## Lecture 12: Sept 18

## Last time

• Continuous Random Variables

## Today

• Transformations of Random Variables

## Transformations of Random Variables

Theorem If X is a r.v. with sample space  $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}$  and cdf  $F_X(x)$ , then any function of X, say Y = g(X) is also a random variable. The new random variable Y has a new sample space  $\mathcal{Y} = g(X) \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The objective is to find the cdf  $F_Y(y)$  of Y.

Probability mapping: For any set  $A \subset \mathcal{Y}$ :

$$Pr(Y \in A) = Pr(g(X) \in A)$$
$$= Pr(\{x \in \mathcal{X} : g(x) \in A\})$$
$$= Pr(X \in g^{-1}(A)),$$

where we have defined

$$g^{-1}(A) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} : g(x) \in A\}.$$

Notice that  $g^{-1}(A)$  is well defined even if  $g(\cdot)$  is not necessarily bijective.

Example (Binomial transformation) A discrete random variable X has a binomial distribution if its pmf is of the form

$$f_X(x) = \Pr(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

where n is a positive integer and  $0 \le p \le 1$ . Values such as n and p that can be set to different values, producing different probability distributions, are called *parameters*. Consider a random variable Y = g(X), where g(x) = n - x; that is, Y = n - X. Here  $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$  and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{y : y = g(x), x \in \mathcal{X}\} = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ . For any  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ , n - x = g(x) = y if and only if x = n - y. Therefore,  $g^{-1}(y) = n - y$  and

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(y)} f_X(x)$$

$$= f_X(n - y)$$

$$= \binom{n}{n - y} p^{n-y} (1 - p)^{n - (n - y)}$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} (1 - p)^y p^{n - y}.$$

Therefore, Y also has a binomial distribution, but with parameters n and 1-p.

Example (exercise 2.3) Suppose X has the geometric pmf  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^x$ ,  $x = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ . Determine the probability distribution of Y = X/(X+1). Note that here both X and Y are discrete random variables. To specify the probability distribution of Y, specify its pmf. Solution:

Theorem Suppose a continuous random variable X has cdf  $F_X(x)$ , let Y = g(X), and let  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  be defined as

$$\mathcal{X} = \{x : f(x) > 0\}$$
 and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{y : y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X}\}.$ 

Then,

- 1. If g is an increasing function on  $\mathcal{X}$ ,  $F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$  for  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ .
- 2. If g is a decreasing function on  $\mathcal{X}$ ,  $F_Y(y) = 1 F_X(g^{-1}(y))$  for  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ .

*Proof:* We start with

$$F_Y(y) = \Pr(Y \le y)$$
  
=  $\Pr(g(X) \le y)$ 

Theorem Let X have pdf  $f_X(x)$  and let Y = g(X), where g is a monotone function. Let  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  be defined as

$$\mathcal{X} = \{x : f(x) > 0\}$$
 and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{y : y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X}\}.$ 

Suppose that  $f_X(x)$  is continuous on  $\mathcal{X}$  and that  $g^{-1}(y)$  has a continuous derivative on  $\mathcal{Y}$ . Then the pdf of Y is given by

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X(g^{-1}(y)) | \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) | & y \in \mathcal{Y} \\ 0 & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

*Proof:* 

From last theorem, we have the cdf forms  $F_Y(y)$ . Then  $f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y)$ . (finish the proof)

**Example** (Square transformation) Suppose X is a continuous random variable. For y > 0, the cdf of  $Y = X^2$  is

$$F_Y(y) = \Pr(Y \leqslant y) = \Pr(X^2 \leqslant y) = \Pr(-\sqrt{y} \leqslant X \leqslant \sqrt{y}).$$

Because x is continuous, we can drop the equality from the left endpoint and obtain

$$F_Y(y) = \Pr(-\sqrt{y} < X \le \sqrt{y})$$
  
=  $\Pr(X \le \sqrt{y}) - \Pr(X \le -\sqrt{y}) = F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y}).$ 

The pdf of Y can now be obtained from the cdf by differentiation: where we use the chain rule to differentiate  $F_X(\sqrt{y})$  and  $F_X(-\sqrt{y})$ .

Example (Linear transformation) Suppose X is a continuous random variable with pdf  $f_X(x)$ . Let

$$Y = a + bX, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = b.$$

Then

$$f_Y(y) = f_X \left[ g^{-1}(y) \right] \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| = f_X \left( \frac{y-a}{b} \right) \frac{1}{|b|}.$$

This transformation is often used when X has mean 0 and standard deviation 1. The linear transformation above creates a random variable Y with a distribution that has the same shape as that of X but has mean a and variance  $b^2$ .

Conversely, if Y has mean a and standard deviation b, then X = (Y - a)/b has mean 0 and standard deviation 1. This is called sometimes the "Studentized" transformation.

Example (Normal distribution) Let  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ :

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

The transformation

$$Y = \mu + \sigma X, \quad X = \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma}$$

yields

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(\frac{y-\mu}{\sigma})\frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}.$$

More generally, a distribution is a member of the class of *location-scale* distributions if the distribution of a linear transformation of a random variable with that distribution has the same distribution, but with different parameters.

**Example** (Square root of an exponential RV) Suppose  $X \sim exp(\lambda)$ , so that

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geqslant 0\\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

and consider the distribution of  $Y = \sqrt{X}$ . The transformation

$$y = g(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad x \geqslant 0$$

is one-to-one and has an inverse  $x = y^2$  with dx/dy = 2y. Thus

This distribution is a particular form of the Rayleigh distribution and is a special case of the Weibull distribution.