#### General:

- E(b) means expected value of b
- Mean:  $\mu = E(x)$  (mu) sample mean:  $\bar{x}$
- Variance:  $\sigma^2$  (sigma squared)  $\sigma^2 = E((x - \mu)^2) = E(x^2) - E(x)^2$ sample variance:  $s^2 = \frac{\sum ((x-\bar{x})^2)}{x^{-1}}$
- Standard Deviation:  $\sigma$  (sigma) sample standard deviation: s
- Random Process can't be predicted
- Complement of A is  $A^c$  or A'
- $P(A \cap B) = \text{probability of } A \text{ and } B$
- $P(A \cup B) = \text{probability of } A \text{ or } B$  $P(A \cup B) = (P(A \cap B))/P(B)$
- P(A|B) = probability of A given B is true
- A, B independent if P(A|B) = P(A)P(B)therefore P(A|B) = P(A)
- Reliability: probability that it works
- Discrete: finite number of possible values Continuous: any value between a and b (e.g. any real number)
- Probability Mass Function (PMF) for discrete, Probability Density Function (PDF) for contin-
- Bernoulli random variable: has only 2 states: success or failure

## 5 Number Summary:

• 5 numbers:

min

 $Q_1$ 25%

50%  $Q_2$ 

75% $Q_3$ 

Max

- $Q_x$  is a number (called a quartile) such that (25%, 50%, or 75%) of the data falls below that number
- $Q_2$  is also the median
- IQR: Inner Quartile Range =  $Q_3 Q_1$

## Bayes Rule:

- When you've got a grid of the possible outcomes of two different events
- These edges are called marginals; they sum to
- if the two events are independent, each cell is the product of the corresponding marginals  $P(A \cup B) = P(A)P(B)$ 
  - example: fair dice roll is independent
- Two events in a grid are only independent if the property holds for every cell in the grid
- Conditional Probability: P(A|B) = prob-

- ability of A given that B is true P(A|B) =
- if A and B are independent, then P(A|B) =P(A) because B doesn't affect A

#### **Mutual Exclusion:**

- A and B are mutually exclusive if  $P(A \cap B) = 0$
- can be one or the other, or none, but can't be both
- mutually exclusive events can't be independent, because once you know one is true, you know the other is false

#### **Combinations Formula:**

$$\bullet \binom{n}{x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} = \frac{(n)(n-1)...(n-x+1)}{(x)(x-1)...(1)}$$

#### **Binomial Distribution:**

- Discrete. Driven by p and np: probability of success n: number of trials
- $\mu = np$  $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$
- PMF:  $\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$

#### **Continuous Distributions:**

• PDF: Probability Density Function

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(F(x))$$
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$$
$$f(x) \ge 0 \text{ for all } x$$

• CDF: Cumulative Density Function

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

•  $P(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$  $P(a \le X \le b) = \tilde{F}(b) - F(a)$ 

$$P(X=a)=0$$

•  $\mu = E(x) = \int_a^b x f(x) dx$  ((a,b) = domain of

$$\sigma^2 = E((X - \mu)^2) = E(x^2) - E(x)^2$$

 $E(h(x)) = \int_a^b h(x)f(x)dx$  expected value of h(x)

#### **Uniform Continuous Distribution:**

- All outcomes have the same probability
- $\mu = \frac{B+A}{2}$   $E(X^2) = (B^2 + AB + A^2)/3$
- $\sigma^2 = (B A)^2 / 12$
- PDF:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{B-A}$  for  $A \le x \le B$

$$F(x) = 0$$
 for  $x < A$ 

$$F(x) = \int_A^x \frac{1}{B-A} dx = \frac{x-A}{B-A} \text{ for } A \le x \le B$$
  
$$F(x) = 1 \text{ for } x > B$$

$$F(x) = 1 \text{ for } x > 1$$

#### Poisson distribution:

• Discrete. Driven by  $\lambda$  (lambda) Interval size is fixed, number of occurrences is

 $\lambda$ : number of events occurring per interval

- $\mu = \sigma^2 = \lambda$  $\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}$
- PDF:  $P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!}$

#### Gamma Distribution:

- Continuous equivalent of Poisson
- Driven by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ Number of occurrences is fixed, interval length is varied

 $\alpha$ : number of events we're interested in

 $\beta$ : rate at which events happen: " $\beta$  time until the next event"

•  $\lambda = 1/\beta$ : shape parameter  $\mu = \alpha \beta$  $\sigma^2 = \alpha(\beta^2)$ 

