

A Mini-Project Report On "Transformation of Random Variables"

Submitted to
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Project Synopsis

The sole focus of this report was to give a detailed explanation of "Monotonic and Non-monotonic Transformation of single Random Variable while discussing its applications". Every topic mentioned has been explained by taking few examples. A brief and comprehensible explanation of every example has been given. Monotonic and Non-Monotonic behaviour of a function have also been discussed.

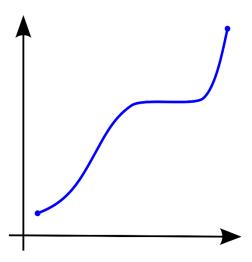
Abbreviations used:

- 1. r.v. = Random Variable
- 2. pmf = Probability Mass Function
- 3. pdf = Probability Density Function
- 4. cdf = Cumulative Distribution Function

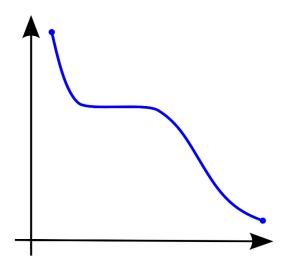
Monotonic and Non-Monotonic Function

Monotonic Function:

A function which is either non-increasing or non-decreasing throughout its domain is called a monotonic function. A monotonic function's first derivate (need not to be continuous) does not change sign.



A monotonically increasing function Image source: <u>Inkspace</u>



A monotonically decreasing function Image source: Inkspace

#Example:

$$g(x) = x^3$$
, where $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

Thing to notice here is that, the first derivative of g(x) is x^2 i.e., $\frac{d(g(x))}{dx} = x^2$

implies that no matter what sign is g(x), its first derivative will always be positive, therefore always non-decreasing and hence a **monotone**.

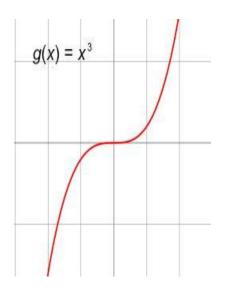
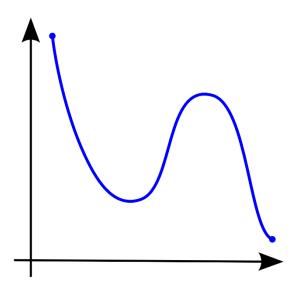


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Non-Monotonic Function:

A non-monotonic function is increasing and decreasing on different intervals throughout its domain. Its first derivative changes sign.



A non-monotonic function Image source: Inkspace

#Example:

 $h(x)=x^2$, where $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

its first derivative changes sign at the mid of the graph and hence not a **monotone**.

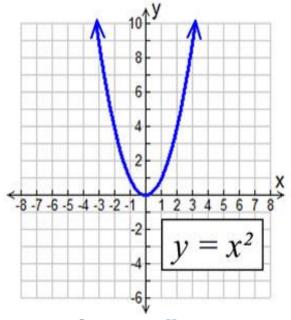


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Transformation of Single Random Variables

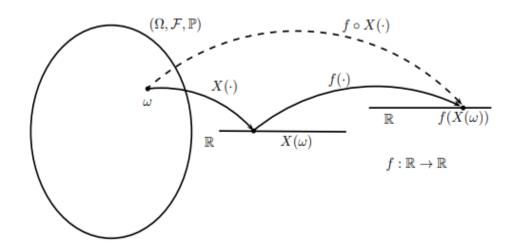
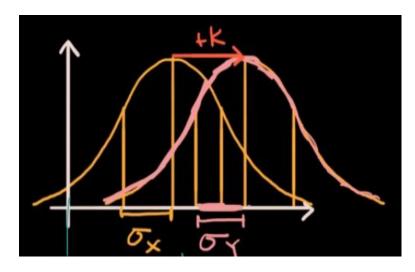


Fig: Transformation of Random Variable Image source: Here

<u>Impact of transforming (scaling and shifting) on random variables:</u>

1. Suppose X be a random variable having a bell like distribution and Y be a new random variable obtained by shifting X by adding a non-zero constant k.

