

MODULE 5

SPECIAL ABSOLUTELY CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTIONS AND THEIR PROPERTIES

LECTURES 20-24

Topics

5.1 UNIFORM OR RECTANGULAR DISTRIBUTION

5.1.1 *Quantile function and uniform distribution*

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LECTURE 20

Topics

5.1 UNIFORM OR RECTANGULAR DISTRIBUTION

5.1.1 *Quantile function and uniform distribution*

Recall that a random variable (r.v.) X is said to be of absolutely continuous type if there exists a function $f_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that the distribution function (d.f.) of X is given by

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The function $f_X(\cdot)$ is called a probability density function (p.d.f) of r.v. X and the set $S_X = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : f_X(x) > 0\}$ is called the support of the p.d.f. $f_X(\cdot)$ (or of r.v. X).

We have seen that the probability distribution of an absolutely continuous type r.v. is completely determined by its p.d.f (or its d.f.). Recall that a function $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a p.d.f of some r.v. if, and only if, $g(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx = 1.$$

5.1 UNIFORM OR RECTANGULAR DISTRIBUTION

Let α and β be real numbers such that $-\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty$. An absolutely continuous type r.v. X is said to have uniform (or rectangular) distribution over the interval (α, β) (written as $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$) if the p.d.f. of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < x < \beta. \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Clearly $f_X(x) > 0, \forall x \in S_X = (\alpha, \beta)$ and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1,$$

i.e., $f_X(\cdot)$ is a proper p.d.f. with support $S_X = (\alpha, \beta)$.

We have a family $\{U(\alpha, \beta): -\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty\}$ of uniform distributions corresponding to different choices of α and β ($-\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty$).

Suppose that $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$, for some $-\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty$. Then, for $r \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r &= E(X^r) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{x^r}{\beta - \alpha} dx \\ &= \frac{\beta^{r+1} - \alpha^{r+1}}{(r+1)(\beta - \alpha)} \\ &= \frac{\beta^r}{r+1} \left[1 + \frac{\alpha}{\beta} + \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right)^r \right] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_r &= E((X - \mu'_1)^r) \\
 &= E\left(\left(X - \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)^r\right) \\
 &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left(x - \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)^r \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} dx \\
 &= \int_{-\frac{\beta - \alpha}{2}}^{\frac{\beta - \alpha}{2}} \frac{t^r}{\beta - \alpha} dt \\
 &= \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } r = 1, 3, 5, \dots \\ \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^r}{2^r (r + 1)}, & \text{if } r = 2, 4, 6, \dots \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$\mu'_r = E(X^r) = \frac{\beta^r}{r + 1} \left[1 + \frac{\alpha}{\beta} + \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right)^r \right], r = 1, 2, \dots$$

and

$$\mu_r = E((X - \mu'_1)^r) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } r = 1, 3, 5, \dots \\ \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^r}{2^r (r + 1)}, & \text{if } r = 2, 4, 6, \dots \end{cases}$$

Consequently,

$$\text{Mean} = E(X) = \mu'_1 = \frac{\beta + \alpha}{2}; \quad \text{Var}(X) = \mu_2 = \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{12},$$

$$\mu_3 = 0, \quad \mu_4 = \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^4}{80},$$

$$\text{Coefficient of Skewness} = \beta_1 = \frac{\mu_3}{\mu_2^{\frac{3}{2}}} = 0,$$

and

$$\text{Kurtosis} = \gamma_1 = \frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} = \frac{9}{5} = 1.8.$$

Thus an uniform distribution is highly platykurtic (i.e., in comparison with normal distribution having mean $(\alpha + \beta)/2$, p.d.f. of $U(\alpha, \beta)$ distribution has a flatter peak around its mean). The flatness of p.d.f. around mean is due to distribution being less concentrated around its mean. Moreover the value of coefficient of skewness $\beta_1 = 0$ suggests that the distribution of X may be symmetric about the mean μ'_1 . Clearly

$$f_X(\mu'_1 - x) = f_X(x - \mu'_1), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$

and, therefore, the distribution of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ is symmetric about $\mu'_1 = (\alpha + \beta)/2$.

