

Probability 2 - Notes1

Review of common probability distributions

1. Single trial with probability p of success. X is the indicator random variable of the event success (so $X = 1$ if the outcome is a success and $X = 0$ if the outcome is a failure). Then $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. $P(X = 1) = p$ and $P(X = 0) = q$ where $q = 1 - p$. $E[X] = p$, $\text{Var}(X) = pq$.

2. Sequence of n independent trials, each with probability p of success. X counts the number of successes. Then $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$. $P(X = x) = {}^nC_x p^x q^{n-x}$ for $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$. $E[X] = np$, $\text{Var}(X) = npq$.

Binomial expansion is $(a + b)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n {}^nC_x a^x b^{n-x}$. If we let $a = p$ and $b = q$ this shows that $\sum_{x=0}^n P(X = x) = (p + q)^n = 1^n = 1$.

3. Sequence of independent trials, each with probability p of success. X counts the number of trials required to obtain the first success. Then $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$. $P(X = x) = q^{x-1}p$ for $x = 1, 2, \dots$. $E[X] = \frac{1}{p}$, $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{q}{p^2}$.

Sum of geometric series is $\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} ar^{x-1} = \frac{a}{(1-r)}$. If we let $a = p$ and $r = q$, this shows that $\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} P(X = x) = \frac{p}{1-q} = 1$.

4. Sequence of independent trials, each with probability p of success. X counts the number of trials required to obtain the k^{th} success. Then $X \sim \text{Negative Binomial}(k, p)$. $P(X = x) = {}^{x-1}C_{k-1} p^k q^{x-k}$ for $x = k, k+1, \dots$. $E[X] = \frac{k}{p}$, $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{kq}{p^2}$.

Negative binomial expansion is just

$$(1-a)^{-k} = 1 + (-k)(-a) + \frac{(-k)(-k-1)}{2!}(-a)^2 + \frac{(-k)(-k-1)(-k-2)}{3!}(-a)^3 + \dots = \sum_{x=k}^{\infty} {}^{x-1}C_{k-1} a^{x-k}$$

Hence if we let $a = q$ then $\sum_{x=k}^{\infty} P(X = x) = p^k (1-q)^{-k} = 1$.

5. If events occur randomly and independently in time, at rate λ per unit time, and X counts the number of events in a unit time interval then $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. $P(X = x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$ for $x = 0, 1, \dots$. $E[X] = \lambda$, $\text{Var}(X) = \lambda$.

Taylor expansion of exponential is $e^a = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^x}{x!}$. Hence if we let $a = \lambda$ then $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} P(X = x) = e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = 1$.

Probability Generating Function (p.g.f)

Definition For a discrete random variable X which can only take non-negative integer values we define the probability generating function associated with X to be:

$$G_X(t) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} P(X=x)t^x$$

This is a power series in t . Note that $G_X(t) = E[t^X]$.

We can easily find the p.g.f. for all the common probability distributions 1-5 using the expansions given earlier. Note that the hypergeometric (covered in Probability 1) has no simple form for the p.g.f.

$$(1) G_X(t) = q + pt.$$

$$(2) G_X(t) = \sum_{x=0}^n {}^nC_x (pt)^x q^{n-x} = (pt + q)^n.$$

$$(3) G_X(t) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} (pt)(qt)^{x-1} = \frac{pt}{1-qt}.$$

$$(4) G_X(t) = (pt)^k \sum_{x=k}^{\infty} {}^{x-1}C_{k-1} (qt)^{x-k} = \frac{(pt)^k}{(1-qt)^k}.$$

$$(5) G_X(t) = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda t)^x}{x!} = e^{\lambda(t-1)}.$$

It is easily seen that $G_X(0) = P(X=0)$, $G_X(1) = 1$ and $G_X(t)$ is monotone increasing function of t for $t \geq 0$.

Uses of the p.g.f.

1. Knowing the p.g.f. determines the probability mass function.

The p.g.f., $G_X(t)$, is a power series with the coefficient of t^x just the probability $P(X=x)$. There is a unique power series expansion. Hence if X and Y are two random variables with $G_X(t) = G_Y(t)$, then $P(X=r) = P(Y=r)$ for all $r = 0, 1, \dots$

If we know the p.g.f. then we can expand it in a power series and find the individual terms of the probability mass function.

e.g. $G_X(t) = \frac{1}{2}(1+t^2) = \frac{1}{2} + 0 \times t + \frac{1}{2}t^2 + 0 \times t^3 + \dots$. Hence $P(X=0) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(X=2) = \frac{1}{2}$ and $P(X=x) = 0$ for all other non-negative integers x .

