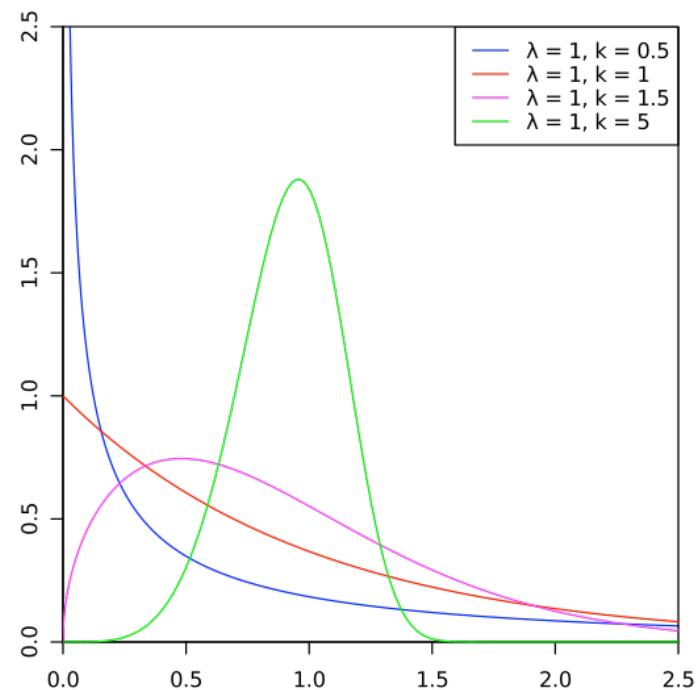
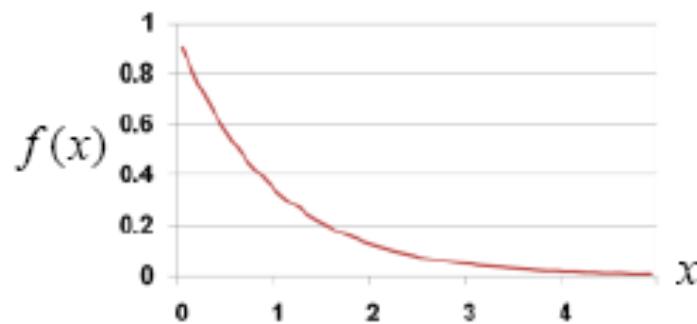


7. continuous random variables



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}

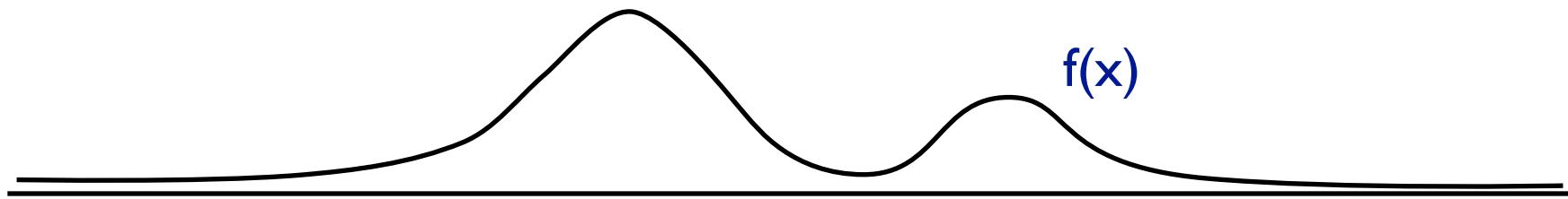
Continuous random variable: takes values in an uncountable set, e.g.

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

$f(x): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the *probability density function* (or simply “density”)



Require:

$$f(x) \geq 0, \text{ and}$$

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

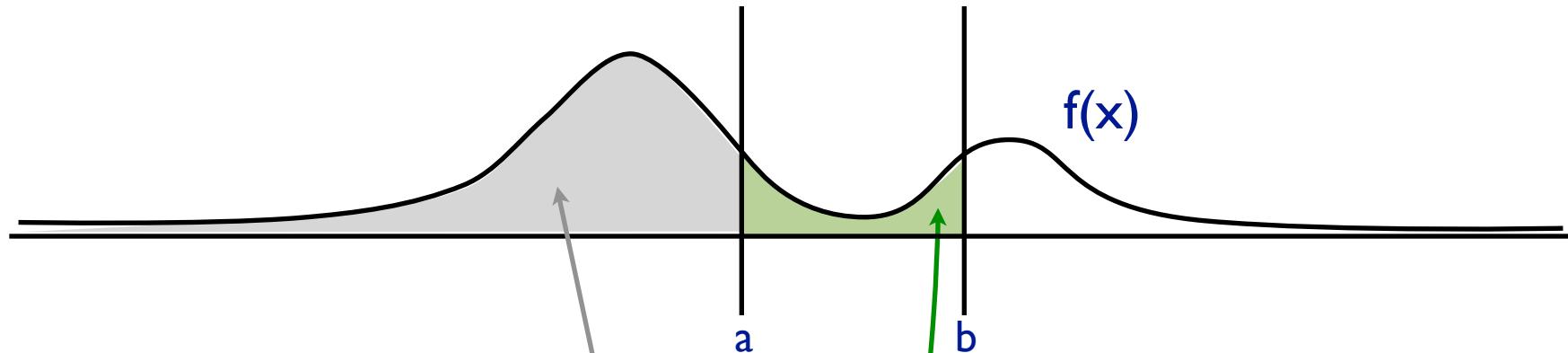
i.e., distribution is:

← nonnegative, and

← normalized,

just like discrete PMF

$F(x)$: the *cumulative distribution function* (aka the “distribution”)



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

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

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

$$P(X = a) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P(a - \varepsilon < X \leq a) = F(a) - F(a) = 0$$

i.e.,

the probability that a continuous r.v. falls *at* a specified point is zero.

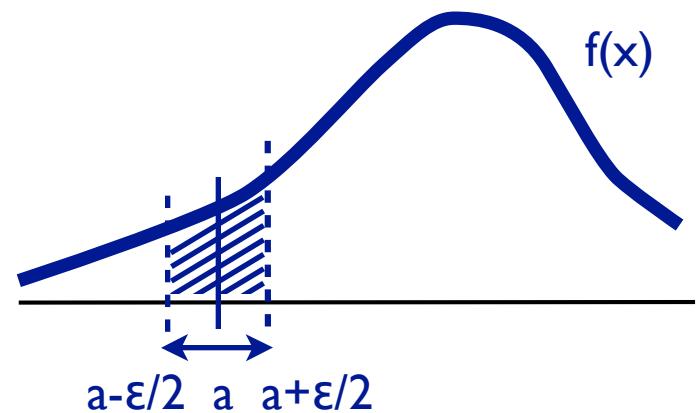
But

the probability that it falls *near* that point is *proportional to the density*:

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

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

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



i.e., in a large random sample, expect more samples where density is higher (hence the name “density”).

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.

