

**Probability and Applied Statistics Formula Sheet**  
**Alexis Petito**

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**Definition 1.1 – Mean of n Measured Responses.**

The mean of a sample  $n$  measured responses.

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

**Definition 1.2 – Variance of Sample Measurements**

The variance of a sample of measurements.

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

**Definition 1.3 – Standard Deviation of Sample Measurements**

Standard deviation of a sample measurements.

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

**Definition 2.7 - Permutations**

Ordered arrangement of  $r$  distinct objects called a *permutation*.

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

**Definition 2.8 - Combinations**

The number of *combinations* of  $n$  objects taken  $r$  at a time

$$C_r^n = \frac{P_r^n}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r! (n-r)!}$$

**Theorem 2.3 – n Objects into K Groups**

The number of ways partitioning  $n$  distinct objects into  $k$  distinct groups containing  $n_i$  objects, respectively where each object appears in exactly one group and  $\sum_{i=1}^k n_i = n$ , is

$$N = \binom{n}{n_1 n_2 \dots n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}$$

**Definition 2.9 – A Given B**

The *conditional probability* of an event A, given that an event B has occurred, is equal to

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

**Definition 2.10 – Determining Independence**

Two events A and B are said to be *independent* if any one of the following holds:

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

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

Otherwise, the events are said to be *dependent*.

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**Theorem 2.5 - The Multiplicative Law of Probability**

The probability of the intersection of two events A and B is

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

$$= P(B)P(A|B)$$

If A and B are independent, then

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

**Theorem 2.6 - The Additive Law of Probability**

The probability of the union of two events A and B is

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

If A and B are mutually exclusive events,  $P(A \cap B) = 0$  and

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

**Theorem 2.7 – Determine A from  $\bar{A}$**

If A is an event, then

$$P(A) = 1 - P(\bar{A})$$

**Definition 2.11 – Partition of S**

For some positive integer  $k$ , let the sets  $B_1, B_2, B_3, \dots, B_k$  be such that

1.  $S = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_k$

2.  $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ , for  $i \neq j$

Then the collection of sets  $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k\}$  is said to be a *partition* of S

**Theorem 2.8**

Assume that  $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k\}$  is a partition of S (see definition 2.11) such that  $P(B_i) > 0$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Then for any event A

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

**Theorem 2.9 - Bayes' Rule**

Assume that  $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k\}$  is a partition of S (see definition 2.11) such that  $P(B_i) > 0$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Then

$$P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(A|B_j)P(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}$$

**Bayes' Theorem**

Bayes Theorem: For two events A and B in sample space S, with  $P(A) > 0$  and  $P(B) > 0$ ,

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

If  $0 < P(B) < 1$ , we may write by the *Theorem of Total Probability*.

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

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### Conditional Probability

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

### Probability Mass Function

$$p(y) = P(Y = y)$$

### Expected Value

Let  $Y$  be a discrete random variable with the probability function  $p(y)$ . Then the *expected value* of  $Y$ ,  $E(Y)$ , is defined to be,

$$E(Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} yp(y)$$

### Theorem 3.2 – Binomial Distribution

Let  $Y$  be a discrete random variable with probability function  $p(y)$  and  $g(y)$  be a real-valued function of  $Y$ . Then the expected value of  $g(Y)$

Is given by,

$$E[g(Y)] = \sum_{all\ y} g(y)p(y)$$

### Definition 3.5 – Expected Variance of a Random Variable

If  $Y$  is a random variable with mean  $E(Y) = \mu$ , the variance of a random variable  $Y$  is defined to be the expected value of  $(Y - \mu)^2$ . That is,

$$V(Y) = E[(Y - \mu)^2]$$

### The Standard Deviation of $Y$

$$\sqrt{V[Y]}$$

### Binomial Distribution

$$p(y) = P(Y = y) = \binom{n}{y} p^y q^{n-y} \quad y \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

### Theorem 3.7 – Binomial Distribution Expected Value and Variance

Let  $Y$  be a binomial random variable based on  $n$  trials and success probability  $p$ . Then,

$$\mu = E(Y) = np \text{ (Mean/Expected)}$$

$$\sigma^2 = V(Y) = npq \text{ (Standard Deviation)}$$

### Geometric Distribution

$$p(y) = P(Y = y) = q^{y-1}p$$

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**Extra Geometric Distribution Formulas**

