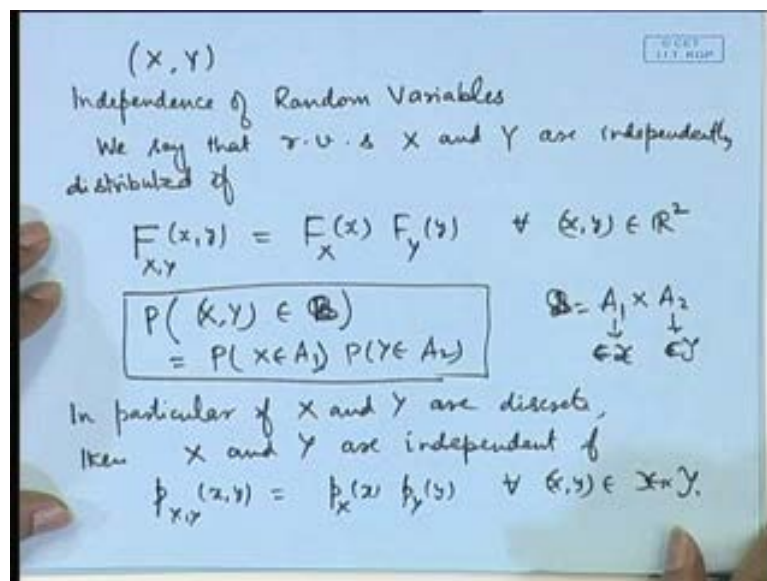


**Probability and Statistics**  
**Prof. Dr. Somesh Kumar**  
**Department of Mathematics**  
**Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur**

**Lecture No. #19**  
**Joint Distributions-II**

So, yesterday we had introduced the concept of jointly distributed random variables. So, because many times we will be interested in recording the numerical characteristics of several phenomena in one random experiment; for example, for a new born child, we will be interested in recording its height, weight and pulse rate at birth. A doctor records several characteristics of the patient who visits him for certain disease; the performance of a student in a semester during a course is measured in terms of his marks in say homework assignments, his performance in mid semester examination, his performance in the end semester examination, etcetera. We have seen that the types of jointly distributed random variables; some of them may be discrete, some of them may be continuous, all may be discrete, all may be continuous, some may be mixed, etcetera.

(Refer Slide Time: 01:34)



In particular, when we are considering a jointly distributed random variable  $X, Y$ , we have considered 2 specific cases where both  $X, Y$  maybe discrete such as marks of the

students or both maybe continuous. For example, height and weight of a child at birth. So, in the case, when both of them are discrete - we have a probability mass function and when both are continuous - we have a probability density function. We have seen the description of this and using this we can calculate any probability statement regarding the joint distribution of X and Y or marginal distribution of X and Y or conditional distribution of X and Y.

Next we discuss the concept of independence of random variables. (No audio from 02:20 to 02:29) So, we say that random variables X and Y are independently distributed. If the joint cdf is equal to the product of marginal cdfs at all points. So, basically if we do not make use of the cdf, we should be able to say like that. That if we are considering a set in the two-dimensional plane where B can be expressed as product of 2 sets A 1 and A 2 where A 1 is in the space of x values and A 2 is in the space of y values. Then this should be equal to probability of X belonging to A 1 and in to probability of Y belonging to A 2. If that happens for all combinations of this type of sets then they are independent. However, this condition is equivalent, if we state in terms of the cumulative distribution function. In particular, if X and Y are discrete then X and Y are independent; if  $p_{XY}$  is equal to  $p_X(x) p_Y(y)$  for all x belonging to x cross y.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:42)

If X and Y are continuous, then the condition for independence is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y) \quad \forall (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Examples:  $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

So  $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y) \quad \forall x,y \in (0,1)$   
 So X and Y are independently distributed.

In case of continuous random variable, if X and Y are continuous, then the condition for independence is the joint pdf is equal to the product of marginal pdfs. Let us take

some examples; let  $f_{X,Y}$  be equal to say 1, 0 less than  $x$  less than 1, 0 less than  $y$  less than 1, and 0 elsewhere. Now, this is a jointly distributed continuous random variable. Let us consider  $f_X$ . So, we will be integrating with respect to  $y$  from 0 to 1, so, we get 1. And similarly, if we integrate with respect to  $x$  from 0 to 1, we will get 1; and of course, 0 elsewhere. So, you can easily see that the product of  $f_X(x)$  and  $f_Y(y)$  is equal to  $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$ . This condition is satisfied for all  $x$  and  $y$ . So,  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. So, this may be considered as say arrival timings of a passenger to the railway station between any time from say 7 am to 8 am, and  $y$  may denote the arrival time of the train between 7 am to 8 am. So, both may be independently distributed and this could be the 1 of the possible distributions.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:12)

2.  $P(X=1, Y=1) = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $P(X=1, Y=0) = \frac{1}{4}$   
 $P(X=0, Y=1) = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $P(X=0, Y=0) = \frac{1}{4}$   
 $P(X=0) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P(X=1) = \frac{1}{2}$   
 $P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P(Y=1) = \frac{1}{2}$   
 $p_{X,Y}(x_i, y_j) = p_X(x_i) p_Y(y_j)$  is satisfied  $\forall (x_i, y_j)$   
 So  $X$  and  $Y$  are independently dist<sup>d</sup>.

Let us take another example, suppose probability  $X$  equal to 1,  $Y$  is equal to 1 is 1 by 4; probability  $X$  is equal to 1,  $Y$  is equal to 0 is 1 by 4; probability  $X$  equal to 0,  $Y$  is equal to 1 is say 1 by 4; probability  $X$  equal to 0 and  $Y$  is equal to 0 is say 1 by 4. So, the joint distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$  is given by this. Let us look at the marginal distribution of  $X$ . So, what is probability of  $X$  equal to 0? It is obtained from summing the probability of  $X$  equal to 0,  $Y$  equal to 0, and probability  $X$  equal to 0 and  $Y$  is equal to 1 that is equal to half. Probability  $X$  equal to 1 in a similar way, it is equal to the sum of these 2 probabilities again it is half, if we look at probability of  $Y$  is equal to 0; that is the sum of these 2 probabilities; that is half, and probability of  $Y$  is equal to 1; that is the sum of these 2 numbers; that is again half. So, we can see here that the condition that  $p_{X,Y}(x_i, y_j) = p_X(x_i) p_Y(y_j)$

$y_j$ ) is equal to  $p_X(x_i)$ ,  $p_Y(y_j)$  is satisfied for all  $x_i, y_j$  in the range of  $x$  and  $y$  random variables. So,  $x$  and  $y$  are...

