

Post Midsem Class

→ Motivation for independence of 2 events.

→ Suppose you have 2 events:-

$$\text{Case 1: } P(B) = 0 \Rightarrow P(A \cap B) = 0$$

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

$$\text{Case 2: } P(B) > 0$$

- Here, A is independent of B should mean occurrence/non occurrence of B should not affect the occurrence of event A $\Rightarrow P(A|B) = P(A)$

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

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

→ Fix $B_0 \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ s.t $P(B_0) > 0$.

→ $P_{B_0}: \mathcal{P}(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:
 ~~$P_{B_0}(A) = P(A|B_0)$~~ $\forall A \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$

Theorem:- P_{B_0} is a probability on Ω

$$\text{clearly } \forall A \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega), P_{B_0}(A) = \frac{P(A \cap B_0)}{P(B_0)} > 0$$

\Rightarrow axiom ① is fulfilled

$$P_{B_0}(\Omega) = \frac{P(\Omega \cap B_0)}{P(B_0)} = \frac{P(B_0)}{P(B_0)} = 1 \quad [\because \exists P(B_0) > 0]$$

\Rightarrow axiom ② is fulfilled.

We take pairwise disjoint events $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$

$$P_{B_0}(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \mid B_0\right)$$

$$= \frac{P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (A_i \cap B_0)\right)}{P(B_0)}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (P(A_i \cap B_0))}{P(B_0)}$$

$\because A_i$ are pairwise disjoint,
so are $A_i \cap B_0$'s.

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{P(A_i \cap B_0)}{P(B_0)}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i \mid B_0)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P_{B_0}(A_i) \Rightarrow \text{Axiom ③ is also verified}$$

Hence P_{B_0} is a Probability.

- All other properties of a probability are also inherited by P_{B_0}

Let A, B, C be events, $P(B \cap C) > 0$

$\Rightarrow P(A \mid B \cap C)$ can also be written as $P(A \mid B, C)$

Theorem:- $P(A \mid B, C) = \frac{P(A \cap B \mid C)}{P(B \mid C)}$

"Probability of an event can be conditioned further."

Proof:- $\frac{P(A \cap B \mid C)}{P(B \mid C)} = \frac{P(A \cap B \cap C)}{\frac{P(C)}{P(B \cap C)}} = \frac{P(A \cap (B \cap C))}{P(B \cap C)} = P(A \mid B \cap C) = LHS$

$\therefore P(C) \neq 0$

→ If A_1, A_2, A_3 are 3 independent events,

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2) \cdot P(A_3)$$

→ If they are not independent

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2 | A_1) \cdot P(A_3 | A_1, A_2) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chain rule} \\ \text{of Prob} \end{array}$$

$$\text{if } P(A_1 \cap A_2) > 0$$

Theorem (Chain Rule of Probability)

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are events such that $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}) > 0$,

$$\text{then } P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2 | A_1) \dots P(A_n | A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_{n-1})$$

Proof:-

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &:= \frac{P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2 | A_1)}{P(A_1)} \cdot \frac{P(A_3 | A_1 \cap A_2)}{P(A_2 | A_1)} \dots / \frac{P(A_n | A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})}{P(A_1 \cap A_2 \dots \cap A_{n-1})} \\ &= P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \\ &= \text{LHS} \end{aligned}$$

→ Composite Random Experiments:-

- It is a random experiment with two or more stages such that the outcome in the second stage depends on the outcome of the first stage and so on

Example:- (1) SRSWOR

(2) Polya's Urn Scheme:- Fix $b, r, c \in \mathbb{N}$

'b' black balls
'r' red balls

all balls are indistinguishable except by color.

- i) Choose a ball at random from the urn, note its colour and put it back
 ii) Add 'c' balls of the same colour into the urn.
 → Run it under a for loop while loop.

Events R_i, B_i :- $R_i := i^{\text{th}}$ ball is red
 $B_i := i^{\text{th}}$ ball is black

$E :=$ exactly 1 of 3 balls drawn is red.

$$E = (R_1 \cap B_2 \cap B_3) \cup (B_1 \cap R_2 \cap B_3) \cup (B_1 \cap B_2 \cap R_3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(R_1 \cap B_2 \cap B_3) &= P(R_1) \cdot P(B_2 | R_1) \cdot P(B_3 | R_1, B_2) \\ &= \frac{r}{r+b} \cdot \frac{b}{r+b+c} \cdot \frac{b+c}{r+b+2c} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(B_1 \cap R_2 \cap B_3) = \frac{b}{r+b} \cdot \frac{r}{b+r+c} \cdot \frac{b+c}{r+b+2c}$$

$$P(B_1 \cap B_2 \cap R_3) = \frac{b}{r+b} \cdot \frac{b+c}{r+b+c} \cdot \frac{r}{r+b+2c}$$

$$\therefore P(E) = \frac{3(rb(b+c))}{(r+b)(r+b+c)(r+b+2c)}$$

→ Generalisation for 'n' stages :- $(n \geq 2)$

$$n_r + n_b = n$$

↳ no. of draws

$P(E)$ where $E :=$ nr many red balls are drawn.

$$P(E) = {}^n C_{n_r} \frac{\frac{r}{r+b} \cdot \frac{(r+c)}{r+b+c} \cdot \frac{(r+(c-1))}{r+b+2c} \cdots \frac{(r+(n_r-1)c)}{r+b+(n_r-1)c}}{\frac{(r+b)(r+b+c) \cdots (r+b+(n_r-1)c)}{(r+b+2c)(r+b+3c) \cdots (r+b+(n_r-1)c)}}$$

[Both n_r, n_b non zero]

→ Case 2 ($n_b=0, n_r=n$)

$$P(E) = \frac{1 \times (r)(r+c) \dots (r+(n-1)c)}{(r+b)(r+b+c) \dots (r+b+(n-1)c)}$$

[replace r 's in numerator by b 's to get case 3 ($n_b=n, n_r=0$)]

Back to Example ① :- SRSWOR

$$\Omega = \{(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k) \text{ Each } i_j \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}, i_j \text{ are all distinct}\}$$

$$|\Omega| = N(N-1)(N-2) \dots (N-k+1)$$

Fix i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k st $i_j \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$

Let $E = \{(l_1, l_2, l_3, \dots, l_N)\}$

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \frac{1}{(N-1)} \cdot \frac{1}{(N-2)} \dots \frac{1}{(N-k+1)} = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$$

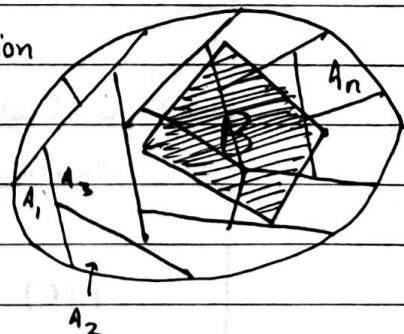
LAW OF TOTAL PROBABILITY

Def :- Events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n form a partition of Ω if

(i) A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are pairwise disjoint

(ii) A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are exhaustive,

$$\text{i.e., } \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \Omega$$



[Applies to a countably infinite no. of events]

Theorem:-

- Let Ω be a ctable sample space, and P be a probability on it. Suppose the events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n form a partition of Ω . Then for any event B , we have

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) P(B|A_i) \quad [\text{Law of total prob.}]$$

proof:- $B = B \cap \Omega = B \cap \left[\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right]$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^n B \cap A_i$$

Clearly, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are pairwise disjoint
 \Rightarrow So are $B \cap A_1, B \cap A_2, \dots, B \cap A_n$

\therefore By finite additivity,

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B \cap A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \cdot P(B|A_i)$$

