Moments of binomial random variables

Let X be a binomial random variable with parameters n and p. Our object is to determine moments $E[X^r]$ in terms of n and p. We first show that if r is a positive integer, then

(1)
$$E[X(X-1)\cdots(X-r+1)] = p^r n(n-1)\cdots(n-r+1).$$

To show this, we first note that if n < r, then both sides above are 0. Hence we may assume that $n \ge r$. For such n, the left hand side above is

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} k(k-1)\cdots(k-r+1)\binom{n}{k} p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}.$$

If k < r, then the summand above is 0, so we may restrict k to the interval $r \le k \le n$. Thus the above is

$$=\sum_{k=r}^{n} k(k-1)\cdots(k-r+1)\binom{n}{k}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k} = \sum_{k=r}^{n} k(k-1)\cdots(k-r+1)\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}$$
$$=\sum_{k=r}^{n} \frac{n!}{(k-r)!(n-k)!}p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k} = p^{r}n(n-1)\cdots(n-r+1)\sum_{k=r}^{n} \frac{(n-r)!}{(k-r)!(n-k)!}p^{k-r}(1-p)^{n-k}$$

On setting $k - r = \ell$, we find that the last sum on the right above is

$$\sum_{\ell=0}^{n-r} \frac{(n-r)!}{\ell!(n-r-\ell)!} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{n-r-\ell} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{n-r} \binom{n-r}{\ell} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{n-r-\ell} = \left(p + (1-p)\right)^{n-r} = 1$$

by the binomial theorem. Thus we have (1).

Next we note that if f and g are real-valued functions and X is a discrete random variable, then

(2)

$$E[f(X) + g(X)] = \sum_{i} (f(x_i) + g(x_i))p(x_i) = \sum_{i} f(x_i)p(x_i) + \sum_{i} g(x_i)p(x_i)$$

$$= E[f(X)] + E[g(X)].$$

This is a special case of a more general result: E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y] for arbitrary random variables.

By taking r = 1 in (1), we see that E[X] = np. By taking r = 2, we find that $E[X(X - 1)] = p^2 n(n-1)$. By (2) it follows that

$$E[X^{2}] = E[X(X-1) + X] = E[X(X-1)] + E[X] = p^{2}n(n-1) + pn = n^{2}p^{2} + np(1-p).$$

Hence

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

For r = 3 we find that $E[X(X-1)(X-2)] = p^3n(n-1)(n-2)$ and $X^3 = X(X-1)(X-2) + 3X(X-1) + X$, so

$$E[X^3] = p^3 n(n-1)(n-2) + 3p^2 n(n-1) + pn.$$

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For general r the product $x(x-1)\cdots(x-r+1)$ can be expanded, so there are integers $\begin{bmatrix} r \\ j \end{bmatrix}$, known as Stirling numbers of the first kind such that

$$x(x-1)\cdots(x-r+1) = \sum_{j=1}^{r} {r \brack j} x^{j}.$$

The numbers $\begin{bmatrix} r \\ j \end{bmatrix}$ are sometimes denoted s(r, j). They can be generated by the Pascal-like recursion

$$\begin{bmatrix} r\\ j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r-1\\ j-1 \end{bmatrix} - (r-1) \begin{bmatrix} r-1\\ j \end{bmatrix}.$$

In the reverse direction there exist numbers ${r \atop j}$, known as *Stirling numbers of the second kind* such that

$$x^{r} = \sum_{j=1}^{r} {r \\ j} x(x-1) \cdots (x-j+1).$$

The $\binom{r}{j}$ are sometimes denoted S(r, j). They can be generated by the Pascal-like recursion

$$\binom{r}{j} = j \binom{r-1}{j} + \binom{r-1}{j-1}.$$

Stirling numbers arise in combinatorics: $(-1)^{r-j} {r \choose j}$ is the number of permutations of r objects that have exactly j cycles. The number ${r \choose j}$ is the number of ways of partitioning a set of r objects into exactly j nonempty subsets.

$n \backslash k$	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1					
2	-1	1				
3	2	-3	1			
4	-6	11	-6	1		
5	24	-50	35	-10	1	
6	-120	274	-225	85	-15	1

TABLE 1. Stirling numbers $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ of the first kind.

$n \backslash k$	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1					
2	1	1				
3	1	3	1			
4	1	7	6	1		
5	1	15	25	10	1	
6	1	31	90	65	15	1

TABLE 2. Stirling numbers $\binom{n}{k}$ of the second kind.