(No audio from 08:40 to 08:49)

(Refer Slide Time: 09:00)

The marginal pdf of  $Y$  is

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx$$

Ex.  $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} 10xy^2, & 0 < x < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^y 10xy^2 dx dy = \int_0^1 5y^4 dy = 1$$

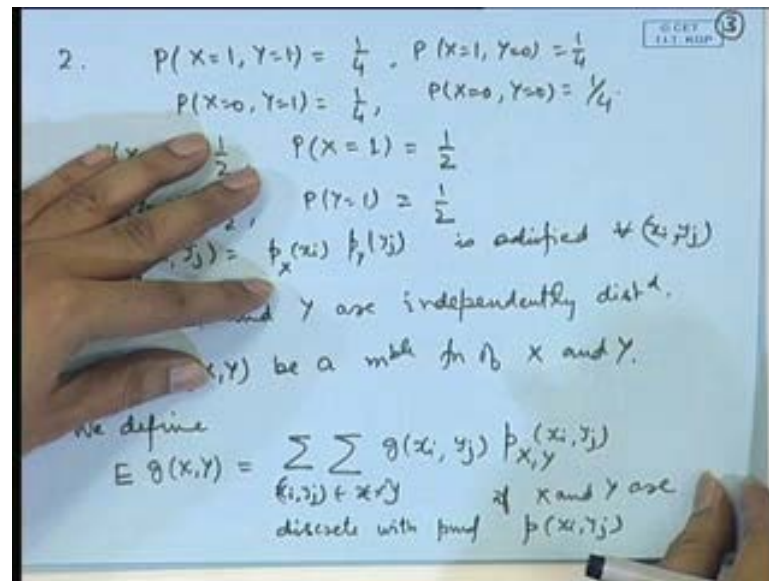
$$f_X(x) = \int_x^1 10xy^2 dy = \begin{cases} \frac{10}{3}x(1-x^3), & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

On the other hand, if we consider a distribution such as  $f(x,y)$  is equal to  $10xy^2$  where  $x$  and  $y$  are satisfying the condition; that  $0 < x < y < 1$ . Then the marginal distributions of  $x$  was  $\frac{10}{3}x(1-x^3)$  and the marginal distribution of  $y$  is  $5y^4$ ,  $0 < y < 1$ . So, you can see that the product of  $f_X(x)$  into  $f_Y(y)$  is not equal to  $f(x,y)$ , because the product here will give you  $\frac{50}{3}x(1-x^3)y^4$  whereas  $f(x,y)$  is  $10xy^2$ . So, the condition is never satisfied. So,  $x$  and  $y$  are obviously not independent. If we consider another problem, say  $f(x,y)$  is equal to  $1/y$  for satisfying similar condition that  $0 < x < y < 1$  then the marginal distribution of  $x$  is  $-\log(x)$  and the marginal distribution of  $y$  is uniform. So, once again you can see that the product of these 2 does not give  $1/y$ . So, the distributions are not independent.

So, the main important role of the condition of independence is that - it helps us to obtain the joint distributions for independently distributed random variables. Many times what happens that; we know these phenomena are independent and we know the individual distributions. Now, in order to study certain characteristics of the joint distribution, we can obtain the joint distribution by simply multiplying the 2 distributions. Where in

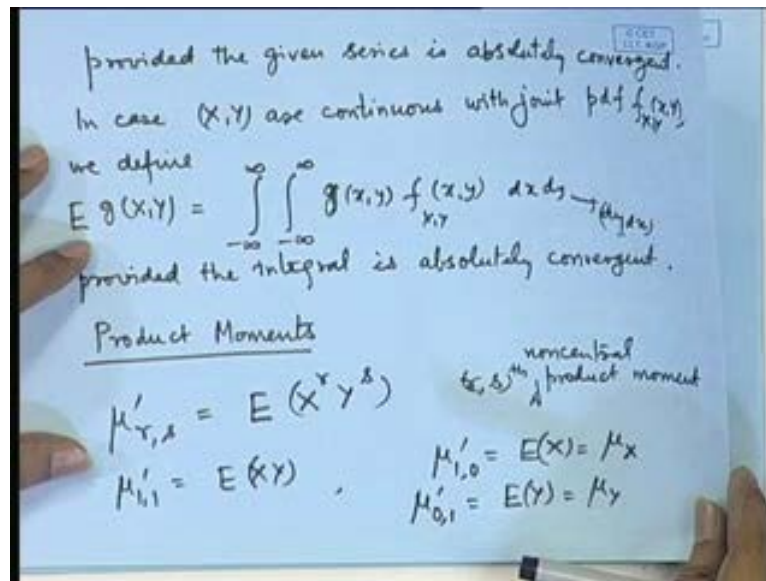
general, marginal distributions do not give the joint distribution; the joint distributions give the marginal distributions, but the converse is not true. However if the random variables are independent, then simply by multiplying the marginal distributions, we can get the joint distribution. Therefore, this is a quite useful concept. Now, let us look at the concept of expectation in case of joint distributions.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:20)



So, let  $g(X, Y)$  be a measurable function of  $X$  and  $Y$ . So, we define expectation of  $g(X, Y)$  that is equal to if  $X$  and  $Y$  are discrete, it is equal to  $g(x_i, y_j) p_{X, Y}(x_i, y_j)$  for all  $x_i$  and  $y_j$  in the range of  $x$  cross  $y$ . This is if  $x$  and  $y$  are discrete with pmf  $p(x_i, y_j)$ . Now, this is valid provided the series is absolutely convergent.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:30)



Provided the given series is absolutely convergent. In case  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous with joint pdf  $f(x, y)$ , then we define expectation of  $g(X, Y)$  as double integral  $\int \int g(x, y) f(x, y) dx dy$  or this could be  $dy dx$  also. Provided the integral is absolutely convergent. Here the range of integration is over the range of the density. Whatever be the appropriate range of the density here. So, in particular, we can consider given random variables we can define an expectation of  $x$  plus  $y$ , expectation of  $x$  minus  $y$ , expectation of  $\log$  of  $x$  square  $y$ , any type of function of the random variable  $x$  and  $y$ , we can find out its expected value.

