

# Transformations of Random Variables

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We begin with a random variable  $X$  and we want to start looking at the random variable  $Y = g(X) = g \circ X$  where the function

$$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

The **inverse image** of a set  $A$ ,

$$g^{-1}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; g(x) \in A\}.$$

In other words,

$$x \in g^{-1}(A) \text{ if and only if } g(x) \in A.$$

For example, if  $g(x) = x^3$ , then  $g^{-1}([1, 8]) = [1, 2]$

For the singleton set  $A = \{y\}$ , we sometimes write  $g^{-1}(\{y\}) = g^{-1}(y)$ . For  $y = 0$  and  $g(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g^{-1}(0) = \{k\pi; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

If  $g$  is a one-to-one function, then the inverse image of a singleton set is itself a singleton set. In this case, the inverse image naturally defines an inverse function. For  $g(x) = x^3$ , this inverse function is the cube root. For  $g(x) = \sin x$  or  $g(x) = x^2$  we must limit the domain to obtain an inverse function.

**Exercise 1.** *The inverse image has the following properties:*

- $g^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}$
- For any set  $A$ ,  $g^{-1}(A^c) = g^{-1}(A)^c$
- For any collection of sets  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ ,

$$g^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\lambda} A_\lambda\right) = \bigcup_{\lambda} g^{-1}(A_\lambda).$$

As a consequence the mapping

$$A \mapsto P\{g(X) \in A\} = P\{X \in g^{-1}(A)\}$$

satisfies the axioms of a probability. The associated probability  $\mu_{g(X)}$  is called the **distribution** of  $g(X)$ .

# 1 Discrete Random Variables

For  $X$  a discrete random variable with probability mass function  $f_X$ , then the probability mass function  $f_Y$  for  $Y = g(X)$  is easy to write.

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

**Example 2.** Let  $X$  be a uniform random variable on  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , i. e.,  $f_X(x) = 1/n$  for each  $x$  in the state space. Then  $Y = X + a$  is a uniform random variable on  $\{a + 1, 2, \dots, a + n\}$

**Example 3.** Let  $X$  be a uniform random variable on  $\{-n, -n + 1, \dots, n - 1, n\}$ . Then  $Y = |X|$  has mass function

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2n+1} & \text{if } x = 0, \\ \frac{1}{2n+1} & \text{if } x \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

# 2 Continuous Random Variable

The easiest case for transformations of continuous random variables is the case of  $g$  one-to-one. We first consider the case of  $g$  increasing on the range of the random variable  $X$ . In this case,  $g^{-1}$  is also an increasing function.

To compute the cumulative distribution of  $Y = g(X)$  in terms of the cumulative distribution of  $X$ , note that

$$F_Y(y) = P\{Y \leq y\} = P\{g(X) \leq y\} = P\{X \leq g^{-1}(y)\} = F_X(g^{-1}(y)).$$

Now use the chain rule to compute the density of  $Y$

$$f_Y(y) = F'_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_X(g^{-1}(y)) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y).$$

For  $g$  decreasing on the range of  $X$ ,

$$F_Y(y) = P\{Y \leq y\} = P\{g(X) \leq y\} = P\{X \geq g^{-1}(y)\} = 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(y)),$$

and the density

$$f_Y(y) = F'_Y(y) = -\frac{d}{dy} F_X(g^{-1}(y)) = -f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y).$$

For  $g$  decreasing, we also have  $g^{-1}$  decreasing and consequently the density of  $Y$  is indeed positive,

We can combine these two cases to obtain

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right|.$$

**Example 4.** Let  $U$  be a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$  and let  $g(u) = 1 - u$ . Then  $g^{-1}(v) = 1 - v$ , and  $V = 1 - U$  has density

$$f_V(v) = f_U(1 - v) | -1 | = 1$$

on the interval  $[0, 1]$  and 0 otherwise.

**Example 5.** Let  $X$  be a random variable that has a uniform density on  $[0, 1]$ . Its density

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

Let  $g(x) = x^p$ ,  $p \neq 0$ . Then, the range of  $g$  is  $[0, 1]$  and  $g^{-1}(y) = y^{1/p}$ . If  $p > 0$ , then  $g$  is increasing and

$$\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 0, \\ \frac{1}{p}y^{1/p-1} & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } y > 1. \end{cases}$$

This density is unbounded near zero whenever  $p > 1$ .

