## 4. Multiple Random Variables

### 4.1 Joint and Marginal Distributions

Definition 4.1.1 An $n$-dimensional random vector is a function from a sample space $S$ into $\mathbb{R}^{n}, n$-dimensional Euclidean space.

Suppose, for example, that with each point in a sample space we associate an ordered pair of numbers, that is, a point $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, where $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ denotes the plane. Then we have defined a two -dimensional (or bivariate) random vector $(X, Y)$.

Example 4.1.2 (Sample space for dice)
Consider the experiment of tossing two fair dice. The sample space for this experiment has 36 equally likely points. Let

$$
X=\text { sum of the two dice } \quad \text { and } \quad Y=\mid \text { difference of two dice } \mid \text {. }
$$

In this way we have defined then bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$.

The random vector $(X, Y)$ defined above is called a discrete random vector because it has only a countable (in this case, finite) number of possible values. The probabilities of events defined in terms of $X$ and $Y$ are just defined in terms of the probabilities of the corresponding events in the sample space $S$. For example,

$$
P(X=5, Y=3)=P(\{4,1\},\{1,4\})=\frac{2}{36}=\frac{1}{18} .
$$

Definition 4.1.2 Let $(X, Y)$ be a discrete bivariate random vector. Then the function $f(x, y)$ from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ into $\mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x, y)=P(X=x, Y=y)$ is called the joint probability mass function or joint pmf of $(X, Y)$. If it is necessary to stress the fact that $f$ is the joint pmf of the vector $(X, Y)$ rather than some other vector, the notation $f_{X, Y}(x, y)$ will be used.

The joint pmf can be used to compute the probability of any event defined in terms of $(X, Y)$.

Let $A$ be any subset of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then

$$
P((X, Y) \in A)=\sum_{(x, y) \in A} f(x, y) .
$$

Expectations of functions of random vectors are computed just as with univariate random variables. Let $g(x, y)$ be a real-valued function defined for all possible values $(x, y)$ of the discrete random vector $(X, Y)$. Then $g(X, Y)$ is itself a random variable and its expected value $E g(X, Y)$ is given by

$$
E g(X, Y)=\sum_{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}} g(x, y) f(x, y)
$$

Example 4.1.2 (Continuation of Example 4.1.2)
For the $(X, Y)$ whose joint pmf is given in the following table

|  | X |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|  | 0 | $\frac{1}{36}$ |  | $\frac{1}{36}$ |  | $\frac{1}{36}$ |  | $\frac{1}{36}$ |  | $\frac{1}{36}$ |  | $\frac{1}{36}$ |
|  | 1 |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  |
| $Y$ | 2 |  |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  |  |
|  | 3 |  |  |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  | $\frac{1}{18}$ |  |  |  |  |  |

Letting $g(x, y)=x y$, we have

$$
E X Y=(2)(0) \frac{1}{36}+\cdots+(7)(5) \frac{1}{18}=13 \frac{11}{18}
$$

The expectation operator continues to have the properties listed in Theorem 2.2.5 (textbook). For example, if $g_{1}(x, y)$ and $g_{2}(x, y)$ are two functions and $a, b$ and $c$ are constants, then

$$
E\left(a g_{1}(X, Y)+b g_{2}(X, Y)+c\right)=a E g_{1}(X, Y)+b E g_{2}(X, Y)+c .
$$

For any $(x, y), f(x, y) \geq 0$ since $f(x, y)$ is a probability. Also, since $(X, Y)$ is certain to be in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$,

$$
\sum_{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}} f(x, y)=P\left((X, Y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}\right)=1
$$

## Theorem 4.1.6

Let $(X, Y)$ be a discrete bivariate random vector with joint $\operatorname{pmf} f_{X Y}(x, y)$. Then the marginal pmfs of $X$ and $Y, f_{X}(x)=P(X=x)$ and $f_{Y}(y)=P(Y=y)$, are given by

$$
f_{X}(x)=\sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(x, y) \quad \text { and } \quad f_{Y}(y)=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(x, y)
$$

Proof: For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, let $A_{x}=\{(x, y):-\infty<y<\infty\}$. That is, $A_{x}$ is the line in the plane with first coordinate equal to $x$. Then, for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{X}(x) & =P(X=x) \\
& =P(X=x,-\infty<Y<\infty) \quad(P(-\infty<Y<\infty)=1) \\
& \left.=P\left((X, Y) \in A_{x}\right) \quad \text { (definition of } A_{x}\right) \\
& =\sum_{(x, y) \in A_{x}} f_{X, Y}(x, y) \\
& =\sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(x, y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof for $f_{Y}(y)$ is similar.

