# Notes on probabilistic applications of the CHANGE OF VARIABLES FORMULAS FROM CALCULUS 

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#### Abstract

These are some notes on applications of the change of variables formula from Calculus


### 0.1 One variable

Let $f$ be a continuous function on some interval $(a, b)$. Let $u$ be continuously differentiable, strictly monotone function from $(a, b)$ to $(c, d)$. It is allowed that either $a$ or could be $-\infty$, and the either $b$ or $d$ could be $\infty$.

Then since $u$ is strictly monotone, it is invertible, and with inverse function $x(u)$, which is continuously differentiable as a function of $u$. The change of variables formula then says that for any $u_{0}, u_{1}$ with $c<u_{0}<u_{1}<d$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{x\left(u_{0}\right)}^{x\left(u_{1}\right)} f(x) \mathrm{d} x=\int_{u_{0}}^{u_{1}} f(x(u)) x^{\prime}(u) \mathrm{d} u . \tag{0.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This has the following probabilistic interpretation. Suppose that $f$ is the density function of a continuous random variable $X$. Define a new random variable $U$ by $U=u(X)$. Then, assuming $x\left(u_{0}\right)<x\left(u_{1}\right)$, which is the case if $u$ is monotone increasing, the integral on the left in (0.1) equals

$$
P\left(x\left(u_{0}\right)<X<x\left(u_{1}\right)\right) .
$$

But, again since $u$ is monotone increasing,

$$
x\left(u_{0}\right)<X<x\left(u_{1}\right) \Longleftrightarrow u\left(x\left(u_{0}\right)\right)<u(X)<u\left(x\left(u_{1}\right)\right) \Longleftrightarrow u_{0}<U<u_{1} .
$$

Hence the integral on the right in (0.1) equals $P\left(u_{0}<U<u_{1}\right)$. It follows immediately that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(u):=f(x(u)) x^{\prime}(u) \tag{0.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the probability density function of $U$,

Things are similar if $u$ is monotone decreasing: Then so is $x$ as a function of $u$, so that $x\left(u_{1}\right)<x\left(u_{2}\right)$, and then the integral on the left equals,

$$
-\int_{x\left(u_{1}\right)}^{x\left(u_{0}\right)} f(x) \mathrm{d} x=-P\left(x\left(u_{1}\right)<X<x\left(u_{2}\right)\right)
$$

Since $u$ is monotone decreasing,

$$
x\left(u_{1}\right)<X<x\left(u_{0}\right) \Longleftrightarrow u\left(x\left(u_{1}\right)\right)>u(X)>u\left(x\left(u_{0}\right)\right) \Longleftrightarrow u_{1}>U>u_{0} .
$$

Hence the integral on the right in (0.1) equals $-P\left(u_{0}<U<u_{1}\right)$. It follows immediately that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(u):=-f(x(u)) x^{\prime}(u) \tag{0.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the probability density function of $U$,
We can combine both (0.2) and (0.3) into a single formula: $g(u)=f\left(x(u)\left|x^{\prime}(u)\right|\right.$. We have proved:
0.1 THEOREM. Let $X$ be a continuous random variable with values in $(a, b)$, and let $f$ be the probability density function of $X$. Let $u$ be a continuously differentiable strictly monotone function from $(a, b)$ to $(c, d)$. Define a new random variable $U=u(X)$. Then $U$ has the probability density function $g$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(u):=f(x(u))\left|x^{\prime}(u)\right| \tag{0.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

0.2 EXAMPLE. Let $X$ be uniform on $(0,1)$ so that $f(x)=1$ for $x \in(0,1)$. Let $u(x)=-\log (x)$. As $x$ ranges over $(0,1)$, $u$ ranges over $(0, \infty)$, and note that $u$ is strictly monotone decreasing. The inverse function is $x(u)=e^{-u}$, and so $\left|x^{\prime}(u)\right|=e^{-u}$. Defining $U=u(X)=-\log (X)$, we then have that the density of $U$ is the function $e^{-u}$ on $(0, \infty)$. That is, if $X$ is uniform on $(0,1)$, $U=-\log (X)$ is exponential with unit rate on $(0, \infty)$.

### 0.2 Several variables

Let $\widehat{\Omega}$ be an open subset of the $x, y$ plane with piecewise smooth boundary. Let $\mathbf{x}=(x, y)$ denote a generic point in the $x, y$ plane. Suppose that $\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x})=(u(x, y), v(x, y))$ is a continuously differentiable function defined on $\widehat{\Omega}$ with values in the $u, v$ plane. Suppose further that $\mathbf{U}$ is oneto one on $\widehat{\Omega}$, and let $\Omega$ denote the image of $\widehat{\Omega}$ under $\mathbf{U}$. Then $\mathbf{U}$ is an invertible, continuously differentiable transformation from $\widehat{\Omega}$ onto $\Omega$. Let $\mathbf{X}(u, v)$ denote the inverse function.

