

Section 3.3. The Γ , χ^2 , and β Distributions

Note. In this section we define the gamma function using an improper integral. We then use it to define three distributions: the Γ distribution, the χ^2 distribution, and the β distribution. These distributions have a number of applications, some related to lifetimes, failure times, and waiting times.

Definition. The *gamma function* is $\Gamma(a) = \int_0^{\infty} y^{a-1} e^{-y} dy$, where $a > 0$.

Note. We now show that $\Gamma(\alpha)$ actually exists for all $\alpha > 0$; that is, the indefinite integral defining $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is convergent for all $\alpha > 0$. The following computations are largely based on [Jia-Ming \(Frank\) Liou's Calculus 2 webpage](#) (accessed 6/28/2021).

Note 3.3.A. We can show by an inductive application of L'Hôpital's Rule (see my online notes for Calculus 1 on [Section 4.5. Indeterminate Forms and L'Hôpital's Rule](#)) that for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{y^{n-1}}{e^{y/2}} = 0$. So by the definition of "limit as $y \rightarrow \infty$," there exists $M > 0$ such that for all $y \geq M$ we have $|y^{n-1}/e^{y/2}| < 1$. So for $y \geq M > 0$ we also have $0 \leq y^{n-1} < e^{y/2}$ when $y > 0$, or $0 \leq y^{n-1} e^{-y} \leq e^{y/2} e^{-y} = e^{-y/2}$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y/2} dy &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_0^b e^{-y/2} dy \right) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-2e^{-y/2}) \Big|_0^b \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left((-2e^{-(b)/2}) - (-2e^{-(0)/2}) \right) = 2. \end{aligned}$$

So by the Direct Comparison Test (see my online notes for Calculus 2 [MATH 1920])

on [Section 8.7. Improper Integrals](#); see Theorem 2), $\int_0^\infty y^{n-1}e^{-y} dy$ converges when $n \in \mathbb{N}$. So we need to consider the integral when $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is replaced with $\alpha > 0$. With $[\alpha]$ as the greatest integer function (or the “integer floor function”) then for $\alpha \geq 1$ we have $[\alpha] \leq \alpha < [\alpha] + 1$ or $\alpha - 1 \leq [\alpha] \in \mathbb{N}$. So for $x > 0$ we have $0 \leq y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} \leq x^{[\alpha]}e^{-y}$. So $[\alpha] \in \mathbb{N}$ and so $\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} dy$ converges (by the Direct Comparison Test) when $\alpha \geq 1$.

Note 3.3.B. We now consider $0 < \alpha < 1$. Then $-1 < \alpha - 1 < 0$ and so for $y \geq 1$ we have $0 < y^{\alpha-1} \leq 1$. This implies that $0 < y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} \leq e^{-y}$ for $y \geq 1$. So by the Direct Comparison Test,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^\infty y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} dy &\leq \int_1^\infty e^{-y} dy = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_1^b e^{-y} dy \right) \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-e^{-y}) \Big|_1^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} ((-e^{-b}) - (-e^{-1})) = 1/e \end{aligned}$$

and hence

$$\int_1^\infty y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} dy \text{ is convergent.} \quad (*)$$

Finally, we show that $\int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} dy$ converges (notice that

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} (y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y}) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-y}}{y^{1-\alpha}} = \infty$$

since $0 < \alpha < 1$ and so $0 < 1 - \alpha < 1$, and so this is in fact an improper integral).

Now $0 < y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} \leq y^{\alpha-1}e$ for $y \geq 0$, so by the Direct Comparison Test

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1}e^{-y} dy &\leq \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1}e dy = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \left(e \frac{y^\alpha}{\alpha} \right) \Big|_a^1 \\ &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \left(e \frac{(1)^\alpha}{\alpha} - e \frac{(a)^\alpha}{\alpha} \right) = \frac{e}{\alpha} - e \frac{(0)^\alpha}{\alpha} = \frac{e}{\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy \text{ converges when } 0 < \alpha < 1. \quad (**)$$

Therefore, by (*) and (**), we have that

$$\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy = \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy + \int_1^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$$

is convergent (“exists”). Hence $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined for all $0 < \alpha < 1$. Combining this with Note 3.3.A, we see that $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined for all $\alpha > 0$.

