



## 1. Introduction

- In Chapter 1, we introduced the concept of event to describe the characteristics of outcomes of an experiment.
- Events allowed us more flexibility in determining the proprieties of the experiments better than considering the outcomes themselves.
- In this chapter, we introduce the concept of random variable, which allows us to define events in a more consistent way.
- In this chapter, we present some important operations that can be performed on a random variable.
- Particularly, this chapter will focus on the **concept of expectation and variance**.

## 2. The random variable concept

- A random variable  $X$  is defined as a real function that maps the elements of sample space  $S$  to real numbers (function that maps all elements of the sample space into points on the real line).

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

- A random variable is denoted by a capital letter (such as:  $X, Y, Z$ ) and any particular value of the random variable by a lowercase letter (such as:  $x, y, z$ ).
- We assign to  $s$  (every element of  $S$ ) a real number  $X(s)$  according to some rule and call  $X(s)$  a random variable.

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### Example 2.1:

An experiment consists of flipping a coin and rolling a die.

Let the random variable  $X$  chosen such that:

A coin head ( $H$ ) corresponds to positive values of  $X$  equal to the die number

A coin tail ( $T$ ) corresponds to negative values of  $X$  equal to twice the die number.

Plot the mapping of  $S$  into  $X$ .

### Solution 2.1:

The random variable  $X$  maps the samples space of 12 elements into 12 values of  $X$  from -12 to 6 as shown in Figure 1.

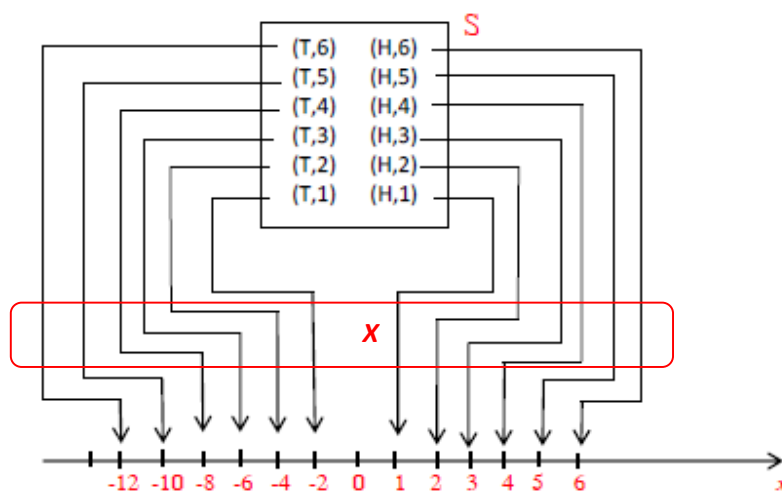


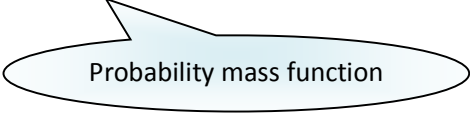
Figure 1. A random variable mapping of a sample space.

- **Discrete random variable:** If a random variable  $X$  can take only a particular finite or counting infinite set of values  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$ , then  $X$  is said to be a discrete random variable.
- **Continuous random variable:** A continuous random variable is one having a continuous range of values.

### 3. Distribution function

- If we define  $P(X \leq x)$  as the probability of the event  $X \leq x$  then the **cumulative probability distribution function**  $F_X(x)$  or often called **distribution function** of  $X$  is defined as:

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) \text{ for } -\infty < x < \infty \quad (1)$$



Probability mass function

- The argument  $x$  is any real number ranging from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ .
- **Proprieties:**
  - 1)  $F_X(-\infty) = 0$
  - 2)  $F_X(\infty) = 1$

(since  $F_X$  is a probability, the value of the distribution function is always between 0 and 1).

  - 3)  $0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1$
  - 4)  $F_X(x_1) \leq F_X(x_2)$  if  $x_1 < x_2$  (event  $\{X \leq x_1\}$  is contained in the event  $\{X \leq x_2\}$ , monotonically increasing function)
  - 5)  $P(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1)$
  - 6)  $F_X(x^+) = F_X(x)$ , where  $x^+ = x + \varepsilon$  and  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$  (Continuous from the right)
- For a discrete random variable  $X$ , the distribution function  $F_X(x)$  must have a "stairstep form" such as shown in Figure 2.