#### Normal Distribution:

- Continuous. Defined in terms of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$
- Empirical Rule: (probably don't use)
  - $P(x = \mu \pm 1\sigma) : 68\%$
  - $P(x = \mu \pm 2\sigma) : 95\%$
  - $P(x = \mu \pm 3\sigma) : 99\%$
- Important Z Values:
  - Zarea to the right
  - $1.6450 \quad 5.0\%$
  - $1.9600 \quad 2.5\%$
  - $2.3260 \quad 1.0\%$
  - $2.5758 \quad 0.5\%$

## **Standard Normal Transformation:**

- Z is like x in terms of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .
- For use with lookup tables
- $Z = \frac{x \mu}{2}$
- $\Phi(Z) = \text{NormCDF}(\sigma = 1, \mu = 0, x = Z)$
- Prof says this method is prone to error

#### Joint Distributions:

- f(x,y)
- Independent if you can split up f(x,y) =
- Mean and Variance are additive
- Standard Deviation is not additive

## Distribution of Sample Totals:

- original distribution:  $\mu_0, \sigma_0$
- sample size: n
- mean:  $\mu = n\mu_0$
- variance:  $\sigma^2 = n\sigma_0^2$
- (not as easy for standard deviation  $(\sigma)$ )

## Distribution of Sample Mean:

- original distribution:  $\mu_0, \sigma_0$
- mean:  $\mu = \mu_0$

• variance:  $\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma_0^2}{n}$ Confidence Interval - Mean:

- Only works for n > 30
- Mean:  $\bar{x} \pm Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \left( \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$  s = sample standard deviation

  - $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$  = standard error=standard deviation of distribution of sample means
  - Only works for  $n \geq 30$
- sample size in terms of confidence and interval width:  $n = \left(2Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}\left(\frac{\sigma}{L}\right)\right)^2$ • L = width of interval
  - - $\sigma = \text{standard deviation of population}$

## Confidence Interval - Mean - n < 30:

- Only works when parent distribution is normal
- use the t-distribution
- n-1 = degrees of freedom
- mean:  $\bar{x} \pm \left(t_{\alpha/2,n-1}\right) \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ Confidence Interval Variance:

- You can only do this for n < 30 if the data is from a normal distribution
- distribution is a (right-skewed)  $\chi^2$  (chi-squared) distribution
- n-1 = degrees of freedom
- confidence interval for  $\sigma^2: \left(\frac{s^2(n-1)}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2,n-1}}, \frac{s^2(n-1)}{\chi^2_{1-(\alpha/2),n-1}}\right)$ 
  - $\chi^2_{x,y}$  is the chi-squared distribution with  $P(X) \le x$  and y degrees of freedom

## Confidence Interval - Proportion:

- proportion of successes in sample of trials
- based on Bernoulli trials
  - each x is either 0 (fail) or 1 (success)
- $\hat{p} = \text{sample proportion}$ 
  - p = population proportion
  - $\hat{q}, q$  same, but for failure
  - $q = 1 p, \ \hat{q} = 1 \hat{p}$
- you can only assume it's normal when  $\hat{p} > 5$ and  $1 - \hat{p} > 5$ •  $\hat{p} = \frac{\sum x}{n}$
- Central Limit Theorem only applies for  $\hat{p}n \geq 5$ and  $\hat{q}n > 5$  and n much smaller than the population
- Confidence Interval:  $\hat{p} \pm Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}\hat{q}}{n}}$
- Sample size:  $n = 4Z_{\alpha/2}^2 \hat{p} \hat{q} \frac{1}{L^2}$ 
  - If you don't have any idea about  $\hat{p}$ , use 0.5 to be maximally conservative

#### **Prediction Interval:**

- predict the next value that will occur
- $\bar{x} \pm Z_{\alpha/2} \sigma \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}}$

- use s if you don't have the population standard deviation
- if n < 30 you can only use this if the parent population is normal
- the standard error is different (wider) than a confidence interval because we're comparing two different distributions:
  - variance of x:  $\sigma^2$
  - variance of the sampling distribution of means:  $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$
- this follows from the fact that we had to use our sample mean to predict the next value, not the actual mean

### Hypothesis Testing:

- Objective is always to reject the null hypothesis
- null hypothesis:  $H_0$ 
  - usually  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$
- alternative hypothesis:  $H_A$ 
  - 1 tail right:  $H_A: \mu > \mu_0$
  - $H_A: \mu < \mu_0$ 1 tail left:
  - $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$ 2 tail:
- critical value:  $Z_C$  (determined by  $\alpha$  level)
  - for a 1 tailed test, it's  $Z_{\alpha}$
  - for a 2 tailed test, it's  $Z_{\alpha/2}$
- p-value: area more extreme than text statistic
  - remember it's two-sided if it's a 2-tail test

