

Statistics Cheat Sheet

Ch 1: Overview & Descriptive Stats

Populations, Samples and Processes

Population: well-defined collection of objects

Sample: a subset of the population

Descriptive Stats: summarize & describe features of data

Inferential Stats: generalizing from sample to population

Probability: bridge btwn descriptive & inferential techniques.

In probability, properties of the population are assumed known & questions regarding a sample taken from the population are posed and answered.

Discrete and Continuous Variables: A numerical variable is *discrete* if its set of possible values is at most countable.

A numerical value is *continuous* if its set of possible values is an uncountable set.

Probability: pop \rightarrow sample

Stats: sample \rightarrow pop

Measures of Location

For observations x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

Sample Mean $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$

Sample Median $\tilde{x} = (\frac{n+1}{2})^{\text{nth}}$ observation

Trimmed Mean btwn \tilde{x} and \bar{x} , compute by removing smallest and largest observations

Measures of Variability

Range = lgst-smllst observation

Sample Variance, σ^2 $= \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1} = \frac{S_{xx}}{n-1}$

$S_{xx} = \sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}$

Sample Standard Deviation, σ $= \sqrt{\sigma^2}$

Box Plots

Order the n observations from small to large. Separate the smallest half from the largest (If n is odd then \tilde{x} is in both halves). The lower fourth is the median of the smallest half (upper fourth..largest..). A measure of the spread that is resistant to outliers is the *fourth spread* f_s given by $f_s =$ upper fourth- lower fourth. Box from lower to upper fourth with line at median. Whiskers from smallest to largest x_i .

Ch 2: Probability

Sample Space and Events

Experiment activity with uncertain outcome

Sample Space(S) the set of all possible outcomes

Event any collection of outcomes in S

Axioms, Interpretations and Properties of Probability

Given an experiment and a sample space S , the objective probability is to assign to each event A a number $P(A)$, called the probability of event A , which will give a precise measure of the chance that A will occur. Behaves very much like norm.

Axioms & Properties of Probability:

1. $\forall A \in S, 0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
2. $P(S) = 1$
3. If A_1, A_2, \dots is an infinite collection of disjoint events, $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$
4. $P(\emptyset) = 0$
5. $\forall A, P(A) + P(A') = 1$ from which $P(A) = 1 - P(A')$
6. For any two events $A, B \in S$, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
7. For any three events $A, B, C \in S$, $P(A \cup B \cup C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C) - P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C) + P(A \cap B \cap C)$

Equally Likely Outcomes : $P(A) = \frac{N(A)}{N}$

Counting Techniques

Product Rule for Ordered k-Tuples: If the first element can be selected in n_1 ways, the second in n_2 ways and so on, then there are $n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ possible k-tuples.

Permutations: An ordered subset. The number of permutations of size k that can be formed from a set of n elements is $P_{k,n}$

$$P_{k,n} = (n)(n-1) \dots (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

Combinations: An unordered subset.

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

Conditional Probability

$P(A|B)$ is the conditional probability of A given that the event B has occurred. B is the conditioning event.

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

Multiplication Rule: $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B)$

Baye's Theorem

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k be disjoint and exhaustive events (that partition the sample space). Then for any other event B $P(B) = P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + \dots + P(B|A_k)P(A_k)$
 $= \sum_{i=1}^k P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$

Independence

Two events A and B are **independent** if $P(A|B) = P(A)$ and are **dependent** otherwise.

A and B are **independent** iff $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$ and this can be generalized to the case of n mutually independent events.

Random Variables

Random Variable: any function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Prob Dist.: describes how the probability of Ω is distributed along the range of X

Discrete rv: rv whose domain is at most countable

Continuous rv: rv whose domain is uncountable and where $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}, P(X = c) = 0$

Bernoulli rv: discrete rv whose range is $\{0, 1\}$

The *probability distribution* of X says how the total probability of 1 is distributed among the various possible X values.

1. Distributions

Discrete RVs

Probabilities assigned to various outcomes in S in turn determine probabilities associated with the values of any particular rv X .

