# LECTURE 3: MULTIVARIATE RANDOM VARIABLES 

MECO 7312.<br>INSTRUCTOR: DR. KHAI CHIONG<br>SEPTEMBER 6, 2023

Previously, we looked at univariate random variables, that is, the variable of interest is a scalar. Most of the time however, we are interested in the behavior of a vector. For instance, the behavior of (i) quantities and prices, (ii) employment and GDP, (iii) customer shopping frequency and spending, (iv) temperature and rainfall, (v) prices of multiple assets etc.

An $n$-dimensional random vector is a function from a sample space $\Omega$ into $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, the $n$-dimensional Euclidean space.

## 1. Pdf and pmf of bivariate random variables

### 1.1. Discrete case

Consider the experiment of tossing two fair dice. The sample space of this experiment is the set of all the possible outcomes. $\Omega=\{(1,1),(1,2), \ldots,(2,1), \ldots\}$, where $|\Omega|=36$.

Define $X=$ sum of the two dice, $Y=\mid$ difference of the two dice $\mid$. In this way, we have defined the bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$.
1.) What is $P(X=6, Y=0)$ ? The event $X=6$ and $Y=0$ occurs if and only if the two dice are 3. Hence, $P(X=6, Y=0)=\frac{1}{36}$.
2.) How about $P(X=8, Y=2)$ ?

$$
P(X=8, Y=2)=\frac{1}{18}
$$

3.) How about $P(X=7, Y \leq 4)$ ?

$$
P(X=7, Y \leq 4)=\sum_{y=0}^{4} P(X=7, Y=y)=\frac{4}{36}=\frac{1}{9}
$$

| First die, second die | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $(2,0)$ | $(3,1)$ | $(4,2)$ | $(5,3)$ | $(6,4)$ | $(7,5)$ |
| 2 | $(3,1)$ | $(4,0)$ | $(5,1)$ | $(6,2)$ | $(7,3)$ | $(8,4)$ |
| 3 | $(4,2)$ | $(5,1)$ | $(6,0)$ | $(7,1)$ | $(8,2)$ | $(9,3)$ |
| 4 | $(5,3)$ | $(6,2)$ | $(7,1)$ | $(8,0)$ | $(9,1)$ | $(10,2)$ |
| 5 | $(6,4)$ | $(7,3)$ | $(8,2)$ | $(9,1)$ | $(10,0)$ | $(11,1)$ |
| 6 | $(7,5)$ | $(8,4)$ | $(9,3)$ | $(10,2)$ | $(11,1)$ | $(12,0)$ |

Table 1. All possible outcomes of $(X, Y)$. Each of the realization per cell is equally likely.

Let $(X, Y)$ be a discrete bivariate random vector. Then the function $f(x, y)$ from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ to $\mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x, y)=P(X=x, Y=y)$ is called the joint probability mass function of $(X, Y)$. The notation $f_{X, Y}(x, y)$ will also be used.

### 1.1.1. Marginal pmf

Given the joint pmf $f_{X, Y}(x, y)$, the marginal pmf of $X$ denoted by $f_{X}(x)$ is given by:

$$
f_{X}(x)=\sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(x, y)
$$

Similarly, the marginal pmf of $Y$ denoted by $f_{Y}(y)$ is given by:

$$
f_{Y}(y)=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(x, y)
$$

Consider the dice experiment above, what is $f_{X}(3)=P(X=3)$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{X}(3) & =\sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} f_{X, Y}(3, y) \\
& =\sum_{y=0}^{5} P(X=3, Y=y) \\
& =P(X=3, Y=1) \\
& =\frac{1}{18}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 1.2. Continuous case

A function $f(x, y)$ from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ to $\mathbb{R}$ is called a joint probability density function or joint pdf of the continuous bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$ if for every $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$ :

$$
P((X, Y) \in A)=\iint_{A} f_{X, Y}(x, y) d x d y
$$

Any function $f(x, y)$ satisfying $f(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ and

