

Advanced Engineering Mathematics
Prof. Somesh Kumar
Department of Mathematics
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Lecture No. #37
Special Continuous Distributions

In the previous lecture, I have introduced some special discrete distributions. And in fact, three of the distributions were related to the Bernoulli trials that is binomial distribution, geometric, and negative binomial distributions. Then, I introduced the concept of Poisson process, and the distribution is obtained through a limiting process, and by setting of the differential equations.

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Lecture 36
Special Continuous Distributions

Negative Exponential Distribution

Consider a Poisson process with rate α ($\alpha > 0$). Let Y be the time till the first occurrence starting from time 0.

$Y \rightarrow$ continuous r.v.

$P(Y > y) = P(X(y) = 0) = \begin{cases} e^{-\alpha y}, & y > 0 \\ 1, & y \leq 0 \end{cases}$

\downarrow
no occur in $(0, y]$

$F(y) = 1 - P(Y > y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\alpha y}, & y > 0 \end{cases}$

Now, I will introduce certain special continuous distributions; the first one of them is known as the exponential or negative exponential distribution. So, let us go back to our earlier discussion, I have introduced a Poisson process. So, let us consider, now if you remember the Poisson process we had a parameter called alpha there which was actually the constant of proportionality; that means, we said that probability of a single occurrence during a small time interval is proportional to the length of the time interval. So, we read that if the interval of this length h , then the probability of one occurrence in

that interval is equal to something like αh . So, this α is the constant of proportionality; that is called the rate of the Poisson process or the rate of or arrival or rate of occurrence in a Poisson process.

So, consider a Poisson process with rate say α now of course, this α has to be positive. Let us consider let X sorry x . We already use the notation for the number of occurrences. So, let us use another notation let Y be the time till the first occurrence. So, starting from time zero; that means, we start observing a Poisson process and we wait till the first occurrence is observed and we denote Y . This is the Poisson process here this is the time 0 and this is the time Y where the first occurrence is occurred; that means, between 0 to Y there is no occurrence, now naturally this Y is different than the number of occurrences the number of occurrences is a discrete random variable because it was taking values 0, 1, 2, and so on.

Now we are looking at the time. So, Y is the continuous random variable. Now let us find out the distribution of, what is the distribution of Y ? Let us look at, say probability of Y greater than say small y that is equal to probability of X of y is equal to 0, because if Y is greater than y ; that means, there is no occurrence in the interval 0 to y which is equivalent to X of y is equal to 0. Now what is the distribution of X of y ? That is the Poisson distribution with parameter αy . So, this is becoming e to the power minus αy . Of course, this is for y greater than 0. If y is less than 0, then this will be equal to 1. See if you consider the cumulative distribution function of y , that is 1 minus probability Y greater than y then it is equal to 0 for y less than are equal to 0 it is equal to 1 minus e to the power minus αy for y greater than 0.

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Differentiating F wrt y , we get the pdf of Y

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \alpha e^{-\alpha y}, & y > 0 \\ 0, & y \leq 0. \end{cases} \quad \text{Negative exponential dist.}$$

$$\mu'_k = E(Y^k) = \int_0^{\infty} y^k \cdot \alpha e^{-\alpha y} dy = \frac{k!}{\alpha^k}, \quad k=1,2,\dots$$

$$\mu'_1 = E(Y) = \frac{1}{\alpha}, \quad \mu'_2 = \frac{2}{\alpha^2}, \quad \text{Var}(Y) = \frac{2}{\alpha^2} - \left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{\alpha^2}$$

$$\mu_3 = \frac{2}{\alpha^3}, \quad \mu_4 = \frac{9}{\alpha^4}$$

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\mu_3}{\mu_1^3} = \frac{2/\alpha^3}{1/\alpha^3} = 2 > 0$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} - 3 = \frac{9/\alpha^4}{4/\alpha^4} - 3 = 6 > 0$$

A small graph of the pdf $f_Y(y)$ is shown, illustrating a right-skewed distribution.

Now in the case of continuous random variable if we differentiate the cumulative distribution function we will get the probability density function. So, we get differentiating capital F with respect to y we get the probability density function of y . That is equal to $f_Y(y)$ is equal to $\alpha e^{-\alpha y}$ for y greater than 0 that is 0 for y less than or equal to zero. So, this is called the exponential. And since, there is exponent as the negative term this actually called a negative exponential distribution. The moment structure of this is quite simple if you can write down μ'_k that is expectation of Y to the power k that is equal to y to the power k $\alpha e^{-\alpha y}$ dy from 0 to infinity, now this is nothing, but a gamma function. The values simply equal to k factorial divided by α to the power k for k equal to 1, 2, and so on. So, we get the mean that is equal to $1/\alpha$.

Let us look at physical interpretation of this, if the Poisson process has the arrival rate α that is the rate of occurrence is α then the waiting time for the first occurrence is $1/\alpha$. So, it is something like saying that you can say rate is 1 in 3 minutes.

