## Unit 5. <br> The Normal Distribution

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## 1. Introduction

Much of statistical inference is based on the normal distribution.

- The pattern of occurrence of many phenomena in nature happens to be described well using a normal distribution model.
- Even when the phenomena in a sample distribution are not described well by the normal distribution, the sampling distribution of sample averages obtained by repeated sampling from the parent distribution is often described well by the normal distribution (Central limit theory).

You may have noticed in your professional work (especially in reading the literature for your field) that, often, researchers choose to report the average when he/she wishes to summarize the information in a sample of data.

The normal distribution is appropriate for continuous random variables only.

- Recall that, in theory, a continuous random variable can assume any of an infinite number of values.

Therefore, we'll have to refine our definition of a probability model to accommodate the continuous variable setting.

- $\operatorname{Pr}[X=x]$, the calculation of a point probability, is meaningless in the continuous variable setting. In its place, we calculate $\operatorname{Pr}[a<X<b]$, the probability of an interval of values of $X$.
- For the above reason, $\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \operatorname{Pr}[X=x]$ is also without meaning.

Following is the extension of the ideas of a probability distribution for a discrete random variable to the ideas underlying the meaning of a probability distribution for a continuous random variable. The ideas of calculus (sorry!) helps us out.

|  | Discrete Random <br> Variable | Continuous Random <br> Variable |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st: "List" of all <br> possible values that <br> exhaust all possibilities | E.g. - <br> $\mathbf{1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , \ldots , \mathbf { N }}$ | "List" $\rightarrow$ range <br> E.g. $-\infty$ to $+\infty$ <br> 0 to $+\infty$ |
| 2nd: Accompanying <br> probabilities of <br> "each value" | $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{x}]$ | "Point probability" $\rightarrow$ probability <br> density <br> Probability density of $\mathbf{X}$, written <br> $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ |
| Total must be 1 | $\sum_{x=\min }^{\max } \operatorname{Pr}[X=x]=1$ | "Unit total" $\rightarrow$ unit integral <br> $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X}(x) d x=1$ |

## 2. Definition of the Normal Distribution

## Definition of the normal probability distribution density function.

- The concept "probability of $X=x$ " is replaced by the "probability density function $f_{x}()$ evaluated at $X=x$ "
- A picture of this function with $X=x$ plotted on the horizontal and $f_{x}()$ evaluated at $X=x$ " plotted on the vertical is the familiar bell shaped ("Gaussian") curve

$$
f_{X}(\mathbf{x})
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{f}_{\mathrm{X}}(\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{x})=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left[\frac{-(x-\mu)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right] \text { where } \\
& \mathbf{x}=\text { Value of } \mathbf{X} \\
& \text { Range of possible values of } \mathbf{X}:-\infty \text { to }+\infty \\
& \mathbf{E x p}=\mathbf{e}=\text { Euler's constant }=\mathbf{2 . 7 1 8 2 8} \ldots \text { note: } e=\frac{1}{0!}+\frac{1}{1!}+\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{1}{3!}+\frac{1}{4!}+\ldots \\
& \pi=\text { mathematical constant }=\mathbf{3 . 1 4} \text { note: } \pi=(\text { circumference/diameter) for any circle. } \\
& \mu=\text { Expected value of } \mathbf{X} \text { ("the long run average") } \\
& \sigma^{2}=\text { Variance of } \mathbf{X} . \text { Recall }- \text { this is the expected value of }[X-\mu] \mathbf{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The Standard Normal Distribution is a particular normal distribution. It is the one for which $\mu=0$ and $\sigma^{2}=1$. It is an especially important tool in analysis of epidemiological data.

- It is the one for which $\mu=0$ and $\sigma^{2}=1$.
- Tabulations of probabilities for this distribution are available.
- A random variable whose pattern of values is distributed standard normal has the special name: $z$-score, or normal deviate
- By convention, it is usually written as $Z$, rather than $X$.

$$
\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z})=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \exp \left[\frac{-z^{2}}{2}\right]
$$

