

## The Jacobian Formula: functions are linear if you look really close

**Notational remark:** The bolded variables are either matrices or vectors; I like to do that to visually remind myself what is what exactly. This will be a little confusing because usually bolded uppercase letters are matrices, lower case are vectors, but here I'm also adding *random vectors* as bolded upper-case letters. Also,  $|\cdot|$ , when applied to a matrix, is the *absolute value of the determinant*.

The multivariate derived-distribution problem is set up as follows:  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  are jointly continuous with density function  $f_{\mathbf{X}}$  over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We also have a measurable function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and we define the random variable  $\mathbf{Y} = g(\mathbf{X})$ . Our goal is to find a good means of finding the distribution of  $\mathbf{Y}$  in terms of the distribution of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

In particular, we will make an assumption about  $g$  which is “well-behaved” in a few ways – and allows us to use the *Jacobian formula*. We will assume the following:

**Assumption 0.1.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set, and let  $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be

- continuously differentiable
- an injection; and
- has non-vanishing determinant of the Jacobian, i.e.  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \neq 0$ .

We also have the following fact, which is super useful:

**Fact 0.1.** Define  $V$  as the image  $g(U)$ . Then if  $g : U \rightarrow V$  satisfies the assumption: (i)  $V$  is open; (ii)  $g^{-1} : V \rightarrow U$  is well-defined; (iii)  $g^{-1}$  satisfies the assumption as well.

Let us define  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})$  to be the *Jacobian* (first-derivative, basically) of  $g^{-1}$  at  $\mathbf{y}$ . Basically, around any point  $\mathbf{y}$ , we consider a tiny cube  $A$  of volume  $\delta^n$  and note that the probability mass inside came from the parallelepiped  $B = g^{-1}(A) \approx \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})A$ . The volume of it is then  $\approx |\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})|\delta^n$  (linear algebra fact), and the density inside is approximately  $f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$ . Thus, the mass ( $\sim \mathbf{Y}$ ) inside  $A$  should be equal to the mass ( $\sim \mathbf{X}$ ) in  $B$ , giving:

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \delta^n \approx f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) \cdot |\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})|\delta^n$$

Dividing both sides by  $\delta^n$  and then taking  $\delta \searrow 0$  (which turns the  $\approx$  into  $=$ ), we get the actual **Jacobian formula**:

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) \cdot |\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})|$$

For convenience, we will also be using the matrix  $\mathbf{M} := \frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{x}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$  (forward Jacobian of  $g$  measured at  $\mathbf{x} = g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})$ ). We will use the fact that  $|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})| = |\mathbf{M}|^{-1}$ .

## An innocent little problem using the Jacobian formula

**Problem 0.1.** Let  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2)$  be jointly continuous with PDF  $f_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, x_2) = \exp(-x_1 - x_2)$  for  $x_1, x_2 > 0$ , and let

$$\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2) = (X_1 + X_2, X_1 X_2)$$

We want to know: (a) what is the joint PDF of  $\mathbf{Y}$ , and (b) are  $Y_1, Y_2$  independent?

Well, to (b) we can already answer “no” because if  $Y_2 \geq 100$ , then  $Y_1$  has to be bigger than 1 and that basically settles it.

$$(\text{Formally, we say } \mathbb{P}[(Y_2 \geq 100) \cap (Y_1 \leq 1)] = 0 \neq \mathbb{P}[Y_2 \geq 100] \cdot \mathbb{P}[Y_1 \leq 1])$$

But let’s do this in the principled way.

First, we have an issue that  $g$  is not one-to-one (note that  $g(x_1, x_2) = g(x_2, x_1)$ ); we will solve this by means of *order statistics*. We can assume that  $x_1 \neq x_2$  because  $\{\mathbf{x} : x_1 = x_2\}$  has Lebesgue measure 0. Define:

$$Z_1 = \min(X_1, X_2) \text{ and } Z_2 = \max(X_1, X_2)$$

From the order-statistics problem in the homework, we know that the PDF  $f_{\mathbf{Z}}$  is

$$f_{\mathbf{Z}}(z_1, z_2) = \begin{cases} 2 \exp(-z_1 - z_2) & \text{if } 0 < z_1 < z_2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note here that our set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is now

$$U = \{\mathbf{z} : 0 < z_1 < z_2\}$$

which is indeed open, and  $g$  remains the same and is therefore still continuously differentiable. Finally, if we look at the Jacobian of  $g$ , we find that

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ z_2 & z_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and so } \frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = z_2 - z_1$$

whose determinant is not 0 since  $z_2 \neq z_1$ .

