[Chapter 5. Multivariate Probability Distributions]

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5.1 Introduction

Suppose that Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n denote the outcomes of *n* successive trials of an experiment. A specific set of outcomes, or sample measurements, may be expressed in terms of the intersection of *n* events

$$(Y_1 = y_1), (Y_2 = y_2), \dots, (Y_n = y_n)$$

which we will denote as

$$(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_n = y_n)$$

or more compactly, as

$$(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n).$$

Calculation of the probability of this intersection is essential in making inferences about the population from which the sample was drawn and is a major reason for studying multivariate probability distributions.

5.2 Bivariate and Multivariate probability distributions

Many random variables can be defined over the same sample space.

(Example) Tossing a pair of dice.

The sample space contains 36 sample points. Let Y_1 be the number of dots appearing on die 1, and Y_2 be the sum of the number of dots on the dice. We would like to obtain the probability of $(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)$ for all the possible values of y_1 and y_2 . That is the joint distribution of Y_1 and Y_2 .

(Def 5.2) For any r.v. Y_1 and Y_2 the joint (bivariate) distribution function $F(y_1, y_2)$ is given by

$$F(y_1, y_2) = P(Y_1 \le y_1, Y_2 \le y_2)$$

for $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y_2 < \infty$.

(Theorem 5.2) If Y_1 and Y_2 are r.v. with joint distribution function $F(y_1, y_2)$, then

1.
$$F(-\infty, -\infty) = F(-\infty, y_2) = F(y_1, -\infty) = 0.$$

2.
$$F(\infty,\infty) = 1$$
.

3. If
$$a_1^* \ge a_1$$
 and $b_2^* \ge b_2$, then

$$F(a_1^*, b_2^*) - F(a_1^*, b_2) - F(a_1, b_2^*) + F(a_1, b_2)$$

$$= P(a_1 < Y_1 \le a_1^*, b_2 < Y_2 \le b_2^*) \ge 0.$$

(1) Discrete variables:

(Def 5.1) Let Y_1 and Y_2 be discrete r.v. The *joint probability distribution* for Y_1 and Y_2 is given by

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)$$

for $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y_2 < \infty$. The function $p(y_1, y_2)$ will be referred to as the joint probability function.

Note that if Y_1 and Y_2 are discrete r.v. with joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$, its CDF is

$$F(y_1, y_2) = P(Y_1 \le y_1, Y_2 \le y_2)$$

= $\sum_{t_1 \le y_1} \sum_{t_2 \le y_2} p(t_1, t_2)$

(Theorem 5.1) If Y_1 and Y_2 are discrete r.v. with joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$, then

- 1. $p(y_1, y_2) \ge 0$ for all y_1, y_2 .
- 2. $\sum_{y_1,y_2} p(y_1,y_2) = 1$, where the sum is over all values (y_1,y_2) that are assigned nonzero probabilities.
- 3. $P[(y_1, y_2) \in A] = \sum_{(y_1, y_2) \in A} p(y_1, y_2)$ for $A \subseteq S$. So,

$$P(a_1 \le Y_1 \le a_2, b_1 \le Y_2 \le b_2) = \sum_{t_1=a_1}^{a_2} \sum_{t_2=b_1}^{b_2} p(t_1, t_2)$$

(Example 5.1) A local supermarket has three checkout counters. Two customers arrive at the counters at different times when the counters are serving no other customers. Each customer chooses a counter at random, independently of the other. Let Y_1 denote the number of customers who choose counter 1 and Y_2 , the number who select counter 2. Find the joint distribution of Y_1 and Y_2 .

(Example 5.2) Consider the Y_1 and Y_2 in (Example 5.1). Find F(-1, 2), F(1.5, 2) and F(5, 7).

(2) Continuous variables:

Two random variables are said to be jointly continuous if their joint distribution function $F(y_1, y_2)$ is continuous in both arguments.

(Def 5.3) Let Y_1 and Y_2 be continuous r.v. with joint distribution function $F(y_1, y_2)$. If there exists a nonnegative function $f(y_1, y_2)$ such that

$$F(y_1, y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{y_1} \int_{-\infty}^{y_2} f(t_1, t_2) dt_2 dt_1$$

for all $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y_2 < \infty$, then Y_1 and Y_2 are said to be jointly continuous random variables. The function $f(y_1, y_2)$ will be referred to as the joint probability density function.