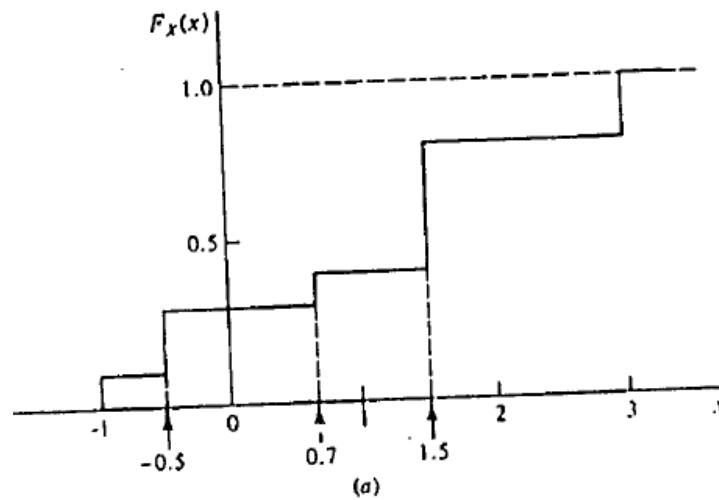


Figure 2. Example of a distribution function of a discrete random variable.

- The amplitude of a step equals to the probability of occurrence of the value  $X$  where the step occurs, we can write:

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) \cdot u(x - x_i) \quad (2)$$

$P(X = x_i)$   
 $\uparrow$   
 Unit step function:  $u(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$

#### 4. Density function

- The **probability density function (pdf)**, denoted by  $f_X(x)$  is defined as the derivative of the distribution function:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} \quad (3)$$

$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(\theta) d\theta$

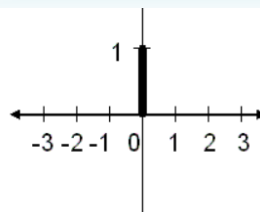
- $f_X(x)$  is often called the density function of the random variable  $X$ .

- For a discrete random variable, this density function is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) \delta(x - x_i) \quad (4)$$



$$\delta \text{ Unit impulse function: } \delta(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



- Proprieties:**

- ✓  $f_X(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
- ✓  $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(\theta) d\theta$
- ✓  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = F_X(\infty) - F_X(-\infty) = 1$
- ✓  $P(x_1 < X \leq x_2) = F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(\theta) d\theta$

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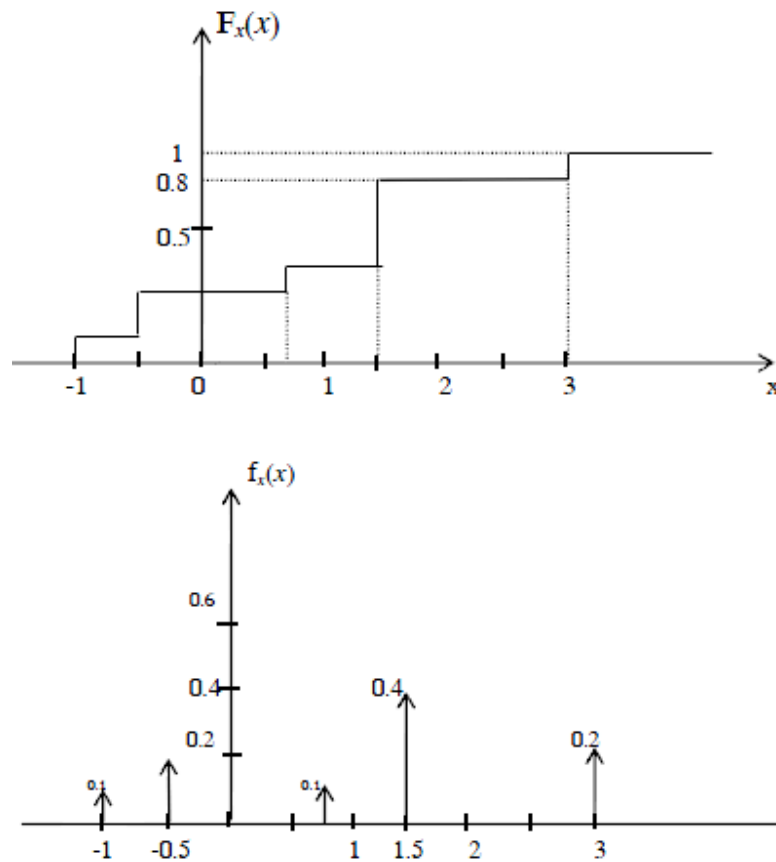
### Example 2.2:

Let  $X$  be a random variable with discrete values in the set  $\{-1, -0.5, 0.7, 1.5, 3\}$ . The corresponding probabilities are assumed to be  $\{0.1, 0.2, 0.1, 0.4, 0.2\}$ .

