

FSAN/ELEG815: Statistical Learning

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I: Review of Probability

# Signal Characterization

- ightharpoonup Assumption: Many methods take  $\{x(n)\}$  to be deterministic
- ▶ Reality: Real world signals are usually statistical in nature
  - ► Thus,

$$\dots x(-1), x(0), x(1), \dots$$

can be interpreted as a sequence of random variables.

- $\blacktriangleright$  We begin by analyzing each observation x(n) as a R.V.
- ▶ Then, to capture dependencies, we consider random vectors

$$\underbrace{x(n),x(n+1),\ldots,x(n+N-1)}_{\underline{x}(n)},x(n+N),\ldots$$

### Random Variables

#### **Definition**

For a space S, the subsets, or events of S, have associated probabilities.

- ▶ To every event  $\delta$ , we assign a number  $x(\delta)$ , which is called a R.V.
- $\triangleright$  The distribution function of x is

$$\Pr\{x \le x_0\} = F_x(x_0) \quad -\infty < x_0 < \infty$$

#### Properties:

- 1.  $F(+\infty) = 1$ ,  $F(-\infty) = 0$
- 2. F(x) is continuous from the right

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

3.  $\Pr\{x_1 < x \le x_2\} = F(x_2) - F(x_1)$ 



### Example

Fair toss of two coins: H=heads, T=Tails

Define numerical assignments:

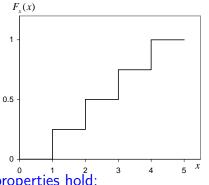
Events $(\delta)$	Prob.	$X(\delta)$	$Y(\delta)$
HH	1/4	1	-100
HT	1/4	2	-100
TH	1/4	3	-100
TT	1/4	4	500

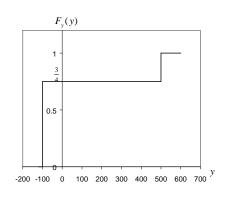
This assignments yield different distribution functions

$$F_x(2) = \Pr\{HH, HT\}$$
  
$$F_y(2) = \Pr\{HH, HT, TH\}$$

How do we attain an intuitive interpretation of the distribution function?

### Distribution Plots





### Note properties hold:

- 1.  $F(+\infty) = 1$ ,  $F(-\infty) = 0$
- 2. F(x) is continuous from the right

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

3. 
$$\Pr\{x_1 < x \le x_2\} = F(x_2) - F(x_1)$$

#### **Definition**

The probability density function is defined as,

$$f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$$
 or 
$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x) dx$$

Thus 
$$F(\infty) = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

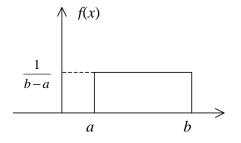
#### Types of distributions:

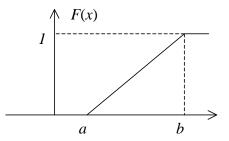
- ► Continuous:  $Pr\{x = x_0\} = 0 \quad \forall x_0$
- ▶ Discrete:  $F(x_i) F(x_i^-) = \Pr\{x = x_i\} = P_i$ 
  - ▶ In which case  $f(x) = \sum_i P_i \delta(x x_i)$
- Mixed: discontinuous but not discrete

# Distribution examples

Uniform:  $x \sim U(a, b)$  a < b

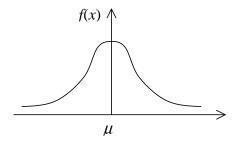
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a,b] \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

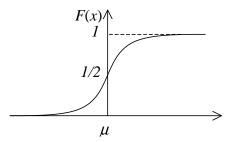




Gaussian:  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ 

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

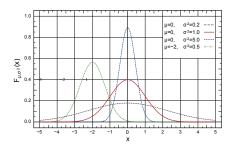


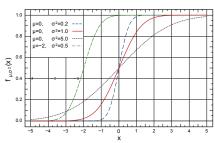


# Gaussian Distribution Example

### Example

Consider the Normal (Gaussian) distribution PDF and CDF for  $\mu=0,\sigma^2=0.2,1.0,5.0$  and  $\mu=-2,\sigma^2=0.5$ 





Binomial: 
$$x \sim B(p,q)$$
  $p+q=1$ 

## Example

Toss a coin n times. What is the probability of getting k heads?

