Linear Algebra & Random Processes Random Variables and Probability Distributions

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Topics Covered & References

Topics

References

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Random Variables

- A random variable (r.v.) is a real values function mapping the outcomes of a random experiment to a real number. Consider an experiment with sample space S, x (•) : S → ℝ; where, x is a random variable mapping S to a set of real numbers. The value of the random variable x for a specific outcome of the sample space ω ∈ S is, x = x (ω).
- In some cases a r.v. can be a simple numerical relabling of the original space, and in most cases they will act as some form of summary variable of the original sample space.
- The use of numerical values allows us to use standard tools of analysis to manipulate these variables for the purposes of understanding the nature of the random experiment.

In a coin toss with sample space $S = \{H, T\}$, we could have a r.v. $\mathbf{x}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \omega = H \\ 0, & \omega = T \end{cases}$.

If we toos 100 coins, then a r.v. could be the number of heads in the 100 tosses. What is the sample space represented by of this random variable?s

Randon Variables

- Our original experiment had a sample space S and a probability assignment function $P(\bullet): S \mapsto [0, 1].$
- ▶ When we define a r.v. $\mathbf{x} : S \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ for this experiment we have a new sample space $S_{\mathbf{x}}$ and a probability function $P_{\mathbf{x}}(\bullet) : \mathbb{R} \mapsto [0, 1]$; both can be derived from S and $P(\bullet)$.

▶ Let
$$S = \{o_1, o_2, \dots o_n\}$$
, and $P(o_i) = p_i$. Let $S_{\mathbf{x}} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots x_m\}$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$P_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x_{i}\right) = P\left(\left\{o_{j} \mid \forall o_{j} \in S \text{ and } \mathbf{x}\left(o_{j}\right) = x_{i}\right\}\right)$$

▶ We toss three coins and observe what turns on the three coins.

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- 1. What is the sample space S?
- 2. $\mathbf{x} = \#H \#T$. What is $S_{\mathbf{x}}$?

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- 1. What is the sample space S?
- 2. $\mathbf{x} = \#H \#T$. What is $S_{\mathbf{x}}$?
- 3. Prob. of H for each coin: p. What are $P(\bullet)$ and $P_{\mathbf{x}}(\bullet)$?

Random Variables

• We define events in terms of r.v.s, and determine their probability from S and $P(\bullet)$.

▶ We can condition a r.v. on an event or another r.v.

The notion of independence can also be defined for an r.v. with respect to another r.v. or an event.

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 E.g. We toss three counts and define x = #H #T and y = max {#H, #T}. What is P_y (•)? What is P_{x|y} (x|y = 2)?
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E.g. We toss three counts and define $\mathbf{x} = \operatorname{sign}(\#H - \#T)$, $\mathbf{y} = \max{\{\#H, \#T\}}$, and $\mathbf{z} = \#H$. What is $P_{\mathbf{z}}(\bullet)$? What is $P_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}}(x|y=2)$? What is $P_{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}}(x|z=2)$?

Probability Mass Function (PMF)

- **•** Two types of r.v.s: **Discrete** and **Continuous**.
 - **Discrete**: Finite or countably infinite sample space.
 - **Continuous**: Uncountably infinite sample space.
- Probabilities associated with a discrete r.v. are fully characterized by the probability mass function (PMF). Consider a r.v. x. Let f_x by the PMF associated with x assigns probabilities to each element of S_x.

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) = P_{\mathbf{x}}\left(\mathbf{x} = x\right), \ x \in S_{\mathbf{x}}$$

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An urn contains 3 black balls, 4 white balls, and 5 red balls. We randomly select three balls from the urn with replacement, and count the number of red balls sampled \mathbf{x} . What is $p_{\mathbf{x}}(x)$?

Cummulative Distribution Function

Cummulative distribution function (CDF) of x.

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = P_{\mathbf{x}} \left(\mathbf{x} \le x \right) = \sum_{\substack{y \le x \\ y \in S_{\mathbf{x}}}} f_{\mathbf{x}}(y)$$

Consider a PMF $f_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x & x \ge 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}, \ x \in \mathbb{Z}.$



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Bionimal Distribution

Bernoulli trials: Independent repeated trials with only two possible outcomes (success or failure), with fixed probabilities.

In n Bernoulli trials we are interested in the number of successes irrespective of their ordering. The number of successes x is the **Binomial** random variable.

Sample space of \mathbf{x} : $S_{\mathbf{x}} =$

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) = b\left(x;n,p\right) =$$

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Geometric Distribution

Here again, we are dealing with Bernoulli trails, but instead of the number of successes, we are interested in the number of trials x required to obtain the first success. We assume the probability of success on any trial is p.

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 $f_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = p \cdot (1-p)^{(x-1)}$

We can generalize this to r successes, which leads gives us the *Negative Bionomial Distribution*.

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Poisson Distribution

We also often interested in the number of occurances of an event in a given interval of time or space. This count is a **Poisson** r.v., generated by a process with the following properties,

- 1. Only one event can occur at a time or location; simultaneous event are not allowed.
- Occurrence of an event in a given period is independent occurrences in other non-overlapping periods.
- 3. The average number of occurrences λ in a unit period does not change with time or space.

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Sample space of **x**: $S_{\mathbf{x}} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}(x;t) = e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^{-x}}{x!}$$

where, t is the fixed duration of interest, and λ is the average number of occurrences in a unit time window.