A success occurs on or before the  $n$ th trial.

$$P(X \leq n) = 1 - (1 - p)^n$$

A success occurs before the  $n$ th trial.

$$P(X < n) = 1 - (1 - p)^{n-1}$$

A success occurs on or after the  $n$ th trial.

$$P(X \geq n) = (1 - p)^{n-1}$$

A success occurs after the  $n$ th trial.

$$P(X > n) = (1 - p)^n$$

**Theorem 3.8 – Geometric Distribution Expected Value and Variance**

If  $Y$  is a random variable with geometric distribution,

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{1}{p} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = \frac{1 - p}{p^2}$$

**Hypergeometric Distribution**

$$p(y) = P(Y = y) = P(A) = \frac{n_A}{n_S} = \frac{\binom{r}{y} \times \binom{N-r}{n-y}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

**Theorem 3.10 – Hypergeometric Distribution Expected Value and Variance**

If  $Y$  is a random variable with hypergeometric distribution,

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{nr}{N} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = n \left( \frac{r}{N} \right) \left( \frac{N-r}{N} \right) \left( \frac{N-n}{N-1} \right)$$

**Negative Binomial Distribution**

$$p(y) = \binom{y-1}{r-1} p^r q^{y-r}$$

**Theorem 3.9 – Negative Binomial Distribution Expected Value and Variance.**

If  $Y$  is a random variable with negative binomial distribution,

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{r}{p} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = \left( \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2} \right)$$

**Definition 3.11 – Poisson Distribution**

A random variable  $Y$  is said to have *Poisson probability distribution* if and only if,

$$p(y) = \frac{\lambda^y}{y!} e^{-\lambda}, \quad y = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \lambda > 0.$$

**Theorem 3.11 – Poisson Distribution Expected Value and Variance**

If  $Y$  is a random variable possessing a Poisson Distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \lambda \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = \lambda$$

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**Theorem 3.4 – Chebyshev’s Theorem**

Let  $Y$  be a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then, for any constant  $k > 0$ ,

$$P(|Y - \mu| < k\sigma) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{k^2} \text{ or } P(|Y - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

**Definition 4.1 – Distribution Function of  $Y$**

Let  $Y$  denote any random variable. The *distribution function* of  $Y$ , denoted by  $F(y)$ , is such that  $F(y) = P(Y \leq y)$  for  $-\infty < y < \infty$

**Theorem 4.1. – Properties of a distribution function**

If  $F(y)$  is a distribution function, then

1.  $F(-\infty) = \lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} F(y) = 0$ .
2.  $F(\infty) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(y) = 1$ .
3.  $F(y)$  is a nondecreasing function of  $y$ . [If  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  are any values such that  $y_1 < y_2$ , then  $F(y_1) < F(y_2)$ .]

**Definition 4.2 – Random Variable with Distribution Function Continuity**

A random variable  $Y$  with distribution function  $F(y)$  is said to be *continuous* if  $F(y)$  is continuous, for  $-\infty < y < \infty$ .

**Definition 4.3 – Probability Density Function**

Let  $F(y)$  be the distribution function for a continuous random Variable  $Y$ . Then  $f(y)$ , given by

$$f(y) = \frac{dF(y)}{dy} = F'(y)$$

Wherever the derivative exists is called the *probability density function* for the random variable  $Y$ .

**Theorem 4.2 – Properties of a Density Function**

If  $f(y)$  is a density function for a continuous random variable, then

1.  $f(y) \geq 0$  for all  $y, -\infty < y < \infty$ .
2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = 1$ .

**Definition 4.4**

Let  $Y$  denote a random variable. If  $0 < p < 1$ , the  $p$ th quantile of  $Y$ , is denoted by  $\phi_p$ , is the smallest value such that  $P(Y \leq \phi_p) = F(\phi_p) \geq p$ . If  $Y$  the continuous,  $\phi_p$  is the smallest value such that  $F(\phi_p) = P(Y \leq \phi_p) = p$ . Some prefer to call  $\phi_p$  the 100  $p$ th percentile of  $Y$ .