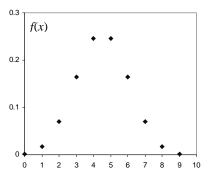
For p+q=1, where q is probability of a tail, and p is the probability of a head:

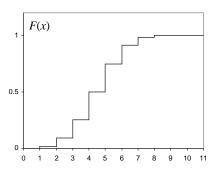
$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\{x = k\} &= \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \quad \left[ \mathsf{NOTE:} \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \right] \\ \Rightarrow f(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \delta(x-k) \\ \Rightarrow F(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k} \quad m \leq x < m+1 \end{aligned}$$

# Binomial Distribution Example I

### Example

Toss a coin n times. What is the probability of getting k heads? For  $n=9, p=q=\frac{1}{2}$  (fair coin)

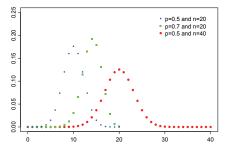


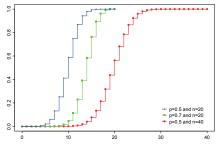


# Binomial Distribution Example II

### Example

Toss a coin n times. What is the probability of getting k heads? For n=20, p=0.5, 0.7 and n=40, p=0.5.





### Conditional Distributions

#### **Definition**

The conditional distribution of x given event "M" has occurred is

$$\begin{array}{lcl} F_x(x_0|M) & = & \Pr\{x \leq x_0|M\} \\ & = & \frac{\Pr\{x \leq x_0,M\}}{\Pr\{M\}} \end{array}$$

### Example

Suppose  $M = \{x \leq a\}$ , then

$$F_x(x_0|M) = \frac{\Pr\{x \le x_0, M\}}{\Pr\{x \le a\}}$$

If  $x_0 \ge a$ , what happens?

# Special Cases

Special Case:  $x_0 \ge a$ 

$$\Pr\{x \le x_0, x \le a\} = \Pr\{x \le a\}$$

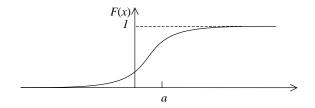
$$\Rightarrow F_x(x_0|M) = \frac{\Pr\{x \le x_0, M\}}{\Pr\{x \le a\}} = \frac{\Pr\{x \le a\}}{\Pr\{x \le a\}} = 1$$

Special Case:  $x_0 \le a$ 

$$\Rightarrow F_x(x_0|M) = \frac{\Pr\{x \le x_0, M\}}{\Pr\{x \le a\}} = \frac{\Pr\{x \le x_0\}}{\Pr\{x \le a\}}$$
$$= \frac{F_x(x_0)}{F_x(a)}$$

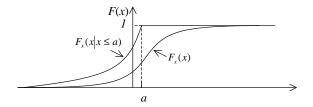
# Conditional Distribution Example

Example Suppose



What does  $F_x(x|M)$  look like? Note  $M = \{x \le a\}$ .

$$\Rightarrow F_x(x_0|M) = \begin{cases} \frac{F_x(x_0)}{F_x(a)} & x \le a \\ 1 & a \le x \end{cases}$$



- ▶ Distribution properties hold for conditional cases:
  - Limiting cases:  $F(\infty|M) = 1$  and  $F(-\infty|M) = 0$
  - Probability range:  $\Pr\{x_0 \le x \le x_1 | M\} = F(x_1 | M) F(x_0 | M)$
  - Density–distribution relations:

$$f(x|M) = \frac{\partial F(x|M)}{\partial x}$$

$$F(x_0|M) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f(x|M)dx$$

## Example (Fair Coin Toss)

Toss a fair coin 4 times. Let x be the number of heads. Determine  $\Pr\{x=k\}$ .

Recall

$$\Pr\{x=k\} = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$$

In this case

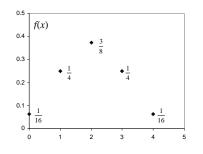
$$\Pr\{x = k\} = \binom{4}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4$$

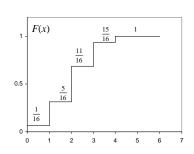
$$\Pr\{x = 0\} = \Pr\{x = 4\} = \frac{1}{16}$$

$$\Pr\{x = 1\} = \Pr\{x = 3\} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Pr\{x = 2\} = \frac{3}{8}$$

