

# **ESSENTIALS OF PROBABILITY THEORY**

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# Random experiment and random source of data

$S$  : **outcome space**, i.e., the set of possible outcomes  $s$  of the random experiment;

$\mathcal{F}$  : **space of events (or results) of interest**, i.e., the set of the combinations of interest where the outcomes in  $S$  can be clustered;

$P(\cdot)$  : **probability** function defined in  $\mathcal{F}$  that associates to any event in  $\mathcal{F}$  a real number between 0 and 1.

$\mathcal{E} = (S, \mathcal{F}, P(\cdot))$  : **random experiment**

Example: roll a dice with six sides to see if an odd or even side appears  $\Rightarrow$

- $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  is the set of the six sides of the dice;
- $\mathcal{F} = \{A, B, S, \emptyset\}$ , where  $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$  and  $B = \{1, 3, 5\}$  are the events of interest, i.e., the even and odd number sets;
- $P(A) = P(B) = 1/2$  (if the dice is fair),  $P(S) = 1$ ,  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ .

A **random variable** of the experiment  $\mathcal{E}$  is a variable  $v$  whose values depend on the outcome  $s$  of  $\mathcal{E}$  through of a suitable function  $\varphi(\cdot) : S \rightarrow V$ , where  $V$  is the set of possible values of  $v$ :

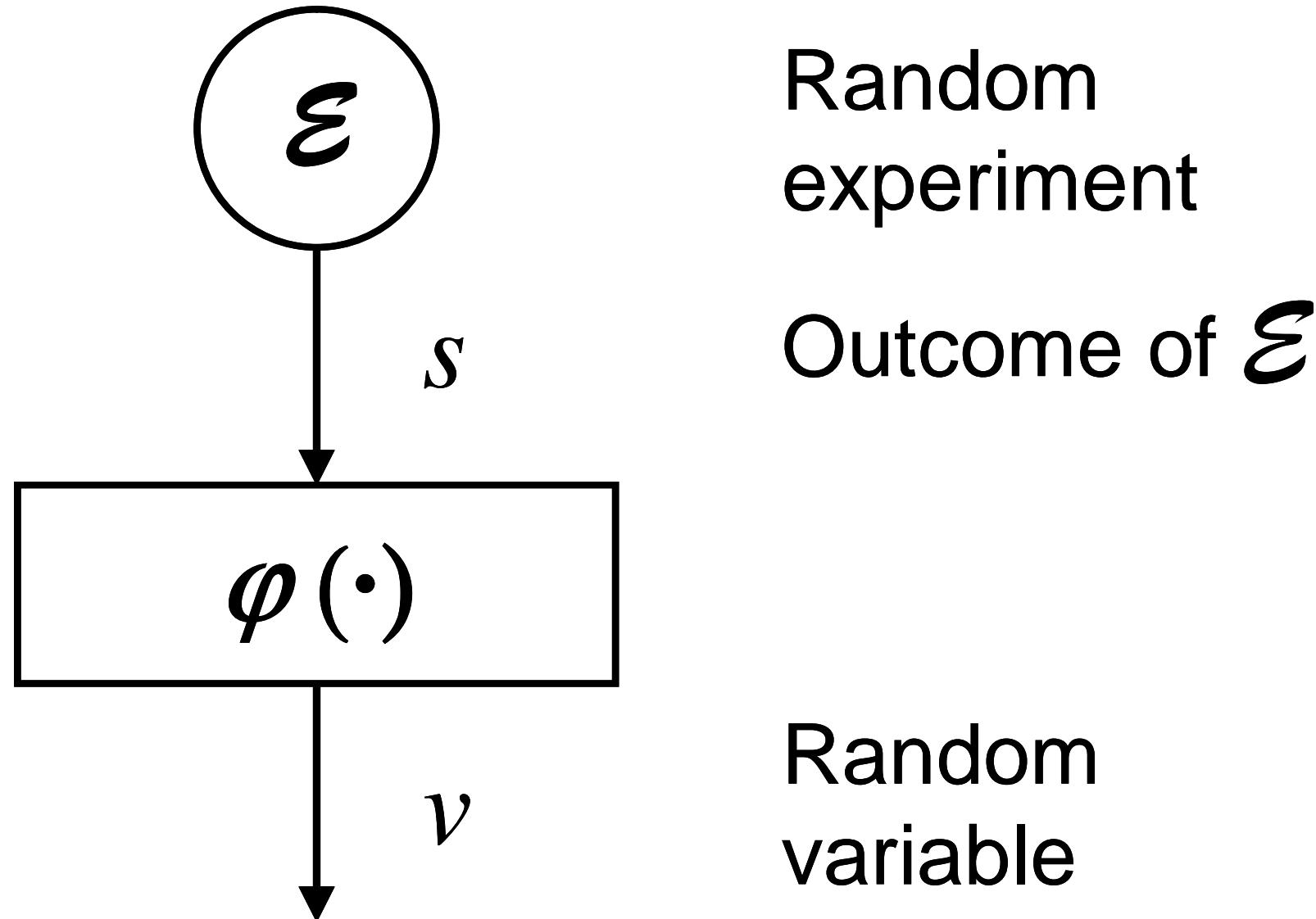
$$v = \varphi(s)$$

Example: the random variable depending on the outcome of the roll of a dice with six sides can be defined as

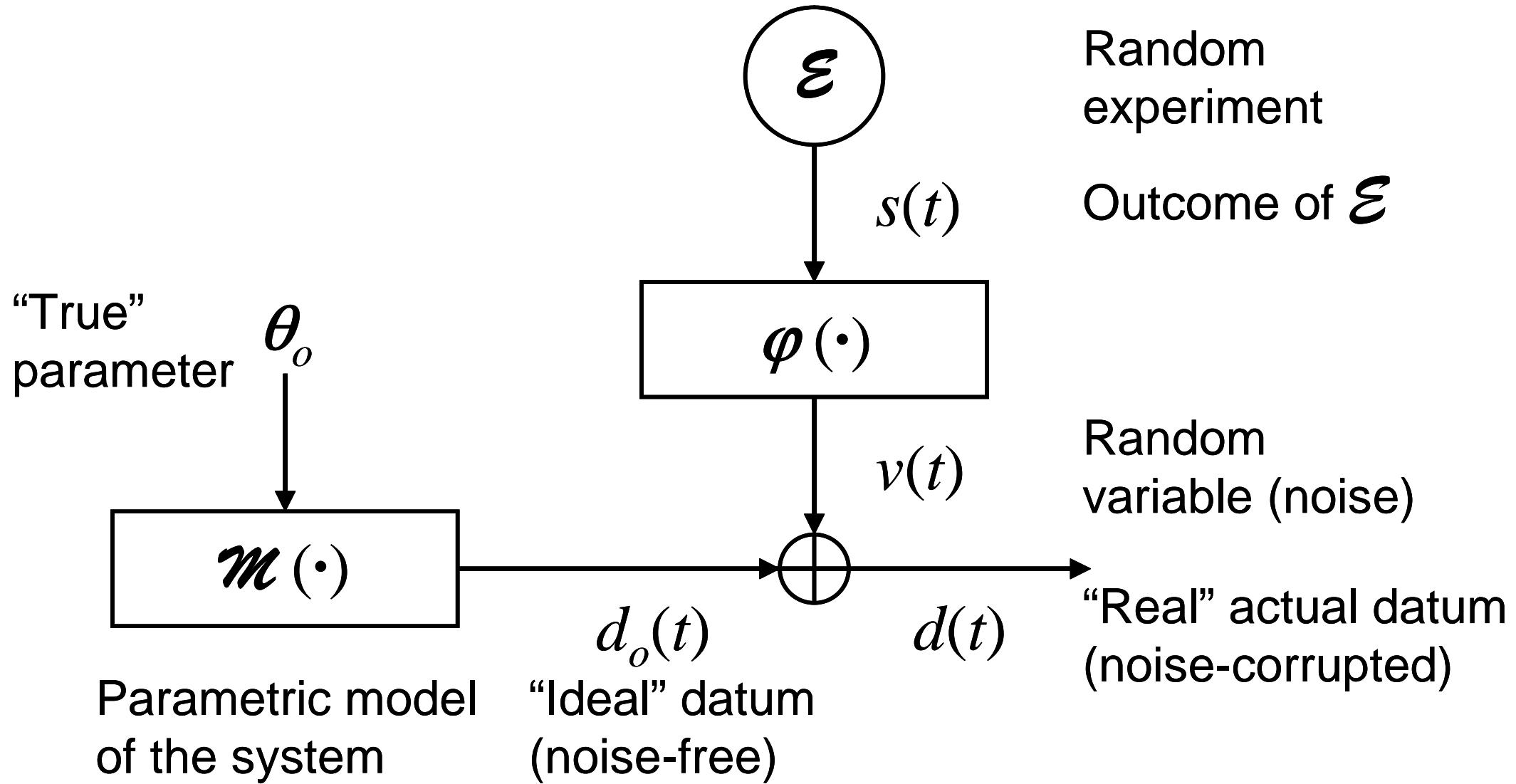
$$v = \varphi(s) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } s \in A = \{2, 4, 6\} \\ -1 & \text{if } s \in B = \{1, 3, 5\} \end{cases}$$