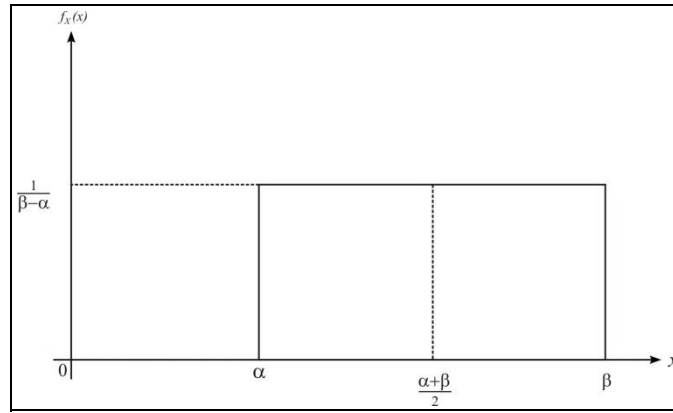


Figure 1.1. Plot of p.d.f. of $U(\alpha, \beta)$ distribution.

Since the distribution of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ is symmetric about $(\alpha + \beta)/2$, we have

$$X - \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} - X,$$

or equivalently

$$X \stackrel{d}{=} \alpha + \beta - X.$$

The distribution function of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ is given by

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt$$

$$\text{i. e.,} \quad F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < \alpha \\ \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha \leq x < \beta \\ 1, & \text{if } x \geq \beta \end{cases}.$$

Since the distribution of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ is symmetric about $\mu'_1 = (\alpha + \beta)/2$, we have

$$\boxed{\text{Median} = \text{Mean} = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}.}$$

One may directly check that

$$F_X\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2},$$

implying that $(\alpha + \beta)/2$ is the median of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$.

The lower quartile q_1 and the upper quartile q_3 of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ are given by

$$F_X(q_1) = \frac{1}{4} \text{ and } F_X(q_3) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\boxed{\Rightarrow q_1 = \frac{\beta + 3\alpha}{4} \text{ and } q_3 = \frac{3\beta + \alpha}{4}.}$$

Also,

$$\boxed{\text{Quartile deviation (QD)} = \frac{q_3 - q_1}{2} = \frac{\beta - \alpha}{4}.}$$

The moment generating function of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{e^{tx}}{\beta - \alpha} dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\text{i. e., } M_X(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{t\beta} - e^{t\alpha}}{(\beta - \alpha)t}, & \text{if } t \neq 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases} .}$$

The following theorem provides a characterization of $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ in terms of the property that, for any interval $I \subseteq [\alpha, \beta]$, $P(\{X \in I\})$ depends only on the length of the interval I and not on the location of I on $[\alpha, \beta]$.

Theorem 1.1

Let α and β be real constants such that $-\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty$ and let X be a random variable of absolutely continuous type with $P(\{\alpha \leq X \leq \beta\}) = 1$. Then $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$, if,

and only if, $P(\{X \in I\}) = P(\{X \in J\})$, for any pair of intervals $I, J \subseteq [\alpha, \beta]$ having the same lengths.

Proof. First suppose that $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$ and $\alpha \leq a < b \leq \beta$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(\{X \in (a, b)\}) &= P(\{X \in [a, b]\}) = P(\{X \in (a, b]\}) = P(\{X \in [a, b]\}) \\ &= F_X(b) - F_X(a) \\ &= \frac{b - a}{\beta - \alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

depends only on the length $(= b - a)$ of the interval $(a, b)/[a, b]/(a, b]/[a, b]$.

