

Continuous Random Variables<sup>1</sup>  
(Section 2.4 and parts of 2.5)  
STA 256: Fall 2019

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# Overview

- 1 Continuous Random Variables
- 2 Common Continuous Distributions

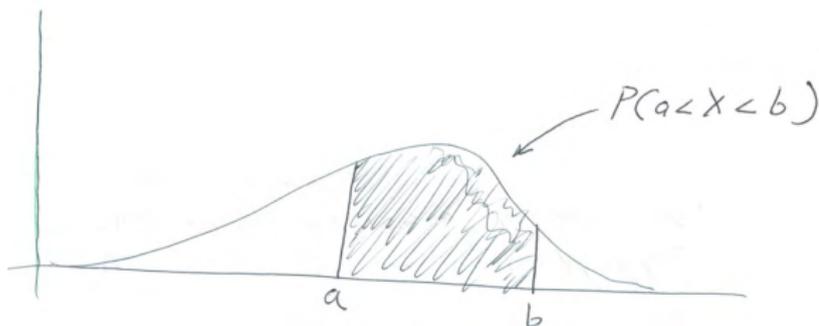
## Formal Definitions

- Our textbook makes a distinction between continuous random variables and absolutely continuous random variables.
- All absolutely continuous random variables are continuous.
- There are continuous random variables that are not absolutely continuous.
- But the examples are too advanced for us right now.
- Book says (p. 53) “In fact, statisticians sometimes say that  $X$  is continuous as shorthand for saying that  $X$  is absolutely continuous.”
- That is what we will do.

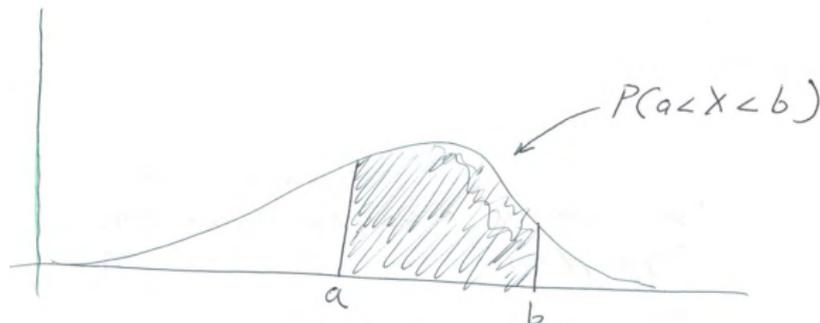
# Continuous Random Variables: The idea

Probability is area under a curve

- Discrete random variables take on a finite or countably infinite number of values.
- Continuous random variables take on an *uncountably infinite* number of values.
- This implies that  $S$  is uncountable too, but we seldom talk about it.
- Probability is area under a curve — that is, area between a curve and the  $x$  axis.



# The Probability Density Function



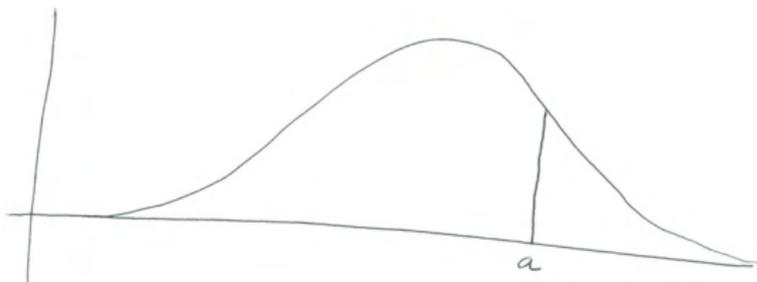
$$P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$f(x)$ , or  $f_X(x)$ , is called the *density function* of  $X$ . Properties are

- $f(x) \geq 0$
- $f(x)$  is piecewise continuous.
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

