## Chapter 4. Continuous Random Variables <br> 4.4: Transforming Continuous RVs <br> Alex Tsun <br> Video (YouTube)

Slides (Google Drive)

Suppose the amount of gold a company can mine is $X$ tons per year, and you have some (continuous) distribution to model this. However, your earning is not simply $X$ - it is actually a function of the amount of product, some $Y=g(X)$. What is the distribution of $Y$ ?

Since we know the distribution of $X$, this will help us model the distribution of $Y$ by transforming random variables.

### 4.4.1 Transforming 1-D (Continuous) RVs via CDF

When we are dealing with discrete random variables, this process wasn't too bad. Let's say $X$ had range $\{-1,0,1\}$ and PMF

$$
p_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}0.3 & x=-1 \\ 0.2 & x=0 \\ 0.5 & x=1\end{cases}
$$

and $Y=g(X)=X^{2}$. Then, $\Omega_{Y}=\{0,1\}$, and we could say

$$
p_{Y}(y)= \begin{cases}p_{X}(-1)+p_{X}(1)=0.3+0.5=0.8 & y=1 \\ p_{X}(0)=0.2 & y=0\end{cases}
$$

This is because $Y=1$ if and only if $X \in\{-1,1\}$, so to find $\mathbb{P}(Y=1)$, we sum over all values $x$ such that $x^{2}=1$ of its probability. That's all this formula below says (the ":" means "such that"):

$$
p_{Y}(y)=\sum_{x \in \Omega_{X}: g(x)=y} p_{X}(x)
$$

But for continous random variables, we have density functions instead of mass functions. That means $f_{X}$ is not actually a probability and so we can't do this same technique. We want to work with the CDF $F_{X}(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$ instead because it actually does represent a probability! It's best to see this idea through an example.

## Example(s)

Suppose you know $X \sim \operatorname{Unif}(0,9)$ (continuous). What is the PDF of $Y=\sqrt{X}$ ?

Solution We know the range of $X$,

$$
\Omega_{X}=[0,9]
$$

We also know the PDF of $X$, which is uniform from 0 to 9 , and 0 elsewhere.

$$
f_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{9} & \text { if } 0 \leq x \leq 9 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The CDF of $X$ is derived by taking the integral of the PDF, giving us (can also cite this),

$$
F_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } x<0 \\ \frac{x}{9} & \text { if } 0 \leq x \leq 9 \\ 1 & \text { if } x>9\end{cases}
$$

Now, we determine the range of $Y$. The smallest value that $Y$ can take is $\sqrt{0}=0$, and the largest value that $Y$ can take is $\sqrt{9}=3$, from the range of $X$. Since the square root function is monotone increasing, this gives us,

$$
\Omega_{Y}=[0,3]
$$

But can we assume that, because $X$ has a uniform distribution, $Y$ does too?
This is not the case! Notice that values of $X$ in the range $[0,1]$ will map to $Y$ values in the range $[0,1]$. But, $X$ values in the range [1,4] map to $Y$ values in the range $[1,2]$ and $X$ values in the range $[4,9]$ map to $Y$ values in the range $[2,3]$.

So, there is a much larger range of values of $X$ that map to $[2,3]$ than to $[0,1]$ (since $[4,9]$ is a larger range than $[0,1]$ ). Therefore, $Y^{\prime}$ 's distribution shouldn't be uniform. So, we cannot define the PDF of $Y$ using the assumption that $Y$ is uniform.

Instead, we will first compute the $\operatorname{CDF} F_{Y}$ and then, differentiate that to get the $\operatorname{PDF} f_{Y}$ for $y \in[0,3]$.

To compute $F_{Y}$ for any $y$ in $[0,3]$, we first take the $\operatorname{CDF}$ at $y$ :

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
F_{Y}(y) & =\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) & \text { [def of CDF] } \\
& =\mathbb{P}(\sqrt{X} \leq y) & \text { [def of } Y] \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(X \leq y^{2}\right) & \text { [squaring both sides] } \\
& =F_{X}\left(y^{2}\right) & \text { [def of CDF of } \left.X \text { evaluated at } y^{2}\right] \\
& =\frac{y^{2}}{9} & \text { [plug in CDF of } \left.X, \text { since } y^{2} \in[0,9]\right]
\end{array}
$$

Be very careful when squaring both sides of an equation - it may not keep the inequality true. In this case we didn't have to worry since $X$ and $Y$ were both guaranteed positive.

