

Topic 02: Transformations

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Outline

1. Univariate Transformations
2. Method of Distribution Functions (CDF Method)
3. Method of Transformations (Change of Variable Formula)
4. Method of Moment-Generating Functions (MGF Method)



Leadup

- Recall, from PSTAT 120A, that given an appropriate probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, we can think of a **random variable** X as a mapping:

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$



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- Additionally, recall the following fact from precalculus: given a mapping $f_1 : A \rightarrow B$ and another mapping $f_2 : B \rightarrow C$, then $(f_2 \circ f_1) : A \rightarrow C$.



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- Additionally, recall the following fact from precalculus: given a mapping $f_1 : A \rightarrow B$ and another mapping $f_2 : B \rightarrow C$, then $(f_2 \circ f_1) : A \rightarrow C$.
- This means, given a function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we have $(g \circ X) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.



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- Another way of saying this: functions of random variables are themselves random variables.
- “Functions of random variables?” That sounds awfully abstract...
- But, if we think about it a bit more, this isn't as abstract as it may seem!



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- Clearly, the random variables H_I and H_C are related: specifically, $H_C = g(H_I)$ where $g(t) = 2.54 * t$ [since this is the conversion formula between inches and centimeters].



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- Clearly, the random variables H_I and H_C are related: specifically, $H_C = g(H_I)$ where $g(t) = 2.54 * t$ [since this is the conversion formula between inches and centimeters].
 - So, **unit conversion** is a fairly simple example of one way transformations (i.e. taking functions of random variables) can be useful.



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- The **sample mean** $\bar{X}_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ [which you hopefully saw in PSTAT 120A!] is actually a *function* of the original sequence of random variables, and is hence an example of a transformation.



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- For simplicity's sake, let's start off with univariate transformations.
 - Specifically, given a random variable Y and a function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we will seek to explore properties of the random variable $U := g(Y)$.

Univariate Transformations



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- What do we mean by “describe” the random variable U ?
- Well, there are a couple of things we could seek to do. First, we could try to compute $\mathbb{E}[U]$.



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- The **Law of the Unconscious Statistician** (LOTUS), which we saw in PSTAT 120A, tells us

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- Similar considerations will allow us to compute $\text{Var}(U)$.



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 - Its **distribution function** (i.e. CDF)
 - Its **density function** (PDF)
 - Its **MGF** (moment-generating function)



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- This would, in turn, automatically tell you that W has distribution function

$$F_W(w) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-2w} & \text{if } w \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and MGF

$$M_W(t) = \begin{cases} (1 - t/2)^{-1} & \text{if } t < 1/2 \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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you would immediately be able to say

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(x-2)^2 \right\}$$

and

$$F_X(x) = \Phi(x-2); \quad \Phi(x) := \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} dz$$



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- What I mean is this - the distribution of X doesn't have a name, like "Exponential" or "Gamma". But it certainly *has* a distribution!
- All of this is to say: I encourage you to get into the habit of thinking about "distributions" fairly broadly, and thinking of a distribution as either a density function, distribution function, or MGF (or all three).



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- We could go after the density function of U .
- Or we could go after the distribution function of U .
- Or we could go after the MGF of U .
- Indeed, each of these three approaches are what our textbook calls different “methods”.



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- Then, given a random variable $U := g(Y)$, we have $S_U = g(S_Y)$.
 - That is, the support of a transformed random variable is the image of the original support under the transformation.
- Though this formula seems innocuous enough, finding the support of a transformed random variable can be trickier than it first appears...



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- Specifically, let's say we have an interval $[a, b]$ and a transformation $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

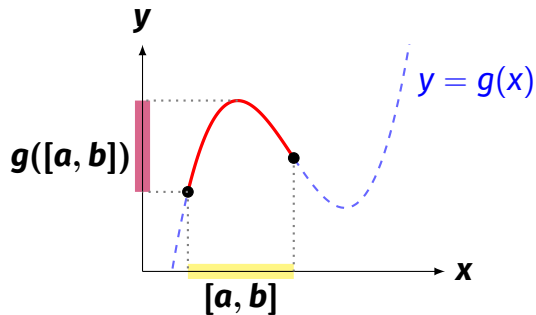


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- Specifically, let's say we have an interval $[a, b]$ and a transformation $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- To figure out what $g([a, b])$ looks like, simply graph the function $y = g(x)$, indicate $[a, b]$ on the x -axis, and figure out what the corresponding values on the y -axis are.

