

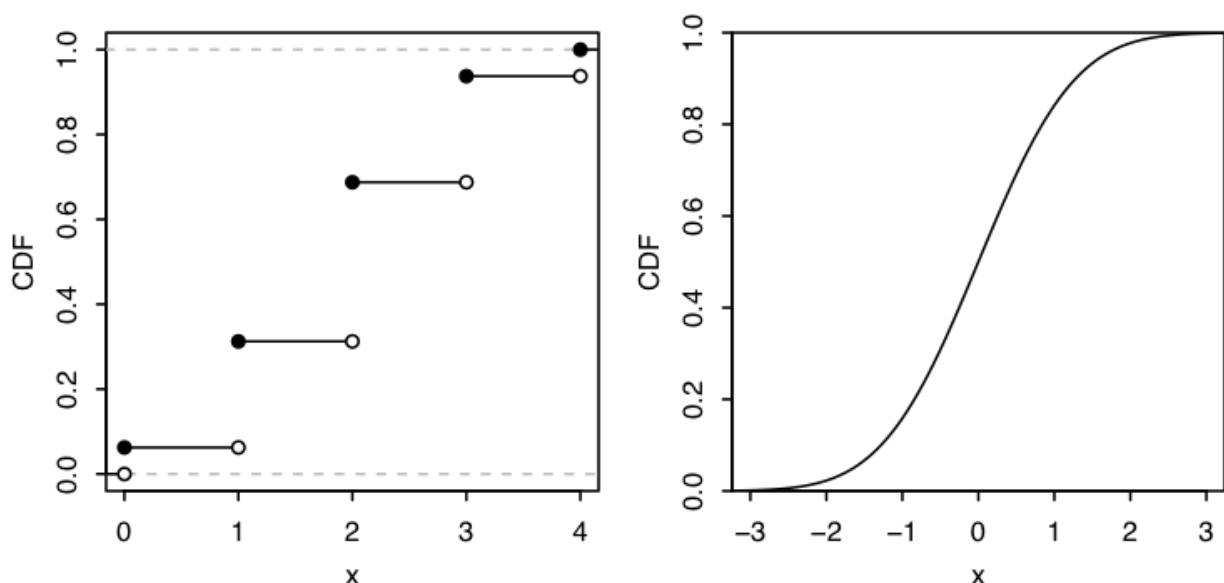
# 4 Continuous Random Variables

Together, discrete and continuous approaches form a powerful framework for modeling the world.

## 4.1 Probability density function

Continuous RVs!

An RV has a *continuous distribution* if its CDF is differentiable. Endpoints of CDF may be continuous but not differentiable. A continuous RV is a RV with a continuous distribution.



For a continuous RV  $X$  with CDF  $F$ , the PDF of  $X$  is derivative  $f$  of the CDF:  $f(x) = F'(x)$

The support of  $X$ : all  $x$  where  $f(x) > 0$ .

The PDF is kinda similar to PMF, but for PDF quantity of  $f(x)$  is **not a probability**. To obtain the probability, we need to **integrate** PDF.

We can be carefree about including or excluding endpoints as above for continuous RVs, but we must not be careless about this for discrete RVs.

Valid PDF of a continuous RV:

1. Nonnegative:  $f(x) \geq 0$
2. Integrates to 1:  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

Example: logistic distribution.

$X \sim \text{Logistic}$ .

CDF:

$$F(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

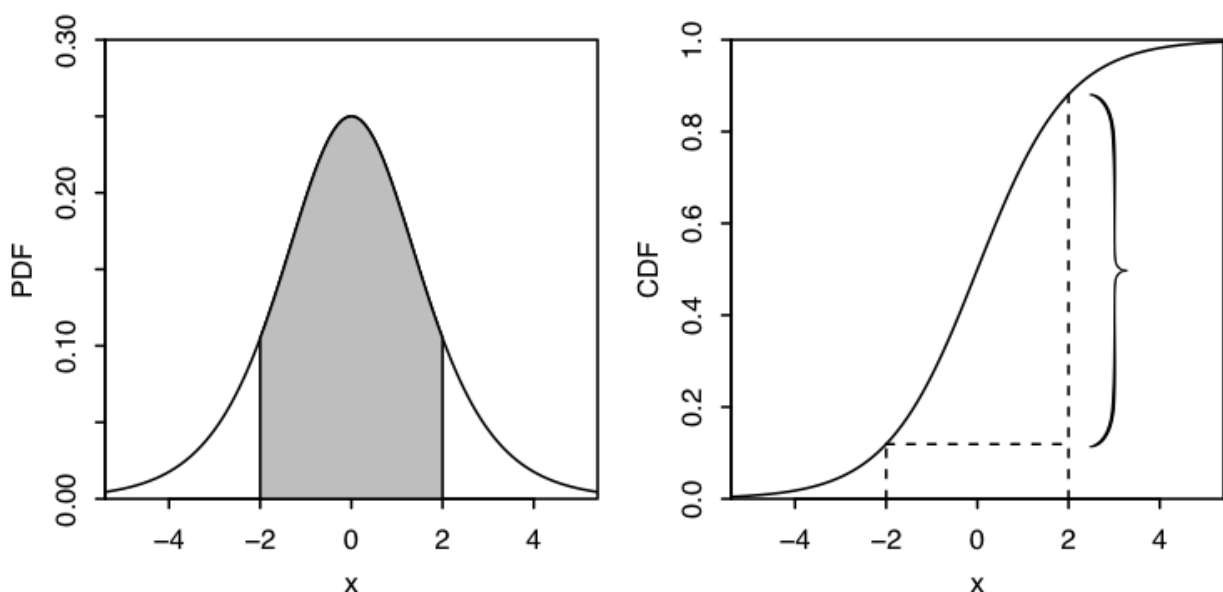
PDF:

