

MTH 464/564

Lectures 1-6

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- Joint probability mass function.
- Joint probability density function.
- Independent random variables.
- Covariance and correlation.
- Sums of random variables.
- Gamma and beta random variables.
- Poisson process.

- Marginal distributions from joint distribution.
- Functions of random variables.
- Indicator variables.
- Multivariate normal distribution.

Joint probability distribution.

Definition. Function $p(x, y)$ is said to be a joint probability mass function of discrete random variables X and Y if

$$p(x, y) = P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\})$$

for all value x and y .

Joint probability mass function is similarly defined for n discrete random variables.

Properties: (i) $p(x, y) \geq 0$ (ii) $\sum_{x,y} p(x, y) = 1$.

Example. Consider a joint probability mass function

$$p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad p(2, 0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Joint probability distribution.

Definition. Function $f(x, y)$ is said to be a joint probability density function of continuous random variables X and Y if

$$P((X, Y) \in A) = \iint_A f(x, y) dx dy$$

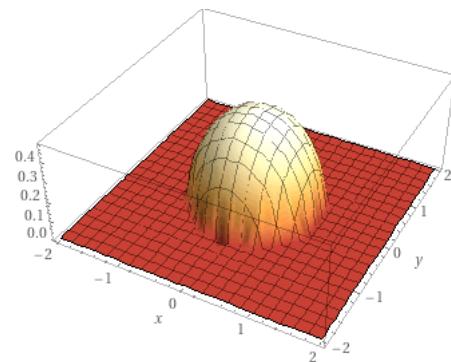
for each domain $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.

Joint probability density function is similarly defined for n continuous random variables.

Properties: (i) $f(x, y) \geq 0$ (ii) $\iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$.

Example. Consider the joint probability density function

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 1. \end{cases}$$



Independent random variables.

Definition. Random variables X and Y are said to be **independent** if the events

$$\{a \leq X \leq b\} \text{ and } \{c \leq Y \leq d\}$$

are independent, for any a, b, c , and d . Namely,

$$P(\{a \leq X \leq b\} \cap \{c \leq Y \leq d\}) = P(a \leq X \leq b) P(c \leq Y \leq d)$$

Similarly for n independent random variables.

- If X and Y are discrete random variables with probability mass functions p_x and p_y respectively. They are independent if and only if

$$P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\}) = P(X = x) P(Y = y)$$

for all x and y .

Thus, X and Y are independent if and only if $p(x, y) = p_x(x)p_y(y)$

Independent random variables.

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$$P(\{a \leq X \leq b\} \cap \{c \leq Y \leq d\}) = P(a \leq X \leq b) P(c \leq Y \leq d)$$

Similarly for n independent random variables.

- If X and Y are continuous random variables with probability density functions f_x and f_y respectively. They are independent if and only if

$$\int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \int_a^b f_x(x) dx \int_c^d f_y(y) dy$$

Thus, X and Y are independent if and only if $f(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y)$.

Sums of random variables.

- If X and Y are discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$, then their sum, $Z = X + Y$ is also a discrete random variable with probability mass function

$$p_z(a) = \sum_{x,y: x+y=a} p(x, y) = \sum_x p(x, a-x)$$

- If X and Y are continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f(x, y)$, then $Z = X + Y$ is also a continuous random variable with its density f_z given as

$$f_z(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, a-x) dx$$

Indeed, $F_z(a) = P(X+Y \leq a) = \iint_{(x,y): x+y \leq a} f(x, y) dy dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-x} f(x, y) dy dx$

$$f_z(a) = \frac{d}{da} F_z(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d}{da} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{a-x} f(x, y) dy \right) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, a-x) dx$$

Sums of independent random variables.

- If X and Y are independent discrete random variables with probability mass functions $p_x(x) = P(X = x)$ and $p_y(y) = P(Y = y)$, then their sum, $Z = X + Y$ is also a discrete random variable with probability mass function

$$p_z(a) = \sum_{x,y: x+y=a} p_x(x) p_y(y)$$

which can be rewritten as a **convolution sum**:

$$p_z(a) = \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(a - x)$$

- If X and Y are independent continuous random variables with density functions f_x and f_y , then $Z = X + Y$ is also a continuous random variable with its density f_Z given as a **convolution integral**,

$$f_z(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) f_y(a - x) dx$$

Sums of independent random variables.

$$p_{x+y}(a) = \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(a-x)$$

- **Example.** Let X be binomial with parameters (n_1, p) and Y be binomial with parameters (n_2, p) . Then their probability mass functions are

$$p_x(k) = \binom{n_1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n_1-k} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n_1$$

and

$$p_y(k) = \binom{n_2}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n_2-k} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n_2$$

If X and Y are independent, then their sum will have the following distribution: for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n_1 + n_2$,

$$p_{x+y}(j) = \sum_k p_x(k) p_y(j-k) = \binom{n_1 + n_2}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n_1+n_2-j} \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, \dots, n_1 + n_2$$

Thus $X + Y$ is binomial with parameters $(n_1 + n_2, p)$.

Sums of independent random variables.

$$p_{x+y}(a) = \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(a-x)$$

- **Example.** Let X be Poisson with parameter λ_1 and Y be Poisson with parameter λ_2 . Then their probability mass functions are

$$p_x(k) = e^{-\lambda_1} \frac{\lambda_1^k}{k!} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

and

$$p_y(k) = e^{-\lambda_2} \frac{\lambda_2^k}{k!} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

If X and Y are independent, then their sum will have the following distribution: for $n = 0, 1, \dots$,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{x+y}(n) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_x(k) p_y(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^n e^{-\lambda_1} \frac{\lambda_1^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda_2} \frac{\lambda_2^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} \\ &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!(n-k)!} \lambda_1^k \lambda_2^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Sums of independent random variables.

$$p_{x+y}(a) = \sum_x p_x(x) p_y(a-x)$$

- **Example (continued).** Let X be Poisson with parameter λ_1 and Y be Poisson with parameter λ_2 . If X and Y are independent, then their sum will have the following distribution: for $n = 0, 1, \dots$,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{x+y}(n) &= e^{-(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!(n-k)!} \lambda_1^k \lambda_2^{n-k} = \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)}}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \lambda_1^k \lambda_2^{n-k} \\ &= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)}}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \lambda_1^k \lambda_2^{n-k} = e^{-(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)} \frac{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^n}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

by the Binomial Theorem.

