

## Lecture #2

# Probability Theory and Random Variables

### 1-The Axioms of Probability

Axiom 1. For every event A in given class,  $P(A) \geq 0$

Axiom 2. For the sure or certain event S in the class,  $P(S) = 1$

Axiom 3. For any number of mutually exclusive events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , in the class,

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots$$

In particular, for two mutually exclusive events A1 and A2,  $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2)$

### 2- Some Important Probability Theorems

The following theorems on probability are important.

- 1) For every event A,  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ , i.e., a probability between 0 and 1.
- 2) For  $\emptyset$ , the empty set,  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ , the impossible event has probability zero.
- 3) If  $A'$  is the complement of A, then  $P(A') = 1 - P(A)$
- 4) If A and B are any two events, then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

### 3- Independent Events

If A and B are two independent events, then  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$ .

A simple example: if one toss two fair coins, the event T or H on first coin is independent on that occurred on the second coin.

### 4- Conditional Probability

Let A and B be two events such that  $P(A) > 0$ . Denote  $P(B | A)$  the probability of B given that A has occurred. 
$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

Then  $P(A \cap B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$

In words, this is saying that the probability that both A and B occur is equal to the probability that A occurs times the probability that B occurs given that A has occurred. We call  $P(B | A)$  the conditional probability of B given A, i.e., the probability that B will occur given that A has occurred. It is easy to show that conditional probability satisfies the axioms of probability previously discussed.

Similarly,

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

Then  $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B).P(B)$

- If A and B are mutually exclusive events then  $P(A \cap B) = 0$  , hence both  $P(A|B)$  and  $P(B|A)$  are zero.
- If A and B are independent event,  $P(A \cap B) = P(A).P(B)$  , then  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  and  $P(B|A) = P(B)$ .

## 5- Outcomes as Elements of Events

For some applications the event may contains few outcomes. This like considering the event as a set that containing elements.

Let  $X = \{ x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , \dots \dots \dots .x_N \}$  and  $Y = \{ y_1 , y_2 , y_3 , \dots \dots \dots .y_M \}$

Then all the above relations and theorems will be applied to the outcomes  $x_i$  and  $y_j$ .

### Example: Binary Symmetric Channel

In binary symmetric channel, the transmitter (T) sends binary values ( $0_T$  or  $1_T$ ), and the receiver (R) receives binary values ( $0_R$  or  $1_R$ ). If the channel is perfect or noiseless then the receiver will receive exactly what the transmitter sends and in this case:

We have two objects the transmitter (T) and the receiver (R) , with

$$T = \{ 0_T , 1_T \} \quad \text{and} \quad R = \{ 0_R , 1_R \}$$

**Noiseless Channel:**  $P(0_R) = P(0_T)$  and  $P(1_R) = P(1_T)$  with

$$P(0_R | 1_T) = P(1_R | 0_T) = 0 \quad (\text{no transition error})$$

$$\text{Also } P(0_R | 0_T) = P(1_R | 1_T) = 1 \quad (\text{totally correct transition})$$

In practice the channel is not noiseless (i.e. noisy).

Noisy Channel:  $P(0_R) \neq P(0_T)$  and  $P(1_R) \neq P(1_T)$  with

$$P(0_R | 1_T) = P(1_R | 0_T) \neq 0 \text{ (there is transition error)}$$

Also  $P(0_R | 0_T) = P(1_R | 1_T) \neq 1$  (partially correct transition)

Let us consider the noisy case:

Given:  $P(0_T) = 0.6$ ,  $P(1_T) = 0.4$  and  $P(0_R | 1_T) = P(1_R | 0_T) = 0.1$

Find:  $P(0_R | 0_T)$ ,  $P(1_R | 1_T)$ , all  $p(T \cap R)$ ,  $P(0_R)$  and  $P(1_R)$

**Solution:**

Since  $P(0_R | 1_T) + P(0_R | 0_T) = 1$  then  $P(0_R | 0_T) = 1 - 0.1 = 0.9$

Similarly  $P(1_R | 0_T) + P(1_R | 1_T) = 1$  then  $P(1_R | 1_T) = 1 - 0.1 = 0.9$

Using the relation  $p(T \cap R) = P(R|T) \cdot P(T)$  for all T and R values gives

$$P(0_R \cap 0_T) = P(0_R | 0_T) P(0_T) = 0.9 \times 0.6 = 0.54$$

$$P(1_R \cap 1_T) = P(1_R | 1_T) P(1_T) = 0.9 \times 0.4 = 0.36$$

$$P(0_R \cap 1_T) = P(0_R | 1_T) P(1_T) = 0.1 \times 0.4 = 0.04$$

$$P(1_R \cap 0_T) = P(1_R | 0_T) P(0_T) = 0.1 \times 0.6 = 0.06$$

Then find the receiver probabilities by;

$$P(0_R) = P(0_R \cap 0_T) + P(0_R \cap 1_T) = 0.54 + 0.04 = 0.58$$

$$P(1_R) = P(1_R \cap 0_T) + P(1_R \cap 1_T) = 0.06 + 0.36 = 0.42$$

It is clear to see that sum of  $P(T)$  is one and so also the sum of  $P(R)$ .