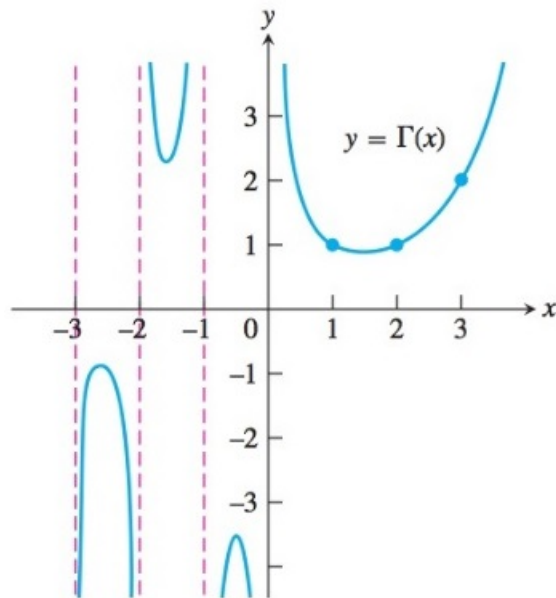
Note. We have

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{(1)-1} e^{-y} dy = \int_0^\infty e^{-y} dy = 1.$$

We can use Integration by Parts to show for $\alpha > 1$ that $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)\Gamma(\alpha - 1)$ (see *Thomas' Calculus, Early Transcendentals*, 14th Edition, “Chapter 8. Techniques of Integration,” “Additional and Advanced Exercises” Number 43). So by induction we have $\Gamma(n) = (n - 1)!$ where $n \in \mathbb{N}$. So the Γ function generalizes the factorial function by extending it from \mathbb{N} to $(0, \infty)$. In fact, the Γ function can be extended to the complex plane where it is defined, except that it has simple poles at $0, -1, -2, \dots$. Formally, it is defined as

$$\Gamma(z) = \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{z}{n}\right)^{-1} e^{z/n}$$

where γ is a constant (called the *Euler constant*) such that $\Gamma(1) = 1$. See my online notes for Complex Analysis 1 and 2 (MATH 5510/5520) on [Section VII.7. The Gamma Function](#) (see in particular Definition VII.7.2 and Theorem VII.7.15). A graph of the Γ function can be found in *Thomas' Calculus, Early Transcendentals* (in the exercise referenced above):



Definition. Continuous random variable X has a Γ -distribution with parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$, if its probability density function is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} & \text{for } 0 < x < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

We denote this by saying that X has a $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ distribution.

Note. We need to confirm that f actually integrates to 1 over $[0, \infty)$ to insure that it is a probability density function. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx & \quad [\text{let } z = x/\beta \text{ and } dx = 1/\beta dx] \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} (\beta z)^{\alpha-1} e^{-z} \beta dz \\ &= \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \int_0^\infty z^{\alpha-1} e^{-z} dz = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \Gamma(\alpha) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Note 3.3.C. The moment generating function of the Γ distribution is

$$\begin{aligned}
 M(t) &= E[e^{tX}] = \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x(1-\beta t)/\beta} dx \\
 &\quad \text{let } y = x(1 - \beta t)/\beta \text{ where } t < 1/\beta, \text{ or } x = \beta y/(1 - \beta t), \\
 &\quad \text{and } dx = \beta/(1 - \beta t) dy \\
 &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \left(\frac{\beta y}{1 - \beta t} \right)^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} \frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t} dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \left(\frac{\beta y}{1 - \beta t} \right)^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} \frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)(1 - \beta t)^\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)(1 - \beta t)^\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha) = \frac{1}{(1 - \beta t)^\alpha} \text{ for } t < 1/\beta.
 \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$M'(t) = \frac{(-\alpha)(-\beta)}{(1 - \beta t)^{\alpha+1}} = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(1 - \beta t)^{\alpha+1}}$$

and

$$M''(t) = \frac{(\alpha\beta)(-(\alpha + 1))(-\beta)}{(1 - \beta t)^{\alpha+2}} = \frac{\alpha(\alpha + 1)\beta^2}{(1 - \beta t)^{\alpha+2}}.$$

By Note 1.9.B, the mean of the Γ distribution is $\mu = M'(0) = \alpha\beta$ and the variance is

$$\sigma^2 = M''(0) - \mu^2 = \alpha(\alpha + 1)\beta^2 - (\alpha\beta)^2 = \alpha\beta^2.$$

Note. Figure 3.3.1 gives six probability density functions for different values of α and β (below).

