

## 6. JOINTLY DISTRIBUTED RANDOM VARIABLES

### 6.1. Joint distribution functions.

**Definition 6.1.** Given two real-valued random variables  $X, Y$  (defined on the same sample space), the **joint (cumulative) distribution function** of  $X$  and  $Y$  is defined by

$$F(a, b) = P(X \leq a, Y \leq b), \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The distribution function of  $X$  (or  $Y$ ) is called the **marginal** distribution.

*Remark 6.1.* Let  $F_X$  and  $F_Y$  be the distribution functions of  $X$  and  $Y$  and let  $F$  be the joint distribution function of  $X, Y$ . Then, for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$F_X(a) = P(X \leq a) = P(X \leq a, Y < \infty) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} P(X \leq a, Y \leq b) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} F(a, b).$$

For convenience, we write  $F(a, \infty)$  for the last limit. Similarly, one has

$$\begin{aligned} P(X > a, Y > b) &= 1 - P(X \leq a \text{ or } Y \leq b) \\ &= 1 - P(X \leq a) - P(Y \leq b) + P(X \leq a, Y \leq b) \\ &= 1 - F_X(a) - F_Y(b) + F(a, b). \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 6.2.** If  $X, Y$  are discrete, the **joint probability mass function** of  $X, Y$  are defined by

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

The probability mass functions of  $X$  and  $Y$  are called **marginal** probability mass functions.

*Remark 6.2.* If  $X, Y$  are discrete with p.m.f.  $p_X$  and  $p_Y$ , then

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x, Y < \infty) = \sum_{y: p_Y(y) > 0} P(X = x, Y = y) = \sum_{y: p(x, y) > 0} p(x, y).$$

*Example 6.1.* Consider the experiment of rolling a fair dice twice independently. Let  $X$  be the point of the first roll and  $Y$  be the sum of two rolls. Let  $p$  be the joint p.m.f. of  $X$  and  $Y$ . Then, for  $1 \leq i, j \leq 6$ ,

$$p(i, i + j) = P(X = i, Y = i + j) = P(\text{two rolls result in } (i, j)) = \frac{1}{36}.$$

**Definition 6.3.** Two random variables  $X, Y$  are **jointly continuous** if there is an integrable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that

$$P((X, Y) \in C) = \iint_C f(x, y) dx dy,$$

for any (Borel) set  $C \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Here,  $f$  is called a **joint probability density function**.

*Remark 6.3.* The above definition is unchanged if  $C$  is restricted to the set  $(-\infty, a] \times (-\infty, b]$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . This means that  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous if and only if the joint distribution function  $F$  satisfies

$$F(a, b) = \int_{-\infty}^b \int_{-\infty}^a f(x, y) dx dy \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$$

In particular, if  $f$  is uniformly continuous, then  $F(a, b)$  is differentiable and  $F_{ab}(a, b) = f(a, b) = F_{ba}(a, b)$ .

*Remark 6.4.* If  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous, then  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous. To see the details, let  $f$  be the joint p.d.f. of  $X, Y$ . Then, for any (Borel) set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X \in A) = P(X \in A, Y \in \mathbb{R}) = \int_A \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dy \right) dx.$$

This implies that  $f_X(x) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$  is the p.d.f. of  $X$ . Similarly, one can show that  $f_Y(y) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$  is the p.d.f. of  $Y$ . Here,  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$  are also called the **marginal** probability density functions. Note that  $f(x, y) \neq f_X(x)f_Y(y)$  in general.

*Example 6.2.* Let  $R > 0$ . Suppose that  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous with joint p.d.f.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 < R^2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

To determine the value of  $c$ , consider the following equalities,

$$1 = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y) dx dy = c \iint_D dx dy = c\pi R^2.$$

This implies  $c = 1/(\pi R^2)$ . To see the marginal density, let  $|x| < R$ . Then, one has

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = \frac{1}{\pi R^2} \int_{\{y: y^2 < R^2 - x^2\}} dy = \frac{2\sqrt{R^2 - x^2}}{\pi R^2}.$$

For  $|x| \geq R$ ,  $f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = 0$ . Similarly, one may derive  $f_Y = f_X$ .

*Remark 6.5.* For random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , their joint distribution function is defined by

$$F(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = P(X_i \leq a_i, 1 \leq i \leq n), \quad \forall (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

If  $X_i$ 's are discrete, then their joint p.m.f. is defined by

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n).$$

We say that  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are jointly continuous if there is a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that

$$F(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \int_{-\infty}^{a_n} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{a_1} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n.$$

Here,  $f$  is called the joint p.d.f. of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .

*Example 6.3.* Consider the experiment of  $n$  independent draws with replacement from a box of  $n$  balls. Suppose those balls are of  $r$  different colors, say  $c_1, \dots, c_r$ , and the proportion of balls with color  $c_i$  is  $p_i$ . Let  $X_i$  denote the number of times that balls with color  $c_i$  are selected. Then, for  $k_1 + \cdots + k_r = n$ ,

$$P(X_i = k_i, 1 \leq i \leq n) = \binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r} p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_r^{k_r}.$$

## 6.2. Independence of random variables.

**Definition 6.4.** Two random variables  $X, Y$  are **independent** if, for any (Borel) sets  $A, B$ ,

$$P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A)P(Y \in B).$$

*Remark 6.6.* In the above definition,  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if, for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X \leq a, Y \leq b) = P(X \leq a)P(Y \leq b),$$

which is equivalent to

$$F(a, b) = F_X(a)F_Y(b),$$

where  $F$  is the joint distribution function of  $X, Y$ .

