

# Mathematical Statistics I

## Chapter 3: Joint Distributions

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1. Introduction
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# Introduction

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# Introduction

- This material is based on the textbook by Rice (2007, Chapter 3).
- Our goal is to better understand the joint probability structure of more than one random variable, defined on the same sample space.
- One reason that studying joint probabilities is an important topic is that it enables us to use what we know about one variable to study another.

- Just like the univariate case, the joint behavior of two random variables,  $X$  and  $Y$ , is determined by the cumulative distribution function

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

- This is true for both discrete and continuous random variables.
- The any set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , the joint cdf can give  $P((X, Y) \in A)$ .

## Joint cdf II

- For example, let  $A$  be the rectangle defined by  $x_1 < X < x_2$ , and  $y_1 < Y < y_2$ . (It helps to draw a picture...)
- $F(x_2, y_2)$  gives  $P(X < x_2, Y < y_2)$ , an area that is too big, so we subtract off pieces
  - $F(x_2, y_1) = P(X < x_2, Y < y_1)$  (we already have the area  $X < x_2$ , but now subtract away the area  $Y < y_1$ ).
  - $F(x_1, y_2) = P(X < x_1, Y < y_2)$  (Now subtracting the area  $X < x_1$ )
  - We have “double subtracted” the area  $\{X < x_1, Y < y_1\}$ , so we add it back.

$$P((X, Y) \in A) = F(x_2, y_2) - F(x_2, y_1) - F(x_1, y_2) + F(x_1, y_1).$$

## Joint cdf III

- The definition also applies to more than two random variables.
- Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be jointly distributed random variables defined on the same sample space. Then

$$F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(X_1 \leq x_1, X_2 \leq x_2, \dots, X_n \leq x_n).$$

- Like the univariate case, we can also define the pmf and pdf of jointly distributed random variables as well.

# Discrete Random Variables

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# Discrete Random Variables

## Definition: Joint pmf

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables defined on the same sample space, and take on values  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots$ , respectively. The **joint pmf** (or joint frequency function), is

$$p(x_i, y_j) = P(X = x_i, Y = y_j).$$

- For discrete RVs, it's often useful to describe the joint pmf as a frequency table.

## Discrete Random Variables II

- Suppose a fair coin is tossed 3 times. Let  $X$  denote the number of heads on the first toss, and  $Y$  the total number of heads.
- The sample space is

$$\Omega = \{hhh, hht, hth, thh, htt, tht, tth, ttt\}.$$

- The joint pmf can be expressed as the frequency table below (Table 1).

## Discrete Random Variables III

	$y$			
$x$	0	1	2	3
0	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{2}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	0
1	0	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{2}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$

**Table 1:** Frequency table for  $X$  and  $Y$ , flipping a fair coin three times.

- Note that the probabilities in Table 1 sum to one.
- Using the probability laws we have already learned, we can calculate **marginal** probabilities.

$$\begin{aligned}p_Y(0) &= P(Y = 0) \\&= P(Y = 0, X = 0) + P(Y = 0, X = 1) \\&= \frac{1}{8} + 0 = \frac{1}{8}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}p_Y(1) &= P(Y = 1) \\&= P(Y = 1, X = 0) + P(Y = 1, X = 1) \\&= \frac{2}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8}.\end{aligned}$$

# Discrete Random Variables V

- In general, to find the frequency function for  $Y$  and  $X$ , we just need to sum the appropriate columns or rows, respectively.
- $p_X(x) = \sum_i P(x, y_i)$  and  $p_Y(y) = \sum_j P(x_j, y)$ .
- The case with multiple random variables is similar:

$$p_{X_i}(x_i) = \sum_{x_j: j \neq i} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

- We can also get marginal frequencies for more than one variable:

$$p_{X_i X_j}(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{x_k: k \notin \{i, j\}} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

## Example: Multinomial Distribution

- The **multinomial** distribution is a generalization of the binomial distribution.
- Suppose there are  $n$  independent trials, each with  $r$  possible outcomes, with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$ , respectively.
- Let  $N_i$  be the total number of outcomes of type  $i$  in the  $n$  trials, with  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\}$ .
- The probability of any particular sequence  $(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_r) = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r)$  is

$$p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_r^{n_r}$$

## Example: Multinomial Distribution II

- The total number of ways to do this was an identity from Chapter 1 (Proposition 1.3):

$$\binom{n}{n_1 \cdots n_r}.$$

- Combining this gives us the pmf of the multinomial distribution:

### Multinomial Distribution

Let  $N_1, N_2, \dots, N_r$  be random variables that follow a multinomial distribution with parameters  $N$  and  $(p_1, \dots, p_r)$ . The joint pmf is

$$p(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) = \binom{n}{n_1 \cdots n_r} p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_r^{n_r}$$

## Example: Multinomial Distribution III

- The marginal distribution for any  $N_i$  can be found by summing the joint frequency function over the other  $n_j$ .
- While possible, this is a non-trivial algebraic exercise.
- The simple alternative is to reframe the problem: Let  $N_i$  be the number of successes in  $n$  trials, and  $\tilde{N}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} N_j$  be the number of failures. The probability of success is still  $p_i$ , leaving the probability of failure to be  $1 - p_i$ .
- Thus, we see that the marginal distribution for  $N_i$  must follow a binomial distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{N_i}(n_i) &= \sum_{n_j: j \neq i} \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_r} p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_r^{n_r} \\ &= \binom{n}{n_i} p_i^{n_i} (1 - p_i)^{n - n_i} \end{aligned}$$



# Continuous Random Variables

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# Continuous Random Variables

- Let  $X, Y$  be continuous random variables with joint cdf  $F(x, y)$ .
- Their **joint density function** is a piecewise continuous function of two variables,  $f(x, y)$ .
- A few properties:
  - $f(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$  (or the support).
  - $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$ .
  - For any “measureable set”  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  
$$P((X, Y) \in A) = \int \int_A f(x, y) dx dy$$
  - In particular,  $F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(u, v) du dv$ .

## Continuous Random Variables II

- From the fundamental theorem of multivariable calculus, it follows that

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

wherever the derivative is defined.

## Continuous Random Variables III

### Finding joint probabilities

Let  $X, Y$  be jointly defined RVs with pdf

$$f(x, y) = \frac{12}{7}(x^2 + xy), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1.$$

Find  $P(X > y)$ .

*Solution:*

## Marginal cdf

The **marginal cdf** of  $X$ , denoted  $F_X$ , is

$$\begin{aligned}F_X(x) &= P(X \leq x) \\&= P(X \leq x \cap Y \in \mathbb{R}) = P(X \leq x \cap Y < \infty) \\&= \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) \\&= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u, y) dy du.\end{aligned}$$

By taking the derivative of both sides of the equation, we get the **marginal density** of  $X$ :

$$f_X(x) = F'_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy.$$

### Calculating Marginal Densities

Using the same joint distribution as the previous example, find the marginal density of  $X$ :

$$\begin{aligned}f_X(x) &= \int_Y f(x, y) dy \\&= \frac{12}{7} \int_0^1 (x^2 + xy) dy \\&= \frac{12}{7} \left( x^2 y + \frac{x}{2} y^2 \right) \Big|_0^1 \\&= \frac{12}{7} \left( x^2 + \frac{x}{2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

## More than two random variables

- For several jointly continuous random variables, we can make the obvious generalizations.
- That is, to find the *marginal* densities, we need to “marginalize-” or “integrate-” out the **nusaince** variables.
- This means integrating out any combination of variables that we want.
- Example: Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  be jointly continuous RVs with pdf  $f(x, y, z)$ . Then the two-dimensional marginal distribution of  $X$  and  $Z$  is:

$$f_{XZ}(x, z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y, z) dy.$$

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs

- Suppose that  $F(x)$  and  $G(y)$  are cdfs for random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , resp.
- It can be shown that the following function,  $H(x, y)$ , is always a bivariate cdf for all  $-1 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ :

$$H(x, y) = F(x)G(y)\left(1 + \alpha(1 - F(x))(1 - G(y))\right).$$

- Because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} G(y) = 1$ , the marginal distributions are:

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} H(x, y) = F(x)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} H(x, y) = G(y)$$



## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs II

- Thus, we can use this approach to build an infinite number of bivariate distributions that have a particular marginal distribution.