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

is the joint pdf of some continuous bivariate random vector $(X, Y)$.
Example: consider the following function.

$$
f(x, y)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
6 x y^{2} \quad 0<x<1, \text { and } 0<y<1 \\
0 \quad \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

The support of $(X, Y)$ is the unit square. We check that $P\left((X, Y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}\right)=1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d x d y & =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} 6 x y^{2} d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} 3 y^{2} d y \\
& =1
\end{aligned}
$$

What is $P((X, Y) \in A)$, where $A$ is the region defined by $A=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x \leq\right.$ $\left.\frac{1}{2}, y \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
P((X, Y) \in A) & =P\left(X \leq \frac{1}{2}, Y \leq \frac{1}{2}\right) \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{1 / 2} \int_{-\infty}^{1 / 2} f(x, y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1 / 2} \int_{0}^{1 / 2} 6 x y^{2} d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1 / 2} \frac{3}{4} y^{2} d y \\
& =\frac{1}{32}
\end{aligned}
$$

We can visualize the joint pdf using Mathematica. We will see that geometric intuitions can be useful sometimes - we interpret $P((X, Y) \in A)$ as the volume underneath the curve $f(x, y)$ with respect to the region $A$.

Example: consider again the pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ with the support on the unit square. What is $P(X+Y \geq 1)$ ?
Let $A$ be the region in 2-dimensional Euclidean space such that $A=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}\right.$ : $x+y \geq 1,0<x<1,0<y<1\}$. Essentially we are asking $P((X, Y) \in A)$. Graphically, $A$ is the upper-right triangle of the unit square.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x+y \geq 1,0<x<1,0<y<1\right\} \\
& =\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x \geq 1-y, 0<x<1,0<y<1\right\} \\
& =\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 1-y \leq x<1,0<y<1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(X+Y \geq 1)=\iint_{A} f(x, y) d x d y & =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{1-y}^{1} 6 x y^{2} d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1}\left[3 x^{2} y^{2}\right]_{1-y}^{1} d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} 3 y^{2}-3(1-y)^{2} y^{2} d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} 3 y^{2}-3 y^{2}+6 y^{3}-3 y^{4} d y \\
& =\left[\frac{3}{2} y^{4}-\frac{3}{5} y^{5}\right]_{0}^{1} \\
& =\frac{9}{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: consider the following function.

$$
f(x, y)= \begin{cases}1 & 0<x<1, \text { and } 0<y<1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

This volume of this pdf is just the unit cube. Calculate $P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right)$. First, we show using brute-force algebra that $P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right)=\frac{\pi}{4}$, then we use a simple geometric argument that $P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right)=\frac{\pi}{4}$. $P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right)$ equals to $P((X, Y) \in A)$ where $A=\left\{X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right\}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right) & =\iint_{\left\{(x, y): x^{2}+y^{2} \leq 1\right\}} f(x, y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\sqrt{1-y^{2}}}^{\sqrt{1-y^{2}}} f(x, y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{1-y^{2}}} 1 d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{1-y^{2}} d y \\
& =\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(y \sqrt{1-y^{2}}+\sin ^{-1}(y)\right)\right]_{0}^{1} \\
& =\frac{\pi}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

However, because the pdf has a uniform height of one with the support on the unit square, $P\left(X^{2}+Y^{2} \leq 1\right)$ is just the volume of a cylinder split into 4 equal parts. Specifically, this cylinder has a height of one, and a radius of one.

### 1.2.1. Marginal pdf

The marginal pdf of $X$ is defined as:

$$
f_{X}(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d y, \quad \text { for } x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

The marginal pdf of $Y$ is defined as:

$$
f_{Y}(y)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) d x, \quad \text { for } y \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Example: consider again the pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ with the support on the unit square.