## Introduction to the Z-Score: A tool to compute probabilities of intervals of values for $\mathbf{X}$

 distributed $\operatorname{Normal}(\mu, \sigma 2)$.- Of interest is a probability calculation for a random variable $\mathbf{X}$ that is distributed $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$
- However, tabulated normal probability calculations are available only for the Normal Distribution with $\mu=0$ and $\sigma^{2}=1$. We solve our problem by exploiting an equivalence argument.
- "Standardization" expresses the desired calculation for $\mathbf{X}$ as an equivalent calculation for $\mathbf{Z}$ where $\mathbf{Z}$ is distributed standard normal, $\operatorname{Normal}(\mathbf{0}, 1)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{pr}[a \leq X \leq b]=\operatorname{pr}\left[\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \leq Z \leq\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right] . \text { Thus, } \\
& \text { Z-score }=\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Note - The technique of standardization of X involves "centering" (by subtraction of the mean of $X$ which is $\mu$ ) followed by "rescaling" (using the multiplier $1 / \sigma$ )

Sometimes, we might want to know the values of selected percentiles of a $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ distribution. To do this, we work the standardization technique in the other direction.

For example, we might want to know the median of a normal distribution of gross income - We have only percentile values tabulated for $\mathbf{Z}$ distributed $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$

- The inverse of "Standardization" relates the percentile for $\mathbf{X}$ to that for $\mathbf{Z}$.

$$
X_{\text {pite }}=\sigma\left[Z_{p \text { pile }}\right]+\mu
$$

The $\mathbf{Z}$-score and its relatives the $\underline{t-s c o r e}$, chi square and F statistics are central to the methods of hypothesis testing.

## 3. The Sample Average is Often Normally Distributed Introduction to the Central Limit Theorem

Recall, our focus is on the behavior of the average, $\bar{X}_{n}$, of a sample.
It is the Central Limit Theorem that gives us what we need.

## The Central Limit Theorem

## IF

1) We have an independent random sample of $n$ observations $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$
2) The $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are all from the same distribution, whatever that is.
3) This distribution has mean $=\mu$ and variance $=\sigma^{2}$

THEN as $\mathrm{n} \rightarrow \infty$
the sampling distribution of $\bar{X}_{n}=\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}}{n}\right]$ is eventually
Normal with mean $=\mu$ and variance $=\sigma^{2} / n$
In words:
"In the long run, averages have distributions that are well approximated by the Normal" "The sampling distribution of $\bar{X}_{n}$, upon repeated sampling, is eventually Normal $\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}\right)$

Later (Section 7) we'll learn how to compute probabilities of intervals of values for $\bar{X}_{n}$ distributed $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2} / n\right)$ by using the $z$-score technique.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{pr}[\mathrm{a} \leq \overline{\mathrm{X}} \leq \mathrm{b}]=\operatorname{pr}\left[\left(\frac{\mathrm{a}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}}}\right) \leq \mathrm{Z} \leq\left(\frac{\mathrm{b}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}}}\right)\right] . \text { Thus, } \\
\text { Z-score }=\frac{\overline{\mathrm{X}}-\mathrm{E}(\overline{\mathrm{X}})}{\operatorname{se}(\overline{\mathrm{X}})}=\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}
\end{gathered}
$$

A variety of wordings of the central limit theorem give a feel for its significance!

1. " .... according to a certain theorem in mathematical statistics called the central limit theorem, the probability distribution of the sum of observations from any population corresponds more and more to that of a normal distribution as the number of observations increases; ie - if the sample size is large enough, the sum of observations from any distribution is approximately normally distributed. Since many of the test statistics and estimating functions which are used in advanced statistical methods can be represented as just such a sum, it follows that their approximate normal distributions can be used to calculate probabilities when nothing more exact is possible."

> Matthews DE and Farewell VT. Using and Understanding Medical Statistics, 2nd, revised edition. New York: Karger, 1988. page 93.
2. "With measurement data, many investigations have as their purpose the estimation of averages - the average life of a battery, the average income of plumbers, and so on. Even if the distribution in the original population is far from normal, the distribution of sample averages tends to become normal, under a wide variety of conditions, as the size of the sample increases. This is perhaps the single most important reason for the use of the normal".

Snedecor GW and Cochran WG. Statistical Methods, sixth edition. Ames: The Iowa State University Press, 1967. page 35.

## 3. "If a random sample of $\mathbf{n}$ observations is drawn from some population of any shape,

 where the mean is a number $\mu$ and the standard deviation is a number $\sigma$, then the theoretical sampling distribution of $\bar{X}_{n}$, the mean of the random sample, is (nearly) a normal distribution with a mean of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and a standard deviation of $\sigma / \sqrt{n}$ if $n$, the sample size, is 'large'".Moses LE. Think and Explain with Statistics. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1986. page 91.
4. "It should be emphasized that the theorem applies almost regardless of the nature of the parent population, that is, almost regardless of the distribution from which $X_{1}, \ldots$, $X_{n}$ are a random sample. ... How large $n$ must be to have a "good" approximation does depend, however, upon the shape of the parent population."

