

MODULE 2

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UNIT1 ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLE OF PROBABILITY THE THEORY OF

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In module 1, we considered some elementary methods of mathematics of counting essential for determining probabilities of events. In this module, we continue our study by discussing how to apply the knowledge gained in module 1 to determine probabilities of events and general properties of probabilities. We present some theorems and definitions that are basic to the understanding of commonly encountered problems.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- use the principle of theory of probability to solve related probability questions
- state the properties of probability
- define mutually exclusive events and complementary event
- find the probability of two mutually exclusive events
- solve probability of an event A given that an event B has occurred

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Elementary Principle of the Theory of Probability

In any random experiment there is always uncertainty as to whether a particular event will or will not occur. As a measure of the chance or probability with which we can expect the event to occur it is convenient to assign a number between 0 and 1. If we are sure or certain that the event will occur we say that its probability is 100% or 1, but if we are sure that the event will not occur we say that its probability is zero.

Example 2.1

Suppose a fair die is rolled once. There are six possible outcomes. The sample space is

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Let A_1, A_2 and A_3 represent the following events

$A_1 =$ "an even number occurs"

$A_2 =$ "an odd number occurs"

$A_3 =$ "a prime number occurs"

The six possible outcomes in Ω are equally likely. The probability that A occurs is denoted by $P(A)$ and the probability that A does not occur by $P(A^C)$. If we let n_A be the number of outcomes that have attribute A , then

$$A_1 = \{2, 4, 6\}$$

$$A_2 = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

$$A_3 = \{2, 3, 5\}$$

Thus,

$$P(A_1) = \frac{n_{A_1}}{n_{\Omega}} = 3/6 = 1/2, \quad P(A_2) = \frac{3}{6}, \quad P(A_3) = \frac{3}{6}$$

Example 2.2

Suppose that a box contains 10 items of which are defective. Two items are selected at random without replacement. Find the probabilities that:

- (i) both items are non-defective (ii) only one item is defective (iii) both items are defective: (iv) at least one item is defective

Let A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 denote the events

"both items are non-defective"

“only one item is defective”

“both items are defective”

“at least one item is defective”

respectively. The number of ways of selecting 2 items from 10 is

$${}^{10}C_2 = 45 \text{ ways}$$

So there are 45 elements in the sample space.

(i) The number of ways of selecting 2 items from the non-defective items is ${}^6C_2 = 15$.

That is A_1 can occur in 15 ways. Thus,

$$P(A_1) = \frac{{}^6C_2}{{}^{10}C_2} = \frac{n_{A_1}}{n_{\Omega}} = \frac{15}{45} = \frac{1}{3}$$

(ii) The number of ways of selecting 1 item from the 4 defective items and 1 item from the 6 non-defective items is ${}^4C_1 \times {}^6C_1 = 24$ so, A_2 can occur in 24 ways.

Thus,

$$P(A_2) = \frac{{}^4C_1 \times {}^6C_1}{{}^{10}C_2} = \frac{24}{45} = \frac{8}{15}$$

Similarly

$$(iii) \quad P(A_3) = \frac{{}^4C_2}{{}^{10}C_2} = \frac{6}{45} = \frac{2}{15}$$

(iv) At least one defective means 1 or 2 defective items. So,

$$P(A_4) = P(1 \text{ defective item}) + P(2 \text{ defective items}) = P(A_2) + P(A_3) = \frac{8}{15} + \frac{2}{15} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Example 2.3

Suppose a fair die is rolled twice. Find the probability that the sum of the numbers on the two faces is (i) even, (ii) less than 5.

The sample space Ω , consists of 36 elements.

(i) Let A be the event “the sum of the two faces is even”. Possible outcomes are:

- (1,1) (1,3) (1,5) (2,2) (2,4) (2,6), ...
 (3,1) (3,3) (3,5) (4,2) (4,4) (4,6), ...

A can occur in 18 ways. Thus,

$$P(A) = \frac{18}{36} = \frac{1}{2}$$

(ii) Let B be the event “the sum is less than 5”. B occurs if the sum is 2, 3, or 4. The sum is 2 if the outcome is (1, 1) the sum is 3 if the outcome is (1, 2) or (2, 1) and the sum is four if the outcome is (3, 1), (1, 3) or (2, 2). Therefore B can occur in

$$1+2+3=6 \text{ ways}$$

Thus

$$P(B) = \frac{6}{36} = 1/6.$$

Example 2.4

3 balls are drawn at random with replacement from a box containing 8 red and 3 white balls. Find the probability that (i) all 3 are red; (ii) 1 is red and 2 are white.

The sample space consists of 11^3 possible outcomes. Let A be “the event all 3 are red” and

B the event “1 is red and 2 white”

$$P(A) = \frac{n_A}{n_\Omega} = \frac{8^3}{11^3}$$

(The first red can be chosen in 8 ways the second in 8 ways and the third Red in 8 ways).

$$P(B) = \frac{n_B}{n_\Omega} = \frac{8 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 8 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 8}{11^3}$$

$(8 \times 3 \times 3)$ = number of ways of picking the first to be red, second white and third white (RWW), $3 \times 8 \times 3$ is for WRW and $3 \times 3 \times 8$ is for WWR). Thus

$$P(B) = \frac{3 \cdot 8 \cdot 3 \cdot 3}{11^3}.$$

3.2 Properties of Probability

Definition 2.1: Mutually Exclusive events

Two events A_1 and A_2 are mutually exclusive if and only if

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for every } i \neq j.$$

That is, two or more events are mutually exclusive if not two of them have points in common. In example 2.1

$$A_1 = \{2, 4, 6\}$$

$$A_2 = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

$$A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset,$$

Therefore A_1 and A_2 are mutually exclusive events.

Definition 2.1

If A_1 and A_2 are any two events, $A_1 \cap A_2$ is the event that occurs if and only if both A_1 and A_2 occur. In general, if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n occur.

In example 2.1, $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3$ is the event that an even prime occurs.

$$A_1 \cap A_3 = \{2\}$$

Thus

$$P(A_1 \cap A_3) = \frac{2}{6}$$

The event $A_2 \cap A_3$ is the event that an odd prime occurs $A_2 \cap A_3 = \{3, 5\}$. Thus

$$P(A_2 \cap A_3) = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Complementary Event

The event “A occurs” and “A does not occur” are mutually exclusive. The event “A does not occur” is called the complement of A and is denoted by A^C .

Theorem 2.1

If A^C is the complement of an event A, then $P(A^C) = 1 - P(A)$. This theorem states that the probability that an event will not occur is equal to 1 minus the probability that it will occur.

In example 2.2(iv); The event “no defective item” is the same as the event “both items are non-defective”.

From Theorem 2.1, we have

$$P(A_4) = 1 - P(A_1^C) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$A_4^C = A_1$ since the event “no defective item” is the same as the event “both items are non-defective”.

The following events are complementary events

(i) at most 2 and greater than 2 (ii) at least 4 and less than 4.

Definition 2.2

If A_1 and A_2 are any two events, $A_1 \cup A_2$ is the event that occurs if at least one of A_1 and A_2 occurs.

In general, if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are any events, $A_1 \cup A_2$ is the event that occurs if at least one of $A_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, occurs.

In example 2.1, the event $A_1 \cup A_3$ is the event that an even or a prime number occurs.

$$A_1 \cup A_3 = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

Thus

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = \frac{n(A_1 \cup A_2)}{n\Omega} = \frac{5}{6}$$

The event $A_1 \cup A_2$ is the event that an even or an odd number occurs.

$$A_1 \cup A_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = \Omega,$$

Thus

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(\Omega) = 1.$$

Theorem 2.2

If A_1 and A_2 are any events, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2).$$

The proof of this theorem follows directly from the definition

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = \frac{n(A_1 \cup A_2)}{n\Omega}$$

$$n(A_1 \cup A_2) = n(A_1) + n(A_2) - n(A_1 \cap A_2)$$

dividing through by $n\Omega$ the result follows.

Corollary

(i) If A_1 and A_2 are mutually exclusive events then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2)$$

since A_1 and A_2 are mutually exclusive,

$$A_1 \cap A_2 = \phi$$

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = 0$$

hence

(ii) If A_1 and A_2 are any two events

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) \leq P(A_1) + P(A_2)$$

In Example 2.1 above,

$$P(A_1 \cup A_3) = P(A_1) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$$

(iii) If A and B are any two events defined on the sample space then

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

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

In general, if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are any n mutually exclusive events, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + \dots + P(A_n).$$

Theorem 2.2 can be generalized for $n > 2$ events. It can easily be shown that for any 3 events A_1, A_2, A_3

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$$

$$- P(A_1 \cap A_3) - P(A_2 \cap A_3) + \dots + P(A_3).$$

To see this, let $B = A_1 \cup A_2$, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(B \cup A_3) = P(B) + P(A_3) - P(B \cap A_3)$$

$$P(B) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) &= P(A_1 \cup A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) - P(A_2 \cap A_3) + P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) \\
 &= P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) - P(A_2 \cap A_3) + P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3)
 \end{aligned}$$

(by theorem 2.2). thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) &= P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) \\
 &\quad - P(A_2 \cap A_3) + P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3)
 \end{aligned}$$

Note:

$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ is the event that at least one of them will occur.

Definition 2.3

Two or more events are said to be exhaustive if their union equal the whole sample space. In other words, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are exhaustive events if

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = 1$$

In other words it is certain that at least one of them will occur.

Note:

1. $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
2. $P(\Omega) = 1$.
3. For a sequence of mutually exclusive events A_1, A_2, \dots

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

Examples:

2.5 A box contains 6 balls numbered 1 to 6. A ball was drawn from the box at random.

Find the probability that the number on the ball drawn was either 1, 2, or 6.

Solution

Let A_1, A_2, A_3 denote the events that the ball drawn was 1, 2 and 6 respectively. $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ denote the event the number on the ball drawn was either 1, 2 or 6.

A_1, A_2 and A_3 are mutually exclusive events. Thus

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3)$$

$$= 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2.$$

2.6 Four fair dice are tossed once, what is the probability that the sum of the numbers on the four dice is 23?

Solution

The possible outcomes to get 23 are

(6, 6, 6, 5), (5, 6, 6, 6), (6, 5, 6, 6), (6, 6, 5, 6). The sample space Ω consists of 6^4 elements.

Therefore, the probability that the sum of the numbers on the four dice is 23 is $4/6^4$.

2.7 If $P(A_1) = 2/3$, $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = 1/4$ and $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = 5/6$, find $P(A_2)$.

Solution

From the addition law of probability

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$$

We have

$$P(A_2) = P(A_1 \cup A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1) = 5/6 - 1/4 - 2/3 = 5/12.$$

2.8 Suppose a fair coin is tossed three times, what is the probability that at least one head occurs?

Solution

Let A_1 be the event that the first toss lands heads, A_2 the event that the second toss lands, and A_3 the event that the third toss lands heads.

$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ is the event that at least one head occurs.

We are required to compute $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3)$. The complement of $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ is

$A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3^c$. That is, the first does not land heads, the second does not and the third does not.

$$A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3^c = \{T, T, T\}.$$

Thus

$$P(A_1^c \cap A_2^c \cap A_3^c) = 1/8.$$

Hence

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = 1 - 1/8 = 7/8.$$

2.9 If $A_1 \subset A_2$, then $P(A_1) \leq P(A_2)$

$$A_2 = A_1 \cup (A_2/A_1).$$

Since A_1 and A_2/A_1 are mutually exclusive, we have

$$P(A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2/A_1) \geq P(A_1)$$

Since $P(A_2/A_1) \geq 0$.

2.9 If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are events, then

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)^c = P(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c)$$

From de Morgan's law, we have

$$(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c$$

Hence

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)^c = P(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c)$$

2.2 Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of an event A given that an event B has occurred is denoted as $P(A|B)$. The word "given" is represented by the upright stroke. We wish to determine the probability that an event A will occur "conditional on" the knowledge that another event B has occurred.

Suppose a fair die is rolled and it is known that an even number appeared uppermost. Let A be the event that the number was greater than 3 and B the event that the number that appeared was even. The problem is to find the conditional probability that the event A occurred given that the event B has occurred, $P(A|B)$. Since we know that the number was even, the number must be either 2, 4 or 6. Therefore, the conditional sample space contains 3 elements. The event A occurs if the numbers showing is 4 or 6, thus $P(A|B) = 2/3$.

We can therefore define conditional probability of A given B as the number of ways $A \cap B$

can occur divided by number of elements in the conditional sample space. That is, $P(A|B) = \frac{n(A \cap B)}{n(B)}$

$$n\Omega_B$$

Where $n\Omega_B \neq 0$, where Ω_B is the conditional sample space given that B has occurred.

Divide the numerator and denominator by $n\Omega_B$

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

In the above example,

$$n(A \cap B) = 2$$

$$n(B) = 3$$

Definition 2.4

Let A and B be two events such that $P(B) > 0$. Then the conditional probability of A given B, denoted by $P(A|B)$ is defined to be $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ 2.2

Examples

2.11 Suppose a box contains 4 red balls and 3 black balls. Compute the probability that

- (i) the second ball drawn is red if the first ball drawn was red; without replacement,
- (ii) the second ball drawn is red if the first ball drawn was black

Solution

If the first ball drawn is red, there remains 6 balls, 3 red balls and 3 black balls.

The probability of the second ball being red is $\frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$. But if the first ball is black, the box is left with 4 red and 2 black so the probability of the second ball being red is then $\frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$. Thus

$$P(2^{nd} \text{ is red} / \text{first was red}) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(2^{nd} \text{ is red} / \text{first was black}) = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

This shows that the probability of the event “the second ball drawn is red” depends on the colour of the first ball drawn.