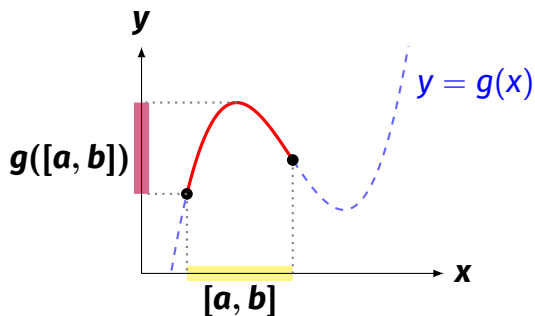


Support





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- Note: in general, $g([a, b]) \neq [g(a), g(b)]$!



Clicker Question!

Clicker Question 1

For $A = [0, 6]$ and $g(x) = \cos(\pi x)$, what is the correct expression for $g(A)$?

- (A) $[0, 1]$ (B) $[0, 6]$ (C) $[-1, 1]$ (D) $\{0\}$
(E) None of the above



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Try this On Your Own:

Example

For $A = [-1, 1]$ and $g(x) = x^2$, what is the correct expression for $g(A)$?

Method of Distribution Functions (CDF Method)



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 - If it helps, you can think of this in terms of our inches-to-centimeter conversion example from the start of this lecture: Y can denote the heights in inches and U can denote the heights in centimeters.



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$$F_U(u) := \mathbb{P}(U \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(cY \leq u)$$



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- Divide through by c :

$$F_U(u) = \mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq \frac{u}{c}\right) = F_Y\left(\frac{u}{c}\right)$$



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- So, plugging into our expression for $F_Y(y)$, we have:

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- And we're done! We've accomplished our goal, and found an expression for $F_U(u)$, the CDF of U .



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- We're going to use this result a **LOT!**



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- Again, if it helps, you can always think in terms of our inches-to-centimeter problem from the start of these slides.
- If $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$ denotes the height of a randomly selected person in inches, then the distribution of heights in centimeters will *also* be exponential, this time with mean 2.54θ .



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- But, even though we can't *immediately* recognize the CDF of Y in this example, we can still derive it!



Example

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$$F_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y f_Y(t) dt$$



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- Clearly, for $y < 0$ we have $F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = 0$ and for $y > 1$ we have $\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = 1$, meaning

$$F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 0 \\ y^2 & \text{if } 0 \leq y < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } y \geq 1 \end{cases}$$



Example

- And now we're in the same position as before!

$$\mathbb{P}(U \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(cY \leq u) = \mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq \frac{u}{c}\right)$$



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- One more example before we summarize.



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- Let $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $U := Y^2$.
- A quick sketch (see chalkboard) reveals that $S_U = [0, \infty)$. So, $F_U(u) = 0$ whenever $u < 0$.



Example

- One more example before we summarize.
- Let $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $U := Y^2$.
- A quick sketch (see chalkboard) reveals that $S_U = [0, \infty)$. So, $F_U(u) = 0$ whenever $u < 0$.
- Additionally, we (again) have the CDF of Y : $F_Y(y) = \Phi(y)$, where $\Phi(\cdot)$ denotes the standard normal CDF.



Example

- So, let's try and proceed like we did before! For a fixed $u \geq 0$,

$$F_U(u) := \mathbb{P}(U \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(Y^2 \leq u)$$



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This is, however, INCORRECT.

- Let's understand why.



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- So, what we really have is:

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Example (cont'd)

- Now, there's another way to see how to get from $\mathbb{P}(Y^2 \leq u)$ to $\mathbb{P}(-\sqrt{u} \leq Y \leq \sqrt{u})$; one that doesn't require us to dig into our memory banks and dredge up something from algebra/precalculus, and instead uses pictures.

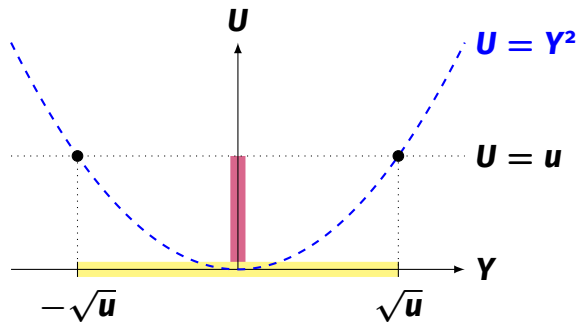


Video

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HtzqjHfoRbw>



Static Image





Example (cont'd)

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- That's a bit anticlimactic... Let's differentiate wrt. u and obtain the PDF of U :



Example (cont'd)

$$f_U(u) = \frac{d}{du} F_U(u)$$



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- Let's incorporate the support of U , and simplify:



Example (cont'd)

$$f_U(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \phi(\sqrt{u}) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \geq 0\}}$$



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$$\begin{aligned} f_U(u) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \phi(\sqrt{u}) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \geq 0\}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{u})^2} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \geq 0\}} \end{aligned}$$



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- One useful fact: $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$. Hence:

$$f_U(u) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1/2) \cdot 2^{1/2}} \cdot u^{1/2-1} \cdot e^{-u/2} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \geq 0\}}$$



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- Indeed, $U \sim \text{Gamma}(1/2, 2) \stackrel{d}{=} \chi_1^2$!