Hence, $X + Y$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2$.

Sums of independent random variables.

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) f_y(a-x) dx$$

- **Example.** Let X and Y each be uniform over $[0, 1]$. Then each will be distributed according to the following probability density function:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If X and Y are independent, then their sum will have the following continuous distribution:

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) f(a-x) dx = \int_0^1 f(a-x) dx$$

Observe that $\int_0^1 f(a-x) dx = 0$ whenever $a < 0$ or $a > 2$.

There are two more cases: $0 \leq a \leq 1$ and $1 \leq a \leq 2$.

Sums of independent random variables.

- **Example (continued).** $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

If $0 \leq a \leq 1$,

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \int_0^1 f(a-x)dx = \int_0^a dx = a$$

Now, if $1 \leq a \leq 2$,

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \int_0^1 f(a-x)dx = \int_{a-1}^1 dx = 2 - a$$

Therefore,

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } 0 \leq a \leq 1 \\ 2 - a & \text{if } 1 \leq a \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Properties of convolutions.

Convolution of functions f and g is defined

$$f \circ g(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) g(a - x) \, dx$$

Another notation: $f * g$.

- Convolution is commutative: $f \circ g(a) = g \circ f(a)$
- Convolution is associative: $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$
- Convolution is distributive: $(f + g) \circ h = f \circ h + g \circ h$
- $f \circ (cg) = c(f \circ g)$ for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$
- If you are familiar with Fourier transforms: $\widehat{f \circ g}(\xi) = \widehat{f}(\xi)\widehat{g}(\xi)$

Sums of random variables.

- **Theorem.** Expectation of a sum of random variables is equal to the sum of expectations.

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

Notice: we don't require X and Y to be independent here. The above is true even if they are dependent random variables.

- **Theorem.** If X and Y are independent random variables then,

$$\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$$

Here we need independence.

- **Example.** Let X be Poisson with parameter λ_1 and Y be Poisson with parameter λ_2 . For the case when X and Y are independent, we proved that $X + Y$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2$. Then

$$E[X] + E[Y] = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = E[X + Y]$$

$$\text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \text{Var}(X + Y)$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Example.** Let X and Y each be uniform over $[0, 1]$. For the case when X and Y are independent, we proved that $X + Y$ is distributed according to

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } 0 \leq a \leq 1 \\ 2 - a & \text{if } 1 \leq a \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Check that

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

and

$$\text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) = \text{Var}(X + Y)$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Example (continued).** Let X and Y each be uniform over $[0, 1]$. For the case when X and Y are independent, we proved that $X + Y$ is distributed according to

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } 0 \leq a \leq 1 \\ 2 - a & \text{if } 1 \leq a \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here $E[X] = E[Y] = \int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$ while

$$E[X + Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{x+y}(x) dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx + \int_1^2 x(2-x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \left[x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_1^2 = \frac{1}{3} + 4 - \frac{8}{3} - 1 + \frac{1}{3} = 1 = E[X] + E[Y]$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Example (continued).** Let X and Y each be uniform over $[0, 1]$. For the case when X and Y are independent, we proved that $X + Y$ is distributed according to

$$f_{x+y}(a) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } 0 \leq a \leq 1 \\ 2-a & \text{if } 1 \leq a \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = \int_0^1 x^2 dx - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12} = \text{Var}(Y)$

while $E[X + Y] = 1$, and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X+Y) &= E[(X+Y)^2] - 1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f_{x+y}(x) dx - 1 = \int_0^1 x^3 dx + \int_1^2 x^2(2-x) dx - 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} + \left[\frac{2x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} \right]_1^2 - 1 = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{16}{3} - 4 - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{4} - 1 = \frac{1}{6} = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) \end{aligned}$$

Gamma function.

The gamma function $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{\alpha-1} dx \quad \text{for all real } \alpha > 0.$$

Integration by parts yields $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha\Gamma(\alpha)$. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(\alpha + 1) &= \int_0^\infty e^{-y} y^\alpha dy = \int_0^\infty (-e^{-y})' y^\alpha dy = (-e^{-y} y^\alpha) \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty (-e^{-y}) (y^\alpha)' dy \\ &= 0 + \int_0^\infty e^{-y} \alpha y^{\alpha-1} dy = \alpha\Gamma(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, $\Gamma(k) = (k-1)!$ for all integer $k > 0$ as

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-y} dy = 1 = 0! \quad \text{and recursively,}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(k) &= (k-1) \cdot \Gamma(k-1) = (k-1)(k-2) \cdot \Gamma(k-2) = \dots = (k-1)(k-2) \cdots 1 \cdot \Gamma(1) \\ &= (k-1)! \cdot \Gamma(1) = (k-1)! \end{aligned}$$

Gamma function and gamma distribution.

