Associated Reading: Wackerly 7, Chapter 4, Sections 4-8

In these notes, we shift from talking about discrete distributions to continuous distributions, highlighting the uniform, normal, gamma, and beta families. Roughly speaking, the difference between using discrete and continuous distributions is that theoretical considerations motivate the use of the former more than they do the use of the latter. For instance, tossing a coin is a Bernoulli process, and thus the number of successes in n trials is a binomial random variable. On the other hand, we can probably model the distribution of student heights at UPenn well using the normal distribution, but there is no theory that says that the true underlying distribution has to be normal.

This leads naturally to the question: how do we choose between families of continuous distributions when modelling phenomena? The fullest answer is that it is not necessarily easy, and to make any choice we have to know something about parameter estimation and hypothesis testing, topics for 36-226. So at this stage in the course, we are pretty much limited to simply introducing various distributions and their properties. Which we'll do now.

The simplest continuous distribution is the *uniform distribution*, in which all values between y = aand y = b have equal probability density. In practice, the uniform distribution is used as much or more for simulating data (or generating random numbers) than for actual modeling.

Unif (The Uniform Distribution Notation: $Y \sim \text{Uniform}(a,b)$ a: Lower bound, b: upper bound $\int_{b-a}^{1} \frac{1}{a \le y \le b} \implies \int_{a}^{b} f(y) \, dy = 1$ 0 otherwise

Expected Value: $E[Y] = \mu = \text{see below}$

Variance: $V[Y] = \sigma^2 = \text{see below}$

R Functions: dunif(y, a, b) (PDF) punif(y, a, b) (CDF)

qunif(p, a, b) (Inverse CDF) quantile runif(k, a, b) (Sim. of k Uniform R.v.'s)

As might be expected, E[Y] and V[Y] are exceptionally easy to compute: $E[Y] = \int_{a}^{b} y f(y) dy = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{y}{b-a} \frac{1}{b-a} \frac{dy}{dy}.$

V[Y] = E[Y] - (Ê[Y])2

quantile: for 05PEI, the p-th quantile of r.v. Y.

denoted by \$0; is the smallest value st:

for y = 42 F(41) & F(92).

→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.47

- The failure of a circuit board interrupts work that utilizes a computing system until a new board 4.47 is delivered. The delivery time, Y, is uniformly distributed on the interval one to five days. The cost of a board failure and interruption includes the fixed cost co of a new board and a cost that increases proportionally (Y^2) If C is the cost incurred, $C = c_0 + c_1 Y^2$.
 - a Find the probability that the delivery time exceeds two days.

a Find the probability that the delivery time exceeds two days.

b In terms of
$$c_0$$
 and c_1 , find the expected cost associated with a single failed circuit board.

a) $P(Y \ge z) = \int_{2}^{z} f(y) dy = \int_{2}^{z} \frac{1}{5-1} dy = \frac{3}{4}$
 $Y \sim Unif(1.5)$

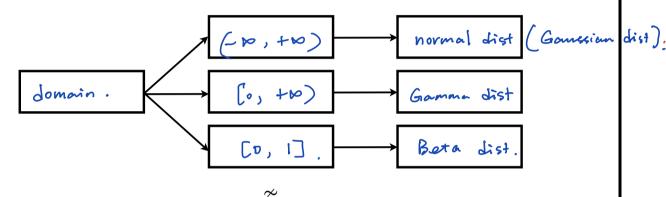
b). E[C]

$$= C_0 + C_1 \left(\frac{V(Y)}{1} + (E(Y))^2 \right)$$

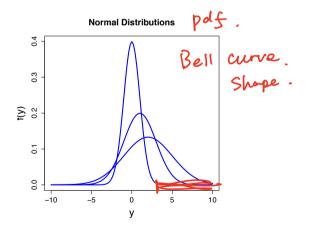
$$= c_0 + c_1 \left[\frac{(t-1)^2}{12} + \left(\frac{t+1}{2} \right)^2 \right]$$

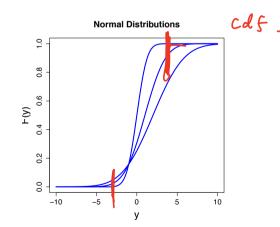
$$= C_0 + \frac{31}{3}C_1$$

Modeling Physical Phenomena



The normal distribution is perhaps the most well-known family of probability distributions, for three reasons: (1) the observed data of many physical phenomena are at least approximately normal, (2) it is the limiting distribution of many other distributions and (3) it figures prominently in the Central Limit Theorem (Chapter 7).

