

# Concepts

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## Abstract

Useful concepts of probability and statistics.

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## 1 Laws

### 1.1 Law of total probability

It is common practice to compute the sum of total probability of all available options.

Thinking **forwardly**. Which means starting from the **reason** to the **result**.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Law of total probability*

*For random variables  $A$  and  $B$ , we have*

$$P(A) = \sum P(A|B_i) \cdot P(B_i), \forall B_i \in B$$

*It is automatically accepted that all the  $B_i$ s are all separable, and mutually exclusive with each other, which means*

$$P(B_i, B_j) = P(B_i) \cdot P(B_j), i \neq j$$

$$P(B_i, B_i) = P(B_i)$$

*It is a prior rule to be accepted, and we will accept it if not specified.*

Thinking **backwardly**. If we have already known that  $A$  only has one option (noted as  $a$ ), which is also inevitable ( $P(A = a) = 1$ ).

**Proposition 1.1.** *Sum of probability of every options is ONE*

*Proof.* We have  $P(a) = 1$  and  $P(a|B_i) = 1, \forall B_i \in B$ . Thus,

$$1 = \sum P(B_i), \forall B_i \in B$$

Since  $a$  can be something that naturally happens regardless of the choice of  $B$ , the proposition may not be affected by the choice of  $a$ . Thus, the total probability of all options of  $B$  is 1.  $\square$

## 2 Definitions

### 2.1 Definition of $e$

The constant  $e$  is defined as the infinity integral of

$$e = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x \quad (1)$$

the very existence of  $e$  is based on the fact that integrand function is monotone bounded.

**Proposition 2.1.** *The function  $f(x)$  is **monotone bounded***

$$f(x) = (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x, x \in \mathcal{R}$$

*Proof.* Use its discrete sequence version

$$g_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n, n \in \mathcal{N}$$

by expanding it, we have

$$\begin{aligned} g_n &= \sum_{i=0}^n (n, i) \cdot \frac{1}{n^i} \\ g_{n+1} &= \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} (n+1, i) \cdot \frac{1}{(n+1)^i} \\ g_{n+1} &= \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(n+1, i)}{n+1} \cdot \frac{1}{n^i} + c \end{aligned}$$

where  $c > 0$ . For every  $i$ , we have  $\frac{(n+1, i)}{n+1} > (n, i)$ . Thus, the  $g_n$  is **monotone increasing**.

To find a valid upper bound, we enlarge the  $g_n$ .

$$g_n < \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{1}{i!}$$

the enlarge is based on the idea of  $(n, i) < \frac{n^i}{i!}$ . Further,

$$g_n < c + \sum_{i=4}^n \frac{1}{2^i}$$

where constant  $c > 0$ . It uses the idea of  $2^i < i!, i \geq 4$ . Use the sum of geometric series, we can say the  $g_n$  is **upper bounded**.

Back to  $f(x)$ , use **Squeeze Theorem**

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^n < f(x) < \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1}$$

where  $n = \lfloor x \rfloor$ . On the left hand, it equals to  $g_{n+1}/(1 + \frac{1}{n+1})$ ; On the right hand, it equals to  $g_n * (1 + \frac{1}{n})$ . Based on the analysis above, they are of the same value which is defined as  $e$ .

Hence proved. □

## 2.2 Gaussian integral

The gaussian integral is the improper integral defined as

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \quad (2)$$

and the value equals to  $\sqrt{\pi}$ .

**Lemma 2.1.** *The gaussian integral equals to  $\sqrt{\pi}$*

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

*Proof.* Use the square-shaped integral

$$I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} e^{-y^2} dx dy$$

Transform into polar coordinates

$$I^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta$$

Evaluate the integral of  $r$

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du = \frac{1}{2}$$

Thus

$$I^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} d\theta = \pi$$

Hence proved. □

## 2.3 Gamma function

The Gamma function is defined as

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt, \operatorname{Re}(z) > 0 \quad (3)$$

The Gamma function has useful properties

$$\Gamma(1) = 1$$

$$\Gamma(z+1) = z \cdot \Gamma(z)$$

$$\Gamma(z) = 2 \int_0^{\infty} t^{2z-1} e^{-t^2} dt$$

Based on the gaussian integral in (2), we have

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

There are countless useful properties of Gamma function. The followings are from the website <sup>1</sup>.

### 2.3.1 Euler's reflection formula

The Gamma function satisfies the reflection formula

$$\Gamma(x)\Gamma(1-x) = \frac{\pi}{\sin(x\pi)} \quad (4)$$

The proof can be found in <sup>2</sup>. The formula can verify the value of  $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})$ .