If  $X, Y$  are discrete with joint p.m.f.  $p$  and marginal p.m.f.s  $p_X$  and  $p_Y$ . Then,  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if

$$p(x, y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y) \quad \forall x, y.$$

If  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous with joint p.d.f.  $f$  and marginal p.d.f.s  $f_X, f_Y$ , then  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \quad \forall x, y.$$

**Theorem 6.1.** *Let  $X, Y$  be random variables.*

- (1) *If  $X, Y$  are discrete with joint p.m.f.  $p$ , then  $X, Y$  are independent if and only if  $p(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$  for all  $x, y$ , where  $g$  and  $h$  are real-valued functions.*
- (2) *If  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous with joint p.d.f., then  $X, Y$  are independent if and only if  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$  for all  $x, y$ , where  $g, h$  are real-valued functions.*

*Proof.* We show the continuous case, while the discrete case can be proved in a similar way. If  $X, Y$  are independent, then  $f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$  and one may set  $g = f_X$  and  $h = f_Y$ . Suppose that  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$  and, without loss of generality, assume  $g \geq 0$  and  $h \geq 0$ . Note that, for any (Borel) subsets  $A, B$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X \in A, Y \in B) = \int_{A \times B} f(x, y) dx dy = \left( \int_A g(x) dx \right) \left( \int_B h(y) dy \right).$$

Letting  $A = B = \mathbb{R}$  gives

$$1 = P(X \in \mathbb{R}, Y \in \mathbb{R}) = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) dy \right),$$

which implies  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx \neq 0$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) dy \neq 0$ . Thus, we have

$$P(X \in A) = P(X \in A, Y \in \mathbb{R}) = \int_A \left( \frac{g(x)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx} \right) dx$$

and

$$P(Y \in B) = P(X \in \mathbb{R}, Y \in B) = \int_B \left( \frac{h(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) dy} \right) dy.$$

This means  $f_X = g / \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx$  and  $f_Y = h / \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) dy$  and, for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f_X(x)f_Y(y) = \frac{g(x)h(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) dy} = g(x)h(y) = f(x, y).$$

□

*Example 6.4.* Suppose that the number of customers entering a store on a given day is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda$ . Assume that, given a customer entering the store, the condition probability that the customer is male is equal to  $p$  and is independent of other customers. Let  $X$  and  $Y$  denote the number of males and females entering the store on a given day. Then,  $X + Y$  is of Poisson( $\lambda$ ) distribution. Let  $p$  be the joint p.m.f. of  $X$  and  $Y$ . Then, for nonnegative integers  $i, j$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p(i, j) &= P(X = i, Y = j) = P(X = i, X + Y = i + j) \\ &= P(X = i | X + Y = i + j) P(X + Y = i + j). \end{aligned}$$

Clearly,  $P(X + Y = i + j) = e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{i+j} / (i + j)!$ . Given  $i + j$  persons entering the store, the number of males is exactly a binomial random variable with parameters  $(i + j, p)$ . This implies

$$P(X = i | X + Y = i + j) = \binom{i + j}{i} p^i (1 - p)^j.$$

As a result, we obtain

$$p(i, j) = \binom{i + j}{i} p^i (1 - p)^j \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{i+j}}{(i + j)!} = \left( \frac{e^{-p\lambda} (p\lambda)^i}{i!} \right) \left( \frac{e^{-(1-p)\lambda} [(1-p)\lambda]^j}{j!} \right).$$

By Theorem 6.1,  $X, Y$  are independent and  $X$  is of Poisson( $p\lambda$ ) distribution and  $Y$  is of Poisson( $(1 - p)\lambda$ ) distribution.

*Example 6.5.* Let  $(X, Y)$  be the coordinate of a bullet fired at a target. Suppose that

- (1)  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous and independent, and have differentiable p.d.f.
- (2) The joint p.d.f.  $f(x, y)$  is spherically symmetric, that is,

$$f(x_1, y_1) = f(x_2, y_2) \quad \text{if} \quad x_1^2 + y_1^2 = x_2^2 + y_2^2.$$

- (3) The marginal p.d.f.s of  $X$  and  $Y$ ,  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ , are positive everywhere.

By the second assumption, one may choose a real-value function  $g$  such that  $f(x, y) = g(x^2 + y^2)$ . Since  $f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ , it is easy to see that  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$  are even functions. Note that, for  $x > 0$ ,

$$g(x) = f(\sqrt{x}, 0) = f_X(\sqrt{x})f_Y(0).$$

This implies  $g$  is differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$ . Taking the partial derivative of  $f$  w.r.t.  $x$  yields

$$f'_X(x)f_Y(y) = 2xg'(x^2 + y^2).$$

Dividing both sides with  $2xf(x, y)$  gives

$$\frac{f'_X(x)}{2xf_X(x)} = \frac{g'(x^2 + y^2)}{g(x^2 + y^2)}.$$

Observe that if  $x_1^2 + y_1^2 = x_2^2 + y_2^2 > 0$  with  $x_1 \neq 0$  and  $x_2 \neq 0$ , then

$$\frac{f'_X(x_1)}{2x_1f_X(x_1)} = \frac{g'(x_1^2 + y_1^2)}{g(x_1^2 + y_1^2)} = \frac{g'(x_2^2 + y_2^2)}{g(x_2^2 + y_2^2)} = \frac{f'_X(x_2)}{2x_2f_X(x_2)}.$$

This means that the mapping  $f'_X(x)/[xf_X(x)]$  is constant on  $(0, \infty)$ , say  $c$ , and one may solve  $f_X(x) = ae^{cx^2/2}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $f_X$  is a p.d.f.,  $c < 0$ . By writing  $c = -1/\sigma^2$ , we have

$$1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx = a\sigma\sqrt{2\pi},$$

which leads to  $a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}$ . Thus,  $X$  is a normal random variable with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Similarly, one can show that  $Y$  is normal with parameters  $(0, \bar{\sigma}^2)$ . In fact, the spherical symmetry of  $f$  implies  $\sigma = \bar{\sigma}$ .

