

# Statistik Zusammenfassung

## random experiment

→ process where the possible outcomes can be identified ahead of time

## Sample Space

Set  $\Omega$  of all possible outcomes of an experiment  
^ (Menge)

## Type of sets

### Countable Set

$\Omega$  is countable if a bijection exists

↳ a one-to-one function exists  $\rightarrow f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$\Rightarrow$  otherwise  $\rightarrow$  uncountable

### Finite set

set is empty or has a finite number of elements

$\Rightarrow$  otherwise  $\rightarrow$  infinite

## Event

collection of possible outcomes of an experiment that is a subset of  $\Omega$  (including  $\Omega$  itself)

$$A \subseteq \Omega$$

## Set Theory

empty set:  $\emptyset$

$A \subseteq B \rightarrow A$  is part of  $B$

$A \cup B \rightarrow A$  or  $B$  (Vereinigung)

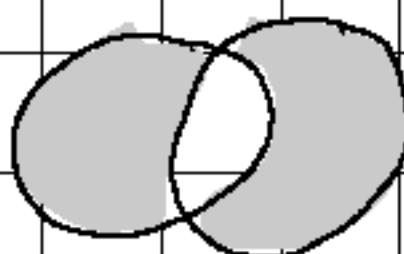
$A \cap B \rightarrow A$  and  $B$  (Gemeinsames)

$A \setminus B \rightarrow A$  without  $B = A - B$

$A^c = A'$  → complement

$A \Delta B \rightarrow$  Symmetric difference

$$\hookrightarrow (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$$



## Singelton

Subset  $\{w\}$  contains a single outcome  $w$  of  $\Omega$

## Null set

$\emptyset$  is part of every set (impossible event),  $\emptyset \subseteq \Omega$

## Universal set

$\Omega$  or  $\Omega$  (sure event),  $\Omega \subseteq \Omega$

## Power set

all subsets of a set

↳  $P(A)$  = all possible subsets of  $A$

$$\hookrightarrow A = \{x, y\} \quad P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{y\}, \{x, y\}\}$$

$$|P(A)| = 2^n$$

↳ number of Elements of  $P(A)$  =  $2^{n \sim \text{number of Elements in } A}$

## Properties of set Operations (Theorem)

for any  $A, B, C \subset \Omega$ :

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$

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

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

$$(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

$$(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$$

De Morgan's law:

## Partition

If  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are pairwise disjoint and  $\bigcup A_i = \Omega$

then the collection  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  forms a partition of  $\Omega$

↳ collection of unique subsets where their union  
is the sample space

## disjoint

↳ mutually exclusive  $\rightarrow A \cap B = \emptyset$  (nothing in common)

pairwise disjoint  $\rightarrow A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$

## Field

A field is a set  $K$  (Körper) with two special elements

$0, 1 \in K$  and two maps  $+$  and  $\cdot$   $\Rightarrow (K, \cdot, +)$

$$\overbrace{K}^{\sim} + \overbrace{K}^{\sim} = K$$

$\Rightarrow$  Satisfy 8 axioms

(elements written as  $\alpha, \beta, \dots$ )

↳ addition:  $\alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$

$$(\alpha + \beta) + \gamma = \alpha + (\beta + \gamma)$$

$$\alpha + 0 = 0 + \alpha = \alpha$$

$$\forall \alpha \in K \quad \exists -\alpha \in K \quad \rightarrow \alpha + (-\alpha) = 0$$

multiplication:  $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$

$$(\alpha\beta)\gamma = \alpha(\beta\gamma)$$

$$\alpha \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot \alpha = \alpha$$

$$\forall \alpha \in K \rightarrow \exists \alpha^{-1} \in K \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \alpha^{-1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (\alpha + \beta) \cdot \gamma = \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma$$

## Boolean algebra of sets

collection  $\mathcal{G}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  with following conditions

1. if  $A, B \in \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{G}$  and  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{G}$

↳ closed under countable  $\cup$  (unions) and  $\cap$  (intersections)

2. if  $A \in \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{G}$

↳ closed under complement

3.  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{G}$  (Same as  $\Omega \in \mathcal{G}$  under 2.)

## $\sigma$ -algebra

→ subset of algebra of sets where it only has to be closed under countable unions

1. if  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$

↳ closed under countable unions

2. if  $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$

↳ closed under complement

3.  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$  (Same as  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$  under 2.)