The **gamma function** $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{\alpha-1} dx$$

for all real $\alpha > 0$. Integration by parts yields

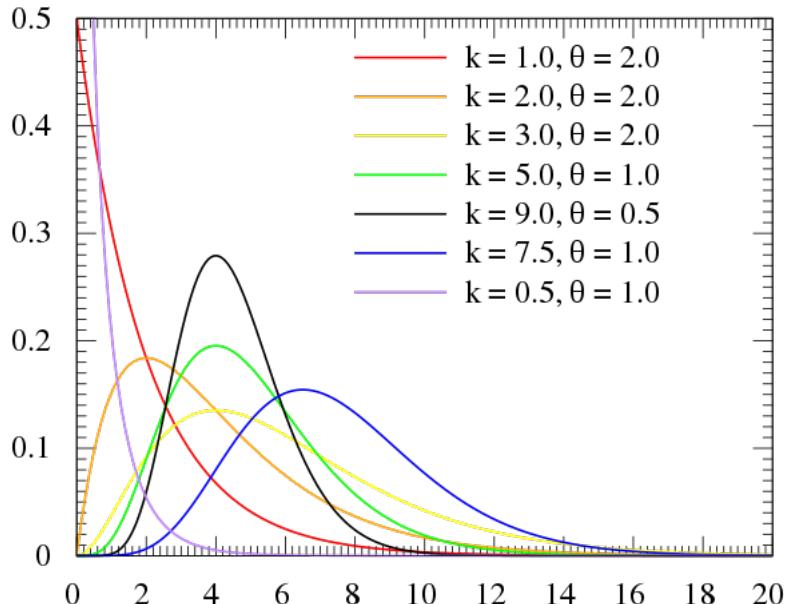
$$\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha \Gamma(\alpha).$$

In particular, $\Gamma(k) = (k - 1)!$ for all integer $k > 0$.

For given $\alpha, \lambda > 0$, a gamma distributed random variable (aka **gamma random variable**) with parameters (α, λ) is defined by its probability density function

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

Gamma distribution.



Source: Wikipedia.org

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

Beta function and beta random variable.

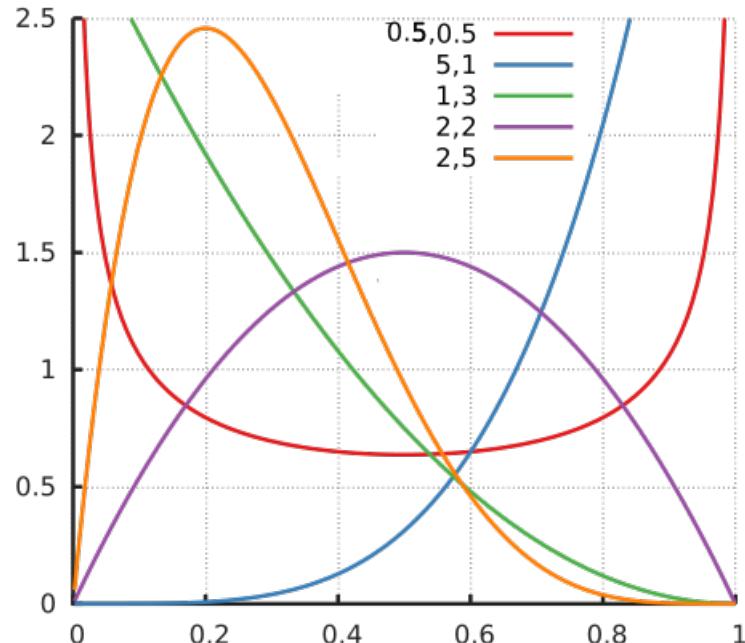
The **beta function** $\mathcal{B}(a, b)$ is defined as

$$\mathcal{B}(a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)} = \int_0^1 x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}dx$$

for all $a > 0$ and $b > 0$.

For given $a, b > 0$, a beta distributed random variable (aka **beta random variable**) with parameters (a, b) is defined by its probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\mathcal{B}(a,b)} x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1} & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Beta distribution.

Source: Wikipedia.org

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{B(a,b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Sums of independent random variables.

- **Example.** Let X and Y be independent gamma random variables with the respective parameters (α, λ) and (β, λ) . Their sum will have the following continuous distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{x+y}(a) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) f_y(a-x) dx = \int_0^a \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} (\lambda x)^{\alpha-1} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\beta)} \lambda e^{-\lambda(a-x)} (\lambda(a-x))^{\beta-1} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^a \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^{\alpha-1} \left(\frac{a-x}{a}\right)^{\beta-1} \frac{dx}{a} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1} (1-y)^{\beta-1} dy = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \lambda e^{-\lambda a} (\lambda a)^{\alpha+\beta-1}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $X + Y$ is a **gamma random variable** with parameters $(\alpha + \beta, \lambda)$.

Note: The above computations yield $\frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)} = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx$.

Sums of independent random variables.

- **Example.** Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent exponential random variables with parameter $\lambda > 0$. Then

$$T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, \dots$$

is a gamma random variable with parameters (n, λ) .

Indeed, each X_j is a gamma random variable with parameters $(1, \lambda)$.

Thus, $X_1 + X_2$ is a gamma random variable with parameters $(2, \lambda)$.

Hence, $X_1 + X_2 + X_3$ is a gamma random variable with parameters $(3, \lambda)$.

Next, $X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_4$ is a gamma random variable with parameters $(4, \lambda)$.

And so on.

Recursively (via induction), $T_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ is a gamma random variable with parameters (n, λ) with density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} (\lambda x)^{n-1} \quad \text{for } x \geq 0.$$

Poisson process.

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent exponential random variables with parameter $\lambda > 0$.

- **Arrival times:** Let $T_0 = 0$ and $T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$.
- **Interarrival times:** $X_n = T_n - T_{n-1}$
- Poisson process with intensity λ is defined as
$$N(t) = \max\{n \geq 0 : T_n \leq t\} \quad (t \geq 0).$$

Here, $N(t)$ counts the number of arrivals between 0 and t .

- The increment $N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0)$ counts the number of arrivals between t_0 and $t_0 + L$.
- Because of **memorylessness** property of exponential random variables X_j , the increment $N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0)$ is distributed as $N(L)$.
- $N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0)$ is a Poisson random variable with parameter λL :
$$P(N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0) = k) = e^{-\lambda L} \frac{(\lambda L)^k}{k!} \quad (k = 0, 1, \dots).$$

Poisson process.

$$P\left(N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0) = k\right) = e^{-\lambda L} \frac{(\lambda L)^k}{k!} \quad (k = 0, 1, \dots).$$

Proof: Recall $N(t_0 + L) - N(t_0)$ is distributed as $N(L)$.

