# **MATH 394 Notes**

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# 1 Counting

#### 1.1 Sum Rule

If you can choose from one of n choices or one of m choices then the total number of outcomes is n+m

#### 1.2 Product Rule

If each outcome is constructed by a sequential process where there are

- n<sub>1</sub> choices for the first step
- $n_2$  choices for the second step (given the choice for the first step)
- $n_k$  choices for the  $k^{\rm th}$  step (given the choice for the previous step)

then the total number of outcomes is  $n_1 \times n_2 \times ... \times n_k$ 

#### 1.3 Power Set

The power set of a set A is the set of all subsets of A, including the empty set and A itself

- $P(A) = \{ S \mid S \subset A \}$
- $P(\varnothing) = \{\varnothing\}$
- $P(\{x,y\}) = \{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{y\}, \{x,y\}\}$

A set with n elements has  $2^n$  power sets

#### 1.4 Permutations

There are n! ways to order n distinct objects

## 1.5 Complementary Counting

Let U be a set and S a subset of interest. Let  $U \setminus S$  denote the set difference. Then  $|U \setminus S| = |U| - |S|$ 

#### 1.6 ${}^{n}P_{k}$ Permutations

There are  ${}^{n}P_{k}=\frac{n!}{k!}$  ways to arrange k out of n distinct objects without repetition

• n permute k

## 1.7 ${}^{n}C_{k}$ Combinations

There are  ${}^nC_k=\binom{n}{k}=\frac{n!}{(n-k)!\times k!}$  ways to *choose* k out of n distinct objects without repetition

n choose k

## 1.8 Combinatorial Argument/Proof

- Let S be a set of objects
- Show how to count |S| one way, let |S| = M
- Show how to count |S| another way, let |S| = N
- Then M=N

#### 1.9 Binomial Theorem

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  a positive integer, then

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

- Symmetry in Binomial Coefficients  $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$
- Pascal's Identity  $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$
- Application of Binomial Theorem  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$

#### 1.10 Inclusion-Exclusion

If  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_N$  are sets, then

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n| = \text{singles} - \text{doubles} + \text{triples} - \text{quads} + ...$$
  
=  $(|A_1| + ... + |A_n|) - (|A_1 \cap A_2| + ... + |A_{n-1} \cap A_n|) + ...$ 

# 1.11 Pigeonhole Principle

If there are n pigeons in k < n holes, then one hole must contain at least  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{k} \right\rceil$  pigeons

To use the Pigeonhole Principle

- 1. Identify pigeons
- 2. Identify pigeonholes
- 3. Specify how pigeons are assigned to pigeonholes
- 4. Apply Pigeonhole Principle

#### 1.12 Sleuth's Criterion

For each object constructed, it should be possible to reconstruct the unique sequence of choices that led to it

- If an example has no sequence, then we are undercounting
- If an example has multiple sequences, then we are overcounting

# 2 Probability

## 2.1 Sample Space

A sample space  $\Omega$  is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment

#### 2.2 Events

An event  $E \subseteq \Omega$  is a subset of possible outcomes

• Events E and F are mutually exclusive if  $E \cap F = \emptyset$ 

## 2.3 Probability Measure

A probability measure is a function  $P:\omega \to [0,1]$  such that

- $\mathbb{P}(\omega) \geq 0$  for all  $\omega \in \Omega$
- $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(\omega) = 1$

## 2.4 Probability Space

A probability space is a pair  $(\omega, \mathbb{P})$  where

- $\omega$  is a set called the sample space

If  $(\omega,\mathbb{P})$  is a probability space, then for any event  $A\in\Omega$  it has probability  $\mathbb{P}(A)=\sum_{\omega\in A}\mathbb{P}(\omega)$ 

# 2.5 Uniform Probability Space

A uniform probability space is a pair  $(\Omega,\mathbb{P})$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(x)=\frac{1}{|\Omega|}$  for all  $x\in\Omega$ 

If  $(\omega, \mathbb{P})$  is a uniform probability space, then for any event  $E \in \Omega$  it has probability  $\mathbb{P}(E) = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|}$ 

# 2.6 Axioms of Probability

- 1. Non-negativity:  $\mathbb{P}(E) \geq 0$
- 2. Normalization:  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$
- 3. Countable Additivity: If E and F are mutually exclusive, then  $\mathbb{P}(E \cup F) = \mathbb{P}(E) + \mathbb{P}(F)$

Corollaries of the axioms

- 1. Complementation:  $\mathbb{P}(E^c) = 1 \mathbb{P}(E)$
- 2. Monotonicity: If  $E \subseteq F$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(E) \leq \mathbb{P}(F)$
- 3. Inclusion-Exclusion:  $\mathbb{P}(E \cup F) = \mathbb{P}(E) + \mathbb{P}(F) \mathbb{P}(E \cap F)$