# Density and Distribution Plots for Fair Coin (n = 4) Ex.





What type of distribution is this? Discrete. Thus,

$$F(x_i) - F(x_i^-) = \Pr\{x = x_i\} = P_i$$
 
$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^x \sum_i P_i \delta(x - x_i) dx$$

#### Conditional Case

Example (Conditional Fair Coin Toss)

Toss a fair coin 4 times. Let x be the number of heads. Suppose  $M=[{\rm at\ least\ one\ flip\ produces\ a\ head}].$  Determine  ${\rm Pr}\{x=k|M\}.$  Recall,

$$\Pr\{x = k | M\} = \frac{\Pr\{x = k, M\}}{\Pr\{M\}}$$

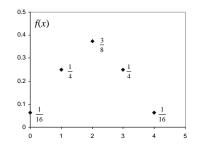
Thus first determine  $Pr\{M\}$ 

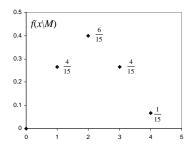
$$\begin{split} \Pr\{M\} &= 1 - \Pr\{\text{No heads}\} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{16} \\ &= \frac{15}{16} \end{split}$$

Next determine  $Pr\{x = k | M\}$  for the individual cases, k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4

$$\begin{array}{lll} \Pr\{x=0|M\} & = & \frac{\Pr\{x=0,M\}}{\Pr\{M\}} = 0 \\ \\ \Pr\{x=1|M\} & = & \frac{\Pr\{x=1,M\}}{\Pr\{M\}} \\ & = & \frac{\Pr\{x=1\}}{\Pr\{M\}} = \frac{1/4}{15/16} = \frac{4}{15} \\ \\ \Pr\{x=2|M\} & = & \frac{\Pr\{x=2\}}{\Pr\{M\}} = \frac{3/8}{15/16} = \frac{6}{15} \\ \\ \Pr\{x=3|M\} & = & \frac{4}{15} \\ \\ \Pr\{x=4|M\} & = & \frac{1}{15} \end{array}$$

# Conditional and Unconditional Density Functions





Are they proper density functions?

# Total Probability and Bayes' Theorem

Let  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n$  forms a partition of S, i.e.

$$\bigcup_i M_i = S \quad \text{and} \quad M_i \bigcap_{i \neq j} M_j = \phi$$

Then

$$F(x) = \sum_{i} F_{x}(x|M_{i}) \Pr(M_{i})$$
$$f(x) = \sum_{i} f_{x}(x|M_{i}) \Pr(M_{i})$$

Aside

$$\Pr\{A|B\} = \frac{\Pr\{A,B\}}{\Pr\{B\}} = \frac{\Pr\{B,A\}\Pr\{A\}}{\Pr\{B\}\Pr\{A\}} = \frac{\Pr\{B|A\}\Pr\{A\}}{\Pr\{B\}}$$

# Bayes' Theorem Example

Consider the following events and their probabilities:

A: patient has liver disease.  $Pr\{A\} = 0.1$ .

B: patient is an alcoholic.  $Pr\{B\} = 0.05$ .

Among all patients diagnosed with liver disease, 7% are alcoholics.  $\Pr\{B|A\}=0.07.$ 

**Determine:** patients' probability of having liver disease if they are an alcoholic, i.e.  $\Pr\{A|B\}$ .

Using the Bayes' Theorem:

$$\Pr\{A|B\} = \frac{\Pr\{B|A\}\Pr\{A\}}{\Pr\{B\}} = \frac{0.07 \times 0.1}{0.05} = 0.14$$

# Mean, Median and variance

#### **Definitions**

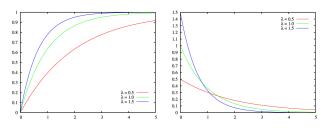
$$\mbox{Mean} \quad E\{x\} \quad = \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$
 Conditional Mean 
$$\quad E\{x|M\} \quad = \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x|M) dx$$

#### Median

#### **Definitions**

# Example

Let 
$$x \sim \lambda \exp^{-\lambda x} U(x)$$
. Then  $m = \frac{\ln(2)}{\lambda}$ 



## Definition (Variance)

Variance 
$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \eta)^2 f(x) dx$$

where  $\eta = E\{x\}$ . Thus,

$$\sigma^2 = E\{(x - \eta)^2\} = E\{x^2\} - E^2\{x\}$$

### Example

For  $x \sim N(\eta, \sigma^2)$ , determine the variance.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Note: f(x) is symmetric about  $x = \eta \Rightarrow E\{x\} = \eta$ 

