Handy Transformations -

$$\mathbb{E}[a+bX] = a+b\mathbb{E}[X]$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(a+bX) = b^{2}\operatorname{Var}(X)$$

$$\operatorname{SD}(a+bX) = |b|\operatorname{SD}(X)$$

$$\operatorname{Cov}(a+bX,c+dY) = b \cdot d \cdot \operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)$$

Set Algebra:

- Union A or B; $A \cup B$.
- Intersection A and B; $A \cap B$.
- Complement not A; A^C .
- **Difference** A but not B; $A \setminus B$
- Disjoint Events aka. mutually exclusive events A and B are disjoint if they don't share any outcomes in common (i.e., A and $B = \emptyset$).
- Subset $A \subseteq B$

Trial - a repetition of a random

experiment/process. Trials're independent: none gives information about the others; are stable: reuslts could have appeared in any order.

Outcome - a possible result of a trial.

Sample space - the set of all possible outcomes. Often denoted as S.

Event - a set of outcomes of an experiment (i.e., a subset of the sample space).

Probability - is a long run proportion of an outcome in repeated trials.

- Probabilities act as "targets" of estimation
- Proportions based on data "estimate" probabilities. Would approach probabilities if observe infinite trials.

Formally, $A \mapsto \mathbb{P}(A), \mathbb{P}(A) \in [0,1]$ A probability $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$ on a sample space S is a function that assigns a snumber between 0 and 1 to all events, A in the sample space (i.e., any possible subset of the sample space) and subject to three requirements (axioms):

- 1. $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$: probability of something in the sample space happening is 1
- 2. $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0, \forall A$
- 3. A and $B = \emptyset$ (A, B disjoint) $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$

More takeaways

- $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$
- A, B, C are pairwise disjoint $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A \cup B \cup C) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(C)$
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) \mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B)$

Joint Probability - $\mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B)$ is the joint probability that events A and B occur.

Conditional Probability -

 $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}, \mathbb{P}(B) > 0 \text{ the probability of observing event } A \text{ if (given that) one has observed } B. \text{ Bear in mind: } \mathbb{P}(A|B) \neq \mathbb{P}(B|A)$ Product Bule = $\mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B) = \mathbb{P}(B)$. $\mathbb{P}(A|B)$

Product Rule - $\mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B) = \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B)$.

Independent Events - A and B are independent if $\mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$; one event happening doesn't affect the probability of the other event happening. Can easily deduce that $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$ and $\mathbb{P}(B|A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$.

Independence and Disjointness are **NOT** synonyms.

- Independent $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A \text{ and } B) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$
- Disjoint ⇒ P(A and B) = 0. Disjoint events are extremely dependent: If one event occurs, the other cannot.

Random variable - a numerical function on a sample space with probabilities. (Think as a scoring mechanism.)

- Input: an outcome in the sample space
- Output: a number

 ${\bf Discrete}~{\bf RVs}$ - only countably many values are possible

Continous RVs - can take on uncountably infinitely many values

Probability Distribution Function (PDF) -

 $\mathbf{p}_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ is the probability that the random variable X takes on the value x. I really hate $\mathbf{p}_X(x)$ this styling, so only $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$ moving forward.

Properties of PDFs - any function that satisfies the following conditions is a probability distribution function of a <u>Discrete</u> random variable:

- 1. $\mathbb{P}(X = x) \ge 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (for any real number)}$
- 2. $\mathbb{P}(X = x) > 0$ for values that the random variable X can actually take on
- 3. $\mathbb{P}(X = x) = 0$ for values that aren't possible for the random variable X
- 4. $\sum_{x} \mathbb{P}(X=x) = 1$

Expected Value - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$

Variance - a probability weighted mean of the possible squared deviations.

$$Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^{2}]$$
$$= \sum_{x} (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^{2} \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[X^{2}] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^{2}$$

Standard Deviation - $SD(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$

Given Y = g(X) and X's PDF -

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{x} g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y) = \sum_{x} (g(x) - \mathbb{E}[g(X)])^{2} \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

RVs with only 2 outcomes - (not necessarily Bernoullis yet) Suppose RV X's PDF is:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{P}(X=a) &= p \\ \mathbb{P}(X=b) &= 1-p \text{, then:} \\ \mathbb{P}(X=\text{all other values}) &= 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = ap + b(1-p)$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = (a-b)^{2}p(1-p)$$

$$\operatorname{SD}(X) = |a-b|\sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

Bernoulli Random Variable - aforementioned when $\begin{cases} a = 1 \\ b = 0 \end{cases}$. If $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$, then:

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

$$Var(X) = p(1-p)$$

$$SD(X) = \sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

- Variance maximized when p = 0.5
- Variance minimized when p = 0 or 1

Useful for tracking how many successes happen in n independent trials.

