

PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS [CONTINUED]

CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLES

Very often we need to work with random variables that may [in principle] vary continuously over some range of values.

E.g. human lifespan [0 to <200 years]
masses of asteroids
length of rats' tails
time till a nucleus decays [0 to ∞]

If our measuring device [metre rule?] has a resolution Δx [1 cm divisions?] we could define a DISCRETE probability distribution

$$P_i = P(x_i < x < x_i + \Delta x)$$

E.g. for rats tails $P_5 = P(5 < x < 6 \text{ cm}) \neq 0$.

As the resolution Δx is improved [1 mm divisions on rule?], the fraction of the population in range x to $x + \Delta x$ will decrease, reaching zero in limit $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$:

$$P(x = 6 \text{ cm}) = 0 \quad [\text{no rat has a tail of exactly 6 cm!}]$$

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[CONTINUOUS RAND. VARS., CONT'D]

To avoid the problem of vanishing probabilities, we introduce the PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION [or DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION] $f(x)$ via

$$P(x_i < X < x_i + \Delta x) = f(x_i) \Delta x \quad [\Delta x \rightarrow 0]$$

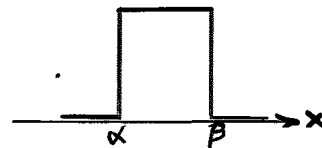
so that

$$\begin{aligned} P(a < x < b) &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{x_i \in (a,b)} f(x_i) \Delta x \\ &= \int_a^b f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

NOTE: $f(x) \geq 0$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$.

Unlike PROBABILITIES [which are dimensionless], DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS have dimensions inverse to those of the variable x [since $f(x) \Delta x$ must be dimensionless]; e.g., [length] $^{-1}$, [mass] $^{-1}$, etc.

EXAMPLE 1: THE UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION



$$f(x) = 0 \text{ for } x < \alpha \text{ or } x > \beta$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \text{ otherwise.}$$

EXPECTATION VALUE

Extend the definition from Lecture 4:

$$\begin{aligned} E(x) &\equiv \langle x \rangle = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_i x_i \underbrace{f(x_i) \Delta x}_{\text{" } p_i \text{ "}} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 2: the UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION —

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} x \cdot \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} dx = \left[\frac{\frac{1}{2} x^2}{\beta - \alpha} \right]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2} (\beta^2 - \alpha^2)}{\beta - \alpha} = \frac{1}{2} (\alpha + \beta) \end{aligned}$$

VARIANCE & STANDARD DEVIATION

Similarly,

$$\sigma^2 \equiv \text{var}(x) = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$

EXAMPLE 3: the UNIFORM DISTRIBUTION again —

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x^2 \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} x^2 dx \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{3} (\beta^3 - \alpha^3)}{(\beta - \alpha)} = \frac{1}{3} (\alpha^2 + \alpha\beta + \beta^2) \\ \Rightarrow \sigma^2 &= \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 = \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha\beta + \beta^2}{3} - \left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{12} (\beta - \alpha)^2. \end{aligned}$$

← [Hard work! Can you see a quicker way?]

CUMULATIVE PROBABILITY

... defined by

$$C(x) \equiv P(Y < x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy.$$

↑ the random variable!

Note that $C(-\infty) = 0$, $C(+\infty) = 1$ and that

$$\frac{dC}{dx} = f(x) \geq 0 \quad [C \text{ never decreases}]$$

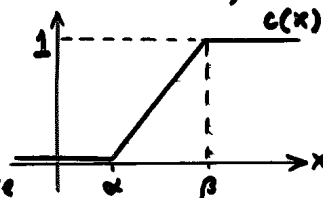
EXAMPLE 4: for the uniform distribution,

$$C(x) = 0 \text{ for } x < \alpha$$

$$C(x) = 1 \text{ for } x > \beta$$

$$C(x) = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} dx$$

$$= \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha} \text{ otherwise}$$



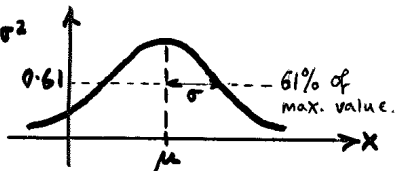
It's often useful to define a "SURVIVAL PROBABILITY", $P(x) \equiv 1 - C(x)$

$$= \int_x^{\infty} f(y) dy,$$

e.g., the probability that a nucleus survives to time x [or that a rat's tail is longer than x ?]

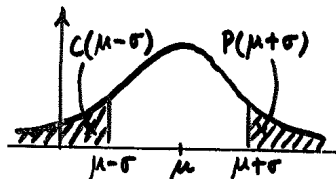
Clearly, $\frac{dP}{dx} = -\frac{dC}{dx} = -f(x) \leq 0$: the probability of survival decreases with time...

THE GAUSSIAN [or NORMAL] DISTRIBUTION

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


Its importance [e.g. in the theory of "errors"] arises from the **CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM** of probability theory: the distribution function for the **SUM** of many independent random variables is a **Gaussian** [almost] regardless of the distribution for any one term in the sum. [The experimental "error" often arises from many independent sources.]

The "cumulative" functions $C(x)$ & $P(x)$ are usually looked up in tables (!), and are useful in assessing the "significance" of an expt. result [i.e., its "degree of improbability"]



$$C(\mu - \sigma) = P(\mu + \sigma) \approx 16\%$$

$$C(\mu + 2\sigma) = P(\mu - 2\sigma) \approx 2.3\%$$

etc.

INTEGRALS OF GAUSSIANS [DIGRESSION]

In cases where the range is infinite [so not $P(x)$, $C(x)$ or similar...] the key result is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ax^2} dx = \left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{1/2}$$

All others of the form $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2n} e^{-ax^2} dx$ can be obtained by differentiation w.r.t. a :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{E.g. } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-ax^2} dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[-\frac{d}{da} e^{-ax^2}\right] dx \\ &= -\frac{d}{da} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ax^2} dx\right] \\ &= -\frac{d}{da} \left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{1/2} = \frac{\pi^{1/2}}{2 a^{3/2}} \quad (\text{E}) \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 5: Variance of Gaussian distribution

$$f(x) = \exp[-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2] / [\text{whatever}]$$

$$\text{where } [\text{whatever}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp[-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2] dx$$

$$\text{Set } a \equiv 1/(2\sigma^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow [\text{whatever}] = (\pi/a)^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{var}(x) = \langle (x-\mu)^2 \rangle$$

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

[CONTINUED]

[EXAMPLE 5, CONTINUED]

By making a change of variable $u = x - \mu$

we find that the required integral is the same as the one evaluated in (E):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= \frac{1}{(\pi/a)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2 e^{-au^2} du \\ &= \frac{1}{(\pi/a)^{1/2}} \left\{ \frac{\pi^{1/2}}{2a^{3/2}} \right\} = \frac{1}{2a} \\ &= \sigma^2,\end{aligned}$$

i.e., the parameter σ is the standard deviation of the Gaussian distribution.