

## Continuous Random Variables

Recall that a discrete random variable  $X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has either finite or at most countable range  $R(X) = \{x_i \mid i=1, \dots, n\}$   
or  
 $= \{x_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$

and in this case we are interested in probabilities of the type

$$P(X=a) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P(X^{-1}(a))$$

or

$$P(X \leq a) = P(X^{-1}(-\infty, a])$$

etc., in general

$$P(X \in B) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P(X^{-1}(B))$$

where  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}(X)$ . Since  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}(X)$  is

at most countable, we can write

$$\rightarrow B = \{ b_i \in \mathbb{R} \mid X(s) = b_i \in \mathbb{R}(X) \text{ for some } i \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} X^{-1}(B) &= X^{-1}\left(\bigsqcup_{b_i \in B} b_i\right) \\ &= \bigsqcup_{b_i \in B} X^{-1}(b_i) \end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$P(X \in B) = P(X^{-1}(B))$$

~~$$= P\left(\bigsqcup_{b_i \in B} X^{-1}(b_i)\right)$$~~

$$= P\left(\bigsqcup_{b_i \in B} X^{-1}(b_i)\right)$$

a finite sum  
OR  
an infinite series

$$= \sum_{b_i \in B} P(X^{-1}(b_i))$$

$$= \sum_{b_i \in B} P(X = b_i)$$

$$= \sum_{b_i \in B} p(b_i) \leftarrow \text{pmf}$$

In the continuous case,  $\mathbb{R}(X)$  is uncountable,  
 so typically  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}(X)$  will also be uncountable.  
 Therefore the sum  $\sum_{b_i \in B} P(b_i) \equiv \sum_{b_i \in B} P(X=b_i)$   
 will have to be replaced by an integral

$f: \mathbb{R}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $\subseteq \mathbb{R}$   
 is called the probability density function  
 of  $X$ .

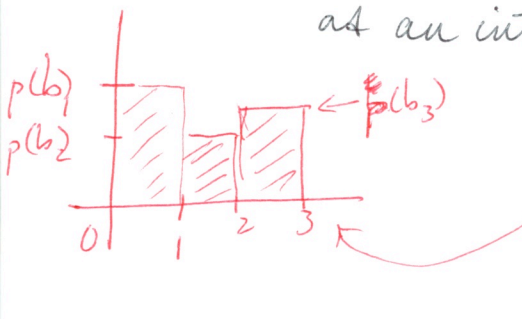
$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) dx$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} x_i^* \notin \\ x_i \in B \end{array} \right)$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x$$

similar to the finite sum  $\sum_{b_i \in B} P(b_i)$  in the discrete case

Alternatively, we can view the discrete sum  $\sum_{b_i \in B} P(b_i)$  as an integral,



$$\sum_{b_i \in B} P(b_i) = \sum_{b_i \in B} P(b_i) \cdot 1 = \int_B P(x) dx$$

$$= \int_k^{k+1} P(b_i) dx$$

The difference between these two points of view is precisely the difference between the Riemann integral (used in undergrad prob.) and the Lebesgue integral (used in grad prob.)

Again, if  $X$  is discrete, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \sum_{x \in R(X)} x P(x) \\ &\equiv \sum_{x \in R(X)} x P(X=x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\nmid \quad E[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in R(X)} g(x) P(x)$$

In the continuous case, therefore, we have

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

since, in the Riemann sum,  $f(x) \Delta x \approx P(x \leq X \leq x + \Delta x)$

Prop. 1 For a continuous random variable  $X$  with pdf  $f(x)$ , composition with any other (measurable) real-valued function  $g: \mathcal{R}(X) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  yields another random variable  $g(X) \equiv g \circ X$ , and

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

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

pf. First, note that for any nonneg. random variable  $Y$  we have  $E[Y] = \int_0^{\infty} P(Y > y) dy$ , since

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} P(Y > y) dy &= \int_0^{\infty} \int_y^{\infty} f(x) dx dy \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \left( \int_0^x 1 dy \right) f(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} x f(x) dx = E[Y] \end{aligned}$$

Fubini's theorem.

Prop. 3

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

pf: As in the discrete case: let

$$\begin{aligned} v &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[aX+b] = aE[X]+b \\ &= a\mu+b \end{aligned}$$

and observe

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

~~$$= E[(aX+b)-v]^2]$$~~

$$= E[(aX+b - a\mu - b)^2]$$

$$= E[a^2(X-\mu)^2]$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Cor. 2}}{=} a^2 E[(X-\mu)^2]$$

$$= a^2 \text{Var}(X).$$

QED

## The Cumulative Distribution of a Continuous X

Finally, let us consider the cumulative distribution  $F$  of a continuous random variable:

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= P(X \leq x) \\ &= P(X^{-1}(-\infty, x]) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

