dots (\lambda e^{-\lambda(t_k - t_{k-1})} dt_k) e^{-\lambda(t - t_k)} \\ &= \lambda^k e^{-\lambda t} \end{aligned}$$

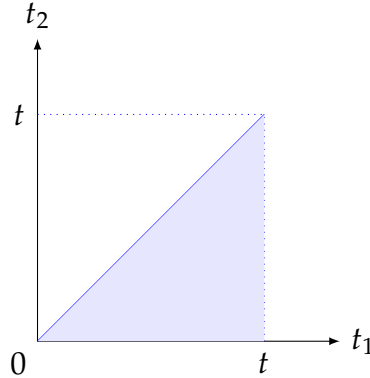
The result  $\lambda^k e^{-\lambda t}$  is a constant to the  $k^{\text{th}}$  dimensional integral, so barring any constraints on  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k$ ,  $\text{Volume}(S) = t^k$ . But, we must respect the fact that  $0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_k$ .

By symmetry, every permutation of  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k)$  has equal volume

$$\text{Volume}(S) = \frac{t^k}{k!} \Rightarrow P(N_t = k) = \frac{(\lambda t)^k e^{-\lambda t}}{k!}; \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

□

- Conditioned on the number of arrivals being  $k$  in an interval, the density is uniform
- Intuition behind symmetry argument:  $k = 2$



From the image above we know that  $P(t_1 \leq t_2) + P(t_2 < t_1) = 1$ . Thus,  $P(t_1 < t_2) = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2!}$  which generalizes to  $k$  dimensions.

**Defintion 2.0.3** (Poisson Merging). Merging two or more independent Poisson processes yields  $PP(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n)$

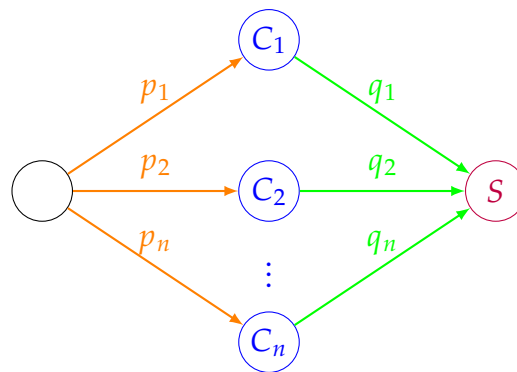
**Defintion 2.0.4** (Poisson Splitting). Let  $N \sim PP(\lambda)$  such that  $N$  is split into  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . For each arrival we flip a coin independently with probability  $H = p$ . If the coin lands on heads, send the arrival to the  $N_1$  queue otherwise it is sent to the  $N_2$  queue.

# Chapter 3

## Statistical Inference

### 3.1 Detection & Bayes' Theorem

Consider  $N$  possible exclusive causes of a particular health symptom.



- Each cause  $i$  has a prior probability  $p_i$  and it has a probability  $q_i$  of causing the observed symptom.
- We want to estimate the posterior probability  $\pi_i$  of cause  $i$  given the symptom  $S$ ,

$$\pi_i = P(C_i | S) = \frac{P(C_i \cap S)}{P(S)} = \frac{P(S | C_i) P(C_i)}{\sum_j P(S | C_j) P(C_j)}.$$

From the diagram above the posterior distribution for cause  $i$  can be simplified to

$$\pi_i = \frac{q_i p_i}{\sum_j q_j p_j}. \quad (3.1)$$

## 3.2 MAP & MLE

**Defintion 3.2.1** (Maximum a posteriori (MAP)).

$$\text{MAP} \triangleq \arg \max_i \pi_i = \arg \max_i p_i q_i$$

**Defintion 3.2.2** (Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)).

$$\text{MLE} \triangleq \arg \max_i q_i \equiv \text{MAP assuming uniform priors } p_i = \frac{1}{N} \forall i$$

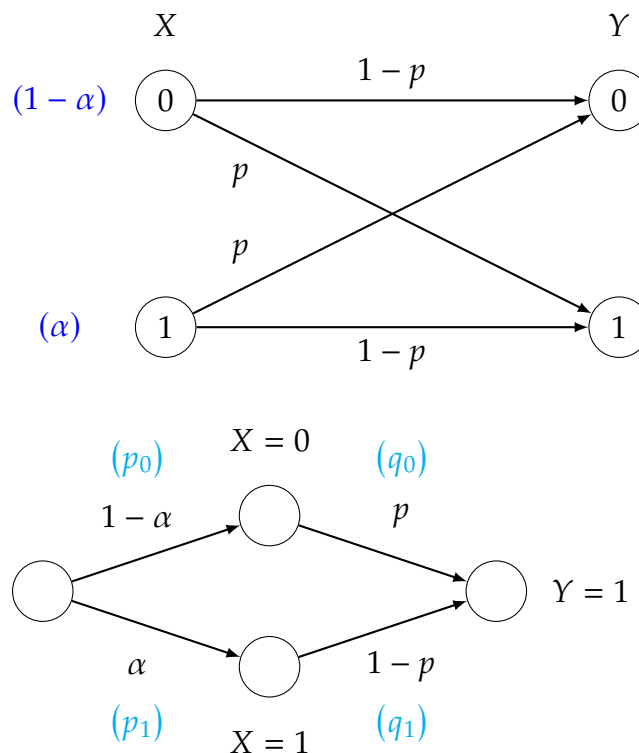
More generally, if  $X, Y$  are discrete RVs then

$$\text{MAP} [X | Y = y] = \arg \max_x P(X = x | Y = y)$$

$$\text{MLE} [X | Y = y] = \arg \max_x P(Y = y | X = x)$$

- Called detection because everything is discrete, i.e., detection and classification are synonymous.
- MAP: which cause best explain the observed symptom.
- MLE: which cause best generates/induces the observed symptom.

**Example 3.2.1** (MAP/MLE Analysis of BSC). Consider a BSC ( $p$ ) with  $p < \frac{1}{2}$ .





$$\Rightarrow \text{MAP}[X \mid Y = 1] = \arg \max_{i \in \{0,1\}} p_i q_i.$$

This yields the inequality statement,

$$p_0 q_0 \stackrel{\hat{X}_1=0}{\leq} \stackrel{\hat{X}_1=1}{p_1 q_1}$$

where  $\hat{X}_1$  is the MAP estimate of  $X$  when  $Y = 1$  is 0 or 1. Thus

$$(1 - \alpha) p \stackrel{0}{\leq} \stackrel{1}{\alpha} (1 - p)$$