Such that, Y=X+k



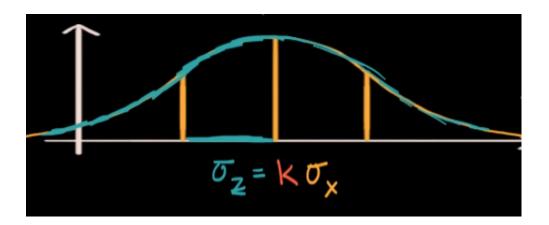
Distribution of X before and after shifting (Y)

Consequently, mean (μ_x) will also shift by the value k and the new mean will be $\mu_y = \mu_x + k$

and the standard deviation (σ_x) will remain unchanged, i.e., $\sigma_y = \sigma_x$

2. Now, consider a new random variable Z which is obtained by scaling X by the factor k (non-zero)

such that,
$$Z=kX$$



Distribution of X after scaling (Z)

The curve has flattened because the area of the graph will still be 1.

The new mean will be increased by k times i.e., $\mu_z = k\mu_x$

and the new standard deviation will also be increased by k times i.e., $\sigma_z = k\sigma_x$

For Discrete Random Variable:

X is a discrete random variable then the transformation is given by, Y=T(X). $p_x(x_i)=P(x=x_i)$ pmf of a discrete random variable.

1. If T is monotonic:

Let *X* takes the value x_n . Then, $p_y(y_n) = p_x(x_n)$ as $P(y=y_n) = P(x=x_n)$.

2. If T is non-monotonic:

Then,
$$P(y=y_n) = \sum P_x(x_n)$$
, $y_n = T(x_n)$

#Example 1:

Consider a r.v. X represents the number of heads obtained in 4 consecutive tosses of a coin then we need to find the pmf of $Y = \frac{1}{1+x}$.

Solution: Here X is a binomial r.v. with parameters (4,1/2)

$$\therefore p_{X}(k) = {}^{n}C_{k}p^{k}q^{n-k}$$

k	0	1	2	3	4
$p_x(k)$	$(1/2^4)$	$(4/2^4)$	$(6/2^4)$	$(4/2^4)$	$(1/2^4)$

Since for every value x_n of X, we get different values y_n of Y

$$Y = T(X) = \frac{1}{1+x}$$

Therefore, *T* is a monotone.

X	0	1	2	3	4
Y	1	1/2	1/3	1/4	1/5
$P(y=y_n)$	1/16	1/4	3/8	1/4	1/16

Pmf of Y

#Example 2:

Consider a r.v. X can have the values $\{-3, -2, -1, 1, 2\}$, then find the pmf of $Y=X^2$.

$$P(X=x_n) = \frac{1}{5}$$
 (For each value)

Solution: We have,
$$Y=T(X)=X^2$$

$$X=\{-3, -2, -1, 1, 2\}$$

And
$$Y=X^2$$

$$P(Y=1)=P(X=-1)+P(X=1)=\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{5}=\frac{2}{5}$$

$$P(Y=4)=P(X=-2)+P(X=2)=\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{5}=\frac{2}{5}$$

$$P(Y=9)=P(X=3)=\frac{1}{5}$$

For different values of X, we get the same value of Y. Hence T is not a **monotone.**

Уn	1	4	9
$P(Y=y_n)$	2/5	2/5	1/5

pmf of Y

For Continuous Random Variable:

1. Monotonic:

 $F_y(y) = F_x(x) \Longrightarrow P(y \le y_o) = P(x \le x_o)$ therefore, increasing function

$$F_y(y)=1-F_x(x) \Longrightarrow P(y \le y_o)=1-P(x \le x_o)$$
 therefore, decreasing function

Now,

$$f_{y}(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_{y}(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_{x}(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_{x}(x) \frac{dx}{dy}$$

$$\therefore \qquad \boxed{f_{y}(y) = f_{x}(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|}$$

The transformation of a random variable with a function of monotonic nature adds up to calculating the inverse function (x as a function of y, If Y=h(X) then h^{-1}) taking its derivative, putting in everything to a known formula, and simplifying it to get the PDF of the transformed random variable.