Now, in particular, we will be concerned about product moments. So, we define  $\mu'_{r,s}$  as expectation of  $X$  to the power  $r$   $Y$  to the power  $s$ . This is  $r, s$  th product moment. Now, here this is non-central moment as we had seen in the univariate case also, we can define central and non-central moments. So, in particular, we can consider  $\mu'_{1,1}$  that is equal to expectation of  $X$  into  $Y$ ; if we consider  $\mu'_{1,0}$  that is expectation of  $X$ , that is the mean of  $X$  or the expected value of the random variable  $X$ . Similarly, if we consider  $\mu'_{0,1}$  that is equal to expectation of  $Y$ , that is equal to the expectation of random variable  $Y$ . Now, using this  $\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Y$ , we can define product moments which are central.



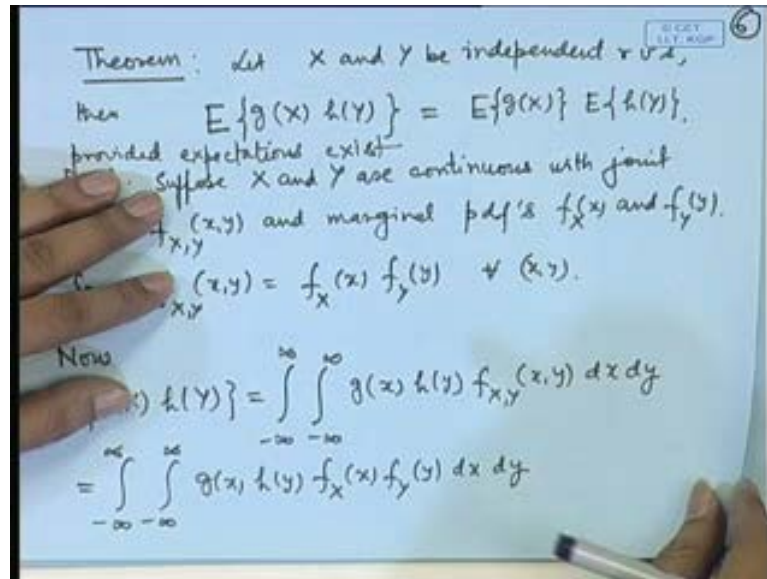
(Refer Slide Time: 15:39)

$\mu_{r,s} = E(X - \mu_X)^r (Y - \mu_Y)^s$  (r,s)<sup>th</sup> central product moment  
 $r=1, s=1$   
 $\mu_{1,1} = E(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y) \rightarrow$  covariance between X and Y.  
 $= E(XY - X\mu_Y - \mu_X Y + \mu_X \mu_Y)$   
 $= E(XY) - \mu_X \mu_Y - \mu_X \mu_Y + \mu_X \mu_Y$   
 $= \mu_{XY} - \mu_X \mu_Y = \mu'_{11} - \mu'_{10} \mu'_{0,1}$   
 $= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$   
 random variables X and Y are independent  
 then  $E(X^r Y^s) = E(X^r)E(Y^s)$   
 $E(X - \mu_X)^r (Y - \mu_Y)^s = E(X - \mu_X)^r E(Y - \mu_Y)^s$

So, we can talk about  $\mu_{r,s}$  that is equal expectation of  $X - \mu_X$  to the power  $r$   $Y - \mu_Y$  to the power  $s$ . Now, if we consider a special case  $r$  is equal to 1,  $s$  is equal to 1. So, this is in general,  $r$ th central product moment. So, if we consider both  $r$  and  $s$  to be 1, that is expectation of  $X - \mu_X$  into  $Y - \mu_Y$ ; this is called the covariance between  $X$  and  $Y$ . We can further simplify this, we can write it as expectation of  $XY - X\mu_Y - \mu_X Y + \mu_X \mu_Y$ ; that is equal to expectation of  $XY$  minus  $\mu_X \mu_Y$ . So, nowhere if we take expectation, this is  $\mu_X \mu_Y - \mu_X \mu_Y + \mu_X \mu_Y$ . So, this term cancels off. And we are getting, we can use this notation  $\mu_{XY}$  here or  $\mu'_{1,1}$  prime minus  $\mu'_{1,0}$  prime  $\mu'_{0,1}$  prime. We can further see the effect of independence on the moments.

If random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then expectation of  $X$  to the power  $r$ ,  $Y$  to the power  $s$ , this will become expectation of  $X$  to the power  $r$  into expectation of  $Y$  to the power  $s$ . Similarly, expectation of  $X - \mu_X$  to the power  $r$   $Y - \mu_Y$  to the power  $s$ , that will become expectation of  $X - \mu_X$  to the power  $r$  expectation of  $Y - \mu_Y$  to the power  $s$ . To see this let us prove a general result regarding the independent random variables.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:36)