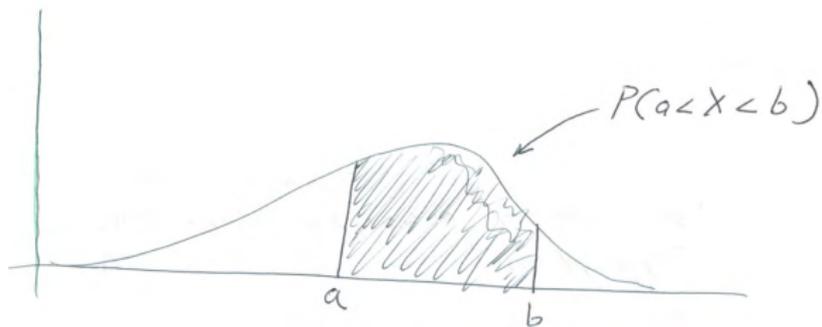
The probability of any individual value of  $X$  is zero

$$P(X = a) = 0$$



So

$$P(a < X < b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X \leq b) = P(a \leq X \leq b).$$



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

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$



$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= P(X \leq x) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

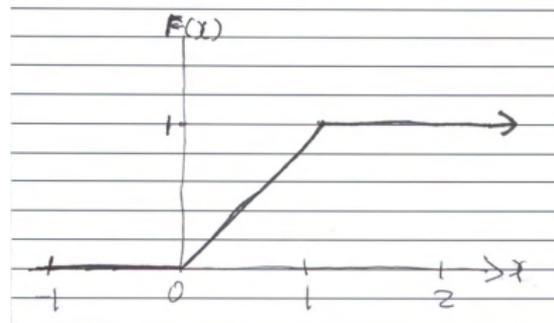
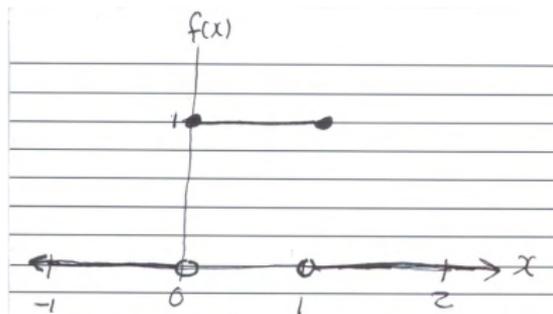
$$\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt = f(x)$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

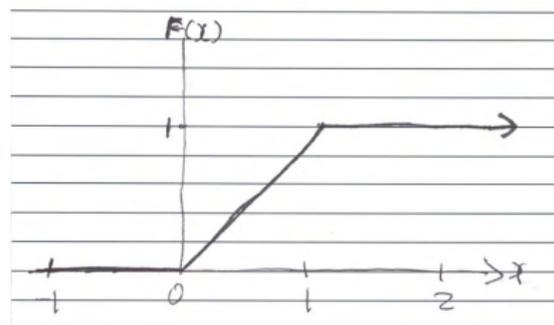
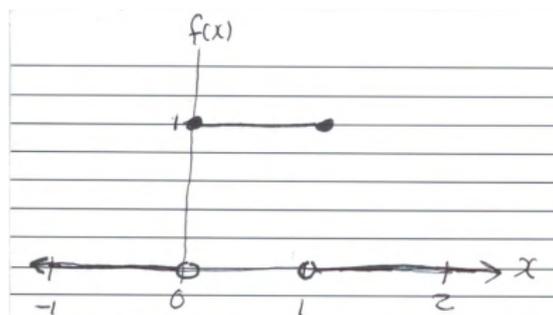
$F'(x) = f(x)$  is true for values of  $x$  where  $F'(x)$  exists and  $f(x)$  is continuous. For example, let

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



$F(x)$  is not differentiable at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ .

## More comments

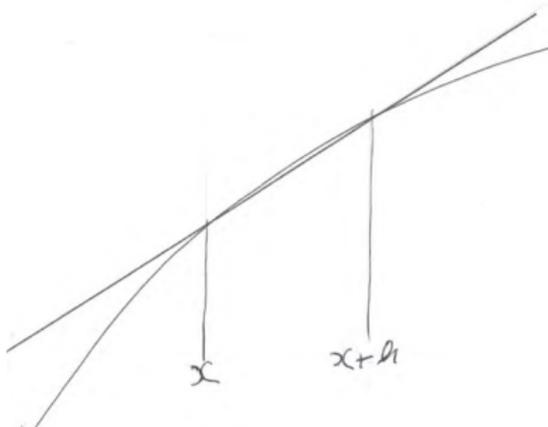


- $F(x)$  is not differentiable at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ .
- These are also the points where  $f(x)$  is discontinuous.
- The exact value of  $f(x)$  at those points cannot be recovered from  $F(x)$ .
- These are events of probability zero.
- They don't really affect anything.
- Recall that  $f(x)$  is assumed piecewise continuous.
- The value of  $f(x)$  at a point of discontinuity is essentially arbitrary. This causes no problems.