$$f(x) = \frac{e^x}{(1 + e^x)^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

To find  $P(-2 < X < 2)$ , we need to integrate PDF from  $-2$  to  $2$ :

$$P(-2 < X < 2) = \int_{-2}^2 \frac{e^x}{(1 + e^x)^2} = F(2) - F(-2) \approx 0.76$$

Or  $P(-2 < X < 2)$  is indicated by the shaded area under the PDF and the height of the curly brace on the CDF.



## 4.2 Uniform distribution

A continuous RV  $U$  has the *Uniform distribution*  $X \sim \text{Unif}(a, b)$  on the interval  $(a, b)$  if its PDF is:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \quad \forall a < x < b,$$
$$f(x) = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

The CDF is the accumulated area under the PDF:

$$F(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \leq a,$$
$$F(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a} \quad a < x < b,$$
$$F(x) = 1 \quad \forall x \geq b.$$

$\text{Unif}(0, 1)$  is the standard Uniform.

For Uniform distributions, *probability is proportional to length*.

Location-scale transformation.

The RV  $Y$  has been obtained as a *location-scale transformation* of  $X$  if  $Y = \sigma X + \mu$ .  $\mu$  controls the location and  $\sigma$  controls the scale.

**Warning:** if  $Y$  is a linear function of  $X$ , the Uniformity is preserved, but if  $Y$  is defined as a *nonlinear* transformation of  $X$ ,  $Y$  will not be Uniform.

**Warning:** When using location-scale transformations, the shifting and scaling should be applied to the *random variables* themselves, not to their PDFs.

## 4.3 Universality of the Uniform distribution

Given a  $\text{Unif}(0, 1)$  RV, we can construct an RV with *any continuous distribution we want*.

Other names of the universality of Uniform:

- probability integral transform,

- inverse transform sampling,
- the quantile transformation,
- the fundamental theorem of simulation.

### Theorem:

$F$  is a CDF which is continuous function and strictly increasing on the support of distribution. This ensures that the inverse function  $F^{-1}$  exists as function  $(0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Results:

1. Let  $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$  and  $X = F^{-1}(U)$ . Then  $X$  is an RV with CDF  $F$ .
2. Let  $X$  be an RV with CDF  $F$ . Then  $F(X) \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ .

What this theorem is saying about?

First part: Since  $F^{-1}$  is a function (**quantile function**),  $U$  is a RV, and a function of RV is RV,  $F^{-1}(U)$  is a RV; universality of the Uniform says its CDF is  $F$ .

Second part: reverse direction! Starting from RV  $X$  whose CDF is  $F$  and then creating RV  $\text{Unif}(0, 1)$ . Universality of the Uniform says that the distribution of  $F(X)$  is Uniform on  $(0, 1)$ .

Warning: potential notational collusion!

$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$  by definition, but  $F(X) = P(X \leq X) = 1$  is incorrect by definition. Rather, we should first find an expression for the CDF as a function of  $x$ , then replace  $x$  with  $X$  to obtain a random variable. For example, if the CDF of  $X$  is  $F(x) = 1 - e^{-x}$  for  $x > 0$ , then  $F(X) = 1 - e^{-X}$ .

Example: percentiles

Exam, grades 0-100, RV  $X$  is the score of random student. We approximate the discrete distribution of scores using continuous distribution. So  $X$  is continuous RV, CDF is strictly increasing on  $(0, 100)$ . Suppose median score is 60. So  $F(60) = 1/2$  or  $F^{-1}(1/2) = 60$

If student scores 72 on the exam, then his **percentile** is the fraction of students who's score is below 72. This is  $F(72)$  which is number  $(0.5, 1)$ . Other way, if we have percentile 0.95, the score is  $F^{-1}(0.95)$ . Percentile is also called a *quantile*,  $F^{-1}$  is *quantile function*.

