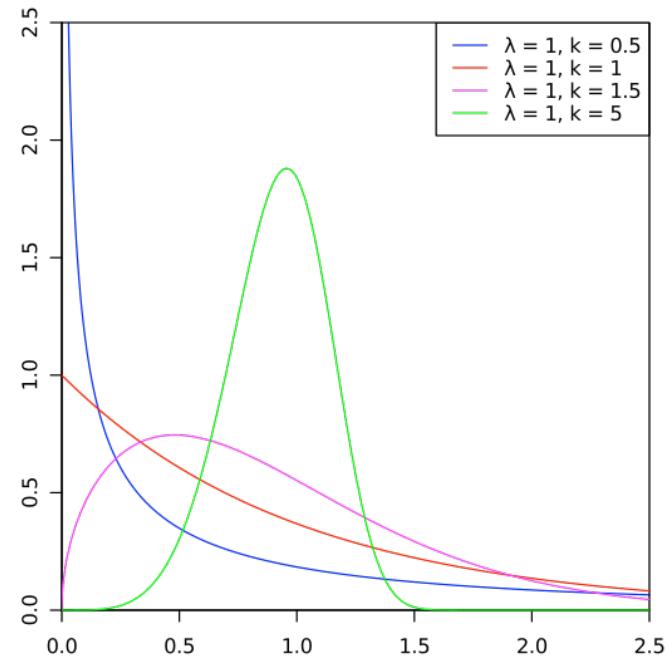
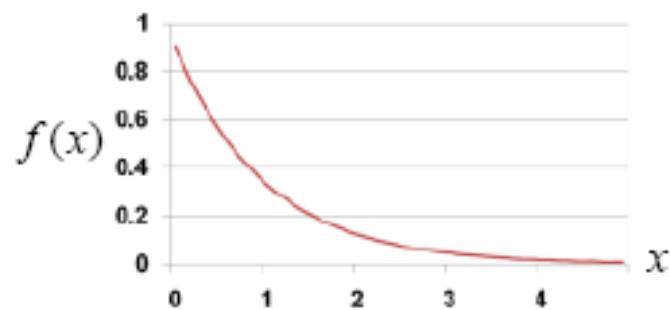


7. continuous random variables



continuous random variables

Discrete random variable: takes values in a finite or countable set, e.g.

$X \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ with equal probability

X is positive integer i with probability 2^{-i}

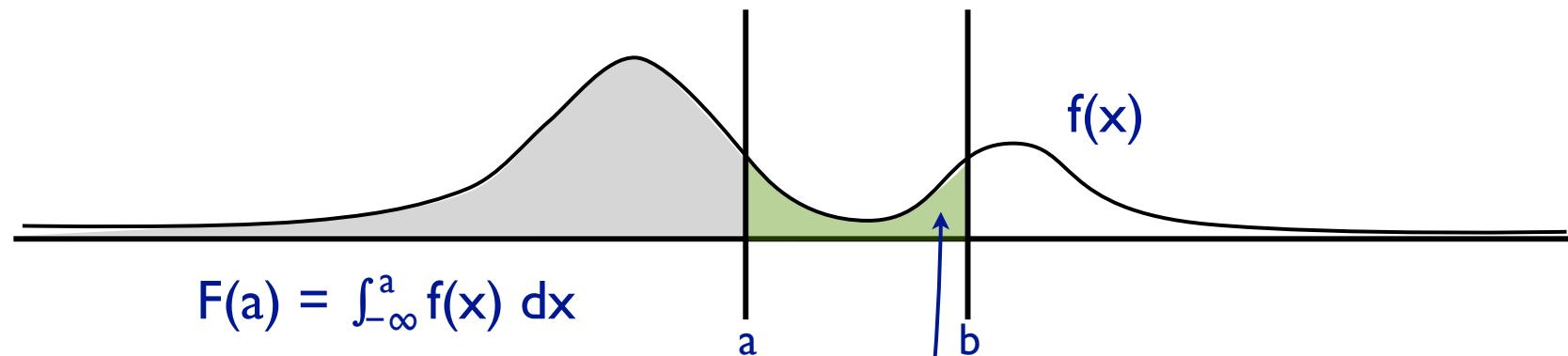
Continuous random variable: takes values in an uncountable set, e.g.

X is the weight of a random person (a real number)

X is a randomly selected point inside a unit square

X is the waiting time until the next packet arrives at the server

$f(x)$: the *probability density function* (or simply “density”)



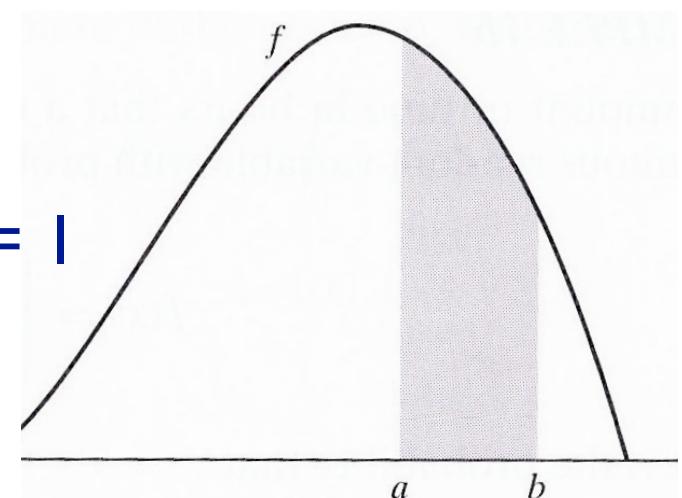
$P(X \leq a) = F(a)$: the *cumulative distribution function* (or simply “distribution”)

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

Need $f(x) \geq 0$, & $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx (= F(+\infty)) = 1$

A key relationship:

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x), \text{ since } F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx,$$



Densities are *not* probabilities; e.g. may be > 1

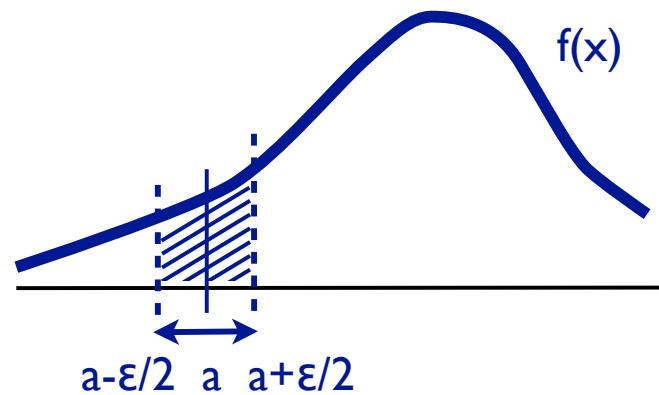
$$P(x = a) = P(a \leq X \leq a) = F(a) - F(a) = 0$$

I.e., the probability that a continuous random variable falls *at* a specified point is *zero*

$$P(a - \varepsilon/2 \leq X \leq a + \varepsilon/2) =$$

$$F(a + \varepsilon/2) - F(a - \varepsilon/2)$$

$$\approx \varepsilon \cdot f(a)$$



I.e., The probability that it falls *near* that point is proportional to the density; in a large random sample, expect more samples where density is higher (hence the name “density”).

sums and integrals; expectation

Much of what we did with discrete r.v.s carries over almost unchanged, with $\sum_x \dots$ replaced by $\int \dots dx$

E.g.

$$\text{For discrete r.v. } X, \quad E[X] = \sum_x x p(x)$$

$$\text{For continuous r.v. } X, \quad E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

Why?

