

# CSC380: Principles of Data Science

**Probability 3**  
**Xinchen Yu**

# Review: “probability cheatsheet”

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## Additivity:

For any *finite* or *countably infinite* sequence of disjoint events  $E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots$ , 
$$P\left(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} E_i\right) = \sum_{i \geq 1} P(E_i)$$

## Inclusion-exclusion rule:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

Law of total probability: For events  $B_1, B_2, \dots$  that partitions  $\Omega$ ,

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i)$$

## Conditional probability:

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

$(P(A|B) \neq P(B|A) \text{ in general})$

## Probability chain rule:

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

## Law of total probability + Conditional probability:

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_i P(B_i)P(A|B_i) = \sum_i P(A)P(B_i|A)$$

## Bayes' rule:

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

## Independence:

(definition) A and B are independent if  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$

(property) A and B are independent if and only if  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  (or  $P(B|A) = P(B)$ )

- Random variables
- Distribution functions
  - probability mass functions (PMF)
  - cumulative distribution function (CDF)
- Summarizing distributions: mean and variance
- Example discrete random variables
- Continuous random variables
  - Probability density functions (PDF)
  - Examples

# Random Variables

# Random variables (RVs)

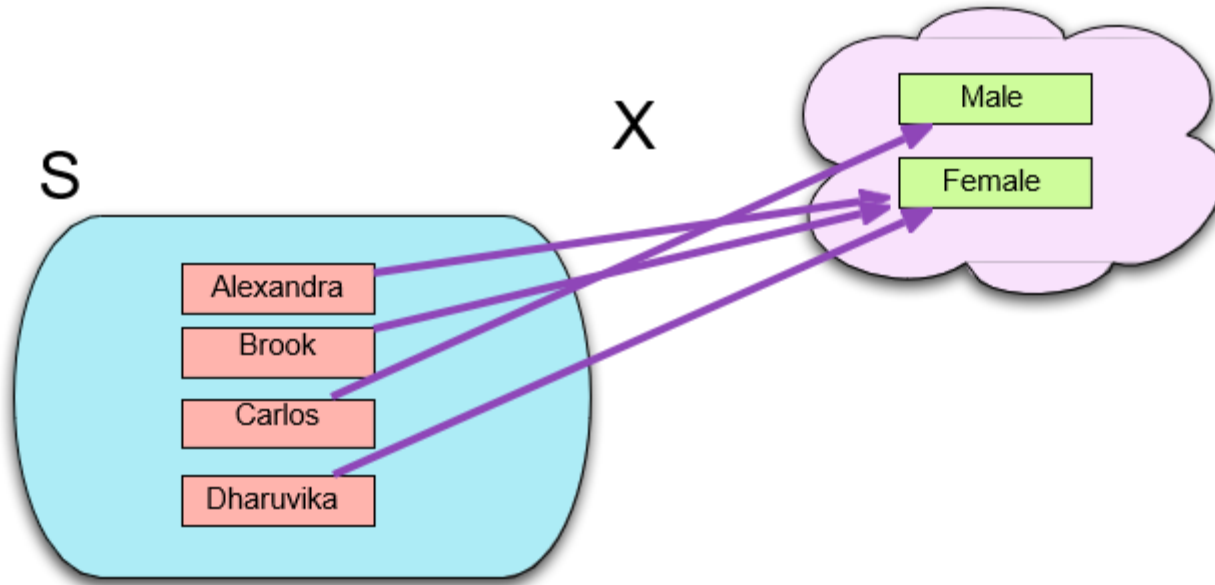
- A single random sample may have more than one characteristic that we can observe (i.e., it may be bi-/multivariate data).
- We can represent each characteristic (e.g., gender, weight, cancer status, etc.) using a separate random variable.

## Random Variable

A **random variable** connects each possible outcome in the sample space to some property of interest.

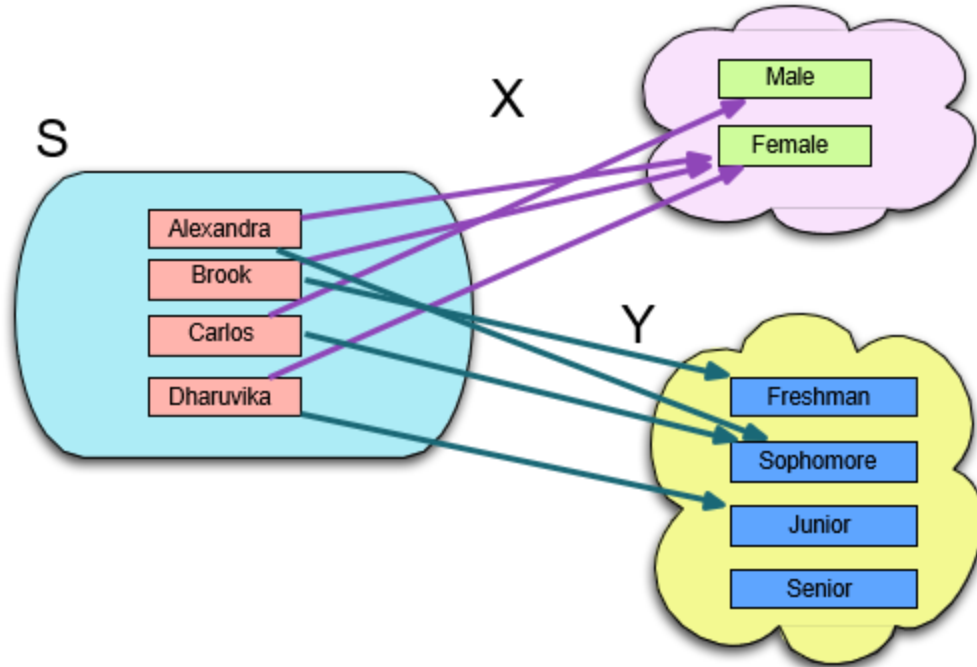
Each value of the random variable (e.g., male or female) has an associated probability.

# Random Variable: Example



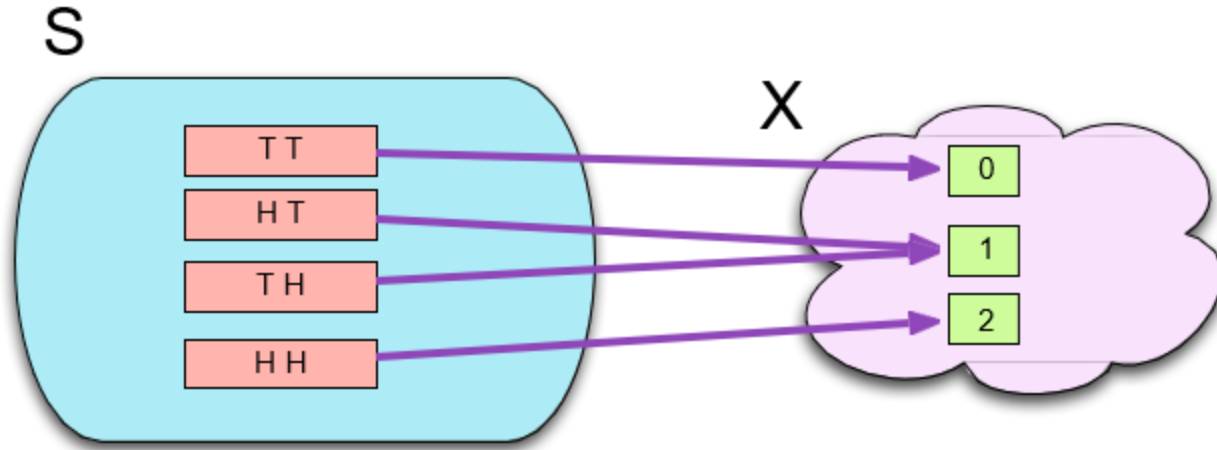
- $X$ : people  $\rightarrow$  their genders

# Random Variable: Example



- $Y$ : people  $\rightarrow$  their class year

# Random Variable: Example



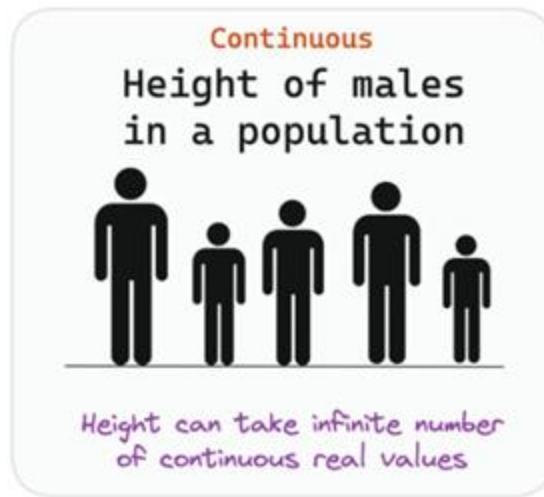
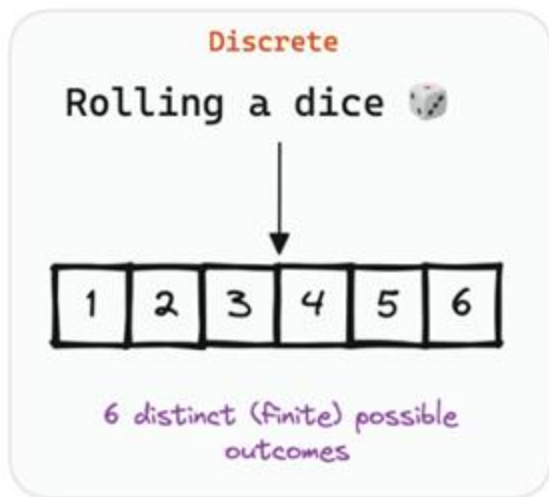
- $X$ : sequence of coin flips  $\rightarrow$  Number of heads



# Types of Random Variables

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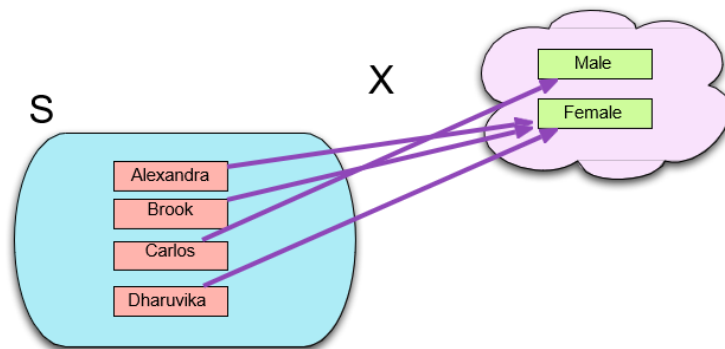
- Discrete random variable: takes a finite or countable number of distinct values.
- Continuous random variable: takes an infinite number of values within a specified range or interval.



# Distribution functions

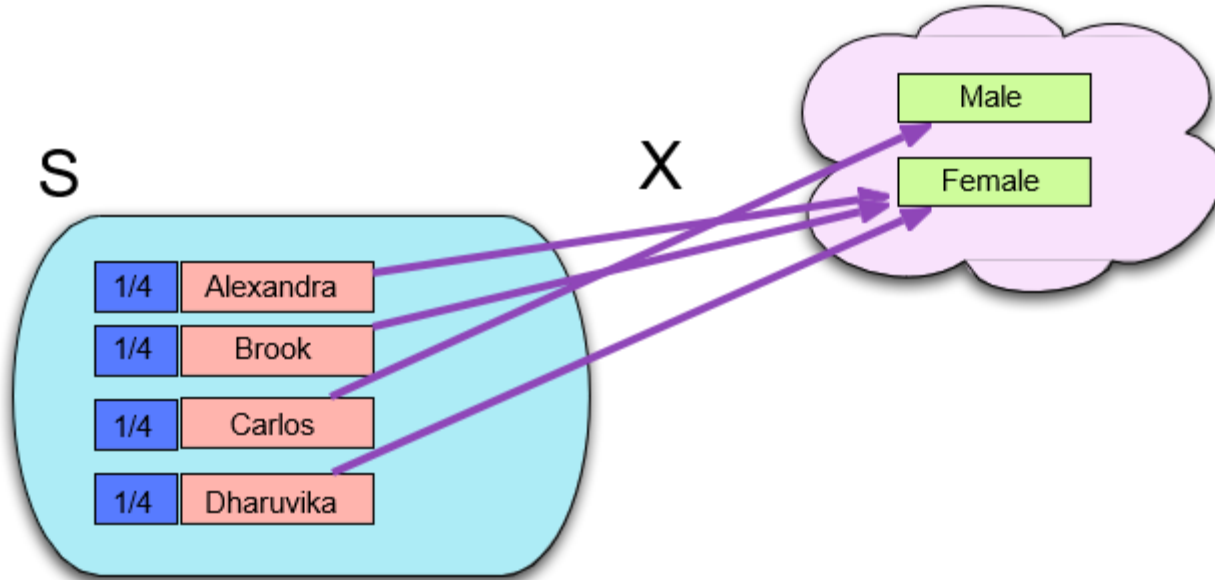
# Discrete distributions

- When a random variable is discrete, its *distribution* is characterized by the probabilities assigned to each distinct value.
- The probability that the random variable takes a particular value comes from the probability associated with the set of individual outcomes that have that value.
  - This set is an event
- E.g.  $P(X = \text{Female})$



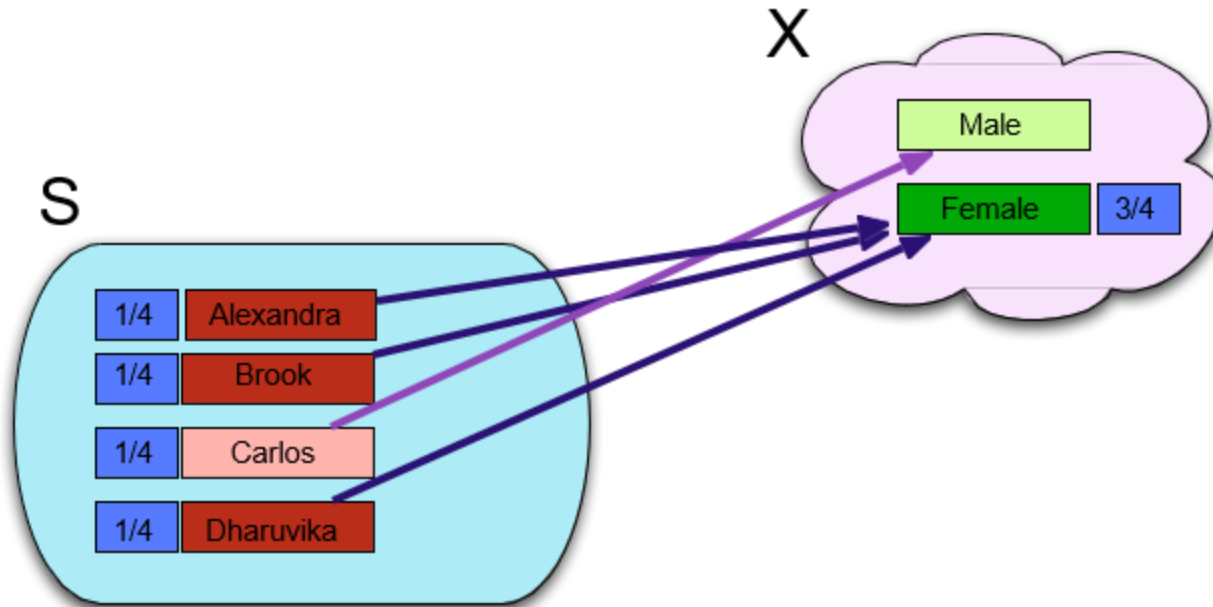
# Discrete distributions

- How to find  $P(X = \text{Female})$ ?



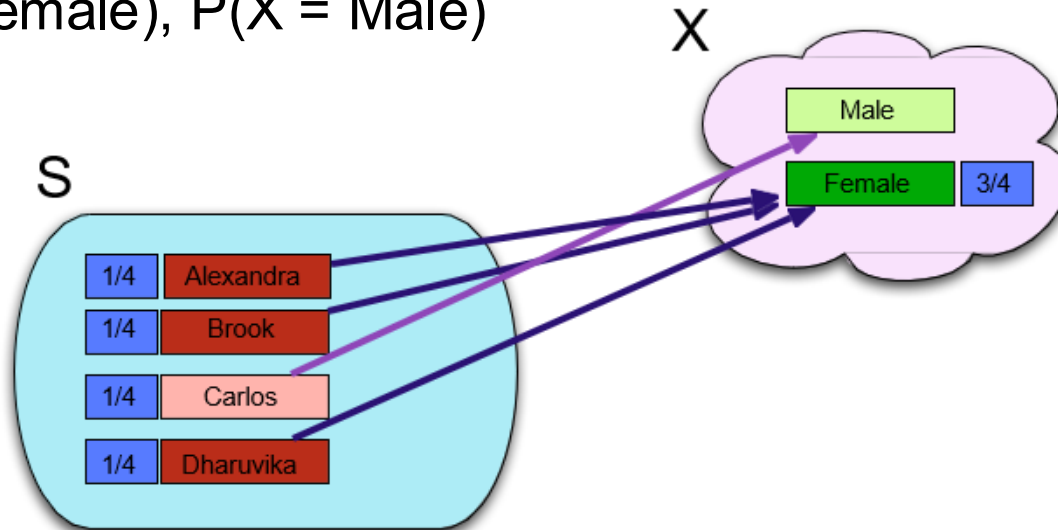
# Discrete distributions

- How to find  $P(X = \text{Female})$ ?