2.12 Suppose two fair dice are rolled. If the sum of the numbers appearing is 6, what is the probability that one of the numbers is 2?

Solution

Let A be the event “one of the numbers is 2 and B the sum is 6. there are five ways

for the event B to occur: (3,3), (2,4), (4,2), (5,1) and (1,5) and there are two ways for the event A ∩ B to occur: (2,4) and (4,2).

Thus,
 $P(A \cap B) = \frac{2}{36}, P(B) = \frac{5}{36}$

Hence,

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{2/36}{5/36} = \frac{2}{5}$$

2.13 There are two children in a family. If there is at least a girl in this family, what is the conditional probability that both are girls.

Solution

The sample space is
 $\{BB, GB, BG, GG\}$
 Let A be the event “both children are girls” and B “at least a girl in the family.”

$B = \{GB, BG, GG\}, A = \{GG\}, A \cap B = \{GG\}$.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{1/4}{3/4} = \frac{1}{3}$$

2.14 There are three children in a family. If there is at least one boy and at most two boys in this family. What is the conditional probability that there are exactly two boys in this family.

The sample space is
 $\Omega = \{BBB, BBG, BGG, BGB, GBB, GBG, GGB, GGG\}$
 Let B be the event “at least one boy and at most 2 boys in the family” and let A be the event “exactly two boys in the family”. Then

$B = \{BBG, BGG, BGB, GBB, GBG, GGB\}$
 $A \cap B = \{BBG, BGB, GBB\}$.

Therefore

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{3/8}{6/8} = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES 1

- i. A fair die is thrown twice.
 - (i) If it is known that the sum of the numbers appearing was 8, what is the probability that the difference between the two numbers was 2.
 - (ii) If it is known that the difference between the two numbers was 3, what is the

- probability that the sum of the two numbers was 7?
- ii. Two unbiased dice are thrown once. What is the probability that
- at least one 5 is thrown.
 - the sum is 10
 - the sum is 10 given that no 5 is thrown?

4.0 CONCLUSION

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, the following were treated:

- Elementary principle of the theory of probability
- properties of probability
- conditional probability

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- Suppose events A and B are such that $P(A) = 1/5$, $P(A \cap B) = 1/6$.
Find (i) $P(B|A)$; (ii) $P(A^c | B^c)$.
- If A and B are two events defined on the same probability space, show that: (i) $P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c) = P(B) + P(A \cap B^c) - P(A^c \cap B)$.
- Prove that $P(A^c \cap B^c) = 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$.
- Suppose a well-balanced coin is tossed twice.
Find the conditional probability that
 - both coins show a tail given that the first shows ahead;
 - both are heads given that at least one of them is a head.
- A red die and a green die are rolled once. Find the conditional probability that:
 - the number on red die is odd, given that the sum of the two numbers showing is 9;
 - the sum of the two numbers is 9 given that one of the numbers is odd and the other even?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT 2 BAYES THEOREM

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 - 3.2 Independence
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Bayes’ Theorem is often referred to as a theorem on the probability of causes because it enables one to find the probabilities of the various events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n which can cause A to occur. Also, the notion of independence is a basic tool of probability theory.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Use Bayes’ theorem to calculate the probability of an event given the occurrence of other events that forms the sub-space of the sample space
- Calculation of the probabilities of independent events

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Bayes Theorem

Suppose a box contains r red balls and b black balls. Two balls are drawn at random without replacement. Assume that the probability of drawing any particular ball is $\frac{1}{r+b}$.

Let A_1 be the event “the first ball drawn is red” and let A_2 be the event “the second ball drawn is red”. Then

$$P(A_1) = \frac{r}{r+b}, P(A_2 | A_1) = \frac{r-1}{r+b-1}$$

$$P(A_2 | A_1^c) = \frac{r}{r+b-1}$$

The probability of the event A_2 depends on A_1 and A_1^c . That is A_2 is equivalent to $A_2 \cap A_1 \cup A_2 \cap A_1^c$.

$$A_2 = A_1 \cap A_2 \text{ or } A_1^c \cap A_2.$$

Therefore,

$$P(A_2) = P(A_2 \cap A_1) + P(A_2 \cap A_1^c) = P(A_1)P(A_2 | A_1) + P(A_1^c)P(A_2 | A_1^c).$$

Theorem 2.3

If the probability of an event B, depends on k mutually exclusive and exhaustive events

A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k , then

$$P(B) = P(B \cap A_1) + P(B \cap A_2) + \dots + P(B \cap A_k)$$

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

Example 2.15

Suppose a box contains 3 red balls, 2 black balls and 5 green balls. Two balls are drawn at random without replacement. Find the probability that the second ball drawn is red. Let A_1 be the event “the first ball drawn is red”, A_2 the event “the first ball drawn is black” and A_3 , the event “the first ball drawn is green”. Let B be the event “the second ball drawn is red”. The event B occurs if

- (i) the first ball is red and the second is red or
- (ii) the first ball is black and the second is red or
- (iii) the first ball is green and the second is red. Thus

$$B = B \cap A_1 \text{ or } B \cap A_2 \text{ or } B \cap A_3, P(B | A_1) = 2/9, P(B | A_2) = 3/9, P(B | A_3) = 3/9.$$

$P(B)$ depends on A_1, A_2, A_3 which are mutually and exhaustive events. Therefore,

$$P(B) = P(B \cap A_1) + P(B \cap A_2) + P(B \cap A_3)$$

$$= P(A_1)P(B | A_1) + P(A_2)P(B | A_2) + P(A_3)P(B | A_3) = 3/10 \cdot 2/9 + 2/10 \cdot 3/9 + 5/10 \cdot 3/9$$

since $P(A_1) = 3/10, P(A_2) = 2/10, P(A_3) = 5/10$.

Thus

$$P(B) = 1/90(6 + 6 + 15) = 27/90 = 3/10.$$

Example 2.16

Suppose a factory has three machines M_1, M_2, M_3 which produce 60%, 30% and 10% of the total production respectively. Of their output, machine M_1 produces 2% defective items, machine M_2 produces 3% defective items while machine M_3 produces 4% defective items. Find the probability that a part selected at random is defective.

Solution

Let B be the event “a part selected at random is defective”. A defective item could have been produced by either machine M_1, M_2 or M_3 . Thus

$$B = (B \cap M_1) \cup (B \cap M_2) \cup (B \cap M_3)$$

Since $(B \cap M_1), (B \cap M_2), (B \cap M_3)$ are mutually exclusive events. The following information is contained in the equation.

$$P(M_1) = 60\% = 0.6, P(M_2) = 0.3, P(M_3) = 0.1$$

$$P(B|M_1) = 0.02, P(B|M_2) = 0.03, P(B|M_3) = 0.04$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P(M_1)P(B|M_1) + P(M_2)P(B|M_2) + P(M_3)P(B|M_3) \\ &= (0.6 \times 0.02) + (0.3 \times 0.03) + (0.1 \times 0.04) = 0.002 + 0.009 + 0.004 = 0.025. \end{aligned}$$

suppose you are now asked, what is the probability that a given defective part was produced by machine M_1 . that is, you are to find $P(M_1|B) = P(\text{a part was produced by machine } M_1 \text{ given that the part was defective})$.

NOTE:

1. $P(M_1|B) \neq P(B|M_1)$, but
2. $P(M_1 \cap B) = P(B \cap M_1)$

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^3 P(M_i \cap B)$$

hence,

$$P(M_1|B) = \frac{P(M_1 \cap B)}{\sum_{i=1}^3 P(M_i \cap B)} = \frac{P(M_1)P(B|M_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^3 P(M_i)P(B|M_i)} \quad 2.4$$

Thus,

$$P(M_1|B) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.02}{0.025} = \frac{0.012}{0.025} = 0.48$$

$$P(M_2|B) = \frac{0.3 \cdot 0.03}{0.025} = \frac{0.009}{0.025} = 0.36$$

$$P(M_3|B) = \frac{0.1 \cdot 0.04}{0.025} = \frac{0.004}{0.025} = 0.16$$

Equation(2.4)isanexampleof Bayestheoremwhichmaybestatedasfollows.

BayesTheorem

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k are set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive events in a sample space Ω and

B is any other event in Ω such that $P(B) > 0$, then

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}; i = 1, 2, \dots, k \quad 2.5$$

Example 2.17

Suppose a college is composed of 70% male and 30% female students. It is known that

40% of the male students and 20% of the female students smoke cigarette. Find the probability that a student observed smoking a cigarette is male?

Let M, F denote male and female respectively and S denote smoker. The above problem contains the following information.

$$P(M) = P(\text{A student selected at random is male}) = 0.7$$

$$P(F) = P(\text{A student selected at random is female}) = 0.3$$

$$P(S|M) = P(\text{a student selected at random smokes given that the selected student is male}) = 0.4$$

$$P(S|F) = P(\text{a student selected at random smokes given that the selected student is female}) = 0.2$$

By Bayes theorem, we have

$$P(M|S) = P(\text{a student observed smoking is male})$$

$$= P(\text{A student selected at random is male given that the selected student is a smoker})$$

$$\frac{P(M \cap S)}{P(S)}$$

Where $P(S) = P(\text{a student selected at random is a smoker})$

$$= P(S \cap M) + P(S \cap F) = P(M)P(S|M) + P(F)P(S|F)$$

$$= (0.7 \times 0.4) + (0.3 \times 0.2) = 0.28 + 0.06 = 0.34$$

Thus

$$P(M|S) = \frac{P(M)P(S|M)}{P(S)} = \frac{0.7 \cdot 0.4}{0.34} = \frac{0.28}{0.34} = \frac{14}{17}$$

Example 2.18

A table has drawers. Drawer I contains two red and five black biros, drawer II contains four red and three black biros and drawer III contains one red and six black biros. A drawer is chosen at random and a biro is chosen from the drawer. Find the probability that

- (i) the biro chosen is black
- (ii) the biro chosen is from drawer I if the chosen biro is black.

Solution

Let $P(i)$ denote the probability that drawer i is selected ($i = 1, 2, 3$) and R and B representing red and black biros respectively.

Then

$$P(1) = 1/3, P(2) = 1/3, P(3) = 1/3$$

$$P(B|1) = 5/7, P(B|2) = 3/7, P(B|3) = 6/7$$

From equation (2.3)

$$(i) \quad P(B) = P(B \cap 1) + P(B \cap 2) + P(B \cap 3) = P(1)P(B|1) + P(2)P(B|2) + P(3)P(B|3) \\ = 1/3 \cdot 5/7 + 1/3 \cdot 3/7 + 1/3 \cdot 6/7 = 1/3(5/7 + 3/7 + 6/7) = 2/3.$$

(ii) $P(1|B) = P(\text{the biro chosen came from drawer I given that the chosen biro is black}).$

$$\frac{P(1 \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B \cap 1)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(1)P(B|1)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{5}{7}}{\frac{2}{3}} = \frac{5}{14}$$

Definition 2.5

Let A, B and C be three events such that $P(C) > 0$. Then the conditional probability of A given C is defined by

$$P(A|C) = P(A \cap C) / P(C)$$

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Suppose that a box contains 5 balls labeled 1 to 5. Two balls are drawn at random (one after the other without replacement). What is the probability that
 - (i) the sum of the numbers on the two balls selected is even?
 - (ii) The number on the first ball drawn is even if it is known that the sum of the two numbers is even.
2. In a large population, it is observed that 30 percent of the people that are black have cancer and 25 percent of the people are not black have cancer. Assume that 10 percent of the population is black. What is the probability that a person selected at random and found to have cancer is not black.
3. A vaccine produces immunity against smallpox in 98 percent of cases. Suppose that, in a large population, 20 percent have been vaccinated. Find the probability that a person who contracts smallpox has been vaccinated, assuming that a vaccinated person without immunity has the same probability of contracting smallpox as an unvaccinated person.
4. In a factory machines A, B, C produce respectively 20, 30 and 50 percent of the total production. Of their output 3, 4, 5 percent respectively are defective items. An item is drawn at random from the total production and is found defective. What are the probabilities that it was produced by machine A, B, C ?
5. In a faculty of a certain college, 60% of the students are female: 20% of the females and 50% of the males are studying mathematics. If a student's data card is selected at random and the student is found to be studying mathematics, what is the probability that the selected student is a male?
6. In JAMB examination each question has 5 possible answers, exactly one of which is correct. If a student knows the answer he selects the correct answer. Otherwise he selects one answer at random from the 5 possible answers. Suppose that the student knows the answer to 70% of the questions.
 - (i) What is the probability that on a given question the student gets the correct answer?
 - (ii) If the student gets the correct answer to a question, what is the probability that he knows the answer?
 - (iii) What is the expected score of the student in the examination?
7. A television set retailer finds out that 80% of his customers buy coloured T.V., and that 4 out of every 20 customers who buy coloured T.V. set also buy an antenna. Calculate the probability that:
 - (i) a randomly selected customer buys an antenna
 - (ii) a randomly selected customer who buys an antenna has bought a colored T.V.
 - (iii) a randomly selected customer who has not bought an antenna has bought a

colored T.V set.

8. In a factory, machines A, B and C produce 20, 30 and 40 percent of the total output, respectively. Of their output 5, 4 and 3 percent respectively are defective bolts. A bolt is chosen at random and found to be defective. What is the probability that the bolt came from machine (i) A (ii) B (iii) C?
9. Four percent of an article manufactured by a company are defective. All the articles produced are regularly inspected and those found defective are rejected. It is found that one out of every eight of defective articles produced is dismissed by the inspector, while every good article passes inspection. What is the probability that a customer buys a defective article produced by the company?