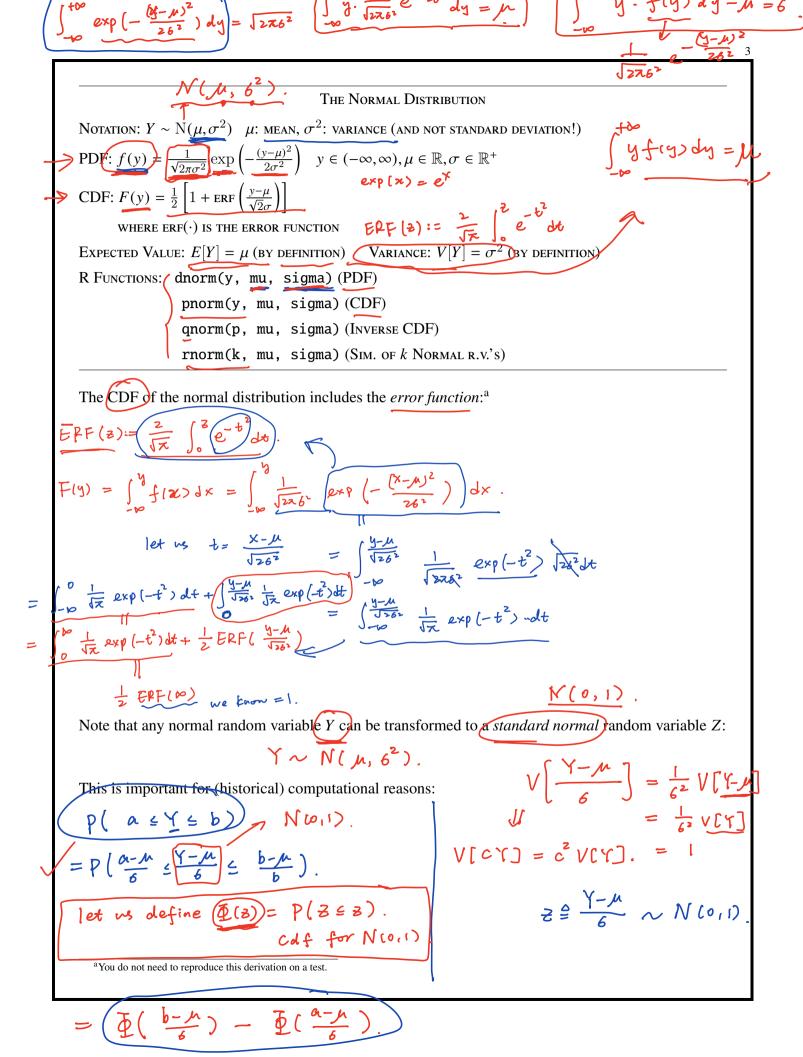




(y fcy) dy

5(12) - (5Y)2

100 fry) dy =1



THE STANDARD NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Notation:
$$Z \sim N(0,1)$$
 $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$

PDF:
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right)$$
 $z \in (-\infty, \infty)$

quantile.