Ok, let’s take a deep breath and remind ourselves of the Jacobian formula:

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{Z}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) |\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})|$$

(hidden is a  $\mathbf{1}_U(\mathbf{y})$  term, i.e. this only works on the range of  $g$ ). We’ll need to find these two parts,  $f_{\mathbf{Z}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}))$  and  $|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})|$ .

The Density at the Inverse: This luckily turns out to be quite easy, since by definition  $z_1 + z_2 = y_1$  when  $\mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{z})$ . Therefore, the density can just be computed:

$$f_{\mathbf{Z}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) = 2 \exp(-y_1)$$

The Determinant: For this, we gotta look at  $g^{-1}$ . Given  $\mathbf{y}$ , what is  $\mathbf{z}$ ? Well, solving gives

$$y_2 = z_1(y_1 - z_1) = z_2(y_1 - z_2)$$

which can be solved quadratically.  $z_2$  is the max, so

$$z_1 = \frac{y_1 - \sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad z_2 = \frac{y_1 + \sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}{2}$$

As a bit of a sanity check, let's look at  $y_1^2 - 4y_2$ , and hope that it's positive. We know

$$y_1^2 - 4y_2 = (x_1 + x_2)^2 - 4x_1x_2 \geq 0 \text{ because it's the square of AM-GM}$$

So our receiving set  $V$  is just

$$V = \{\mathbf{y} : y_1^2 - 4y_2 \geq 0\}$$

Alright, enough putting it off: what about the Jacobian  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})$  of  $g^{-1}$ ? To make things super-simple, however, note that we already have the determinant of the matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ , which is  $z_1 - z_2$  (the *absolute value* of  $\det(\mathbf{M})$  (at  $\mathbf{z}$ ) is  $z_2 - z_1$ ); and we know  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  in terms of  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ . Thus, we get

$$\det(\mathbf{M}) = z_1 - z_2 = \frac{y_1 - \sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}{2} - \frac{y_1 + \sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}{2} = -\sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}$$

and therefore

$$\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})) = \det(\mathbf{M})^{-1} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}$$

Now, we take the absolute value of this to get what we needed:

$$|\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}}$$

*Finally*, we can put everything together that we needed – not forgetting the term that we hid (indicator of  $V$ ) – to get

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{Z}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y})) |\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{y})| \mathbf{1}_V(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{2 \exp(-y_1)}{\sqrt{y_1^2 - 4y_2}} \mathbf{1}_{\{y_1^2 - 4y_2 > 0\}}$$

As an afterthought, we get part (b) – are they independent? – is “no” (as we already knew) because this PDF does not factor nicely into a  $y_1$  term and a  $y_2$  term.

## Conditional probability example

**Problem 0.2.** Alice sends a bit to Bob; this is some  $X \in \{-1, 1\}$ , and the probability of  $X = -1$  or  $1$  is  $1/2$  for each. However, the communication channel is noisy - in particular, it introduces some Gaussian noise  $N \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  (which is independent from the transmitted bit). Bob then receives  $Y = X + N$ , and wants to remove the noise and recover the original bit.

Bob finds that  $Y = y$ , for some  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Compute the probability  $\mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y]$ .

This is a problem about conditioning with probability densities. Let  $f_{Y|X}$  be the conditional density of  $Y$  given  $X$ , and let  $f_Y$  be the marginal density of  $Y$ . In this problem we want something of the form  $\mathbb{P}[X|Y]$  but are really given things of the form  $\mathbb{P}[Y|X]$  (and  $\mathbb{P}[X]$ ) – so a natural approach is to use Bayes' formula.