Theorem

- This is an **extremely** important result which we will use repeatedly throughout this course. Let's make it more formal by rephrasing it as a theorem:

Theorem (Square of Standard Normal)

If $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $U := Y^2$, then $U \sim \chi_1^2$.

- The proof of this theorem is exactly the work we did on the previous slides.



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- Whew- that was a lot of work! Let's recap.



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- Given a random variable Y , and $U := g(Y)$ for some function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we can use the **method of distribution functions** (aka the **CDF**) method to find the distribution of U .



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 - (1) Writing $F_U(u)$, the CDF of U , in terms of $F_Y(y)$, the CDF of Y , by basically finding an equivalent formulation for the event $A_U := \{U \leq u\}$ that is in terms of Y



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 - (2) Plugging into the CDF of Y , and simplifying as necessary.

Method of Transformations (Change of Variable Formula)



Leadup

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- This begs the question - can we perhaps “extend” the CDF method to give us a formula for the *PDF* of U directly?
- The answer turns out to be “yes, under some conditions.”



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- Isn't it tempting to apply $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ to both sides of the inequality?
- It is! But we need to be careful. First, remember that we don't have any guarantee that $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ even exists!



Leadup

- Alright, then - let's add some assumption about our function $g(\cdot)$.



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- Now we are guaranteed the existence of $g^{-1}(\cdot)$.
- Furthermore, since we assumed $g(\cdot)$ itself to be strictly *increasing*, $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ will also be strictly increasing.



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- Now we are guaranteed the existence of $g^{-1}(\cdot)$.
- Furthermore, since we assumed $g(\cdot)$ itself to be strictly *increasing*, $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ will also be strictly increasing.
- Hence, we “preserve the direction of inequality” when applying $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ to both sides of an inequality.



Leadup

- Then:

$$F_U(u) := \mathbb{P}(U \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(g(Y) \leq u) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq g^{-1}(u)) = F_Y(g^{-1}(u))$$



Leadup

- Then:

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- We can now differentiate wrt. U and apply the chain rule (from calculus; we can discuss this further on the chalkboard):

$$\begin{aligned} f_U(u) &:= \frac{d}{du} F_U(u) \\ &= \frac{d}{du} F_Y(g^{-1}(u)) \\ &= f_Y(g^{-1}(u)) \cdot \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \end{aligned}$$



Leadup

- If we instead assume that $g(\cdot)$ is strictly decreasing, a similar computation (which I'll be asking you to complete on your homework) yields

$$f_U(u) = f_Y(g^{-1}(u)) \cdot \left[-\frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right]$$



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- So, if we instead simply assume that $g(\cdot)$ is strictly monotonic, we can summarize our findings as:

$$f_U(u) = \begin{cases} f_Y(g^{-1}(u)) \cdot \left[\frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right] & \text{if } g(\cdot) \text{ is increasing} \\ f_Y(g^{-1}(u)) \cdot \left[-\frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right] & \text{if } g(\cdot) \text{ is decreasing} \end{cases}$$



Change of Variable Formula

- A bit of simplification (and recollections of how derivatives of increasing/decreasing functions behaves) allows us to rewrite our result above as:



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Theorem (Change of Variable Formula)

Given a random variable $Y \sim f_Y$ and a function $g(\cdot)$ that is strictly monotonic over the support of Y , then the random variable $U := g(Y)$ has density given by

$$f_U(u) = f_Y[g^{-1}(u)] \cdot \left| \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right|$$



Example

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Example

- As an example, let's re-derive the closure under multiplication property of the Exponential distribution, this time using the Change of Variable formula.
- That is: let $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$, and set $U := cY$ for some positive constant $c > 0$.
- Since the transformation $g(y) = cy$ is strictly monotonic (specifically, it's strictly increasing) its inverse exists and is calculable as $g^{-1}(u) = u/c$. Hence:

$$\left| \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right| = \left| \frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{u}{c} \right) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{c} \right| = \frac{1}{c}$$

where we have dropped the absolute values in the last step since we are assuming $c > 0$.