CDF:
$$F(y) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \text{ERE} \left(\frac{z}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right]$$
 Inverse CDF: $\Phi^{-1}(q) = z$

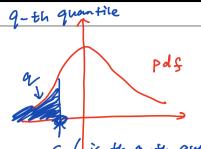
$$\Phi^{-1}(q) = z$$

where $\mathrm{erf}(\cdot)$ is the error function and $q \in [0,1]$ is a quantile

EXPECTED VALUE:
$$E[Z] = 0$$
 VARIANCE: $V[Z] = 1$

qnorm(p) (Inverse CDF) ← 🎜 (P)

rnorm(k) (Sim. of k Standard Normal R.v.'s)



あ(c).

Bell shape curve

$$2c0, 370.$$

$$\Phi(3) + \Phi(-3) = 1$$

by symmetry

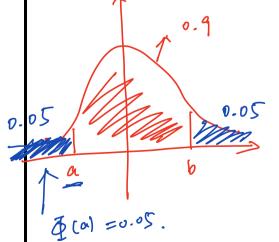
包包)

notable numbers.
$$f$$
 N co.1). f (a,b) $P(a \le 2 \le b) = \overline{\Phi}(b) - \overline{\Phi}(a)$. $(-1,1)$ $\overline{\Phi}(1) - \overline{\Phi}(-1) = 0.6827$.

$$\Phi(1) - \Phi(-1) = 0.6827$$

$$(-2, 2)$$
 $\Phi(2) - \underline{P}(-2) = 0.9544$

$$(-3, 3)$$



$$(a,b)$$
 $\alpha=-b$

$$\alpha = -b$$

$$\alpha = q \operatorname{norm}(0.05) = \overline{\Phi}(0.05)$$

→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.73

- 4.73 The width of bolts of fabric is normally distributed with mean 950 mm (millimeters) and standard deviation 10 mm.
 - a What is the probability that a randomly chosen bolt has a width of between 947 and 958 mm?
 - b What is the appropriate value for C such that a randomly chosen bolt has a width less than C with probability .8531?

Y: width of bolts of fabric.

a)
$$P(947 \le Y \le 958)$$

= $P(947-950) \le \frac{958-950}{10} \le \frac{958-950}{10}$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} (0.8) - \frac{1}{2} (-0.3) = 0.406.$$

→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.75

b)
$$P(Y \le c) = 0.8531$$
.

find c.

 $N[0,1]$
 $P(Y-950) \le \frac{C-950}{10}$.

 $P(\frac{C-950}{10}) = 0.8531$
 $P(\frac{C-950}{10}) = 0.8531$
 $P(\frac{C-950}{10}) = 0.8531$
 $P(\frac{C-950}{10}) = 0.8531$
 $P(\frac{C-950}{10}) = 0.8531$

4.75 A soft-drink machine can be regulated so that it discharges an average of μ ounces per cup. If the ounces of fill are normally distributed with standard deviation 0.3 ounce, give the setting for μ so that 8-ounce cups will overflow only 1% of the time.

Y: the ownces of till.

Y ~ N (
$$\mu$$
, 0.3²)

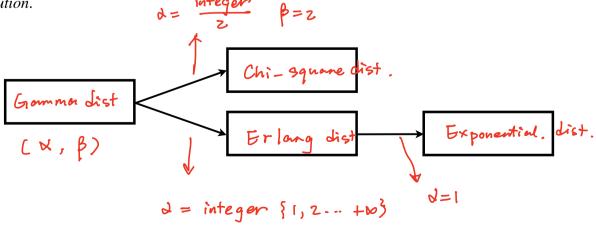
P(Y >, 8) = 0.01 => Goal: find μ .

P($\frac{Y-\mu}{0.3}$ >, $\frac{8-\mu}{0.3}$)

 $= 1-\Phi(\frac{8-\mu}{0.3}) = 0.01$

$$\frac{P(\frac{8-\mu}{0.3}) = 0.99}{8 - 0.3 P(0.99)}$$
= 8 - 0.3 9 norm (0.99)
= 7.302 . HW.