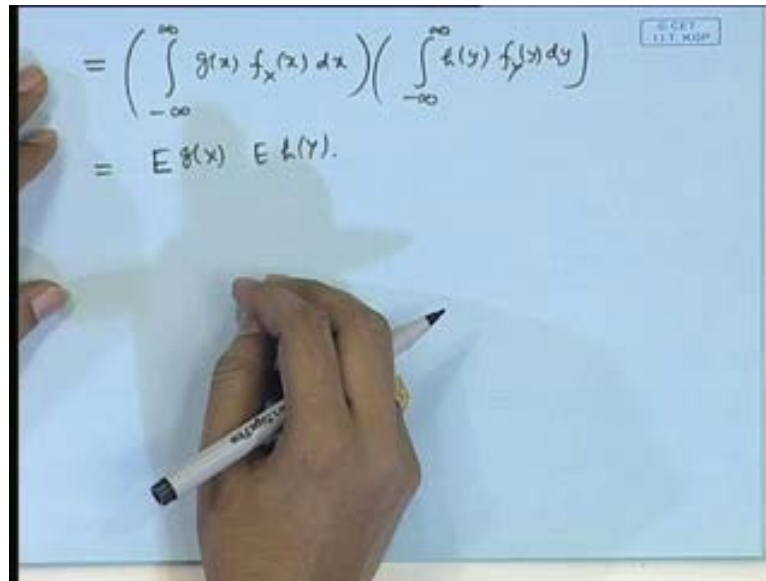
Let X and Y be independent random variables. Then if we are considering expectation of a product function, then this is equal to product of the expectations. Let us assume that X and Y are continuous with joint pdf  $f_{X,Y}$  and marginal pdfs  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ . So, since X and Y are given to be independent, we have  $f_{X,Y}$  is equal to  $f_X$  into  $f_Y$  for all  $x, y$ . So, now consider expectation of  $g(X)h(Y)$ . So, of course, these statements are valid provided these expectations exist.

(No audio from 20:19 to 20:28)

So, let us consider expectation of  $g(X)h(Y)$ . So, by definition of the expectation it is equal to  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)h(y)f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy$  or  $dy dx$ . Since the random variables are independent we can make use of the condition of independence. That means, this is equal to  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)h(y)f_X(x)f_Y(y) dx dy$ .



(Refer Slide Time: 21:16)



The image shows a hand holding a white marker writing on a whiteboard. The whiteboard contains the following mathematical derivation:

$$= \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_x(x) dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_y(y) dy \right)$$
$$= E g(x) E h(y).$$

Now, this is nothing but the product of the integrals  $g(x)f(x)dx$  and  $h(y)f(y)dy$  which is nothing but expectation of  $g(x)$  into expectation of  $h(y)$ . So, the expectation of a product is equal to the product of expectations in case of independent random variables.

A similar proof can be given in case the random variables are discrete, because here the integrals can be replaced by the summations and the density function can be replaced by the mass function. The proof is a little bit involved in the case of mixed random variables and when one of them may be discrete or continuous etcetera. So, in particular if  $g(X)$  is  $X$  to the power  $r$  and  $h(Y)$  is  $Y$  to the power  $s$ . So, expectation of the product moment is equal to the product of the individual moments, and this statement is valid for non-central as well as central moments. Now, if we make use of this condition on the first central moment - first central product moment which we call as a covariance, then expectation of  $X$  into  $Y$  will be equal to expectation  $X$  into expectation  $Y$ , and therefore, covariance term will become 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:17)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_x(x) dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_y(y) dy \right) \\ &= E g(x) E h(y). \end{aligned}$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ .

The coefficient correlation between  $X$  and  $Y$

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{s.d.}(X) \text{s.d.}(Y)} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$
$$\sigma_X^2 = \text{Var}(X), \quad \sigma_Y^2 = \text{Var}(Y).$$

So, we have the consequence of this above theorem. That if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$  is 0. Using the covariance, one defines the coefficient of correlation between  $X$  and  $Y$ . We denote  $\rho_{X, Y}$  that is defined as covariance between  $X$ ,  $Y$  divided by standard deviation of  $X$  into standard deviation of  $Y$ . We can use a notation  $\sigma_{XY}$  divided by  $\sigma_X \sigma_Y$  where  $\sigma_X^2$  was a variance of  $X$  and  $\sigma_Y^2$  denotes the variance of  $Y$ . Now, the question arises that what this correlation coefficient between  $X$  and  $Y$  represent. So, we claim that this gives a measure of linear relationship between the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 24:47)

Consider r.v.s  $U$  and  $V$  with  
 $E(U)=0, E(U^2)=1, E(V)=0, E(V^2)=1$ .

Consider the term  
 $E(U-V)^2 \geq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow E(U^2+V^2-2UV) \geq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow E(UV) \leq 1 \dots (1)$

Similarly  
 $E(U+V)^2 \geq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow E(U^2+V^2+2UV) \geq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow E(UV) \geq -1 \dots (2)$

$-1 \leq E(UV) \leq 1 \dots (3)$

So, in particular, let us consider say **consider say** random variables  $U$  and  $V$  with **say** expectation of  $U$  is 0, expectation of  $U$  square is equal to 1, expectation of  $V$  is equal to 0, expectation of  $V$  square is equal to 1. If we consider these 2 random variables, consider the term expectation of  $U$  minus  $V$  whole square. Now, naturally this is greater than or equal to 0 being the average value of a non-negative term. Now, this will imply expectation of  $U$  square plus  $V$  square minus  $2UV$  is greater than or equal to 0. Substituting the value of expectation  $U$  square and expectation of  $V$  square as 1, this relationship is reducing to expectation of  $UV$  is less than or equal to 1.

Similarly, expectation of  $U$  plus  $V$  whole square is greater than or equal to 0. This yields expectation of  $U$  square plus  $V$  square plus  $2UV$  is greater than or equal to 0. Once again substituting the values of expectation  $U$  square and expectation  $V$  square as 1, we get expectation of  $UV$  greater than or equal to minus 1. So, we have got that expectation of  $U$  into  $V$  lies between plus 1 and minus 1 provided expectation of  $U$  and expectation of  $V$  is 0, and expectation of  $U$  square and expectation of  $V$  square is 1.