Anderson TW and Sclove SL. Introductory Statistical Analysis.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1974. page 295.

## 4. A Feel for the Normal Distribution

What does the normal distribution look like?
(1) a smooth curve defined everywhere on the real axis that is
(2) bell shaped and
(3) symmetric about the mean value.
note - Because of symmetry, we know that the mean = median.

General shape of a Normal Distribution


This normal distribution has mean and median $=0$

## Some Features of the Normal Distribution:

(1) Look again at the definition of the normal probability density function on page 4. Notice that it includes only two population parameters, the mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2}$ Notice that there are no other population parameters present. This allows us to say that the normal probability density function is completely specified by the mean and variance. This feature is very useful in the calculation of event probabilities which will be described later.
(2) The mean $\mu$ tells you about location -

Increase $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ - Location shifts right
Decrease $\mu$ - Location shifts left
Shape is unchanged
(3) The variance $\sigma^{2}$ tells you about narrowness or flatness of the bell -

Increase $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathbf{2}}$ - Bell flattens. Extreme values are more likely Decrease $\sigma^{2}$ - Bell narrows. Extreme values are less likely Location is unchanged
(4) Very Useful Tool for Research Data: If you are exploring some data, let's say it is a sample of data $\mathbf{X}$ that is distributed normal with mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2}$, then roughly
(i) $\mathbf{6 8 \%}$ of the distribution of $\mathbf{X}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(1)(\sigma)$ about its mean value $\mu$.
(ii) $\mathbf{9 5 \%}$ of the distribution of $\mathbf{X}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(1.96)(\sigma)$ about its mean value $\mu$.
(iii) $\mathbf{9 9 \%}$ of the distribution of $\mathbf{X}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(2.576)(\sigma)$ about its mean value $\mu$.
(5) Most often, this "seat of the pants" rule is applied to the distribution of the sample mean $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$. Roughly ...
(i) $\mathbf{6 8 \%}$ of the distribution of $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(1)(\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}})$ about its mean value $\mu$.
(ii) $\mathbf{9 5 \%}$ of the distribution of $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(1.96)(\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}})$ about its mean value $\mu$.
(iii) $\mathbf{9 9 \%}$ of the distribution of $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ lies in an interval of $\pm(2.576)(\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}})$ about its mean value $\mu$.

## 5. Relevance of the Normal Distribution

## What Data Follow the Normal Distribution?

There are two kinds of data that follow a normal probability distribution.
First Type - Nature gives us this. Nature includes many continuous phenomena yielding sample data for which the normal probability model is a good description. For example,

- Heights of men
- Weights of women
- Systolic blood pressure of children
- Blood cholesterol in adults aged 20 to 100 years

Second Type - Repeated sampling and the Central Limit Theorem gives this. If we repeat our research study over and over again so as to produce the sampling distribution of the sample mean $\bar{X}$, this distribution is well described by a normal distribution model by virtue of the Central Limit Theorem.

This second class is particularly useful in research since, often, the focus of interest is in the behavior (reproducibility and variability) of sample means rather than individual values.

- Average response among persons randomized to treatment in a clinical trial


## 6. Calculation of Probabilities for the Normal $(0,1)$

With respect to studies of any normal distribution, it eventually boils down to knowing how to work with one particular distribution, the $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$, also called the standard normal or standard gaussian distribution.

A random variable $\mathbf{Z}$ is said to follow the standard normal distribution if it is distributed normal with mean $=0$ and variance $=1$. Recall again the probability density function for this distribution:

$$
\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z})=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \exp \left[\frac{-z^{2}}{2}\right]
$$

Recall also

- For a continuous random variable, we cannot compute point probabilities such as Probability [ $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{z}$ ]
- What we calculate, instead, are probabilities of intervals of values, such as Probability [ $a \leq Z \leq b]$ for some choice of " $a$ " and " $b$ "

A Probability of an Interval such as Probability [ $\mathbf{Z} \leq \mathbf{z}$ ] is called a cumulative probability

- Tables for the Normal $(0,1)$ distribution typically provide values of cumulative probabilities of this form. Sometimes, more is provided.