(Theorem 5.3) If Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly continuous random variables with a joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$, then

1.
$$f(y_1, y_2) \ge 0$$
 for all y_1, y_2 .
2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_1 dy_2 = 1$.
3. $p[(y_1, y_2) \in A] = \int \int_A f(y_1, y_2) dy_2 dy_1$. So,
 $P(a_1 \le Y_1 \le a_2, b_1 \le Y_2 \le b_2) = \int_{b_1}^{b_2} \int_{a_1}^{a_2} f(y_1, y_2) dy_1 dy_2$

(Example 5.3)

(Example 5.4)

(Exercise 5.5)

(Exercise 5.9)

(Question) How about the case of the intersection of n events

$$(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_n = y_n)?$$

For discrete r.v., the probability function is given by

 $p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_n = y_n)$ and its joint distribution function is given by

$$F(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = P(Y_1 \le y_1, Y_2 \le y_2, \dots, Y_n \le y_n)$$

= $\sum_{t_1 \le y_1} \sum_{t_2 \le y_2} \sum_{t_n \le y_n} p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n).$

For continuous r.v.,

the joint distribution function is given by

$$P(Y_{1} \leq y_{1}, Y_{2} \leq y_{2}, \dots, Y_{n} \leq y_{n}) = F(y_{1}, \dots, y_{n})$$

= $\int_{-\infty}^{y_{1}} \int_{-\infty}^{y_{2}} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{y_{n}} f(t_{1}, t_{2}, \dots, t_{n}) dt_{1} \dots dt_{n}$

for every set of real numbers (y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n) and its joint density is given by

$$f(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n).$$

5.3 Marginal and Conditional probability distributions

Given Theorem 5.1 and Definition 5.2,

[Discrete random variables]

(Def 5.4)

a. Let Y_1 and Y_2 be jointly discrete r.v. with probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$. Then the marginal probability functions of Y_1 and Y_2 are given by

$$p_1(y_1) = \sum_{y_2} p(y_1, y_2), \quad p_2(y_2) = \sum_{y_1} p(y_1, y_2).$$

(Def 5.5)

If Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly discrete r.v. with joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$ and marginal probability functions $p_1(y_1)$ and $p_2(y_2)$ respectively, then the conditional discrete probability function of Y_1 given Y_2 is

$$p(y_1 | y_2) = P(Y_1 = y_1 | Y_2 = y_2)$$

=
$$\frac{P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)}{P(Y_2 = y_2)} = \frac{p(y_1, y_2)}{p_2(y_2)}$$

provided that $p_2(y_2) > 0$.

Note that

- 1. Multiplicative law(Theorem 2.5(p.55)): $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B \mid A).$
- 2. Consider the intersection of the two numerical events, $(Y_1 = y_1)$ and $(Y_2 = y_2)$, represented by the bivariate event (y_1, y_2) . Then, the bivariate probability for (y_1, y_2) is

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p_1(y_1)p(y_2 \mid y_1) = p_2(y_2)p(y_1 \mid y_2)$$

- 3. $p(y_1 \mid y_2)$: the probability that the r.v. Y_1 equals y_1 , given that that Y_2 takes on the value y_2 .
- 4. $p(y_1 | y_2)$ is undefined if $p_2(y_2) = 0$.

(Example 5.5, 5.7)

(Example) Contracts for two construction jobs are randomly assigned to one or more of three firms A, B and C. Let Y_1 and Y_2 be the number of contracts assigned to firm A and B, respectively. Recall that each firm can receives 0, 1, or 2 contracts.

a. Find the joint probability distribution for Y_1 and Y_2 .

b. Calculate F(1,0), F(3,4) and F(1.5,1.6)

c. Find the marginal probability distribution of Y_1 and Y_2 .

d. Find the conditional probability function for Y_2 given $Y_1 = 1$.

e. Find the conditional probability function for Y_2 given $Y_1 = 0$.