Example:-

\rightarrow 3 chests of drawers with 2 drawers each

$$P(G_1) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} + 0$$

(G)	X	(G)	
(G)			

$$= \underline{\underline{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

$$* P(C_2 | G_1) = \frac{1/6}{1/2} = \frac{1}{3} \quad [\text{Bayes' theorem exercise}]$$

BAYES' THEOREM

- Suppose Ω is a ctable sample space and P is a probability on it. A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n form a partition of Ω st $P(A_i) > 0$ for each i .
- Let B be an event st $P(B) > 0$. Then for each i we have

$$P(A_i | B) = \frac{P(A_i) P(B|A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n P(A_j) P(B|A_j)}$$

Remark:- it also has a version for countable partitions of Ω .

proof:- Fix ' i ' $\in \{1, \dots, n\}$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_i | B) &= \frac{P(B \cap A_i)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(A_i) \cdot P(B | A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n P(A_j) \cdot P(B | A_j)} \quad [\text{from law of Total prob}] \end{aligned}$$

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Eg:- 5% of a population gets a rare disease

false positive :- 1% false negative :- 2%

If test shows positive, what is the prob. that the person actually has the disease

D :- person has disease T^+ :- Test +ve T^- :- Test -ve

$$\begin{aligned} P(D | T^+) &= \frac{P(D) P(T^+ | D)}{P(D) P(T^+ | D) + P(ND) P(T^+ | ND)} = \frac{5\% \times 98\%}{5\% \times 98\% + 95\% \times 1\%} \\ &= \frac{49\%}{99.98\%} = \frac{49}{117} = 52\% \end{aligned}$$

RANDOM VARIABLES

→ A variable, whose value depends on chance.

Motivating Example:-

- A coin is tossed thrice.

- Let $X = \text{no. of heads out of 3 tosses}$.

outcome	HHH	HHT	HTH	THH	HTT	THT	HTT	TTT
value of X	3	2	2	2	1	1	0	0

value of X	0	1	2	3
probability	$1/8$	$3/8$	$3/8$	$1/8$

Definition:-

- Suppose Ω is a countable sample space and P is a probability on it. A discrete random variable is a map

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

→ Since Ω is countable, so is Range(X), so we call it a discrete r.v.

→ $P[X=x]$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $= \{w \in \Omega : X(w) = x\} \in P(\Omega)$
 \Rightarrow It is enough to compute $P[X=x]$ for each $x \in \text{Range}(X)$

Probability Mass Function:-

- $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ given by $f_X(x) = P[X=x], x \in \mathbb{R}$

- Clearly if $x \notin \text{Range}(X)$, then $f_X(x) = 0$.

Properties of pmf :-

0. $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : p_x(x) > 0\}$ is a countable subset of \mathbb{R} (Range(x))
1. $p_x(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$
2. $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p_x(x) = 1$

Theorem:- $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the pmf of some discrete random variable ~~if and only if it satisfies~~ if and only if it satisfies :-

- ① $p_x(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$
- ② $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : p(x) > 0\}$ is a countable subset of \mathbb{R}
- ③ $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p(x) = 1$

proof:- (only if) part is done

(if part) :- ~~assume~~ let A be a non-empty subset of \mathbb{R} . If no such

Define $\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}, p_x(x) > 0\}$

- for each $x_0 \in \Omega$, let $P(\{x_0\}) = p(x_0)$

for any $A \subseteq \Omega \Rightarrow P(A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x)$

$$\textcircled{3} \Rightarrow P(\Omega) = 1$$

P is a prob on Ω

Define a map $x : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$x(x) = x \quad \forall x \in \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

$\forall x_0 \in \Omega \quad P(x = x_0) = 0$ by $\textcircled{2}$

$\forall x_0 \in \Omega \quad P(x = x_0) = p(x_0)$

Hence proved.

Exercise:-

- Suppose you have an urn with ' r ' red balls, ' b ' black balls, ' g ' green balls. All balls of same color are identical. Sample uniformly from this urn with replacement. Let N be the minimum no. of balls needed to see balls of all colors. Find pmf of N .

Solⁿ :- range(N) = {3,4,5,.....,}

Cumulative Distribution Function:-

— The CDF of a random variable X is a function

$$F_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1] \text{ given by}$$

$$F_X(u) = P[X \leq u] \quad u \in \mathbb{R}$$

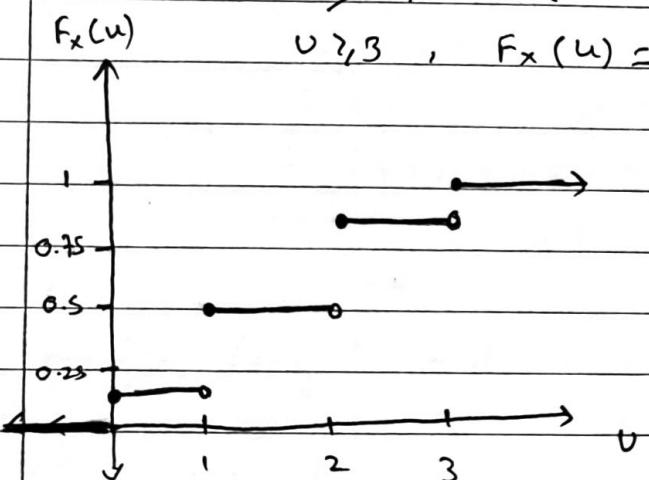
— Computing CDF from the "3 coins tossed example" :-

$$\text{If } u < 0, F_X(u) = P[X \leq u] = 0$$

$$1 > u \geq 0, F_X(u) = F_X(0) = P[X \leq 0] = 1/8$$

$$2 > u \geq 1, F_X(u) = 1/2$$

$$3 > u \geq 2, F_X(u) = 7/8$$



Observation from graph of CDF:-

1) $F_X(u)$ is right continuous, i.e., $\forall u_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow u_0^+} F_X(y) = F_X(u_0)$$

2) F_X is non-decreasing

3) It is a step function that jumps exactly at all ~~all~~ Range $u \in \text{Range}(X)$.

4) Length of jump at $x = u$ is $P[X = u] = p_X(u)$

5) $\lim_{u \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(u) = 0, \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} F_X(u) = 1$

① ②
Remark:- properties ⑤ are enjoyed by ~~any~~ CDF of any rv.
In fact, they characterise the cdf. i.e., [any $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
if it fulfills ①, ②, ⑤, is the cdf of an rv.]

2. Properties ③, ④ are enjoyed by cdf of any discrete rv.

Examples and Families of Discrete rv's :-

a) Defn :- A discrete rv X is called degenerate at $C \in \mathbb{R}$ if
Degenerate $P[X = C] = 1$ RV.

Notation $X \equiv C$

$$P_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x = C \\ 0, & x \neq C \end{cases}$$

b) Bernoulli Distribution:-

- Fix $p \in (0, 1)$

- A discrete rv X is said to follow Bernoulli distribution with parameter p if $\text{Range}(X) = \{0, 1\}$ and $P[X=1] = p$,
 $P[X=0] = 1-p \in (0, 1)$

Notation $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

$$P_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p, & x=0 \\ p, & x=1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Indicator Random Variables:-

Ω is a ctble sample space

$A \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is an event

$$I_A : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad I_A(w) = \begin{cases} 0, & w \notin A \\ 1, & w \in A \end{cases}$$

$$P[I_A = 1] = P(A)$$

Case 1) :- $P(A) = 0, P[I_A = 0] = 1$

Case 2) :- $P(A) = 1, P[I_A = 1] = 1$

Case 3) :- $P(A) \in (0, 1), I_A \sim \text{ber}[P(A)]$

$$P[I_A = 1] = P(A)$$

$$P[I_A = 0] = 1 - P(A)$$

Bernoulli Trials :-

- Trials with two possible outcomes :- Success (S), Failure (F)
- For the next ③ families of d.r.v, we shall use repeated and independent Bernoulli trials.
- $P(S) = p \in (0, 1)$ and it stays constant [Assumption]

2. Binomial Distribution :-

- Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$

- Let X = no. of successes out of n independent Bernoulli trials.

$$\text{range}(X) = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Take $k \in \text{Range}(X) = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$P[X = k] = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}, k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

- ' X ', a d.r.v, follows binomial distribution with parameters (n, p) if X has pmf

$$P_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} & \text{if } x \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notation:- $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

→ if $n=1$, $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(1, p) \Leftrightarrow X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$$

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Suppose $X = \text{No. of Successes}$ out of n Bernoulli Trials

then $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

Define r.v., $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ as follows

$$x_1 = I(\text{1st trial is a success}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{1st trial success} \\ 0, & \text{2nd trial success} \end{cases}$$

x_n

Each $x_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

$$X = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots + x_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Each $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$

Ex. An mcq test has 20 q's, 4 choices-single correct type.