The *gamma distribution* is a skew distribution used to model phenomena yielding non-negative random variables. For instance, we can model the time between events in a Poisson process (which cannot be less than zero) with a particular subclass of the gamma distribution called the *exponential distribution*.



f(y)
$$\propto$$
 y d-1. $e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}$

THE GAMMA DISTRIBUTION

Notation: $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ or $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ α : shape parameter β : scale parameter

PDF:
$$f(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y/\beta}}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)} & y \in [0,\infty), (\alpha,\beta) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Where $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomp

WHERE $\gamma(\alpha, \frac{y}{\beta})$ is the lower incomplete gamma function and

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$$

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \text{ if } n = 1,2,3,...$$
prove this later.

EXPECTED VALUE: $E[Y] = \mu = \alpha \beta$ Variance: $V[Y] = \sigma^2 = \alpha \beta^2$ prove these two later

R Functions: dgamma(y, alpha, 1/beta) (PDF)

pgamma(y, alpha, 1/beta)(CDF)

qgamma(p, alpha, 1/beta) (Inverse CDF)

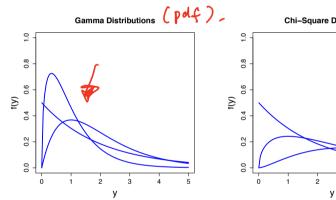
rgamma(k, alpha, 1/beta) (Sim. of k Gamma R.v.'s)

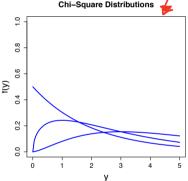
Yn Gamma (X. B)

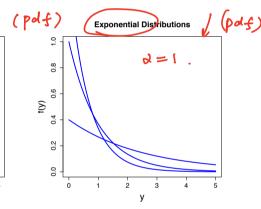
fig) pds

dgama (y, a,)

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→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.81

a If $\alpha > 0$, $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined by $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$, show that $\Gamma(1) = 1$. 4.81 *b If $\alpha > 1$, integrate by parts to prove that $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)\Gamma(\alpha - 1)$.

a).
$$\Gamma(0) = \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{d-1} e^{-y} dy$$
.

$$d = |\Gamma(1)| = \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{0} \cdot e^{-y} dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-y} dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-y} dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} u dv = u \cdot v \Big|_{0}^{b} - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{d-1} d(-e^{-y})^{-1} dy$$

$$\Gamma(d) = \int_{0}^{b} y^{b-1} e^{-y} dy.$$

$$d = 1 \quad \Gamma(1) = \int_{0}^{b} y^{0} \cdot e^{-y} dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{b} e^{-y} dy.$$

$$= \int_{0}^{b} e^{-y} dy.$$

$$= \int_{0}^{b} u dv = u \cdot v \Big|_{0}^{b} - \int_{0}^{b} v du$$

$$= -e^{-y} \Big|_{0}^{bo} = 1$$

$$= \int_{0}^{bo} y^{b-1} d(-e^{-y})$$

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

 $r = (1-1)(1-2) - \cdots ((10))$ $= (n-1)^{-1}$ Here we lay out the derivation of E[Y] and V[Y]: $\overline{E[Y]} = \int_0^{\infty} y \, f(y) \, dy. = \int_0^{\infty} y \cdot \left(\frac{y + 1}{\beta^{d}} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{\beta}} \right) \, dy.$ J. (y==] dy, B + (0+1) $\Gamma(3+1) = 2\Gamma(2)$ (from part (b)) above f(y) = you = = $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] = \int_0^b y^2 \cdot \frac{y^{d-1} \cdot e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}}{(\beta^d \cdot \Gamma(a))}$ f(y) integrates to 1 Joyatt. e & dy = \(\begin{align*}
\begin{align*}
\b $\Gamma(d+2) = (d+1)\Gamma(d+1)$ \rightarrow EXAMPLE. Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.105 = $3(3+1) \cdot \beta^2$ = (9+1) 7 2(9) $V(Y) = F(Y^2) - (FY)^2$ Y~ Gamma (d=1.6, B=20) $= (\beta^2 + \beta)\beta^2 - (\beta^2 \beta^2)$ let us define lower incomplete gamma function.