## 6- Types of Random Variables

### A. Discrete Random Variables (DRV)

Here we have **limited number of values** for the variables. We call this number as  $N$ . Each value of DRV has probability value  $p_i$  usually determined by probability rules. The probability of DRV may be defined by the relative frequency  $p_i = \frac{n_i}{N}$ .

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, \dots, x_N\}, \text{ with } \sum_{i=1}^N p_i = 1$$

$$P = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5, \dots, p_N\}, \text{ } p_i \neq 0 \text{ in general}$$

Example: In die experiment the output number is DRV. The number of variables is limited to 6, thus it is discrete random variable.

X	x <sub>1</sub>	x <sub>2</sub>	x <sub>3</sub>	x <sub>4</sub>	x <sub>5</sub>	x <sub>6</sub>
x <sub>i</sub> (RV)	1	2	3	4	5	6
p <sub>i</sub>	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6

The above can be considered as a set of 6 elements, each with probability of 1/6.

### B. Continues Random Variables (CRV)

In CRV, the random variable has **unlimited values** ( $N \rightarrow \infty$ ). Thus  $p_i$  is undefined this case.

Example: Noise waveform



The above waveform does not have fixed number of voltage values (i.e unlimited or  $\infty$ ). In this case we can not define certain probability of such voltage. Instead, we may talk about range of voltage, maximum, minimum, average....etc.

## Probability Density Function (pdf) of CRV

Probability Density Function (or pdf  $f(x)$ ) is defined and used for CRV to determine probability of given range of the CRV  $x$  as given below:

$$p(a < x < b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx \quad \text{and} \quad p(x=a) = 0 \quad (\text{why})$$

Since  $f(x)$  is density function then its unit is probability divided by unit of  $x$ . After integration the unit will be the probability.

### Properties of pdf $f(x)$

- $f(x)$  is non-negative function (may be zero or +ve)
- $f(x) < 1$
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

Any function satisfies the above properties is pdf and vice versa.

## 7-Expectations and Moments

### Expectations

Expectations or averages are the mean value of the function with the random variable being the independent variable of the function say  $h(x)$ . The general expression for expectation is given by:

$$\text{For DRV} \quad E[h(x)] = \overline{h(x)} = \sum_{x_i} h(x_i) \cdot P(x_i)$$

$$\text{For CRV} \quad E[h(x)] = \overline{h(x)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) \cdot f(x)dx$$

### Properties of Expectation:

- $E[h(x)]$  may be -ve, 0, or +ve.
- For  $c$ =constant  $E[c \cdot h(x)] = c \cdot E[h(x)]$ , and  $E[c] = c$
- $E[h(x)]$  is linear operation:  $E[a \cdot h_1(x) + b \cdot h_2(x)] = a \cdot E[h_1(x)] + b \cdot E[h_2(x)]$  ( $a$  &  $b$  are constants)
- $E[h(x)]$  is non-negative when  $h(x)$  is positive function as in  $h(x)=x^2$  for example.

### Moments

The moments are expectations of special functions of the random variables. There are two types of moments:

- Moments about the origin  $m_k = E[x^k]$
- Moments about the mean is  $M_k = E[(x - \bar{x})^k]$

## Some useful moments:

$m_1 = E[x] = \bar{x}$  (this is the mean value or DC level of the RV  $x$ )

$m_2 = E[x^2] = \overline{x^2}$  (the mean square value or the average total power of the RV  $x$ )

$M_1 = 0$  (why)

$M_2 = E[(x-\bar{x})^2] = \sigma^2 = \text{variance}$ ,  $\sigma = \text{standard deviation of RV } x$ .

Important relation:  $\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{L.H.S} = \sigma^2 = M_2 &= E[(x-\bar{x})^2] = E[x^2 - 2x\bar{x} + \bar{x}^2] = E[x^2] - E[2x\bar{x}] + E[\bar{x}^2] \\ &= \overline{x^2} - 2\bar{x} E[x] + \bar{x}^2 = \overline{x^2} - 2\bar{x}\bar{x} + \bar{x}^2 = \overline{x^2} - 2\bar{x}^2 + \bar{x}^2 \\ &= \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2 = \text{R.H.S} \end{aligned}$$

## 8- Joint Distribution

When we have two random variables in the same experiment or expression the resultant 2-variable distribution is called Joint Distribution or Joint RV. There also exist joint distributions involving more than two random variables.