- (a) We define it that way
- (b) The probability that X falls “near” x , say within $x \pm dx/2$, is $\approx f(x)dx$, so the “average” X should be $\approx \sum xf(x)dx$ (summed over grid points spaced dx apart on the real line) and the limit of that as $dx \rightarrow 0$ is $\int xf(x)dx$

example

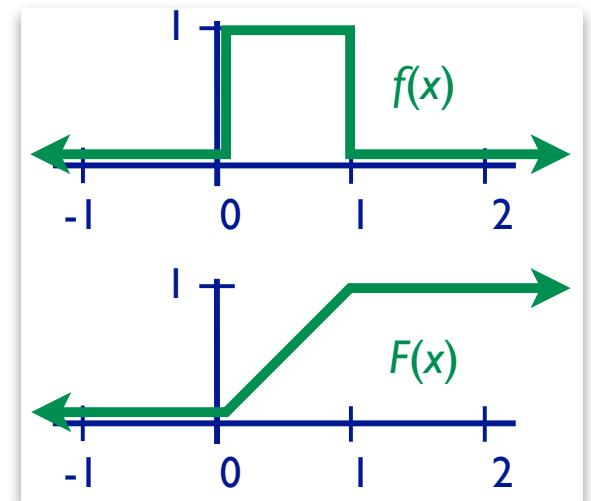
Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} F(a) &= \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \leq 0 \\ a & \text{if } 0 < a \leq 1 \text{ (since } a = \int_0^a 1dx) \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < a \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \int_0^1 x dx = \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$E[X^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x)dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12} \quad (\sigma \approx 0.29)$$



Linearity

$$E[aX+b] = aE[X]+b$$

still true, just as
for discrete

$$E[X+Y] = E[X]+E[Y]$$

Functions of a random variable

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

just as for discrete,
but w/integral

Alternatively, let $Y = g(X)$, find the density of Y , say f_Y , (see B&T 4.1;
somewhat like r.v. slides 33-35) and directly compute $E[Y] = \int yf_Y(y)dy$.

Definition is same as in the discrete case

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

Identity still holds:

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

proof “same”

example

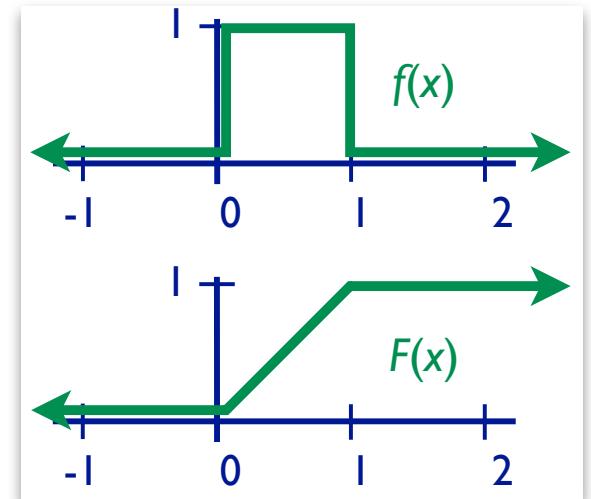
Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} F(a) &= \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \leq 0 \\ a & \text{if } 0 < a \leq 1 \text{ (since } a = \int_0^a 1dx) \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < a \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx = \int_0^1 x dx = \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$E[X^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x)dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12} \quad (\sigma \approx 0.29)$$



continuous random variables: summary

Continuous random variable X has density $f(x)$, and

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

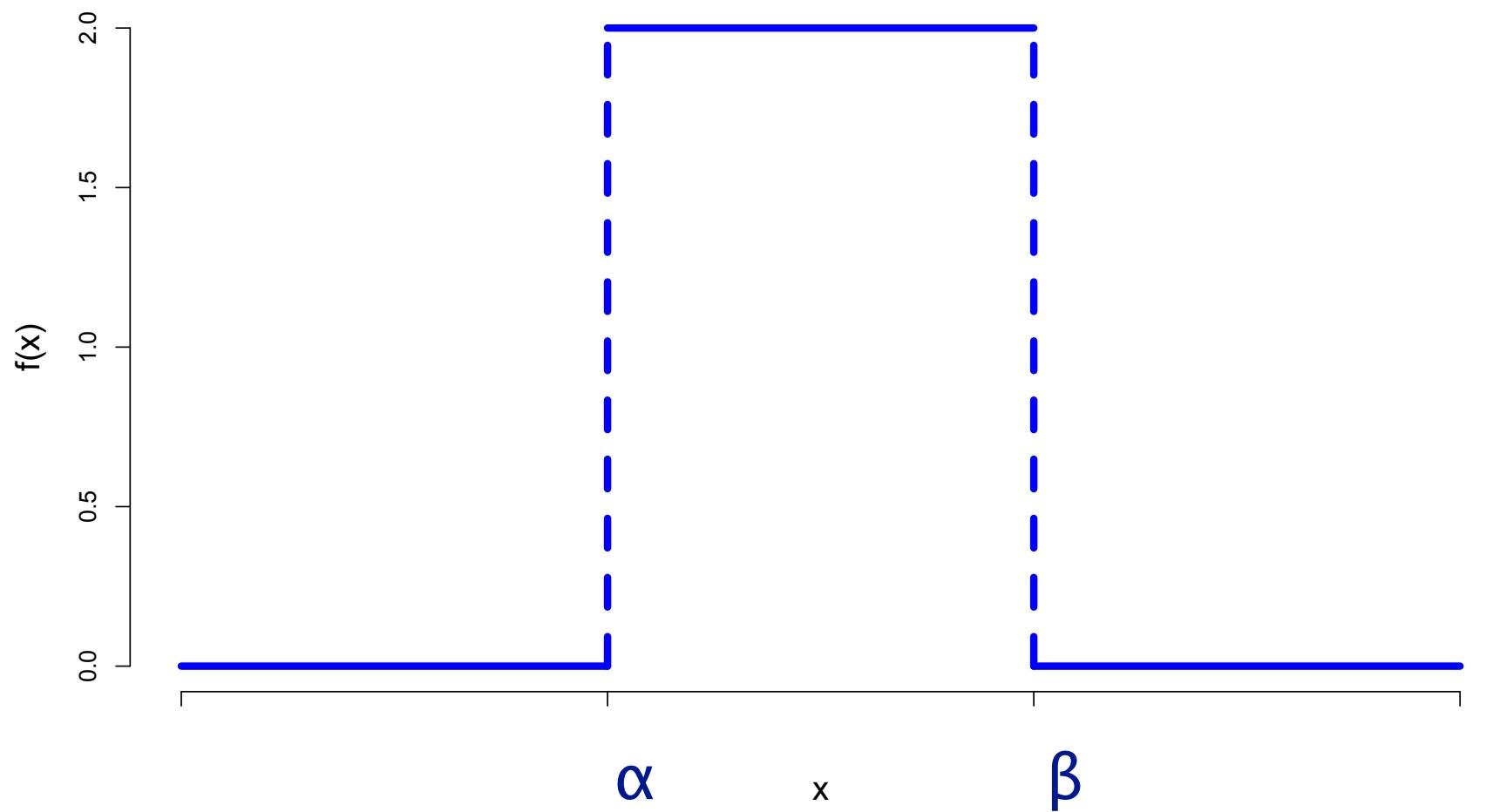
$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

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

uniform random variable

$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ is uniform in $[\alpha, \beta]$ $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & x \in [\alpha, \beta] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

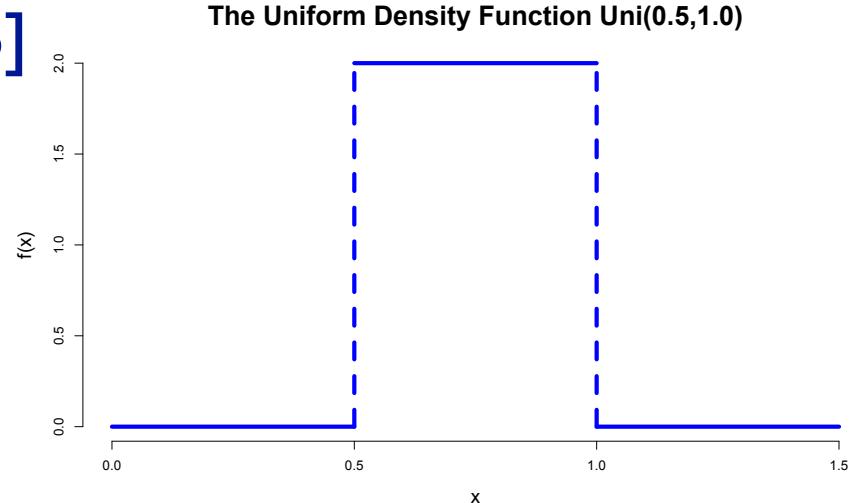
The Uniform Density Function $\text{Uni}(0.5, 1.0)$



uniform random variable

$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ is uniform in $[\alpha, \beta]$

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



$$\Pr(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b - a}{\beta - \alpha}$$

↑
if $\alpha \leq a \leq b \leq \beta$:

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$$

uniform random variable: example

$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ is uniform in $[\alpha, \beta]$