So, the waiting time then will be 3 minutes for the first occurrence, the expected waiting time. Let us consider say μ'_2 then that will become $2/\alpha^2$ and therefore, variance of Y that will be equal to $2/\alpha^2$ minus $(1/\alpha)^2$ that is equal to $1/\alpha^2$. So, in the case of exponential distribution the variance is square of the mean. One may also calculate... Of course, plotting of the distribution is

very simple because $\alpha e^{-\alpha y}$ at $y=0$ the value is equal to α . And thereafter, because $e^{-\alpha y}$ is the decreasing function. So, it will decrease. So, this is the... Naturally you can see this is a skew distribution positively skewed distribution. We can actually calculate μ_3 that is 2 by α^3 and μ_4 is equal to 9 by α^4 . So, the measure of the skewness, that is equal to 2 by α^3 divided by 1 by α^3 that is equal to 2 which is positive. So, it is always positively skewed. In fact, this is free from the parameter α similarly if you look at β_2 that is the measure of kurtosis 9 by α^4 divided by 1 by α^4 minus 3 that is equal to 6 that is also positive.

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Memoryless Property of Exponential Distⁿ.

$$P(Y > s+t) = e^{-\alpha(s+t)}$$

$$P(Y > s+t | Y > t) = \frac{P(Y > s+t) \cap (Y > t)}{P(Y > t)}$$

$$= \frac{P(Y > s+t)}{P(Y > t)} = \frac{e^{-\alpha(s+t)}}{e^{-\alpha t}} = e^{-\alpha s} = P(Y > s)$$

$$M_Y(t) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{ty} \cdot \alpha e^{-\alpha y} dy = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - t}, \quad t < \alpha.$$

Shifted Exponential Distⁿ.

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)}{\sigma}}, \quad y > \mu, \quad \sigma > 0.$$

$$E(Y-\mu)^k = k! \sigma^k, \quad k=1,2,\dots$$

So, the peak is higher than the normal peaking that we are having for the exponential distribution. Now like the geometric distribution this exponential distribution is also having a property which is called the memory less property of the exponential distribution.

Memory less property of exponential distribution, let us consider say probability of Y greater than say s plus t then naturally this is equal to $e^{-\alpha(s+t)}$. If you consider probability of Y greater than s plus t given Y is greater than say t that is equal to probability of Y greater than s plus t intersection Y greater than t divided by probability Y greater than t , that is equal to probability of Y greater than s plus t divided

by probability Y greater than t , because in the numerator this event is the subset of this event. Now according to the formula that we have it will be equal to e to the power minus αs plus t divided by e to the power minus αt . That is equal to e to the power minus αt plus αs . Now this is nothing but probability of Y greater than s . So, what we have proved? That probability of Y greater than s is same as probability of Y greater than s plus t given Y is equal to greater than t . Now the right hand side denotes, that the waiting time is more than s ; that means, starting from time 0; that means, when we are starting to observe the Poisson process the probability of first occurrence not being there till time s . And this one if you look at, this is starting from time t , because till time t the first occurrence is not there. What is the probability that we need additional s time? Because we it is going up to s plus t it is the same as starting from 0; that means, say starting point does not matter this is called the memory less property of the exponential distribution.

We also calculate the moment generating function of the exponential distribution here. It is e to power $t y$ e to the power that will become α by α minus t for t less than α . Many times in the Poisson process we do not start from the time 0 or otherwise start from a non negative time α or time a for example, now this is something like, suppose we are considering any process or say a washing machine is working and we are looking for the failure that is when the system will fail, now the system will fail at any time; however, at many times there is a hidden guarantee given that it will not fail before a given time say 1 hour, it will not fail before 1 month or it will not fail before 1 year when we purchase a product there is a guarantee given there. And therefore, the distribution point will be starting after that. So, this is known as the shifted exponential distribution, **shifted exponential distribution**. Here we can write the distribution as say I am writing a more general form 1 by σ e to the power $-\frac{y - \mu}{\sigma}$ where y is greater than μ and here of course, σ is positive. So, whatever moments of y we are there the same thing will be true for its moments of Y minus μ ; that means, in general we will have expectation of Y minus μ to the power k equal to k factorial into σ to the power k . For example, expectation of Y will become μ plus σ , variance will become twice σ square.

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Example: A small industrial unit has 20 machines whose lifetimes are independent exponentially distd. with mean 100 months. If all machines are under use at a time, find the prob. that even after 200 months at least 2 machines are working.

Sol.ⁿ $X \rightarrow$ life in months of a machine
 $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda = 1/100)$
 $P(X > 200) = e^{-200/100} = e^{-2}$

Let $Y \rightarrow$ no. of machines working after 200 months
 Then $Y \sim \text{Bin}(20, e^{-2})$

$$P(Y \geq 2) = 1 - P(Y=0) - P(Y=1) = 0.7746$$

$$= 1 - \binom{20}{0} (e^{-2})^0 (1 - e^{-2})^{20} - \binom{20}{1} e^{-2} (1 - e^{-2})^{19}$$

Let me give an example of exponential distribution here, a small industrial unit has 20 machines whose life times are independent exponentially distributed with mean 100 months if all machines are under use at a time. Find the probability that even after 200 months at least 2 machines are working. So, let us consider say X is the life in months of a machine. Then it given that X follows exponential distribution with parameter that is means is... Here alpha is equal to 1 by 100 that is mean is 100, because in the exponential distribution the mean was 1 by alpha. So, alpha is equal to 1 by 100 because the mean is 100 here. So, what is the probability that machine is working up to after 200 months. So, it is probability X greater than 200. So, in the exponential distribution we have seen it is equal to e to the power minus alpha y. So, it is equal to e to the power minus 200 by 100 that is equal to e to the power minus 2.

