

Stirling formula

Question: estimate $n!$.

similar question: estimate $\ln(n!)$: this leads to "Baby-Stirling":

$$\ln(a \cdot b) = \ln(a) + \ln(b)$$

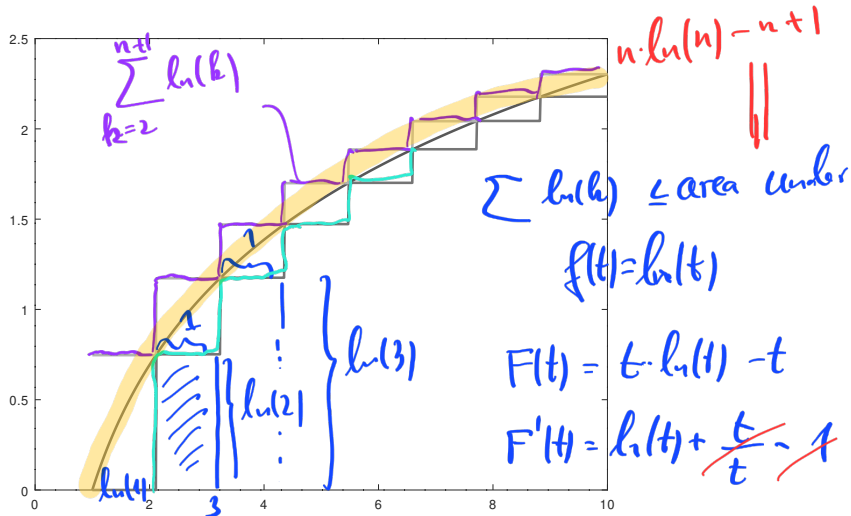


$$\ln(n!) = \ln(1) + \ln(2) + \dots + \ln(n)$$

Stirling formula

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Stirling formula 2

$$\int_1^n \ln(t) dt \leq \ln(n!) \leq \int_1^n \ln(1 + \underbrace{t}_{\uparrow}) dt$$

Stirling formula 2

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

$$\int_1^n \ln(t) dt \leq \ln(n!) \leq \int_1^n \ln(1+t) dt$$

Knowing the anti-derivative $t \ln(t) - t$ we get

$$n \ln(n) - n \leq \ln(n!) \leq (n+1) \ln(n+1) - (n-1) - 2 \ln(2)$$

or, writing $1 = \ln(e)$ to get only logarithms, example: $n = n \cdot 1$

$$\ln(n) - \ln(e)$$

$$= \ln\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)$$

$$= n \ln(e)$$

$$= \ln(e^n)$$

$$\cancel{\ln(n!)} \approx \cancel{\ln\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n}$$

Stirling formula 2

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or, writing $1 = \ln(e)$ to get only logarithms,

$$\ln \left(\frac{n}{e} \right)^n \leq \ln(n!) \leq \ln \frac{1}{4} (n+1)^2 \left(\frac{n+1}{e} \right)^{n-1}$$

Stirling formula 2

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$$\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \leq n! \leq \frac{e}{4}(n+1) \left(\frac{n+1}{e}\right)^n$$

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$$\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \leq n! \leq \frac{e}{4}(n+1) \left(\frac{n+1}{e}\right)^n \approx \frac{e^2}{4}(n+1) \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N 0,1 = \frac{N}{10} \rightarrow \infty, \text{ if } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

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more precise is **Stirling's formula** (Student project!!) \rightarrow class & Melanie

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

$$e^{i\pi} = -1.$$

Back to random walk



What can be said about this formula? Using Stirling,

n out of $2n$ choices.

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{2n} = 0) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \binom{2n}{n} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \frac{(2n)!}{n! \cdot n!} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$

(+1, -1, +1, +1, +1, -1, -1, -1)

($2n$) places, n times +1
 n times -1

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{2n} = 0) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$

Back to random walk

2dim. $P(S_{4n}=0) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$

What can be said about this formula? Using Stirling,

3dim. $P(S_{6n}=0) \approx \frac{1}{(\pi n)^{3/2}}$

$$P(S_{2n}=0) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \binom{2n}{n} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \frac{(2n)!}{n!n!} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$

Theorem We have with probability 1 that $S_{2n} = 0$ infinitely often if, and only if,

$$\sum_n P(S_{2n} = 0) = +\infty$$

We will prove this theorem below.

