

ENCS 6161

Probability and Random Processes

Fall 2004

X 1st. lecture, Sept. 8, 2004

- Course outline.
- Course Objective.

Applications of Probability & Random Processes:

- Digital Communications.
 - Communication Networks.
 - Signal Processing
 - Reliability
- relative frequency \rightarrow Axiomatic approach
- Assume that we repeat a random experiment with K possible outcomes n times and record the number of times $k=1, 2, \dots, K$ the outcome ~~occurred~~ occurs as $N_k(n)$ then frequency of occurrence of k is $\frac{N_k(n)}{n}$. We expect that as the number of trials, n , tends to ∞ , the ratio $\frac{N_k(n)}{n} \rightarrow P_k$ $k=1, \dots, N$ where P_k is

the probability of k -th outcome. Note that $p_k \leq 1$.

Note that for two disjoint outcomes k and l , we

have $N_{k,l}(n) = N_k(n) + N_l(n)$ and, therefore,

$$P_{k,l} = P_k + P_l.$$

Also, we have $\sum_{k=1}^K N_k(n) = n$. So,

$$\sum_{k=1}^K P_k = 1.$$

An approach, equivalent to the above, but more abstract is formulated based on the construction of the probabilistic model using a few axioms. This approach is called axiomatic probability theory.

The basic building blocks of the axiomatic probability are : S

- 1) A sample set: A set of outcomes (basic, disjoint possible results of a random experiment,
- 2) A set of subsets of S each called an event.

3) A probability measure: Assigning a value to each event.

examples of the sample space:

$S = \{H, T\}$ in tossing a coin

$S = \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ in throwing a dice.

$S = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (6, 6)\}$ in throwing two ~~dice~~ die.

$S = \{2, 3, 4, \dots, 12\}$ the sum of two numbers when throwing two die.

$S = \{x : -V_p \leq x \leq V_p\}$ when sampling a voltage source with peak value V_p .

The sample space can be either finite, countable or uncountable.

Events: Each subset $A \subseteq S$ constitutes an event take $S = \{1, \dots, 6\}$

$A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ is the event of having an odd number on the dice $A = S = \{1, \dots, 6\}$ is the sure event and $A = \emptyset = \{\}$ is the null event.

similarly for $S = \{x : -V_p \leq x \leq V_p\}$

$A = \{x : 0 \leq x \leq V_p\}$ is the event that the sampled

value is positive and $A = \{x : -\frac{V_p}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{V_p}{2}\}$

is the event that the voltage is between $-\frac{V_p}{2}$ and

$$+\frac{V_p}{2}.$$

A probability measure is a set function

$P(\cdot)$ with the following properties:

1) $P(A) \geq 0$

2) $P(S) = 1$ equivalently $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
(we will show this)

3) if $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

3') if A_1, A_2, \dots are events such that $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$

for all $i \neq j$ then

$$P\left[\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k)$$

Corollary 1: $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

because $A^c \cap A = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(A^c \cup A) = P(A^c) + P(A)$

$$P(A^c \cup A) = P(S) = 1 \cdot \text{~~one~~}$$

so, $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$.

Corollary 2: $P(A) \leq 1 \quad \forall A$

$$P(A) = 1 - P(A^c) \leq 1 \quad \text{since } P(A^c) \geq 0.$$

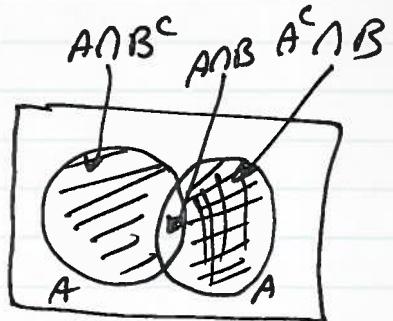
Corollary 3: $P(\emptyset) = 0$

$$P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\emptyset^c) = 1 - P(S) = 0$$

Corollary 4: if A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually exclusive events, i.e., $\cancel{A_i \cap A_j} = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j$

then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n P(A_k)$$



Corollary 5:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

we have $A \cup B = (A \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cap B) \cup (A \cap B)$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A \cap B^c) + P(A^c \cap B) + P(A \cap B)$$

Similarly:

$$P(A) = P(A \cap B^c) + P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(B) = P(A^c \cap B) + P(A \cap B)$$

so,

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$$

Union bound: ~~Boole's Inequality~~

$$P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

Combinatorics:

1) Permutation: Assume that we have n objects.

In how many ways can we arrange them?

the first one, we can place it in any n locations, the second in any remaining locations

etc. So $P_n = n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1 = n!$

Selection

2) Combination with order: In how many ways
we can select k objects from $n \geq k$ objects?

For the 1st object we have n choices, for the

Second $n-1, \dots$ for the k th $n-k+1$

$$\text{So } P_k^{(n)} = n \times (n-1) \times \dots \times (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

3) Combination (selection without order):

In how many ways we can select k objects
from $n \geq k$ objects (here order is not our concern)

Assume this number is C_k^n . That is, there are C_k^n

ways in which k objects can be selected from

a set of n objects. Each ^{one} of these C_k^n sets can be arranged in $k!$ ways so :

$k! C_k^n$ is the total number of ways k objects from a set of size n can be formed.