A student eliminates 1 incorrect answer from each q, then chooses at random from the rest 3 options. The student will get a scholarship if 18 q's are correctly answered. Find prob that student gets scholarship.

(3) Geometric Distribution:-

Suppose X denotes no. of ind Bernoulli trials

($P(S) = p \in (0,1)$) to get first success

$$\text{range}(X) = \{1, 2, \dots\}$$

$$k \in \mathbb{N} = \text{Range}(X)$$

$$\text{Then } P[X=k] = P[\underbrace{\text{FFF...F}}_{(k-1)} \text{S}] = pq^{k-1}, k \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow p_x(x) = \begin{cases} pq^{x-1}, & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Why is this a valid pmf?

$$\text{Clearly, } p_x(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Also, } \{x \in \mathbb{R} : p_x(x) > 0\} = \mathbb{N} \text{ which is countable}$$

$$\text{Finally, } \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p_x(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} pq^{x-1} = \sum p(1+q+q^2+\dots)$$

$$= p \cdot \frac{1}{1-q} \quad [\because |q| < 1]$$

$$= p \cdot \frac{1}{p} = 1$$

Definition:-

A discrete r.v X is said to follow geometric distribution with parameter $p \in (0,1)$ if its pmf is

$$p_x(x) = \begin{cases} pq^{x-1}, & x \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notation :- $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

Why is the $\text{Bin}(n, p)$ a pmf

$$p_x(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} & \text{if } x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

a valid pmf?

→ Clearly $p_x(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$\{\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, p_x(x) > 0\}$ is countable

$$\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p_x(x) = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} = 1$$

Remark: $Y \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ defined as no. of failures before the first

success

$$Y = x - 1 \Rightarrow \text{Range}(Y) \subset \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$$

pmf of (Y) is

$$p_y(y) = \begin{cases} pq^y, & y \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

④ Negative Binomial Distribution

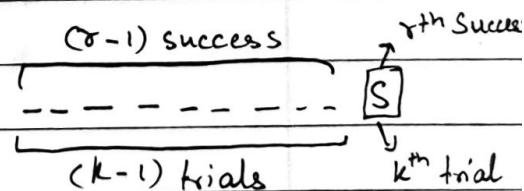
- Fix $r \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in (0, 1)$

Let x be no. of independent trials needed to get the r th success

$$\text{Range}(x) = \{r, r+1, r+2, \dots\}$$

$$P(S) = \text{Bin}(x, p)$$

$$\text{Take } k \in \{r, r+1, \dots\}$$



$(x = k)$ can happen in $\binom{k-1}{r-1}$ ways which are disjoint.

Each way corresponds to an arrangement of $(r-1)$ S's and $(k-r)$ failures.

prob of each such arrangement is $p^r q^{k-r}$

∴ By finite additivity, $P(X=k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r q^{k-r}$, $k > r$

Definition

a discrete r.v is said to follow negative binomial distribution with parameter $r \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \in (0,1)$, if its pmf is,

$$p_x(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r q^{x-r}, & x \in \{r, r+1, \dots\} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notation $X \sim NB(r, p)$

Remark:- In some books, the negative binomial r.v counts the no. of failures before the r^{th} success. Then,

$$Y = X - r \Rightarrow \text{Range}(Y) = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$$

$$p_y(y) = \begin{cases} \binom{y+r}{r} p^r q^y, & y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Bernoulli

$$X \sim Ber(p) \Leftrightarrow X \sim Bin(1, p)$$

Binomial

$$S \sim Bin(n, p) \Leftrightarrow S = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad X_i \sim Ber(p)$$

Geometric

$$X \sim Geo(p) \Leftrightarrow X \sim NB(1, p)$$

Negative Binomial

If $Z \sim NB(r, p)$ then

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^r X_i \text{ where}$$

each $X_i \sim Geo(p)$

Suppose $r=2$, Z takes value 9 with following outcomes,

FFFS FFFF

x_1 (4) x_2 (5)

Clearly, $Z = x_1 + x_2 = 9$

x_1 = No. of ind. Bernoulli trials for 1st S

x_2 = No. of ind. Bernoulli trials for 2nd S

$$Z = x_1 + x_2$$

$$x_i \sim \text{Geo}(p)$$

$$\Rightarrow X = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \text{ where each } x_i \sim \text{Geo}(p)$$

$$E[X] = npq = (1-p)q$$

$$V[X] = npq(1-p) = q$$

$$E[X] = np$$

$$V[X] = npq(1-p) = q$$

$$E[X^2] = np + npq(1-p) = np + q$$

$$V[X^2] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = np + q - n^2p^2$$

$$E[X^3] = np + npq(1-p) + npq(1-p)^2 = np + 3q$$

$$V[X^3] = E[X^3] - (E[X])^3 = np + 3q - n^3p^3$$

→ Sample space on which $X \sim NB(r, p)$ is defined.

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{n,r} \Omega_{n,r} \quad \text{where } n \geq r,$$

$$\Omega_{n,r} = \{(o_1, o_2, \dots, o_n) \mid \text{Each } o_i \in \{S, F\}, \\ o_n = S, \sum_{i=1}^n I(o_i = S) = r\}$$

$$|\Omega_{n,r}| = \binom{n}{r}$$

Clearly, $\omega_{n,r+1}, \omega_{n,r+2}, \dots$ are pairwise disjoint

→ Define p on Ω , $\omega \in \Omega$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_p \text{ belongs to only one of the } \Omega_i \text{'s for } i \geq r, \\ \Rightarrow P(\{\omega\}) = p^r q^{n-r}$$

This defines a prob because, $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\{\omega\}) = 1$

$$\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\{\omega\}) = \sum_{n,r} \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p^r q^{n-r} \\ = \sum_{n,r} \binom{n}{r} p^r q^{n-r} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} r, & \text{if } \omega \in \Omega_r \\ r+1, & \text{if } \omega \in \Omega_{r+1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{cases}$$

$$\text{i.e., } X(\omega) = n \quad \forall n \geq r$$

One can easily check that,

$X \sim NB(r, p)$ by computing the pmf of X .

⑤ Uniform Distribution on a finite set

→ Suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is a finite set

$$\text{Let } A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} \Rightarrow |A| = n$$

Defn :- A rv X is said to follow uniform distribution on the set A , if X has pmf.

$$P_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1/n & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This is clearly a valid pmf

Notation :- $X \sim \text{Unif}(A)$

An Important special case :-

$$A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

$$\Rightarrow X \sim \text{Unif}\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

↳ Discrete Uniform Distribution.

⑥ Hypergeometric Distribution :-

- Fix $N, M, n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n \leq N$ and $0 \leq M \leq N$

- Suppose there are N items out of which $\underbrace{M}_{\text{Identical}}$ are of type 1, $N-M$ are of type 2.