Probability Mass Fxn/Probability Distribution, (pmf):

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = P(\forall w \in \mathcal{W} : X(w) = x)$$

Gives the probability of observing $w \in \mathcal{W} : X(w) = x$

The conditions $p(x) \geq 0$ and $\sum_{\text{all possible } x} p(x) = 1$ are required for any pmf.

parameter: Suppose $p(x)$ depends on a quantity that can be assigned any one of a number of possible values, with each different value determining a different probability distribution. Such a quantity is called a parameter of distribution. The collection of all probability distributions for different values of the parameter is called a family of probability distributions.

Cumulative Distribution Function

(To compute the probability that the observed value of X will be at most some given x)

Cumulative Distribution Function(cdf): $F(x)$ of a discrete rv variable X with pmf $p(x)$ is defined for every number x by

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{y: y \leq x} p(y)$$

For any number x , $F(x)$ is the probability that the observed value of X will be at most x .

For discrete rv, the graph of $F(x)$ will be a step function- jump at every possible value of X and flat btwn possible values.

For any two number a and b with $a \leq b$:

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a^-)$$

$$P(a < X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$$

$$P(a \leq X < b) = F(b^-) - F(a^-) = p(a)$$

$$P(a < X < b) = F(b^-) - F(a)$$

(where a^- is the largest possible X value strictly less than a)

Taking $a = b$ yields $P(X = a) = F(a) - F(a - 1)$ as desired.

Expected value or Mean Value

$$E(X) = \mu_X = \sum_{x \in D} x \cdot p(x)$$

Describes where the probability distribution is centered and is just a weighted average of the possible values of X given their distribution. However, the sample average of a sequence of X values may not settle down to some finite number (harmonic series) but will tend to grow without bound. Then the distribution is said to have a *heavy tail*. Can make it difficult to make inferences about μ .

The Expected Value of a Function: Sometimes interest will focus on the expected value of some function $h(x)$ rather than on just $E(x)$.

If the RV X has a set of possible values D and pmf $p(x)$, then the expected value of any function $h(x)$, denoted by $E[h(X)]$ or $\mu_{h(X)}$ is computed by

$$E[h(X)] = \sum_D h(x) \cdot p(x)$$

Properties of Expected Value:

$$E(aX + b) = a \cdot E(X) + b$$

Variance of X: Let X have pmf $p(x)$ and expected value μ . Then the $V(X)$ or σ_X^2 is

$$V(X) = \sum_D (x - \mu)^2 \cdot p(x) = E[(X - \mu)^2]$$

The standard deviation (SD) of X is $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma}$

Alternatively,

$$V(X) = \sigma^2 = \left[\sum_D x^2 \cdot p(x) \right] - \mu^2 = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

Properties of Variance

1. $V(aX + b) = a^2 \cdot \sigma^2$
2. In particular, $\sigma_{aX} = |a| \cdot \sigma_x$
3. $\sigma_{X+b} = \sigma_X$

Continuous RVs

Probabilities assigned to various outcomes in \mathcal{S} in turn determine probabilities associated with the values of any particular rv X . Recall: an rv X is continuous if its set of possible values is uncountable and if $P(X = c) = 0 \quad \forall c.$

Probability Density Fxn/Probability Distribution, (pdf):
 $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \leq b$

$$P(\forall w \in \mathcal{W} : a \leq X(w) \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Gives the probability that X takes values between a and b. The conditions $f(x) \geq 0$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) = 1$ are required for any pdf.

Cumulative Distribution Function(cdf):

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy$$

For any number x , $F(x)$ is the probability that the observed value of X will be at most x .

By the continuity arguments for continuous RVs we have that

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a < X \leq b) = P(a < X < b)$$

Other probabilities can be computed from the cdf $F(x)$:

$$P(X > a) = 1 - F(a)$$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$$

Furthermore, if X is a cont rv with pdf $f(x)$ and cdf $F(x)$, then at every x at which $F'(x)$ exists, $F'(x) = f(x)$.

Median($\hat{\mu}$): is the 50th percentile st $F(\hat{\mu}) = .5$. That is half the area under the density curve. For a symmetric curve, this is the point of symmetry.

