

01. Basic Concepts of Probability

Event Operations

- **Mutually Exclusive** - $A \cap B = \emptyset$
- **Contained** - $A \subset B$
- **Equivalence** - $A \subset B$ and $A \supset B \rightarrow A = B$
- **Distributive** - $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- **DeMorgan's** - $(A \cup B)' = A' \cap B'$
- $A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B')$

Counting Methods

- **Multiplication Principle** - Given r experiments performed sequentially and each has n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r outcomes. After r experiments, there are $n_1 n_2 \dots n_r$ outcomes.
- **Addition Principle** - Given experiment can be done in k different ways and each has n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r ways. There are $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k$ total ways.
- **Permutation** - ${}_nP_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$
- **Combination** - $\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$

Probability

Axioms of Probability

1. For any event A, $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
 2. $P(S) = 1$
 3. If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- $P(A') = 1 - P(A)$
 - $P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B')$
 - $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
 - If $A \subset B$, then $P(A) < P(B)$

Finite Sample Space with Equally Likely Outcomes

Given sample space $S = \{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$ and all outcomes are equally likely, i.e. $P(a_1) = \dots = P(a_k)$:

$$\text{For any event } A \subset S, P(A) = \frac{\text{No. of sample points in } A}{\text{No. of sample points in } S}$$

Conditional Probability

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

Independence

- $A \perp B \leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
- $A \perp B \leftrightarrow P(A|B) = P(A)$

Law of Total Probability

- **Partition** - If A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually exclusive events and $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = S$, then A_1, \dots, A_n are partitions
- If A_1, \dots, A_n are partitions of S, then for any event B:

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

Bayes' Theorem

Let A_1, \dots, A_n be partitions of S. For any event B:

$$P(A_k|B) = \frac{P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}$$

02. Random Variables

- Motivation: Assign value to outcome of experiment
- **Random Variable** - Let S be sample space. Function X which maps \mathbb{R} to every $s \in S$

Probability Distribution

- Probability assigned to each possible X
- Given RV X with range of R_x :
 - **Discrete** - Numbers in R_x are finite or countable
 - **Continuous** - R_x is interval

Discrete Probability Distribution

- **Probability Function** - Given $R_x = \{x_1, \dots\}$. For each x_i , there's some probability that $X = x_i$:

$$f(x) = P(X = x)$$

- *p.f.* must satisfy:
 1. $f(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$ for $x_i \in R_x$
 2. $f(x_i) = 0$ for $x_i \notin R_x$
 3. $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(x_i) = 1$
 4. $\forall B \subseteq \mathbb{R}, P(X \in B) = \sum_{x_i \in B \cap R_x} f(x_i)$
- **Probability Distribution** - Collection of pairs $(x_i, f(x_i))$

Continuous Probability Distribution

- **Probability Function** - Given R_x is interval. Quantifies probability that X is in some range.
- *p.f.* must satisfy:
 1. $f(x) \geq 0$
 2. $f(x) = 0$ for $x \notin R_x$
 3. $\int_{R_x} f(x)dx = 1$
 4. $\forall a, b \text{ s.t. } a \leq b, P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- Note: $P(X = x_0) = \int_{x_0}^{x_0} f(x)dx = 0$

Cumulative Distributive Function

Given RV X, which can be discrete or continuous:

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

- $F(x)$ is non-decreasing and $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$
- **For discrete RV**: Step function

$$F(x) = \sum_{t \in R_x; t \leq x} f(t)$$

- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} F(x)$
- $0 \leq f(x) \leq 1$

- **For continuous RV**:

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

$$f(x) = \frac{d(F(x))}{dx}$$

- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a < X < b) = F(b) - F(a)$
- $0 \leq f(x)$ e.g. $f(x) = 3x^2$ is a valid *p.f.* since $\int_{R_x} f(x)dx = 1$

Expectation of Random Variable

- **Mean of discrete RV**:

$$\mu = E(X) = \sum_{x \in R_x} x_i f(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(X \geq i)$$

- Let g be some function. $E(g(x)) = \sum_{x \in R_x} g(x)f(x)$

- **Mean of continuous RV**:

$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{x \in R_x} x f(x)dx$$

- Let g be some function. $E(g(x)) = \int_{x \in R_x} g(x)f(x)dx$

- $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$

- Linearity of expectation: $E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$

Variance of Random Variable

$$\sigma_X^2 = V(X) = E((X - \mu_X)^2)$$

- **Variance of discrete RV**:

$$V(X) = \sum_{x \in R_x} (x - \mu_X)^2 f(x)$$

- **Variance of continuous RV**:

$$V(X) = \int_{x \in R_x} (x - \mu_X)^2 f(x)dx$$

- $V(X) = 0$ when X is a constant

- $V(aX + b) = a^2 V(X)$

- $V(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$

- **Standard Deviation** - $\sigma_X = \sqrt{V(X)}$

03. Joint Distributions

- Motivation: What if interested in more than 1 RV simultaneously?