Binomial Problems - following must hold:

- 1. Constant success probability p and failure probability (1-p).
- 2. Fixed total number of trials: n
- 3. trials are independent
- 4. Only two outcomes of interest (success or failure) on each trial
- 5. Want to find the probability of observing k successes among the total number of n trials. (Order doesn't matter.)

 $\mathbb{P}(k \text{ successes in } n \text{ trials}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

Combination - how many ways to choose \vec{k} out of n: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k!)}$.

Binomial Distribution - $X \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$ where X is an RV tracking the number of successes in n independent trials with success probability p. X's PDF:

$$\forall k \in \{0,\ldots,n\}, \mathbb{P}(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$
.

Attn: X here is not for one single trial!.

- A Bernoulli RV: useful for one trial's success/failure.
- A Binomial RV: useful for total number of successes.

Binomial as the Sum of Bernoullis - n independent Bernoulli RVs each with the same success probability p: $\forall i \in 1, ..., n, X_i \sim \text{Bern}(p)$.

Define
$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
, then denote

$$S_n \sim \operatorname{Binom}(n,p)$$
. $\operatorname{Binom}(1,p) = \operatorname{Bern}(p)$

Joint Distribution of 2 RVs - the probability that 2 RVs simultaneously take on 2 values.

$$\forall x \in X, \forall y \in Y \mid \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

Marginal probability distribution - can be found given with the joint PDF:

$$\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X=x, Y=y)$$

Z-Score of a Random Variable X - $Z(X) = \frac{X - \mathbb{E}[X]}{SD(X)}$

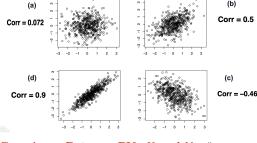
$$\mathbb{E}[Z(X)] = 0 \text{ and } SD(Z(X)) = 1$$

Correlation Between RVs X and Y - "average of the product of z-scores"

$$Corr(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[Z(X) \cdot Z(Y)]$$
$$= \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{SD(X) \cdot SD(Y)}$$

- Corr(X,Y) is unit-free.
- Corr(X, Y) doesn't exist if either SD(X) = 0 or SD(Y) = 0 (can't divide by 0!).
- Correlation is guaranteed to lie between +1
 (perfect positive correlation) and -1 (perfect
 negative correlation). Hence Corr is more
 commonly used than Covariance.

Correlation Examples



Covariance Between RVs X and Y - "average of the product of the centered variables". Necessary for assessing variability of sums of RVs (e.g. portfolios).

$$Cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]$$
$$= Corr(X,Y) \cdot SD(X) \cdot SD(Y)$$

- Cov(X, Y) has funny units: product of the X and Y units.
- Cov(X, Y) always exists. If SDs are 0, Cov(X, Y) = 0
- Cov(X, X) = V(X)
- If SD(X) > 0 and SD(Y) > 0, then Corr(X, Y) and Cov(X, Y) have the same sign.

Expected Value of RVs summed - is regardless of RVs' joint distribution:

$$\mathbb{E}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X+Y+W] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y] + \mathbb{E}[W]$$

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mathbb{E}[X_i] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[X_n]$$

Variance of of RVs summed -

$$Var(X+Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X,Y)$$

$$Var(X+Y+W) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + Var(W)$$

$$+ 2Cov(X,Y) + 2Cov(X,W) + 2Cov(Y,W)$$

$$Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Var(X_i) + 2\sum_{i \le i} Cov(X_i,X_j)$$

Have to consider the covariance of all possible pairs: X_i and X_j .

- If Corr(X, Y) increases, then Var(X + Y) increases.
- If V(X) = V(Y), then Var(X + Y) is maximized when Cov(X, Y) is maximized.

Uncorrelated RVs - if Corr(X, Y) = 0. Equivalently, they are uncorrelated if Cov(X, Y) = 0, SD(X) > 0, SD(Y) > 0Variance of of Uncorrelated or Independent RVs summed -

$$\operatorname{Var}(X + Y) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y)$$

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}\left(X_{i}\right)$$

No change in expected value's formula. Independent RVs -

RVs X and Y are independent, then they are uncorrelated.

Independence
$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Corr}(X, Y) = 0 = \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$$

But uncorrelated RVs can be dependent! (iid) Independent and Identically **Distributed RVs** - for a collection of *iid* RVs $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}: \ \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$$
$$\operatorname{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$$
$$\operatorname{SD}(X_i) = \sigma$$

Sum of *iid* RVs - $S_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$:

$$\mathbb{E}[S_n] = n \cdot \mu$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(S_n) = n \cdot \sigma^2$$

$$\operatorname{SD}(X_i) = \sqrt{n} \cdot \sigma$$

Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

If $\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$ are *iid* with expected value $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and variance $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$, then as $n \to \infty$:

- $S_n \sim \mathcal{N}(n \cdot \mu, \sqrt{n} \cdot \sigma)$
- Mean_n ~ $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$

If n is large enough (heuristic: n > 30), we can calculate probabilities for the sum and mean of RVs by using the normal distribution.