$f(x)$  is not a probability

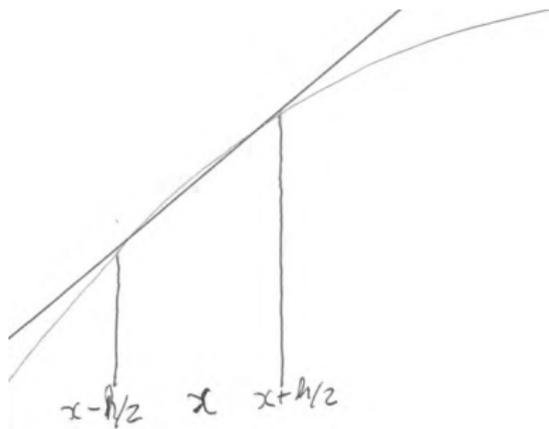
$$g'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h}$$

$$f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$



Another way to write  $f(x)$ Instead of  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$ 

$$f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x + \frac{h}{2}) - F(x - \frac{h}{2})}{h}$$



Limiting slope is the same if it exists.

# Interpretation

$$f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x + \frac{h}{2}) - F(x - \frac{h}{2})}{h}$$

- $F(x + \frac{h}{2}) - F(x - \frac{h}{2}) = P(x - \frac{h}{2} < X < x + \frac{h}{2})$
- So  $f(x)$  is roughly proportional to the probability that  $X$  is in a tiny interval surrounding  $x$ .

# Example

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Common questions:

- Prove it's a density.
- Find  $F(x)$ .

## Prove it's a density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Clearly  $f(x) \geq 0$ .
- It's continuous except at  $x = 1$ .
- Show  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

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

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^0 0 dx + \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^{\infty} 0 dx \\ &= 0 + \int_0^1 2x dx + 0 \\ &= 2 \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^1 \\ &= 1^2 - 0^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Find  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

There are 3 cases.

- If  $x < 0$ ,  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x 0 dt = 0$ .
- If  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^0 0 dt + \int_0^x 2t dt = x^2.$$

- If  $x > 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^0 0 dt + \int_0^1 2t dt + \int_1^x 0 dt \\ &= 0 + 1 + 0 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Putting the pieces together

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x^2 & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

The derivation does not need to be this detailed, but the final result has to be complete. More examples will be given.

