

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sample. The **sample mean** is

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sample. The **sample variance** is the quantity

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

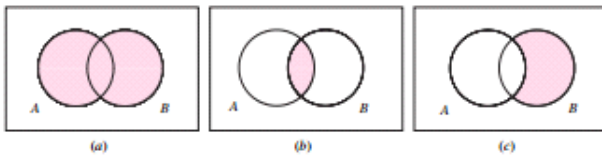
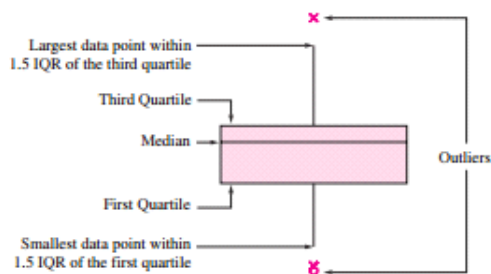
Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sample. The **sample standard deviation** is the quantity

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

- If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is a sample and  $Y_i = a + bX_i$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, then  $\bar{Y} = a + b\bar{X}$ .
- If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is a sample and  $Y_i = a + bX_i$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, then  $s_Y^2 = b^2 s_X^2$ , and  $s_Y = |b| s_X$ .

If  $n$  numbers are ordered from smallest to largest:

- If  $n$  is odd, the sample median is the number in position  $\frac{n+1}{2}$ .
- If  $n$  is even, the sample median is the average of the numbers in positions  $\frac{n}{2}$  and  $\frac{n}{2} + 1$ .



(a)  $A \cup B$ , (b)  $A \cap B$ , (c)  $B \cap A^c$ .

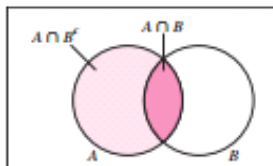
- The events  $A$  and  $B$  are said to be **mutually exclusive** if they have no outcomes in common.
- More generally, a collection of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  is said to be mutually exclusive if no two of them have any outcomes in common.

#### The Axioms of Probability

1. Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a sample space. Then  $P(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ .
2. For any event  $A$ ,  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ .
3. If  $A$  and  $B$  are mutually exclusive events, then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ . More generally, if  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are mutually exclusive events, then  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots$ .

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be any events. Then

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



The number of permutations of  $n$  objects is  $n!$ .

The number of permutations of  $k$  objects chosen from a group of  $n$  objects is

$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

The number of combinations of  $k$  objects chosen from a group of  $n$  objects

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

The number of ways of dividing a group of  $n$  objects into groups of  $k_1, \dots, k_r$  objects, where  $k_1 + \dots + k_r = n$ , is

$$\frac{n!}{k_1! \dots k_r!} \quad (2.13)$$

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be events with  $P(B) \neq 0$ . The conditional probability of  $A$  given  $B$  is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \quad (2.14)$$



Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are **independent** if the probability of each event remains the same whether or not the other occurs.

In symbols: If  $P(A) \neq 0$  and  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then  $A$  and  $B$  are independent if

$$P(B|A) = P(B) \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad P(A|B) = P(A) \quad (2.15)$$

If either  $P(A) = 0$  or  $P(B) = 0$ , then  $A$  and  $B$  are independent.

Events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are independent if the probability of each remains the same no matter which of the others occur.

In symbols: Events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are independent if for each  $A_i$ , and each collection  $A_{j_1}, \dots, A_{j_m}$  of events with  $P(A_{j_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_m}) \neq 0$ ,

$$P(A_i | A_{j_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_m}) = P(A_i) \quad (2.16)$$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are two events with  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B)P(A|B) \quad (2.17)$$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are two events with  $P(A) \neq 0$ , then

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B|A) \quad (2.18)$$

If  $P(A) \neq 0$  and  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then Equations (2.17) and (2.18) both hold.

