

# Lecture 6 — Discrete RVs, Expectation and Problem Solving (CSE400)

Course: CSE400 — Fundamentals of Probability in Computing

Instructor: Dhaval Patel, PhD

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## 1. Outline (as listed)

- Previous Lecture Recap: Random Variables (RVs)
- Independent Events (Examples)
- Types of Discrete Random Variables: Bernoulli RV, Binomial RV, Geometric RV, Poisson RV
- Expectation of RVs: definition and example; expectation of a function of RV; linear operation with expectation;  $n^{\text{th}}$  moments and central moments (variance, skewness, kurtosis)
- The Cumulative Density Function (CDF): definition, properties, examples
- The Probability Density Function (PDF): definition, properties, examples

**Note (scope of this scribe):** The attached PDF excerpt provides detailed slide content for random variables, PMF, and Bayes' theorem examples; other outline items above are listed but not developed in the shown slides.

## 2. Random Variables (Motivation and Concept)

### 2.1 Definition (Random Variable as a Function)

A random variable ( $X$ ) on a sample space ( $\Omega$ ) is a function

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

that assigns to each sample point ( $\omega \in \Omega$ ) a real number ( $X(\omega)$ ).

### 2.2 Discreteness Restriction (as stated)

Until further notice, attention is restricted to random variables that are **discrete**, i.e., they take values in a range that is **finite or countably infinite**. Even though ( $X$ ) is defined as mapping ( $\Omega$ ) to  $\mathbb{R}$ , the actual set of values  $\{X(\omega) : \omega \in \Omega\}$  that ( $X$ ) takes is a **discrete subset** of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## 3. Visualizing a Distribution (Bar Diagram Interpretation)

The distribution of a random variable can be visualized as a bar diagram:

- The **x-axis** represents the values the random variable can take on.
- The **height** of the bar at value  $a$  is the probability  $\Pr[X = a]$ .
- These probabilities can be computed by looking at the probability of the **corresponding event** in the sample space.

## 4. Discrete vs Continuous Variables (Guide / Checklist Items)

### 4.1 Discrete Variable (listed properties)

- Countable support
- Probability mass function
- Probabilities assigned to single values
- Each possible value has strictly positive probability

### 4.2 Continuous Variable (listed properties)

- Uncountable support
- Probability density function (PDF)
- Probabilities assigned to intervals of values
- Each possible value has zero probability

## 5. Worked Example 1 — Tossing 3 Fair Coins

### 5.1 Experiment and Random Variable

Experiment: toss **3 fair coins**.

Let  $(Y)$  denote the **number of heads** that appear. Then  $Y$  takes one of the values 0, 1, 2, 3.

### 5.2 Probabilities (with listed outcome groupings)

$$\Pr(Y = 0) = \Pr((t, t, t)) = \frac{1}{8}$$

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \Pr((t, t, h), (t, h, t), (h, t, t)) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$\Pr(Y = 2) = \Pr((t, h, h), (h, t, h), (h, h, t)) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$\Pr(Y = 3) = \Pr((h, h, h)) = \frac{1}{8}$$

### 5.3 Total Probability Check (as shown)

Since  $Y$  must take one of the values 0 through 3,

$$1 = \Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=0}^3 \{Y = i\}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^3 \Pr(Y = i).$$

## 6. Probability Mass Function (PMF)

### 6.1 Discrete Random Variable (concept statement)

A random variable that can take on at most a **countable number** of possible values is said to be **discrete**.

### 6.2 Definition and Notation

Let  $(X)$  be a discrete random variable with range (possible values)

$$R_X = x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots \quad (\text{finite or countably infinite}).$$

The function

$$P_X(x_k) = P(X = x_k), \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

is called the **Probability Mass Function (PMF)** of  $(X)$ .

### 6.3 Required Property (Normalization)

Since  $(X)$  must take one of the values  $x_k$ , the slides state:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_X(x_k) = 1.$$

## 7. Worked Example 2 — PMF with $p(i) = c \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$

### 7.1 Given

The probability mass function of a random variable  $(X)$  is given by

$$p(i) = c \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $\lambda$  is some positive value.

Find  $P[X = 0]$  and  $P[X > 2]$ .

