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#### **Public Service Announcement**

Next week it is Innovative Learning Week.

There are no lectures or tutorials for mi4.

The next tutorial will be **Tuesday 28 February**.

José Figueroa-O'Farrill mi4a (Probability) Lecture 10 3

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 After discrete random variables, it is now time to study "continuous" random variables; namely, those taking values in an uncountable set, e.g., ℝ

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- "At random" means that every number is equally likely, so the probability of choosing <sup>1</sup>/<sub>7</sub> is the same as that of any other number. Let's call that proability ε. What can ε be?

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- We can write the certain event [0, 1] as the disjoint union

$$[0,1] = \bigcup_{x \in [0,1]} \{x\}$$

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- We can write the certain event [0, 1] as the disjoint union

$$[0,1] = \bigcup_{x \in [0,1]} \{x\}$$

We know that P([0, 1]) = 1, but this is not a countable disjoint union.

• So let us break up [0, 1] into a countable disjoint union:

$$[0,1] = A_0 \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{\frac{1}{n}\}$$

where  $A_0$  is simply the complement of  $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\}$ .

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This shows, by the way, why one limits the additivity of ℙ to countable unions; otherwise one would conclude that ℙ([0, 1]) = 0 — a contradiction.

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- This shows, by the way, why one limits the additivity of ℙ to countable unions; otherwise one would conclude that ℙ([0, 1]) = 0 a contradiction.
- This argument also shows that any countable subset of ℝ has zero probability: rationals, algebraic numbers,...

#### Definition

A continuous random variable X on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  is a function  $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

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 $\{X = x\} = \{X \geqslant x\} \cap \{X \leqslant x\} .$ 

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- **1**  $\Omega = [0, 1];$
- ② 𝔅 consists of the intervals [0, a] with 0 ≤ a ≤ 1 together with and any other subsets they generate by iterating complementation and countable unions; and

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The distribution function F of a continuous random variable X is the function  $F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x)$ . In the above example, F(x) = x.

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In this course we will be dealing exclusively with continuous random variables whose distribution function F is given by integrating a function f:

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 $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(y) dy \; .$ 

The function f is called a "probability density function" (p.d.f.) and the function F is called a "cumulative distribution function" (c.d.f.).



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#### Definition

A probability density function is a function  $f(\mathbf{x}) \ge \mathbf{0}$  normalised such that

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Given f, the non-decreasing function F defined by

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is called the **cumulative distribution function** of f.

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**Discrete** random variables have probability **mass** functions, but **continuous** random variables have probability **density** functions.

## Continuous random variables and PDFs

As with discrete random variables, we often just say

Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function f(x)...

without specifying the probability space on which X is defined.

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Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function f(x)...

without specifying the probability space on which X is defined. The basic property of the probability density function for a continuous random variable X is that

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \int_{x \in A} f(x) dx$$

assuming that  $\{X \in A\}$  is an event.

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assuming that  $\{X \in A\}$  is an event. This prompts the following

### Question

For which subsets  $A \in \mathbb{R}$  is  $\{X \in A\}$  an event?

Such subsets are called **Borel sets**.



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 By definition, (-∞, x] is a Borel set for all x ∈ ℝ.



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Such subsets are called **Borel sets**.

- By definition,  $(-\infty, x]$  is a Borel set for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- So are  $(-\infty, x) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (-\infty, x \frac{1}{n}]$ .



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- By complementation, so are  $(x, \infty)$  and  $[x, \infty)$



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- By intersection,  $[x, y] = (-\infty, y] \cap [x, \infty)$



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- and similarly (x, y), [x, y), (x, y],...



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- By intersection,  $[x, y] = (-\infty, y] \cap [x, \infty)$
- and similarly (x, y), [x, y), (x, y],...
- The Borel sets are the smallest σ-field containing the intervals.
- In fact, all subsets of ℝ you will ever be likely to meet are Borel.



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Let f be a probability density function with cumulative distribution function F.

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Let f be a probability density function with cumulative distribution function F. Remember that

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(y) dy$$
  $f(x) \ge 0$ .