Now, since

$$\{T_k \leq L\} = \{T_k \leq L < T_{k+1}\} \cup \{T_{k+1} \leq L\},$$

$$P(N(L) = k) = P(T_k \leq L < T_{k+1}) = P(T_k \leq L) - P(T_{k+1} \leq L)$$

Since $T_k = X_1 + \dots + X_k$ is a gamma random variable with parameters (k, λ) ,

$$P(N(L) = k) = \int_0^L \frac{\lambda^k x^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} e^{-\lambda x} dx - \int_0^L \frac{\lambda^{k+1} x^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

Integration by parts:

$$\int_0^L \frac{x^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} e^{-\lambda x} dx = e^{-\lambda x} \frac{x^k}{k!} \Big|_{x=0}^L + \int_0^L \frac{x^k}{k!} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

Plugging in: $P(N(L) = k) = e^{-\lambda L} \frac{(\lambda L)^k}{k!}$

Marginal distributions from joint distribution.

- Suppose X and Y are discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$ and marginal probability mass functions p_x and p_y respectively. Then

$$p_x(x) = \sum_{y: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad p_y(y) = \sum_{x: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y)$$

Indeed, for all x ,

$$p_x(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_y P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\}) = \sum_y p(x, y).$$

Similarly, for all y ,

$$p_y(y) = P(Y = y) = \sum_x P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\}) = \sum_x p(x, y).$$

Marginal distributions from joint distribution.

- Suppose X and Y are continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f(x, y)$ and marginal probability density functions f_x and f_y respectively. Then

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$

Indeed, for all a , the cumulative distribution function

$$F_x(a) = P(X \leq a) = P(\{X \leq a\} \cap \{-\infty < Y < \infty\}) = \int_{-\infty}^a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy dx.$$

Thus, by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we have

$$f_x(a) = \frac{d}{da} F_x(a) = \frac{d}{da} \int_{-\infty}^a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(a, y) dy.$$

Similarly, for all a ,

$$f_y(a) = \frac{d}{da} F_y(a) = \frac{d}{da} \int_{-\infty}^a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, a) dx.$$

Marginal distributions from joint distribution.

- Suppose X and Y are discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$ and marginal probability mass functions p_x and p_y respectively. Then

$$p_x(x) = \sum_{y: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad p_y(y) = \sum_{x: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y)$$

- Example.** Consider a joint probability mass function

$$p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p(2, 0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p(2, 3) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Then,

$$p_x(1) = p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p_x(2) = p(2, 0) + p(2, 3) = \frac{5}{12}, \quad p_x(3) = p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

and

$$p_y(0) = p(2, 0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p_y(2) = p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p_y(3) = p(2, 3) + p(3, 3) = \frac{7}{12}$$

Marginal distributions from joint distribution.

- Suppose X and Y are continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f(x, y)$ and marginal probability density functions f_x and f_y respectively. Then

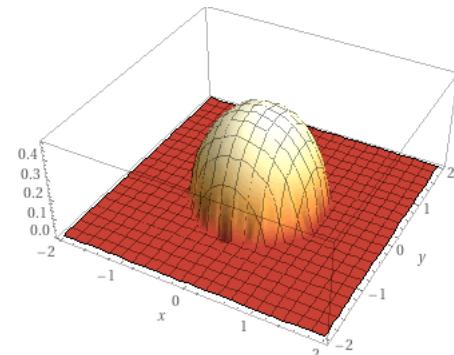
$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$

- Example.** Consider the joint probability density function

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 1. \end{cases}$$

Then, for a given $x \in (-1, 1)$,

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = \frac{3}{2\pi} \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} dy$$



- Example (Cont.).

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 1. \end{cases}$$

Then, for a given $x \in (-1, 1)$,

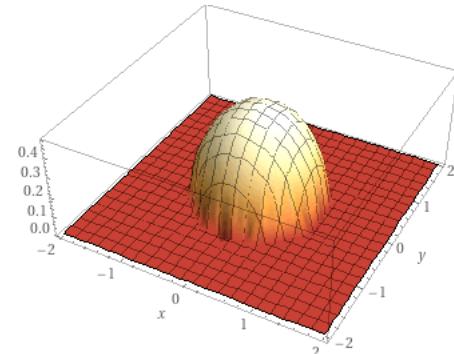
$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = \frac{3}{2\pi} \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} dy = \frac{3}{2\pi} (1 - x^2) \int_{-1}^{1} \sqrt{1 - z^2} dz$$

after substituting $z = y/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$. Thus, since $\int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1 - z^2} dz = \frac{\pi}{2}$

is the area of the unit semicircle, we have

$$f_x(x) = \frac{3}{4}(1 - x^2) \quad \text{for } x \in (-1, 1).$$

Similarly, $f_y(y) = \frac{3}{4}(1 - y^2)$ for $y \in (-1, 1)$. Are X and Y independent?



Functions of random variables.

Recall:

- **Theorem.** Let X be a discrete random variable characterized by its probability mass function $p_x(x)$. Then, for any real valued function g , $g(X)$ will also be a **random variable**, and

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x: p_X(x) > 0} g(x) p_x(x)$$

- **Theorem.** Let X be a continuous random variable characterized by its probability density function $f(x)$. Then, for any real valued function g , $g(X)$ will also be a **random variable**, and

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx$$

Functions of random variables.

Similarly to 1D random variables, we have the following results for random vectors.

- **Theorem.** Let X and Y be discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$. Then, for any real valued function $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(X, Y)$ will also be a **random variable**, and

$$E[g(X, Y)] = \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y) > 0} g(x, y) p(x, y)$$

- **Theorem.** Let X and Y be continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f(x, y)$. Then, for any real valued function $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(X, Y)$ will also be a **random variable**, and

$$E[g(X, Y)] = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) dx dy$$

Similar results hold for n discrete or continuous random variables.

Functions of random variables.