Derive the marginal pdf of $X$. Then, calculate $P\left(\frac{1}{2}<X<\frac{3}{4}\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{X}(x)=\int_{0}^{1} 6 x y^{2} d y & =\left[2 x y^{3}\right]_{0}^{1}=2 x \\
P\left(\frac{1}{2}<X<\frac{3}{4}\right) & =\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{3}{4}} f_{X}(x) d x \\
& =\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{3}{4}} 2 x d x \\
& =\frac{5}{16}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 2. Joint cdf

The bivariate cdf of $(X, Y)$ is defined as:

$$
F_{X, Y}(x, y)=P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)
$$

When $(X, Y)$ is a continuous random vector, then

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

From the fundamental theorem of calculus, this implies that

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

The marginal cdf $F_{X}(x)$ can be obtained from $\lim _{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)=F_{X}(x)$.
Example: consider the cdf:

$$
F(x, y)= \begin{cases}0 & x<0 \text { or } y<0 \\ x y & 0 \leq x \leq 1,0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ x & 0 \leq x \leq 1, y>1 \\ y & 0 \leq y \leq 1, x>1 \\ 1 & x>1, y>1\end{cases}
$$

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

$$
f(x, y)=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
0 & \text { otherwise } \\
1 & 0 \leq x \leq 1,0 \leq y \leq 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Also check that the marginal cdf $F_{X}(x)$ can be obtained as:

$$
F_{X}(x)=\lim _{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)= \begin{cases}0 & x<0 \\ x & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & x>1\end{cases}
$$

## 3. Expectation

Let $g$ be a function from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ to $\mathbb{R}$. For the discrete case,

$$
\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)]=\sum_{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}} g(x, y) P(X=x, Y=y)
$$

Take $g(X, Y)=X Y$. What is $\mathbb{E}[X Y]$ in the dice experiment above?

$$
\mathbb{E}[X Y]=g(1,0) P(X=1, Y=0)+g(1,1) P(X=1, Y=1)+\ldots
$$

For the continuous case, we have:

$$
\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)]=\iint_{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}} g(x, y) f_{X, Y}(x, y) d x d y
$$

## Example:

Throw darts randomly at a unit square, record the $x$-coordinates and $y$-coordinates, and multiply them together. On average, what value would you expect?

In another words, consider the pdf $f(x, y)=1$ with the support on the unit square. What is $\mathbb{E}[X Y]$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X Y] & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x y f(x, y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x y d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} y / 2 d y \\
& =\frac{1}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

What about $\mathbb{E}[X]$ or $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ ? Calculate the marginals first.
Example: What if we don't throw darts uniformly but try to aim away from the origin? Consider again the pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ with the support on the unit square.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X Y] & =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x y 6 x y^{2} d x d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} 2 y^{3} d y \\
& =\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

How would we calculate $\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2} Y\right]$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2} Y\right] & =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x^{2} y 6 x y^{2} d x d y \\
& =\frac{3}{8}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4. Conditional probabilities

Consider the bivariate random variables $(X, Y)$. The random variable $Y$ conditional on $X=x$ is denoted by $Y \mid X=x$. Now, $Y \mid X=x$ is another random variable, but it is a (scalar) random variable. The density of $Y \mid X=x$ is given by:

$$
f_{Y \mid X=x}(y \mid x)=\frac{f_{X, Y}(x, y)}{f_{X}(x)}
$$

## Example:

Consider the random variables $(X, Y)$ that has the joint pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ for $0<x<1$ and $0<y<1$. Consider the random variable $Y \mid X=0.5$. This random variable is a scalar random variable. The pdf of $Y \mid X=0.5$ is in terms of $y$ only:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{Y \mid X=0.5}(y) & =\frac{f_{X, Y}(0.5, y)}{f_{X}(0.5)} \\
& =\frac{6(0.5) y^{2}}{2(0.5)} \\
& =3 y^{2} \quad \text { for } 0<y<1
\end{aligned}
$$