If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent events, then

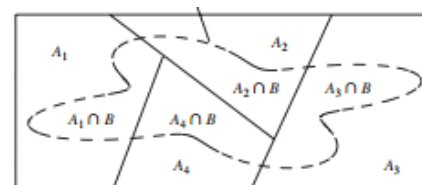
$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) \quad (2.19)$$

This result can be extended to any number of events. If  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are independent events, then for each collection  $A_{j_1}, \dots, A_{j_m}$  of events

$$P(A_{j_1} \cap A_{j_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_m}) = P(A_{j_1})P(A_{j_2}) \dots P(A_{j_m}) \quad (2.20)$$

In particular,

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2) \dots P(A_n) \quad (2.21)$$



#### Law of Total Probability

If  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, and  $B$  is any event, then

$$P(B) = P(A_1 \cap B) + \dots + P(A_n \cap B) \quad (2.23)$$

Equivalently, if  $P(A_i) \neq 0$  for each  $A_i$ ,

$$P(B) = P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + \dots + P(B|A_n)P(A_n) \quad (2.24)$$

**Bayes' Rule**

**Special Case:** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be events with  $P(A) \neq 0$ ,  $P(A^c) \neq 0$ , and  $P(B) \neq 0$ . Then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^c)P(A^c)} \quad (2.27)$$

**General Case:** Let  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be mutually exclusive and exhaustive events with  $P(A_i) \neq 0$  for each  $A_i$ . Let  $B$  be any event with  $P(B) \neq 0$ . Then

$$P(A_k|B) = \frac{P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i)P(A_i)} \quad (2.28)$$

Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable. Then

- The probability mass function of  $X$  is the function  $p(x) = P(X = x)$ .
- The cumulative distribution function of  $X$  is the function  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ .
- $F(x) = \sum_{t \leq x} p(t) = \sum_{t \leq x} P(X = t)$ .
- $\sum_x p(x) = \sum_x P(X = x) = 1$ , where the sum is over all the possible values of  $X$ .

Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with probability mass function  $p(x) = P(X = x)$ .

The mean of  $X$  is given by

$$\mu_X = \sum_x x P(X = x) \quad (2.29)$$

where the sum is over all possible values of  $X$ .

The mean of  $X$  is sometimes called the expectation, or expected value, of  $X$  and may also be denoted by  $E(X)$  or by  $\mu$ .

Let  $X$  be a discrete random variable with probability mass function  $p(x) = P(X = x)$ . Then

- The variance of  $X$  is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \sum_x (x - \mu_X)^2 P(X = x) \quad (2.30)$$

- An alternate formula for the variance is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \sum_x x^2 P(X = x) - \mu_X^2 \quad (2.31)$$

- The variance of  $X$  may also be denoted by  $V(X)$  or by  $\sigma^2$ .
- The standard deviation is the square root of the variance:  $\sigma_X = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2}$ .

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Let  $a$  and  $b$  be any two numbers, with  $a < b$ . Then

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X \leq b) = P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

In addition,

$$P(X \leq b) = P(X < b) = \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx \quad (2.32)$$

$$P(X \geq a) = P(X > a) = \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \quad (2.33)$$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . The cumulative distribution function of  $X$  is the function

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \quad (2.34)$$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then the mean of  $X$  is given by

$$\mu_X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \quad (2.35)$$

The mean of  $X$  is sometimes called the expectation, or expected value, of  $X$  and may also be denoted by  $E(X)$  or by  $\mu$ .

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then

- The variance of  $X$  is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^2 f(x) dx \quad (2.36)$$

- An alternate formula for the variance is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \mu_X^2 \quad (2.37)$$

- The variance of  $X$  may also be denoted by  $V(X)$  or by  $\sigma^2$ .
- The standard deviation is the square root of the variance:  $\sigma_X = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2}$ .

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . The cumulative distribution function of  $X$  is the function

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \quad (2.34)$$

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then the mean of  $X$  is given by

$$\mu_X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \quad (2.35)$$

The mean of  $X$  is sometimes called the expectation, or expected value, of  $X$  and may also be denoted by  $E(X)$  or by  $\mu$ .

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f(x)$ . Then

- The variance of  $X$  is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_X)^2 f(x) dx \quad (2.36)$$

- An alternate formula for the variance is given by

$$\sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \mu_X^2 \quad (2.37)$$

- The variance of  $X$  may also be denoted by  $V(X)$  or by  $\sigma^2$ .
- The standard deviation is the square root of the variance:  $\sigma_X = \sqrt{\sigma_X^2}$ .