Defining  $p_X$  to be the *probability mass function* of  $X$ , we get

$$\mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y] = \frac{p_X(1) \cdot f_{Y|X}(y | 1)}{f_Y(y)}$$

Note that because the noise is  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  (and independent of  $X$ ), note that  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(X, 1)$  for whatever  $X$  is. Therefore, the density

$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y-x)^2}{2}}$$

Furthermore,  $f_Y$  is built as an average of these (recalling that  $X$  can only take two values):

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_x p_X(x) \cdot f_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y+1)^2}{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y-1)^2}{2}}}{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{e^{-\frac{(y+1)^2}{2}} + e^{-\frac{(y-1)^2}{2}}}{2}$$

because  $p_X(x) = 1/2$  for  $x = -1, 1$ . Plugging in all of these into the formula above yields (after a bunch of cancellations with the  $1/2$  and the  $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$ ):

$$\mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y] = \frac{p_X(1) \cdot f_{Y|X}(y | 1)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{e^{-\frac{(y-1)^2}{2}}}{e^{-\frac{(y+1)^2}{2}} + e^{-\frac{(y-1)^2}{2}}} = \frac{e^y}{e^{-y} + e^y}$$

(the last step is just an algebraic simplification, cancelling out the  $e^{-\frac{y^2+1}{2}}$  on the top and bottom).

Notably, this function has the following natural properties for this problem (sanity check):

- $\lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} \mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y] = 0$  and  $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y] = 1$ .
- $\mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = y]$  is (strictly) monotonically increasing.
- $\mathbb{P}[X = 1 | Y = 0] = 1/2$ .

## Borel-Cantelli example

**Problem 0.3.** Suppose we have a sequence of nonnegative random variables  $X_n$  (not necessarily independent) such that for any constant  $c > 0$ , the following holds:

$$0 < \mathbb{P}[X_n > c] \leq \frac{1}{c^2}$$

We want to show the following two things:

- (a) For any constant  $b > 0$ , there is 0 probability that  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} > b$ .
- (b) With probability 1,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} = 0$ .

For part (a), this is all about getting the thing we want to prove into a format where we can hit it with the given inequality. Furthermore, recall that  $\limsup$  is basically an “infinitely often” thing, which suggests that we might want to apply *Borel-Cantelli*. This means:

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} > b \iff \left\{ \frac{X_n}{n} > b \text{ i.o.} \right\}$$

(CAUTION! Need to be careful about the inequalities - if it's  $\geq$  it becomes more complicated, see Grading Notes 1 and 3.) Furthermore, we can re-write it to make the given inequality applicable. Define:

$$A_n := \left\{ \omega : \frac{X_n(\omega)}{n} > b \right\} = \left\{ \omega : X_n(\omega) \geq bn \right\}$$

Then, applying the inequality, we get

$$\mathbb{P}[A_n] = \mathbb{P}[X_n > bn] \leq \frac{1}{b^2 n^2}$$

Therefore, summing up these probabilities gives, for any  $b > 0$ ,

$$\sum_n \mathbb{P}[A_n] = \sum_n \frac{1}{b^2 n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{9b^2} < \infty$$

Therefore, we can apply Borel-Cantelli to conclude that  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} > b$  has probability 0.

For part (b), there are two options available (both basically the same concept). First, note that because  $X_n$  is *nonnegative*, we know that  $0 \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ . Therefore, if  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = 0$ , we know that  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = 0 = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ , and therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$  exists and is 0. Thus,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} = 0 \iff \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n}{n} = 0$$

So now we really need to write “ $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = 0$ ” (as an event) in terms of events we already have - and a countable number of them too. Defining

$$C := \left\{ \omega : \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n(\omega)}{n} = 0 \right\} \text{ and } C_k := \left\{ \omega : \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_n(\omega)}{n} \leq \frac{1}{k} \right\}$$

We then just see that (by the *union bound*, and part (a))

$$\begin{aligned} C = \bigcap_k C_k &\implies C^c = \bigcup_k C_k^c \implies \mathbb{P}[C^c] \leq \sum_k \mathbb{P}[C_k^c] \\ &= \sum_k 0 = 0 \implies \mathbb{P}[C] = 1 - \mathbb{P}[C^c] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Alternately, it can be observed that  $C_k \searrow C$ , and  $\mathbb{P}[C_k] = 1$  for all  $k$ ; therefore, by continuity of probability we can conclude that  $\mathbb{P}[C] = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}[C_k] = 1$ .

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6.436J / 15.085J Fundamentals of Probability  
Fall 2018

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