The universality property says that  $F(X) \sim Unif(0, 1)$ .

So! **50** of students have a percentile of at least **0.5**. **10** have a percentile between  $(0, 0.1)$ , and between  $(0.1, 0.2)$ , ...

## 4.4 Normal distribution

A famous continuous distribution with a bell-shaped PDF!

A continuous RV  $Z$  has the *standard Normal distribution* if its PDF  $\varphi$  is:

$$\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}, \quad -\infty < z < \infty.$$

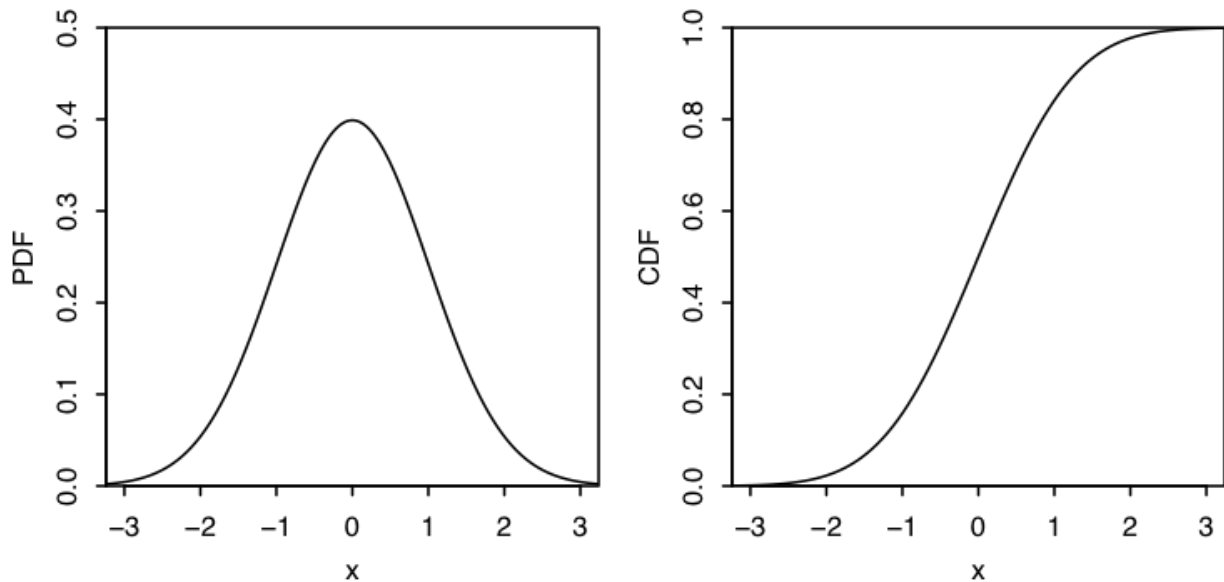
We write this as  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

It is widely used in statistics because of the *central limit theorem*, which says that under very weak assumptions, the sum of a large number of IID (independent and identically distributed) RVs has an approximately Normal distribution, regardless of the distribution of the individual RVs.

Why it has  $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$  in PDF? We need this constant to integrate PDF to **1**. Such constants are called *normalizing constants*.

The standard Normal  $\Phi$  CDF is the accumulated area under the PDF:

$$\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \varphi(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$



So  $\varphi$  is a standard Normal PDF,  $\Phi$  is a standard Normal CDF,  $Z$  is standard Normal RV.

Normal PDF and CDF are looking similar to Logistic ones, but Normal PDF decays to 0 more quickly: almost all the area under  $\varphi$  is between  $-3, 3$  while for Logistic PDF it is between  $-5, 5$ .

Properties of Normal PDF and CDF:

1. *Symmetry of PDF*:  $\varphi(z) = \varphi(-z)$ ,  $\varphi$  is an even function.
2. *Symmetry of tail areas*: The area under PDF curve is left to  $-2$  equals to area to the right of  $2$ ,

$$\Phi(z) = 1 - \Phi(-z) \quad \forall z$$

Proof:

$$\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{-z} \varphi(t) dt = \int_z^{\infty} \varphi(u) du = 1 - \int_{-\infty}^z \varphi(u) du = 1 - \Phi(z)$$

3. *Symmetry of  $Z$  and  $-Z$* : If  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , then  $-Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  as well.