### Joint DRVs

Consider the following two sets of DRV;

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, \dots, x_N\}$$

$$Y = \{y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5, \dots, y_M\}$$

The joint Probability of  $x_i$  and  $y_j = P(x_i \cap y_j) = P(x_i \text{ and } y_j) = P(x_i, y_j)$

$$\text{with } \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) = 1, \quad \sum_{j=1}^M P(y_j) = 1, \quad \sum_x \sum_y P(x_i, y_j) = 1$$

Also  $P(x_i, y_j) = P(x_i) \cdot P(y_j)$  (for independent RV)

$P(x_i, y_j) = 0$  (for mutual exclusive RV)

$$P(x_i) = \sum_y P(x_i, y_j), \quad P(y_j) = \sum_x P(x_i, y_j)$$

### Joint CRVs

Here we have joint continuous random variable.

$$f(x) = \text{pdf of } x \text{ then } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

$f(y)$  = pdf of  $y$  then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = 1$

$f(x, y)$  = joint pdf of  $x$  and  $y$  then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y)dxdy = 1$

$f(x, y) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$  (for independent RV)

Also ;  $f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y)dy$ , and  $f(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y)dx$ ,

### Example-1 Discrete Random Variable

Let the random variable  $x_i$  is defined as the absolute value of the difference of the two numbers occurring in the experiment of the throwing two dice. Then:

- a) Find all possible values of  $x_i$  with their probabilities (this also known as the sample space of the experiment)
- b) Find :  $\bar{x}$  ,  $\overline{x^2}$  ,  $\sigma^2$  ,  $E[4x^2]$  ,  $E[(x-2)^2]$  ,  $E[e^x]$

**Solution:**

- a) Following is the table of all possible outcomes of the experiment with  $x=|A-B|$

A \ B	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>

Thus,

<b>X</b>	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	$x_5$	$x_6$
$x_i$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$p_i$	6/36	10/36	8/36	6/36	4/36	2/36

It is important to check that  $\sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) = 1$

- b) Find :  $\bar{x}$  ,  $\overline{x^2}$  ,  $\sigma^2$  ,  $E[4x^2]$  ,  $E[(x-2)^2]$  ,  $E[e^x]$

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{x_i} x_i \cdot P(x_i) = 0x \frac{6}{36} + 1x \frac{10}{36} + 2x \frac{8}{36} + 3x \frac{6}{36} + 4x \frac{4}{36} + 5x \frac{2}{36} = 70/36 = 1.9444$$

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{x^2} &= \sum_{x_i} x_i^2 \cdot P(x_i) = 0^2 x \frac{6}{36} + 1^2 x \frac{10}{36} + 2^2 x \frac{8}{36} + 3^2 x \frac{6}{36} + 4^2 x \frac{4}{36} + 5^2 x \frac{2}{36} \\ &= 0x \frac{6}{36} + 1x \frac{10}{36} + 4x \frac{8}{36} + 9x \frac{6}{36} + 16x \frac{4}{36} + 25x \frac{2}{36} = 210/36 = 5.833\end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2 = 5.833 - (1.944)^2 = 2.054$$

$$E[4x^2] = 4 \cdot E[x^2] = 4 \cdot \overline{x^2} = 4 \times 5.833 = 23.332$$

$$E[(x-2)^2] = E[x^2 - 2x + 4] = \overline{x^2} - 2 \cdot \bar{x} + 4 = 5.833 - 2 \times 1.944 + 4 = 5.944$$

$$\begin{aligned}E[e^x] &= \sum_{x_i} e^{x_i} \cdot P(x_i) = e^0 x \frac{6}{36} + e^1 x \frac{10}{36} + e^2 x \frac{8}{36} + e^3 x \frac{6}{36} + e^4 x \frac{4}{36} + e^5 x \frac{2}{36} \\ &= 1x \frac{6}{36} + 2.718x \frac{10}{36} + 7.39x \frac{8}{36} + 20.085x \frac{6}{36} + 54.6x \frac{4}{36} + 148.4x \frac{2}{36} = 20.22\end{aligned}$$

**Q-For Example-1 find P(x>2), P(1 < x < 4), E[ 1-x]**

### Example-2 Continues Random Variable

Consider CRV having the following pdf ;