3.2 Independence

The notion of independence is a basic tool of probability theory. Consider tossing a die twice, and let A_1 be the event that the first toss gives an even number and A_2 the event that the second toss gives an even number. The event $A_1 \cap A_2$ is the event that both tosses give even numbers. The occurrence of A_1 does not affect the probability of A_2 occurring.

Therefore

$P(A_2|A_1) = P(A_2)$ and $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1) = P(A_1)P(A_2)$. Hence, we say that two events A_1 and A_2 are independent if

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2).$$

Example 1.19

Toss a fair die twice and let A be the event “the first toss shows 3” and B be the event the sum of the two numbers showing is 7.

$$P(A) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$B \equiv \{(1, 6), (6, 1), (2, 5), (3, 4), (4, 3), (5, 2)\}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$A \cap B \equiv \{\text{the first is 3 and sum is 7}\} = \{(3, 4)\}$$

Therefore,

$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{36}$$

Thus $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ hence, A and B are independent events. In general case of n events, we have the following definition.

Definition 2.6

The events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are independent if

(i) $P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i)P(A_j)$ for all $i \neq j$

(ii) $P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) = P(A_i)P(A_j)P(A_k)$ for all i, j, k such that $i \neq j \neq k$ (2.7)

$$(n-1)P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \dots A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3) \dots P(A_n)$$

That is, the events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are said to be mutually independent if

$$P(A_{n_1} A_{n_2} \dots A_{n_k}) = P(A_{n_1})P(A_{n_2}) \dots P(A_{n_k}) \quad \text{For every subsequence of two or more events.}$$

$A_{n_1}, A_{n_2}, \dots, A_{n_k}$ is a subsequence of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n if the subscript integers satisfy

$$1 \leq n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k \leq n.$$

If $n=3$, we have, A_1, A_2, A_3 are independent if

- (i) $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2)$ $P(A_1 \cap A_3) = P(A_1)P(A_3)$ $P(A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_2)P(A_3)$
- (ii) $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3)$

Condition (i) is called pairwise independent. We might think that pairwise independence always implies independence. But this is not necessarily so, as illustrated by the following example.

Example 2.20

Let a pair of fair dice be rolled once. Consider the events. A_1 number appearing on the first die is even, $A_2 =$ the number appearing on the second die is odd $= \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $A_3 =$ the difference of the two numbers is even

$$A_1 \equiv \{(2,1), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), (2,6), (4,1), (4,2), \dots, (6,1), (6,2), \dots\}$$

$$A_2 \equiv \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,5), (2,1), (2,3), (2,5), (3,1), \dots\}$$

$$A_3 \equiv \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,5), (2,2), (2,4), (2,6), (3,1), (3,3), (3,5), (4,2), (4,4), (4,6), (5,1), (5,3), (5,5), (6,2), (6,4), (5,6)\}$$

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \equiv \{(2,1), (2,3), (2,5), (4,1), (4,3), (4,5), (6,1), (6,3), (6,5)\}$$

$$A_2 \cap A_3 \equiv \{(1,1), (1,3), (1,5), (3,1), (3,3), (3,5), (5,1), (5,3), (5,5)\}$$

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 = \Phi.$$

Thus

$$P(A_1) = \frac{1}{2}, P(A_2) = \frac{1}{2}, P(A_3) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = \frac{6}{36}, P(A_1 \cap A_3) = \frac{1}{4}, P(A_2 \cap A_3) = \frac{6}{36}$$

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

That is, A_1, A_2, A_3 are pairwise independent but

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = 0 \neq P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3) = \frac{1}{8}$$

Since condition (ii) is not satisfied, we conclude that A_1, A_2 and A_3 are not independent.

Definition 2.7

If the events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are independent then

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2) \dots P(A_n) \tag{2.8}$$

Example 2.21

A man fires 10 shots independently at a target. What is the probability that he hits the target (i) 10 times; (ii) at least once

If he has probability $1/3$ of hitting the target on any given shot.

(i) Let A_i be the event "he hits the target at the i th shot" ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 10$)

$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{10}$ is the event he hits the target 10 times. A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{10} are independent events.

Therefore, the probability of hitting the target 10 times is

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{10}) = P(A_1)P(A_2) \dots P(A_{10}) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \dots \frac{1}{3} = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{10}$$

(ii) $P(\text{hitting the target at least once}) = 1 - P(\text{not hitting the target at all})$.

$$P(\text{not hitting the target at all}) = P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{10})$$

Where, $A_i \equiv$ not hitting the target at the i th shot. A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{10} are independent events and $P(A_i) = 1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$.

Hence

$$P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_{10}) = P(\bar{A}_1)P(\bar{A}_2) \dots P(\bar{A}_{10}) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{10}$$

Examples

2.22 Suppose a box contains 5 red and 3 black balls. A ball is chosen at random from the box and then a second ball is drawn at random from the remaining balls in the box. Find the probability that

- (i) both balls are black
- (ii) both balls are red
- (iii) the first ball is black and the second is red
- (iv) the second is red

(v) thesecond is black.

Solution

Let A_1 be the event "the first ball is red"

\bar{A}_1 be the event "the first ball is black"

A_2 be the event "the second ball is red"

\bar{A}_2 be the event "the second ball is black"

(i) $P(\text{both balls are black}) = P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2)$
 $P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2) = P(\bar{A}_1)P(\bar{A}_2)D\bar{A}_1$
 $P(\bar{A}_1) = \frac{2}{8} P(\bar{A}_2 D\bar{A}_1) = \frac{2}{7}$

Thus

$$P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2) = \frac{2}{8} \times \frac{2}{7} = \frac{2}{28}$$

(ii) $P(\text{both balls are red}) = P(A_1 \cap A_2)$
 $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2)DA_1$
 $P(A_1) = \frac{5}{8} P(A_2 DA_1) = \frac{5}{7}$

Thus

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = \frac{5}{8} \times \frac{4}{7} = \frac{5}{14}$$

(iii) $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(\text{first ball is black and the second ball is red}) = P(\bar{A}_1)P(A_2)\bar{A}_1$
 $P(\bar{A}_1) = \frac{2}{8} P(A_2 D\bar{A}_1) = \frac{5}{7}$

Thus

$$P(\bar{A}_1 \cap A_2) = \frac{2}{8} \times \frac{5}{7} = \frac{15}{56}$$

(iv) $P(A_2) = P(A_2 \cap A_1) + P(A_2 \cap \bar{A}_1)$

From (ii) and (iii) we have $\frac{5}{14} + \frac{15}{56} = \frac{35}{56} = \frac{5}{8}$

(v) $P(\bar{A}_2) = P(A_1 \cap \bar{A}_2) + P(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2) = \frac{3}{7} + \frac{2}{28} = \frac{11}{14}$

2.23 Two fair dice are rolled. Given that the dices show different numbers, what is the probability that at least one die shows a 6?

Solution

Let A be the event: the dices show different numbers.

$$A \equiv \{(1,2),(2,1),(1,3),(3,1),(1,4),(4,1),(1,5),(5,1), (1,6),(6,1), (2,3), \dots (5,6),(6,5)\}$$

$B \equiv$ At least one die shows a 6.

$$\equiv \{(1,6), (6,1),(2,6),(6,2),(3,6),(6,3),(4,6),(6,4), (5,6),(6,5)\}$$

$$A \cap B = \{(1,6), (6,1),(2,6),(6,2),(3,6),(6,3),(4,6),(6,4),(5,6),(6,5)\}$$

$$P(B|A) = \frac{10}{20} = \frac{1}{2}$$

2.24 Let A and B be any two events defined on the same sample space. Suppose $P(A) = 0.3$ and $P(A \cup B) = 0.6$. Find $P(B)$ such that

- (i) A and B are independent
- (ii) A and B are mutually exclusive.

Solution

(i) If A and B are independent, then $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

Thus

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

We have

$$0.6 = 0.3 + P(B) - 0.3P(B) = 0.3 + 0.7P(B)$$

$$P(B) = \frac{0.3}{0.7} = 0.43$$

(ii) If A and B are mutually exclusive, then

$$P(A \cap B) = 0$$

Thus

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

$$0.6 = 0.3 + P(B)$$

$$P(B) = 0.3$$

2.25 Two women A and B share an office with a single telephone. The probability that any call will be for A is $\frac{2}{3}$.

Suppose that A is out of her office during the office hours half of the time and B one third.

Find the probability that for any call during the working hours

- (i) no one is into answer the call

- (ii) A call can be answered by the person being called
- (iii) Two successive calls are for the same woman
- (iv) A caller who wants A has to try more than two times together.

Solution

(i) $P(\text{A and B are not in the office}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$

(ii) $P(\text{A call can be answered by the person being called})$
 $= P(\text{call for A and A is in the office}) + P(\text{call for B and B is in the office})$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{5}{9}$$

(iii) $P(\text{for AA}) + P(\text{for BB}) = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{9}$

(iv) $P(X > 2) = 1 - P(X = 1) - P(X = 2)$.

Where X number of time for a caller who wants A has to try together. Thus, $P(X > 2) = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. (a) Show that if A and B are independent events, then
 - (i) A and B^c , (ii) A^c and B^c are also independent.
2. Let A and B denote two independent events such that A is a subset of B. Prove that either $P(A) = 0$ or $P(B) = 1$.
3. A man fires 10 shots independently at a target. The probability of hitting the target at any shot is $\frac{1}{3}$. Calculate the probability that
 - (i) none of the shots hit the target
 - (ii) At least one shot hits the target
 - (iii) The target is hit at least twice if it is known that it is hit at least once.
4. A box contains 6 red balls and 4 white balls. Three balls are drawn from the box one after the other without replacement. Find the probability that
 - (i) the first two are white and the third red
 - (ii) the first two are white and the third white.
 - (iii) two are red and one is white
 - (iv) the second ball drawn is red
 - (v) the third ball drawn is white
5. A die is rolled 8 times. What is the probability that
 - (i) exactly 2 sixes appear.

- (ii) at least 2 sixes appear.
- (iii) at most 2 sixes appear.
- 6. Prove that if A_1, \dots, A_n are independent events then
 - (i) $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = 1 - [1 - P(A_1)][1 - P(A_2)] \dots [1 - P(A_n)]$
 - (ii) $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq 1 - e^{-[P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_n)]}$

Hint: $(1-x_1)(1-x_2)\dots(1-x_n) \geq e^{-(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)}$ $x \leq 1$
- 7. Show that $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A|B \cap C)P(B|C)P(C)$.
- 8. A die is tossed n times. What is the probability that a 6 appears at least two times in the n tosses.
- 9. Suppose that A or B occurs is 0.7 while $P(A) = 0.2$, find $P(B)$.
- 10. A boy decides to continue tossing a fair coin until he has thrown a total of three heads. Find P_n , the probability that exactly n tosses will be needed.
- 11. Six blood samples are selected from 40 blood samples, of which four are cancerous. What is the probability that exactly two of the blood samples selected are cancerous?
- 12. Prove that if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are any n events, then

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \dots \cap A_n) > 1 - \{P(A_1^c) + P(A_2^c) + \dots + P(A_n^c)\}.$$
- 13. Prove that
 - (i) $P(A \cap B^c) = P(A) - P(A \cap B)$
 - (ii) $P(A \cap B^c) = 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$
 - (iii) $P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c)$
 - (iv) $P(A \cap B) \geq P(A) + P(B) - 1$.
- 14. Three coins have probabilities 0.5, 0.6 and 0.8 for heads respectively. One of them is selected at random, that is, with equal chance for each, and tossed. If the outcome is head, what is the probability that the coin with probability 0.8 for heads was selected?
- 15. On a certain weekend there are 4 movies. Calculate the probability that at least one of A and B will be selected by one or more of the 3 students.
- 16. A box contains n white balls numbered 1 to n , n black balls numbered 1 to n , and n red balls numbered 1 to n . If two balls are drawn at random without replacement, what is the probability that both balls will be of the same colour or bear the same numbers.
- 17. On the first round, three fair coins are flipped at random. The coins resulting in heads are flipped at random on the second round. If the second round results in exactly one head, what is the conditional probability that the first round ended in exactly two heads?

4.0 CONCLUSION

By now the idea of using Bayes' Theorem for calculating probability of mutually exclusive events has been dealt with together with calculation of independent events.

5.0 SUMMARY

Recall that in this unit we have studied the calculation of probability of mutually exclusive events using Bayes' theorem. We also established the calculation of the probability of independent events.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. State the number of different arrangements or permutations consisting of 3 letters each which can be formed from the 7 letters A,B,C,D,E,F,G.
2. A student tossed a fair coin until he has thrown total of four heads. Find P_n , the probability that exactly n tosses will be needed.
3. A basket contains 4 red balls and 6 white balls. Three balls are drawn from the box one after the other without replacement. Find the probability that
 - (i) Two are red and one is white
 - (ii) The third ball drawn is white
 - (iii) The first two are white and the third red

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT3 DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLES

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Discrete Random variables
 - 3.2 Properties of the probability distribution function
 - 3.3 Special discrete random variables
 - 3.4 Bernoulli
 - 3.5 Trail The Binomial
 - 3.6 The Binomial Random variable
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A random variable is a variable whose actual numerical value is determined by chance. There are two easily identifiable types of random variables, discrete and continuous. A discrete variable is one that takes only a limited number of possible values, otherwise the variable is called continuous. This unit is devoted to discrete random variables.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state the probability density function of a sample space
- state the properties of the discrete random variables
- solve the probability density function with replacement and without replacement
- state the Bernoulli Trail, Bernoulli random variable.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Discrete Random Variable

Random variable which takes on a finite or countable infinite number of values is called a discrete random variable which one which takes on a noncountably infinite number of values is called a nondiscrete or continuous random variable.

