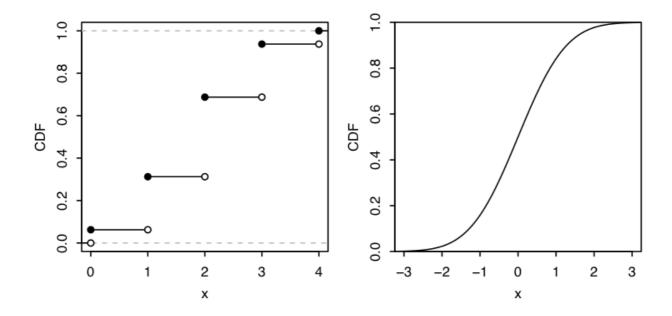
4 Continuous Random Variables

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: $f(x) \ge 0$

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

Example: logistic distribution.

 $X \sim$ Logistic.

CDF:

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

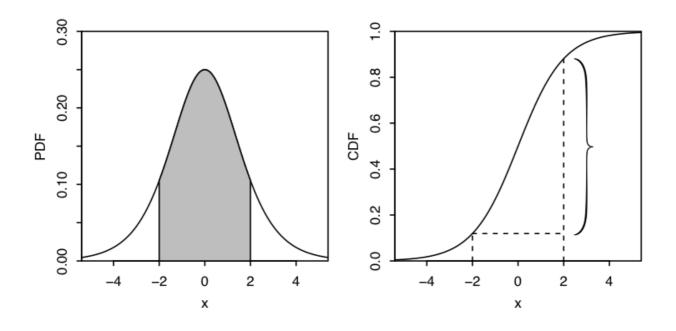
PDF:

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

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

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

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* $X \sim Unif(a,b)$ on the interval (a,b) if its PDF is:

$$f(x) = rac{1}{b-a} \ orall a < x < b, \ f(x) = 0 \ otherwise$$

The CDF is the accumulated area under the PDF:

$$egin{aligned} F(x) &= 0 \ orall x \leq a, \ F(x) &= rac{x-a}{b-a} \ a < x < b, \ F(x) &= 1 \ orall x \geq b. \end{aligned}$$

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 $Y = \sigma X + \mu$. μ controls the location and σ 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 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 $(0,1) \to \mathbb{R}$. Results:

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

What this theorem is saying about?

Fist 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 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 $F(x)=1-e^{-1}$ 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 φ is:

$$arphi(z) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}, \; -\infty < z < \infty.$$

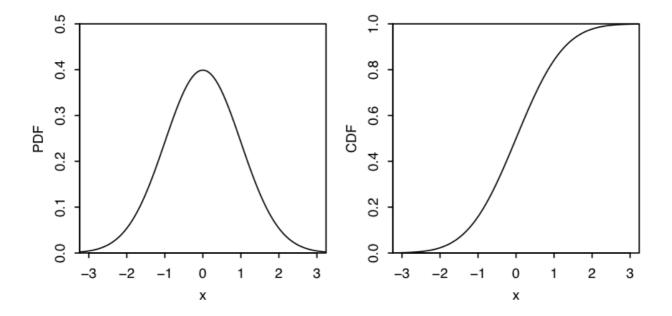
We write this as $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

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 Φ CDF is the accumulated area under the PDF:

$$arPhi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z arphi(z) dt = \int_{-\infty}^z rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$



So φ is a standard Normal PDF, ${\bf \Phi}$ is a standard Normal CDF, ${\bf Z}$ 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 φ is between -3, 3 while for Logistic PDF it is between -5, 5.

Properties of Normal PDF and CDF:

- 1. *Symmetry of PDF*: $\varphi(z) = \varphi(-z)$, φ 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,

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

Proof:

$$oldsymbol{arPhi}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{-z} arphi(t) dt = \int_{z}^{\infty} arphi(u) du = 1 - \int_{-\infty}^{z} arphi(u) du = 1 - oldsymbol{arPhi}(z)$$

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

Proof:

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

Normal distribution:

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$egin{aligned} F(x) &= arPhi(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma}), \ f(x) &= arphi(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma})rac{1}{\sigma}. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

4.5 Exponential distribution

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

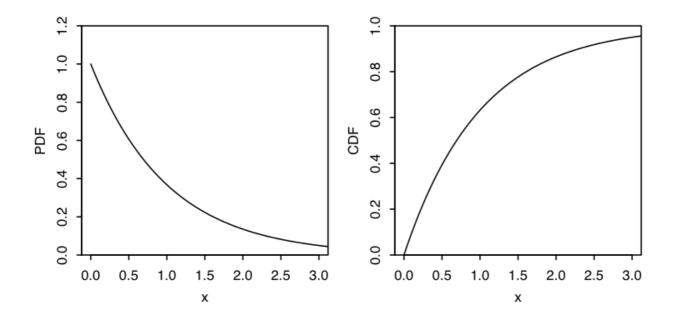
A continuous RV has an **Exponential distribution** with the parameter λ , where $\lambda > 0$ if its PDF is:

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

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

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

Plotted Expo(1) PDF and CDF:



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

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

because

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

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