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- if  $x \ge y$ , then  $F(x) \ge F(y)$
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- $F(b) F(a) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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### The p.d.f. of the **uniform** distribution on [a, b] is given by

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The p.d.f. of the **uniform** distribution on [a, b] is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < a \\ \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \leqslant x \leqslant b \\ 0, & x > b \end{cases}$$

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and the c.d.f. is given by

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Between 4pm and 5pm, buses arrive at your stop at 4pm and then every 15 minutes until 5pm. You arrive at the stop at a random time between 4pm and 5pm. *What is the probability that you will have to wait at least 5 minutes for the bus?* 

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• Your arrival time at the stop is uniformly distributed between 4pm and 5pm.

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- You will have to wait at least 5 minutes if you arrive between the time a bus arrives and 10 minutes after that.

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- Your arrival time at the stop is uniformly distributed between 4pm and 5pm.
- You will have to wait at least 5 minutes if you arrive between the time a bus arrives and 10 minutes after that.
- That's 10 minutes in every 15 minutes, so the probability is  $\frac{10}{15} = \frac{2}{3}$ .

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### Example (The standard normal distribution)

The p.d.f. of the standard normal distribution is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$$

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#### Example (The standard normal distribution)

The p.d.f. of the standard normal distribution is

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It is also called a **gaussian** distribution.





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### Example (The standard normal distribution – continued)

The proof that f(x) is a probability density function follows from a standard trick.

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$$l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

which we have to show to be equal to 1.

### Example (The standard normal distribution - continued)

The proof that f(x) is a probability density function follows from a standard trick. Let

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

which we have to show to be equal to 1. We compute  $I^2$ :

$$I^{2} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}/2} dx\right)^{2}$$
  
=  $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}/2} dx\right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}/2} dy\right)$   
=  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \iint e^{-(x^{2}+y^{2})/2} dx dy$ 

where the integral is over the whole (x, y)-plane.

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where the integral is over the whole (x, y)-plane. We now change to polar coordinates.

#### Example (The standard normal distribution – continued)



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$$x = r \cos \theta$$
  $y = r \sin \theta$   $r > 0$   $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$ 

so that

 $x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \qquad dx \, dy = r \, dr \, d\theta$ 

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Example (The standard normal distribution – continued)

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$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \qquad dx \, dy = r \, dr \, d\theta$$

Into I<sup>2</sup>,

$$I^{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \iint e^{-(x^{2}+y^{2})/2} dx dy$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{\infty} e^{-r^{2}/2} r dr d\theta$   
=  $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-r^{2}/2} d(\frac{1}{2}r^{2})$   
=  $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-u} du = 1$ 

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The **normal** distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  has probability density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

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### Example (The normal distribution)

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The standard normal distribution has  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ . We will see that  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are the mean and variance, respectively.

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#### Example (The error function)

The cumulative distribution function of the normal distribution is

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right)$$

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$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right)$$

where erf is the error function, defined by



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The p.d.f. of the **exponential** distribution with parameter  $\lambda$  is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x \ge 0\\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

José Figueroa-O'Farrill mi4a (Probability) Lecture 10

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José Figueroa-O'Farrill mi4a (Probability) Lecture 10

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Let X be exponentially distributed with parameter  $\lambda$ .

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whence cancelling the  $\mathbb{P}(X > x)$  from both sides,

$$\mathbb{P}(X > x + y \mid X > x) = \mathbb{P}(X > y)$$

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- which is the probability of not crashing after a time y
- so the fact that it didn't crash for a time x is of no relevance
- i.e., the exponential distribution simply does not remember that fact.

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Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function f(x).

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### Example (The mean of the exponential distribution)

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$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_0^\infty x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lambda \int_0^\infty x e^{-\lambda x} dx$$
$$= -\lambda \frac{d}{d\lambda} \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda x} dx = -\lambda \frac{d}{d\lambda} \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Let X be uniformly distributed in [a, b].

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Let X be uniformly distributed in [a, b]. Then

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In the example about • waiting for the bus, what is your expected waiting time?

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Your expected arrival time is uniformly distributed, but you are interested in the expectatation of the waiting time.

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Let X be uniformly distributed in [a, b]. Then

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$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} dx$$

We change coordinates to  $y = x - \mu$ , so that

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y+\mu)e^{-y^2/2\sigma^2} dy$$
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where the first term vanishes because of symmetric integration and the second equals  $\mu$  by using the normalisation of the normal probability density function.

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  - exponential:  $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  for  $x \ge 0$  (has no memory!)
- The **mean**  $\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$ , and equals  $\frac{a+b}{2}$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\frac{1}{\lambda}$  for the above p.d.f.s, respectively.

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