Example 3.1

Consider variable X , the number of heads in three tosses of a coin. There are four possible values (0, 1, 2, 3) of X .

The actual value assumed is due to chance therefore X is a random variable. The sample space for this experiment is

$$\Omega = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, THH, HTT, THT, TTH, TTT\}$$

$$X = 0 \text{ if the outcome is } TTT$$

$$X = 1 \text{ if the outcome is } HTT, \text{ or } THT, \text{ or } TTH$$

$$X = 2 \text{ if the outcome is } HHT \text{ or } HTH \text{ or } THH$$

$$X = 3 \text{ if the outcome is } HHH$$

Let p be the probability of the coin landing tail. Since landing tail and landing head are exhaustive events the probability of the coin landing head is $1-p$.

$$P(T \cap T \cap T) = P(T)P(T)P(T)$$

Since the outcome at each trial is independent.

$$P(TTT) = p \cdot p \cdot p = p^3$$

$$P(HTH) = P(T)P(H)P(H) = p(1-p)(1-p) = (1-p)^2$$

$$P(HTH) = P(H)P(H)P(H) = (1-p)(1-p) = (1-p)^2$$

$$P(HHT) = P(H)P(H)P(T) = (1-p)(1-p)p = (1-p)^2$$

$$\text{The probability of getting two heads} = P(THH) + P(HTH) + P(HHT) = 3p(1-p)^2$$

Similarly we have

$$P(0 \text{ heads}) = P(TTT) = p^3$$

$$P(1 \text{ head}) = P(HTT) + P(TTH) + P(THT) = 3p^2(1-p)$$

$$P(3 \text{ heads}) = P(HHH) = (1-p)^3$$

Thus we have the following table

Heads	0	1	2	3
Probability	p^3	$3p^2(1-p)$	$3p(1-p)^2$	$(1-p)^3$

$P(0 \text{ head}) = P(X \text{ is } 0) = p^3, P(X=1) = 3p^2(1-p)$ and so on

The random variable X defined above is an example of what is called a discrete random variable. A random variable is denoted by a capital letter such as X, Y, Z, \dots and the values that the random variable takes on is denoted by a lowercase letter x, y, z, \dots . The notation $P(X=x)$ means the probability that the random variable X takes on the value x .

Definition 3.1

A random variable X on a sample space Ω is a function assigned to each element $\omega \in \Omega$ and only one real number $X(\omega) = x$, the space of X is the set of real number $\Phi = \{x : x = X(\omega), \omega \in \Omega\}$.

Definition 3.2

A random variable X is discrete if it can assume at most a finite or a countable infinite number of possible values. In the above example,

$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots, \omega_n\}$

Where $\omega_1 = HHH, \omega_2 = HHT, \dots, \omega_8 = TTT$

$X(\omega_1) = 3, X(\omega_2) = 2, X(\omega_3) = 2, X(\omega_4) = 2$

$X(\omega_5) = 1, X(\omega_6) = 1, X(\omega_7) = 1, X(\omega_8) = 0$

That is $\{\omega : X(\omega) = x\}$ is an event

Definition 3.3

The real valued function f defined on R by $f(x) = P(X = x)$ is called the discrete probability density function of X .

Let X be a discrete random variable and suppose that the values it can assume are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

The probability can be written as

$P(X = x_1) = f(x_1), P(X = x_2) = f(x_2), \dots, P(X = x_n) = f(x_n)$ Such that $F(x)$ is called probability density function of X

For an illustration, let us consider the following examples.

Example 3.2

Suppose a pair of fair dice is tossed once. Let X, Y, Z represent the sum, maximum and minimum respectively of the two numbers appearing find the probability density function of

- (i) X , (ii) Y , (iii) Z .

Solution

The sample space $\Omega = \{(1,1), (1,2), \dots, (6,6)\}$ consist of 36 elements

(i) $P(X = 2) = P\{(1,1)\} = \frac{1}{36}$

$P(X = 3) = P\{(1,2), (2,1)\} = \frac{2}{36}$

$P(X = 4) = P\{(1,3), (3,1), (2,2)\} = \frac{3}{36}$

$P(X = 12) = P\{(6,6)\} = \frac{1}{36}$

Thus, $F(2) = \frac{1}{36}, F(3) = \frac{2}{36}, F(4) = \frac{3}{36}$

In tabular form we have

X	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
F(x)	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

in function form

- (ii) $Y =$ Maximum of the two number
Possible values of Y are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

$g(1) = P(Y = 1) = P\{(1,1)\} = 1/36$

$g(2) = P(Y = 2) = P\{(1,2), (2,1), (2,2)\} = 3/36$

$g(3) = P(Y = 3) = P\{(1,3), (3,1), (2,3), (3,2), (3,3)\} = 5/36$

$$g(4) = P(Y=4) = P\{(1,4)(4,1) (2,4) (4,2) (3,4) (4,3) (4,4)\} = 7/36$$

$$g(5) = P(Y=5) = P\{(1,5), (5,1), (2,5) (5,2) (3,5) (5,3) (4,5) (5,4) (5,5)\} = 9/36$$

$$g(6) = P(Y=6) = P\{(1,6), (6,1) (2,6) (6,2) (3,6) (6,3) (4,6) (6,4) (5,6) (6,5) (6,6)\} = 11/36$$

Putting in form a table we have

Y	1	2	3	4	5	6
g(y)	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{7}{36}$	$\frac{9}{36}$	$\frac{11}{36}$

This can be written in a functional form as

(iii) $Z = \text{Minimum of the two numbers}$

The possible values of Z are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

$$P(Z=1) = P\{(1,6), (6,1) (1,5) (5,1) (1,4) (4,1) (1,3) (3,1) (1,2) (2,1) (1,1)\} = \frac{11}{36}$$

$$P(Z=2) = P\{(2,6) (6,2) (2,5) (5,2) (2,4) (4,2) (2,3) (3,2) (2,2)\} = 9/36$$

$$P(Z=4) = P\{(4,6) (6,4) (4,5) (5,4) (4,4)\} = 5/36$$

$$P(Z=5) = P\{(5,6) (6,5) (5,5)\} = 3/36$$

$$P(Z=6) = P\{(6,6)\} = 1/36$$

Putting in form of a table we have

Z	1	2	3	4	5	6
h(z)	$\frac{11}{36}$	$\frac{9}{36}$	$\frac{7}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

$$H(Z) = \frac{13 - 2Z}{36}, Z=1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

= 0 for other values of x.

The probability density function of a discrete random variable X has the following properties

- (i) $0 \leq f(x) \leq 1, x \in R$
- (ii) $\{X: f(x) = 0\}$ is a finite or countable infinite subset of R
- (iii) $\sum f(x_i) = 1$

Example 3.3

Let X, Y, Z be the random variable introduced in example 3.1 above

The above three properties are satisfied, properties (i) & (ii) are immediate from definition of probabilities. To check (iii) we have

$$\sum f(x_i) = 1/36 + 2/36 + 3/36 + 4/36 + 5/36 + 6/36 + 5/36 + 4/36 + 3/36 + 2/36 + 1/36 = 1$$

$$\sum G(y_i) = 1/36 + 3/36 + 5/36 + 7/36 + 9/36 + 11/36 = 1$$

$$\sum h(z_i) = 11/36 + 9/36 + 7/36 + 5/36 + 5/36 + 3/36 + 1/36 = 1$$

Example 3.4

Suppose a box contains balls of which 4 are red and 6 are black. A random sample of size 3 is selected. Let X denote the number of red balls selected. Find the probability density function of X if

(i) Sampling is without replacement

(ii) Sampling is with replacement

(iii) The possible values of X are 0, 1, 2, 3.

$$P(X=0) = (P \text{ no red ball in the three balls selected}) = \frac{{}^6C_3}{{}^{10}C_3} = \frac{120}{120} = 1$$

$$P(X=1) = (P(1 \text{ red and } 2 \text{ black balls})) = \frac{{}^4C_1 \times {}^6C_2}{{}^{10}C_3} = \frac{4 \times 15}{120} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(X=2) = \frac{{}^4C_2 \times {}^6C_1}{{}^{10}C_3} = \frac{6 \times 6}{120} = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$P(X=3) = \frac{{}^4C_3}{{}^{10}C_3} = \frac{1}{120}$$

Thus the p.d.f is

X	0	1	2	3
F(x)	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{10}$	$\frac{1}{30}$

As a check, we add up all the probabilities

$$1/6 + 1/2 + 3/10 + 1/30 = 1$$

(ii) Sampling with replacement

$P(X=0) = P(\text{first ball is black, second black and the third black}) = P(\text{bbb})$. The probability of black at any drawing is

$$6/10 = 3/5$$

This value is constant since drawing is with replacement. Therefore

$$P(\text{bbb}) = \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^3 = \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} =$$

$$P(X=1) = P(\text{Rbb}) + P(\text{bRb}) + P(\text{bbR}) = \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{2}{5}$$

$$= \binom{3}{1} \left(\frac{2}{5}\right) \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2 = 3 \times \frac{2 \times 3 \times 3}{5 \times 5 \times 5} = 3 \times \frac{18}{125}$$

$\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2$ Similarly,

$$P(X=2) = \binom{3}{2} \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 \left(\frac{3}{5}\right) = 3 \times \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} = 3 \times \frac{12}{125} = \frac{36}{125}$$

$$P(X=3) = P(\text{RRR}) = \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^3 = \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{2}{5} = \frac{8}{125}$$

Thus, the p.d.f of X is

X	0	1	2	3
f(x)		$\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^3$	$\frac{36}{125}$	

This can be written as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^{3-x} & x = 0, 1, 2, 3 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Example 3.5

A box contains 6 balls labeled 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. Two balls are drawn at random one after the other. Let X denote the larger of the two numbers on the balls selected, obtain the probability density function of X if

(i) Sampling without replacement (ii) Sampling with replacement

Solution

- (i) The possible values of X are 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. The larger of the two numbers cannot be 1 since sampling is without replacement and we cannot get a number twice.

$$P(X=2) = P\{(1,2), (2,1)\} = \frac{4}{6 \cdot 5}$$

$$P(X=3) = P\{(1,3), (3,1), (2,3), (3,2)\} = \frac{4}{6 \cdot 5}$$

$$P(X=5) = P\{(1,5), (5,1), (2,5), (5,2), (3,5), (5,3), (5,4), (4,5)\} = \frac{6}{6 \cdot 5}$$

Similarly,

$$P(X=6) = \frac{7}{6 \cdot 5}$$

Thus the probability density function of X is

X	2	3	4	5	6
f(x)	1/15	2/15	1/5	4/15	1/3

In functional form, this can be written as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2(x-1)}{6 \cdot 5} & x=2,3,4,5 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

- (ii) The possible values of X are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. The larger can be 1 in this case since (1,1) is a possible outcome. The sample space consists 36 possible outcomes

$$P(X=1) = P(1,1) = \frac{26}{36} = \frac{11}{18}$$

$$P(X=6) = P\{(1,6), (6,1), (2,6), (6,2), \dots, (6,6)\} = \frac{11}{36}$$

Hence the probability density function X is

X	1	2	3	4	5	6
f(x)	1/36	3/36	5/36	7/36	9/36	11/36

In functional form we have

$$f(x) = \frac{112x-1}{x^2}, x=2,3,4,5,6$$

3.6 A couple decides that they will continue to have children until either they have a boy and a girl in the family or they have four children. Assuming that boys and girls are equally likely to be born. Let X denote the number of children in the family. Find the probability density function of X.

The number of children in the family can either be 2, 3, or 4.

$$P(X=2) = P\{(B,G), (G,B)\}$$

That is, the couple will stop having more children if the first child is a boy and the second is a girl or the first is a girl and the second is a boy.

Thus,

$$P(X=2) = P(B,G) + P(G,B) = P(B)P(G) + P(G)P(B)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Similarly,

$$P(X=3) = P\{(BBG), (GGB)\} = P(BBG) + P(GGB) = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Hence, the probability density function of X is

X	2	3	4
f(x)	1/2	1/4	1/4

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. A fair coin is tossed until a head or five tails occur. Let X denote the number of tosses of the coin. Compute the probability density function of X.
2. A box contains 2 red balls and 3 blue balls. Balls are successively drawn without replacement until a blue ball is drawn. Let X denote the number of draws required. Compute the p.d.f of X
3. The pdf of a random variable X is given by

X	1	3	4	6	8
f(x)	k	k	k	k	k

Find $(i)K(ii)P(X \geq 3)$.

4. Toss a fair coin two times. Let X be the number of heads obtained. Find the pdf of X .
5. A coin with probability p of a head is tossed until a head appears. Let X denote the number of times the coin is tossed. Find the pdf of X .
6. A fair die is tossed twice. Let X denote the product of the two numbers appearing. Find the pdf of X .
7. A fair coin is tossed 3 times. Let X represent the difference between the number of heads and the number of tails obtained. Find the pdf of X .
8. The pdf of a random variable X is given by $f(x) = \{k2^{-x}, x=1,2,3,\dots,N, \text{zero elsewhere}\}$. Find the value of K .

Definition 3.3

Probability Distribution function. Let X be a random variable with probability density function $f(x)$. The probability distribution function of X denoted $F(x)$ is defined by $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ for x real.

$$= \sum_{y \leq x} f(y)$$

Properties of the Probability distribution function

1. F is a nondecreasing function, that is if $a < b$, then $F(a) < F(b)$.
2. $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} F(b) = 1$. $\lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} F(b) = 0$
3. F is right continuous. That is $F(b^+) = F(b)$.