4.105 Four-week summer rainfall totals in a section of the Midwest United States have approximately

a) E(Y), V(Y)

P[Y>4].

= 1 - F(4)

- Pull out

 $E[Y] = \partial \cdot \beta = 1.6 \times 2 = 3.2.$

$$V[\Upsilon] = 2\beta^2 = 6.6.$$

Thede this 6) P(Y>4) = 1- P(Y = 4)

 $\mathcal{J}(a,b) := \int_{a}^{b} y^{a-1} e^{-y} dy.$

r(a) == 10 ya-1 e-y dy.

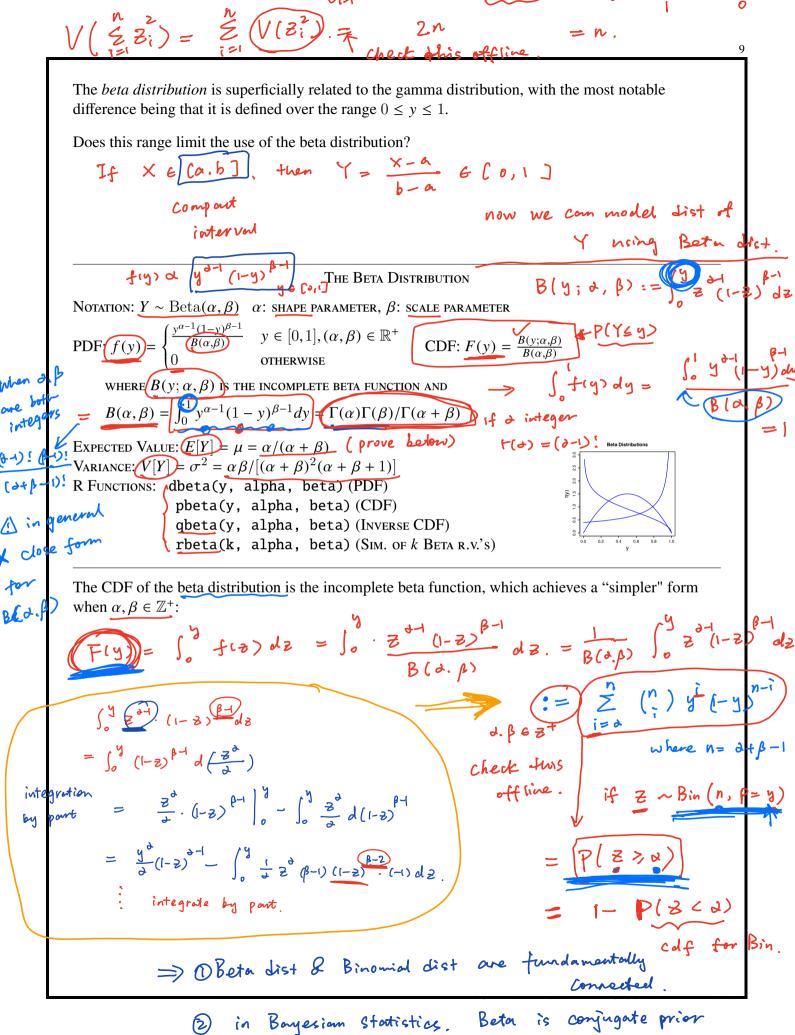
= 1- pgomma (4, 1.6,

T(2)

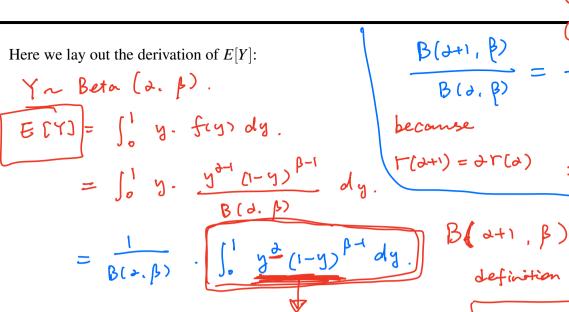
Yn Gamac (d, B).