# Discrete distributions

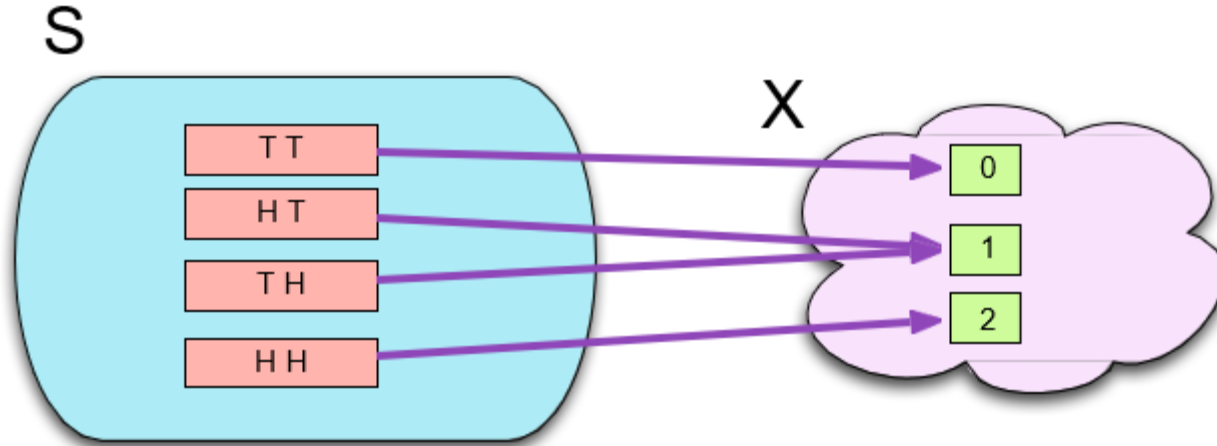
- What is the distribution of random variable  $X$ ?
  - $P(X = \text{Female})$ ,  $P(X = \text{Male})$



$x$	Male	Female
$P(X = x)$	$1/4$	$3/4$

# Discrete distributions

- What is the distribution of random variable  $X$ ?



$x$	0	1	2
$P(X = x)$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$

# Properties of Discrete Distributions

- We can write  $P(X = x)$  to mean “The probability that the random variable  $X$  takes the value  $x$ ”.
- What must be true of these probabilities?

## Properties of Discrete Distributions

1. Each  $P(X = x)$  is a probability, so must be between 0 and 1.
2. The  $P(X = x)$  must sum to 1 over all possible  $x$  values.



# Probability Mass function (PMF)

## The Probability Mass Function

A discrete random variable,  $X$ , can be characterized by its **probability mass function**,  $f$  (might sometimes write  $f_X$  if it's not clear from context which random variable we're talking about).

The PMF takes in values of the variable, and returns probabilities:

$$f(x) \text{ is defined to be } P(X = x)$$

# PMF is a table

- Think of the PMF as a lookup table.

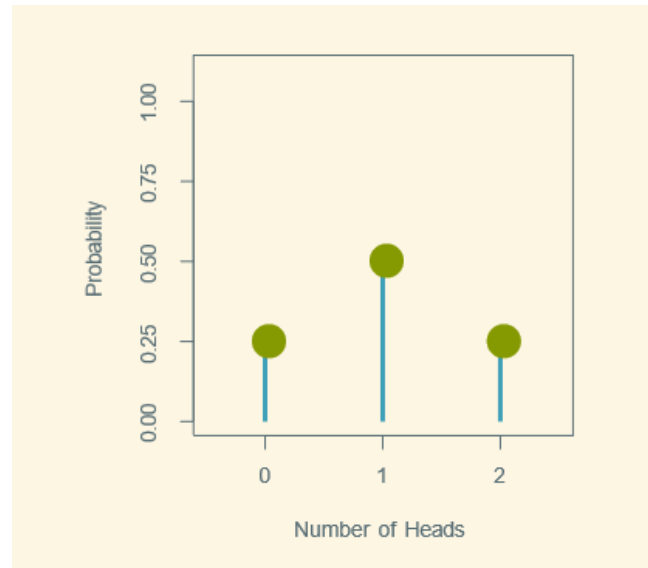
$x$	Male	Female
$P(X = x)$	$1/4$	$3/4$

- Best way to think of discrete random variables: they take various values, and each value has a certain probability of happening.

# Visualizing discrete distributions: spike plot

Flip two coins at the same time, probability distribution of number of heads:

- Often use the spike plot
- Like a bar plot, but with probabilities, instead of frequencies or proportions, on the y-axis.



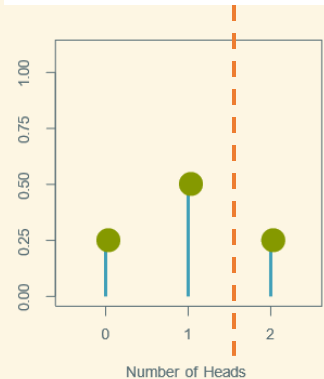
# The cumulative distribution function (CDF)

- Often we are interested in the probability of falling in some range of values.
- We can use the cumulative distribution function (CDF), which gives the “accumulated probability” up to a particular value.

## The Cumulative Distribution Function

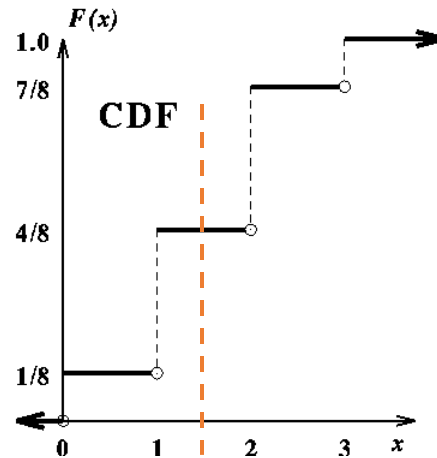
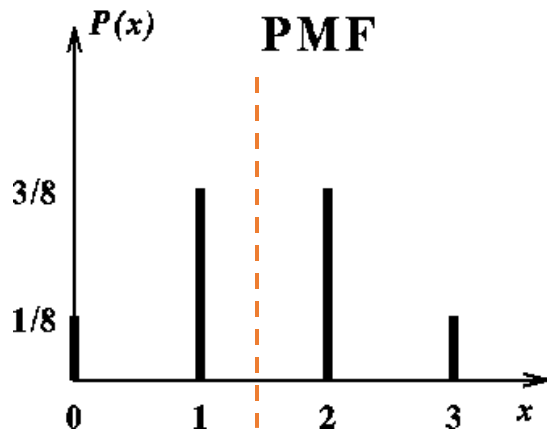
A random variable,  $X$ , can be characterized by its **cumulative distribution function**,  $F$  (or sometimes  $F_X$  if we need to be explicit), which takes values and returns *cumulative* probabilities:

$F(x)$  is defined to be  $P(X \leq x)$



# Relating PMF to CDF

- How can we calculate  $F(x)$  from the PMF table  $f$ ?
  - Add up all the probabilities up to and including  $f(x)$ .
  - What is the value of  $F(-0.1)$  (i.e.,  $P(X \leq -0.1)$ )?  $F(1)$ ?



- For discrete random variables,  $F(x)$  *jumps* at locations with nonzero probability mass

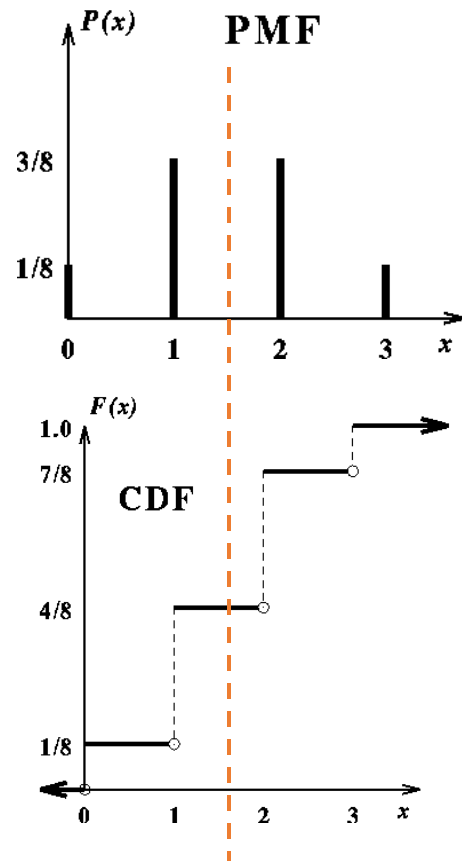
# Relating PMF to CDF

- So the PMF of  $X$  is:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/8, & x = 0 \\ 3/8, & x = 1 \\ 3/8, & x = 2 \\ 1/8, & x = 3 \end{cases}$$

- We can write the CDF of  $X$ :

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{8}, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & 1 \leq x < 2 \\ \frac{7}{8}, & 2 \leq x < 3 \\ 1, & x \geq 3 \end{cases}$$



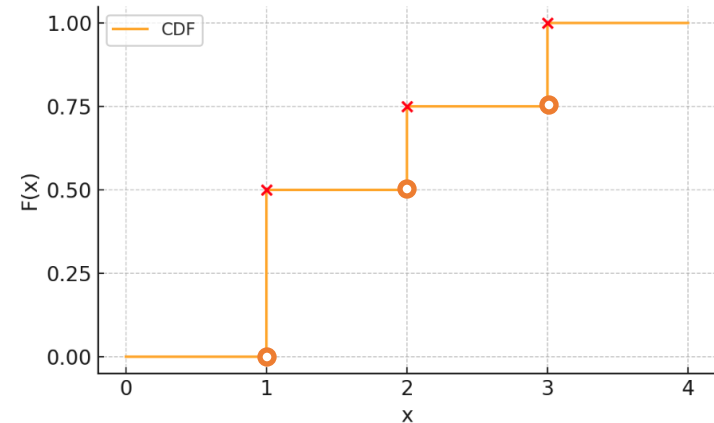
# In-class activity

- Given by the PMF of  $X$ , find the CDF of  $X$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2, & x = 1 \\ 1/4, & x = 2 \\ 1/4, & x = 3 \end{cases}$$

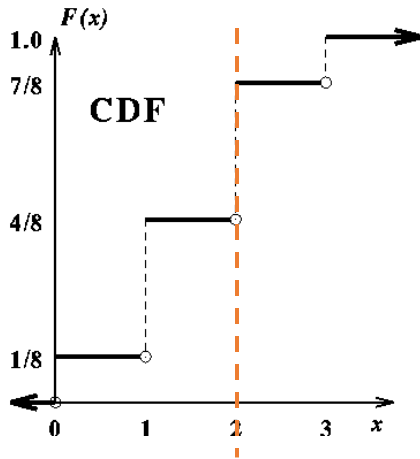
- Answer:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & 1 \leq x < 2 \\ \frac{3}{4}, & 2 \leq x < 3 \\ 1, & x \geq 3 \end{cases}$$



# Relating CDF to PMF

- How could we find  $f(x)$  from a cumulative distribution function  $F$ ? e.g.,  $f(2)$ ?



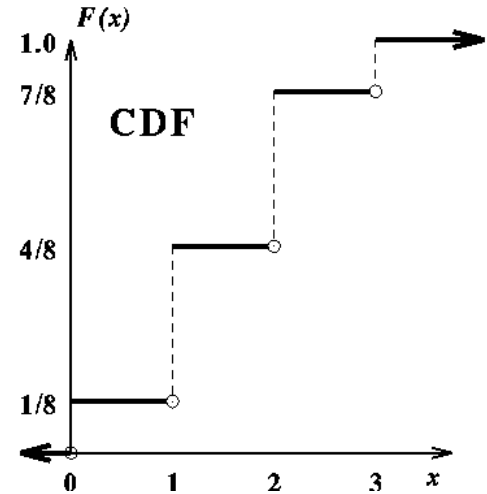
- Focus on “jumps”:  $f(x) = F(x) - F(\text{jump just below } x)$ 
  - $f(2) = F(2) - F(1) = \frac{7}{8} - \frac{4}{8} = \frac{3}{8}$
  - $f(2.1) = F(2.1) - F(2) = \frac{7}{8} - \frac{7}{8} = 0$
  - $f(1.5) = F(1.5) - F(1) = \frac{4}{8} - \frac{4}{8} = 0$



# Exercise: using CDF and PMF

Given the CDF  $F$ :

- How to calculate  $P(X > x)$ ?
  - $P(X > x) = 1 - P(X \leq x) = 1 - F(x)$
- How about  $P(X \geq x)$ ?
  - $P(X \geq x) = 1 - P(X < x) = 1 - (P(X \leq x) - P(X=x))$
  - $1 - F(x) + f(x)$
  - $f(x)$  can be 0 or nonzero, depending on whether  $x$  is a jump



# Exercise: using CDF and PMF

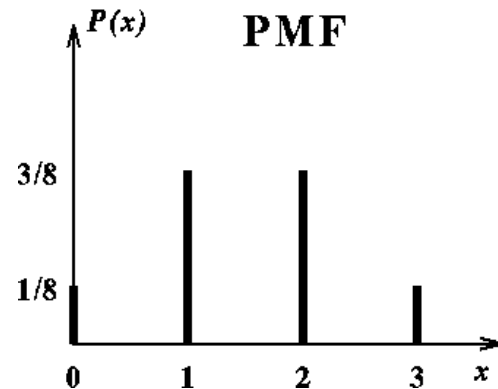
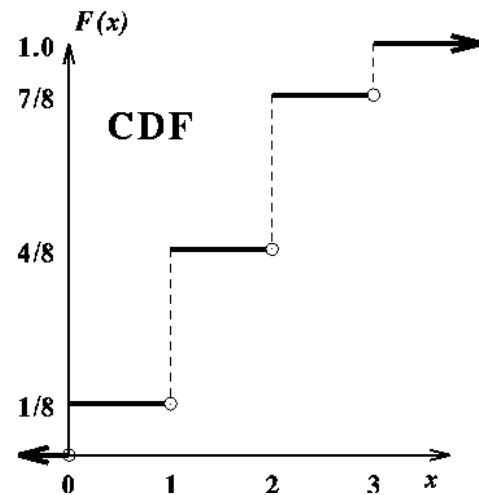
- What is  $P(X \geq 2)$ ?
  - $P(X \geq x) = 1 - F(x) + f(x)$
  - $f(x)$  can be 0 or nonzero, depending on whether  $x$  is a jump

Using the formula:

$$\bullet \quad P(X \geq 2) = 1 - F(2) + f(2) = 1 - \frac{7}{8} + \frac{3}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Another way:

$$\bullet \quad P(X \geq 2) = P(X = 2) + P(X = 3) = \frac{3}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$$



# Exercise: using CDF and PMF

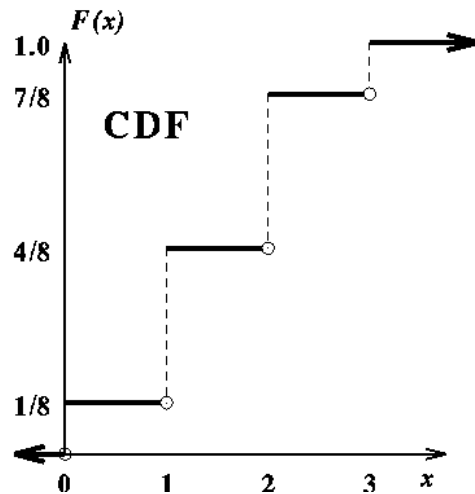
Given the CDF  $F$ :

- How to calculate  $P(a < X \leq b)$ ?

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

$$= F(b) - F(a)$$

- How to calculate  $P(a < X < b)$ ?
  - (I'll leave this to you as an exercise..)



# Transformations of random variables

- If  $X$  is a random variable, then  $X + 5, 3X, X^2, \dots$ , are all random variables
- Given any transformation function  $f$ ,  $f(X)$  is a random variable
- How to find the PMF of  $f(X)$  based on that of  $X$ ?
  - First, find all values  $f(X)$  can take
  - For each value  $c$ , try to find  $P(f(X) = c)$

# Examples

- Suppose  $X$  has PMF

$x$	1	-1
$P(X = x)$	0.5	0.5

- What is the PMF of  $Y = X + 5$ ?
  - $Y$  can take values 6 and 4
  - $P(Y = 6) = P(X = 1) = 0.5$
  - $P(Y = 4) = P(X = -1) = 0.5$

$y$	6	4
$P(Y = y)$	0.5	0.5

# Examples (cont'd)

- Suppose  $X$  has PMF

$x$	1	-1
$P(X = x)$	0.5	0.5

- What is the PMF of  $Z = 3X$ ?