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

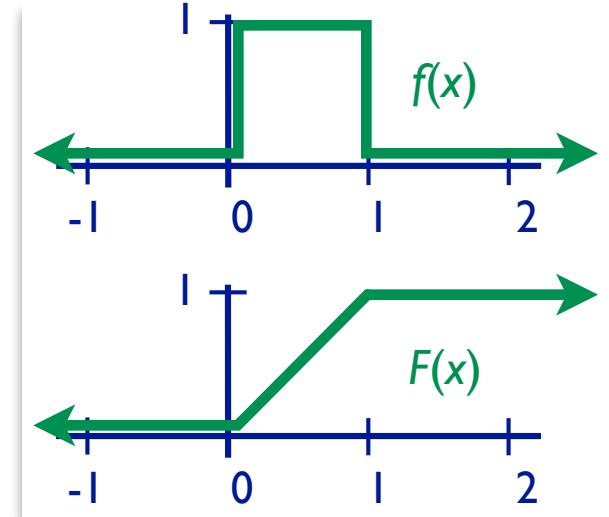
For continuous r.v. X ,
$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

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



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

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

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

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

properties of expectation

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

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

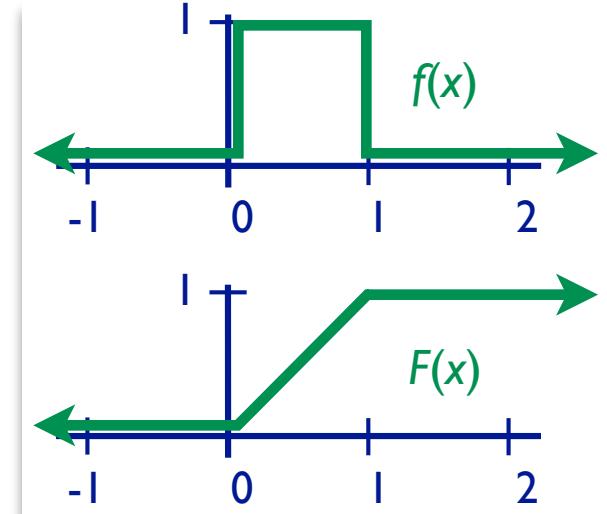
Identity still holds:

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

proof “same”

example

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



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

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

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

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

continuous random variables: summary

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

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

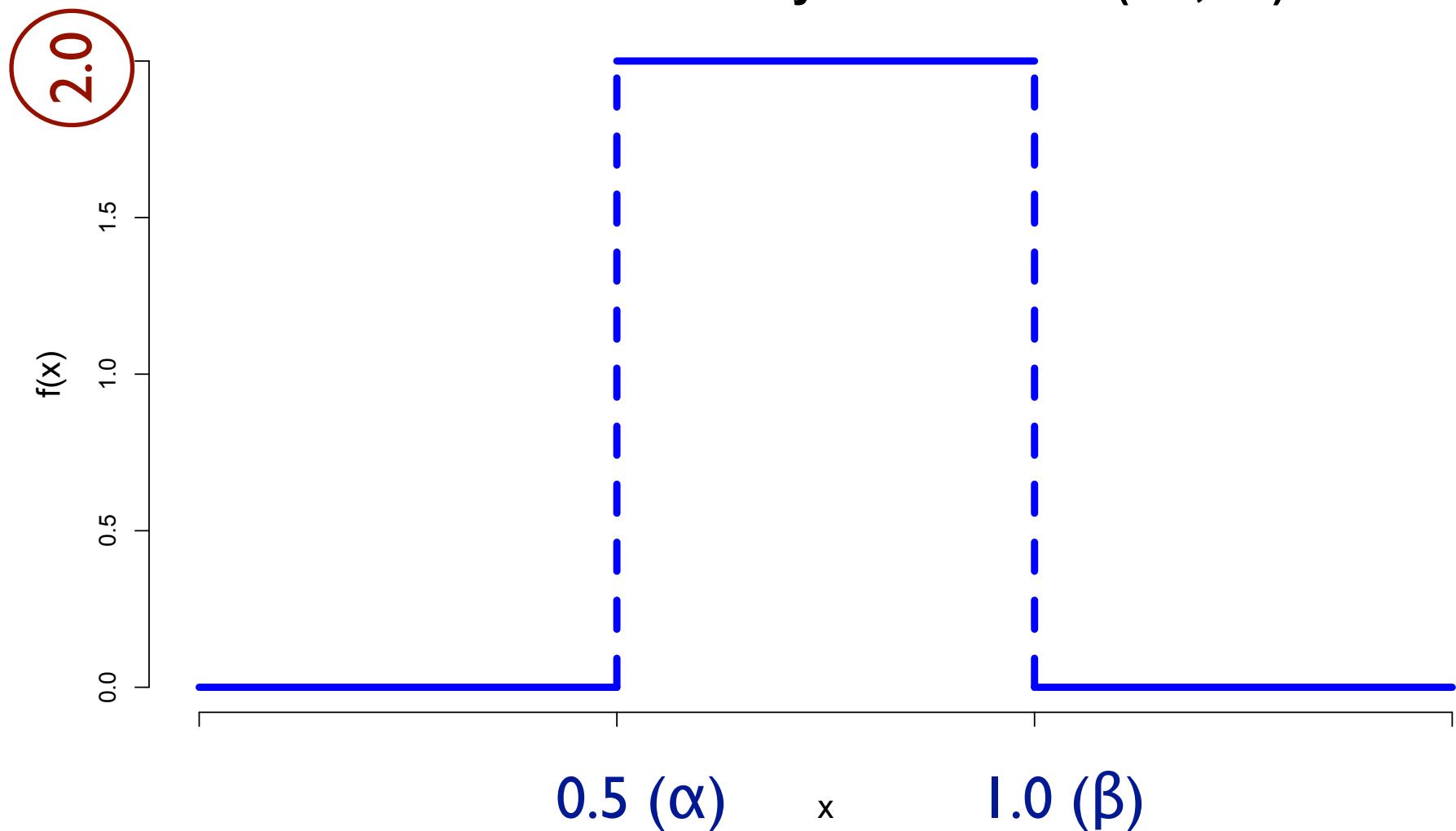
$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

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

uniform random variables

$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ 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 variables

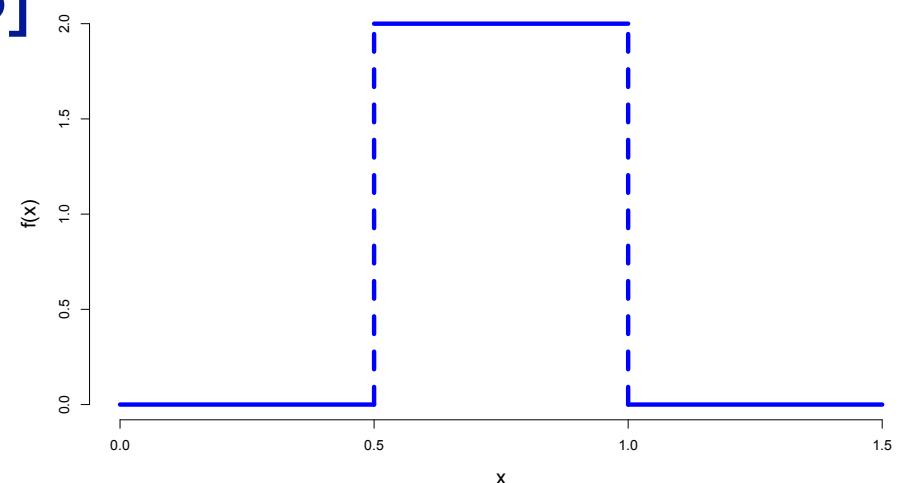
$X \sim \text{Uni}(\alpha, \beta)$ is uniform in $[\alpha, \beta]$

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

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

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

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



Yes, you should review your basic calculus; e.g., these 2 integrals would be good practice.

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.

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

Average Wait? 4.17ms



waiting for “events”

Radioactive decay: How long until the next alpha particle?