#Example:

Consider, Y=2X+3, find pdf of Y if X is uniform r.v. with parameters (-1,2)

Solution: Since X is a uniform r.v. (-1,2)

Here, a=-1 and b=2

therefore,
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3}, & -1 < x < 2\\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

and Y=2X+3 is linear and a monotone.

$$\therefore f_{y}(y) = f_{x}(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$
$$f_{y}(y) = f_{x}\left(\frac{y-3}{2}\right) \left| \frac{d\left(\frac{y-3}{2}\right)}{dy} \right|$$

on solving this gives,

$$f_y(y) = \begin{cases} 1/6, & 1 < x < 7 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

NOTE: Monotonic linear transformation of a uniform r.v. is also a uniform r.v.

NOTE: Monotonic linear Transformation of a normal r.v. is also a normal r.v.

2. Non-monotonic:

X is a continuous r.v. having pdf $f_x(x)$ and the transformation is Y=T(X) then the pdf of *Y* is given by

$$f_{y}(y) = \sum \frac{f_{x}(x_{n})}{\left|\left[\frac{dT(x)}{dx}\right]_{x_{n}}\right|}$$

Here the sum is taken so as to include all the real roots x_n of Y=T(X). cdf can also be calculated by integrating the pdf.

#Example:

If X is a continuous r.v. with pdf $f_x(x)$ and $Y=aX^2$, a>0. Find the pdf of Y.

Solution: We have,
$$y=ax^2$$
 $x=\pm\sqrt{\frac{y}{a}}$

$$\therefore \text{ Real roots, } x_I=+\sqrt{\frac{y}{a}} \text{ and } x_2=-\sqrt{\frac{y}{a}}$$

$$\frac{dT(x)}{dx}=\frac{d(ax^2)}{dx}=2ax$$

$$\text{At } x=x_I, \frac{dT(x)}{dx}=2a\sqrt{y/a}=2\sqrt{ay}$$

$$\text{At } x=x_2, \frac{dT(x)}{dx}=2a(-\sqrt{\frac{y}{a}})=-2\sqrt{ay}$$

$$f_y(y)=\frac{f_x(x_1)}{\left[\left[\frac{dT(x)}{dx}\right]_{x_1}\right]}+\frac{f_x(x_2)}{\left[\left[\frac{dT(x)}{dx}\right]_{x_2}\right]}$$

$$=\frac{f_x(x_1)}{2\sqrt{ay}}+\frac{f_x(x_2)}{2\sqrt{ay}}$$

$$\therefore f_y(y)=\frac{1}{2\sqrt{ay}}\{f_x(x_1)+f_x(x_2)\}$$

There are various other techniques to our avail to do the transformation:

1. The cumulative distribution function (cdf) technique:

Let y be a continuous r.v. with cdf $F_y(y) \equiv P(Y \le y)$ and let U = g(Y), a function of Y and we are supposed to find the distribution of U. And this technique is useful when the cdf has closed-form analytical expression.

Steps of the cdf technique:

- 1. Determine the domain of Y and U.
- 2. Write $F_U(u) = P(U \le u)$, the cdf of U, in terms of $F_Y(y)$, the cdf of Y.
- 3. Take the derivative of $F_{\rm U}(u)$ to get the pdf of U, $f_{\rm U}(u)$.

#Example1:

Suppose that $Y \sim U(0,1)$. Find the distribution of $U = g(Y) = -\ln Y$.

Solution. The cdf of $Y \sim U(0,1)$ is given by

$$F_{Y}(y) = \begin{cases} 0, & y \le 0 \\ y, & 0 < y \le 1 \\ 1, & y \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

The domain for $Y \sim U(0,1)$ is $R_Y = \{y: 0 < y < 1\}$; thus, because $u = -\ln y > 0$, it follows that the domain for U is $R_U = \{u: u > 0\}$. The cdf of U is:

$$F_{U}(u) = P(U \le u) = P(-\ln Y \le u)$$

$$= P(\ln Y > -u)$$

$$= P(Y > e^{-u}) = 1 - P(Y \le e^{-u})$$

$$= 1 - F_{Y}(e^{-u})$$

Because
$$F_Y(y) = y$$
 for $0 < y < 1$; i.e., for $u > 0$, we have
$$F_U(u) = 1 - FY(e^{-u}) = 1 - e^{-u}$$

Taking derivatives, we get, for u > 0,

$$f_{\rm U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} F_{\rm U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} (1 - e^{-u}) = e^{-u}$$

Summarizing,

$$f_{\mathrm{U}}(u) = \begin{cases} e^{-u}, & u > 0\\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

This is an exponential pdf with mean $\frac{1}{\lambda} = 1$; that is, U ~ exponential ($\lambda = 1$).