Let A be any subset of R and let $f(x)$ be the probability density function of X . we can compute $P(X \in A)$ by noting that $\{w: X(w) \in A\}$ is an event and that $\{w: X(w) \in A\} = \cup \{w: X(w) = x_j\}$.

$X_j \in A$
 Thus
 $P(X \in A) = \sum_{X_j \in A} f(X_j)$.

If A is an interval with endpoints a and b , say $A = [a, b]$.

Then

$$P(X \in A) = P(a \leq X \leq b) = \sum_a^b f(x_i)$$

Example 3.7

Consider the random variable X the sum of the two numbers appearing when a fair die is tossed twice of Example 3.2. The probability distribution function for X is given by

X	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
F(x)	1	3	6	10	15	21	26	30	33	35	36

Suppose we wish to find the probability that X is between 4 and 9 (4 and 9 inclusive) we write it as

$$P(4 \leq X \leq 9) = P(X = 4) + P(X = 5) + P(X = 6) + P(X = 7) + P(X = 8) + P(X = 9)$$

$$= \frac{3}{36} + \frac{4}{36} + \frac{5}{36} + \frac{6}{36} + \frac{7}{36} + \frac{8}{36}$$

This can also be written as $P(X \leq 9) - P(X \leq 3) = \frac{30}{36} - \frac{6}{36} = \frac{24}{36} = \frac{2}{3}$

3.2 Special Discrete Random Variables

3.2.1 In Section 3.1 we introduced discrete random variables and the probability density function of some random variables were determined. Some variables are so common and important that names are given to them.

In this section we shall consider in considerable detail a number of important discrete random variables.

Bernoulli Random variables

Definition 3.4

Bernoulli Trail:

A random trial or experiment is which the outcome can be classified into one of two mutually exclusive and exhaustive ways usually called success or failure is called a Bernoulli trial. The random variable associated with Bernoulli trial is called a Bernoulli random variable (X). Let $X = 0$ if outcome is a failure and $X = 1$ if the outcome is a success. This is any variable assuming only two values is called a Bernoulli random variable.

Suppose that we toss a coin once. Let the probability of it landing head be $p = \frac{1}{2}$, if the coin is fair and let denote the outcome of the toss. Then there are two possible values for X , Heads or tails. These two values are mutually, exclusive and exhaustive and we may associate the two possible outcomes of the toss with values 1, 0 of the random variables

X . That $X = 1$ when a head appears and $X = 0$ when a tail appears.

$P(X= 1) =p,P(X=0)=1-p.$

The p.d.f.of X is

X	0	1
f(x)	1-p	P

Or in functional form

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} p^X(1-p)^{1-x}, & x=0,1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad 3.1$$

f(x) as defined above is called the Bernoulli probability density function and any variable X having (3.1) as its probability density function is called a Bernoulli random variable and is said to have the Bernoulli distribution.

3.2.2 The Binomial Random Variable

This is one of the most important random variables in statistics and the most important discrete random variable. Consider n independent repetitions of Bernoulli trials. Let $X_i, i= 1, 2, \dots, n$ be Bernoulli random variables associated with the trials. The random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent Bernoulli random variables. Let us assume the probability of success is p and failure 1-p and

$P(x_1=1) =p$

Then, $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ is the number of successes in n Bernoulli trials. That is, S_n is a counting-variable counting the number of successes in n repeated trials. This random variable S_n is called the Binomial random variable. The possible values of S_n are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, ..., n.

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_n=0) &= P(\text{no success}) \\ &= P(1\text{st trail is a failure})P(2^{\text{nd}} \text{ trail is a failure}) \dots P(n\text{th trail is a failure}). \\ &= P(X_1=0) P(X_2= 0)P(X_3= 0) \dots P(X_n= 0) \\ &= (1-p)(1-p)(1-p) \dots (1-p) = (1-p)^n. \end{aligned}$$

S_n is 1 if the sequence of outcome is

1000000...0 or 010...0 or 0010...0, ... 0000001

$$P(S_n=1) = P(1,0,0,0,\dots,0) + P(0,1,0,0,\dots,0) + \dots + P(0,0,\dots,1)$$

$$= P(X_1=1)P(X_2=0)\dots P(X_n=0) + P(X_1=0)P(X_2=1)\dots P(X_n=0) + \dots + P(X_1=0)\dots P(X_n=1)$$

$$= P(1-p)\dots(1-p) + (1-p)P(1-p)\dots(1-p) + \dots + (1-p)\dots(1-p)$$

$$= P(1-p)^{n-1} + P(1-p)^{n-1} + \dots + P(1-p)^{n-1} = np(1-p)^{n-1}$$

Similarly,

$$P(S_n=2) = {}^nC_2 p^2 (1-p)^{n-2}$$

Where nC_2 is the number of sequences in which exactly 2 have value 1 and the others 0 e.g. (1,1,0,0,0,0,...,0), (1,0,1,0,...,0)...

In general, it can easily be seen that

$$P(S_n=k) = {}^nC_k p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

Where nC_k is the number of sequences in which exactly k have value 1 and others 0. For example when n=4, possible sequences of outcomes are given below.

Sequence	S_n	$P(S_n)$
(0,0,0,0)	0	$(1-p)^4$
(1,0,0,0)	1	$P(1-p)^3$
(0,1,0,0)	1	$P(1-p)^3$
(0,0,1,0)	1	$P(1-p)^3$
(0,0,0,1)	1	$P(1-p)^3$
(1,1,0,0)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$
(1,0,1,0)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$
(1,0,0,1)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$
(0,1,1,0)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$
(0,0,1,1)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$
(0,1,0,1)	2	$p^2(1-p)^2$

(1,1,1,0)	3	$p^3(1-p)$
(1,1,0,1)	3	$p^3(1-p)$
(1,0,1,1)	3	$p^3(1-p)$
(0,1,1,1)	3	$p^3(1-p)$
(1,1,1,1)	4	p^4

Thus, $P(S_n=0) = (1-p)^4$

$P(S_n=1) = 4p(1-p)^3$

$P(S_n=2) = 6p^2(1-p)^2$

$P(S_n=3) = 4p^3(1-p)$ $P(S_n=4) = p^4$

Theorem 3.1

Let S_n denote number of successes in repeated Bernoulli trials, with probability of success p . the probability density function of S_n is given by

$$f(x) = P(S_n = x) = {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad x=0,1,\dots,n \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ 0 \end{array} \right. \quad (3.2)$$

Definition 3.5

A discrete random variable X denoting total number of successes in n trials is said to have the binomial distribution if

$$P(X = x) = {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x}; x=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$0 \leq p \leq 1$$

The conditions under which binomial distribution will arise are

- (i) The number of trials is fixed
- (ii) There are only two possible outcomes 'success' or 'failure' at each trial.
- (iii) The trials are independent
- (iv) The probability of success at each trial is constant
- (v) The variable is the total number of successes in n trials.

Example 3.8

A soldier fires 10 independently at a target. Find the probability that he hits the target.

- (i) once
- (ii) at least 9 times
- (iii) at most two times.

If he has probability 0.8 of hitting the target at any given time? Let X denote the number of times he hits the target. Then X is a binomial variable with $n=10$ and $p=0.8$

From equation (3.2), we have

$$P(X = x) = {}^{10} C_x (0.8)^x (0.2)^{10-x}$$

- (i) $P(X = 1) = {}^{10} C_1 (0.8)^1 (0.2)^9 = 10(0.2)^9$
- (ii) $P(\text{He hits the target at least 9 times}) = P(X \geq 9)$
 $= P(X = 9) + P(X = 10)$

$$P(X = 9) = {}^{10} C_9 (0.8)^9 (0.2) = 10 \times (0.8)^9 \times 0.2 = 2(0.8)^9$$

$$P(X = 10) = {}^{10} C_{10} (0.8)^{10} = (0.8)^{10}$$

Hence,

$$P(X \geq 9) = 2(0.8)^9 + (0.8)^{10} = (0.8)^9 (2 + 0.8) = (0.8)^9 (2.8) = 0.3758$$

- (iii) $P(\text{at most twice}) = P(X \leq 2) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)$

$$P(X = 0) = (0.2)^{10};$$

$$P(X = 1) = 10(0.2)^9;$$

$$P(X = 2) = 45(0.2)^8 (0.2)^2$$

Thus,

$$P(X \leq 2) = (0.2)^{10} + 10(0.2)^9 + 45(0.2)^8 (0.2)^2 = 0.00008.$$

Example 3.9

A fair die is rolled four times. Find the probability of getting 2 sixes. Let us call a six a success on a toss of a die and let X be the number of sixes (successes) in 4 trials. X is a binomial random variable with $n=4$ and $p=1/6$. Thus,

$$P(X=2) = {}^4C_2 \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^2 = \frac{25}{216}$$

Example 3.10

Suppose that a certain type of electric bulb has a probability of 0.3 of functioning more than 800 hours. Out of 50 bulbs, what is the probability that less than 3 will function more than 800 hours. Let X be the number of bulbs functioning more than 800 hours. Assuming that X has a Binomial distribution,

$$P(X=x) = {}^{50}C_x (0.3)^x (0.7)^{50-x}$$

$$P(X < 3) = P(X=0) + P(X=1) + P(X=2)$$

$$P(X=0) = (0.7)^{50}; P(X=1) = 50 \cdot (0.3)(0.7)^{49}$$

$$P(X=2) = {}^{50}C_2 (0.3)^2 (0.7)^{48}$$

Thus,

$$P(X < 3) = (0.7)^{50} + 15(0.7)^{49} + 110.25(0.7)^{48} = 0.0000046$$

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- A fair coin is tossed 4 times. Compute the probability that (i) exactly two heads occur (ii) at least 3 heads occur.
- An investigation reveals that four out of every five patients are cured of malaria when treated with a new drug. If a sample of ten patients is treated by the new drug, compute the probability that (i) exactly six patients are cured, (ii) at most four patients are cured.
- A man fires 12 shots independently at a target. The probability of hitting his target is $1/4$.
 - What is the probability of his hitting the target at least two times?
 - How many times must he fire so that the probability of his hitting the target at least once is greater than $7/9$?
- Six children are born in a hospital in a given day. Calculate
 - the probability that the number of boys is the same as the number of girls.
 - the probability that there are more girls than boys
 - the most likely number of boys.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Unit introduces idea of a random variable and its probability density function.

Section 3.2-3.4 are devoted to some special discrete random variables. Bernoulli, Binomial, Poisson, uniform, and negative binomial.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit has treated the following:

- Discrete Random variables
- Properties of the probability distribution function
- Special discrete random variables
- Bernoulli Trial
- The Bernoulli Random variable

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. An experiment has 90 percent probability of success and 10 percent probability of failure. The experiment is repeated four times. Find the probability of obtaining
 - (i) No success
 - (ii) No failure
 - (iii) Two successes and two failures.
2. Let X be a Binomial random variable with parameters (n, p) . show that
 - (i) $P(X = k)$ first increases monotonically and then decreases monotonically.
 - (ii) The value of k that maximizes $P(X = k)$ is the largest integer less than or equal to $(n+1)p$
 - (iii) $P(X = k) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = k -$
3. A fair coin is tossed repeatedly until three are obtained. Find P_n , the probability that exactly n tosses are needed.
4. Show that (i) $\sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = 1$
 (ii) $\sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = np$
 $0 < p < 1$.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT 4 GEOMETRIC RANDOM VARIABLE

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction

2.0	Objective
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Geometric Random Variable
3.2	Pascal or Negative Binomial Random Variable
3.3	The Hyper geometric Random Variable
3.4	The Poisson Random Variable
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A discrete random variable X is called a geometric random variable if its probability density function is given by

$$(1-p)^{x-1} p \quad x=1,2,3,\dots$$

$$F(x) = p(X=x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{otherwise} \\ 0 < p < 1 \end{cases} \quad (3.3)$$

Where X is the number of independent Bernoulli trials taken for the first success to occur.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- calculate the success or failure using binomial expansion
- describe the use of geometric random variable for probability problems
- use binomial distribution for calculation
- distinguish between Pascal distribution and geometric distribution.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Geometric Random Variable

Consider a Bernoulli trial with probability p of a success on one trial. The trial is continued until a success occurs. Let X denote number of trials before the first success. For example, a student decides to continue taking JAMB examination until he passes. X in this case denotes number of times he takes the examination before the first success.

The probability that the first $x-1$ trials are failures and the x^{th} trial is a success is given by $(1-p)^{x-1} p$.

To see this, the required probability is

$$P(\text{FFF...FS}) = P(F)P(F)\dots P(F)P(S) = (1-p)(1-p)(1-p)\dots(1-p)P = (1-p)^{x-1}p.$$

The probability that x trials are needed for the first success is the same as the probability that the first $x-1$ trials are failures and the x^{th} is a success. Thus,

$$P(X = x) = \begin{cases} p(1-p)^{x-1}, & x = 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Where X is the number of trials before the first success and if we define Y as the number of failures preceding the first success, we have

$$P(Y = y) = \begin{cases} p(1-p)^y & y = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition 3.6

(the successful trial is included in the count). To see that $f(x)$ is a probability density function, all that needed to be checked is that

$$(1-p)^x = 1 = P[1 + (1-p) + (1-p)^2 + \dots]$$

From geometric series,

$$\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{x-1} = \frac{1}{1-(1-p)} = \frac{1}{p}.$$

Example 3.11

A fair coin is tossed until a head appears (a) What is the probability that at most three tosses are needed? (b) What is the probability that at most three tosses are needed?