⇒ Smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$  → trivial algebra

⇒ easiest way to construct with countable  $\Omega$

↳  $\mathcal{F} = P(\Omega)$  ⇒ with  $2^n$  elements

## Borel $\sigma$ -algebra

- a  $\sigma$ -algebra with open sets
- Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathbb{R}$   $]-\infty, a]$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$

## Probability measure (Kolmogorov Axioms)

$P$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  function  $P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$

1.  $P(A) \geq 0$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  (any outcome has a possibility)
2. if  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$  are pairwise disjoint, then  $P(\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} P(A_i)$   
↳ all outcome possibilities sum to 1 → one of the outcomes will always happen
3.  $P(\Omega) = 1$  |  $P(\emptyset) = 0$   
↳ one of the possible outcomes will always happen

## Probability space

→ triple of  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$   
Sample space      all outcomes      possibility of all outcomes

## uniform Probability

↳ all outcomes are equally likely

## Probab. of an Event

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} \Rightarrow \frac{\text{nr of Events}}{\text{nr of possible Events}}$$

## Counting rules

	Order	no order
replacement	$n^k$	$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$
no replacement	$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$	$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)! \cdot k!}$

$$\binom{n}{k} \rightarrow \text{combination} \Rightarrow n(r \text{ auf TR}) \quad | \quad n = \text{Elements}$$

$$\frac{n!}{(n-r)!} \rightarrow \text{permutation} \Rightarrow nPr \text{ auf TR} \quad | \quad r=k = \text{samples/unique values}$$

## Counting rules for groups

total objects  $n$  with  $n_i$ : number of objects in each

$\Rightarrow$  number of orderings:

$$\frac{n!}{n_1! \cdot n_2! \cdots n_k!}$$

## conditional Probability

$(A|B) \rightarrow$  Probability of  $A$  if  $P(B) > 0$

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

## Bayes Rule

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

$$\hookrightarrow P(A) = \sum_{i \in I} P(A|A_i) P(A_i)$$

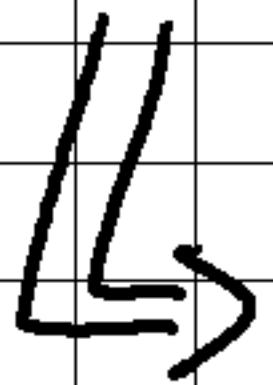
$$\hookrightarrow P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i) P(A_i)}{\sum_{j \in I} P(B|A_j) P(A_j)}$$

## Independence of Events

Events  $A, B$  are statistically independent if

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

generally : if the intersection of possibilities of events is  
the same as the product



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

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

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

mutually independent

→ independence of a collection

⇒ collection  $\{A_i; i \in I\}$  is mutually independent if

$$P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i) P(A_j) \quad \text{for all } i, j \in J, i \neq j$$

conditionally independent

$C$  is an Event with  $P(C) > 0$

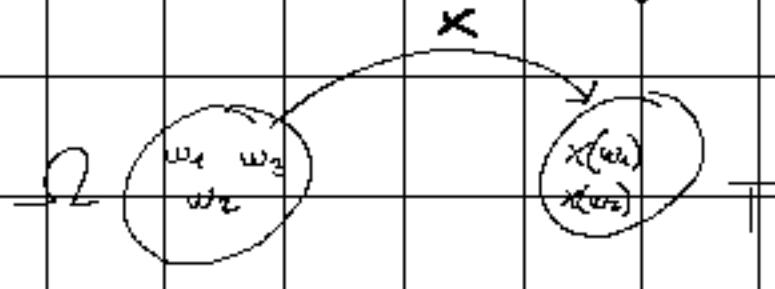
$$P(A \cap B | C) = P(A|C) P(B|C)$$

## Random Variable

$X$  can be all the possible values of an experiment

$$X: \Omega \rightarrow T$$

(function that projects the sample space to a measurable space)



## Types of random variables

### Discrete random variable

if  $X$  can only take a finite number or a countable infinite number of different values

### Continuous random variables

if  $X$  can take uncountable number of different values

→ uncountable many values in  $T'$

(ex: water in a glass → unlimited possibilities)

## Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

function that calculate the probability that the random variable will take a value less than or equal to a certain value

⇒ the CDF is the sum of all probabilities up to the given point

$$F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(\{\omega | X(\omega) \leq x\}) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(\text{Intervals: } P([a, b]) = F(b) - F(a) \Rightarrow P(X \leq b) - P(X \leq a))$$