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

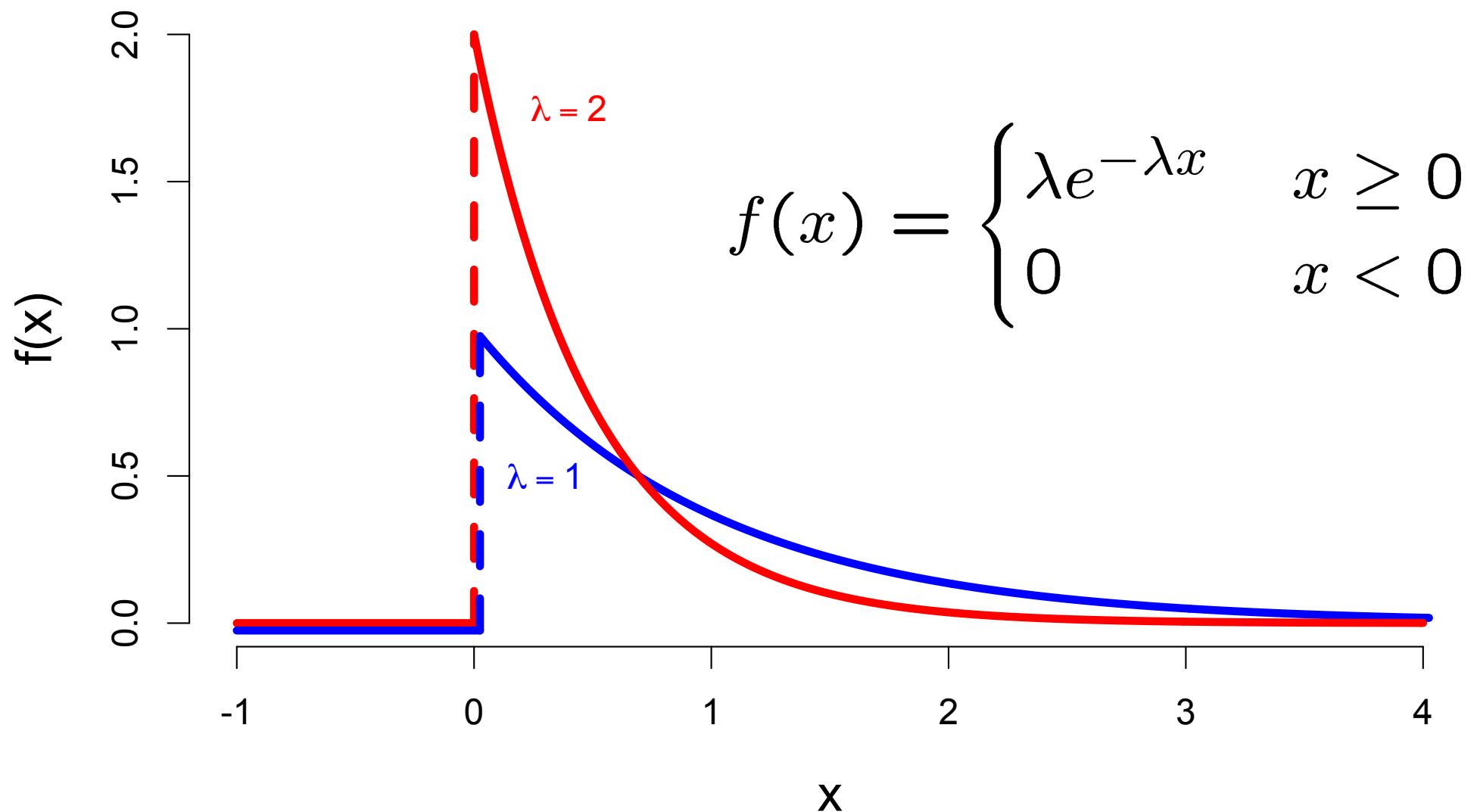
Buses: How long until the next #71 bus arrives on the Ave?

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

Assuming events are independent, happening at some fixed *average* rate of λ per unit time – the waiting time until the next event is exponentially distributed (next slide)

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

The Exponential Density Function



exponential random variables

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

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

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

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

Memorylessness:

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

Assuming exp distr, if you've waited s minutes, prob of waiting t more is exactly same as $s = 0$

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*;

λ is avg # per unit time;

Exponential: *how long until the next event*

$1/\lambda$ is mean wait

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 $p/2$, vs

How long to a Head, 3 flips per sec, prob $p/3$, vs

⋮

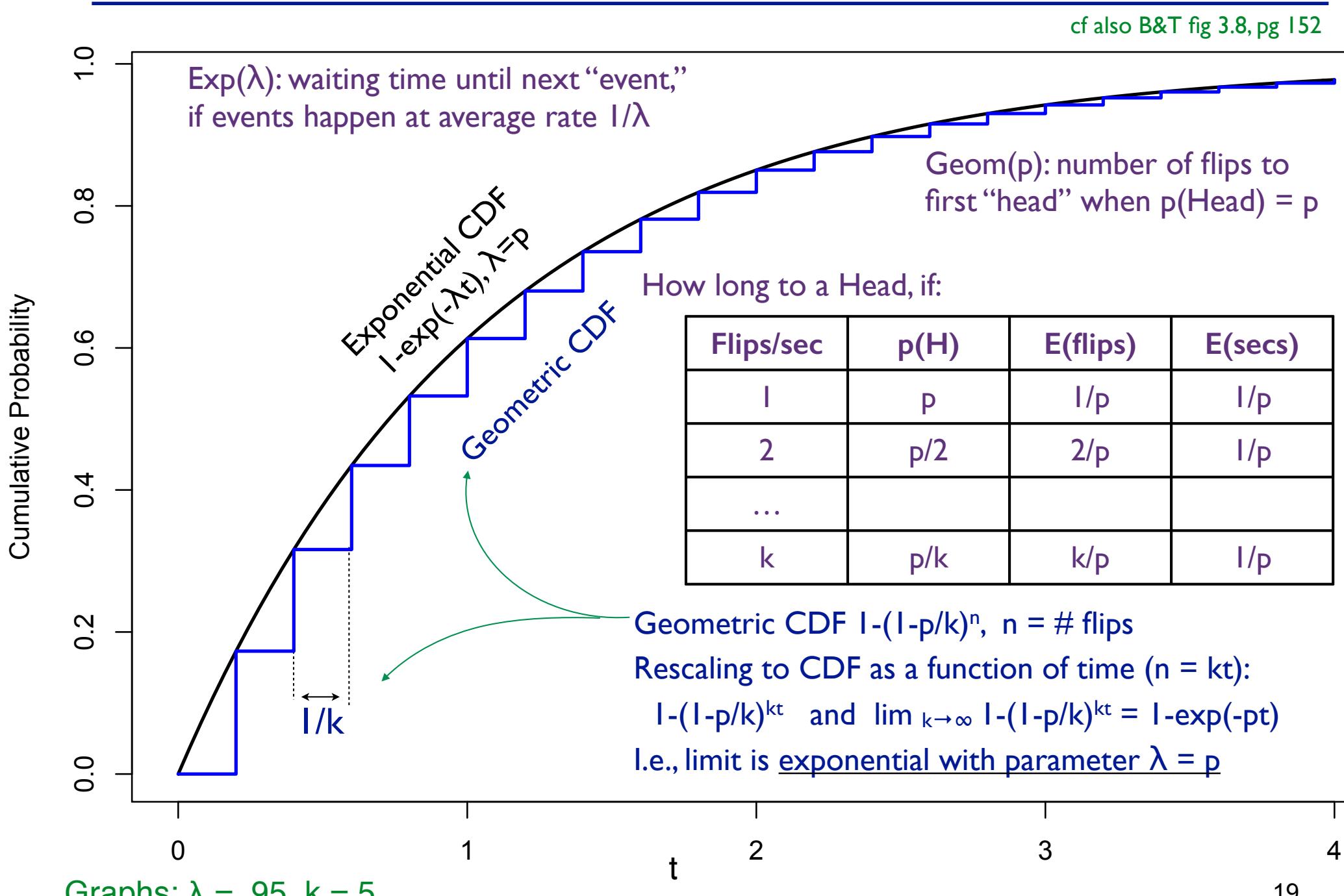
Limit is exponential with parameter $1/p$