## 2.7 Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of event A given an event B occurred is  $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$ 

- We can rearrange the equation such that  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid B)\mathbb{P}(B)$
- If A and B are independent events, then  $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A) \times \mathbb{P}(B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \mathbb{P}(A)$

## 2.8 Bayes' Theorem

The probability of an event A, based on prior knowledge of conditions related to the event is  $\mathbb{P}(A\mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B\mid A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$ 

#### 2.9 Partitions

Non-empty events  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  partition the sample space  $\Omega$  if

$$E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \ldots \cup E_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = \Omega$$

- · The union of partitions cover the sample space
- · The intersection of partitions is the null set

## 2.10 Law of Total Probability

If events  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  partition the sample space  $\Omega$ , then for any event F

$$\mathbb{P}(F) = \mathbb{P}(F \cap E_1) + \mathbb{P}(F \cap E_2) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(F \cap E_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(F \cap E_i)$$

#### 2.11 Chain Rule

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_2 \mid A_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2) \cdot \dots \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_n \mid A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})$$

#### 2.12 Independence

Two events A and B are independent if  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A) \times \mathbb{P}(B)$ 

- If  $\mathbb{P}(A) \neq 0$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(B \mid A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$
- If  $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$
- Independent events with non-zero probabilities are never mutually exclusive

# 2.13 Conditional Independence

Two events A and B are independent conditioned on C if  $\mathbb{P}(C) \neq 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \mid C) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B \mid C)$ 

- If  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap C) \neq 0$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(B \mid A \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(B \mid C)$
- If  $\mathbb{P}(B \cap C) \neq 0$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid C)$

## 3 Discrete Random Variables

#### 3.1 Discrete Random Variables

A discrete random variable for a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$  is a function  $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ 

- Discrete random variables partition the sample space
  - Every event must have a probability
  - Every event has exactly one probability

## 3.2 Probability Mass Function (PMF)

The probability mass function of a discrete random variable  $X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$  specifies, for any real number x, the probability that X=x

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = x\})$$

where  $\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = x\}$  is the event space

## 3.3 Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

The cumulative distribution function of a random variable  $X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$  specifies, for any real number x, the probability that  $X\leq x$ 

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x)$$

## 3.4 Converting a CDF to a PMF

Let  $F_X$  be piecewise constant. Then X is a discrete random variable and the possible values of X are the locations where  $F_X$  has jumps. If x is such a point, then  $\mathbb{P}(X=x)$  equals the magnitude of the jump of  $F_X$  at x

## 3.5 Expectation

Given a discrete random variable  $X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ , the expectation or expected value of X is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\omega) \text{ or equivalently } \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_Y} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

#### 3.6 Linearity of Expectation

For any two random variables X and Y

$$\mathbb{E}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

· Linearity of expectations applies for both independent and dependent variables

For any random variables  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  and real numbers  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\mathbb{E}[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n] = a_1\mathbb{E}[X_1] + a_2\mathbb{E}[X_2] + \dots + a_n\mathbb{E}[X_n]$$

#### 3.7 Law of the Unconscious Statistician

Given a discrete real variable  $X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ , the expectation or expected value of Y=g(X) is

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} g(X(\omega)) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\omega)$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_y} y \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)$$

#### 3.8 Variance

The variance of a discrete real variable X is  $\mathrm{Var}(X) = \sum_{x \in X} \mathbb{P}_X(x) \cdot (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$ 

- $Var(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot Var(X)$
- $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) \mathbb{E}(X)^2$
- Var(X) = Var(-X)
- If X and Y are independent, then Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

#### 3.9 Standard Deviation

The standard deviation of a random variable X is  $\sigma(X) = \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X)}$ 

#### 3.10 Median

The median of a random variable X is any  $a\in\mathbb{R}$  that satisfies  $\mathbb{P}(X\geq a)\geq \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\mathbb{P}(X\leq a)\geq \frac{1}{2}$ 

## 3.11 $p^{th}$ Quantile

The  $p^{\text{th}}$  quantile of a random variable X is any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies  $\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \geq 1-p$  and  $\mathbb{P}(X \leq a) \geq p$ 

## 3.12 Independent Random Variables

Two random variables X, Y are mutually independent if for all x, y

$$\mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)$$

#### 3.13 Discrete Uniform Random Variables

A discrete random variable X is equally likely to take any integer value between integers a and b inclusive, denoted  $X \sim \mathrm{Unif}(a,b)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \frac{1}{b-a+1}$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

• 
$$Var(X) = \frac{(b-a)(b-a+2)}{12}$$

#### 3.14 Bernoulli Random Variables

A Bernoulli random variable X takes value 1 with probability p, and value 0 with probability 1-p, denoted  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \begin{cases} p & x=1\\ 1-p & x=0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = p$$

