

Continuous joint distributions (continued)

Example 1 (Uniform distribution on the triangle). Consider the random vector (X, Y) whose joint distribution is

$$
f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } 0 \le x < y \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

This is a density function [on a triangle].

(1) What is the distribution of *X*? How about *Y*? We have

$$
f_X(\alpha) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\alpha, y) \, dy.
$$

If $a \notin (0, 1)$, then $f(a, y) = 0$ regardless of the value of *y* [draw a picture!]. Therefore, for $a \notin (0, 1)$, $f_X(a) = 0$. If on the other hand $0 < a < 1$, then [draw a picture!],

$$
f_X(a) = \int_a^1 2 \, dy = 2(1 - a).
$$

That is,

$$
f_X(a) = \begin{cases} 2(1-a) & \text{if } 0 < a < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

Similarly,

$$
f_Y(b) = \int_0^b 2 \, dx = 2b \qquad \text{if } 0 < b < 1,
$$

and $f_Y(b)=0$, otherwise.

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(2) Are *X* and *Y* independent?

No, there exist [many] choices of (x, y) such that $f(x, y) = 2 \neq 1$ $f_X(x)f_Y(y)$. In fact, $P\{X \leq Y\} = \iint f = 1$ [check!].

(3) Find *EX* and *EY*. Also compute the SDs of *X* and *Y*. Let us start with the means:
 $f_{\nu}(x)$

$$
EX = \int_0^1 x \overbrace{2(1-x)}^{1x(x)} dx = 2 \int_0^1 x dx - 2 \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3};
$$

similarly,

$$
EY = \int_0^1 y \frac{f_Y(y)}{2y} \, dy = \frac{2}{3}.
$$

Also:

$$
E(X^{2}) = \int_{0}^{1} x^{2} 2(1 - x) dx = \frac{1}{6} \implies \text{Var}X = \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{18}.
$$

Similarly,

$$
E(Y^{2}) = \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} 2y \, dy = \frac{1}{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Var}(Y) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{9} = \frac{1}{18}.
$$

Consequently, $SU(\Lambda) = SU(Y) = 1/2$ *√* 10.

(4) Compute *E*(*XY*).

After we draw a picture [of the region of integration], we find that

$$
E(XY) = \int_0^1 \int_x^1 2xy \, dy \, dx = 2 \int_0^1 y \left(\int_0^y x \, dx \right) \, dy = 2 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} y^3 \, dy = \frac{1}{4}.
$$

(5) Define correlation as in the discrete. Then what is the correlation between *X* and *Y*?

The correlation is

$$
\rho := \frac{E(XY) - EXEY}{SD(X)SD(Y)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4} - (\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{2}{3})}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}}} = \frac{1}{2}.
$$

The distribution of a sum

Suppose (X, Y) has joint density $f(x, y)$. Question: What is the distribution of $X + Y$ in terms of the function f ?

$$
F_{X+Y}(\alpha) = P\{X+Y \leq \alpha\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{-x+\alpha} f(x,y) \, dy \, dx
$$

$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} f(x,z-x) \, dz \, dx.
$$

Differentiate $\left[\frac{d}{da}\right]$ to obtain the density of $X + Y$, using the fundamental theorem of calculus:

$$
f_{X+Y}(\alpha) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x \cdot \alpha - x) \, dx.
$$

An important special case: *X* and *Y* are *independent* if $f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ for all pairs (*x,y*). If *X* and *Y* are independent, then

$$
f_{X+Y}(\alpha) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(\alpha - x) \, dx.
$$

This is called the *convolution* of the functions f_X and f_Y .

Example 2. Suppose *X* and *Y* are independent exponentially-distributed random variables with common parameter *λ*. What is the distribution of *X* + *Y*?

We know that $f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x > 0$ and $f_X(x) = 0$ otherwise. And f_Y is the same function as f_X . Therefore,

$$
f_{X+Y}(\alpha) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(\alpha - x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} f_Y(\alpha - x) dx = \int_{0}^{\alpha} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \lambda e^{-\lambda(\alpha - x)} dx
$$

=
$$
\lambda^2 \alpha e^{-\lambda \alpha},
$$

provided that $a > 0$. And $f_{X+Y}(a) = 0$ if $a \le 0$. In other words, the sum of two independent exponential (*λ*) random variables has a gamma density with parameters $(2, \lambda)$. We can generalize this $(how?)$ as follows: If X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent exponential random variables with common parameter $\lambda > 0$, then $X_1 + \cdots + X_n$ has a gamma distribution with pa- α *parameter* $\lambda > 0$, then $\lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_n$ has a gamma distribution with parameters $r = n$ and λ . A special case, in applications, is when $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$. A gamma distribution with parameters $r = n$ and $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$ is also known as $\frac{1}{2}$ is also known as a *χ*² distribution [pronunced "chi squared"] with *n* "degrees of freedom." This distribution arises in many different settings, chief among them in multivariable statistics and the theory of continuous-time stochastic processes. $\hfill\Box$ cesses. \Box

The distribution of a sum (discrete case)

It is important to understand that the preceding "convolution formula" is a procedure that we ought to understand easily when *X* and *Y* are discrete instead.