} All have same mean: $1/p$

see also B&T fig 3.8, p152

geometric is discrete analog of exponential

cf also B&T fig 3.8, pg 152

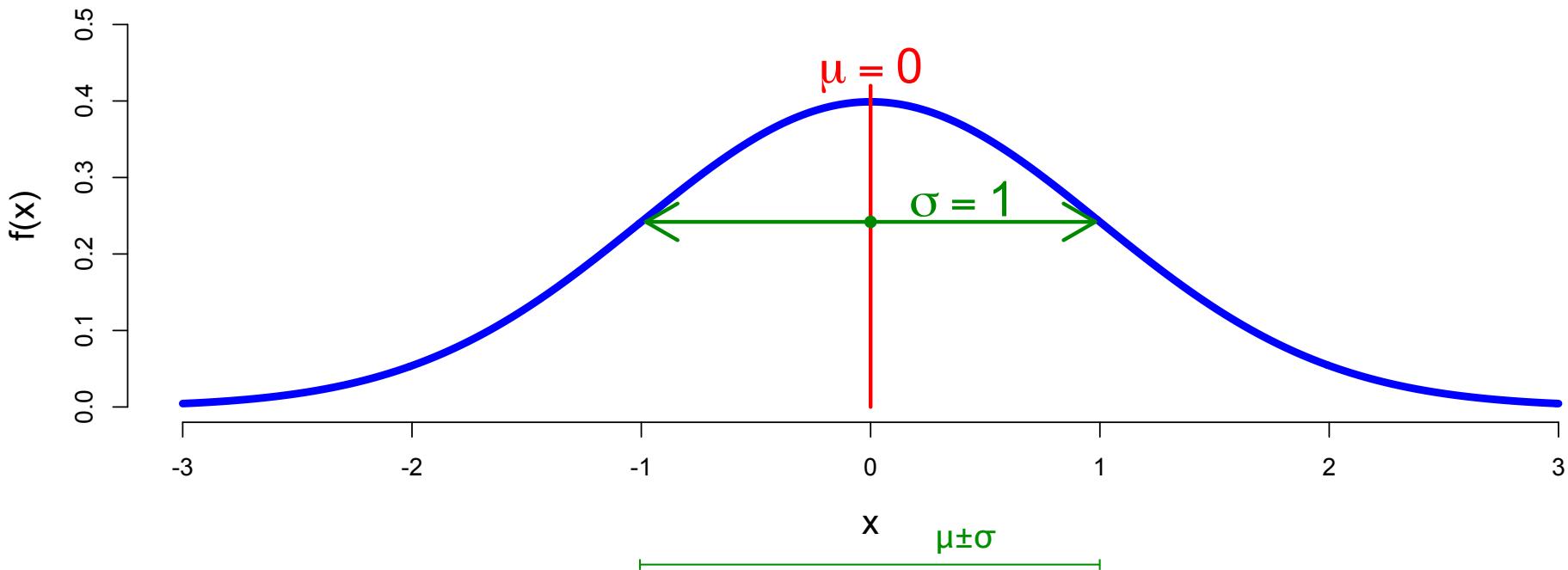


X is a normal (aka Gaussian) random variable $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

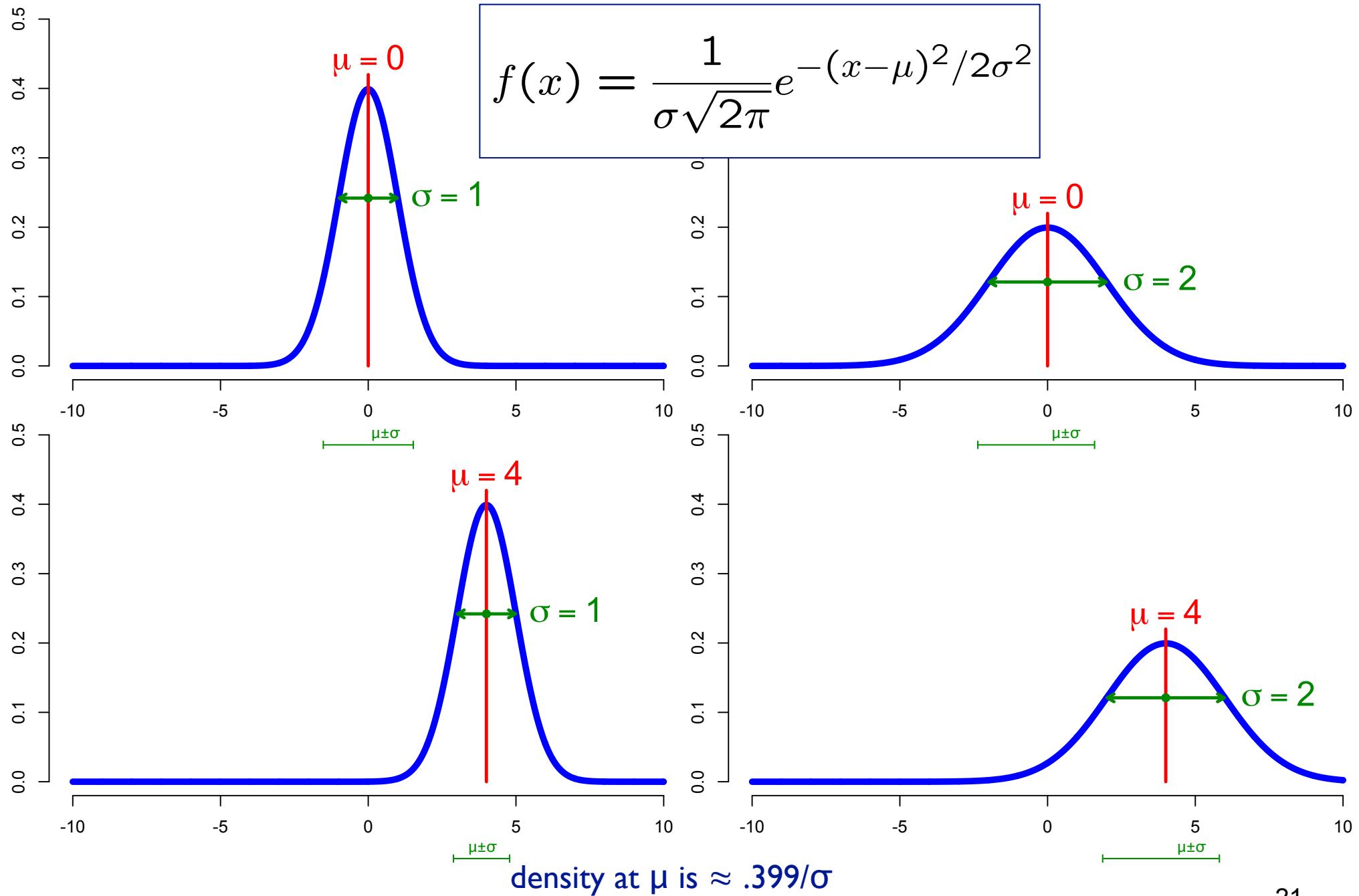
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

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

The Standard Normal Density Function



changing μ, σ



normal random variables

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

$$Y = aX + b$$

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

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

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

$E[], \text{Var}[]$ as expected;
“normality” is the surprise

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”

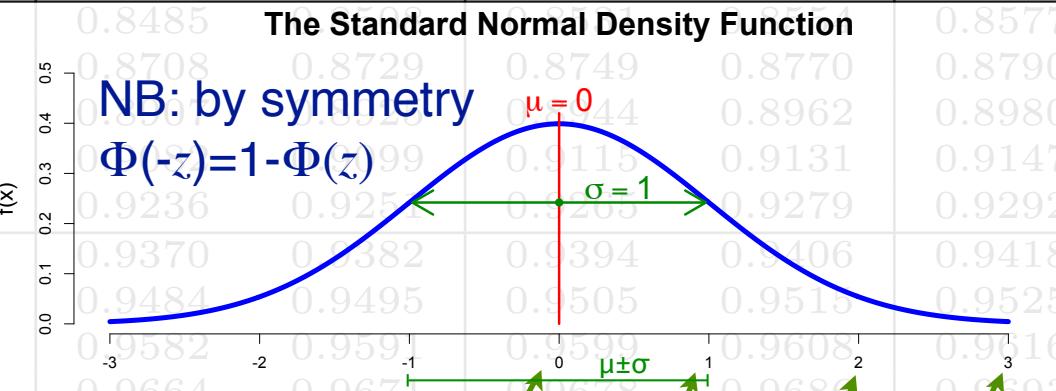
Use $\Phi(z)$ to denote CDF, i.e.

