

## Functions of a Random Variable: Expectation

☞ There are an overwhelming number of possible random variables which can be derived from even a single distribution, such as  $U$ , a uniformly distributed r.v., by applying a function,  $g(U)$ .

It is nice to know that we need only one theorem to dispose of expectation:

### Theorem

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with density  $f_X$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  a continuous function (except, perhaps on finitely many points). Then

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)f_X(t) dt$$

provided this integral exists.

## Functions of a Random Variable: Cumulative Distribution

☞ Suppose we would like to compute the cumulative distribution of a random variable  $g(X)$ , when we have  $F_X$ .

One theorem is all we need to know.

### Theorem

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable, and  $g(t)$  a strictly increasing function on the range of  $X$ . Let  $Y = g(X)$ .

The cumulative distribution of  $Y$  is

$$F_Y(t) = F_X(g^{-1}(t)).$$

If  $g(x)$  is strictly decreasing on the range of  $X$ , then

$$F_Y(t) = 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(t)).$$

## Proof

Suppose  $g(t)$  is strictly increasing. Then  $g$  is 1-1, so has an inverse (and both will be differentiable on all but a discrete set of points).

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(t) &= \mathbf{P}\{Y \leq t\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{g(X) \leq t\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{X \leq g^{-1}(t)\} \\ &= F_X(g^{-1}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $g(t)$  is strictly decreasing.

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(t) &= \mathbf{P}\{Y \leq t\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{g(X) \leq t\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{g^{-1}(t) \leq X\} \\ &= 1 - \mathbf{P}\{X \leq g^{-1}(t)\} \\ &= 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

## Functions of a Random Variable: Density

☞ A function  $g(t)$  is **monotonic** on its domain if it is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing on its domain.

### Theorem

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable, and  $g(t)$  a **monotonic** function on the range of  $X$ . Let  $Y = g(X)$ .

The density of  $Y$  is

$$f_Y(t) = f_X(g^{-1}(t)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) \right|.$$

Note: Compare to Ross, Theorem 5.7.1, page 243.

## Proof

Suppose  $g(t)$  is strictly increasing (so  $\frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) > 0$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} F_Y(t) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} F_X(g^{-1}(t)) \\ &= f_X(g^{-1}(t)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) \right| \quad (\text{chain rule}) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $g(t)$  is strictly decreasing (so  $\frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) < 0$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} F_Y(t) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} (1 - F_X(g^{-1}(t))) \\ &= f_X(g^{-1}(t)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) \right| \quad (\text{chain rule}) \end{aligned}$$

## Example: Uniform Distribution

**Example.** There is a **uniform distribution** for each interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

The only one you need to know is the uniform distribution  $U$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

☞ Let  $V$  be the uniformly distributed r.v. on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

Define  $g(t)$  by

$$g(t) = (\beta - \alpha)t + \alpha \quad \text{so,} \quad g^{-1}(t) = \frac{t - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha}.$$

Then  $V = g(U)$ :

$$t \in [0, 1] \mapsto (\beta - \alpha)t + \alpha \in [\alpha, \beta]$$

1 **Scale** by  $\beta - \alpha$  to  $(\beta - \alpha)t$ .

2 **Shift** by  $\alpha$  to  $(\beta - \alpha)t + \alpha$ .

## Example: Uniform Distribution

$$g(t) = (\beta - \alpha)t + \alpha \quad g^{-1}(t) = \frac{t - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha} \quad \frac{d}{dt} g^{-1}(t) = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha}$$

☞  $U$  is uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1]$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F_U(t) &= t & f_U(t) &= 1 \\ E[V] &= \frac{1}{2} & \text{Var}(V) &= \frac{1}{12}. \end{aligned}$$

☞  $V = g(U)$  is uniformly distributed on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F_V(t) &= F_U(g^{-1}(t)) = \frac{t - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha} & f_V(t) &= \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \\ E[V] &= E[g(t)] = \frac{(\beta - \alpha)}{2} + \alpha & \text{Var}(V) &= \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{12}. \end{aligned}$$

Even if  $g$  is not strictly increasing or decreasing, we can often apply the same technique (although the situation may be more complicated).