Now, we can consider when the equality will be attained. So, here equality at 1 will be attained when expectation of  $U$  minus  $V$  whole square is equal to 0. Now expectation of a non-negative random variable is 0 if and only if the random variable itself is 0. That means  $U$  must be equal to  $V$  with probability 1. In a similar way, the equality at minus 1 will be attained, if  $U$  is equal to minus  $V$  with probability 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:58)

Here  $E(UV) = 1$  iff  $P(U=V) = 1$   
 $\geq E(UV) = -1$  iff  $P(U=-V) = 1$ .  
Now for any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , let  
 $E(X) = \mu_x$ ,  $E(Y) = \mu_y$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $\text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_y^2$ .  
Define  $U = \frac{X - \mu_x}{\sigma_x}$ ,  $V = \frac{Y - \mu_y}{\sigma_y}$   
 $E(U) = E\left(\frac{X - \mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right) = 0$ ,  $E(U^2) = E\left(\frac{(X - \mu_x)^2}{\sigma_x^2}\right) = 1$ .  
 $E(V) = 0$ ,  $E(V^2) = 1$ .  
So  $-1 \leq E(UV) \leq 1$ .  $\dots (4)$

Let us consider the expressions for this. Here expectation of  $UV$  is equal to 1 if and only if probability of  $U$  is equal to  $V$  is equal to 1, and expectation of  $U$  into  $V$  is equal to minus 1. So, now let us take for any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , let us use a notation that expectation of  $X$  is equal to  $\mu_x$ , expectation of  $Y$  is equal to  $\mu_y$ , variance of  $X$  is equal to **say**  $\sigma_x^2$  and variance of  $Y$  is equal to  $\sigma_y^2$ ; define  $U$  is equal to  $X - \mu_x$  by  $\sigma_x$ ,  $V$  is equal to  $Y - \mu_y$  by  $\sigma_y$ . So, if we take expectation of  $U$ , this is equal to expectation of  $X - \mu_x$  by  $\sigma_x$ , and by the linearity property of expectation, it is expectation  $X - \mu_x$  by  $\sigma_x$ , that is simply 0.

If we consider expectation of  $U^2$  that is equal to expectation of  $X - \mu_x$  square by  $\sigma_x^2$ . Now, the numerator is simply variance of  $X$  that is  $\sigma_x^2$ . So, it is 1. So, in a similar way, you can see that expectation of  $V$  is 0 and expectation of  $V^2$  is 1. So, if we make use of the equality that we have proved here for  $U, V$  random variables with the property that expectations are 0 and the expectation of the squares are 1. So, we get expectation of  $UV$  between minus 1 to 1. Now, for any random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , when  $U$  and  $V$  are defined like this; what is expectation of  $UV$  representing?

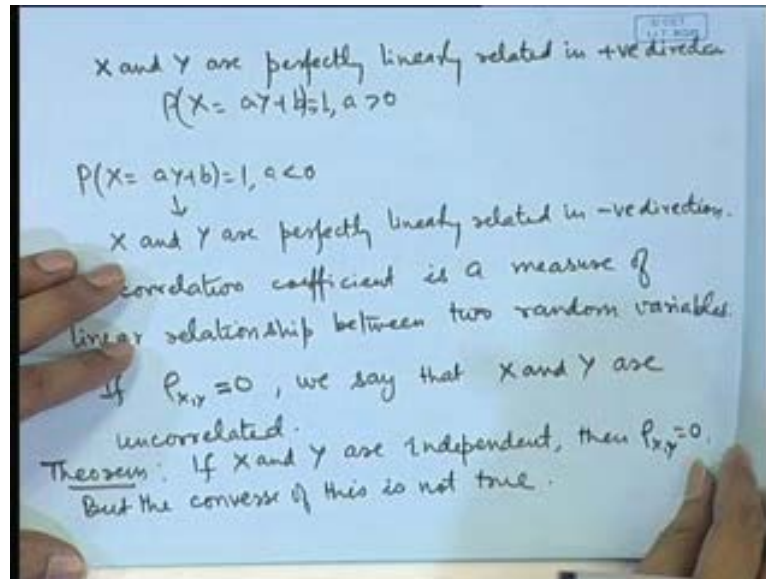
(Refer Slide Time: 30:43)

So  $E(UV) = E\left(\frac{X-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)\left(\frac{Y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)$   
 $= \frac{\text{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \rho_{X,Y}$   
So for any r.v.s X and Y  
 $-1 \leq \rho_{X,Y} \leq 1$   
 $\rho_{X,Y} = 1 \Leftrightarrow P\left(\frac{X-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} = \frac{Y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right) = 1$   
or  $P(X = aY + b) = 1$  where  $a > 0$   
 $\rho_{X,Y} = -1 \Leftrightarrow P\left(\frac{X-\mu_X}{\sigma_X} = -\frac{Y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right) = 1$  or  $P(X = aY + b) = 1$   
if  $a < 0$

So, expectation of UV is equal to expectation of X minus mu X by sigma X into Y minus mu Y by sigma Y. So, the numerator here is simply the covariance term between X, Y divided by the standard deviations of the X and Y. That is the correlation coefficient between. So, for any random variables X and Y - the correlation coefficient lies between plus 1 and minus 1; the least value is minus 1 and the maximum value is plus 1.

Now, rhoX, Y is equal to 1. So, we look at the conditions for attaining the equality, expectation of UV was 1, if and only if probability of U is equal to V is 1. So, this will be satisfied if and only if probability that X minus mu X by sigma X is equal to Y minus mu Y by sigma Y is equal to 1 or you can say probability that X is a linear function of Y. That is x is equal to sum a times Y plus b where a is a positive number, because sigma X by sigma Y. Similarly, rhoX, Y is equal to minus 1 if and only if X minus mu X by sigma X is equal to minus Y minus mu Y by sigma Y is equal to 1 or probability that X is equal to aY plus b is equal to 1 if a is negative. So, this condition that X is equal to aY plus b where a is a positive; this is known as that X and Y.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:04)



So, we can write it that X and Y are perfectly linearly related in positive direction. That is X is equal to aY plus b for a positive and probability of this statement is 1. And if we say probability of X equal to aY plus b is equal to 1 where a is negative, then we say that X and Y are perfectly linearly related in negative direction. Now, this gives an interpretation for the coefficient of correlation. So, we can see that - in general coefficient of correlation lies between minus 1 to plus 1. The bounds minus 1 and 1 are attained. So, minus 1 is attained when there is a perfect linear relationship in a negative direction or you can say perfectly negatively linearly related, and the equality at 1 is attained when it is perfectly linearly related in the positive direction or perfectly positively linearly related.