For $A \subset \Omega$, define $\widehat{A}=\mathbf{U}^{-1}(A)$. Then for any continuous function $f$ on $\widehat{\Omega}$, the change of variables formula for two variables gives us

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\widehat{A}} f(x, y) \mathrm{d} x \mathrm{~d} y=\int_{A} f(\mathbf{X}(u, v))\left|\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}\right| \mathrm{d} u \mathrm{~d} v \tag{0.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left|\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}\right|$ is the absolute value of the Jacobian determinant of the transformation:

$$
\left|\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}\right|=\left|\operatorname{det}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u, v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u, v)  \tag{0.6}\\
\frac{\partial x}{\partial v}(u, v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}(u, v)
\end{array}\right]\right| .
$$

This formula has a probabilisitic interpretation. Suppose that $f$ is the joint probability density function of a pair of random variables $(X, Y)$, where $(X, y)$ takes values in $\widehat{\omega}$. Then left side of (0.5) equals $P((X, Y) \in \widehat{A})$. Define new random variables $U$ and $V$ by $U=u(X, Y)$ and $V=v(X, Y)$. Then by the definition of $A$,

$$
(X, Y) \in \widehat{A} \Longleftrightarrow(U, V) \in A
$$

and hence the integral on the right in (0.5) equals $P((U, V) \in A)$. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(u, v)=f\left(x(u, v), y(u, v)\left|\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}\right|\right. \tag{0.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the joint probability density function of $U$ and $V$. We have proved:
0.3 THEOREM. Let $f$ be the joint probability density of a pair $(X, Y)$ of random variables taking values in $\widehat{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$. Let $\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x})=(u(x, y), v(x, y))$ be a continuously differentiable function defined on $\widehat{\Omega}$. Suppose further that $\mathbf{U}$ is one-to one on $\widehat{\Omega}$, and let $\Omega$ denote the image of $\widehat{\Omega}$ under $\mathbf{U}$, so that $\mathbf{U}(x, y)$ has a continuously differentiable inverse $\mathbf{X}(u, v)$ defined on $\Omega$. Define a new pair of random variables $(U, V)$ by $U=u(X, Y)$ and $V=v(X, Y)$. Then the function $g(u, v)$ given in (0.7) is the joint probability density of $(U, V)$.

The generalization to more variables is straightforward.
0.4 EXAMPLE. Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent and uniform on $(0,1)$. Define new random variables $U:=X+Y$ and $V:=X / Y$. Find the joint probability density of $(U, V)$ ? Are $U$ and $V$ independent?

To apply the theorem, we note that $f(x, y)=1$ for $(x, y) \in(0,1) \times(0,1)$ and $f(x, y)=0$ elsewhere. Next define $u(x, y)=x+y$ and $V(x, y)=x / y$. Then $\mathbf{U}(x, y)=(x+y, x / y)$ which is defined and continuously differentiable on $\widehat{\Omega}=(0,1) \times(0,1)$.

To see that it is invertible, we seek to compute the inverse. Combining $u=x+y$ and $x=v y$ yields $u=y(v+1)$ so that

$$
y=\frac{u}{1+v} \quad \text { and then } \quad x=\frac{u v}{1+v} .
$$

Hence the inverse transformation is

$$
\mathbf{X}(u, v)=(x(u, v), y(u, v))=\left(\frac{u v}{1+v}, \frac{u}{1+v}\right) .
$$

To find $\Omega$, the domain of $\mathbf{X}$, we note first the by definition $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are positive on $\widehat{\Omega}=(0,1) \times(0,1)$. By definition, $(u, v) \in \Omega$ if and only if $(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \in \widehat{\Omega}$, which is the same as

$$
0 \leq \frac{u v}{1+v} \leq 1 \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq \frac{u}{1+v} \leq 1
$$

The region $\Omega$ is therefore bounded by

$$
u=0, \quad v=0, \quad v=\frac{1}{u-1} \quad \text { and } \quad v=u-1
$$

That is, $\Omega$ is the union of the rectangle $(0,1) \times(0, \infty)$, and the region above $(1,2)$ with $u-1<$ $v<\frac{1}{1-u}$.

Finally we compute

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u, v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u, v) \\
\frac{\partial x}{\partial v}(u, v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}(u, v)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{v}{1+v} & \frac{u}{(1+v)^{2}} \\
\frac{1}{1+v} & \frac{-u}{(1+v)^{2}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and therefore

$$
\left|\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}\right|=u(1+v)^{-2} .
$$

Therefore, the joint density function of $(U, V)$ is $g(u, v)$ given by

$$
g(u, v):=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
u(1+v)^{-2} & (u, v) \in \Omega \\
0 & (u, v) \notin \Omega
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Although the function $u(1+v)^{-2}$ is a product function, $g(u, v)$ is not because $\Omega$ is not a rectangle. Therefore, $U$ and $V$ are not independent. This can be seen without calculation: It is possible for $V$ to be very large, but then $Y$ must be very small, and then $U$ cannot be much greater that 1 , while in general $U$ can be as large as 2. Hence $U$ is not independent of $V$, and then neither is $V$ independent of $U$.

