Lecture 10: Continuous Random Variables

In this section you will compute probabilities by doing integrals.

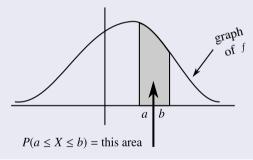
Definition

A random variable X is said to be continuous if there exists a nonnegative function f(x) definition interval $(-\infty, \infty)$ such that for any interval [a, b] we have,

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

Definition (Cont.)

f(x) is said to be the probability density function of X, abbreviated pdf. The usual geometric interpretation of the integral $\int_a^h f(\infty) dx$ as the area between a and b under the graph of f will be very important later



Z $f(x) \neq P(X = x)$ in fact f(x) is not the probability of anything f is a density i.e., something you integrate to get the magnitude of a physical quantity.

Think of a wire stretching from a to b with density $\lambda \frac{gm}{cm}$



Then the actually mass of the wire between a and b is $\int_a^b \lambda(x) dx$.

So λ is mass per unit

length
$$\lambda(x) = \lim \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta x}$$

Similarly f(x) = probability per unit length. Both λ and f pre derivatives of ?????? values have meaning.

Properties of f(x)

- (i) $f(x) \ge 0 \leftarrow$ no immediate physic interpretation, see later.
- (ii) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ \leftarrow total probability = 1

by function *f* satisfying (i) and (ii) is a proof.

Example: The Uniform Distribution on [0, 1]

Physical Problem

Pick a random number in [0, 1]

Call the result *X*.

So X is a random variable.

Questions

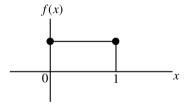
What is
$$P\left(X = \frac{1}{2}\right)$$
?
What is $P\left(0 \le X \le \frac{1}{2}\right)$
What is $P\left(\frac{1}{4} \le X \le \frac{3}{4}\right)$

So we arrive at for [a, b] inside [0, 1]

$$P(X \in [a, b]) = P(a \le X \le b) = b - a = \text{ length } ([a, b])$$

This is a continuous random variable. The density function is the "characteristic function of [0, 1]" i.e.,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



Definition

A continuous random variable X is said to have uniform distribution on [0,1], abbreviate $X \sim \bigcup (0,1)$ if its pdf f is given by

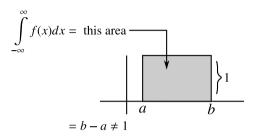
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

More generally suppose we replace [0, 1] by the interval [a, b]

Z We can't have

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & a \le x \le b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Why



So we have to define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \le x \le b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

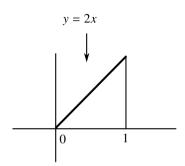
Then
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = 1$$

uniform
distribution on $[a, b]$

In this case we write $X \sim \bigcup (a, b)$.

Another Example

Linear density



Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then the total probability is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{1} 2x = (x^{2}) \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = 1$$

Since $f(x) \ge 0$ and

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

indeed a pdf.

Problem

For the linear density compute

$$P\left(\frac{1}{4} \le X \le \frac{3}{4}\right)$$

Solution

$$P\left(\frac{1}{4} \le X \le \frac{3}{4}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \int_{\frac{1}{4}}^{\frac{3}{4}} 2xdx$$
$$= (x^2)\Big|_{x=\frac{1}{4}}^{x=\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{9}{16} - \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{2}$$

No decimals please.

Here are some usual properties of <u>continuous</u> random variables.

They are all consequences of the fact that if X is continuous and c is any number then

$$P(X=c)=0$$

Theorem

- (i) $P(a \le X \le b) = P(a \le X \le b)$ (because P(X = b) = 0)
- (ii) $P(a \le X \le b) = P(a < X \le b)$ (because P(X = a) = 0)
- (iii) $P(a \le X \le b) = P(a < X < b)$

end points don't matter.

Good Citizen Computations

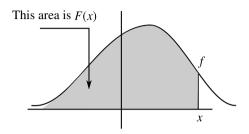
The Cumulative Distribution Function

Definition

Let *X* be a continuous random variable with pdf f. Then the cumulative distribution function *F*, abbreviate cdf, is defined by

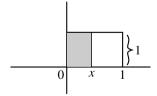
$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x) dx$$

= the area under the graph of f to the left of x.



We will compute the *cdfs* for $X \sim \bigcup (0,1)$ and $X \sim$ the linear distribution.

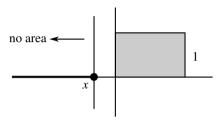
$$X \sim \bigcup (0,1)$$



There will be <u>three</u> formulas corresponding to the <u>two</u> discontinuities in f(x).

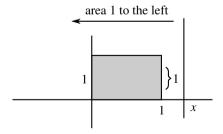
$$F(x) = 0, x < 0$$

This is clear because we haven't accumulated any probability/area get.



$$F(x) = 1, x > 1$$

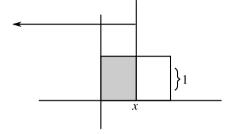
This is not quite so clean



We have over 1 to the left of x and that's all we are going to set.

$$F(x) = ?, 0 \le x \le 1$$

This is where the action is.



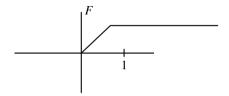
How much area have we accumulated to the left of x. It is the area of a rectangle with base x and height 1 hence area x - 1 = x.

Thus
$$F(x) = x$$
, $0 \le x \le 1$

We could have done this with integrals instead of pictures but pictures are better.

We have obtained

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

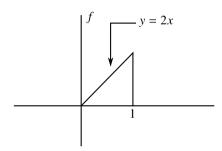


Lesson

cdf's of continuous random variables are continuous and satisfy

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0$$
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$$

The *cdf* of the linear distribution

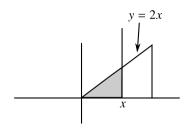


We will go faster. Clearly again

$$F(x) = 0, \quad x < 0$$

and
$$F(x) = 1, x > 1$$

We have to compute F(x) for $0 \le X \le 1$.



So
$$F(x) =$$
shaded area

$$= Area \left(\underbrace{ }_{x} \right) 2x$$

So we have to compute the area of a triangle with base b = x and height

$$h = 2x$$
. But

area
$$=\frac{1}{2}bh=\frac{1}{2}x(2x)=x^2$$

So

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x^2, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Do this with integrals.

Importance of the cdf

Coded into the *cdf* F are all the probabilities $P(a \le X \le b)$.

Theorem

$$P(a \le X \le b) = F(b) - F(c).$$

Proof.

$$P(a \le X \le b) = P(X \le b) - P(X < a)$$

But because X is continuous

$$P(X < a) = P(X \le a)$$

So

$$P(a \le X \le b) = P(X \le b) - P(X \le 0)$$
$$= F(b) - F(a)$$

Remark

The previous theorem is critical. It is the basis of using tables (in a book or in a computer) to compute probabilities. A grid of values of F (up to 10 decimal places say) are tabulated.

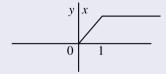
Theorem (How to recover the pdf from the *cdf*)

F'(x) = f(x) at all points where f(x) is continuous.

Example

Suppose $X \sim \bigcup (0,1)$.

F(x) has the graph



So F(x) is differential except at 0 and 1 and has derivative



But this is f(x). Note f(x) is discontinuous of 0 and 1.