Emperical Rules under CLT -

- 50% of the time.
 - S_n will fall within $n\mu \pm \frac{2}{3}\sqrt{n}\sigma$
 - M_n will fall within $\mu \pm \frac{2}{3} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 68% of the time,
 - S_n will fall within $n\mu \pm \sqrt{n}\sigma$
 - M_n will fall within $\mu \pm \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 95% of the time,
 - S_n will fall within $n\mu \pm 2\sqrt{n}\sigma$
- M_n will fall within $\mu \pm 2\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\pi}}$
- 99.7% of the time,
 - S_n will fall within $n\mu \pm 3\sqrt{n}\sigma$
- M_n will fall within $\mu \pm 3\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\pi}}$

Sampling and Confidence Intervals

Confidence Interval - contains an unknown (population) quantity at some specified sampling

- Confidence intervals do not depend on population size, but only on sample size.
- For a given sample size, can be very precise with low confidence or very imprecise with high
- 2x the precision requires 4x sample size; 3x the precision requires 9x sample size.

Wording matters...

- OK: "I am 95% confident the interval [a,b] contains the true population proportion"
- OK: "There is a 95% probability the interval [a,b] contains the true population proportion"
- Not OK: "There is a 95% probability the true population proportion lies in the interval [a,b]"

Confidence Level (L) to c -

$$c = \operatorname{qnorm}(p = \frac{(1+L)}{2}, \mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$$
 (find the value c such that the area under $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ is p)

confidence level	L	c
90%	0.9	1.65
95%	0.95	1.96
99%	0.99	2.58

For a population mean - Given sample size n, sample average \bar{x} , and sample standard deviation s, we are X% confident the true population mean

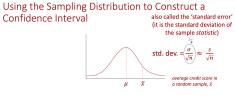
lies in the interval: $\left| \bar{x} \pm \left(c \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \right|$ "MOE": $\left(c \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$

For a population proportion - Given sample size n, sample proportion \bar{p} , and standard deviation in the population to be 0.5, we are X% confident the true population mean lies in the interval: $|\bar{p} \pm \left(c\frac{0.5}{\sqrt{n}}\right)|$ "MOE": $\left(c\frac{0.5}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$

Important assumptions:

- Sample is random
- Sample is large enough (n > 30) for CLT
- The worst possible standard deviation in the population to be 0.5

Sampling Distribution - is well approximated by $\mathcal{N}(\mu = \text{true population parameter}, \sigma =$ population SD), based on CLT.



The fact that 95% of the sample means lie within 1.96 standard errors of the true (unknown) population mean

The confidence intervals constructed using the given mean' 95% of the time!

Sampling Errors - the sample-to-sample variations due to pure chance. MOE and confidence intervals quantify this uncertainty well.

Non-Sampling Errors - (some examples)

- Selection Bias: happens when each member of the population does not have the same chance of being selected.
- Response/Non-response Bias: happens when some fraction of the individuals surveyed don't respond for reasons related to what's being asked in the survey

R Distribution Functions

- p ("probability"): cumulative distribution function ("what is the probability above or below a cutoff?")
- q ("quantile"): inverse CDF ("what value do we find at, say, 80% of the way to the maximal value?")
- d ("density"): density function (gives us the "height" or y-value of distribution for a particular z-score - mainly useful in plotting)

Exactly k successes in n trials qiven success probability p $\mathbf{dbinom}(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{size=n}, \mathbf{p=p})$ # k or more successes in n trials given success probability p sum(dbinom(k:n, size=n, p=p))

Similar Analysis for Proportions

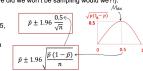
- When outcomes are binary, the standard deviation of observations in the population #Probability of this value or lessequals $\sqrt{p(1-p)}$.

• We get the standard error by dividing by \sqrt{n} . The exact interval is $\tilde{p}\pm 1.96$ $\left(\frac{p(1-p)}{p(1-p)}\right)\#\ Probability\ of\ this\ value\ or$

But since we don't know p (if we did we won't be sampling would we?!):

o We can take a conservative approach and assume p = 0.5

 Or, an approximate approach by assuming $p = \bar{p}$ to get the practical alternative



the 'standard error' pnorm (value, mean, sd) greater

> pnorm(value, mean, sd, lower.tail= FALSE)

Highest value associated with a qiven percentile

qnorm(percentile, mean, sd)