So, in general any value between minus 1 to 1 denotes the degree of the linear relationship between random variables X and Y. Suppose I say the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.7 that shows that there is a good positive correlation between X and Y, and here the relationship is of the linear type. If we say  $\rho_{X,Y}$  is equal to minus 0.3; it shows that there is a lower degree of negative linear relationship between the random variables X and Y. When  $\rho_{X,Y}$  is equal to 0, we say that the random variables X and Y are uncorrelated; now, here uncorrelated means that the linear relationship is not existent between random variables X and Y. So, we can interpret these statements as... So, correlation coefficient is a measure of linear relationship between 2 random variables. If  $\rho_{X,Y}$  is 0, we say that X and Y are uncorrelated. At this point, it is important to



understand the difference between uncorrelatedness and independence. If we say that the random variables are uncorrelated, it does not mean that they are independent. Of course if X and Y are independent, it will imply uncorrelatedness, because if X and Y are independent then covariance term is 0, therefore correlation term will also be 0. So, we have the following result, if X and Y are independent then  $\rho_{X,Y}$  is 0, but the converse of this is not true. So, proof is of course obvious that – if X and Y are independent then covariance term is 0 and therefore, the correlation term is 0. Let us look at the converse of it.

(No audio from 37:34 to 37:42)

(Refer Slide Time: 37:35)

Example: Let X and Y have joint pmf

X \ Y	-1	0	1	$P_{X,Y}$
0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
1	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
$P_{X,Y}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	

$E(X) = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$   
 $E(Y) = -1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 0$   
 $E(XY) = 0 \cdot (-1) \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 0 \cdot (1) \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 0$   
 $Cov(X,Y) = 0$  and  $\rho_{X,Y} = 0$ . So uncorrelated.  
 $P_X(0) = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $P_Y(0) = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $P_{X,Y}(0,0) = \frac{1}{3}$   
 So X and Y are not independent.

Let X and Y have joint pmf as X is taking values 0,1, Y is taking values minus 1, 0 and 1. The probabilities are 0, 1 by 3, 0, 1 by 3, 0, 1 by 3. So, here we consider **say** expectation of X. So, here you can calculate the marginal distributions by adding the rows and columns. So, the marginal distribution of X is 1 by 3, 2 by 3, the marginal distribution of Y is obtained as 1 by 3, 1 by 3, 1 by 3. So, expectation of X is equal to 0 into 1 by 3 plus 1 into 2 by 3; that is equal to 2 by 3. If we look at expectation of Y that is equal to minus 1 into 1 by 3 plus 0 into 1 by 3 plus 1 into 1 by 3; that is equal to 0. If we look at expectation of X into Y; so, we look at all the possibilities of the X and Y values here. So, X is 0, Y is minus 1 with probability 0 plus X is 0, Y is 0 with probability 1 by 3, X is 0, Y is 1 with probability 0, X is 1, Y is minus 1 with probability 1 by 3, X is 1, Y is

0 with probability 1 by 3 plus X is 1, Y is 1 with probability 1 by 3. You can see these terms vanish, we are getting minus 1 by 3 and plus 1 by 3. So, it is 0. Therefore, covariance term is 0 and consequently rhoX, Y is 0. But we can see here that the product of the marginal distributions, for example, pX, 0 and pY, 0 both are 1 by 3, but pX, Y. So, let us write here, pX, 0 is 1 by 3, pY, 0 is 1 by 3, but if we consider pX, Y 0, 0; that is also 1 by 3. So, X and Y are not independent. So, they are uncorrelated, but not independent.

Now, this further brings out the contrast between the concept of independence and correlatedness. So, independence simply means then that the random variables or we can say the observance of the 2 phenomena has nothing to do with each other; that is one phenomena which yields the random variable X and the phenomena which yields the random variable Y, they are totally independent; whereas the correlation gives a degree of linear relationship between the random variables. So, if they do not have a linear relationship, the random variables may become uncorrelated. But that does not mean that they are independent. For example, even in this problem, it may happen that X is actually Y square, because the probability that X equal to 0 is same as probability Y is equal to 0, and probability X equal to 1 is same sum of probability Y is equal to minus 1 and probability Y is equal to 1. So, this could be a non-linear relationship. So, let us take up a few examples for calculation of the covariance and correlation term.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:28)

Ex. Let  $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \begin{cases} x+y, & 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$

$E(XY) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy(x+y) dx dy = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$

$f_X(x) = \int_0^1 (x+y) dy = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2}, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$

$E(X) = \int_0^1 x(x + \frac{1}{2}) dx = \frac{7}{12} \rightarrow E(Y)$

$E(Y) = \int_0^1 x^2(x + \frac{1}{2}) dx = \frac{5}{12} \rightarrow E(Y)$

$V(X) = E(X^2) - \{E(X)\}^2 = \frac{11}{144} \rightarrow V(Y) = \sigma_Y^2$

$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\frac{1}{3} - (\frac{7}{12})^2}{\sqrt{\frac{11}{144}}} = \boxed{-\frac{1}{11}}$

So, let  $f_{X, Y}$  be equal to  $x + y$  for  $0 < x < 1$ ,  $0 < y < 1$ , and  $0$  elsewhere. In order to calculate the coefficient of correlation, we need the first and second moments of  $x$  and  $y$  and also the first product moment of the joint distribution. So, expectation of  $X$  into  $Y$  that is equal to double integral  $xy$  into  $x + y$   $dx dy$ ,  $0$  to  $1$ . So, this is simply integral of  $x^2 y + x y^2$  which we can easily evaluate and it is equal to  $\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6}$  that is equal to  $\frac{1}{3}$ . In order to calculate the moments of  $x$  and  $y$  separately, we can make use of the marginal distributions. So, you can see here this will be equal to  $x + \frac{1}{2}$  for  $0 < x < 1$ , and similarly the marginal distributions of  $Y$  will become  $y + \frac{1}{2}$  for  $0 < y < 1$ , and  $0$  elsewhere.