## Properties of CDF

- We can compute  $P$  if we know  $F$

$F$  is a CDF of a unique Probability if the following properties hold:

1. Tight continuity :  $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} F(x + \Delta x) = F(x)$  at every  $x$

↳ as  $\Delta x$  gets smaller we approach  $F(x)$  more and more

2. Nondecreasing :  $F(a) \leq F(b)$  for any  $a < b$

↳ the probability gets higher, as "past events" get more likely

3. Limits :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F(x) = 1$

↳ 0 → event can't happen | 1 → event will happen

## Example CDF

The absolute difference between two rolled dice

$$X = |i - j| \quad ; j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$$

$\Rightarrow X$  can be 0-5

To calculate possibilities of the outcomes of  $X$

$$X = 0 \rightarrow 6 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$X = 1 \rightarrow 10 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{10}{36} = \frac{5}{18}$$

$$X = 2 \rightarrow 8 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{8}{36} = \frac{2}{9}$$

$$X = 3 \rightarrow 6 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$X = 4 \rightarrow 4 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{4}{36} = \frac{1}{9}$$

$$X = 5 \rightarrow 2 \text{ pairs} \rightarrow \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{18}$$

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{18} = \frac{9}{18} & 1 < x < 2 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{18} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{6}{9} & 2 < x < 3 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{18} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{5}{6} & 3 < x < 4 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{18} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{17}{18} & 4 < x < 5 \\ 0 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{5}{18} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{18} = 1 & x \geq 5 \end{cases}$$

## Probability Mass function (PMF)

for a **discrete random variable**

if there exists a non-negative function

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1] \quad \text{any } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} P(X = x_i) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} f(x_i)$$

⇒ PMF gives us a list of the possibilities of all possible outcomes

$$f(x) = P(X = x)$$

$$\Rightarrow p_i = P(X = x_i) \quad \text{only positive at } x = x_i \\ \text{belonging to } T' \text{ of } X$$

$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} p_i, & x = x_i \in T' \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

## Difference CDF PMF

→ The CDF gives us the cumulative probabilities up to a point while the PMF gives us the probability of each specific outcome

## Uniform distribution

→ every outcome has the same probability

$$\Rightarrow \text{PMF } f(x; N) = P(X=x | N) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N}, & x = 1, 2, \dots, N \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

## Hypergeometric distribution

→ calculate the probabilities when picking elements from a set without replacing them

$$\text{PAF: } f(x; N, M, n) = P(X=x | N, M, n) = \frac{\binom{M}{x} \binom{N-M}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

## Example Hypergeometric distribution

balls with two different colors in a bag. calculate the probability of a certain outcome when taking a number of balls at once

$$|\Omega| = \binom{N}{n}, \quad \text{red} \quad , \quad \text{blue}$$

⇒ 10 balls, 6 red, 4 blue

pick 3; what is the probability of drawing 2 red?

$$\Rightarrow \left. \begin{array}{l} N=10 \\ M=6 \end{array} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{l} n=3 \\ x=2 \end{array} \right\} P(X=2) = \frac{\binom{6}{2} \binom{10-6}{3-2}}{\binom{10}{3}} = 0.5 = \underline{\underline{50\%}}$$

## Bernoulli distribution

→ simple distribution with only two possible outcome  
Success and failure

$$f(x; p) = \begin{cases} 1 - p, & x = 0 \\ p, & x = 1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

↑  
probability  
of success

## Binomial distribution

→ repetition of an experiment with only two possible outcomes

PMF:  $f(x, p, n) = \binom{n}{x} \cdot p^x \cdot (1-p)^{n-x}$   $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

$x$  = number of success

$p$  = Probability of success

$n$  = number of trials

## Poisson distribution

→ probability of a certain number of events happening in a fixed interval of time or space

PMF:  $f(x; \lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \cdot e^{-\lambda}, & \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$x$  = number of events we want to find the probability for  
 $\lambda$  = Average Rate of event happening

## Continuous random variable - CDF & PDF

### Probability Density Function (PDF)

→ calculate probabilities of a continuous random variable using Integrals

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$$

### Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

→ function to show the probability, that the random variable will take a value less or equal to a certain value.