- **Theorem.** Let X and Y be discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$. Then, for any real valued function $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(X, Y)$ will also be a **random variable**, and

$$E[g(X, Y)] = \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} g(x, y) p(x, y)$$

Proof: Let $Z = g(X, Y)$. We find the probability mass function $p_z(z)$ of Z :

$$p_z(z) = P(g(X, Y) = z) = \sum_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} P(\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\}) = \sum_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} p(x, y)$$

as $\{g(X, Y) = z\} = \bigcup_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} (\{X = x\} \cap \{Y = y\})$ is a union of disjoint events.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } E[Z] &= \sum_z z p_z(z) = \sum_z \left(z \sum_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} p(x, y) \right) = \sum_z \left(\sum_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} z p(x, y) \right) \\ &= \sum_z \left(\sum_{(x,y): g(x,y)=z} g(x, y) p(x, y) \right) = \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} g(x, y) p(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Theorem.** Expectation of a sum of random variables is equal to the sum of expectations.

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

Notice: we don't require X and Y to be independent here. The above is true even if they are dependent random variables.

Proof: Suppose X and Y are discrete random variables. Let $g(x, y) = x + y$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} E[g(X, Y)] &= \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} g(x, y) p(x, y) = \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} (x+y) p(x, y) \\ &= \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} x p(x, y) + \sum_{(x,y): p(x,y)>0} y p(x, y) = \sum_{x: p_x(x)>0} x \left(\sum_{y: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y) \right) + \sum_{y: p_y(y)>0} y \left(\sum_{x: p(x,y)>0} p(x, y) \right) \\ &= \sum_{x: p_x(x)>0} x p_x(x) + \sum_{y: p_y(y)>0} y p_y(y) = E[X] + E[Y]. \end{aligned}$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Theorem.** Expectation of a sum of random variables is equal to the sum of expectations.

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

Notice: we don't require X and Y to be independent here. The above is true even if they are dependent random variables.

Proof: Suppose X and Y are continuous random variables. Let $g(x, y) = x + y$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} E[g(X, Y)] &= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} g(x, y) f(x, y) dx dy = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} (x+y) f(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} x f(x, y) dy dx + \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} y f(x, y) dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy \right) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_y(y) dy = E[X] + E[Y]. \end{aligned}$$

Sums of random variables.

- **Theorem.** Expectation of a sum of random variables is equal to the sum of expectations.

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

Consequently, for n random variables, we have

$$E[X_1 + \dots + X_n] = E[X_1] + \dots + E[X_n]$$

- Given $0 \leq p \leq 1$. We say that X is a Bernoulli random variable with parameter p if

$$P(X = 1) = p \quad \text{and} \quad P(X = 0) = 1 - p$$

Then $E[X] = p$ and $Var(X) = p(1 - p)$.

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent Bernoulli random variables with the same parameter p . Then

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

is a Binomial random variable with parameters (n, p) . Then

$$E[S_n] = E[X_1 + \dots + X_n] = E[X_1] + \dots + E[X_n] = np.$$

Covariance and correlation.

Consider random variables X and Y with finite means μ_x and μ_y and finite variances $\sigma_x^2 > 0$ and $\sigma_y^2 > 0$ respectively.

- **Definition.** The covariance of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)].$$

The correlation of X and Y is

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}.$$

Properties:

- $\text{Cov}(X, X) = E[(X - \mu_x)^2] = \text{Var}(X).$

- **Lemma.** The covariance can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = E[XY] - \mu_x \mu_y.$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] = E[XY - \mu_x Y - \mu_y X + \mu_x \mu_y] \\ &= E[XY] - \mu_x E[Y] - \mu_y E[X] + \mu_x \mu_y = E[XY] - \mu_x \mu_y\end{aligned}$$

Covariance and correlation.

- **Example.** Consider a joint probability mass function

$$p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p(2, 0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p(2, 3) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Then,

$$p_x(1) = p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p_x(2) = p(2, 0) + p(2, 3) = \frac{5}{12}, \quad p_x(3) = p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

and

$$p_y(0) = p(2, 0) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad p_y(2) = p(1, 2) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p_y(3) = p(2, 3) + p(3, 3) = \frac{7}{12}$$

Hence, $E[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 2 \cdot \frac{5}{12} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{25}{12}$, $E[Y] = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 3 \cdot \frac{7}{12} = \frac{9}{4}$, and

$$E[XY] = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot p(1, 2) + 2 \cdot 0 \cdot p(2, 0) + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot p(2, 3) + 3 \cdot 3 \cdot p(3, 3) = \frac{1}{2} + 0 + \frac{3}{2} + 3 = 5.$$

Thus, $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = 5 - \frac{25}{12} \cdot \frac{9}{4} = 5 - \frac{75}{16} = \frac{5}{16} = 0.3125$.

Covariance and correlation.

- If X and Y are independent then

$$E[h(X)g(Y)] = E[h(X)] E[g(Y)]$$

for any pair of functions, h and g for which the above expectations exist and are finite.

Proof: Suppose X and Y are independent continuous random variables with density functions f_x and f_y . Then, the joint probability density function equals $f(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y)$, and

$$\begin{aligned} E[h(X)g(Y)] &= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} h(x)g(y)f(x, y) dx dy = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} h(x)g(y)f_x(x)f_y(y) dx dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x)f_x(x) dx \right) f_y(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x)f_x(x) dx \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y)f_y(y) dy \\ &= E[h(X)] E[g(Y)] \end{aligned}$$

The case of independent discrete random variables is proved similarly.

Covariance and correlation.

- **Definition.** The covariance of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)].$$

The correlation of X and Y is

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}.$$

Properties:

- $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \text{Var}(X).$
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = E[XY] - \mu_x \mu_y.$
- If X and Y are independent, then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0.$

Proof: $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = E[X]E[Y] - E[X]E[Y] = 0.$

So, X and Y independent \Rightarrow X and Y uncorrelated.

Covariance and correlation.

- Example.