Given Definition 5.3 and Theorem 5.3,

[Continuous random variables]

(Def 5.4)

b. Let Y_1 and Y_2 be jointly continuous r.v. with probability function $f(y_1, y_2)$. Then the *marginal density functions* of Y_1 and Y_2 are given by

 $f_1(y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_2, \quad f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) dy_1.$

For continuous Y_1 and Y_2 , $P(Y_1 = y_1 | Y_2 = y_2)$ can not be defined as in the discrete case, because both $(Y_1 = y_1)$ and $(Y_2 = y_2)$ are events with zero probability.

(Def 5.6) If Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly continuous r.v. with joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$, then the conditional distribution function of Y_1 given $Y_2 = y_2$ is

$$F(y_1 \mid y_2) = P(Y_1 \le y_1 \mid Y_2 = y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{y_1} \frac{f(t_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)} dt_1$$

Note that one can derive conditional density function of Y_1 given $Y_2 = y_2$, $f(y_1 | y_2)$ from the calculation of $F(y_1)$:

(Def 5.7)

If Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly continuous r.v. with joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$ and marginal densities $f_1(y_1)$ and $f_2(y_2)$, respectively. For any y_2 such that $f_2(y_2) > 0$, the conditional density of Y_1 given $Y_2 = y_2$ is given by

$$f(y_1 \mid y_2) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)}.$$

and, for any y_1 such that $f_1(y_1) > 0$, the conditional density of Y_2 given $Y_1 = y_1$ is given by

$$f(y_2 \mid y_1) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_1(y_1)}.$$

Note that i) $f(y_1 | y_2)$ is undefined for all y_2 such that $f_2(y_2) = 0$, ii) $f(y_2 | y_1)$ is undefined for all y_1 such that $f_1(y_1) = 0$.

(Example 5.8)

(Example) Let Y_1 and Y_2 have joint probability density function(pdf) given by

 $f(y_1, y_2) = k(1 - y_2) \quad 0 \le y_1 \le y_2 \le 1$ = 0 elsewhere

a. Find the value of k such that this is a pdf.

b. Calculate $P(Y_1 \le 3/4, Y_2 \ge 1/2)$

c. Find the marginal density function of Y_1 and Y_2 .

d. Calculate $P(Y_1 \le 1/2 \mid Y_2 \le 3/4)$

e. Find the conditional density function of Y_1 given Y_2 .

f. Find the conditional density function of Y_2 given Y_1 .

g. Calculate $P(Y_2 \ge 3/4 \mid Y_1 = 1/2)$

5.4 Independent random variables

Independent random variables : Two events A and B are independent if P(A∩B) = P(A)P(B). Suppose we are concerned with events of the type (a ≤ Y₁ ≤ b) ∩ (c ≤ Y₂ ≤ d). If Y₁ and Y₂ are independent, does the following equation hold?

$$P(a \le Y_1 \le b, c \le Y_2 \le d) = P(a \le Y_1 \le b)P(c \le Y_2 \le d)$$

(Def 5.8)

Let Y_1 have distribution function $F_1(y_1)$, Y_2 have distribution function $F_2(y_2)$, and Y_1 and Y_2 have joint distribution function $F(y_1, y_2)$. Then, Y_1 and Y_2 are said to be *independent* if and only if

$$F(y_1, y_2) = F_1(y_1)F_2(y_2)$$

for every pair of real numbers (y_1, y_2) . If Y_1 and Y_2 are not independent, they are said to be *dependent*.

Extension of (Def 5.8) to n dimensions :

Suppose we have *n* random variables, Y_1, \ldots, Y_n , where Y_i has distribution function $F_i(y_i)$, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$; and where Y_1, \ldots, Y_n have joint distribution $F(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n)$.

Then Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent if and only if

$$F(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n) = F_1(y_1) \cdots F_n(y_n)$$

for all real numbers y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n .

(Theorem 5.4)

• Discrete r.v. : If Y_1 and Y_2 are discrete r.v. with joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$ and marginal probability functions $p_1(y_1)$ and $p_2(y_2)$ respectively, then Y_1 and Y_2 are independent if and only if

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p_1(y_1)p_2(y_2)$$

for all pair of real numbers (y_1, y_2) .