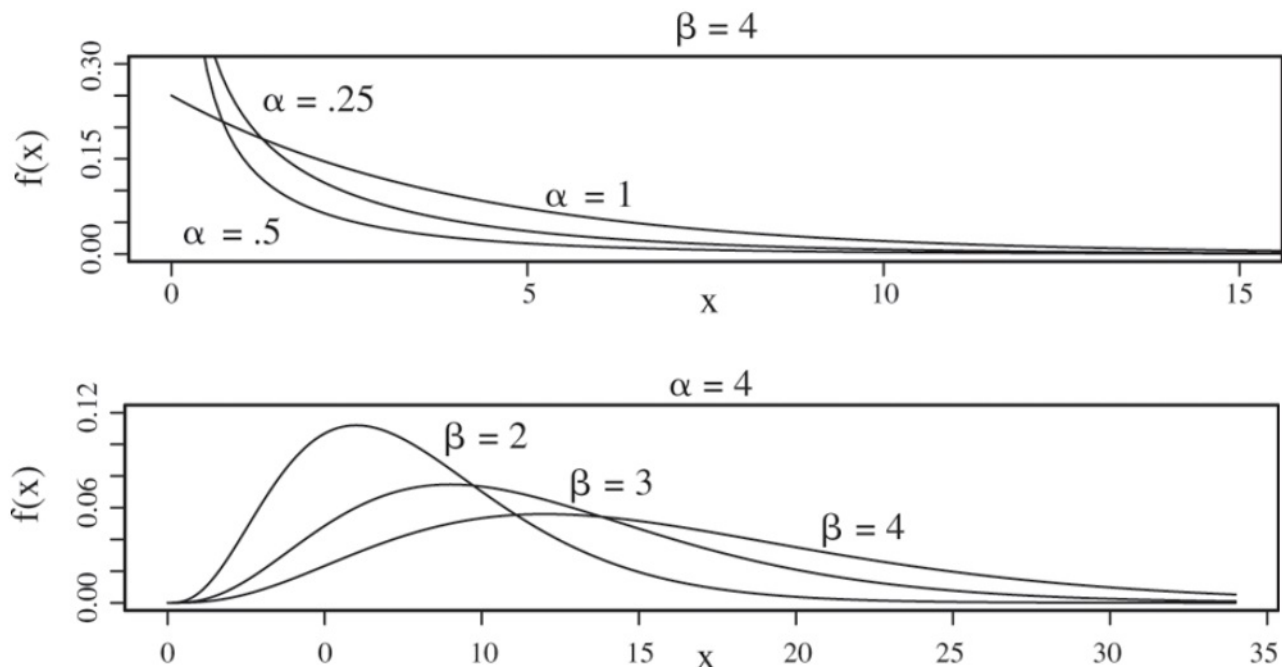


Figure 3.3.1

The appeal of Γ -distribution in applications results from the many different shapes they can take by varying the values of α and β .

Note. Let X denote the time until the failure of a device, and suppose the probability density function is $f(x)$ and the cumulative distribution function is (differentiable) $F(x)$. The “hazard function” of X can be helpful in finding $f(x)$. Let x be in the support of X . Suppose the device has not failed at time x ; that is, suppose $X > x$. The “rate of failure” as a function of time x over the interval x to $x + \Delta$ satisfies

$$r(x) \approx \frac{P(x \leq x < x + \Delta \mid X \geq x)}{\Delta}$$

and

$$r(x) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(x \leq x < x + \Delta \mid X \geq x)}{\Delta} = \frac{P(x \leq x < x + \Delta)}{P(X \geq x)} \frac{1}{\Delta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - F(x)} \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(x \leq X < x + \Delta)}{\Delta} = \frac{F'(x)}{1 - F(x)} = f(x) \frac{1}{1 - F(x)},$$

since $F'(x) = f(x)$ by Note 1.7.A. This function $r(x)$ is the *hazard function* of X at x . So

$$r(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} [\log(1 - F(x))] \text{ or } \log(1 - F(x)) \in -\int r(x) dx$$