Now let us define another random variable Y is the number of machines working after 200 months, then y will follow binomial 20 e to the power minus 2. So, we want that at least 2 machines are working. So, probability Y greater than are equal to 2 that is equal to 1 minus probability Y is equal to 0 and probability Y is equal to 1. So, based on this binomial distribution we can evaluate it turns out to be 0.7746, because this is equal to actually 20 say 0 e to the power minus 2 to the power 0 actually 1 minus e to the power minus 2 to the power 20 minus 20 say 1 e to the power minus 2 1 minus e to the power minus 2 e to the power 19.

So, after evaluation this value transfer to be this. Now in a Poisson process in place of the first occurrence we observe r th occurrence. Once again it is a generalization like in the Bernoullian trials in place of the first success we look at the first time r th success is observed.

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Suppose in a Poisson process with rate λ , let Z denote the time till the r th occurrence.

$$P(Z > z) = P(X(z) \leq r-1)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{e^{-\lambda z} (\lambda z)^j}{j!}, & z > 0 \\ 1, & z \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$F_Z(z) = \begin{cases} 0, & z \leq 0 \\ 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{e^{-\lambda z} (\lambda z)^j}{j!}, & z > 0 \end{cases}$$

So, in a similar way suppose in a Poisson process with the rate **lambda** let α let say z denote the time till the r th occurrence. Then we want the distribution of z . what is the distribution of z ? So, we again consider in the similar way as probability z greater than z that is equal to... Now in a Poisson process see this is the time z till this time r occurrences have not occur that is r th occurrence is occurring after this; that means, within this portion not more than r minus 1 occurrences will take place. So, this is equal to probability of X of z less than are equal to r minus one. This is equal to e to the power minus αz αz to the power j by j factorial summation j is equal to 0 to r minus 1 of course, here z has to be positive if z is negative then this probability going to be 1. So, the cumulative distribution function of z then turns out to be 0 for z less than are equal to 0 it is equal to 1 minus σ j is equal to 0 to r minus 1 e to the power minus αz αz to the power j by j factorial for z greater than 0.

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Differentiating F w.r.t z , we get the pdf of Z as

$$f_z(z) = 1 - \frac{d}{dz} \left[e^{-\alpha z} + (\alpha z) e^{-\alpha z} + \frac{(\alpha z)^2}{2!} e^{-\alpha z} + \dots + \frac{(\alpha z)^{r-1}}{(r-1)!} e^{-\alpha z} \right]$$

$$= 1 - \left[-\alpha e^{-\alpha z} + \alpha e^{-\alpha z} - \alpha^2 z e^{-\alpha z} + \alpha^2 z e^{-\alpha z} - \dots - \frac{\alpha^r z^{r-1}}{(r-1)!} e^{-\alpha z} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\alpha^r}{\Gamma(r)} e^{-\alpha z} z^{r-1}, \quad z > 0, \quad r > 0$$

↓ Erlang or Gamma distⁿ.

$$E(Z^k) = \frac{\Gamma(r+1) \dots (r+k-1)}{\alpha^k}, \quad E(Z) = \frac{r}{\alpha}, \quad V(Z) = \frac{r}{\alpha^2}$$

$$M_Z(t) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha - t} \right)^r, \quad t < \alpha$$

If you differentiate this cumulative distribution function we will get the probability density function of this random variable z . Differentiating capital F with respect to z we get the P d f of z as f_z . Now you look at this term here this contains r terms and each term has a product e to the power minus αz plus αz to the power j . So, when you differentiate you will get two terms at each time. We write it in a sequential fashion, it is equal to 1 minus d by dz e to the power minus αz plus αz into e to the power minus αz plus αz square by two factorial e to the power minus αz and so on plus αz to the power r minus 1 e to the power minus αz by r minus 1 factorial, this is equal to 1 minus...

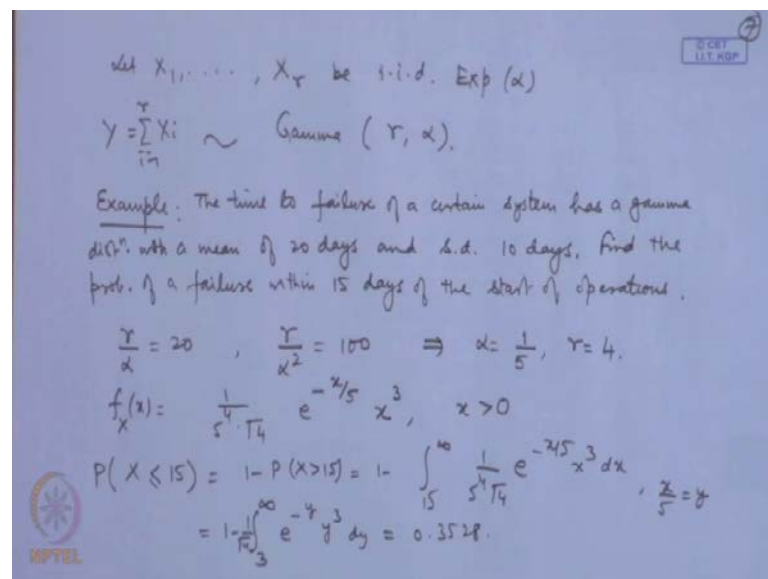
Now if you differentiate this we get minus αe to the power minus αz . If you differentiate this 1 the first term if I differentiate I will get α . So, I get plus αe to the power minus αz and notice here that this term is same as this term and they cancel out. When you differentiate this will get minus α is square $z e$ to the power minus αz . Here you get α square z is square. So, when you differentiate will get twice and this twice will cancel with this will get plus α square $z e$ to the power minus αz once again notice that this term and this term are the same with different size. So, they will be getting cancelled out. So, like that all the successive term will cancelled out each other and we will be left with the last term that is equal to minus α to the power $r z$ to the power of r minus 1 e to the power minus αz by r minus 1 factorial. This is equal to α^r divided by r minus 1 factorial which we write as

gamma r e to the power minus alpha z to the power r minus 1, here z is positive. This is known as Erlang or Gamma distribution.

