

Remark (Why generating functions?). Probability generating functions are worth the effort: they turn fiddly distribution proofs (sums of Poissons, mean and variance of the geometric, ...) into a few lines of algebra, and they lead naturally into *moment generating functions*, which we will meet later for continuous distributions. Reference: [S3/4] S4 Ch 3.

Packing a Distribution into a Function

A discrete distribution on $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ is a list of probabilities p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots . The idea of a generating function is to store the whole list as the coefficients of a single power series — a trick you have already seen in combinatorics with ordinary generating functions.

Definition. Let X be a random variable taking values in $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ with $p_k = \mathbb{P}(X = k)$. The **probability generating function** (PGF) of X is

$$G_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[t^X] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k t^k.$$

The variable t has no probabilistic meaning — it is a formal bookkeeping device. The probability $\mathbb{P}(X = k)$ is simply the coefficient of t^k .

Example

Let X be the score on a fair die. Write down $G_X(t)$.

Each score $1, \dots, 6$ has probability $\frac{1}{6}$, so

$$G_X(t) = \frac{1}{6} (t + t^2 + t^3 + t^4 + t^5 + t^6) = \frac{t(1 - t^6)}{6(1 - t)},$$

summing the geometric progression to get the closed form.

Fact — For any random variable X ,

$$G_X(1) = \sum_k p_k \cdot 1^k = \sum_k p_k = 1.$$

This is a useful sanity check on any PGF you compute — and it guarantees that the series converges at least for $|t| \leq 1$.

Two further facts we shall use freely:

- **Uniqueness:** the PGF determines the distribution completely (two variables with the same PGF have the same distribution), because a power series determines its coefficients. This is what makes PGFs so powerful for *identifying* distributions.
- $G_X(0) = p_0 = \mathbb{P}(X = 0)$.

PGFs of the Standard Distributions

Example (Discrete uniform)

Find, in closed form, the PGF of $X \sim U(n)$, uniform on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

$$G_X(t) = \frac{1}{n} (t + t^2 + \dots + t^n) = \frac{t(1-t^n)}{n(1-t)},$$

summing the geometric progression with first term t , ratio t and n terms — the die example again, with 6 replaced by n . (At $t = 1$ the closed form is a $\frac{0}{0}$ limit, but the original sum gives $G_X(1) = \frac{n}{n} = 1$ as required.)

Example (Bernoulli and binomial)

Find the PGFs of $X \sim B(1, p)$ and of $Y \sim B(n, p)$. Write $q = 1 - p$.

For the Bernoulli variable, $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = q$ and $\mathbb{P}(X = 1) = p$, so directly

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

For the binomial, using the binomial theorem in reverse:

$$G_Y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} t^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (pt)^k q^{n-k} = (q + pt)^n.$$

Note $G_Y = (G_X)^n$ — no coincidence, as we shall see.

Example (Geometric)

Find the PGF of $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$, where $\mathbb{P}(X = k) = q^{k-1} p$ for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

This time the sum is an infinite geometric series with first term pt and common ratio qt :

$$G_X(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} q^{k-1} p t^k = pt \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (qt)^{k-1} = \frac{pt}{1-qt}, \quad |t| < \frac{1}{q}.$$

Check: $G_X(1) = \frac{p}{1-q} = \frac{p}{p} = 1$. ✓

Example (Poisson)

Find the PGF of $X \sim \text{Po}(\lambda)$.

Using the Maclaurin series of the exponential:

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

Check: $G_X(1) = e^0 = 1$. ✓

Fact (Standard PGFs) — With $q = 1 - p$ throughout:

Distribution	$\mathbb{P}(X = k)$	$G_X(t)$
Uniform $U(n)$	$\frac{1}{n}, 1 \leq k \leq n$	$\frac{t(1 - t^n)}{n(1 - t)}$
Bernoulli $B(1, p)$	$p^k q^{1-k}, k \in \{0, 1\}$	$q + pt$
Binomial $B(n, p)$	$\binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$	$(q + pt)^n$
Geometric $\text{Geo}(p)$	$q^{k-1} p, k \geq 1$	$\frac{pt}{1 - qt}$
Poisson $\text{Po}(\lambda)$	$\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}$	$e^{\lambda(t-1)}$

Extracting the Mean and Variance

Differentiating a PGF term-by-term brings down factors of k — exactly the ingredients of $\mathbb{E}[X]$.