**Example.** Let  $X$  be a continuous r.v. with known cumulative distribution  $F_X$  and density  $f_X$ . Let  $Y = X^2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(t) &= \mathbf{P}\{Y \leq t\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{-\sqrt{t} \leq X \leq \sqrt{t}\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{X \leq \sqrt{t}\} - \mathbf{P}\{X \leq -\sqrt{t}\} \\ &= F_X(\sqrt{t}) - F_X(-\sqrt{t}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} F_Y(t) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} [F_X(\sqrt{t}) - F_X(-\sqrt{t})] \\ &= [f_X(\sqrt{t}) + f_X(-\sqrt{t})] \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} \end{aligned}$$

## Normal Density

The most important density function is the normal density function.

### Definition

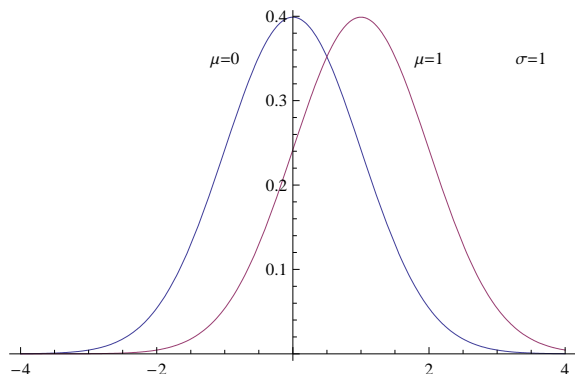
The normal density function with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  is defined as

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(t-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} \quad \text{for every } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

A random variable is said to be normally distributed with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ , if its density function is a normal density function for some parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ .

## Center of a Normal Distribution

$\mu$  provides the center of the distribution— in fact, it is the mean.

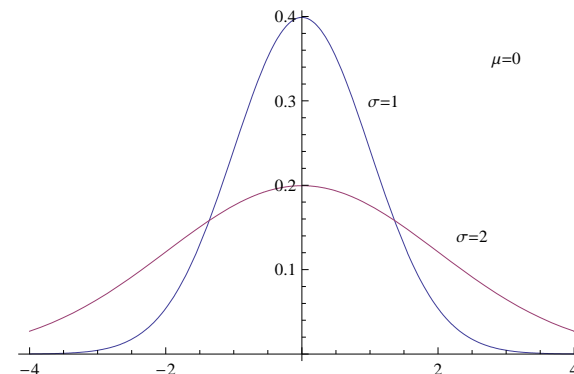


The binomial and Poisson distributions approximate a bell curve – which is the graph of the density of a normal distribution. There is a deeper reason for this – more to follow.

## Spread of a Normal Distribution

$\sigma^2$  provides the spread of the distribution – in fact, it is the variance, where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation.

The graphs show varying standard deviation  $\sigma$ .



Note that the peak value, at  $\mu = 0$ , is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}$ , where  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \approx 0.399$ .

## Standard Distribution

☞ There is only one normal distribution you need to know.

**Definition.** The normal random variable with parameters  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$  is called the **standard normal random variable**, which I will write as  $Z$  (as does Ross).

$$f_Z(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} \quad \text{for every } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The cumulative distribution for  $Z$  is written by  $\Phi$ :

$$F_Z(a) = \Phi(a) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

## Proof of equivalence

☞ If  $X$  is a normal random variable with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$X = \sigma Z + \mu \quad Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

**Reason.** Define  $g$  by

$$g(t) = \sigma t + \mu \quad g^{-1}(t) = \frac{t - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Let  $X = g(Z)$ . By the previous theorem

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(t) &= f_Z\left(\frac{t - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \frac{1}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\left(\frac{t - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2/2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(t - \mu)^2/2\sigma^2} \end{aligned}$$

## Standardization

☞ To calculate the **cumulative distribution** for a normally distributed r.v.  $X$  with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ .

Reduce to the standard distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(a) &= \mathbf{P}\{X \leq a\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{\sigma Z + \mu \leq a\} \\ &= \mathbf{P}\left\{Z \leq \frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right\} \\ &= \Phi\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \end{aligned}$$

This process of changing a normal random variable to a standard one is known as **standardization**.