- a) Plot  $F_X(x)$ , and  $f_X(x)$
- b) Find  $P(x < -1)$ ,  $P(-1 < x \leq -0.5)$

### Solution 2.2:

- a)



b)  $P(X < -1) = 0$  because there are no sample space points in the set  $\{X < -1\}$ . Only when  $X = -1$  do we obtain one outcome and we have immediate jump in probability of 0.1 in  $F_X(x)$ . For  $-1 < x < -0.5$  there are no additional space points so  $F_X(x)$  remains constant at the value 0.1.

$$P(-1 < X \leq -0.5) = F_X(-0.5) - F_X(-1) = 0.3 - 0.1 = 0.2$$

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### Example 3:

Find the constant  $c$  such that the function:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} c \cdot x & 0 \leq x \leq 3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is a valid probability density function (*pdf*)

Compute  $P(1 < x \leq 2)$

Find the cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$

**Solution:**

## 5. Examples of distributions

Discrete random variables	Continuous random variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Binominal distribution</li> <li>• Poisson distribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gaussian (Normal) distribution</li> <li>• Uniform distribution</li> <li>• Exponential distribution</li> <li>• Rayleigh distribution</li> </ul>

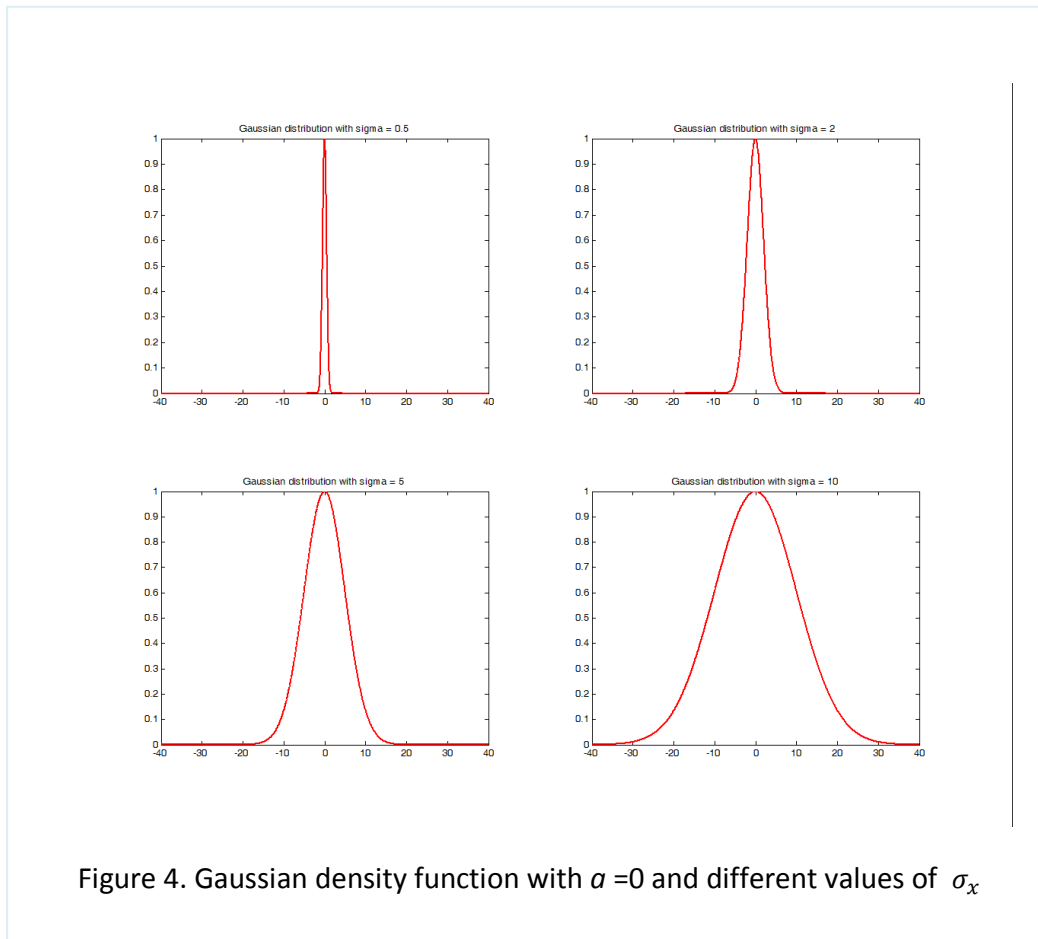
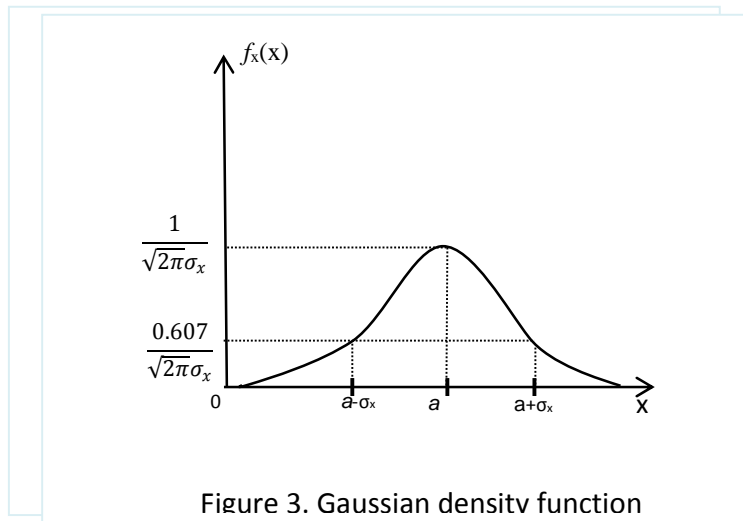
### The Gaussian distribution

- The Gaussian or normal distribution is one of the important distributions as it describes many phenomena.
- A random variable  $X$  is called Gaussian or normal if its density function has the form:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-a)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \quad (5)$$

$\sigma_x > 0$  and  $a$  are, respectively the mean and the standard deviation of  $X$  which measures the width of the function.