- Given sample space S. Let X and Y be functions mapping $s \in S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

(X, Y) is 2D random vector

Range space: $R_{X,Y} = \{(x, y) | x = X(s), y = Y(s), s \in S\}$

- **Discrete 2D RV** - If no. of possible values of $(X(s), Y(s))$ are finite or countable
- **Continuous 2D RV** - If no. of possible values of $(X(s), Y(s))$ can be any value in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^2
- If both X and Y are discrete/continuous, then (X, Y) is discrete/countinuous.

Joint Probability Function

• For discrete:

f_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)

- f_{X,Y}(x,y) ≥ 0 for any (x,y) ∈ R_{X,Y}
- f_{X,Y}(x,y) = 0 for any (x,y) ∉ R_{X,Y}
- ∑_{i=1}^∞ ∑_{j=1}^∞ P(X = x_i, Y = y_i) = 1
- Let A ⊆ R_{X,Y}. P((X,Y) ∈ A) = ∑ ∑_{(x,y) ∈ A} f_{X,Y}(x,y)

• For continuous:

P(a ≤ X ≤ b, c ≤ Y ≤ d) = ∫_a^b ∫_c^d f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy dx

- f_{X,Y}(x,y) ≥ 0 for any (x,y) ∈ R_{X,Y}
- f_{X,Y}(x,y) = 0 for any (x,y) ∉ R_{X,Y}
- ∫_{-∞}^∞ ∫_{-∞}^∞ f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy = 1

Marginal Probability Function

Let (X,Y) be a 2D RV with joint probability function f_{X,Y}(x,y):

If Y is discrete, f_X(x) = ∑_y f_{X,Y}(x,y)

If Y is continuous, f_X(x) = ∫_{-∞}^∞ f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy

- f_Y(y) defined similarly
- Intuition: Marginal distribution for X ignores presence of Y
- f_X(x) is a p.f.

Conditional Distribution

Let (X,Y) be a 2D RV with joint probability function f_{X,Y}(x,y). Then ∀x s.t. f_X(x) > 0:

f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_{X,Y}(x,y) / f_X(x)

- Intuition: Distribution of Y given X = x
- Only defined for x s.t. f_X(x) > 0
- f_{Y|X}(y|x) is a p.f. if we fix x
- But, f_{Y|X}(y|x) is not a p.f. for x
- P(Y ≤ y | X = x) = ∫_{-∞}^y f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy
- E(Y | X = x) = ∫_{-∞}^∞ y f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy

Independent Random Variables

X ⊥ Y ↔ ∀x,y, f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)

- Necessary condition: R_{X,Y} must be a product space. Else, dependent.

Properties

Suppose X,Y are independent RV:

- If A, B ⊆ ℝ, then events X ∈ A and Y ∈ B are independent:

P(X ∈ A; Y ∈ B) = P(X ∈ A) P(Y ∈ B)

- g_1(X) and g_2(Y) are independent
- Independence is related with conditional distribution:

f_X(x) > 0 → f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_Y(y)

f_Y(y) > 0 → f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f_X(x)

Quick way to check independence

1. R_{X,Y} is a product space. i.e. R_X does not depend on Y and vice versa.
2. f_{X,Y}(x,y) can be written as c g_1(x) g_2(y) where g_1 depends on x only and g_2 depends on y only.
3. For discrete: f_X(x) = ∑_{t ∈ R_X} g_1(t) / g_1(x)
4. For continuous: f_X(x) = ∫_{t ∈ R_X} g_1(t) dt / ∫_{t ∈ R_X} g_1(t) dt

Expectation

Given 2 variable function g(x,y):

If (X,Y) is discrete, E(g(X,Y)) = ∑_x ∑_y g(x,y) f_{X,Y}(x,y)

If (X,Y) is continuous, E(g(X,Y)) = ∫_{-∞}^∞ ∫_{-∞}^∞ g(x,y) f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy dx

- E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) if X ⊥ Y

Covariance

cov(X,Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))

If (X,Y) is discrete, cov(X,Y) = ∑_x ∑_y (x - μ_X)(y - μ_Y) f_{X,Y}(x,y)

If (X,Y) is cont., cov(X,Y) = ∫_{-∞}^∞ ∫_{-∞}^∞ (x - μ_X)(y - μ_Y) f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy

- cov(X,Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)
- X ⊥ Y → cov(X,Y) = 0. But converse is not always true.
- cov(aX + b, cY + d) = (ac)cov(X,Y)
- V(aX + bY) = a^2V(X) + b^2V(Y) + 2abcov(X,Y)
- X ⊥ Y → V(X + Y) = V(X) + V(Y)

04. Special Probability Distributions

Discrete Uniform Distribution

- If X has values x_1, x_2, ..., x_k with equal probability
- p.f.: f_X(x) = 1/k where x = x_1, ..., x_k and 0 otherwise
- Expectation: μ_X = E(X) = ∑_{i=1}^k x_i f_X(x_i) = 1/k ∑_{i=1}^k x_i
- Variance: σ_X^2 = V(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 = 1/k ∑_{i=1}^k x_i^2 - μ_X^2

Bernoulli

- **Bernoulli Trial** - Random experiment with 2 possible outcomes (success and failure)

Bernoulli Random Variable

- Number of successes in Bernoulli trial (Either 1 or 0)
- Let 0 ≤ p ≤ 1 be the probability of success in Bernoulli trial

f_X(x) = P(X = x) = { p x=1, 1-p x=0, 0 otherwise

- f_X(x) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x} for x = 0 or 1
- Notation: X ~ Ber(p) and q = 1 - p
- μ_X = E(X) = p and σ_X^2 = V(X) = p(1 - p)

Bernoulli Process

- Sequence of repeatedly performed independent and identical Ber. trials
- Generates sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) Ber. RVs: X_1, X_2, ...

Binomial Distribution

- **Binomial RV** - Counts the number of successes in n trials in a Ber. process
- Given n trials with each trial having probability p of success:

P(X = x) = (n choose x) p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}

- Notation: X ~ B(n,p)
- E(X) = np and V(X) = np(1 - p)

Negative Binomial Distribution

- Let X = Number of i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) trials until kth success occurs

P(X = x) = (x-1 choose k-1) p^k (1 - p)^{x-k}

- Notation: X ~ NB(k,p)
- E(X) = 1/p and V(X) = (1-p)/p^2

Geometric Distribution

- Let X = Number of i.i.d. Bernoulli(p) trials until 1st success occurs

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

- Notation: X ~ G(p)
- E(X) = 1/p and V(X) = (1-p)/p^2

Poisson Distribution

- **Poisson RV** - Denotes number of events happening in fixed period of time or fixed region

P(X = k) = e^{-λ} λ^k / k!

- Notation: X ~ Poisson(λ) where λ > 0 is expected number of occurrences during given period/region
- E(X) = λ and V(X) = λ

Poisson Process

- Continuous time process, where we count number of occurrences within some interval of time
- Given Poisson process with rate parameter α:
 - Expected number of occurrences in interval of length T is αT
 - No simultaneous occurrences
 - Number of occurrences in disjoint intervals are independent

- Number of occurrences in any interval T of Poisson process follows Poisson(αT) distribution

Poisson Approximation of Binomial Distribution

Let X ~ B(n,p). Suppose n → ∞ and p → 0 s.t. λ = np remains constant. Then X ~ Poisson(λ) approximately.

lim_{p→0; n→∞} P(X = x) = e^{-np} (np)^x / x!

- Approximation is good when n ≥ 20 and p ≤ 0.05, or n ≥ 100 and np ≤ 10

Continuous Uniform Distribution

X follows uniform distribution over interval (a, b) if $p.f.$ is given by:

f_X(x) = { 1/(b-a) if a <= x <= b, 0 otherwise }

• Notation: $X \sim U(a, b)$

• $E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$ and $V(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$

• $c.d.f.$ is given by:

f_X(x) = { 0 if x < a, (x-a)/(b-a) if a <= x <= b, 1 if x > b }

Exponential Distribution

X follows exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$ if $p.f.$ is given by:

f_x(x) = { lambda * e^(-lambda * x) if x >= 0, 0 if x < 0 }

• Notation: $X \sim Exp(\lambda)$

• $E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}$ and $V(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$

• $c.d.f.$ is given by:

f_X(x) = { 1 - e^(-lambda * x) if x > 0, 0 if x <= 0 }

• Suppose X has exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$. Then for any positive numbers s and t , we have:

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

Normal Distribution

X follows normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 if $p.f.$ is given by:

f_X(x) = 1/(sqrt(2*pi)*sigma) * e^(-(x-mu)^2/(2*sigma^2))

• Notation: $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

• $E(X) = \mu$ and $V(X) = \sigma^2$

• $p.f.$ is bell-shaped curve and symmetric about $x = \mu$

• Total area under curve is 1

• 2 normal curves are identical in shape if they have same σ^2 . They differ in location by $\mu_1 - \mu_2$.