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

no closed form ☹

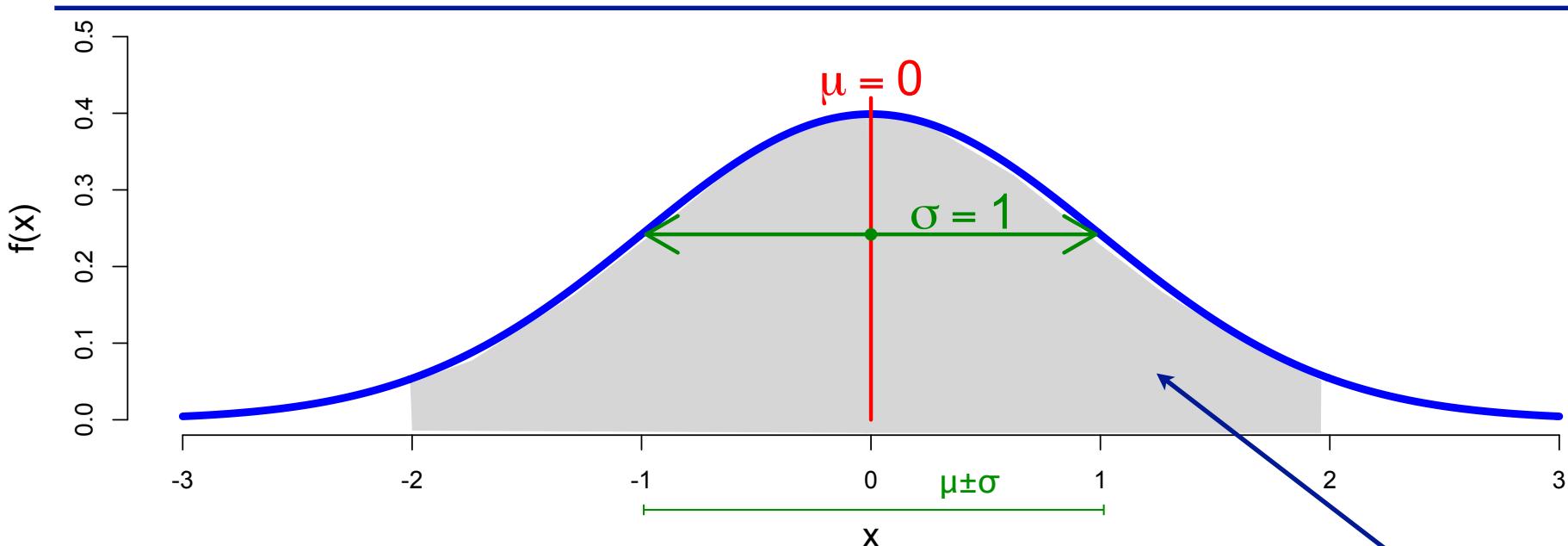
Table of the Standard Normal Cumulative Distribution Function $\Phi(z)$

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	0.7792	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	0.8508	0.8529	0.8544	0.8557	0.8599
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	0.8909	0.8929	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	0.9250	0.9264	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 $Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ what is $P(\mu - \sigma < Z < \mu + \sigma)$?

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

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

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

Why?

$$\mu - k\sigma < Z < \mu + k\sigma \Leftrightarrow -k < \frac{(Z-\mu)}{\sigma} < +k$$

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

$N(0, 1)$

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 $n \rightarrow \infty$,

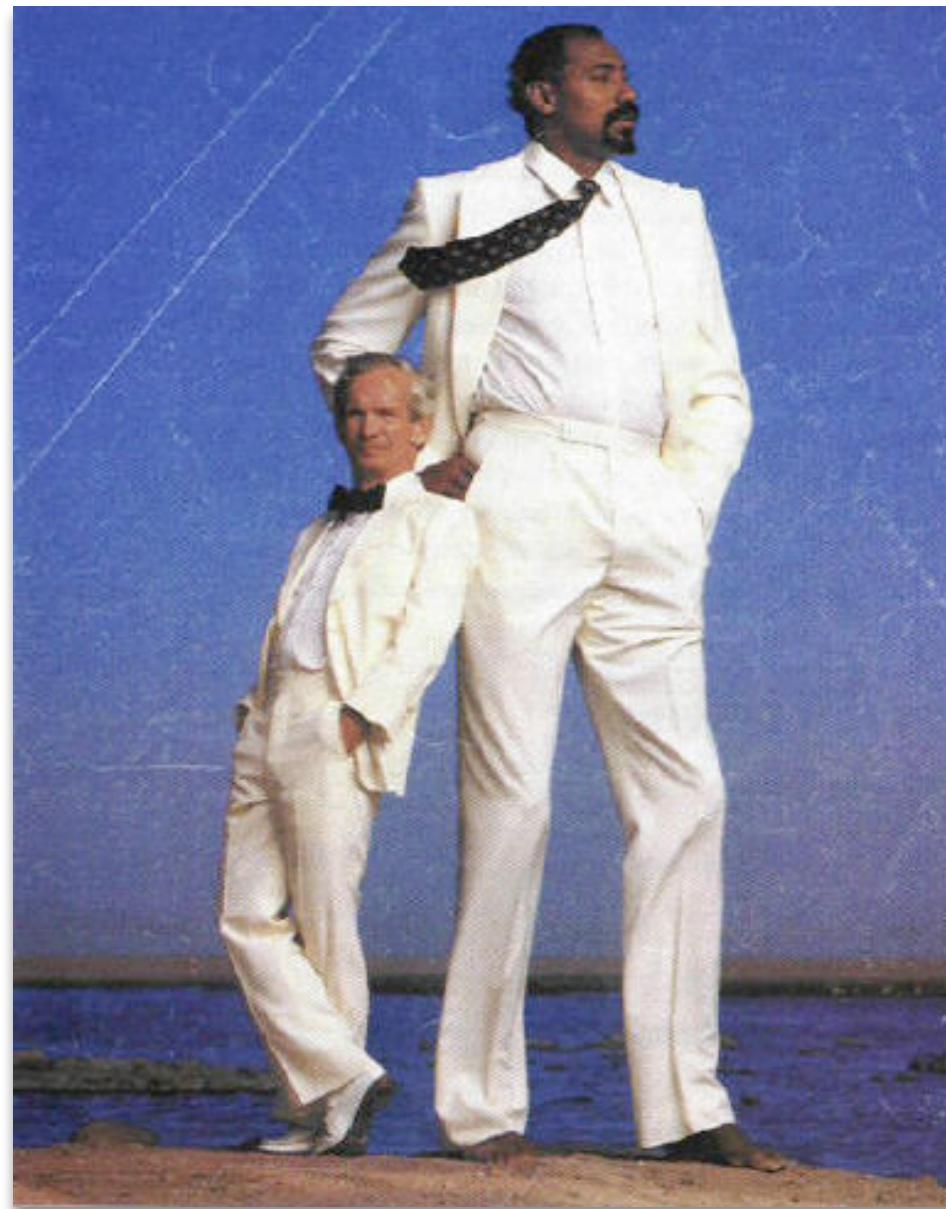
$$\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \longrightarrow N(0, 1)$$

Restated: As $n \rightarrow \infty$,

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

More of the theory behind this later, but first, some examples:

How tall are you? Why?