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

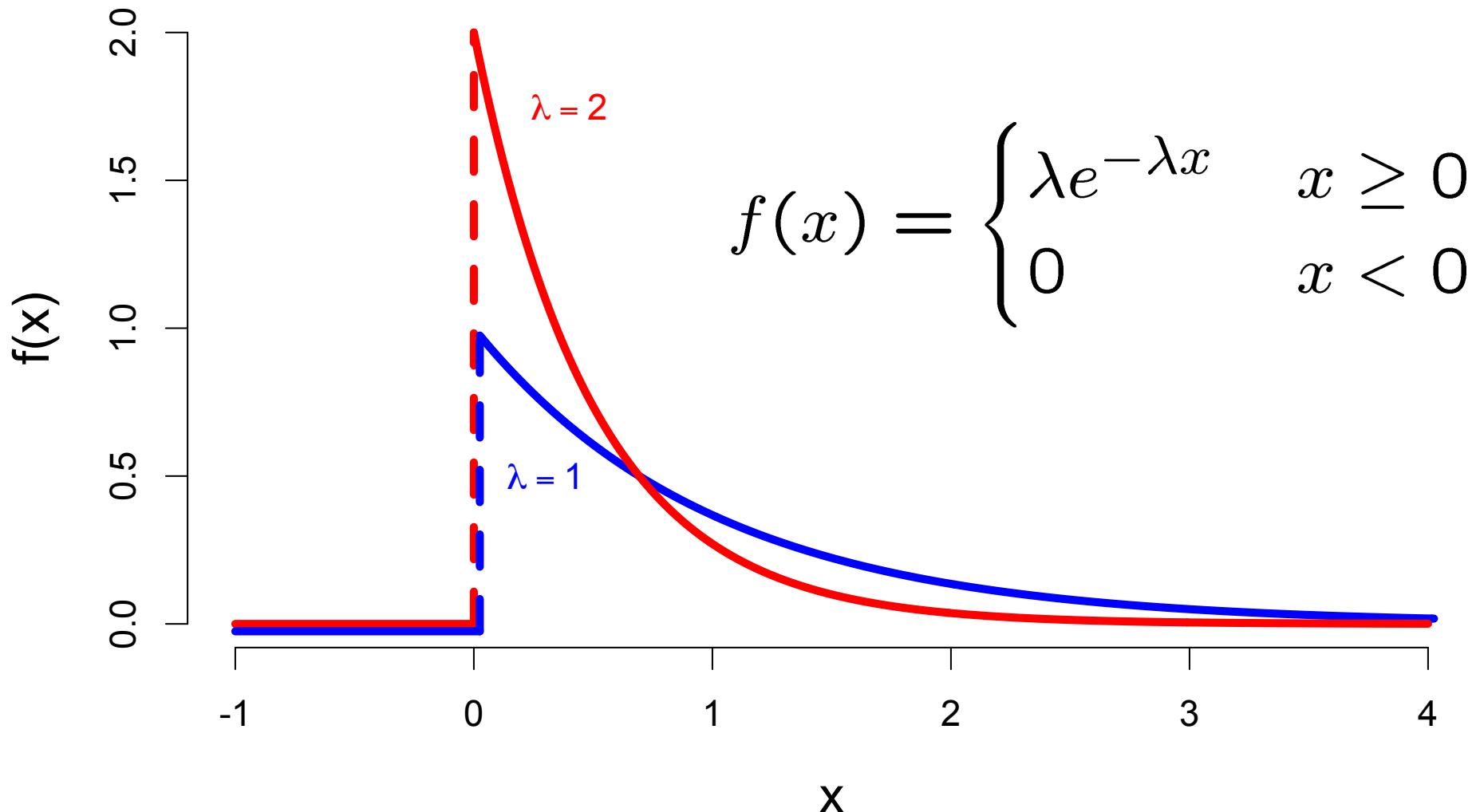
You want to read a disk sector from a 7200rpm disk drive.
Let T be the time you wait, in milliseconds, after the disk head is positioned over the correct track, until the desired sector rotates under the head.

$T \sim \text{Uni}(0, 8.33)$



$X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$

The Exponential Density Function



exponential random variable

$$X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad \text{Var}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\Pr(X \geq t) = e^{-\lambda t} = 1 - F(t)$$

Memorylessness:

$$\Pr(X > s + t \mid X > s) = \Pr(X > t)$$

Examples

Radioactive decay: How long until the next alpha particle?

Customers: how long until the next customer/packet arrives at the checkout stand/server?

Buses: How long until the next #71 bus arrives on the Ave?

Yes, they have a schedule, but given the vagaries of traffic, riders with-bikes-and-baby-carriages, etc., can they stick to it?

Gambler's fallacy: "I'm due for a win"

Relation to the Poisson: same process, different measures:

Poisson: *how many* events in a *fixed time*;

Exponential: *how long* until the *next event*

Relation to geometric: Geometric is discrete analog:

How long to a Head, 1 flip per sec, prob p vs

How long to a Head, 2 flips per sec, prob p/2, ...

Limit is exponential with parameter p

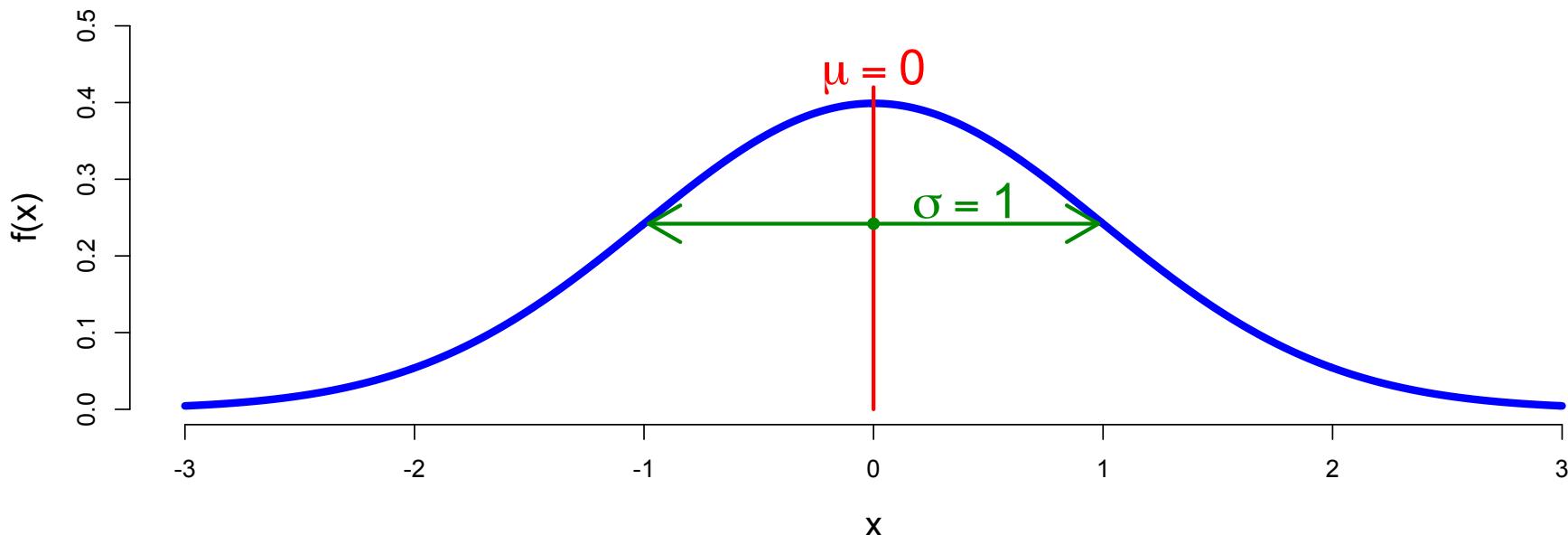
normal random variable

X is a normal (aka Gaussian) random variable $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

