Probability Density Functions

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Probability density function – In simple terms, a **probability density function** (**PDF**) is constructed by drawing a smooth curve fit through the

 $\frac{P\left(x_i - \frac{dx}{2} < x \le x_i + \frac{dx}{2}\right)}{dx}$

vertically normalized histogram as sketched. You can think of a PDF as *the* smooth limit of a vertically normalized *histogram* if there were millions of measurements and a huge number of bins.

- The main difference between a 0 0 histogram and a PDF is that a x_1 x_2 x_3 ... histogram involves discrete data (individual bins or classes), whereas a PDF involves *continuous data* (a smooth curve).
- Mathematically, f(x) is defined as 0

represents the probability that variable x lies in the given range, and f(x) is the probability density function (PDF). In other words, for the given infinitesimal range of width dxbetween $x_i - dx/2$ and $x_i + dx/2$, the integral under the PDF curve is the probability that a measurement lies within that range, as sketched.

- As shown in the sketch, this probability 0 is equal to the *area* (shaded blue region) under the f(x) curve – i.e., the integral under the PDF over the specified infinitesimal range of width dx.
- The usefulness of the PDF is as follows: Suppose we choose a range of variable x, say between a and b. 0 The probability that a measurement lies between a and b is simply the integral under the PDF curve between *a* and *b*, as sketched, where we define the probability as

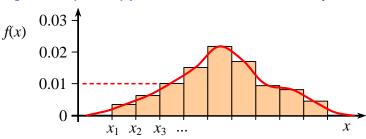
$$P(a < x \le b) = \int_{x=a}^{x=b} f(x) dx$$

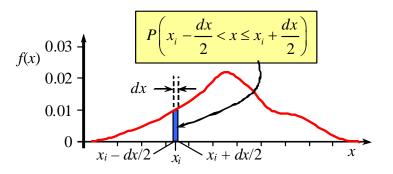
If $a \to -\infty$ and $b \to +\infty$, the probability must equal 1 (100%), i.e., $P(-\infty < x < \infty) = \int_{x=\infty}^{x=\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

In other words, the probability that x lies between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ is 100% (a fact that should be obvious, since there are no other possibilities for real number *x*).

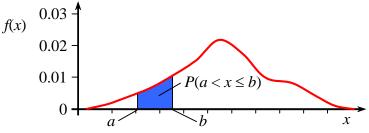
- Once we have defined the probability density function f(x), we leave the system of *discrete random* 0 variables and enter the system of continuous random variables, on which we make some more formal definitions:
 - *Expected value* is defined in terms of the probability density function as *the mean of all possible x values in the continuous system*. Namely, expected value = $\mu = E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx$. In an ideal

situation in which f(x) exactly represents the population, μ is the mean of the entire population of x values, and that is why it is called the "expected" value. It is therefore also called the *population mean.* In general, $\overline{x} \neq \mu$, but $\overline{x} \rightarrow \mu$ when n is large, i.e., the sample mean approaches the





where *P*



expected value when n is large. \overline{x} and μ are often used interchangeably, but this should be done only if *n* is large.

• Standard deviation is defined in terms of the PDF as

standard deviation = $\sigma = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx}$. In an ideal situation in which f(x) exactly represents

the population, σ is the standard deviation of the entire population. It is therefore also called the *population standard deviation*. If *n* is large, $S \rightarrow \sigma$. Often, *S* and σ are used interchangeably, but this should be done only if *n* is large.

• *Normalized probability density function* – a *normalized probability density function* is constructed by transforming both the abscissa (horizontal axis) and ordinate (vertical axis) of the PDF plot as follows:

