
STATISTICS: FORMULA SHEET

STATS

AUGUST 30, 2023

E/EA THOMPSON(THEY/THEM),
PHYSICS AND MATH HONORS

Solo Pursuit of Learning

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Chapter 1

Probability Basics

1.1.0 Terminology

Definition 1.1.1. A random experiment is a process that leads to a single outcome, which cannot be predicted with certainty.

Definition 1.1.2. A sample space (denoted S) is the collection of all possible outcomes for a given experiment.

Definition 1.1.3. An event is a subset of the sample space S for a given experiment.

Definition 1.1.4. The probability of an event X , denoted $P(X)$, is the measurement of the likelihood that X will occur when an experiment is performed.

1.1.5. Axioms of Probability Suppose event A is a subset of a sample space S . Then:

Axiom 1: $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$

Axiom 2: $P(S) = 1$

Axiom 3: If A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots is a collection of events that do not share the same elements in S (i.e. they are mutually disjoint as sets), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$

1.2.0 Set-Theoretic Identities

Proposition 1.2.1. *Let A be a subset of some universal set S of interest. Then the complement rule states that:*

$$P(A) + P(A^C) = 1$$

Proposition 1.2.2. *Let A and B be subsets of some universal set S of interest. Then the additive rule states that:*

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(A^C) - P(A \cap B)$$

Proposition 1.2.3. *Let A and B be subsets of some universal set S of interest. Then the law of total probability states that:*

$$P(A) = P(A \cap B^C) + P(A \cap B)$$

Theorem 1.

DeMorgan's Laws Let A and B be subsets of some universal set S of interest. Then the DeMorgan's Laws state that:

$$P(A^C \cap B^C) = P((A \cup B)^C)$$

and

$$P(A^C \cup B^C) = P((A \cap B)^C)$$

Proposition 1.2.4. *Let A , B , and C be subsets of some universal set S of interest. Then the distributive laws state that:*

$$P(A \cap (B \cup C)) = P((A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C))$$

and

$$P(A \cup (B \cap C)) = P((A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C))$$

The associative laws state that:

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

and

$$P(A \cup (B \cup C)) = P((A \cup B) \cup C)$$

1.3.0 Conditional Probability

Definition 1.3.1. A conditional probability is a probability that reflects additional knowledge that may affect the outcome of an experiment.

Precisely, if \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are events in a sample space \mathbf{S} , then the probability of \mathbf{A} given \mathbf{B} , written $P(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B})$, is calculated by:

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

where $P(\mathbf{B}) > 0$.

Definition 1.3.2. Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be two events in a sample space \mathbf{S} . Then we say \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are independent if and only if the three following equivalent conditions hold:

1. $P(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A})$
2. $P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A}) = P(\mathbf{B})$
3. $P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A})P(\mathbf{B})$

Proposition 1.3.1. If \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are independent events, then so are \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B}^C , \mathbf{A}^C and \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{A}^C and \mathbf{B}^C .

Definition 1.3.3. A contingency table for two events \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} in a sample space \mathbf{S} is given by:

	\mathbf{A}	\mathbf{A}^C	
\mathbf{B}	$P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B})$	$P(\mathbf{A}^C \cap \mathbf{B})$	$P(\mathbf{B})$
\mathbf{B}^C	$P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}^C)$	$P(\mathbf{A}^C \cap \mathbf{B}^C)$	$P(\mathbf{B}^C)$
	$P(\mathbf{A})$	$P(\mathbf{A}^C)$	$P(\mathbf{S})$

Theorem 2.

Law of Total Probability Let $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ be events which partition the sample space \mathbf{S} . That is,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n \mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{S}$$

and $\mathbf{A}_i \cap \mathbf{A}_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$, and $P(\mathbf{A}_i) > 0$ for all i . Then

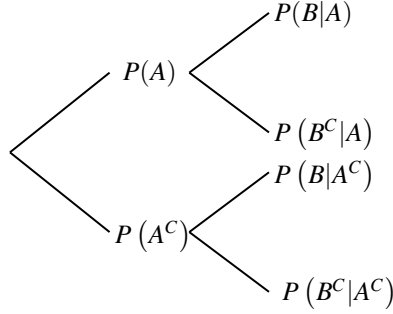
$$P(\mathbf{B}) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(\mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{A}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A}_i)P(\mathbf{A}_i)$$

Theorem 3.

