#### 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 pmf*s of X and of Y are

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

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 :

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

## 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  $\Re^2$ ,  $P((X,Y) \in C) = \int \int_{(x,y)\in C} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy$ . 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)

<sup>111)</sup> 
$$P(X \in A) = P(X \in A, Y \in (-\infty, \infty]) = \int_{X \in A} \int_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_{X \in A} f_X(x) \, dx$$
  
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  $\theta$ . Recall, our goal is to make inferences about  $\theta$ .

The pdf of the data outcomes is the only "connection" between our data and  $\theta$ .

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  $\theta$ . The idea is that values of  $\theta$  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  $\theta$ , and the relative probabilities of different data outcomes y.

The likelehood function compares different values of  $\theta$  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  $\ell_n(\lambda) = n \log(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_i x_i$ .