A Gamma distribution has been derived as the waiting time till the r th occurrence in a Poisson process. If you notice the integral of this because it is a gamma function it will become 1, but you notice here that when we have derived this distribution I have considered r to be an integer, but even if r is any positive real number this distributional form is valid therefore, generalized form of the Gamma distribution will be when r is any positive real number here. Now the moment structure of the Gamma distribution is quite simple, because it will use the moments the gamma function here.

Let me give the expressions for the moment structure here. We will have expectation of z to the power k as equal to r into r plus 1 and so on up to r plus k minus 1 divided by alpha to the power k , expectation of z then turns out to be r by alpha variance of z will be equal to r by alpha square and in general positively skewed distribution the moment generating function of z will be equal to alpha by alpha minus t to the power r for t less than alpha. Notice here, the moment generating function of exponential distribution was alpha by alpha minus t and this is power r . So, that immediately suggest that the sum of independent exponential variables will be gamma.

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Let X_1, \dots, X_r be i.i.d. $\text{Exp}(\alpha)$

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^r X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \alpha)$$

Example: The time to failure of a certain system has a gamma distⁿ with a mean of 20 days and s.d. 10 days. Find the prob. of a failure within 15 days of the start of operations.

$$\frac{r}{\alpha} = 20, \quad \frac{r}{\alpha^2} = 100 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{5}, \quad r = 4.$$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{5^4 \Gamma_4} e^{-x/5} x^3, \quad x > 0$$

$$P(X \leq 15) = 1 - P(X > 15) = 1 - \int_{15}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^4 \Gamma_4} e^{-x/5} x^3 dx, \quad \frac{x}{5} = y$$

$$= 1 - \int_3^{\infty} e^{-y} y^3 dy = 0.3528.$$

Let me write this additive property that let X_1, X_2, X_r be i i d exponential alpha variables, then $\sum_{i=1}^r X_i$ is equal to Y that will follow a gamma

distribution with parameters r , and α . Once again this can be explained in a physical setting, X_1 can be consider as the waiting time for the first occurrence in a Poisson process. X_2 can be observed as number of first occurrence in a Poisson process. X_r can be consider as the waiting time for the first occurrence in a Poisson process.

Now if you consider X_1 plus X_2 plus X_r then you are looking at the time between 0 to t . So, it will become the first time r th occurrence in a Poisson process and therefore, this will become simply the Gamma distribution, that is also confirmed by the m g f approach or the moment generating function calculation that one can do here.

Let me give example here, the time to failure of a certain system has a Gamma distribution with a mean of 20 days and standard deviation 10 days. Find the probability of a failure within 15 days of the start of operations. Here we are having r by α that is equal to 20 because mean of a Gamma distribution is r by α , the variance is 100, variance of a gamma is r by 1 by square that is 100. If I take the ratio here I get here α is equal to this implies α is equal to 1 by 5 and r will be equal to 4 . So, the distribution of this random variable will become α to the power r that is 1 by 5 to the power 4 $\gamma_4 e$ to the power minus x by 5 x to the power 4 minus 1 , that is 3 for x greater than 0 . So, this is the distribution here we wanted the probability of the system failing within 15 days.

So, that is equal to 1 minus probability x greater than 15 that is equal to 1 minus integral 15 to infinity 1 by 5 , now in this one we can substitute x by 5 is equal to say y then it will give 1 minus 3 to infinity e to the power minus y cube and 1 by $\gamma_4 d y$, now this can be evaluated using integration by parts actually it is an incomplete gamma function and the value turns out to be 0.3528 . Now this also suggest that if α is common the Gamma distribution also act to another gamma variable suppose we have $\gamma_{r_1 \alpha}$ and $\gamma_{r_2 \alpha}$ independent variables, then if we add them then that will be having $\gamma_{r_1 + r_2 \alpha}$.

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Normal Distribution: A continuous r.v. X is said to have a normal distribution with parameters μ and σ^2 if it has pdf given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma > 0.$$

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

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} dz = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} dz, \quad \frac{z^2}{2} = t$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t}}{\sqrt{t}} dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1.$$

Now you proceed to another important distribution, that is the normal distribution. A continuous random variable X is set to have a normal distribution with parameters μ and σ^2 , if it has probability density function given by $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$, here x is any real number, μ is any real number and σ is a positive real number.

Now first of all let us look at the properties of this distribution and then I will explain how the distribution is obtained in the physical situations. Let us, firstly, consider whether it is a valid probability density function.