### 7.2 Step 1 — Use $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p(i) = 1$ to solve for $c$

Since  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p(i) = 1$ ,

$$c \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} = 1.$$

Using the given series identity on the slide,

$$e^x = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{i!},$$

we have:

$$ce^{\lambda} = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad c = e^{-\lambda}.$$

### 7.3 Step 2 — Compute $P[X = 0]$

$$P[X = 0] = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^0}{0!} = e^{-\lambda}.$$

### 7.4 Step 3 — Compute $P[X > 2]$

$$P[X > 2] = 1 - P[X \leq 2] = 1 - P[X = 0] - P[X = 1] - P[X = 2].$$

With  $c = e^{-\lambda}$ ,

$$P[X > 2] = 1 - e^{-\lambda} - \lambda e^{-\lambda} - \frac{\lambda^2 e^{-\lambda}}{2}.$$

## 8. Bayes' Theorem (Recap on Slides)

### 8.1 Stated Relationship

Using:

$$\Pr(AB_i) = \Pr(B_i | A) \Pr(A),$$

we get:

$$\Pr(B_i | A) = \frac{\Pr(A | B_i) \Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n \Pr(A | B_j) \Pr(B_j)}.$$

This is known as the **Bayes Formula** [Proposition 3.1].

### 8.2 Terminology (as given)

- $\Pr(B_i)$  is the **a priori probability** (probabilities formed from self-evident or presupposed models).
- $\Pr(B_i | A)$  is the **posteriori probability** (probabilities derived or calculated after observing certain events of event  $B_i$  given  $A$ ).

## 9. Worked Example 3 — Auditorium with 30 Rows (Bayes Application)

### 9.1 Problem Setup

A certain auditorium has **30 rows** of seats.

- Row 1 has **11** seats, Row 2 has **12** seats, Row 3 has **13** seats, and so on to Row 30 which has **40** seats.

A door prize is to be given away by:

1. randomly selecting a **row** (with equal probability of selecting any of the 30 rows), and
2. then randomly selecting a **seat within that row** (each seat in the row equally likely).

Task (as written): compute the probability that **Seat 15** was selected given that **Row 20** was selected, and also find the probability that **Row 20** was selected given that **Seat 15** was selected.

## 9.2 Notation Used on Slide

- $S_{15}$ : event “Seat 15 was selected”
- $R_{20}$ : event “Row 20 was selected”
- $\Pr_a(\cdot)$  notation appears on the slide for these probabilities.

## 9.3 Part A — Compute $\Pr_a(S_{15} \mid R_{20})$

From the slide:

$$\Pr_a(S_{15} \mid R_{20}) = \frac{1}{30}.$$

(Reason encoded in the slide’s row-size pattern: Row 20 has  $(20 + 10 = 30)$  seats, and seats are equally likely within the chosen row.)

## 9.4 Part B — Compute $\Pr_a(R_{20} \mid S_{15})$

### Step 1 — Compute $\Pr_a(S_{15})$ via total probability

The slide expands:

$$\Pr_a(S_{15}) = \sum_{k=5}^{30} \Pr_a(S_{15} \mid R_k) \Pr_a(R_k).$$

(The lower limit  $k = 5$  reflects that Seat 15 first exists when a row has at least 15 seats; by the stated pattern, Row 5 has  $(5 + 10 = 15)$  seats.)

Using the row-size rule (Row  $k$  has  $k + 10$  seats), the slide substitutes:

$$\Pr_a(S_{15}) = \sum_{k=5}^{30} \left( \frac{1}{k + 10} \cdot \frac{1}{30} \right) = 0.0342.$$

### Step 2 — Apply Bayes’ formula

$$\Pr_a(R_{20} \mid S_{15}) = \frac{\Pr_a(S_{15} \mid R_{20}) \Pr_a(R_{20})}{\Pr_a(S_{15})}.$$

With  $\Pr_a(S_{15} \mid R_{20}) = \frac{1}{30}$ ,  $\Pr_a(R_{20}) = \frac{1}{30}$ , and  $\Pr_a(S_{15}) = 0.0342$ , the slide computes:

$$\Pr_a(R_{20} \mid S_{15}) = \frac{\frac{1}{30} \cdot \frac{1}{30}}{0.0342} = 0.0325.$$