A **random source of data** produces data that, besides the process under investigation characterized by the unknown true value  $\theta_o$  of the variable to be estimated, are also functions of a random variable; in particular, at the time instant  $t$ , the datum  $d(t)$  depends on the random variable  $v(t)$ .

Random experiment and random variable:



Random source of data:



# Probability distribution and density functions

Let us consider a real scalar variable  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The **c.d.f.** or **cumulative (probability) distribution function**  $F(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of the scalar random variable  $v$  is defined as:

$$F(x) = P(v \leq x)$$

Main properties of the function  $F(\cdot)$ :

- $F(-\infty) = 0$
- $F(+\infty) = 1$
- $F(\cdot)$  is a monotonic nondecreasing function:  $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$ ,  $\forall x_1 < x_2$
- $F(\cdot)$  is almost continuous and, in particular, it is continuous from the right:

$$F(x^+) = F(x)$$

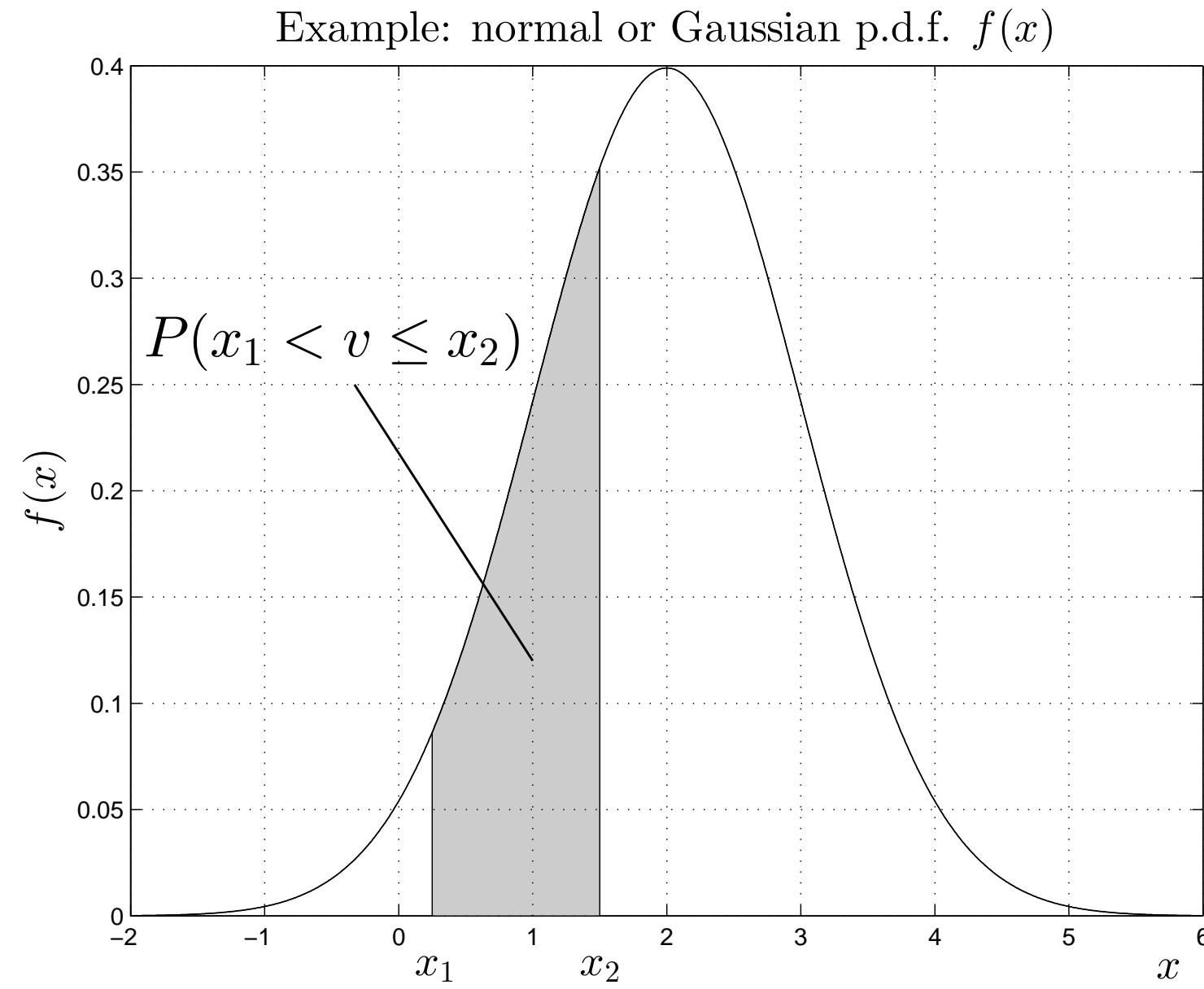
- $P(x_1 < v \leq x_2) = F(x_2) - F(x_1)$
- $P(x_1 \leq v \leq x_2) = F(x_2) - F(x_1^-)$
- $F(\cdot)$  is almost everywhere differentiable