Bayes' Theorem Given events $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ which partition the sample space \mathbf{S} , for each event \mathbf{B} with $P(\mathbf{B}) > 0$ we have for each $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$:

$$P(\mathbf{A}_j, \mathbf{B}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{A}_j \cap \mathbf{B})}{P(\mathbf{B})} = \frac{P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A}_j)P(\mathbf{A}_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A}_i)P(\mathbf{A}_i)}$$

Definition 1.3.4. A tree diagram for two events **A** and **B**, where **A** is a condition for **B** is given by:



1.4.0 Counting

Proposition 1.4.1. Let $\{\mathbf{A}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a collection of a sample space **S**. Then the set of events is mutually independent if and only if for every $k \leq n$, and every k -sized subset of events $\{\mathbf{B}_i\}_{i=1}^k \subseteq \{\mathbf{A}_i\}_{i=1}^k$ we have

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^k \mathbf{B}_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^k P(\mathbf{B}_i)$$

Proposition 1.4.2. The multiplication principle states that $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ are events, then

$$|\mathbf{A}_1 \times \dots \times \mathbf{A}_n| = |\mathbf{A}_1| \cdot \dots \cdot |\mathbf{A}_n|$$

Definition 1.4.1. A permutation is an arrangement of objects in which order matters. If there are a total of n objects, the number of ways we can order r of them is:

$${}_nP_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Definition 1.4.2. A combination is an arrangement of objects in which order doesn't matters. If there are a total of n objects, the number of ways we can select r of them is:

$${}_nC_r = \binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

Theorem 1.4.3. The binomial theorem states that

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

Definition 1.4.3. The number of ways of partitioning N objects into k distinct groups containing

n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k objects, respectively, is given by the **multinomial coefficient**

$$\binom{N}{n_1 n_2 \dots n_k} := \binom{N}{n_1} \binom{N - n_1}{n_2} \dots \binom{N - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} n_i}{n_k} = \frac{N!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}$$

Chapter 2

Discrete Random Variables

2.1.0 Basic Terminology

Definition 2.1.1. A random variable for a sample space \mathbf{S} is a function

$$\mathbf{X} : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Definition 2.1.2. A discrete random variable is a function $\mathbf{X} : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with a finite, or countably infinite, image. That is, the possible values \mathbf{X} can take can be arranged in a (possibly infinite) sequence.

Definition 2.1.3. A continuous random variable are functions $\mathbf{X} : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in which the image of \mathbf{X} is uncountable, and \mathbf{X} satisfies certain other conditions to be discussed later.

Definition 2.1.4. The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is a listing or graph that specifies every possible value that a random variable can assume along with the probabilities associated with each of these values.

Definition 2.1.5. The probability distribution table for a finite random variable \mathbf{X} is given by:

$\mathbf{X} = x$	x_1	x_2	\dots	x_n
$P(\mathbf{X} = x)$	$P(\mathbf{X} = x_1)$	$P(\mathbf{X} = x_2)$	\dots	$P(\mathbf{X} = x_n)$

where $P(\mathbf{X} = x) = P(x) = p_{\mathbf{X}}(x)$ is the probability mass function (pmf) for \mathbf{X} , which assigns the likelihood that any event or element in the sample space can occur.

Definition 2.1.6. The probability mass function for a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} must satisfy the following conditions:

1. $0 < P(\mathbf{X} = x_i) < 1$ for $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
2. $\sum_{i=1}^n P(\mathbf{X} = x_i) = 1$

Definition 2.1.7. A **probability distribution graph** plots probability on the y-axis and the values of the random variable on the x-axis.

A **symmetric** graph is one that is invariant under reflection about some vertical line, located at it's "middle."

A **right-skewed** graph is one that has a "tail" pointing off in the right direction (the mass of the graph is on the left-hand side).

A **left-skewed** graph is one that has a "tail" pointing off in the left direction (the mass of the graph is on the right-hand side).

