### MATH 321 COLLECTED FORMULAS

#### A. Probability

**Method.** The number of ways to select k elements from an n-element set is...

	Order matters	Order doesn't matter
With replacement	$n^k$	$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$
Without replacement	$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$	$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$

**Theorem.** Properties of (all) probabilities:

- (1)  $P(\emptyset) = 0$
- (2)  $P(A) = 1 P(A^C)$
- (3) If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $P(A) \le P(B)$
- (4)  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$

**Definition.** Let A and B be events with  $P(B) \neq 0$ . The conditional probability of A given B is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

**Definition.** Events A and B are **independent** if and only if  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ .

**Theorem** (Multiplication rule for probabilities). Let A and B be events with  $P(B) \neq 0$ . Then

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

**Theorem** (The Law of Total Probability). If event B has probability strictly between 0 and 1, then

$$P(A) = P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|B^C)P(B^C)$$

**Theorem** (Bayes' Law). If A and B are events with positive probability, then

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$$

### B. RANDOM VARIABLES

**Definition.** A random variable X assigns a number to each outcome in the sample space S.

- (1) All random variables have a cumulative distribution function (CDF):  $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ .
- (2) A discrete random variable has a **probability mass function (PMF)**: p(x) = P(X = x).
- (3) A continuous random variable has a **probability density function (PDF)** f(x) such that for any numbers a and b (with  $a \le b$ )

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

Definition. Expected value (or mean):

- (1) If X is a discrete RV with PMF p(x), then  $\mu = E(X) = \sum_{x} x p(x)$ .
- (2) If X is a continuous RV with PDF f(x), then  $\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$ .

 $\textbf{Definition. Variance}: \ \sigma^2 = \mathrm{Var}(X) = E\left[(X-\mu)^2\right] = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2. \ \textbf{Standard deviation}: \ \sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}.$ 

**Theorem.** For any random variable X and any constants a and b:

- (1) E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b and
- (2)  $Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$ .

**Theorem.** If  $X_1, X_2, ... X_n$  are independent, then

- (1)  $E(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \dots + E(X_n)$
- (2)  $Var(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = Var(X_1) + Var(X_2) + \dots + Var(X_n)$

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### C. Statistics

# C.1. Sampling.

**Definition.** A random sample of size n is a set of independent identically distributed random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ . Some sample statistics:

(1) The sample mean: 
$$\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$

(2) The sample variance: 
$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2$$

**Theorem.** For any random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ :

(1) 
$$E(\overline{X}) = \mu$$
 and  $Var(\overline{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$   
(2)  $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$ 

(2) 
$$E(S^2) = \sigma^2$$

Definition. The sample standard error is  $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

**Definition.** A sample statistic  $\hat{X}$  is an **unbiased estimator** of population parameter  $\rho$  if  $E(\hat{X}) = \rho$ .

**Theorem.** If  $\overline{X}$  is a the mean of a random sample from a normally distribution population, then  $\overline{X}$  is normally distributed (with mean and variance given in the last theorem).

**Theorem** (Central Limit Theorem). If  $\overline{X}$  is a the mean of a random sample from a population, then  $\overline{X}$  is approximately normally distributed (with mean and variance given in the theorem above).

# C.2. Confidence (and prediction) intervals.

1. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu$  (known  $\sigma$ ):  $\overline{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

2. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu$  (large sample):  $\overline{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

3. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu$  (normal population):  $\overline{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

4. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 prediction interval for  $\mu$  (normal population):  $\overline{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-1} \sqrt{\frac{s^2(n+1)}{n}}$ 

5. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  (known  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ , normal populations):  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$ 

6. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  (large samples):  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$ 

7. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  (normal populations with the same variance):  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n_1 + n_2 - 2} \sqrt{s_p^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right)}$ 

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$
 is the pooled estimator of the common variance

8. 
$$100(1-\alpha)\%$$
 CI for  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  (normal populations with difference variances):  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2,\nu} \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$ 

$$\nu \approx \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{\frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right)^2}{n_1 - 1} + \frac{\left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{n_2 - 1}}$$
 (round down to the nearest integer)

9. Approximate  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  CI for a proportion  $\theta$  (large sample; x and n-x both large):

$$\frac{x}{n} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{x}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right)}$$

### C.3. Test Statistics.

For tests about the mean  $(H_0: \mu = \mu_0)$  test statistics are:

- $z = \frac{x \mu_0}{\sigma}$  (known variance  $\sigma^2$ , all sample sizes if the pop. is normal, otherwise just large samples)
- $t = \frac{\overline{x} \mu_0}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$  (samples from approximately normally distributed populations, n 1 degrees of freedom) R command: t.test(x)

For tests about the difference of two means  $(H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = \delta_0)$  some test statistics are:

- $z = \frac{\overline{x}_1 \overline{x}_2 \delta_0}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}$  (known variances, all sample sizes if pops are normal, otherwise just large samples)
- $t = \frac{\overline{x}_1 \overline{x}_2 \delta_0}{s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$  (normally populations with the same variance,  $n_1 + n_2 2$  d.f.).

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$
 R command: t.test(x, y, var.equal = T)

•  $t = \frac{\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2 - \delta_0}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$  (normally populations with different variances,  $\nu$  degrees of freedom)  $\nu \approx \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_2} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{\frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right)^2}{n_1 - 1} + \frac{\left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{n_2 - 1}}$ 

For tests about a population proportion  $(H_0: \theta = \theta_0)$  we can use the sample proportion  $\hat{\Theta} = X/n$  or the sample total  $X = n\hat{\Theta}$  and the test statistics are:

• x (X is binomial with parameters n and  $\theta_0$ )

 $\mathbf{R}$  command: binom.test(x, n, p= $\theta_0$ )

•  $z = \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi}\theta_0(1 - \theta_0)}} = \frac{x - n\theta_0}{\sqrt{n\theta_0(1 - \theta_0)}}$  (large samples, both  $n\theta_0 \ge 10$  and  $n(1 - \theta_0) \ge 10$ )

For tests about the variance  $(H_0: \sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2)$  the test statistic is:

•  $\chi^2 = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma_n^2}$  (chi-square distribution, n-1 degrees of freedom)

For tests about the ratio of two variances  $(H_0: \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} = 1)$  the test statistic is

•  $\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$  (F distribution with  $n_1 - 1$  and  $n_2 - 1$  degrees of freedom, order matters).