The **p.d.f.** or **probability density function**  $f(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as:

$$f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$$

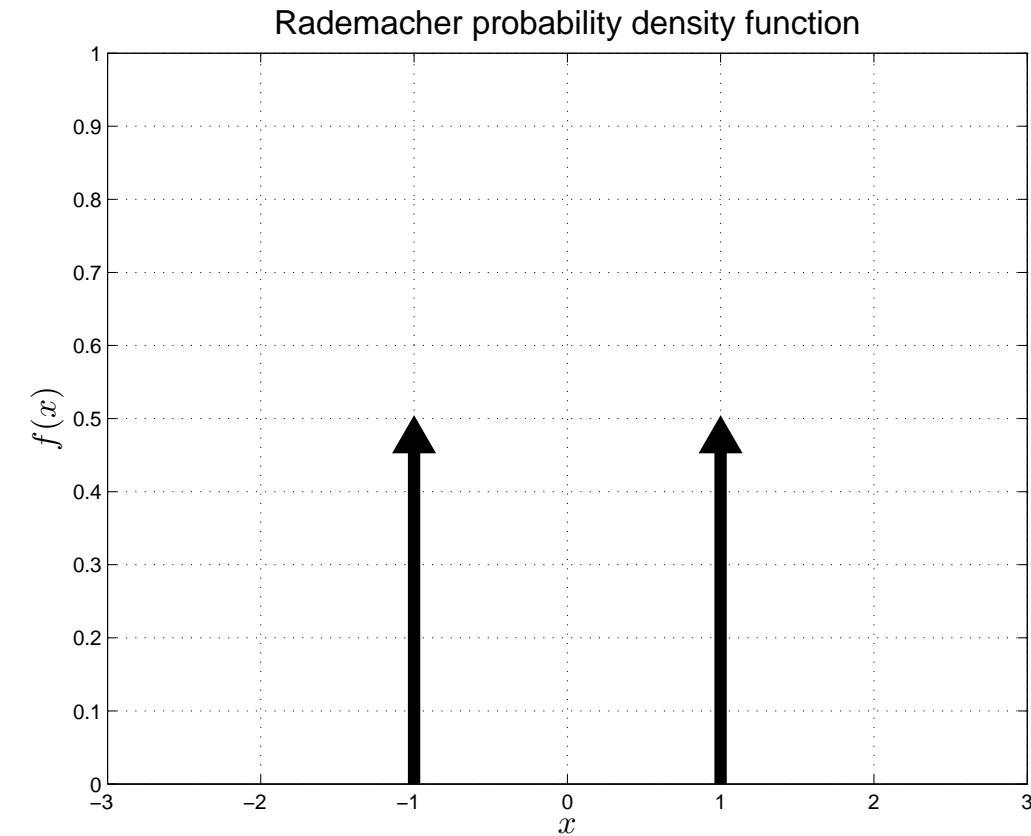
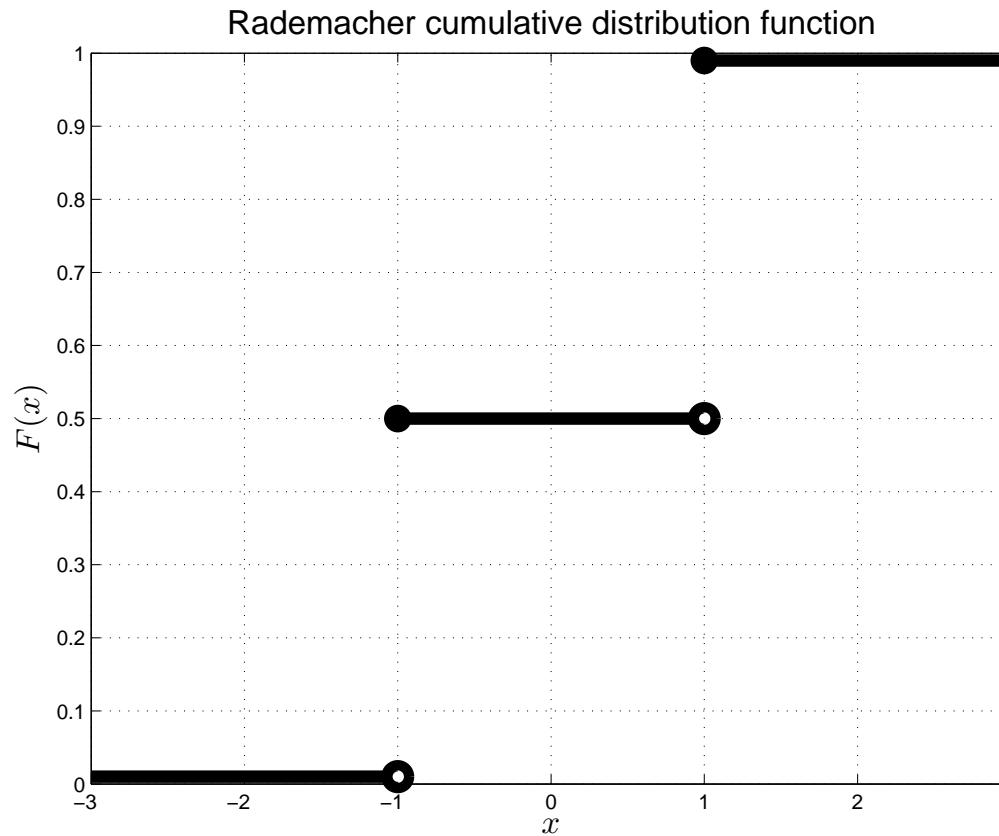
Main properties of the function  $f(\cdot)$ :

- $f(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $f(x)dx = dF(x) = P(x < v \leq x + dx)$
- $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)dx = 1$
- $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(\xi)d\xi$
- $P(x_1 < v \leq x_2) = F(x_2) - F(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x)dx$
- $P(x_1 \leq v \leq x_2) = F(x_2) - F(x_1^-) = \int_{x_1^-}^{x_2} f(x)dx$



Example: a scalar **Rademacher** random variable  $v$  is a binary random variable with

$$P(v=x) = \begin{cases} 1/2, & \text{if } x = -1 \\ 1/2, & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \forall x < -1 \\ 1/2, & \forall x \in [-1, 1] \\ 1, & \forall x \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{2} [\delta(x+1) + \delta(x-1)]$$



# Characteristic elements of a probability distribution

Let us consider a scalar random variable  $v$ .

**Mean** or **mean value** or **expected value** or **expectation**:

$$E [v] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) dx = \bar{v}$$

Note that  $E [\cdot]$  is a linear operator, i.e.:  $E [\alpha v + \beta] = \alpha E [v] + \beta$ ,  $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Variance**:

$$Var [v] = E [(v - E [v])^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x - E [v])^2 f(x) dx = \sigma_v^2 \geq 0$$

**Standard deviation** or **root mean square deviation**:

$$\sigma_v = \sqrt{Var [v]} \geq 0$$

***k*-th order (raw) moment:**

$$m_k [v] = E [v^k] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^k f(x) dx$$

In particular:  $m_0 [v] = E [1] = 1$ ,  $m_1 [v] = E [v] = \bar{v}$

***k*-th order central moment:**

$$\mu_k [v] = E [(v - E [v])^k] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x - E [v])^k f(x) dx$$

In particular:  $\mu_0 [v] = E [1] = 1$ ,  $\mu_1 [v] = E [v - E [v]] = 0$ ,

$$\mu_2 [v] = E [(v - E [v])^2] = Var [v] = \sigma_v^2$$

# Vector random variables

A vector  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$  is a **vector random variable** if it depends on the outcomes of a random experiment  $\mathcal{E}$  through a vector function  $\varphi(\cdot) : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\varphi^{-1}(v_1 \leq x_1, v_2 \leq x_2, \dots, v_n \leq x_n) \in \mathcal{F}, \quad \forall x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$

The **joint cumulative (probability) distribution function**  $F(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is defined as:

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P(v_1 \leq x_1, v_2 \leq x_2, \dots, v_n \leq x_n)$$

with  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$  and with all the inequalities simultaneously satisfied.