2.2.0 Expected Values and Variance

Definition 2.2.1. The **expected value** of a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} is the long-run average value of \mathbf{X} over an infinite number of repetitions of an experiment:

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \mu_{\mathbf{X}} = \mu = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i P(\mathbf{X} = x_i)$$

where x_i is the i th value that \mathbf{X} can assume.

Proposition 2.2.1. Let \mathbf{X} be a discrete random variable, and let $g(\mathbf{X})$ be a real-valued function of \mathbf{X} . Then the expected value of $g(\mathbf{X})$ is given by:

$$E[g(\mathbf{X})] = \sum_{\text{all } x} g(x) P(\mathbf{X} = x)$$

Proposition 2.2.2. Let \mathbf{X} be a discrete random variable, $g(\mathbf{X}), g_1(\mathbf{X}), \dots, g_k(\mathbf{X})$ real-valued functions of \mathbf{X} , and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

1. $E[c] = c$
2. $E[cg(\mathbf{X})] = cE[g(\mathbf{X})]$
3. $E\left[\sum_{i=1}^k g_i(\mathbf{X})\right] = \sum_{i=1}^k E[g_i(\mathbf{X})]$

Definition 2.2.2. The **variance** of a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} is a measure of the variability of \mathbf{X} over an infinite number of repetitions of an experiment. It determines the average squared

deviation from the expected value of \mathbf{X} :

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = V[\mathbf{X}] = \sigma_{\mathbf{X}}^2 = \sigma^2 = E[(\mathbf{X} - \mu)^2] = E[\mathbf{X}^2] - E[\mathbf{X}]^2$$

Definition 2.2.3. The standard deviation of a discrete random variable \mathbf{X} is another measure of variability of \mathbf{X} and is the positive square root of the variance:

$$SD[\mathbf{X}] = \sigma_{\mathbf{X}} = \sigma = \sqrt{\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}]}$$

Proposition 2.2.3. Let \mathbf{X} be a discrete random variable and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

1. $\text{VAR}[c] = 0$
2. $\text{VAR}[c\mathbf{X}] = c^2 \text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}]$

2.3.0 Bernoulli Random Variables

Definition 2.3.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a Bernoulli random variable:

- The experiment consists of a single trial
- The trial results in one of two outcomes (a “success” or a “failure”)
- The probability of a “success” - denoted p - is the same for all similar trials
- The **Bernoulli random variable** itself takes on a value of 1 if a “success” is achieved and a value of 0 if a “failure” is achieved

Such an experiment is called a Bernoulli trial.

Definition 2.3.2. The values that define a random variable’s probability distribution are called parameters.

Definition 2.3.3. A Bernoulli random variable depends on one parameter:

p – the probability of a success

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a Bernoulli distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$$

Definition 2.3.4. The pmf for a Bernoulli random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$P(\mathbf{X} = x) = p^x(1 - p)^{1-x} = \begin{cases} 1 - p, & x = 0 \\ p, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Definition 2.3.5. The MGF for a Bernoulli random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = pe^t + (1 - p)$$

Definition 2.3.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = p$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = p(1 - p) = pq$$

2.4.0 Binomial Random Variables

Definition 2.4.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a binomial random variable:

- The experiment consists of a fixed number of n independent, identical Bernoulli trials
- Each trial results in one of two outcomes (a “success” or a “failure”)
- The probability of a “success” - denoted p - is the same from trial to trial
- The binomial random variable itself is the number of successes out of the n trials

Definition 2.4.2. A binomial random variable depends on two parameters:

p – the probability of a success

n – the number of trials

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a binomial distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$$

Definition 2.4.3. The pmf for a binomial random variable \mathbf{X} is

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

Definition 2.4.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = np$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = np(1 - p) = npq$$

Definition 2.4.5. The MGF for a binomial random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = [pe^t + (1 - p)]^n$$

Definition 2.4.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} = a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{dbinom}(a, \text{size} = n, \text{prob} = p)$$

To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pbinom}(a, \text{size} = n, \text{prob} = p) \text{ or } \text{sum}(\text{dbinom}(\text{start}:a, \text{size} = n, \text{prob} = p))$$

