

# Joint Distributions: Part Two<sup>1</sup>

STA 256: Fall 2018

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# Overview

- 1 Independence
- 2 Conditional Distributions
- 3 Transformations

# Independent Random Variables

Discrete or Continuous

The random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be *independent* if

$$F_{xy}(x, y) = F_x(x)F_y(y)$$

For all real  $x$  and  $y$ .

## Theorem (for discrete random variables)

Recalling independence means  $F_{xy}(x, y) = F_x(x)F_y(y)$

The discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if

$$p_{xy}(x, y) = p_x(x) p_y(y)$$

for all real  $x$  and  $y$ .

## Theorem (for continuous random variables)

Recalling independence means  $F_{xy}(x, y) = F_x(x)F_y(y)$

The continuous random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if

$$f_{xy}(x, y) = f_x(x) f_y(y)$$

for all real  $x$  and  $y$ .

# Conditional Distributions

## Of discrete random variables

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are discrete random variables, the conditional probability mass function of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is just a conditional probability. It is given by

$$P(X = x|Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$

These are just probabilities of events. For example,

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x \text{ and } Y(\omega) = y\}$$

We write

$$p_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{p_{x,y}(x, y)}{p_y(y)}$$

Note that  $p_{x|y}(x|y)$  is defined only for  $y$  values such that  $p_y(y) > 0$ .

# Conditional Probability Mass Functions

Both ways

$$p_{y|x}(y|x) = \frac{p_{x,y}(x,y)}{p_x(x)}$$

$$p_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{p_{x,y}(x,y)}{p_y(y)}$$

Defined where the denominators are non-zero.

# Independence makes sense

In terms of conditional probability mass functions

Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. Then

$p_{xy}(x, y) = p_x(x)p_y(y)$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} p_{x|y}(x|y) &= \frac{p_{x,y}(x, y)}{p_y(y)} \\ &= \frac{p_x(x)p_y(y)}{p_y(y)} \\ &= p_x(x) \end{aligned}$$

So we see that the conditional distribution of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is identical for every value of  $y$ . It does not depend on the value of  $y$ .



## The other way

Suppose the conditional distribution of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  does not depend on the value of  $y$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{x|y}(x|y) &= p_x(x) \\ \Leftrightarrow p_x(x) &= \frac{p_{x,y}(x,y)}{p_y(y)} \\ \Leftrightarrow p_{x,y}(x,y) &= p_x(x) p_y(y) \end{aligned}$$

So that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

## Conditional distributions of continuous random variables

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous random variables, the conditional probability density of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is

$$f_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{x,y}(x, y)}{f_y(y)}$$

- Note that  $f_{x|y}(x|y)$  is defined only for  $y$  values such that  $f_y(y) > 0$ .
- It looks like we are conditioning on an event of probability zero, but the conditional density is a limit of a conditional probability, as the radius of a tiny region surrounding  $(x, y)$  goes to zero.

# Conditional Probability Density Functions

Both ways

$$f_{y|x}(y|x) = \frac{f_{x,y}(x,y)}{f_x(x)}$$

$$f_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{x,y}(x,y)}{f_y(y)}$$

Defined where the denominators are non-zero.

# Independence makes sense

In terms of conditional densities

Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. Then

$$f_{xy}(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y), \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{x|y}(x|y) &= \frac{f_{x,y}(x, y)}{f_y(y)} \\ &= \frac{f_x(x)f_y(y)}{f_y(y)} \\ &= f_x(x) \end{aligned}$$

And we see that the conditional density of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is identical for every value of  $y$ . It does not depend on the value of  $y$ .

## The other way

Suppose the conditional density of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  does not depend on the value of  $y$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f_{x|y}(x|y) &= f_x(x) \\ \Leftrightarrow f_x(x) &= \frac{f_{x,y}(x,y)}{f_y(y)} \\ \Leftrightarrow f_{x,y}(x,y) &= f_x(x) f_y(y) \end{aligned}$$

So that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

# Transformations of Jointly Distributed Random Variables

Let  $Y = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . What is the probability distribution of  $Y$ ?

