#### Sections 4.3 and 4.4

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Stat 205: Elementary Statistics for the Biological and Life Sciences

#### 4.3 Areas under normal densities

- Every normal distribution has two parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . These will be given to you in the homework problems.
- A normal random variable with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  is called the **standard normal**, and is denoted Z.
- There is a table of probabilities Pr{Z ≤ z} for fixed values of z in Table 3, pp. 616–617.
- Important relationship between  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  and  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ : if Y is normal with mean  $\mu$  & standard deviation  $\sigma$ ,

$$Z = \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma}$$

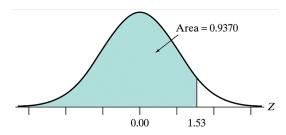
is standard normal, i.e. normal with mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

## Table of standard normal probabilities

- You can get probabilities for any  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  from Table 3 through "standardization."
- Standardizing Y eventually leads to finding probabilities like  $Pr\{Z \le z\}$  in Table 3.
- However, computer packages such as R (and online applets) allow computing  $\Pr\{Y \leq y\}$  directly, so this is the approach I want you to take in homework.
- I'll show you how standardation works anyway, in case you like using tables (and also to explain what the textbook is doing).
- First let's see how to get standard normal  $Z \sim N(0,1)$  probabilities out of the table, and out of R.
- pnorm $(y,\mu,\sigma)$  gives  $\Pr\{Y \leq y\}$  for any  $Y \sim N(\mu,\sigma)$ .

$$\Pr\{Z \le 1.53\} = 0.9370$$

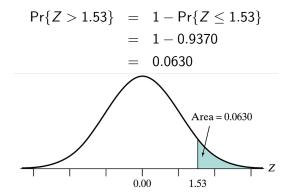
Along the left side of Table 3 find 1.5, then across the top find the column with 0.03. The intersection of the 1.5 row and the 0.03 column gives the probability 0.9370.



#### R code:

> pnorm(1.53,0,1)
[1] 0.9369916

# $Pr{Z > 1.53}$



**Figure 4.3.3** Area under a standard normal curve above 1.53

#### R code:

> 1-pnorm(1.53,0,1) [1] 0.06300836

# $Pr\{-1.2 \le Z \le 0.8\}$

$$Pr\{-1.2 \le Z \le 0.8\}$$
 =  $Pr\{Z \le 0.8\} - Pr\{Z \le -1.2\}$   
=  $0.7881 - 0.1151$   
=  $0.6730$   
Area =  $0.6730$ 

**Figure 4.3.4** Area under a standard normal curve between -1.2 and 0.8

> pnorm(0.8,0,1)-pnorm(-1.2,0,1)
[1] 0.6730749

# $\Pr\{Y \leq a\} \text{ for } Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$

$$\Pr\{Y \le a\} = \Pr\{Y - \mu \le a - \mu\}$$

$$= \Pr\left\{\frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma} \le \frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right\}$$

$$= \Pr\left\{Z \le \underbrace{\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}}_{\text{"z-score"}}\right\}$$

Now use Table 3.

In R, pnorm $(a,\mu,\sigma)$  does the trick without standardizing.

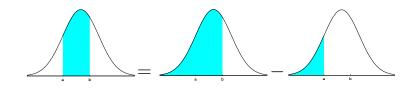
# $\Pr\{Y > a\}$ for $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\{Y > a\} &= 1 - \Pr\{Y \le a\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr\left\{Z \le \frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Now use Table 3.

In R, 1-pnorm( $a, \mu, \sigma$ ).

# Computing $Pr\{a \le Y \le b\}$ from $Pr\{Y \le b\}$ & $Pr\{Y \le a\}$



# $\Pr\{a \leq Y \leq b\}$ for $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$

$$\Pr\{a \le Y \le b\} = \Pr\{Y \le b\} - \Pr\{Y \le a\}$$
$$= \Pr\left\{Z \le \frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right\} - \Pr\left\{Z \le \frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right\}$$

Now use Table 3.

In R, pnorm $(b,\mu,\sigma)$ -pnorm $(a,\mu,\sigma)$ .

