

Section 3.5. The Multivariate Normal Distribution

Note. We start with the bivariate normal distribution and then consider the multivariate distribution. Random vectors were introduced in our [Section 2.6. Extension to Several Random Variables](#).

Definition. The random vector (X, Y) follows a *bivariate normal distribution* if its probability density function given by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} e^{-q/2} \text{ for } x, y \in \mathbb{R},$$

where

$$q = \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \left(\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1} \right)^2 - 2\rho \left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1} \right) \left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right)^2 \right),$$

and $-\infty < \mu_i < \infty$, $\sigma_i > 0$ for $i = 1, 2$, and ρ satisfies $\rho^2 < 1$.

Note 3.5.A. We'll show below that $f(x, y)$ is a probability density function with moment generating function

$$M_{(X,Y)}(t_1, t_2) = \exp \left(t_1\mu_1 + t_2\mu_2 + \frac{1}{2}(t_1^2\sigma_1^2 + 2t_1t_2\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 + t_2^2\sigma_2^2) \right).$$

Note 3.5.B. By Note 2.1.D, the marginal moment generating function $M_X(t_1) = M_{(X,Y)}(t_1, 0)$, so we have $M_X(t_1) = \exp(t_1\mu_1 + t_1^2\sigma_1^2/2)$. By Note 3.4.B, this is the moment generating function of a random variable with distribution $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$. So X has a $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ distribution, and similarly Y has a $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ distribution. It is

to be shown in Exercise 3.5.3 (with the help of Note 2.5.C) that

$$E[XY] = \frac{\partial^2 M_{(X,Y)}}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2}(0,0) = \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \mu_1\mu_2.$$

Now by Note 2.5.A, $\text{cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - \mu_1\mu_2$ so that we must have $\text{cov}(X, Y) = \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2$ and hence ρ is the correlation between X and Y by Definition 2.5.2.

Lemma 3.5.A. Let random vector (X, Y) have the bivariate normal distribution. Then X and Y are independent if and only if they are uncorrelated (that is, $\rho = 0$).

Note. The bivariate normal probability density function $f(x, y)$ is “mound shaped” over \mathbb{R}^2 with a maximum at its mean (μ_1, μ_2) (as is to be shown in Exercise 3.5.4(a)). For a given $c > 0$, the points of equal probability are given by the set $\{(x, y) \mid f(x, y) = c\}$. These sets form ellipses in \mathbb{R}^2 as is to be shown in Exercise 3.5.4(b) (these ellipses are called *contours* of f). If X and Y are independent then these contours are circular. This case is illustrated in the figure below, which is from [Andrew J. Baczkowski’s webpage on Statistical Methods](#) (accessed June 10, 2021).

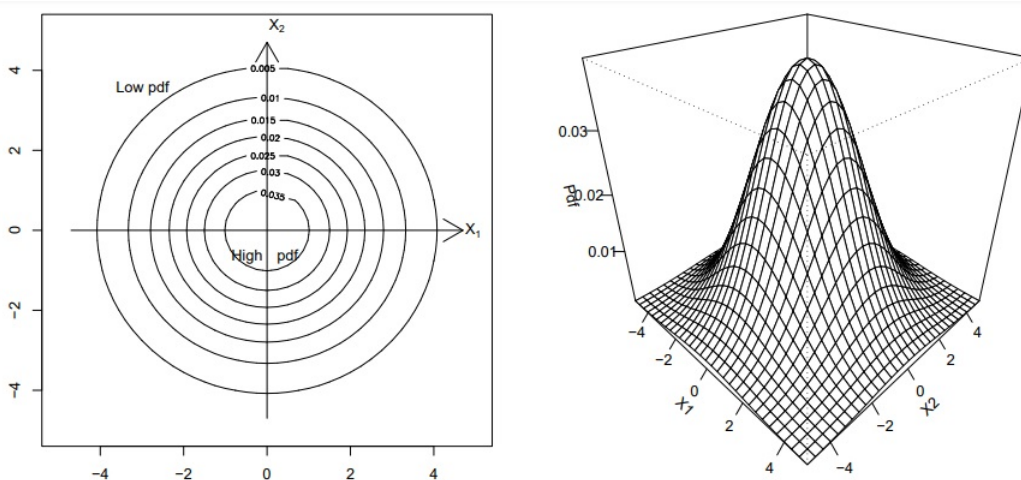


Figure. The contours (left) and the pdf for a bivariate normal distribution of independent variables.

