

# Math Refresher: Basic Statistics and Probability

## Random Variables

A random variable is a variable whose value is determined by the outcome of a random experiment. For example, if we toss a coin, the outcome is random, but the possible values of  $X$  are 0 and 1. If we roll a die, the outcome is random with possible values 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

There are two kinds of random variables:

- **Discrete random variables** can only take on a finite number of values. For example, the number of heads in 10 coin tosses is a discrete random variable.
- **Continuous random variables** can take on any value in a range. For example, the height of a randomly selected person is a continuous random variable.

If  $X$  is discrete random variable, then  $P(X = c)$  is the probability that  $X$  takes on the value  $c$ . It can be any value between 0 and 1.

By definition, the sum of all probabilities for all feasible values of  $X$  is 1. That is,  $\sum_c P(X = c) = 1$ .

If  $X$  is continuous random variable, then  $P(X = c) = 0$  for any value  $c$ . The probability to observe a particular number is zero. Instead, when using continuous data, we focus on the probability of observing a value in a range. For example,  $P(1.7 \leq X \leq 1.8)$  is the probability that  $X$  is between 1.7 and 1.8, which can be any value between 0 and 1.

## Probability Distributions

A probability distribution is a function that assigns probabilities to the values of a random variable. For discrete random variables, we can use a table to describe the probability distribution. For example, the probability distribution of the number of heads in 5 coin tosses is:

Number of heads	Probability
0	0.03125
1	0.15625
2	0.3125
3	0.3125
4	0.15625
5	0.03125

In this case, the sum of all probabilities is 1.

For continuous random variables, we can use a function to describe the probability distribution. For example, we can say that the probability distribution of the height of a randomly selected person is:

$$f(x)$$

This function has important properties:

- $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$ .
- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$ .
- $P(X \leq a) + P(X > a) = 1$ .
- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(X < b) - P(X < a)$ .

## Joint Probability Distributions

The joint probability distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$  is a function that assigns probabilities to the values of  $X$  and  $Y$ . For discrete random variables, we can use a table to describe the joint probability distribution. For continuous variables, it must be the case that:

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

## Marginal Probability Distributions

The marginal probability distribution of  $X$  is the probability distribution of  $X$  ignoring the values of  $Y$ . This can be expressed as:

$$P(x) = \sum_{z=-\infty}^{\infty} P(x, y = z)$$

it still must be the case that

$$\sum_{w=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{z=-\infty}^{\infty} P(x = w, y = z) = 1$$

For continuous random variables, we have the following

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

where  $f(x)$  is the marginal probability distribution of  $X$ . What is left after we “integrate out”  $Y$  is the marginal probability distribution of  $X$ .

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

## Independence

Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if:

$$P(x, y) = P(x)P(y) \text{ or } f(x, y) = f(x) * f(y)$$

## Conditional Probability

The conditional probability of  $X$  given  $Y$  is:

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(x, y)}{P(y)}$$

or, the conditional probability density function:

$$f(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f(y)}$$

And if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then:

$$P(x|y) = P(x) \text{ or } f(x|y) = f(x).$$

## Mean, and variance

The mean of a random variable  $X$  is:

$$E(X) = \sum_x xP(x)$$

or

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$

Which is a weighted sum of all possible values of  $X$ , and where the weights are the probabilities (or densities) of each value. It can also be written or referred as:

$$E(X), \mu_x, \bar{x}$$

This measure is also called the **expected value** of  $X$ , and provides a measure of the “center” of the distribution of  $X$ . It can be very sensitive to outliers.

The variance of a random variable  $X$  is:

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$

$$Var(X) = \sum_x (X - E(X))^2 P(x)$$

or

$$Var(X) = \int_x (X - E(X))^2 f(x)dx$$

Which is the expected value of the squared difference between  $X$  and its mean. It provides a measure of average the “spread” of the distribution of  $X$ .

It could also be defined as follows:

$$\sigma_x^2 = Var(x) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

There are other measures that can be used to characterize a distribution, such as the median, the mode, the skewness, and the kurtosis. They are defined as follows:

- The **median** is the value of  $X$  such that  $P(X \leq x) = 0.5$ .
- The **mode** is the value of  $X$  that maximizes  $P(X = x)$ .
- The **skewness** is a measure of the asymmetry of the distribution of  $X$ . It is defined as:

$$\frac{E[(X - E(X))^3]}{[Var(X)]^{3/2}}$$

- The **kurtosis** is a measure of the “peakedness” of the distribution of  $X$ . It is defined as:

$$\frac{E[(X - E(X))^4]}{[Var(X)]^2}$$

- The **quantiles** of a distribution are values that divide the distribution into equal parts. For example, the 0.25 quantile is the value of  $X$  such that  $P(X \leq x) = 0.25$ .