• As σ increases, curve becomes more spread out

• If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and let $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$

Standardized Normal Distribution

If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and let

Z = (X - mu) / sigma

then $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

• $E(Z) = 0$ and $V(Z) = 1$

• $p.f.$ is given by:

f_Z(z) = 1/sqrt(2*pi) * e^(-z^2/2)

• Importance of standardizing normal distribution is that it allows us to use tables to find probabilities

• Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. We can compute $P(x_1 < X < x_2)$ by standadization:

x1 < X < x2 <=> (x1 - mu) / sigma < (X - mu) / sigma < (x2 - mu) / sigma

• $c.d.f.$ is given by:

phi(z) = F_Z(z) = integral from -infinity to z of f_Z(z) dz = integral from -infinity to z of (1/sqrt(2*pi)) * e^(-t^2/2) dt

• $P(Z \geq 0) = P(Z \leq 0) = \phi(0) = 0.5$

• For any z , $\phi(z) = P(Z \leq z) = P(Z \geq -z) = 1 - \phi(-z)$

• $-Z \sim N(0, 1)$

• If $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, then $\sigma Z + \mu \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

• **Upper Quantile** - Given α is upper-tail percentage. The α th upper quantile is x_α that satisfies:

P(X >= x_alpha) = alpha

e.g. The 0.05th (upper) quantile of $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ is 1.645, i.e. $z_{0.05} = 1.645$.

• $P(Z \geq z_\alpha) = P(Z \leq -z_\alpha) = \alpha$

• Upper z_α = Lower $z_{1-\alpha}$

Normal Approximation to Binomial Distribution

Let $X \sim B(n, p)$, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

Z = (X - E(X)) / sqrt(V(X)) = (X - np) / sqrt(np(1-p)) ~ N(0, 1)

• Approximation is good when $np > 5$ and $n(1-p) > 5$

05. Sampling Distributions

Population and Sample

• Motivation: Infer something about population using sample

• **Population** - All possible observations of survey

• **Sample** - Subset of population

• Every observation can be numerical or categorical

• Finite population vs. Infinite population

Random Sampling

• Motivation: We usually know what distribution the population belongs to, but we don't know the parameters of the distribution. We can use sample to estimate the parameters.

• **Simple Random Sample** - Given sample of size n , each sample has equal chance of being selected

SRS for Infinite Population

Let X be RV with $p.f. f_X(x)$. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent random variables with same distribution as X . Then X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is a simple random sample of size n . Joint probability function of X_1, \dots, X_n :

f_{X1,...,Xn}(x1,...,xn) = f_X(x1) * f_X(x2) * ... * f_X(xn)

Sampling with Replacement

• Sampling with replacement from finite population is considered as sampling from infinite population

• Sample is random if:

- Every element in population has same probability
- Successive draws are independent

Sample Distribution of Sample Mean

• **Statistic** - Suppose random sample of n observations is X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . A statistic is a function of X_1, \dots, X_n

• **Sample Mean** -

X_bar = 1/n * sum from i=1 to n of X_i

• **Sample Variance** -

S^2 = 1/(n-1) * sum from i=1 to n of (X_i - X_bar)^2

• **Statistics are random variables**. We can look at distribution of statistics.

• **Sample Distribution** - Distribution of a statistic

• Mean and variance of \bar{X} :

E(X_bar) = mu and V(X_bar) = (sigma_X^2) / n

Intuition: μ_X is some unknown constant. \bar{X} guesses that. As n increases, accuracy of \bar{X} increases.

• **Standard Error** - Standard deviation of sampling distribution (e.g. $\sigma_{\bar{X}}$)

• **Law of Large Numbers** - As n increases, \bar{X} converges to μ_X . i.e. For any $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}$:

P(|X_bar - mu| > epsilon) -> 0 as n -> infinity

Central Limit Theorem

If \bar{X} is mean of random sample of size n from population with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

X_bar ~ N(mu, sigma^2/n) approximately

• Intuition: For a large n , \bar{X} is approximately normally distributed.

• If random sample is from normal population, \bar{X} is normally distributed no matter value of n

• If very skewed, CLT may not hold even with large n

Other Sampling Distributions

χ^2 Distribution

• Let Z_1, \dots, Z_n be n independent and identically distributed standard normal RVs. A χ^2 RV with n degrees of freedom is defined as a RV with same distribution as $Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2$

• Notation: $\chi^2(n)$ with n degrees of freedom

• If $Y \sim \chi^2(n)$, then $E(Y) = n$ and $V(Y) = 2n$

• For large n , $\chi^2(n)$ is approximately $N(n, 2n)$

• If Y_1 and Y_2 are independent χ^2 RVs with m and n degrees of freedom respectively, then $Y_1 + Y_2$ is $\chi^2(m + n)$

• χ^2 is family of curves. All density functions have long right tail.