Also

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx = \sqrt{2\pi}\sigma$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx = \sqrt{2\pi}\sigma$$

Differentiating w.r.t.  $\sigma$ :

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{(x-\eta)^2}{\sigma^3} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx = \sqrt{2\pi}$$

Rearranging yields

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \eta)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x - \eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx = \sigma^2$$

or

$$E\{(x-\eta)^2\} = \sigma^2$$

## Definition (Moments)

Moments

$$m_n = E\{x^n\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$$

Central Moments

$$\mu_n = E\{(x-\eta)^n\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\eta)^n f(x) dx$$

From the binomial theorem

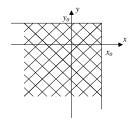
$$\mu_n = E\{(x-\eta)^n\} = E\left\{\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k (-\eta)^{n-k}\right\}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} m_k (-\eta)^{n-k}$$

 $\Rightarrow \mu_0 = 1, \quad \mu_1 = 0, \quad \mu_2 = \sigma^2, \quad \mu_3 = m_3 - 3\eta m_2 + 2\eta^3$ 

#### **Bivariate Statistics**

Given two RVs, x and y, the bivariate (joint) distribution is given by

$$F(x_0, y_0) = \Pr\{x \le x_0, y \le y_0\}$$



#### Properties:

$$F(-\infty,y) = F(x,-\infty) = 0$$

$$ightharpoonup F(\infty,\infty)=1$$

$$ightharpoonup F_x(x) = F(x, \infty), \quad F_y(y) = F(\infty, y)$$

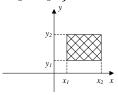
# Special Cases

Case 1:
$$M = \{x_1 \le x \le x_2, y \le y_0\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Pr\{M\} = F(x_2, y_0) - F(x_1, y_0)$$

Case 2:
$$M = \{x \le x_0, y_1 \le y \le y_2\}$$
 
$$\Rightarrow \Pr\{M\} = F(x_0, y_2) - F(x_0, y_1)$$

Case 3: 
$$M = \{x_1 \le x \le x_2, y_1 \le y \le y_2\}$$
 Then



and

$$\Pr\{M\} = F(x_2, y_2) - F(x_1, y_2) - F(x_2, y_1) + \underbrace{F(x_1, y_1)}_{\bot}$$

Added back because this region was subtracted twice

# Definition (Joint Statistics)

$$f(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2 F(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y}$$

and

$$F(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \int_{-\infty}^{y} f(\alpha,\beta) d\alpha d\beta$$

In general, for some region M, the joint statistics are

$$\Pr\{(x,y) \in M\} = \int \int_{M} f(x,y) dx dy$$

Marginal Statistics:  $F_x(x) = F(x, \infty)$  and  $F_y(y) = F(\infty, y)$ 

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

# Independence

## Definition (Independence)

Two RVs x and y are statistically independent if for arbitrary events (regions)  $x \in A$  and  $y \in B$ ,

$$\Pr\{x \in A, y \in B\} = \Pr\{x \in A\} \Pr\{y \in B\}$$

Letting  $A = \{x \le x_0\}$  and  $B = \{y \le y_0\}$ , we see x and y are independent iff

$$F_{x,y}(x,y) = F_x(x)F_y(y)$$

and by differentiation

$$f_{x,y}(x,y) = f_x(x)f_y(y)$$

#### Joint Moments

For RVs x and y and function z = g(x,y)

$$E\{z\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z f_z(z) dz$$

$$E\{g(x,y)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x,y) f(x,y) dx dy$$

## Definition (Covariance)

For RVs x and y,

$$C_{xy} = \operatorname{Cov}(x, y)$$

$$= E[(x - \eta_x)(y - \eta_y)]$$

$$= E[xy] - \eta_x E[y] - \eta_y E[x] + \eta_x \eta_y$$

$$= E[xy] - \eta_x \eta_y$$

## Definition (Correlation Coefficient)

The correlation coefficient is given by

$$r = \frac{C_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Note that

$$0 \leq E\{[a(x-\eta_x)+(y-\eta_y)]^2\}$$
  
=  $E\{(x-\eta_x)^2\}a^2+2E\{(x-\eta_x)(y-\eta_y)\}a+E\{(y-\eta_y)^2\}$   
=  $\sigma_x^2a^2+2C_{xy}a+\sigma_y^2$ 