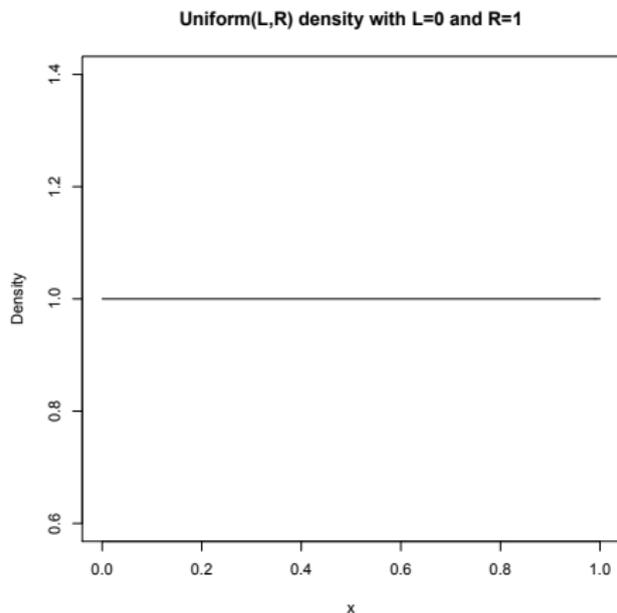
# Common Continuous Distributions

- Uniform
- Exponential
- Gamma
- Normal
- Beta

# The Uniform Distribution: $X \sim \text{Uniform}(L, R)$

Parameters  $L < R$

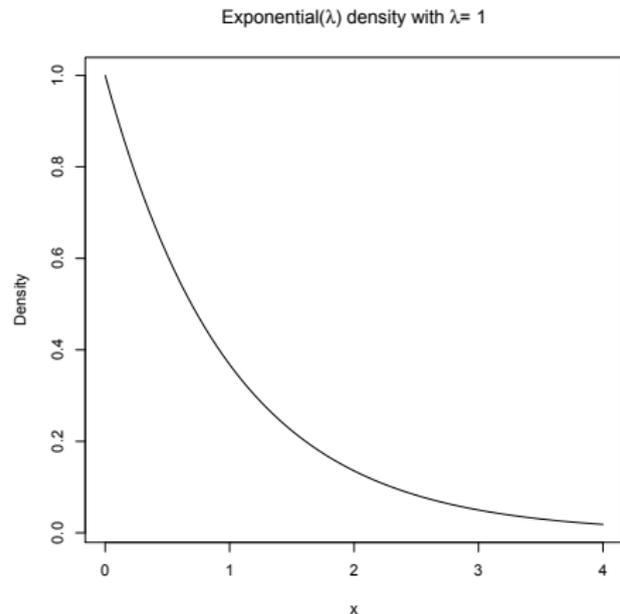
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{R-L} & \text{for } L \leq x \leq R \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$



# The Exponential Distribution: $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$

Parameter  $\lambda > 0$

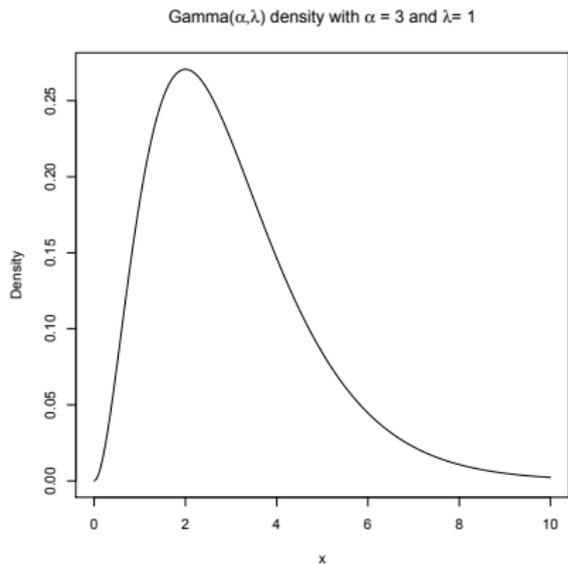
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{for } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$



# The Gamma Distribution: $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$

Parameters  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\lambda > 0$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda x} x^{\alpha-1} & \text{for } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$



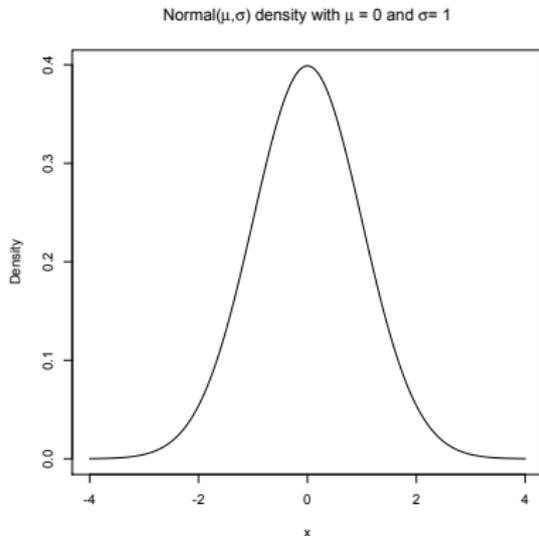
The gamma function is defined by  $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$

Integration by parts shows  $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha \Gamma(\alpha)$ .

# The Normal Distribution: $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Parameters  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} \end{aligned}$$



The normal distribution is also called the Gaussian, or the “bell curve.” if  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ , we write  $X \sim N(0,1)$  and call it the *standard normal*.