If  $p < 0$ , then  $g$  is decreasing. Its range is  $[1, \infty)$ , and

$$\frac{d}{dy}g^{-1}(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 1, \\ -\frac{1}{p}y^{1/p-1} & \text{if } y \geq 1, \end{cases}$$

In this case,  $Y$  is a Pareto distribution with  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = -1/p$ . We can obtain a Pareto distribution with arbitrary  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  by taking

$$g(x) = \left(\frac{x}{\alpha}\right)^{1/\beta}.$$

If the transform  $g$  is not one-to-one then special care is necessary to find the density of  $Y = g(X)$ . For example if we take  $g(x) = x^2$ , then  $g^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{y}$ .

$$F_Y(y) = P\{Y \leq y\} = P\{X^2 \leq y\} = P\{-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}\} = F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y}).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= f_X(\sqrt{y})\frac{d}{dy}(\sqrt{y}) - f_X(-\sqrt{y})\frac{d}{dy}(-\sqrt{y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}(f_X(\sqrt{y}) + f_X(-\sqrt{y})) \end{aligned}$$

If the density  $f_X$  is symmetric about the origin, then

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}}f_X(\sqrt{y}).$$

**Example 6.** A random variable  $Z$  is called a **standard normal** if its density is

$$\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right).$$

A calculus exercise yields

$$\phi'(z) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}z \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right) = -z\phi(z), \quad \phi''(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(z^2 - 1) \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right) = (z^2 - 1)\phi(z).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  has a global maximum at  $z = 0$ , it is concave down if  $|z| < 1$  and concave up for  $|z| > 1$ . This shows that the graph of  $\phi$  has a bell shape.

$Y = Z^2$  is called a  $\chi^2$  (**chi-square**) random variable with one degree of freedom. Its density is

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi y}} \exp\left(-\frac{y}{2}\right).$$

### 3 The Probability Transform

Let  $X$  a continuous random variable whose distribution function  $F_X$  is strictly increasing on the possible values of  $X$ . Then  $F_X$  has an inverse function.

Let  $U = F_X(X)$ , then for  $u \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$P\{U \leq u\} = P\{F_X(X) \leq u\} = P\{U \leq F_X^{-1}(u)\} = F_X(F_X^{-1}(u)) = u.$$

In other words,  $U$  is a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$ . Most random number generators simulate independent copies of this random variable. Consequently, we can simulate independent random variables having distribution function  $F_X$  by simulating  $U$ , a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$ , and then taking

$$X = F_X^{-1}(U).$$

**Example 7.** Let  $X$  be uniform on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < a, \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > b. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$u = \frac{x-a}{b-a}, \quad (b-a)u + a = x = F_X^{-1}(u).$$

**Example 8.** Let  $T$  be an exponential random variable. Thus,

$$F_T(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0, \\ 1 - \exp(-t/\beta) & \text{if } t \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$u = 1 - \exp(-t/\beta), \quad \exp(-t/\beta) = 1 - u, \quad t = -\frac{1}{\beta} \log(1 - u).$$

Recall that if  $U$  is a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$ , then so is  $V = 1 - U$ . Thus if  $V$  is a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$ , then

$$T = -\frac{1}{\beta} \log V$$

is a random variable with distribution function  $F_T$ .

**Example 9.** Because

$$\int_{\alpha}^x \frac{\beta\alpha^{\beta}}{t^{\beta+1}} dt = -\alpha^{\beta} t^{-\beta} \Big|_{\alpha}^x = 1 - \left(\frac{\alpha}{x}\right)^{\beta}.$$

A Pareto random variable  $X$  has distribution function

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < \alpha, \\ 1 - \left(\frac{\alpha}{x}\right)^{\beta} & \text{if } x \geq \alpha. \end{cases}$$

Now,

$$u = 1 - \left(\frac{\alpha}{x}\right)^{\beta} \quad 1 - u = \left(\frac{\alpha}{x}\right)^{\beta}, \quad x = \frac{\alpha}{(1-u)^{1/\beta}}.$$

As before if  $V = 1 - U$  is a uniform random variable on  $[0, 1]$ , then

$$X = \frac{\alpha}{V^{1/\beta}}$$

is a Pareto random variable with distribution function  $F_X$ .