# "68/95/99.7" rule

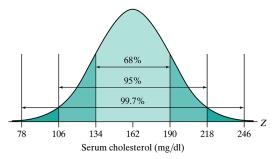
For  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ ,

- $Pr\{\mu \sigma \le Y \le \mu + \sigma\} = 0.68$
- $\Pr\{\mu 2\sigma \le Y \le \mu + 2\sigma\} = 0.95$
- $\Pr\{\mu 3\sigma \le Y \le \mu + 3\sigma\} = 0.997$

This is where the "empirical rule" came from in Chapter 2.

# "68/95/99.7" rule for cholesterol in 12–14 year olds

Recall  $\mu=$  162 mg/dl and  $\sigma=$  28 mg/dl.

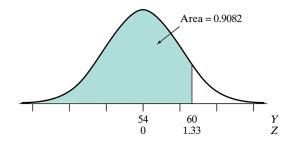


**Figure 4.3.6** The 68/95/99.7 rule and the serum cholesterol distribution

# Example 4.3.1 Herring lengths

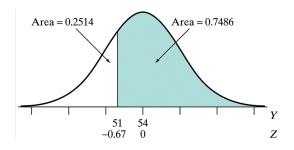
- In a population of herring the lengths of fish are normal with mean  $\mu=54$  mm and  $\sigma=4.5$  mm. Let Y be the length of a randomly selected fish, then  $Y\sim N(54,4.5)$ .
- $\Pr\{Y \le 60\} = \Pr\{Z \le \frac{60-54}{4.5}\} = \Pr\{Z \le 1.33\}$  (next slide).
- $\Pr\{Y > 51\} = \Pr\{Z > \frac{51-54}{4.5}\} = \Pr\{Z > -0.67\} = 1 \Pr\{Z \le -0.67\}.$
- $Pr{51 \le Y \le 60} = Pr{-0.67 \le Z \le 1.33}$ .

# Example 4.3.1(a), $Pr\{Y \le 60\}$



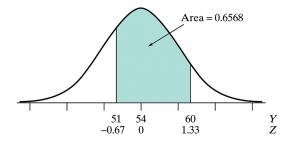
```
> pnorm(60,54,4.5) # using Y ~ N(54,4.5)
[1] 0.9087888
> pnorm(1.33,0,1) # using Z ~ N(0,1)
[1] 0.9082409
```

# Example 4.3.1(b), $Pr\{Y > 51\}$



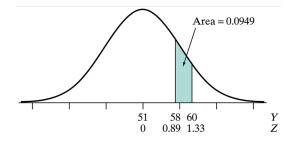
- > 1-pnorm(51,54,4.5) # direct
  [1] 0.7475075
- > 1-pnorm(-0.67,0,1) # using z-score
- [1] 0.7485711

# Example 4.3.1(c), $Pr\{51 \le Y \le 60\}$



```
> pnorm(60,54,4.5)-pnorm(51,54,4.5) # direct
[1] 0.6562962
> pnorm(1.33,0,1)-pnorm(-0.67,0,1) # using z-scores
[1] 0.656812
```

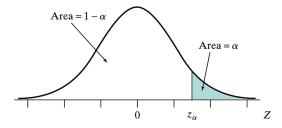
# Example 4.3.1(d), $Pr{58 \le Y \le 60}$



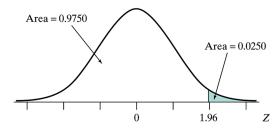
```
> pnorm(60,54,4.5)-pnorm(58,54,4.5) # direct
[1] 0.09582018
> pnorm(1.33,0,1)-pnorm(0.89,0,1) # using z-scores
[1] 0.09497381
```

#### Upper percentile $z_{\alpha}$

 $z_{\alpha}$  is defined so that  $\Pr\{Z > z_{\alpha}\} = \alpha$  where  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ . We'll use this later.



**Figure 4.3.12** Area under the normal curve above  $\alpha$ 



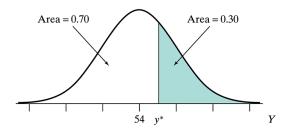
**Figure 4.3.11** Area under the normal curve above 1.96

> qnorm(0.975,0,1)
[1] 1.959964

#### Percentiles

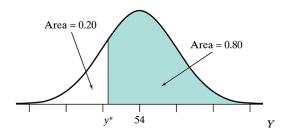
- For  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  the number  $y^*$  such that  $\Pr\{Y \leq y^*\} = p$  is called the p(100)th percentile.
- These numbers are often used in growth charts, or other biomedical applications where reference ranges are needed, i.e. ranges that are "normal."
- You can use Table 3 "in reverse" to get them, but it's easier in R.
- qnorm(p, $\mu$ , $\sigma$ ) gives  $y^*$ .