Note 3.5.C. Let Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n be independent and identically distributed (“iid”) standard normal random variables. The probability density functions for the Z_i are $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}z_i^2\right)$. Since the Z_i are independent, then the probability density function for $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n)'$ is

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{z}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}z_i^2\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{n/2} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^2\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{n/2} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z}\right) \end{aligned}$$

for $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (notice that $\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z}$ is the dot product of \mathbf{z} with itself). The Z_i have mean 0, variance 1, and are independent (the pairwise correlation coefficients are all 0), so the mean vector and covariance matrix of \mathbf{Z} are $E[\mathbf{Z}] = \mathbf{0}$ and $\text{Cov}[\mathbf{Z}] = \mathbf{I}_n$ where \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. The moment generating function of Z_i evaluated at t_i is $\exp(t_i^2/2)$ by Note 3.4.A. So by Note 2.6.B, the moment generating function of \mathbf{Z} is

$$\begin{aligned} M_{\mathbf{Z}}(\mathbf{t}) &= E[\exp(\mathbf{t}'\mathbf{Z})] = E\left[\prod_{i=1}^n \exp(t_i Z_i)\right] = \prod_{i=1}^n E[\exp(t_i Z_i)] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \exp(t_i^2/2) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2\right) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}'\mathbf{t}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.5.7)$$

for $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition. Let Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n be independent and identical in distribution standard normal random variables. Then random vector $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n)'$ has a *multivariate normal distribution* with mean vector $\mathbf{0}$ and covariance matrix \mathbf{I}_n . We denote this as \mathbf{Z} has an $N_n(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_n)$ distribution. The moment generating function of \mathbf{Z} is given in (3.5.7) above.

Note. In the general case of a multivariate normal distribution, we consider the random variable $\mathbf{X} = \Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$ where \mathbf{Z} is as above, $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ gives the mean of \mathbf{X} , Σ corresponds to variance, and we will further explain the meaning of $\Sigma^{1/2}$ below.

Note. Every real symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} can be diagonalized as $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{C}^{-1}$, where \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} as the diagonal entries and the columns of \mathbf{C} consist of eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} (with the eigenvalues in \mathbf{D} and the eigenvectors in \mathbf{C} are in corresponding positions); in addition, the eigenvectors can be chosen so that they form an orthonormal set and hence \mathbf{C} is orthogonal. This claim is the Fundamental Theorem of Real Symmetric Matrices; see my online Linear Algebra (MATH 2010) notes on [Section 6.3. Orthogonal Matrices](#) (see Theorem 6.8). According to Hogg, McKean, Craig, this is called the *spectral decomposition* of \mathbf{A} . In addition a real symmetric matrix is positive semidefinite (or nonnegative definite) if and only if all of its eigenvalues are positive (see Theorem 3.8.14 in my online notes for Theory of Matrices [MATH 5090] on [Section 3.8. Eigenanalysis; Canonical Factorizations](#)).

Definition/Note 3.5.D. Let Σ be an $n \times n$ symmetric and positive semidefinite matrix. Then Σ has a spectral decomposition $\Sigma = \mathbf{\Gamma}'\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Gamma}$ where $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \lambda_n \geq 0$ are the eigenvalues of Σ and the columns of $\mathbf{\Gamma}'$, say $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, are the corresponding (unit) eigenvectors. Then, by the Fundamental Theorem of real Symmetric Matrices described above, matrix $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ is orthogonal; that is, $\mathbf{\Gamma}^{-1} = \mathbf{\Gamma}'$ so that $\mathbf{\Gamma}\mathbf{\Gamma}' = \mathbf{I}_n$. Then the spec-

tral decomposition of Σ is, as is to be shown in Exercise 3.5.19, $\Sigma = \Gamma' \Lambda \Gamma = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_i'$. Since the eigenvalues λ_i are nonnegative then we can define $\Lambda^{1/2} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$. Then, since Γ is orthogonal and $\Gamma \Gamma' = \mathbf{I}_n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= \Gamma' \Lambda \Gamma = \Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma = \Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \mathbf{I}_n \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma \\ &= \Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} (\Gamma \Gamma') \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma = (\Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma) (\Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma). \end{aligned}$$

Define the *square root* of (positive semidefinite) Σ as $\Sigma^{1/2} = \Gamma' \Sigma^{1/2} \Gamma$. Notice that $\Sigma^{1/2}$ is symmetric since

$$(\Sigma^{1/2})' = (\Gamma' \Sigma^{1/2} \Gamma)' = \Gamma' (\Lambda^{1/2}) \Gamma'' = \Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma = \Sigma^{1/2}.$$