• 
$$Var(X) = p(1-p)$$

#### 3.15 Binomial Random Variables

A binomial random variable X is the number of successes in n independent random variables  $Y_i \sim \mathrm{Ber}(p)$  where  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$ , denoted  $X \sim \mathrm{Bin}(n,p)$ 

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

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = np$$

• 
$$Var(X) = np(1-p)$$

#### 3.16 Geometric Random Variables

A geometric random variable X models the number of independent trials  $Y_i \sim \mathrm{Ber}(p)$  before seeing the first success, denoted  $X \sim \mathrm{Geo}(p)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1}p$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{n}$$

• 
$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

The geometric random variable  $\frac{1}{n} \text{Geo}\left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)$  well approximates the exponential distribution  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$  when  $\frac{\lambda}{n} < 1$  and n is very large

## **Negative Binomial Random Variables**

A negative binomial random variable X models the number of independent trials  $Y_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  before seeing the  $r^{\text{th}}$  success.  $X = \sum_{i=1}^r Z_i$  where  $Z_i \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ , denoted  $X \sim \text{NegBin}(r,p)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \binom{x-1}{r-1} (1-p)^{x-r} p^r$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{r}{n}$
- $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$

## 3.18 Hypergeometric Random Variables

A hypergeometric random variable X measures the number of white balls you draw when you draw n balls uniformly at random from a total of N of which K are white and the rest are black, denoted  $X \sim \text{HypGeo}(N, K, n)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X = x) = \frac{\binom{K}{x} \binom{N-K}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$
  
•  $\mathbb{E}[X] = n\frac{K}{N}$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = n\frac{K}{N}$$

• 
$$Var(X) = n \frac{K(N-K)(N-n)}{N^2(N-1)}$$

#### 3.19 Poisson Random Variables

A Poisson random variable X is the actual number of events happening per unit time given events happen independently at an average rate of  $\lambda$  per unit time, denoted  $\bar{X} \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$$

• 
$$Var(X) = \lambda$$

The Poisson random variable Poi(np) well approximates the binomial random variable Bin(n,p)when  $np^2$  is small

## **Sum of Independent Poisson Random Variables**

Let  $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_1)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_2)$  such that  $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ . Let Z = X + Y

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(Z=z) = \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{z!} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^z$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$

#### 3.21 Poisson Process

A Poisson process describes the actual number of events happening in the unit interval [a,b] given events happen independently at an average rate of  $\lambda$  per unit time, denoted  $N([a,b]) \sim \operatorname{Poi}(\lambda(b-a))$ 

- The average rate  $\lambda$  per unit time is called the intensity of the process
- If  $I_1,I_2,...,I_n$  are non-overlapping intervals in  $[0,\infty)$ , then the Poisson processes  $N(I_1),N(I_2),...,N(I_n)$  are mutually independent

## 4 Continuous Random Variables

## 4.1 Probability Density Function (PDF)

A probability density function  $f_X: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  represents a continuous random variable X

- $f_X(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x) \ dx = 1$
- $f_X(x)$  may be greater than 1

## 4.2 Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

The cumulative distribution of a continuous random variable X specifies, for any real number x, the probability that  $X \leq x$ 

$$F_X(a) = \mathbb{P}(X \le a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f_X(x) \ dx$$

- The probability  $\mathbb{P}(X < a)$  is obtained by taking the left-hand limit  $\lim_{x \to a^-} F_X(a)$ 

## 4.3 Converting a CDF to a PDF

Let  $F_X$  be continuous and its derivative  $F_X'$  exist everywhere on the real line, except possibly at finitely many points. Then X is a continuous random variable and  $f(x) = F_X'(x)$  is the probability density function of x. If  $F_X$  is not differentiable at x, then the value f(x) can be set arbitrarily

## 4.4 Expectation

Given a continuous random variable X, the expectation or expected value of X is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x) \cdot x \, dx$$

#### 4.5 Variance

The variance of a continuous random variable *X* is

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x) \cdot (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 dx = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$$

#### 4.6 Continuous Uniform Random Variables

A continuous uniform random variable X is denoted  $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$ 

• 
$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a,b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{b+a}{2}$$

• 
$$Var(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

## 4.7 Exponential Distribution

An exponential random variable X models the waiting time before the next event occurs given that  $\lambda$  events occur per unit time, denoted  $X \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$ 

• 
$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

• 
$$F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$
 for  $x \ge 0$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

• 
$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

The exponential distribution  $n \operatorname{Exp}(np)$  well approximates the geometric random variable  $\operatorname{Geo}(p)$  when p is very small