If we recognise the p.g.f. $G_X(t)$ as a p.g.f. corresponding to a specific distribution, then X has that distribution. We do not need to bother doing the power series expansion!

e.g. if $G_X(t) = e^{2t-2} = e^{2(t-1)}$, this is the p.g.f. for a Poisson distribution with parameter 2. Hence $X \sim \text{Poisson}(2)$.

2. We can differentiate the p.g.f. to obtain $P(X = r)$ and the factorial moments (and hence the mean and variance of X).

$$P(X = 0) = G_X(0); P(X = 1) = G'_X(0); P(X = 2) = \frac{1}{2}G''_X(0)$$

In general $P(X = r) = \frac{1}{r!}G_X^{(r)}(0)$ where $G_X^{(r)}(t) = \frac{d^r G_X(t)}{dt^r}$.

$$E[X] = G'_X(1); E[X(X-1)] = G_X^{(2)}(1); \text{Var}(X) = E[X(X-1)] + E[X] - (E[X])^2$$

and in general the r^{th} factorial moment $E[X(X-1)\dots(X-r+1)] = G_X^{(r)}(1)$

This is easily seen by differentiating $G_X(t) = P(X=0) + tP(X=1) + t^2P(X=2) + \dots$ termwise to obtain

$$G'_X(t) = P(X=1) + 2tP(X=2) + 3t^2P(X=3) + \dots$$

from which we have $E[X] = G'_X(1)$ and $P(X=1) = G'_X(0)$ and for any positive integer r

$$\frac{d^r G_X(t)}{dt^r} = r!P(X=r) + \frac{(r+1)!}{1!}tP(X=r+1) + \frac{(r+2)!}{2!}t^2P(X=r+2) + \dots$$

from which we have $E[X(X-1)\dots(X-r+1)] = G_X^{(r)}(1)$ and $P(X=r) = \frac{G_X^{(r)}(0)}{r!}$

e.g. If $G_X(t) = \frac{1+t}{2}e^{(t-1)}$ find $E[X]$, $\text{Var}(X)$, $P(X=0)$ and $P(X=1)$.

$$G'_X(t) = \frac{1}{2}e^{(t-1)} + \frac{1+t}{2}e^{(t-1)}$$

$$G_X^{(2)}(t) = \frac{1}{2}e^{(t-1)} + \frac{1}{2}e^{(t-1)} + \frac{1+t}{2}e^{(t-1)}$$

Hence $E[X] = G'_X(1) = \frac{3}{2}$, $\text{var}(X) = G_X^{(2)}(1) + \frac{3}{2} - \frac{9}{4} = \frac{5}{4}$, $P(X=0) = G_X(0) = \frac{e^{-1}}{2}$ and $P(X=1) = G'_X(0) = e^{-1}$.

3. Using the p.g.f. to find the distribution of the sum of two or more independent random variables.

Recall that if X and Y are independent random variables then $E[g(X)h(Y)] = E[g(X)]E[h(Y)]$.

Let X and Y be independent random variables with p.g.f.'s $G_X(t)$ and $G_Y(t)$. Then $Z = X + Y$ has p.g.f.

$$G_Z(t) = E[t^Z] = E[t^{X+Y}] = E[t^X t^Y] = E[t^X]E[t^Y] = G_X(t)G_Y(t)$$

This extends to the sum of a fixed number n of independent random variables.

If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and $Z = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ then

$$G_Z(t) = \prod_{j=1}^n G_{X_j}(t)$$

e.g. Let X and Y be independent random variables with $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ and $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(m, p)$ and let $Z = X + Y$. Then

$$G_Z(t) = G_X(t)G_Y(t) = (pt + q)^n(pt + q)^m = (pt + q)^{m+n}$$

This is the p.g.f. of a binomial random variable. Hence $Z \sim \text{Binomial}(n + m, p)$.

Let X_1, \dots, X_m be m independent random variables with $X_j \sim \text{Binomial}(n_j, p)$ and let $Z = \sum_{j=1}^m X_j$ and $N = \sum_{j=1}^m n_j$. Then

$$G_Z(t) = \prod_{j=1}^m G_{X_j}(t) = \prod_{j=1}^m (pt + q)^{n_j} = (pt + q)^N$$

This is the p.g.f. of a binomial random variable. Hence $Z \sim \text{Binomial}(N, p)$.