**Definition 6.5.**  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are **independent** if, for any (Borel) subsets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X_1 \in A_1, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = P(X_1 \in A_1) \cdots P(X_n \in A_n).$$

*Remark 6.7.* With a rigorous mathematical proof, one can show that  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if and only if, for any  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ ,

$$P(X_1 \leq a_1, \dots, X_n \leq a_n) = P(X_1 \leq a_1) \cdots P(X_n \leq a_n).$$

*Remark 6.8.* Using the identity,

$$P(X_1 \leq a_1, \dots, X_n \leq a_n) = P(X_1 \leq a_1)P(X_2 \leq a_2|X_1 \leq a_1) \times \dots \\ \times P(X_n \leq a_n|X_1 \leq a_1, \dots, X_{n-1} \leq a_{n-1}),$$

one may conclude  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} X_2 &\text{ is independent of } X_1 \\ X_3 &\text{ is independent of } X_1, X_2 \\ &\vdots \\ X_n &\text{ is independent of } X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

*Remark 6.9.* Similar to Theorem 6.1, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are jointly continuous (discrete) with joint p.d.f. (p.m.f.)  $f$ , then  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if and only if  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) \cdots f_n(x_n)$  for all  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

### 6.3. Sums of independent random variables.

**Proposition 6.2.** *Let  $X, Y$  be independent random variables. If  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous with marginal densities  $f_X, f_Y$ , then  $X + Y$  is continuous and*

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(a-y)f_Y(y)dy, \quad F_{X+Y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_X(a-y)f_Y(y)dy.$$

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be the joint density of  $X, Y$ . Since  $X, Y$  are independent,  $f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ . For  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , one has

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X+Y}(a) &= P(X + Y \leq a) = \iint_{\{(x,y):x+y \leq a\}} f(x, y)dx dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f_X(x)f_Y(y)dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_X(a-y)f_Y(y)dy. \end{aligned}$$

To see that  $X + Y$  is continuous, observe that the change of variable yields

$$\int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x-y)dx.$$

By Fubini's theorem, we obtain

$$F_{X+Y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f_X(x)f_Y(y)dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^a \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x-y)f_Y(y)dy \right) dx.$$

This implies  $X + Y$  is continuous with p.d.f.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x-y)f_Y(y)dy$ . □

*Remark 6.10.* Let  $X, Y$  be discrete random variables and  $p_X, p_Y, p_{X+Y}$  be respectively the p.m.f.s of  $X, Y, X + Y$ . Then, for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{X+Y}(a) &= P(X + Y = a) = \sum_{x:p_X(x)>0} P(X = x, Y = a - x) \\ &= \sum_{x:p_X(x)>0} p_X(x)p_Y(a - x) = \sum_{y:p_Y(y)>0} p_X(a - y)p_Y(y). \end{aligned}$$

*Example 6.6.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent binomial random variables with parameters  $(n, p)$  and  $(m, p)$ . Then, for  $0 \leq k \leq n + m$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{X+Y}(k) &= \sum_{i=0}^n p_X(i)p_Y(k-i) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i} \binom{m}{k-i} p^{k-i} (1-p)^{m-(k-i)} \\ &= p^k (1-p)^{n+m-k} \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \binom{m}{k-i} = \binom{n+m}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n+m-k}. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $X + Y$  is a binomial random variable with parameters  $(n + m, p)$ .

*Example 6.7.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent Poisson random variables with parameters  $\lambda, \delta$ . Then, for  $k \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{X+Y}(k) &= \sum_{i=0}^k p_X(i)p_Y(k-i) = \sum_{i=0}^k e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} e^{-\delta} \frac{\delta^{k-i}}{(k-i)!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-(\lambda+\delta)}}{k!} \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \lambda^i \delta^{k-i} = e^{-(\lambda+\delta)} \frac{(\lambda + \delta)^k}{k!}. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $X + Y$  is Poisson with parameter  $\lambda + \delta$ .

*Example 6.8.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent geometric random variables with parameter  $p$ . Then, for  $k \geq 2$ ,

$$p_{X+Y}(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} p(1-p)^{i-1} p(1-p)^{k-i-1} = (k-1)p^2(1-p)^{k-2}.$$

Inductively, if  $X_1, \dots, X_r$  are independent geometric random variables with parameter  $p$  and  $X = X_1 + \dots + X_r$ , then, for  $k \geq r$ ,

$$p_X(k) = \sum_{\substack{i_1 + \dots + i_r = k \\ i_1 \geq 1, \dots, i_r \geq 1}} p^r (1-p)^{k-r} = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}.$$

Clearly, one can see that  $X$  is a negative binomial random variable with parameters  $(r, p)$ .