Example 3 (Two draws at random, Pitman, p. 144). We make two draws at random, without replacement, from a box that contains tickets numbered 1, 2, and 3. Let *X* denote the value of the first draw and *Y* the value of the second draw. The following tabulates the function $f(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$ *y}* for all possible values of *x* and *y*:

We want to know the distribution of $X + I =$ the total number of dots rolled. Here is a way to compute that: First of all, the possible values of $X + Y$ are 3, 4, 5. Next, we note that

$$
P{X + Y = 3} = P{X = 2, Y = 1} + P{X = 1, Y = 1} = \frac{1}{3},
$$

$$
P{X + Y = 4} = P{X = 1, Y = 3} + P{X = 3, Y = 1} = \frac{1}{3},
$$

$$
P{X + Y = 5} = P{X = 2, Y = 3} + P{X = 3, Y = 2} = \frac{1}{3}.
$$

The preceding example can be generalized: If (*X , Y*) are distributed as a discrete random vector, then

$$
P\{X + Y = a\} = \sum_{x} P\{X = x, Y = a - x\};
$$

When *X* and *Y* are independent, the preceding simplifies to

$$
P{X+Y=a} = \sum_{x} P{X=x} \cdot P{Y=a-x};
$$

This is a "discrete convolution" formula.

The distribution of a ratio

The preceding ideas can be used to answer other questions as well. For instance, suppose (X, Y) is jointly distributed with joint density $f(x, y)$. Then what is the density of Y/X ?

We proceed as we did for sums:

$$
F_{Y/X}(a) = P\left\{\frac{Y}{X} \le a\right\}
$$

= $P\left\{\frac{Y}{X} \le a, Y > 0\right\} + P\left\{\frac{Y}{X} \le a, Y < 0\right\}$
= $P\{Y \le aX, X > 0\} + P\{Y \ge aX, X < 0\}$
= $\int_0^\infty \int_{-\infty}^{ax} f(x, y) dy dx + \int_{-\infty}^0 \int_{ax}^\infty f(x, y) dy dx$
= $\int_0^\infty \int_{-\infty}^a f(x, zx) x dz dx + \int_{-\infty}^0 \int_a^\infty f(x, zx) x dz dx.$

Differentiate, using the fundamental theorem of calculus, to arrive at

$$
f_{Y/X}(a) = \int_0^\infty f(x, ax) x dx - \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x, ax) x dx
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x, ax) |x| dx.
$$

In the important special case that *X* and *Y* are independent, this yields the following formula:

$$
f_{Y/X}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(\alpha x) |x| \, dx.
$$

Example 4. Suppose *X* and *Y* are independent exponentially-distributed random variables with respective parameters *α* and *β*. Then what is the density of *Y /X*? The answer is

$$
f_{Y/X}(a) = \int_0^\infty \alpha e^{-\alpha x} f_Y(\alpha x) x \, dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_0^\infty \alpha e^{-\alpha x} \beta e^{-\beta \alpha x} x \, dx \qquad \text{[if } \alpha > 0; \text{ else, } f_{Y/X}(\alpha) = 0]
$$

\n
$$
= \alpha \beta \int_0^\infty x e^{-(\alpha + \beta \alpha)x} \, dx
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{\alpha \beta}{(\alpha + \beta \alpha)^2} \cdot \int_0^\infty y e^{-y} \, dy \qquad [y := (\alpha + \beta \alpha)x]
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{\alpha \beta}{(\alpha + \beta \alpha)^2} \cdot \Gamma(2) = \frac{\alpha \beta}{(\alpha + \beta \alpha)^2},
$$

 $\frac{10}{20}$

for $a > 0$ and $f_{Y/X}(a) = 0$ for $a \le 0$. In the important case that $\alpha = \beta$, we have

$$
f_{Y/X}(\alpha) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(1+\alpha)^2} & \text{if } \alpha > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

Note, in particular, that

$$
E\left(\frac{Y}{X}\right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{a}{(1+a)^2} da = \infty.
$$

Example 5. Suppose *X* and *Y* are independent standard normal random variables. Then a similar computation shows that

$$
f_{Y/X}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\pi(1 + \alpha^2)} \quad \text{for all real } \alpha.
$$

[See Example 5, p. 383 of your text.] This is called the *standard Cauchy density*. Note that the Cauchy density does not have a well-defined expectation, although

$$
E\left(\left|\frac{Y}{X}\right|\right) = \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{|a|}{1+a^2} da = \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{a}{1+a^2} da = \infty.
$$

Exercise. One might wish to know about the distribution of *Y /X* when *Y* and *X* are discrete random variables. Check that if *X* and *Y* are discrete and $P{X = 0} = 0$, then

$$
P\left\{\frac{Y}{X} = a\right\} = \sum_{x \neq 0} P\{X = x\} \cdot P\{Y = ax\}.
$$

Note that if we replace the sum by an integral and probabilities with densities we do *not* obtain the correct formula for continuous random variables $[|x|]$ is missing!].