## 70th percentile for Herring size



70% of all Herring are less than  $y^* = 56.4$  mm.

# 20th percentile for Herring



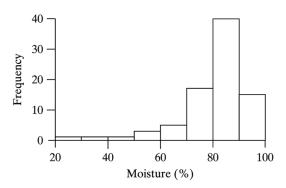
20% of all Herring are *less* than  $y^* = 50.2$  mm. 80% of all Herring are *larger* than 50.2 mm.

#### 4.4 Checking data are normal

- In many procedures coming up (t tests, confidence intervals, linear regression, & ANOVA) the data are assumed to be normal.
- We'll need to check that assumption.
- Given some data  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  we can make a histogram; it should be unimodal and roughly symmetric.
- Your book suggests seeing if data roughly follow the 68/95/99.7 rule. I've never heard of anyone else actually doing this.
- Another option is to make a (modified) boxplot. We expect to see one outlier out of every 150 observations from truly normal data. If we see three or four outliers from a sample of size n = 50, the data are not normal.

## Example 4.4.2 Moisture content in freshwater fruit

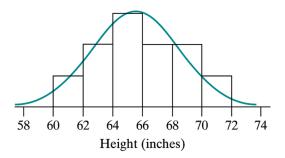
Moisture content was measured in n=83 freshwater fruit. Does the data appear to have come from a normal distribution? Why or why not?



## Normal probability plots

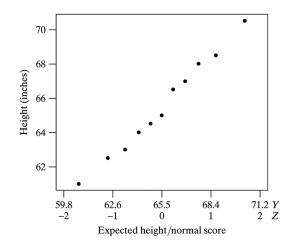
- Another commonly used plot is a normal probability plot or "quantile-quantile" plot.
- $Y_{(1)}, Y_{(2)}, \ldots, Y_{(n)}$  is data sorted from smallest to largest.
- The normal probability plot plots the sorted  $Y_i$ 's against what we'd expect to see from "perfectly" normal data: the percentiles  $z_1, \ldots, z_n$  where  $\Pr\{Z \leq z_i\} = \frac{i}{n+1}$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .
- A computer simply makes a scatterplot of  $(z_1, Y_{(1)}), (z_2, Y_{(2)}), \dots, (z_n, Y_{(n)}).$
- Your book goes into more detail if you're interested.
- These plots will never be perfectly straight due to sampling variability; we're just looking for them to be not totally curved.

## Histogram of heights of n = 11 women



Histogram with normal density using  $\sigma=s=2.9$  inches and  $\mu=\bar{y}=65.5$  inches. The plot looks okay, but the sample size is pretty small. Let's look at a normal probability plot...

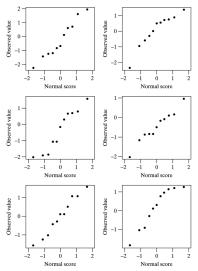
## Quantile-Quantile plot of 11 women



The plot is quite straight. The data matches what we'd expect from normal data.

## Normal probability plots for normal data (n = 11)

They're never perfect, but all reasonably straight.



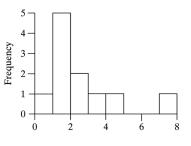
## Try it yourself...

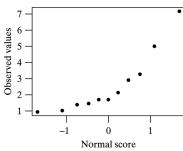
In R type qqnorm(rnorm(11)) Enter  $\uparrow$  over and over again. Try sample sizes of 50 and 100 too.

In general, if your data set is called, e.g. heights, just type qqnorm(heights) in R to get the normal probability plot.

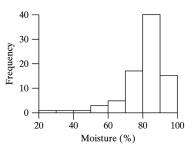
If data are not normal, the plot will be non-linear. Let's see some examples.

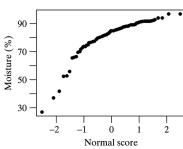
### Data that are skewed right





#### Data that are skewed left





#### Data with tails fatter than normal