So, we have $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$, let us substitute $x - \mu = \sigma z$ that is $1/\sigma dx = dz$ this is from minus infinity to infinity when the range of x from minus infinity to infinity σ is positive. Therefore, z will also vary from minus infinity to infinity. So, this will become equal to minus infinity to infinity $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}$. Now notice here this function is an even function and this integral is a convergent proper integral. So, this becomes 2 times 0 to infinity $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} dz$.

Now in this region I can make a substitution $z^2/2 = t$ that is $z = \sqrt{2t}$ equal to $\sqrt{2t}$ to the power half or $dz = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} dt$. So, this integral then turns out to be twice integral 0 to infinity $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} dt$.

t. Now this you simplify this is turning out to be simply 1 by root pi 0 to infinity t to the power half minus 1 e to the power minus t d t this is nothing, but gamma half. Now gamma half is would be... So, this cancelled out you get one. So, this is evaluating probability density function now what I have also described during this process is a procedure for solving the integral? Which involve this probability density function of this form. So, we generally make this kind of transformation that is x minus mu by sigma is equal to z and z is square by 2 is equal to t. Now let me give you the moment is structure of the normal distribution.

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The image shows a handwritten derivation of the central moments of a normal distribution. It starts with the formula for the r-th central moment, $E(X-\mu)^r$, which is an integral from negative infinity to positive infinity of $(x-\mu)^r \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2} dx$. This is then transformed using the substitution $z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$, leading to $E(X-\mu)^r = \frac{\sigma^r}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z^r e^{-z^2/2} dz$. It notes that for odd values of r (r = 2m+1), the integral is zero because the integrand is an odd function. For even values of r (r = 2m), the integral is non-zero and is calculated as $E(X-\mu)^{2m} = \frac{\sigma^{2m}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z^{2m} e^{-z^2/2} dz = (2m-1)(2m-3)\dots 5 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 \cdot \sigma^{2m}$. The derivation also states that $E(X-\mu) = 0 \Rightarrow E(X) = \mu$, which is the mean of the normal distribution, and that all odd ordered central moments of a normal distribution vanish.

Let us consider expectation of say x minus mu to the power say r then that is equal to integral of x minus mu to the power r 1 by sigma root 2 pi e to the power minus 1 by 2 sigma is square x minus mu is square d x. Now I will not be considering this transformation again and again I will be just substituting this value that is x minus mu by sigma equal to z and 1 by sigma d x equal to d z and then there is square by 2 is equal to t.

So, if you carryout this transformation this will become sigma to the power r by root 2 pi because x minus mu by sigma is equal to z. So, x minus mu is equal to sigma z. So, this becomes sigma to the power r z to the power r e to the power minus z is squared by 2 d z minus infinity to infinity. Immediately you can notice here that, whenever r is an r integer this value is going to be 0. So, if r is equal to of the form 2 m plus 1 for m is

equal to 0,1,2 and so on. Then I will get expectation of x minus μ to the power $2m$ plus 1 is equal to 0; that means, in particular if I write m is equal to 0 I get expectation of x minus μ is equal to 0; that means, expectation of x equal to μ ; that means, μ is denoting the mean of the normal distribution that is the parameter which I specified as μ while defining the normal distribution is actually the mean of the distribution. And therefore, this expression represent central moments.

So, what we have proved? That all odd ordered central moments of a normal distribution vanish. Now when r is equal to of the form $2m$, then this expression can be simplified as say σ to the power $2m$. So, now then this expression become simply μ of $2m$ because it is the $2m$ the central moment root 2π minus infinity to infinity z to the power $2m$ e to the power minus z is squared by 2 dz , now you notice that this is an even function.

So, you can make it 2 time this term and then again substitute z is square by 2 term and after simplification this term will be evaluated as equal to twice m minus 1 twice m minus 3 and so on 5, 3, 1 σ to the power 2, in particular if I substitute m is equal to 1 that is μ_2 that is variance of X that will be equal to σ^2 .

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$\mu_2 = \text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$
 $\mu_4 = 3\sigma^4$
 Median = μ
 Mode = μ
 $\beta_1 = 0, \beta_2 = \frac{3\sigma^4}{\sigma^4} - 3 = 0$
 $M_X(t) = E(e^{tx}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2} dx = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$
 $Y = aX + b$
 $M_Y(t) = e^{bt} M_X(at) = e^{bt} e^{a\mu t + \frac{1}{2}a^2\sigma^2 t^2}$
 $= e^{(a\mu+b)t + \frac{1}{2}(a^2\sigma^2)t^2}$
 $Y \sim N(a\mu+b, a^2\sigma^2)$ Linearity Property of Normal Dist.

So, once again we specify the parameter of the normal distribution σ^2 is denoting actually it is variance. So, the parameters μ and σ^2 which we use for a specifying the probability density function or actually the mean and variance in the

case of normal distribution. Now we can also calculate μ_4 μ_4 will become equal to $3\sigma^4$ to the power 4. Now let us look at the measures of the (μ_4) and kurtosis.

So, certainly since odd order moments are 0 μ_3 is zero. So, β_1 is 0 and β_2 is also equal to 0 because it is $3\sigma^4$ to the power 4 divided by σ^4 to the power 4 minus 3 μ_4 when you defined the measure of kurtosis or (μ_4) we defined it has the μ_4 by μ_2^2 square minus 3.