The ***i*-th marginal probability distribution function**  $F_i(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} F_i(x_i) &= F(\underbrace{+\infty, \dots, +\infty}_{i-1}, x_i, \underbrace{+\infty, \dots, +\infty}_{n-i}) = \\ &= P(v_1 \leq \infty, \dots, v_{i-1} \leq \infty, v_i \leq x_i, v_{i+1} \leq \infty, \dots, v_n \leq \infty) \end{aligned}$$

The **joint p.d.f.** or **joint probability density function**  $f(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\partial^n F(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \cdots \partial x_n}$$

and it is such that:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_n = P(x_1 < v_1 \leq x_1 + dx_1, \dots, x_n < v_n \leq x_n + dx_n)$$

The ***i*-th marginal probability density function**  $f_i(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as:

$$f_i(x_i) = \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty}}_{n-1 \text{ times}} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_{i-1} dx_{i+1} \cdots dx_n$$

The  $n$  components of the vector random variable  $v$  are **(mutually) independent**, **statistically independent** or **stochastically independent** if and only if:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i), \quad \text{for all } x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$$

**Mean or mean value or expected value or expectation:**

$$E[v] = [E[v_1] \ E[v_2] \ \cdots \ E[v_n]]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad E[v_i] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_i f_i(x_i) dx_i$$

**Variance matrix or covariance matrix:**

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_v &= Var[v] = E[(v - E[v])(v - E[v])^T] = \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x - E[v])(x - E[v])^T f(x) dx \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\end{aligned}$$

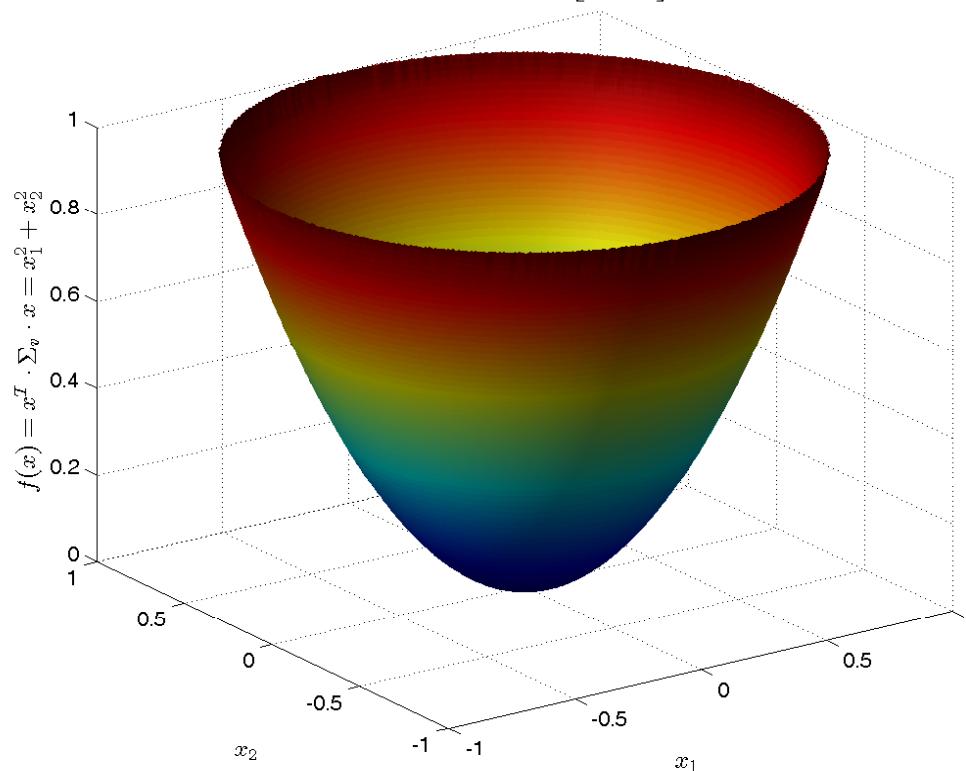
Main properties of  $\Sigma_v$ :

- it is symmetric, i.e.,  $\Sigma_v = \Sigma_v^T$
- it is positive semidefinite, i.e.,  $\Sigma_v \geq 0$ , since the quadratic form  
$$x^T \Sigma_v x = E[(x^T (v - E[v]))^2] \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
- the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i(\Sigma_v) \geq 0, \forall i = 1, \dots, n \Rightarrow \det(\Sigma_v) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i(\Sigma_v) \geq 0$
- $[\Sigma_v]_{ii} = E[(v_i - E[v_i])^2] = \sigma_{v_i}^2 = \sigma_i^2 = \text{variance of } v_i$
- $[\Sigma_v]_{ij} = E[(v_i - E[v_i])(v_j - E[v_j])] = \sigma_{v_i v_j} = \sigma_{ij} = \text{covariance of } v_i \text{ and } v_j$

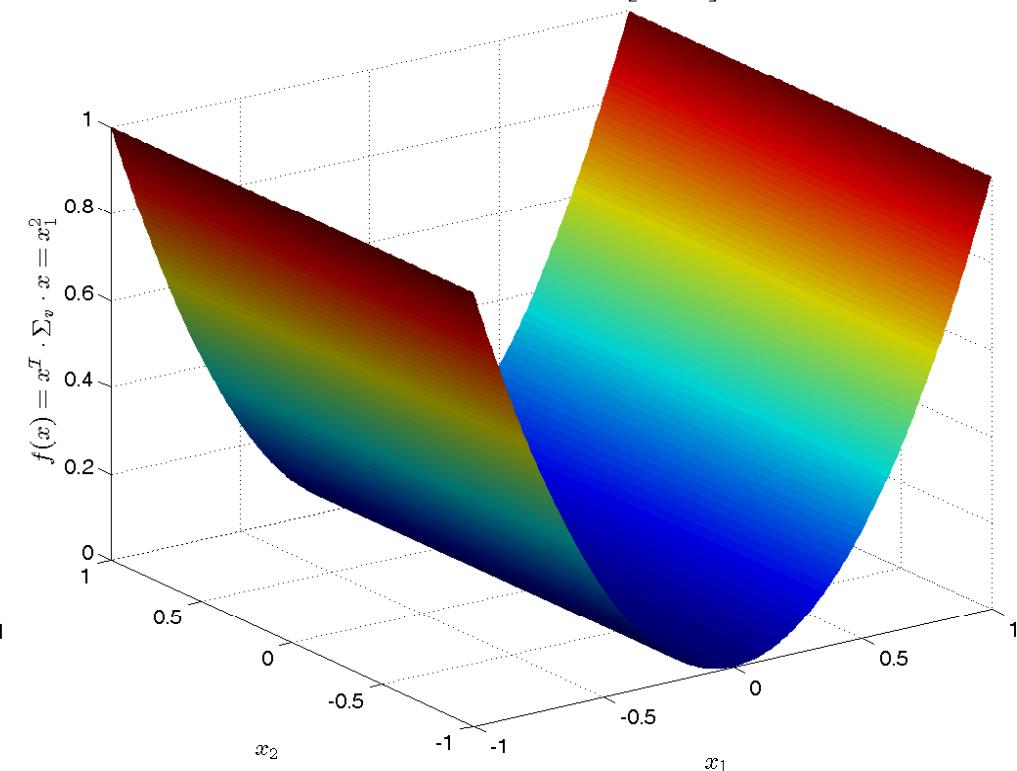
$\Sigma_v$  is positive semidefinite, i.e.,  $\Sigma_v \geq 0$ , since the quadratic form

$$\begin{aligned} x^T \Sigma_v x &= x^T E \left[ (v - E[v])(v - E[v])^T \right] x = E \left[ \underbrace{x^T (v - E[v])}_{\text{scalar quantity } a} \cdot \underbrace{(v - E[v])^T x}_{\text{scalar quantity } a^T} \right] \\ &= E \left[ \underbrace{(x^T (v - E[v]))^2}_{\text{scalar quantity } a^2 \geq 0} \right] \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{aligned}$$