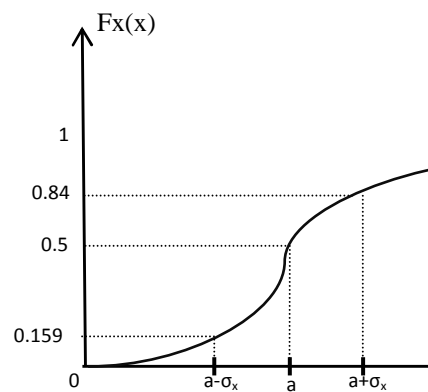




- The distribution function is:

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{(\theta-a)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} d\theta \quad (5)$$

➔ This integral has no closed form solution and must be solved by numerical methods.



- To make the results of  $F_X(x)$  available for any values of  $x$ ,  $a$ ,  $\sigma_x$ , we define a standard normal distribution with mean  $a = 0$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_x = 1$ , denoted  $N(0,1)$ :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \quad (6)$$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{\beta^2}{2}} d\beta \quad (7)$$

- Then, we use the following relation:

$$F_Z(z) = F_X\left(\frac{x-a}{\sigma_x}\right) \quad (8)$$

- To extract the corresponding values from an integration table developed for  $N(0,1)$ .

**Example 4:**

Find the probability of the event  $\{X \leq 5.5\}$  for a Gaussian random variable with  $\mu=3$  and  $\sigma_x = 2$

**Solution:**

$$P\{X \leq 5.5\} = F_Z(5.5) = F_X\left(\frac{5.5 - 3}{2}\right) = F_X(1.25)$$

Using the table, we have:  $P\{X \leq 5.5\} = F_X(1.25) = 0.8944$

**Example 5:**

In example 4, find  $P\{X > 5.5\}$

**Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X > 5.5\} &= 1 - P\{X \leq 5.5\} \\ &= 1 - F(1.25) = 0.1056 \end{aligned}$$

## 6. Other distributions and density examples

### The Binomial distribution

- The binomial density can be applied to the Bernoulli trial experiment which has two possible outcomes on a given trial.
- The density function  $f_x(x)$  is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \delta(x-k) \quad (9)$$

Where  $\binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{(N-k)!k!}$  and  $\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = 0 \\ 0 & x \neq 0 \end{cases}$

- Note that this is a discrete r.v.
- The Binomial distribution  $F_X(x)$  is:

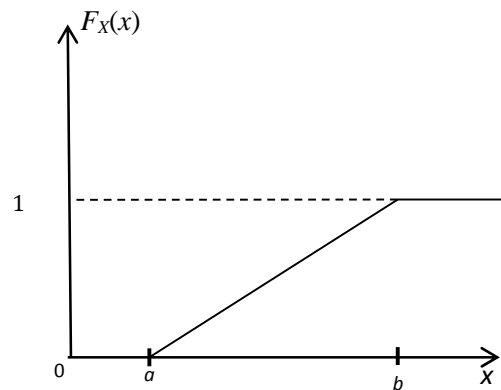
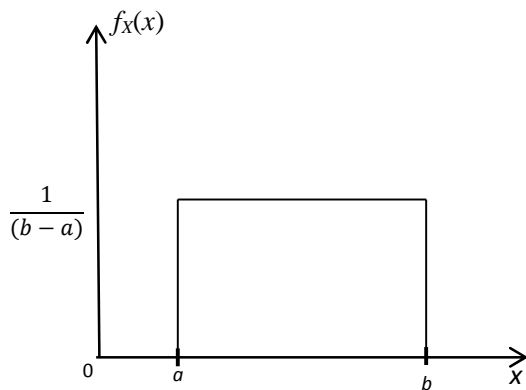
$$\begin{aligned}
 F_X(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^x \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \delta(x-k) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} u(x-k)
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

### The Uniform distribution

- The density and distribution functions of the uniform distribution are given by:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{(x-a)}{(b-a)} & a \leq x < b \\ 1 & x \geq b \end{cases} \tag{12}$$