⇒ can be expressed using the PDF  $f$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

⇒ with  $A = [a, b]$

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

$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_A f(x) dx$$

## Properties of PDF

1.  $f(x) \geq 0$ , for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1 \rightarrow \text{integrates to 1}$

$\Rightarrow$  any non negative finitely integrable function can be a PDF

$\forall$  A PDF is not able to calculate the probability  
of a single point as it has no area

$$\Rightarrow P(X = \frac{1}{3}) = \int_{\frac{1}{3}}^{\frac{1}{3}} f(x) dx \doteq 0$$

## Uniform Distribution

→ every value in a certain range has the same chance of being picked (ex. random selection)

PDF:  $f(x; a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } x \in [a, b] \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

## Exponential Distribution

→ calculate the time or distance until some specific event happens. (ex. time for a part to break)

PDF:  $f(x; \lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

→  $\lambda$  = rate how often an event is expected to happen

⇒ can be "memoryless", if the time passed has no effect on the probability of an event happening

↳ ex: the chance of a bus arriving doesn't change with the amount of time you have been waiting.

## Gamma Distribution

→ calculate the time until a multitude of events happen. (ex. how long does it take a call center to receive its 5th call on an average rate of 1 per 10 min?)

PDF:

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha) \beta^\alpha} \cdot x^{\alpha-1} \cdot e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}}, & \text{if } \alpha > 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

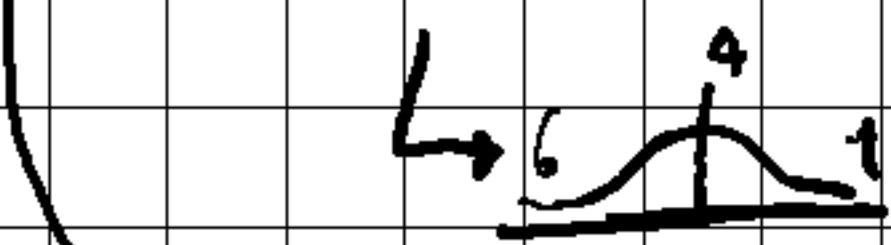
$\alpha$  = shape parameter → number of events we are waiting for  
(ex. 5 calls →  $\alpha = 5$ )

$\beta$  = scale parameter → average time between events  
(ex. call every 10min →  $\beta = 10$ )

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \text{Gamma function} \rightarrow \Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt$$

## Normal Distribution

→ describes how a set of continuous data is spread out  
(ex. test scores of a class → how many were around average etc.)



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

$\mu$  = Mean → average center of the distribution

$\sigma$  = standard deviation → how spread out the data is  
(Standard Abweichung)  
↳ small → more clustered

## $\chi^2$ (Chi-Square) Distribution

→ Special case of gamma distribution

$$\text{PDF: } f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} x^{\frac{\nu}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}, \quad x > 0$$

$\nu$  = degrees of freedom  $\rightarrow$  number of independent standard normal variables

$\downarrow$  number of categories - 1

# Integral Refresher

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(x) \Big|_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$$

## Rules

$$\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b c \cdot f(x) dx = c \cdot \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

## Integration by Parts

$$\int_a^b f(x) g'(x) dx = (f(x) g(x)) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x) g(x) dx$$

## Substitution

$$\int_a^b \sin(x^2) x dx \Rightarrow u = x^2 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = 2x$$

## Derivation (Ableitung)

$$\Rightarrow x dx = \frac{1}{2} du$$

$$= \int_a^b \sin(u) \frac{1}{2} du \Rightarrow \text{solve normal, then re-substitute}$$

## Integrations

$$f(x)$$

$$x^n$$

$$F(x)$$

$$\frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$a x^n$$

$$a \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$a + x^n$$

$$ax + \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$f(x)$$

$$x^{-1}$$

$$e^x$$

$$e^{-x}$$

$$a^x$$

$$F(x)$$

$$\ln|x|$$

$$e^x$$

$$-1 \cdot e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{a^x}{\ln(a)}$$

Antiderivation  
Stammfunktion

## Expected Value

↳ basically the mean

↳ repeat the experiment  $\infty$  times

↳ average of  $X$  is the expected value

discrete random variable:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in X} x \cdot P(x) \quad \sim \text{PMF}$$

Same goes for functions

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

continuous random variable:

$$E[X] = \int_{x \in X} x \cdot f(x) dx \quad \sim \text{PDF}$$

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{x \in X} g(x) \cdot f(x) dx$$

## Variance

↳ how far from the mean are the values spread?