Conversely suppose that $P(\{X \in I\}) = P(\{X \in J\})$ for any pair of intervals $I, J \subseteq [\alpha, \beta]$ having the same lengths. For $0 < s \leq 1$, let

$$G(s) = P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s\}) = F_X(\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s),$$

where $F_X(\cdot)$ is the d.f. of X . Then, for $0 < s_1 \leq 1$, $0 < s_2 \leq 1$, $0 < s_1 + s_2 \leq 1$,

$$P(\{\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_1 < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)(s_1 + s_2)\}) = P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_2\}),$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} G(s_1 + s_2) &= P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)(s_1 + s_2)\}) \\ &= P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_1\}) + P(\{\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_1 < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)(s_1 + s_2)\}) \\ &= P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_1\}) + P(\{\alpha < X \leq \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)s_2\}) \\ &= G(s_1) + G(s_2). \end{aligned}$$

By induction, for $0 < s_i \leq 1$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $0 < \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \leq 1$, we have

$$G(s_1 + s_2 + \dots + s_n) = G(s_1) + G(s_2) + \dots + G(s_n).$$

Consequently

$$G(ms) = mG(s), \quad \forall \ 0 < s \leq \frac{1}{m} \quad (1.1)$$

$$\text{and} \quad G(s) = G\left(\underbrace{\frac{s}{n} + \dots + \frac{s}{n}}_{n \text{ times}}\right) = nG\left(\frac{s}{n}\right), \quad 0 < s \leq 1. \quad (1.2)$$

Also, for $m, n \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$, $m < n$,

$$\begin{aligned}
G\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) &= G\left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}}_{m \text{ times}}\right) \\
&= mG\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) && \text{(using (1.1))} \\
&= \frac{m}{n}G(1) && \text{(using (1.2))} \\
&= \frac{m}{n}F_X(\beta) \\
&= \frac{m}{n} \\
\Rightarrow G(r) &= r, \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{Q} \cap (0,1), && (1.3)
\end{aligned}$$

where \mathbb{Q} denotes the set of rational numbers. Now let $x \in (0,1)$. Choose a sequence $\{r_n : n = 1, 2, \dots\}$ in $\mathbb{Q} \cap (0,1)$ such that $r_n \downarrow x$ (existence of such a sequence is guaranteed). Then

$$\begin{aligned}
G(x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} G(r_n) \quad (\text{since } G(x) = F_X(\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)x) \text{ is right continuous}) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n && \text{(using (1.3))} \\
&= x.
\end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
F_X(\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)x) &= x, \quad \forall x \in (0,1) \\
\Rightarrow F_X(x) &= \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha}, \quad \forall x \in (\alpha, \beta).
\end{aligned}$$

Also, since F_X is continuous on \mathbb{R} and $P(\{\alpha \leq X \leq \beta\}) = 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
F_X(x) &= \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < \alpha \\ \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha \leq x < \beta \\ 1, & \text{if } x \geq \beta \end{cases} \\
\Rightarrow X &\sim U(\alpha, \beta). \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.2

Suppose that $X \sim U(\alpha, \beta)$, for some real constants α and β such that $-\infty < \alpha < \beta < \infty$. Then $Y = \frac{X-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha} \sim U(0,1)$.

Proof. The p.d.f of X is

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta-\alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < x < \beta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Let $Y = \frac{X-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha} = h(X)$, say. Clearly $h(x) = \frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha}$, $x \in S_X = (\alpha, \beta)$ is strictly increasing on S_X . Therefore the r.v. $Y = \frac{X-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha}$ is of absolutely continuous type with support $S_Y = h(S_X) = (0,1)$ and p.d.f.

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} h^{-1}(y) \right| I_{h(S_X)}(y).$$

We have $h(S_X) = (0,1)$ and $h^{-1}(y) = \alpha + (\beta - \alpha)y$, $y \in h(S_X) = (0,1)$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= f_X(\alpha + (\beta - \alpha)y) |\beta - \alpha| I_{(0,1)}(y) \\ &= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \Rightarrow Y &= \frac{X - \alpha}{\beta - \alpha} \sim U(0,1). \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.1

Let $a > 0$ be a real constant. A point X is chosen at random on the interval $(0, a)$ (i.e., $X \sim U(0, a)$).