2.5.0 Negative Binomial Random Variables

Definition 2.5.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a negative binomial random variable:

- The experiment consists of independent, identical Bernoulli trials
- Each trial results in one of two outcomes (a “success” or a “failure”)
- The probability of a “success” - denoted p - is the same from trial to trial
- The negative binomial random variable itself is the number of trials needed to yield r successes

Definition 2.5.2. A negative binomial random variable depends on two parameters:

p – the probability of a success

r – the number of successes we are interested in observing

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a negative binomial distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{negative binomial}(r, p)$$

Definition 2.5.3. The pmf for a binomial random variable \mathbf{X} is

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

Definition 2.5.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{negative binomial}(r, p)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{r}{p}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2} = \frac{rq}{p^2}$$

Definition 2.5.5. The MGF for a negative binomial random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \left[\frac{pe^t}{1 - (1-p)e^t} \right]^r$$

Definition 2.5.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{negative binomial}(r, p)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} = a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{dnbinom}(a-r, \text{size} = r, \text{prob} = p)$$

To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pnbinom}(a-r, \text{size} = r, \text{prob} = p) \text{ or } \text{sum}(\text{dnbinom}(\text{start}:a-r, \text{size} = r, \text{prob} = p))$$

2.6.0 Geometric Random Variables

Definition 2.6.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a geometric random variable:

- The experiment consists of independent, identical Bernoulli trials
- Each trial results in one of two outcomes (a “success” or a “failure”)
- The probability of a “success” - denoted p - is the same from trial to trial
- The geometric random variable itself is the number of the trial on which the first success occurs

Definition 2.6.2. A geometric random variable depends on one parameters:

$$p - \text{the probability of a success}$$

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a geometric distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{geometric}(p)$$

Definition 2.6.3. The pmf for a geometric random variable \mathbf{X} is

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

Definition 2.6.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{geometric}(p)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{1}{p}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{(1-p)}{p^2} = \frac{q}{p^2}$$

Definition 2.6.5. The MGF for a geometric random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \frac{pe^t}{1 - (1 - p)e^t}$$

Definition 2.6.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{geometric}(p)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} = a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{dgeom}(a-1, \text{prob} = p)$$

To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pgeom}(a-1, \text{prob} = p) \text{ or } \text{sum}(\text{dgeom}(\text{start}:a-1, \text{prob} = p))$$

2.7.0 Hypergeometric Random Variables

Definition 2.7.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a hypergeometric random variable:

- The experiment involves randomly selecting n elements (without replacement) from a total number of elements N
- Each trial results in one of two outcomes (a “success” or a “failure”)
- The total number of “successes” is known to be a certain number r
- The hypergeometric random variable itself is the number of successes in the set of n selected elements drawn from N

Definition 2.7.2. A hypergeometric random variable depends on three parameters:

r – the the total number of “successes” in N

N – the total number of elements we are drawing from (the “population”)

n – the number of elements drawn from N (the “sample”)

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a hypergeometric distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{hyper geometric}(r, N, n)$$

Definition 2.7.3. The pmf for a binomial random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$P(\mathbf{X} = x) = \frac{\binom{r}{x} \binom{N-r}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

Definition 2.7.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{negative binomial}(r, p)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{nr}{p}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = n \cdot \frac{r}{p} \cdot \frac{1-p}{p} \cdot \frac{n-r}{n-1}$$

Definition 2.7.5. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{hyper geometric}(r, N, k)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} = a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{dhyper}(a, m = r, n = N - r, k = k)$$

To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{phyper}(a, m = r, n = N - r, k = k) \text{ or } \text{sum}(\text{dhyper}(\text{start}:a, m = r, n = N - r, k = k))$$

2.8.0 Poisson Random Variables

Definition 2.8.1. A scenario or experiment with the following characteristics produces a Poisson random variable:

- The experiment involves an event occurring during a given interval (of time, area, distance, volume, etc.)
- The probability that an event occurs in an interval is the same for all other equal intervals
- The number of events that occur in one interval is independent of the number of events that occur in other intervals
- There is a known average or expected number of events, λ , that occur during/in the interval
- The Poisson random variable itself is the number of times an event has occurred in a given interval