We have answered the questions posed at the beginning of the example, but let's check our work. It must be the case that

$$
\int_{\Omega} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} u \mathrm{~d} v=1
$$

since otherwise $g$ would not be a probability density.
We compute:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Omega} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} u \mathrm{~d} v & =\int_{0}^{1} u\left(\int_{0}^{\infty}(1+v)^{-2} \mathrm{~d} v\right) \mathrm{d} u+\int_{1}^{2} u\left(\int_{u-1}^{(u-1)^{-1}}(1+v)^{-2} \mathrm{~d} v\right) \mathrm{d} u \\
& =\frac{1}{2}+\int_{1}^{2} u\left(\frac{2-u}{u}\right) \mathrm{d} u=1
\end{aligned}
$$

It is also instructive to compute the left marginal density of $g$; i.e.,

$$
g_{U}(u)=\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} v .
$$

There are two cases to consider: For $0<u<1$,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} v=u \int_{0}^{\infty}(1+v)^{-2} \mathrm{~d} v=u
$$

for $1<u<2$,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} v=u \int_{u-1}^{(u-1)^{-1}}(1+v)^{-2} \mathrm{~d} v=2-u
$$

Altogether,

$$
g_{U}(u)= \begin{cases}u & u \in[0,1] \\ 2-u & u \in[1,2] \\ 0 & u \notin[0,2]\end{cases}
$$

which is what we computed for the convolution of two uniform densities on $[0,1]$.
We close by computing the right marginal density of $g$, I.e.,

$$
g_{V}(v)=\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} u .
$$

There are two cases to consider: For $0<v<1$,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} u=(1+v)^{-2} \int_{0}^{1+v} u \mathrm{~d} u=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

for $1<v<\infty$,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(u, v) \mathrm{d} u=(1+v)^{-2} \int_{0}^{1+v^{-1}} u \mathrm{~d} u=\frac{1}{2 v^{2}}
$$

Altogether,

$$
g_{V}(v)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} & v \in[0,1] \\ \frac{1}{2 v^{2}} & v \in[1, \infty) \\ 0 & v<0\end{cases}
$$

Let's check this last computation: $\log (X / Y)=\log (X)-\log (Y)$. Define $W:=\log (X)$ and $Z:=-\log (Y)$, By Theorem 0.3,

$$
f_{W}(w)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
e^{w} & w<0 \\
0 & w \geq 0
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad f_{Z}(z)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
e^{-z} & z>0 \\
0 & z \leq 0
\end{array} .\right.\right.
$$

Since $W$ and $Z$ are independent, the density o $Z+W$ is given by the convolution:

$$
f_{Z+W}(t)=\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{W}(t-z) f_{Z}(z) \mathrm{d} z
$$

and the integrand is non-zero if and only if both $z>0$ and $t-z<0$. Hence if $t>0$, we have

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{W}(t-z) f_{Z}(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{t}^{\infty} e^{t-z} e^{-z} \mathrm{~d} z=\frac{1}{2} e^{-t}
$$

while for $t<0$,

$$
\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{W}(t-z) f_{Z}(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{t-z} e^{-z} \mathrm{~d} z=\frac{1}{2} e^{t}
$$

Altogether,

$$
f_{W+Z}(t)=\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}
$$

Then since $X / Y=\exp (W+Z)$, we can apply Theorem 0.3 once more to obtain the density for $X / Y$ : If $v(t)=\exp (t), t(v)=\log (v)$ and then $t^{\prime}(v)=1 / v$ for $v>0$. Theorem 0.3 then gives

$$
f_{X / Y}(v)=f_{W+Z}(t(v)) t^{\prime}(v)=\frac{1}{2} e^{-|\log v|} \frac{1}{v} .
$$

For $v<1,-|\log v|=\log (v)$ and so for such $v, f_{X / Y}(v)=\frac{1}{2}$. For $v>1,-|\log v|=-\log (v)$ and so for such $v, f_{X / Y}(v)=\frac{1}{2} v^{-2}$. Altogether,

$$
f_{X / Y}(v)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} & 0 \leq v \leq 1 \\ \frac{1}{2 v^{2}} & v \geq 1 \\ 0 & v<0\end{cases}
$$

This is exactly what we found above by computing the right margin of the joint probability density of $(X+Y, X / Y)$.