So, for the normal distribution the peak is called normal peak. If you plot the distribution it say symmetric curve around μ the median is also μ the mode is also μ because the highest values also attended this point and it is perfectly symmetric around this point. Let us look at the moment generating function of this distribution. So, that is equal to minus infinity to infinity e^{tx} and then $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}$ $e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$ dx, now this tx term I can adjust with this and after adjustment this can be simplified then the turns out to be $e^{t\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$, now using this one can proof the linearity property of a normal distribution that If I say Y follows $aX + b$, then let us consider the moment generating function of Y then this is equal to e^{bt} and moment generating function of X at at .

So, it becomes $e^{bt} e^{a\mu t + \frac{1}{2}a^2\sigma^2 t^2}$ that is equal to $e^{a\mu t + b t + \frac{1}{2}a^2\sigma^2 t^2}$. So, this is nothing, but the moment generating function of a normal distribution with mean $a\mu + b$ and variance $a^2\sigma^2$. This proves the linearity property of the normal distribution **linearity property of normal distribution.**

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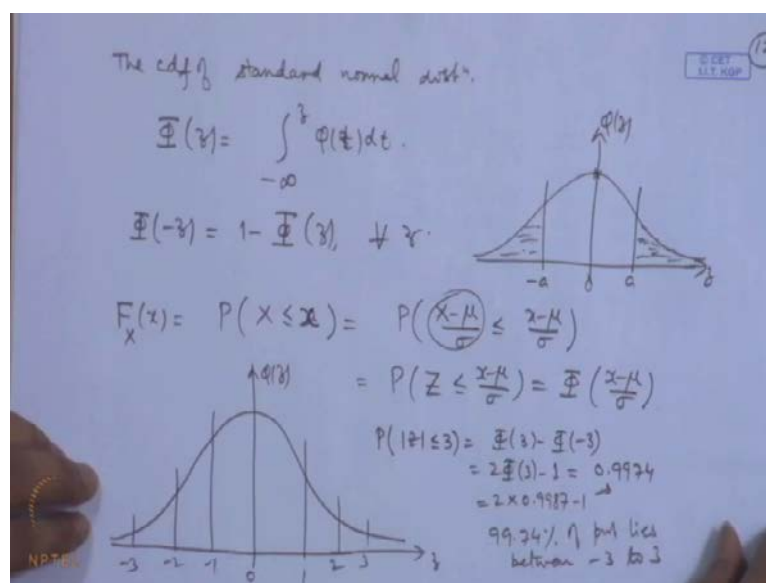
Handwritten notes on a whiteboard:

- X_1, \dots, X_n indep^t
- $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i X_i + b_i) \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i \mu_i + b_i), \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2\right)$
- $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$ is called standard normal distributions.
- The pdf of standard normal distⁿ
 $\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}$, $\phi(-z) = \phi(z)$

In fact, the linearity property of normal distribution is valid for several normal distribution also if I say that say X_1, X_2, X_n are independent and say X_i follows normal with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2 .

Then if I consider $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i + b_i$ is equal to 1 to n, then that will again have a normal distribution with mean $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i + b_i$ and variance $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$. This type of property is true for the normal distribution. Now let us consider this if X follows normal μ, σ^2 then by linearity property if I consider $X - \mu$ by σ then that will follow normal 0 1 this is called standard normal distribution **this is called standard normal distribution.**

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So, the probability density function of standard normal distribution is $\phi(z)$ we use a notation $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}$, naturally you have $\phi(-z)$ is equal to $\phi(z)$. And the cumulative distribution function **the cumulative distribution function** of standard normal distribution, that is denoted by capital Φ of z that is equal to $\int_{-\infty}^z \phi(t) dt$. And you have $\phi(-z)$ is equal to $1 - \phi(z)$ for all z . So, this is say a small ϕ of z it achieves maximum at 0 it is symmetric. So, at say minus a and plus a and if I consider the probability to this point this is same as the probability up to this point beyond this point. So, in any region symmetric region around 0 suppose I consider minus a to minus b and here a to b then they will also be same.

So, if I consider say the cdf of X , that is probability of X less than are equal to small x then that is equal to probability of $X - \mu$ by σ less than are equal to small $x - \mu$ by σ now this is nothing, but z . So, this is becoming z less than are equal to $x - \mu$ by σ . So, that is equal to ϕ of $x - \mu$ by σ . Therefore, any probability statement of a general normal distribution can be evaluated in terms of the cumulative distribution function of a standard normal random variable, the tables of standard normal distribution are widely available in almost all the text books and also the **statistical table** books of a statistical tables. The tables of standard normal distribution have been given.

Let me explain through some examples here, this is the 0 this is z this is phi of z if we consider say minus 3 to 3 minus 2 to 2 and minus 1 to 1 let us consider this 3 points and we can see here that what is the probability of modulus z less than are equal to 3? That is equal to phi of 3 minus phi of minus 3 that is twice phi of 3 minus 1 that is equal to 0.9974 because if you look at phi of 3 then from the tables of the normal distribution, I will demonstrate here this is the table of standard normal distribution here.

So, on this side they are showing z and on this side phi z is tabulated here. If you see 3 correspondence to 3 the value is 0.9987. So, if you see this twice into 0.9987 minus 1 this is equal to 0.9974; that means, 99.74 percent of probability lies between minus 3 to 3 if we convert this to a general normal distribution this will translate to the statement that in a general normal distribution 99.74 percent of observations lie in mu minus 3 sigma to mu plus 3 sigma.

