

Thus the triangular distribution that starts at $x=a$ and rises linearly to

at $x=b$ has density $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2(x-a)}{(b-a)^2} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

(w) integrate $2(x-a)/(b-a)^2$ for x from a to b

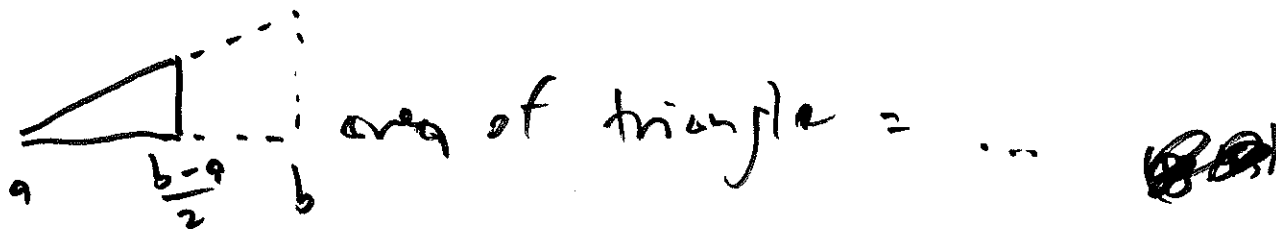
You can see that calculating probabilities with continuous rvs requires you to dust off your integral calculus.

Example with the triangular distribution

above, what's $P(a \leq X \leq \frac{b-a}{2})$?

Hard(?) way: $\int_a^{\frac{b-a}{2}} \frac{2(x-a)}{(b-a)^2} dx = \frac{(3a-b)^2}{4(b-a)^2}$

Easy(!) way:



Sometimes it's mathematically convenient ⁽⁸⁾ to work with unbounded continuous rvs, just as was true in the poisson case study for discrete rvs.

Example
(DS p. 105)

V = voltage in an electrical system:
in practice V cannot be infinite, but you may not know ahead of time what its maximum practical value is, so model it as unbounded but without much probability for extremely large values. DS give as an example the pdf

$$f_V(y) = \frac{1}{(1+y)^2} \mathbf{I}(y > 0)$$

$$= \frac{(1+y)^{-1}}{-1} \Big|_0^{\infty} = -1(0-1) = 1 \checkmark$$

check:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1+y)^2} dy = 1$$

You can check that $\int_{1000}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1+x)^2} dx = \frac{1}{1001} \approx .001$, (50)

so the right tail beyond $\bar{Y} = 1000$ has almost no probability, matching the correct qualitative behavior.

Sometimes

a rv will be neither discrete nor continuous; people then say that it has a mixed (discrete/continuous) distribution

Definition:

Example:

In medical clinical trials of people with potentially fatal diseases, the outcome variable Y_i for person i is (say) the treatment group might be

T = survival time in days from ^{the} beginning ⁽⁸³⁾ of the trial; however, and a good thing too, some patients may still be alive at the time T_{end} at which the trial finishes. Your ^{probability} model for T_i would then

have a continuous part for $0 \leq T_i \leq T_{end}$ and a discrete lump of probability p at $T_i = T_{end}$ signifying ($T_i > T_{end}$) but we don't know what T_i would have been if we could have observed it: (right-censoring)

$$\int_0^{T_{end}} f_{T_i}(y) dy = (1-p) \quad \text{and} \quad P(T_i > T_{end}) = p.$$

(R Boy example) (see p. 10 of doc. cum notes)

Unifying idea connecting discrete & continuous rvs

Discrete \leftrightarrow pf (pmf)

Continuous \leftrightarrow pdf

Mixed \leftrightarrow (pf + pdf)

Q: Is there something that uniquely characterizes the distribution of \mathcal{I} , both when \mathcal{I} is discrete & when it's continuous & when it's mixed?

A: Yes, the cumulative distribution function (cdf)

function $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$

Definition:

The cumulative distribution function (cdf) of a rv \mathcal{I} is defined to be

$$F_{\mathcal{I}}(y) = P(\mathcal{I} \leq y) \text{ for all } -\infty < y < \infty$$

(1.10)

Example: $I \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$

$$P(I=y) = \begin{cases} p & \text{for } y=1 \\ 1-p & 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

(PMF)

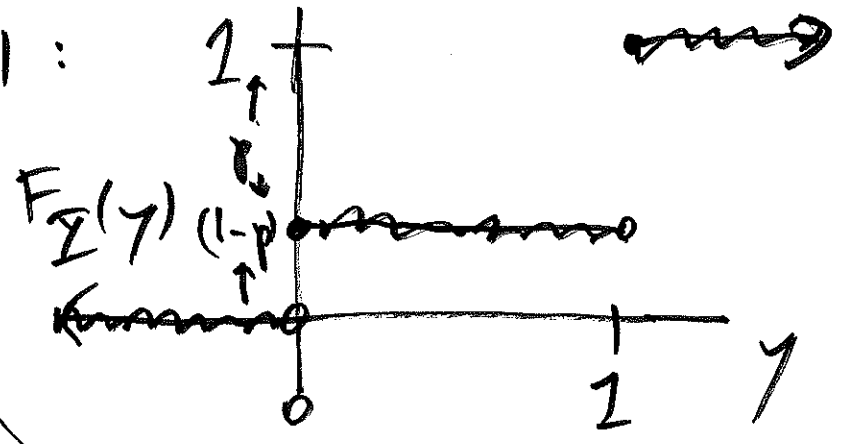
Notice that there's a clever way to

write this

pf:

$$P(I=y) = p^y (1-p)^{1-y} I_{\{0,1\}}(y)$$

The cdf of I is 0 for $y < 0$; at $I=0$ it jumps up to $(1-p)$ and stays there for $0 \leq y < 1$; and at $I=1$ it jumps up to 1 & stays there for $y \geq 1$:



You can see that in general $0 \leq F_I(y) \leq 1$

and it's also clear that a cdf $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$ (86)

has to be a non-decreasing function

of y : if $y_1 < y_2$ then $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y_1) \leq F_{\mathcal{I}}(y_2)$

Furthermore, $\lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} F_{\mathcal{I}}(y) = 0$ and

$\lim_{y \rightarrow +\infty} F_{\mathcal{I}}(y) = 1$. C) $F_{\mathcal{I}}$ can be

(when \mathcal{I} is continuous)

continuous on

all of \mathbb{R} but certainly don't

have to be (see the cdf of the

Bernoulli (p) distribution).

Technical fact:

Def: $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y^-) \triangleq \lim_{y^* \rightarrow y} F_{\mathcal{I}}(y^*) \triangleq \lim_{y^* \uparrow y} F_{\mathcal{I}}(y^*)$
limit from the left ~~where~~ $y^* < y$ $(y^*$ goes to y from below)

Def. $F_{\Sigma}(y^+) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \lim_{y^* \rightarrow y} F_{\Sigma}(y^*) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \lim_{y^* \downarrow y} F_{\Sigma}(y^*)$

limit from right $y^* > y$ (y^* goes to y from above)

technical

fact:

$$F_{\Sigma}(y) = F_{\Sigma}(y^+) \text{ for all } -\infty < y < \infty$$

people call this continuity from the right
or continuity from above

Consequences of the
CDF definition

$$\textcircled{1} P(\Sigma > y) = 1 - F_{\Sigma}(y)$$

$\textcircled{2}$ For all y_1, y_2 with $y_1 < y_2$

$$P(y_1 < \Sigma \leq y_2) = F_{\Sigma}(y_2) - F_{\Sigma}(y_1).$$

If

$$F_{\Sigma}(y^-) = F_{\Sigma}(y^+) = F_{\Sigma}(y)$$

then F_{Σ}
is continuous

at y

Consequence ② means that if \mathcal{I} is continuous, there's an intimate connection between $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$ and $f_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$:
 (cdf) (pdf)

\mathcal{I} continuous: $y_1 < y_2$

$$P(y_1 < \mathcal{I} \leq y_2) = F_{\mathcal{I}}(y_2) - F_{\mathcal{I}}(y_1) = \int_{y_1}^{y_2} f_{\mathcal{I}}(y) dy$$

and thus

Theorem

If \mathcal{I} is a continuous rv, with pdf $f_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$ and

CDF $F_{\mathcal{I}}(y)$ then

$$F_{\mathcal{I}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y f_{\mathcal{I}}(t) dt \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dy} F_{\mathcal{I}}(y) = f_{\mathcal{I}}(y) \quad \text{at all continuity points of } f$$

In other words

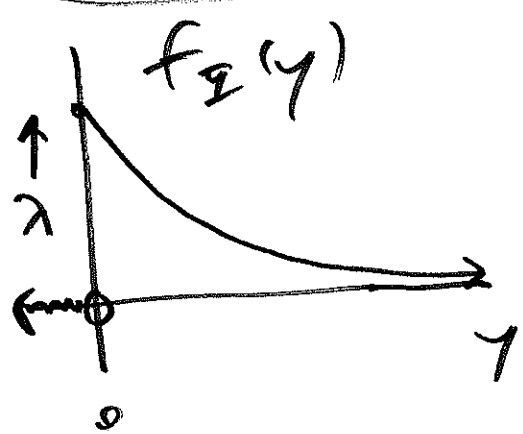
Γ continuous \leftrightarrow the derivative of $F_{\Gamma}(y)$ is $f_{\Gamma}(y)$ (and

$F_{\Gamma}(y)$ is an anti-derivative of $f_{\Gamma}(y)$,
(integral)

Definition

Γ follows an exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$

$\leftrightarrow f_{\Gamma}(y) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda y} & y > 0 \\ 0 & y \leq 0 \end{cases}$



The exponential dist. has a fundamental connection to the Poisson distribution

in Poisson processes that we'll explore later.

It's easy to calculate the CDF of 99
an exponential distribution:

Notation

\mathcal{Y} exponentially distributed with parameter $\lambda > 0$ $\leftrightarrow \mathcal{Y} \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$

$\lambda > 0$

for $y > 0$

$\mathcal{Y} \sim \mathcal{E}(\lambda)$

$$F_{\mathcal{Y}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y f_{\mathcal{Y}}(t) dt = \int_0^y \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt$$

$$= \lambda \left. \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{-\lambda} \right|_0^y = -1 (e^{-\lambda y} - 1) = 1 - e^{-\lambda y}$$

$$\text{So } F_{\mathcal{Y}}(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } y \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\lambda y} & y > 0 \end{cases}$$

(30 Apr 19)