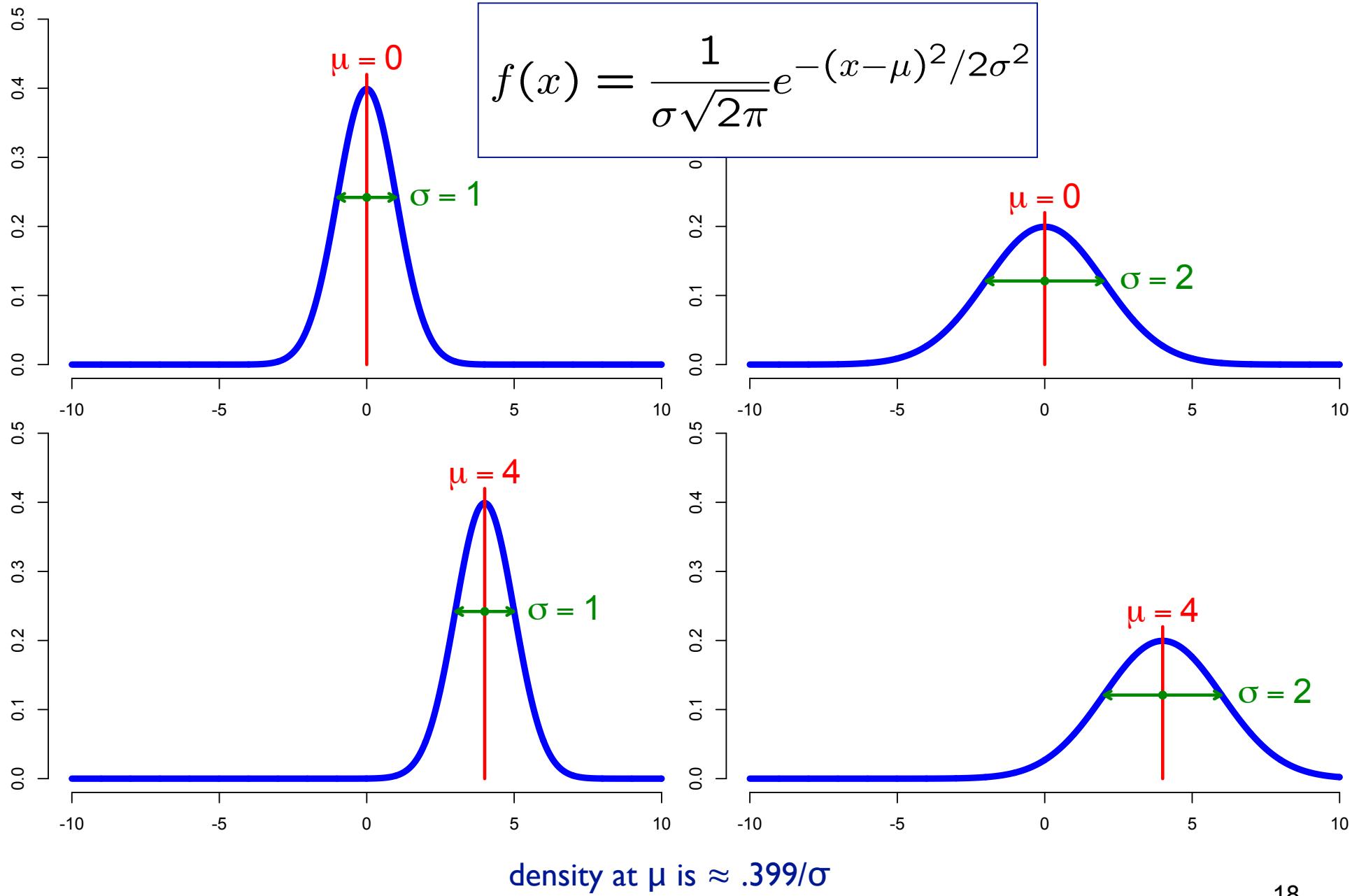
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

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

The Standard Normal Density Function



changing μ, σ



normal random variable

X is a normal random variable $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$Y = aX + b$$

$$E[Y] = E[aX+b] = a\mu + b$$

$$\text{Var}[Y] = \text{Var}[aX+b] = a^2\sigma^2$$

$$Y \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$$

Important special case: $Z = (X-\mu)/\sigma \sim N(0, 1)$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

$Z \sim N(0, 1)$ “standard (or unit) normal”

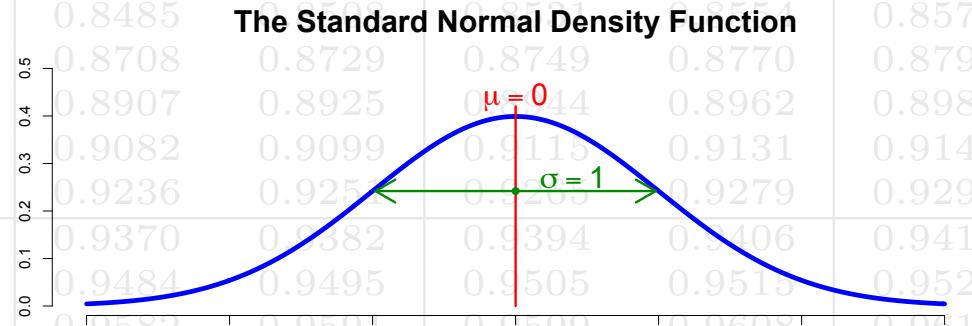
Use $\Phi(z)$ to denote CDF, i.e.

$$\Phi(z) = \Pr(Z \leq z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

no closed form ☹

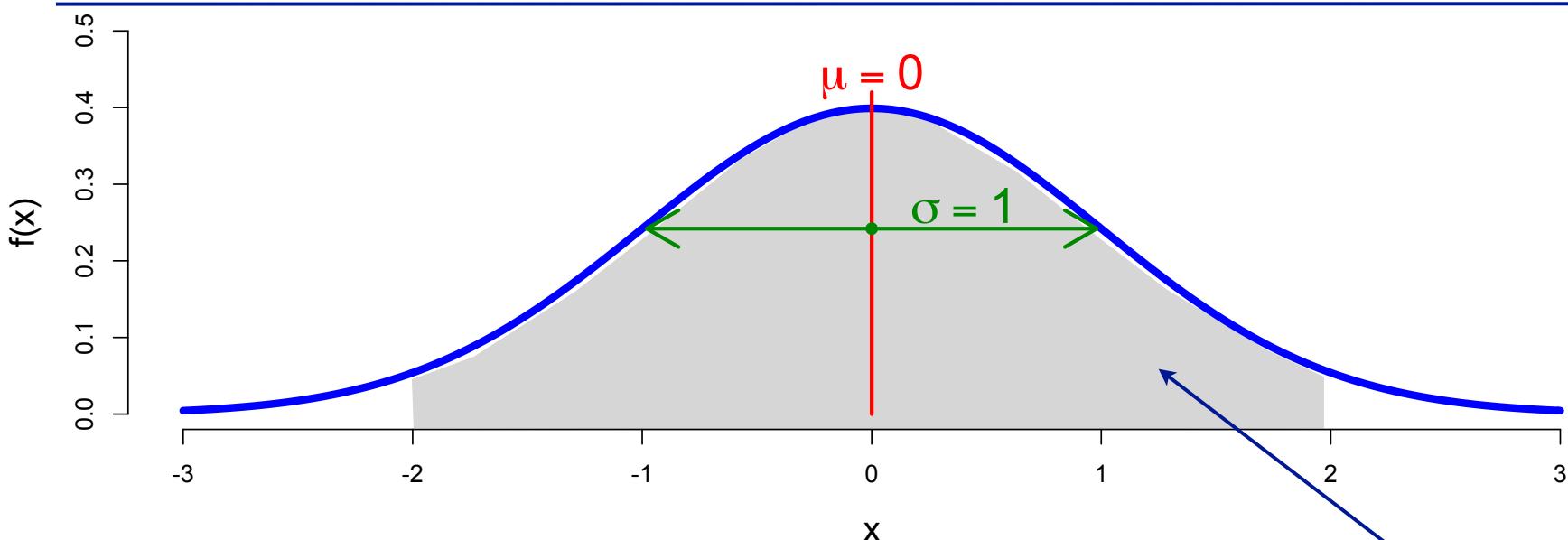
Table of the Standard Normal Cumulative Distribution Function $\Phi(Z)$

