

A note on Probability Distributions

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The concept of Probability Distribution plays an important role in Physics. They may be of different kinds – some discrete and some continuous. Below we shall discuss three frequently appearing distributions, one discrete, one continuous, while the third showing a transition from the former to the latter.

We shall assume that the reader is familiar with the basic concept of Probability, the basic definitions and properties.

Binomial Distribution

One-dimensional Random Walk Problem

A person standing at the origin will take 'N' steps. If the probability of his taking a step towards right is 'p' and that towards left is 'q', what is the prob. that the person takes 'n' steps towards right and the remaining (N – n) steps towards left ?

The no. of ways he can chose his 'n' steps towards right = ${}^N C_n$
(for example, the 1st step, the 3rd step and the 4th step)

For one such combination : (e.g. R L L R R),

The prob. of taking one step towards right = p

⇒ the prob. of taking 'n' step towards right = p^n

The prob. of taking one step towards left = q

⇒ the prob. of taking (N – n) step towards left = $q^{(N-n)}$

⇒ the prob. of the particular combination considered = $p^n \times q^{(N-n)}$

⇒ the prob. of all such combinations

(with 'n' steps towards right and (N – n) steps towards left) = ${}^N C_n \times p^n \times q^{(N-n)}$

The above result was proved by the **Swiss mathematician Jakob Bernoulli**, which was published posthumously in **1713**.

Note that : the above expression is a term in the binomial expansion of $(p + q)^N$
 $(p + q)^N = p^N + {}^N C_1 p^{n-1} q + {}^N C_2 p^{n-2} q^2 + \dots + q^N$
 $= \sum {}^N C_n \times p^n \times q^{(N-n)}$

If we sum over all possible values of 'n' (from 0 to N), we exhaust all the possibilities.

∴ $\sum {}^N C_n \times p^n \times q^{(N-n)}$ should be 1.

Now, $p + q = 1$, because the a single step may either be towards left or towards right.

∴ LHS : $(p + q)^N = 1$ (proved)

Mean $\langle n \rangle$:

If the value of a quantity 'x' is found to be x_i for n_i number of times, then

the mean x is : $\sum n_i x_i / \sum n_i$;

but $(n_i / \sum n_i)$ gives the probability 'P_i' of obtaining the value x_i

∴ mean x : $\langle x \rangle = \sum x_i P_i$

Thus, $\langle n \rangle = \sum n P(n)$, where $P(n) = {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)}$

Now, $(p + q)^N = \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)}$

Now differentiate both sides partially, w.r.t. 'p' :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From the RHS : } \partial/\partial p \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} &= \sum {}^N C_n (np^{n-1}) q^{(N-n)} \\ \Rightarrow p \partial/\partial p \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} &= \sum {}^N C_n (np^n) q^{(N-n)}, \end{aligned}$$

Which is nothing but $\sum n P(n) = \langle n \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From the LHS : } \partial/\partial p (p+q)^N &= N (p+q)^{N-1} \\ \text{or, } \partial/\partial p (p+q)^N &= N (p+q)^{N-1} \\ \Rightarrow p \partial/\partial p (p+q)^N &= Np (p+q)^{N-1} \end{aligned}$$

Remember : $(p+q) = 1$.

So, $\langle n \rangle = Np$.

This is somewhat expected, since 'p' is the prob. of taking a 'right' step, Np is the 'expected' number of right steps, out of a total number of N steps.

A point to remember : While differentiating partially, w.r.t. 'p', we treat p and q to be independent variables, though at the end of the calculation, we set : $q = (1 - p)$.

Mean $\langle n^2 \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} (p+q)^N &= \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} \\ \Rightarrow p \partial/\partial p \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} &= \sum {}^N C_n (np^n) q^{(N-n)} \\ \Rightarrow \partial/\partial p (p \partial/\partial p) \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} &= \sum {}^N C_n (n^2 p^{n-1}) q^{(N-n)} \\ \Rightarrow p \partial/\partial p (p \partial/\partial p) \sum {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} &= \sum {}^N C_n (n^2 p^n) q^{(N-n)}, \\ &= \langle n^2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From the LHS : } p \partial/\partial p (p+q)^N &= Np (p+q)^{N-1} \\ \text{or, } \partial/\partial p (p \partial/\partial p) (p+q)^N &= N (p+q)^{N-1} + N(N-1) p(p+q)^{N-2} \\ \Rightarrow p \partial/\partial p (p \partial/\partial p) (p+q)^N &= Np (p+q)^N + N(N-1) p^2 (p+q)^{N-2} \\ &= Np + N(N-1) p^2 \text{ as } (p+q) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Standard Deviation σ :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 &= [Np + N^2 p^2 - Np^2] - N^2 p^2 \\ &= Np - Np^2 \\ &= Np (1 - p) = Npq \\ \Rightarrow \sigma &= [\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2]^{1/2} = \sqrt{Npq} \end{aligned}$$

Poisson Distribution

Poisson Distribution is named after the **French Mathematician Siméon Denis Poisson**, who discovered it in **1838**.