The distributions of  $X$  and  $Y$  are same. So, it is enough if we calculate the moments for  $1$  of them. So, expectation of  $X$  becomes the integral of  $x$  into  $x + \frac{1}{2}$  from  $0$  to  $1$  which is obviously  $\frac{7}{12}$ . So, the same value will be expectation of  $Y$ ; and expectation of  $X^2$  likewise can be calculated; that is equal to  $\frac{5}{12}$  same as expectation  $Y^2$ , and therefore, variance of  $X$  that is equal to expectation of  $X^2$  minus expectation of  $X$  whole square that is equal to  $\frac{11}{144}$ ; that is  $\sigma_X^2$  and  $\sigma_Y^2$ . So, correlation coefficient is then equal to  $\frac{1}{3} - \frac{7}{12}^2$  divided by  $\frac{11}{144}$  which after simplification is  $-\frac{1}{11}$ . So, this means that there is a low degree of negative linear relationship between the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ . We can take up some examples which we read yesterday.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:44)

$$E_{X, Y} \quad f_{X, Y}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2, & 0 < y < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$$

$$f_X(x) = \int_0^x 2 \, dy = \begin{cases} 2x, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$$

$$\int_0^1 2x^2 \, dx = \frac{2}{3}, \quad E(X^2) = \int_0^1 2x^3 \, dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{18}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_y^1 2 \, dx = \begin{cases} 2(1-y), & 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$$

$$\int_0^1 2y(1-y) \, dy = 1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$E(Y^2) = \int_0^1 2y^2(1-y) \, dy = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{6}$$

So, let us consider say  $f_X$ ,  $Y$  is equal to  $2y$ ,  $0 < y < x < 1$ ,  $0$  elsewhere. Here, suppose we want the distribution of  $X$  then it is equal to integral with respect to  $y$ ,  $2dy$  from  $0$  to  $x$  that gives  $2x$ . So, expectation of  $X$  is equal to  $2x^2 dx$  from  $0$  to  $1$ ; that is  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Expectation of  $X^2$  is equal to integral  $2x^3 dx$ ,  $0$  to  $1$ ; that is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore,  $\text{Var}(X)$  that is variance of  $X$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2$ ; that is equal to  $\frac{5}{18}$ . I am sorry this is not  $\frac{5}{18}$ , it is  $\frac{1}{18}$ . So, we are able to calculate the mean and variance of the distributions of  $X$ .

Similarly, let us calculate the marginal distribution of  $Y$  that is integral  $2 dx$  from  $y$  to  $1$ ; that is equal to  $2(1 - y)$  for  $0 < y < 1$ ,  $0$  elsewhere. So, expectation of  $Y$  is equal to integral  $2y(1 - y) dy$  from  $0$  to  $1$ ; that is equal to  $\frac{1}{3}$ . So, that is  $y^2(1 - y)$  that is  $\frac{1}{3}$ . Expectation of  $Y^2$  will be equal to  $2y^2(1 - y) dy$  integral from  $0$  to  $1$ . So, once again  $2y^2$ ; so,  $y^2$  is integrated to  $\frac{2}{3}$ . So, this  $\frac{2}{3} - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{3}$ ;  $y^3$  is integrated to  $\frac{1}{4}$ . So, that is  $\frac{1}{4}$ ; that is half. So, it is equal to  $\frac{1}{6} - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2$ ; that is  $\frac{1}{18}$ . So, we can calculate the variance of  $Y$  that is equal to  $\frac{1}{18} - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2$ . So, that is equal to  $\frac{1}{18}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 48:44)

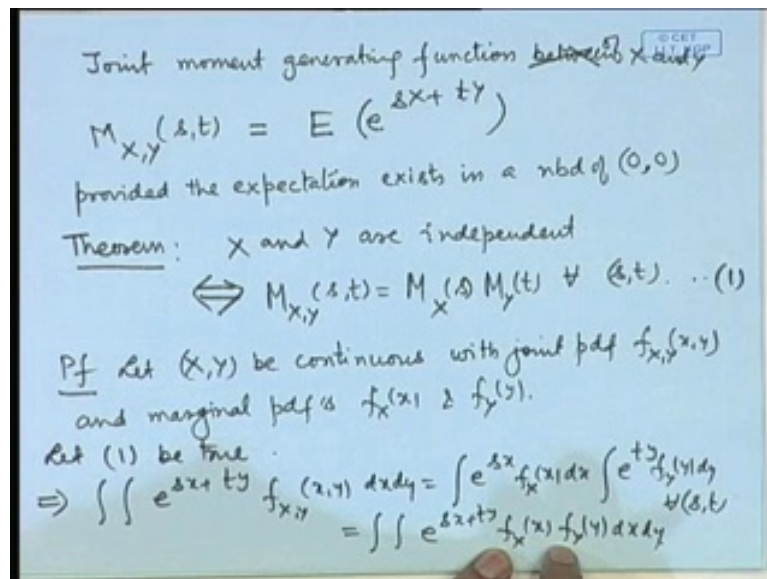
$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_Y^2 = \text{Var}(Y) &= \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{18} \\ E(XY) &= \int_0^1 \int_0^x 2xy \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3} \\ \text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} - \frac{2}{9} \\ &= -\frac{1}{9} \\ \rho_{X, Y} &= \frac{-\frac{1}{9}}{\frac{1}{18}} = -\frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Now, we have calculated the means and variances of the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ . In order to get the correlation coefficient, we need the product moment also. So, expectation of  $X$  into  $Y$  that is equal to  $2xy$ . Now, here we can choose the order of

integration, we may do  $dy dx$ . The range of  $y$  is from 0 to  $x$ , and the range of  $x$  is from 0 to 1. So, this is equal to 2 times integral 0 to 1.

