

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)
- 5. Multivariate Transformations



• 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:

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

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



- In this way, we can think of $(g \circ X)$ as a random variable itself!
 - For example, given a random variable *X*, then the quantity *X*² will also be a random variable.
- 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!



- For example, let H_l denote the height of a randomly-selected individual as measured in inches, and suppose $H_l \sim \mathcal{N}(70, 2)$.
- Let H_C denote the height of a randomly-selected individual as measured in centimeters.
- Clearly, the random variables H_l and H_C are related: specifically, $H_C = g(H_l)$ where g(t) = 2.54 * t [since this is the conversion formula between inches and centimeters].
 - So, <u>unit conversion</u> is a fairly simple example of one way transformations (i.e. taking functions of random variables) can be useful.



- Transformations can also be used to **summarize** data.
- For example, consider a sequence $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n := X_1, \dots, X_n$ of random variables.
 - By the way, I'll be using this notation a lot: $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a shorthand for X_1, \dots, X_n .
- The **sample mean** $\overline{X}_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ [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.



- Now, these two examples indicate that there are perhaps two sub-cases to consider: transformations of *single* random variables, and transformations of *multiple* random variables.
 - We often refer to a transformation of a single random variable as a univariate transformation, and a transformation of multiple random variables as a multivariate transformation.
- For simplicity's sake, let's start off with univariate transformations.
 - Specifically, given a random variable Y and a function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, we will seek to explore properties of the random variable U := g(Y).

Univariate Transformations



Goal

Goal

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

- 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 $\mathbb{E}[U]$.



LOTUS

- It turns out... we've already done that!
- Specifically, since U := g(Y), we have that $\mathbb{E}[U] = \mathbb{E}[g(Y)]$.
- The <u>Law of the Unconscious Statistician</u> (LOTUS), which we saw in PSTAT 120A, tells us

$$\mathbb{E}[g(Y)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(y) f_Y(y) \, dy$$

• Similar considerations will allow us to compute Var(U).



- Okay, that's useful! But it's not the whole picture.
- Why don't we get a little more ambitious, and seek to find the distribution of *U*?
- First, let me be a little more clear about what I mean by "distribution".
- Sometimes, we can identify a distribution by name (e.g. "Exponential distribution with parameter $\theta=0.5$ ", or "Standard normal distribution").
- But, a distribution could just as easily have been described by any of the following:
 - Its distribution function (i.e. CDF)
 - Its density function (PDF)
 - Its **MGF** (moment-generating function)



• For example, suppose I tell you the random variable W has density function given by

$$f_{\mathsf{W}}(\mathsf{w}) = 2e^{-2\mathsf{w}} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathsf{w} \geq \mathsf{o}\}}$$

- You would immediately be able to tell me "oh, W follows the Exponential distribution with parameter $\theta = 1/2$."
- This would, in turn, automatically tell you that W has distribution function

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

and MGF

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



• Similarly, if I tell you that the random variable T has MGF given by

$$M_X(t) = \exp\left\{2t + rac{1}{2}t^2
ight\}$$

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

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



• Now, what if we have a random variable X whose density is given by

$$f_X(x) = \cos(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{0 \le x \le \pi/2\}}$$

- What is the distribution of X?
- Well... it's just the density above!
- 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).



Back to Transformations

Goal

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

- Now, our discussion on the previous few slides tells us that there are three approaches to achieving our goal above.
- 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".



Support

- Before we dive into these three methods, let's talk a bit about support.
- Recall that the support (aka "state space") of a random variable Y is the set of all values that Y maps to: i.e. $S_Y := Y(\Omega)$. Equivalently, it's the set of all values Y for which the density Y is nonzero.
- 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 inoccuous enough, finding the support of a transformed random variable can be trickier than it first appears...

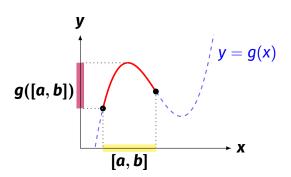


Support

- A simple way I like to think about things is to draw a picture.
- Specifically, let's say we have an interval [a,b] and a transformation $g:\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.
- 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



• 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

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)



CDF Method

• Let's consider the following rephrasing of our goal:

Goal

Given a random variable Y and a function g(), we seek to derive an expression for $F_U(u) := \mathbb{P}(U \le u)$, the CDF of U.

- As a concrete example, let $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$ and let U := cY for a positive constant c.
 - 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 cenimeters.