$z$	3	-3
$P(Z = z)$	0.5	0.5

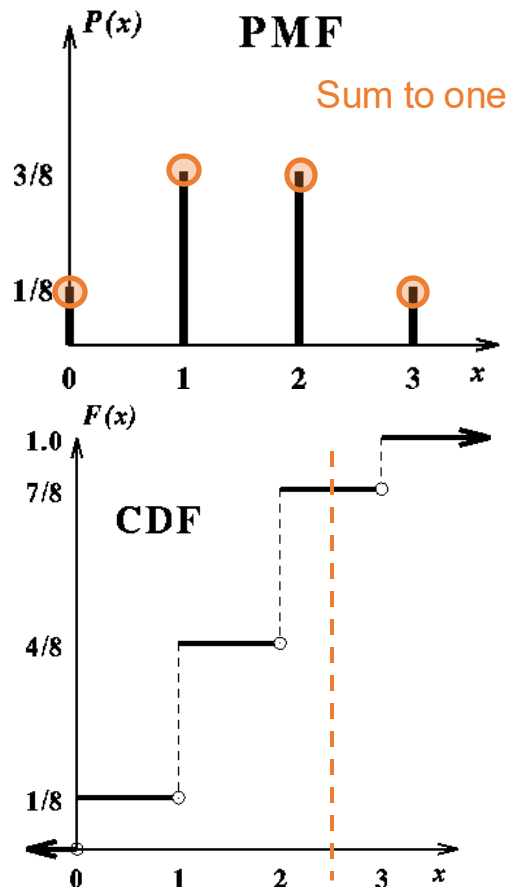
- What is the PMF of  $W = X^2$ ?

$w$	1
$P(W = w)$	1

Note:  $\{W = 1\} = \{X = +1 \text{ or } X = -1\}$

# Recap: RV, PMF and CDF

- RV: connects all outcomes to a property of interest
- A RV has a distribution, which assign a probability to each distinct value  $X$  can take
- For discrete RV  $X$ :
  - PMF:  $f(x)$  defined as  $P(X = x)$
  - CDF:  $F(x)$  defined as  $P(X \leq x)$
- Derive CDF from PMF, and vice versa
  - $f(x) = F(x) - F(\text{jump just below } x)$
  - $F(x)$ : the total of all jumps (PMF values) at points less than or equal to  $x$
- PMF of  $f(X)$ 
  - First, find all values  $f(X)$  can take
  - For each value  $c$ , try to find  $P(f(X) = c)$

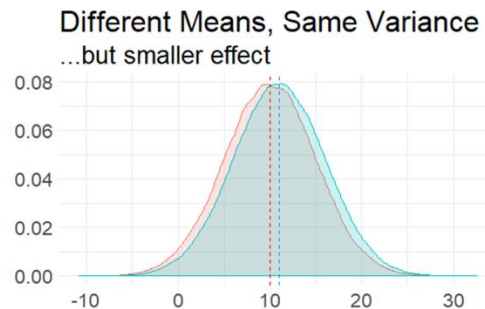
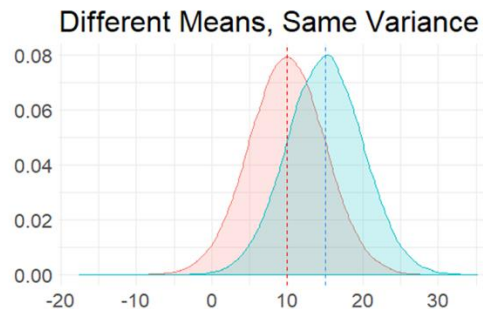
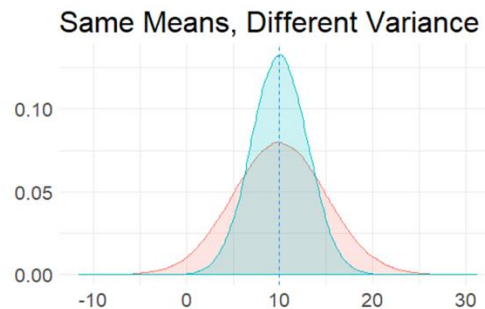
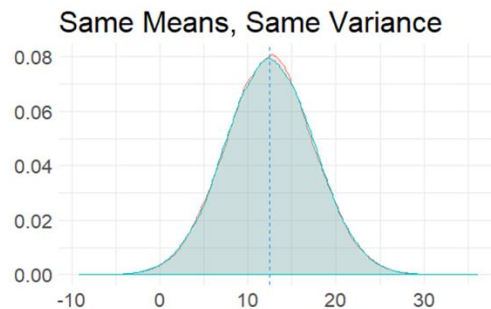


# Mean and Variance



# Summarizing random variables

- It is useful to characterize the *center* and *spread* of a probability distribution
  - “what value do we expect to occur?”, and
  - “how confident are we in our prediction?”



# Mean (aka expectation, expected value)

- The mean of a random variable  $X$  is also called its *expected value*. Usually written as  $\mu$  or  $E[X]$ .
- As with a sample mean, it represents an average over the possible values; and the average is *weighted by the probabilities*.
  - $(2 + 2 + 1 + 5)/4 = 2.5$
  - $2 * \frac{1}{2} + 1 * \frac{1}{4} + 5 * \frac{1}{4} = 2.5$
- Makes sense if you were to repeat the random process many times, the average of the observed values of  $X$  would approach  $E[X]$ . It doesn't mean this value will be observed directly—it's a weighted average.

# Example: expected winnings at Roulette

- 38 outcomes (18 red, 18 black, 2 green: 0, 00) equally likely
- Suppose we bet on black. Define  $X$  which takes the value 1(\$ for outcomes where we win, and  $-1(\text{\$})$  for outcomes where we lose.
- Its probability mass function is given by

$x$	-1	1
$P(X = x)$	20/38	18/38



# Example: expected winnings at Roulette

- X's PMF is

$x$	-1	1
$P(X = x)$	20/38	18/38

- Its expected value is

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= -1 \times P(X = -1) + 1 \times P(X = 1) \\ &= -\frac{2}{38}\end{aligned}$$

- expected value per spin is like saying, if I play this game thousands of times, what is my average profit/loss per spin?

# Example: expected winnings at Roulette

- In general we have:

## Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable

$$\mu \text{ (aka } E(X)) := \sum_x xP(X = x)$$

Summation is over all values  $X$  can take

- Ex: find the mean of the random variable with PMF

$x$	0	1	2
$P(X = x)$	0.7	0.2	0.1

- Answer:  $0 \times 0.7 + 1 \times 0.2 + 2 \times 0.1 = 0.4$

# Expectation formula

- Given RV  $X$  and its PMF, how to find  $E[X + 5]$ ,  $E[3X]$ , etc?
- Idea 1: find the PMF of the transformed RV and use the definition of expectation
- Idea 2: use the following fact:

## Expectation formula

$$E[f(X)] = \sum_x f(x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

# Expectation formula: example

- Suppose  $X$  has PMF
- Find:  $E[X + 5]$ ,  $E[X^2]$

$x$	1	-1
$P(X = x)$	0.5	0.5

## Expectation formula

$$E[f(X)] = \sum_x f(x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

- $E[X + 5] = (1 + 5) \times 0.5 + (-1 + 5) \times 0.5 = 5$
- $E[X^2] = 1^2 \times 0.5 + (-1)^2 \times 0.5 = 1$

# Variance

- The variance, written  $\sigma^2$  or  $\text{Var}(X)$  or  $E[(X - \mu)^2]$  is the “expected squared deviation” from the mean.
- It is a weighted average of the squared deviations corresponding to the individual values.

## Variance of a Discrete Random Variable

$$\sigma^2 \text{ (aka } \text{Var}(X), \text{ aka } E((X - \mu)^2)) = \sum_x (x - \mu)^2 P(X = x)$$

- $E[(X - \mu)^2]$  – expectation of  $(X - \mu)^2$ , another RV



# Example: Roulette

- X's PMF is

$x$	-1	1
$P(X = x)$	$20/38$	$18/38$

- Its expected value is  $\mu = -\frac{2}{38}$

- Its variance is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= (-1 - \mu)^2 \cdot P(X = -1) + (1 - \mu)^2 \cdot P(X = 1) \\ &= \left(-1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{20}{38} + \left(1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{18}{38} \\ &= \dots \approx 0.997\end{aligned}$$

# Standard deviation

- Just as with a sample, the standard deviation,  $\sigma$ , is the square root of the variance.
- E.g. in the roulette example,  $\sigma = \sqrt{0.997} \approx 0.998$ 
  - In one spin, the “typical” variation of our balance is 0.998

# Exercise

- Find the mean and variance for the random variable with PMF given by

$x$	0	1	2
$P(X = x)$	0.7	0.2	0.1

Ans:

- $\mu = 0 \times 0.7 + 1 \times 0.2 + 2 \times 0.1 = 0.4$
- $\sigma^2 = 0.4^2 \times 0.7 + 0.6^2 \times 0.2 + 1.6^2 \times 0.1$   
 $= 0.44$
- For a random variable  $X$ , when is its  $\sigma^2$  zero?

# Properties of expectation

- What will happen to the roulette game if we bet \$2 instead of \$1?
- The new PMF becomes
- The new expected winnings are then

$x$	-2	2
$P(X = x)$	20/38	18/38

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= -2 \times P(X = -2) + 2 \times P(X = 2) \\ &= -\frac{4}{38}\end{aligned}$$

- What's the relationship between this value and the old expected value?
  - Doubling the individual values (w/o changing probs) doubles the expected value

# Properties of expectation

- This works in general: if we change the values of a random variable by multiplying by a constant, the expectation gets multiplied by a constant.
- To see this, recall the expectation formula:

$$E[f(X)] = \sum_x f(x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

$$E[aX] = \sum_x ax P(X = x) = a \sum_x x P(X = x) = aE[X]$$

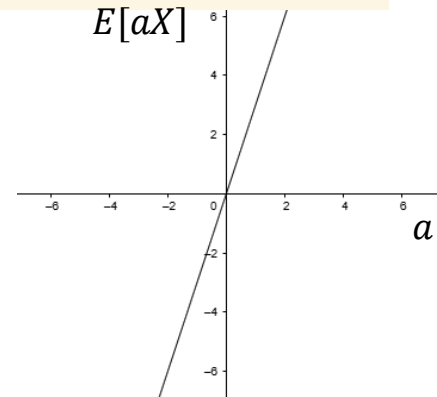
# Properties of expectation

## Property of Expectation

Multiplying a random variable by a constant scales the expected value by the same constant:

$$E(aX) = aE(X)$$

- Sometimes called “linearity of expectation”



# Properties of Variance

- What will happen to the variance if we multiply every value of a random variable by a constant  $a$ ?
- This is as if we increase our bet in the roulette game

$x$	-2	2
$P(X = x)$	20/38	18/38

- Variance = expected *squared* deviation
- All squared deviations are scaled by  $a^2$ , making variance also scaled by  $a^2$

# Properties of Variance

- Its old variance is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= (-1 - \mu)^2 \cdot P(X = -1) + (1 - \mu)^2 \cdot P(X = 1) \\ &= \left(-1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{20}{38} + \left(1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{18}{38} \\ &= \dots \approx 0.997\end{aligned}$$

- Its new variance is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= (-2 - 2\mu)^2 \cdot P(X = -1) + (2 - 2\mu)^2 \cdot P(X = 1) \\ &= 4 \times \left(-1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{20}{38} + 4 \times \left(1 - \left(-\frac{2}{38}\right)\right)^2 \times \frac{18}{38} \\ &= \dots \approx 4 \times 0.997\end{aligned}$$



# Properties of Variance

## Property of Variance

If the values of a random variable are multiplied by a constant,  $a$ , then the variance gets multiplied by  $a^2$ .

- In other words,  $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$
- How would standard deviation change accordingly?
  - scaled by  $|a|$  (!)

# Properties of Variance

## Alternative formula for finding variance

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

This sometimes simplifies calculations quite a bit

**Example**  $X$  has PMF

- $E[X^2] = 1$
- $E[X] = -\frac{2}{38}$
- $\Rightarrow \text{Var}(X) = 1 - \left(\frac{2}{38}\right)^2 = 0.997$

$x$	-1	1
$P(X = x)$	20/38	18/38

# Example Discrete Random Variables

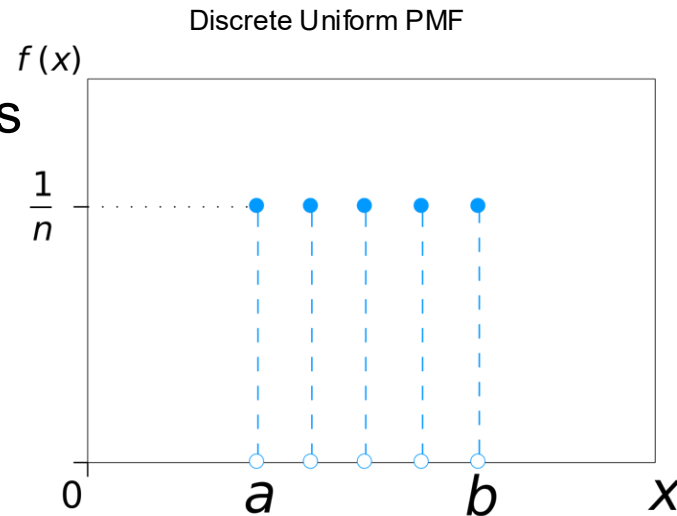
# Uniform distribution over a set

More generally, consider  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N\}$ ;  $X$  is drawn from the uniform distribution of  $S$ , then

$$P(X = k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} & \text{if } k \in \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We denote this by  $X \sim \text{Uniform}(S)$

- Selecting a student from a class
- Drawing a card from a shuffled deck
- Choosing a letter from the alphabet



To generate a sample from a uniform discrete distribution,

```
random.choice(a, size=None, replace=True, p=None)
```

Generates a random sample from a given 1-D array

```
numpy.random.choice([2,5,6])
```

Example output: 2

# Binomial distribution

- Suppose we perform  $n$  repeated independent trials, each with success probability  $p$ , what is the distribution of the number of successes  $X$ ?

- What values can  $X$  take?

$$m = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

- We have seen that  $P(X = m) =$

$$\binom{n}{m} \cdot p^m (1 - p)^{n-m}$$

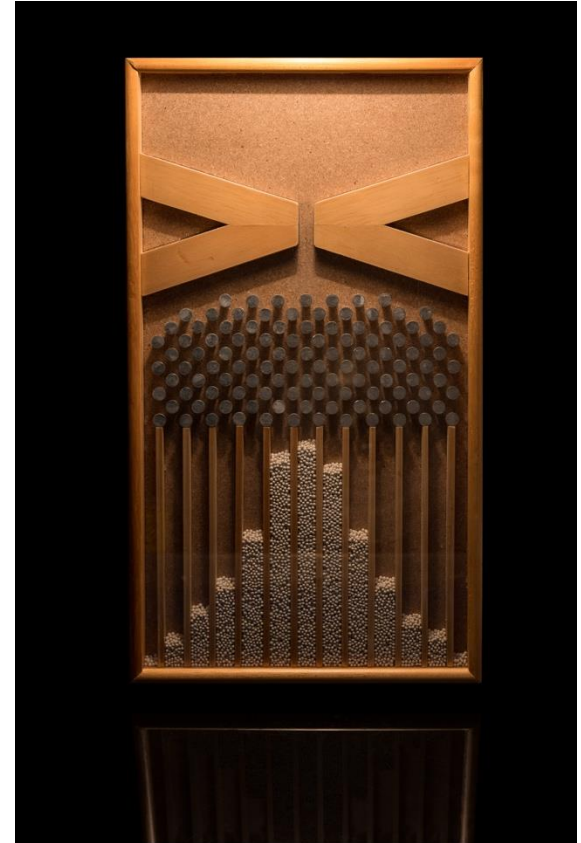
- In this case,  $X$  is said to be drawn from a *binomial distribution*, denoted by

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$$



# Galton Boards

- Illustration of binomial distribution
- Bead has 10 chances hitting pegs (10 rows of pegs)
- each time a peg is hit, bead randomly bounces to the left or the right with equal probabilities
- Number of times it bounces to the left:  
 $X \sim \text{Bin}(10, 0.5)$

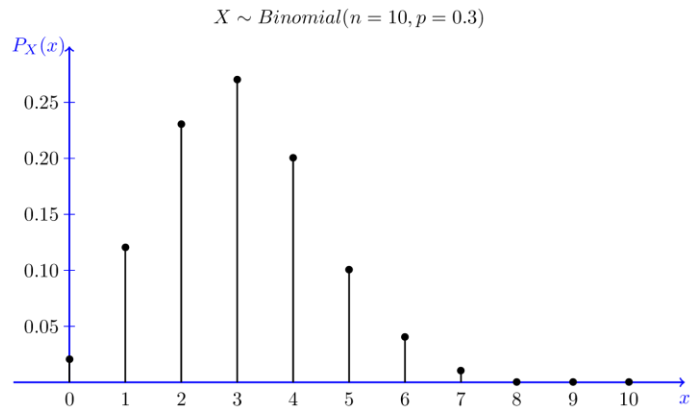


# Binomial distribution

- $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$
- $X$ 's PMF is “Bell-shaped”

Facts:

- $E[X] = E[n \cdot X_i] = n \cdot E[X_i] = np$
- $\text{Var}[X] = np(1 - p)$ 
  - Small when  $p$  is close to 0 or 1





# Bernoulli distribution

- What does  $X \sim \text{Bin}(1, p)$  mean?