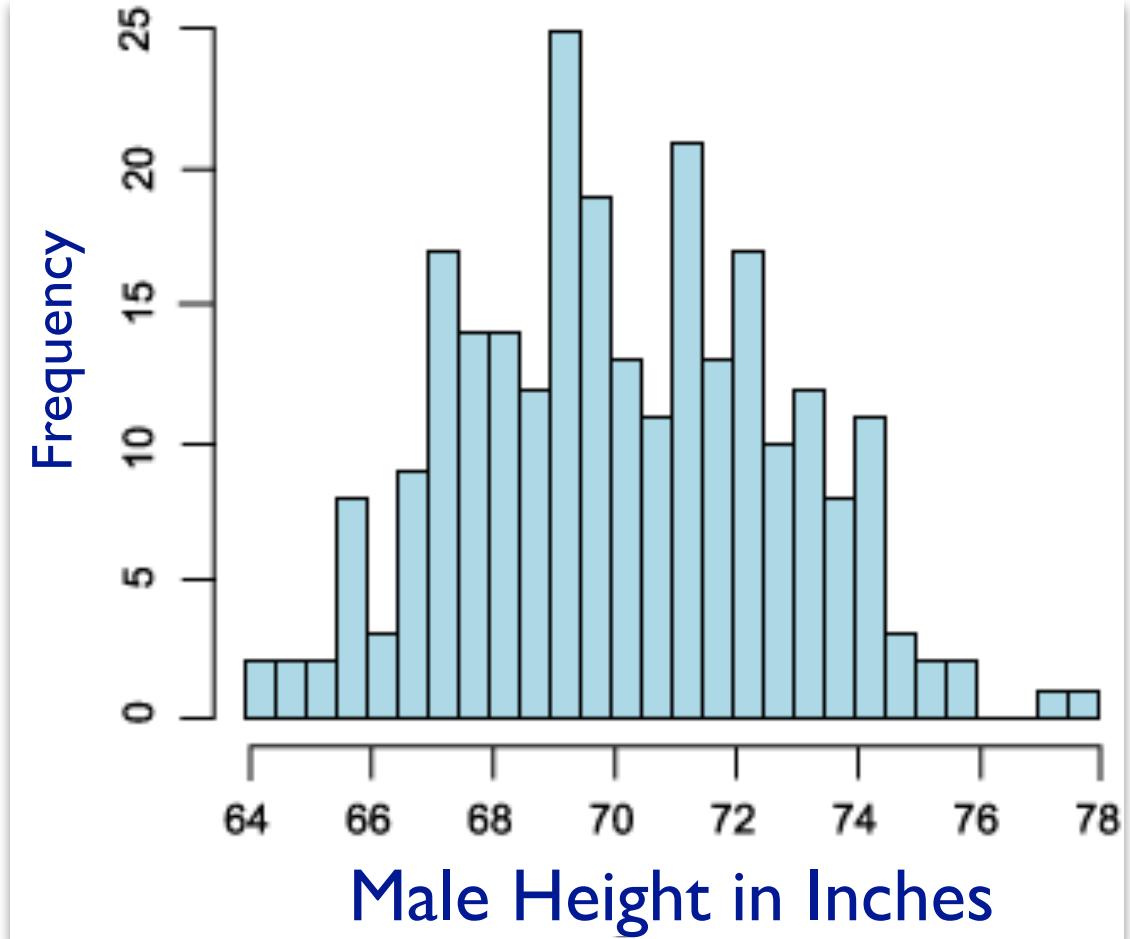
Credit: Annie Leibovitz, © 1987 ?

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, DNA, etc. were...)



Meta-analysis of Dense Genecentric Association Studies Reveals Common and Uncommon Variants Associated with Height, Lanktree, et^{al.}¹⁹⁴

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	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

Locus Rank	Chr.	Candidate Gene ^a	SNP ^a	Effect Allele	MAF	Effect	p	I ²
28	2p23	GCKR	rs780094	T				
29	1q41	TGFB2	rs900	A				
30	20q11	CDK5RAP1						
31	2p12	EIF2AK3						
32	19p13	INSR						
33	6q25	ESR1						
34	2q37	DIS3L2						
35	2q35	PLCD4						
36	1p36	RPS6KAI						
37	15q21	CYP19A1						
38	5q31	SLC22A5						
39	7p15	JAZF1						
40	17p13	POLR2A						
41	1p22	PKN2						
42	7q22	CNOT4						