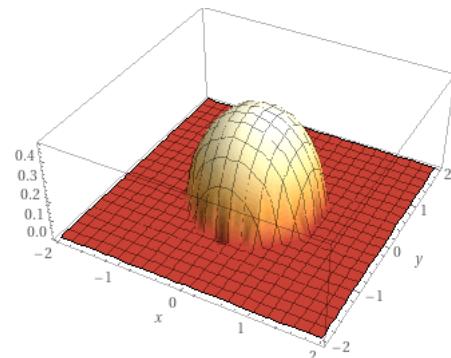
$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2\pi} \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 1. \end{cases}$$

We obtained

$$f_x(x) = f_y(y) = \frac{3}{4}(1 - x^2) \quad \text{for } x \in (-1, 1) \quad \text{implying } E[X] = E[Y] = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[XY] &= \frac{3}{2\pi} \iint_{x^2+y^2 \leq 1} xy \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} dx dy = \frac{3}{2\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} xy \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} dx dy \\ &= \frac{3}{2\pi} \int_{-1}^1 y \int_{-\sqrt{1-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} x \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2} dx dy = \frac{3}{2\pi} \int_{-1}^1 y \cdot 0 dy = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = 0$. So, X and Y are dependent and uncorrelated at the same time.



Covariance and correlation.

Other simple properties:

- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$.

- $\text{Cov}(aX, Y) = a \text{Cov}(X, Y)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

- $\text{Cov} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$.

Proof:

$$\text{Cov} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j \right) = E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \cdot \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j \right] - E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] \cdot E \left[\sum_{j=1}^m Y_j \right]$$

$$= E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m X_i Y_j \right] - \sum_{i=1}^n E[X_i] \cdot \sum_{j=1}^m E[Y_j] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m E[X_i Y_j] - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m E[X_i] E[Y_j]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m (E[X_i Y_j] - E[X_i] E[Y_j]) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j).$$

Covariance and correlation.

The covariance is **bilinear**:

- $Cov(X, Y) = Cov(Y, X)$.
- $Cov(aX, Y) = aCov(X, Y)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $Cov\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m Cov(X_i, Y_j)$.

In linear algebra, the inner (dot) product $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ is also **bilinear**:

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$.
- $\langle a\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = a \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i, \sum_{j=1}^m \mathbf{y}_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_j \rangle$.

Compare $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = |\mathbf{x}|^2$ to $Cov(X, X) = Var(X) = \sigma_x^2$.

Covariance and correlation.

Other simple properties: • $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$.

- $\text{Cov}(aX, Y) = a\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$.
- $\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i,j: i < j} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$.

Proof:

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n X_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j).$$

In particular, $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$.

Covariance and correlation.

Other simple properties:

- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$.

- $\text{Cov}(aX, Y) = a\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $\text{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$.
- $\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i,j: i < j} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$.

In particular, $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$.

- If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent, then

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i)$$

as $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = 0$ for all $i \neq j$.

Covariance and correlation.

Observe that

$$0 \leq \text{Var}(X - \alpha Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \alpha^2 \text{Var}(Y) - 2\alpha \text{Cov}(X, Y) \quad \text{for all } \alpha > 0.$$

Thus,

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) \leq \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{-1} \text{Var}(X) + \frac{1}{2} \alpha \text{Var}(Y).$$

Recall that $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2$ and $\text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_y^2$.

Next, we substitute $\alpha = \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}$, obtaining

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) \leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x} \text{Var}(X) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y} \text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_x \sigma_y.$$

Therefore, $-\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(-X, Y) \leq \sigma_x \sigma_y$ as $\text{Var}(-X) = \text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2$.

Thus, we proved the following inequality

$$|\text{Cov}(X, Y)| \leq \sigma_x \sigma_y = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y)}$$

which is a probabilistic version of the **Cauchy-Bunyakovsky-Schwarz inequality**.

Covariance and correlation.

We proved the following inequality

$$|Cov(X, Y)| \leq \sigma_x \sigma_y = \sqrt{Var(X) Var(Y)}$$

which is a probabilistic version of the **Cauchy-Bunyakovsky-Schwarz inequality**.

Recall $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|$ in linear algebra.

- The **correlation** of X and Y is measuring statistical association of X and Y on the scale from -1 to 1 :

$$-1 \leq \text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \leq 1.$$

Proof:

$$|\text{corr}(X, Y)| = \frac{|Cov(X, Y)|}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \leq 1.$$

Compare to linear algebra:

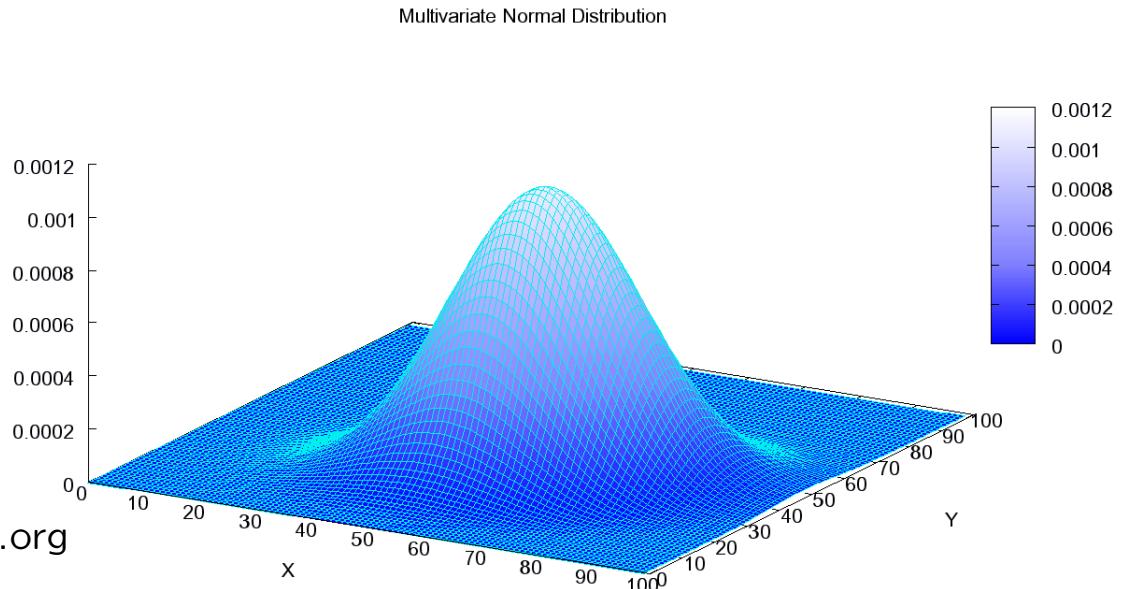
$$-1 \leq \cos \theta = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|} \leq 1,$$

where θ is the angle between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .

Multivariate normal distribution.

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$$

Source: Wikipedia.org



$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \text{ where } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} satisfying $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$.

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Example.** Consider independent standard normal random variables X and Y . Their marginal probability density functions are the same:

$$f_x(x) = f_y(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right\}$$

By independence, the joint probability density function

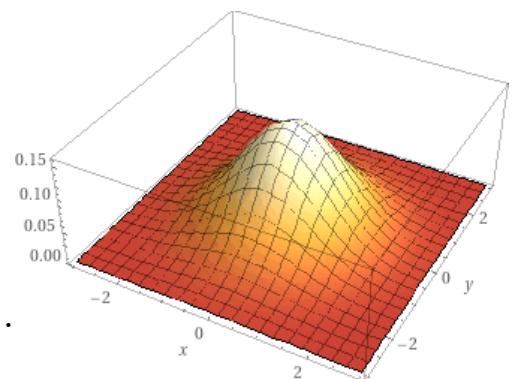
$$f(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)\right\}$$

- Let $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$, then $\Sigma^{-1} = I$, and

$$x^2 + y^2 = [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{x}^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x},$$

$$\text{where } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Hence, } f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x}\right\}.$$



Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Example.** Consider independent normal random variables X and Y with respective parameters (μ_x, σ_x^2) and (μ_y, σ_y^2) . Their marginal probability density functions are

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_x^2}(x - \mu_x)^2\right\} \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_y^2}(y - \mu_y)^2\right\}$$

By independence, the joint probability density function

$$f(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(x - \mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{(y - \mu_y)^2}{\sigma_y^2}\right)\right\}$$

- Let $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$, then $\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_y^{-2} \end{bmatrix}$, and

$$\frac{(x - \mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{(y - \mu_y)^2}{\sigma_y^2} = [x - \mu_x, y - \mu_y] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_y^{-2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x - \mu_x \\ y - \mu_y \end{bmatrix} = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}),$$

where $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}$. Hence, the joint probability density function is

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\det\Sigma}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

The independence assumption is not necessary. For parameters $-\infty < \mu_x < \infty$, $-\infty < \mu_y < \infty$, $0 < \sigma_x$, $0 < \sigma_y$, and $-1 < \rho < 1$, consider a symmetric matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y \\ \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y & \sigma_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Definition.** Let $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ be a vector of random variables distributed according to the joint probability density function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\det\Sigma}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\},$$

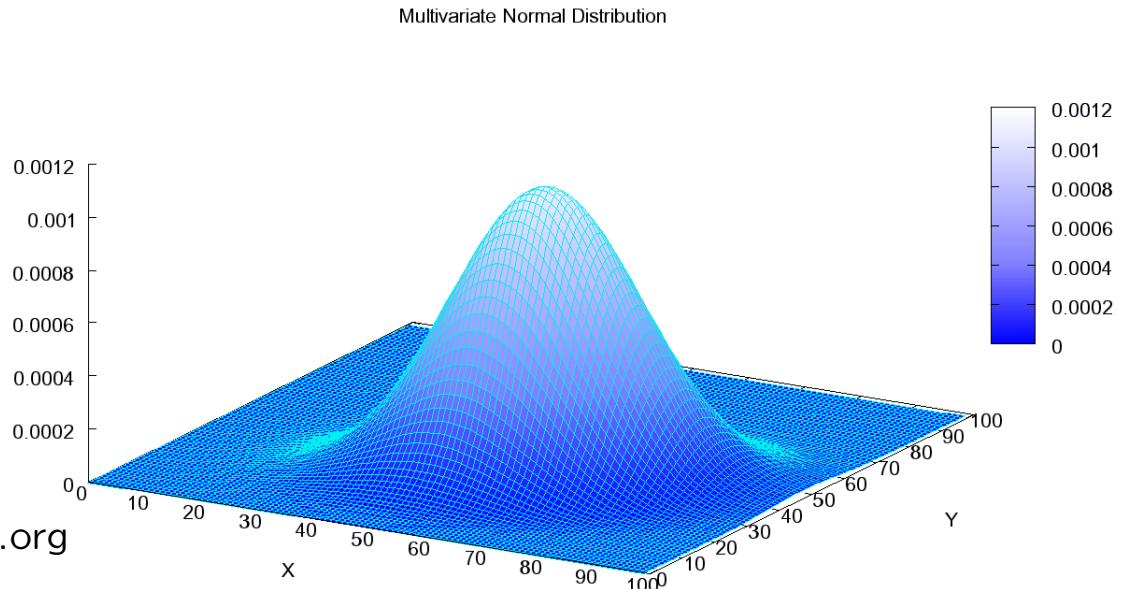
where $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}$.

Then, $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ is a bivariate normal. Notation: $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

Multivariate normal distribution.

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$$

Source: Wikipedia.org



$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \text{ where } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} satisfying $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$.

Multivariate normal distribution.

The random vector $\begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ is multivariate normal if the joint density function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu) \right\}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the vector of mean values ($E[Z_i] = \mu_i$), and Σ is a positive definite real matrix:

(i.) Σ is symmetric: $\Sigma^\top = \Sigma$; (ii.) $\mathbf{x}^\top \Sigma \mathbf{x} > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$.

As a positive definite matrix, Σ can be represented as follows:

$\Sigma = AA^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix A satisfying $\det(A) \neq 0$.