For example,

- $X_1$  is the number of jobs completed by employee 1.
- $X_2$  is the number of jobs completed by employee 2.
- You know the probability distributions of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ .
- You would like to know the probability distribution of  $Y = X_1 + X_2$ .

# Convolutions of discrete random variables

- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables.
- The standard case is where they are independent.
- Want probability mass function of  $Z = X + Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned}p_z(z) &= P(Z = z) \\&= P(X + Y = z) \\&= \sum_x P(X + Y = z | X = x) P(X = x) \\&= \sum_x P(x + Y = z | X = x) P(X = x) \\&= \sum_x P(Y = z - x | X = x) P(X = x) \\&= \sum_x P(Y = z - x) P(X = x) \text{ by independence} \\&= \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(z - x)\end{aligned}$$

# Summarizing

## Convolutions of discrete random variables

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be *independent* discrete random variables, and  $Z = X + Y$ .

$$p_z(z) = \sum_x p_x(x)p_y(z - x)$$



## Two Important results

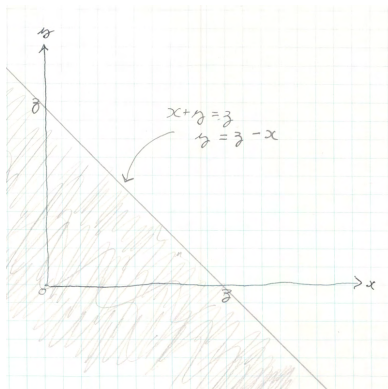
Proved using the convolution formula

- Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_1)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_2)$  be independent. Then  $Z = X + Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ .
- Let  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n_1, p)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n_2, p)$  be independent. Then  $Z = X + Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n_1 + n_2, p)$

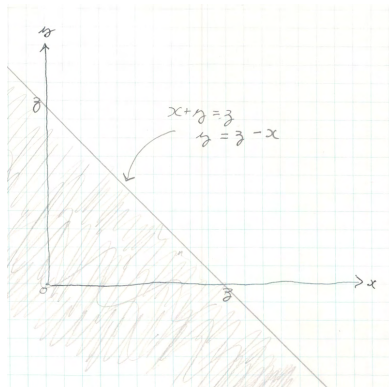
# Convolutions of *continuous* random variables

- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be continuous random variables.
- The standard case is where they are independent.
- Want probability density function of  $Z = X + Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_z(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} P(Z \leq z) \\
 &= \frac{d}{dz} P(X + Y \leq z)
 \end{aligned}$$



## Continuing ...



$$f_z(z) = \frac{d}{dz} P(X + Y \leq z)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dz} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z-x} f_{xy}(x, y) dy dx$$

$$t = y + x \quad y = t - x \quad dy = dt$$

$y$	$t = y + x$
$z - x$	$z$
$-\infty$	$-\infty$

$$\int_{-\infty}^z f_{xy}(x, t - x) dt$$

Still continuing, have

$$\begin{aligned}f_z(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^z f_{xy}(x, t-x) dt dx \\&= \frac{d}{dz} \int_{-\infty}^z \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, t-x) dx dt \\&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, z-x) dx \\&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) f_y(z-x) dx \quad \text{if } X \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent.}\end{aligned}$$

# Compare

For continuous random variables:

$$f_z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) f_y(z - x) dx$$

For discrete random variables:

$$p_z(z) = \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(z - x)$$

Of course you need to pay attention to the limits of integration or summation, because  $f_x(x)f_y(z - x)$  may be zero for some  $x$ .

## Two Important results for continuous random variables

Proved using the convolution formula

- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent exponential random variables with parameter  $\lambda > 0$ . Then  
$$Z = X + Y \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha = 2, \lambda).$$
- Let  $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  be independent. Then  
$$Z = X + Y \sim \text{Normal}\left(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}\right).$$

# The Jacobian Method

- $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are continuous random variables.
- $Y_1 = g_1(X_1, X_2)$  and  $Y_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$ .
- Want  $f_{y_1 y_2}(y_1, y_2)$

Solve for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , obtaining  $x_1(y_1, y_2)$  and  $x_2(y_1, y_2)$ . Then

$$f_{y_1 y_2}(y_1, y_2) = f_{x_1 x_2}(x_1(y_1, y_2), x_2(y_1, y_2)) \cdot \text{abs} \left| \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{array} \right|$$