Now consider $Y \mid X$, which is a bivariate random variable, unlike $Y \mid X=x$, which is a scalar random variable. In particular, the joint density of $Y \mid X$ is:

$$
f_{Y \mid X}(y \mid x)=\frac{f_{X, Y}(x, y)}{f_{X}(x)}
$$

The two pdfs look identical, except in the pdf of $Y \mid X=x$, we treat $x$ as fixed and so $f_{Y \mid X=x}(y \mid x)$ is a one-dimensional function. While in the pdf of $Y \mid X$, we treat $x$ to be an argument of the function, so that the pdf of $Y \mid X$ is two-dimensional. That is, $f_{Y \mid X=x}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, but $f_{Y \mid X}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

## Example:

Consider again the bivariate random variable $(X, Y)$ that has the joint pdf $f(x, y)=$ $6 x y^{2}$ for $0<x<1$ and $0<y<1$. The joint density of $Y \mid X$ is given by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{Y \mid X}(y \mid x) & =\frac{f_{X, Y}(x, y)}{f_{X}(x)} \\
& =\frac{6 x y^{2}}{2 x} \\
& = \begin{cases}3 y^{2} & \text { for } 0<x<1,0<y<1 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: $f_{Y \mid X}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function of both $x$ and $y$. Here, the support of the function explicitly depends on $x$.

Example: Consider the joint density $f(x, y)=x+y$, with support on $(x, y) \in[0,1]^{2}$. What is the joint pdf of $Y \mid X$ ?
First show that the marginal density of $X$ is $f_{X}(x)=\frac{1}{2}+x$, for $x \in[0,1]$. Therefore the conditional density is:

$$
f_{Y \mid X}(y \mid x)= \begin{cases}\frac{2(x+y)}{1+2 x} & (x, y) \in[0,1]^{2} \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

We can also check that the density of $Y \mid X=0$ is $f_{Y \mid X=0}(y)=2 y$ for $y \in[0,1]$.

### 4.1. Conditional expectation

Consider the random variable $Y \mid X=x$. The expectation $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]$ is defined as $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{Y \mid X=x}(y \mid x) d y$. Note that $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]$ is a constant. In general, we have $\mathbb{E}[g(Y) \mid X=x]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) f_{Y \mid X=x}(y \mid x) d y$, for some function $g$.
Example: consider again the joint pdf $f(x, y)=x+y$ with the support given by $\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 0 \leq x \leq 1,0 \leq y \leq 1\right\}$. Recall that the conditional density is $f_{Y \mid X=x} f(y \mid x)=\frac{2(x+y)}{1+2 x}$ for $(x, y) \in[0,1]^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x] & =\int_{0}^{1} y f_{Y \mid X=x} f(y \mid x) d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} y \frac{2(x+y)}{1+2 x} d y \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \frac{2 x y}{1+2 x}+\frac{2 y^{2}}{1+2 x} d y \\
& =\frac{x}{1+2 x}+\frac{2}{3(1+2 x)}=\frac{2+3 x}{3+6 x}
\end{aligned}
$$

$E[Y \mid X=x]$ is treated as a constant. We check that $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=0]=2 / 3, \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=$ $1]=5 / 9 . \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]$ is decreasing in $x$, what is the geometric intuition behind this?

Now let $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]=g(x)$. Then we define $\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]$ to be the random variable $Z$ obtained by the transformation $Z=g(X)$. As such, $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X]$ is a (scalar) random variable that has the same probability space as $X$. For this example, $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X]$ is the random variable defined by the transformation $Z=\frac{2+3 X}{3+6 X}$. We can then derive the pdf of $Z \equiv \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X]$. In particular, the inverse of the transformation is $g^{-1}(z)=\frac{2-3 z}{-3+6 z}$, with $\frac{d g^{-1}(z)}{d z}=-\frac{1}{3(1-2 z)^{2}}$. Therefore, $f_{Z}(z)=\left|\frac{d g^{-1}(z)}{d z}\right| f_{X}\left(g^{-1}(z)\right)=\frac{1}{3(1-2 z)^{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{2-3 z}{-3+6 z}\right)$ for $z \in\left[\frac{4}{9}, \frac{2}{3}\right]$.

