Wald's Identity and Geometric Expectation

A geometric random variable N is the number of independent Bernoulli trials *until* the first success. If each trial has a probability p of success, then the probability that k trials are needed is $P(N = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$ for $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Calculating the expected value E[N] involves evaluating the power series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1-p)^{k-1}p$, which can be identified as the derivative of a geometric series. Hong [1] surveys eight different ways to calculate this expected value.

We offer a shorter derivation that formalizes the intuition that the expectation should be the inverse of the success probability. It relies on Wald's identity for the sum of a *random* number N of i.i.d. random variables X_1, X_2, \ldots :

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i\right] = \mathbf{E}[N] \mathbf{E}[X_1]. \tag{1}$$

Most probability students learn a special case of this identity, when N is independent of X_1, X_2, \ldots [3, p. 340], but the identity holds more generally, as long as N is a *stopping time*—that is, $\{N = n\}$ is independent of X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \ldots for all n [2, p. 105]. In other words, the decision to stop at time n can only depend on the values seen so far; it cannot depend on future values. With stopping times and Wald's identity, the geometric expectation is immediate.

Proposition. E[N] = 1/p.

Proof. Let $X_1, X_2, ...$ be i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) random variables representing the trials. The geometric random variable N is a stopping time and can be formally defined in terms of the X_i 's as $N := \inf\{n : X_n = 1\}$.

By definition, $\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i = 1$ (almost surely), since every term in the sum is 0 except for the last, which is 1. So the expectation of the random sum is 1 as well. But we can also expand the expectation using (1). Equating the two expressions,

$$1 = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i\right] = \mathbf{E}[N] \mathbf{E}[X_1].$$
(2)

Solving for E[N], we see that $E[N] = 1/E[X_1] = 1/p$.

Similar arguments appear in renewal theory. For example, Ross [2, p. 104-106] uses (1) to calculate the expected number of coin flips to to get 10 heads.

REFERENCES

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