Functions of a random vector

Basic problem: If (X, Y) has joint density *f*, then what, if any, is the joint density of (U, V) , where $U = u(X, Y)$ and $V = v(X, Y)$? Or equivalently, $(U, V) = T(X, Y)$, where

$$
T(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} u(x,y) \\ v(x,y) \end{pmatrix}.
$$

Example 6. Let (X, Y) be distributed uniformly in the circle of radius $R > 0$ about the origin in the plane. Thus,

$$
f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi R^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \le R^2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

We wish to write (X, Y) , in polar coordinates, as (R, Θ) , where

$$
R = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \Theta = \arctan(Y/X).
$$

Then, we compute first the *joint distribution function* $F_{R,\Theta}$ of (R,Θ) as follows:

$$
F_{R,\Theta}(\alpha, b) = P\{R \le \alpha, \Theta \le b\}
$$

$$
= P\{(X, Y) \in A\},
$$

where *A* is the "partial cone" $\{(x,y): x^2 + y^2 \le a^2 \text{, } \arctan(y/x) \le b\}$. If a \int is not between 0 and *R*, or $\sigma \notin (-\pi, \pi)$, then *FR*, Θ (*a*, σ) = 0. Else,

$$
F_{R,\Theta}(a, b) = \iint_A f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy
$$

=
$$
\int_0^b \int_0^a \frac{1}{\pi R^2} r dr d\theta,
$$

after the change of variables $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and $\theta = \arctan(y/x)$. Therefore, for all $a \in (0, R)$ and $b \in (-\pi, \pi)$,

$$
F_{R,\Theta}(a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{a^2b}{2\pi R^2} & \text{if } 0 < a < R \text{ and } -\pi < b < \pi, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

It is easy to see that

$$
f_{R,\Theta}(a\,,b)=\frac{\partial^2 F_{R,\Theta}}{\partial a\partial b}(a\,,b).
$$

Therefore,

$$
f_{R,\Theta}(a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{a}{\pi R^2} & \text{if } 0 < a < R \text{ and } -\pi < b < \pi, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

The previous example can be generalized.

Suppose *T* is invertible with inverse function

$$
T^{-1}(u,v) = \begin{pmatrix} x(u,v) \\ y(u,v) \end{pmatrix}.
$$

The *Jacobian* of this transformation is

$$
J(u\,,v)=\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\frac{\partial y}{\partial v}-\frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\frac{\partial y}{\partial u}.
$$

Theorem 1. *If T is "nice," then*

$$
f_{U,V}(u, v) = f_{X,Y}(x(u, v), y(u, v)) |J(u, v)|.
$$

Example 7. In the polar coordinates example($r = u$, $\theta = v$),

$$
r(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2},
$$

\n
$$
\theta(x, y) = \arctan(y/x) = \theta,
$$

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

\n
$$
y(r, \theta) = r \sin \theta.
$$

Therefore, for all $r > 0$ and $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi)$,

$$
J(r \cdot \theta) = (\cos(\theta) \times r \cos(\theta)) - (-r \sin(\theta) \times \sin(\theta))
$$

$$
= r \cos^{2}(\theta) + u \sin^{2}(\theta) = r.
$$

Hence,

$$
f_{R,\Theta}(r,\theta) = \begin{cases} r f_{X,Y}(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) & \text{if } r > 0 \text{ and } \pi < \theta < \pi, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

You should check that this yields Example 6, for instance.

Example 8. Let us compute the joint density of $U = X$ and $V = X + Y$. Here,

$$
u(x, y) = x
$$

\n
$$
v(x, y) = x + y
$$

\n
$$
x(u, v) = u
$$

\n
$$
y(u, v) = v - u.
$$

Therefore,

$$
J(u \, , \, v) = (1 \times 1) - (0 \times -1) = 1.
$$

Consequently,

$$
f_{U,V}(u\, ,v)=f_{X,Y}(u\, ,v-u).
$$

This has an interesting by-product. The density function of $V = \Lambda + Y$ is

$$
f_V(v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{U,V}(u, v) du
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(u, v - u) du.
$$