For a Binomial Distribution, we have seen that :

$$P(n) = {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} = {}^N C_n p^n (1-p)^{(N-n)}$$

Let us consider a situation where 'N' is very large, 'p' is very small, but Np is finite = x, say.

The term : ${}^N C_n = N(N-1)(N-2) \dots (N-n+1) / n!$

As long as 'n' is finite and small compared to 'N', ${}^N C_n \approx N^n/n!$

Combined with the term p^n ,

$${}^N C_n p^n \approx N^n p^n / n! \approx x^n / n!$$

The term : $(1-p)^{(N-n)}$ can be approximated as : $(1-p)^N$
 $= (1-x/N)^N$

and in the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, $(1-x/N)^N \rightarrow e^{-x}$

Explicitly:

$$(1-p)^{(N-n)} = 1 - (N-n)p + (N-n)(N-n-1)/2! p^2 + \dots \\ \approx 1 - Np + (N^2/2!) p^2 + \dots,$$

neglecting 'n' with respect to 'N'.

$$\Rightarrow (1-p)^{(N-n)} \approx 1 - Np + (N^2 p^2/2!) + \dots \\ \approx 1 - x + x^2/2! + \dots \\ = e^{-x}$$

Towards the end of the series, [(N - n) - k] becomes comparable to '1', or in other words, N becomes comparable to (n + k), because 'k' increases. However, combined with pⁿ, such terms → 0, as p → 0.

Thus, $P(n) = {}^N C_n p^n q^{(N-n)} \approx x^n e^{-x} / n!$

Normalization :

$$\Sigma P(n) \text{ for } n = 0 \text{ to } \infty \\ = \Sigma x^n e^{-x} / n! = e^{-x} \Sigma x^n / n! = e^{-x} \times e^x = 1$$

Mean <n> :

$$\langle n \rangle = \Sigma n P(n) = e^{-x} \Sigma n x^n / n! \\ \text{Now, } \partial/\partial x \Sigma x^n / n! = \Sigma n x^{n-1} / n! \\ \Rightarrow (x \partial/\partial x) \Sigma x^n / n! = \Sigma n x^n / n! \\ \text{So, } \Sigma n x^n / n! = (x \partial/\partial x) e^x = x e^x \\ \Rightarrow \langle n \rangle = e^{-x} \Sigma n x^n / n! = x$$

Explicitly :

$$\langle n \rangle = e^{-x} \Sigma n x^n / n! \quad [\text{for } n = 0 \text{ to } \infty] \\ = e^{-x} [x + 2x^2/2! + 3x^3/3! + \dots] \\ = e^{-x} [x + x^2/1! + x^3/2! + \dots] \\ = e^{-x} x [1 + x/1! + x^2/2! + \dots] \\ = e^{-x} x e^x = x$$

<n²> :

$$\langle n^2 \rangle = \Sigma n^2 P(n) = e^{-x} \Sigma n^2 x^n / n! \\ (x \partial/\partial x) \Sigma x^n / n! = \Sigma n x^n / n! \\ \Rightarrow \partial/\partial x (x \partial/\partial x) \Sigma x^n / n! = \Sigma n^2 x^{n-1} / n! \\ \Rightarrow (x \partial/\partial x) (x \partial/\partial x) \Sigma x^n / n! = \Sigma n^2 x^n / n! \\ \text{So, } \Sigma n^2 x^n / n! = (x \partial/\partial x)^2 e^x = (x \partial/\partial x) x e^x \\ = x [e^x + x e^x] = e^x (x^2 + x) \\ \Rightarrow \langle n^2 \rangle = e^{-x} \Sigma n^2 x^n / n! = (x^2 + x)$$

Standard Deviation σ :

$$\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 = (x^2 + x) - x^2 \\ = x$$

So, for Poisson Distribution, mean = variance
and **Standard Deviation σ = √x**

Gaussian Distribution

Gaussian Distribution (also called the '**Normal Distribution**') was introduced by the **German mathematician Carl Friedrich Gauss in 1809**. This is an example of a continuous Prob. Distribution Function, in contrast to the Binomial and the Poisson distribution. Hence we shall need to introduce the concept of the 'Probability Density' here. Let 'X' be a parameter and let the probability that the value of X lies between x and x + dx be **P(x) dx**, the P(x) is the **Probability Density Function**, which is basically, the probability of finding the value of X within a unit interval.

For a Gaussian Probability Distribution Function,

$$P(x) = N \exp \left\{ - (x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\}$$

Normalization :

$$P(x) dx = N \exp \left\{ - (x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dx$$

Now, the value of 'X' must lie *somewhere* between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$. So the total prob.