Now, firstly we are integrating with respect to  $y$ . So, we get  $y$  square by 2. So, this term cancels out and that gives us  $x$  square. So, we are left with  $x$  cube  $dx$  that is equal to 1 by 4. So, covariance term between  $X$  and  $Y$  that is equal to expectation of  $XY$  minus expectation  $X$  into expectation of  $Y$ ; that is equal to 1 by 4 minus 2 by 3 into 1 by 3; that is equal to 1 by 4 minus 2 by 9. So, once again it is equal to 1 by 36. So, the coefficient of correlation is equal to 1 by 36 divided by 1 by 18 both variances of  $X$  and  $Y$  are 1 by 18. So, sigma  $X$  into sigma  $Y$  will be 1 by 18. So, it is equal to half. So, this shows that there is a moderate degree of relationship, moderate degree of positive linear relationship between the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ . We also introduce the concept of the joint moment generating function between the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  as follows.

(Refer Slide Time: 51:35)



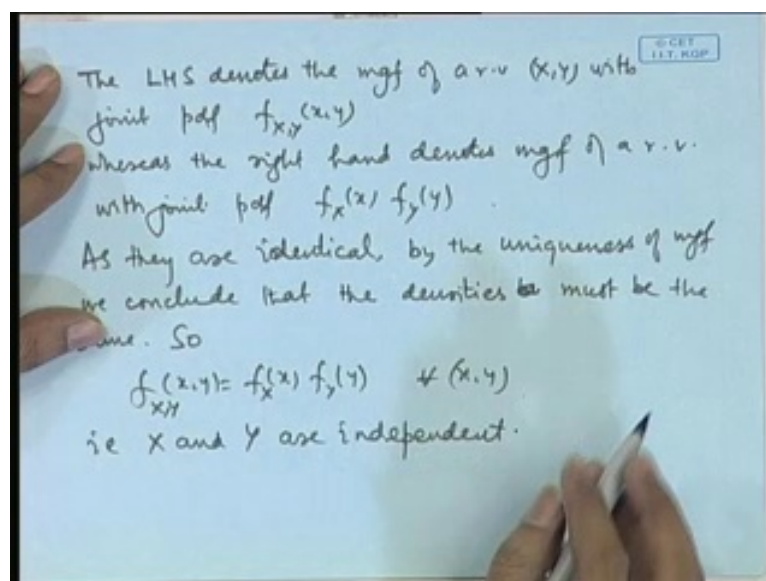
Joint moment generating function between  $X$  and  $Y$ ; so, we use a notation  $M_{X,Y}$  at the point  $s,t$ . It is expectation of  $e$  to the power  $sx$  plus  $ty$ , provided the expectation exists in a neighborhood of  $(0,0)$ . At  $(0,0)$ , this always exist and is equal to 1. So, in a neighborhood of  $(0,0)$  this should exist. Now, the nature of this term is nice, it suggests certain properties. For example, it is equal to expectation of  $e$  to the power  $sx$  into  $e$  to the power  $ty$ . So, the first thing that we observe that if the random variables are independent,

it will become product of the expectations of  $e^{sx}$  and  $e^{ty}$  which are nothing but the individual moment generating functions of  $x$  and  $y$ . However, because of the uniqueness property of the mgf's, we have a stronger result here.

$X$  and  $Y$  are independent; this implies and implied by that  $M_{X,Y}(s,t)$  is equal to  $M_X(s)M_Y(t)$  for all  $s,t$ . In order to prove this, let us consider the case of continuous random variable with joint pdf  $f_{X,Y}$  and marginal pdf's  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ . Now, here let us notice that - if the random variables are independent, then this expectation of a product will be equal to the product of the expectations. So, the joint mgf will be equal to the product of the individual or marginal mgf's.

Let us look at the converse. Let this(1) relation be true, then this implies that  $\int \int e^{sx+ty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy$  is equal to  $\int e^{sx} f_X(x) dx \int e^{ty} f_Y(y) dy$  for all  $s,t$ . Now, the right hand side we can write as product of the two integrals can be written as a combined integral  $\int \int e^{sx+ty} f_X(x) f_Y(y) dx dy$ . Now, note here the left hand side denotes the joint mgf of random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  then the pdf is  $f_{X,Y}$ . The right hand side denotes the joint distribution - the joint mgf of the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  then their joint distribution is given by  $f_X(x) f_Y(y)$ . And this statement is true for all  $s,t$ . So, by the uniqueness of the mgf, the two densities must be same.

(Refer Slide Time: 56:08)





So, the left hand side denotes the moment generating function of a random variable  $X, Y$  with joint pdf  $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$  whereas the right hand side denotes mgf of a random variable with joint pdf  $f_X$  into  $f_Y$ . As they are identical by the uniqueness of mgf we conclude that the distributions must be the same. So, we should have  $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$  is equal to  $f_X$  into  $f_Y$  for all  $x, y$ . That is  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. So, this is quite a strong property and that is true, because of the uniqueness property of the moment generating functions. So, independence of random variables can also be proved through the consideration of the joint mgf.

(Refer Slide Time: 58:05)

Theorem: If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) M_Y(t)$$

↓

$$E e^{t(x+y)} = E e^{tx} \cdot e^{ty} \rightarrow E e^{tx} E e^{ty}$$

We end this one with another result, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $M_{X+Y}$  that is the moment generating function of random variable  $X$  plus  $Y$ ; it is equal to the product of  $M_X$  and  $M_Y$ . The proof of this is almost trivial. The left hand side is expectation of  $e$  to the power  $t x$  plus  $y$  and so if independence is there, this can be written as  $t x$  into  $e$  to the power  $t y$  which will become expectation of  $e$  to the power  $t x$  into expectation of  $e$  to the power  $t y$  which will be this term and this term respectively. This result is extremely useful in obtaining the distributions of sums of various random variables, because if we know the mgf's of those random variables, then we can identify the distribution of the sum by identification of the mgf of the sum as the mgf of certain random variable. So, we will consider the bivariate normal distribution in the next lecture.