Example of positive definite  $\Sigma_v$ :  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} > 0$



Example of positive semidefinite  $\Sigma_v$ :  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \geq 0$



Example: let  $v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$  be a bidimensional vector random variable  $\Rightarrow$

$$E[v] = \bar{v} = \begin{bmatrix} E[v_1] \\ E[v_2] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{v}_1 \\ \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_v &= E[(v - \bar{v})(v - \bar{v})^T] = E\left[\left(\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \bar{v}_1 \\ \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \bar{v}_1 \\ \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}\right)^T\right] = \\ &= E\left[\begin{bmatrix} v_1 - \bar{v}_1 \\ v_2 - \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_1 - \bar{v}_1 \\ v_2 - \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}^T\right] = E\left[\begin{bmatrix} v_1 - \bar{v}_1 \\ v_2 - \bar{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot [v_1 - \bar{v}_1, v_2 - \bar{v}_2]\right] = \\ &= E\left[\begin{bmatrix} (v_1 - \bar{v}_1)^2 & (v_1 - \bar{v}_1)(v_2 - \bar{v}_2) \\ (v_2 - \bar{v}_2)(v_1 - \bar{v}_1) & (v_2 - \bar{v}_2)^2 \end{bmatrix}\right] = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} E[(v_1 - \bar{v}_1)^2] & E[(v_1 - \bar{v}_1)(v_2 - \bar{v}_2)] \\ E[(v_1 - \bar{v}_1)(v_2 - \bar{v}_2)] & E[(v_2 - \bar{v}_2)^2] \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{v_1}^2 & \sigma_{v_1 v_2} \\ \sigma_{v_1 v_2} & \sigma_{v_2}^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix} = \Sigma_v^T \end{aligned}$$

# Correlation coefficient and correlation matrix

Let us consider any two components  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  of a vector random variable  $v$ .

The **(linear) correlation coefficient**  $\rho_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$  of the scalar random variables  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  is defined as:

$$\rho_{ij} = \frac{E [(v_i - E [v_i])(v_j - E [v_j])]}{\sqrt{E [(v_i - E [v_i])^2]} \sqrt{E [(v_j - E [v_j])^2]}} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j}$$

Note that  $|\rho_{ij}| \leq 1$ , since the vector random variable  $w = [v_i \ v_j]^T$  has:

$$\Sigma_w = Var [w] = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_i^2 & \sigma_{ij} \\ \sigma_{ij} & \sigma_j^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_i^2 & \rho_{ij} \sigma_i \sigma_j \\ \rho_{ij} \sigma_i \sigma_j & \sigma_j^2 \end{bmatrix} \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\det(\Sigma_w) = \sigma_i^2 \sigma_j^2 - \rho_{ij}^2 \sigma_i^2 \sigma_j^2 = (1 - \rho_{ij}^2) \sigma_i^2 \sigma_j^2 \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho_{ij}^2 \leq 1$$

The random variables  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are **uncorrelated** if and only if  $\rho_{ij} = 0$ , i.e., if and only if  $\sigma_{ij} = E[(v_i - E[v_i])(v_j - E[v_j])] = 0$ . Note that:

$$\rho_{ij} = 0 \Leftrightarrow E[v_i v_j] = E[v_i] E[v_j]$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{ij} &= E[(v_i - E[v_i])(v_j - E[v_j])] = E[v_i v_j - v_i E[v_j] - E[v_i] v_j + E[v_i] E[v_j]] = \\ &= E[v_i v_j] - 2E[v_i] E[v_j] + E[v_i] E[v_j] = E[v_i v_j] - E[v_i] E[v_j] = 0 \Leftrightarrow E[v_i v_j] = E[v_i] E[v_j]\end{aligned}$$

If  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are **linearly dependent**, i.e.,  $v_j = \alpha v_i + \beta \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $\alpha \neq 0$ , then  $\rho_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} = \frac{\alpha}{|\alpha|} = \text{sign } (\alpha) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } \alpha > 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } \alpha < 0 \end{cases}$  and then  $|\rho_{ij}| = 1$ ; in fact:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_i^2 &= E[(v_i - E[v_i])^2] = E[v_i^2 - 2v_i E[v_i] + E[v_i]^2] = E[v_i^2] - 2E[v_i]^2 + E[v_i]^2 = \\ &= E[v_i^2] - E[v_i]^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_j^2 &= E[(v_j - E[v_j])^2] = E[(\alpha v_i + \beta - E[\alpha v_i + \beta])^2] = E[(\alpha v_i + \beta - \alpha E[v_i] - \beta)^2] = \\ &= E[(\alpha v_i - \alpha E[v_i])^2] = E[\alpha^2 (v_i - E[v_i])^2] = \alpha^2 E[(v_i - E[v_i])^2] = \alpha^2 \sigma_i^2 \Rightarrow \sigma_j = |\alpha| \sigma_i\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{ij} &= E[v_i v_j] - E[v_i] E[v_j] = E[v_i (\alpha v_i + \beta)] - E[v_i] E[\alpha v_i + \beta] = \\ &= \alpha E[v_i^2] + \beta E[v_i] - E[v_i](\alpha E[v_i] + \beta) = \alpha E[v_i^2] - \alpha E[v_i]^2 = \alpha [E[v_i^2] - E[v_i]^2] = \alpha \sigma_i^2\end{aligned}$$

Note that, if the random variables  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are mutually stochastically independent, they are also uncorrelated, while the converse is not always true.

In fact, if  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are mutually stochastically independent, then:

$$\begin{aligned} E[v_i v_j] &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_i x_j f(x_i, x_j) dx_i dx_j = \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_i x_j f_i(x_i) f_j(x_j) dx_i dx_j = \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_i f_i(x_i) dx_i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_j f_j(x_j) dx_j = \\ &= E[v_i] E[v_j] \end{aligned}$$

↑↑

$$\rho_{ij} = 0$$

If  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are jointly Gaussian and uncorrelated, they are also mutually independent.

Let us consider a vector random variable  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$ .

The **correlation matrix** or **normalized covariance matrix**  $\rho_v \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is defined as:

$$\rho_v = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} & \cdots & \rho_{1n} \\ \rho_{12} & \rho_{22} & \cdots & \rho_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{1n} & \rho_{2n} & \cdots & \rho_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho_{12} & \cdots & \rho_{1n} \\ \rho_{12} & 1 & \cdots & \rho_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{1n} & \rho_{2n} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Main properties of  $\rho_v$ :

- it is symmetric, i.e.,  $\rho_v = \rho_v^T$
- it is positive semidefinite, i.e.,  $\rho_v \geq 0$ , since  $x^T \rho_v x \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i(\rho_v) \geq 0, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n \quad \Rightarrow \quad \det(\rho_v) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i(\rho_v) \geq 0$
- $[\rho_v]_{ii} = \rho_{ii} = \frac{\sigma_{ii}}{\sigma_i^2} = \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} = 1$
- $[\rho_v]_{ij} = \rho_{ij} = \text{correlation coefficient of } v_i \text{ and } v_j, \quad i \neq j$

Relevant case #1: if a vector random variable  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$  is such that all its components are each other uncorrelated (i.e.,  $\sigma_{ij} = \rho_{ij} = 0, \forall i \neq j$ ), then:

$$\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2)$$

$$\rho_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_{n \times n}$$

Obviously, the same result holds if all the components of  $v$  are mutually independent, since in general the independence is a much stronger property than the uncorrelation.