z	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08
0.0	0.5000	0.5040	0.5080	0.5120	0.5160	0.5199	0.5239	0.5279	0.5319
0.1	0.5398	0.5438	0.5478	0.5517	0.5557	0.5596	0.5636	0.5675	0.5714
0.2	0.5793	0.5832	0.5871	0.5910	0.5948	0.5987	0.6026	0.6064	0.6103
0.3	0.6179	0.6217	0.6255	0.6293	0.6331	0.6368	0.6406	0.6443	0.6480
0.4	0.6554	0.6591	0.6628	0.6664	0.6700	0.6736	0.6772	0.6808	0.6844
0.5	0.6915	0.6950	0.6985	0.7019	0.7054	0.7088	0.7123	0.7157	0.7190
0.6	0.7257	0.7291	0.7324	0.7357	0.7389	0.7422	0.7454	0.7486	0.7517
0.7	0.7580	0.7611	0.7642	0.7673	0.7704	0.7734	0.7764	0.7791	0.7823
0.8	0.7881	0.7910	0.7939	0.7967	0.7995	0.8023	0.8051	0.8078	0.8106
0.9	0.8159	0.8186	0.8212	0.8238	0.8264	0.8289	0.8315	0.8340	0.8365
1.0	0.8413	0.8438	0.8461	0.8485	The Standard Normal Density Function				
1.1	0.8643	0.8665	0.8686	0.8708	0.8729	0.8749	0.8770	0.8790	0.8810
1.2	0.8849	0.8869	0.8888	0.8907	0.8925	0.8944	0.8962	0.8980	0.8997
1.3	0.9032	0.9049	0.9066	0.9082	0.9099	0.9115	0.9131	0.9147	0.9162
1.4	0.9192	0.9207	0.9222	0.9236	0.9251	0.9265	0.9279	0.9292	0.9306
1.5	0.9332	0.9345	0.9357	0.9370	0.9382	0.9394	0.9406	0.9418	0.9429
1.6	0.9452	0.9463	0.9474	0.9484	0.9495	0.9505	0.9515	0.9525	0.9535
1.7	0.9554	0.9564	0.9573	0.9582	0.9591	0.9599	0.9608	0.9616	0.9625
1.8	0.9641	0.9649	0.9656	0.9664	0.9671	0.9678	0.9685	0.9693	0.9699
1.9	0.9713	0.9719	0.9726	0.9732	0.9738	0.9744	0.9750	0.9756	0.9761
2.0	0.9772	0.9778	0.9783	0.9788	0.9793	0.9798	0.9803	0.9808	0.9812
2.1	0.9821	0.9826	0.9830	0.9834	0.9838	0.9842	0.9846	0.9850	0.9854
2.2	0.9861	0.9864	0.9868	0.9871	0.9875	0.9878	0.9881	0.9884	0.9887
2.3	0.9893	0.9896	0.9898	0.9901	0.9904	0.9906	0.9909	0.9911	0.9913
3.0	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9988	0.9988	0.9989	0.9989	0.9989	0.9990
3.1	0.9990	0.9991	0.9991	0.9991	0.9992	0.9992	0.9992	0.9993	
3.2	0.9993	0.9993	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9994	0.9995	
3.3	0.9995	0.9995	0.9995	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	0.9996	
3.4	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	0.9997	



E.g., see B&T p155, p531

The Standard Normal Density Function



If $Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ what is $P(\mu - \sigma < Z < \mu + \sigma)$?

$$P(\mu - \sigma < Z < \mu + \sigma) = \Phi(1) - \Phi(-1) \approx 68\%$$

$$P(\mu - 2\sigma < Z < \mu + 2\sigma) = \Phi(2) - \Phi(-2) \approx 95\%$$

$$P(\mu - 3\sigma < Z < \mu + 3\sigma) = \Phi(3) - \Phi(-3) \approx 99\%$$

normal approximation to binomial

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

$$E[X] = np \quad \text{Var}[X] = np(1-p)$$

Poisson approx: good for n large, p small (np constant)

Normal approx: For large n, (p stays fixed):

$$X \approx Y \sim N(E[X], \text{Var}[X]) = N(np, np(1-p))$$

Normal approximation good when $np(1-p) \geq 10$

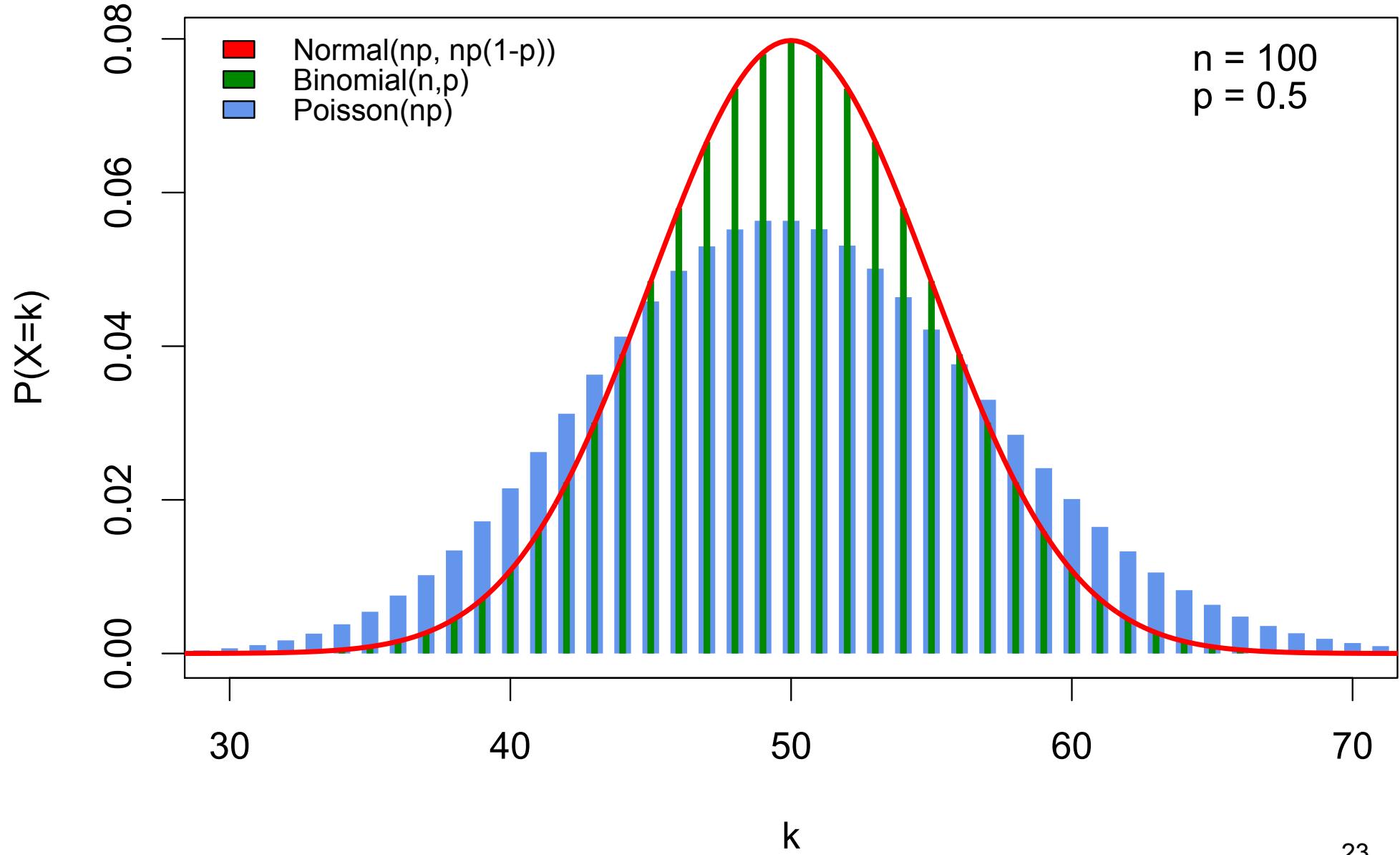
DeMoivre-Laplace Theorem:

Let S_n = number of successes in n trials (with prob. p).

Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$Pr \left(a \leq \frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \leq b \right) \longrightarrow \Phi(b) - \Phi(a)$$

normal approximation to binomial



normal approximation to binomial

Fair coin flipped 40 times. Probability of 20 heads?