General:

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

discrete random Variable:

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

continuous random variable:

$$\text{Var}[X] = \int_{x \in X} (x - E[X])^2 \cdot f(x) dx$$

## Multiple random variables

↳ multiple aspects of the outcome of an experiment that we want to look at

ex: 2 dice  $\rightarrow X = \text{Sum}$   $Y = |\text{difference}|$

↳ We get a discrete random vector  $(X, Y)$

## Joint PMF

↳ PMF of discrete random vector

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f(x,y) = P(X=x, Y=y)$$

$$P((X,Y) \in A) = \sum_{\substack{(x,y) \in A \\ A \subset \mathbb{R}^2}} f(x,y)$$

## Joint Expected value (PMF)

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X,Y)] = \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2} g(x,y) \cdot P(X=x, Y=y)$$

⇒ The sum of all possibilities has to be 1

⇒ for any  $(x,y)$ ,  $f(x,y) \geq 0$

$$\sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2} f(x,y) = P((X,Y) \in \mathbb{R}^2) = 1$$

## Joint PDF

↳ pdf of continuous random vectors

$$P((X,Y) \in A) = \iint_A f(x,y) dx dy$$

$A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

integrated over all  $(x,y) \in A$

## Joint Expected value (PDF)

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X,Y)] = \iint_{x \in X, y \in Y} g(x,y) f(x,y) dx dy$$

## Marginal Distribution (PMF)

↳ We look at only one of the discrete random variables

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} f_{XY}(x,y) \quad \& \quad f_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in X} f_{XY}(x,y)$$

ex: 2 dice  $\rightarrow X = \text{Sum}$   $Y = |\text{difference}|$

↳ To get the probability of one of them being a certain number, we have to sum the probability at the other that gives us the desired value

$$\hookrightarrow Y=0 \Rightarrow f_Y(0) = \sum_{x \in X} f_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

Sum of all probabilities over the other variable

## Marginal Distribution PDF

↳ only one of the continuous random variables

$$f_X(x) = \int_{y \in Y} f(x,y) dy$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{x \in X} f(x,y) dx$$

## Conditional PMF / PDF

↳ probability of one value if the other is fixed

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

↳ probability of  $y$ , if  $x$  is set

= probability of both happening

probability of only  $x$  happening

## Expected value

PMF:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(y)|x] = \sum_{y \in Y} g(y) f(y|x)$$

PDF:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(y)|x] = \int_{y \in Y} g(y) f(y|x) dy$$

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

## Covariance

↳ relationship between two random variables

↳ how much do they vary together?

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

↳ if  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) > 0 \rightarrow X \& Y$  move in the same direction

$\text{Cov}(X, Y) < 0 \rightarrow X \& Y$  move in opposite direction

$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \rightarrow$  no linear relationship between  $X \& Y$

## Rules:

$$- E[X, Y] = f(x) \cdot E[Y] + \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$- X, Y = \text{independent} \Rightarrow \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$$

$$- \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$$

$$- \text{Cov}(aX+b, cY+d) = a \cdot c \cdot \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

## Correlation

↳ strength and direction of linear relationships

$$\rho_{x,y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sigma_x \cdot \sigma_y}$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_x \\ \sigma_y \end{array} \right\}$  = Standard deviation

↳ if  $\rho_{x,y} > 0 \rightarrow X, Y$  are positively correlated

: if  $\rho_{x,y} < 0 \rightarrow X, Y$  are negatively correlated

: if  $\rho_{x,y} = 0 \rightarrow X, Y$  are uncorrelated

↳  $\rho(X,Y)$  is between -1 and 1

## Central Limit Theorem

↳ distribution of Sample means approximates a normal distribution

⇒ Sample means are the means of a sequence of random variables  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$

Sum of samples =  $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$

Sample mean =  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{S_n}{n}$

$$Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mathbb{E}[X_i]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X_i] \cdot n}} = \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_i]}{\sqrt{\frac{\text{Var}[X_i]}{n}}}$$

⇒ It tells us that the average Sample means will be normally distributed if the sample size is large enough, no matter the distribution of the original data.

ex: Quality control of a product

↳ take 40 lightbulbs of each production badge and calculate the average life span  $\bar{X}$

↳ with enough  $X_s$ , the distribution of them will approximate a normal distribution.