*Example 6.9.* Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent geometric random variables with parameters  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . Assume that  $p_i \neq p_j$  if  $i \neq j$ . Set  $S_i = X_1 + \dots + X_i$  and  $q_i = 1 - p_i$ . Then, for  $k \geq n = 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_2 = k) &= \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} p_1 q_1^{i-1} p_2 q_2^{k-i-1} = p_1 p_2 q_2^{k-2} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (q_1/q_2)^{i-1} \\ &= p_1 p_2 q_2^{k-2} \frac{(q_1/q_2)^{k-1} - 1}{q_1/q_2 - 1} = p_1 p_2 \frac{q_1^{k-1} - q_2^{k-1}}{q_1 - q_2} \\ &= p_1 q_1^{k-1} \frac{p_2}{p_2 - p_1} + p_2 q_2^{k-1} \frac{p_1}{p_1 - p_2}. \end{aligned}$$

For  $k \geq n = 3$ , one has

$$\begin{aligned}
P(S_3 = k) &= \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} P(S_2 = i, X_3 = k - i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \left( p_1 q_1^{i-1} \frac{p_2}{p_2 - p_1} + p_2 q_2^{i-1} \frac{p_1}{p_1 - p_2} \right) p_3 q_3^{k-i-1} \\
&= \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} p_1 q_1^{i-1} p_3 q_3^{k-i-1} \right) \frac{p_2}{p_2 - p_1} + \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} p_2 q_2^{i-1} p_3 q_3^{k-i-1} \right) \frac{p_1}{p_1 - p_2} \\
&= p_1 q_1^{k-1} \frac{p_2 p_3}{(p_2 - p_1)(p_3 - q_1)} + p_3 q_3^{k-1} \frac{p_1 p_2}{(p_1 - p_3)(p_2 - p_1)} \\
&\quad + p_3 q_3^{k-1} \frac{p_2 p_1}{(p_2 - p_3)(p_1 - q_2)} + p_2 q_2^{k-1} \frac{p_3 p_1}{(p_3 - p_2)(p_1 - p_2)} \\
&= p_1 q_1^{k-1} \frac{p_2 p_3}{(p_2 - p_1)(p_3 - q_1)} + p_2 q_2^{k-1} \frac{p_3 p_1}{(p_3 - p_2)(p_1 - p_2)} \\
&\quad + p_3 q_3^{k-1} \frac{p_1 p_2}{(p_1 - p_3)(p_2 - p_3)}
\end{aligned}$$

By induction, we obtain the following proposition.

**Proposition 6.3.** *Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent geometric variable with parameters  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . Suppose that  $p_i \neq p_j$  if  $i \neq j$ . Then, for  $k \geq n$ ,*

$$P(X_1 + \dots + X_n = k) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i (1 - p_i)^{k-1} \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i}.$$

*Proof.* We prove this theorem by induction. Suppose that the identity holds for  $n - 1$ . Set  $S_m = X_1 + \dots + X_m$ . By the independence of  $S_{n-1}$  and  $X_n$ , one has that, for  $k \geq n$ ,

$$P(X_n = k) = P(S_n = k, X_n = 1) + P(S_n = k, X_n > 1) = I + II,$$

where

$$I = P(S_{n-1} = k - 1)P(X_n = 1) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i q_i^{k-2} \prod_{j \neq i, i < n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} \right) p_n$$

and

$$II = P(S_n = k, X_n > 1) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} P(S_{n-1} = k - i)P(X_n = i | X_n > 1)P(X_n > 1).$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X_n = i | X_n > 1) &= P(X_n > i | X_n > 1) - P(X_n > i + 1 | X_n > 1) \\
&= P(X_n > i - 1) - P(X_n > i) = P(X_n = i - 1).
\end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$\begin{aligned}
II &= \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} P(S_{n-1} = k - i)P(X_n = i - 1)P(X_n > 1) = P(S_n = k - 1)q_n \\
&= \left( \sum_{i=1}^n p_i q_i^{k-2} \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} \right) q_n.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
P(S_n = k) &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i q_i^{k-2} \prod_{j \neq i, i < n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} \right) p_n + \left( \sum_{i=1}^n p_i q_i^{k-2} \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} \right) q_n \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i q_i^{k-2} (p_n - p_i) \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i q_i^{k-2} q_n \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i q_i^{k-2} (p_n - p_i + q_n) \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i} + p_n q_n^{k-1} \prod_{j < n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_n} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n p_i q_i^{k-1} \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{p_j}{p_j - p_i}.
\end{aligned}$$

□

*Example 6.10.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent uniform random variables over  $(0, 1)$ . Since  $X, Y$  are independent and continuous,  $X + Y$  is continuous with p.d.f.

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(a-y)f_Y(y)dy.$$

Clearly,  $f_{X+Y}(a) = 0$  for  $a \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (2, \infty)$ . For  $a \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_0^a dy = a$$

and, for  $a \in [1, 2)$ ,

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_{a-1}^1 dy = 2 - a.$$

Immediately, this implies

$$F_{X+Y}(a) = \int_0^a u du = a^2/2 \quad \forall a \in (0, 1),$$

and

$$F_{X+Y}(a) = \int_0^1 u du + \int_1^a (2-u) du = -\frac{a^2}{2} + 2a - 1 \quad \forall a \in [1, 2).$$

*Example 6.11.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent gamma random variables with parameters  $(\alpha, \lambda)$  and  $(\beta, \lambda)$ . Then,  $X + Y$  is continuous with density function

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{X+Y}(a) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(a-y)f_Y(y)dy \\
&= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^a \lambda e^{-\lambda(a-y)} (\lambda(a-y))^{\alpha-1} \lambda e^{-\lambda y} (\lambda y)^{\beta-1} dy \\
&= \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^a \frac{1}{a} \left(1 - \frac{y}{a}\right)^{\alpha-1} \left(\frac{y}{a}\right)^{\beta-1} dy \\
&= \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^1 t^{\beta-1} (1-t)^{\alpha-1} dt = \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1} B(\beta, \alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \\
&= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)} \lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1}.
\end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $X+Y$  is a gamma random variable with parameters  $(\alpha+\beta, \lambda)$ . In particular, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent exponential random variables with parameter  $\lambda$ , then  $X_1 + \dots + X_n$  has the gamma distribution with parameters  $(n, \lambda)$ .