- We select ' n ' items from this N .

Let $X = \text{no. of items of Type 1 in the } n \text{ selected items.}$

→ Range(X) = ?

$$\max(0, n-N+M) \leq X \leq \min(n, M)$$

$$P(X=k) = \frac{\binom{n}{k} \binom{N-M}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

$$\text{Range}(X) = \left\{ k \in \mathbb{Z}, \max\{0, n-N+M\} \leq k \leq \min\{n, M\} \right\}$$

Definition :-

An rv X is said to follow hypergeometric distribution with parameter N, M, n , if it has prob

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\binom{M}{x} \binom{N-M}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}, & \text{if } x \in \text{Range}(X) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex:- Check that this is a valid prob

Notation:- $X \sim \text{Hyp}(N, M, n)$

Application:- capture - recapture method :-

- Suppose a pond has N fishes

Goal :- estimate N .

Method :-

- Catch M fish and mark them
- Put them back in the pond
- Catch 'n' of them. Suppose X of them are marked.

$$\hat{N} = \frac{nM}{X}$$

→ Proportion of marked fish in the population $= \frac{M}{N}$

If the sample is good: $\frac{m}{n} \approx \frac{M}{N}$

7. Poisson Distribution:-

- An rv X is said to follow Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda \in (0, \infty)$ if its pmf is

$$p_X(x) = P(X=x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}, & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Q. Where does it arise?

→ Suppose ~~that~~ $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ st n is very large and p is very small such that $np \approx \lambda (\in (0, \infty))$. Then X approximately follows Poisson distribution with parameter λ .

Eg :- No. of surviving bacteria in a bacterial colony, no. of road accidents in a country over a period of time are ~~both~~ modeled using Poisson distribution.

MEAN / EXPECTATION / Expected value.

"Avg value" of $X = \sum (\text{value}) \cdot (\text{Prob})$
where X is the a discrete random variable.

Suppose X takes finitely many values say, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n with probabilities $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$. In other words, $\text{Range}(X) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ with $P[X = x_i] = p_i > 0$. Clearly $\sum p_i = 1$

In this case, X has a finite mean

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x p_x(x)$$

Now, suppose that $\text{Range}(X)$ is countably infinite. In this case, we shall look at the sums

$$\sum_{x>0} x p_x(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{x<0} x p_x(x)$$

Case 1:-

$$\text{if } \sum_{x>0} x p_x(x) < \infty, \text{ and } \sum_{x<0} (-x) p_x(x) < \infty$$

$\uparrow P$ $\uparrow N$

$\Rightarrow X$ has finite mean,

$$E(X) = \sum_{x>0} x p_x(x) + \sum_{x<0} (-x) p_x(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x p_x(x)$$

Note that,

$$\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |x| p_x(x) = \sum_{x>0} x p_x(x) + \sum_{x<0} (-x) p_x(x) < \infty$$

Conversely if $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |x| p_x(x) < \infty$ then $P < \infty, -N < \infty$

\rightarrow The series is absolutely convergent.

Case 2:-

$$P = \infty, N < \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x p_x(x) = P - N \Rightarrow \infty$$

~~X~~ does not have finite mean.

Case 3:- $P < \infty, N = \infty$

$$E(X) = P - N = -\infty - \infty$$

Case 4:- $P = \infty, N = \infty$

\Rightarrow In this case $E(X)$ is not defined.

Examples:-

$$\text{Q. } X = c \Rightarrow E(X) = cl = c$$

$$1. X \sim \text{Ber}(p) \Rightarrow E(X) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot q = p.$$

2. $X \sim \text{Unif}\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \bar{x}$$

3. $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=0}^n x p_x(x) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \cdot \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^n \frac{n!}{(x-1)! n!} p^x q^{n-x}$$

$$= \sum_{x=1}^n np \left[\frac{(n-1)!}{(x-1)!(n-x)!} \right] p^{x-1} q^{n-x}$$

$$= np(p+q)^{n-1}$$

$$= np \quad \text{=} \quad np$$

4. $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$

In this case, $E(X) = \sum_{x \in \text{N} \cup \{0\}} x p_x(x)$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

$$= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{(x-1)!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{(x-1)!}$$

$$= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda} = \lambda.$$

5. $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

- In this case,

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x p_x(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x p q^{x-1}$$

$$= p \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x q^{x-1}$$

$$= p \cdot \cancel{(1-q)}^{-2} = p \cdot \frac{1}{\cancel{q}^2} = \frac{1}{p}$$

6. $X \sim \text{NB}(\tau, p)$ Show that: $E(X) = \tau/p$

7. Suppose x is discrete r.v with pmf

$$p_x(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{6}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2}, & x \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$[\text{valid pmf as } \sum \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}]$$

$$\text{Here, } E(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x p_x(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x \cdot \frac{6}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{6}{\pi^2} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$$

$\Rightarrow X$ does not have a finite mean

Note:- If given $x \in \{1, -2, 3, -4, \dots\}$, $E(x) \neq \frac{6}{\pi^2} \log_2 2$

Discrete Random Vectors or Jointly distributed discrete random variables

→ We shall start with the bivariate case

→ Suppose X, Y are 2 (bivariate) discrete r.v.s, defined on the same countable sample space Ω with a prob P on it

This means that $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $Y: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are well defined

Therefore, combining these two functions, we think of a function

$\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by (X, Y) is called

$Z(\omega) \rightarrow (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \quad \omega \in \Omega$

a bivariate discrete random ~~variable~~ vector

Note:- Range of this map has to be countable as Ω is countable

Hence (X, Y) can take countably many values in \mathbb{R}^2 .

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Jointly Distributed Discrete r.v.s or

Discrete Random Vectors (bivariate case)

Two discrete r.v.s x and y defined on the same sample space Ω , which has a prob P on it.

$x: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, y: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Therefore we get a $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $\omega \rightarrow (x(\omega), y(\omega))$

This map is a bivariate discrete random vector.

Remarks

- ① Since X, Y are defined on the same sample space we can talk about their joint distribution function, joint pmf, we can add them, multiply them etc.
- ② As in case of discrete r.v.s, we shall forget the map $w \mapsto (X(w), Y(w))$ and think of (X, Y) as a two-dimensional vector whose value depends on chance.

We shall focus on computing probabilities of X and Y jointly taking various values.

Defⁿ:- For a bivariate r.v., the joint cdf or joint distribution function is defined as

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = P[X \leq x, Y \leq y], (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$F_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0,1]$ is a map

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= P[X \leq x] = P[\overbrace{(X \leq x, Y < \infty)}^{A_n}] \\ &= P[\lim_{y_n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{(X \leq x, Y \leq y_n)}_{A_n}] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[(X \leq x), (Y \leq y_n)] \end{aligned}$$

\because for any seq. $y_n \nearrow \infty$ we get

$$P[X \leq x] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[(X \leq x), (Y \leq y_n)] \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty, y_n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow P[X \leq x] = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} P[(X \leq x), (Y \leq y)] \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$F_X(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{X,Y}(x,y) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$F_Y(y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_{X,Y}(x,y) \quad \forall y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Ex:- Show that:-

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \quad P(X > a, Y > b) = 1 - F_x(a) - F_y(b) + F_{x,y}(a,b)$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \forall a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{with } a_1 < a_2 \text{ and } b_1 < b_2$$

$$P[a_1 < X \leq a_2, b_1 < Y \leq b_2]$$

$$= F_{x,y}(a_2, b_2) - F_{x,y}(a_1, b_2) - F_{x,y}(a_2, b_1) + F_{x,y}(a_1, b_1)$$

\textcircled{3} Using \textcircled{2} show that:-

$$F_{x,y}(a_2, b_2) - F_{x,y}(a_1, b_2) - F_{x,y}(a_2, b_1) + F_{x,y}(a_1, b_1) \geq 0$$

whenever $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $a_1 < a_2$, $b_1 < b_2$.