Theorem

If X has PGF G_X , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}[X] = G''_X(1) + G'_X(1) - [G'_X(1)]^2.$$

Differentiate the series:

$$G'_X(t) = \sum_k k p_k t^{k-1} \implies G'_X(1) = \sum_k k p_k = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Differentiating again,

$$G''_X(t) = \sum_k k(k-1) p_k t^{k-2} \implies G''_X(1) = \sum_k k(k-1) p_k = \mathbb{E}[X(X-1)] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X].$$

So $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = G''_X(1) + G'_X(1)$, and

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

Notice that PGFs hand us the *factorial moment* $\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)]$ — the same quantity that made the Poisson variance calculation clean in the last chapter.

Example

Use the PGF to find the mean and variance of $X \sim \text{Po}(\lambda)$.

$G_X(t) = e^{\lambda(t-1)}$, so $G'_X(t) = \lambda e^{\lambda(t-1)}$ and $G''_X(t) = \lambda^2 e^{\lambda(t-1)}$. Hence

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = \lambda, \quad \text{Var}[X] = G''_X(1) + G'_X(1) - [G'_X(1)]^2 = \lambda^2 + \lambda - \lambda^2 = \lambda.$$

Compare this with the bare-hands series manipulation in the Poisson notes!

Example

Use the PGF to prove that $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ has $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}$ and $\text{Var}[X] = \frac{q}{p^2}$.

$G_X(t) = pt(1-qt)^{-1}$. By the product rule,

$$G'_X(t) = p(1-qt)^{-1} + pqt(1-qt)^{-2} = \frac{p(1-qt) + pqt}{(1-qt)^2} = \frac{p}{(1-qt)^2},$$

so $\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = \frac{p}{(1-q)^2} = \frac{p}{p^2} = \frac{1}{p}$. Differentiating again,

$$G''_X(t) = \frac{2pq}{(1-qt)^3} \implies G''_X(1) = \frac{2pq}{p^3} = \frac{2q}{p^2}.$$

Therefore

$$\text{Var}[X] = \frac{2q}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{2q+p-1}{p^2} = \frac{2q-q}{p^2} = \frac{q}{p^2},$$

using $p-1 = -q$. Try proving this directly from the definition of variance to appreciate how much work the PGF is doing.

Recovering probabilities from a PGF

Since $G_X(t) = p_0 + p_1t + p_2t^2 + \dots$, we can travel in the other direction: given a PGF, expand it as a power series (binomial theorem, known Maclaurin series, or long division) and read off coefficients. Formally, by repeated differentiation at 0,

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \frac{G_X^{(k)}(0)}{k!},$$

which is precisely the Maclaurin coefficient formula.

Example

A random variable X has PGF $G_X(t) = \frac{(2+t)^3}{27}$. Find $\mathbb{P}(X = 2)$ and $\mathbb{E}[X]$, and identify the distribution of X .

Expanding with the binomial theorem,

$$G_X(t) = \frac{8 + 12t + 6t^2 + t^3}{27},$$

so $\mathbb{P}(X = 2) = \frac{6}{27} = \frac{2}{9}$. For the mean, $G'_X(t) = \frac{3(2+t)^2}{27} = \frac{(2+t)^2}{9}$, so $\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = 1$.

Finally, $G_X(t) = \left(\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3}t\right)^3 = (q + pt)^3$ with $p = \frac{1}{3}$: by uniqueness of PGFs, $X \sim B\left(3, \frac{1}{3}\right)$.