CDF Method

- Now, we know everything we could want to know about Y.
- Specifically, we have the CDF of Y:

$$F_Y(y) = egin{cases} 1 - e^{-y/ heta} & ext{if } y \geq 0 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- So, if we can relate $F_{U}(u)$ to $F_{Y}(y)$, we'd be done.
- Note:

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

Divide through by c:

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



CDF Method

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

$$F_U(u) = F_Y\left(rac{u}{c}
ight)$$

$$= egin{cases} 1 - e^{(u/c)/ heta} & ext{if } (u/c) \ge 0 \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$= egin{cases} 1 - e^{u/(c heta)} & ext{if } u \ge 0 \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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



Going Further

- Now, in this particular case, we can take things a step further.
- Specifically, doesn't that CDF look awfully familiar?
- Indeed, it is the CDF of the $Exp(c\theta)$ distribution!
- So, what we've essentially shown is:

Theorem (Closure of Exponential Distribution under Multiplication)

Given $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$ and a positive constant c, then $(cY) \sim \text{Exp}(c\theta)$.

We're going to use this result a LOT!



Interpretation

- I know this might seem a little abstract what does it mean to "multiply the exponential distribution by a constant?"
- 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 2.54 θ .



- Let's do another example together.
- Suppose Y has density function given by

$$f_{Y}(y)=2y^2\cdot\mathbb{1}_{\{0\leq y\leq 1\}}$$

and again define U := cY for a positive constant c.

- Now, before we got lucky because we immediately knew what the CDF of Y was.
- But, even though we can't *immediately* recognize the CDF of Y in this example, we can still derive it!



• By definition, for a $y \in [0, 1]$,

$$F_{Y}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} f_{Y}(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{y} 2t \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{0 \le t \le 1\}} dt = \int_{0}^{y} 2t dt = y^{2}$$

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

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



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

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(U \leq u) &= \mathbb{P}(cY \leq u) = \mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq \frac{u}{x}\right) \\ &= F_Y\left(\frac{u}{c}\right) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (u/c) < 0 \\ (u/c)^2 & \text{if } 0 \leq (u/c) < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } (u/c) \geq 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u < 0 \\ u^2/c^2 & \text{if } 0 \leq u < c \\ 1 & \text{if } u \geq c \end{cases} \end{split}$$



- 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.



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

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

Now, it's tempting to continue this as

$$F_U(u) = \mathbb{P}(Y^2 \le u) = \mathbb{P}(Y \le \sqrt{u})$$

This is, however, <u>INCORRECT</u>.

• Let's understand why.



- There are a couple of ways to understand why the above is incorrect.
- One is to recall a fact from algebra/precalculus that you might have forgotten: $\sqrt{\cdot}$ means the *principal* square root, and so, for any real number x, we have $\sqrt{x^2} = |x|$.
 - Remember, both -3 and 3 have squares equal to 9! But, when we write $\sqrt{9}$, we implicitly mean the principal square root which is why we write $\sqrt{9} = 3$.
- So, what we really have is:

$$F_U(u) := \mathbb{P}(U \le u) = \mathbb{P}(Y^2 \le u) = \mathbb{P}(|Y| \le \sqrt{u}) = \mathbb{P}(-\sqrt{u} \le Y \le \sqrt{u})$$



• 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 doens't require us to dig into our memory banks and dredge up something from algebra/precalculus, and instead uses pictures.

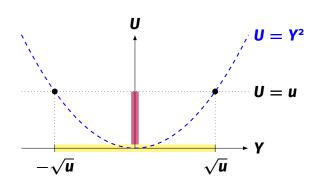


Video

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



Static Image





• So, let's finish up our example!

$$\begin{split} F_U(u) &= \dots = \mathbb{P}(-\sqrt{u} \leq Y \leq \sqrt{u}) \\ &= F_Y(\sqrt{u}) - F_Y(-\sqrt{u}) = \Phi(\sqrt{u}) - \Phi(-\sqrt{u}) \\ &= \Phi(\sqrt{u}) - [1 - \Phi(\sqrt{u})] = \frac{2\Phi(\sqrt{u}) - 1}{2\Phi(\sqrt{u})} \end{split}$$

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



$$f_{U}(u) = \frac{d}{du} F_{U}(u)$$

$$= \frac{d}{du} [2\Phi(\sqrt{u}) - 1]$$

$$= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} \cdot \phi(\sqrt{u}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \phi(\sqrt{u})$$

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



$$f_{U}(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \phi(\sqrt{u}) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \ge 0\}}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} \cdot 2^{1/2}} \cdot u^{1/2-1} \cdot e^{-u/2} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{u \ge 0\}}$$

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

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

• 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.



Recap

- Whew- that was a lot of work! Let's recap.
- Given a random variable Y, and U := g(Y) for some function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, we can use the **method of distribution functions** (aka the **CDF**) method to find the distribution of U.
- Specifically, this entails:
 - (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 $A_U := \{U \le u\}$ that is in terms of Y
 - (2) Plugging into the CDF of Y, and simplifying as necessary.