$x$	0	1
$P(X = x)$	$1-p$	$p$

- This is called the Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $p$ , abbreviated as Bernoulli( $p$ )
- $E[X] = 0 \cdot (1 - p) + 1 \cdot p = p$

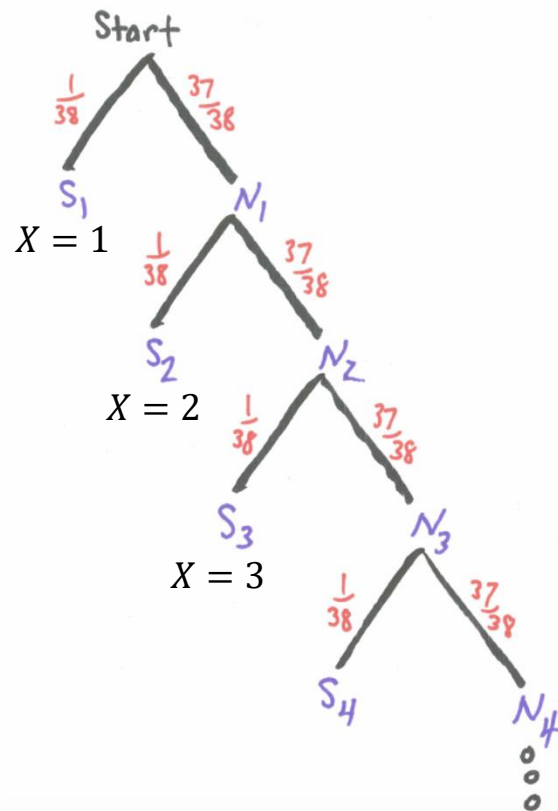


# Geometric distribution

- Suppose we perform repeated independent trials with success probability  $p$ . What is the distribution of  $X$ , the number of trials needed to get a success? (related to Q4 in HW3)
- Applications:
  - Call center: # calls before encountering first dissatisfied customer
  - Basketball: # shots before scoring the first
  - Networking: # attempts before a successful transmission
  - Gambling: # plays before first win

# Geometric distribution

- How to find  $P(X = x)$ ?
- Let's draw a probability tree..
- Example:  $p = \frac{1}{38}$  (roulette)
- $P(X = 1) = p$
- $P(X = 2) = (1 - p) p$
- $P(X = 3) = (1 - p)^2 p$
- ...



# Geometric distribution

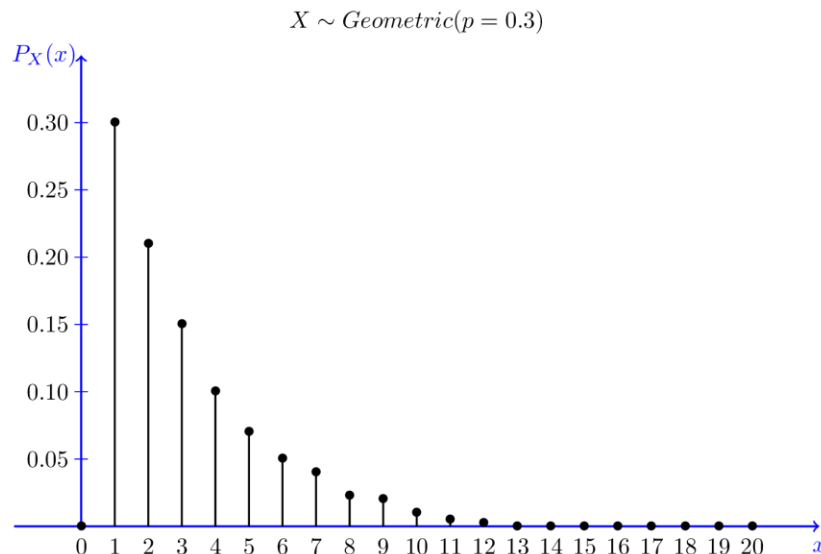
- In conclusion,

$$P(X = x) = p (1 - p)^{x-1}$$

for  $x = 1, 2, \dots$

Fact:

- $E[X] = \frac{1}{p}$
- $\text{Var}[X] = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$ 
  - Smaller when  $p$  closes to 1



# Recap

- Mean:
  - $\mu = E[X] = \sum_x x \cdot P(X = x)$
  - $E[f(X)] = \sum_x f(x) \cdot P(X = x)$
  - $E[a \cdot X] = a \cdot E[X]$
- Variance:
  - $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sum_x (x - \mu)^2 \cdot P(X = x)$
  - $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$
  - $\text{Var}(a \cdot X) = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X)$
- Example discrete RVs and their summary statistics (i.e., mean, variance)

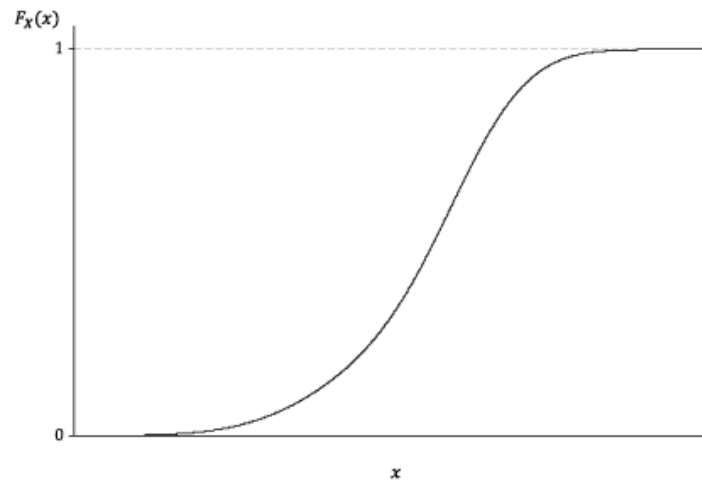
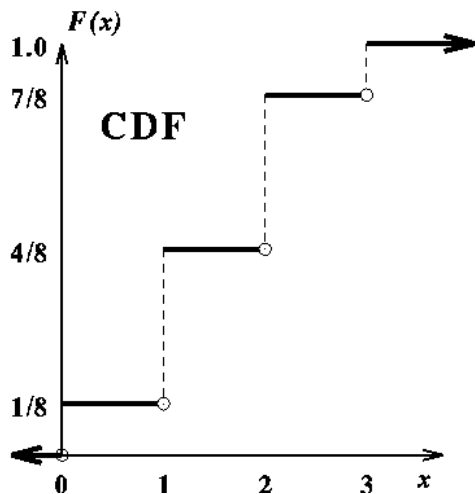
# Continuous Random Variables

# Plan

- Properties of CDF
- For continuous RV  $X$ , what is  $P(X = x)$ ?
- PDF and its properties
- Relation of CDF and PDF

# Continuous random variables

- Discrete random variables take values in a discrete set
- Their CDFs are discontinuous
- Continuous random variables take values in a continuous set
- Their CDFs are continuous





# Example: throwing dart

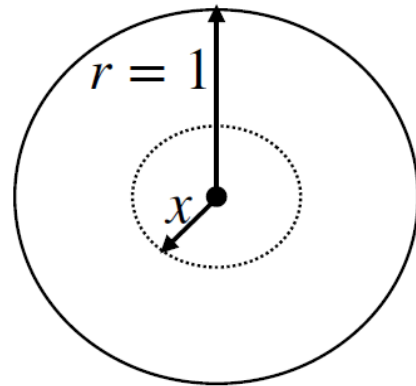
Dartboard with radius 1; dart lands uniformly at random on the board.  $X$  is the distance to the center.

What is the CDF of  $X$  (the probability that the dart lands at a distance less than or equal to  $x$  from the center)?

- $P(X \leq x) = \frac{\pi x^2}{\pi 1^2} = x^2$  for  $x \in [0,1]$

Thus,

- $F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x^2, & x \in [0,1] \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$



# Example: throwing dart

Dartboard with radius 1; dart lands uniformly at random on the board.  $X$  is the distance to the center.

What is the CDF of  $X$  (the probability that the dart lands at a distance less than or equal to  $x$  from the center)?

- E.g.  $P(X \leq 0.3) = 0.3^2 = 0.09$
- Can you find  $P(X = 0.3)$ ?
  - $P(X = 0.3) = 0!$
  - The probability that lands at exactly a distance of 0.3 from the center is 0

# Maybe it is not that weird..

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**Fact** for a continuous random variable  $X$ , the probability that it takes a specific value  $x$  is 0.

Q1: Probability that your house water usage tomorrow is 20.58 gallon?

- 0

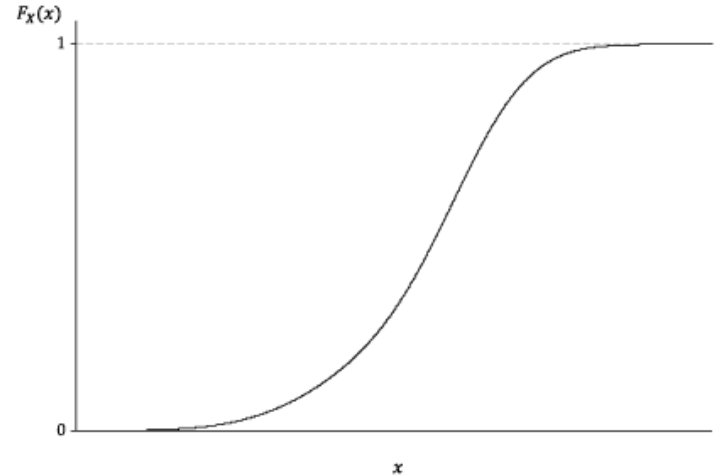
Q2: Probability that your house water usage tomorrow is between 20 and 25 gallon?

- A more useful question



# CDF for continuous RVs

- Suppose  $F$  is the CDF of continuous random variable  $X$
- What is  $P(a < X \leq b)$ ?
  - $F(b) - F(a)$
- What is  $P(a \leq X \leq b)$ ?
  - Same!
  - $P(a < X < b)$ ,  $P(a \leq X < b)$  also have the same value
  - Why?  $P(X = a) = P(X = b) = 0$

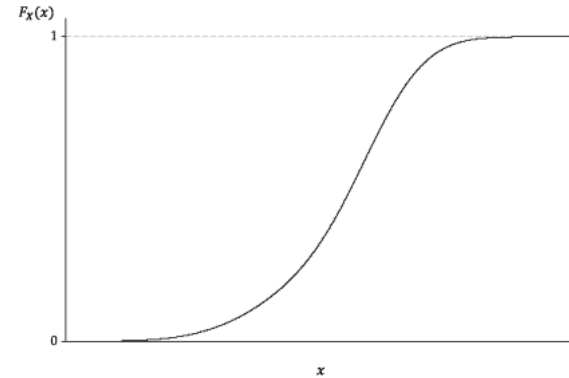
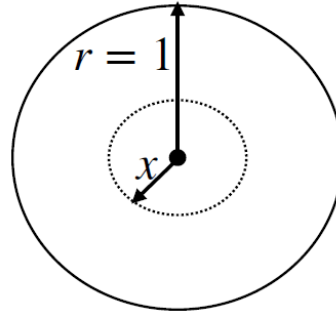


# CDF for continuous RVs

- Continuous RVs are those whose CDFs are continuous (no jumps)
- For example,  $X$  is the distance to the center

$F$  generally satisfies properties:

- $F$  is continuous (no jumps)
- $F$  is monotonically increasing
- $F$  goes to 0 as  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ 
  - Abbrev.  $F(-\infty) = 0$
- $F$  goes to 1 as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$



# Continuous random variables

- For discrete RVs, we have PMF and CDF.
- For continuous RVs, what is the analogue of PMF?
- Can we use  $P(X = x)$  and sum over all  $x$ ?
  - No,  $P(X = x)$  is always 0
- Maybe we can define function  $f$  such that
$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \text{"sum over } f(x), x \in [a, b]\text{"}$$

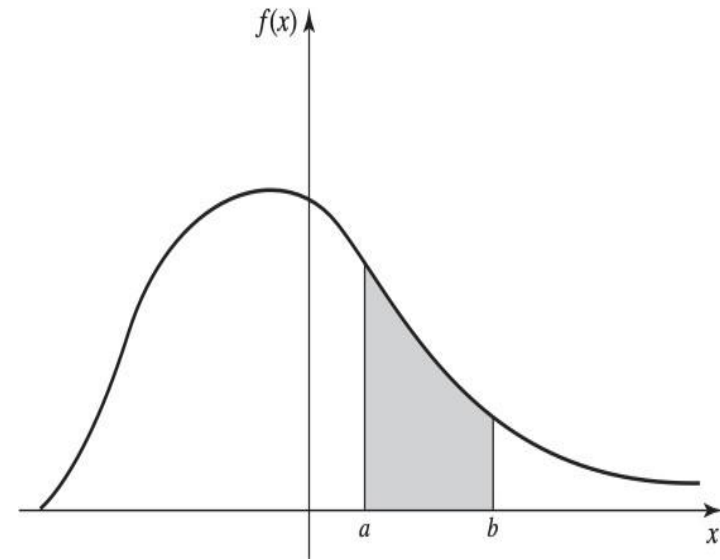
# Math interlude: integration

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- Summing over  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in [a, b]$  is the same as calculating the area under the curve of  $f(x)$ , for  $x \in [a, b]$
- This problem is called integration, and the area of interest is denoted by:

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

Reads “the integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ ”



# Math interlude: integration

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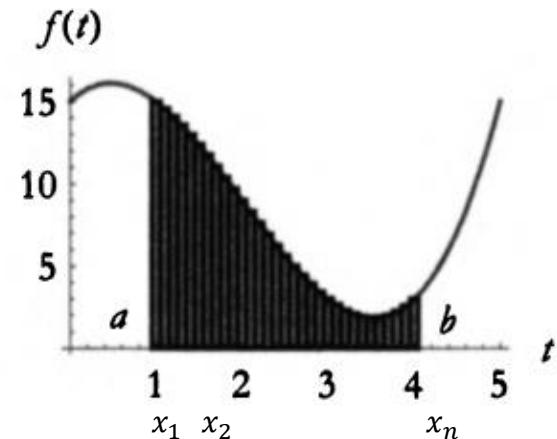
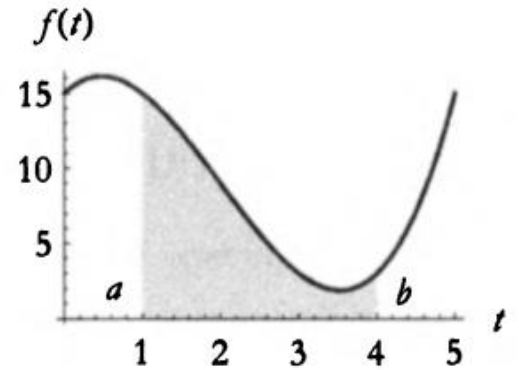
Why the weird  $\int$  symbol?

' $\int$ ' is a stylized version of 'S', representing sum

This comes from approximating the area using a series of small rectangles

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) (x_{i+1} - x_i) := \sum f(x) \Delta x$$

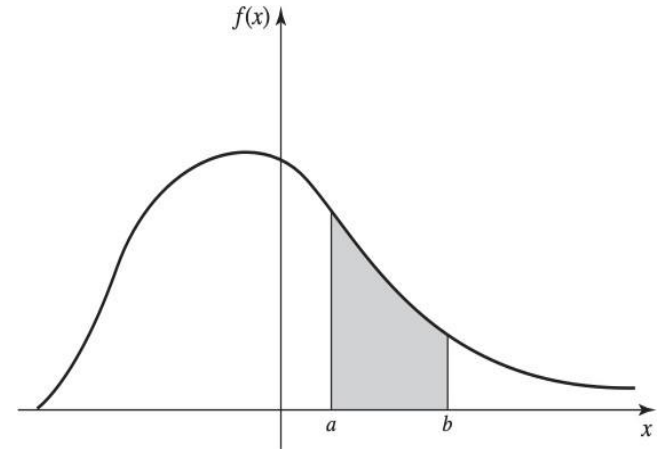
With the partition being finer, this tends to  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$



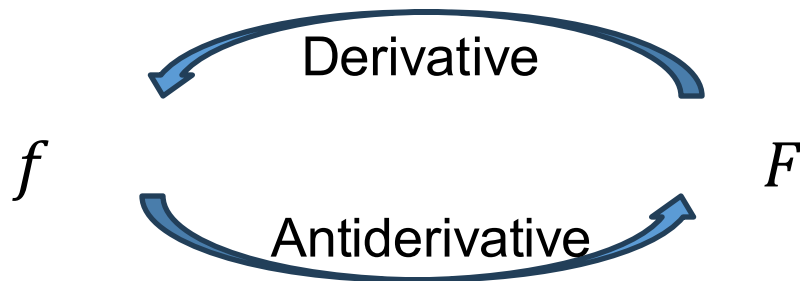


## Applications of integration

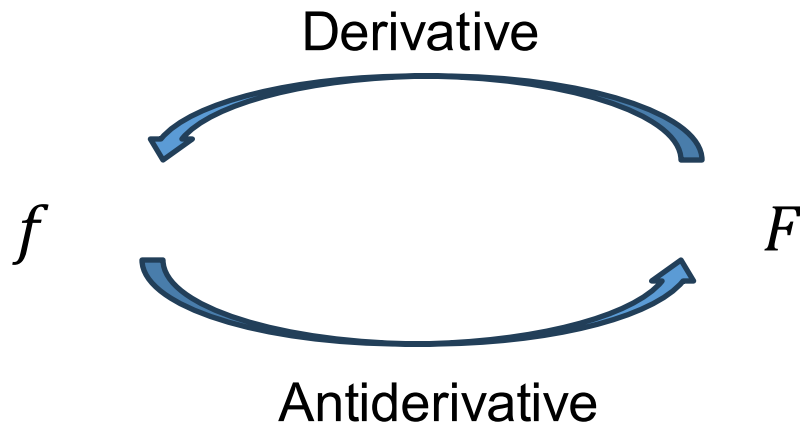
- $x$ : time,  $f(x)$ : speed
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ : total distance traveled within time  $[a, b]$ , or displacement at time  $b$  (relative to time  $a$ )
- $x$ : time (hour),  $f(x)$ : power consumption (in Watts)
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ : total energy used (in Watt-hours)



- How to calculate  $F_a(b)$ , in other words,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  ?
- **Fact (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Newton-Leibniz)**  
 $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  can be calculated by:
  - Finding  $F$ , the antiderivative of  $f$
  - Evaluate  $F(b) - F(a)$  (abbrev.  $F(x)|_a^b$ )
- What is antiderivative?