Solution

Let X denote the number of tosses until a success (a head) occurs. Since the coin is fair,

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

$$P(X = 3) = (1-p)^{3-1} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{2} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$$

$$P(\text{at most three tosses are needed}) = P(X \leq 3)$$

$$= P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 = \frac{7}{8}$$

A fair die is rolled until a six appears.

What is the probability that (i) at most 4 rolls are needed. (ii) at least 3 rolls are needed?

Solution

(i) $P(\text{at most 4 rolls are needed}) = P(X \leq 4)$

$$= P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3) + P(X = 4)$$

X is a geometric random variable with $P = \frac{1}{6}$

$$P(X = x) = \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{x-1} \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(X = 1) = \frac{1}{6}, P(X = 2) = \frac{5}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6}, P(X = 3) = \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(X = 4) = \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

Thus

$$P(X \leq 4) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \sum_{x=1}^4 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{x-1} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1 - (5/6)^4}{1 - 5/6} = 1 - (5/6)^4$$

(ii) $P(\text{at least 3 rolls are needed}) = P(X \geq 3) = P(X = 3) + P(X = 4) + \dots$

$$P(X \geq 3) = \sum_{x=3}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=3}^{\infty} \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{x-1} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{x=3}^{\infty} \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{x-1} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1 - (5/6)^{\infty}}{1 - 5/6} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - 5/6} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{6}{1} = 1 - \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(X \geq 3) = 1 - \{P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)\} = 1 - \left\{\frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6}\right\} = 1 - \frac{11}{36} = \frac{25}{36}$$

Example 3.13

The probability that a certain test yields a “positive” reaction is 0.6. what is the probability that not more than 4 negative reactions occur before the first positive one?

Solution

Let X denote the number of negative reactions before the first positive one, then

$$P(X = x) = (0.4)^x(0.6); x=0,1,2,\dots$$

Thus,

$$P(X \leq 4) = \sum_{x=0}^4 P(X = x) = \sum_{x=0}^4 (0.4)^x(0.6) = (0.6) \sum_{x=0}^4 (0.4)^x = (0.6) \frac{1 - (0.4)^5}{1 - 0.4} = 0.9898$$

The geometric random variable has an interesting property which is summarized in the following theorem.

Theorem: 3.2

Suppose that X is a geometric random variable. Then for any given two positive integers s and t ,

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = P(X > t).$$

Proof:

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = \frac{P(X > s + t \text{ and } X > s)}{P(X > s)} = \frac{P(X > s + t)}{P(X > s)}$$

$$P(X = x) = p(1 - p)^{x-1}, x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$P(X > s + t) = P \sum_{x=s+t}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{x-1} = P \frac{(1 - p)^{s+t}}{1 - (1 - p)} (1 - p)^s$$

$$P(X > s + t) = P \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{x-1} \frac{P(1 - p)^s}{1 - (1 - p)} (1 - p)^s$$

Thus,

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = \frac{(1 - p)^{s+t}}{(1 - p)^s} (1 - p)^t$$

$$P(X > t) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} p(1-p)^{x-1} \frac{P(1-p)^t}{p} (1-p)^t$$

Hence,

$$P(X > s+t | X > s) = P(X > t).$$

The above theorem states that if a success has not occurred during the first s repetitions of Bernoulli trials, then the probability that it will not occur during the next t repetitions is the same as the probability that it will not occur during the first t repetitions of Bernoulli trials. Therefore the distribution is said to have “no memory”.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1. On a certain road the probability of an accident on any day is 0.05 (assuming not more than one accident can occur on any day). Assuming independence of accidents from day to day on this road, what is the probability that the first accident of the year occurs in the month of March.
2. A fair die is rolled until a six appears. Calculate the probability that he has to throw the die more than three times before he gets a six.
3. Let X be a geometric random variable with $p = 0.2$. Calculate the following probabilities. (i) $P(3 < X \leq 6)$ (ii) $P(2 \leq X \leq 4)$ (iii) $P(X \leq 2)$.
4. Prove that $\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} xp(1-p)^{x-1} = \frac{1}{p}$.
5. Suppose a Bernoulli trial with probability p of success is continued until r th success occurs. Let X be the number of independent trials needed in order to have r successes. Show that

$$P(X = k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}, k = r, r+1, \dots$$

3.2 Pascal or Negative Binomial Random variable

A probability distribution closely related to the geometric distribution is the Pascal or negative binomial distribution.

Suppose that in independent repetition of Bernoulli trial needed to have “success” occurs exactly r times.

$X = x$ if and only if success occurs on the x th trial and success occurs exactly $(r-1)$ times

in the previous $x-1$ trials. The probability of this event is determined as follows:

The probability of $r-1$ successes in $x-1$ trials is given by the binomial formula

$$\binom{x-1}{r-1} p^{r-1} (1-p)^{(x-1)-(r-1)} = \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^{r-1} (1-p)^{x-r}$$

Therefore, the probability of this event is

$$P \cdot {}^{x-1}C_{r-1} p^{r-1} (1-p)^{x-r+1}$$

hence,

$$f(x) = P(X=x) = {}^{x-1}C_{r-1} p^{r-1} (1-p)^{x-r}, x=r, r+1, \dots \tag{3.4}$$

Similarly, if we let Y be the number of failures before the th success we have

$$P(Y=y) = p \cdot {}^{y+r-1}C_y p^r (1-p)^y$$

$$FY(y) = {}^{y+r-1}C_y p^r (1-p)^y, y=0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Definition 3.7

A random variable having its probability density function given by (3.4) or (3.5) is said to have a Negative Binomial or Pascal distribution.

Example 3.14

Show that

$$\sum_{x=r}^{\infty} {}^{x-1}C_{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r} = 1.$$

Solution

By Binomial theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} p^{-n} &= (1 - (1-p))^{-n} = \left\{ 1 + n(1-p) + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} (1-p)^2 + \dots \right\} \\ \sum_{x=r}^{\infty} {}^{x-1}C_{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r} &= p^r (1-p)^{-r} \sum_{x=r}^{\infty} {}^{(x-1)}C_{r-1} (1-p)^x \\ &= p^r (1-p)^{-r} \left\{ (1-p)^r + r(1-p)^{r+1} + \frac{r(r-1)}{2!} (1-p)^{r+2} + \dots \right\} \\ &= p^r \left\{ 1 + r(1-p) + \frac{r(r-1)}{2} (1-p)^2 + \dots \right\} = p^r p^{-r} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.15

A fair die is rolled until two sixes occur, find the probability that

- (i) exactly 5 tosses are needed
- (ii) at most 5 tosses are needed.

Solution

Let X be the number of tosses needed to get two sixes. X is a Pascal random variable with pdf:

$$f(x) = \binom{x-1}{1} p^2 (1-p)^{x-2}, x=2,3,\dots$$

Where $p = \frac{1}{2}, r = 1$.

$$f(x) = \binom{x-1}{1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x$$

(i) $P(X \leq 5) = 0.125 = \frac{1}{8} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$

(ii) $P(X \leq 5) = \sum_{x=2}^5 f(x) = P(X=2) + P(X=3) + P(X=4) + P(X=5)$
 $P(X=2) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2, P(X=3) = 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3, P(X=4) = 3\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4$

3.3 The Hypergeometric Random Variable

Suppose that we have a box containing n items of which n_1 are defective and $n - n_1$ are non-defective. Suppose that we choose at random k items from the box without replacement. Let X denote the number of defective items in the k items selected. Then

$$P(X=x) = \frac{\binom{n_1}{x} \binom{n-n_1}{k-x}}{\binom{n}{k}}, x = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, k \quad (3.4)$$

The reader will notice that $X=x$ if and only if we obtain x defective items from n_1 defective items in the box ($\binom{n_1}{x}$ ways of doing this).

Any random variable having its probability density function as given by (3.5) is called hypergeometric random variable and is said to have hypergeometric distribution.

3.4 The Poisson Random Variable

Definition: Rare Event

An event is said to be rare if the probability of observing the event is very small. Consider n repeated Bernoulli trials, where n is very large and p very small, let X be the number of successes in n trials. Then

$$P(X=x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

Setting $\lambda = np$, we have

$$P(X=x) = \binom{n}{x} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-x+1)}{x!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}$$

$$= \frac{n}{x} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \dots \frac{n-x+1}{n} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}$$

Now as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$1. \quad \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^{-\lambda}$$

$$2. \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x} \rightarrow 1$$

$$3. \frac{n - X + 1}{n} \rightarrow 1$$

(3.5) gives an approximation to the binomial distribution with $\lambda = np$, when n is large and p is small, where $e = 2.71828$ is the base of natural logarithms.

Definition:

A random variable X is called a Poisson random variable if its probability density function is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda} (\lambda)^x}{x!} & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (\lambda > 0) \quad (3.8)$$

X represents the total number of events which have occurred up to time t . When $t=1$ then $f(x)$ corresponds to the probability density function of number of events in a unit interval. For examples, the number of calls that come into a telephone exchange in a unit time interval, the number of vehicles passing through a designated point in a unit time interval. In order to motivate our discussion, let us consider the following examples.

Example 3.16

Suppose a rare disease occurs in 2 percent of a large population. A random sample of 10,000 people are chosen at random from this population and tested for the disease. Calculate the probability that at least two people have the rare disease.

Solution

The probability of having the disease is 0.02 and $n = 10,000$. Let X be the number of people having the disease. X is a binomial random variable with parameters $n = 10,000$ and $p = 0.02$. We shall apply the result (3.5) since n is large and p very small.

Hence,

$$np = 0.02 \times 10,000 = 200$$

Thus,

$$P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-200} (200)^x}{x!}$$

$$P(X = 0) = e^{-200}$$

$$P(X = 1) = 200 e^{-200}$$

Hence

$$P(X \geq 2) = 1 - P(X < 2) = 1 - e^{-200} (1 + 200) = 1 - 201 e^{-200}$$

Example 3.17

On a given road, an average of five accidents occur every month. Calculate

the probability that over a year period there will be (i) no accident (ii) at most 2 accidents.

Solution

In this case, $\lambda = 5$, $t = 12$. From (3.8) we have

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^x}{x!}$$

$$f(0) = e^{-\lambda t} = e^{-60}$$

$$f(1) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^1}{1!} = 60e^{-60}$$

$$f(2) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^2}{2!} = \frac{60^2}{2} e^{-60}$$

thus,

$$P(\text{no accident}) = f(0) = e^{-60}$$

$$P(\text{at most two accidents}) = f(0) + f(1) + f(2) = e^{-60} + 60 e^{-60} + \frac{60^2}{2} e^{-60}$$

$$= e^{-60} (1 + 60 + 1800) = 1861 e^{-60}$$

Tables for the Poisson distribution are available and brief tabulation is given in the Appendix.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES 3.4

- If 3% of the items manufactured in a factory are defective. Compute the probability that in a sample of 100 items. (i) 2 items will be defective (ii) at least 2 items will be defective. Use Poisson approximation to the Binomial.
- Use the Poisson approximation to calculate the probability that at least two sixes are obtained when six dice are rolled once.
-

The telephone switchboard of a University has an average of two incoming calls per minutes. Calculate the probability that, over a three-minute interval, there will be (i) no incoming calls (ii) exactly one incoming call. (iii) at most two incoming calls.

- Let P_r be the negative binomial pdf with parameters r and P . Prove that

$$\frac{P_r(k)}{P_r(k-1)} = 1 + \frac{1}{k} \left[(r-1) \frac{1-P}{P} - k \right] \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Prove that $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} y^n dy$. Hint: Use integration by parts.

- A fair die is tossed 20 times. Let a success on the i^{th} toss correspond to at least a five appears. What is the probability that
 - exactly 10 failures prior to the first success?
 - exactly 10 failures prior to the fifth success?
 - exactly 8 failures and 3 successes for the first 11 throws.

- if (i) $f(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$ show that $(x+1)f(x+1) = \lambda f(x)$.
 (ii) $f(x) = {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$, show that $(1-p)(x+1)f(x+1) = p(n-x)f(x)$.
 In each case, show that $f(x)$ increases monotonically and then decreases monotonically as x increases. Find x that maximizes $f(x)$.

- Suppose that the number of accidents occurring on a highway each day is a Poisson random variable with parameter $\lambda = 2$.

- (a) What is the probability that at least two accidents occur in a day?
 - (b) What is the probability that at least three accidents occur in a day given that at least one accident occurs in a day?
9. If $n \geq 8$ and in a binomial distribution the probability of 7 successes in n trials is equal to the probability of 8 successes in n trials, find the probability of success on any given trial.
 10. Let X be a random variable with moment generating function $M_X(t)$. If $R(t) = \ln M_X(t)$ for all t . Find $R''(0)$.
 11. If a fair die is rolled repeatedly, find the probability that the first "six" will appear on an odd-numbered roll.
 12. $f(x) = \begin{cases} p, & x = -1 \\ (1-p)^2 p^x, & X = 0, 1, 2 \end{cases}$
 (i) Show that $f(x)$ is a pdf

4.0 CONCLUSION

Different ways of calculating probability of different distribution using various random variables especially Pascal random variable, Poisson random variable.

5.0 SUMMARY

It will be noticed that any random variable having its probability density function as $F_y(y) = {}^{y+r-1}C_y^r (1-p)^y$, $y=0,1,2,\dots$. Other topics covered here include Pascal or negative binomial random variable, geometric random variable.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the Poisson distribution, stating clearly the meanings of the symbols used. Show that the variance of the distribution is equal to its mean.
2. Show that $f(x) = {}^{x-1}C_{n-1} P^n (1-p)^{x-n}$, $x, x=n, n+1, \dots$ is a pdf.
 Note $P^{-n} = (1-(1-p))^{-n} = 1$
3. Show that $f(x) = (1-p)^x p$, $x = 1, 2, \dots, 0 < p < 1$ is a pdf. Find the probability generating function of X .
4. Solve the problem of exercise 3.2, No 7.
5. Let X be a geometric random variable with $p = 0.2$. Calculate the following probabilities. (i) $P(3 < X \leq 6)$ (ii) $P(2 \leq X \leq 4)$ (iii) $P(X \leq 2)$.