For a **normal distribution**, the mean, median, and mode are all equal. The skewness is 0, and the kurtosis is 3.

## Covariance and Correlation

The covariance of two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  is:

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = \sum_x \sum_y (x - E(X))(y - E(Y))P(x, y)$$

$$Cov(X, Y) = \int_x \int_y (x - E(X))(y - E(Y))f(x, y)$$

The covariance measures the **linear** association between  $X$  and  $Y$ . If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $Cov(X, Y) = 0$ . However, if  $Cov(X, Y) = 0$ , then  $X$  and  $Y$  are not necessarily independent. For example  $y = (x - E(X))^2$  and  $x$  are not independent, but  $Cov(y, x) = 0$ .

This measure is scale dependent. For example, if we measure  $X$  in meters, and  $Y$  in centimeters, then  $Cov(X, Y)$  will be 100 times larger than if we measure  $X$  in meters and  $Y$  in kilometers.

An alternative measure of association is the correlation coefficient, which is defined as:

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\sigma_{X,Y}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

This statistics is always between -1 and 1, regardless of the scale of  $x$  or  $y$ .

## Properties of Mean, Variance and Covariance

Consider two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , and let  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  be constants. Then:

- $Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$
- $Cov(aX + b, cY + d) = ac Cov(X, Y)$
- $Var(aX + bY) = a^2 Var(X) + b^2 Var(Y) + 2ab Cov(X, Y)$
- $Cov(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$
- $Cov(X, X) = Var(X)$

For the mean:

- $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$
- $E(aX + bY) = aE(X) + bE(Y)$

## Some useful distributions

### Discrete distributions

- **Bernoulli distribution:**  $X \sim Bernoulli(p)$ , where  $p = P(X = 1)$  and  $1-p = P(X = 0)$ .  $E(X) = p$  and variance  $Var(X) = p(1-p)$ . Flip a coin with probability  $p$  of getting heads.
- **Binomial distribution:**  $X \sim Binomial(n, p)$ , where  $p = P(X = 1)$  and  $1-p = P(X = 0)$ .  $E(X) = np$  and  $Var(X) = np(1-p)$ . The binomial distribution is the distribution of the number of successes in  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials.
- **Poisson distribution:**  $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ , where  $\lambda = E(X) = Var(X)$ . Typically used for counts. For example, the number of customers arriving at a store in a given hour.

### Continuous distributions

- **Uniform distribution:**  $X \sim Uniform(a, b)$ , where  $f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$  for  $a \leq x \leq b$ , and  $f(x) = 0$  otherwise.  $E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$  and  $Var(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ . Time between bus arrivals.
- **Normal distribution:**  $X \sim Normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .  $E(X) = \mu$  and  $Var(X) = \sigma^2$ . For example, the height of a randomly selected person.
- **t-distribution:**  $X \sim t(\nu)$ , where  $f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+1}{2})}{\sqrt{\nu\pi}\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} (1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu})^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}}$ .  $E(X) = 0$  if  $\nu > 1$ , and  $Var(X) = \frac{\nu}{\nu-2}$  if  $\nu > 2$ . For example, the distribution of the sample mean of a small sample from a normal distribution.

Alternatively.  $X \sim t(\nu)$ , where  $X = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/\nu}}$ , where  $Z \sim Normal(0, 1)$  and  $V \sim \chi^2(\nu)$ , and  $Z$  and  $V$  are independent.

- **Chi-squared distribution:**  $X \sim \chi^2(\nu)$ , where  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\nu/2}\Gamma(\nu/2)}x^{\nu/2-1}e^{-x/2}$ .  $E(X) = \nu$  and  $Var(X) = 2\nu$ .

Alternatively,  $X \sim \chi^2(\nu)$ , where  $X = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_\nu^2$ , where  $Z_i \sim Normal(0, 1)$ , and  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_\nu$  are independent.

- **F-distribution:**

$X \sim F(\nu_1, \nu_2)$ , where  $f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu_1+\nu_2}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu_1}{2})\Gamma(\frac{\nu_2}{2})}(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2})^{\nu_1/2}x^{\nu_1/2-1}(1 + \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}x)^{-(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}$ .  $E(X) = \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2-2}$  if  $\nu_2 > 2$ , and  $Var(X) = \frac{2\nu_2^2(\nu_1+\nu_2-2)}{\nu_1(\nu_2-2)^2(\nu_2-4)}$  if  $\nu_2 > 4$ .

Alternatively,  $X \sim F(\nu_1, \nu_2)$ , where  $X = \frac{V_1/\nu_1}{V_2/\nu_2}$ , where  $V_1 \sim \chi^2(\nu_1)$  and  $V_2 \sim \chi^2(\nu_2)$ , and  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are independent.