### 2.3.2 Euler's product representation

The Gamma function can be expressed as an infinite product

$$\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{x} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^x \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-1} \quad (5)$$

### 2.3.3 Weierstrass's product representation

The Gamma function can be expressed as another infinite product

$$\Gamma(x) = \frac{\exp(-\gamma x)}{x} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) \quad (6)$$

where  $\gamma$  denotes the Euler-Mascheroni constant

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \log(n) \quad (7)$$

This definition implies the reflection formula along with the Weierstrass product of sine and is equivalent with Euler's representation when the definition of the Euler-Mascheroni constant is substituted and rearranged.

### 2.3.4 Riemann's reflection formula

The Gamma function plays a key role in the analytic continuation of the Riemann zeta function to the complex plane

$$\zeta(s) = 2^s \pi^{s-1} \sin\left(\frac{\pi s}{2}\right) \Gamma(1-s) \zeta(1-s) \quad (8)$$

This example shows how closely related the Gamma function is to other functions. Another similar relation with the zeta function is

$$\zeta(z)\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{t^{z-1}}{e^t - 1} dt$$

<sup>1</sup>[https://math.wikia.org/wiki/Gamma\\_function](https://math.wikia.org/wiki/Gamma_function)

<sup>2</sup><https://brilliant.org/discussions/thread/proof-of-euler-reflection-formula/>

### 2.3.5 Other properties

The relationship between Beta function

$$\int_0^1 t^{n-1}(1-t)^{m-1} dt = \frac{\Gamma(n)\Gamma(m)}{\Gamma(n+m)}$$

Use  $t = \sin^2 \theta$  for convenience, we have

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{2n-1}(\theta) \sin^{2m-1}(\theta) d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(n)\Gamma(m)}{2\Gamma(n+m)}$$

When  $n \in \mathcal{N}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(n) &= (n-1)! \\ \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) &= \sqrt{\pi} \frac{(n-2)!!}{2^{(n-1)/2}}\end{aligned}$$

where !! denotes the operator of double factorial<sup>3</sup>.

## 2.4 Sterling's formula

In short version, the sterling's formula gives an expression of  $n!$

$$n! = n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n} [1 + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{n})] \quad (9)$$

*Proof.* Proof the Sterling's formula

$$n! = n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n} [1 + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{n})]$$

Formulate new formula based on Gamma function

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(x)e^x \sqrt{x}}{x^x} = 2 \int_0^\infty e^{x-u^2} \left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{x}}\right)^{2x-1} du$$

Changing variables  $u = \sqrt{x} + v$

$$f(x) = 2 \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^\infty \phi_x(v) e^{-v^2} dv$$

where  $\phi_x(v) = e^{-2vx^{1/2}} (1 + \frac{v}{\sqrt{x}})^{2x-1}, \forall v \geq -\sqrt{x}$ . Additionally, we define  $\phi_x(v) = 0, \forall v < -\sqrt{x}$ , one gets

$$f(x) = 2 \int_{-\infty}^\infty \phi_x(v) e^{-v^2} dv$$

Firstly, using the series expansion

$$\log(1 + \frac{v}{\sqrt{x}}) = \frac{v}{\sqrt{x}} - \frac{v^2}{2x} + \dots$$

thus, for a fixed  $v$

$$\log \phi_x(v) = -v^2 + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}), x \rightarrow \infty$$

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<sup>3</sup>[https://math.wikia.org/wiki/Double\\_factorial](https://math.wikia.org/wiki/Double_factorial)

hence

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_x(v) &= e^{-v^2 + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}})} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \phi_x(v) &= e^{-v^2}\end{aligned}$$

Use Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem we conclude

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Gamma(x) e^x \sqrt{x}}{x^x} = 2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2v^2} dv = \sqrt{2\pi}$$

additionally, the approximation can be expressed as

$$\frac{\Gamma(x) e^x \sqrt{x}}{x^x} = \sqrt{2\pi} \cdot e^{\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}})}$$

Use the condition of  $n = x, n \in \mathcal{N}$ , and  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ , we get

$$n! = n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi n} [1 + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{n})]$$

Hence proved. □

### 3 Basic concepts

#### 3.1 Expectation and Variation

For a random variable, it follows certain distribution

$$x \approx p(x), \forall 0 < p(x) < 1, \int_x p(x) dx = 1$$

its expectation and variation are computed as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}(x) &= \int_x x \cdot p(x) dx \\ \mathcal{V}(x) &= \int_x (x - \mathcal{E}(x))^2 \cdot p(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

additionally, the variation can be computed as

$$\mathcal{V}(x) = \mathcal{E}(x^2) - \mathcal{E}^2(x)$$