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \approx \int_1^N \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \left[2\sqrt{x} \right]_{x=1}^{x=N} \approx 2\sqrt{N}$$

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \approx \frac{1}{n^{1/2}}$ $\frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{x^{1/2}}$ $\int_1^N \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} \approx 2\sqrt{N}$ $N \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow +\infty$

What can be said about this formula? Using Stirling,

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{2n} = 0) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \binom{2n}{n} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} \frac{(2n)!}{n!.n!} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$

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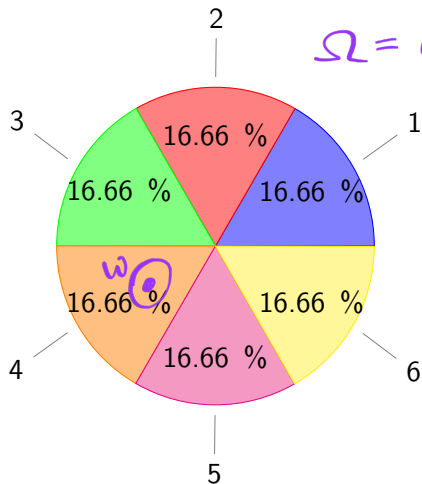
$$\sum_n \mathbb{P}(S_{2n} = 0) = +\infty$$

We will prove this theorem below.

Corollary: random walks in \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}^2 return infinitely often at the origin, whereas in higher dimensions, this does not happen! (explaining this is a small student project !!)

Probability theory in a nutshell 1

An **event** is a set of outcomes of an observation of a random phenomenon. If you throw a **die**, $A = \{1\}$ is an event. $B = \{1, 2\}$ is another one. If the die is fair, A occurs with probability $1/6$, B with $2/6$.

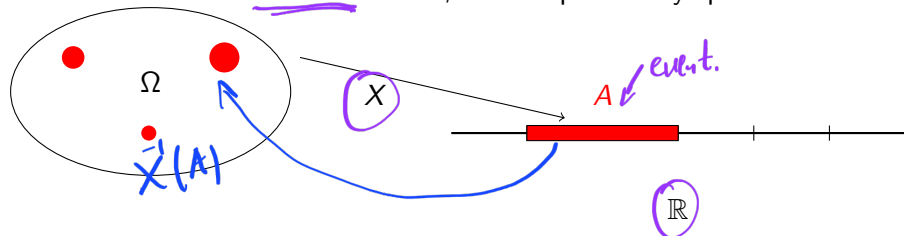


other "dice"



Probability theory in a nutshell 2

What counts is the observed result, not the probability space !



A map $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **random variable**. Now for an event A ,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A) := \nu(\underbrace{\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A\}}_{X^{-1}(A)})$$

The left is to be read “the probability that A is realised”. It is calculated by the right, which is a *probability measure* of the pre-image of A under X .

Probability theory in a nutshell 3

A “probability measure” is a measure for the “size” of a subset of Ω . But what does that mean? Formally, we have “measurable subsets” in Ω . The collection of these sets is called \mathcal{M} . For practical purposes you can safely assume that all sets you ever encounter are measurable (you will need to play with the axiom of choice to construct non-measurable sets).

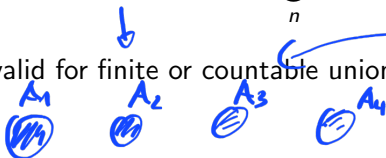
- $\nu : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, 1]$

- If $A_n \in \mathcal{M}$ for all n and if $A_n \cap A_k = \emptyset$ for $n \neq k$, then

no x is in A_k and A_n simultaneously

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_n A_n\right) = \sum_n \nu(A_n)$$

This is valid for finite or countable unions (indexed by natural numbers).



Probability theory in a nutshell 4

Example 1: Ω finite, $\mathcal{M} = \{ \text{all subsets of } \Omega \}$. $\nu(A) = \frac{\text{size of } A}{\text{size of } \Omega}$

Example 2: In $\Omega = [0, 1]$, we let $\nu([a, b]) = b - a$. This is the standard “uniform” measure.

Observe that $\nu(\{a\}) \leq \nu([a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon]) = 2\varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$ so that $\nu(\{a\}) = 0$. Probabilists will say, the “event” $\{a\}$ happens with probability 0. Consequently,



$$\nu([a, b]) = \nu([a, b]) = \nu((a, b)) = \nu((a, b))$$

$a < x < b$

By the additivity property, $\nu([1/4, 1/2] \cup [2/3, 3/4]) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$.

