

#### 4.9 Moment-generating functions for Continuous r.v.'s

- Moments and the mgf are defined similarly as in the discrete case.

Defn: If  $Y$  is a continuous r.v., the  $k$ -th moment (about the origin) of  $Y$  is:

Example: (Uniform moments): If  $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 10)$ , find a formula for the  $k$ -th moment of  $Y$ .

Defn: If  $Y$  is a continuous r.v., the mgf of  $Y$  is

if  $m_Y(t)$  exists, i.e., if  $E(e^{tY}) < \infty$  for  $t$  in some open neighborhood  $(-b, b)$  around 0.

- Again,  $E(Y^k) = m_y^{(k)}(0)$  if  $m_y(t)$  exists.
- The proof of this is identical to the proof in the discrete case, with integrals replacing sums for expected values.

## 4.5 The Normal Distribution

- The normal distribution is probably the continuous distribution that is most commonly used as a model in statistics.
- Many real-world data sets follow an approximately normal distribution.
- The normal pdf is defined over the entire real line:

Defn: A r.v.  $Y$  has a normal distribution [Shorthand:  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ] if its pdf is:

where  $\sigma > 0$  and  $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ .

- The normal density is characterized by its "bell" shape:

### Properties of the normal pdf:

(i) The pdf is symmetric about  $\mu$ , i.e., for any real number  $a$ :

(ii)  $f(y)$  has inflection points located at

$$(iii) \lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} f(y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} f(y) =$$

Theorem: The normal pdf is a valid density function.

Proof: Clearly  $f(y) \geq 0$  for all  $y$ .

(In fact,  $f(y) > 0$  for all  $y$ .)

- We must show:

$$\text{Let } I =$$

Letting  $z = \frac{y-\mu}{\sigma}$  so that

Theorem: If  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then the mgf  
of  $Y$  is:

Proof:  $m_Y(t) = E[e^{tY}] =$

Theorem: (Normal mean and variance):  
If  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then:

Proof:

## Finding Normal Probabilities

- If  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , the cdf for  $Y$  is:

but this integral does not exist in closed form.

- Furthermore, any probability  $P(a \leq Y \leq b)$

cannot be found analytically.

- It can be approximated via numerical integration.

- We use software or tables to find such normal probabilities.

Defn: A normal r.v. with mean  $\mu = 0$  and variance  $\sigma^2 = 1$  is called a

r.v.

- We typically denote a  $N(0, 1)$  r.v. by  $Z$ .

Theorem: If  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then the standardized version of  $Y$ ,

has a  $N(0, 1)$  distribution.

Proof:

- The standard normal probabilities  $P(Z > z)$  can be found in Table 4 for various values of  $z$ .
- Note: Table 4 gives upper-tail probabilities for positive  $z$  values.

Picture:

- Probabilities for negative  $z$  values can be found by symmetry:

Example 1: If  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ , find:

$$P(Z > 1.83) =$$

$$P(Z < -0.42)$$

$$P(Z \leq 1.19)$$

$$P(-1.26 < Z \leq 0.35)$$

Note: Using standardization, we can use Table 4 to find probabilities for any normal r.v.

Example 2: A graduating class has GPAs that follow a normal distribution with mean 2.70 and variance 0.16.

- What is the probability a randomly chosen student has a GPA greater than 2.50?

- What is the probability that a random GPA is between 3.00 and 3.50?

- Exactly 5% of students have GPA above what number?

Example 3:  $Y$  is a normal r.v. with  $\sigma = 10$ .  
Find  $\mu$  such that  $P(Y < 70) = 0.75$ .