$\int P(x) dx$ between these limits must be 1 \Rightarrow

$$N \int \exp \left\{ - (x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dx = I, \text{ say}$$

$$\text{Subst. first : } (x - \mu) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow dx = dy$$

$$\Rightarrow I = N \int \exp \left\{ - y^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dy$$

The limits of this integral is $-\infty$ and $+\infty$, but the integrand is clearly an even function. So we can double the integrand and change the limits as : 0 and $+\infty$.

$$I = 2N \int \exp \left\{ - y^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dy$$

$$\text{Next, subst. : } y^2 / 2\sigma^2 = z \Rightarrow y = \sqrt{2\sigma} z^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow dy = \sqrt{2\sigma} (1/2 z^{-1/2}) dz$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \sqrt{2N\sigma} \int e^{-z} z^{-1/2} dz$$

We identify the integral over z as $\Gamma(1/2)$, the value of which is $\sqrt{\pi}$.

$$\Gamma(n) = \int e^{-z} z^{n-1} dz, \text{ between the limits : } 0 \text{ and } +\infty.$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \sqrt{(2\pi)N\sigma}$$

$$\text{So, for I to be unity, } N = 1/\sqrt{(2\pi)\sigma}$$

Mean x :

$$\langle x \rangle = \int x P(x) dx = N \int x \exp \left\{ - (x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dx$$

$$\text{Subst. : } (x - \mu) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x \rangle = N \int (y + \mu) \exp \left\{ - y^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dy$$

Clearly, we can split the above integral into two, The first one, $\int Ny \exp \left\{ - y^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dy$, has an odd integrand and therefore vanish. The second integral equals :

$$N\mu \int \exp \left\{ - y^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dy = \mu.$$

Thus, $\langle x \rangle = \mu$, which furnishes an interpretation of the parameter ' μ '.

Mean x^2 :

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \int x^2 P(x) dx = N \int x^2 \exp \left\{ - (x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2 \right\} dx$$

$$\text{Subst. : } (x - \mu) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle = N \int (y + \mu)^2 \exp \{ -y^2/2\sigma^2 \} dy$$

This can be split into three integrals. The last integral :

$$N \int \mu^2 \exp \{ -y^2/2\sigma^2 \} dy = \mu^2$$

The second integral : $N \int (2\mu y) \exp \{ -y^2/2\sigma^2 \} dy$ involves an odd function as integrand and therefore vanishes.

The first integral $I_1 = N \int y^2 \exp \{ -y^2/2\sigma^2 \} dy$, with the limits : $-\infty$ and $+\infty$. Again, we double the integrand to change the limits as : 0 and $+\infty$.

$$\text{subst. : } y^2/2\sigma^2 = z, \text{ as before [one may also subst. : } y^2/2\sigma^2 = z^2]$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \sqrt{2\sigma} z^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow dy = \sqrt{2\sigma} (1/2 z^{-1/2}) dz$$

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = 2N \int (2\sigma^2 z) e^{-z} (\sigma z^{-1/2}/\sqrt{2}) dz \quad [\text{limits being : 0 and } \infty]$$

$$= 2\sqrt{2} N \sigma^3 \int e^{-z} z^{1/2} dz$$

The integral : $\int e^{-z} z^{1/2} dz = \Gamma(3/2) = 1/2 \Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}/2$.

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = \sqrt{(2\pi)} N \sigma^3$$

We have found above, that $N = 1/\sqrt{(2\pi)\sigma} \Rightarrow I_1 = \sigma^2$

$$\text{So, } \langle x^2 \rangle = \mu^2 + \sigma^2, \langle x \rangle = \mu$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{variance : } \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 = \sigma^2$$

$$\text{and standard deviation} = \sqrt{(\text{variance})} = \sigma$$

Problem Set on Probability Distributions

1. The probability that a drunkard takes a step towards right is 75% of and that towards left is 25%. If the step length is 1 meter, What is the probability that he will reach a distance of 2 meters towards right after a set of four steps ?
2. The probability of a thunder storm on a day is 20% in the month of April. What is the probability that we shall have :
 - (i) Exactly 5 thunder storms in that month ?
 - (ii) Exactly 6 thunder storms in that month ?
 - (iii) At least 4 thunder storms in that month ?
 - (iv) At most 24 thunder storms in that month ?
3. 'Mode' is defined as the value of 'x' with the max. frequency (probability), when the x-values are arranged in order. Find the mode of the Binomial distribution if :
 - (i) $p = 1/4$, (ii) $p = 1/2$.
4. A number of identical bottles kept in the open, are collecting rain water. The average Number of drops collected in one bottle is 10 ($Np = 10$). What is the probability that a particular bottle collects 20 drops ?
5. Find the 'mode' (maximum) in a Gaussian Distribution.
6. The 'point of inflection' of a curve is a point where the curvature changes sign. For the curves of well-behaved functions, it requires (as a necessary cond.) that the second derivative of the function vanishes. On the basis of that, find the point of inflection of the Gaussian Distribution Function.