This is a positive quadratic function of a

⇒ Roots are imaginary and discriminant is non-positive

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sqrt{4C_{xy}^2 - 4\sigma_x^2\sigma_y^2} & \rightarrow & \text{imaginary} \\ \Rightarrow 4C_{xy}^2 - 4\sigma_x^2\sigma_y^2 & \leq & 0 \\ \Rightarrow C_{xy}^2 & \leq & \sigma_x^2\sigma_y^2 \end{array}$$

Thus,

$$|C_{xy}| \le \sigma_x \sigma_y$$
 and  $|r| = \frac{|C_{xy}|}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \le 1$ 

## Definition (Uncorrelated)

Two RVs are uncorrelated if their covariance is zero

$$C_{xy} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r = \frac{C_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = 0$$

$$= \frac{E\{xy\} - E\{x\}E\{y\}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow E\{xy\} = E\{x\}E\{y\}$$

Thus

$$C_{xy}=0 \Leftrightarrow E\{xy\}=E\{x\}E\{y\}_{\text{the state of the problem}}$$

#### Result

If x and y are independent, then

$$E\{xy\} = E\{x\}E\{y\}$$

and x and y are uncorrelated

Note: Converse is not true (in general)

- ► Converse only holds for Gaussian *RV*s
- Independence is a stronger condition than uncorrelated

## Definition (Orthogonality)

Two RVs are orthogonal if

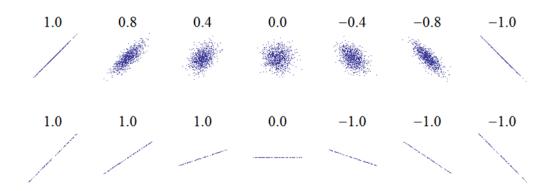
$$E\{xy\} = 0$$

Note: If x and y are correlated, they are not orthogonal



### Example

Consider the correlation between two RVs, x and y, with samples shown in a scatter plot



## Sequences and Vectors of Random Variables

## Definition (Vector Distribution)

Let  $\{x\}$  be a sequence of RVs. Take N samples to form the random vector

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N]^T$$

Then the vector distribution function is

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^0) = \Pr\{x_1 \le x_1^0, x_2 \le x_2^0, \dots, x_N \le x_N^0\}$$
  
 $\stackrel{\triangle}{=} \Pr\{\mathbf{x} \le \mathbf{x}^0\}$ 

The density function is given by

$$f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial^N F_{\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \dots \partial x_N}$$
$$F_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\mathbf{x}_1^0} \int_{-\infty}^{\mathbf{x}_2^0} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\mathbf{x}_N^0} f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_N$$

#### Properties:

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}([\infty, \infty, \cdots, \infty]^T) = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 1$$

$$F_{\mathbf{x}}([x_1, x_2, \cdots, -\infty, \cdots, x_N]^T) = 0$$

Also

$$F([\infty, x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_N]^T) = F([x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_N]^T)$$
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f([x_1, x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_N]^T) dx_1 = f([x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_N]^T)$$

- ▶ Setting  $x_i = \infty$  in the cdf eliminates this sample
- ▶ Integrating over  $(-\infty, \infty)$  along  $x_i$  in the pdf eliminates this sample

#### Joint Distribution

### Definitions (Joint Distribution and Density)

Given two random vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , the joint distribution and density are

$$F_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}^{0}, \mathbf{y}^{0}) = \Pr\{\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{x}^{0}, \mathbf{y} \leq \mathbf{y}^{0}\}$$

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\partial^{N} \partial^{M} F_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{2} \cdots \partial x_{N} \partial y_{1} \partial y_{2} \cdots \partial y_{M}}$$

## Definition (Vector Independence)

The vectors are independent iff

$$F_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = F_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x})F_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{y})$$

or equivalently

$$f_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) f_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{y})$$

## **Expectations & Moments**

Objective: Obtain partial description of process generating x

Solution: Use moments

The first moment, or mean, is

$$\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\} = [m_1, m_2, \dots, m_N]^T$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{x} f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow m_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_k f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_N$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_k \underbrace{f_{\mathbf{x}_k}(x_k)}_{} dx_k$$