**Proposition 6.4.** *Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be independent exponential random variables with parameters  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , where  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$  for  $i \neq j$ . Set  $Y = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ . Then,  $Y$  is continuous and*

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e^{-\lambda_i y} \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_j - \lambda_i}.$$

*Proof.* The proof is similar to the case of geometric random variables. To get the desired p.d.f., it suffices to prove

$$(6.1) \quad 1 - F_Y(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-\lambda_i a} \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_j - \lambda_i} \quad \forall a > 0.$$

We prove the above identity by induction. For  $i \geq 1$ , set  $S_i = X_1 + \dots + X_i$ . Assume that (6.1) holds for  $Y = S_{n-1}$ . For  $a > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - F_{S_n}(a) &= P(S_n > a) = \iint_{x+y>a} f_{S_{n-1}}(x) f_{X_n}(y) dx dy \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( \prod_{j \neq i, j < n} \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_j - \lambda_i} \right) \iint_{\substack{x>0, y>0 \\ x+y>a}} \lambda_i \lambda_n e^{-\lambda_i x} e^{-\lambda_n y} dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} &\iint_{\substack{x>0, y>0 \\ x+y>a}} \lambda_i \lambda_n e^{-\lambda_i x} e^{-\lambda_n y} dx dy \\ &= \int_0^a \int_{a-y}^{\infty} \lambda_i \lambda_n e^{-\lambda_i x} e^{-\lambda_n y} dx dy + \int_a^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \lambda_i \lambda_n e^{-\lambda_i x} e^{-\lambda_n y} dx dy \\ &= \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_n - \lambda_i} e^{-\lambda_i a} + \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_i - \lambda_n} e^{-\lambda_n a} \end{aligned}$$

As a result, this implies

$$1 - F_{S_n}(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} e^{-\lambda_i a} \prod_{j \neq i, j \leq n} \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_j - \lambda_i} + e^{-\lambda_n a} p(\lambda_n) \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_j - \lambda_n},$$

where

$$p(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \prod_{j \neq i, j < n} \frac{\lambda_j - t}{\lambda_j - \lambda_i}.$$

Observe that  $p(t)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n-2$ . Since  $p(\lambda_i) = 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ ,  $p(t) = 1$  for all  $t$ . Particularly,  $p(\lambda_n) = 1$ .  $\square$

*Example 6.12.* Let  $X, Y$  be normal with parameters  $(0, 1)$  and  $(0, \sigma^2)$ . Suppose that  $X, Y$  are independent. Then,

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(a-y)^2/2} e^{-y^2/(2\sigma^2)} dy.$$

Note that

$$\frac{(a-y)^2}{2} + \frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2/(\sigma^2+1)} \left( y - \frac{a}{(\sigma^2+1)/\sigma^2} \right)^2 + \frac{a^2}{2(\sigma^2+1)}.$$

This implies

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2/(\sigma^2+1)}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^2\sigma^2}} e^{-a^2/(2(\sigma^2+1))} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1+\sigma^2)}} e^{-a^2/(2(1+\sigma^2))},$$

which means that  $X + Y$  is normal with parameters  $(0, 1 + \sigma^2)$ .

For the general case, let  $X, Y$  are independent normal random variables with parameters  $(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$  and  $(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$ . By writing  $X = \mu_1 + \sigma_1 X'$  and  $Y = \mu_2 + \sigma_2 Y'$ , where  $X', Y'$  are independent standard normal random variables, one has

$$X + Y = \mu_1 + \mu_2 + \sigma_1(X' + (\sigma_2/\sigma_1)Y').$$

This implies that  $X + Y$  is a normal random variable with mean  $\mu_1 + \mu_2$  and variance  $\sigma_1^2[1 + (\sigma_2/\sigma_1)^2] = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$ . Inductively, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent and  $X_i$  is a normal random variable with parameters  $(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ , then  $X_1 + \dots + X_n$  is a normal random variable with mean  $\mu_1 + \dots + \mu_n$  and variance  $\sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_n^2$ .

**6.4. Conditional distributions.** Recall the definition of the condition probability.

$$P(F|E) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(E)} \quad \text{given } P(E) > 0.$$

**Definition 6.6.** Let  $X, Y$  be discrete random variables with probability mass functions  $p_X, p_Y$  and joint probability mass function  $p$ . Suppose  $P(Y = y) > 0$ .

(1) The **conditional probability mass function** of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is defined by

$$p_{X|Y}(x|y) = P(X = x|Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)} = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_Y(y)}.$$

(2) The **conditional probability distribution function** of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is defined by

$$F_{X|Y}(a|y) = P(X \leq a|Y = y) = \sum_{x \leq a} p_{X|Y}(x|y).$$

*Remark 6.11.* Note that a conditional p.m.f. is a p.m.f. and a conditional distribution function is exactly a distribution function. That is, the mapping  $x \mapsto p_{X|Y}(x, y)$  is nonzero on a countable set satisfying  $\sum_{x: p_{X|Y}(x|y) > 0} p_{X|Y}(x|y) = 1$ , and  $x \mapsto F_{X|Y}(x|y)$  is non-decreasing, right-continuous and satisfies

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_{X|Y}(x|y) = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_{X|Y}(x|y) = 1.$$

*Remark 6.12.* If  $X, Y$  are independent discrete random variables, then

$$p_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_Y(y)} = \frac{p_X(x)p_Y(y)}{p_Y(y)} = p_X(x).$$

