6: Transformations of Random Variables

PSTAT 120A: Summer 2022

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- Axioms of Probability, Probability Spaces, Counting
- Conditional Probabilities, independence, etc.
- Basics of Random Variables (classification, p.m.f., c.m.f., moments)
- Discrete Distributions
- Continuous Distributions

• First, it will be helpful to introduce some new notation:

Definition: Indicators

The **indicator function** associated with a particular event *A* is defined as

$$\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{A}}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in \mathcal{A} \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \in \mathcal{A}^{\complement} \end{cases}$$

Often, the (ω) will be dropped and we will simply write

$$\mathbb{I}_A = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } A \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• For instance, we can write the p.d.f. of the exponential distribution quite succinctly as

$$f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{x \ge 0\}}$$

Transformations of Random Variables

- Consider a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.
- Consider now a function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.
- Recall from precauclus that $(g \circ X)$ is itself a function.
- Specifically, $(g \circ X) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$; that is, $(g \circ X)$ is a random variable!
- Often times we will denote this random variable by g(X); for instance, we will start with a random variable X and define a new random variable Y := g(X). In other words, Y is a **transformation** of X.

- Functions of random variables? That sounds awfully abstract...
- Well, suppose T_C measures the temperature as measured in Centigrade of some town, and that $T_C \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 3)$. We may ask ourselves: "what is the distribution of temperatures as measured in Fahrenheit?" That is, if T_F measures the temperature in Fahrenheit then

$$T_F = g(T_C)$$
 where $g(t) = \frac{9}{5}t + 32$

and we seek the distribution of T_F .

Reference Example:

A particle is fired from the origin into the first quadrant such that the angle of trajectory (as measured w.r.t. the x-axis) is uniformly distributed. The particle travels unobstructed until it collides with circlar ring, placed at a constant radius of 1 away from the origin. We let Y denote the y-coordinate of the point of collision (see figure below).



What is the distribution of **Y**?

- Let Θ denote the angle of trajectory; then $\Theta \sim \text{Unif}[0, \pi/2].$
- We can see that

$$\sin(\Theta) = \frac{Y}{1} \implies Y = \sin(\Theta)$$

• So, we have $Y = g(\Theta)$ where $g(t) = \sin(t)$, and we want the distribution of Y.

• Finding $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ is relatively easy:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[\sin(\Theta)]$$

= $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sin(\theta) \cdot f_{\Theta}(\theta) \, \mathrm{d}\theta$
= $\int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sin(\theta) \cdot \frac{2}{\pi} \, \mathrm{d}\theta$
= $\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sin(\theta) \, \mathrm{d}\theta$
= $\frac{2}{\pi} [\cos(0) - \cos(\pi/2)] = \frac{2}{\pi}$

- Okay.... now what?
 - Y ~ N(2/π, 1)?
 - Y ~ Exp(π/2)?
- The point is: expectation isn't enough!

- This leads us to a broader question: what information *is* enough for us to determine the distribution of *Y*?
- There are at least two answers to this question. The answer we will discuss today is: "pmf's and pdf's."
 - The other answer will be discussed next week, and will lead us to something called Moment-Generating Functions. Again, more on that later.
- What I mean is this: if we can somehow find that the probability density function (p.d.f.) of Y is given by

$$f_Y(y) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) e^{-\frac{y\pi}{2}} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{y \ge 0\}}$$

then I can immediately say $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\pi/2)$.

• So, here is our task: given a random variable X that has p.d.f. $f_X(x)$, we seek to find the p.d.f. $f_Y(y)$ of the random variable Y := g(X).

(i) The Change of Variable Formula

Suppose *X* is a random variable with p.d.f. $f_X(x)$ and state space S_X . Further suppose *g* is a function that is bijective over S_X , and that Y := g(X). Then the p.d.f. of *Y* is given by

$$f_Y(y) = f_X \left[g^{-1}(y) \right] \cdot \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} g^{-1}(y) \right|$$

• We'll prove this in a bit.