Also, $\Sigma^{1/2}$ is positive definite since

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\Sigma^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) &= \det(\Gamma' \Lambda^{1/2} \Gamma - \lambda \Gamma' \Gamma) = \det(\Gamma' (\Lambda^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) \Gamma) \\ &= \det(\Gamma') \det(\Lambda^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) \det(\Gamma) = \det(\Gamma^{-1}) \det(\Lambda^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) \det(\Gamma) \\ &= \det(\Gamma)^{-1} \det(\Lambda^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) \det(\Gamma) = \det(\Lambda^{1/2} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) \end{aligned}$$

and hence the eigenvalues of $\Sigma^{1/2}$ and $\Lambda^{1/2} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$ are the same (and are nonnegative). If Σ is positive definite (so that the eigenvalues of Σ are positive) then we can define

$$(\Sigma)^{-1/2} = (\Sigma^{1/2})^{-1} = \Gamma' (\Lambda^{1/2})^{-1} \Gamma,$$

as is to be shown in Exercise 3.5.13.

Note 3.5.E. For \mathbf{Z} with a $N_n(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_n)$ distribution and Σ a positive semidefinite symmetric matrix and let $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ be an $n \times 1$ vector of constants, define the random vector \mathbf{X} as $\mathbf{X} = \Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$. Since the mean of \mathbf{Z} is $\mathbf{0}$, then the mean of \mathbf{X} is $\boldsymbol{\mu}$. Since $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}) = \mathbf{I}_n$ then, by Theorem 2.6.3,

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) = \text{Cov}(\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \text{Cov}(\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z}) = \Sigma^{1/2}\text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z})(\Sigma^{1/2})' = \Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{I}_n\Sigma^{1/2} = \Sigma.$$

The moment generating function of \mathbf{X} is

$$\begin{aligned} M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{t}) &= E[\exp(\mathbf{t}'\mathbf{X})] = E[\exp(\mathbf{t}'\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z} + \mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu})] \\ &= E[\exp(\mathbf{t}'\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{Z}) \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu})] = \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu})E[\exp((\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t})'\mathbf{Z})] \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu})E[\exp((\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t})'\mathbf{Z})] \text{ since } \Sigma^{1/2} \text{ is symmetric} \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu}) = M_{\mathbf{Z}}((\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t})'\mathbf{Z}) \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu}) \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t})'(\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t})\right) \text{ by (3.5.7)} \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu}) \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}'\Sigma^{1/2}\Sigma^{1/2}\mathbf{t}\right) \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu}) \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}'\Sigma\mathbf{t}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}'\Sigma\mathbf{t}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Definition 3.5.1. An n -dimensional random vector \mathbf{X} has a *multivariate normal distribution* if its moment generating function is

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{t}) = \exp(\mathbf{t}'\boldsymbol{\mu} + (1/2)\mathbf{t}'\Sigma\mathbf{t}) \text{ for all } \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where Σ is a symmetric, positive semi-definite matrix and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We say that \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ distribution.

Note 3.5.F. If Σ is positive definite, then $\Sigma^{-1/2}$ is defined as given above (and as given in Exercise 3.5.13). Since we $\mathbf{X} = \Sigma^{1/2}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$, then in this case we have $\mathbf{Z} = \Sigma^{-1/2}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$. In Exercise 3.5.A it is to be shown that the probability density function of \mathbf{X} is

$$f_{\mathbf{F}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right) \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (3.5.16)$$

Note. If we set $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ or (3.5.16) equal to a positive constant to find the contours of $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$. This corresponds to the condition $(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = c^2$. This implies

$$\begin{aligned} & (x_1 - \mu_1, x_2 - \mu_2, \dots, x_n - \mu_n) \begin{pmatrix} 1/\lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1/\lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 - \mu_1 \\ x_2 - \mu_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n - \mu_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (x_1 - \mu_1, x_2 - \mu_2, \dots, x_n - \mu_n) \begin{pmatrix} (x_1 - \mu_1)/\lambda_1 \\ (x_2 - \mu_2)/\lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ (x_n - \mu_n)/\lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{\lambda_1} + \frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{\lambda_2} + \cdots + \frac{(x_n - \mu_n)^2}{\lambda_n} = c^2 \end{aligned}$$

(notice that $(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ is in fact positive) or

$$= \frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{c^2 \lambda_1} + \frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{c^2 \lambda_2} + \cdots + \frac{(x_n - \mu_n)^2}{c^2 \lambda_n} = 1.$$

So the contours of $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ are ellipsoids in n -dimensional space with center $(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n)$.