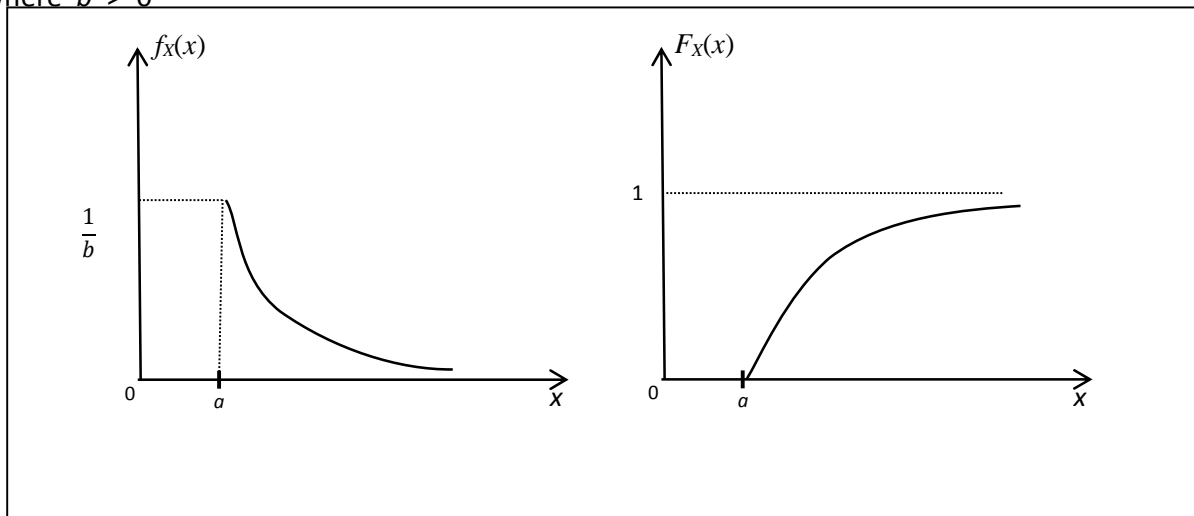
### The Exponential distribution

- The density and distribution functions of the exponential distribution are given by:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} & x \geq a \\ 0 & x < a \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} & x \geq a \\ 0 & x < a \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

where  $b > 0$



## 7. Expectation

- Expectation is an important concept in probability and statistics. It is called also expected value, or mean value or statistical average of a random variable.
- The expected value of a random variable  $X$  is denoted by  $E[X]$  or  $\bar{X}$
- If  $X$  is a continuous random variable with probability density function  $f_X(x)$ , then:

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f_X(x) dx \quad (15)$$

- If  $X$  is a discrete random variable having values  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$ , that occurs with probabilities  $P(x_i)$ , we have

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(x_i) \delta(x - x_i) \quad (16)$$

Then the expected value  $E[X]$  will be given by:

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i P(x_i) \quad (17)$$

**Example 3.1:** find  $E[x]$  for the exponential r.v.:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} & x \geq a \\ 0 & x < a \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Solu: } E[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \int_a^{\infty} \frac{x}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} dx = \frac{e^{a/b}}{b} \int_a^{\infty} x e^{-\frac{x}{b}} dx$$

$$\text{From integration table we have: } \int x e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \left[ \frac{x}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Here } c = -\frac{1}{b} \Rightarrow E[X] &= \frac{e^{a/b}}{b} \left[ e^{-\frac{x}{b}} (-bx - b^2) \right]_a^{\infty} \\ &= \frac{e^{a/b}}{b} \left[ e^{-\infty} (-\infty) - e^{-a/b} (-ab - b^2) \right] \\ &= \frac{e^{a/b} \cdot e^{-a/b} (ab + b^2)}{b} = a + b \end{aligned}$$

**Example 3.2:** find the expected value of the points on the top face of tossing a fair die experiment?

**Solu:**  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $P(x_i) = \frac{1}{6}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 6$  since the die is fair.

$$\text{So, } E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^6 x_i P(x_i) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 3.5$$

### 7.1 Expected value of a function of a random variable

- Let be  $X$  a random variable then the function  $g(X)$  is also a random variable, and its expected value  $E[g(X)]$  is given by

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx \quad (18)$$

- If  $X$  is a discrete random variable then

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{i=1}^N g(x_i)P(x_i) \quad (19)$$

**Example 3.3:** A random voltage has  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{5}x e^{-x^2/5} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$

The voltage is applied to a device that generates a voltage  $Y = g(x) = X^2$ , which is equal to the power in  $1\Omega$  resistor. Find the average power in  $X$ ?

**Solu:** Power in  $X = E[g(x)] = E[X^2] = \int_0^{\infty} x^2 \frac{2x}{5} e^{-x^2/5} dx = \frac{2}{5} \int_0^{\infty} x^3 e^{-x^2/5} dx$

Let  $\beta = \frac{x^2}{5}$ ,  $d\beta = \frac{2x}{5} dx$  and  $\int x e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \left[ \frac{x}{c} - \frac{1}{c^2} \right]$

Power in  $X = \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^2/5} \cdot \frac{2x}{5} dx = \int_0^{\infty} 5\beta e^{-\beta} d\beta = 5[e^{-\beta} \left( \frac{\beta}{-1} - \frac{1}{1} \right)]_0^{\infty} = 5[0 - (0 - 1)] = 5 \text{ Watts}$


## 8. Moments

- An immediate application of the expected value of a function  $g(\cdot)$  of a random variable  $X$  is in calculating moments.
- Two types of moments are of particular interest, those **about the origin** and those **about the mean**.