Example

A random variable X has PGF $G_X(t) = \frac{t}{2-t}$. Find $\mathbb{P}(X = 3)$, and identify the distribution of X .

Rewrite to expose a geometric series:

$$G_X(t) = \frac{t}{2-t} = \frac{t}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{t}{2}} = \frac{t}{2} \left(1 + \frac{t}{2} + \frac{t^2}{4} + \frac{t^3}{8} + \dots\right) = \frac{t}{2} + \frac{t^2}{4} + \frac{t^3}{8} + \dots$$

so $\mathbb{P}(X = 3)$ is the coefficient of t^3 , namely $\frac{1}{8}$. In general $\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$, and comparing with the table (or noting $G_X(t) = \frac{pt}{1-qt}$ with $p = q = \frac{1}{2}$), we identify $X \sim \text{Geo}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ — e.g. the number of tosses of a fair coin up to and including the first head.

Example (OCR S4, June 2014)

The discrete random variable X has probability generating function $\frac{t}{a-bt}$, where a and b are constants.

- (i) Find a relationship between a and b .
- (ii) Use the probability generating function to find $\mathbb{E}[X]$ in terms of a , giving your answer as simply as possible.
- (iii) Expand the probability generating function as a power series, as far as the term in t^3 , giving the coefficients in terms of a and b .
- (iv) Name the distribution for which $\frac{t}{a-bt}$ is the probability generating function, and state its parameter(s) in terms of a .

(i) $G_X(1) = 1$ gives $\frac{1}{a-b} = 1$, so $a - b = 1$.

(ii) By the quotient rule,

$$G'_X(t) = \frac{(a-bt) \cdot 1 - t \cdot (-b)}{(a-bt)^2} = \frac{a}{(a-bt)^2},$$

so $\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = \frac{a}{(a-b)^2} = a$.

(iii) Write $\frac{t}{a-bt} = \frac{t}{a} \left(1 - \frac{b}{a}t\right)^{-1}$ and expand the geometric series:

$$G_X(t) = \frac{t}{a} + \frac{b}{a^2}t^2 + \frac{b^2}{a^3}t^3 + \dots$$

(iv) Comparing with $\frac{pt}{1-qt}$: dividing top and bottom by a gives $p = \frac{1}{a}$, $q = \frac{b}{a}$ (and indeed $q = \frac{a-1}{a} = 1-p$ by (i)).

So $X \sim \text{Geo}\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)$.

Example (OCR S4, June 2010 (part))

The probability generating function of the discrete random variable X is $\frac{e^{4t^2}}{e^4}$. Find

- (i) $\mathbb{E}[X]$,
- (ii) $\mathbb{P}(X = 2)$.

(i) $G_X(t) = e^{4t^2-4}$, so $G'_X(t) = 8t e^{4t^2-4}$ and $\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = 8$.

(ii) Expand in powers of t :

$$G_X(t) = e^{-4} \left(1 + 4t^2 + \frac{(4t^2)^2}{2!} + \dots \right),$$

so $\mathbb{P}(X = 2)$ is the coefficient of t^2 , namely $4e^{-4} = 0.0733$ (3 s.f.).

What is this distribution? The series only contains even powers of t , with $\mathbb{P}(X = 2k) = \frac{e^{-4} 4^k}{k!}$: so $X = 2N$ where $N \sim \text{Po}(4)$ — the PGF substitution $G_{2N}(t) = \mathbb{E}[t^{2N}] = G_N(t^2)$ in action.

Sums of Independent Random Variables

Here is the headline theorem — the real reason PGFs earn their keep.

Theorem

If X and Y are *independent* random variables, then

$$G_{X+Y}(t) = G_X(t) G_Y(t).$$

Adding independent random variables multiplies their PGFs.