- $f$  can have many antiderivatives
- Useful example
  - $f$ : speed(time);  $F$ : distance(time)
- E.g.  $f(x) = 1$ 
  - $F(x) = x$ ,  $F(x) = x + 2$  are all valid antiderivatives
  - All antiderivatives of  $f$  are equal up to a constant
  - We use the shorthand  $F(x) = x + C$  to emphasize this



- Examples

- $f(x) = x$
- $f(x) = x^m$
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

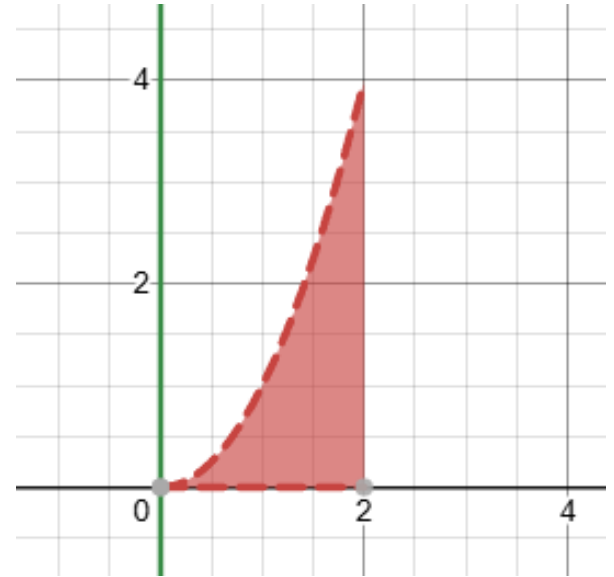
$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^2$$

$$F(x) = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1} \quad (m \neq -1)$$

$$F(x) = \ln x$$

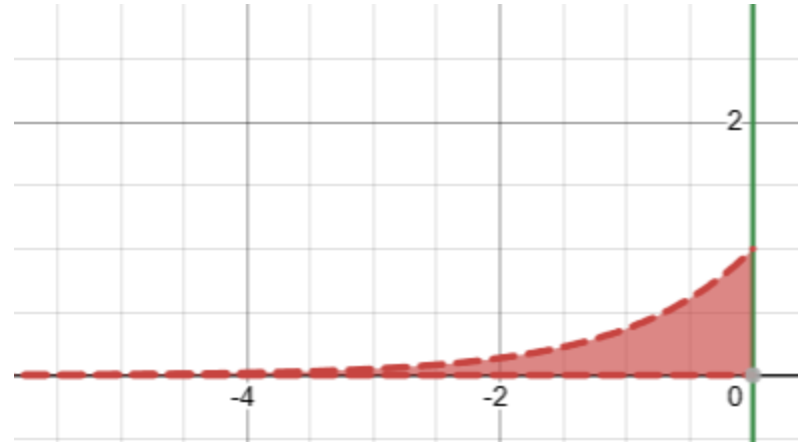
**Example** find  $\int_0^2 x^2 dx$

- Step 1: find  $F$ , antiderivative of  $x^2$ 
  - $F(x) = \frac{x^3}{3}$
- Step 2: evaluate  $F$  at both end points
  - $F(2) = \frac{8}{3}, F(0) = 0$
  - $\text{Ans} = F(2) - F(0) = \frac{8}{3}$



**Example** find  $\int_{-\infty}^0 e^x dx$

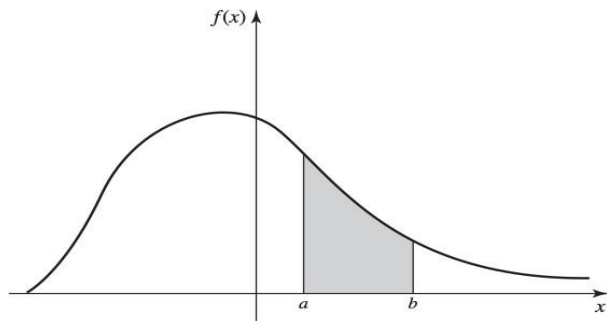
- Step 1: find  $F$ , antiderivative of  $e^x$ 
  - $F(x) = e^x$
- Step 2: evaluate  $F$  at both end points
  - $F(0) = 1, F(-\infty) = 0$
  - $\text{Ans} = F(0) - F(-\infty) = 1$



# Probability density function (PDF)

**Fact** For continuous random variable  $X$ , there is a function  $f_X$  (abbrev.  $f$ ) such that for any  $a, b$ ,

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



Function  $f$  is called the *probability density function (PDF)* of  $X$ .  
 $f(x)$  measures how likely  $X$  takes value in the *neighborhood* of  $x$ .

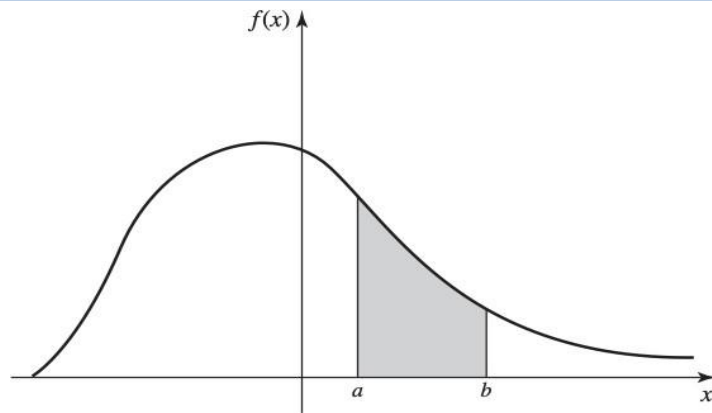
# Properties of PDF

- Nonnegativity:  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ 
  - But  $P(X = x) = 0$ !

- Normalized:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

- Reason: the integral represents  $P(-\infty \leq X \leq +\infty)$

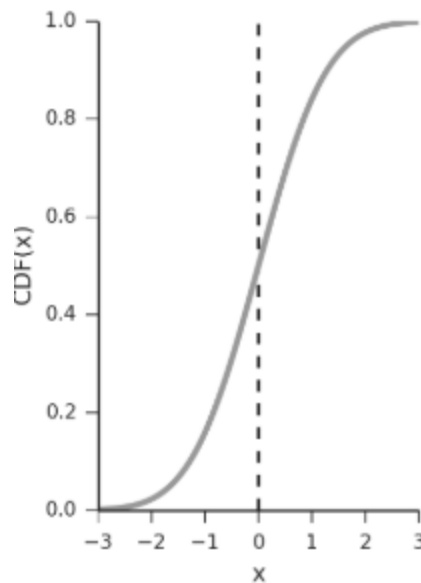
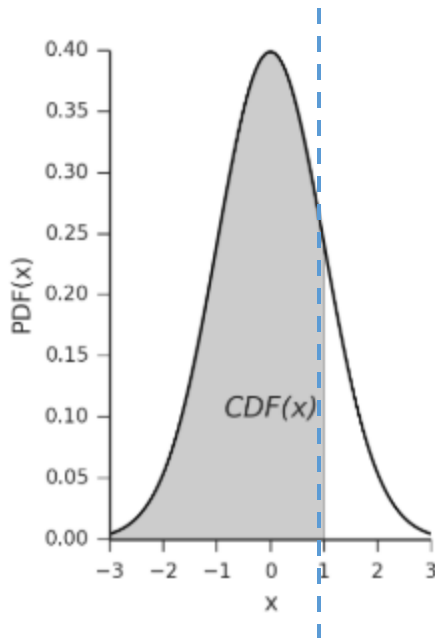




# Relationship between PDF and CDF

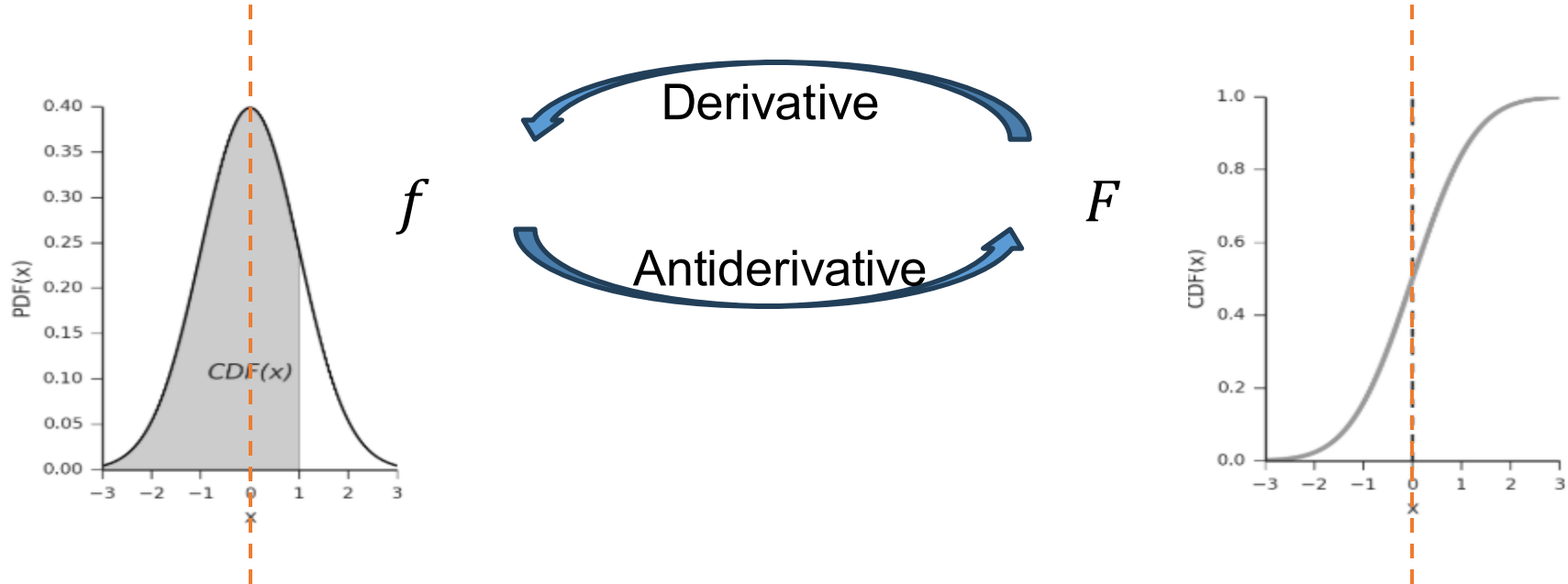
- How to find CDF  $F$  based on PDF  $f$ ?  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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



# Relationship between PDF and CDF

- $F$  is an indefinite integral of  $f$ :  $f(x) = F'(x)$
- $F$  has large slope at  $x$ :  $f(x)$  is large



# Probability density function (PDF)

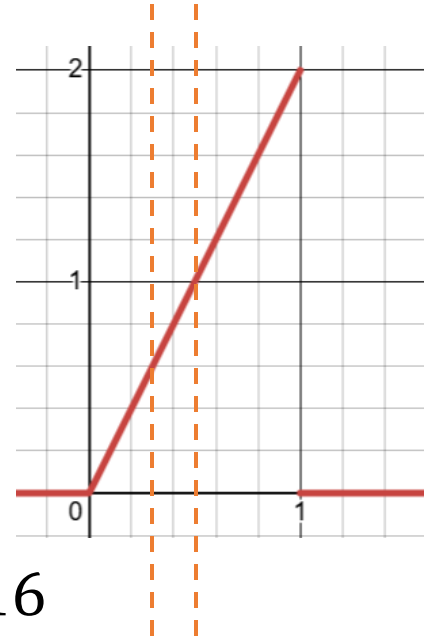
**Example**  $X$ : lifetime of a lightbulb, has PDF

$$f(x) = 2x, 0 < x < 1$$

Find  $P(0.3 < X < 0.5)$

**Soln** This is equal to

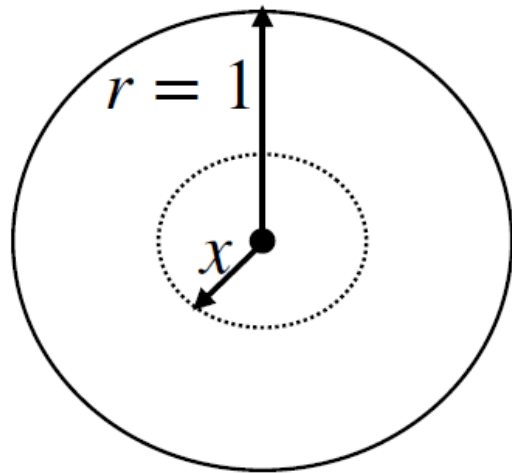
$$\int_{0.3}^{0.5} 2x \, dx = x^2 \Big|_{0.3}^{0.5} = 0.5^2 - 0.3^2 = 0.16$$



# Example: dart

- $X$ : distance to the center, given CDF:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x^2, & x \in [0,1] \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

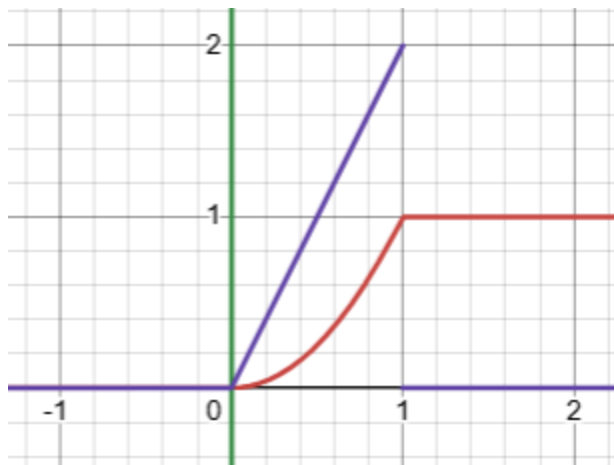


- What is the PDF of  $X$ ?

# Example: dart

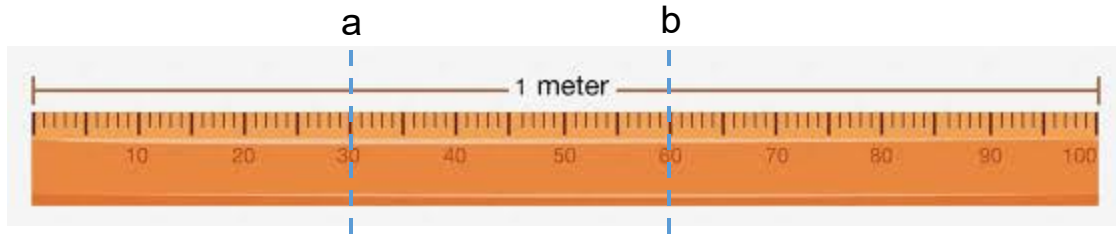
What is the PDF of  $X$ ?