(where we treat the indefinite integral as the set of antiderivatives of the integrand), of

$$1 - F(x) \in e^{-\int r(x) dx} \text{ so that } 1 - F(x) = e^{-R(x)} e^C$$

for some $R(x)$ where $R'(x) = r(x)$ and C is some constant. With the support of X as $(0, \infty)$ then we take $F(0) = 0$ as the boundary condition that determines constant C .

Note/Definition. If the hazard rate is constant, say $r(x) = 1/\beta$ for some $\beta > 0$, then an antiderivative of r is $R(x) = x/\beta$ and so $1 - F(x) = e^{-x/\beta} e^C$. Since $F(0) = 0$ then $e^C = 1$ so that $F(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\beta}$ and

$$f(x) = F'(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-x/\beta} & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

This is the $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta) = \Gamma(1, \beta)$ distribution. It is also called the *exponential distribution* with parameter $1/\beta$.

Note. The next result shows that a sum of $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ distributions is additive in the first variable (i.e., the α).

Theorem 3.3.1. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent random variables. Suppose, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ that X_i has a $\Gamma(\alpha_i, \beta)$ distribution. Let $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then Y has a $\Gamma(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta)$ distribution.

Note 3.3.D. The Γ distribution also arises in Poisson processes. For $t > 0$, the X_t denote the number of events that occur in the interval $(0, t]$, and assume that X_t satisfies the axioms of a Poisson processes given in the previous section. Let k be a fixed positive integer and define the (continuous) random variable W_k to be the “waiting time” until the k th event occurs. The range of W_k is $(0, \infty)$. For any $w > 0$, we have $W_k > w$ (that is, it takes longer than time w for k occurrences of the event of interest) if and only if $X_w \leq k - 1$ (that is, at most $k - 1$ events have occurred at time w). Since X_t has a Poisson distribution then

$$P(W_k > w) = P(X_w \leq k - 1) = \sum_{x=0}^{k-1} P(X_w = x) = \sum_{x=0}^{k-1} \frac{(\lambda w)^x e^{-\lambda w}}{x!}.$$

Now $\int_{\lambda w}^{\infty} \frac{z^{k-1} e^{-z}}{(k-1)!} dz = \sum_{x=0}^{k-1} \frac{(\lambda w)^x e^{-\lambda w}}{x!}$ by Exercise 3.3.5. So for $w > 0$, the cumulative distribution function of W_k is

$$\begin{aligned} f_{W_k}(w) &= 1 - P(W_k > w) = 1 - \sum_{x=0}^{k-1} \frac{(\lambda w)^x e^{-\lambda w}}{x!} \\ &= 1 - \int_{\lambda w}^{\infty} \frac{z^{k-1} e^{-z}}{(k-1)!} dz \\ &= 1 - \int \lambda w^\infty \frac{z^{k-1} e^{-z}}{\Gamma(k)} dz \text{ since } \Gamma(k) = (k-1)! \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{N} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(k)}{\Gamma(k)} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^\infty \lambda w^\infty z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \left(\int_0^\infty z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz - \int_{\lambda w}^\infty z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{since } \Gamma(k) = \int_0^{\infty} z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz \text{ by definition} \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^{\lambda w} z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz, \end{aligned}$$

and $F_{W_k}(w) = 0$ for $w \leq 0$. With the substitution $z = \lambda y$ and $dz = \lambda dy$ in the last integral, we have

$$F_{W_k}(w) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^{\lambda w} z^{k-1} e^{-z} dz = \int_0^w \frac{\lambda^k y^{k-1} e^{-\lambda y}}{\Gamma(k)} dy$$

for $w > 0$. So the probability density function of W_k is

$$\begin{aligned} F_{W_k}(w) &= F'_{W_k}(w) \text{ by Note 1.7.A} \\ &= \frac{d}{dw} \left[\int_0^w \frac{\lambda^k y^{k-1} e^{-\lambda y}}{\Gamma(k)} dy \right] = \frac{\lambda^k w^{k-1} e^{-\lambda w}}{\Gamma(k)} \end{aligned}$$

for $w > 0$ and $f_{W_k}(w) = 0$ for $w \leq 0$. Since the Γ -distribution, $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$, has probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} & \text{for } 0 < x < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

then we see that the waiting time until the k th occurrence, W_k , has the Γ -distribution $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta) = \Gamma(k, 1/\lambda)$. In this way, we see the role that a Γ -distribution can play in a Poisson process.