In the event that $\Sigma^{1/2} = \mathbf{I}_n$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Z}$) then we see that the contours are spheres of radius $c > 0$ centered at the origin.

Theorem 3.5.1. Suppose \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution, where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is positive definite. Then the random variable $Y = (\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma} (\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ has a $\chi^2(n)$ distribution. (Notice that Y is a single random variable and not a random vector.)

Note. The next theorem shows that a linear transformation of a multivariate normal random vector has, itself, a multivariate normal distribution.

Theorem 3.5.2. Suppose \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution. Let $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b}$, where \mathbf{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then \mathbf{Y} has a $N_m(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}')$ distribution.

Note. For \mathbf{X} with a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution, let \mathbf{X}_1 be any subvector of \mathbf{X} of dimension, say, $m < n$. We can rearrange the components of \mathbf{X} (and correspondingly, of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$) so that we have $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ where \mathbf{X}_2 is of dimension $p = n - m$. This

then leads to the partitioning of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ as $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

(where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}$ is $m \times m$, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}$ is $p \times p$, etc.). These decompositions can be done without loss of generality since the order of the random variables X_i in \mathbf{X} is not relevant.

For details on partitioned matrices, see my online notes for Theorem of Matrices (MATH 5090) on [Section 3.2. Multiplication of Matrices and Multiplication of Vectors and Matrices.](#)

Corollary 3.5.1. Suppose \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution partitioned as

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where \mathbf{X}_1 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ are m dimensional and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11}$ is $m \times m$. Then \mathbf{X}_1 has a $N_m(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11})$ distribution.

Note. We define marginal probability density functions in the setting of two variables in [Section 2.1. Distributions of Two Random Variables](#) (see Note 2.1.C). Similarly, we see that Corollary 3.5.1 implies that any marginal distribution of normal random vector \mathbf{X} is itself normal. Also, the mean and covariance of the marginal distribution are those associated with the partial vector \mathbf{X}_1 .

Note. In [Section 2.5. The Correlation Coefficient](#) we see that if two random variables X and Y are independent, then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ (see Theorem 3.5.2). In the setting of two random variables, the converse does not hold (see Example 2.5.3). The next result shows in the multivariate normal setting, \mathbf{X}_1 and \mathbf{X}_2 are independent if and only if the covariance satisfies $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \mathbf{0}$. Notice this implies in the two random variable setting when X and Y are both normally distributed and $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$, then X and Y are independent.

Theorem 3.5.3. Suppose \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution, partitioned as

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then \mathbf{X}_1 and \mathbf{X}_2 are independent if and only if the covariance satisfies $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \mathbf{0}$.

Note. In Corollary 3.5.1 we saw that a marginal distribution of a multivariate normal random vector is itself normal. The next result shows that this also holds for conditional distributions.

Theorem 3.5.4. Suppose \mathbf{X} has a $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution, partitioned as

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Assume that $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is positive definite. Then the conditional distribution of $\mathbf{X}_1 \mid \mathbf{X}_2$ is

$$N_m(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21}).$$

Example 3.5.A. Continuation of the Bivariate Normal Distribution.

Suppose $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ and has a $N_2(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ distribution where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and

$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$. By Definition 2.5.2, the correlation coefficient between X and

Y is $\rho = \frac{\Sigma_{12}}{\sigma_1\sigma_2} = \frac{\Sigma_{21}}{\sigma_1\sigma_2}$ or $\Sigma_{12} = \Sigma_{21} = \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2$. So

$$\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| = \begin{vmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{vmatrix} = \sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2 - \rho^2\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2 = \sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1 - \rho^2).$$

Recall that $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$. If $\rho = \pm 1$ then $Y = \pm X$ (respectively) and we then effectively have a single variable. So we now assume $\rho^2 \neq 1$. We also have that X and Y are not constant (a constant random variable is not normally distributed)

and so $\sigma_1 \neq 0 \neq \sigma_2$. So $\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \neq 0$ and hence $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is 2×2 , then

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_2^2 & -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_1^2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1-\rho^2)} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_2^2 & -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_1^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(see my online notes for Linear Algebra [MATH 2010] on [Section 4.3. Computation of Determinants and Cramer's Rule](#); see the example based on exercise 4.3.18). By equation (3.5.16) in Note 3.5.F, with $n = 2$ we have that the probability density function of \mathbf{X} is