### 8.1 Moments about the origin

- The function  $g(X) = X^n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  gives the moments of the random variable  $X$ .
- Let us denote the  $n^{\text{th}}$  moment about the origin by  $m_n$  then:

$$m_n = E[X^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f_X(x) dx \quad (20)$$

- $m_0 = 1$  is the area of the function  $f_x(x)$ .  
  $m_1 = E[X]$  is the expected value of  $X$ .  
 $m_2 = E[X^2]$  is the second moment of  $X$ .

## 8.2 Moments about the mean (Central moments)

- Moments about the mean value of  $X$  are called central moments and are given the symbol  $\mu_n$ .
- They are defined as the expected value of the function

$$g(X) = (X - E[X])^n, n = 0, 1, \dots \quad (21)$$

Which is

$$\mu_n = E[(X - E(X))^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^n f_X(x) dx \quad (22)$$

Notes:

$$u_0 = 1, \text{ the area of } f_X(x)$$

$$u_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx - E[X] \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 0$$

### 8.2.1 Variance

The variance is an important statistic and it measures the spread of  $f_x(x)$  about the mean.

- The square root of the variance  $\sigma_x$ , is called the standard deviation.
- The variance is given by:

$$\sigma_x^2 = u_2 = E[(X - E(X))^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^2 f_X(x) dx \quad (23)$$

We have:

$$\sigma_x^2 = E[X^2] - E[X]^2 \quad (24)$$



- This means that the variance can be determined by the knowledge of the first and second moments.

**Example 3.4:**  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} & x \geq a \\ 0 & x < a \end{cases}$

**Find  $\sigma_x^2$ ?**

**Solu:**  $\sigma_x^2 = \int_a^\infty (x - \bar{x})^2 \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} dx$

Let  $\beta = x - \bar{x}$ ,  $d\beta = dx$ ,  $x = a \Rightarrow \beta = a - \bar{x}$

**Then,**  $\sigma_x^2 = \int_{a-\bar{x}}^\infty \beta^2 \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{-(x-\bar{x}+x-a)}{b}} d\beta$

$$= \frac{e^{-\frac{-(x-a)}{b}}}{b} \int_{a-\bar{x}}^\infty \beta^2 e^{-\frac{\beta}{b}} d\beta$$

**From table:**  $\int x^2 e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \left[ \frac{x^2}{c} - \frac{2x}{c^2} + \frac{2}{c^3} \right]$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_x^2 = \frac{e^{-\frac{-(x-a)}{b}}}{b} \left[ e^{-\frac{\beta}{b}} (-b\beta^2 - 2b^2\beta - 2b^3) \right]_{a-\bar{x}}^\infty$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\frac{-(x-a)}{b}}}{b} [0 - e^{-\frac{-(x-a)}{b}} (-b(a-\bar{x})^2 - 2b^2(a-\bar{x}) - 2b^3)]$$

$$= (a-\bar{x})^2 - 2b(a-\bar{x}) - 2b^2$$

since  $\bar{X} = E[X] = a + b$  (see example 3.1)

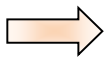
$$\sigma_x^2 = (a - a - b)^2 - 2b(a - a - b) - 2b^2 = b^2 + 2b^2 - 2b^2 = b^2$$

**Another solution:** Use  $\sigma_x^2 = E[X^2] - \bar{X}^2$

### 8.2.2 Skew

- The skew or third central moment is a measure of asymmetry of the density function about the mean.

$$u_3 = E[(X - E(X))^3] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^3 f_X(x) dx \quad (25)$$



$u_3 = 0$  If the density is symmetric about the mean

**Example 3.5.** Compute the skew of a density function uniformly distributed in the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

**Solution:**  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{for } -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f_X(x) dx = \int_{-1}^{+1} x \cdot \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{-1}^1 = 0$$

$$u_3 = E[(X - E(X))^3] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^3 f_X(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 (x)^3 \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^4}{4} \Big|_{-1}^1 = 0$$

## 9. Functions that give moments

- The moments of a random variable  $X$  can be determined using two different functions: Characteristic function and the moment generating function.

### 9.1 Characteristic function

- The characteristic function of a random variable  $X$  is defined by:

$$\phi_X(\omega) = E[e^{j\omega x}] \quad (26)$$

- $j = \sqrt{-1}$  and  $-\infty < \omega < +\infty$
- $\phi_X(\omega)$  can be seen as the Fourier transform (with the sign of  $\omega$  reversed) of  $f_X(x)$ :

$$\phi_X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) e^{j\omega x} dx \quad (27)$$



If  $\phi_X(\omega)$  is known then density function  $f_X(x)$  and the moments of  $X$  can be computed.