Note. Continuing the previous example on the waiting time of a Poisson process, if we let T_1 be the waiting time until the first event occurs (so $T_1 = W_1$) then the probability density function of T_1 is

$$f_{T_1}(w) = \Gamma(1, 1/\lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda w} & \text{for } 0 < w < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

So the mean of T_1 is $\alpha\beta = 1/\lambda$ and the mean of X_1 is λ . That is, we expect λ events to occur in a unit of time and we *expect* the first event to occur at time $1/\lambda$. With T_i as the time between the occurrence of event $(i - 1)$ and event i , we have that T_i also has a $\Gamma(1, 1/\lambda)$ distribution (this follows from Axioms 1(a) and 2(a) of a Poisson process). Since T_1, T_2, \dots are independent (by Axiom 3) then the waiting time until the k th event satisfies $W_k = T_1 + T_2 + \dots + T_k$. So by Theorem 3.3.1, W_k has a $\Gamma(k, 1/\lambda)$ distribution (as argued above).

Definition. The distribution $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta) = \Gamma(r/2, 2)$ where $r > 0$ is the *chi-square distribution*, denoted χ^2 -distribution, and any probability density function which is the same as the probability density function of $\Gamma(r/2, 2)$ (stated below) is a *chi-square probability function*. Parameter r is the *degrees of freedom* of the χ^2 -distribution. The χ^2 -distribution with r degrees of freedom is denoted $\chi^2(r)$.

Note. If random variable X has a χ^2 -distribution (i.e., a $\Gamma(r/2, 2)$ distribution), then the probability density function is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(r/2)2^{r/2}} x^{r/2-1} e^{-x/2} & \text{for } 0 < x < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

and the moment generating function is $M(t) = \frac{1}{(1 - 2t)^{r/2}}$ for $t < 1/2$. By Note 3.3.C implies that the mean is $M'(0) = \alpha\beta = r$ and the variance is $\sigma^2 = \alpha\beta^2 = 2r$.

Theorem 3.3.2. Let X have a $\chi^2(r)$ distribution. If $k > -r/2$ then $E(X^k)$ exists and is

$$E(X^k) = \frac{2^k \Gamma(r/2 + k)}{\Gamma(r/2)} \text{ if } k > -r/2.$$

Note. The k th moment of the distribution of X is (by definition; see [Section 1.9. Some Special Expectations](#)) $E(X^k)$. So Theorem 3.3.2 (since for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $k > -r/2$) the k th moment of the χ^2 -distribution is $E(X^k) = 2^k \Gamma(r/2 + k) / \Gamma(r/2)$.

Example 3.3.4. Let X have a Γ -distribution with $\alpha = r/2$ (where $r \in \mathbb{N}$) and $\beta > 0$. Define random variable $Y = 2X/\beta$. The moment generating function of Y is

$$\begin{aligned} M_Y(t) &= E(e^{tY}) = E(e^{2tX/\beta}) \\ &= (1 - \beta(2t/\beta))^{-r/2} \text{ by Note 3.3.C} \\ &= (1 - 2yt)^{-r/2}. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that this is the moment generating function of a χ^2 -distribution (a $\Gamma(r/2, 2)$ distribution) as shown above. By the uniqueness of the moment generating function (Theorem 1.9.2), we see that Y has a $\chi^2(r)$ -distribution.

Corollary 3.3.1. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent random variables. Suppose X_i has a $\chi^2(r_i)$ distribution for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Let $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then Y has a $\chi^2(\sum_{i=1}^n r_i)$ -distribution.

