12. Joint densities and independence (Friday Feb 5) LM 3.7

12.1 Joint probability mass functions (LM P.203-5)

If X and Y are discrete random variables the joint pmf is $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X = x, y = y)$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Then the *marginal pmfs* of X and of Y are

$$
f_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_{y \in Y} f_{X,Y}(x, y), \text{ and } f_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in X} f_{X,Y}(x, y).
$$

Note $f_X(x) > 0$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and $f_Y(y) > 0$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, but $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ can be 0 for some $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $y \in \mathcal{Y}$.

12.2 Independence of two discrete random variables

X and Y are independent if for any subsets A and B of \Re , $P(X \in A \cap Y \in B) = P(X \in A) \times P(Y \in B)$. This is equivalent to $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) \cdot P(Y = y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$. Clearly this is *necessary*: take $A = \{x\}$ and $B = \{y\}.$ Conversely, if $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$, then for any A, B:

$$
P(X \in A, Y \in B) = \sum_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in B} f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \sum_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in B} f_X(x) f_Y(y)
$$

=
$$
\sum_{x \in A} f_X(x) \sum_{y \in B} f_Y(y) = P(X \in A) P(Y \in B)
$$

Note this must hold for all x, y . Thus the ranges of the r.v.s cannot depend on each other.

12.3 Joint and marginal (cumulative) distribution functions

For two random variables X and Y the joint cdf is $F_{X,Y}(a, b) = P(X \le a, Y \le b), -\infty < a, b < \infty$. Note that the *marginal cdfs* of X and of Y are given by

$$
F_X(a) = P(X \le a) = P(X \le a, Y < \infty) = P(\lim_{b \to \infty} \{w; X \le a, Y \le b\})
$$

=
$$
\lim_{b \to \infty} P(X \le a, Y \le b) = \lim_{b \to \infty} F_{X,Y}(a, b) \equiv F_{X,Y}(a, \infty)
$$

$$
F_Y(b) = P(Y \le b) = \lim_{a \to \infty} F_{X,Y}(a, b) \equiv F_{X,Y}(\infty, b)
$$

Just as in 1 dimension, we can get all other probabilities from $F_{X,Y}$. For example :

$$
P(a_1 < X \le a_2, \ b_1 < Y \le b_2) \quad = \quad F_{X,Y}(a_2, b_2) - F_{X,Y}(a_1, b_2) \quad - \quad F_{X,Y}(a_2, b_1) \quad + \quad F_{X,Y}(a_1, b_1)
$$

12.4 Joint and marginal probability density functions

(i) Random variables X and Y are jointly continuous if there is a function $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ defined for all real x and y, such that for every (?) set C in \mathbb{R}^2 , $P((X,Y) \in C) = \int \int_{(x,y) \in C} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy$. Then $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ is the *joint pdf* of X and Y.

(ii)

$$
F_{X,Y}(a,b) = P(X \in (-\infty, a], Y \in (-\infty, b]) = \int_{y=-\infty}^{b} \int_{x=-\infty}^{a} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy
$$

so $f_{X,Y}(a,b) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial a \partial b} F_{X,Y}(a,b)$

(iii)

iii)
$$
P(X \in A) = P(X \in A, Y \in (-\infty, \infty]) = \int_{X \in A} \int_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy = \int_{X \in A} f_X(x) dx
$$

where $f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy$

So $f_X(x)$ is marginal pdf of X and similarly marginal pdf of Y is $f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx$

13. Likelihood: the pdf of an n-sample (LM 3.7, 5.2)

13.1 Independence of two r.vs: continuous case (LM 3.7)

With $A = (-\infty, x)$ and $B = (-\infty, y)$ we see $F_{X,Y}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$.

As with the 1-dimensional case, this is also sufficient:

X and Y are independent if and only if $F_{X,Y}(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$ for all x, y .

Differentiating, we see this means $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$, and conversely integrating we see these are equivalent. Note again it must hold for all x , y : the ranges of the r.vs cannot depend on each other.

X and Y are independent if and only if $f_{X,Y} = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$ for all x, y .

Also, if $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = g_1(x)g_2(y)$ for all x, y , then X and Y are independent, and $f_X(x) \propto g_1(x)$, $f_Y(y) \propto g_2(y)$.

13.2 The pdf (discrete or continuous) of an n-sample

All the above extends from 2 random variables to any number.

Suppose we have an *n*-sample from the density (discrete or continuous) $f(x; \theta)$.

That is, $X_1, ..., X_n$ are i.i.d and each X_i has pdf $f(x; \theta)$.

Then the joint density of $(X_1, ..., X_n)$ is

$$
f_{(X_1,...,X_n)}(x_1,x_2,...,x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta)
$$

For example: $X_1, ..., X_n \sim \mathcal{E}(\lambda)$; $f_{(X_1,...,X_n)}(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda e^{-\lambda x_i} = \lambda^n \exp(-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)$. 13.3 The likelihood (LM 5.2)

Recall we have data random variables which we model as having some probabilities which depend on θ . Recall, our goal is to make inferences about θ .

The pdf of the data outcomes is the only "connection" between our data and θ .

The idea of *likelihood* is to use the probabilities of data under model directly.

Definition: If we have data y which is the outcome of data random variable(s) Y, then the *likelihood function* is $L(\theta) = f_Y(y; \theta)$

The *likelihood function* is simply the probability (density) of the data, considered as a function of θ . The idea is that values of θ which give high probability to the data values we observe are more likely – they provide better explanations of the data.

Note the pdf considers each θ , and the relative probabilities of different data outcomes y.

The likliehood function compares different values of θ as explanations of specific observed data y.

13.4 The likelihood and log-likelihood based on an n-sample (LM 5.2)

Suppose $Y_1, ..., Y_n$ are the data random variables for an *n*-sample from $f(y; \theta)$, and that the ourcome of Y_i is y_i $(i = 1, ..., n)$. Then

$$
L_n(\theta) = f_{Y_1,...,Y_n}(y_1,...,y_n;\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i; \theta)
$$

Products are messy: sums are neater. So instead of the likelihood we often consider the log-likelihood

$$
\ell_n(\theta) = \log_e L_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log_e f(y_i; \theta)
$$

For example: $\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$: $L_n(\lambda) = \lambda^n \exp(-\lambda \sum_i x_i)$ and $\ell_n(\lambda) = n \log(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_i x_i$.