- $f(x)$  is the derivative of  $F$ 
  - $f(x) = 0, x < 0$
  - $f(x) = 2x, x \in [0,1]$
  - $f(x) = 0, x > 1$



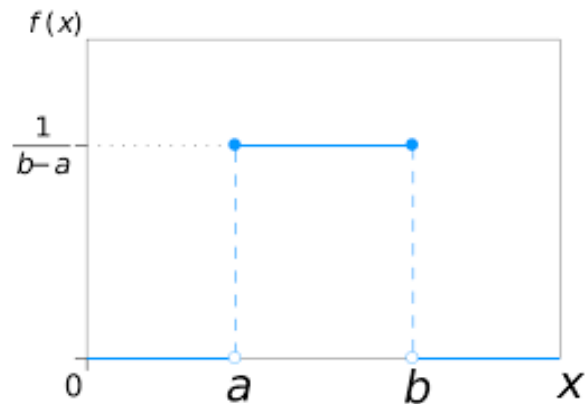
# In-class activity: ruler

- We choose  $X$  uniformly at random from  $[a, b]$ , two points in a ruler. In other words,  $X$  can land anywhere between  $[a, b]$  with equal likelihood.
- Find the PDF and CDF of  $X$



# In-class activity: ruler

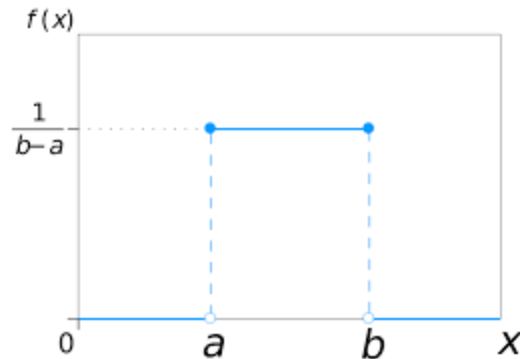
- We know  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = 1$ , and  $f(x)$  is constant on  $[a, b]$
- $f(x)$  is constant: say  $c$
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b c dx = cx \big|_a^b = cb - ca = 1$
- $c = \frac{1}{b-a}$
- So  $f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, x \in [a, b]$



# In-class activity: ruler

- What is the PDF  $f(x)$ ?

- $f(x) = 0, x < a$
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, x \in [a, b]$
- $f(x) = 0, x > b$



- This is also known as the *uniform distribution* over  $[a, b]$ , abbrev.

Uniform( $[a, b]$ )


- What is the CDF  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ ?

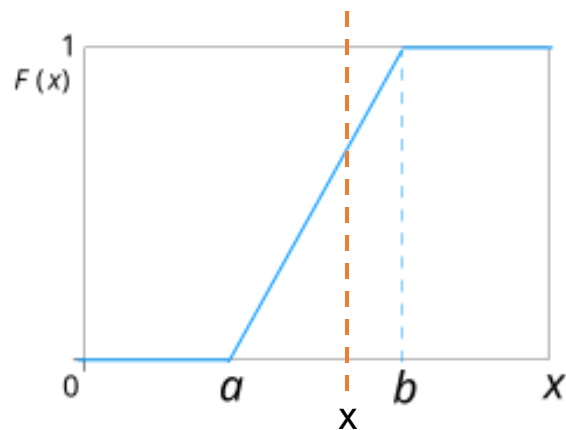
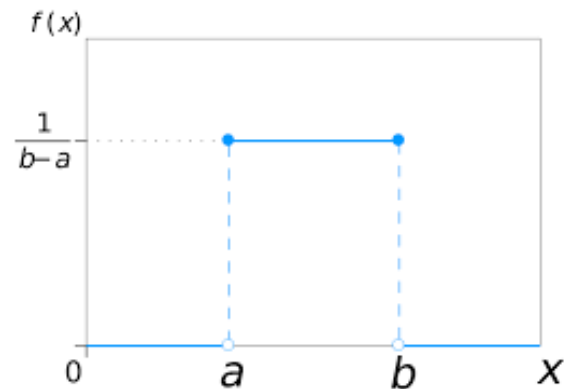


# In-class activity: ruler

- What is the CDF  $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ ?

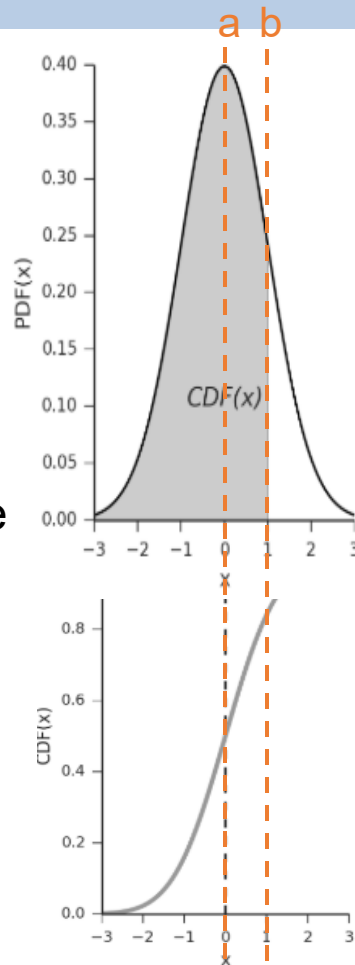
- $F(x) = 0, \quad x < a$
- $F(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}, \quad x \in [a, b]$
- $F(x) = 1, \quad x > b$


$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt = \int_a^x \frac{1}{b-a} dt = \frac{1}{b-a} (x - a)$$



# Recap

- Is  $f(x)$  equal to  $P(X = x)$ ?
  - No --  $P(X = x) = 0$  always
  - Correct interpretation: probability *density* (not probability)
- $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$ 
  - the probability that a RV lies between  $a$  and  $b$  is given by the area under the PDF from  $a$  to  $b$  = the difference between the CDF values at  $b$  and  $a$ .
  - $F$  is the antiderivative of  $f$
- Are there real-world RVs that are neither discrete nor continuous?



# Plans

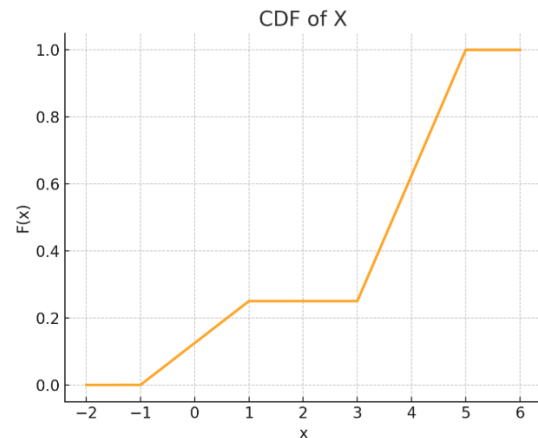
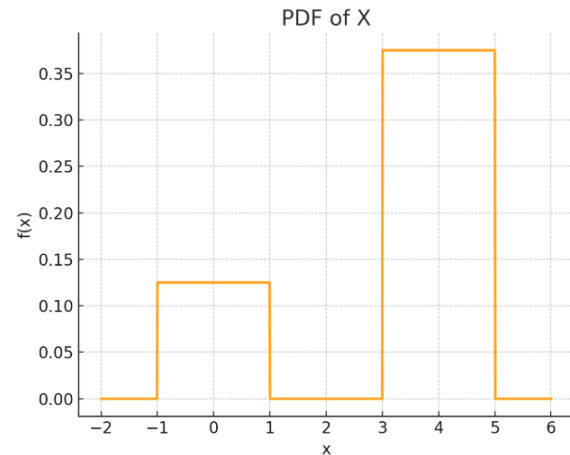
- Transformation of a continuous RV, its CDF and PDF
- Expectation and variance of continuous RVs
- Useful continuous probability distributions

# In-class activity

- Given by the PDF of  $X$ , find its CDF.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{8}, & x \in [-1, 1] \\ \frac{3}{8}, & x \in [3, 5] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < -1 \\ \frac{x+1}{8}, & x \in [-1, 1) \\ \frac{1}{4}, & x \in [1, 3) \\ \frac{3x-7}{8}, & x \in [3, 5) \\ 1, & x \geq 5 \end{cases}$$



# In-class activity

$x \in [-1, 1]$ :

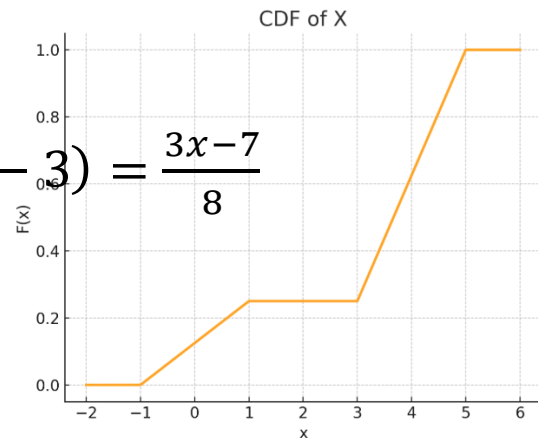
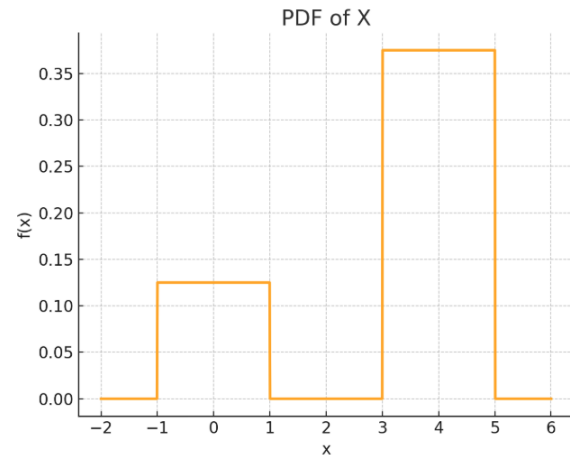
- $$F(x) = \int_{-1}^x f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^x \frac{1}{8} dx = \frac{1}{8}(x - (-1))$$

$x \in [1, 3]$ :

- $$F(x) = F(1) = \frac{2}{8}$$

$x \in [3, 5]$ :

- $$F(x) = F(3) + \int_3^x f(x) dx = \frac{1}{4} + \int_3^x \frac{3}{8} dx = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{8}(x - 3) = \frac{3x-7}{8}$$



# Transformations of a continuous RV

- Given a continuous RV  $X$  and any transformation  $f$ ,  $f(X)$  is a random variable (e.g.  $X + 5$ ,  $3X$ ,  $X^2$ )
- Applications:
  - $X$ : temperature tomorrow in Celsius,  $1.8X + 32$ : temp in Fahrenheit
- How to find the distribution of  $Y = f(X)$  based on that of  $X$ ?
  - First, find  $Y$ 's CDF
  - Take derivative to find  $Y$ 's PDF

# Transformations of a continuous RV

**Example** Suppose  $X \sim \text{Uniform}([0,1])$ . Find the distribution of  $Y = X + b$ .

Step 1: write down the CDF of  $X$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \in [0,1] \\ 0, & x > 1 \end{cases} \quad F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & x \in [0,1] \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Step 2: write down the CDF of  $Y$

$$P(Y \leq y) = P(X + b \leq y) = P(X \leq y - b) = F(y - b)$$

- $y < b$ : 0
- $y \in [b, b + 1]$ :  $y - b$
- $y > b + 1$ : 1

$$F(y) = P(Y \leq y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < b \\ y - b, & y \in [b, b + 1] \\ 1, & y > b + 1 \end{cases}$$

# Transformations of a continuous RV

Step 2: write down the CDF of  $Y$

$$P(Y \leq y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < b \\ y - b, & y \in [b, b + 1] \\ 1, & y > b + 1 \end{cases}$$

(do you recognize this CDF?)

Step 3: Take derivative to get the PDF of  $Y$

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < b \\ 1, & y \in [b, b + 1] \\ 0, & y > b + 1 \end{cases}$$

In summary,  $Y \sim \text{Uniform}([b, b + 1])$



# Transformations of a continuous RV

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \in [0,1] \\ 0, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & x \in [0,1] \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

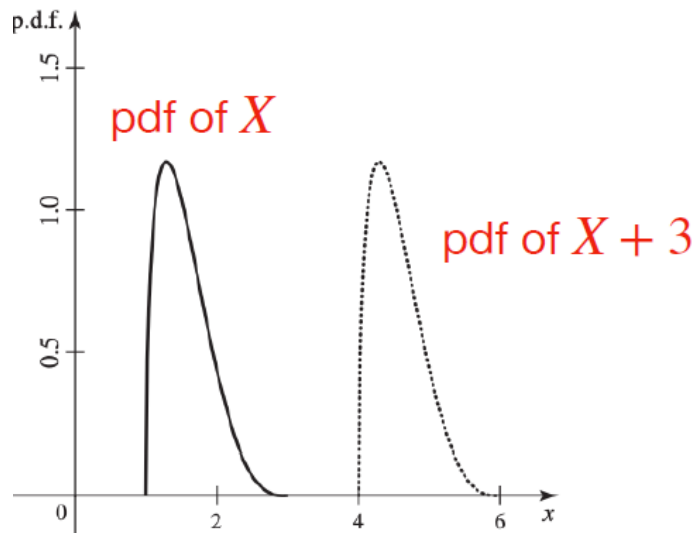
$$f(y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < b \\ 1, & y \in [b, b+1] \\ 0, & y > b+1 \end{cases}$$

$$F(y) = P(Y \leq y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < b \\ y - b, & y \in [b, b+1] \\ 1, & y > b+1 \end{cases}$$

$X + b$  has a PDF that is a translation of  $X$ 's PDF (by  $b$  units)

# Shifting a continuous RV

- In general:
- $X + b$  has a PDF that is a translation of  $X$ 's PDF (by  $b$  units)



- $$f_{X+b}(x) = f_X(x - b)$$

## In-class activity: scaling an RV

- **Example** Suppose  $X \sim \text{Uniform}([0,1])$ . Find the distribution of  $Z = aX$ .
- Step 1: write down the CDF of  $X$
- Step 2: write down the CDF of  $Z$
- Step 3: Take derivative to get the PDF of  $Z$

# In-class activity: scaling an RV

- **Example** Suppose  $X \sim \text{Uniform}([0,1])$ . Find the distribution of  $Z = aX$ .

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & x \in [0,1] \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Write down the CDF of  $Z$

$$P(Z \leq z) = P(aX \leq z) = P\left(X \leq \frac{z}{a}\right) = F\left(\frac{z}{a}\right)$$

- $Z < 0$ : 0

- $Z \in [0, a]$ :  $\frac{z}{a}$

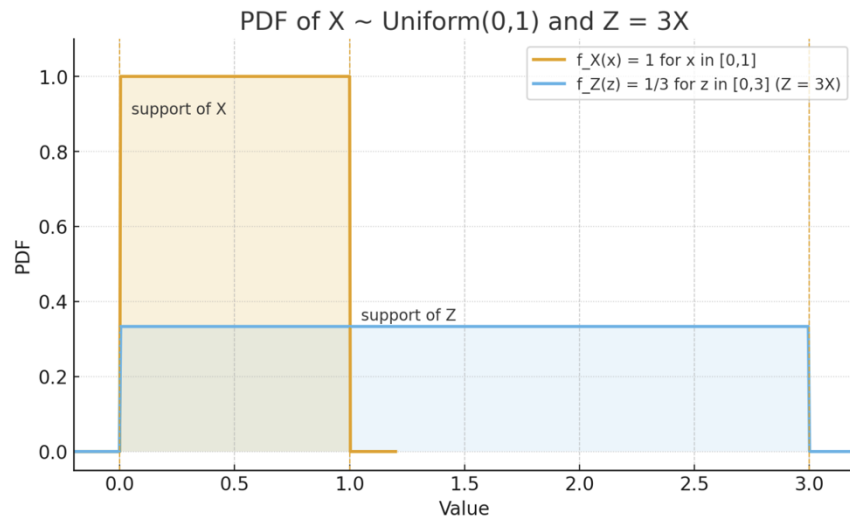
- $Z > a$ : 1

$$F(z) = P(Z \leq z) = \begin{cases} 0, & Z < 0 \\ \frac{z}{a}, & Z \in [0, a] \\ 1, & Z > a \end{cases}$$

# In-class activity: scaling an RV

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \in [0,1] \\ 0, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

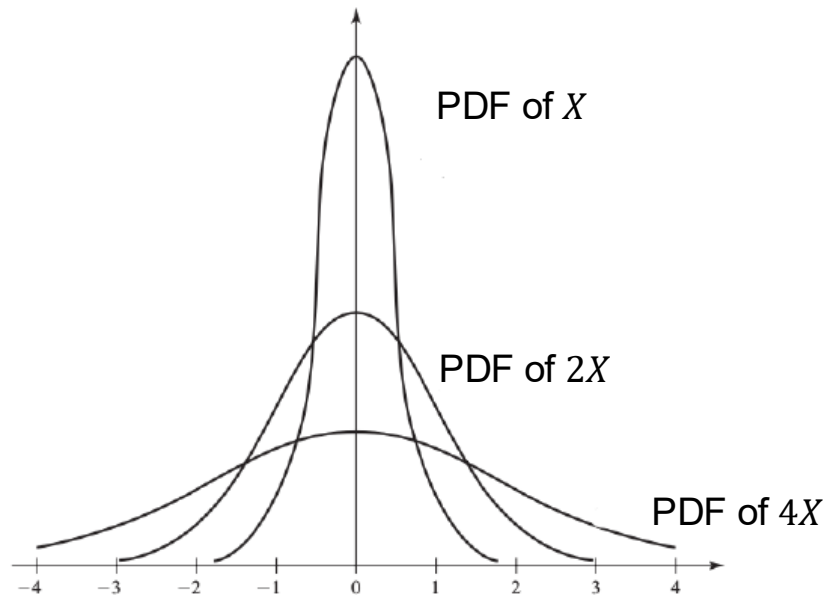
$$f(z) = \begin{cases} 0, & z < 0 \\ \frac{1}{a}, & z \in [0, a] \\ 0, & z > a \end{cases}$$



Conclusion:  $Z \sim \text{Uniform}([0, a])$ ,  $aX$ 's PDF is  $X$ 's PDF stretched by a factor of  $a$  horizontally

# Scaling a continuous RV

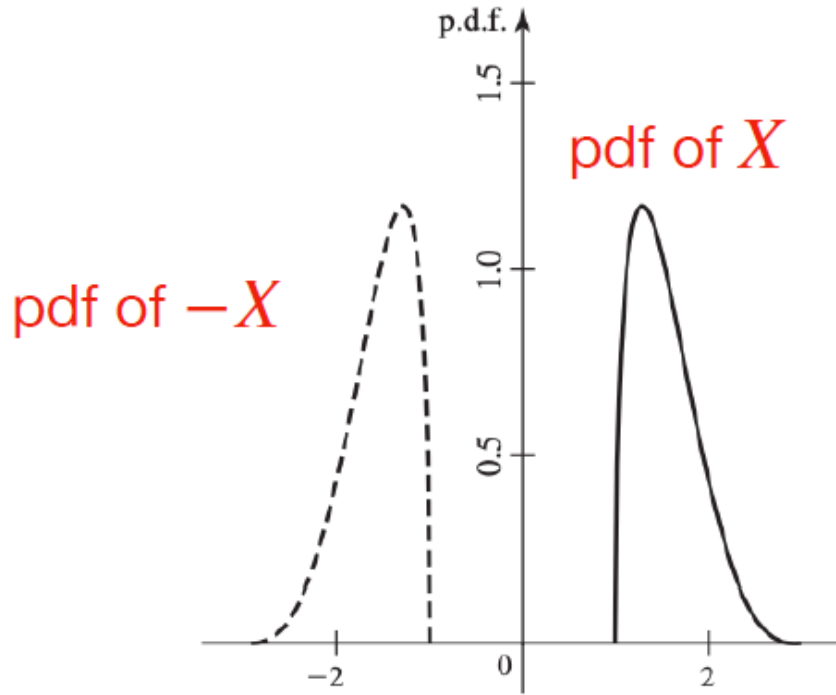
- $aX$ 's PDF is  $X$ 's PDF stretched by a factor of  $a$  horizontally



- $$f_{aX}(x) = \frac{1}{|a|} f_X\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$$

# Scaling a continuous RV

- Given  $X$ 's PDF; what does  $-X$ 's PDF look like?