- The density function is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_X(\omega) e^{-j\omega x} d\omega \quad (28)$$

- The moments are determined as follows:

$$m_n = (-j)^n \left. \frac{d^n \phi_X(\omega)}{d\omega^n} \right|_{\omega=0} \quad (29)$$

- Note that  $|\phi_X(\omega)| \leq \phi_X(0) = 1$

Differentiate  $n$  times with respect to  $\omega$  and set  $\omega = 0$  in the derivative

**Example 3.6:** Let  $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} dx & x \geq a \\ 0 & x < a \end{cases}$

Evaluate the characteristic function and first moment.

**Solu:**  $\Phi_X(w) = \int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} e^{jwx} dx$

$$= \frac{e^{a/b}}{b} \int_a^{\infty} e^{(-\frac{1}{b} + jw)x} dx = \frac{e^{a/b}}{b(-\frac{1}{b} + jw)} e^{-\left(\frac{1}{b} + jw\right)x} \Big|_a^{\infty}$$

$$= \frac{e^{a/b}(0 - e^{(-\frac{1}{b} + jw)a})}{-1 + jbw} = \frac{e^{jaw}}{1 - jbw}$$

$$m_1 = -j \frac{d\Phi_X(w)}{dw} \Big|_{w=0}$$

$$= -j \frac{[ja e^{jaw}(1 - jbw) - e^{jaw}(-jb)]}{(1 - jbw)^2} \Big|_{w=0}$$

$$= -j \frac{[ja + jb]}{1} = -j^2[a + b] = a + b$$

## 9.2 Moment generating function

- The moment generating function is given by:

$$M_X(v) = E[e^{vx}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) e^{vx} dx \quad (30)$$

Where  $v$  is a real number:  $-\infty < v < \infty$

- Then the moments are obtained from the moment generating function using the following expression:

$$m_n = \frac{d^n M_X(v)}{dv^n} \Big|_{v=0} \quad (31)$$



Compared to the characteristic function, the moment generating function may not exist for all random variables.

**Example 3.7:** Compute  $M_X(v)$  and  $m_1$  for the exponential r.v.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Soln: } M_X(v) &= \int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{b} e^{-\frac{(x-a)}{b}} e^{vx} dx \\ &= \frac{e^{av}}{1-bv} \end{aligned}$$

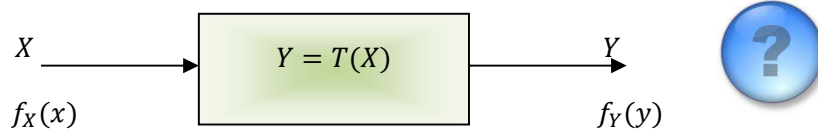
$$m_1 = \left. \frac{ae^{av}(1-bv) + e^{av}b}{(1-bv)} \right|_{v=0} = a + b$$

## 10 Transformation of a random variable

- A random variable  $X$  can be transformed into another r.v.  $Y$  by:

$$Y = T(X) \quad (32)$$

- Given  $f_X(x)$  and  $F_X(x)$ , we want to find  $f_Y(y)$ , and  $F_Y(y)$ ,
- We assume that the transformation  $T$  is continuous and differentiable.



### 10.1 Monotonic transformation

- A transformation  $T$  is said to be monotonically increasing  $T(x_1) < T(x_2)$  for any  $x_1 < x_2$ .
- $T$  is said monotonically decreasing if  $T(x_1) > T(x_2)$  for any  $x_1 < x_2$ .

### 10.1.1 Monotonic increasing transformation

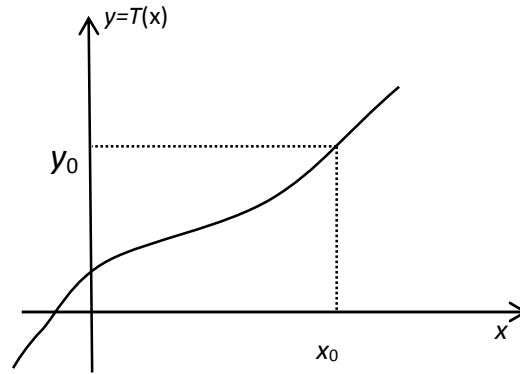


Figure 5. Monotonic increasing transformation

- In this case, for particular values  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  shown in figure 1, we have:

$$y_0 = T(x_0) \quad (33)$$

and

$$x_0 = T^{-1}(y_0) \quad (34)$$

- Due to the one-to-one correspondence between  $X$  and  $Y$ , we can write:

$$F_Y(y_0) = P\{Y \leq y_0\} = P\{X \leq X_0\} = F_X(x_0) \quad (35)$$

$$F_Y(y_0) = \int_{-\infty}^{y_0} f_Y(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f_X(x) dx \quad (36)$$