☞ The distribution  $\Phi$  can be found in a table of values (see Ross, page 222).

## Example

**Example.** Suppose  $X$  is normally distributed with parameter  $\mu = 10$  and  $\sigma^2 = 9$ . What is  $\mathbf{P}\{4 \leq X \leq 16\}$ .

**Solution.** By standardizing  $X$ :  $Z = (X - 10)/3$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}\{4 \leq X \leq 16\} &= \mathbf{P}\left\{\frac{4 - 10}{3} \leq \frac{X - 10}{3} \leq \frac{16 - 10}{3}\right\} \\ &= \Phi(2) - \Phi(-2) \\ &= 2 \cdot \Phi(2) - 1 \approx 0.9544 \end{aligned}$$

☞ Typically, a table gives only values of  $\Phi(a)$  for  $a > 0$ .

$$\Phi(-a) = 1 - \Phi(a).$$

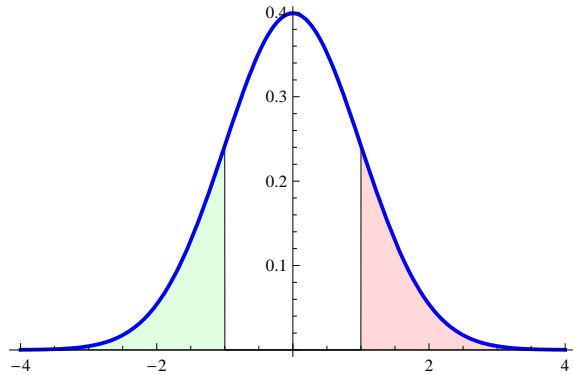
When  $a < 0$ , so that  $-a > 0$ :

$$\Phi(2) = 0.9772 \text{ and } \Phi(-2) = 1 - \Phi(2) = 0.0228.$$

## Symmetry Normal Distribution

☞ The standard normal distribution is symmetric around  $\mu = 0$ .

$$\mathbf{P}\{Z < -1\} = 1 - \mathbf{P}\{Z < 1\} = \mathbf{P}\{1 < Z\}.$$



## Symmetry of Normal Distribution

☞ The normal distribution  $\Phi$  is symmetric about  $\mu = 0$ .

$$\Phi(-a) = 1 - \Phi(a) \quad -\infty < a < \infty.$$

**Reason.** Key is to use change of variables (line 2)

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(-a) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{-t^2/2} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\infty}^a -e^{-(-u)^2/2} du \quad \text{let } u = -t \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_a^{\infty} e^{-u^2/2} du \\ &= \mathbf{P}\{a < Z\} = 1 - \mathbf{P}\{Z \leq a\} \\ &= 1 - \Phi(a). \end{aligned}$$

## Three little facts

☞ This section is dedicated to proving three facts about the standard normal random variable  $Z$ .

- 1  $f_Z(t)$  is a probability density function.
- 2  $E[Z] = 0$ .
- 3  $\text{Var}(Z) = 1$ .

☞ It follows that for any normal random variable  $X$  with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$

- 1  $f_X(t)$  is a probability density function.
- 2  $E[X] = \mu$ .
- 3  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$ .

## Standard density functions

1 Let  $Z$  be the standard r.v. The function

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

is a **probability density function**.

(a). It is clear that  $f_Z(t) \geq 0$  for all real numbers  $t$ .

(b). We must show

$$1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

The problem is that the function  $\int e^{-t^2/2}$  cannot be evaluated in terms of elementary functions, like you can with other familiar functions from Calculus.