Definition 2.8.2. A Poisson random variable depends on one parameter:

λ – the average number of events during a specified interval

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a Poisson distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$$

Definition 2.8.3. The pmf for a Poisson random variable \mathbf{X} is

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

Definition 2.8.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \lambda$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \lambda$$

Definition 2.8.5. The MGF for a Poisson random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \exp[\lambda(e^t - 1)]$$

Definition 2.8.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} = a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{dpois}(a, \text{lambda} = \text{lambda})$$

To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{ppois}(a, \text{lambda} = \text{lambda}) \text{ or } \text{sum}(\text{dpois}(\text{start}:a, \text{lambda} = \text{lambda}))$$

2.9.0 Moment-Generating Functions

Definition 2.9.1. The k th moment of a random variable X about the origin (the standardized moment) is defined as $E[X^k]$ where

$$E[X^k] = \sum_{\text{all } x} x^k P(X = x)$$

The k th moment of a random variable X about its mean (the central moment) is defined as $E[(X - \mu)^k]$ where

$$E[(X - \mu)^k] = \sum_{\text{all } x} (x - \mu)^k P(X = x)$$

Definition 2.9.2. The first standardized moment is the mean. It is a measure of central tendency and gives an idea of where our distribution is centered.

Definition 2.9.3. The second central moment is the variance. It is a measure of spread, and gives the squared deviation of the random variable from its mean.

Definition 2.9.4. The third central moment is the skewness. It gives an idea of the symmetry of the probability distribution about the mean. A perfectly symmetric distribution will have a skewness of 0, a left-skewed distribution will have a negative skewness, and a right-skewed distribution will have a positive skewness.

Definition 2.9.5. The fourth central moment is kurtosis. It gives an idea of how “thick” the tails of a distribution are in comparison to the normal distribution of the same variance.

Definition 2.9.6. A moment generating function (MGF) is a function that allows us to find any moment of a distribution. In particular, for a random variable X its MGF exists if there is a constant $b > 0$ such that for $|t| \leq b$ the expectation $E[e^{tX}]$ exists, and it is defined as:

$$M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \begin{cases} \sum e^{tx} P(X = x) & \text{when discrete} \\ \int_{\text{all } x} e^{tx} P(X = x) dx & \text{when continuous} \end{cases}$$

We can find the k th moment of X as follows:

$$E[X^k] = \frac{d^k}{dt^k} [M_X(t)] \Big|_{t=0} = M_X^{(k)}(t) \Big|_{t=0}$$

Remark 2.9.1. The moment-generating function uniquely determines the distribution. In particular if X and Y are random variables with cdf F_X and F_Y , then if $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ for all values of t , then $F_X(x) = F_Y(x)$ for all x .

Chapter 3

Continuous Random Variables

3.1.0 Basic Definitions: Continuous Random Variables

Properties 3.1.1. *Let X be a continuous random variable. Then:*

- For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $P(X = x) = 0$.
- For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $P(X \leq x) = P(X < x)$ and $P(X \geq x) = P(X > x)$.

Definition 3.1.2. The cumulative distribution function (cdf) $F(x)$ of a random variable X gives the probability that X will take a value less than or equal to that value x :

$$F(X = x) = F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

If X is continuous, then

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(X < x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t)dt$$

where $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x) = F'(x)$ is the probability density function (pdf) of X .

Remark 3.1.1. For a continuous random variable X we have that

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(X \leq b) - P(X < a) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

Properties 3.1.3. *Let $F(x)$ be a cdf. Then*

- $F(-\infty) := \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$
- $F(\infty) := \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

- $F(x)$ is a nondecreasing, nonnegative function of x , meaning that $x_1 < x_2 \implies F(x_1) < F(x_2)$

If X is a continuous random variable, then:

- $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

Definition 3.1.4. The expected value for a continuous random variable X is given by:

$$E[X] = \mu_X = \mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$

The limits of integration are called the support of X .