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$
 and $f(z) = \sigma f(x)$

- The above transformations accomplish two things:
 - The first transformation normalizes the abscissa such that the PDF is centered around z = 0.
 - The second transformation normalizes the ordinate such that the PDF is spread out in similar fashion regardless of the value of standard deviation.
- When normalized in this way, the normalized PDF can be directly compared to standard PDFs, which we discuss in a later learning module.
- To summarize, here are several steps used in Excel to generate a normalized PDF of experimental data:
 - Generate the histogram with Excel as discussed in the histogram learning module. Excel generates a table called a *frequency table*. The table contains two columns, **bin** and **frequency**. *Bin* is the *maximum* value of the range of each bin, and *frequency* is the number of data points in that bin range. (For example, suppose there are 200 data points total, the mean value of *x* is 10.0, and the standard deviation of the data set is 3.0. Also suppose that 8 of those data points lie in the bin with *x* between 4 and 6 (4 < *x* ≤ 6). Thus, for this bin, Bin = 6 and Frequency = 8.)
 - Create a new column called **probability** in which you divide each frequency by the total number of data points. This gives the probability that a data point lies in that bin, i.e. probability = frequency/n. (In the example here, probability = 8/200 = 0.040 or 4.0%.)
 - 3. Create a new column called x_{mid} in which you list the mid value of each bin: $x_{\text{mid}} = (x_{\text{min}} + x_{\text{max}})/2$. (In the example here, the mid value of the sample bin is (4 + 6)/2 = 5.0.)
 - 4. Create a new column called f(x) in which you divide each probability by the appropriate bin width, i.e., $f(x) = \text{probability} / \Delta x$.

(In the example here, the bin width of the sample bin is $\Delta x = 6 - 4 = 2$, and f(x) = 0.04/2 = 0.02 at $x = x_{mid} = 5.0$.) A smoothed plot of f(x) versus x is the PDF.

- 5. Create a new column called z in which you normalize the x values into nondimensional z values. This is accomplished by converting each mid value of x into z: $z = (x - \mu)/\sigma$. (In the example here, z for the sample bin is z = (5.0 - 10.0)/3.0 = -1.667.)
- 6. Create a new column called f(z) in which you normalize the PDF into the f(z) values. This is accomplished by converting each f(x) into f(z): f(z) = σ · f(x). (In the example here, f(z) of the sample bin is f(z) = 0.02*3.0 = 0.060 at z = -1.667.)
- Finally, a plot of f(z) vs. z can be generated. A smooth curve through these data represents the *normalized PDF*.

• <u>Example</u>:

Given: The same 1000 temperature measurements used in a previous example for generating a histogram.

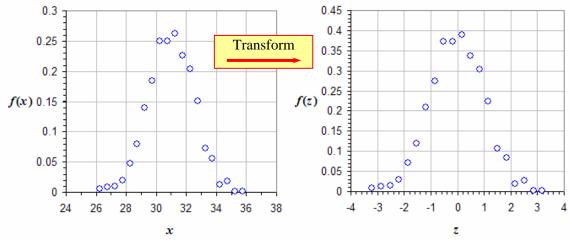
The data are provided in an Excel spreadsheet (<u>Temperature_data_analysis.xls</u>) on the website.

To do: Generate a PDF of these data. Normalize the PDF.

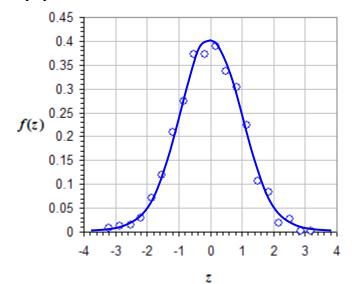
Solution:

• In a previous example (see the Histogram learning module), we generated a histogram of the temperature data. We begin with the bin and frequency data generated in Excel.

• To generate the PDF, we follow the step-by-step instructions provided above. This will be shown in class in Excel. The vertically normalized PDF is shown below (left side).



- Finally, we transform to normalized variables the fully normalized PDF is shown above (right side). Notice that the shape is the same, but the variable transformation to f(z) is *nondimensional*, making it more useful for comparison with other probability density distributions.
- The final PDF should be continuous, not discrete. Because of scatter, it is difficult to get Excel to draw a smooth curve through these data. For lack of a better method at this point, we sketch the smooth curve "by eye" below:



Discussion:

- The peak in the vertically normalized PDF occurs at $x \approx 31$, which is very close to the sample mean. This peak transforms to $z \approx 0$ in the fully normalized PDF; this is a useful feature of the normalization.
- We can estimate the area under the f(x) curve "by eye" by counting squares the area is indeed approximately 1.0 or 100%, as it must be.
- We can also estimate the area under the f(z) curve "by eye" it is approximately 1.0 or 100%, as it also must be.
- There are several standard PDFs discussed in statistics literature. Of these, the *normal PDF*, is the most common, and will be discussed next. We will also compare the above results with the normal PDF.