Differentiating the CDF to get the PDF $f_{Y}$, for $y \in[0,3]$,

$$
f_{Y}(y)=\frac{d}{d y} F_{Y}(y)=\frac{2 y}{9}
$$

Here is an image of the original and transformed PDFs! Remember that $X \sim \operatorname{Unif}(0,9)$ and $Y=\sqrt{X}$.


This is the general strategy for transforming continuous RVs! We'll summarize the steps below.

## Definition 4.4.1: Steps to get PDF of $Y=g(X)$ from $X$ (via CDF)

1. Write down the range $\Omega_{X}, \operatorname{PDF} f_{X}$, and $\operatorname{CDF} F_{X}$.
2. Compute the range $\Omega_{Y}=\left\{g(x): x \in \Omega_{X}\right\}$.
3. Start computing the CDF of $Y$ on $\Omega_{Y}, F_{Y}(y)=\mathbb{P}(g(X) \leq y)$, in terms of $F_{X}$.
4. Differentiate the $\operatorname{CDF} F_{Y}(y)$ to get the $\operatorname{PDF} f_{Y}(y)$ on $\Omega_{Y}$. $f_{Y}$ is 0 outside $\Omega_{Y}$.

## Example(s)

Let $X$ be continuous with range $\Omega_{X}=[-1,+1]$ have density function

$$
f_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{3}{4}\left(1-x^{2}\right) & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Suppose $Y=X^{4}$. Find the density function $f_{Y}(y)$.

Solution We'll follow the 4-step procedure as outlined above.

1. First, we list out the range, PDF , and CDF of the original variable $X$. We were given the range and PDF, but not the CDF, so let's compute it. For $x \in[-1,+1]$ (note the use of the dummy variable $t$ since $x$ is already taken),

$$
F_{X}(x)=\mathbb{P}(X \leq x)=\int_{-\infty}^{x} f_{X}(t) d t=\int_{-1}^{x} \frac{3}{4}\left(1-t^{2}\right) d t=\frac{1}{4}\left(2+3 x-x^{3}\right)
$$

So the complete CDF is:

$$
F_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}0 & x \leq-1 \\ \frac{1}{4}\left(2+3 x-x^{3}\right) & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & x \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

2. The range of $Y=X^{4}$ is $\Omega_{Y}=\left\{x^{4}: x \in[-1,+1]\right\}=[0,1]$, since $x^{4}$ is always positive and between 0 and 1 for $x \in[-1,+1]$.
3. Be careful in the third equation below to include both lower and upper bounds (draw the function $y=x^{4}$ to see why). For $y \in \Omega_{Y}=[0,1]$, we will compute the CDF:

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
F_{Y}(y) & =\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) & \text { [def of CDF] } \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(X^{4} \leq y\right) & \text { [def of } Y \text { ] } \\
& =\mathbb{P}(-\sqrt[4]{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt[4]{y}) & \\
& =\mathbb{P}(X \leq \sqrt[4]{y})-\mathbb{P}(X \leq-\sqrt[4]{y}) & \text { [don't forget the negative side] } \\
& =F_{X}(\sqrt[4]{y})-F_{X}(-\sqrt[4]{y}) & \\
& =\frac{1}{4}\left(2+3 \sqrt[4]{y}-\sqrt[4]{y} \bar{y}^{3}\right)-\frac{1}{4}\left(2+3(-\sqrt[4]{y})-(-\sqrt[4]{y})^{3}\right) & \text { [def of CDF of } X \text { ] } \\
\text { [plug in CDF] }
\end{array}
$$

4. The last step is to differentiate the CDF to get the PDF, which is just computational, so I'll skip it!

### 4.4.2 Transforming 1-D RVs via Explicit Formula

Now, it turns out actually that in some special cases, there is an explicit formula for the density function of $Y=g(X)$, and we don't have to go through all the same steps above. It's important to note that the CDF method can always be applied, but this next method has restrictions.