Fortunately, we don't actually have to do these calculations

- Such calculations are exercises in calculus and involve the integral of the probability density function.
- Values of Probability [ $\mathbf{a} \leq \mathbf{Z} \leq b]$ can be found by utilizing statistical tables for the $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$.
- They can also be gotten from the computer (either software or web).

Some Useful Tips for Using the Statistical Tables for the Normal(0,1)
(Tip 1) Symmetry of the Normal(0,1) distribution about its mean value 0 has useful implications with respect to the calculation of probabilities. Recalling the notation "Z" to denote the random variable $Z$ and " $z$ " to denote a possible actual value, symmetry of the standard normal distribution about $\mu=0$ means:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \leq-\mathrm{z}]=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \geq+\mathrm{z}]
$$

(Tip 2) Because the integral of a continuous probability distribution (you can think of this as the sum of the probabilities associated with all possible outcomes when the distribution is discrete) must total exactly one,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z}<\mathrm{z}]+\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \geq+\mathrm{z}]=1
$$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z}<\mathrm{z}]=1-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \geq \mathrm{z}]
$$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z \geq z]=1-\operatorname{Pr}[Z<z]
$$

(Tip 3) The facts of symmetry of the $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ distribution about $\mu=0$ and its integral equaling one gives us

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z \geq 0]=.5
$$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z \leq 0]=.5
$$

(Tip 4) Some tables for the Normal distribution provide values ONLY of the type $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z}<\mathrm{z}]$.

| If you want to calculate $\ldots$ | Then use the table this way $\ldots$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}>\mathbf{a})$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}>\mathbf{a})=\mathbf{1}-\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<=\mathbf{a})$ |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<-\mathbf{a})$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<-\mathbf{a})=\mathbf{1}-\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<+\mathbf{a})$ |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{a}<\mathbf{Z}<\mathbf{b})$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{a}<\mathbf{Z}<\mathbf{b})=\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<\mathbf{b})-\operatorname{Pr}(\mathbf{Z}<\mathbf{a})$ |

(Tip 5) Inequalities $\operatorname{Pr}(Z<=z)$ versus $\operatorname{Pr}(Z<z)$ or $\operatorname{Pr}(Z>=z)$ versus $\operatorname{Pr}(Z>z)$ can seem confusing at first. The key is to know that because $Z$ is continuous when it is distributed Normal(0,1), point probabilities are meaningless. That means

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \geq \mathrm{z}]=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z}>\mathrm{z}]
$$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z} \leq \mathrm{z}]=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{Z}<\mathrm{z}]
$$

Beware - Be careful not to make this assumption when you are working with discrete variables!!

## Notation

With apology, it is nevertheless useful to know the notation involved in the calculation of probabilities. Here it is for the setting of probability calculations for the standard normal, Normal(0,1).

- $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{z}}(\mathrm{z})$ is called the cumulative probability density function. It is the integral of the probability density function $f_{z}(z)$ that was introduced on page 5 .
- Often, the letter $\mathbf{Z}$ is used to refer to a random variable distributed $\operatorname{Normal(0,1)}$
- $\operatorname{Prob}[\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ variable $<\mathrm{z}]=\operatorname{Prob}[\mathrm{Z} \leq \mathrm{z}]=\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{Z}}(\mathrm{z})$


## Example

If $\mathbf{Z}$ is distributed standard normal, what is the probability that $\mathbf{Z}$ is at most $\mathbf{1 . 8 2}$ ?
Suggestion to 2008 class - Have a look at Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ Edition), table 3. Before following the examples here, look at the pictures on the top of page 825 so that you know what probabilities (area under the curve) are being reported in each column - carol

Solution $=0.9656$
Step 1:
Translate the "words" into an event.
" Z is at most 1.82 " is equivalent to the event $(\mathrm{Z}<=1.82$ ).
The required probability is therefore $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{Z}<=1.82)=$ ?
Step 2:
Use the normal probability table to solve for probability of interest. If we use the table in Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ edition), the required table is Table 3 which begins on page 825 . Thus, our value $z=1.82$ can be found as $\mathrm{z}=1.82$ on page 827 Looking at the entry for column $A$, read

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{Z}<=1.82)=0.9656
$$

## Example

What is the probability that a standard normal random variable exceeds the value 2.38 ?
Solution $=0.0087$
step 1:
Translate the "words" into an event.
" Z exceeds 2.38 " is equivalent to the event $(\mathrm{Z}>2.38$ ).
The required probability is therefore $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{Z}>2.38)=$ ?
step 2: Using the table in Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ edition) on page 827 the correct column is " $B$ ".