Note. The support of any Γ -distribution is the unbounded interval $(0, \infty)$. We now seek a distribution X with support a bounded interval (a, b) . Without loss of generality, we may consider random variable Y with support $(0, 1)$ since then $Y = (X - a)/(b - a)$ (or $X = (b - a)Y + a$). An example of such a distribution is a β -distribution. We approach the β -distributions by considering a pair of independent Γ random variables.

Note 3.3.E. Let X_1 and X_2 be two independent random variables that have Γ distributions and have the joint probability density function

$$h(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x_1^{\alpha-1} x_2^{\beta-1} e^{-x_1-x_2} \text{ for } 0 < x_1 < \infty \text{ and } 0 < x_2 < \infty,$$

and $h(x_1, x_2) = 0$ elsewhere; we also require $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$. Let $Y_1 = X_1 + X_2$ and $Y_2 = X_1/(X_1 + X_2)$. We now show that Y_1 and Y_2 are independent (we will choose the marginal distribution of Y_2 as the β distribution). The support of \mathcal{S} of h is the open first quadrant of the x_1x_2 -plane. Introduce u_1 and u_2 mapping \mathcal{S} into \mathbb{R} as

$$y_1 = u_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2 \text{ and } y_2 = u_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1/(x_1 + x_2).$$

Notice that

$$x_1 = (x_1 + x_2)y_2 = y_1y_2 \text{ and } x_2 = y_1 - x_1 = y_1 - y_1y_2 = y_1(1 - y_2).$$

With

$$x_1 = v_1(y_1, y_2) = y_1y_2 \text{ and } x_2 = v_2(y_1, y_2) = y_1(1 - y_2)$$

we have the Jacobian (or “Jacobian determinant”; see my online Calculus 3 notes

on [Section 15.8. Substitution in Multiple Integrals](#))

$$\begin{aligned} J(x_1, x_2) &= J(v_1, v_2) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} y_2 & y_1 \\ 1 - y_2 & -y_1 \end{vmatrix} = (y_2)(-y_1) - (y_1)(1 - y_2) = -y_1 \neq 0 \text{ on } \mathcal{S}. \end{aligned}$$

So the transformation $(x_1, x_2) \mapsto (y_1, y_2)$ is one-to-one (injective; this is due to the nonzero Jacobian) mapping of \mathcal{S} onto $\mathcal{T} = \{(y_1, y_2) \mid 0 < y_1 < \infty, 0 < y_2 < 1\}$ is the $y_1 y_2$ -plane. Now for $R \subset \mathcal{S}$ a region in the $x_1 x_2$ -plane and $G \subset \mathcal{T}$ a region in the $y_1 y_2$ -plane such that the transformation $(x_1, x_2) \mapsto (y_1, y_2)$ maps R onto G then

$$\iint_R h(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = \iint_G h(v_1(y_1, y_2), v_2(y_1, y_2)) |J(v_1, v_2)| dv_1 dv_2$$

provided h , v_1 , and v_2 have continuous partial derivatives and $J(v_1, v_2)$ is zero only at isolated points (again, see my online Calculus 3 notes on [Section 15.8. Substitution in Multiple Integrals](#)). So we get the probability density function of Y_1 and Y_2 can be obtained from the joint probability density function of X_1 and X_2 by replacing x_1 and $y_1 y_2$, x_2 with $y_1(1 - y_2)$, $x_1 + x_2$ with y_1 , and introducing $|J(v_1, v_2)| = |-y_1| = y_1$. This gives the joint probability density function of Y_1 and Y_2 on its support of

$$\begin{aligned} g(y_1, y_2) &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} (y_1 y_2)^{\alpha-1} (y_1(1 - y_2))^{\beta-1} e^{-y_1} | -y_1 | \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{y_2^{\alpha-1} (1-y_2)^{\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y_1^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-y_1} & \text{for } 0 < y_1 < \infty, 0 < y_2 < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Since g can be written as a product of a nonnegative function of y_1 with a nonnegative function of y_2 , then by Theorem 2.4.1 we have that Y_1 and Y_2 are independent.