Theorem 3.1.1. Let X be a continuous random variable with pdf $f(x)$ and let $g(X)$ be a real-valued function of X . Then the expected value of $g(X)$ is given by:

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx$$

Definition 3.1.5. The variance for a continuous random variable X is defined as follows:

$$\text{VAR}[X] = V[X] = \sigma_X^2 = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$$

The standard deviation of X is defined as:

$$SD[X] = \sigma_X = \sigma = \sqrt{\text{VAR}[X]}$$

3.2.0 Uniform Random Variables

Definition 3.2.1. The continuous uniform distribution is a family of symmetric probability distributions such that all intervals of the same length on the distribution's support are equally likely/probable.

Definition 3.2.2. A uniform random variable depends on two parameters:

- a – the minimum value of the support
- b – the maximum value of the support

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a uniform distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{uniform}(a, b)$$

Definition 3.2.3. The pdf for a uniform random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

The cdf for a uniform random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$F(X = x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a \leq x < b \\ 1 & x \geq b \end{cases}$$

Definition 3.2.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{uniform}(a, b)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

Definition 3.2.5. The MGF for a uniform random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \frac{e^{tb} - e^{ta}}{t(b-a)}$$

Definition 3.2.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{uniform}(a, b)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{punif}(a, \text{min} = \text{min}, \text{max} = \text{max})$$

To find x_0 such that $P(\mathbf{X} \leq x_0) = p$ in R, write:

$$\text{qunif}(p, \text{min} = \text{min}, \text{max} = \text{max})$$

3.3.0 Normal Random Variables

Definition 3.3.1. The normal or Gaussian distribution is a family of symmetric probability distributions that are bell-shaped.

Note not all bell-shaped distributions are normal.

Definition 3.3.2. A normal random variable depends on two parameters:

μ – the mean

σ – the standard deviation

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a normal distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$

Definition 3.3.3. The pdf for a normal random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$f(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

The cdf for a normal random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$F(X = x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(t-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dt$$

Definition 3.3.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{normal}(\mu, \sigma)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \mu \approx \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} \quad (\text{sample mean})$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 \approx \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{n} \quad (\text{sample variance})$$

Definition 3.3.5. The MGF for a normal random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \exp \left\{ \mu t + \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2} \right\}$$

Definition 3.3.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{normal}(\mu, \sigma)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pnorm}(a, \text{mean} = \mu, \text{sd} = \sigma)$$

To find x_0 such that $P(\mathbf{X} \leq x_0) = p$ in R, write:

$$\text{qnorm}(p, \text{mean} = \mu, \text{sd} = \sigma)$$

Definition 3.3.7. The standard normal distribution is a special case of the normal distribution in which $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$.

If we let X be a normal random variable with mean μ and standard deviation σ , we define the standardized score or z-score of X to be:

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

3.4.0 Gamma Random Variables

Definition 3.4.1. The gamma distribution is a two-parameter family of continuous probability distributions which are always non-negative and right-skewed.

Definition 3.4.2. A gamma random variable depends on two parameters:

- α – the shape parameter (a format of skewness)
- β – the scale parameter (breadth of viable scope)

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a gamma distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$$

Definition 3.4.3. The pdf for a gamma random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$f(x|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}$$

The cdf for a gamma random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$F(X = x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_0^x \frac{t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t/\beta}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} dt$$

where $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is the gamma function.

Definition 3.4.4. The gamma function is defined for all complex numbers $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\Re(\alpha) > 0$, and is defined by:

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx, \quad \Re(\alpha) > 0$$

The following are some properties of the gamma function:

- $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha \Gamma(\alpha)$ for all $\Re(\alpha) > 0$
- $\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$
- By definition we have the identity:

$$\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx = \beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)$$

or equivalently

$$\int_0^\infty x^\alpha e^{-x/\beta} dx = \beta^{\alpha+1} \Gamma(\alpha + 1)$$

Definition 3.4.5. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \alpha\beta$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \alpha\beta^2$$

Definition 3.4.6. The MGF for a gamma random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = (1 - \beta t)^{-\alpha}$$

Definition 3.4.7. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pgamma}(a, \text{shape} = \alpha, \text{scale} = \beta) \text{ (or } \text{rate} = 1/\beta)$$