## Theorem 4.4.1: Formula to get PDF of $Y=g(X)$ from $X$

If $Y=g(X)$ and $g: \Omega_{X} \rightarrow \Omega_{Y}$ is strictly monotone and invertible with inverse $X=g^{-1}(Y)=$ $h(Y)$, then

$$
f_{Y}(y)= \begin{cases}f_{X}(h(y)) \cdot\left|h^{\prime}(y)\right| & \text { if } y \in \Omega_{Y} \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

That is, the PDF of $Y$ at $y$ is the PDF of $X$ evaluated at $h(y)$ (the value of $x$ that maps to $y$ ) multiplied by the absolute value of the derivative of $h(y)$.

Note that the formula method is not as general as the previous method (using CDF), since $g$ must satisfy monotonicity and invertibility. So transforming via CDF always works, but transforming may not work with this explicit formula all the time.

Proof of Formula to get PDF of $Y=g(X)$ from $X$.
Suppose $Y=g(X)$ and $g$ is strictly monotone and invertible with inverse $X=g^{-1}(Y)=h(Y)$. We'll assume $g$ is strictly monotone increasing and leave it to you to prove it for the case when $g$ is strictly monotone decreasing (it's very similar).

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{Y}(y) & =\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) & & {[\text { def of CDF }] } \\
& =\mathbb{P}(g(X) \leq y) & & {[\text { def of } Y] } \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(X \leq g^{-1}(y)\right) & & {[\text { invertibility, AND monotone increasing keeps the sign }] } \\
& =F_{X}\left(g^{-1}(y)\right) & & {\left[\text { def of CDF of } X \text { evaluated at } g^{-1}(y)\right] } \\
& =F_{X}(h(y)) & & {\left[h(y)=g^{-1}(y)\right] }
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, by the chain rule (of calculus),

$$
f_{Y}(y)=\frac{d}{d y} F_{Y}(y)=f_{X}(h(y)) \cdot h^{\prime}(y)
$$

A similar proof would hold if $g$ were monotone decreasing, except in the third line we would flip the sign of the inequality and make the $h^{\prime}(y)$ become an absolute value: $\left|h^{\prime}(y)\right|$.

Now let's try the same example as we did earlier, but using this new method instead.
Example(s)
Suppose you know $X \sim \operatorname{Unif}(0,9)$ (continuous). What is the PDF of $Y=\sqrt{X}$ ?

Solution Recall, we know the range of $X$,

$$
\Omega_{X}=[0,9]
$$

We also know the PDF of $X$, which is uniform from 0 to 9 and 0 elsewhere.

$$
f_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{9} & \text { if } 0 \leq x \leq 9 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Our goal is to use the formula given $f_{Y}(y)=f_{X}(h(y)) \cdot\left|h^{\prime}(y)\right|$, after verifying some conditions on $g$.
Let $g(t)=\sqrt{t}$. This is strictly monotone increasing on $\Omega_{X}=[0,9]$. This means that as $t$ increases, $\sqrt{t}$ also increases - therefore, $g(t)$ is an increasing function.

What is the inverse of this function $g$ ? The inverse of the square root function is just the squaring function:
$h(y)=g^{-1}(y)=y^{2}$
Then, we find it's derivative:
$h^{\prime}(y)=2 y$
Now, we can use the explicit formula to find the PDF of $Y$.
For $y \in[0,3]$,

$$
f_{Y}(y)=f_{X}(h(y)) \cdot\left|h^{\prime}(y)\right|=\frac{1}{9}|2 y|=\frac{2}{9} y
$$

Note that we dropped the absolute value because we already assume $y \in[0,3]$ and hence $2 y$ is always positive. This gives the same formula as earlier, as it should!