$f(x) = Ax$  for  $0 < x < 2$  and  $f(x)=0$  elsewhere

- Find the constant A
- Find  $P(x > 1)$ ,  $P(0.5 < x < 1)$ ,  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\overline{x^2}$ ,  $\sigma^2$

**Solution:**

a) Using the fact that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

Then  $\int_0^2 Ax \cdot dx = 1$  gives  $2A=1$  thus,  $A=1/2$  and the pdf can be written as:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} & 0 < x < 2 \\ 0 & elsewhere \end{cases}$$

$$b) P(x > 1) = \int_1^2 f(x)dx = \int_1^2 \frac{x}{2} dx = \left[ \frac{x^2}{4} \right]_1^2 = 3/4$$

$$P(0.5 < x < 1) = \int_{0.5}^1 f(x)dx = \int_{0.5}^1 \frac{x}{2} dx = \left[ \frac{x^2}{4} \right]_{0.5}^1 = 0.1875$$

$$\bar{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 x^2 dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{6} \right]_0^2 = \frac{8}{6} = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\overline{x^2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \cdot f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 x^3 dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{8} \right]_0^2 = \frac{16}{8} = 2$$

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2 = 2 - (4/3)^2 = 2/9$$



### Example-3 Joint Discrete Random Variables

Consider the following discrete joint distribution;

	$y_1=0$	$y_2=1$	$y_3=2$
$x_1=-1$	1/4	1/8	0
$x_2=0$	1/16	1/16	1/8
$x_3=1$	0	1/8	1/8
$x_4=2$	1/16	0	1/16

$P(x_i, y_j) =$

- Find the sample space for each RV (x and y) and their probabilities.
- Find  $P(x_i > 1)$ ,  $P(x_i < 1)$ ,  $P(y_j < 0)$ ,  $P(x_i = 1, y_j = 1)$ ,  $P(x_i > 1, y_j < 2)$ .
- Is  $(x_i = 2 \text{ and } y_j = 1)$  independent or mutual exclusive?
- Repeat (c) for  $(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 2)$  and  $(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 0)$ .

**Solution:**

a-Using the relation  $P(x_i) = \sum_y P(x_i, y_j)$  i.e sum all probabilities for fixed  $x_i$  and different  $y_j$  (also by summing each row content of above table). Then using the relation  $P(y_j) = \sum_x P(x_i, y_j)$  i.e sum all probabilities for fixed  $y_j$  and different  $x_i$  (also by summing each column content of above table).

<b>X</b>	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$
$x_i$	-1	0	1	2
$p(x_i)$	3/8	1/4	1/4	1/8

<b>Y</b>	$y_1$	$y_2$	$y_3$
$y_j$	0	1	2
$p(y_j)$	3/8	5/16	5/16

One should check the followings as well:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) = 1 \quad \sum_{j=1}^M P(y_j) = 1 \quad \sum_x \sum_y P(x_i, y_j) = 1$$

b- $P(x_i > 1) = P(x_i = 2) = P(x_4) = 1/8$  (from table of p(x))

$P(x_i < 1) = P(x_i = 0) + P(x_i = -1) = P(x_2) + P(x_1) = 1/4 + 3/8 = 5/8$  (from table of p(x))

$P(y_j < 0) = 0$  (why)

$P(x_i = 1, y_j = 1) = P(x_3, y_2) = 1/8$  (from table of p(x,y))

$P(x_i > 1, y_j < 2) = P(x_i = 2, y_j = 1) + P(x_i = 2, y_j = 0) = 1/16$  (from table of p(x,y))

c-To see if  $(x_i = 2 \text{ and } y_j = 1)$  are independent or mutual exclusive, we look at table of  $p(x,y)$ , it is clear that  $P(x_i = 2 \text{ and } y_j = 1) = 0$  thus  $x_i = 2$  and  $y_j = 1$  are mutually exclusive.

d-For  $(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 2)$  from table  $p(x,y)$ ,  $P(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 2) = 1/8$  then they are not mutual exclusive to see whether they are independent we should find ;

$P(x_i = 1) = 3/8$  and then  $P(y_j = 2) = 5/16$  from tables of  $p(x)$  and  $p(y)$ , respectively.

Now since  $P(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 2) \neq P(x_i = 1) \cdot P(y_j = 2)$ , thus they are not independent.

For  $P(x_i = 1 \text{ and } y_j = 0) = 0$  from table  $p(x,y)$  then they are mutually exclusive.

Q- For Example-3 find the values of  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\overline{x^2}$ ,  $\sigma_x^2$ ,  $\bar{y}$ ,  $\overline{y^2}$ ,  $\sigma_y^2$