Relevant case #2: if a vector random variable  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$  is such that all its components are each other uncorrelated (i.e.,  $\sigma_{ij} = \rho_{ij} = 0, \forall i \neq j$ ) and have the same standard deviation (i.e.,  $\sigma_i = \sigma, \forall i$ ), then:

$$\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma^2 I_{n \times n}$$

$$\rho_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_{n \times n}$$

Obviously, the same result holds if all the components of  $v$  are mutually independent.

# Gaussian or normal random variables

A scalar **Gaussian** or **normal random variable**  $v$  is such that its p.d.f. turns out to be:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_v} \exp\left(\frac{-(x-\bar{v})^2}{2\sigma_v^2}\right), \quad \text{with } \bar{v} = E[v] \text{ and } \sigma_v^2 = Var[v] > 0$$

and the notations  $v \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{v}, \sigma_v^2)$  or  $v \sim G(\bar{v}, \sigma_v^2)$  are used.

If  $w = \alpha v + \beta$ , where  $v$  is a scalar normal random variable and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , then:

$$w \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{w}, \sigma_w^2) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha\bar{v} + \beta, \alpha^2\sigma_v^2)$$

note that, if  $\alpha = \frac{1}{\sigma_v}$  and  $\beta = \frac{-\bar{v}}{\sigma_v}$ , then  $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , i.e.,  $w$  has a normalized p.d.f.:

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

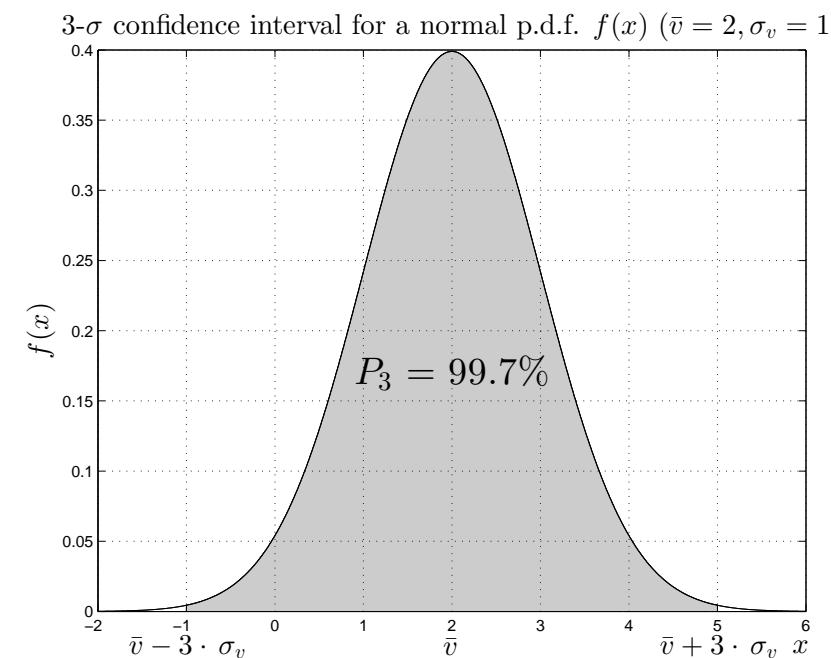
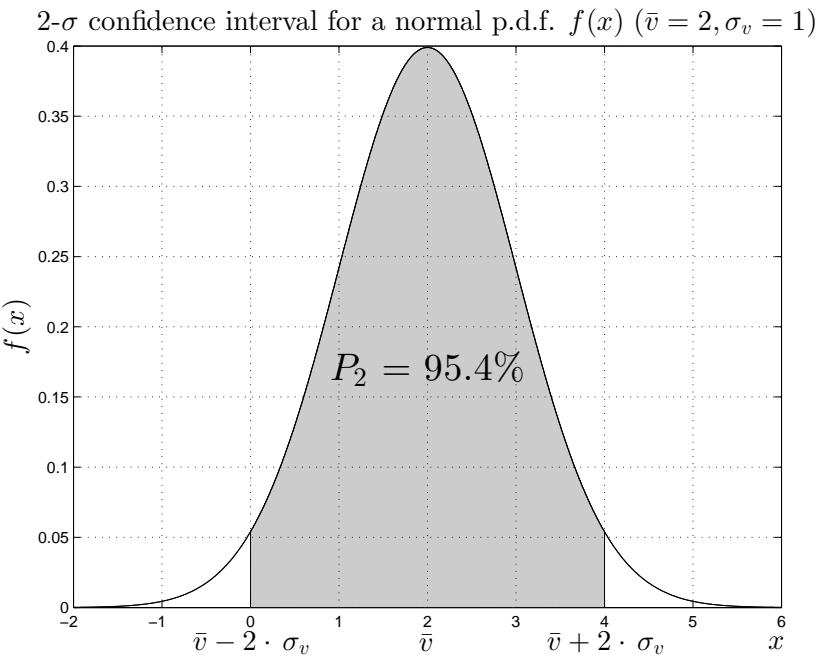
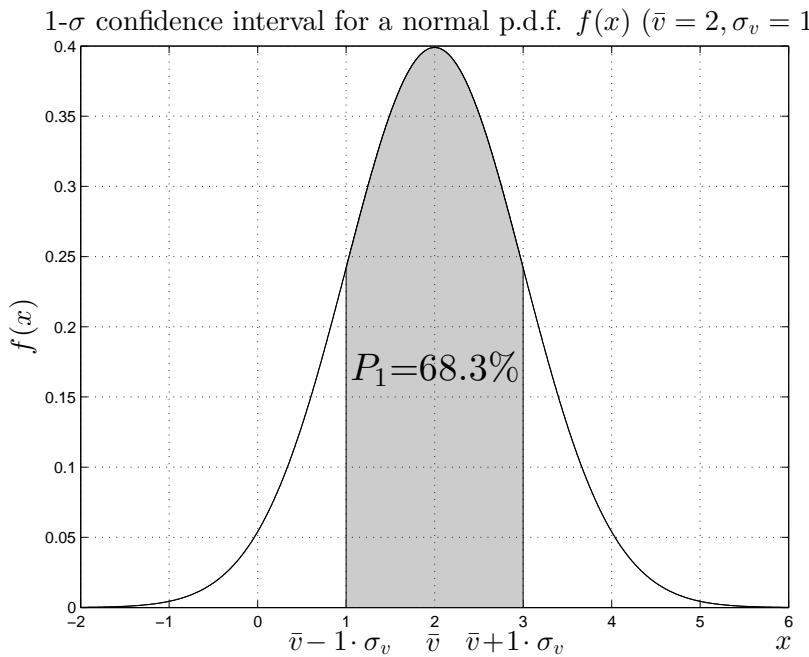
The probability  $P_k$  that the outcome of a scalar normal random variable  $v$  differs from the mean value  $\bar{v}$  no more than  $k$  times the standard deviation  $\sigma_v$  is equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} P_k &= P(\bar{v} - k \cdot \sigma_v \leq v \leq \bar{v} + k \cdot \sigma_v) = P(|v - \bar{v}| \leq k \cdot \sigma_v) = \\ &= 1 - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_k^{+\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx = 1 - \underbrace{\text{erfc}\left(\frac{k}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}_{\text{complementary error function}} = \underbrace{\text{erf}\left(\frac{k}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}_{\text{error function}} \end{aligned}$$

In particular, it turns out that:

$k$	$P_k$
1	68.27%
2	95.45%
2.576	99.00%
3	99.73%

and this allows to define suitable  **$k$ - $\sigma$  confidence intervals** of the random variable  $v$ .