(Theorem 5.4)

• Continuous r.v. : If Y_1 and Y_2 are continuous r.v. with joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$ and marginal density functions $f_1(y_1)$ and $f_2(y_2)$ respectively, then Y_1 and Y_2 are independent if and only if

$$f(y_1, y_2) = f_1(y_1) f_2(y_2)$$

for all pair of real numbers (y_1, y_2) .

(Example 5.10)

(Example 5.12)

The key benefit of the following theorem is that we do not actually need to derive the marginal densities. Indeed, the functions $g(y_1)$ and $h(y_2)$ need not, themselves, be density functions.

(Theorem 5.5) If Y_1 and Y_2 have a joint density $f(y_1, y_2)$ that is positive if and only if $a \le y_1 \le b$ and $c \le y_2 \le d$, for constants a, b, c, and d; and $f(y_1, y_2) = 0$ otherwise. Then Y_1 and Y_2 are independent r.v. if and only if

$$f(y_1, y_2) = g(y_1)h(y_2)$$

where $g(y_1)$ is a nonnegative function of y_1 alone and $h(y_2)$ is a nonnegative function of y_2 alone.

(Example 5.13)

(Exercise 5.61)

5.5 Expected value of a function of r.v.

(Def 5.9) • Discrete r.v. : Let $g(Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k)$ a function of the discrete r.v., Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k , which have probability function $p(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_k)$. Then the *expected value* of $g(Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k)$ is

$$E[g(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k)] = \sum_{y_k} \cdots \sum_{y_2} \sum_{y_1} g(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$$

• Continuous r.v. : If Y_1, \ldots, Y_k are continuous r.v. with joint density function $f(y_1, \ldots, y_k)$, then

$$E[g(Y_1,\ldots,Y_k)] = \int_{y_k} \cdots \int_{y_1} g(y_1,\ldots,y_k) f(y_1,\ldots,y_k) dy_1 \ldots dy_k.$$

• Derivation of $E(Y_1)$ from (Def 5.9)(and Def 4.4).

(Example 5.15)

(Example 5.16)

5.6 Special theorems

(Theorem 5.6) Let c be a constant. Then

E(c) = c

(Theorem 5.7) Let $g(Y_1, Y_2)$ be a function of the r.v. Y_1 and Y_2 , and let c be a constant. Then

 $E[cg(Y_1, Y_2)] = cE[g(Y_1, Y_2)]$

(Theorem 5.8)

Let Y_1, Y_2 be r.v. and $g_1(Y_1, Y_2), g_2(Y_1, Y_2), \ldots, g_k(Y_1, Y_2)$ be functions of Y_1 and Y_2 . Then

 $E[g_1(Y_1, Y_2) + g_2(Y_1, Y_2) + \dots + g_k(Y_1, Y_2)]$ = $E[g_1(Y_1, Y_2)] + E[g_2(Y_1, Y_2)] + \dots + E[g_k(Y_1, Y_2)].$

(Example 5.20)

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(Theorem 5.9) Let Y_1 and Y_2 be independent
r.v. and g(Y_1) and h(Y_2) be functions of only
Y_1 and Y_2, respectively. Then
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E[g(Y_1)h(Y_2)] = E[g(Y_1)]E[h(Y_2)].
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provided that the expectation exist.

(Proof)

(Example 5.21)

(Exercise 5.77)

5.7 Covariance of two random variables

The covariance between Y_1 and Y_2 is a measure of the linear dependence between them.

(Def 5.10) If Y_1 and Y_2 are r.v. with means $\mu_1 = E(Y_1)$ and $\mu_2 = E(Y_2)$, respectively, the *covariance* of Y_1 and Y_2 is given by

$$Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[(Y_1 - \mu_1)(Y_2 - \mu_2)].$$

•
$$-\infty < Cov(Y_1, Y_2) < \infty$$

- The larger the absolute value of the covariance of Y_1 and Y_2 , the greater the *linear dependence* between Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Positive values indicate that $Y_1(Y_2)$ increases as $Y_2(Y_1)$ increases.
- Negative values indicate that $Y_1(Y_2)$ decreases as $Y_2(Y_1)$ increases.
- A zero value indicates no linear dependence between Y_1 and Y_2 .
- If $Y_1 = Y_2$, $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) =$

It is difficult to employ the covariance as an absolute measure of dependence because its value depends upon the scale of measurement. So, it is difficult to determine whether a particular covariance is large or small.