Expected/Mean Value(μ or $E(X)$): of cont rv with pdf $f(x)$

$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

If X is a cont rv with pdf $f(x)$ and $h(X)$ is any function of X then

$$E[h(X)] = \mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) \cdot f(x) dx$$

Variance: of a cont rv X with pdf $f(x)$ and mean value μ is

$$\sigma_x^2 = V(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 \cdot f(x) dx = E[(X - \mu)^2]$$

Alternatively,

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

Discrete Distributions

The Binomial Probability Distribution

- 1) The experiment consists of n trials where n is fixed
 - 2) Each trial can result in either success (S) or failure (F)
 - 3) The trials are independent
 - 4) The probability of success $P(S)$ is constant for all trials
- Note that in general if the sampling is without replacement, the experiment will not yield independent trials. However, if the sample size (number of trials) n is at most 5% of the population, then the experiment can be analyzed as though it were exactly a binomial experiment.

Binomial rv X: = no of S's among the n trials

pmf of a Binomial RV:,

$$b(x; n, p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} \quad : x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

cdf for Binomal RV: Values in Tble A.1

$$B(x; n, p) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{y=0}^x b(y; n, p)$$

Mean & Variance of X If $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ then

$$E(X) = np \quad V(X) = npq$$

Negative Binomial Distribution

- 1) The experiment consists of independent trials
- 2) Each trial can result in either Success(S) or Failure(F)
- 3) The probability of success is constant from trial to trial
- 4) The experiment continues until a total of r successes have been observed, where r is a specified integer.

RV Y: = the no of trials before the r th success.

Negative Binomial rv: $X = Y - r$ the number of failures that precede the r th success. In contrast to the binomial rv, the number of successes is fixed while the number of trials is random.

pmf of the negative binomial rv : with parameters r = number of S's and $p = P(S)$ is

$$nb(x; r, p) = \binom{x+r-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^x \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Mean & Variance of negative binomial rv X: with pmf $nb(x; r, p)$

$$E(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p} \quad V(X) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}$$

Geometric Distribution

RV X: = the no of trials before the 1st success.
pmf of the geometric rv :

$$p(x) = q^{x-1} p$$

$$E(X) = \sum x q^{x-1} p = 1/p$$

The Poisson Probability Distribution

Useful for modeling rare events

- 1) independent: no of events in an interval is independent of no of events in another interval
- 2) Rare: no 2 events at once
- 3) Constant Rate: average events/unit time is constant ($\mu > 0$)

RV X= no of occurrence in unit time interval

Possion distribution/ Poisson pmf: of a random variable X with parameter $\mu > 0$ where

$$p(x; \mu) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \cdot \mu^x}{x!} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Binomial Approximation: Suppose that in the binomial pmf $b(x; n, p)$, we let $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $p \rightarrow 0$ in such a way that np approaches a value $\mu > 0$. Then $b(x; n, p) \rightarrow p(x; \mu)$.

That is to say that in any binomial experiment in which n (the number of trials) is large and p (the probability of success) is small, then $b(x; n, p) \approx p(x; \mu)$, where $\mu = np$.

Mean and Variance of X: If X has probability distribution with parameter μ , then $E(X) = V(X) = \mu$

Continuous Distributions

The Normal Distribution, $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

PDF: with parameters μ and σ where $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ and $0 < \sigma$

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

We can then easily show that $E(X) = \mu$ and $V(X) = \sigma^2$.

Standard Normal Distribution: The specific case where $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$. Then

$$\text{pdf: } \phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} \quad \text{cdf: } \Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \phi(u) du$$

Standardization: Suppose that $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then

$$Z = (X - \mu)/\sigma$$

transforms X into standard units. Indeed $Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma} \leq Z \leq \frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

Independence: If $X \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$, $Y \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ and X and Y are independent, then $X \pm Y \sim N(\mu_x \pm \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)$

NOTE: By symmetry of the standard normal distribution, it follows that $\Phi(-z) = 1 - \Phi(z) \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R}$