### Continuous Random Variables

The probability that a *continuous ran*dom variable, X, has a value between a and b is computed by integrating its probability density function (p.d.f.) over the interval [a,b]:

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx.$$

A p.d.f. must integrate to one:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1.$$

The probability that the continuous random variable, X, has any exact value, a, is 0:

$$P(X = a) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} P(a \le X \le a + \Delta x)$$
$$= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \int_{a}^{a + \Delta x} f_X(x) dx$$
$$= 0.$$

In general

$$P(X=a)\neq f_X(a).$$

# Probability Density

The probability density at *a* multiplied by  $\varepsilon$  approximately equals the probability mass contained within an interval of  $\varepsilon$  width centered on *a*:

$$\epsilon f_X(a) \approx \int_{a-\epsilon/2}^{a+\epsilon/2} f_X(x) dx$$
  
 $\approx P(a-\epsilon/2 \le X \le a+\epsilon/2)$ 

#### **Cumulative Distribution Function**

A continuous random variable, *X*, can also be defined by its *cumulative distribution function* (*c.d.f.*):

$$F_X(a) = P(X \le a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f_X(x) dx.$$

For any c.d.f.,  $F_X(-\infty) = 0$  and  $F_X(\infty) = 1$ . The probability that a continuous random variable, *X*, has a value between *a* and *b* is easily computed using the c.d.f.:

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f_X(x) dx$$
  
=  $\int_{-\infty}^{b} f_X(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^{a} f_X(x) dx$   
=  $F_X(b) - F_X(a).$ 

## Cumulative Distribution Function (contd.)

The p.d.f.,  $f_X(x)$ , can be derived from the c.d.f.,  $F_X(x)$ :

$$f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(s) ds$$
$$= \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx}.$$

#### Joint Probability Densities

Let *X* and *Y* be continuous random variables. The probability that  $a \le X \le b$  and  $c \le Y \le d$  is found by integrating the *joint probability density function* for *X* and *Y* over the interval [a,b] w.r.t. *x* and over the interval [c,d] w.r.t. *y*:

$$P(a \le X \le b, c \le Y \le d)$$
  
=  $\int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} f_{XY}(x, y) dy dx.$ 

Like a one-dimensional p.d.f., a twodimensional joint p.d.f. must also integrate to one:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy = 1.$$

## Marginal Probability Densities

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dy$$
$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dx$$

# **Conditional Probability Densities**

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$
$$= \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y)dx}$$

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = f_{X|Y}(x|y)f_Y(y)$$

## **Exponential Density**

A constant fraction of a radioactive sample decays per unit time:

$$\frac{df(t)}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\tau}f(t).$$

What fraction of the radioactive sample will remain after time *t*?

$$\frac{d(e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}})}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\tau}e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

### Exponential Density (contd.)

The function,  $f(t) = e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$ , satisfies the differential equation, but it does not integrate to one:

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} dt = -\tau e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \Big|_{0}^{\infty}$$
$$= \tau e^{-\frac{\infty}{\tau}} + \tau$$
$$= \tau.$$

So that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_T(t) dt = 1$ , we divide f(t) by  $\tau$ :

$$f_T(t) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}.$$

## Exponential Density (contd.)

The time, T, at which an atom of a radioactive element decays is a continuous random variable with the following p.d.f.:

$$f_T(t) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}.$$

The corresponding c.d.f. is:

$$F_T(a) = \int_0^a \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} dt$$
$$= -e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \Big|_0^a$$
$$= 1 - e^{-\frac{a}{\tau}}.$$

The c.d.f. gives the probability that an atom of a radioactive element has *al*-*ready* decayed.

#### Example

The lifetime of a radioactive element is a continuous random variable with the following p.d.f.:

$$f_T(t) = \frac{1}{100} e^{-\frac{t}{100}}.$$

The probability that an atom of this element will decay within 50 years is:

$$P(0 \le t \le 50) = \int_0^{50} \frac{1}{100} e^{-\frac{t}{100}} dt$$
  
= 1 - e^{-0.5}  
= 0.39.