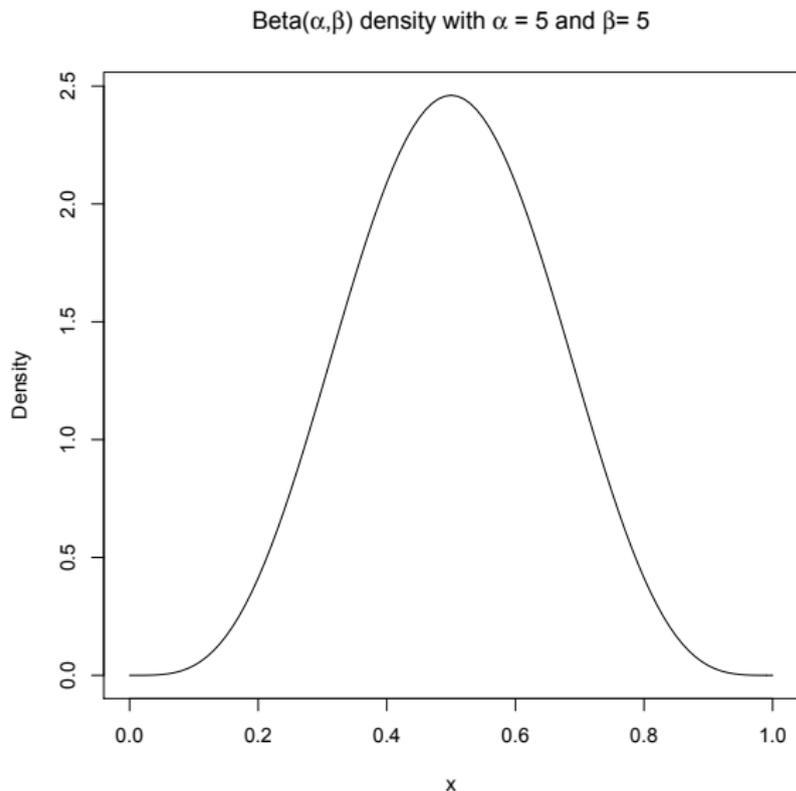
# The Beta Distribution: $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$

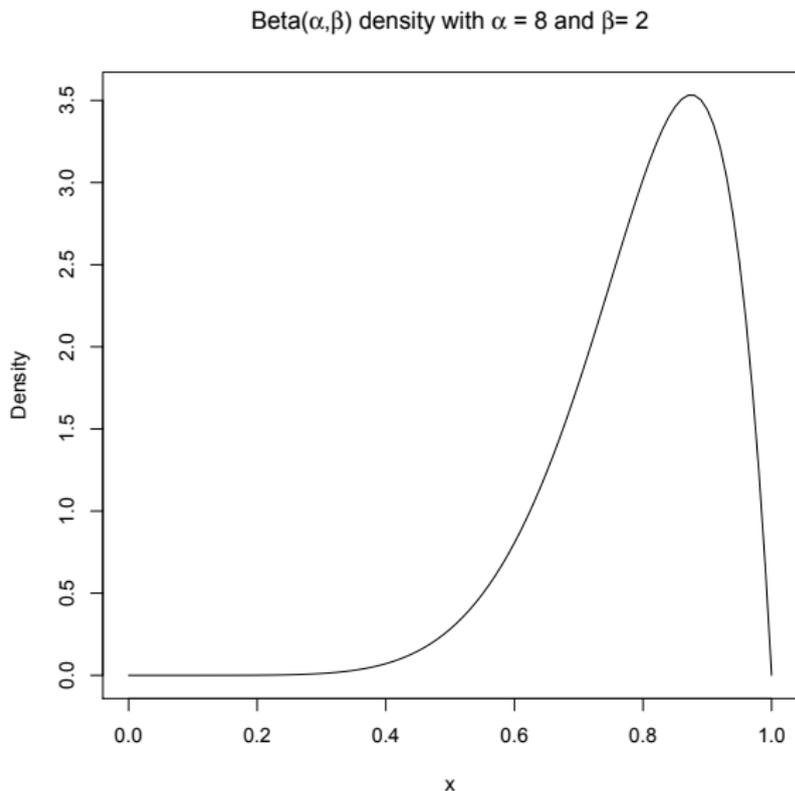
Parameters  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$