 $\uparrow$  marginal distribution of  $x_k$ 

### Definition (Correlation Matrix)

A complete set of second moments is given by the correlation matrix

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\} = E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{*T}\}\$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} E\{|x_{1}|^{2}\} & E\{x_{1}x_{2}^{*}\} & \cdots & E\{x_{1}x_{N}^{*}\} \\ E\{x_{2}x_{1}^{*}\} & E\{|x_{2}|^{2}\} & \cdots & E\{x_{2}x_{N}^{*}\} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E\{x_{N}x_{1}^{*}\} & E\{x_{N}x_{2}^{*}\} & \cdots & E\{|x_{N}|^{2}\} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Result

The correlation matrix is Hermitian symmetric

$$(\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}})^{H} = (E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\})^{H}$$
$$= E\{(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H})^{H}\}$$
$$= E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\} = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}$$

## Definition (Covariance Matrix)

The set of second central moments is given by the covariance

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} = E\{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}})^{H}\}$$

$$= E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}E\{x^{H}\} - E\{\mathbf{x}\}\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}^{H} + \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}^{H}$$

$$= \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}^{H}$$

#### Result

The covariance is Hermitian symmetric

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}}^{H}$$

#### Result

The correlation and covariance matrices are positive semi-definite

$$\mathbf{a}^H \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{a} \ge 0 \quad \mathbf{a}^H \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{a} \ge 0 \quad (\forall \mathbf{a})$$

To prove this, note

$$\mathbf{a}^{H}\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}^{H}E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\}\mathbf{a}$$

$$= E\{\mathbf{a}^{H}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{H}\mathbf{a}\}$$

$$= E\{(\mathbf{a}^{H}\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{a}^{H}\mathbf{x})^{H}\}$$

$$= E\{|\mathbf{a}^{H}\mathbf{x}|^{2}\} \ge 0$$

For most cases, R and C are positive define

$$\mathbf{a}^H \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{a} > 0 \quad \mathbf{a}^H \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{a} > 0$$

 $\Rightarrow$  no linear dependencies in  $R_{\mathbf{x}}$  or  $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ 

### Definitions (Cross-Correlation and Cross-Covariance)

For random vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ ,

Cross-correlation 
$$\stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^H\}$$
  
Cross-covariance  $\stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} = E\{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{y}})^H\}$   
 $= \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{y}}^H$ 

## Definition (Uncorrelated Vectors)

Two vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are uncorrelated if

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{y}}^{H} = 0$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{v}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^H\} = \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{v}}^H$$

Note that as in the scalar case

independence ⇒ uncorrelated
uncorrelated ⇒ independence

Also, x and y are orthogonal if

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} = E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^H\} = \mathbf{0}$$

### Example

Let  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  be the same dimension. If

$$z = x + y$$

find  $R_z$  and  $C_z$ 

By definition

$$\mathbf{R_z} = E\{(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})^H\}$$

$$= E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^H\} + E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^H\} + E\{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{x}^H\} + E\{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}^H\}$$

$$= \mathbf{R_x} + \mathbf{R_{xy}} + \mathbf{R_{yx}} + \mathbf{R_y}$$

Similarly

$$\mathbf{C_z} = \mathbf{C_x} + \mathbf{C_{xy}} + \mathbf{C_{yx}} + \mathbf{C_y}$$

Note: If x and y are uncorrelated,

$$\mathbf{R_z} = \mathbf{R_x} + \mathbf{m_x} \mathbf{m_y}^H + \mathbf{m_y} \mathbf{m_x}^H + \mathbf{R_y}$$

and

$$C_z = C_x + C_v$$

### Tchebycheff Inequality

For any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\Pr(|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}$$

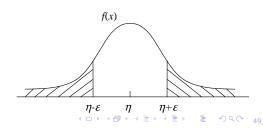
To prove this, note

$$\Pr(|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon) = \int_{-\infty}^{\eta - \epsilon} f(x) dx + \int_{\eta + \epsilon}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$
$$= \int_{|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon} f(x) dx$$