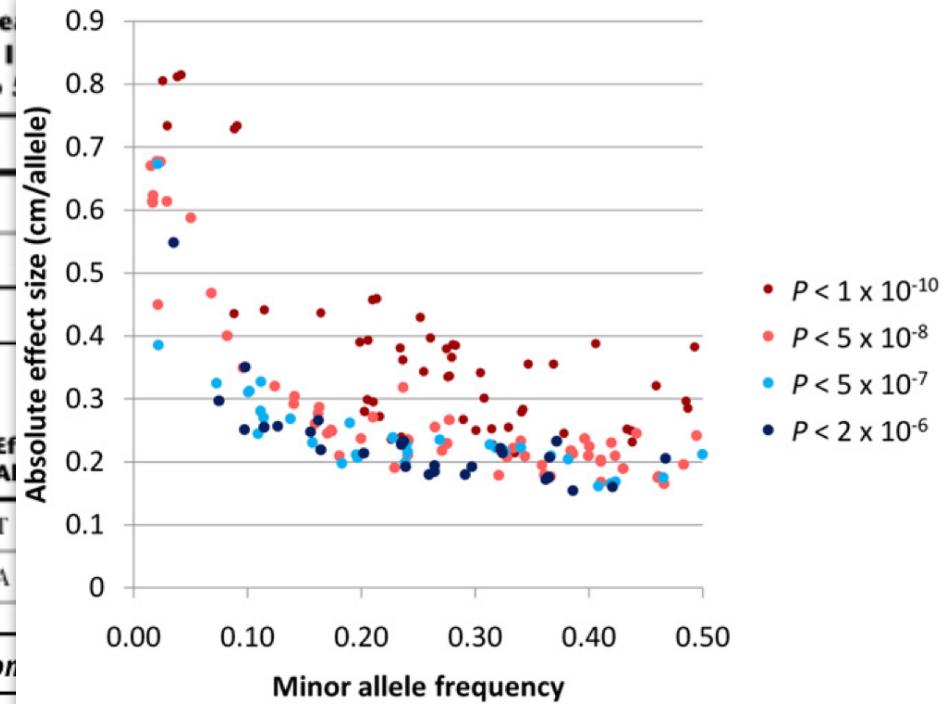


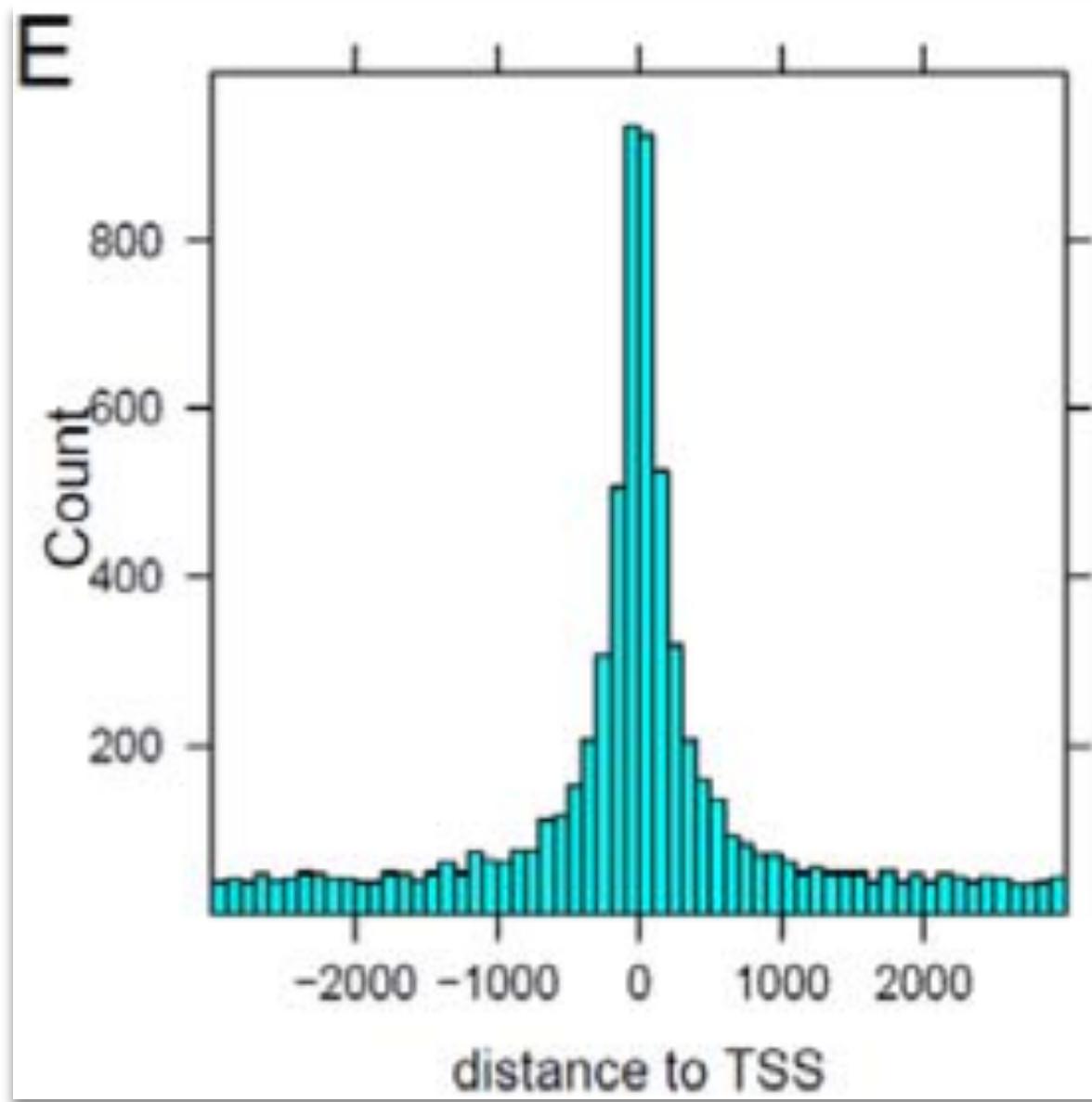
Table 1. Continued

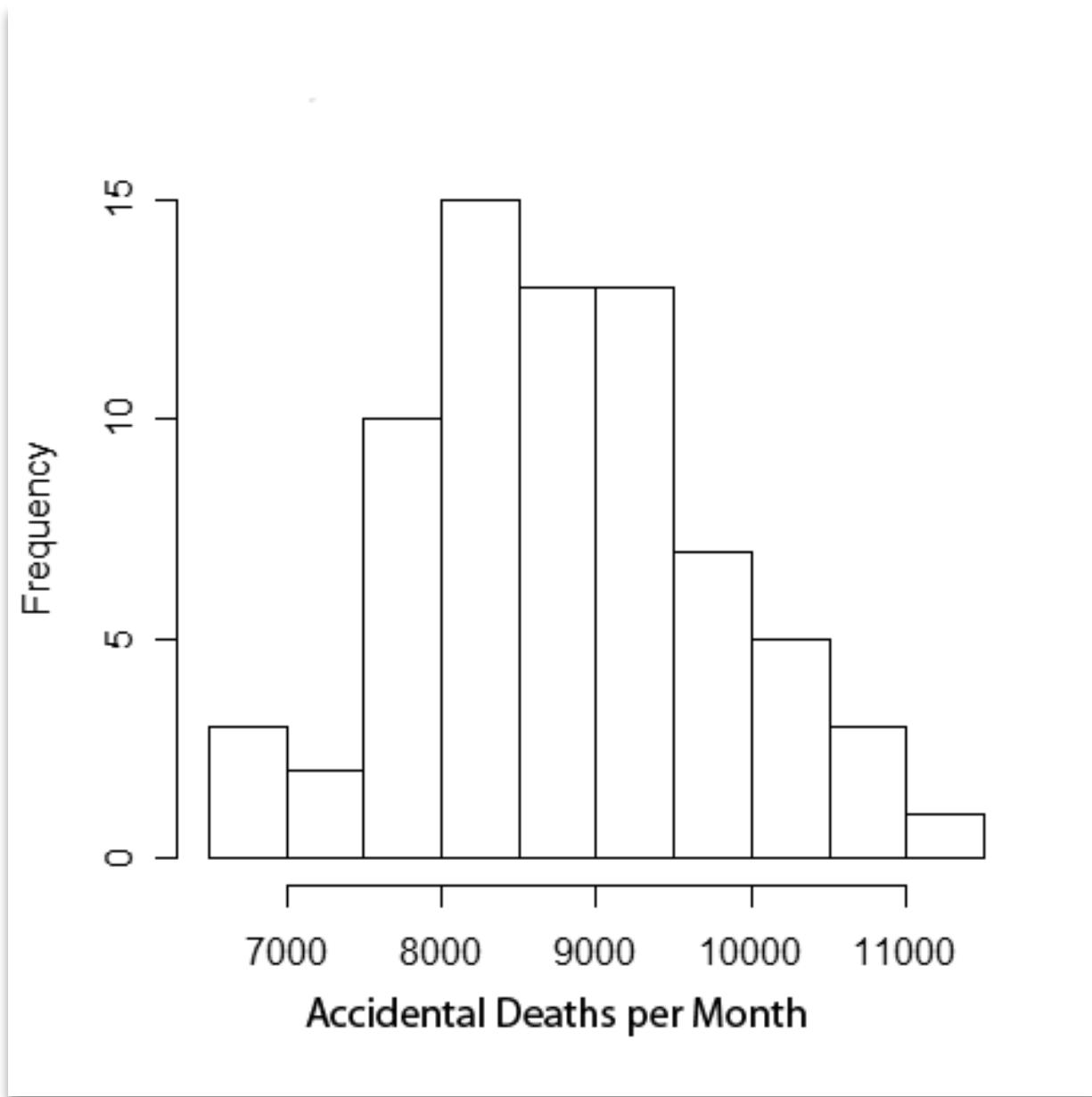
European Ancestry Phase I (up to 53,394)

