

## 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  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ .  $P(X = x) = {}^n C_x p^x q^{n-x}$  for  $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .  $E[X] = np$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = npq$ .

Binomial expansion is  $(a + b)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n {}^n C_x a^x b^{n-x}$ . 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  $k^{\text{th}}$  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  $\lambda$  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.

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

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

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

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

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

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  $r^{\text{th}}$  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  $Z \sim \text{Binomial}(N, p)$ .