Also note that

$$\sigma^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \eta)^{2} f(x) dx$$

$$\geq \int_{|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon} (x - \eta)^{2} f(x) dx$$



$$\sigma^2 \ge \int_{|x-\eta| \ge \epsilon} (x-\eta)^2 f(x) dx$$

Using the fact that  $|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon$  in the above gives

$$\sigma^{2} \geq \epsilon^{2} \int_{|x-\eta| \geq \epsilon} f(x)dx$$
$$= \epsilon^{2} \Pr\{|x-\eta| \geq \epsilon\}$$

Rearranging gives the desired result

$$\Rightarrow \Pr\{|x - \eta| \ge \epsilon\} \le \left(\frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}\right)^2$$

**QED** 

## Markov's Inequality

If x is a non-negative RV, then for all a > 0

$$\Pr\{x \ge a\} \le \frac{E\{x\}}{a}.$$

**Proof:** 

$$\Pr\{x \ge a\} = \int_a^\infty f(x)dx$$

$$\le \int_a^\infty \frac{x}{a} f(x)dx \quad \text{since } x \ge a$$

$$\le \frac{1}{a} \int_0^\infty x f(x)dx$$

$$= \frac{E\{x\}}{a}.$$

## Chernoff's Bounding Method

Let x be a RV on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then for all  $\epsilon > 0$ 

$$\Pr\{x \ge \epsilon\} \le \min_{s>0} \quad e^{-s\epsilon} E\{e^{sx}\}.$$

To prove this for any s > 0:

$$\Pr\{x \ge \epsilon\} = \Pr\{sx \ge s\epsilon\}$$

$$= \Pr\{e^{sx} \ge e^{s\epsilon}\}$$

Using Markov's Inequality:

$$\Pr\{x \ge \epsilon\} = \Pr\{e^{sx} \ge e^{s\epsilon}\} \le \frac{E\{e^{sx}\}}{e^{s\epsilon}}$$
$$= e^{-s\epsilon}E\{e^{sx}\}.$$

Consider  $S_N = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$  where  $x_1,...,x_N$  are independent RV's on  $\mathbb R$  such that  $a_i \le x_i \le b_i$ . Then, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

$$\Pr\{|S_N - E\{S_N\}| \ge \epsilon\} \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2/\sum (b_i - a_i)^2}$$

#### Lemma 1:

Let x be a random variable on  $\mathbb R$  with  $E\{x\}=0$  and  $a\leq x\leq b.$  Then, for all s>0

$$E\{e^{sx}\} \le e^{s^2(b-a)^2/8}$$
 (\*)

Apply Chernoff's bounding method i.e.:

$$\Pr\{x \ge \epsilon\} \le \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} E\{e^{sx}\}$$

to the random variable:  $S_N - E\{S_N\}$ ,

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \ge \epsilon\} \le \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} E\left\{e^{s(S_N - E\{S_N\})}\right\}$$

$$\le \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} E\left\{e^{s\left(\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - E\{x_i\})\right)}\right\}$$

since the  $x_i$  are independent

$$\leq \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} \prod_{i=1}^{N} E\{e^{s(x_i - E\{x_i\})}\}$$

Applying **Lemma 1** (\*) to RV  $y_i = x_i - E\{x_i\}$  where  $E\{y_i\} = 0$ :

$$E\{e^{s(x_i-E\{x_i\})}\} \le e^{s^2(b_i-a_i)^2/8}$$

Substitute  $E\{e^{s(x_i-E\{x_i\})}\} \le e^{s^2(b_i-a_i)^2/8}$  in the previous Chernoff's bound:

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \ge \epsilon\} \le \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} \prod_{i=1}^N E\{e^{s(x_i - E\{x_i\})}\}$$

we get:

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \ge \epsilon\} \le \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon} \prod_{i=1}^N e^{s^2(b_i - a_i)^2/8}$$
$$= \min_{s>0} e^{-s\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^N (s^2/8)(b_i - a_i)^2}$$

It can be shown that the minimum is at  $s = 4\epsilon / \sum (b_i - a_i)^2$ .

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \ge \epsilon\} \le e^{-s\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^N (s^2/8)(b_i - a_i)^2}$$

Substituting the minimum  $(s = 4\epsilon / \sum_{i=1}^{N} (b_i - a_i)^2)$ :

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \ge \epsilon\} \le e^{-2\epsilon^2/\sum_{i=1}^N (b_i - a_i)^2}$$

If we consider  $-x_1, ..., -x_N$  instead, we obtain:

$$\Pr\{S_N - E\{S_N\} \le -\epsilon\} \le e^{-2\epsilon^2/\sum_{i=1}^N (b_i - a_i)^2}$$

By combining the two bounds, we finish the proof:

$$\Pr\{|S_N - E\{S_N\}| \ge \epsilon\} \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2/\sum_{i=1}^N (b_i - a_i)^2}$$

#### **Example:**

Find the Hoeffding's Inequality of a random variable  $x_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Ber}(p)$ .