The relationship between  $F$ , the distribution, and  $f$ , the density, is (by Fundamental Thm. of Calculus II)

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

Thm. 4 Let  $X$  be continuous with density  $f$ .  
 Then for any  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which is monotonic,  
 the random variable

$$Y = g(X)$$

has probability density

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} (f \circ g^{-1})'(g^{-1}(y)) |g^{-1}'(y)| & y \in R(g) \\ 0, & y \notin R(g) \end{cases}$$

pf: If  $g$  is increasing ( $x_1 \leq x_2 \Rightarrow g(x_1) \leq g(x_2)$ ),  
 then (assuming, as we do, that  $g$  is differentiable,  
 & so continuous)  $g$  is invertible, and  $g^{-1}$   
 is also increasing ( $y_1 \leq y_2 \Rightarrow \underbrace{g^{-1}(y_1)}_{=x_1} \leq \underbrace{g^{-1}(y_2)}_{=x_2}$ ),  
 and similarly  $g$  is decreasing ( $x_1 \leq x_2 \Rightarrow g(x_1) \geq g(x_2)$ )  
 implies  $g^{-1}$  is decreasing ( $y_1 \leq y_2 \Rightarrow g^{-1}(y_1) = x_1 \geq x_2 = g^{-1}(y_2)$ )



If  $g$  is increasing, then

$$\begin{aligned}F_Y(y) &= P(Y \leq y) = \int_{(-\infty, y]} f_Y(t) dt \\&= P(g(X) \leq y) \\&= P(X \leq g^{-1}(y)) = \int_{(-\infty, g^{-1}(y)]} f_X(s) ds \\&= F_X(g^{-1}(y))\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) &= \frac{d}{dy} (F_X \circ g^{-1})(y) \\&= \underbrace{\frac{dF_X}{dx}(g^{-1}(y))}_{= f_X(g^{-1}(y))} \cdot \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{chain} \\ \text{rule} \end{array} \right\} \\&\text{or}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}f_Y(y) &= (f_X \circ g^{-1})(y) \cdot \underbrace{(g^{-1})'(y)}_{\geq 0 \text{ since } g^{-1} \text{ is increasing}} \\&= (f_X \circ g^{-1})(y) |g^{-1})'(y)|\end{aligned}$$

If  $g$  is decreasing, then  $(g^{-1})'(y) < 0$ ,  $\neq$

$$\begin{aligned}F_Y(y) &= P(Y \leq y) = P(g(X) \leq y) \\&= P(X \geq g^{-1}(y)) \\&= 1 - P(X < g^{-1}(y))\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 1 + \underbrace{P(X = g^{-1}(y))} - P(X \leq g^{-1}(y)) \\
 &= \int_{g(y)}^{g(y)} F_X(t) dt \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

So

$$\frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} (1 - (F_X \circ g^{-1})(y))$$

$$= - \frac{d}{dx} F_X(g^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y)$$

$$= - (F_X \circ g^{-1})(y) \cdot (g^{-1})'(y)$$

take the  
-1 & put  
it with  $(g^{-1})'$

$< 0$  since  $g$  is  
decreasing

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (F_X \circ g^{-1})(y) \underbrace{|(g^{-1})'(y)|}_{= -(g^{-1})'(y)} \\
 &= -(g^{-1})'(y)
 \end{aligned}$$

QED

ex. 1 Let  $Y = X^n$ , then  $g(x) = x^n$ .

Case 1:  
n is odd,  
X arbitrary

If n is odd, then  $g'(x) = nx^{n-1} \geq 0$ ,  
so g is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$  & the theorem  
applies.

Case 2:  
n even,  
 $X \geq 0$

If n is even, then we must instead  
require X to be nonnegative, so that

~~$X \geq 0$~~   $X \geq 0 \Rightarrow x \geq 0$  in  $g(x) = x^n$ ,  
i.e. dom(g) =  $[0, \infty)$ , & on that interval

$g'(x) = nx^{n-1} \geq 0$  bec.  $x \geq 0 \Rightarrow x^{n-1} \geq 0$ .

The theorem therefore applies, g is incr.:

$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) dx$$

$$\Rightarrow P(g(X) \in B) = \int_B f(g^{-1}(y)) \cdot (g^{-1})'(y) dy$$

which in our case, since

$$g^{-1}(y) = y^{1/n} \implies (g^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{n} y^{1/n-1}$$

means

$$P(X^n \in B) = \int_{g(B)} f(y^{1/n}) \cdot \frac{1}{n} y^{1/n-1} dy$$

For example,

$$P(X^2 \in B) = \int_{g(B)} (f(\sqrt{y}) / 2\sqrt{y}) dy$$
$$P(X^3 \in B) = \int_{g(B)} (f(\sqrt[3]{y}) / 3\sqrt[3]{y^2}) dy$$

etc.