6. Prove that $\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} xp(1-p)^{x-1} = \frac{1}{p} \left\{ 1 + n(1-p) + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} (1-p)^2 + \dots \right\}$

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT 5 EXPECTATION OF DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLE

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Expectation of discrete random variable
 - 3.2 Expectation of a Binomial random variable
 - 3.3 Properties of Expectation
 - 3.4 Properties of variance
 - 3.5 The variance of a geometric random variable
 - 3.6 The variance of a Poisson random variable
 - 3.7 Probability generating function
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we introduce the concept of the mean value of a random variable. It is closely related to the notion of weighted average. The moment and probability generating functions of a random variable are also introduced.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- State the mean value of a random variable
- Calculate the mathematical expectation of any variable
- State properties of expectation and variance
- State the probability generating function of random variables (non-negative)

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Expectation Of Discrete Random Variable

Let X be a random variable having possible values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and let the experiment on X be performed n times. For example let X be the outcome of rolling a die. There are six possible values $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4, x_5 = 5$ and $x_6 = 6$. Suppose the die is rolled n times. The successive rolls constitute independent repetitions of the same experiment. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denote the outcomes of the experiment of rolling a die n times (that is X_i denote the outcome of the i^{th} toss). Then

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

It is the average of the numbers that appeared. Let f_i denote the number of times x_i occur. Then we have

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i f_i = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i \frac{f_i}{n}$$

We know that

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f_i}{n} = P(X = x_i) = f(x_i)$. When $\frac{f_i}{n}$ is replaced by $f(x_i)$, the sum $\sum x_i f(x_i)$

is called the expectation of the random variable X . Thus the expected value of a random variable X is the long-run theoretical average value of X .

Definition 1

Mathematical Expectation. Let X be a random variable with probability density function as follows:

Value of X, x	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_k
Probability	$f(x_1)$	$f(x_2)$	$f(x_3)$		$f(x_k)$

The mathematical expectation of X , denoted by $E(X)$, is defined to be

$$E(X) = x_1 f(x_1) + x_2 f(x_2) + \dots + x_k f(x_k)$$

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i f(x_i)$$

$E(X)$ is weighted average of possible values of x , the weight attached to the value x_i is its probability $f(x_i)$.

$E(X)$ is also called the mean of X or *the population mean*.

We may express the result of (1) in words.

To compute the expected value or mean of a random variable, multiply each possible value of the variable by its probability and add these products.

Examples

1.

A fair coin is tossed three times. Let X denote the number of heads obtained. Find the mathematical expectation of X .

Solution

The probability density function of X is as follows.

X	0	1	2	3
-----	---	---	---	---

f(x)	1	3	3	1
------	---	---	---	---

Hence,

$$E(X) = (1 \times 1/8) + (1 \times 3/8) + (2 \times 3/8) + (3 \times 1/8)$$

$$= 0 + 3/8 + 6/8 + 3/8 = 12/8 = 1.5$$

2. What are the mathematical expectations of the variables X, Y and Z as defined in example 3.1.1 of chapter 3.

Solution

The probability density function of X is

X	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
f(x)	1/36	2/36	3/36	4/36	5/36	6/36	5/36	4/36	3/36	2/36	1/36

$$E(X) = (2 \times 1/36) + (3 \times 2/36) + (4 \times 3/36) + (5 \times 4/36) + (6 \times 5/36) + (7 \times 6/36) + (8 \times 5/36) + (9 \times 4/36) + (10 \times 3/36) + (11 \times 2/36) + (12 \times 1/36) = 7.0$$

The p.d.f of Y is

Y	1	2	3	4	5	6
g(y)	1/36	3/36	5/36	7/36	9/36	11/36

$$E(Y) = (1 \times 1/36) + (2 \times 3/36) + (3 \times 5/36) + (4 \times 7/36) + (5 \times 9/36) + (6 \times 11/36) = 4.47$$

The p.d.f of Z is

Z	1	2	3	4	5	6
h(Z)	11/36	9/36	7/36	5/36	3/36	1/36

$$E(Z) = (1 \times 11/36) + (2 \times 9/36) + (3 \times 7/36) + (4 \times 5/36) + (5 \times 3/36) + (6 \times 1/36) = 2.53.$$

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES 1

- Suppose a box contains 10 balls of which 4 are red and 6 are black. A random sample of size 3 is selected. Let X denote the number of red balls selected. Find E(X) if
 - Sampling is with replacement.
 - Sampling is without replacement.
- A box contains 6 balls labeled 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. Two balls are drawn at random one after the other. Let X denote the larger of the two numbers on the balls selected. Compute E(X) if
 - Sampling is with replacement,

- (ii) Sampling without replacement.
- 3. A box contains 3 balls and 2 white balls. A ball is without replacement one after the other until a white ball is drawn. Find the Expected number of draws required.

3.3 Expectation of a Binomial Random Variable

The probability density function of a binomial variable X is defined by $f(x) = {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$; $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

the mean or expected value of X is

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \cdot {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x} - \sum_{x=0}^n x \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

and since the term of $x=0$ is zero, $E(X) =$

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

Using the binomial theorem, we have

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

since $p + 1 - p = 1$. Hence,

$$E(X) = np.$$

Example 3.3

A fair die is rolled 12 times, what is the expected number of sixes appear?

Solution

Let X be the number of sixes that appear. X is a binomial random variable with $n = 12$ and $P = 1/6$ (probability of a six). Hence

$$E(X) = np = 12 \times 1/6 = 2.$$

That is, we expected to get 2 sixes when a die is rolled 12 times.

Definition 2

Let X be a discrete random variable having probability density function $f(x)$.

$\sum_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) < \infty$, then we say that X has finite expectation otherwise we say that X does not have finite expectation.

Examples

3.4 The Random Variables X has Probability

X	-2	-1	0	3	5
---	----	----	---	---	---

f(x)	1/4	1/8	1/8	1/4	1/4
------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Compute the expected value of the following random variables.

- (i) X, (ii) 3X, (iii) X + 5, (iv) X²

Solution

$$(ii) \quad E_x = \left(-2 \times \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(-1 \times \frac{1}{8}\right) + \left(0 \times \frac{1}{8}\right) + \left(3 \times \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(5 \times \frac{1}{4}\right) \\ = -2/4 - 1/8 + 3/4 + 5/4 = 11/8 = 1 \frac{3}{8}$$

(iii) The possible values of 3x are -6, -3, 0, 9, 15.

The probability density function of 3x is

3x	-6	-3	0	9	15
f(x)	1/4	1/8	1/8	1/4	1/4

$$E(3X) = (-6 \times 1/4) + (-3 \times 1/8) + (0 \times 1/8) + (9 \times 1/4) + (15 \times 1/4) \\ = -6/4 - 3/8 + 9/4 + 15/4 = 33/8$$

Note that

$$P(3X = -6) = P(X = -2)$$

And so on and

$$E(3X) = 33/8 = 3 \times 11/8 = 3E(X)$$

(iii)

x+5	3	4	5	8	10
f(x)	1/4	1/8	1/8	1/4	1/4

Note that P(X + 5) = 3 = P(X = 3 - 5) = P(X = -2)

$$E(X + 5) = (3 \times 1/4) + (4 \times 1/8) + (5 \times 1/8) + (8 \times 1/4) + (10 \times 1/4) \\ = 3/4 + 4/8 + 5/8 + 8/4 + 10/4 + 5/8 = 6 = 5 + 1 \frac{3}{8} = 5 + E(X) \frac{3}{8}$$

(iv)

X ²	4	1	0	9	25
f(x)	1/4	1/8	1/8	1/4	1/4

$$E(X^2) = (4 \times 1/4) + (1 \times 1/8) + (0 \times 1/8) + (9 \times 1/4) + (25 \times 1/4)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{9}{4} + \frac{25}{4} = \frac{77}{8} = 9 \quad \text{E}$$

Notethat $E(X^2) \neq [E(X)]^2$.

Definition 3

Let X be a random variable whose probability density function is given by

X	x_1	x_2	x_k
$f(x)$	$f(x_1)$	$f(x_2)$		$f(x_k)$

Let $\psi(X)$ be a function of X . then the mean or expected value of the new random $\psi(X)$ is given by

$$E[\psi(X)] = \psi(x_1)f(x_1) + \psi(x_2)f(x_2) + \dots + \psi(x_k)f(x_k)$$

That is

$$E[\psi(X)] = \sum_{i=1}^k \psi(x_i)f(x_i)$$

Theorem 1

Let X be a random variable and let $\psi(X) = aX + b$ where a, b are constants, then

$$E(\psi(X)) = aE(X) + b$$

Proof:

Suppose the probability density function of X is $\{x_i, f(x_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$

From the above definition we have

$$\begin{aligned} E(aX + b) &= (ax_1 + b)f(x_1) + (ax_2 + b)f(x_2) + \dots + (ax_k + b)f(x_k) + bf(x_1) + \dots + bf(x_k) \\ &= a[x_1f(x_1) + x_2f(x_2) + \dots + x_kf(x_k)] + b[f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \dots + f(x_k)] \\ &= aE(X) + b \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i) = aE(X) + b \end{aligned}$$

since $\{E(X) = \sum x f(x), \sum f(x_i) = 1\}$

Properties of Expectations

1. If c is a constant and $P(X = c) = 1$, then $E(X) = c$.
2. If a and b are constants and X has a finite expectation, then aX has finite expectation and
 - (i) $E(aX) = aE(X) + b$.
 - (ii) $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$.
3. If X and Y are two random variables having finite expectations, then
 - (i) $X + Y$ has random finite expectation and $E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$
 - (ii) $E(X) \geq E(Y)$ if $P(X \geq Y) = 1$.

- (iii) $DEXD \leq EDXD$.
- 4. A bounded random variable has a finite expectation. That is if $P(X \leq M) = 1$, then X has a finite expectation and $DEXD \leq M$.

Definition 4

Variable. Let X be a random variable with mean $E(X) = \mu$. The variance of X , denoted by $Var(X)$ is defined by

$$Ver(X) = E \{X - \mu\}^2 = \sum (x_i - \mu)^2 f(x_i) \quad -$$

A general formula that is usually simple for computing the variance is given below

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X) &= E \{(X - \mu)^2\} = E \{X^2 - 2X\mu + \mu^2\} \\ &= E(X^2) - E(2\mu X) + E(\mu^2) = E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 \text{ (property 2)} \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the computing definition of variance is

$$Var(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 \quad (7)$$

The variance of X is interpreted as a numerical measure of spread or dispersion about its mean.

Example 3.5

- 1. Find the variance of a random variable having the following probability density function.

X	1	2	3	4	5	6
f(x)	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= (1 \times 1/6) + (2 \times 1/6) + (3 \times 1/6) + (4 \times 1/6) + (5 \times 1/6) + (6 \times 1/6). \\ &= 1/6 + 2/6 + 3/6 + 4/6 + 5/6 + 6/6 = 21/6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= (1^2 \times 1/6) + (2^2 \times 1/6) + (3^2 \times 1/6) + (4^2 \times 1/6) + (5^2 \times 1/6) + (6^2 \times 1/6) \\ &= 1/6 + 4/6 + 9/6 + 16/6 + 25/6 + 36/6 = 91/6. \end{aligned}$$

Hence from (7) we have

$$Var(X) = 91/6 - (21/6)^2 = 105/36 = 2(11/12).$$

Example 3.6

Find the variance of a Bernoulli random variable with parameter p . that is X has the following p.d.f.

X	0	1
$f(x)$	$1-p$	P

$$E(X) = 0 \times (1-p) + (1 \times p) = p$$

$$E(X^2) = 0^2 \times (1-p) + (1^2 \times p) = p.$$

Hence,

$$\text{Var}(X) = p - p^2 = p(1-p)$$

Properties of Variance

1. If c is a constant and $P(X = c) = 1$, then $\text{Var}(X) = 0$.
2. If a and b are constants, then
 - (i) $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$
 - (ii) $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$
 - (iii) $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$

The proof of property (1) is very trivial and this is left as an exercise to the reader, we shall now give a proof of (ii). From (7),

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(aX) &= E[a^2 X^2] - [E(aX)]^2 = E a^2 X^2 - [aE(X)]^2 \\ &= a^2 E(X^2) - a^2 [E(X)]^2 = a^2 \{E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2\} = a^2 \text{Var}(X). \end{aligned}$$

Definition 5

Standard deviation. Let X be a random variable with mean μ .

The standard deviation is the positive square root of the variance, and is given by

$$\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} = \sqrt{E(X^2) - (E(X))^2}$$

The variance of the binomial random variable.

To calculate the variance of X , we need $E(X)$ and $E(X^2)$.

$$\text{Var}(X) = (E(X))^2.$$

From (3) we have

$E(X) = np$.

