
STATISTICS: FORMULA SHEET

STATS

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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.

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 \mathbf{A} be a subset of some universal set \mathbf{S} of interest. Then the complement rule states that:

$$P(\mathbf{A}) + P(\mathbf{A}^C) = 1$$

Proposition 1.2.2

Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be subsets of some universal set \mathbf{S} of interest. Then the additive rule states that:

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

Proposition 1.2.3

Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be subsets of some universal set \mathbf{S} of interest. Then the law of total probability states that:

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

Theorem 1.1: DeMorgan's Laws

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

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

and

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

Proposition 1.2.4

Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{C} be subsets of some universal set \mathbf{S} of interest. Then the distributive laws state that:

$$P(\mathbf{A} \cap (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C})) = P((\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) \cup (\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{C}))$$

and

$$P(\mathbf{A} \cup (\mathbf{B} \cap \mathbf{C})) = P((\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) \cap (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{C}))$$

The associative laws state that:

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

and

$$P(\mathbf{A} \cup (\mathbf{B} \cup \mathbf{C})) = P((\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) \cup \mathbf{C})$$

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 **A** and **B** are events in a sample space **S**, then the probability of **A** given **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 **A** and **B** be two events in a sample space **S**. Then we say **A** and **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 **A** and **B** are independent events, then so are **A** and \mathbf{B}^C , \mathbf{A}^C and **B**, and \mathbf{A}^C and \mathbf{B}^C .

Definition 1.3.3

A **contingency table** for two events **A** and **B** in a sample space **S** is given by:

	A	\mathbf{A}^C	
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 1.2: Law of Total Probability

Let $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ be events which partition the sample space **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

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

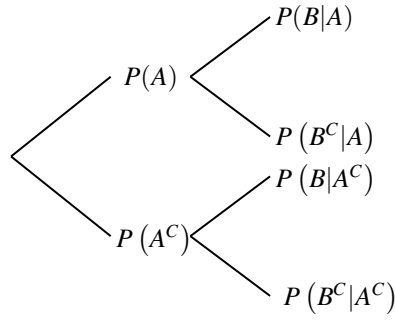
Theorem 1.3: Bayes' Theorem

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 \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , where \mathbf{A} is a condition for \mathbf{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 \mathbf{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 matter. 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

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

and

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

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:

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

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:

$$punif(a, min = min, max = max)$$

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

$$qunif(p, min = min, max = max)$$

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

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

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:

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

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

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

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

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