## **Proportion Hypothesis:**

- $Z_t = \frac{\hat{p} p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1 p_0)/n}}$
- equivalent of  $S_{\infty}$  is  $\frac{v}{p_0(1-p_0)} = v + n 2$

### Type 1 Error:

- false positive
- rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true
- probability is equal to our alpha level  $(\alpha)$

## Type 2 Error:

- false negative
- probability that we fail to reject when  $H_0$  is false (we should have rejected)
- represents the probability of drawing a sample that just happens to support  $H_0$  (be inside our critical range)
- depends on the actual **population** values  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$
- $P(\text{type 2 error}) = \frac{\bar{x}_c \mu}{\sigma_{\bar{x}}}$   $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  standard error of sample from
  - $\mu$  = real mean of population (not the one from  $H_0$ )
  - $\bar{x}_c$  critical value for sample mean (deter- ANOVA:

- mined by  $H_0$  and  $\alpha$ )
- Example: if the real mean is exactly  $\bar{x}_c$ , then P(T2) = 0.5
- Technically, the minimum and maximum are 0 and 1 respectively, since it depends on the population values, and that could be anything.

#### Final stuff:

You calculate  $Var(\bar{X} - \bar{y})$  differently depending on if the variances of the two distributions are equal or not

#### Difference of Means:

- actual variance of difference:  $\frac{\sigma_x^2}{m} + \frac{\sigma_y^2}{n}$ 
  - · does not matter if the two variances are (roughly) equal or not
  - don't usually get to use this because we don't have the population values
  - therefore must use  $s^2$  instead of  $\sigma^2$
  - (this is not the same thing as pooled variance)

### Two Distributions, equal variance:

•  $\Delta_0$  is the expected difference between the means

# . test statistic: $Z_t = \frac{x} - \frac{s_1}{s_1}$ where $x = \frac{s_1}{s_2}$

- variance considered equal if  $\frac{1}{3} \leq \frac{s_X^2}{s_Y^2} \leq 3$  pooled variance  $s_p^2 = \frac{(m-1)s_x^2 + (n-1)s_y^2}{n+m-2}$  weighted average of the sample variances
  test stat:  $T = \frac{\bar{X} \bar{Y} \Delta_0}{s_p \sqrt{1/m+1/n}}$

## Two Distributions, unequal variance:

- always use t distribution
- test stat:  $T = \frac{\bar{X} \bar{Y} \Delta_0}{\sqrt{s_X^2/m + s_Y^2/n}}$

## Paired Difference Test:

- \$D\_i = X\_i Y\_i\$ mean difference is \bar{D}
- test stat:  $T=\frac{\bar{D}-\Delta_0}{s_D/\sqrt{n}}$  n is the number of paired differences, not the number of total observations

# Proportion comparison:

- uses Z distribution
- common  $\hat{p}$  is total successes divided by total observations
- test stat:  $Z = \frac{\hat{p}_X \hat{p}_Y}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})(1/m+1/n)}}$ 
  - $\hat{p}$  is success proportion of the overall study
- C.I:  $(\hat{p}_X \hat{p}_Y) \pm Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_X(1-\hat{p}_X)}{m} + \frac{\hat{p}_Y(1-\hat{p}_Y)}{n}}$
- . We use the common  $\hat{p}$  for hypothesis tests but not C.I. because hypothesis tests assume that  $\hat{p}_x = \hat{p}_y$

- ANalysis Of VAriance
- $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \ldots = \mu_i$  $H_A$ : at least two means ( $\mu$ 's) are different
- trt = treatment
- err = error
- tot = total
- Assume normal population distribution with equal variance
- $X_{i,j} = j$ th sample from the *i*th treatment group
  - $I = \text{number of treatment groups}, n_i =$ number of samples in treatment group i
- $\bar{X}_{GM}$  or just  $\bar{X} = \text{Grand Mean}$
- SS = Sum of Squares

• 
$$SS_{tot} = SS_{trt} + SS_{err}$$
  
•  $SS_{tot} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=0}^{n_i} (X_{i,j} - \bar{X})^2$ 

• 
$$SS_{err} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=0}^{n_i} (X_{i,j} - \bar{X}_i)^2$$
  