Reference Example (again)

• Let's return to our reference example:

 $\Theta \sim \text{Unif}(0, \pi/2)$ $g(t) := \sin(t)$ $Y := g(\Theta)$

• First, we can check that $S_{\Theta} = [0, \pi/2]$ and g(t) is indeed bijective over S_{Θ} with inverse given by

$$g^{-1}(y) = \arcsin(y)$$

• Thus, by calculus:

$$\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y}g^{-1}(y)\right| = \left|\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y}\operatorname{arcsin}(y)\right| = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}}\right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}}$$

Reference Example (again)

• Hence:

$$f_{Y}(y) = f_{\Theta}(\arcsin y) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - y^{2}}}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\pi} & \text{if } 0 \le \arcsin y \le \pi/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - y^{2}}}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\pi\sqrt{1 - y^{2}}} & \text{if } 0 \le y \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- By the way, $S_Y = g(S_{\Theta})$.
- We can also verify our expectation computation from before:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_0^1 \frac{2y}{\pi\sqrt{1-y^2}} \, \mathrm{d}y = \frac{2}{\pi} \checkmark$$

Suppose *X* has p.d.f. $f_X(x)$ and suppose Y = aX + b for a, b > 0. Derive an expression [in terms of $f_X(x)$, a, and b] for the p.d.f. $f_Y(y)$ of *Y*.

Non-bijective Functions

- Note that the Change of Variable formula requires *g* to be bijective over the state space of *X*. What do we do if this is not the case? For instance, suppose *X* ~ *N*(0, 1) and *Y* = *X*².
- Firstly, why does the Change of Variable formula not work for non-bijective functions?
- Answer: invertibility. Recall (from Precalculus) that inverting a function is equivalent to performing a reflection about the line y = x. Thus, if a function f(x) violates the horizontal line test [i.e. fails to be bijective] its reflection about y = x will fail the *vertical* line test and not even be a function!



Non-bijective Functions (cont'd)

- But, a fact that we can leverage is: restrictions of non-bijective functions can be bijective!
- For instance, $f(x) = x^2$ when restricted to only $x \in (-\infty, 0]$ is bijective; similarly, $f(x) = x^2$ when restricted to only $x \in (0, \infty)$ is also bijective:



Transformations of Random Variables

- So, let us return to our problem of finding the density of Y := g(X) when g is not bijective over S_X.
- Our approach is as follows:
 - 1. Partition S_X into smaller subintervals $S_X^{(i)}$ such that g is bijective over each $S_X^{(i)}$.
 - 2. Apply the Change of Variable Formula to each $S_X^{(i)}$, to obtain a series of partial p.d.f.'s $f_Y^{(i)}(y)$ valid over $S_X^{(i)}$
 - 3. Combine these partial p.d.f.'s into a single piecewise-defined p.d.f. through addition.
 - 4. CAVEAT: Only add p.d.f's that are valid over the same domain. If you obtain two sub-pdf's $f_Y^{(1)}(y)$ and $f_Y^{(2)}(y)$ that ar valid over two separate domains, say $S_Y^{(1)}$ and $S_Y^{(2)}$, then do not add these but rather simply combine them into the same p.d.f. using piecewise notation:

$$f_{Y}(y) = \begin{cases} f_{Y}^{(1)}(y) & \text{if } y \in S_{Y}^{(1)} \\ f_{Y}^{(2)}(y) & \text{if } y \in S_{Y}^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{cases}$$

This is important for HW05 question 2.

Worked-Out Example: If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, find the distribution of $Y := X^2$.

• The state space of X is $S_X = \mathbb{R}$; clearly $g(x) = x^2$ is not bijective over S_X . Thus, we partition S_X into

$$S_X^{(1)} := (-\infty, 0]$$
 , $S_X^{(2)} := (0, \infty)$

because $g(x) = x^2$ is bijective over $S_X^{(1)}$ and $S_X^{(2)}$ respectively.

Worked-Out Example (cont'd)



Worked-Out Example (cont'd)



Transformations of Random Variables

• So, putting everything together,

$$\begin{split} f_{Y}(y) &= f_{Y}^{(1)}(y) + f_{Y}^{(2)}(y) \\ &= \phi(-\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} + \phi(\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} \\ &= \phi(\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} + \phi(\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \phi(\sqrt{y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y} \end{split}$$

Worked-Out Example: If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, find the distribution of $Y := X^2$.

- State Space?
- $S_Y(y) = g(S_X)$.
- So, in our example, $S_Y = (\mathbb{R})^2 = [0, \infty)$ meaning

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{y \ge 0\}}$$

• (This is a special case of the so-called χ^2 distribution, a very useful distribution you will return to throughout your Statistics Careers!)