= 0.290. HW answer. $P(Y>4) = 1 - F(4)$	$= \left(1 - \frac{\delta(1.6, \frac{4}{2})}{\Gamma(1.6)_8}\right)$
The exponential distribution can be used to model the time difference between two in a Poisson process. (The Erlang distribution generalizes this to the time between a	
$Y \sim E \times po / E \times p (B)$ (ECY) = B)	
$Exp(\beta) = Gamma(d=1, \beta).$ $V(Y) = \beta^2.$	1 pds
$f(y) = \frac{y^{1-1}e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}}{\beta^{1} \cdot \Gamma(i)} = \frac{1}{\beta}e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} \qquad \frac{\text{Remotions}}{Cdf}$	dexp(y, b) pexp(y, b)
	1 1 007 87
→ EXAMPLE. Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.91	gexp, rexp
The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon hours has an approximately exponential distribution with mean 100 cfs (cubic feet per second). The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon on a read of the probability that the demand will exceed 200 cfs during the early afternoon on a randomly selected day. The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon on a randomly selected day. The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon on a randomly selected day. The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon on a randomly selected day.	14 of Exp(100)
that the probability that demand will exceed capacity on a randomly selected day is only .01?	
a) $P(Y > 200) = 1 - P(Y \le 200) = 1 - Pexp(200, \frac{1}{100})$	(P(X>c) = 0.01
$= \int_{200}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{\beta} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} \right] dy = -e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} \Big _{200}^{\infty} = e^{-2}$	Good is to find C.
The chi-square distribution is especially important in fitting models to observed dat	a: 1 = e = 3 dy.
$Y \sim \chi^{2}(n) = Gomma(\partial = \frac{n}{2}, \beta = 2).$	
n is an integer.	= -e =
R funtion; dchisq (y,n) pchisq (y,n)	= 6 (00
q chisq. r chisq.	$\Rightarrow \left(e^{-\frac{c}{100}} = 0.0\right)$
$\mathbb{E}[\Upsilon] = n V[\Upsilon] = 2n. \widehat{f[\Upsilon]} = \frac{y^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}}{2^{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot \Gamma(\frac{n}{2})}$	$\Rightarrow C = [00 ln(100)]$
A fum fout chi- gquare dist.	_ = 46°.5°.
Xi Xz Xn independently, identically distributed.	
$X_i \sim N(\mu, 6^2)$. $Z_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{6} \sim N(6^2)$	0,1).
n: # of degrees of -	freedom.
$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{\mathbf{z}}^{2}\right] \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i}^{2}\right] = \mathbf{n}$	
	1,

pdf.



Binomial



$$B(d+1, \beta)$$

$$B(d, \beta)$$

$$becomes$$

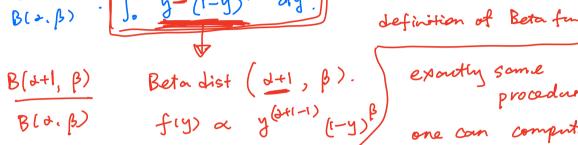
$$\Gamma(d+\beta)$$

$$\Gamma(d+\beta)$$

$$\Gamma(d+\beta)$$

$$\Gamma(d+\beta)$$

$$\Gamma(d+\beta)$$



ECY27

→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.131

Errors in measuring the time of arrival of a wave front from an acoustic source sometimes have 4.131 an approximate beta distribution. Suppose that these errors, measured in microseconds, have Yn Beta (d=1, B=2) approximately a beta distribution with $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 2$.

