More Probability, Continous Random Variables

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- 1. Continuous Random Variables
- 2. Expection, Mean, Variance, Covariance



Sometimes it is inconvenient to list out all the possible values a random variable can take on.

For example, we don't want to list all the possible times a patient could live for.

In this case we let our random variables take on on value in R, or any value in a subset of R.

For example we might think of the time our patient live to be any value in the subset of R given by $\{x; x > 0\}$.

In this case our random variable (or vector) is a *continuous random variable*.

For continuous random variable we don't talk about the probability of a particular value, we can only talk about about the probability of a set.

We use the *probability density function* (*pdf*) f_x to specify the probability of a set A by

$$p(X \in A) = \int_A f_x(x) \ dx$$

Example, the Uniform

The probability of any interval, is the area under the pdf over that interval !!!



We write $X \sim U(a, b)$.

Example, the Normal



We write $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.



A small σ means the distribution is "tight" around μ !!

For more than one random variable we have the joint density:

$$P(Y_1 \in [a_1, b_1], Y_2 \in [a_2, b_2]) = \int_{a_1}^{b_1} \int_{a_2}^{b_2} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 dy_2$$



Basic Properties

The basic properities we had in the discrete case extend to the continous case:

$$f(y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n) =$$

f(y_1) f(y_2 | y_1) f(y_3 | y_1, y_2) \dots f(y_n | y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n-1})

If the Y_i are independent then

$$f(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i)$$

Margining out:

$$f(y_1) = \int f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2$$

Conditional:

$$f(y_1 \mid y_2) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f(y_2)}$$

Bayes theorem:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f(y_2 \mid y_1) & \propto & f(y_2) f(y_1 \mid y_2) \\ & = & f(y_1, y_2) \end{array}$$

2. Expection, Mean, Variance, Covariance

Let Y be a random variable (or vector).

Sometimes we want to summarize the possible values of some function of Y.

We use a probability weighted average:

Discrete:

$$E(h(Y)) = \sum h(y)p(y)$$

Continuous:

$$E(h(Y)) = \int h(y) f(y) \, dy$$

The key examples are the mean and variance of a univariate random variable.

The Mean:

$$h(y) = y$$

$$E(Y) = \sum y p(y) \text{ (discrete)}$$

$$= \int y f(y) dy \text{ (continuous)}$$

We often write μ or μ_y for E(Y).

The Variance:

$$\begin{split} h(y) &= (y - \mu)^2. \\ Var(Y) &= \sum (y - \mu)^2 \, p(y) \quad (\text{discrete}) \\ &= \int (y - \mu)^2 \, f(y) \, dy \quad (\text{continuous}) \end{split}$$

We often write σ^2 or σ_y^2 for Var(Y).

The Standard Deviation:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{(\sigma^2)}$$

is the standard deviation.

Note that σ has the same units as Y.

The variance and standard deviation summarize how close a random variable tends to be to its mean.

Example, the Bernoulli:

 $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ means:

$$E(X) = (1-p) \times 0 + p \times 1 = p.$$

$$Var(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i) \times [x_i - E(X)]^2$$

= $(1-p) \times (0-p)^2 + p \times (1-p)^2$
= $p(1-p) \times [p+(1-p)]$
 $Var(X) = p(1-p)$

Example, the Normal:

You can show that for $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$,

$$E(X) = \mu$$
, $Var(X) = \sigma^2$, $\sigma_X = \sigma$.



A small σ means the distribution is "tight" around μ !!

Covariance and Correlation:

The covariance and correlation are used to measure how much one random variable looks like a linear function of another.

Let $E(Y_1) = \mu_1$ and $E(Y_2) = \mu_2$.

$$h(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 - \mu_1)(y_2 - \mu_2).$$

 $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E((Y_1 - \mu_1)(Y_2 - \mu_2)).$

We might write $\sigma_{X,Y}$ for Cov(X, Y), or σ_{12} for $Cov(Y_1, Y_2)$.

The Correlation

Let σ_i be the standard deviation of Y_i .

$$Cor(Y_1, Y_2) = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)}$$

The covariance divided by the product of the the standard deviations.

We might write ρ_{XY} for Cor(X, Y) for ρ_{12} for $Cor(Y_1, Y_2)$.

Key Property of Correlation:

$$-1 \le \rho_{X,Y} \le 1$$

The correlation is always between 1 and -1.

The closer the correlation is to 1, the more $Y \approx a + bX$ with b > 0.

The closer the correlation is to -1, the more $Y \approx a + bX$ with b < 0.



Suppose X and Y are independent.

Then,

$$\sigma_{XY} = E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_y))$$

= $E(X - \mu)E(Y - \mu)$
= $0 \times 0 = 0$

Independent $\Rightarrow \rho_{XY} = 0$, but not the other way around.