Conditional expectation is important and useful later on. Suppose $Y$ is an outcome variable of interest, and $X$ is a variable that can be used to predict $Y$. An excellent predictor of $Y$ as a function of $X=x$ is $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=x]$. This is optimal in a formal way. ${ }^{1}$ For instance, $Y$ is the transaction price of a house in the neighborhood and $X$ is the square footage of the house. Then we can predict the price of a house when the square footage is 1000 as $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X=1000]$.

## 5. Independence

If $X \sim f_{X}(x)$ and $Y \sim f_{Y}(y)$ are independent, then the joint pdf of $(X, Y)$ is:

$$
f_{X, Y}(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)
$$

Furthermore, if a joint pdf $f_{X, Y}(x, y)$ can be factored as:

[^0]$$
f_{X, Y}(x, y)=g(x) h(y)
$$

Then $X$ and $Y$ are independent random variables.
Example: consider again the joint pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ with the support on the unit square. Are $X$ and $Y$ independent? What about $f(x, y)=1$ with the support on the unit square?
Consider the pdf $f(x, y)=2$ with support on the triangle $\left\{(x, y) \in[0,1]^{2}: x+y \leq\right.$ $1\}$. Are $X$ and $Y$ independent?

## 6. Covariance and correlation

The covariance between $X$ and $Y$ is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y) & =\mathbb{E}[(X-\mathbb{E}[X])(Y-\mathbb{E}[Y])] \\
& =\mathbb{E}[X Y]-\mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]
\end{aligned}
$$

Remember $\mathbb{E}[X Y]=\iint x y f(x, y) d x d y$.
The correlation between $X$ and $Y$ is:

$$
\operatorname{Corr}(X, Y)=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}}
$$

Which is bounded between $[-1,1]$.
A useful result is:

$$
\operatorname{Var}(a X+b Y)=a^{2} \operatorname{Var}(X)+b^{2} \operatorname{Var}(Y)+2 a b \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)
$$

Show that when $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=0$. However the converse is not necessarily true! Zero covariance does not imply independence. Covariance only measures a linear relationship between $X$ and $Y$. For example, consider a random variable $X$ such that its first and third moments are zero. Now, if $Y=X^{2}$, then $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=0$. This means that covariance cannot capture nonlinear relationship between random variables. Instead, it is a good idea to always plot the scatterplot and inspect any non-linearity in the scatterplots.

## Example:

Consider the joint pdf $f(x, y)=6 x y^{2}$ with the support on the unit square. Recall that $\mathbb{E}[X Y]=\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x y 6 x y^{2} d x d y=\frac{1}{2}$. Moreover, $\mathbb{E}[X]=\frac{2}{3}$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y]=\frac{3}{4}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=0$.
Similar calculations can be done for the discrete case:

$$
\mathbb{E}[X Y]=\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x y P(X=x, Y=y)
$$

Finally, recall the joint pdf $f(x, y)=x+y$ with the support on $\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 0 \leq\right.$ $x \leq 1,0 \leq y \leq 1\}$.
Previously, we found that the marginal density of $Y$ is $f_{Y}(y)=\frac{1}{2}+y$ for $y \in[0,1]$. As such, $\mathbb{E}[Y]=\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{3}=\frac{7}{12}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X Y] & =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x y f(x, y) d x \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} x y(x+y) d x d y \\
& =\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the covariance between $X$ and $Y$ is $-\frac{1}{144}$, which is negative. This number seems small, because it has not been normalized with the scale of $(X, Y)$. We can also show that $\operatorname{Var}(Y)=11 / 144$, and $\operatorname{Var}(X)=11 / 144 .{ }^{2}$ Hence, the correlation between $(X, Y)$ is $-\frac{1}{11}$. Does this make geometric sense?

[^1]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ If your loss function is a mean-squared error. That is, let $f(X)=\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X]$, then $f(X)$ minimizes the mean-squared error $\mathbb{E}\left[(Y-h(X))^{2}\right]$ among all possible functions $h(X)$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Note that the pdf is symmetric in $x$ and $y$.