The *correlation coefficient*, ρ is defined as

$$\rho = \frac{Cov(Y_1, Y_2)}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$

where $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{Var(Y_1)}$ and $\sigma_2 = \sqrt{Var(Y_2)}$ are the standard deviations of Y_1 and Y_2 .

- ρ also measures the linear dependence between Y_1 and Y_2 and its sign is the same as the sign of the covariance. But, $-1 < \rho < 1$.
- $\rho > 0$: $Y_1(Y_2)$ increases as $Y_2(Y_1)$ increases.
- $\rho < 0$: $Y_1(Y_2)$ decreases as $Y_2(Y_1)$ increases.
- $\rho = 0$: no correlation between Y_1 and Y_2 .
- $\rho = +1(-1)$: perfect linear correlation between Y_1 and Y_2 , with all points on a straight line with positive(negative) slope.

(Theorem 5.10) Let Y_1 and Y_2 are r.v. with means μ_1 and μ_2 , respectively, then $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[(Y_1 - \mu_1)(Y_2 - \mu_2)] = E(Y_1Y_2) - \mu_1\mu_2$ (Proof)

(Example 5.23)

(Theorem 5.11) Let Y_1 and Y_2 are independent r.v., then $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = 0$.

(Proof)

[Note] Zero covariance DOES NOT IMPLY the independence between two random variables. BUT, one exception : If Y_1 and Y_2 are NORMAL random variables and they are uncorrelated(i.e., they have zero covariance), they are also independent(See Chapter 5.10).

(Example 5.24)

(Exercise)

5.8 Expected value and variance of linear combinations of r.v.'s

Let U_1 be a linear function of the r.v.'s Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n . Then, we have

$$U_1 = a_1 Y_1 + a_2 Y_2 + \dots + a_n Y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i$$

for constants a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n .

We may be interested in the moments(expected values, covariance,...) of such linear combinations.

(Theorem 5.12) Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n and X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m be r.v. with $E(Y_i) = \mu_i$ and $E(X_j) = \xi_j$. Define

$$U_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i$$
 and $U_2 = \sum_{j=1}^m b_j X_j$

for constants a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n and b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_m . Then the following hold:

a $E(U_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \mu_i$.

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b $V(U_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 V(Y_i) + 2 \sum_{i < j} a_i a_j Cov(Y_i, Y_j)$ where the double sum is over all pairs (i, j) with i < j.

c $Cov(U_1, U_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m a_i b_j Cov(Y_i, X_j).$

(Example 5.25)

(Example 5.27)

5.9 Multinomial probability distribution

From Chapter 3, we know that a binomial r.v. results from an experiment consisting of n trials with two possible outcomes per trial. If one encounter the situations in which the number of possible outcomes per trial is more than two, one needs another concept.

A multinomial experiment is a generalization of the binomial experiment.

(Def 5.11) A multinomial experiment possesses the following properties:

- 1. The experiment consists of n identical trials.
- 2. The outcome of each trial falls into one of k classes or cells.
- 3. The probability that the outcome of a single trial falls into cell *i* is p_i , i = 1, 2, ..., k

and remains the same from trial to trial. Notice that $p_1 + p_2 + \cdots + p_k = 1$.

- 4. The trials are independent.
- 5. The r.v.'s of interest are Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k , where Y_i equals the number of trials for which the outcome falls into cell *i*. Notice $Y_1 + Y_2 + \ldots + Y_k = n$.

(Def 5.12) Assume that p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k are such that $\sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1$, and $p_i > 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$. The r.v.'s Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k are said to have a *multinomial distribution* with parameters n and p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k if the joint probability function of Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k is given by

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = \frac{n!}{y_1! y_2! \cdots y_k!} p_1^{y_1} p_2^{y_2} \cdots p_k^{y_k},$$

where for each $i, y_i = 0, 1, ..., n$ and $\sum_{i=1}^k y_i = n$.