• Now, there is another approach to identifying the distributions of transformed random variable. It stems from the following fact:

Fact

CDF's uniquely determine distributions. In other words, if *X* and *Y* are random variables with c.d.f.'s F_X and $F_Y(y)$ respectively, then $F_X(t) = F_Y(t)$ for all *y* implies that *X* and *Y* follow the same distribution [sometimes written $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$]

The C.D.F. Method

- To see this in action, let's return to our χ^2 example.
- The c.d.f. of Y is given by

$$F_Y(y) := \mathbb{P}(Y \le y) = \mathbb{P}(X^2 \le y) = \mathbb{P}(|X| \le \sqrt{y}) = \mathbb{P}(-\sqrt{y} \le X \le \sqrt{y})$$

• Since the c.d.f. of X is simply $\Phi(\cdot)$, we have

$$F_Y(y) = \Phi(\sqrt{y}) - \Phi(-\sqrt{y})$$

which can be further cleaned up by noting

$$\Phi(-\sqrt{y}) = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{y})$$

Therefore,

$$F_Y(y) = 2\Phi(\sqrt{y}) - 1$$

• To find the p.d.f. of Y we differentiate and apply the chain rule:

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \left[2\Phi(\sqrt{y}) - 1 \right] = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} \cdot \phi(\sqrt{y}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{y})^2}$$

[recall that ϕ , the lowercase version of Φ , denotes the standard normal density]

Let $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ and Y = X + c for some c > 0. Find the p.d.f. of Y using the c.d.f. method

- First note $S_Y = [c, \infty)$
- So, for $y \in [c, \infty)$ we have that the c.d.f. of Y at y is

$$F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(X + c \le y) = \mathbb{P}(X \le y - c) = 1 - e^{-\lambda(y - c)}$$

• Differentiating yields

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda(y-c)}$$

meaning, putting everything together,

$$f_Y(y) = egin{cases} rac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda(y-c)} & ext{if } y \geq c \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

which is a special case of what is sometimes known as the **two-parameter** exponential distribution.

• Finally, it is time to pay one of our dues and prove something we said we'd prove:

Theorem: Standardization

If
$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 and $Z := \left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$, then $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

Proof.

• Let's use the change of variable formula.

$$g(t) = rac{t-\mu}{\sigma} \implies g^{-1}(t) = \sigma t + \mu \implies rac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}g^{-1}(t) = \sigma$$

• So

$$f_{Z}(z) = \sigma \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \cdot \sigma} \cdot \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}}\left([\sigma z + \mu] - \mu\right)^{2}\right\}$$

• Once the dust settles, you can see that $f_Z(z) = \phi(z)$ thereby showing $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- There are two cases we must consider: when *g* is strictly increasing and when *g* is strictly decreasing.
- If g is strictly increasing, then g⁻¹ will also be strictly increasing and its derivative will be positive.
- Now, let's find the p.d.f. of Y := g(X) using the c.d.f. method:

$$F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \le y) = \mathbb{P}(g(X) \le y) = \mathbb{P}(X \le g^{-1}(y)) = F_X\left[g^{-1}(y)\right]$$

Note that we are guaranteed the existence of g^{-1} by our bijectivity assumption on g.

• Now, we differentiate w.r.t. y:

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} F_X\left[g^{-1}(y)\right] = f_X[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} g^{-1}(y)$$

where we have applied the chain rule.

- The other case to consider is when *g* is strictly decreasing.
- If g is strictly decreasing, then g^{-1} will also be strictly decreasing and its derivative will be negative.
- Now, let's find the p.d.f. of Y := g(X) using the c.d.f. method:

$$F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \le y) = \mathbb{P}(g(X) \le y) = \mathbb{P}(X \ge g^{-1}(y)) = 1 - F_X[g^{-1}(y)]$$

Key Point: We had to flip the sign of the inequality because we applied a decreasing function to both sides!

• Now, we differentiate w.r.t. y:

$$f_{Y}(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \left\{ 1 - F_{X} \left[g^{-1}(y) \right] \right\} = f_{X}[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \left[-\frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right]$$

where we have again applied the chain rule.

• So, in piecewise-defined form, we have

$$f_{Y}(y) = \begin{cases} f_{X}[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \left[\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \right] & \text{if } \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) > 0 \\ f_{X}[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \left[-\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \right] & \text{if } \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) < 0 \end{cases}$$
$$= f_{X}[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \\ -\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \end{bmatrix} & \text{if } \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) > 0 \\ -\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \end{bmatrix} & \text{if } \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) < 0 \end{cases} = f_{X}[g^{-1}(y)] \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) \right|$$

which is precisely the Change of Variable formula.