Next, we check that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \cdots \int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}_1 \dots d\mathbf{x}_n = 1.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} satisfying $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$. Observe that if we let $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ then

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}|\det(\mathbf{A})|} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \right\}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}_1 \dots d\mathbf{x}_n &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} d\mathbf{x}_1 \dots d\mathbf{x}_n \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n = \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y_i^2 \right\} dy_i = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{as } dy_1 \dots dy_n = |J| dx_1 \dots dx_n = |\det(\mathbf{A}^{-1})| dx_1 \dots dx_n = \frac{1}{|\det(\mathbf{A})|} dx_1 \dots dx_n.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A}

satisfying $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$. Suppose $\begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

- **Claim:** Vector $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix}$ is the vector of **mean values**, i.e., $E[Z_i] = \mu_i$.

Proof. Observe that $x_i - \mu_i = \mathbf{e}_i^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, and

$$\begin{aligned} E[Z_i] &= \mu_i + E[Z_i - \mu_i] = \mu_i + \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int (x_i - \mu_i) f(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \mu_i + \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} dx_1 \dots dx_n \end{aligned}$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Claim:** $E[Z_i] = \mu_i$.

Proof (cont.): Let $\mathbf{y} = A^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ then $(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = A\mathbf{y}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} E[Z_i] &= \mu_i + \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \mu_i + \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top A\mathbf{y}}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n \\ &= \mu_i + \mathbf{e}_i^\top A \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{y}}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n \right) = \mu_i \end{aligned}$$

as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_j \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y_j^2 \right\} dy_j = 0$ for all j , and therefore,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{y}}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n = \mathbf{0}.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the vector of mean values ($E[Z_i] = \mu_i$),
 and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ for some $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} satisfying $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$.

- **Claim:** Matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} Cov(Z_i, Z_j) \end{pmatrix}$ is the covariance matrix.

Proof. Observe that $(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j) = \mathbf{e}_i^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \mathbf{e}_j$

$$Cov(Z_i, Z_j) = E[(Z_i - \mu_i)(Z_j - \mu_j)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j) f(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \mathbf{e}_j}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Claim:** Matrix $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} Cov(Z_i, Z_j) \end{pmatrix}$ is the covariance matrix.

Proof (cont.): Let $y = A^{-1}(x - \mu)$ then $(x - \mu) = Ay$ and

$$\begin{aligned} Cov(Z_i, Z_j) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top (x - \mu)(x - \mu)^\top \mathbf{e}_j}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) \right\} dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{\mathbf{e}_i^\top A y y^\top A^\top \mathbf{e}_j}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y^\top y \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n \\ &= \mathbf{e}_i^\top A \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{y y^\top}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y^\top y \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n \right) A^\top \mathbf{e}_j \\ &= \mathbf{e}_i^\top A A^\top \mathbf{e}_j = \mathbf{e}_i^\top \Sigma \mathbf{e}_j = \Sigma_{i,j} \end{aligned}$$

as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_i y_j \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y_i^2 \right\} dy_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq i \end{cases}$ and therefore,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \dots \int \frac{y y^\top}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} y^\top y \right\} dy_1 \dots dy_n = I.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Claim:** Matrix $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} Cov(Z_i, Z_j) \end{pmatrix}$ is the covariance matrix.
- **Example.** Suppose $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ is a bivariate normal with mean $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}$ and with

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y \\ \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y & \sigma_y^2 \end{bmatrix},$$

i.e., $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$. Then,

$$Var(X) = \sigma_x^2, \quad Var(Y) = \sigma_y^2, \quad \text{and} \quad Cov(X, Y) = \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y.$$

Therefore, the correlation

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \rho.$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Claim:** Matrix $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Cov}(Z_i, Z_j) \end{pmatrix}$ is the covariance matrix.
- **Example.** Suppose $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ is a bivariate normal with mean $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}$, $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2$, $\text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_y^2$, and with $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$.

Then,

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_y^2 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_y^{-2} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\det\Sigma}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(x - \mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{(y - \mu_y)^2}{\sigma_y^2}\right)\right\} = f_x(x)f_y(y) \end{aligned}$$

We proved the following:

For **normal random variables**, X and Y uncorrelated $\Rightarrow X$ and Y independent.

Multivariate normal distribution.

- **Example.** Suppose $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ is a bivariate normal with mean $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and with $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y \\ \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y & \sigma_y^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Then,

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2 = 1, \quad \text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_y^2 = 4, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y = -1.$$

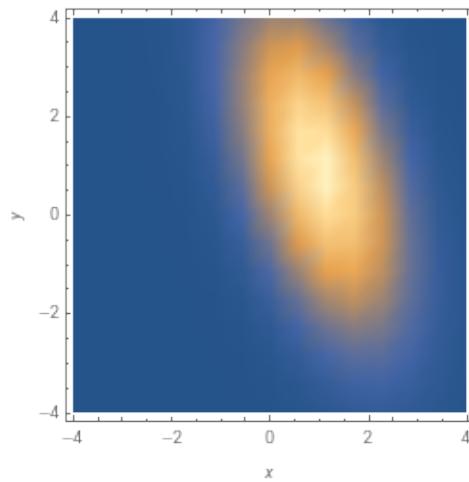
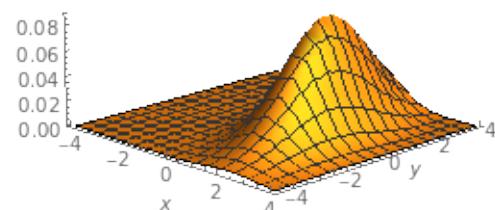
Thus, the correlation $\text{corr}(X, Y) = \rho = -\frac{1}{2}$.

Next, $\Sigma^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and the joint probability density function is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\det\Sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}\pi} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{6} (4(x-1)^2 + 2(x-1)(y-1) + (y-1)^2) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Multivariate normal distribution.

- Example (continued).



<https://demonstrations.wolfram.com/TheBivariateNormalDistribution/>

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}\pi} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{6} (4(x-1)^2 + 2(x-1)(y-1) + (y-1)^2) \right\}.$$