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(Z>2.38)=0.0087
$$

Alternative Solution Using URL on the Internet:
Visit http://www-stat.stanford.edu/\~naras/ism/FindProbability.html


Example
How likely is it that a standard normal random variable will assume a value in the interval $[-2.58,+0.58]$ ?

Solution $=0.714$
step 1:
Translate the "words" into an event.
Z assuming a value in the interval $[-2.58,+0.58]$
is equivalent to $\operatorname{Pr}[-2.58<=\mathrm{Z}<=+0.58]=$ ?

## step 2:

If you are using the table in Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ Edition), re-express event of interest into a form that uses the event type $Z<z$ and use column $A$. Or a form that uses the event of type $Z>z$ and use column $B$. It's the same either way!

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[-2.58<=\mathbf{Z}<=+0.58] \quad=\quad \operatorname{Pr}[Z>=-2.58] \quad-\quad \operatorname{Pr}[Z>+0.58] .
$$

Notice now that $\operatorname{Pr}[Z>-2.58]$ is not available in the table.
We can get around this by using Tip \#1 which gives us.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[Z>-2.58]=1-\operatorname{Pr}[Z<-2.58]=1-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+2.58]
$$

Thus, $\operatorname{Pr}[-2.58<=\mathbf{Z}<=+0.58]$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\operatorname{Pr}[Z>-2.58]-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+0.58] \\
& =\{1-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+2.58]\}-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+0.58] \\
& =1-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+2.58]-\operatorname{Pr}[Z<+0.58]
\end{aligned}
$$

step 3:
We have what we need to use Table 3 of Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ edition).

Locate 2.58 on page 828. Read from column $B$ that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(Z>=2.58)=0.0049
$$

Locate 0.58 on page 825. Read that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(Z>=0.58)=0.2810
$$

step 4:
Put this information back into the translation obtained in step 2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr} & {[-2.58<=\mathbf{Z}<=+0.58] } \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>-2.58]-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+0.58] \\
& =\{1-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>+2.58]\}-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>+0.58] \\
& =1-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>+2.58]-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>+0.58] \\
& =1-0.0049-0.2810 \\
& =0.7141
\end{aligned}
$$

7. From Normal $\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ to the Standardized Normal $(0,1)-$ The $Z$ Score

Seen already are two z-score transformations. From these, a useful generalization is also seen.

| 1. | If $\mathbf{X}$ is distributed Normal $\left(\mu, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$ | z -score $=\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$ is distributed Normal $(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. | If $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ is distributed Normal $\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} / \mathbf{n}\right)$ | z -score $=\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$ is distributed Normal $(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1})$ |
| 3. | If a "generic" random variable Y is <br> distributed Normal with <br> $\mu_{\mathrm{Y}}=\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{Y})$ <br> $\sigma_{\mathrm{Y}}^{2}=\operatorname{Var}(\mathrm{Y})$ | z -score $=\frac{\mathrm{Y}-\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{Y})}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(\mathrm{Y})}}$ is distributed Normal(0,1) |

Note - To appreciate the third row, notice that in \#1, the choice is $Y=X$. In \#2, the choice is $Y=\bar{X}$

It is the "z-score" transformation that allows us to obtain interval probabilities for ANY Normal Distribution.

## Example

The Massachusetts State Lottery averages, on a weekly basis, a profit of $\mathbf{1 0 . 0}$ million dollars. The variability, as measured by the variance statistic is $\mathbf{6 . 2 5}$ million dollars squared. If it is known that the weekly profits is distributed normal, what are the chances that, in a given week, the profits will be between 8 and 10.5 million dollars?

Solution $=.367$
step 1:
Translate the "words" into an event.
Since we're no longer dealing with a standard normal random variable, it is convenient to use $\mathbf{X}$ to denote the random variable defined as the profit earned in a given week.
$X$ assuming a value in the interval $[8,10.5]$ is equivalent to
$\operatorname{Pr}[8<=X<=10.5]=$ ?
step 2:
Re-express the event of interest into a form that uses the event type $\mathbf{X}<\mathbf{x}$.
$\operatorname{Pr}[8<=X<=10.5]$
$=\operatorname{Pr}[X>=8]-\operatorname{Pr}[X>=10.5]$
step 3:
Before using the transformation formula, solve for the $\sqrt{\text { variance }}$ of the normal distribution of $X$. To see that this is correct, look at the $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ row of the chart on the previous page (page 19). This is the standard deviation of the normal distribution of $X$.
If $\sigma^{2}=6.25$
Then $\sigma=\sqrt{6.25}=2.5$