# Descriptive Statistics

↳ ways to summarize data

## Scale of random variables

↳ choosing representative data to scale down the data set

### 3 basic scales

- nominal scale → categorize data without any quantitative value or order

ex: car brands (BMW, VW, Toyota ...)

- ordinal scale → introduce also an order to the categories

ex: car performance (luxury, sports ...)

↳ they can be ordered

- ratio scale → ordinal scale + zero point to be able to measure the distance between the objects

ex: Car horsepower

↳ car 1 is 20 km/h faster than car 2

## Summarize data using numerical techniques

### Arithmetic mean (average) ( $\rightarrow$ ratio scale)

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

### Median ( $\rightarrow$ ordinal & ratio scale)

$$\Rightarrow x_{\text{med}} = \begin{cases} x_{\frac{n+1}{2}} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_{\frac{n}{2}} + x_{\frac{n}{2}+1}) & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow$  the middle value of all the values

### Mode ( $\rightarrow$ nominal, ordinal, ratio scale)

$$\Rightarrow x_m = x_i \quad \Rightarrow$$
 most frequent value

### Empirical Quantiles

$\hookrightarrow$  divide data into equal-sized, ordered segments

$$k = \lfloor \alpha n \rfloor + 1 \quad \Rightarrow \alpha = \text{percentile} \quad (\text{ex } \alpha = 75 \quad n = 100) \\ (\lfloor \alpha n \rfloor + 1 = 76)$$

$$\alpha\text{-quantile} = \begin{cases} x_k & , \text{if } \alpha n = \text{integer} \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_k + x_{k+1}) & , \text{if } \alpha n = \text{no integer} \end{cases}$$

## Range

↳ biggest - smallest value

$$\text{range} = x_{\max} - x_{\min}$$

## Mean-quartile

↳ range as dispersion measure

$$MQA = \frac{(Q_3 - Q_1) + (Q_2 - Q_1)}{2} = \frac{IQA}{2}$$

⇒ average Quartile size

## Variance

↳ spread of the data from the average

$$S_x^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

## Standard deviation

↳ amount of variation from the average (actual value)