Going back to univariate case:-

CDF of any r.v X is non-decreasing i.e., $a < b \Rightarrow F_x(a) < F_x(b)$

$$\text{Proof:- } a < b \Rightarrow P(X \leq b) = P(X \leq a) + P(a < X \leq b)$$

$$\Rightarrow F_x(b) = F_x(a) + P(a < X \leq b) \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow F_x(b) \geq F_x(a)$$

Defn :- For a bivariate discrete random vector (X, Y) , the joint pmf is defined by $P_{x,y}(x, y) = P[X=x, Y=y], (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$[P_{x,y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]]$ is a map]

Clearly, Range $(X, Y) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : P_{x,y}(x, y) > 0\}$
 $\subseteq \text{Range}(X) \times \text{Range}(Y)$

Facts:- \textcircled{1} $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, p_x(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} P_{x,y}(x, y) = \sum_{y: P_{x,y}(x, y) > 0} P_{x,y}(x, y)$

\textcircled{2} $\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, p_y(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} P_{x,y}(x, y) = \sum_{x: P_{x,y}(x, y) > 0} P_{x,y}(x, y)$

Example:- Polya's Urn Scheme

→ We draw 3 balls in Polya's Urn Scheme

$x = \text{No. of red balls drawn in the first 2 draws}$

$y = \text{No. of black balls drawn in last 2 draws}$

$$\rightarrow \text{Range}(x) = \text{Range}(y) = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$\text{Range}(x, y) = \{0, 1, 2\} \times \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$P(x=2, y=2) = 0, P(x=0, y=0) = 0$$

Notation :- $B_i = i^{\text{th}}$ drawn ball is black

$R_i = i^{\text{th}}$ drawn ball is red

"c
 B_i^c

$$p_{x,y}(0,0) = 0$$

$$p_{x,y}(0,1) = P[B_1 \cap B_2 \cap R_3] = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$p_{x,y}(0,2) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$p_{x,y}(1,0) = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$p_{x,y}(1,1) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$p_{x,y}(1,2) = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$p_{x,y}(2,0) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$p_{x,y}(2,1) = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$p_{x,y}(2,2) = 0$$

$y \backslash x$	0	1	2	Marginal pmf of $y = p_y$
0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
1	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
2	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	0	$\frac{1}{3}$

Marginal pmf of $x = p_x$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
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Remarks :-

① $P_{x,y}$, P_y , are called marginal pmfs because they are written in the margin of the table.

② In general $\sum_{(x,y) \in \text{Range}(x,y)} P_{x,y}(x,y) = 0$

③ Note that $x, y \sim \text{Unif}\{0,1,2\}$

However x, y are not "independent".

How to compute $P[x \leq 1, y \leq 1]$?

$$P(x \leq 1, y \leq 1) = \sum_{x \leq 1, y \leq 1} P_{x,y}(x,y)$$

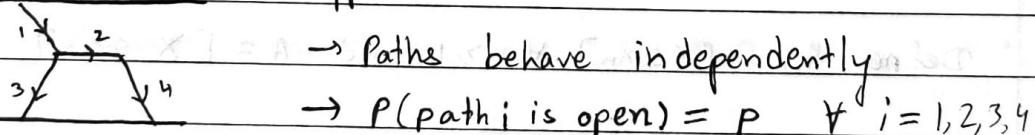
$$= P_{x,y}(0,0) + P_{x,y}(0,1) + P_{x,y}(1,0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

Drainage Network Model :-

27/10/23

Suppose:-



→ Paths behave independently

$$\rightarrow P(\text{path } i \text{ is open}) = p \quad \forall i = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

$X = \text{No. of open paths A to B}$

$Y = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if water reaches the soft rock} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

X \ Y	0	1	Marginal pmf P_x of X
0	q^4	0	q^4
1	$4pq^3$	0	$4pq^3$
2	$5p^2q^2$	p^2q^2	$6p^2q^2$
3	p^3q	$3p^3q$	$4p^3q$
4	0	p^4	p^4
Marginal pmf P_y of Y	$1-p^2-p^3+p^4$	$p^2+p^3-p^4$	1

Remark:- If X takes a higher value, Y is more likely to take a higher value, similarly for lower values. X, Y are "not independent"

Properties of univariate CDF :-

- Suppose X is a r.v and $F(x) = F_x(x) = P(X \leq x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is its cdf

- Then :- (i) F is non-decreasing :-

$$\text{Take } x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow [X \leq x_1] \subseteq [X \leq x_2]$$

$$P[X \leq x_1] \leq P[X \leq x_2]$$

$\Rightarrow F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$. This proves i

(ii) Take $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

To show :- F is right continuous $\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F(x) = F(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x)$

Enough to show $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = F(x_0)$ for any seq $x_n \rightarrow x_0$

Define $A_n = [X \leq x_n]$ $\forall n \geq 1$ and $A = [X \leq x_0]$ x_n is non increasing

Ex :- Check $A_n \downarrow A$ i.e., $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq A_3 \supseteq \dots \supseteq A_n$ (follows from

$$\text{and } \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n = A$$

$x_1 > x_2 > \dots > x_0$

If further, X is a discrete r.v, then F is a step function with jump discontinuities from the left side precisely at the points $x \in \text{Range}(X)$ and the size of the jump at such an $x = P[X=x]$

$A_n \downarrow A \Rightarrow P(A_n) \downarrow P(A)$ [continuity of prob from above]

$$P(x_n) = P(x \leq x_n) \Rightarrow P(x \leq x_0) = F(x_0) \Rightarrow \text{(ii) holds}$$

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

Enough to show:-

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = 1 \quad \forall x_n \nearrow \infty$$

Here $x_n \nearrow \infty$ means $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3 \dots$

and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ i.e.,

$$+ M > 0 \exists N = N(M) \in \mathbb{N} \text{ st}$$

$$n > N \Rightarrow x_n > M$$

Let $A_n = [x \leq x_n], n \in \mathbb{N}$ clearly $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots$ ~~so~~,
 $\Rightarrow A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq \dots$

Check:- $x_n \nearrow \infty \Rightarrow A_n \nearrow \mathcal{L} \text{ i.e. } \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n = \mathcal{L}$

PTO

$A_n \uparrow A \Rightarrow P(A_n) \uparrow P(A)$ (continuity of prob from below)

In this case, $A = \bigcup = \Rightarrow P(A_n) \uparrow P(\bigcup) = 1$

$$\Rightarrow F(x_n) = P[X \leq x_n] \geq 1$$

Thus proved (iii)

Remark:- We never used the fact that X is discrete.

Exercise :- Prove (iv). $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 0$

Exercise :- Suppose X is an rv and $F(x) = F_X(x) = P[X \leq x], x \in \mathbb{R}$

is its cdf then show that $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x) = P(X < x_0)$$

Hint :- Enough to show $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = P(X < x_0)$

for any sequence $x_n < x_0$ st $x_n \uparrow x_0$

In the discrete case :-

Case 1 :- If $x_0 \notin \text{Range}(X)$ then $P(X = x_0) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow P(X \leq x_0) = P(X < x_0) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x) = F(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F(x)$$

$$F(x_0)$$

If $x_0 \notin \text{Range}(X)$ then cdf F of X is actually continuous at x_0

Case 2 :- If $x_0 \in \text{Range}(X) \Rightarrow P(X = x_0) = p_X(x_0) > 0$

In this case :- $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x) = P(X < x_0) < P(X \leq x_0) = F(x_0)$

$$\left[\because P(X \leq x_0) = P(X < x_0) + P(X = x_0) > P(X < x_0) \right]$$

→ In particular, we have shown that F is not left. cont. at any $x_0 \in \text{Range}(X)$

- F is right cont. at $x_0 \Rightarrow$ it has jump discontinuity from left at each $x_0 \in \text{Range}(X)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Size of jump} &= F(x_0) - \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F(x) = P(X \leq x_0) - P(X < x_0) \\ &= P[X = x_0] \\ &= p_X(x_0) > 0\end{aligned}$$

Remarks:-

① Properties i-iv can be shown to hold for any rv X .