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Continuous Random Variables

- We often encounter uncountable sample spaces, and we can associate these samples spaces with random variables that assume values in a continuous interval. E.g. Time taken to complete a task, blood glucose concentration, wait time for a doctor's appointment etc.
- Although in practice we only work with number of finite precision, working with a continuous random variable often simplifies analysis through the use of calculus.
- Consider a uncountably infinite sample space S, and a associated r.v. that maps to the entire real line ℝ, i.e. x(•) : S → ℝ.
- In this case, probabilities of events of S cannot be determined from probabilities to the elementary events.

Continuous Random Variables

- ► A simple way to assign probability to events in S is to start with events of the form x ≤ x. Probabilities of all other events of interest can be obtained from these probabilities P (x ≤ x).

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}(x) \triangleq P(\mathbf{x} \le x), \quad x \in (-\infty, \infty)$$

The continuous analogue of the PMF in the discrete r.v. case is the probability density function (PDF) of the r.v. x,

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) \triangleq \frac{d}{dx} F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) \implies F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(l\right) dl$$

For small values of δx , $f_{\mathbf{x}}(x_0) \, \delta x$ is the probability \mathbf{x} assuming values between x_0 and $x_0 + \delta x$.

$$P(x_0 \le \mathbf{x} \le x_0 + \delta x) = f_{\mathbf{x}}(x_0) \,\delta x$$

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Properties of the prob. distribution function

- Prob. distribution functions of discrete r.v.s have step discontinuities, while that of continuous r.v.s are continuous.
- Discrete r.v.s can be represented using a prob. density function with impulse functions. This would be consistent with the step discontinuities in the prob. distribution function.

Properties of the prob. distribution function

- $\blacktriangleright \ F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(-\infty\right)=0 \text{ and } F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(\infty\right)=1.$

$$\blacktriangleright P(\mathbf{x} > x) = 1 - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x)$$

 $P(x_1 < \mathbf{x} \le x_2) = F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1)$

$$\blacktriangleright P(\mathbf{x} = x) = F_{\mathbf{x}}(x) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x^{-})$$

• $P(x_1 \le \mathbf{x} \le x_2) = F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1^-)$

Uniform Distribution

This is encoutnered when sampling from a continuous region with all points in the region being equally likely.

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;a,b\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \le x \le b\\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;a,b\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a\\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a \le x \le b\\ 1 & x > b \end{cases}$$



Gaussian Distribution

- Most common distribution encountered in probability and statitics.
- Central limit theorem states that the sum a large number of independent random variables tends to a Gaussian.

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;\mu,\sigma^{2}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}} = \mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^{2}\right), \quad F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;a,b\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{(u-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}} du$$



Exponential Distribution

This is encountered when dealing with problems of waiting times between events, where the occurance of an event in two non-overlapping time windows is independent.

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;\lambda\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0\\ \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0 \end{cases}, \quad F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x;\lambda\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0\\ 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$



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Conditional Probability Distributions and Densities

We can extend the idea of conditional probability can be extended to probability distributions. Consider a random variable \mathbf{x} , and some event A that has occured. We can determine the **conditional probability distribution** as the following,

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}(x|A) \triangleq P(\mathbf{x} \le x|A) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x} \le x, A)}{P(A)}, \ P(A) = 0$$

where, $P(\mathbf{x} \le x, A)$ is the probability of the intersection of the events $\mathbf{x} \le x$ and A. We can similarly define the **conditional probability density function**,

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x|A\right) \triangleq \frac{dF_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right)}{dx} = P\left(\mathbf{x} \le x|A\right) = \frac{P\left(\mathbf{x} \le x, A\right)}{P\left(A\right)}, \ P\left(A\right) = 0$$

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Conditional Probability Distributions and Densities





Total Probability Theorem

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▶ If B is the event $\mathbf{x} \leq x$, then we have,

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} F_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x|A_{i}\right) P\left(A_{i}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{\mathbf{x}}\left(x|A_{i}\right) P\left(A_{i}\right)$$

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A random binary signal $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}$ is transmitted through a additive Gaussian noisy channel whose noise properties depend on the voltage being transmitted $(P(\mathbf{x} = 1) = p)$. The received signal amplitude at each ppint in time is a random varible \mathbf{r} , $\begin{cases} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_1^2), & x = 0V\\ \mathcal{N}(1, \sigma_2^2), & x = 1V \end{cases}$. Find the expression for $f_{\mathbf{r}}(r)$.

Baye's Theorem

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

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Baye's Theorem

Baye's theorem:
$$P\left(A|B\right) = P\left(B|A\right)\frac{P\left(A\right)}{P\left(B\right)}$$

▶ If B is the event $x_1 < \mathbf{x} \leq x_2$, then we have,

$$P(A | x_1 < \mathbf{x} \le x_2) = \frac{F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2 | A) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1 | A)}{F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1)} P(A)$$

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$$P(A \mid x_1 < \mathbf{x} \le x_2) = \frac{F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2 \mid A) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1 \mid A)}{F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_2) - F_{\mathbf{x}}(x_1)} P(A)$$

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• Can we find out $P(A | \mathbf{x} = x)$?

$$P(A \mid \mathbf{x} = x) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} P(A \mid x < \mathbf{x} \le x + \Delta x) = \frac{f_{\mathbf{x}}(x \mid A)}{f_{\mathbf{x}}(x)} P(A)$$

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Baye's Theorem

$$P(\mathbf{x} = 1 | \mathbf{r} = 0.2) =?$$

$$P(\mathbf{x} = 1 | \mathbf{r} = 0.4) =?$$

$$P(\mathbf{x} = 1 | \mathbf{r} = 0.6) =?$$

