

Joint Distributions: Part One¹

STA 256: Fall 2018

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Overview

- 1 Joint Distributions
- 2 Discrete Distributions
- 3 Continuous Distributions
- 4 Independence
- 5 Conditional Distributions

Joint Distributions: The idea

- A single random variable is a measurement conducted on the elements of the sample space.
- More than one measurement can be taken on the same $\omega \in \Omega$.
- For example, X is height, and Y is weight.
- Of course more than two measurements are possible.
- Most real data sets have dozens of measurements on each sampling unit.
- Technically, a pair of jointly distributed random variables is a function from Ω to \mathbb{R}^2 .

Probability

As with single random variables, the joint probability distribution of a set of random variables comes from the underlying probability distribution defined on the subsets of Ω .

$$P((X, Y) \in C) = P\{\omega \in \Omega : (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) \in C\}$$

Joint Cumulative Distribution Functions

Whether X and Y are discrete or continuous, their joint distribution is defined by

$$F(x, y) = P\{X \leq x, Y \leq y\}$$

Joint Probability Mass Function

Frequency Function

$$p(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

Example

The discrete random variables X and Y have joint distribution

| | $x = 1$ | $x = 2$ | $x = 3$ |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| $y = 1$ | $3/12$ | $1/12$ | $3/12$ |
| $y = 2$ | $1/12$ | $3/12$ | $1/12$ |

- What is $P(Y = 1)$? $p_y(1) = \frac{3}{12} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{3}{12} = \frac{7}{12}$
- What is $P(Y = 2)$? $p_y(2) = \frac{1}{12} + \frac{3}{12} + \frac{1}{12} = \frac{5}{12}$
- What is $P(X = 2)$? $p_x(2) = \frac{1}{12} + \frac{3}{12} = \frac{4}{12}$

Marginal distributions

| | | | | |
|----------|---------|---------|---------|----------|
| | $x = 1$ | $x = 2$ | $x = 3$ | $p_y(y)$ |
| $y = 1$ | $3/12$ | $1/12$ | $3/12$ | $7/12$ |
| $y = 2$ | $1/12$ | $3/12$ | $1/12$ | $5/12$ |
| $p_x(x)$ | $4/12$ | $4/12$ | $4/12$ | 1.00 |

Give the marginal distribution of Y .

$$p_y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{7}{12} & \text{for } y = 1 \\ \frac{5}{12} & \text{for } y = 2 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notation: $p_{xy}(1, 2) = 1/12$

In general

- $p_x(x) = \sum_y p_{xy}(x, y)$
- $p_y(y) = \sum_x p_{xy}(x, y)$
- Two-dimensional, three-dimensional marginals etc. are obtained by summing over the other variables.
- Implicitly, the summation is over values where the joint probability is non-zero.

$$p_x(x) = \sum_{\{y: p(x,y)>0\}} p(x, y)$$

Multinomial Distribution

Begin with an example

- A six-sided die is rolled n times.
- The die is not necessarily fair.
- Probabilities are p_j for $j = 1, \dots, 6$.
- Want probability of n_1 ones, \dots , n_6 sixes.
- The probability of any particular string is $p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} p_3^{n_3} p_4^{n_4} p_5^{n_5} p_6^{n_6}$.
- How many ways are there to choose n_1 positions for the ones, n_2 positions for the twos, etc.?
- $\binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_6} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \dots n_6!}$, so

$$P(X_1 = n_1, X_2 = n_2, \dots, X_6 = n_6) = \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_6} p_1^{n_1} \dots p_6^{n_6}$$

Multinomial Distribution in General

$$p(n_1, \dots, n_r) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_r} p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_r^{n_r} & \text{for } (n_1, \dots, n_r) \in S \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

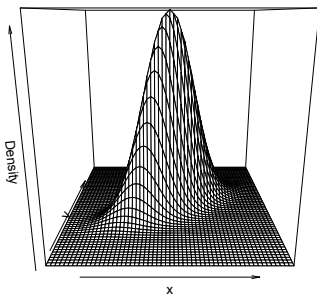
where $(n_1, \dots, n_r) \in S$ means

$$n_j \geq 0 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, r \text{ and} \\ \sum_{j=1}^r n_j = n.$$

If we count the number of people (in a random sample) in r different occupational categories, the multinomial is a reasonable model for the counts.

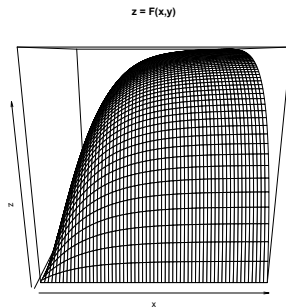
Continuous Jointly Distributed Random Variables

- Joint density of (X, Y) is not a curve, but a surface.



- Probability is volume rather than area.
- This is multivariable calculus.
- We need a quick lesson.