A **vector normal random variable**  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$  is such that its joint p.d.f. is:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det \Sigma_v}} \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} (x - \bar{v})^T \Sigma_v^{-1} (x - \bar{v}) \right)$$

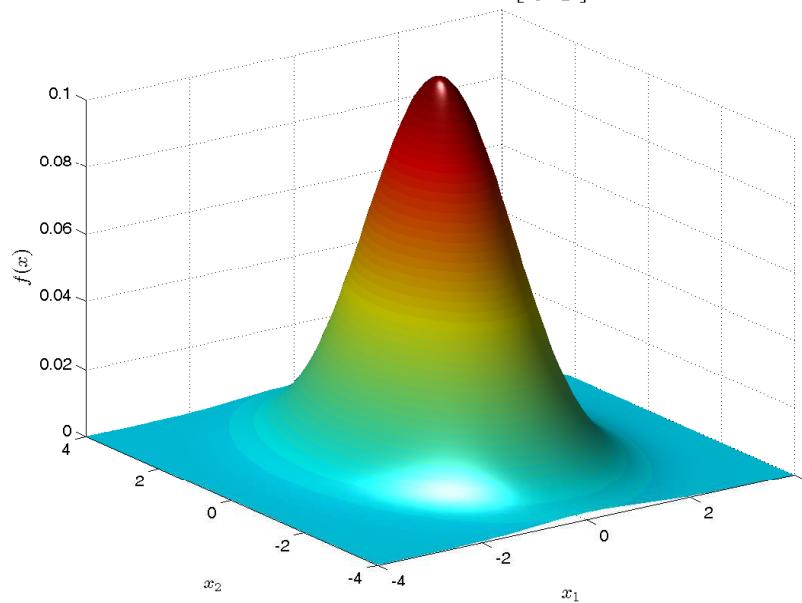
where  $\bar{v} = E[v] \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\Sigma_v = \text{Var}[v] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , with  $\Sigma_v > 0$ .

$n$  scalar normal variables  $v_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are said to be **jointly Gaussian** if the vector random variable  $v = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T$  is normal.

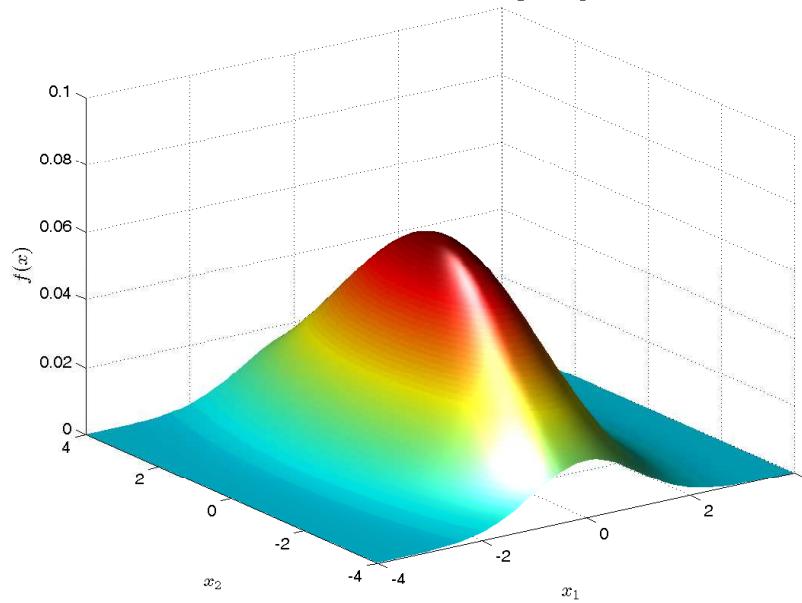
Main properties:

- if  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are jointly Gaussian, then any  $v_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , is also normal, while the converse is not always true
- if  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are normal and independent, then they are also jointly Gaussian
- if  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are jointly Gaussian and uncorrelated, they are also independent

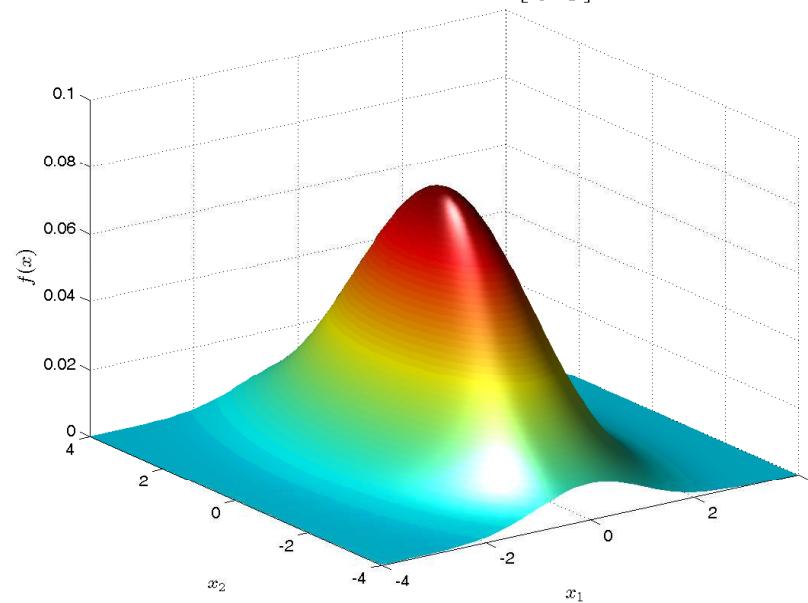
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$



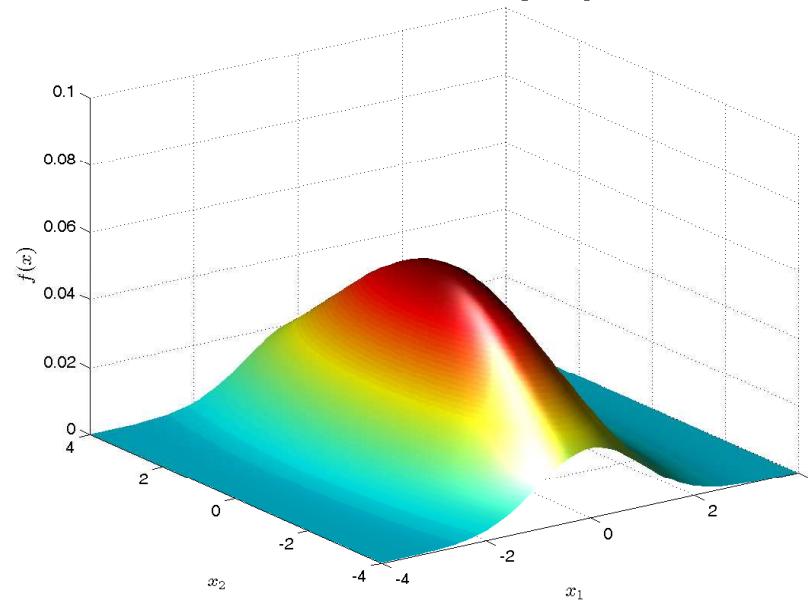
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$