### Exponential Density (contd.)

The *half-life*,  $\lambda$ , is defined as the time required for half of a radioactive sample to decay:

$$P(0 \le t \le \lambda) = 1/2.$$

Since

$$P(0 \le t \le \lambda) = \int_0^\lambda \frac{1}{100} e^{-\frac{t}{100}} dt$$
  
=  $1 - e^{-\frac{1}{100}\lambda}$   
=  $1/2$ ,

it follows that  $\lambda = 100 \ln 2$  or 69.31 years.



Figure 1: Exponential p.d.f.,  $\frac{1}{10}e^{-\frac{1}{10}t}$ , and c.d.f.,  $1 - e^{-\frac{1}{10}t}$ .

## Memoryless Property of the Exponential

# If *X* is an exponentially distributed random variable, then

$$P(X > s + t | X > t) = P(X > s).$$

Proof:

$$P(X > s+t|X > t) = \frac{P(X > s+t, X > t)}{P(X > t)}$$
  
=  $\frac{P(X > t|X > s+t)P(x > s+t)}{P(X > t)}$   
=  $\frac{P(X > s+t)}{P(X > t)}$ .  
Since  $P(X > t) = 1 - P(X \le t)$ ,  
 $\frac{P(X > s+t)}{P(X > t)} = \frac{1 - (1 - e^{-(s+t)/\tau})}{1 - (1 - e^{-t/\tau})}$   
=  $e^{-s/\tau}$   
=  $P(X > s)$ .

# Memoryless Property of the Exponential

In plain language: Knowing how long we've already waited doesn't tells us anything about how much longer we are going to have to wait, *e.g.*, for a bus.

### **Expected Value**

Let *X* be a continuous random variable. The *expected value* of *X*, is defined as follows:

$$\langle X \rangle = \mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

Variance

The *variance* of *X* is defined as the expected value of the squared difference of *X* and  $\langle X \rangle$ :

$$\left\langle \left[X - \langle X \rangle\right]^2 \right\rangle = \sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[x - \langle X \rangle\right]^2 f_X(x) dx$$

## Gaussian Density

A random variable X with p.d.f.,

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

is called a *Gaussian* (or *normal*) random variable with *expected value*,  $\mu$ , and *variance*,  $\sigma^2$ . Expected Value for Gaussian Density

Let the p.d.f.,  $f_X(X)$ , equal

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

The expected value,  $\langle X \rangle$ , can be derived as follows:

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

Writing *x* as  $(x - \mu) + \mu$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle X \rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu) e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx \\ &+ \mu \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx. \end{aligned}$$

The first term is zero, since (after substitution of *u* for  $x - \mu$ ) it is the integral of the product of an odd and even function. The second term is  $\mu$ , since

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

Consequently,

$$\langle X \rangle = \mu.$$

#### C.d.f. for Gaussian Density

Because the Gaussian integrates to one and is symmetric about zero, its c.d.f.,  $F_X(a)$ , can be written as follows:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{a} f_X(x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \int_{a}^{0} f_X(x) dx & \text{if } a < 0\\ \frac{1}{2} + \int_{0}^{a} f_X(x) dx & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Equivalently, we can write:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{a} f_X(x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \int_{0}^{|a|} f_X(x) dx & \text{if } a < 0\\ \frac{1}{2} + \int_{0}^{|a|} f_X(x) dx & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

C.d.f. for Gaussian Density (contd).

To evaluate  $\int_0^{|a|} f_X(x) dx$ , recall that the Taylor series for  $e^x$  is:

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}.$$

The Taylor series for a Gaussian is therefore:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x^2/2)^n}{n!}$   
=  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{n!}$ .

Consequently:

$$\int_{0}^{|a|} f_{X}(x) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{0}^{|a|} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n} x^{2n}}{n! 2^{n}} dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n} x^{2n+1}}{n! 2^{n} (2n+1)} \Big|_{0}^{|a|}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n} |a|^{2n+1}}{n! 2^{n} (2n+1)}.$$



Figure 2: Gaussian p.d.f. and c.d.f.,  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$ , computed using Taylor series.