**Theorem 4.3**

If the random variable  $Y$  had the density function  $f(y)$  and  $a < b$ , then the probability tat  $Y$  falls in the interval  $[a, b]$  is

$$P(a \leq Y \leq b) = \int_a^b f(y)dy$$

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**Definition 4.5 – Expected Value of a Continuous Random Variable Y**

The expected value of a continuous random variable Y is

$$E(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yf(y)dy,$$

provided that the integral exists.

**Theorem 4.4 – Expected Value of  $g(Y)$  (Function)**

Let  $g(Y)$  be a function of Y; then the expected value of  $g(Y)$  is given by

$$E[g(Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y)f(y)dy,$$

Provided that the integral exists.

**Variance of Y**

Once  $E(Y^2)$  is determined you can find the variance by,

$$\sigma^2 = V(Y) = E(Y^2) - [E(Y)]^2$$

**Definition 4.6 – Probability Density Function For Uniform Distribution**

If  $\theta_1 < \theta_2$ , a random variable Y is said to have a continuous *uniform probability distribution* on the interval  $(\theta_1, \theta_2)$  if and only if the density function of Y is

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta_2 - \theta_1}, & \theta_1 \leq y \leq \theta_2, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 4.6 – Expected Value and Variance of a Uniform Distribution**

If  $\theta_1 < \theta_2$  and Y is a random variable uniformly distributed on the interval  $(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ , then

$$\mu = E(Y) = \frac{\theta_1 + \theta_2}{2} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = V(Y) = \frac{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)^2}{12}$$

**Definition 4.8 – Normal Probability Distribution**

A random variable Y is said to have a *normal probability distribution* if and only if, for  $\sigma > 0$  and  $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ , the density function of Y is,

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(y-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty,$$

**Theorem 4.7 – Normal Distribution Mean and Variance**

If Y is a normally distributed random variables with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , then,

$$E(Y) = \mu \text{ and } V(Y) = \sigma^2$$

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**Definition 4.9 – Gamma Distribution**

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)} & , \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1, \\ 0, & \text{e. w.} \end{cases}$$

Where,

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$$

**Definition 4.12 – Beta Probability Distribution**

A random variable Y is said to have a *beta probability distribution with parameters  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$*  if and only if the density function of Y is,

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

Where,

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

**Definition 5.1 – Bivariate Probability Function For  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$**

Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be discrete random variables. The *joint (or bivariate) probability function* for  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  is given by

$$p(y_1, y_2) = P(p(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)), \quad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, -\infty < y_2 < \infty.$$

**Theorem 5.1**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are discrete random variables with joint probability function  $p(y_1, y_2)$ , then

1.  $p(y_1, y_2) \geq 0$  for all  $y_1, y_2$ .
2.  $\sum_{y_1, y_2} p(y_1, y_2) = 1$ , where the sum is over all values  $(y_1, y_2)$  that are assigned nonzero probabilities.

**Definition 5.2**

For any random variables  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ , the joint (bivariate) distribution function  $F(y_1, y_2)$  is  $F(y_1, y_2) = P(Y_1 \leq y_1, Y_2 \leq y_2)$ ,  $-\infty < y_1 < \infty, -\infty < y_2 < \infty$ .

**Definition 5.3**

Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be continuous random variables with joint distribution function  $F(y_1, y_2)$ . If there exists a nonnegative function  $f(y_1, y_2)$ , such that,

$$F(y_1, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{y_1} \int_{-\infty}^{y_2} f(t_1, t_2) dt_2 dt_1,$$

for all  $-\infty < y_1 < \infty, -\infty < y_2 < \infty$ , then  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are said to be *jointly continuous random variables*. The function  $f(y_1, y_2)$  is called the *joint probability density function*.

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**Theorem 5.2**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are random variables with joint distribution function,  $F(y_1, y_2)$ , then,  
 $F(-\infty, -\infty) = F(-\infty, y_2) = F(y_1, -\infty) = 0$ .

2.  $F(\infty, \infty) = 1$ .