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with probability mass function  $f(x)$  and cumulative distribution function  $F(x)$ .

- The median of  $X$  is the point  $x_m$  that solves the equation  $F(x_m) = P(X \leq x_m) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_m} f(x) dx = 0.5$ .
- If  $p$  is any number between 0 and 100, the  $p$ th percentile is the point  $x_p$  that solves the equation  $F(x_p) = P(X \leq x_p) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_p} f(x) dx = p/100$ .
- The median is the 50th percentile.

**Chebyshev's Inequality**

Let  $X$  be a random variable with mean  $\mu_X$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_X$ . Then

$$P(|X - \mu_X| \geq k\sigma_X) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

If  $X$  is a random variable and  $a$  is a constant, then

$$\mu_{aX} = a\mu_X$$

If  $X$  is a random variable and  $a$  is a constant, then

$$\sigma_{aX}^2 = a^2\sigma_X^2$$

$$\sigma_{aX} = |a|\sigma_X$$

If  $X$  is a random variable, and  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, then

$$\mu_{aX+b} = a\mu_X + b$$

$$\sigma_{aX+b}^2 = a^2\sigma_X^2$$

$$\sigma_{aX+b} = |a|\sigma_X$$

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables, then the mean of the sum  $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  is given by

$$\mu_{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n} = \mu_{X_1} + \mu_{X_2} + \dots + \mu_{X_n} \quad (2.47)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are random variables, and  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, then

$$\mu_{aX+bY} = a\mu_X + b\mu_Y = a\mu_X + b\mu_Y \quad (2.48)$$

More generally, if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then the mean of the linear combination  $c_1X_1 + c_2X_2 + \dots + c_nX_n$  is given by

$$\mu_{c_1X_1+c_2X_2+\dots+c_nX_n} = c_1\mu_{X_1} + c_2\mu_{X_2} + \dots + c_n\mu_{X_n} \quad (2.49)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent** random variables, and  $S$  and  $T$  are sets of numbers, then

$$P(X \in S \text{ and } Y \in T) = P(X \in S)P(Y \in T) \quad (2.50)$$

More generally, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables, and  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  are sets, then

$$P(X_1 \in S_1 \text{ and } X_2 \in S_2 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } X_n \in S_n) = P(X_1 \in S_1)P(X_2 \in S_2) \dots P(X_n \in S_n) \quad (2.51)$$

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are **independent** random variables and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then the variance of the linear combination  $c_1X_1 + c_2X_2 + \dots + c_nX_n$  is given by

$$\sigma_{c_1X_1+c_2X_2+\dots+c_nX_n}^2 = c_1^2\sigma_{X_1}^2 + c_2^2\sigma_{X_2}^2 + \dots + c_n^2\sigma_{X_n}^2 \quad (2.53)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent** random variables with variances  $\sigma_X^2$  and  $\sigma_Y^2$ , then the variance of the sum  $X + Y$  is

$$\sigma_{X+Y}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 \quad (2.54)$$

The variance of the difference  $X - Y$  is

$$\sigma_{X-Y}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 \quad (2.55)$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is a simple random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is a random variable with

$$\mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu \quad (2.56)$$

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \quad (2.57)$$

The standard deviation of  $\bar{X}$  is

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (2.58)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly discrete random variables:

- The joint probability mass function of  $X$  and  $Y$  is the function

$$p(x, y) = P(X = x \text{ and } Y = y)$$

- The marginal probability mass functions of  $X$  and of  $Y$  can be obtained from the joint probability mass function as follows:

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_y p(x, y) \quad p_Y(y) = P(Y = y) = \sum_x p(x, y)$$

where the sums are taken over all the possible values of  $Y$  and of  $X$ , respectively.