Or,

$$k! C_k^n = P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

So

$$C_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)! k!} = \binom{n}{k}$$

This is called n -choose- k .

Example: Find the number of ways, one can select 2 objects from $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$$\binom{5}{2} = \frac{5!}{2!3!} = 10$$

DTMF Signalling

Conditional Probability

Take two events A and B

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A] P[B|A]$$

i.e., probability of A and B occurring is the probability of A occurring times the probability of B occurring given A has occurred.

$P(B|A)$ is called the conditional probability of B given A:

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

Similarly :

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

or

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

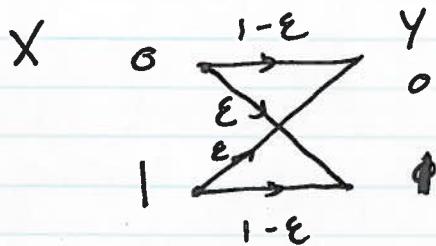
so,

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

This is called the Bayes Rule.

Example:

Consider a communication channel transmitting binary data with probability of error ϵ . Assume that bits at its input have $P(0) = P$ and $P(1) = 1 - P$.



We have :

$$P(X=0, Y=0) = P(0,0) = P(1-\epsilon)$$

$$P(X=0, Y=1) = PE$$

$$P(X=1, Y=0) = (1-P)\epsilon$$

$$P(X=1, Y=1) = (1-P)(1-\epsilon)$$

$$P(X=0|Y=0) = \frac{P(X=0)P(Y=0|X=0)}{P(Y=0)}$$

$$= \frac{P(1-\epsilon)}{P(1-\epsilon)+(1-P)\epsilon}$$

$$P(X=1|Y=0) = \frac{P(X=1)P(Y=0|X=1)}{P(Y=0)} = \frac{(1-P)\epsilon}{P(1-\epsilon)+(1-P)\epsilon}$$

Upon observing y , we form the a posteriori Probabilities $P(X=0|Y=y)$ and $P(X=1|Y=y)$ for $y = y \in \{0, 1\}$ and decide in favour of the one being more probable (MAP detection). For $y=0$ for example, we ~~not~~ decide $X=0$ if

$$P(X=0|Y=0) > P(X=1|Y=0)$$

or

$$P(X=0)P(Y=0|X=0) > P(X=1)P(Y=0|X=1)$$

or $p(1-\varepsilon) > (1-p)\varepsilon$ else, we decide $X=1$
 $(p > \varepsilon \rightarrow X=0)$

For $y=1$, we decide $X=0$ if

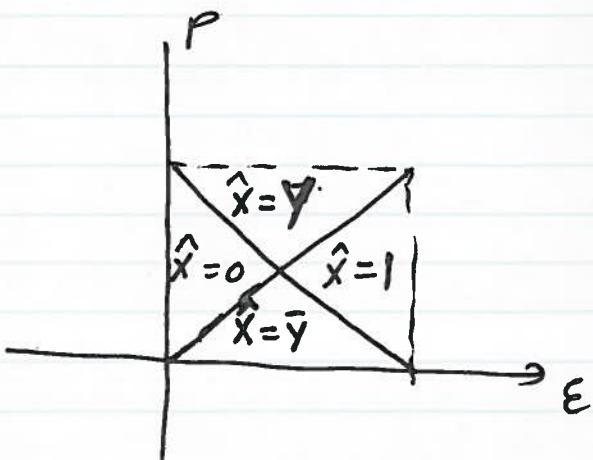
$$P(X=0)P(Y=1|X=0) > P(X=1)P(Y=1|X=1)$$

or

$$p\varepsilon > (1-p)(1-\varepsilon) \text{ else, we decide } X=1$$

$$[(p > 1 - \varepsilon) \rightarrow X=0]$$

or
 $1-p < \varepsilon$



Example (Bayes Rule)

Assume that you are given the following information :

- 30% of the adults in a given city are smokers.
- Smokers die of lung cancer at a rate of 1 in 100,000.
- Mortality amongst non-smokers (of lung cancer) is 1 in 100 millions.

A person dies of lung cancer. You are asked to decide whether he has been a smoker or not.

a) What is your answer?

b) What is the probability that you are wrong?

$$P(S) = 0.3 \quad P(\bar{S}) = 0.7$$

$$P(L.C. | S) = 10^{-5} \quad P(L.C. | \bar{S}) = 10^{-8}$$

$$P(S | L.C.) = \frac{P(S) P(L.C. | S)}{P(L.C.)} = \frac{0.3 \times 10^{-5}}{0.3 \times 10^{-5} + 0.7 \times 10^{-8}}$$

$$P(S | L.C.) = 0.9977 \text{ and } P(\bar{S} | L.C.) = 0.0023$$

a) He was a smoker. b) $P_e = 2.3 \times 10^{-3}$

independence

two events A and B are said to be independent if knowing that B has occurred does not alter the probability of A happening i.e.,

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

For two independent events A and B, we have

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

For independent events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \dots \cap A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

For In general, when events are not necessarily independent

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_1, \dots, A_n) &= P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)P(A_3|A_1, A_2) \dots P(A_n|A_1, \\ &\quad \dots, A_{n-1}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i|A_1, \dots, A_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$