

# Vocabulary

Term	Definition
Adding or subtracting random variables	$E(X \pm Y) = E(X) \pm E(Y)$ and if $X$ and $Y$ are independent, $Var(X \pm Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)$ (The Pythagorean Theorem of Statistics).
Addition Rule	If <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> are disjoint events, then the probability of <b>A or B</b> is $P(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A}) + P(\mathbf{B})$
Bernoulli trials, if . . .	(1) there are two possible outcomes. (2) the probability of success is constant. (3) the trials are independent.
Binomial probability model	A Binomial model is appropriate for a random variable that counts the number of successes in a fixed number of Bernoulli trials.
Central Limit Theorem	The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) states that the sampling distribution model of the sample mean (and proportion) is approximately Normal for large $n$ , <i>regardless of the distribution of the population, as long as the observations are independent.</i>
Changing a random variable by a constant	$E(X \pm c) = E(X) \pm c$ relates to $Var(X \pm c) = Var(X)$ and $E(aX) = aE(X)$ relates to $Var(aX) = a^2 Var(X)$
Complement Rule	The probability of an event occurring is 1 minus the probability that it doesn't occur. $P(\mathbf{A}) = 1 - P(\mathbf{A}^c)$
Conditional probability	$P(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B})$ divided by $P(\mathbf{B})$ and $P(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})$ is read "the probability of <b>B</b> given <b>A</b> "
Continuous random variable	A random variable that can take any numeric value within a range of values is called a continuous random variable. The range may be infinite or bounded at either or both ends.
Discrete random variable	A random variable that can take one of a finite number (could be infinite as long as they are <i>countable</i> - meaning they can be listed in order) of distinct outcomes is called a discrete random variable.
Disjoint (mutually exclusive)	Two events are disjoint if they share no outcomes in common. If <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> are disjoint, then knowing that <b>A</b> occurs tells us that <b>B</b> cannot occur. Disjoint events are also called "mutually exclusive."
Disjoint events	Two events are <i>disjoint</i> (or <i>mutually exclusive</i> ) if they have no outcomes in common.
Event	A collection of outcomes. Usually, we identify events so that we can attach probabilities to them. We denote events with bold capital letters such as <b>A</b> , <b>B</b> , or <b>C</b> .
Expected value	The expected value of a random variable is its theoretical long-run average value, the center of its model. Denoted $\mu$ or $E(X)$ , it is found (if the random variable is discrete) by summing the products of variable values and probabilities: $\mu = E(X) = \sum x \cdot P(x)$

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General Addition Rule	For any two events, <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> , the probability of <b>A</b> or <b>B</b> is $P(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A}) + P(\mathbf{B}) - P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B})$
General Multiplication Rule	For any two events, <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> , the probability of <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> is $P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A}) \times P(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})$
Geometric probability model	A Geometric model is appropriate for a random variable that counts the number of Bernoulli trials until the first success.
Independence (informally)	Two events are <i>independent</i> if knowing whether one event occurs does not alter the probability that the other event occurs.
Independence (used casually)	Two events are <i>independent</i> if knowing whether one event occurs does not alter the probability that the other event occurs.
Independence (used formally)	Events <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> are independent when $P(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{B})$
Law of Large Numbers	the Law of Large Numbers states that the long-run <i>relative frequency</i> of repeated independent events settles down to the <i>true</i> relative frequency as the number of trials increases.
Legitimate probability assignment	An assignment of probabilities to outcomes is legitimate if each probability is between 0 and 1 (inclusive) and the sum of the probabilities is 1.
Multiplication Rule	If <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> are independent events, then the probability of <b>A</b> and <b>B</b> is $P(\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}) = P(\mathbf{A}) \times P(\mathbf{B})$
Outcome	The outcome of a trial is the value measured, observed, or reported for an individual instance of that trial.
Probability	The probability of an event is a number between 0 and 1 that reports the likelihood of the event's occurrence. A probability can be derived from equally likely outcomes, from the long-run relative frequency of the event's occurrence, or from known probabilities. We write $P(\mathbf{A})$ for the probability of event <b>A</b> .
Probability model	The probability model is a function that associates a probability $P$ with each value of a discrete random variable $X$ , denoted $P(X = x)$ , or with any interval of values of a continuous random variable.
Random phenomenon	A phenomenon is random if we know what outcomes could happen, but not which particular values will happen.
Random variable	A random variable assumes any of several different values as a result of some random event. Random variables are denoted by a capital letter such as $X$ .
Sample space	The collection of all possible outcomes values. The sample space has a probability of 1.

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Sampling distribution model	Different random samples give different values for a statistic. The sampling distribution model shows the behavior of the statistic over all the possible samples for the same size $n$ .
Sampling distribution model for a mean	If assumptions of independence and random sampling are met, and the sample size is large enough, the sampling distribution of the sample mean is modeled by a Normal model with a mean equal to the population mean, $\mu$ , and a standard deviation equal to $\sigma$ divided by the square root of $n$ .
Sampling distribution model for a proportion	If assumptions of independence and random sampling are met, and we expect at least 10 successes and 10 failures, then the sampling distribution of a proportion is modeled by a Normal model with a mean equal to the true proportion value, $p$ , and a standard deviation equal to the square root of $pq$ divided by $n$ .
"Something Has to Happen Rule"	The sum of the probabilities of all possible outcomes must be 1.
Standard deviation	The standard deviation of a random variable describes the spread in the model, and is the square root of the variance: $\sigma = SD(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$
Standard error	When we estimate the standard deviation of a sampling deviation using statistics found from the data, the estimate is called a standard error.
Success/Failure Condition	For a Normal model to be a good approximation of a Binomial model, we must expect at least 10 successes and 10 failures. That is, $np \geq 10$ and $nq \geq 10$ .
Tree diagram	A display of conditional events of probabilities that is helpful in thinking through conditioning.
Trial	A single attempt or realization of a random phenomenon.
Variance	The variance of a random variable is the expected value of the squared deviation from the mean. For discrete random variables, it can be calculated as $\sigma^2 = Var(X) = \sum (x - \mu)^2 P(x)$ .