② If a function $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ satisfies (i), (iv) then it is the cdf of some rv X .

Back to random vectors:-

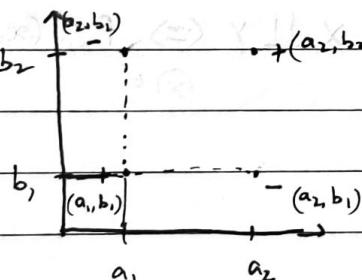
→ Suppose (X, Y) is a random vector and,

$$F(x, y) = F_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y), (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

is the joint cdf of X, Y , then F satisfies the following properties

①. ∀ $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ st $a_1 < a_2, b_1 < b_2$, we have,

$$F(a_2, b_2) = F(a_1, b_2) + F(a_2, b_1) - F(a_1, b_1) > 0$$



② $F(x, y)$ is right continuous in both coordinates, i.e., if $x^{(n)} \searrow x, y^{(n)} \searrow y$, then $F(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \nearrow F(x, y)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

③ $\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow \infty \\ y \rightarrow \infty}} F(x, y) = 1$ i.e. $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists M > 0$ st

$$x > M, y > M \Rightarrow |F(x, y) - 1| < \varepsilon$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) = 1, \text{ whenever } x_n \nearrow \infty, y_n \nearrow \infty$$

(iv) for each $y \in \mathbb{R}$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = 0$

for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$ $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 0$

Exercise:- Verify (i) \rightarrow (iv) for $F(x, y)$

$F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$ satisfying

Remark:- (It can be shown that $\text{(i)} \rightarrow \text{(iv)}$ is the joint ~~distribution~~ of some random vector (X, Y) .

Independence of two random variables:-

Suppose X and Y are r.v. defined on the same sample space $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,
 $Y: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with a prob P on it.

Defⁿ: We say that the r.v's X and Y are independent
 (and write $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$) if $\forall (u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $P(X \leq u, Y \leq v) = P(X \leq u) \cdot P(Y \leq v)$
 $= P(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$F_{X,Y}(u, v) = F_X(u) \cdot F_Y(v) \quad (**)$$

Theorem:- Let X, Y be two discrete r.v.'s defined on the same sample space then $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Leftrightarrow P_{X,Y}(x, y) = P_X(x) P_Y(y)$
 $\Leftrightarrow \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

proof:-

→ If part:-

Suppose (*) holds $\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then Range}(X, Y) &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2, P_{X,Y}(x, y) > 0\} \\ &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2, P_X(x) \cdot P_Y(y) > 0\} \\ &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2, P_X(x) > 0, P_Y(y) > 0\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \{x : p_x(x) > 0\} \times \{y : p_y(y) > 0\} \\
 &= \text{Range}(x) \times \text{Range}(y)
 \end{aligned}$$

To show that $(*)$ holds,

$$F_{x,y}(u,v) = P(x \leq u, y \leq v)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{(x,y) \in \text{Range}(x,y) \\ x \leq u, y \leq v}} p_{x,y}(x,y)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{x \in \text{Range}(x), x \leq u \\ y \in \text{Range}(y), y \leq v}} p_x(x) p_y(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum p_x(x) \cdot \sum p_y(y) \\
 &= P(x \leq u) \cdot P(y \leq v)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= F_x(u) \cdot F_y(v)$$

$$(p=p) \Rightarrow (*) \text{ holds} \Rightarrow x \perp\!\!\!\perp y$$

Only if part:-

Given $x \perp\!\!\!\perp y \Rightarrow (*)$ holds

To show:- $(*)$ holds

Take $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ To show:- $p_{x,y}(x,y) = p_x(x) \cdot p_y(y)$

i.e., to show,

$$P(X=x, Y=y) = P(X=x) \cdot P(Y=y)$$

Idea:- Approximate the point (x,y) using boxes, i.e., chosen two dimensional rectangles.

define events:-

$$A_n = [x - \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq x, y - \frac{1}{n} \leq y \leq y]$$

clearly $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq A_3 \dots$

$$\text{st. } A_n = [x=x, y=y] = A$$

$$\Rightarrow A_n \rightarrow A$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A_n) \rightarrow P(A)$$

$$P(A_n) = P[(x, y) \in (x-y_n, x] \times (y-y_n, y)]$$

$$= F_{x,y}(x, y) - F_{x,y}(x, y-y_n) - F_{x,y}(x-y_n, y) \\ + F_{x,y}(x-y_n, y-y_n)$$

$$= F_x(x) \cdot F_y(y) - F_x(x) \cdot F_y(y-y_n) - F_x(x-y_n) \cdot F_y(y) \\ + F_x(x-y_n) \cdot F_y(y-y_n)$$

$$= [F_x(x) - F_x(x-y_n)] [F_y(y) - F_y(y-y_n)]$$

$$= P(x-y_n < x \leq x) \cdot P(y-y_n < y \leq y)$$

$$\Downarrow P(x=x) \cdot \underline{P(y=y)}$$

$$[x-y_n < x \leq x] \Downarrow [x=x]$$

$$[y-y_n < y \leq y] \Downarrow [y=y]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{We have } P(A_n) \rightarrow P(A)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A) = P(x=x) \cdot P(y=y)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(x=x, y=y) = P(x=x) \cdot P(y=y)$$

Remarks:-

→ Corollary:-

(x, y) is a d.r.v, then $x \perp\!\!\!\perp y$ iff $P[x \in A, y \in B] = P(x \in A) \cdot P(y \in B)$

$$\forall A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

Proof :- exercise.

① → The above corollary says that

② → In both the previously discussed examples the rvs X and Y not independent

Ex :- verify.

③ → If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$, then $\text{Range}(X, Y) = \text{Range}(X) \times \text{Range}(Y)$
(follows from proof of 'if' part. Reverse does not hold.)

'K'-dimensional discrete random vectors and Independence ($k > 2$)

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are K d.p.v's defined on the same sample space Ω with a prob P on it. This means that each $X_i: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a map. Combining these K maps, we get a map $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$ defined by

$$w \mapsto (x_1(w), x_2(w), \dots, x_n(w)) = \underline{x}$$

\underline{x} :- is a discrete random vector of dimension K .

Joint CDF of 'K' dimensional r.v.e :-

$$F_{\underline{x}} = F_{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n}: \Omega \times \mathbb{R}^K \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

$$F_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x}) = F_{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n)$$

→ Marginal CDF's compiled taking limits of other variables tending to infinity.

$$\text{Eg:- } F_{x_1, x_2, x_3}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \lim_{x_4 \rightarrow \infty} F_{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$$

Defⁿ:

The joint pmf of \underline{x} is a map $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$p_{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(x_1 = x_1, x_2 = x_2, \dots, x_n = x_n)$$

$$\forall \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\text{Also, } \text{Range}(\underline{x}) = \text{Range}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= \{\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid p_x(\underline{x}) > 0\}$$

$$\subseteq \text{Range}(x_1) \times \text{Range}(x_2) \times \dots \times \text{Range}(x_n)$$

As In the bivariate case,

$$P[\underline{x} \in B] = \sum_{x \in B \cap \text{Range}(\underline{x})} p_x(x)$$

Joint cdf from joint pmf :-

$$\forall \underline{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n}(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) &= P[x_1 \leq u_1, \dots, x_n \leq u_n] \\ &= \sum_{x_1 \leq u_1} \sum_{x_2 \leq u_2} \dots \sum_{x_n \leq u_n} (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

→ Independence of 'k' random variables

→ x_1, \dots, x_n are k rvs on same Ω with prob P defined on it.