- The joint probability mass function has the property that

$$\sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) = 1$$

where the sum is taken over all the possible values of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly continuous random variables, with joint probability density function  $f(x, y)$ , and  $a < b$ ,  $c < d$ , then

$$P(a \leq X \leq b \text{ and } c \leq Y \leq d) = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx$$

The joint probability density function has the following properties:

$$f(x, y) \geq 0 \text{ for all } x \text{ and } y$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy dx = 1$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly continuous with joint probability density function  $f(x, y)$ , then the marginal probability density functions of  $X$  and of  $Y$  are given, respectively, by

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$

Let  $X$  be a random variable, and let  $h(X)$  be a function of  $X$ . Then

- If  $X$  is discrete with probability mass function  $p(x)$ , the mean of  $h(X)$  is given by

$$\mu_{h(X)} = \sum_x h(x)p(x) \quad (2.59)$$

where the sum is taken over all the possible values of  $X$ .

- If  $X$  is continuous with probability density function  $f(x)$ , the mean of  $h(X)$  is given by

$$\mu_{h(X)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x)f(x) dx \quad (2.60)$$

If  $X$  is a random variable, and  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, then

$$\mu_{aX+b} = a\mu_X + b \quad (2.61)$$

$$\sigma_{aX+b}^2 = a^2\sigma_X^2 \quad (2.62)$$

$$\sigma_{aX+b} = |a|\sigma_X \quad (2.63)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly distributed random variables, and  $h(X, Y)$  is a function of  $X$  and  $Y$ , then

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly discrete with joint probability mass function  $p(x, y)$ ,

$$\mu_{h(X,Y)} = \sum_x \sum_y h(x, y)p(x, y) \quad (2.64)$$

where the sum is taken over all the possible values of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly continuous with joint probability density function  $f(x, y)$ ,

$$\mu_{h(X,Y)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x, y)f(x, y) dx dy \quad (2.65)$$

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be jointly discrete random variables, with joint probability mass function  $p(x, y)$ . Let  $p_X(x)$  denote the marginal probability mass function of  $X$  and let  $x$  be any number for which  $p_X(x) > 0$ .

The conditional probability mass function of  $Y$  given  $X = x$  is

$$p_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_X(x)} \quad (2.66)$$

Note that for any particular values of  $x$  and  $y$ , the value of  $p_{Y|X}(y|x)$  is just the conditional probability  $P(Y = y | X = x)$ .

The conditional probability density function of  $Y$  given  $X = x$  is

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)} \quad (2.67)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly discrete, and  $x$  is a value for which  $p_X(x) > 0$ , then

$$p_{Y|X}(y|x) = p_Y(y)$$

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly continuous, and  $x$  is a value for which  $f_X(x) > 0$ , then

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_Y(y)$$

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables with means  $\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Y$ . The covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mu_{(X-\mu_X)(Y-\mu_Y)} \quad \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mu_{XY} - \mu_X\mu_Y$$

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be jointly distributed random variables with standard deviations  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ . The correlation between  $X$  and  $Y$  is denoted  $\rho_{X,Y}$  and is given by

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X\sigma_Y} \quad (2.70)$$

For any two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$-1 \leq \rho_{X,Y} \leq 1$$

For any random variable  $X$ ,  $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \sigma_X^2$  and  $\rho_{X,X} = 1$ .

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are random variables and  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then

$$\mu_{c_1X_1+\dots+c_nX_n} = c_1\mu_{X_1} + \dots + c_n\mu_{X_n} \quad (2.71)$$

$$\sigma_{c_1X_1+\dots+c_nX_n}^2 = c_1^2\sigma_{X_1}^2 + \dots + c_n^2\sigma_{X_n}^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n c_i c_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \quad (2.72)$$

$$\sigma_{X+Y}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 + 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$\sigma_{X-Y}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 - 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$



If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables and  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then

$$\sigma_{c_1 X_1 + \dots + c_n X_n}^2 = c_1^2 \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \dots + c_n^2 \sigma_{X_n}^2 \quad (2.73)$$