- (i) If Y denotes the area of equilateral triangle having sides of length X , find the mean and variance of Y .
- (ii) If the point X divides the interval $(0, a)$ into subintervals $I_1 = (0, X)$ and $I_2 = [X, a)$, find the probability that the larger of these two subintervals is at least the double the size of the smaller subinterval.

Solution.

- (i) In the equilateral triangle ABC

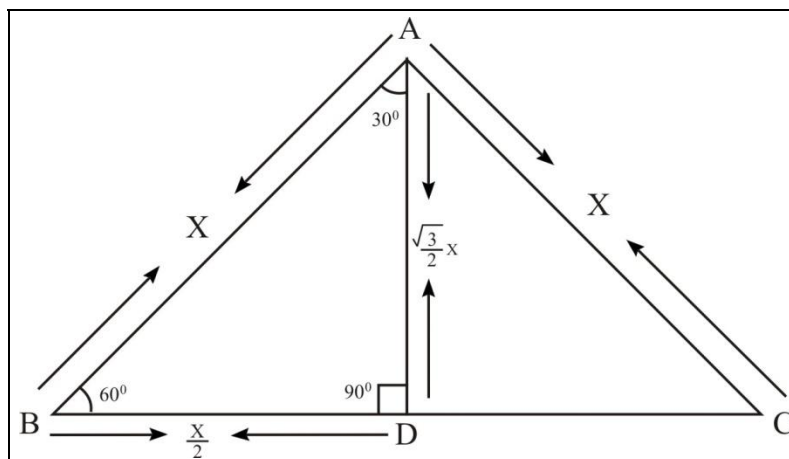


Figure 1.2

$$AB = BC = X, \quad BD = \frac{X}{2} \text{ and } AD = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}X.$$

Therefore

$$Y = \frac{1}{2} \times X \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}X = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}X^2$$

$$E(Y) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}E(X^2) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{12}a^2,$$

$$E(Y^2) = \frac{3}{16}E(X^4) = \frac{3}{80}a^4$$

$$\text{and } \text{Var}(Y) = E(Y^2) - (E(Y))^2 = \frac{a^4}{60}.$$

(ii) The required probability is

$$\begin{aligned} p &= P(\{\max\{X, a - X\} > 2 \min\{X, a - X\}\}) \\ &= P\left(\left\{a - X > 2X, X \leq \frac{a}{2}\right\}\right) + P\left(\left\{X > 2(a - X), X > \frac{a}{2}\right\}\right) \\ &= P\left(\left\{X \leq \frac{a}{3}\right\}\right) + P\left(\left\{X > \frac{2}{3}a\right\}\right) \\ &= F_X\left(\frac{a}{3}\right) + 1 - F_X\left(\frac{2}{3}a\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} + 1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Remark 1.1

Uniform distribution is applicable in situations where the outcome of random experiment is a number X chosen at random from an interval $[\alpha, \beta]$ in the sense that if $I \subseteq [\alpha, \beta]$ is

any interval then $P(\{X \in I\})$ depends only on the length of I and not on its location in $[\alpha, \beta]$. ■

5.1.1 Quantile function and uniform distribution

We begin this section with the definition of quantile function.

Definition 1.1

Let X be a random variable (not necessarily of absolutely continuous type) with distribution function $F_X(\cdot)$.