### 4.4.3 Transforming Multidimensional RVs via Formula

For completion, we've cited a formula to transform $n$ random variables to $n$ other random variables. For example, this might be useful if you have a system of two equations. For example, $(R, \Theta)$ (polar) coordinates which are random variables, and wanting to convert to Cartesian coordinates to the two random variables ( $X, Y$ ) where $X=R \cos (\Theta)$ and $Y=R \sin (\Theta)$. This extends the formula we just learned to multi-dimensional random variables!

## Theorem 4.4.2: Formula to get PDF of $Y=g(X)$ from $X$ (Multidimensional Case)

Let $\mathbf{X}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), \mathbf{Y}=\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)$ be continuous random vectors (each component is a continuous rv) with the same dimension $n$ (so $\Omega_{\mathbf{X}}, \Omega_{\mathbf{Y}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ ), and $\mathbf{Y}=g(\mathbf{X})$ where $g: \Omega_{\mathbf{X}} \rightarrow \Omega_{\mathbf{Y}}$ is invertible and differentiable, with differentiable inverse $\mathbf{X}=g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})=h(\mathbf{y})$. Then,

$$
f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y})=f_{\mathbf{X}}(h(\mathbf{y}))\left|\operatorname{det}\left(\frac{\partial h(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right)\right|
$$

where $\left(\frac{\partial h(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives of $h$, with

$$
\left(\frac{\partial h(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right)_{i j}=\frac{\partial(h(\mathbf{y}))_{i}}{\partial \mathbf{y}_{j}}
$$

Hopefully this formula looks very similar to the one for the single-dimensional case! This formula is just for your information and you'll never have to use it in this class.

### 4.4.4 Exercises

1. Suppose $X$ has range $\Omega_{X}=(1, \infty)$ and density function

$$
f_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{2}{x^{3}} & x>1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

For reference, the CDF is also given

$$
F_{X}(x)= \begin{cases}1-\frac{1}{x^{2}} & x>1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Let $Y=\frac{e^{X}-1}{2}$.
(a) Compute the density function of $Y$ via the CDF transformation method.
(b) Compute the density function of $Y$ using the formula, but explicitly verify the monotonicity and invertibility conditions.

## Solution:

(a) The range of $Y$ is $\Omega_{Y}=\left(\frac{e-1}{2}, \infty\right)$. For $y \in \Omega_{Y}$,

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
F_{Y}(y) & =\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) & \text { [def of } \mathrm{CDF}] \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{e^{X}-1}{2} \leq y\right) & {[\text { def of } Y]} \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(e^{X} \leq 2 y+1\right) & \\
& =\mathbb{P}(X \leq \ln (2 y+1)) & {[\text { def of } \mathrm{CDF}]} \\
& =F_{X}(\ln (2 y+1)) & {\left[F_{X}(x)=1-\frac{1}{x^{2}}\right]}
\end{array}
$$

The derivative is (don't forget the chain rule)

$$
f_{Y}(y)=\frac{d}{d y} F_{Y}(y)=\frac{2}{[\ln (2 y+1)]^{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{2 y+1} \cdot 2=\frac{4}{(2 y+1)[\ln (2 y+1)]^{3}}
$$

This density is valid for $y \in \Omega_{Y}$, and 0 everywhere else.
(b) The function $g(t)=\frac{e^{t}-1}{2}$ is monotone increasing (since $e^{t}$ is, and we shift and scale it by a positive constant), and has inverse $h(y)=g^{-1}(y)=\ln (2 y+1)$. We have $h^{\prime}(y)=\frac{2}{2 y+1}$. By the formula, we get

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
f_{Y}(y) & =f_{X}(h(y))\left|h^{\prime}(y)\right| & \text { [formula] } \\
& =\frac{2}{[\ln (2 y+1)]^{3}} \cdot \frac{2}{2 y+1} & {\left[f_{X}(x)=\frac{2}{x^{3}}\right]} \\
& =\frac{4}{(2 y+1)[\ln (2 y+1)]^{3}} &
\end{array}
$$

This gives the same answer as part (a)!