To find x_0 such that $P(\mathbf{X} \leq x_0) = p$ in R, write:

$$\text{qgamma}(p, \text{shape} = \alpha, \text{scale} = \beta)$$

3.5.0 Exponential Random Variables

Definition 3.5.1. The exponential distribution is a special case of the gamma distribution when $\alpha = 1$

Definition 3.5.2. An exponential random variable depends on one parameter:

β – the scale parameter (breadth of viable scope)

In certain applications we write $\beta = 1/\lambda$ to emphasize the relationship between the Exponential and Poisson distributions. If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows an exponential distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{exponential}(\beta)$$

Definition 3.5.3. The pdf for an exponential random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$f(x|\beta) = \frac{e^{-x/\beta}}{\beta}$$

The cdf for an exponential random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$F(X = x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_0^x \frac{e^{-t/\beta}}{\beta} dt$$

A useful result is that for $x > 0$,

$$F(X = x) = 1 - e^{-x/\beta}$$

Definition 3.5.4. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{exponential}(\beta)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \beta = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \beta^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

Definition 3.5.5. The MGF for an exponential random variable \mathbf{X} is:

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(t) = (1 - \beta t)^{-1}$$

Properties 3.5.6. If $X \sim \text{exponential}(\beta)$, then for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$P(X > t + s | X > t) = P(X > s)$$

and

$$P(X < t + s | X > t) = P(X < s)$$

Definition 3.5.7. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{exponential}(\beta)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pexp}(a, \text{rate} = 1/\beta)$$

To find x_0 such that $P(\mathbf{X} \leq x_0) = p$ in R, write:

$$\text{qexp}(p, \text{rate} = 1/\beta)$$

3.6.0 Beta Random Variables

Definition 3.6.1. The **beta distribution** is a two-parameter family of continuous probability distributions defined on the interval $[0, 1]$.

Definition 3.6.2. A beta random variable depends on two parameters:

α – a shape parameter

β – a shape parameter

If a random variable \mathbf{X} follows a beta distribution we write

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \text{beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$

Definition 3.6.3. The pdf for a beta random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$f(x|\alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

The cdf for a beta random variable \mathbf{X} is

$$F(X = x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_0^x \frac{t^{\alpha-1}(1-t)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} dt$$

where $B(\alpha, \beta)$ is the beta function.

Definition 3.6.4. The beta function is defined for all complex numbers $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\Re(\alpha), \Re(\beta) > 0$, and is defined by:

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$$

Definition 3.6.5. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{beta}(\alpha, \beta)$. Then

$$E[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

and

$$\text{VAR}[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

Definition 3.6.6. Let $\mathbf{X} \sim \text{beta}(\alpha, \beta)$. To find $P(\mathbf{X} \leq a)$ in R, write:

$$\text{pbeta}(a, \text{shape1} = \alpha, \text{shape2} = \beta)$$

To find x_0 such that $P(\mathbf{X} \leq x_0) = p$ in R, write:

$$\text{qbeta}(p, \text{shape1} = \alpha, \text{shape2} = \beta)$$

Chapter 4

Bivariate Probabilities

4.1.0 Bivariate Data Structures

Definition 4.1.1. The joint probability function for discrete random variables X and Y is

$$P(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

and it has the following properties:

1. $0 \leq p(x, y) \leq 1; \forall x \in \text{Dom}(X), \forall y \in \text{Dom}(Y).$
2. $\sum_{\text{all } x} \sum_{\text{all } y} p(x, y) = 1$

Definition 4.1.2. The joint distribution function for discrete random variables X and Y is

$$F(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \sum_{t_1 \leq x} \sum_{t_2 \leq y} p(t_1, t_2)$$

Definition 4.1.3. Two random variables are jointly continuous if there exist a joint density function $f(x, y)$ which satisfies the density function axioms:

1. $f(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x \in \text{Dom}(X), \forall y \in \text{Dom}(Y)$
2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$

Definition 4.1.4. The joint distribution function for joint continuous random variables X and Y is

$$F(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(t_1, t_2) dt_2 dt_1$$