Note that k = 2 provides the binomial experiment/distribution.

(Example 5.30)

(Theorem 5.13) If Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k have a multinomial distribution with parameters n and p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k then

1.
$$E(Y_i) = np_i$$
, $V(Y_i) = np_iq_i$ where $q_i = 1-p_i$.

2.
$$Cov(Y_s, Y_t) = -np_s p_t$$
 if $s \neq t$.

(Example) Suppose that a fair die is rolled 9 times. Let Y_i be the number of trials for which number *i* appears.

(a) What is the probability that 1 appears three times, 2 and 3 twice each, 4 and 5 once each, and 6 not at all?

(b) Find $E(Y_i)$, $V(Y_i)$ and $Cov(Y_s, Y_t)$ where i, s, t = 1, ..., 6 and $s \neq t$.

5.10 Bivariate normal distribution

The bivariate density function for two normal r.v.'s Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \frac{e^{-Q/2}}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}$$

for $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y_2 < \infty$ where

$$Q = \frac{1}{1 - \rho^2} \left[\frac{(y_1 - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} - 2\rho \frac{(y_1 - \mu_1)(y_2 - \mu_2)}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} + \frac{(y_2 - \mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right]$$

- ρ is the correlation between Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Marginal distributions of Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Suppose Y₁ and Y₂ are independent(ρ = 0), and they have marginal normal distributions. Then (Y₁, Y₂) is a bivariate normal with ρ = 0.

We know that if two variables are independent, then they are (linearly) uncorrelated. But, in general the following is NOT true: *if they are (linearly) uncorrelated, they are independent.*

However, for normal Y_1 and Y_2 , they are also independent if they are uncorrelated.

5.11 Conditional expectations

Conditional expectations are related to conditional probability/density functions discussed in Section 5.3.

(Def 5.13) If Y_1 and Y_2 are any two r.v.'s, the *conditional expectation* of $g(Y_1)$ given that $Y_2 = y_2$ is defined to be

$$E(g(Y_1) \mid Y_2 = y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y_1) f(y_1 \mid y_2) dy_1$$

if Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly continuous and

$$E(g(Y_1) \mid Y_2 = y_2) = \sum_{y_1} g(y_1) p(y_1 \mid y_2)$$

if Y_1 and Y_2 are jointly discrete.

(Example 5.31)

In general, the conditional expectation of Y_1 given $Y_2 = y_2$ is a function of y_2 . If we let Y_2 range over all of its possible values, we can think of the conditional expectation $E(Y_1 | Y_2)$ as a function of the r.v. Y_2 .

Because $E(Y_1 | Y_2)$ is a function of the r.v. Y_2 , it is itself a random variable; and as such, it has a mean and a variance.

(Theorem 5.14) Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote random variables. Then

$$E(Y_1) = E[E(Y_1 \mid Y_2)]$$

where, on the right-hand side, the inside expectation is with respect to the conditional distribution of Y_1 given Y_2 and the outside expectation is with respect to the distribution of Y_2 .

(Proof)

Note that

• The conditional variance of Y_1 given $Y_2 = y_2$ is defined by

$$V(Y_1 | Y_2 = y_2) = E(Y_1^2 | Y_2 = y_2) - [E(Y_1 | Y_2 = y_2)]^2.$$

- The conditional variance is a function of y_2 .
- Letting Y_2 range over all of its possible values, $V(Y_1 \mid Y_2)$ is a random variable that is a function of Y_2 .

(Theorem 5.15) Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote random variables. Then $V(Y_1) = E[V(Y_1 | Y_2)] + V[E(Y_1 | Y_2)]$ (Proof)

(Example 5.32) A quality control plan for an assembly line involves sampling n = 10 finished items per day and counting Y, the number of defectives. If p denotes the probability of observing a defective, then Y has a binomial distribution, assuming that a large number of items are produced by the line. But p varies from day to day and is assumed to have a uniform distribution on the interval from 0 to 1/4.

Find expected value and the variance of Y.