## 4.8 Memoryless Random Variables

A random variable is memoryless if for all s, t > 0,  $\mathbb{P}(X > s + t \mid X > s) = \mathbb{P}(X > t)$ 

•  $X \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$  is a memoryless random variable

#### 4.9 Normal Distribution

A normal random variable X with parameters  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma \geq 0$  is denoted  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

• 
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$$

• 
$$Var(X) = \sigma^2$$

Properties of the normal distribution

• 
$$\mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b$$

• 
$$Var(aX + b) = a^2Var(X)$$

• If 
$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$$
 and  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$  where  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $aX + bY + c \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu_X + b\mu_y + c, \ a^2\sigma_X^2 + b^2\sigma_Y^2)$ 

The normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(np, \sqrt{np(1-p)}^2)$  well approximates the binomial random variable  $\operatorname{Bin}(n,p)$  when np(1-p)>10

#### 4.10 Standard Unit Normal Distribution

The standard unit normal distribution Z is a normal random variable with parameters  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma^2=1$ , denoted  $Z\sim\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ 

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(Z \leq z) = \mathbb{P}(-z \leq Z) = \Phi(z)$$

• 
$$\mathbb{P}(z \leq Z) = \mathbb{P}(Z \leq -z) = 1 - \Phi(z)$$

## 4.11 Standardizing Normal Distributions

Given a normal random variable  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , the CDF of X is given by

$$\mathbb{P}\left(Z \leq \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

where  $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$ 

#### 4.12 Central Limit Theorem

Let  $S_n = X_1 + ... + X_n$ , where  $X_1, ..., X_n$  are independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables each with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ 

- $\mathbb{E}[S_n] = n\mu$
- $Var(S_n) = n\sigma^2$

The CDF of  $Y_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$  converges to the CDF of the standard unit normal  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ 

- $\mathbb{E}[Y_n] = 0$
- $Var(Y_n) = 1$

Alternately, the CDF of  $\bar{X}=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  converges to the CDF of normal variable  $\mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$ 

- $\mathbb{E}\left[\bar{X}\right] = \mu$
- $\operatorname{Var}\left(\bar{X}\right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$

# 4.13 Continuity Correction

To estimate the probability that a discrete random variable lands in the integer interval [a,b], compute the probability that the continuous approximation lands in the interval  $\left[a-\frac{1}{2},b+\frac{1}{2}\right]$ 

# 4.14 Stirling's Formula

If  $n \to \infty$ , then  $n! \sim n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n}$ 

#### 4.15 Minimum of IID Random Variables

If  $Y_1,...,Y_m$  are iid continuous uniform random variables  $\mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[\min(Y_1,...,Y_m)]=\frac{1}{m+1}$ 

• Let 
$$\operatorname{val} = \min(Y_1,...,Y_m)$$
. Then  $m = \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{val}]} - 1$ 

## 4.16 Discrete Counting

Suppose we have an unknown number of iid random variables  $Y_1, ..., Y_m$  and k independent hash functions  $h_i: U \to [0,1]$ . Let  $\operatorname{val}_i = \min(h_i(Y_1), ..., h_i(Y_m))$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathrm{val}] \approx \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathrm{val}_i \; \; \mathrm{such \; that} \; \; m \approx \frac{1}{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathrm{val}_i} - 1$$

## 5 Transforms and Transformations

## 5.1 Moment Generating Functions

The moment generating function of a random variable X is given by  $M(t) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX}\right]$  where  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ 

- If X is discrete, then  $M(t) = \sum_{-} e^{tx} \cdot \mathbb{P}(X=x)$
- If X is continuous, then  $M(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} \cdot f_X(x) \; dx$

#### 5.2 Moments

If the moment generating function of X is finite around the origin, then the moment  $\mathbb{E}[X^n]$  is given by the  $n^{\text{th}}$  derivative of the moment generating function M(t) at t=0

$$\mathbb{E}\left[X^n\right] = M^{(n)}(0)$$

## 5.3 Equality in Distribution

If two random variables X and Y have the same probability distribution, then  $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$ 

- Discrete X and Y are equal in distribution if and only if  $\mathbb{P}(X=\alpha)=\mathbb{P}(Y=\alpha)$  for all  $\alpha\in\Omega$
- Continuous X and Y are equal in distribution if and only if  $f_X(\alpha) = f_Y(\alpha)$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

# 5.4 Moment Generating Functions and Equality in Distribution

Let X and Y be random variables with moment generating functions  $M_X(t)$  and  $M_Y(t)$ . Then X and Y are equal in distribution if and only if there exists  $\delta>0$  such that  $M_X(t),M_Y(t)$  are finite and  $M_X(t)=M_Y(t)$  for all  $t\in (-\delta,\delta)$