In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{X+Y}^2 &= \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 & \sigma_{X_1 + \dots + X_n}^2 &= \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \dots + \sigma_{X_n}^2 \\ \sigma_{X-Y}^2 &= \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 \end{aligned} \quad (2.74)$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is a simple random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is a random variable with

$$\mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu \quad (2.79)$$

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \quad (2.80)$$

The standard deviation of  $\bar{X}$  is

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (2.81)$$

If  $X$  is a measurement and  $c$  is a constant, then

$$\sigma_{cX} = |c| \sigma_X \quad (3.3)$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent measurements and  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then

$$\sigma_{c_1 X_1 + \dots + c_n X_n} = \sqrt{c_1^2 \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \dots + c_n^2 \sigma_{X_n}^2} \quad (3.4)$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are  $n$  independent measurements, each with mean  $\mu$  and uncertainty  $\sigma$ , then the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is a measurement with mean

$$\mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu \quad (3.5)$$

and with uncertainty

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (3.6)$$

If  $X$  is a measurement whose uncertainty  $\sigma_X$  is small, and if  $U$  is a function of  $X$ , then

$$\sigma_U \approx \left| \frac{dU}{dX} \right| \sigma_X \quad (3.10)$$

In practice, we evaluate the derivative  $dU/dX$  at the observed measurement  $X$ .

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent measurements whose uncertainties  $\sigma_{X_1}, \sigma_{X_2}, \dots, \sigma_{X_n}$  are small, and if  $U = U(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  is a function of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , then

$$\sigma_U \approx \sqrt{\left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_1} \right)^2 \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_2} \right)^2 \sigma_{X_2}^2 + \dots + \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_n} \right)^2 \sigma_{X_n}^2} \quad (3.12)$$

In practice, we evaluate the partial derivatives at the point  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ .

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are measurements whose uncertainties  $\sigma_{X_1}, \sigma_{X_2}, \dots, \sigma_{X_n}$  are small, and if  $U = U(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  is a function of  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ , then a conservative estimate of  $\sigma_U$  is given by

$$\sigma_U \leq \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_1} \right| \sigma_{X_1} + \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_2} \right| \sigma_{X_2} + \dots + \left| \frac{\partial U}{\partial X_n} \right| \sigma_{X_n} \quad (3.13)$$

In practice, we evaluate the partial derivatives at the point  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ .

The inequality (3.13) is valid in almost all practical situations; in principle it can fail if some of the second partial derivatives of  $U$  are quite large.

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are measurements whose relative uncertainties are  $\sigma_{X_1}/X_1, \dots, \sigma_{X_n}/X_n$ , and  $U = X_1^{m_1} \dots X_n^{m_n}$ , where  $m_1, \dots, m_n$  are any exponents, then the relative uncertainty in  $U$  is

$$\frac{\sigma_U}{U} = \sqrt{\left( m_1 \frac{\sigma_{X_1}}{X_1} \right)^2 + \dots + \left( m_n \frac{\sigma_{X_n}}{X_n} \right)^2} \quad (3.14)$$

If  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ , then

$$\mu_X = p$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = p(1-p)$$

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , then

$$\mu_X = np$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = np(1-p)$$

If a total of  $n$  Bernoulli trials are conducted, and

- The trials are independent
- Each trial has the same success probability  $p$
- $X$  is the number of successes in the  $n$  trials

then  $X$  has the binomial distribution with parameters  $n$  and  $p$ , denoted  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , the probability mass function of  $X$  is

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} & x = 0, 1, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , then the sample proportion  $\hat{p} = X/n$  is used to estimate success probability  $p$ .

- $\hat{p}$  is unbiased.
- The uncertainty in  $\hat{p}$  is

$$\sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} \quad (4)$$

In practice, when computing  $\sigma_{\hat{p}}$ , we substitute  $\hat{p}$  for  $p$ , since  $p$  is unknown.

If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ , then

- $X$  is a discrete random variable whose possible values are the non-negative integers.
- The parameter  $\lambda$  is a positive constant.
- The probability mass function of  $X$  is

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} & \text{if } x \text{ is a non-negative integer} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- The Poisson probability mass function is very close to the binomial probability mass function when  $n$  is large,  $p$  is small, and  $\lambda = np$ .

If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ , then

we estimate the rate  $\lambda$  with  $\hat{\lambda} = \frac{X}{t}$ .

$$\mu_X = \lambda$$

The uncertainty in  $\hat{\lambda}$  is  $\sigma_{\hat{\lambda}} = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{t}}$

$$\sigma_X^2 = \lambda$$

$X \sim \text{H}(N, R, n)$ .