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In a general normal distⁿ 99.74% of obs lie in $\mu - 3\sigma$ to $\mu + 3\sigma$ (3σ limits)

$$P(|Z| \leq 2) = 2\Phi(2) - 1 = 2 \times 0.9772 - 1 = 0.9544 \quad 95.44\% \text{ lie in } -2, 2$$

$$P(|Z| \leq 1) = 2\Phi(1) - 1 = 2 \times 0.8413 - 1 = 0.6826 \quad 68.26\% \text{ lie in } \mu - \sigma \text{ to } \mu + \sigma$$

Example . The specifications for the diameter of the upper end of chalk pieces are set at 3.0 ± 0.01 cm. The diameter had a normal distⁿ with mean 3 cm & s.d. 0.005 cm. What % of chalk pieces will be declared defective?

So, these are called 3 sigma limits. Similarly, if you consider modulus z less than are equal to 2 then that is twice phi 2 minus 1 and phi 2 if you see from the tables of the normal distribution it is 0.9772. So, this is equal to twice into 0.9772 minus 1 that is equal to that is 95.44 percent of the observations lie in minus 2 to 2 or mu minus 2 sigma to mu plus 2 sigma.

Similarly, if I look at z less than are equal to 1 twice phi 1 minus 1 that is equal to twice 0.8413 minus 1 that is equal to that is 68.26 percent of the probability lies in mu minus

sigma to mu plus sigma. So, the normal distribution is heavily concentrated near the mean.

Let me do one example here, the specifications for the diameter of the upper end of chalk pieces are set as 3.0 plus minus 0.01 centimeter the diameter has a normal distribution with mean 3 centimeter and standard deviation 0.005 centimeter. What proportion of chalk pieces will be declared defective?

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten calculations for the probability of defective items. The calculations are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{defective}) &= P(X > 3.01) + P(X < 2.99) \\ &= 1 - P(2.99 \leq X \leq 3.01) \\ &= 1 - P\left(-2 \leq \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \leq 2\right) \\ &= 1 - 0.9544 = 0.0456 \\ &= 4.56\% \text{ defective items.} \end{aligned}$$

Parameters noted on the right: $\mu = 3$, $\sigma = 0.005$. A small box in the top right corner contains the text "Q. 14" and "14".

So, the proportion that will be declared defective that will be given by, that it is X is greater than 3.01 or X is less than 2.99 that is 1 minus probability 2.99 less than X less than 3.01. Now this you can shift to standard normal, here μ is equal to 3 and σ is equal to 0.005.

So, if you do this, we will get twice minus twice here that is equal to 1 minus, now this probability we just now calculated that was equal to 0.9544 that is equal to 0.0456. So, that is 4.56 percent defective items are there.

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Limiting Distributions

Let $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$. If $n \rightarrow \infty, p \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow np = \lambda$,
then the distribution of X is approximated by $P(\lambda)$.

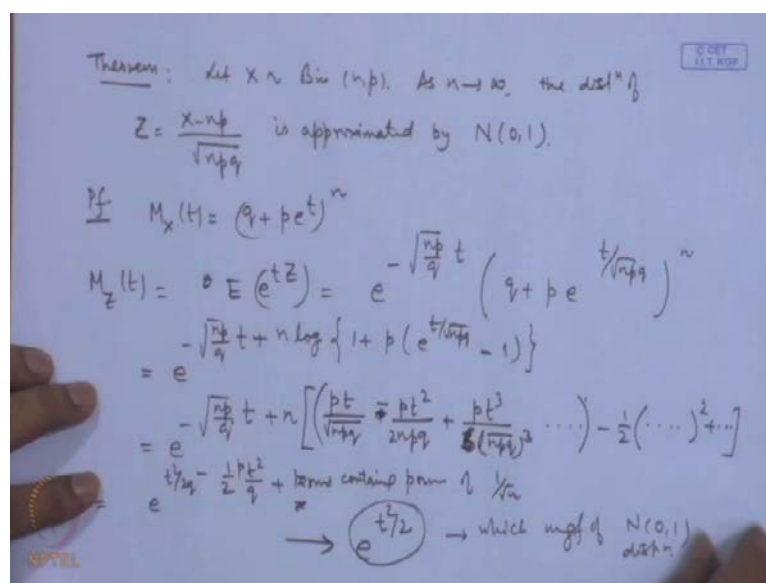
Pf. $M_X(t) = (q + pe^t)^n$ $p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$
 $= (1 - p + pe^t)^n$
 $= \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{n}(e^t - 1)\right]^n \rightarrow e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$
which is mgf of $P(\lambda)$

Now I give some, limiting distributions first result here is that, let X follows a binomial n P distribution if n goes to infinity P goes to 0 such that $n P$ is equal to λ then the distribution of X is approximated by Poisson λ .

Let us prove this, if we consider the distribution of X and that is binomial $n p$. So, let me consider the moment generating function it is equal to q plus $P e$ to the power t whole to the power n . This we write as 1 minus P plus $P e$ to the power t whole to the power n you have $n P$ is equal to λ . So, we can write P is equal to λ by n .

So, this becomes 1 plus λ by $n e$ to the power t minus 1 whole to the power n , here if I take the limit as intensity infinity this will go to e to the power λ e to the power t minus 1 , which is m g f of Poisson λ distribution this is as n tends to infinity. So, the distribution is the approximated by Poisson λ .