Proof:

$$P(-Z \leq z) = P(Z \leq -z) = 1 - \Phi(-z) = \Phi(z)$$

**Normal distribution:**

If  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , then:

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z$$

Is normal distribution with mean parameter  $\mu$  and variance parameter  $\sigma^2$ ,  $\forall$  real  $\mu, \sigma^2$  and  $\sigma > 0$ . We denote this by:  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

If  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,

$$\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

It is called *standardization*. We can use it to find PDF and CDF of  $X$ :

$$F(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right),$$
$$f(x) = \varphi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \frac{1}{\sigma}.$$

**Important numbers** if  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

$$P(|X - \mu| < \sigma) \approx 0.68$$
$$P(|X - \mu| < 2\sigma) \approx 0.95$$
$$P(|X - \mu| < 3\sigma) \approx 0.997$$

## 4.5 Exponential distribution

It is widely used as a simple model for the waiting time for a certain kind of event to occur.

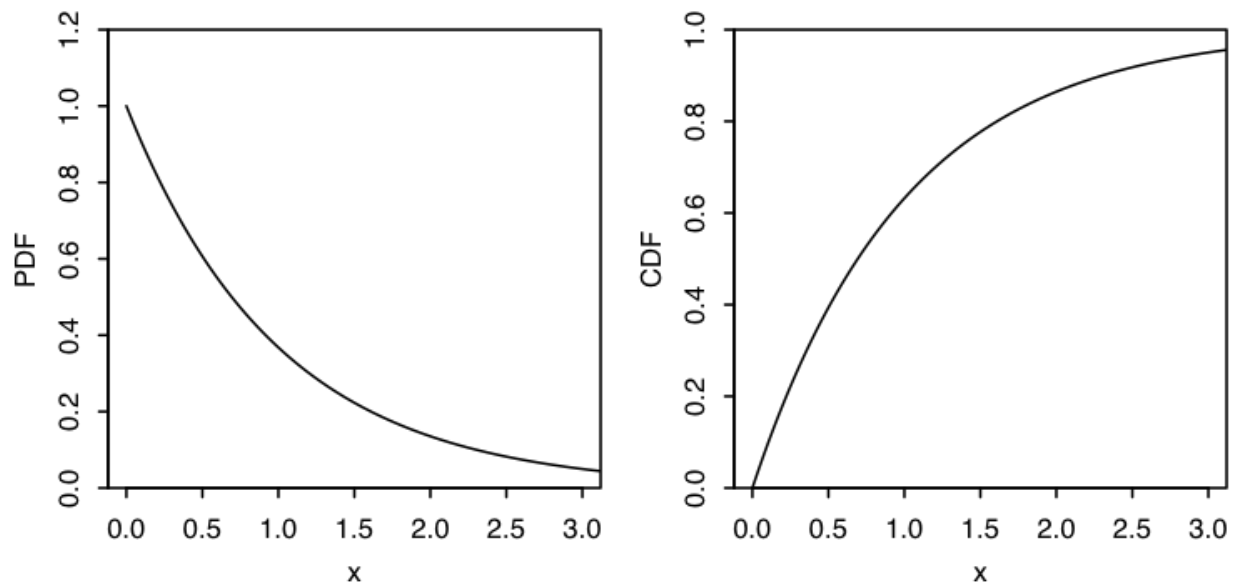
A continuous RV has an **Exponential distribution** with the parameter  $\lambda$ , where  $\lambda > 0$  if its PDF is:

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x > 0.$$

We denote this by  $X \sim \text{Expo}(\lambda)$ . CDF:

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x > 0.$$

Plotted  $\text{Expo}(1)$  PDF and CDF:



Scale transformations for exponential distributions: If  $X \sim \text{Expo}(1)$ , then:

$$Y = \frac{X}{\lambda} \sim \text{Expo}(\lambda)$$

because

$$P(Y \leq y) = P(X/\lambda \leq y) = P(X \leq \lambda y) = 1 - e^{-\lambda y}, \quad y > 0.$$

If  $Y \sim \text{Expo}(\lambda)$ , then  $\lambda Y \sim \text{Expo}(1)$ .

Memoryless property:

If the waiting time for a certain event to occur is Exponential, your additional waiting time is still Exponential!

To have a *memoryless property*, an RV  $X$  should satisfy:

$$P(X \geq s + t | X \geq t) = P(X \geq s), \quad s, t > 0$$

$s$  represents time already spent on waiting,  $t$  is additional time. Another way to state the memoryless property: conditional on  $X \geq s$ , the additional waiting time  $X - s$  is still  $\sim \text{Expo}(\lambda)$ .

Proof:



$$P(X \geq s + t | X \geq s) = \frac{P(X \geq s + t)}{P(X \geq s)} = \frac{e^{-\lambda(s+t)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(X \geq t)$$

Why then do we care about the Exponential distribution?

1. Some physical phenomena, such as radioactive decay, truly do exhibit the memoryless property.
2. The Exponential distribution is well-connected to other named distributions.
3. The Exponential serves as a building block for more flexible distributions.

## 4.6 Poisson processes