## Standard density functions

☞ Instead we compute  $I$ , where

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2},$$

by computing  $I^2$  and converting to double integral form

$$\begin{aligned} I^2 &= \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2/2} du \right) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(t^2+u^2)/2} dt du \end{aligned}$$

☞ Convert to polar coordinates (the sum of squares in the exponents strongly suggest this), using the conversion

$$\begin{aligned} dt du &= r dr d\theta \quad \text{where } 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi, 0 \leq r < \infty \\ r &= \sqrt{t^2 + u^2} \end{aligned}$$

## Standard density functions

$$\begin{aligned} I^2 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(t^2+u^2)/2} dt du \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2/2} r dr d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2/2} r dr \quad s = -r^2/2, ds = -r dr \\ &= 2\pi \left( -e^{-r^2/2} \right) \Big|_0^{\infty} = 2\pi \end{aligned}$$

So,  $I^2 = 2\pi$ , or equivalently  $I = \sqrt{2\pi}$ .

☞ Therefore,

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

## Arbitrary density functions

① For any normal random variable  $X$  with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ ,  $f_X(t)$  is a density function.

☞ We have  $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ ; standardize  $X$  by  $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$ .

$$f_X(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

Since  $\sigma > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad 0 &\leq f_X(t) && -\infty < t < \infty \\ \text{(b)} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(t) dt &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z\left(\frac{t - \mu}{\sigma}\right) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Z(u) du && u = \frac{t - \mu}{\sigma} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Expectation for Standard Normal Distribution

②  $E[Z] = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E[Z] &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} te^{-t^2/2} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -e^u du \quad u = \frac{-t^2}{2} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} \\ &= \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-(-M)^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} - \frac{e^{-M^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right] \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

## Variance for Standard Normal Distribution

②  $Var(Z) = 1$ .

$$Var(Z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^2 e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

Integration by parts with ( $u = t$  and  $dv = te^{-t^2/2}$ ), so  $v = -e^{-t^2/2}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} Var(Z) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left[ -te^{-t^2/2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt = 1 \end{aligned}$$

The second line uses the fact that

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \left[ -\frac{M}{e^{-M^2/2}} - \frac{M}{e^{-(-M)^2/2}} \right] = \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-2M}{e^{M^2/2}} = 0.$$

Examples

### Example: Grading on a curve

Example

Final exams at Podunk U. are constructed so that the distribution of scores is approximately normally distributed, with parameters  $\mu$  (the average score) and  $\sigma$  (the standard deviation from the average). Letter grades are then assigned according to the following chart:

Test Score	Grade
$\mu + \sigma < X$	A
$\mu < X < \mu + \sigma$	B
$\mu - \sigma < X < \mu$	C
$\mu - 2\sigma < X < \mu - \sigma$	D
$X < \mu - 2\sigma$	F

☞ This system of assigning letter grades is called "grading on the curve".

## Arbitrary expectation and variance

☞ For any normal random variable  $X$  with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ ,  
 ②  $E[X] = \mu$  and ③  $Var(X) = \sigma^2$ .

☞ We have  $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ .

Since  $E[Z] = 0$  and  $Var(Z) = 1$ ,

$$E[X] = E[\sigma Z + \mu] = \sigma E[Z] + \mu = \mu$$

$$Var(X) = Var(\sigma Z + \mu) = \sigma^2 Var(Z) = \sigma^2.$$

Examples

### Example: Grading on a curve

☞ Let  $X$  be a normally distributed r.v. with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .  
 By standardization:  $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$ .

$$\mathbf{P}\{\mu + \sigma < X\} = \mathbf{P}\left\{1 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right\} = 1 - \Phi(1) \approx 0.1587$$

$$\mathbf{P}\{\mu < X < \mu + \sigma\} = \mathbf{P}\left\{0 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < 1\right\} = \Phi(1) - \Phi(0) \approx 0.3413$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}\{\mu - \sigma < X < \mu\} &= \mathbf{P}\left\{-1 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < 0\right\} \\ &= \Phi(0) - \Phi(-1) = \Phi(0) + \Phi(1) - 1 \approx 0.3413 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}\{\mu - 2\sigma < X < \mu - \sigma\} &= \mathbf{P}\left\{-2 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < -1\right\} \\ &= \Phi(-2) - \Phi(-1) = \Phi(1) - \Phi(2) \approx 0.1359 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{P}\{X < \mu - 2\sigma\} = \mathbf{P}\left\{\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < -2\right\} = 1 - \Phi(2) = 0.0228$$

The probabilities can be computed from a table for the standard normal curve.