For more examples refer to, <u>Transformations</u>.

NOTE: Recall from calculus that if g is one-to-one, it has an unique inverse g^1 . Also recall that if g is increasing (decreasing), then so is g^{-1} .

#Derivation of the pdf technique formula using the cdf method:

Let g(y) be a strictly increasing function of y defined over R_Y .

Then, it follows that
$$u = g(y) \Leftrightarrow g - 1 \ (u) = y$$
 and $F_U(u) = P(U \le u) = P[g(Y) \le u] = P[Y \le g^{-1} \ (u)] = F_Y[g^{-1} \ (u)]$

Differentiating $F_U(u)$ with respect to u, we get

$$f_{U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} F_{U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} F_{Y} [g^{-1}(u)]$$

$$= f_{Y}[g^{-1}(u)] \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u)$$
 (by chain rule)

Now as g is increasing, so is g^{-1} ; thus, $\frac{d}{du}g^{-1}(u) > 0$. If g(y) is strictly decreasing, then

$$F_{\rm U}(u) = 1 - F_{\rm Y}[g^{-1}(u)]$$
 and $d \ du \ g^{-1}(u) < 0$, which gives
$$f_{\rm U}(u) = F_{\rm U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} \{1 - F_{\rm Y}[g^{-1}(u)]\}$$

$$=-f_{\rm Y}[g^{-1}(u)]\frac{d}{du}g^{-1}(u)$$

Combining both cases, we have shown that the pdf of U, where non-zero, is given by

$$f_{\rm U}(u) = f_{\rm Y}[g^{-1}(u)] \left| \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right|$$

It is again important to keep track of the domain for U. If R_Y denotes the domain of Y, then R_U , the domain for U, is given by $R_U = \{u: u = g(y); y \in R_Y\}$.

For more details, refer to, <u>Transformations</u>.

Applications of transformations of random variable:

1. The inspiration behind the transformation of a random variable is depicted in the following example:

Imagine a situation where the velocity of a particle is distributed according to a random variable V. Based on a particular value of the velocity, there will be a corresponding value of kinetic energy E and we are asked the distribution of kinetic energy. Undoubtedly, this is a scenario where we are asking for the distribution of a new random variable, which depends on the original random variable through a transformation. Such circumstances occur oftentimes in practical applications.

2. Statistical Application:

Often transforming a random variable can lead to pre-existing important results.

Example:

Suppose that $Y \sim \text{exponential}(\beta)$; i.e., the pdf of Y is

$$f_{\mathrm{Y}}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}, & y > 0 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

Let $U = g(Y) = \sqrt{Y}$, Use the method of transformations to find the pdf of U.

<u>Solution</u>: First, we note that the transformation $g(Y) = \sqrt{Y}$ is a continuous strictly increasing function of y over $R_Y = \{y: y > 0\}$, and, thus, g(Y) is one-to-one. Next, we need to find the domain of U. This is easy since y > 0 implies $u = \sqrt{y} > 0$ as well.

Thus, $R_U = \{u: u > 0\}$. Now, we find the inverse transformation:

$$g(y) = u = \sqrt{y} \Leftrightarrow y = g^{-1}(u)$$

= u^2 (by inverse transformation)

and its derivative:

$$\frac{d}{du}g^{-1}(u) = \frac{d}{du}u^2 = 2u$$

Thus, for u > 0,

$$f_{U}(u) = f_{Y}[g^{-1}(u)] \left| \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right|$$
$$= \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-\frac{u^{2}}{\beta}} |2u| = \frac{2u}{\beta} e^{-\frac{u^{2}}{\beta}}$$

Summarizing,

$$f_{U}(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{2u}{\beta} e^{-\frac{u^{2}}{\beta}}, & u > 0\\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

This is a **Weibull distribution**. The Weibull family of distributions is common in life science (survival analysis), engineering and actuarial science applications.

CONCLUSION:

- 1. Behaviour of a function (Monotonic or Non-Monotonic) plays a role in transforming a random variable.
- 2. Type of the random variable (Discrete or Continuous) also plays the role.
- 3. There are different techniques to our avail to carry out the transformation.
- 4. This topic has some real-world applications.

References:

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