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Theorem: Let $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, the distⁿ of $Z = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{npq}}$ is approximated by $N(0, 1)$.

Proof: $M_X(t) = (q + pe^t)^n$

$$M_Z(t) = E(e^{tZ}) = e^{-\sqrt{\frac{np}{q}}t} \left(q + pe^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{npq}}} \right)^n$$

$$= e^{-\sqrt{\frac{np}{q}}t + n \log \left\{ 1 + p \left(e^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{npq}}} - 1 \right) \right\}}$$

$$= e^{-\sqrt{\frac{np}{q}}t + n \left[\left(\frac{pt}{\sqrt{npq}} + \frac{pt^2}{2npq} + \frac{pt^3}{6(npq)^{3/2}} + \dots \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\dots \right)^2 + \dots \right]}$$

$$= e^{\frac{t^2}{2} - \frac{1}{6} \frac{pt^3}{q} + \text{terms containing power } 1/\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\rightarrow e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} \rightarrow \text{which mgf of } N(0, 1) \text{ dist}^n$$

I will end up this by 2 important central limit theorems, one is let X follow binomial n P as n tends to infinity the distribution of z that is equal to X minus n P by root n P q is approximated by normal 0 1 . The proof is, you consider the moment generating function that is equal to q plus P to the power t to the power n that we can write as... Now consider the moment generating function of z now that is equal to expectation of e to power t z . So, if you substitute z equal to this turns out to be e to the power minus the root n P by q in to t q plus P e to the power t by root n P q whole to the power n . Now substitute q is equal to 1 minus P this becomes e to the power minus root n P by q t and plus $n \log 1$ plus P e to the power t by root n P q minus 1 . Now if n is large enough then this number is going to be small because t by that thing and therefore, that number is small then this will be closer to 0 ; that means, this number will be less than one. So, we can consider logarithmic expansion in Tailor series. So, this can be return as e to the power minus root n P by q t plus n , now if you expand and apply the formula $\log 1$ plus X is equal to X minus X square by 2 plus X cube by 3 and so on then this term becomes P .

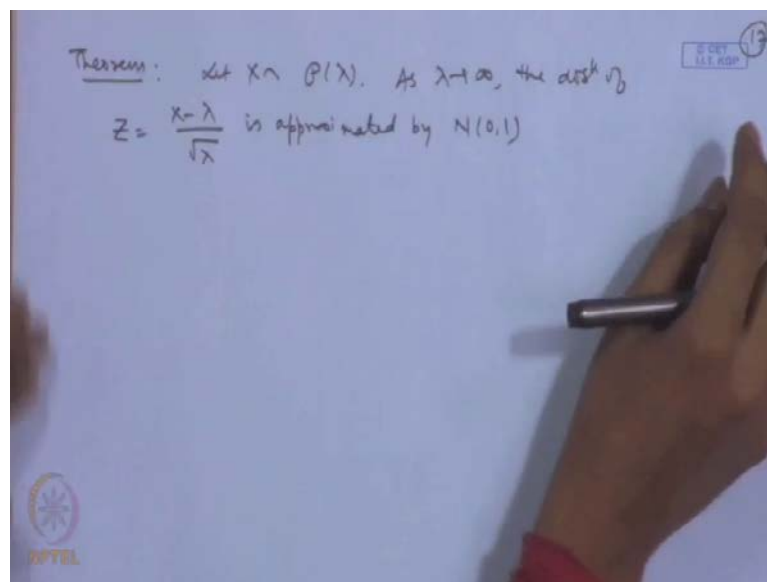
Then so, and moreover this term will become P t by root n P q plus P t square by n P q 2 times minus P t q by 6 root it will be 3 n P q cube and so on. This will become minus e to the power this means X minus x . So, this will become minus become plus and so on. And then you will have, yes this will be 6 I have what I have done I have expanded this first and then you consider minus half and then this terms is square plus and so on, that is

equal to e to the power now if you expand this the first term root and P by q t this term will cancel with this we will get e to the power t square by $2q$ because if you consider this P will cancel out and this n cancel out. So, you get t square by $2q$ and here if you consider the square you will get P square and by p . So, that P will remain there and then $1q$ is coming here.

So, you get here 1 minus this minus t minus half t square by q into p . So, if I take common this is equal to e to the power and plus terms containing powers of 1 by root n . So, this will be converge to e to the power t square by 2 because this term if you take common t square by q $2q$. So, it is becoming 1 minus P that is q q q cancels out. So, get e to the power t square by 2 which is m g f of normal $0, 1$ distribution; that means, if n is large then binomial distribution can be approximated by a normal distribution after proper standardization.

Second central limit theorem because we have given that binomial distribution also approximate to Poisson.

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So, there is another one which is called, let X follow Poisson λ , then as λ tends to infinity the distribution of z is equal to X minus λ by root λ is approximated by normal $0, 1$. These are called (()) Laplace central limit theorem. Actually the first derivation of the normal distribution was through this limiting approaches only, and then later on it was observed using central limit theorem, that if we

are considering sums of any independent, and identical distributed random variables, then their distributions are processing thus distribution of the sum as n becomes large become approximately normal distribution. So, these and other results will be taking up in the next class, and plus we will be discussing certain sampling distribution; that means, when we are dealing with several random variables, then want to be talking about that.