3. If  $y_1^* \geq y_1$  and  $y_2^* \geq y_2$  then

$$F(y_1^*, y_2^*) - F(y_1^*, y_2) - F(y_1, y_2^*) + F(y_1, y_2) \geq 0.$$

**Theorem 5.2**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are jointly continuous random variables with a joint density function given by  $f(y_1, y_2)$ , then

1.  $f(y_1, y_2) \geq 0$  for all  $y_1, y_2$ .

2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_1 dy_2 = 1$ .

**Definition 5.4**

- a. Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be jointly discrete random variables with probability function  $p(y_1, y_2)$ .  
The *marginal probability functions* of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ , respectively, are given by,

$$p_1(y_1) = \sum_{\text{all } y_2} p(y_1, y_2) \text{ and } p_2(y_2) = \sum_{\text{all } y_1} p(y_1, y_2).$$

- b. Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be jointly continuous random variables with joint density function  $f(y_1, y_2)$ . Then the *marginal density functions* of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ , respectively, are given by,

$$f_1(y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_2 \text{ and } f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_1.$$

**Definition 5.5**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are jointly discrete random variables with joint probability function  $p(y_1, y_2)$  and marginal probability functions  $p_1(y_1)$  and  $p_2(y_2)$ , respectively then the *conditional discrete probability function* of  $Y_1$  given  $Y_2$  is

$$p(y_1|y_2) = P(Y_1 = y_1|Y_2 = y_2) = \frac{P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)}{P(Y_2 = y_2)} = \frac{p(y_1, y_2)}{p_2(y_2)},$$

Provided that  $p_2(y_2) > 0$ .

**Definition 5.6**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are jointly continuous random variables with joint density function  $f(y_1, y_2)$ , then the *conditional distribution function*  $Y_1$  given  $Y_2 = y_2$  is,

$$F(y_1|y_2) = P(Y_1 \leq y_1|Y_2 = y_2).$$

**Definition 5.7**

Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be jointly continuous random variables with joint density  $f(y_1, y_2)$  and marginal densities  $f_1(y_1)$  and  $f_2(y_2)$ , respectively. For any  $y_2$  such that  $f_2(y_2) > 0$ , the conditional density of  $Y_1$  given  $Y_2 = y_2$  is given by

$$f(y_1|y_2) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)}$$

And, for any  $y_1$  such that  $f_1(y_1) > 0$ , the conditional density of  $Y_2$  given  $Y_1 = y_1$  is given by



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$$f(y_2|y_1) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)}.$$

**Definition 5.8**

Let  $Y_1$  have distribution function  $F_1(y_1)$ ,  $Y_2$  have distribution function  $F_2(y_2)$ , and  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  have joint distribution function  $F(y_1, y_2)$ . Then  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are said to be *independent* if and only if

$$F(y_1, y_2) = F_1(y_1)F_2(y_2)$$

for every pair of real numbers  $(y_1, y_2)$ .

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are not independent, they are said to be *dependent*.

**Theorem 5.4**

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are discrete random variables with joint probability function  $p(y_1, y_2)$  and marginal probability functions  $p_1(y_1)$  and  $p_2(y_2)$ , respectively, then  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are independent if and only if

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p_1(y_1)p_2(y_2)$$

For all pairs of real numbers  $(y_1, y_2)$ .

If  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are continuous random variables with joint density function  $f(y_1, y_2)$  and marginal density functions  $f_1(y_1)$  and  $F_2(y_2)$ , respectively, then  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are independent if and only if

$$f(y_1, y_2) = f_1(y_1)f_2(y_2)$$

For all pairs of real numbers  $(y_1, y_2)$ .

**Theorem 5.5**

Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  have a joint density  $f(y_1, y_2)$  that is positive If and only if  $a \leq y_1 \leq b$  and  $c \leq y_2 \leq d$ , for constants  $a, b, c$  and  $d$ ; and  $f(y_1, y_2) = 0$  otherwise. Then  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are independent random variables if and only if

$$f(y_1, y_2) = g(y_1)h(y_2)$$

Where  $g(y_1)$  is a nonnegative function of  $y_1$  alone and  $h(y_2)$  is a nonnegative function of  $y_2$  alone.