Exact answer:

$$P(X = 20) = \binom{40}{20} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{40} \approx 0.1254$$

Normal approximation:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = 20) &= P(19.5 \leq X < 20.5) \\ &= P\left(\frac{19.5 - 20}{\sqrt{10}} \leq \frac{X - 20}{\sqrt{10}} < \frac{20.5 - 20}{\sqrt{10}}\right) \\ &\approx P\left(-0.16 \leq \frac{X - 20}{\sqrt{10}} < 0.16\right) \\ &\approx \Phi(0.16) - \Phi(-0.16) \approx 0.1272 \end{aligned}$$

the central limit theorem (CLT)

Consider i.i.d. (independent, identically distributed) random vars X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots

X_i has $\mu = E[X_i]$ and $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X_i]$

As $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{} N(0, 1)$$

Restated: As $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

How tall are you? Why?



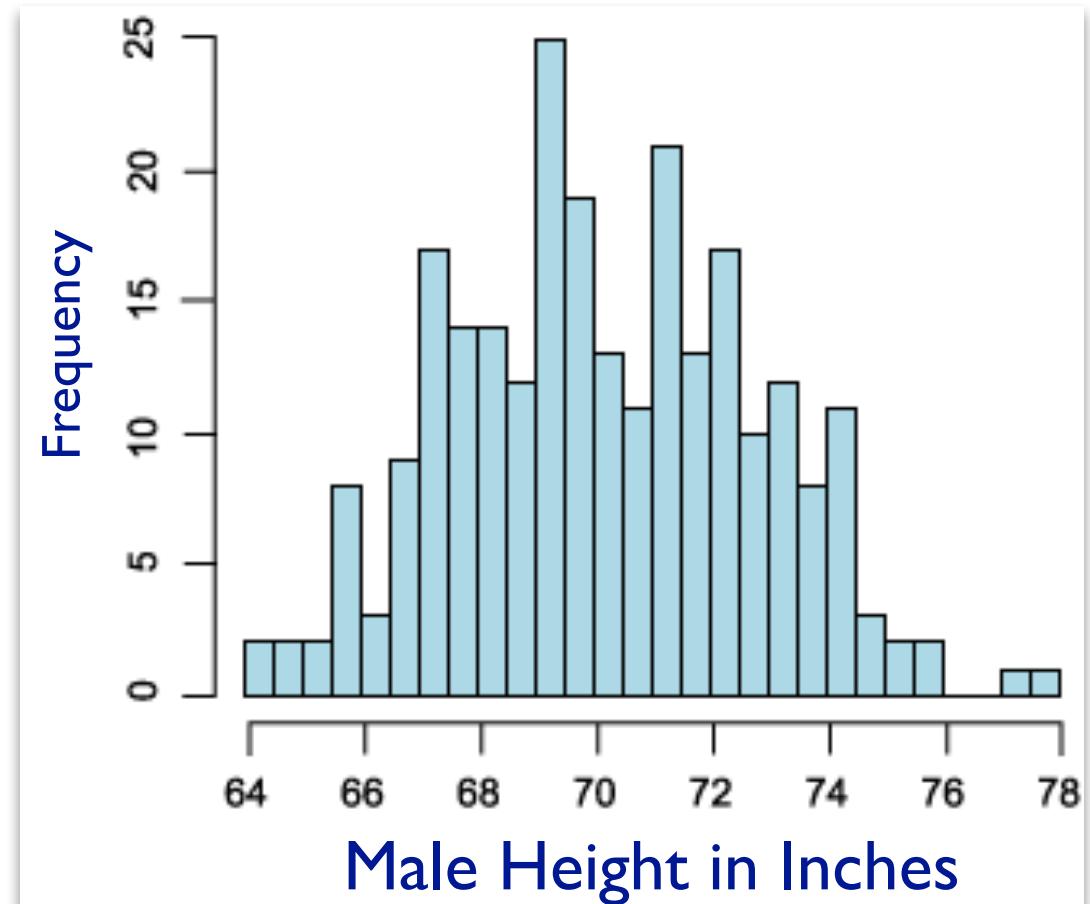
Credit: Annie Leibovitz, © 1987 ?

Willie Shoemaker & Wilt Chamberlain

Human height is approximately normal.

Why might that be true?

R.A. Fisher (1918) noted it would follow from CLT if height were the sum of many independent random effects, e.g. many genetic factors (plus some environmental ones like diet). I.e., suggested part of mechanism by looking at *shape* of the curve. (WAY before anyone really knew what genes were...)



Meta-analysis of Dense Genecentric Association Studies Reveals Common and Uncommon Variants Associated with Height, Lanktree, et al.

The American Journal of Human Genetics 88, 6–18, January 7, 2011

Table 1. Sixty-Four Loci Showing Significant Evidence for Association with Adult Height, Identified with the Use of the IBC Array

(and hundreds more probably exist)						
Locus Rank	Chr.	Candidate Gene ^a	SNP ^a	Effect Allele	MAF	European Phase I (up to 53,394) Effect
1	7q22	CDK6	rs4272	A	0.21	-0.46
2	6p21	HMGA1	rs1150791	C	0.00	0.72
3	12q15	HMGA2				
4	20q11	MMP24				
5	17q23	MAP3K3				
6	17q24	GHI-GH2				
7	1p36	MFAP2				
8	15q26	IGF1R				
9	7p22	GNA12				
10	17q23	TBX2				
11	12q22	SOCS2				
12	9q22	PTCH1				
13	14q11	NFATC4				
14	15q26	ACAN				
15	2q24	NPPC				
16	6p21	PPARD				
17	20q11	MYH7B				
18	19q13	IL11				

Table 1. Continued

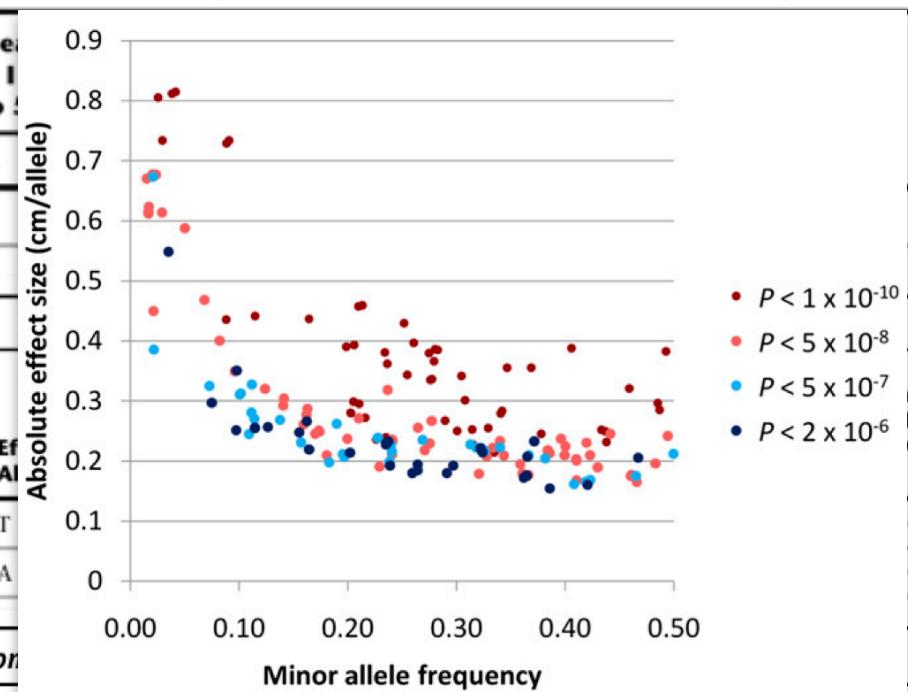
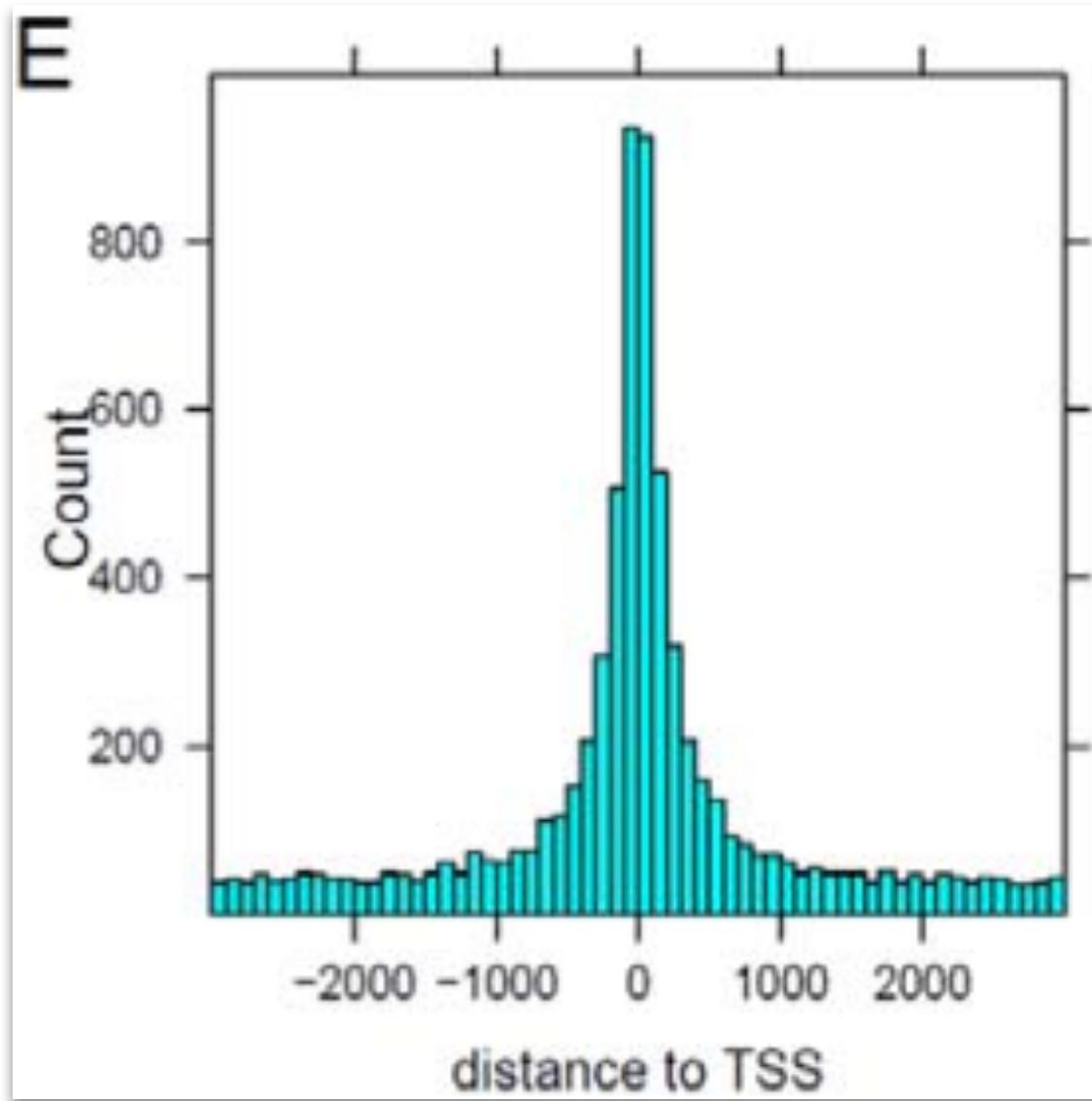