•  $SS_{trt} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} (\bar{X}_i - \bar{X})^2$ 

• 
$$SS_{trt} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \left(\bar{X}_i - \bar{X}\right)^2$$

- MS = Means Squared
- $MS_{thing} = \frac{SS_{thing}}{DF_{thing}}$  test statistic:  $F_{test} = \frac{MS_{trt}}{MS_{err}}$  Describes how much error is due to treatment as opposed to (normally distributed) random errors
- critical value:  $F_{\alpha,DF_{trt},DF_{err}}$
- You can't use pair-wise ANOVA tests to determine which one of the distributions is actually different, because the uncertainty (introduced by the  $\alpha$  level) propagates.
  - instead you have to use Tuke's method (not this class)

## Regression:

- we assume different measurements are independent of each other
- model:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_0$ 
  - $\beta_0$ : intercept
  - $\beta_1$ : slope
  - $\epsilon_i$ : (random) error term
    - \* assumed to have a normal distribution with  $\mu = 0$
  - $X_i$ : independent variable; predictor
  - $Y_i$ : dependent variable; response
- $Q = \sum_{i=1}^{I} (Y_i \beta_0 X_i \beta_1)$ 
  - sum of squared vertical deviations
  - sum-of-squares minimizes this
- $S_{xx} = \sum (x_i \bar{x})^2$
- $S_{xy} = \sum_{S_{xy}} (y_i \bar{y})(x_i \bar{x})$   $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$  ratio of joint variability of X and Y to variability of just X

- hat (^) means estimate
- $\bullet \ \beta_0 = \bar{y} \beta_0 \bar{x}$
- $\epsilon_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$ , error term, residual
  - actual estimated
- total sum of squares  $SST = \sum (y_i \bar{y})^2 =$  $\sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum y^i)^2$
- error sum of squares  $SSE = \sum (e_i^2) = \sum (y_i y_i)$
- $\bar{y}$ )<sup>2</sup> =  $\sum y_i^2 \hat{\beta}_0 \sum y_i \hat{\beta}_1 \sum x_i y_i$  regression sum of squares  $SSR = \sum (\hat{y}_i \bar{y})^2 =$ SST - SSR
- measure of fit:  $r^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 \frac{SSE}{SST}$ 
  - $r^2$  = proportion of variation in y explained by the linear relationship model with x
  - $0 < r^2 < 1$
  - $r^2 = 1$ : all data perfectly on straight line
  - $r^2$  near zero: no linear relationship (may be other type of relationship)
- sample correlation: r
- you can do an ANOVA test for regression
  - $DF_{total} = n 2$ (because two estimates
  - $DF_{regression} = 1$
- hypothesis test: \$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}\_1 \
  - . \$s\_\hat{\beta}\_1 = \frac{s\_\epsilon}{\sqr^
  - $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = \Delta_0$
  - $s_{\epsilon} = \text{estimate of standard deviation of error}$
  - $\Delta_0$ : expected slope (usually 0)
  - confidence interval: \$\hat{\beta}\_1 \pm t
- confidence interval for mean response
  - mean y value at given value  $x^*$
  - means that you're  $(1-\alpha)100\%$  sure that the mean response will be inside this inter-
  - variance =  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* \bar{X})^2}{\sum (X_i \bar{X})^2} \right)$
  - C.I.  $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x^* \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} s_{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* \bar{X})^2}{\sum (X_i \bar{X})^2}}$
- prediction interval
  - means you're  $(1-\alpha)100\%$  sure that a new
  - value will lie inside this interval C.I.  $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x^* \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} s_{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* \bar{X})^2}{\sum (X_i \bar{X})^2}}$

### Law of Total Probability:

- If a probability is made up of sub-probabilities, the total probability is equal to the weighted average
- Example:
  - Lightbulb makers X and Y, probabilities of failure are  $Pr B_X$  and  $Pr B_Y$  respectively

- our lightbulb population is  $\frac{6}{10}X$  and  $\frac{4}{10}Y$  A is total probability that any bulb will fail

• 
$$\Pr(A) = \Pr(A|B_X)\Pr(B_X) + \Pr(A|B_Y)\Pr(B_Y)$$
  
=  $\frac{99}{100} \cdot \frac{6}{10} + \frac{95}{100} \cdot \frac{4}{10} = \frac{594 + 380}{1000} = \frac{974}{1000}$   
Long Range Frequency:

- as sample size increases, the relative frequencies of outcomes will approach their theoretical values.
- Example: A fair dice will give each number approximately  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the time