Sampling Distribution of S^2

• $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$

Sampling Distribution of $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$

If S^2 is variance of random sample of size n from normal population of variance σ^2 , then:

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2}$$

has $\chi^2(n-1)$ distribution

t-Distribution

Suppose $Z \sim N(0,1)$ and $U \sim \chi^2(n)$. If Z and U are independent, then:

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/n}} \sim t(n)$$

where $t(n)$ is called t-distribution with n degrees of freedom

- t-Distribution approaches $N(0,1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$
- When $n \geq 30$, t-distribution is approximately normal
- If $T \sim t(n)$, then $E(T) = 0$ and $V(T) = \frac{n}{n-2}$ for $n > 2$
- Symmetric about vertical axis and resembles standard normal distribution
- If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and identically distributed normal RVs with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then:

$$\frac{X - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t(n-1)$$

F-Distribution

Suppose $U \sim \chi^2(m)$ and $V \sim \chi^2(n)$. If U_1 and U_2 are independent, then:

$$F = \frac{U/m}{V/n} \sim F(m,n)$$

is called F-distribution with (m,n) degrees of freedom

- If $X \sim F(m,n)$, then

$$E(X) = \frac{n}{n-2} \text{ for } n > 2$$

and

$$V(X) = \frac{2n^2(m+n-2)}{m(n-2)^2(n-4)} \text{ for } n > 4$$

- If $F \sim F(m,n)$, then $1/F \sim F(n,m)$

06. Estimation

Point Estimation for Mean

- Single number to estimate population parameter
- Point Estimator** - Formula that describes this calculation
- Point Estimate** - Result of point estimator
- Notation: θ represents parameter of interest. θ can be p, μ, σ , etc.

Unbiased Estimator

Let $\hat{\theta}$ be an estimator of θ . Then $\hat{\theta}$ is unbiased if:

$$E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$$

Maximum Error of Estimate

- Motivation: Usually $\bar{X} \neq \mu$. So $\bar{X} - \mu$ measures difference between estimator and parameter
- Let z_{α} be α th upper quantile of standard normal distribution Z . i.e. $P(Z > z_{\alpha}) = \alpha$

$$P(-z_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z_{\alpha/2}) = P(|\bar{X} - \mu| \leq z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}) = 1 - \alpha$$

- Maximum Error of Estimate** - Given probability $1 - \alpha$:

$$E = z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Determination of Sample Size

Given probability $1 - \alpha$ and maximum error E , what is the minimum sample size n ?

$$n \geq (\frac{z_{\alpha/2}\sigma}{E})^2$$

Different Cases

| | Population | σ | n | Statistic | E | n for desired E_0 and α |
|-----|------------|----------|-------|---|--|--|
| I | Normal | known | any | $Z = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ | $z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ | $\left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma}{E_0}\right)^2$ |
| II | any | known | large | $Z = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ | $z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ | $\left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma}{E_0}\right)^2$ |
| III | Normal | unknown | small | $T = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ | $t_{n-1;\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ | $\left(\frac{t_{n-1;\alpha/2} \cdot s}{E_0}\right)^2$ |
| IV | any | unknown | large | $Z = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ | $z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ | $\left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2} \cdot s}{E_0}\right)^2$ |

Confidence Interval for Mean

- Interval Estimator** - Rule for calculating an interval (a,b) in which we are fairly certain the parameter lies
- Confidence Level** - Probability that interval contains parameter. i.e. $1 - \alpha$

$$P(a < \mu < b) = 1 - \alpha$$

- Confidence Interval** - Interval calculated by interval estimator. i.e. (a,b)

Case 1: σ known, data normal

Previously:

$$P(-z_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z_{\alpha/2}) = 1 - \alpha$$

By rearranging, the $1 - \alpha$ confidence interval is:

$$(\bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$$

Other Cases

| Case | Population | σ | n | Confidence Interval |
|------|------------|----------|-------|--|
| I | Normal | known | any | $\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ |
| II | any | known | large | $\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ |
| III | Normal | unknown | small | $\bar{x} \pm t_{n-1;\alpha/2} \cdot s/\sqrt{n}$ |
| IV | any | unknown | large | $\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot s/\sqrt{n}$ |

- n is considered large when $n \geq 30$

07. Hypothesis Testing