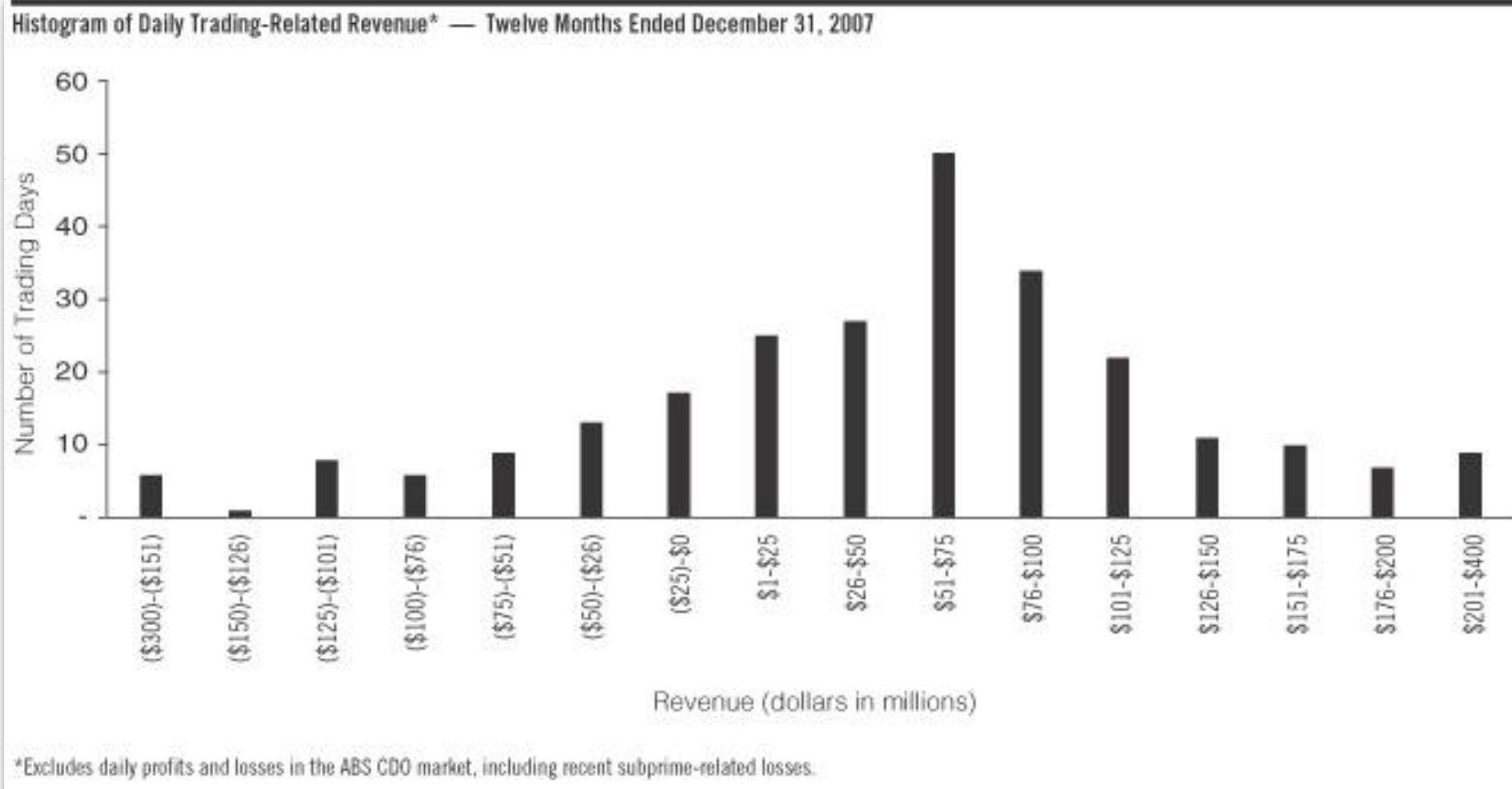
Big Dog, Little Dog

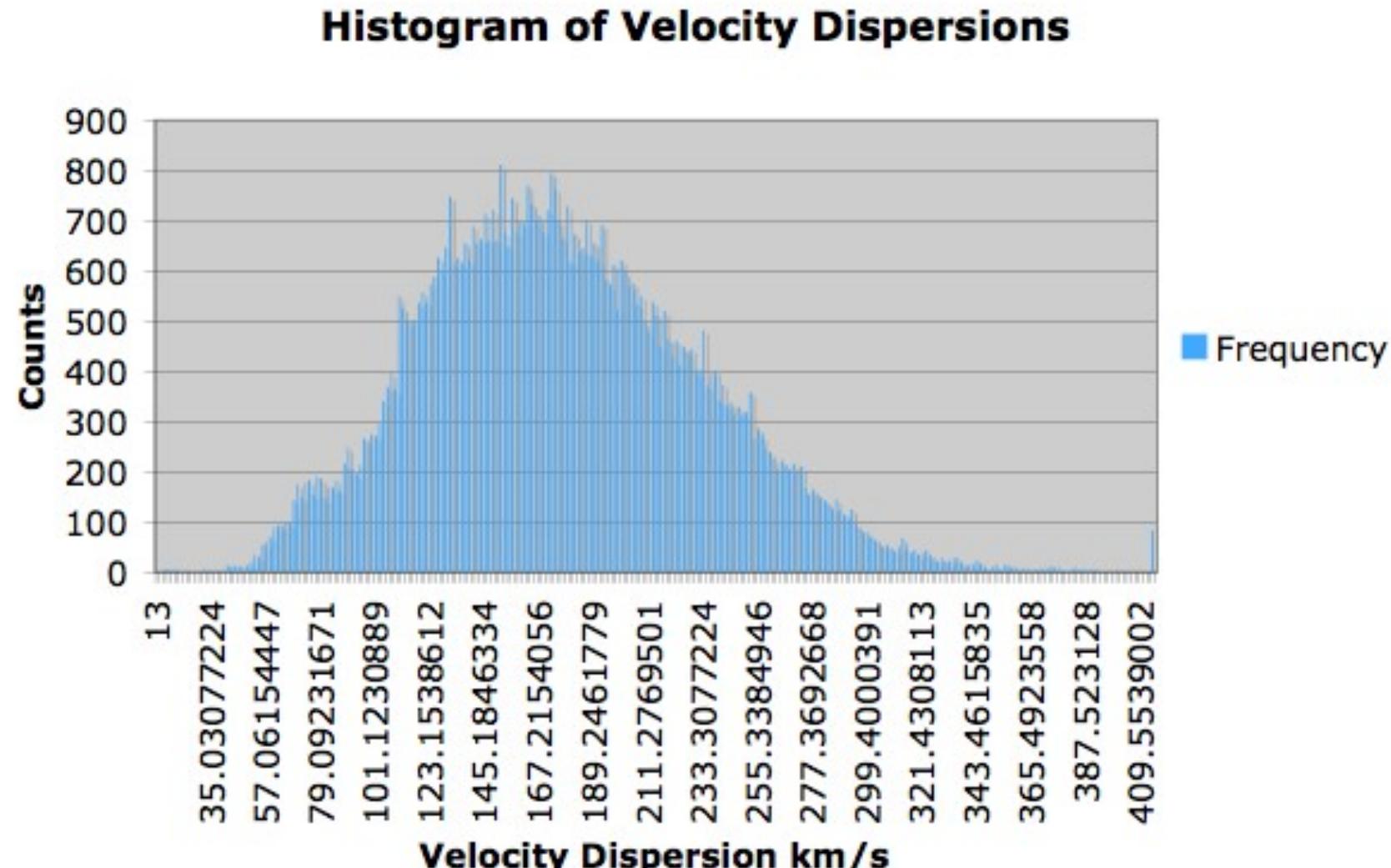


A Single *IGF1* Allele Is a Major Determinant of Small Size in Dogs Nathan B. Sutter, *et al. Science* 316, 112 (2007);









pdf vs 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.

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

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

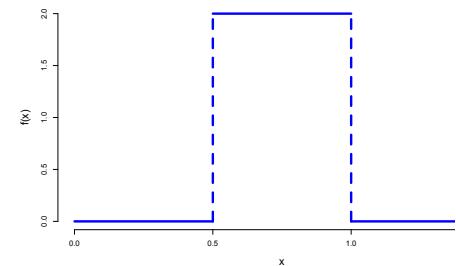
Three important examples

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

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

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

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

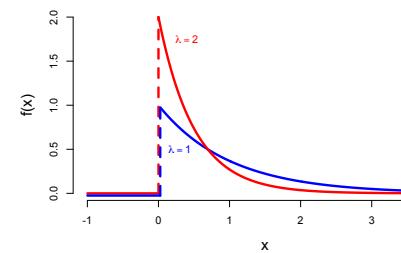


$X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ exponential

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

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

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



$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ normal (aka Gaussian, aka the big Kahuna)

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

$$E[X] = \mu$$

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