(back to general theory): Let $A \subset B$. Then $B = A \cup (B \setminus A)$, and so we have

$$\nu(B) = \nu(A) + \nu(B \setminus A) \geq \nu(A)$$



which means that measures are *monotonic*: “smaller set” implies “smaller measure”.

Probability theory in a nutshell 3

Example 3: Observe that in the previous example

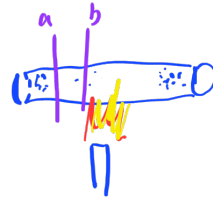
$$\nu([a, b]) = b - a = \int_a^b 1 dx$$

'density'

therefore, is a special case of the situation where we let

$$\nu([a, b]) = \int_a^b f dx$$

density.



for a suitable positive function f , a “density”.

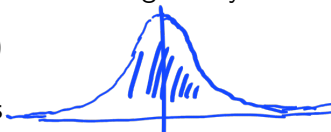
The most famous density is the Gaussian density on \mathbb{R} . It is given by

$$\gamma(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-x^2/2)$$

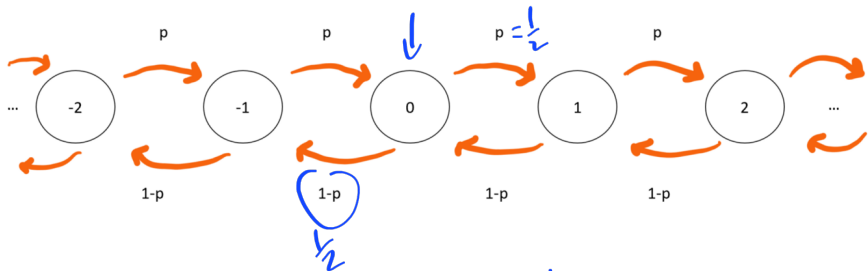
The Gaussian measure of an interval $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is

$$\nu_{\text{Gauss}}([a, b]) := \int_a^b \gamma(x) dx$$

no formula!



Random walk - next step



Consider the event $S_{2k} = 0$. Its probability is $\nu(A_k)$, where $A_k = \{\omega \in \Omega : S_{2k}(\omega) = 0\}$. Then the probability that $S_{2k} = 0$ for at least one $k > n$ is

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{k>n} A_k\right)$$

$\cup A_k$ union of the sets!

and so, the probability that $S_{2k} = 0$ "infinitely often" is cast by

for any time n \rightarrow

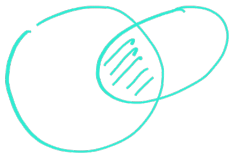
$$\nu\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k>n} A_k\right)$$

there is a time $k > n$ so that $S_{2k} = 0$.

Random walk - next step

$\cap = \text{intersection}$

$S_{2k} = 0$ "infinitely often" is cast by

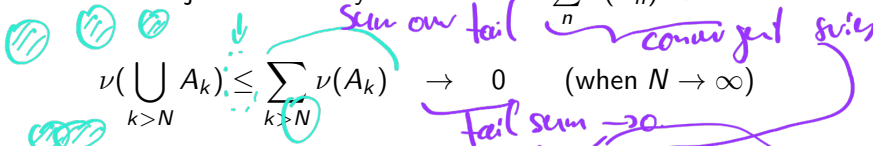
$$\nu\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k>n} A_k\right) \leq \nu\left(\bigcup_{k>N} A_k\right)$$


for all N . This is just monotonicity! Now assume $\sum_n \nu(A_n) < \infty$. Then

sum on tail convergent series

$$\nu\left(\bigcup_{k>N} A_k\right) \leq \sum_{k>N} \nu(A_k) \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{when } N \rightarrow \infty)$$

tail sum $\rightarrow 0$



So "infinitely often" occurs with probability zero if $\sum_n \nu(A_n) < \infty$!!

$$\nu(S_{2n} = 0) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$

$\frac{3}{2}$

That does not tell anything in dimension 1,2 but it tells us that for dimension > 2 , random walks come back to the origin with probability 0.

Probability theory in a nutshell 4

Expectations. Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \{x_1 \dots x_N\}$ be a random variable and $p_n = \mathbb{P}(X = x_n)$. We define the expectation as

head: win 2€
tail: lose 1€

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = +2€ \cdot \frac{1}{2} + (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 1€$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n p_n$$

outcome x_i × prob. of outcome p_i

Think about coin flipping, dice throwing and similar experiments to understand that this is, what you actually *expect* when repeating independently the same random experiment.

If the random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ takes values in \mathbb{N} we extend the above definition by

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n p_n$$

← countable
series = limit of partial sums.