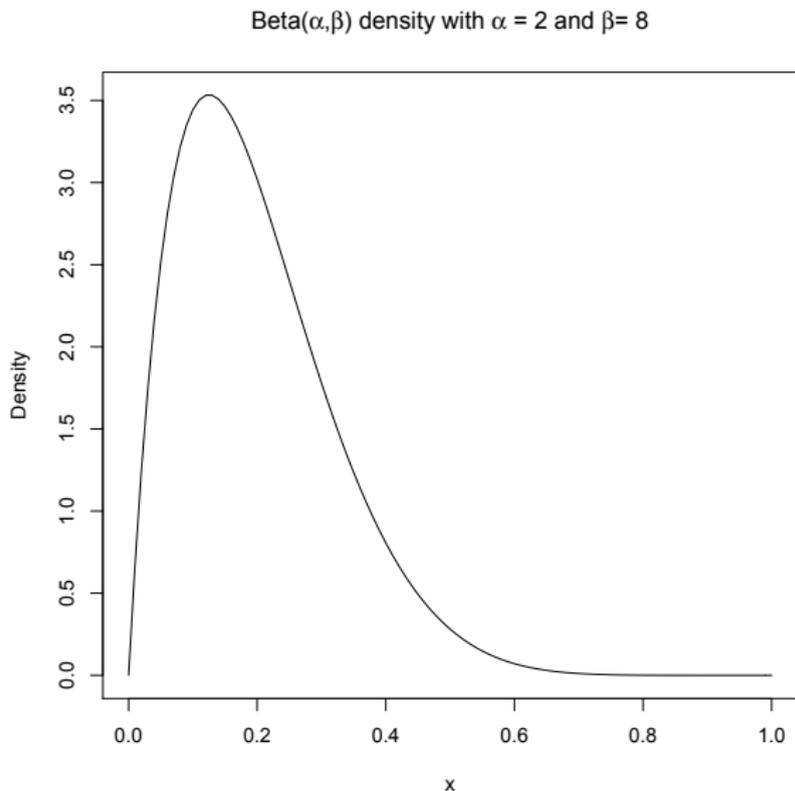
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

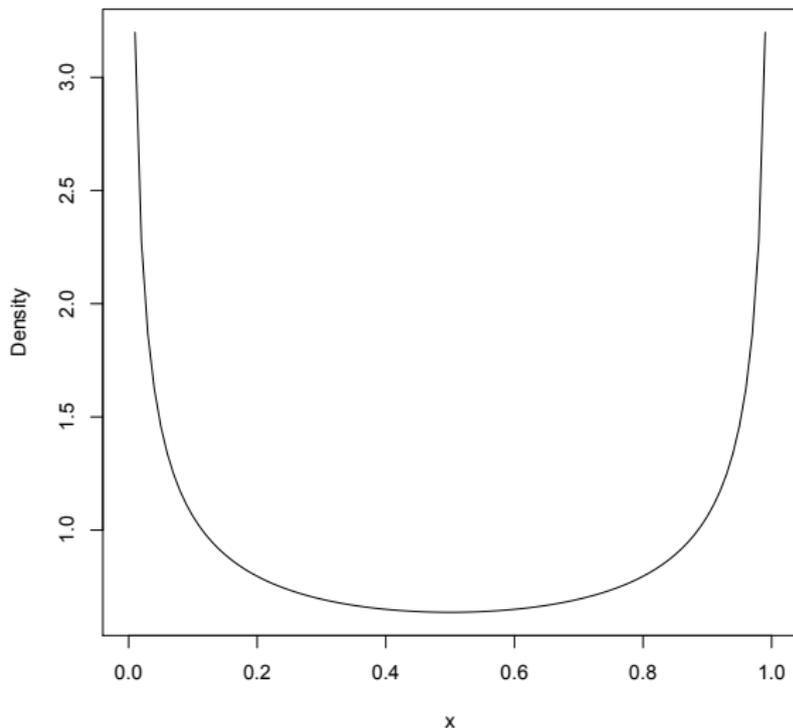
Using  $\Gamma(n+1) = n\Gamma(n)$  and  $\Gamma(\beta) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{\beta-1} dt$ , note that a beta distribution with  $\alpha = \beta = 1$  is  $\text{Uniform}(0,1)$ .

The beta density can assume a variety of shapes, depending on the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Beta density with  $\alpha = 5$  and  $\beta = 5$ 

Beta density with  $\alpha = 8$  and  $\beta = 2$ 

Beta density with  $\alpha = 2$  and  $\beta = 8$ 

Beta density with  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\beta = \frac{1}{2}$ Beta( $\alpha, \beta$ ) density with  $\alpha = 1/2$  and  $\beta = 1/2$ 

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<http://www.utstat.toronto.edu/~brunner/oldclass/256f19>