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

## Absolute dispersion

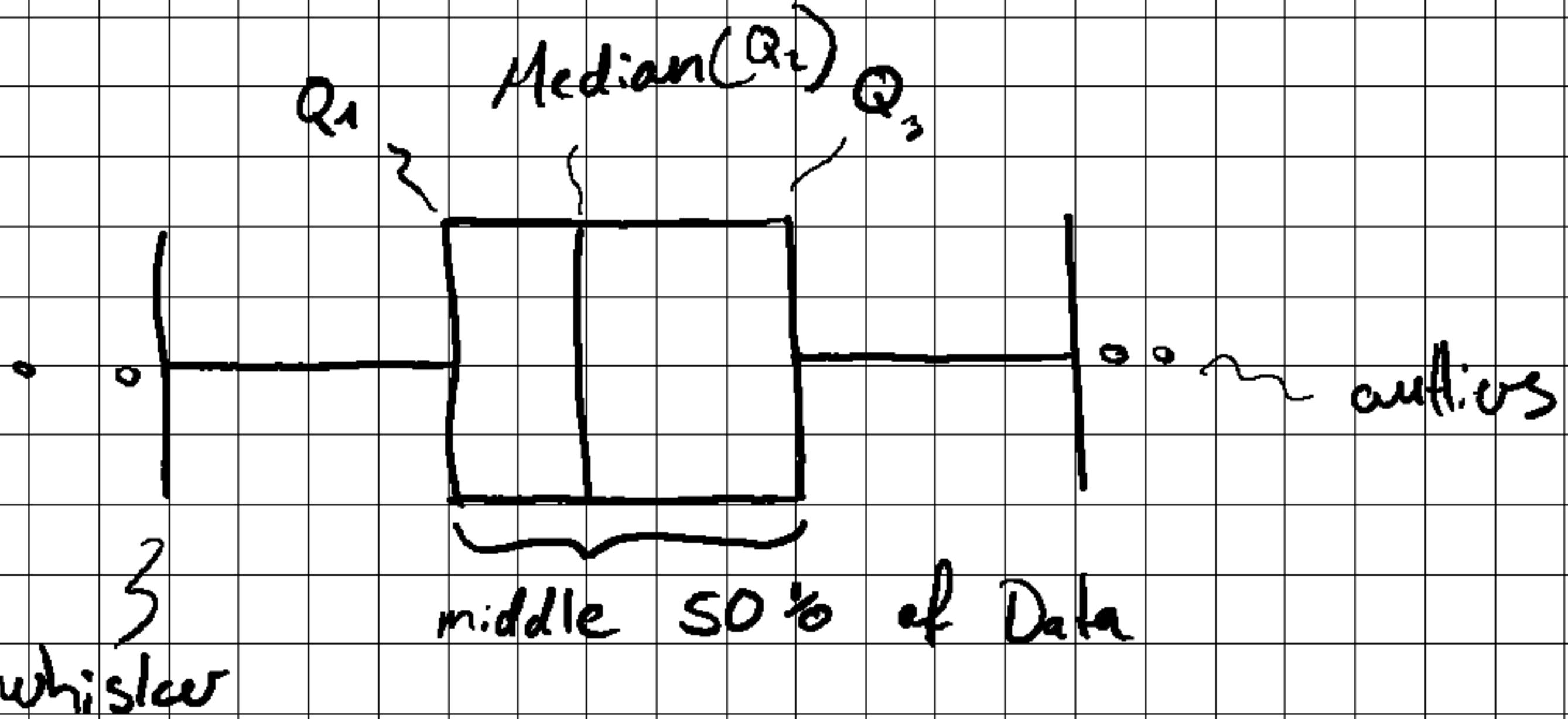
↳ how spread are the values

$$V_k x = \frac{S_x}{|\bar{x}|}$$

## Visualize Data

### Box Plot

↳ graph to show distribution & outliers of Data



$Q_1 - 1.5 \cdot (IQR)$  } smallest value within this margin  
↳  $Q_3 + Q_1$  }

### Interpretation

- length of box and whisker indicate the spread
- if the median is centered, then the distribution is symmetrical
- outliers show possible errors in Data

## QQ- Plot

- ↳ compare two distributions by plotting their quantiles against each other
- ⇒ check how a distribution matches a theoretical distribution

## Draw

- calculate quantiles for both distributions
- plot corresponding quantiles

## Interpretation

- Depending on the spread you can see how closely one distribution follows the other

## Scatter Plot

- ↳ each value is a point on a line / plane
- ⇒ see groups and potential relations
- ⇒ - Single values are plotted on a line
  - two dimensional values are plotted on a plane
- ↳ relation between two values
  - ↳ e.g. exercise time & blood pressure

## Estimation of parameters

↳ estimate population parameter based on sample data

two approaches

- point estimator → calculate single value
- confidence interval → interval in which the true value lies

### Point Estimator $\theta$

- Sample mean ( $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$ ) →  $\frac{\text{Sum of all values}}{\text{Number of values}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$
- Sample variance ( $\hat{\sigma}^2 = s^2$ ) → difference between each sample point and the mean

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2$$

## Bias

↳ the bias is the difference between the point estimator and the expected value

$$\text{Bias}(\hat{\theta}) = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

⇒ if the bias = 0, then is the estimator unbiased

⇒ if the bias becomes smaller with increasing sample size, and vanishes when size  $\rightarrow \infty$ , then we say that the estimator ; asymptotically unbiased

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$$

⇒ if the estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  converges to a certain value with an increasing sample size, we say  $\hat{\theta}$  is consistent

↳ estimator is consistent, when :

- it is unbiased/asymptotically unbiased
- variance  $\rightarrow 0$  when size  $\rightarrow \infty$

⇒ if the variance is smaller/equal to the unbiased estimator, then it is efficient

## Mean squared error (MSE)

↳ criteria to check if an estimator is good

$$\Rightarrow \text{MSE}(\Theta) = E[(T - \Theta)^2]$$

$$\text{MSE}(\Theta) = \text{Var}(T) + \text{bias}^2$$

↳ if  $\text{MSE}(\Theta) = \text{Var}(T) \rightarrow$  then is  $\Theta$  good

## Methods to get estimators

- Method of Moments  $\rightarrow$  Sample mean & variance
- Least-Squares Method  $\rightarrow$ 
  - ↳ find best fitting line through a set of data points by minimizing the sum of squares of the distances to the points.
- Maximum Likelihood Method
  - ↳ the most plausible parameter
  - ↳ find the values of the model parameters, that make the observed data most probable

## Confidence Intervals

↳ Interval that contains the true value of the estimator with a confidence  $\alpha$