- (i) The function $Q_X: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, defined by, $Q_X(p) = \inf\{s \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(s) \geq p\}$, $0 < p < 1$, is called the *quantile function* (q.f.) of the random variable X (or of distribution function $F_X(\cdot)$).
- (ii) For a fixed $p \in (0, 1)$, the quantity $Q_X(p) = \inf\{s \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(s) \geq p\}$ is called the *p-th quantile* of X (or of $F_X(\cdot)$). ■

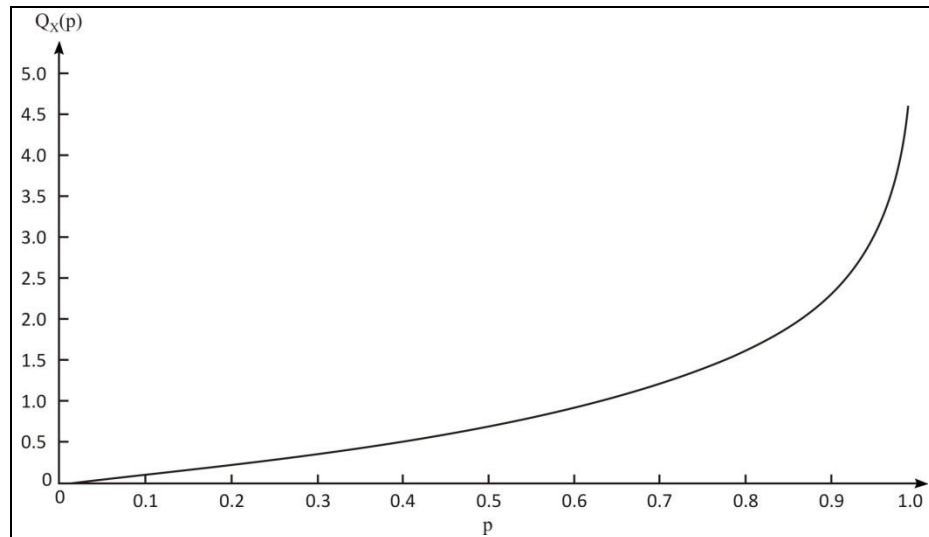
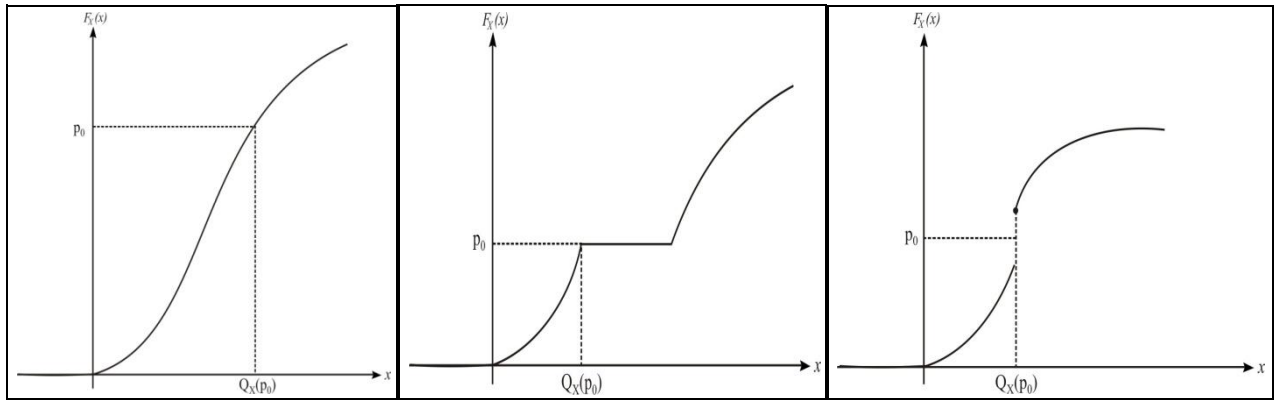


Figure 1.3. Plot of quantile function.

**Figure 1.4. (a)****Figure 1.4. (b)****Figure 1.4. (c)****Remark 1.2**

If the distribution function $F_X(\cdot)$ is continuous and strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} then $Q_X(p) = F_X^{-1}(p)$, $0 < p < 1$. ■