Example

- Additionally, since $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$ we know that

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\theta} \exp \left\{ -\frac{y}{\theta} \right\} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{y \geq 0\}}$$



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- Therefore, plugging into the change of variable formula, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_U(u) &= f_Y[g^{-1}(u)] \cdot \left| \frac{d}{du} g^{-1}(u) \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{\theta} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\left(\frac{u}{c}\right)}{\theta} \right\} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{\frac{u}{c} \geq 0\}} \cdot \frac{1}{c} \\ &= \frac{1}{c\theta} \exp \left\{ -\frac{u}{c\theta} \right\} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \geq 0\}} \end{aligned}$$



Clicker Question!

Clicker Question 1

Given $Y \sim \text{Unif}[1, 2]$ and $U := 2X + 3$, does U also follow a Uniform Distribution?

(A) Yes; (B) No



Change of Variable Formula

- Now, note that the only assumption we need to make about $g(\cdot)$ in order for the Change of Variable formula to hold is that it is strictly monotone *over the support of Y* .



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- Though the function $g(y) = y^2$ is not strictly monotone over \mathbb{R} , it is strictly monotone over $S_Y := [-1, 0]$ (i.e. the support of Y), and hence its inverse exists and is given by $g^{-1}(u) = -\sqrt{u}$.



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- The Change of Variable formula can therefore safely be applied.



Change of Variable Formula

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- In general, however, the Change of Variable formula does not work when we are dealing with transformations that are not strictly monotone.
- For example, given $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $U := Y^2$, we *cannot* directly apply the Change of Variable formula.
 - Admittedly, there does exist a way to generalize the Change of Variable formula to work in a situation like this, but we won't cover that in PSTAT 120B. If you're curious, I'm happy to walk you through the general outline during Office Hours.

Method of Moment-Generating Functions (MGF Method)



Leadup

Goal

Given a random variable Y and a function $g()$, we seek to describe the random variable $U := g(Y)$.



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Given a random variable Y and a function $g()$, we seek to describe the random variable $U := g(Y)$.

- So far, we've talked about “describing” the distribution of U by both its CDF (using the CDF method) and its PDF (using the Change of Variable formula).
- We know that there is a third way of classifying distributions - **moment-generating functions** (MGFs).



MGFs

Definition (MGF)

The MGF of a random variable X , notated $M_X(t)$, is defined as

$$M_X(t) := \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$$



MGFs

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- Recall that this expectation is computed as a sum if X is discrete and as an integral if X is continuous.



Useful Result

Theorem

Given two random variables X and Y with MGFs $M_X(t)$ and $M_Y(t)$, respectively, that are both continuous in a small neighborhood of the origin, then $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ implies that X and Y have the same distribution.



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Theorem

Given two random variables X and Y with MGFs $M_X(t)$ and $M_Y(t)$, respectively, that are both continuous in a small neighborhood of the origin, then $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ implies that X and Y have the same distribution.

- This theorem is essentially just a more formal way of saying “MGFs uniquely determine random variables.” For example,

$$M_X(t) = \exp \left\{ 2t + \frac{1}{2}t^2 \right\} \iff X \sim \mathcal{N}(2, 1)$$



Useful Result

Theorem

Given a random variable Y with MGF $M_Y(t)$, and $U := aY + b$ for constants $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$M_U(t) = e^{bt} M_Y(at)$$

Proof.

$$M_U(t) := \mathbb{E}[e^{tU}]$$

[Definition of MGF]



Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}M_U(t) &:= \mathbb{E}[e^{tU}] \\ &:= \mathbb{E}[e^{t(aY+b)}]\end{aligned}$$

[Definition of MGF]

[Definition of U]



Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}M_U(t) &:= \mathbb{E}[e^{tU}] \\&:= \mathbb{E}[e^{t(aY+b)}] \\&:= \mathbb{E}[e^{(at)Y+bt}]\end{aligned}$$

[Definition of MGF]

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$$\begin{aligned}M_U(t) &:= \mathbb{E}[e^{tU}] && \text{[Definition of MGF]} \\&:= \mathbb{E}[e^{t(aY+b)}] && \text{[Definition of } U\text{]} \\&:= \mathbb{E}[e^{(at)Y+bt}] && \text{[Algebra]} \\&:= \mathbb{E}[e^{(at)Y} \cdot e^{bt}] && \text{[Algebra]} \\&:= e^{bt} \mathbb{E}[e^{(at)Y}] && \text{[Linearity of } \mathbb{E}\text{]}\end{aligned}$$



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- It turns out, we can use this theorem to (again) prove the closure of the exponential distribution under multiplication!