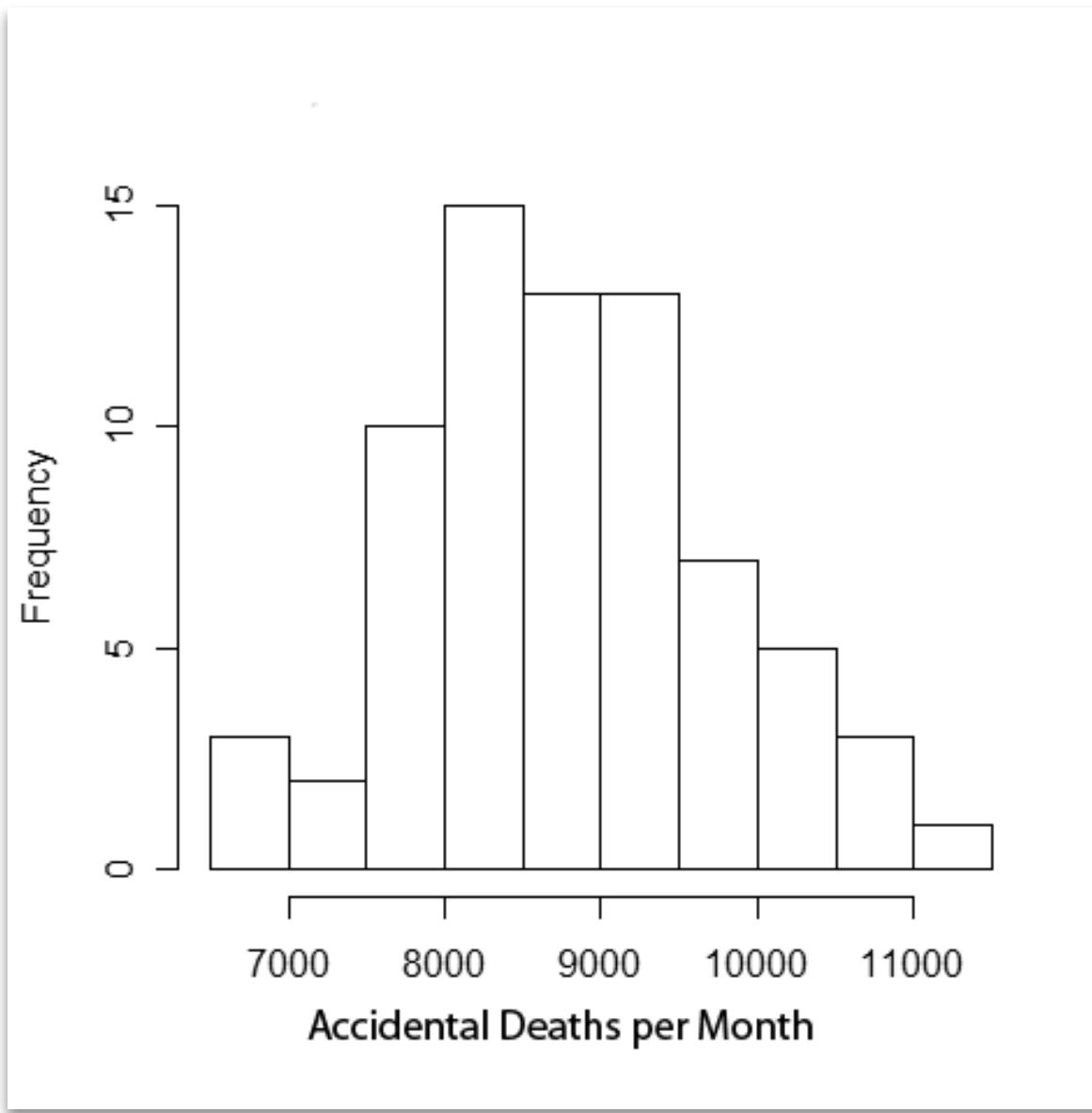
Table 1. Continued

Locus Rank	Chr.	Candidate Gene ^a	SNP ^a	Effect Allele	MAF	European Ancestry Phase I (up to 53,394)		
						Effect	p	r
54	1p22	COL24A1	rs2046159	A	0.16	0.23	3.8×10^{-5}	2
55	1q23	DUSP23	rs1129923	A	0.10	-0.25	2.7×10^{-4}	0
56	10q22	MAT1A	rs7087728	A	0.18	0.22	2.2×10^{-4}	0
57	2p15	PPP3R1	rs1822469	T	0.41	-0.14	7.8×10^{-4}	9
58	7q36	ATG9B	rs1800783	A	0.38	-0.16	2.0×10^{-4}	0
59	14q11	BCL2L2	rs3210043	A	0.16	0.25	9.7×10^{-6}	0
60	4p14	RFC1	rs11096991	T	0.35	0.15	3.6×10^{-4}	28