The marginal probability density function of Y_2 (by Note 2.1.C) is

$$\begin{aligned} g_2(y_2) &= \int_0^\infty \frac{y_2^{\alpha-1}(1-y_2)^{\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y_1^{\alpha-\beta-1} e^{-y_1} dy_1 = \frac{y_2^{\alpha-1}(1-y_2)^{\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^\infty y_1^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-y_1} dy_1 \\ &= \frac{y_2^{\alpha-1}(1-y_2)^{\beta-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \Gamma(\alpha+\beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y_2^{\alpha-1}(1-y_2)^{\beta-1} & \text{for } 0 < y_2 < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

As observed above, Y_1 and Y_2 are independent, so by Definition 2.4.1 the joint probability density function and the marginal probability density functions are related as $g(y_1, y_2) = g_1(y_1)g_2(y_2)$ so it must be that the probability density function of Y_1 is

$$g_1(y_1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} y_1^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-y_1} & \text{for } 0 < y_1 < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Notice that $g_1(y_1)$ is the $\Gamma(\alpha + \beta, 1)$ distribution. But it is $g_1(y_2)$ that we are interested in.

Definition. A random variable Y with probability density function

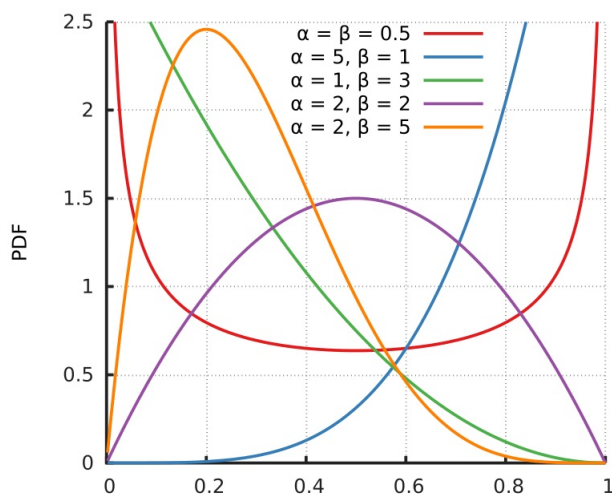
$$g(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y^{\alpha-1}(1-y)^{\beta-1} & \text{for } 0 < y < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

is a *beta distribution* (or “ β distribution”) with parameters α and β .

Note. In Exercise 3.3.A, it is to be shown that the mean and variance of a β distribution with parameters α and β are

$$\mu = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \text{ and } \sigma^2 = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta + 1)(\alpha + \beta)^2}.$$

Note. Here is the shape of the beta distribution for various values of α and β . This image is from the [Wikipedia webpage on the beta distribution](#).



Example 3.3.6. (Dirichlet Distribution) Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{k+1} be independent random variables, each having a Γ distribution with $\beta = 1$. The joint probability density function is then

$$h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+1}) = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha_i)} x_i^{\alpha_i-1} e^{-x_i} & \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Let $Y_i = \frac{X_i}{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{k+1}}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, and $Y_{k+1} = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{k+1}$ denote $k + 1$ new random variables. Now the transformation $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+1}) \mapsto (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{k+1})$ maps set

$$\mathcal{A} = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+1}) \mid 0 < x_i < \infty \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k + 1\}$$

onto set

$$\mathcal{B} = \{(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{k+1}) \mid 0 < y_i < 1 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k, \\ y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_k < 1, \text{ and } 0 < y_{k+1} < \infty\}.$$

Since $y_{k+1} = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_{k+1}$ then $x_i = y_i y_{k+1}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= y_{k+1} - x_1 - x_2 - \cdots - x_k = y_{k+1} - y_1 y_{k+1} - y_2 y_{k+1} - \cdots - y_k y_{k+1} \\ &= y_{k+1}(1 - y_1 - y_2 - \cdots - y_k). \end{aligned}$$