*Example 6.13.* Let  $X, Y$  be independent Poisson random variables with parameters  $\lambda, \delta$ . The conditional p.m.f. of  $X$  given  $X + Y = n$  is

$$p_{X|X+Y}(k|n) = P(X = k|X + Y = n) = \frac{P(X = k, X + Y = n)}{P(X + Y = n)} \quad \forall 0 \leq k \leq n.$$

It has been shown before that  $X + Y$  is Poisson with parameter  $\lambda + \delta$ . This implies  $P(X + Y = n) = e^{-(\lambda + \delta)} (\lambda + \delta)^n / n!$ . By the independence of  $X, Y$ ,

$$P(X = k, X + Y = n) = P(X = k, Y = n - k) = P(X = k)P(Y = n - k) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\delta} \frac{\delta^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}.$$

This implies

$$p_{X|X+Y}(k|n) = \binom{n}{k} \left( \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \delta} \right)^k \left( \frac{\delta}{\lambda + \delta} \right)^{n-k} \quad \forall 0 \leq k \leq n.$$

This implies that, given  $X + Y = n$ ,  $X$  is a binomial random variable with parameters  $(n, \lambda/(\lambda + \delta))$ .

**Definition 6.7.** Let  $X, Y$  be jointly continuous with joint p.d.f.  $f$  and marginal p.d.f.s  $f_X, f_Y$ . Suppose  $f_Y(y) > 0$ .

(1) The **conditional probability density function** of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is defined by

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) := \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

(2) The **conditional distribution function** of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is defined by

$$F_{X|Y}(a|y) := \int_{-\infty}^a f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx.$$

(3) The **conditional probability** of  $\{X \in A\}$  given  $Y = y$  is defined by

$$P(X \in A|Y = y) := \int_A f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx.$$

*Remark 6.13.* The conditional p.d.f. is a p.d.f.. That is,  $f_{X|Y}(x|y) \geq 0$  and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx = 1.$$

*Remark 6.14.* To see what the conditional p.d.f. means, we assume that  $f(x, y)$  and  $f_Y(y)$  are continuous. Then, for  $\epsilon, \delta > 0$ ,

$$\frac{P(X \in (x, x + \epsilon), Y \in (y, y + \delta))}{\epsilon P(Y \in (y, y + \delta))} = \frac{f(x, y)\epsilon\delta(1 + o_{\epsilon, \delta}(1))}{f_Y(y)\epsilon\delta(1 + o_{\epsilon}(1))} \rightarrow \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

as  $\epsilon, \delta \rightarrow 0$ .

*Remark 6.15.* If  $X, Y$  are independent, then  $f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f_X(x)$ .

*Example 6.14.* Let  $X, Y$  be jointly continuous with p.d.f.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} e^{-x/y} e^{-y/y} & \text{if } x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}.$$

This implies  $f_Y(y) = 0$  for  $y \leq 0$  and

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-x/y} e^{-y}}{y} dx = e^{-y},$$

for  $y > 0$ . Hence, we have

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{e^{-x/y}}{y} \quad \forall x > 0, y > 0.$$

This proves that, given  $Y = y$ ,  $X$  is an exponential random variable with parameter  $y$ .

*Example 6.15.* Consider a bag containing infinitely many coins of which probability landing on heads is uniform over  $(0, 1)$ . Select a coin and then flip it independently for  $n + m$  times. Find the conditional distribution of the probability that a coin lands on heads given that  $n + m$  flips results in  $n$  heads.

First, observe that if  $X, Y$  are jointly continuous with density function  $f$ , then

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f_X(x)}{f_Y(y)} \times \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f_{Y|X}(y|x)f_X(x)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

We may follow the above definition to define the conditional p.d.f. or p.m.f. given the observation of a discrete random variable or a continuous random variable respectively. For instance, let  $X$  denote the probability of heads of the selected coin and  $Y$  be the number of heads in the  $n + m$  flips. Then, the setting of this example says that, given  $X = p$ ,  $Y$  is a binomial random variable with parameters  $(n + m, p)$ . Then, the conditional p.d.f. of  $X$  given  $Y = n$  is

$$f_{X|Y}(p|n) = \frac{p_{Y|X}(n|p)f_X(p)}{p_Y(n)} = \frac{\binom{n+m}{n} p^n (1-p)^m}{P(Y = n)}, \quad \forall p \in (0, 1).$$

Since  $f_{X|Y}(p|n)$  is a density function, we have

$$1 = \int_0^1 f_{X|Y}(p|n) dp = \frac{\binom{n+m}{n}}{P(Y = n)} \int_0^1 p^n (1-p)^m dp = \frac{\binom{n+m}{n} B(n+1, m+1)}{P(Y = n)}.$$

This implies

$$P(Y = n) = \binom{n+m}{n} B(n+1, m+1), \quad f_{X|Y}(p|n) = \frac{1}{B(n+1, m+1)} p^n (1-p)^m,$$

where  $B(a, b)$  is the coefficient in the p.d.f. of a beta random variable. As a consequence, given  $Y = n$ ,  $X$  has is a beta random variable with parameters  $(n + 1, m + 1)$ .

## 6.5. Order statistics.

**Definition 6.8.** Random variables,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , are called **identically distributed** if their distribution functions are equal and called **i.i.d.** if they are independent and identically distributed.

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. random variables. Define  $X_{(j)}$  be the  $j$ th smallest of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Mathematically, one has

$$X_{(j)} = \min_{k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_j} \max\{X_{k_1}, \dots, X_{k_j}\}.$$

Here,  $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$  is called the **order statistics** corresponding to  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .

Suppose that  $X_1$  is continuous and has density function  $f$ . Then,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are jointly continuous with density function  $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1) \cdots f(x_n)$ . This implies

$$\begin{aligned} & P(X_{(i)} = X_{(i+1)} \text{ for some } i) = P(X_i = X_j \text{ for some } i < j) \\ & \leq \binom{n}{2} P(X_1 = X_2) = \binom{n}{2} \iint_{x=y} f(x)f(y) dx dy = 0. \end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$P(X_{(1)} < X_{(2)} < \dots < X_{(n)}) = 1.$$

We now turn to determine the joint density of  $X_{(i)}$ . Assume that  $f$  is continuous. Let  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$  and choose  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $x_i - x_{i-1} > \epsilon$  for all  $i$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{P(X_{(i)} \in (x_i - \epsilon/2, x_i + \epsilon/2), \forall i)}{\epsilon^n} \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{n!P(X_i \in (x_i - \epsilon/2, x_i + \epsilon/2))}{\epsilon^n} \\ &= n! \prod_{i=1}^n \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_{x_i - \epsilon/2}^{x_i + \epsilon/2} f(x) dx = n! \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i). \end{aligned}$$

This gives a candidate for the joint density function of the order statistics.

**Proposition 6.5.** *Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. and  $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$  be their corresponding order statistics. Suppose that  $X_i$  is continuous with common density function  $f$ . Then,*

$$f_{X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} n!f(x_1) \cdots f(x_n) & \text{if } x_1 < \dots < x_n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

*Proof.* We prove this proposition by induction. The case  $n = 1$  is obvious. Suppose that the proposition holds for  $n - 1$ . Let  $g$  be the function at the right side of the above identity and  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ . Note that

$$P(X_{(i)} \leq a_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n) = \sum_{j=1}^n P(X_j = X_{(n)} \leq a_n, X_{(i)} \leq a_i \forall 1 \leq i < n).$$

Let  $Y_{(1)}, \dots, Y_{(n-1)}$  be the order statistics of  $X_1, \dots, X_{j-1}, X_{j+1}, \dots, X_n$ . Then, one has

$$\begin{aligned} & P(X_j = X_{(n)} \leq a_n, X_{(i)} \leq a_i \forall 1 \leq i < n) \\ &= P(Y_{(n-1)} < X_j \leq a_n, Y_{(i)} \leq a_i \forall 1 \leq i < n) \\ &= \int \cdots \int_{\substack{y_i < a_i, 1 \leq i \leq n \\ y_{n-1} < y_n}} f_{Y_{(1)}, \dots, Y_{(n-1)}}(y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}) f(y_n) dy_1 \cdots dy_n \\ &= \int \cdots \int_{\substack{y_i \leq a_i, 1 \leq i \leq n \\ y_1 < \dots < y_n}} (n-1)! f(y_1) \cdots f(y_n) dy_1 \cdots dy_n \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \int \cdots \int_{y_i \leq a_i, 1 \leq i \leq n} g(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \cdots dy_n. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the last term is independent of  $j$ . This implies

$$F_{X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \int \cdots \int_{y_i \leq a_i, 1 \leq i \leq n} g(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \cdots dy_n.$$

This proves that  $g$  is the joint density of  $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 6.6.** *Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. continuous random variables with common density function  $f$ . Then,*

$$f_{X_{(j)}}(x) = \frac{n!}{(j-1)!(n-j)!} [F(x)]^{j-1} [1 - F(x)]^{n-j} f(x).$$

*Proof.* Using the above proposition, one has

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_{(j)}}(a) &= n! \int_{-\infty}^a \left( \int \cdots \int_{y_1 < \cdots < y_j < \cdots < y_n} f(y_1) \cdots f(y_n) dy_1 \cdots dy_{j-1} dy_{j+1} \cdots dy_n \right) f(y_j) dy_j \\ &= n! \int_{-\infty}^a g(y_j) h(y_j) f(y_j) dy_j, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$g(x) = \int \cdots \int_{y_1 < \cdots < y_{j-1} < x} f(y_1) \cdots f(y_{j-1}) dy_1 \cdots dy_{j-1}$$

and

$$h(x) = \int \cdots \int_{x < y_{j+1} < \cdots < y_n} f(y_{j+1}) \cdots f(y_n) dy_{j+1} \cdots dy_n.$$

Clearly,  $f_{X_{(j)}}(x) = f(x)g(x)h(x)$ . By the continuity of distribution functions, one has

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \int \cdots \int_{y_2 < \cdots < y_{j-1} < x} F(y_2) f(y_2) \cdots f(y_{j-1}) dy_2 \cdots dy_{j-1} \\ &= \int \cdots \int_{y_3 < \cdots < y_{j-1} < x} \frac{F^2(y_3)}{2} f(y_3) \cdots f(y_{j-1}) dy_3 \cdots dy_{j-1} \\ &= \cdots = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{F^{j-2}(y_{j-1})}{(j-2)!} f(y_{j-1}) dy_{j-1} = \frac{F^{j-1}(x)}{(j-1)!} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $h(x) = [1 - F(x)]^{n-j} / (n-j)!$ . □

*Remark 6.16.* One may prove inductively that

$$F_{X_{(j)}}(a) = \sum_{k=j}^n \binom{n}{k} [F(a)]^k [1 - F(a)]^{n-k}.$$

*Example 6.16.* Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. uniform random variables over  $(0, 1)$ . Then,

$$f_{X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} n! & \text{if } x_1 < \cdots < x_n \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

and

$$f_{X_{(j)}}(x) = \frac{n!}{(n-j)!(j-1)!} x^{j-1} (1-x)^{n-j} \quad \forall x \in (0, 1).$$

This implies that  $X_{(j)}$  is a beta random variable with parameters  $(n-j+1, j)$ . In particular, if  $X_1, \dots, X_{2n+1}$  are i.i.d. uniform over  $(0, 1)$ , then the **median**  $X_{(n+1)}$  is a beta random variable with parameters  $(n+1, n+1)$ .