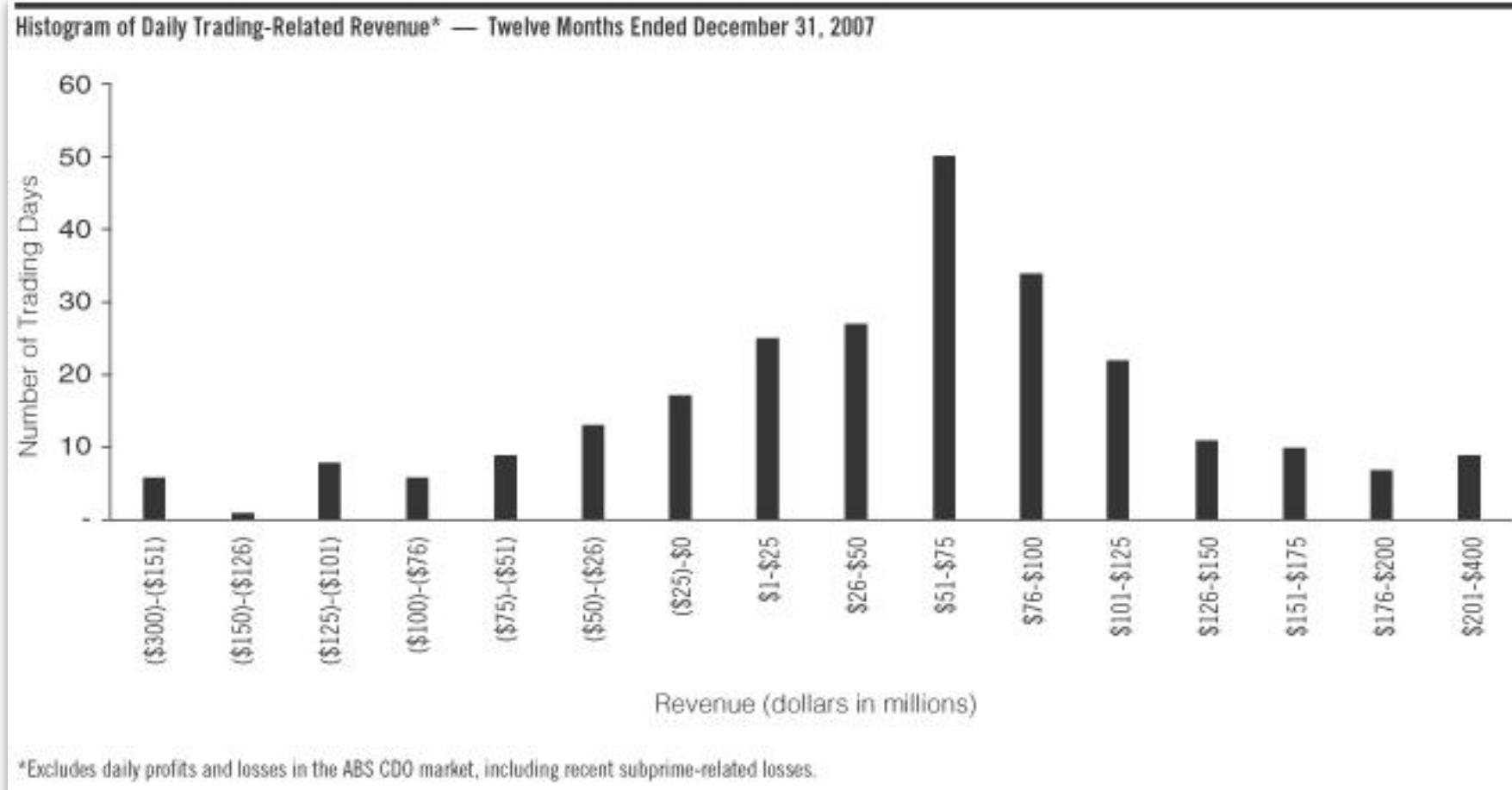
in the real world...



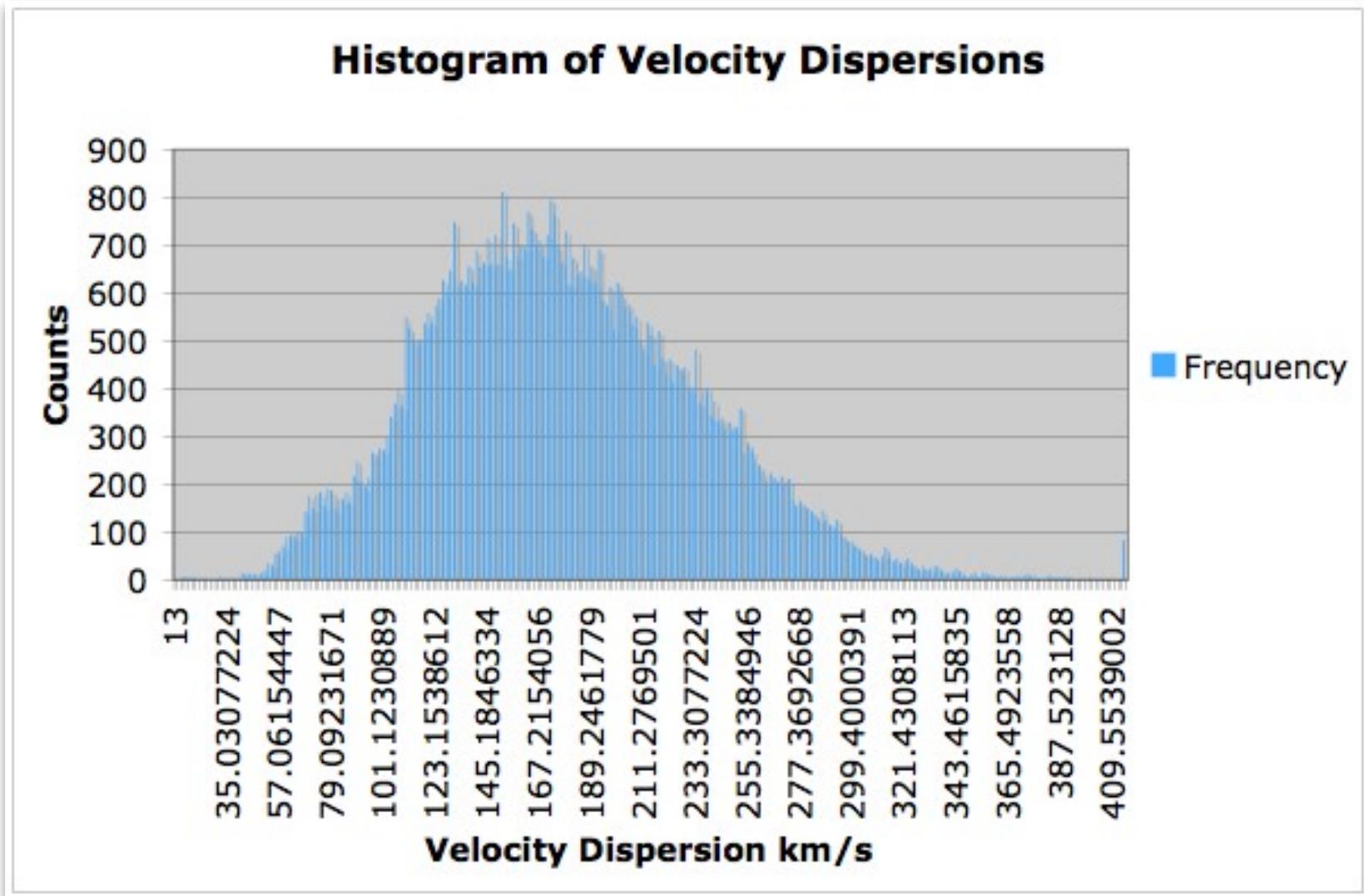
in the real world...



in the real world...



in the real world...



pdf and cdf

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \quad F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$$

sums become integrals, e.g.

$$E[X] = \sum_x x p(x) \quad E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

most familiar properties still hold, e.g.

$$E[aX+bY+c] = aE[X]+bE[Y]+c$$

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

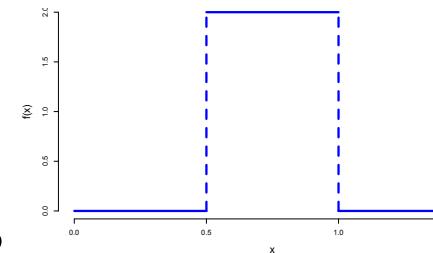
Three important examples

$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ uniform in $[\alpha, \beta]$

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

$$E[X] = (\alpha + \beta)/2$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = (\alpha - \beta)^2 / 12$$

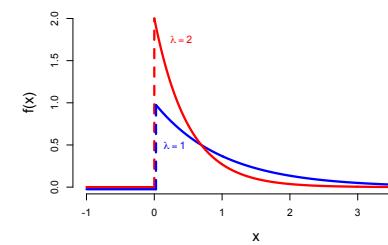


$X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ exponential

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$



$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ normal (aka Gaussian)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

$$E[X] = \mu$$

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