Defⁿ: x_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) are independent if $\forall \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$P(x_1 \leq x_1, x_2 \leq x_2, \dots, x_n \leq x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P[x_i \leq x_i]$$

$$\text{i.e., } F_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n F_{x_i}(x_i)$$

Roughly speaking, this means that rvs x_1, \dots, x_n do not influence each other.

Theorem:- Suppose \underline{x} is a drve. Then x_1, \dots, x_n are independent iff $P_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x}) = P_{x_1}(x_1) \cdot P_{x_2}(x_2) \cdots P_{x_n}(x_n)$

$$\forall (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

proof :- Exe:-

Corollary:-

If \underline{x} is a drve, then the x_i 's are independent iff $P[x_1 \in A_1, x_2 \in A_2, \dots, x_n \in A_n] = \prod_{i=1}^n P[x_i \in A_i]$ $\forall A_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

Remarks:-

(1) If x_1, \dots, x_n are independent, then they do not influence each other in the sense that $[x_1 \in A_1], [x_2 \in A_2], \dots, [x_n \in A_n]$ are independent $\forall A_1, \dots, A_n \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

(2) If x_1, \dots, x_n are independent then $\text{Range}(\underline{x}) = \text{Range}(x_1) \times \text{Range}(x_2) \cdots \times \text{Range}(x_n)$

(3) If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are independent, then so are the rvs belonging to any subset of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.

$$\Rightarrow x_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp x_3 \rightarrow \text{Exe.}$$

(4) Suppose x_1, \dots, x_4 are independent d.r.v.s, then the following hold.

i) $x_1^2, e^{x_2}, \log(1+x_3), \sin x_4$ are independent

ii) $(x_1^2 + x_3^2) \perp\!\!\!\perp (x_2^3 + x_4^2)$

iii) $(x_1 + x_2 + x_4) \perp\!\!\!\perp x_3$

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iv) $x_1 + x_2, e^{x_3}, x_4^2$ are independent

Question

- How to compute expectation of a function of a random variable

Motivating Example:-

Suppose $X \sim \text{Unif}\{-1, 0, 1\}$

$$\Rightarrow P(X=-1) = P(X=0) = P(X=1) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Define $Y = X^2$

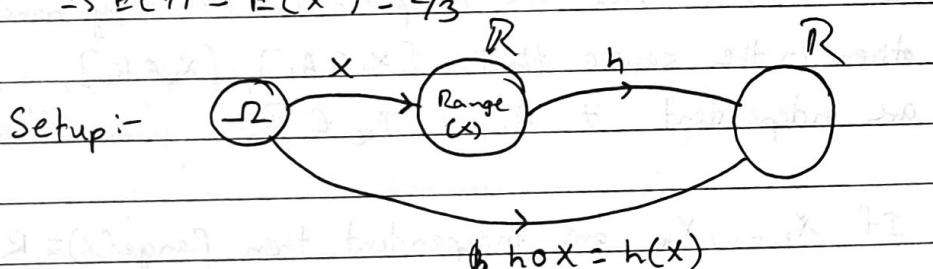
Goal:- To find $E(Y) = E(X^2)$

$$\text{Range}(X) = \{-1, 0, 1\}$$

$$\text{Range}(Y) = \{0, 1\}$$

$$P(Y=0) = P(X=0) = \frac{1}{3} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} Y \sim \text{Ber}(\frac{1}{3}) \\ P(Y=1) = 1 - P(Y=0) = \frac{2}{3} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(Y) = E(X^2) = \frac{2}{3}$$



Question

How to Compute $E[h(x)]$

- How to figure out if $h(x)$ has finite mean
- If yes, how to compute?

Approach 1:-

Find out the pmf of $Y = h(X)$ (Too tedious)

Approach 2:-

Do it directly using the pmf of X (more practical)

Theorem:-

- Suppose X is a d.r.v.a with pmf p_x and $h: \text{Range}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function. Then $Y = h(X) = h \circ X$ is another d.r.v.a (on same sample space as X) Y has finite mean, provided

$$\sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} |h(x)| p_x(x) < \infty, \quad E(Y) = \sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} h(x) \cdot p_x(x)$$

Application of Theorem on the Motivating Example:-

$$\text{Range}(X) = \{-1, 0, 1\}$$

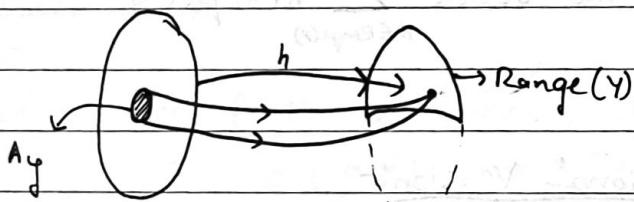
$$h(x) \circ = x^2$$

Y has finite mean because $\text{Range}(Y)$ is a finite set

$$\text{Theorem:- } E(X^2) = \sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} x^2 p_x(x)$$

$$= [(-1)^2 \times \frac{1}{3}] + [0^2 \times \frac{1}{3}] + [1^2 \times \frac{1}{3}] = \frac{2}{3}$$

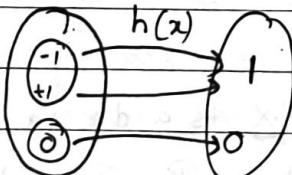
proof:-



$$\text{for each } y \in \text{Range}(Y) \quad A_y = \{x \in \text{Range}(X) : h(x) = y\} \\ = h^{-1}(\{y\})$$

$$\text{Clearly, } \text{Range}(X) = \bigcup_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} A_y \quad \text{pairwise disjoint union}$$

prev. example :-



$$A_1 = \{-1, 1\}, \quad A_0 = \{0\}$$

Back to proof:-

$$\sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} |y| P[Y=y] < \infty$$

$$= \sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} |y| P[X \in A_j]$$

$$= \sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} |y| \sum_{x \in A_j} p_x(x)$$

$$= \sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} \sum_{x \in A_j} |h(x)| p_x(x)$$

Therefore Y has finite mean provided

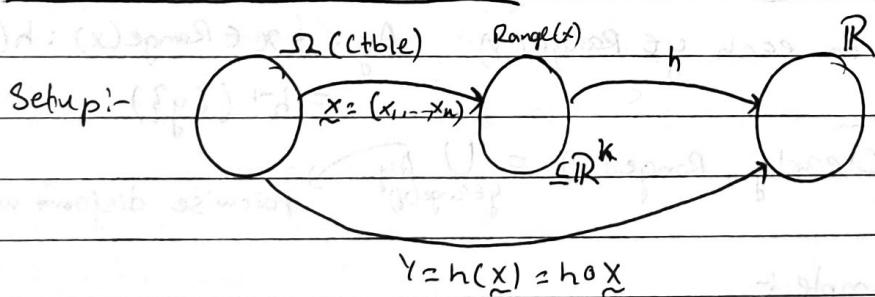
$$\sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} |h(x)| p_x(x) = \sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} |y| P[Y=y] < \infty$$

$$\text{Suppose } \sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} |h(x)| p_x(x) < \infty$$

$$\text{Then, } E(Y) = \sum_{y \in \text{Range}(Y)} y P[Y=y] = \sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} h(x) p_x(x)$$

by the same calculation as before with the help of absolutely summability of the series $\sum_{x \in \text{Range}(X)} |h(x)| p_x(x)$

A Multi-dimensional Version:-



Theorem:- Suppose that \underline{x} is a d.r.v. with joint pmf $p_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x})$ and $h : \text{Range}(\underline{x}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then $\underline{Y} := h(\underline{x})$ is a discrete r.v. with finite mean provided

$$\left| \sum_{\underline{x} \in \text{Range}(\underline{x})} |h(\underline{x})| p_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x}) \right| < \infty \text{ and in this case}$$

$$E(Y) = \sum_{\underline{x} \in \text{Range}(\underline{x})} h(\underline{x}) p_{\underline{x}}(\underline{x}) \quad (\text{proof: Exercise})$$

① Theorem:- Suppose x_1, \dots, x_n are d.r.v.s defined on same sample space & each x_i has finite mean. Then for all $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$, the linear combination $\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n$ has finite mean and,

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i E(x_i)$$

Remarks:-

① Note that the space V of all real valued random variables defined on the same sample space forms a vector space over \mathbb{R}
 $\Rightarrow S = \{x \in V : x \text{ has finite mean}\}$
 is a subspace of V and expectation $E(x)$ is a linear map from $S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

② The linearity of expectation is very useful.