The proof is one line, using the fact that independence gives $\mathbb{E}[UV] = \mathbb{E}[U]\mathbb{E}[V]$ for functions of X and of Y .

$$G_{X+Y}(t) = \mathbb{E}[t^{X+Y}] = \mathbb{E}[t^X t^Y] = \mathbb{E}[t^X] \mathbb{E}[t^Y] = G_X(t) G_Y(t).$$

Theorem (Sum of independent Poissons)

If $X \sim \text{Po}(\lambda)$ and $Y \sim \text{Po}(\mu)$ are independent, then $X + Y \sim \text{Po}(\lambda + \mu)$.

$$G_{X+Y}(t) = G_X(t) G_Y(t) = e^{\lambda(t-1)} e^{\mu(t-1)} = e^{(\lambda+\mu)(t-1)},$$

which is the PGF of a $\text{Po}(\lambda + \mu)$ variable. By uniqueness of PGFs, $X + Y \sim \text{Po}(\lambda + \mu)$. ■

This is the proof that the Poisson notes promised. Note how a result that previously had to be taken on trust becomes a one-liner with the right machinery.

Theorem (Sum of independent Bernoullis)

If $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim B(1, p)$ are independent, then $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \sim B(n, p)$.

Each X_i has PGF $q + pt$, so by independence

$$G_{X_1+\dots+X_n}(t) = (q + pt)(q + pt) \cdots (q + pt) = (q + pt)^n,$$

the PGF of $B(n, p)$. ■

This makes rigorous the L8 intuition that “a binomial is a sum of n independent Bernoulli trials” — and the same factorisation shows that the sum of independent binomials $B(n, p)$ and $B(m, p)$ with the same p is $B(n + m, p)$, since $(q + pt)^n (q + pt)^m = (q + pt)^{n+m}$. With different success probabilities the product $(q_1 + p_1 t)^n (q_2 + p_2 t)^m$ is not of binomial form, so the sum is not binomial.

Example (Total score of two dice)

Two fair dice are rolled and T is the total score.

- Write down the PGF of T .
- Use it to find $\mathbb{P}(T = 4)$.
- Hence find $\mathbb{E}[T]$.

(a) Each die has PGF $\frac{1}{6}(t + t^2 + \dots + t^6)$, and the dice are independent, so

$$G_T(t) = \left[\frac{1}{6}(t + t^2 + t^3 + t^4 + t^5 + t^6) \right]^2 = \frac{t^2(1-t^6)^2}{36(1-t)^2}.$$

(b) $\mathbb{P}(T = 4)$ is the coefficient of t^4 in $G_T(t)$. Expanding $\frac{1}{36}(t + \dots + t^6)^2$, the t^4 terms come from $t \cdot t^3$, $t^2 \cdot t^2$ and $t^3 \cdot t$:

$$\mathbb{P}(T = 4) = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12},$$

agreeing with the familiar count of outcomes $(1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1)$.

(c) Each die has mean $\frac{7}{2}$, so by linearity (or by differentiating G_T at $t = 1$) $\mathbb{E}[T] = 7$.

Example (OCR S4, June 2016)

Andrew has five coins. Three of them are unbiased. The other two are biased such that the probability of obtaining a head when one of them is tossed is $\frac{3}{5}$. Andrew tosses all five coins. It is given that the probability generating function of X , the number of heads obtained on the unbiased coins, is

$$G_X(t) = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{3}{8}t + \frac{3}{8}t^2 + \frac{1}{8}t^3.$$

- Find $G_Y(t)$, the probability generating function of Y , the number of heads on the biased coins.
- The random variable Z is the total number of heads obtained when Andrew tosses all five coins. Find the probability generating function of Z , giving your answer as a polynomial.
- Find $\mathbb{E}[Z]$ and $\text{Var}[Z]$.
- Write down the value of $\mathbb{P}(Z = 3)$.

(i) $Y \sim B\left(2, \frac{3}{5}\right)$, so $G_Y(t) = \left(\frac{2}{5} + \frac{3}{5}t\right)^2 = 0.16 + 0.48t + 0.36t^2$.