With $x_i = v_i(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{k+1}) = y_i y_{k+1}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and

$$x_{k+1} = v_{k+1}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{k+1}) = y_{k+1}(1 - y_1 - y_2 - \cdots - y_k),$$

we have the Jacobian

$$\begin{aligned} J(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+1}) &= J(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k+1}) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_{k+1}} \\ \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y_{k+1}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial v_{k+1}}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial v_{k+1}}{\partial y_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial v_{k+1}}{\partial y_{k+1}} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} y_{k+1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & y_1 \\ 0 & y_{k+1} & \cdots & 0 & y_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & y_{k+1} & y_k \\ -y_{k+1} & -y_{k+1} & \cdots & -y_{k+1} & (1 - y_1 - y_2 - \cdots - y_k) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} y_{k+1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & y_1 \\ 0 & y_{k+1} & \cdots & 0 & y_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & y_{k+1} & y_k \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(by adding each of rows 1} \\ \text{through } k \text{ to row } k+1) \end{array} \\ &= y_{k+1}^k \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

As in Note 3.3.E, the joint probability density function of Y_1, Y_2, \dots, T_{k+1} can be

obtained from the joint probability density function of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{k+1} by replacing x_i by $y_i y_{k+1}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, by replacing x_{k+1} by $y_{k+1}(1 - y_1 - y_2 - \dots - y_k)$, and by introducing a factor of $|J(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k+1})| = |y_{k+1}^k| = y_{k+1}^k$. This gives the joint probability density function of Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{k+1} on its support \mathcal{B} is

$$\begin{aligned} & \{(y_1 y_{k+1})^{\alpha_1-1} (y_2 y_{k+1})^{\alpha_2-1} \dots (y_k y_{k+1})^{\alpha_k-1} y_{k+1} (1 - y_1 - y_2 - \dots - y_k)^{\alpha_{k+1}-1} \\ & \times e^{-y_1 y_{k+1}} e^{-y_2 y_{k+1}} \dots e^{-y_k y_{k+1}} e^{-y_{k+1}(1-y_1-y_2-\dots-y_k)} y_{k+1}^k\} / (\Gamma(\alpha_1)\Gamma(\alpha_2)\dots\Gamma(\alpha_{k+1})) \\ & = \frac{y_{k+1}^{\alpha_1+\alpha_2+\dots+\alpha_{k+1}-1} y_1^{\alpha_1-1} y_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots y_k^{\alpha_k-1} (1 - y_1 - y_2 - \dots - y_k)^{\alpha_{k+1}-1} e^{-y_{k+1}}}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)\Gamma(\alpha_2)\dots\Gamma(\alpha_{k+1})}; \end{aligned}$$

and the joint probability density function is 0 off of \mathcal{B} . Integrating out y_{k+1} and using the fact that

$$\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k+1}) = \int_0^\infty y_{k+1}^{\alpha_1+\alpha_2+\dots+\alpha_{k+1}-1} e^{-y_{k+1}} dy_{k+1}$$

we have the joint probability density function of Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k as

$$g(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k+1})}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)\Gamma(\alpha_2)\dots\Gamma(\alpha_{k+1})} y_1^{\alpha_1-1} y_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots y_k^{\alpha_k-1} (1 - y_1 - y_2 - \dots - y_k)^{\alpha_{k+1}-1}$$

where $0 < y_i < 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and $y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_k < 1$. Also $g(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = 0$ elsewhere. This is the Dirichlet probability density function.

Definition. Random variables Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k that have a joint probability density function of

$$g(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k+1})}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)\Gamma(\alpha_2)\dots\Gamma(\alpha_{k+1})} y_1^{\alpha_1-1} y_2^{\alpha_2-1} \dots y_k^{\alpha_k-1} (1 - y_1 - y_2 - \dots - y_k)^{\alpha_{k+1}-1}$$

where $0 < y_i < 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and $y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_k < 1$, and we have $g(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = 0$ elsewhere, have the *Dirichlet probability density function* with parameters $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k+1}$ where $\alpha_i > 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k + 1$.

Note. If $k = 1$ then the Dirichlet probability density function is of the form $\frac{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)\Gamma(\alpha_2)} y_1^{\alpha_1-1} (1 - y_1)^{\alpha_2-1}$, which is a β distribution (with $\alpha = \alpha_1$ and $\beta = \alpha_2$).

Note. The Dirac probability density function should not be confused with the Dirac *delta* distribution. See my online notes for Real Analysis 1 (MATH 5210) on [Supplement. The Dirac Delta Function, A Cautionary Tale](#) for more details.

Revised: 7/14/2021