Proof of Theorem ① :-

Steps:-

(1) If x has finite mean then so does αx for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
 $E(\alpha x) = \alpha E(x)$

(2) If x_1, x_2 have finite mean then so does $x_1 + x_2$
 $E(x_1 + x_2) = E(x_1) + E(x_2)$

(3) (2) \Rightarrow additivity of expectation for k r.v.s.

Combining (1), (3) we get each x_i has finite mean

\Rightarrow Each $\alpha_i x_i$ has finite mean

$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i$ has finite mean

Also, $E\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i\right) \stackrel{(2)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^k E(\alpha_i x_i) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i E(x_i)$

Proof of ① :- Take $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and a d.r.v. X with finite mean
 Define a map

$$h: \text{Range}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

by $h(x) \leq \alpha x$

Then $h(x) = \alpha x$. By It has finite by the theorem proved in class

$$\text{because } \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} |h(x)| p_x(x) = \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} |\alpha x| p_x(x)$$

$$= |\alpha| \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} |x| p_x(x) < \infty$$

$$\text{Therefore, } E(\alpha X) = E(h(X)) = \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} h(x) p_x(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} \alpha x p_x(x)$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{x \in \text{range}(X)} x p_x(x)$$

$$= \alpha E(X)$$

proof of ② :-

Suppose we have a double sequence $\{a_{ij}\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}, j \in \mathbb{N}}$ of real no-s.

Q:- When is $\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} a_{ij} = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a_{ij}$?

ans:- Not always

Fubini's theorem (Discrete Version)

i) If $a_{ij} \geq 0$, then $\textcircled{*}$ holds

ii) If $\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |a_{ij}| = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |a_{ij}| < \infty$ then also $(*)$ holds.

Proof (2)

- Suppose x_1, x_2 have a finite mean, \therefore both are discrete r.v defined on same Ω , (x_1, x_2) is a random vector. Let p_{x_1, x_2} be the joint pmf of x_1, x_2 .

Define $h: \text{Range}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$h(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2, \quad (x_1, x_2) \in \text{Range}(x_1, x_2)$$

To check that $x_1 + x_2 = h(x_1, x_2)$ has finite mean, we need to show

$$\sum_{(x_1, x_2) \in \text{Range}(x_1, x_2)} |h(x_1, x_2)| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{(x_1, x_2)} |x_1 + x_2| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) < 0$$

Note that $\text{Range}(x_1, x_2) \subseteq \text{Range}(x_1) \times \text{Range}(x_2)$

for each $(x_1, x_2) \in \text{Range}(x_1) \times \text{Range}(x_2)$ but

$$(x_1, x_2) \notin \text{Range}(x_1, x_2), \quad p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, } \sum_{(x_1, x_2) \in \text{Range}(x_1, x_2)} |x_1 + x_2| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) &= \sum_{x_1 \in \text{Range}(x_1)} \sum_{x_2 \in \text{Range}(x_2)} |x_1 + x_2| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) \\ &\leq \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} (|x_1| + |x_2|) p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) \\ &= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} |x_1| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) + \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} |x_2| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) \\ &= I + II \end{aligned}$$

\hookrightarrow Prove both are finite

$$\textcircled{I} = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} |x_1| p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

$$= \sum_{x_1 \in \text{Range}(x_1)} |x_1| \sum_{x_2 \in \text{Range}(x_2)} p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

$$= \sum_{x_1 \in \text{Range}(x_1)} |x_1| \cdot p_{x_1} < \infty \quad \text{as } x_1 \text{ has finite mean.}$$

Similarly for \textcircled{II} , we get it is a finite

$\therefore I + II < \infty$

we get $\sum |x_1 + x_2| p_{(x_1, x_2)}(x_1, x_2) < \infty$

$\Rightarrow x_1 + x_2$ has finite mean.

Therefore, $E(x_1 + x_2) = \sum (x_1 + x_2) p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2)$

$$= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} x_1 p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2) + \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} x_2 p_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

$$= I + II$$

$$= E(x_1) + E(x_2)$$

Remark:- We used the theorem stated in prev-class with $h(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$ & both parts Fubini's Theorem.

Corollary:- for any d.r.v. $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, if each X_i has finite mean too, then so does $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ and $E(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) = E(x_1) + \dots + E(x_n)$. Additivity of expectation.

* Remark:- holds for dependent r.v as well.

Applications:-

① $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

Then $x = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$, each $X_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$

$$\text{Therefore, } E(x) = E(x_1) + \dots + E(x_n) = np$$

② $X \sim \text{NB}(\alpha, p)$

$x = x_1 + \dots + x_r$, $x_{\alpha i} \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

$$\sum E(x_i) = \frac{\alpha}{p}$$

$$③ X \sim \text{Hyp}(N, m, n)$$

N items $\rightarrow m$ of type (1)

$N-m$ of type (2)

Choose n items w/o replacement

$X_1 = \text{no. of } 1 \text{ type } \frac{\text{sampled items}}{\text{items chosen in sample}}$

To compute $E(X)$

Let r.v.s x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be defined as follows for each

index $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, according to below set of rules:-

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1, & x_i \text{ is of type (1)} \\ 0, & x_i \text{ is of type (2)} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow X = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n \text{ (No. of 1's in } X \text{ is } x_1)$$

$$E(x_i) = \frac{m}{N} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$E(X) = n \times \frac{m}{N}$$

→ Go back to Maxwell - Boltzmann Statistics

- $r \in \mathbb{N}$ distinguishable particles and $n \geq 2$ distinguishable cells
- Unlimited capacity of cells
- Arrange particles randomly in cells.

Define an r.v X as follows:-

$X = \text{no. of empty cells.}$

$E(X) \rightarrow$ difficult using pmf of X

⇒ using additivity of expectation:-

$$\text{define } x_i = \begin{cases} 1, & i^{\text{th}} \text{ cell empty} \\ 0, & i^{\text{th}} \text{ cell non-empty} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Clearly } X = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$$

$$E(X) = E(X_1) + \dots + E(X_n)$$

$$i = \{1, \dots, n\} \quad E(X_i) = P(\text{i^{th} cell is empty}) = \frac{(n-i)}{n^i} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^i$$

$$E(X) = n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^i$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)^n}{n^{n-1}}$$

Ex:-

- Compute expected no. of empty cells in the Bose-Einstein setup
- Recall the pole and flag problem, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ distinguishable flags
 $n > 2$ " poles

Arrange the flags at random on the poles

Each pole has unlimited capacity

Let X be the no. of empty poles. Compute $E(X)$

- In the Sleepy secretary problem, compute the expected no. of letters sent to the right addresses.