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~~which is, as expected, the MGF of the $\text{Exp}(c\theta)$ distribution.~~



Clicker Question!

Clicker Question 2

If $Y \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$ and $U := cY$ for some positive constant c , what is the distribution of U ?

- (A) $\text{Pois}(c\lambda)$
- (B) $\text{Pois}(c/\lambda)$
- (C) $\text{Pois}(\lambda/c)$
- (D) None of the above



Leadup

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- However, the method of MGFs really shines when we start taking linear combinations of *multiple* random variables.
- We'll talk about multivariate transformations more after the first midterm, but let's get a quick flavor of some of them now.



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- The random variable $U := (Y_1 + Y_2)$ then represents the *combined* wait times of Jack and Jill (in minutes).
- If, for example, $Y_1, Y_2 \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Exp}(\theta)$, then what distribution does U follow?



Leadup

- As a bit of a spoiler, we *could* try to find the distribution of U using the CDF method. (Doing so would involve computing a double integral - these are the sorts of things we'll be doing after MT01).



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Leadup

- So, plugging in the MGF of the $\text{Exp}(\theta)$ distribution, we have

$$M_U(t) = \left(\begin{cases} (1 - \theta t)^{-1} & \text{if } t < 1/\theta \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right) \cdot \left(\begin{cases} (1 - \theta t)^{-1} & \text{if } t < 1/\theta \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right)$$



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which is the MGF of the $\text{Gamma}(2, \theta)$ distribution!



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which is the MGF of the $\text{Gamma}(2, \theta)$ distribution!

- So, we've shown that $(Y_1 + Y_2) \sim \text{Gamma}(2, \theta)$.



Useful Result



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Theorem (Important MGF Formula)

Given a collection of independent random variables $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, we have

$$M_U(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n M_{Y_i}(a_i t) \quad \text{where } U := \sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i$$



Useful Result

Theorem (Closure of Gamma Distribution under Sums)

Given $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ with $Y_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_i, \beta)$ and constants $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n$, we have

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \right) \sim \text{Gamma} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta \right)$$



Proof

We use the formula from the previous slide:

$$M_{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n M_{Y_i}(a_i t)$$



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Recall that the MGF of the $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_i, \beta)$ distribution is given by

$$M_{Y_i}(t) = \begin{cases} (1 - \beta t)^{-\alpha_i} & \text{if } t < 1/\beta \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Hence, plugging in, we find:



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which we recognize as the MGF of the $\text{Gamma}(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta)$ distribution. Hence, we are done.



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- Specifically, I am adamant that you end with some sort of concluding *statement* - don't just leave the MGF without saying something about the underlying distribution!
 - For example, in the previous proof, notice how I ended with “which we recognize as...”. Just make sure you end your MGF-related proofs with something similar!



Another Useful Result

Theorem (Closure of Normal Distribution under Linear Combinations)

Given a collection of independent random variables $\{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ with $Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ and constants $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n$, we have

$$U := \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i \right) \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \right)$$



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- I leave the proof to you.



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Proof

- I leave the proof to you.
- One word of extreme caution: we can get the expectation and variance of U using 120A-related formulas.
- But, the *normality* of U is something that we cannot take for granted - this is why we need to use the MGF method to complete the proof!



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 - The MGF Method.



CDF Method



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- Remember: when carrying out step 3, drawing a picture can be incredibly helpful!



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- Remember: this method only works when the transformation $g(\cdot)$ is strictly monotonic over the support of Y !
- Also, a side note: so long as you are careful, the change of variable formula will give you the support of U . But, in some cases, it might be easier to find the support first (by drawing a picture), and then incorporating that into your answer later.



MGF Method



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- (1) Compute the MGF $M_U(t)$ of U by writing it in terms of the MGF $M_Y(t)$ of Y , and then recognize the resulting MGF as belonging to a particular distribution.
- This works well for linear transformations and linear combinations of random variables, but not too well for nonlinear transformations.
 - Also, the MGF method won't (typically) give you a PDF/CDF, so if you really want the PDF/CDF of U you should use a different method [unless you believe you will be able to recognize the resulting distribution as one that has a name].



Chalkboard Example

Example

The **kinetic energy** of a particle with mass m traveling at a velocity V is given by

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mV^2$$

Consider a particle selected at random, whose velocity is a random variable V with density

$$f_V(v) = 2v^3 e^{-v^2} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{v>0\}}$$

Find the distribution of the kinetic energy of this particle once using the CDF method and once using the Change of Variable formula.