Example 4.1.7 (Marginal pmf for dice)
Using the table given in Example 4.1.4, compute the marginal pmf of $Y$. Using Theorem 4.1.6, we have

$$
f_{Y}(0)=f_{X, Y}(2,0)+\cdots+f_{X, Y}(12,0)=\frac{1}{6}
$$

Similarly, we obtain

$$
f_{Y}(1)=\frac{5}{18}, \quad f_{Y}(2)=\frac{2}{9}, \quad f_{Y}(3)=\frac{1}{6}, \quad f_{Y}(4)=\frac{1}{9}, \quad f_{Y}(5)=\frac{1}{18} .
$$

Notice that $\sum_{i=0}^{5} f_{Y}(i)=1$.

The marginal distributions of $X$ and $Y$ do not completely describe the joint distribution of $X$ and $Y$. Indeed, there are many different joint distributions that have the same marginal distribution. Thus, it is hopeless to try to determine

## the joint pmf from the knowledge of only the marginal pmfs. The next example illustrates the point.

Example 4.1.9 (Same marginals, different joint pmf)
Considering the following two joint pmfs,

$$
f(0,0)=\frac{1}{12}, \quad f(1,0)=\frac{5}{12}, \quad, f(0,1)=f(1,1)=\frac{3}{12}, \quad f(x, y)=0 \text { for all other values. }
$$

and

$$
f(0,0)=f(0,1)=\frac{1}{6}, \quad f(1,0)=f(1,1)=\frac{1}{3}, \quad f(x, y)=0 \quad \text { for all other values. }
$$

It is easy to verify that they have the same marginal distributions. The marginal of $X$ is

$$
f_{X}(0)=\frac{1}{3}, \quad f_{X}(1)=\frac{2}{3} .
$$

The marginal of $Y$ is

$$
f_{Y}(0)=\frac{1}{2}, \quad f_{Y}(1)=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

In the following we consider random vectors whose components are continuous random variables.

Definition 4.1.10A function $f(x, y)$ from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ into $\mathbb{R}$ is called a joint probability density function or joint pdf of the continuous bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$ if, for every $A \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$,

$$
P((X, Y) \in A)=\iint_{A} f(x, y) d x d y
$$

If $g(x, y)$ is a real-valued function, then the expected value of $g(X, Y)$ is defined to be

$$
E g(X, Y)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) f(x, y) d x d y
$$

The marginal probability density functions of $X$ and $Y$ are defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{X}(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d y, \quad-\infty<x<\infty \\
& f_{Y}(y)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d x, \quad-\infty<y<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

Any function $f(x, y)$ satisfying $f(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ and

$$
1=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d x d y
$$

is the joint pdf of some continuous bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$.

Example 4.1.11 (Calculating joint probabilities-I)
Define a joint pdf by

$$
f(x, y)= \begin{cases}6 x y^{2} & 0<x<1 \text { and } 0<y<1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Now, consider calculating a probability such as $P(X+Y \geq 1)$. Let $A=\{(x, y): x+y \geq 1\}$, we can re-express $A$ as

$$
A=\{(x, y): x+y \geq 1,0<x<1,0<y<1\}=\{(x, y): 1-y \leq x<1,0<y<1\} .
$$

Thus, we have

$$
P(X+Y \geq 1)=\int_{A} \int f(x, y) d x d y=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{1-y}^{1} 6 x y^{2} d x d y=\frac{9}{10}
$$

The joint cdf is the function $F(x, y)$ defined by

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

Hence,

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

and

$$
-\frac{\partial^{2} P(X \leq x, Y \geq y)}{\partial x \partial y}=f(x, y)
$$