Partial Derivatives



- Think of holding x fixed at some value, disregarding all other points.
- Literally slice the surface with a plane at x .
- The cut mark on the surface is a function of y .
- It's just $F(x, y)$ treating x as a fixed constant.
- You can differentiate that function.

Vocabulary: “Partial derivatives”

- Consider a function of several variables, like $f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$.
- Differentiate with respect to one of the variables, treating the others as fixed constants.
- Call the result a *partial derivative*.

Notation for partial derivatives

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ or $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}$ means differentiate $f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ with respect to x_2 , holding x_1 and x_3 constant.
- $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ or $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}$ means first differentiate with respect to x_2 holding x_1 and x_3 constant, and then differentiate the result with respect to x_1 , holding x_2 and x_3 constant.
- When the derivatives are continuous functions, order of partial differentiation does not matter.
- $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ or $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2}$ means differentiate twice with respect to x_1 , holding x_2 and x_3 constant.

Example: $g(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 e^{7x_2}$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1} &= 2x_1 e^{7x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} x_1^2 7e^{7x_2} \\ &= 14x_1 e^{7x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x_2^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} x_1^2 7e^{7x_2} \\ &= 7x_1^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} e^{7x_2} \\ &= 49x_1^2 e^{7x_2}\end{aligned}$$

Multiple integration

$\int \int_A f(x, y) dx dy$ is the volume under the surface $f(x, y)$, over the region A in the x, y plane.

$$\int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dx dy = \int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dx \right) dy$$

Recipe:

- Do the inner integral first, integrating from c to d , and treating y as a fixed constant.
- Then integrate the resulting function of y , from a to b .
- This yields volume under the surface $f(x, y)$, sitting over the region defined by $c < x < d$ and $a < y < b$.

Multiple integration can be pretty mechanical

$$\int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dx \right) dy$$

- Do the innermost integral first and work your way out, treating the other variables as constants at each step.
- If you are integrating over finite intervals, switch order of integration freely.
- If the quantity being integrated is non-negative, you may switch order of integration and the result is the same, even if the answer is “infinity.” Thank you, Mr. Fubini.

- There is one thing you often need to watch out for.

Region of integration

$$\int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dx \right) dy$$

- If the function $f(x, y)$ is a case function that is zero for some values of x and y , you need to take care that you are integrating over the correct region.
- You may need to sketch the region of integration.

Example

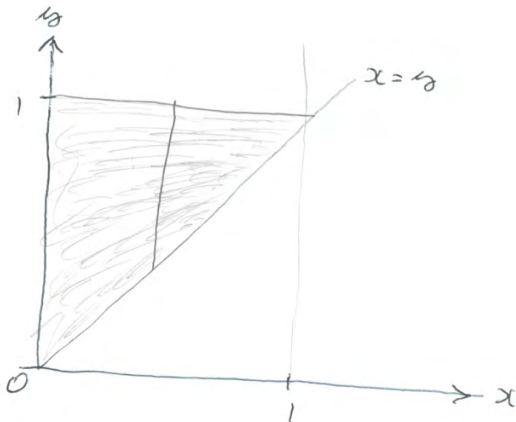
$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} xy^2 & \text{for } x < y \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Find $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dy dx$.

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy^2 dy dx = \frac{1}{6}, \text{ but that's not the right answer.}$$

$f(x, y)$ only equals xy^2 for $x < y$.

Sketch the region of integration



As x goes from 0 to 1, y goes from x to 1.

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dy dx = \int_0^1 \int_x^1 xy^2 dy dx$$

The calculation

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dy dx &= \int_0^1 \int_x^1 xy^2 dy dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x \int_x^1 y^2 dy dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x \left. \frac{y^3}{3} \right|_x^1 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 x(1 - x^3) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 (x - x^4) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^5}{5} \right) \Big|_0^1 \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) = \frac{1}{10}\end{aligned}$$

And not $\frac{1}{6}$. More examples will be given.

Joint CDFs

Let the continuous random variables X and Y have joint density function $f(x, y)$. Then

$$F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(s, t) dt ds$$

The notation extends to larger numbers of variables.

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x, y)$$

At points where the derivatives exist and $f(x, y)$ is continuous.

Marginal distributions and densities

Integrate out the other variable(s)

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, y) dy$$

$$f_y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, y) dx$$

Analogous to $p_x(x) = \sum_y p_{xy}(x, y)$

Marginal cumulative distribution functions

Show $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{xy}(x, y) = F_x(x)$. Use Fubini's Theorem, which says you can always switch order of integration as long as what you are integrating is non-negative.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{xy}(x, y) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f_{xy}(s, t) \, dt \, ds \\
 &= \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f_{xy}(s, t) \, ds \, dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x f_{xy}(s, t) \, ds \, dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(s, t) \, dt \, ds \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^x f_x(s) \, ds \\
 &= F_x(x)
 \end{aligned}$$

Don't just move limits through integrals.

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<http://www.utstat.toronto.edu/~brunner/oldclass/256f18>