- What is the probability that the measurement error in a randomly selected instance is less than .5 μ s?
- **b** Give the mean and standard deviation of the measurement errors.

a)
$$P(Y < 0.5) = \int_{0}^{0.5} \frac{f(y)}{g(y)} dy = \int_{0}^{0.5} \frac{y^{1-1}(1-y)}{g(1-y)} dy = \frac{1}{g(1.2)} \cdot \int_{0}^{0.5} \frac{(1-y)}{(1-y)} dy$$

$$d = \frac{1}{f(1)f(2)} \left(0.5 + \frac{-y^{2}}{2} \Big|_{0}^{0.5} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2!}{0! \ 1!} \left(0.5 - \frac{1}{8} \right) = \frac{3}{4}.$$

$$F(0.5) = P(Z > 1) \quad \text{where } Z \land Bin(n,P=9=0.5)$$

$$= 1 - P(Z=0)$$

$$= 1 - (\frac{2}{0}) \cdot 0.5^{\circ}(1-0.5)^{2} = 0.75.$$

b).
$$E(Y) = \frac{\alpha}{2+\beta} = \frac{1}{1+2} = \frac{1}{3}$$
.

$$V(Y) = \frac{\beta\beta}{(2+\beta)^2 \cdot (2+\beta+1)} = \frac{1}{18} \quad 6 = \sqrt{V(Y)} = \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}$$

→ **EXAMPLE.** Wackerly 7, Exercise 4.133

4.133 The proportion of time per day that all checkout counters in a supermarket are busy is a random variable Y with a density function given by
$$f(y) = \begin{cases} cy^2(1-y)^4, & 0 \le y \le 1, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$
Beta (d=3, | B=5)

- a Find the value of c that makes f(y) a probability density function.
- **b** Find E(Y). (Use what you have learned about the beta-type distribution. Compare your answers to those obtained in Exercise 4.28.)
- c Calculate the standard deviation of Y.
- d Applet Exercise Use the applet Beta Probabilities and Quantiles to find $P(Y > \mu + 2\sigma)$.

a)
$$C = \frac{1}{B(3.5)} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(3)\frac{\Gamma(5)}{\Gamma(8)}} = \frac{7!}{2! \cdot 4!} = \frac{7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5}{2} = 105.$$

Use $\Gamma(d) = (d-1)!$ for d : integer

b)
$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \frac{d}{d+\beta} = \frac{3}{8}$$

c)
$$V(Y) = \frac{\partial \beta}{(\partial + \beta)^2(\partial + \beta + 1)} = \frac{5}{192} \Rightarrow 6 = \sqrt{\frac{5}{192}}$$

d)
$$P(Y > M + 26)$$

= $P(Y > \frac{3}{8} + 2 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{5}{1900}})$
= $1 - pbeta(\frac{3}{8} + 2\sqrt{\frac{5}{192}}, \alpha = 3, \beta = 5)$.
= 0.030
HW Answer.

We concluded the last set of notes by demonstrating how the Law of Total Probability has a role in probabilistic modeling outside of when we work with sample spaces. In that demonstration, we assumed that we were working with two discrete distributions. Here, we generalize to the case where either one or both of the distributions is continuous.

There are three cases:

1) The conditional distribution is discrete, and the unconditional distribution is continuous:

$$P(Y|X) = \int P(Y|X) f(X) dX$$

2) The conditional distribution is continuous, and the unconditional distribution is discrete:

$$f(y|x)$$

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} f(y|x) & p(x) \\ x & f(y|x) \\ y & f(y|x) \end{cases}$$

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} f(y|x) & p(x) \\ x & f(y|x) \\ y & f(y|x) \\ y & f(y|x) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} f(y|x) & f(y|x) \\ f(y|x) & f(y|x) \\ y & f(y|x) \\ y & f(y|x) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} f(y|x) & f(y|x) \\ f(y|x) &$$

3) Both distributions are continuous

→ **EXAMPLE.** Consider the following two-step experiment. First, X is drawn from a beta distribution with parameters α and β . Then Y is drawn from a binomial distribution with the number of trials being n and the probability of success being X. Determine P[Y = y].

P(Y=y) =
$$\int_{D_X} P(Y|X=n) f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{D_X} P(Y|X=n) f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{D$$

(y) B (y+0, N+ B-y)

Bla. p).

pmt.