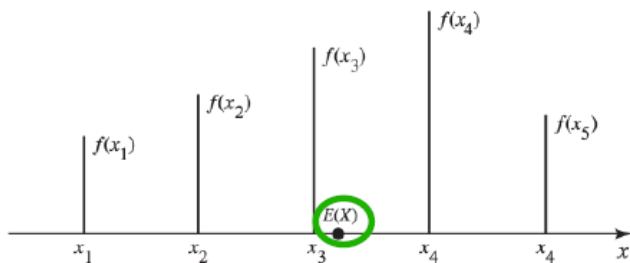


# Summarizing Continuous Random Variables



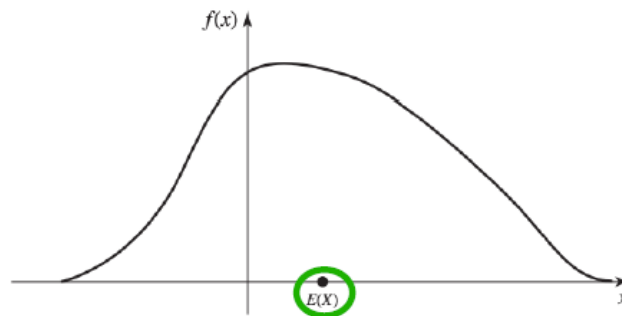
# Mean (aka Expected Value, Expectation)

- Weighted average of values of a random variable where weights are probabilities, denoted as  $\mu$ , or  $E[X]$
- Expectation as center of gravity



Discrete

$$E[X] = \sum_x x \cdot P(X = x)$$



Continuous

$$E[X] = \int x f(x) dx$$

# Mean

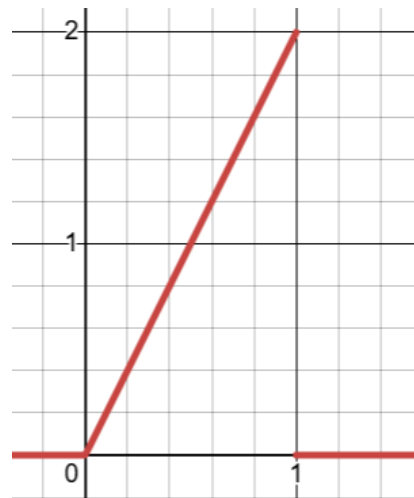
**Example**  $X$ : Time until a lightbulb fails. Its pdf:

$$f(x) = 2x, 0 < x < 1$$

What is  $E[X]$ ?

$$E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 x(2x) dx = \int_0^1 2x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$



# Expectation formula

- How to find  $E[r(X)]$  given the probability distribution of  $X$ ?
- For discrete RVs we saw:

$$E[r(X)] = \sum_x r(x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

- For continuous RVs,

$$E[r(X)] = \int r(x) f(x) dx$$

**Rule of the lazy statistician:** could also find it by first finding pdf of  $r(X)$  which would require many further calculations. Lazy prefers easy.

# Expectation formula

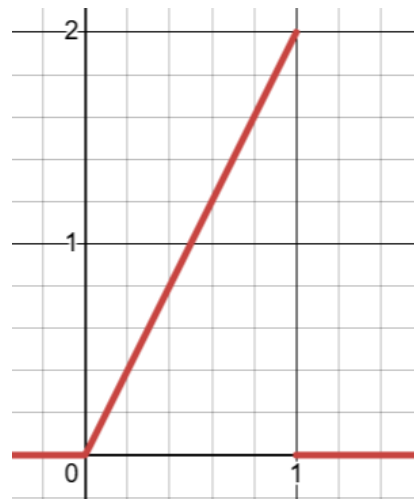
**Example** Assume the pdf of the previous example,

$$f(x) = 2x, 0 < x < 1$$

Find  $E[\sqrt{X}]$

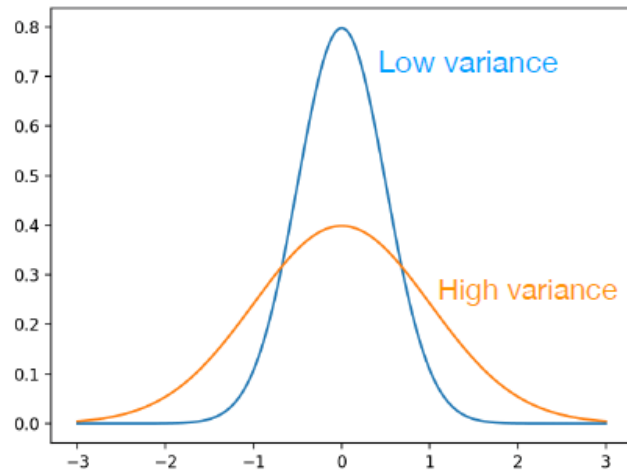
$$E[\sqrt{X}] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sqrt{x} f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \sqrt{x}(2x) dx = \int_0^1 2x^{\frac{3}{2}} dx = \frac{4}{5} x^{\frac{5}{2}} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{4}{5}$$



# Variance

- Variance of  $X$  measures how spread out the distribution of  $X$  is
- Defn:  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2]$   
Mean of  $X$
- Fact:  $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$  continues to hold

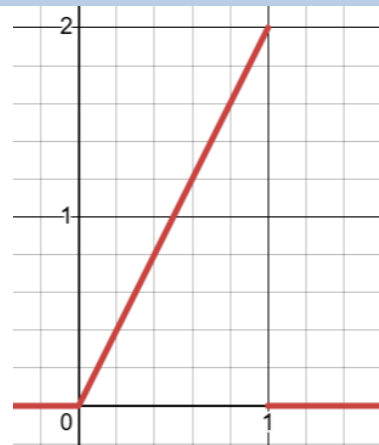


# Variance

**Example** Assume the pdf of the previous example,

$$f(x) = 2x, 0 < x < 1$$

Find  $\text{Var}(X)$ .



**Soln** We saw before that  $E[X] = \frac{2}{3}$ . Let's try to find  $E[X^2]$

$$E[X^2] = \int_0^1 x^2(2x) dx = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

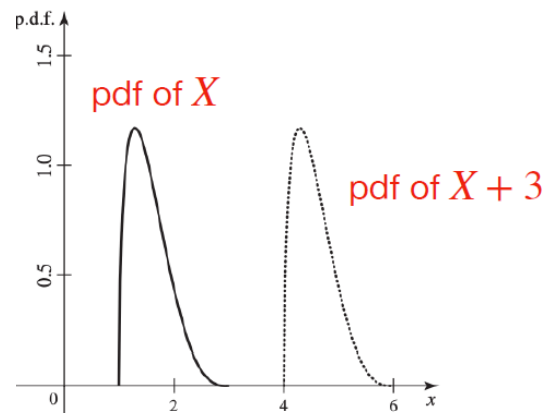
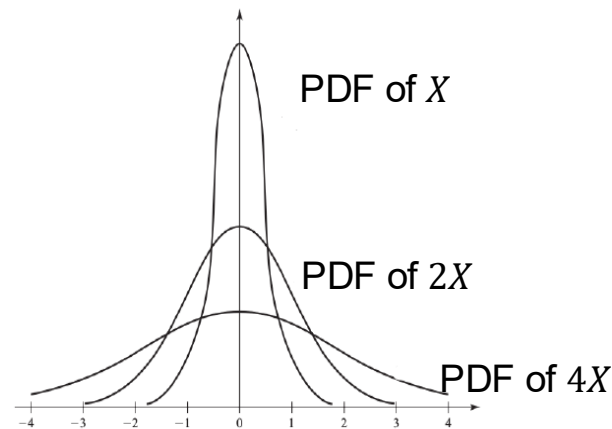
$$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \approx 0.055$$

# Properties of Mean & variance

How does  $aX$ 's mean & variance relate to those of  $X$ ?

**Fact** same as discrete RVs, for continuous RVs, it continues to hold :

- $E[aX] = a E[X]$
- $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$
- $E[X + b] = E[X] + b$
- $\text{Var}(X + b) = \text{Var}(X)$



# Properties of Mean & variance

- How about  $E[aX + b]$  and  $\text{Var}[aX + b]$ ?
- E.g. Celsius to Fahrenheit,  $a = 1.8$ ,  $b = 32$
- We can now combine the previous results to get:
- $E[aX + b] = E[aX] + b = aE[X] + b$
- $\text{Var}[aX + b] = \text{Var}[aX] = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}[X]$



# Useful Continuous Probability Distributions

# Uniform Distribution

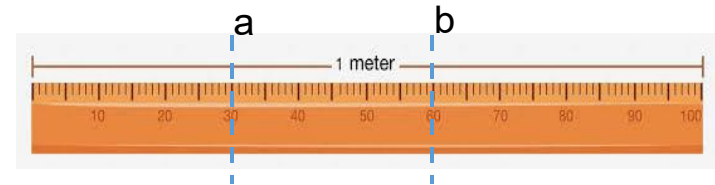
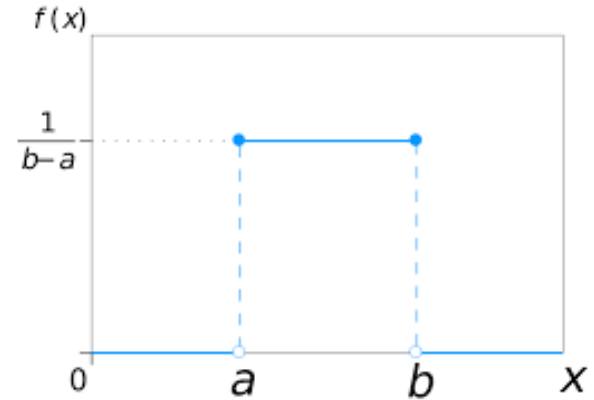
- $X \sim \text{Uniform}([a, b])$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & y < a \\ \frac{1}{b-a}, & y \in [a, b] \\ 0, & y > b \end{cases}$$

- Mean:  $E[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$

- Variance:

- $\text{Var}[X] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$
- $\text{Uniform}([0,1])$  has a variance of  $1/12$



# Uniform distribution

## numpy.random.uniform

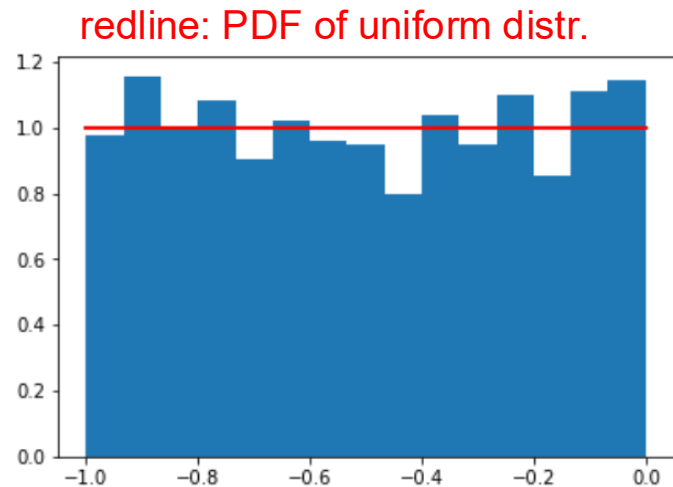
`numpy.random.uniform(low=0.0, high=1.0, size=None)`

Draw samples from a uniform distribution.

Samples are uniformly distributed over the half-open interval `[low, high)` (includes low, but excludes high). In other words, any value within the given interval is equally likely to be drawn by `uniform`.

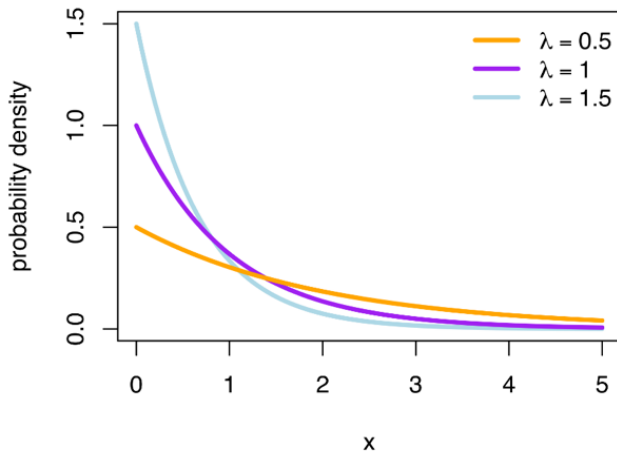
**Example** Draw 1,000 samples from a uniform distribution on  $[-1,0)$ ,

```
a = -1
b = 0
N = 1000
X = np.random.uniform(a,b,N)
count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(X, 15, density=True)
plt.plot(bins, np.ones_like(bins), linewidth=2, color='r')
plt.show()
```



# Exponential Distribution

- Denoted as  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ 
  - $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, x > 0$
  - $\lambda$ : scale parameter
  - $E[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$
  - $\text{Var}[X] = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2$
  - the continuous analogue of geometric distribution



## Examples:

- Time between geyser eruptions
- Lifetime of lightbulbs
- Time of radioactive particle decays

# Exponential Distribution

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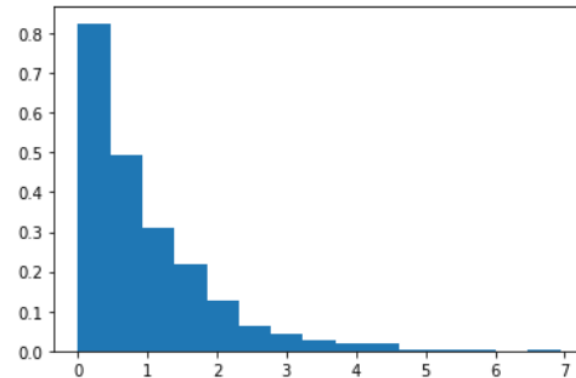
`numpy.random.exponential`

`numpy.random.exponential(scale=1.0, size=None)`

scale =  $\lambda$

**Example** Draw 1,000 samples from exponential with  $\lambda = 1.0$

```
lam = 1.0
N = 1000
X = np.random.exponential(lam, N)
count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(X, 15, density=True)
plt.show()
```



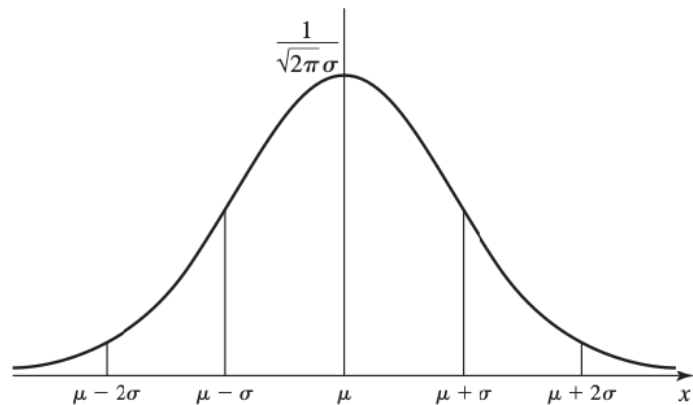
# Gaussian Distribution

**Gaussian** (a.k.a. Normal) distribution with location  $\mu$  and scale  $\sigma^2$  parameters,

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Abbreviated as  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Perhaps *the most important* distribution  
in prob & stats



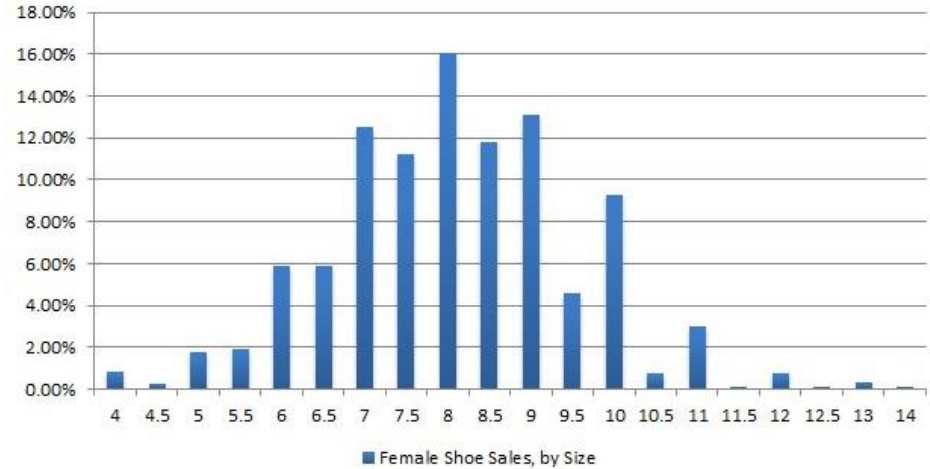
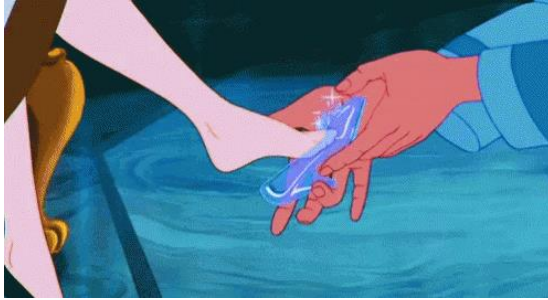
Does the shape of the curve ring a bell?

