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 c could be $-\infty$, and the either b or d could be ∞ .

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 $c < u_0 < u_1 < d$,

$$\int_{x(u_0)}^{x(u_1)} f(x) \mathrm{d}x = \int_{u_0}^{u_1} f(x(u)) x'(u) \mathrm{d}u \ . \tag{0.1}$$

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 $x(u_0) < x(u_1)$, which is the case if u is monotone increasing, the integral on the left in (0.1) equals

$$P(x(u_0) < X < x(u_1))$$
.

But, again since u is monotone increasing,

$$x(u_0) < X < x(u_1) \iff u(x(u_0)) < u(X) < u(x(u_1)) \iff u_0 < U < u_1 .$$

Hence the integral on the right in (0.1) equals $P(u_0 < U < u_1)$. It follows immediately that

$$g(u) := f(x(u))x'(u)$$
 (0.2)

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 $x(u_1) < x(u_2)$, and then the integral on the left equals,

$$-\int_{x(u_1)}^{x(u_0)} f(x) \mathrm{d}x = -P(x(u_1) < X < x(u_2))$$

Since u is monotone decreasing,

$$x(u_1) < X < x(u_0) \iff u(x(u_1)) > u(X) > u(x(u_0)) \iff u_1 > U > u_0$$

Hence the integral on the right in (0.1) equals $-P(u_0 < U < u_1)$. It follows immediately that

$$g(u) := -f(x(u))x'(u)$$
(0.3)

is the probability density function of U,

We can combine both (0.2) and (0.3) into a single formula: g(u) = f(x(u)|x'(u)|. 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

$$g(u) := f(x(u))|x'(u)| \tag{0.4}$$

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 $|x'(u)| = e^{-u}$. 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 $\hat{\Omega}$ 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 $\hat{\Omega}$ with values in the u, v plane. Suppose further that \mathbf{U} is one-to one on $\hat{\Omega}$, and let Ω denote the image of $\hat{\Omega}$ under \mathbf{U} . Then \mathbf{U} is an invertible, continuously differentiable transformation from $\hat{\Omega}$ onto Ω . 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

$$\int_{\widehat{A}} f(x,y) \mathrm{d}x \mathrm{d}y = \int_{A} f(\mathbf{X}(u,v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| \mathrm{d}u \mathrm{d}v , \qquad (0.5)$$

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

$$\left|\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)}\right| = \left|\det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u,v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u,v)\\ & & \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}(u,v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}(u,v) \end{bmatrix}\right|.$$
(0.6)

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 $\hat{\omega}$. Then left side of (0.5) equals $P((X, Y) \in \hat{A})$. Define new random variables U and V by U = u(X, Y) and V = v(X, Y). Then by the definition of A,

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

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

$$g(u,v) = f(x(u,v), y(u,v) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right|$$

$$(0.7)$$

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 Ω 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 Ω . 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) = 0elsewhere. 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 = vyyields u = y(v + 1) so that

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

Hence the inverse transformation is

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

To find Ω , the domain of **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

$$0 \le \frac{uv}{1+v} \le 1$$
 and $0 \le \frac{u}{1+v} \le 1$.

The region Ω is therefore bounded by

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

That is, Ω 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

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u,v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u,v) \\ \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}(u,v) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}(u,v) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{v}{1+v} & \frac{u}{(1+v)^2} \\ \\ \frac{1}{1+v} & \frac{-u}{(1+v)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

Although the function $u(1+v)^{-2}$ is a product function, g(u,v) is not because Ω 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:

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

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,

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

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,

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

for $1 < v < \infty$,

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

Altogether,

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

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,

$$f_W(w) = \begin{cases} e^w & w < 0\\ 0 & w \ge 0 \end{cases} \text{ and } f_Z(z) = \begin{cases} e^{-z} & z > 0\\ 0 & z \le 0 \end{cases}.$$

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

$$f_{Z+W}(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_W(t-z) f_Z(z) dz$$

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'(v) = 1/v for v > 0. Theorem 0.3 then gives

$$f_{X/Y}(v) = f_{W+Z}(t(v))t'(v) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-|\log v|}\frac{1}{v}$$
.

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,

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

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