(ii) The two groups of coins are independent, so

$$G_Z(t) = G_X(t)G_Y(t) = 0.02 + 0.12t + 0.285t^2 + 0.335t^3 + 0.195t^4 + 0.045t^5.$$

(iii) Either differentiate ($G'_Z(1) = 2.7$, $G''_Z(1) = 5.82$, so $\text{Var}[Z] = 5.82 + 2.7 - 2.7^2 = 1.23$), or — faster — use expectation algebra on the independent pieces:

$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = 3 \times \frac{1}{2} + 2 \times \frac{3}{5} = 2.7, \quad \text{Var}[Z] = 3 \times \frac{1}{4} + 2 \times \frac{6}{25} = 0.75 + 0.48 = 1.23.$$

(iv) $\mathbb{P}(Z = 3)$ is the coefficient of t^3 : 0.335.

Note that Z is not binomial — the coins do not share a common p , and indeed G_Z does not factorise as $(q + pt)^5$.

Example (Edexcel FS1, June 2023)

The discrete random variable X has probability generating function

$$G_X(t) = \frac{t^2}{(3 - 2t)^2}.$$

- (a) Specify the distribution of X .
- (b) A fair die is rolled repeatedly. Describe an outcome that could be modelled by the random variable X .
- (c) Use calculus and $G_X(t)$ to find (i) $\mathbb{E}[X]$, (ii) $\text{Var}[X]$.
- (d) The discrete random variable Y has probability generating function

$$G_Y(t) = \frac{t^{10}}{(3 - 2t^3)^2}.$$

Find the exact value of $\mathbb{P}(Y = 19)$.

(a) Dividing top and bottom by 9,

$$G_X(t) = \left(\frac{t/3}{1 - \frac{2}{3}t} \right)^2 = \left[G_{\text{Geo}(1/3)}(t) \right]^2,$$

so X is the sum of two independent $\text{Geo}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$ variables: the number of trials needed to obtain a second success, with success probability $\frac{1}{3}$. (This is called the negative binomial distribution.)

(b) E.g. the total number of rolls needed to obtain a second “5 or 6” (success probability $\frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$ per roll).

(c) By the quotient rule (or writing $G_X = t^2(3 - 2t)^{-2}$ and using the product rule),

$$G'_X(t) = \frac{6t}{(3 - 2t)^3}, \quad G''_X(t) = \frac{18 + 24t}{(3 - 2t)^4},$$

so $\mathbb{E}[X] = G'_X(1) = 6$ and $\text{Var}[X] = G''_X(1) + 6 - 36 = 42 + 6 - 36 = 12$. (Sanity check: twice the $\text{Geo}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$ mean 3 and twice the $\text{Geo}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$ variance 6.)

(d) Expand:

$$G_Y(t) = \frac{t^{10}}{9} \left(1 - \frac{2}{3}t^3\right)^{-2} = \frac{t^{10}}{9} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (j+1) \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^j t^{3j}.$$

The power t^{19} needs $3j = 9$, i.e. $j = 3$, giving

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 19) = \frac{1}{9} \cdot 4 \cdot \frac{8}{27} = \frac{32}{243}.$$

Exercise. (A classic.) Can two six-sided dice be weighted (not necessarily fairly, not necessarily identically) so that the total T is uniform on $\{2, 3, \dots, 12\}$? Think about what the factorisation $G_T = G_X G_Y$ would force, and in particular the roots of these polynomials.

Remark (Looking ahead: moment generating functions). Replacing t by e^s gives $M_X(s) = \mathbb{E}[e^{sX}] = G_X(e^s)$, the **moment generating function**, which makes sense for continuous random variables too and whose derivatives at $s = 0$ generate the moments $\mathbb{E}[X], \mathbb{E}[X^2], \mathbb{E}[X^3], \dots$. The multiplicative property for independent sums carries over verbatim, and will be our main tool when we prove results like the Central Limit Theorem later in the course.

Textbook Exercises: [S3/4] S4 Ch 3