*Remark 6.17.* Using the same reasoning as before, one can show that

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X_{(i)}, X_{(j)}}(x_i, x_j) &= \frac{n!}{(i-1)!(j-i-1)!(n-j)!} [F(x_j)]^{i-1} [F(x_j) - F(x_i)]^{j-i-1} \\ &\quad \times [1 - F(x_j)]^{n-j} f(x_i) f(x_j) \quad \forall x_i < x_j, \end{aligned}$$

and  $f_{X_{(i)}, X_{(j)}}(x_i, x_j) = 0$  if  $x_i \geq x_j$ .

*Example 6.17.* The **range** of i.i.d. random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is defined to be

$$R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}.$$

By the above remark, if  $f$  is the common density of  $X_i$ , then

$$f_{X_{(1)}, X_{(n)}}(x, y) = \begin{cases} n(n-1)[F(y) - F(x)]^{n-2}f(x)f(y) & \text{if } x < y \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}.$$

This implies

$$\begin{aligned} P(R \leq a) &= n(n-1) \int_{0 < y-x \leq a} [F(y) - F(x)]^{n-2}f(x)f(y)dx dy \\ &= n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( (n-1) \int_x^{x+a} [F(y) - F(x)]^{n-2}f(y)dy \right) f(x)dx \\ &= n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( [F(y) - F(x)]^{n-1} \Big|_{y=x}^{y=x+a} \right) f(x)dx \\ &= n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [F(x+a) - F(x)]^{n-1}f(x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

For the case that  $X_i$  is uniform over  $(0, 1)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,

$$P(R \leq a) = n \int_0^{1-a} a^{n-1}dx + n \int_{1-a}^1 (1-x)^{n-1}dx = n(1-a)a^{n-1} + a^n \quad \forall a \in (0, 1).$$

This implies

$$\frac{d}{da}P(R \leq a) = \begin{cases} n(n-1)a^{n-2}(1-a) & \text{if } a \in (0, 1) \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases},$$

which says that  $R$  is a beta random variable with parameters  $(n-1, 2)$ .

**6.6. Joint probability distribution of functions of random variables.** Let  $X_1, X_2$  be jointly continuous random variables with joint p.d.f.  $f_{X_1, X_2}$  and  $Y_i = g_i(X_1, X_2)$  with  $i = 1, 2$ . Let  $D$  be the support of  $f_{X_1, X_2}$ , i.e.  $D = \{(x, y) | f_{X_1, X_2}(x, y) \neq 0\}$ , and  $E = (g_1, g_2)(D)$ . Assume that  $(g_1, g_2) : D \rightarrow E$  is a bijection and write  $(h_1, h_2) = (g_1, g_2)^{-1}$ . Then, for  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $R = (-\infty, a_1] \times (-\infty, a_2]$ ,

$$P(Y_1 \leq a_1, Y_2 \leq a_2) = \iint_{D'} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)dx_1dx_2,$$

where  $D' = D \cap \{(x_1, x_2) | (g_1, g_2)(x_1, x_2) \in R\} = (h_1, h_2)(E \cap R)$ . Assume further that  $g_1, g_2$  have continuously differentiable partial derivatives with

$$J(x_1, x_2) = \det \begin{pmatrix} (g_1)_{x_1} & (g_1)_{x_2} \\ (g_2)_{x_1} & (g_2)_{x_2} \end{pmatrix} = (g_1)_{x_1}(g_2)_{x_2} - (g_1)_{x_2}(g_2)_{x_1} \neq 0 \quad \text{on } D.$$

By the inverse function theorem, one has

$$A(y_1, y_2) := \det \begin{pmatrix} (h_1)_{y_1} & (h_1)_{y_2} \\ (h_2)_{y_1} & (h_2)_{y_2} \end{pmatrix} = J(h_1(y_1, y_2), h_2(y_1, y_2))^{-1},$$

and then

$$\iint_{D'} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)dx_1dx_2 = \iint_{E \cap R} f_{X_1, X_2}(h_1(y_1, y_2), h_2(y_1, y_2))|A(y_1, y_2)|dy_1dy_2.$$

This implies that

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} f_{X_1, X_2}(h_1(y_1, y_2), h_2(y_1, y_2))J(h_1(y_1, y_2), h_2(y_1, y_2))^{-1} & \text{on } E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Example 6.18.* Let  $X_1, X_2$  be independent exponential random variables with parameters  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ . Set  $Y_1 = X_1 + X_2$  and  $Y_2 = X_1 - X_2$ . Then,  $Y_i = g_i(X_1, X_2)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , where  $g_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$  and  $g_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1 - x_2$ . Clearly,  $(g_1, g_2)$  is a bijection from  $(0, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$  onto  $R = \{(y_1, y_2) | y_1 > |y_2|\}$  and the inverse function of  $(g_1, g_2)$ , denoted by  $(h_1, h_2)$  satisfies  $h_1(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 + y_2)/2$  and  $h_2(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 - y_2)/2$ . As  $f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2}$ , one has

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}{2} \exp \left\{ - \left( \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}{2} \right) y_1 - \left( \frac{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}{2} \right) y_2 \right\} & \text{for } y_1 > |y_2| \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It's worthwhile to note that  $Y_1, Y_2$  are not independent.