- Differentiating both sides with respect to  $y_0$  and using the expression  $x_0 = T^{-1}(y_0)$ , we obtain:

$$f_Y(y_0) = f_X[T^{-1}(y_0)] \frac{dT^{-1}(y_0)}{dy_0} \quad (37)$$

- This result could be applied to any  $y_0$ , then we have:

$$f_Y(y) = f_X[T^{-1}(y)] \frac{dT^{-1}(y)}{dy} \quad (38)$$

- Or in compact form:

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \left. \frac{dx}{dy} \right|_{x=T^{-1}(y)} \quad (39)$$

### 10.1.2 Monotonic decreasing transformation

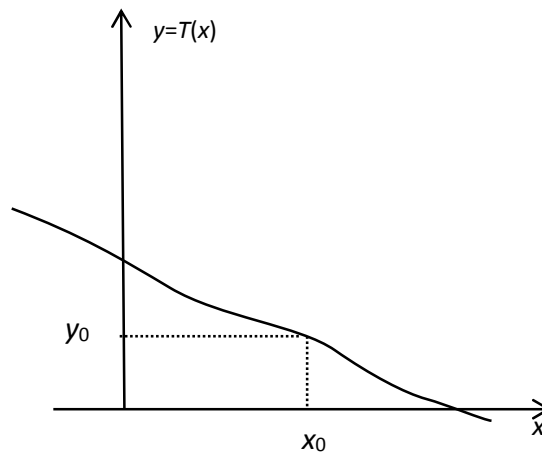


Figure 6. Monotonic decreasing transformation

- From Figure 2, we have

$$F_Y(y_0) = P\{Y \leq y_0\} = P\{x \geq x_0\} = 1 - F_X(x_0) \quad (40)$$

$$F_Y(y_0) = \int_{-\infty}^{y_0} f_Y(y) dy = 1 - \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f_X(x) dx \quad (41)$$

- Again Differentiating with respect to  $y_0$ , we obtain:

$$f_Y(y_0) = -f_X[T^{-1}(y_0)] \frac{dT^{-1}(y_0)}{dy_0} \quad (42)$$

- As the slope of  $T^{-1}(y_0)$  is negative, we conclude that for both types of monotonic transformation, we have:

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| \quad \text{and} \quad x = T^{-1}(y) \quad (43)$$

**Example 3.8:** Let  $Y = aX + b$ . Find  $f_Y(y)$  given that  $f_X(x)$  is Gaussian r.v. with mean  $a_x$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_x$ .

Solu:  $Y = aX + b \Rightarrow X = \frac{Y-b}{a}$  and  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{a}$

$$\Rightarrow f_Y(y) = f_X\left(\frac{Y-b}{a}\right) \left| \frac{1}{a} \right|$$

When  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x} e^{-\frac{(x-a_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}}$

$$\text{Then } f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x} e^{-\frac{|\frac{y-b}{a}-a_x|^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \left| \frac{1}{a} \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{|a|\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x} e^{-\frac{[y-(b+aa_x)]^2}{2a^2\sigma_x^2}}$$

Y is also Gaussian with mean and variance:

$$a_Y = aa_x + b \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_Y^2 = a^2\sigma_x^2$$

#### a. Non-monotonic transformation

- In general, a transformation could be non monotonic as shown in figure 3



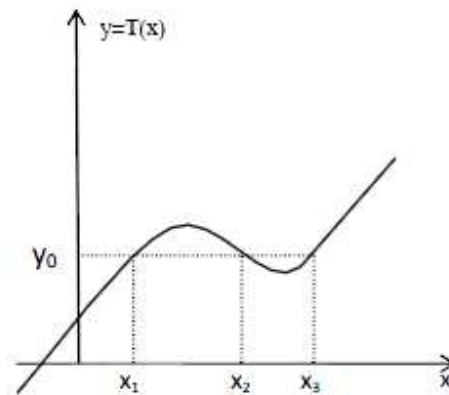


Figure 7. A non-monotonic transformation

- In this case, more than one interval of values of  $X$  that correspond to the event  $P(Y \leq y_0)$
- For example, the event represented in figure 7 corresponds to the event  $\{X \leq x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \leq X \leq x_3\}$ .
- In general for **non-monotonic transformation**:

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{f_X(x_j)}{\left| \frac{dT(x)}{dx} \right|_{x=x_j}} \quad (44)$$

Where  $x_j, j=1,2,\dots,N$  are the real solutions of the equation  $T(x) = y$

**Example 3.9:** Let  $Y=T(x)=cX^2$ ;  $c > 0$ .

Given  $f_X(x)$ , find  $f_Y(y)$ ?

$$\text{Solu: } Y = cX^2 \Rightarrow x_1 = \sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}, \quad x_2 = -\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}$$

$$y' = 2cx$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{f_X\left(\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right)}{\left|2c\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right|} + \frac{f_X\left(-\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right)}{\left|2c\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right|}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{f_X\left(\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right) + f_X\left(-\sqrt{\frac{y}{c}}\right)}{2\sqrt{cy}}; y \geq 0$$