#### Solution:

Consider the Hoeffding's Inequality:

$$\Pr\{|S_N - E\{S_N\}| \ge \epsilon\} \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2/\sum_{i=1}^N (b_i - a_i)^2}$$

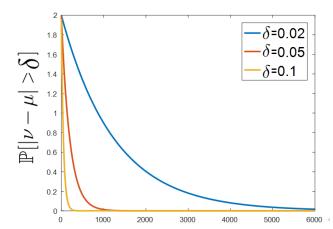
Since  $x_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ , then  $a_i = 0$ ,  $b_i = 1$ ,  $S_N = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \sim Bin(N,p)$ , and  $E\{S_N\} = Np$ . Taking  $\epsilon = N\delta$  and applying Hoeffding's Inequality:

$$\Pr\left\{\left|\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i - Np\right| \ge N\delta\right\} \le 2e^{-2(N\delta)^2/\sum_{i=1}^{N} (1-0)^2}$$

$$\Pr\left\{\left|\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i - p\right| \ge \delta\right\} \le 2e^{-2N\delta^2}$$

$$\Pr\left\{\left|\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}x_{i}-p\right| \geq \delta\right\} \leq 2e^{-2N\delta^{2}}$$

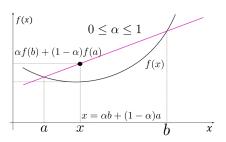
$$\Pr\left\{\left|\nu-\mu\right| \geq \delta\right\} \leq 2e^{-2N\delta^{2}}$$



### Proof of Lemma 1:

Show that if  $E\{x\} = 0$  then  $E\{e^{sx}\} \le e^{s^2(b-a)^2/8}$  for all s > 0. If  $x \in [a,b]$  then the convexity of the function  $f(x) = e^{sx}$  implies that

$$\begin{array}{lcl} e^{sx} & \leq & \alpha f(b) + (1-\alpha)f(a), \\ e^{sx} & \leq & \alpha e^{sb} + (1-\alpha)e^{sa}, \text{ since } \alpha = \frac{x-a}{b-a}, \\ e^{sx} & \leq & \frac{x-a}{b-a}e^{sb} + \frac{b-x}{b-a}e^{sa} \end{array}$$



### Proof of Lemma 1:

$$e^{sx} \le \frac{x-a}{b-a}e^{sb} + \frac{b-x}{b-a}e^{sa}$$

Using the fact that  $E\{x\} = 0$  we obtain:

$$\begin{split} E\{e^{sx}\} & \leq \frac{b}{b-a}e^{sa} - \frac{a}{b-a}e^{sb}, \\ & = e^{sa}\left(\frac{b}{b-a} - \frac{a}{b-a}e^{s(b-a)}\right), \text{ since } y = e^{\ln(y)} \\ & = e^{\ln\left[e^{sa}\left(\frac{b-ae^{s(b-a)}}{b-a}\right)\right]} \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$E\{e^{sx}\} \leq e^{g(s)}$$
 where  $g(s) = sa + \ln(b - ae^{s(b-a)}) - \ln(b-a)$ 

#### Proof of Lemma 1:

$$g(s) = sa + \ln(b - ae^{s(b-a)}) - \ln(b-a)$$

By Taylor's theorem:

$$g(s) = g(0) + g'(0)s + \frac{1}{2!}g''(\xi)s^2, \quad 0 \le \xi \le s$$

$$g(0) = 0,$$
  $g'(0) = 0,$   $g''(\xi) \le \frac{(b-a)^2}{4}$ 

Substituting, we get:  $g(s) \le \frac{s^2(b-a)^2}{8}$ .

Substituting in previous demonstration (i.e.  $E\{e^{sx}\} \leq e^{g(s)}$ ):

$$\Longrightarrow \boxed{E\{e^{sx}\} \le e^{s^2(b-a)^2/8}} \quad (*)$$