$E[X(X-1)] = \sum_{x=0}^n x(x-1) (xp^x(1-p)^{n-x}) = \sum_{x=0}^n x(x-1) \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x(1-p)^{n-x}$
 (when $x=1$ or 0 the expression is zero)

$= \sum_{x=2}^n \frac{n!}{(x-2)!(n-x)!} p^x(1-p)^{n-x}$

$= n(n-1) p^2 \sum_{x=2}^n \frac{(n-2)!}{(x-2)!(n-x)!} p^{x-2}(1-p)^{n-x}$

Let $y = x-2 = n(n-1)p^2 \sum_{y=0}^{n-2} \frac{(n-2)!}{y!(n-2-y)!} (yp^y(1-p)^{n-2-y}) = n(n-1)p^2 [p + (1-p)]^{n-1}$

Hence

$E(X(X-1)) = n(n-1)p^2$

$E(X(X-1)) = E(X^2) - E(X) = n(n-1)p^2$

$E(X^2) = n(n-1)p^2 + E(X) = n(n-1)p^2 + np$.

Thus,

$$\text{Var}(X) = N(n-1)p^2 + np - n^2p^2 = n^2p^2 - np^2 + np - n^2p^2 = np(1-p).$$

3.5 The Variance of a Geometric Random Variable

The probability density function of X is given by

$$f(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}, x=1,2,\dots$$

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} xp(1-p)^{x-1}$$

$$E(X) = p + 2p(1-p) + 3p(1-p)^2 + \dots = p\{1 + 2(1-p) + 3(1-p)^2 + \dots\}.$$

From the Binomial theorem

$$(1-a)^{-2} = 1 + 2a + 3a^2 + \dots \text{ for } |a| < 1.$$

Putting $a = (1-p)$, we obtain

$$E(X) = p \cdot (1 - (1-p))^{-2} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$E[X(X-1)] = \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} x(x-1)p(1-p)^{x-1}$$

$$= p[2 \cdot 1(1-p) + 3 \cdot 2(1-p)^2 + \dots + r(r-1)(1-p)^{r-1} + \dots]. \text{ Multiply both sides by } 1-p,$$

$$(1-p)E[X(X-1)] = p[2 \cdot 1(1-p)^2 + (3 \cdot 2(1-p)^3 + \dots + r(r-1)(1-p)^r + \dots)]$$

$$E[X(X-1)] - (1-p)E[X(X-1)] = p[2(1-p) + 4(1-p)^2 + 6(1-p)^3 + \dots + 2r(1-p)^r + \dots]$$

$$= 2p(1-p)[1 + 2(1-p) + 3(1-p)^2 + \dots] = 2p(1-p) \cdot \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{2(1-p)}{p}$$

Hence

$$E[X(X-1)] - (1-p)E[X(X-1)] = \frac{2(1-p)}{p}$$

$$E[X(X-1)]\{1 - (1-p)\} = \frac{2(1-p)}{p}$$

which implies that

$$E[X(X-1)] = \frac{2(1-p)}{p^2}$$

$$E(X^2) = \frac{2(1-p)}{p^2} + E(X) = \frac{2(1-p)}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p}$$

Thus

$$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{2(1-p)}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p} - \left(\frac{1}{p}\right)^2 = \frac{2(1-p) + p - 1}{p^2} = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

3.6 The Variance of a Poisson Random Variable

Let X be a Poisson random variable with parameter λ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(X) &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \lambda e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!} \\
 &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} = \lambda \\
 E[X(X-1)] &= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(x-1) e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} x(x-1) \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \\
 &= e^{-\lambda} \lambda^2 \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-2}}{(x-2)!} = e^{-\lambda} \lambda^2 \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^y}{y!} = \lambda^2 \\
 E(X^2) - E(X) &= \lambda^2 \\
 E(X^2) &= \lambda^2 + E(X) = \lambda^2 + \lambda
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\text{Var}(X) = \lambda^2 + \lambda - \lambda^2 = \lambda.$$

This shows that the mean and variance of a Poisson random variable are both equal.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

- i. Compute the variance and standard deviation of the random variable X defined in exercises 4.1.1
- ii. A fair coin is tossed twice. Let X denote the number of heads that appear. Compute
 - (i) the expected value of X
 - (ii) the variance of X
 - (iii) the expected value of $\frac{1}{X}$
- iii. Calculate the mean, variance and standard deviation of the random variable having the following probability density function.

X	-2	1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	3/10	1/5	1/10	1/5	1/5

- iv. Let X be any random variable with finite variance, show that $E(aX+B) = aE(X)+B$ where a, b are constants.
- v. Let $f(x) = \frac{1-p}{2^{|x|}}$, $x = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, 0 < p < 1$. Show that $f(x)$ is a pdf. Find $E(X)$.
6. Let X be any random variable having finite expectation. Prove that $E(X^2) \geq (E(X))^2$.

7. Let X be a random variable such that for some constant K , $P(D \leq K) = P(X \leq K)$. Prove that X has finite expectation and $E(X) \leq K$.
8. Show that if X and Y are any two dependent random variables with finite variances, then $\text{Var}(X+Y) \neq \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$.

3.7 Probability Generating Function

In this section we shall introduce important mathematical concepts in probability theory. The r th moment of a random variable X is defined by $E(X^r)$, where $E(X^r)$ and $E(X - \mu)^r$ are called the r th moment of X about 0 and μ respectively. From (2)

$$E(X^r) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^r f(x_i) \quad \text{and} \quad E(X - \mu)^r = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (x_i - \mu)^r f(x_i)$$

Note that the second moment of X about μ is the variance of X . An indirect way of calculating expectation is the use of probability generating function or moment generating function. It is a mathematical device to simplify the calculations of moments of X . Its more general usefulness will not be apparent until we get to chapter 6.

Definition 6

The probability generating function of a non-negative, integer-valued random variable X is defined by

$$E(S^X) = P(S) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} S^x f(x); \quad (8) \quad \text{From (6) we see that } s < s_0$$

$$P(S) = E(S^X)$$

By differentiating with respect to s we have

$$P'(s) = E(XS^{X-1})$$

$$P''(s) = E[X(X-1)S^{X-2}]$$

$$P^{(r)}(s) = E(X(X-1)(X-2)\dots(X-r+1)s^{X-1})$$

Putting $s=1$ in the above derivatives, we have

$$P'(1) = E(X)$$

$$P''(1) = E[X(X-1)] = E(X^2) - E(X)$$

$$P^{(r)}(1) = E[X(X-1)(X-2)\dots(X-r+1)].$$

Thus the mean and variance of X can be obtained from P(s) by the following formulas.

$$E(X) = P'(1)$$

$$E(X^2) - E(X) = P''(1)$$

$$E(X^2) = P''(1) + E(X) = P''(1) + P'(1)$$

And

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = P''(1) + P'(1) - [P'(1)]^2$$

We now illustrate the use of these formulas with the following examples.

Examples 3.7

Let X be a Poisson random variable with parameter λ. Find the mean and variance of X

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The probability generating function is defined by

$$P(s) = E(s^X) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} s^x (x! p^x (1-p)^{n-x}) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{x} (sp)^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

By the Binomial theorem

$$= [sp + (1-p)]^n$$

Thus,

$$P(s) = [sp + (1-p)]^n \quad (12)$$

Differentiating, we have

$$P'(s) = np[sp + (1-p)]^{n-1}$$

$$P''(s) = n(n-1)p^2[sp + (1-p)]^{n-2}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = P''(1) + [P'(1)] - [P'(1)]^2 = n(n-1)p^2 + np - (np)^2 = np(1-p)$$

The table below summarizes some of the results of this chapter

Random variable	Probability density function	Mean	Variance	Probability generating function	Moment generating function
Bernoulli	$p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$	P	P(1-p)	$(sp + 1 - p)$	$pe^{t \ln p} + (1-p)e^{t \ln(1-p)}$ $-\infty < t < \infty$

Binomial	$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$ $x=0,1,2,\dots,n$	Np	$Np(1-p)$	$[sp+(1-p)]^n$	$[pe^t+(1-p)]^n$
Geometric	$p(-p)^{x-1}$ $x=1,2,\dots$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$	$P[1-s(1-p)]^{-1}$	
Poisson		λ	λ	$e^{\lambda(s-1)}$	$e^{\lambda(e^t-1)}$
Uniform	$\frac{1}{b-a}$ $X=a, a+1,\dots,b$	$\frac{b+a}{2}$	$\frac{b^2-a^2}{12}$	$\frac{e^{bs}-e^{as}}{s(b-a)}$	

The Moment Generating Function

Definition 7

Let X be a discrete random variable with pdf $f(x)$. The moment generating function denoted by $M_X(t)$ is defined by

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX})$$

Where t is any real constant for which the expectation exists. (13)

$$M_X(t) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x)$$

$$E(e^{tX}) = E(1 + tX + \frac{(tX)^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{(tX)^n}{n!} + \dots)$$

Under fairly general conditions we shall assume that expectation of infinite sum equals the sum of the expected value but this is true in general for finite sum

$$1 + tE(X) + \frac{t^2}{2!} E(X^2) + \dots$$

$$M_X(t) = 1 + tE(X) + \frac{t^2}{2!} E(X^2) + \dots + \frac{t^n}{n!} E(X^n) + \dots$$

Differentiating with respect to t , we have

$$M'_X(t) = E(X) + \frac{n(n-1)t^{n-2}}{n!} E(X^n) + \dots$$

$$M''_X(0) = E(X^2)$$

hence,

$$\text{Var}(X) = M''_X(0) - [M'_X(0)]^2$$

And

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}), M_X^{(r)}(t) = E[X^r e^{tX}] \tag{15}$$

Putting $t = 0$, we have

$$M_X^{(r)}(0) = E(X^r)$$

that is, $E(X^r)$ is the r th derivative of $M_X(t)$ evaluated at $t=0$. (16)

Note: It is assumed that $\sum e^{tX} f(x)$ converges for all values of t .

The domain of $M_X(t)$ is all real numbers such that $\sum e^{tX} f(x)$ converges. If $M_X(t)$ is defined for some $t_0 > 0$, then it is defined in the interval $0 \leq t \leq t_0$.

Examples 4.9

Let X be a binomial random variable with parameters n and p . then

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \sum_{x=0}^n e^{tx} {}^n C_x p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = \sum_{x=0}^n {}^n C_x (pe^t)^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

from the binomial theorem

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n {}^n C_x a^x b^{n-x} = [pe^t + (1-p)]^n,$$

on putting $a = pe^t, b = 1-p$.

Example 4.10

Let X be a Poisson random variable with parameter λ . Then

$$M_X(t) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda e^t)^x}{x!}$$

Differentiating, we have

$$M'_X(t) = \lambda e^t e^{-\lambda(1-et)}$$

$$M'_X(0) = \lambda e^0 e^{-\lambda(1-0)} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} = \lambda E(X)$$

$$M_X''(t) = \lambda e^{t-\lambda(1-et)} + \lambda^2 e^{2t} e^{-\lambda(1-et)}$$

$$M_X''(0) = \lambda + \lambda^2 = E(X^2)$$

Hence,

$$\text{Var}(X) = \lambda + \lambda^2 - \lambda^2 = \lambda.$$

Example 4.11

Let X be a geometric random variable with parameter p . then

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} e^{tx} P(1-p)^{x-1} = \frac{p}{1-p} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} e^{tx} P(1-p)^x \\ &= \frac{p}{1-p} \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} [e^t(1-p)]^x = \frac{p}{1-p} \cdot \frac{e^t(1-p)}{1-e^t(1-p)} = p e^t [1 - e^t(1-p)]^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

The fourth equality follows from sum to infinity of geometric series applications of $M_X(t)$ will be considered later in Chapter 6.

$\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} a^x$ Further

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4.3

- i. Find the probability generating function of the geometric distribution with parameter P . hence determine the mean and variance of the distribution.
- ii. Let X be uniformly distributed on $(0, 1, 2, \dots, n)$. Find the mean and variance of X .

Hint: $\sum_1^n x = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \sum_1^n x^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$

- iii. Let X be a random variable with finite variance. Prove that for any real number a ,

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[(X - a)^2] - [E(X) - a]^2.$$

- iv. A fair die is tossed 50 times. Let X be the number of times six appears. Evaluate

- (i) $E(X)$ (ii) $E(X^2)$ (iii) $\text{VAR}(X)$

- v. Find the expected value and variance of the random variable X as in Example 3.1.1.

- vi. Show that if c is a constant, $\text{Var}(x+c) = \text{Var}(X)$.

- vii. Let X be uniformly distributed on $(0, 1, 2, \dots, N)$. Find $P(S)$, mean and variance of X .

- viii. Let X be defined by

x	1	2	3
$f(x)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$

Find $P(S)$ and hence the mean and variance of X .

- ix. Prove that if X has variance σ^2 , and mean μ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 f(x_i) = \sigma^2$$

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, emphasis have been laid on the processes of using discrete random variable, properties of variance and expectations and some of the probability generating functions.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, important mathematical concepts in probability theory were discussed. Also, the moment generating function were also generated.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. DerivetheMGFfor thefollowing:(a)Bernoulli, (b) NegativeBinomial, (c) Binomialanduse itto find themeanandvariance.

2. A randomvariableX hasthepdf $f(x)$ definedby

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} c(x + 2), & x = 1, 2, 3, 4 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Find(i)c,(ii)momentgeneratingfunctionofX,(iii)useresultof(ii)tofindthemeanandvarianceofX.

3. Provethatfor anyrandomvariable,X, $E(X^2) > [E(X)]^2$.

4. Show that $[E(X-a)^2]$ isminimizedwhena= $E(X)$.

5. A fairdieisrolleduntilallthe6sidesappearedatleastonce.Findtheexpected numberof rollsneeded.

6. Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} p, & x = -1 \\ p^x(1-p)^2, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$

(a)Show that $f(x)$ isapdf. (b) Find $M_X(t)$,themomentgeneratingfunction of(b)Hence,themeanand varianceof X.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.