The determinant  $\left| \begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array} \right| = ad - bc.$

## More about the Jacobian method

$$Y_1 = g_1(X_1, X_2) \text{ and } Y_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$$

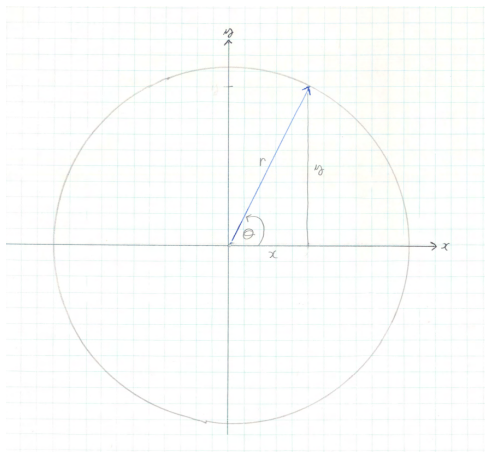
- It follows directly from a change of variables formula in multi-variable integration. The proof is omitted.
- It must be possible to solve  $y_1 = g_1(x_1, x_2)$  and  $y_2 = g_2(x_1, x_2)$  for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .
- That is, the function  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  must be one to one (injective).
- Frequently you are only interested in  $Y_1$ , and  $Y_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$  is chosen to make reverse solution easy.
- The partial derivatives must all be continuous, except possibly on a set of probability zero (they almost always are).
- It extends naturally to higher dimension.



# Change from rectangular to polar co-ordinates

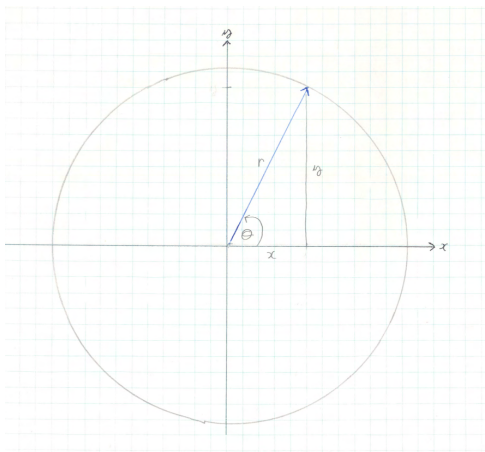
By the Jacobian method

A point on the plane may be represented as  $(x, y)$ , or



An angle  $\theta$  and a radius  $r$ .

# Change of variables



$$x = r \cos(\theta)$$

$$y = r \sin(\theta)$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

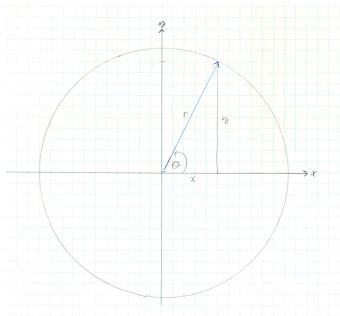
- As  $x$  and  $y$  range from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ ,
- $r$  goes from 0 to  $\infty$
- And  $\theta$  goes from  $\theta$  to  $2\pi$ .

$$\text{Integral } \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty f_{x,y}(x, y) dx dy$$

Change of variables:

$$x = r \cos(\theta)$$

$$y = r \sin(\theta)$$



$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty f_{x,y}(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^\infty f_{x,y}(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) \text{abs} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} dr d\theta \end{aligned}$$

# Evaluate the determinant

(with  $x = r \cos(\theta)$  and  $y = r \sin(\theta)$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} &= \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial r \cos(\theta)}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial r \cos(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial r \sin(\theta)}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial r \sin(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -r \sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & r \cos(\theta) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= r \cos^2 \theta - -r \sin^2 \theta \\ &= r(\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta) \\ &= r \end{aligned}$$

So the integral is

$$\int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty f_{x,y}(x, y) dx dy = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^\infty f_{x,y}(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta$$

- The standard formula for change from rectangular to polar co-ordinates is  $dx dy = r dr d\theta$ .
- It comes from a Jacobian.
- Other limits of integration are possible.

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