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs III

- One important example is when the marginal distributions are uniformly distributed.
- Let  $F(x) = x, 0 \leq x \leq 1$ , and  $G(y) = y, 0 \leq y \leq 1$ .
- By selecting  $\alpha = -1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} H(x, y) &= xy[1 - (1 - x)(1 - y)] \\ &= x^2y + y^2x - x^2y^2, \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

- The density is

$$\begin{aligned} h(x, y) &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} H(x, y) \\ &= 2x + 2y - 4xy, \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

- [Here is a link](#) to a 3D rendering of this function.

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs IV

- Now, let's select  $\alpha = 1/2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} H(x, y) &= xy \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} (1 - F(x)) (1 - G(y)) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^2 y^2 - \frac{1}{2} x^2 y - \frac{1}{2} x y^2 + \frac{3}{2} xy. \end{aligned}$$

- Taking the derivative, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} h(x, y) &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} H(x, y) \\ &= 2xy - x - y + \frac{3}{2}, \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

- [Here is a link](#) to a 3D rendering of this function.

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs V

- The last two joint cdfs were examples of a **copula**.

### Definition: Copulas

A copula is a joint cdf that has uniform marginal distributions.

- Let  $C(u, v)$  be a copula. One immediate consequence of the definition is that if  $U$  and  $V$  are uniform random variables, then  $P(U \leq u) = C(u, 1) = u$ , and  $P(V \leq v) = C(1, v) = v$ .

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs VI

- Let  $C(u, v)$  be a copula, we will restrict ourselves to the case where it is twice differentiable, such that
$$c(u, v) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial u \partial v} C(u, v) \geq 0.$$
- let  $F_X$  and  $F_Y$  be the cdfs of  $X$  and  $Y$ , resp.
- Now define  $U = F_X(X)$ , and  $V = F_Y(Y)$ . From Proposition 2.2,  $U$  and  $V$  are uniformly distributed.
- Now consider the function
$$H(x, y) = C(u, v) = C(F_X(x), F_Y(y)).$$

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs VII

- Thus, by the property that  $C(u, 1) = u$  and  $C(1, v) = v$ , we have

$$C(F_X(x), 1) = F_X(x)$$

$$C(1, F_Y(y)) = F_Y(y).$$

Therefore by definition,

$$F_{XY}(x, y) = H(x, y) = C((F_X(x), F_Y(y))).$$

- Using the chain rule, we can differentiate to obtain

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = c(F_X(x), F_Y(y)) f_X(x) f_Y(y).$$

## Example: constructing bivariate cdfs VIII

- **Takeaway:** We took arbitrary marginal distributions  $F_X$  and  $F_Y$ , and created a family of joint density functions, defined by *any* copula. Thus: the marginal distributions do not determine the joint distribution.
- There is a Theorem known as Sklar's Theorem (Wikipedia contributors, 2025) that generalizes this statement: All joint distributions can be expressed using a copula and marginal distributions, *and* the representation is unique.
- That is, the copula can be thought of as a way to describe the dependence between the variables in any joint distribution.

## Uniform on specific region

- So far when we have talked about *uniform distributions*, we think about being uniform over  $[0, 1]$ , or a higher dimensional box:  $[a, b]^d$ .
- It's often useful to have a uniform distribution for other regions of space.
- Let  $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be any region of interest. The two-dimensional uniform distribution over  $R$  is defined by the probability

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

where  $||$  denotes the measure of the area.



## Uniform on specific region II

- Example: Suppose a point is chosen randomly in a disk of radius 1.
- The area of the disk is  $\pi r^2 = \pi$ , and therefore the joint pdf for the location  $(X, Y)$  is

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi} & x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Now let  $R$  be the random variable denoting the distance of the point from the origin.

## Uniform on specific region III

- Note that  $R \leq r$  if and only if the point lies in a disk of radius  $r$ . This disk has area  $\pi r^2$ , and therefore the joint probability is

$$P(R \leq r) = \frac{\pi r^2}{\pi} = r^2, \quad 0 \leq r \leq 1.$$

- Taking a derivative, the corresponding density function is

$$f_R(r) = 2r, \quad 0 \leq r \leq 1.$$

## Uniform on specific region IV

- Now let us compute the marginal density of the  $x$  coordinate:

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## References and Acknowledgements II

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