If  $X \sim \text{H}(N, R, n)$ , then

$$\mu_X = \frac{nR}{N}$$

$$p(x) = \frac{\binom{R}{x} \binom{N-R}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = n \left( \frac{R}{N} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{R}{N} \right) \left( \frac{N-n}{N-1} \right)$$

If  $X \sim \text{Geom}(p)$ , then

$$p(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1} \quad x = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\mu_X = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

If  $X \sim \text{NB}(r, p)$ , then

$$\mu_X = \frac{r}{p}$$

$$p(x) = \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r} \quad x = r, r+1, \dots$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$$

If  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$

<p><b>PDF</b></p> $f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$ $\mu_X = \frac{1}{\lambda}$	<p><b>CDF</b></p> $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$ $\sigma_X^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$
---	--

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

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

$$\mu_X = \mu$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = \sigma^2$$

$$z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$$

Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , and let  $a \neq 0$  and  $b$  be constants. Then

$$aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2). \quad (4.25)$$

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent and normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \quad (4.27)$$

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent, with  $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ . Then

$$X + Y \sim N(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2) \quad (4.28)$$

$$X - Y \sim N(\mu_X - \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2) \quad (4.29)$$

### The Central Limit Theorem

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a simple random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Let  $\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$  be the sample mean.

Let  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$  be the sum of the sample observations.

Then if  $n$  is sufficiently large,

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \quad \text{approximately} \quad (4.55)$$

and

$$S_n \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2) \quad \text{approximately} \quad (4.56)$$

If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , and if  $np > 10$  and  $n(1-p) > 10$ , then

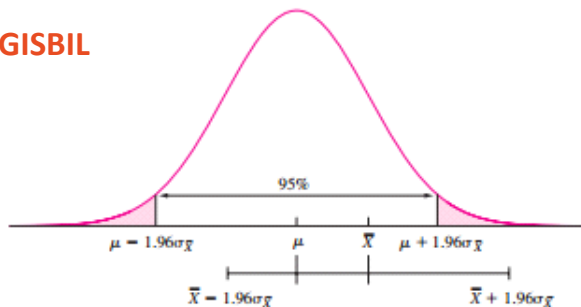
$$X \sim N(np, np(1-p)) \quad \text{approximately}$$

$$\hat{p} \sim N\left(p, \frac{p(1-p)}{n}\right) \quad \text{approximately}$$

If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ , where  $\lambda > 10$ , then

$$X \sim N(\lambda, \lambda) \quad \text{approximately}$$

## ÖRYGGISBIL



Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a *large* ( $n > 30$ ) random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , so that  $\bar{X}$  is approximately normal. Then a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu$  is

$$\bar{X} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sigma_{\bar{X}} \quad (5.1)$$

where  $\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ . When the value of  $\sigma$  is unknown, it can be replaced with the sample standard deviation  $s$ .

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a *large* ( $n > 30$ ) random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , so that  $\bar{X}$  is approximately normal. Then level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  lower confidence bound for  $\mu$  is

$$\bar{X} - z_{\alpha} \sigma_{\bar{X}} \quad (5.2)$$

and level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  upper confidence bound for  $\mu$  is

$$\bar{X} + z_{\alpha} \sigma_{\bar{X}} \quad (5.3)$$

where  $\sigma_{\bar{X}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ . When the value of  $\sigma$  is unknown, it can be replaced with the sample standard deviation  $s$ .

Let  $X$  be the number of successes in  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials with success probability  $p$ , so that  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .

Define  $\tilde{n} = n + 4$ , and  $\tilde{p} = \frac{X + 2}{\tilde{n}}$ . Then a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $p$  is

$$\tilde{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\tilde{p}(1-\tilde{p})}{\tilde{n}}} \quad (5.5)$$

If the lower limit is less than 0, replace it with 0. If the upper limit is greater than 1, replace it with 1.

$$\text{T-dreifingu} = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \quad \text{Öryggisbil} = \bar{X} \pm t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Use  $z$ , Not  $t$ , if  $\sigma$  Is Known

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent, with  $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ . Then

$$\text{Stór úrtak: } X + Y \sim N(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2) \quad (5.14)$$

$$X - Y \sim N(\mu_X - \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2) \quad (5.15)$$

$$\text{Öryggisbil: } \bar{X} - \bar{Y} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n_Y}}$$

Hlutföll:

a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for the difference  $p_X - p_Y$  is

$$\bar{p}_X - \bar{p}_Y \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\bar{p}_X(1-\bar{p}_X)}{\bar{n}_X} + \frac{\bar{p}_Y(1-\bar{p}_Y)}{\bar{n}_Y}} \quad (5.18)$$

Lítill úrtak:

$$\frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) - (\mu_X - \mu_Y)}{\sqrt{s_X^2/n_X + s_Y^2/n_Y}} \quad v = \frac{\left(\frac{s_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_Y^2}{n_Y}\right)^2}{\frac{(s_X^2/n_X)^2}{n_X - 1} + \frac{(s_Y^2/n_Y)^2}{n_Y - 1}}$$

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_{n_X}$  be a random sample of size  $n_X$  from a *normal* population with mean  $\mu_X$ , and let  $Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_Y}$  be a random sample of size  $n_Y$  from a *normal* population with mean  $\mu_Y$ . Assume the two samples are independent.

If the populations are known to have nearly the same variance, a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu_X - \mu_Y$  is

$$\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \pm t_{n_X+n_Y-2, \alpha/2} \cdot s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_X} + \frac{1}{n_Y}} \quad (5.22)$$

The quantity  $s_p$  is the pooled standard deviation, given by

$$s_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_X - 1)s_X^2 + (n_Y - 1)s_Y^2}{n_X + n_Y - 2}} \quad (5.23)$$

Let  $D_1, \dots, D_n$  be a *small* random sample ( $n \leq 30$ ) of differences of pairs. If the population of differences is approximately normal, then a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for the mean difference  $\mu_D$  is given by

$$\bar{D} \pm t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s_D}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (5.24)$$

where  $s_D$  is the sample standard deviation of  $D_1, \dots, D_n$ . Note that this interval is the same as that given by expression (5.9).

If the sample size is large, a level  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for the mean difference  $\mu_D$  is given by

$$\bar{D} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sigma_{\bar{D}} \quad (5.25)$$

In practice  $\sigma_{\bar{D}}$  is approximated with  $s_D/\sqrt{n}$ . Note that this interval is the same as that given by expression (5.1).

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sample from a *normal* population. Let  $Y$  be another item to be sampled from this population, whose value has not been observed. A  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  prediction interval for  $Y$  is

$$\bar{X} \pm t_{n-1, \alpha/2} s \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \quad (5.26)$$

The probability is  $1-\alpha$  that the value of  $Y$  will be contained in this interval.

### Steps in Performing a Hypothesis Test

1. Define  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ .
2. Assume  $H_0$  to be true.
3. Compute a **test statistic**. A test statistic is a statistic that is used to assess the strength of the evidence against  $H_0$ .
4. Compute the  $P$ -value of the test statistic. The  $P$ -value is the probability, assuming  $H_0$  to be true, that the test statistic would have a value whose disagreement with  $H_0$  is as great as or greater than that actually observed. The  $P$ -value is also called the **observed significance level**.
5. State a conclusion about the strength of the evidence against  $H_0$ .

### Summary

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a *large* (e.g.,  $n > 30$ ) sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ .

To test a null hypothesis of the form  $H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$ ,  $H_0: \mu \geq \mu_0$ , or  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ :

- Compute the  $z$ -score:  $z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ .  
If  $\sigma$  is unknown it may be approximated with  $s$ .

- Compute the  $P$ -value. The  $P$ -value is an area under the normal curve, which depends on the alternate hypothesis as follows:

#### Alternate Hypothesis

$$H_1: \mu > \mu_0$$

$$H_1: \mu < \mu_0$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

#### $P$ -value

Area to the right of  $z$

Area to the left of  $z$

Sum of the areas in the tails cut off by  $z$  and  $-z$