Similar to binomial  
distribution!

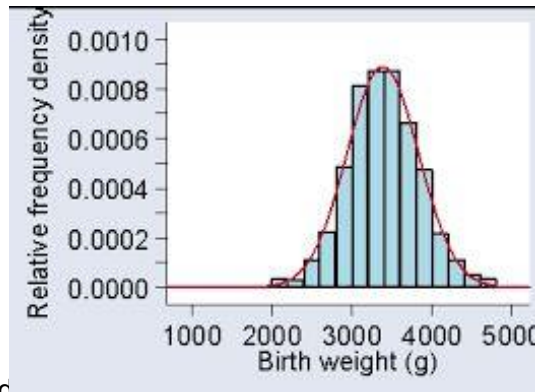
# Distributions that follow Gaussian

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## Shoe size



## Birth Weight



Q: Do they actually follow exact Gaussians?

No exactly, but very close

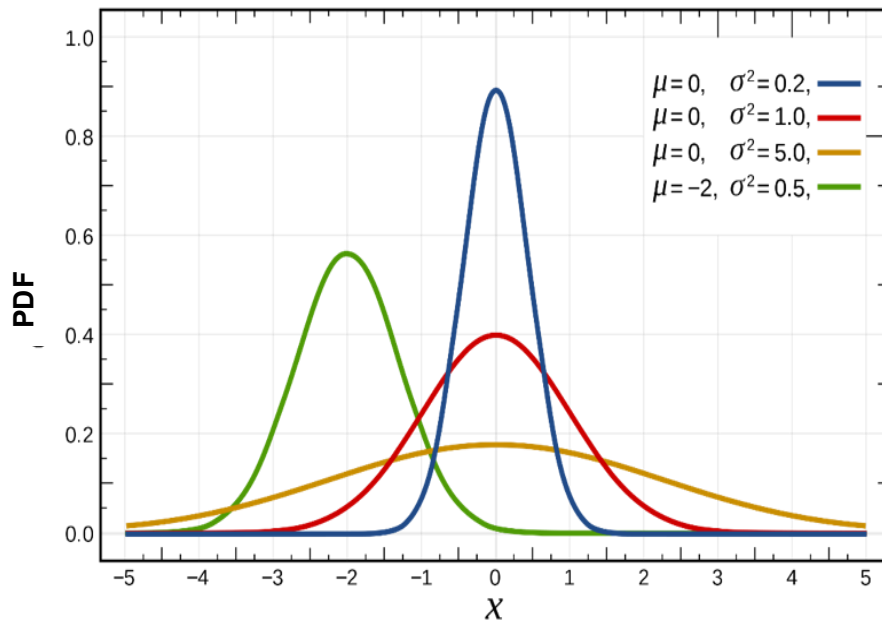
# Gaussian Distribution

Observations:

- Larger  $\sigma^2 \Rightarrow p(x)$  more “spread out”
- Larger  $\mu \Rightarrow p(x)$ ’s center shifts to the right more

**Fact** if  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

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





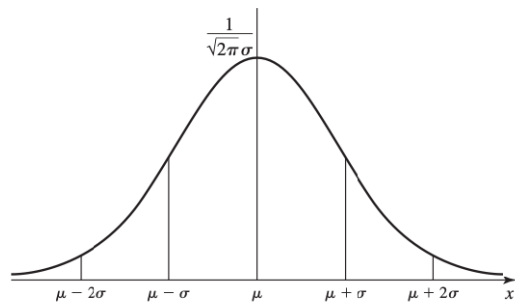
# Gaussian Distribution

Linear transformations of Gaussian is still Gaussian

**Fact** if  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $Y = aX + b$  is still Gaussian

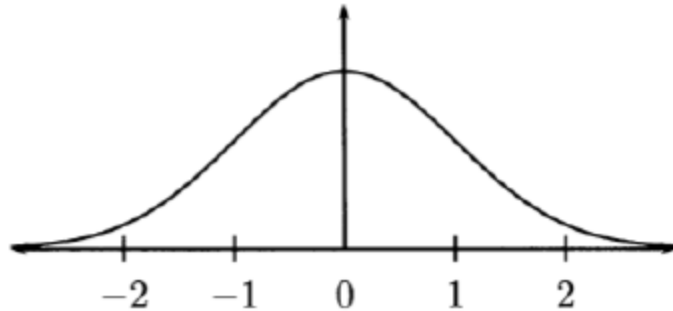
What are the parameters of  $Y$ 's Gaussian distribution?

- $E[Y] = E[aX + b] = a\mu + b$
- $\text{Var}[Y] = \text{Var}[aX + b] = \text{Var}[aX] = a^2\sigma^2$
- So,  $Y \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$



# The standard Gaussian distribution

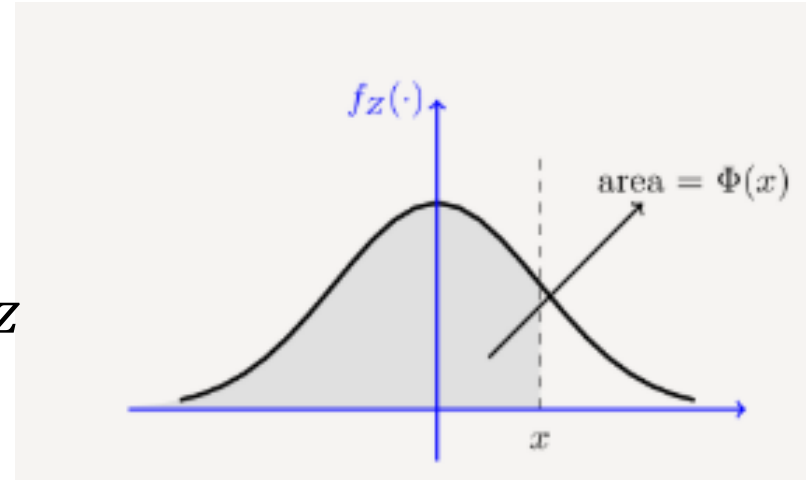
- Gaussian distribution with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$



- Denoted by  $Z \sim N(0,1)$
- Its PDF denoted by  $\phi(z)$ , and CDF denoted by  $\Phi(z)$

# The standard Gaussian distribution

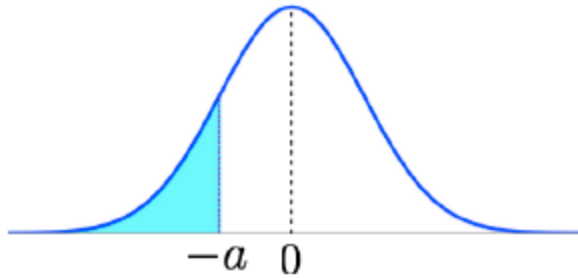
- PDF:  $\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right)$
- CDF:  $\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right) dz$



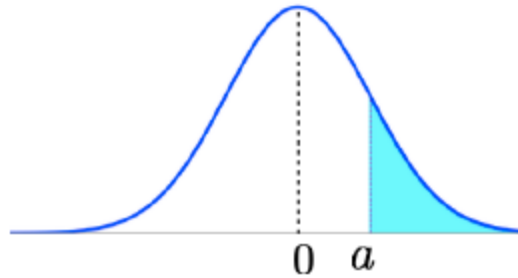
- We can find the value of  $\Phi$  by calling `scipy.stats.norm.cdf`

# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

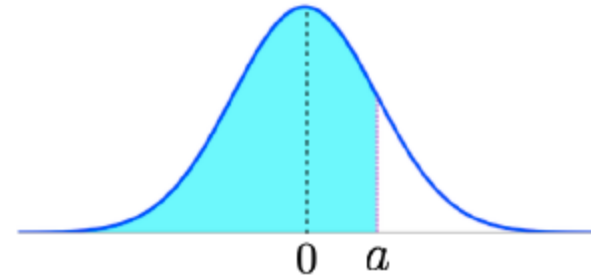
- Symmetry of  $\phi \Rightarrow \Phi(-a) = 1 - \Phi(a)$



$$\Phi(-a) = P(Z \leq -a)$$



$$= P(Z \geq a)$$



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

# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

- Suppose  $X \sim N(5, 2^2)$ , how can I calculate  $P(1 < X < 8)$ ?
- From normal to standard normal
  - $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
    - $\Rightarrow X - \mu \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
    - $\Rightarrow Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$
- We can write  $P(a < X < b)$  using  $P(c < Z < d)$ , which in turn can be written in  $\Phi$ . Here is how..

# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

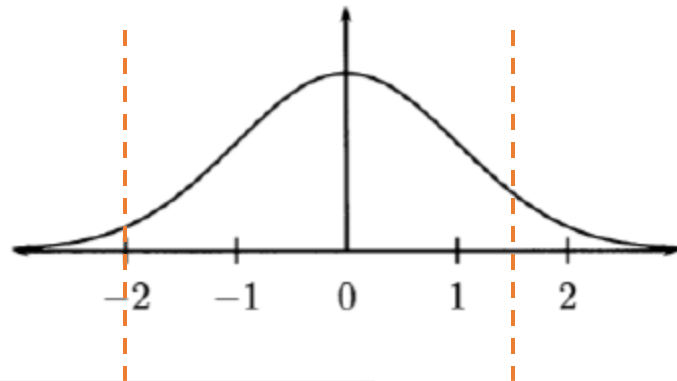
- $P(a < X < b)$   
 $= P\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$   
 $= \Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$

**Example** Suppose  $X \sim N(5, 2^2)$ , calculate  $P(1 < X < 8)$

This is  $\Phi\left(\frac{8-5}{2}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{1-5}{2}\right) = \Phi(1.5) - \Phi(-2)$

# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

$$\begin{aligned} & \cdot \Phi(1.5) - \Phi(-2) \\ &= \Phi(1.5) - (1 - \Phi(2)) \end{aligned}$$

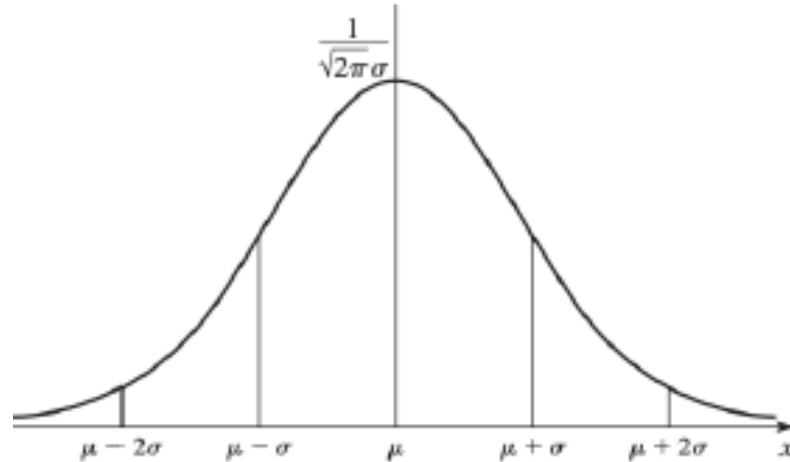


```
from scipy.stats import norm
print(norm.cdf(1.5)-(1-norm.cdf(2)))
```

0.9104426667829627

# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

- What is the probability that a Gaussian RV  $X$  is within 1 std of its mean? What about 2, 3?



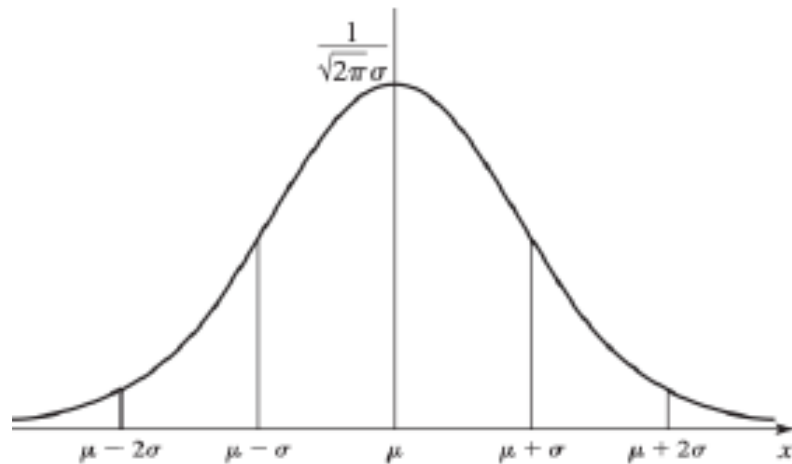
- $P(\mu - k\sigma \leq X < \mu + k\sigma)$



# Calculating probabilities about Gaussians

- $p_k = P(\mu - k\sigma \leq X < \mu + k\sigma)$   
 $= P\left(-k < \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} < k\right)$   
 $= P(-k < Z < k)$   
 $= 2\Phi(k) - 1$

$k$	$p_k$
1	0.6826
2	0.9544
3	0.9974
4	0.99994



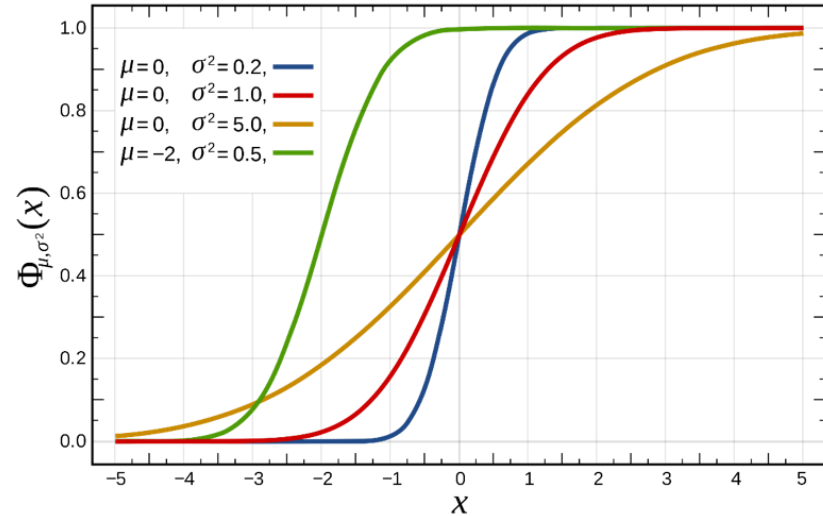
In words,

- With probability about 95%,  $X$  is within 2 std of its mean
- With overwhelming prob. (99.7%),  $X$  within 3 std of mean

# CDF of Gaussian Distributions

- $F$ : CDF of Gaussian  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

- $F(\mu) = \frac{1}{2}$



- $F(x)$  changes fast when  $x$  starts to move away from  $\mu$
- $F$ 's “sensitive range” is about  $[\mu - 3\sigma, \mu + 3\sigma]$