R command: var.test(x, y)

## C.4. Linear regression.

**Model** (Linear regression).  $\mu_{Y|X=x} = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 x$  or  $y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$ . For most regression analysis we require  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$ .

Verify that the linear model is reasonable by looking at a plot of your data:  $> plot(y \sim x)$ .

C.4.1. Regression statistics. Sample:  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ . Many of the statistics are calculated by R: > model<-lm(y~x) and > summary(model) will be useful.

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \qquad \overline{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i$$

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x} \qquad \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{S_{XY}}{S_{XX}}$$

$$S_{XX} = \sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2 \qquad S_{XY} = \sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$$

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\alpha}_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i \qquad i^{\text{th}} \text{ residual: } e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

$$SST = S_{YY} = \sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2 \qquad SSE = \sum \left[y_i - (\hat{\alpha}_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)\right]^2 = \sum e_i^2$$

$$SSR = SST - SSE = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2 \qquad s_{\epsilon}^2 = \frac{SSE}{n-2} \text{ (note: } s_{\epsilon} \text{ is residual standard error)}$$

$$\text{Coefficient of determination } r^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} \qquad \text{Sample correlation } r = \frac{S_{XY}}{\sqrt{S_{XX}S_{YY}}} = \pm \sqrt{r^2}$$

C.4.2. Test statistics and confidence intervals. All assume  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$ ; you should check on this assumption before proceeding using the plots of residuals vs fitted values and normal Q-Q: > plot(model).

Test and interval concerning  $\beta_1$ . Hypothesis test  $H_0: \beta_1 = c$ . Test stat:  $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - c}{\frac{s_\epsilon}{\sqrt{S_{XX}}}}$  has a t dist with n-2

df. R tests  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  against  $H_0: \beta_1 \neq 0$  by default.  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\beta_1$ :

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{1-\alpha/2, n-2} \frac{s_{\epsilon}}{\sqrt{S_{XX}}}$$

CI and PI for the regression line.  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu_{Y|X=x}$ :

$$(\hat{\alpha}_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 x) \pm (t_{1-\alpha/2, n-2})(s_{\epsilon}) \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x-\overline{x})^2}{S_{XX}}}$$

 $100(1-\alpha)\%$  prediction interval for Y given X=x:

$$(\hat{\alpha}_1 + \hat{\beta}_1 x) \pm (t_{1-\alpha/2, n-2})(s_{\epsilon}) \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \overline{x})^2}{S_{XX}}}$$

#### D. Special Discrete Distributions

**Definition.** A random variable X has a **discrete uniform distribution** if it is equally likely to assume any one of a finite set of possible values.

**Definition.** A random variable X has a **Bernoulli distribution** with parameter  $\theta$  (with  $0 < \theta < 1$ ) if its probability mass function is

$$m(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \theta & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \theta & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

The outcome 1 is often referred to as "success" while 0 is "failure" and the experiment is often called a Bernoulli trial.

**Proposition.** The mean and variance of a Bernoulli random variable are  $\mu = \theta$  and  $Var = \theta(1 - \theta)$ .

**Definition.** The total number of successes in n independent, identically distributed (iid) Bernoulli trials is a random variable with a **Binomial distribution**. The probability mass function of a random variable X having a binomial distribution with parameters n and  $\theta$  is

$$b(x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} \text{ for } x = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

**Proposition.** The mean and variance of a binomial distribution are  $\mu = n\theta$  and  $Var = n\theta(1-\theta)$ .

**Definition.** Let  $X_1, X_2, ...$  be a sequence of independent, identically distributed (iid) Bernoulli trials, all with probability of success  $\theta$ . Let N be the trial on which the first success occurs. The random variable N is said to have a **geometric distribution** with parameter  $\theta$  and its probability mass function is

$$g(n) = \theta(1-\theta)^{n-1}$$
 for  $n = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

**Proposition.** The mean and variance of a geometric distribution are  $\mu = \frac{1}{\theta}$  and  $Var = \frac{1}{\theta} \left( \frac{1}{\theta} - 1 \right)$ .

**Definition.** A random variable with the probability mass function

$$p(x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

is said to have a **Poisson distribution** with parameter  $\lambda > 0$ .

**Proposition.** The mean and variance of a Poisson distribution are  $\mu = \lambda$  and  $Var = \lambda$ .

### E. Special Continuous Distributions

**Definition.** A random variable X with a uniform continuous distribution with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (with

$$\alpha < \beta$$
) has the following probability density function: 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & \text{if } \alpha < x < \beta \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} .$$

**Proposition.** A uniform continuous distribution with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  has mean  $\mu = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$ , and variance  $\sigma^2 = \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{12}$ .

**Definition.** A random variable with an **exponential distribution** with parameter  $\theta > 0$  has the following

probability density function: 
$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}e^{-x/\theta} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

**Proposition.** An exponential distribution with parameter  $\theta$  has mean  $\mu = \theta$  and variance  $\sigma^2 = \theta^2$ .

**Definition.** A random variable with a **normal distribution** with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma > 0$  has the following probability density function:  $n(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proposition.** A normal distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  has mean  $\mu = \mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2 = \sigma^2$ .