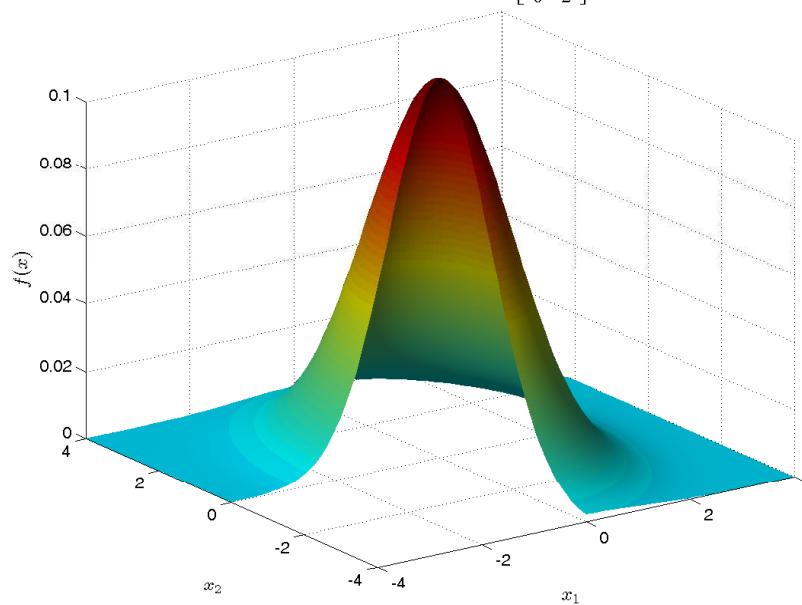
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$



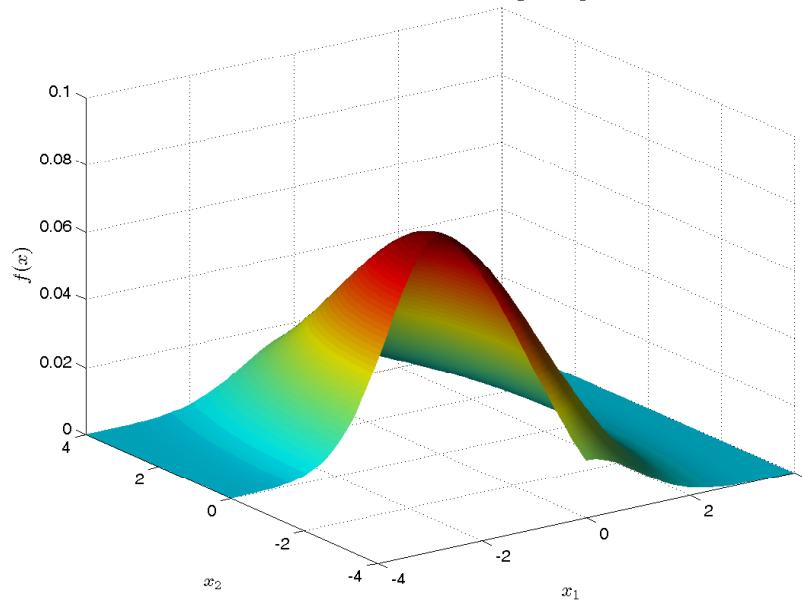
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$



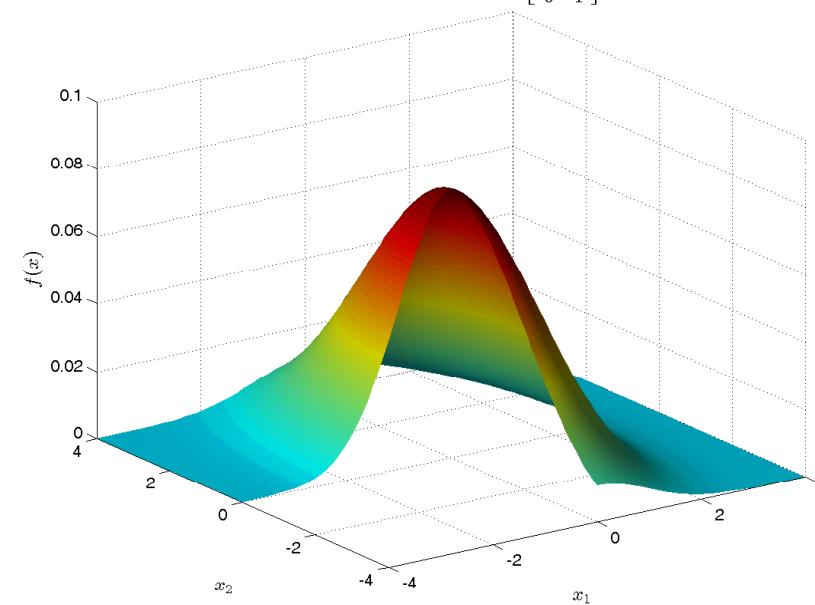
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$



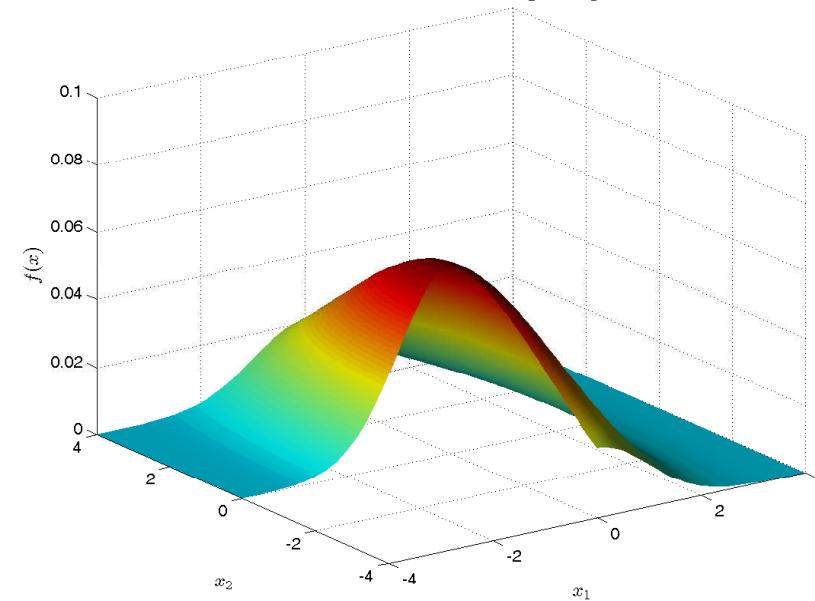
Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$



Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$



Bivariate normal p.d.f.  $f(x)$  for  $\Sigma_v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$



# (Pseudo) random variables with MATLAB

**rng('default');** resets the random number generator to the default startup settings, so that `rand` and `randn` produce the same random numbers as if you restarted MATLAB

**r=rand(sz1, ..., szN);** returns a  $sz_1$ -by-...-by- $sz_N$  array of pseudorandom uniform values drawn from the univariate standard uniform distribution on the open interval  $]0,1[$

**r=a+(b-a)\*rand(sz1, sz2);** returns a  $sz_1$ -by- $sz_2$  matrix of pseudorandom uniform values drawn from the univariate uniform distribution on the open interval  $[a, b[$

**r=randn(sz1, ..., szN);** returns a  $sz_1$ -by-...-by- $sz_N$  array of pseudorandom normal values drawn from the univariate standard normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

**r=a\*randn(sz1, sz2)+b;** returns a  $sz_1$ -by- $sz_2$  matrix of pseudorandom normal values drawn from the univariate normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(b, a^2)$

**r=mvrnd(mu, SIGMA)';** returns a  $n$ -by-1 pseudorandom normal column vector drawn from the multivariate normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ , where  $\mu$  is a 1-by- $n$  row vector and  $\Sigma$  is a  $n$ -by- $n$  symmetric positive semidefinite matrix