## step 4:

Apply the z-score transformation formula.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{8}]-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{1 0 . 5}] \text { for the random variable } \mathbf{X} \text { distributed } \operatorname{Normal}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}=\mathbf{1 0}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}=\mathbf{6 . 2 5}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[\frac{\mathrm{X}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{X}}}{\sigma_{X}} \geq \frac{8-10}{2.5}\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\frac{\mathrm{X}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{X}}}{\sigma_{X}} \geq \frac{10.5-10}{2.5}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>=-\mathbf{0 . 8 0}]-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>\mathbf{0 . 2 0}] \text { for the random variable } \mathbf{Z} \text { distributed Normal( } \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}) \\
& =\mathbf{1}-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>=+\mathbf{0 . 8 0}]-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{Z}>+\mathbf{0 . 2 0}]
\end{aligned}
$$

step 5:
Use the normal probability table to solve for probabilities of interest. Using the Table in Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ edition), pages 825-6 reveals

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(Z>=+\mathbf{0 . 8 0})=\mathbf{0 . 2 1 1 9} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(Z>=+\mathbf{0 . 2 0})=\mathbf{0 . 4 2 0 7}
\end{aligned}
$$

step 6:
Put this information back into the translation obtained in step 2.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[8<=X<=10.5]
$$

$$
=\mathbf{1}-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>=+0.80]-\operatorname{Pr}[Z>+0.20]
$$

$$
=1-0.2119-0.4207
$$

$$
=0.3674
$$

9. From Normal $(0,1)$ to $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$

Sometimes we will want to work the z-score transformation backwards

- We might want to know values of selected percentiles of a Normal distribution (e.g. median cholesterol value)
- Knowledge of how to work this transformation backwards will be useful in confidence interval construction

| 1. | If $\mathbf{Z}$ is distributed $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ | Then $\mathrm{X}=\sigma \mathrm{Z}+\mu$ distributed $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | If $\mathbf{Z}$ is distributed $\operatorname{Normal}(\mathbf{0}, 1)$ | Then $\overline{\mathrm{X}}=(\sigma / \sqrt{\mathrm{n}}) \mathrm{Z}+\mu$ is $\operatorname{Normal}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2} / \mathrm{n}\right)$ |
| 3. | If $\mathbf{Z}$ is distributed $\operatorname{Normal}(\mathbf{0}, 1)$ | generic $\mathrm{Y}=(\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(\mathrm{Y})}) \mathrm{Z}+\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{Y})$ is Normal $\begin{aligned} \mu_{\mathbf{Y}} & =\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{Y}) \\ \sigma_{\mathrm{Y}}^{2} & =\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$ |

## Example

Suppose it is known that survival time following a diagnosis of mesothelioma is normally distributed with $\boldsymbol{\mu}=\mathbf{2 . 3}$ years and variance $\sigma^{2}=7.2$ years squared. What is the $75^{\text {th }}$ percentile, the elapsed time during which $75 \%$ of such cases are expected to die?

Solution = 4.11 years
step 1:
The first step is to recognize that a percentile references a left tail probability. Using the table in Rosner ( $6^{\text {th }}$ edition), column $A$, read that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Prob}[Z<0.67]=.7486 \\
& \operatorname{Prob}[Z<0.68]=.7517
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, approximately (crude interpolation)

$$
\operatorname{Prob}[Z<0.675]=.75
$$

Thus, the $75^{\text {th }}$ percentile of a $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ is $Z_{.75}=\mathbf{0 . 6 7 5}$, approximately
step 2:
Let X represent the random variable for the normal distribution of survival times.
This normal distribution has mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{X}}=\mathbf{2 . 3}$ and variance $\sigma_{\mathrm{X}}^{2}=7.2$
step 3:
Work the z-score transformation formula backwards.

$$
\begin{aligned}
X_{.75} & =\sigma_{X} Z_{.75}+\mu_{\mathrm{X}} \\
& =(\sqrt{7.2})(.675)+2.3 \\
& =4.11 \text { years }
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, it is expected that $75 \%$ of persons newly diagnosed with mesothelioma will have died within 4.11 years. This is the same as saying that there is an expected $25 \%$ chance of surviving beyond 4.11 years.