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{(2)/2}(\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1-\rho^2))^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}[x - \mu_1, y - \mu_2] \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1-\rho^2)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_2^2 & -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ -\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x - \mu_1 \\ x - \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1-\rho^2)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times [(x - \mu_1)\sigma_2^2 + (y - \mu_2)(-\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2), (x - \mu_1)(-\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2) + (y - \mu_2)\sigma_1^2] \begin{bmatrix} x - \mu_1 \\ x - \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2(1-\rho^2)}((x - \mu_1)^2\sigma_2^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - (y - \mu_2)\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2(x - \mu_1) - (x - \mu_1)\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2(y - \mu_2) + (y - \mu_2)2\sigma_1^2) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left(\frac{(x - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} - 2\rho\frac{(x - \mu_1)(y - \mu_2)}{\sigma_1\sigma_2} + \frac{(y - \mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} e^{-q/2} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$q = \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \left(\left(\frac{x - \mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 - 2\rho \left(\frac{x - \mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right) \left(\frac{y - \mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right) + \left(\frac{y - \mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 \right).$$

That is, the multivariate normal distribution reduces to the bivariate normal distribution when $n = 2$ (compare to the first definition in this section).

Example 3.5.A Continued. As above we take $\mathbf{X} = (Y, X)'$ to have a $N_2(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ (with the entries of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ permuted as appropriate to correspond to the entries of \mathbf{X}) we have by Theorem 3.5.4 that conditional distribution of Y given $X = x$ is $N(\mu_1 + \rho\sigma_2/\sigma_1(x - \mu_1), \sigma_2^2(1 - \rho^2))$ since $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2$ (as shown above) and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1} = 1/\sigma_1^2$ so that $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1} = \rho\sigma_1/\sigma_2$, and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} = \sigma_2^2$ so that

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{11} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{22}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{21} = \sigma_2^2 - (\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2)(1/\sigma_1^2)(\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2) = \sigma_2^2(1 - \rho^2).$$

We now have that the conditional mean of Y given $X = x$ is $E(Y | x) = \mu_2 + (\rho\sigma_2/\sigma_1)(x - \mu_1)$; notice that this is a linear function of x (unless $\rho = 0$). Notice that the variance is $\sigma_2^2(1 - \rho^2)$ and is independent of x . It follows that “most” of the probability distribution of X and Y lies “close” to the line $y = \mu_2 + (\rho\sigma_2/\sigma_1)(x - \mu_1)$ (provided the standard deviation of Y , $\sigma_2\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}$, is “small”). We can interchange X and Y to get that the conditional distribution of X given $Y = y$ is $N_2(\mu_1 + (\rho\sigma_1/\sigma_2)(y - \mu_2), \sigma_1^2(1 - \rho^2))$, and that similar conclusions as above can be drawn.

Exercise 3.5.8. Let X and Y have a bivariate normal distribution with parameters $\mu_1 = 20$, $\mu_2 = 40$, $\sigma_1^2 = 9$, $\sigma_2^2 = 4$, and $\rho = 0.6$. Find the shortest interval for which 0.90 is the conditional probability that Y is in the interval, given that $x = 22$.

Note. Let the random vectors \mathbf{X} have the multivariate distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is positive definite (and symmetric since $\text{cov}(X_i, X_j) = \text{Cov}(X_j, X_i)$). Then by Note 3.5.D, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}'\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ where $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n > 0$ are the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and the columns of $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}'$ are the unit eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ corresponding to the eigenvalues. Recall that $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is an orthogonal matrix, so that $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}' = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{-1}$. So $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}'$. Define random vector $\mathbf{Y} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$. By Theorem 3.5.2, \mathbf{Y} has a $N_n(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda})$ distribution. Since $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is a diagonal matrix then $\text{cov}(Y_i, Y_j) = 0$ and it follows from Theorem 3.5.3 that Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are independent random variables. Also, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ random variables Y_i has a $N(0, \lambda_i)$ distribution.

Definition. Let random vector \mathbf{X} have the multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is positive definite. With $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}'\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ as the “spectral decomposition” (or orthogonal diagonalization) of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, the random vector $\mathbf{Y} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ is the vector of *principal components* of \mathbf{X} .

Definition. The *total variation* (“TV”) of (any) random vector is the sum of the variances of its components.

Note. Consider random vector \mathbf{X} with the multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ described above. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{TV}(\mathbf{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 \text{ by definition} \\ &= \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \text{ since the trace of a matrix is the sum of the diagonal entries} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Gamma}'\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Gamma}) \text{ since } \mathbf{\Sigma} = \mathbf{\Gamma}'\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Gamma} \\
&= \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Gamma}'(\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Gamma})) = \text{tr}((\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Gamma})\mathbf{\Gamma}') \text{ since } \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}) \text{ for appropriate} \\
&\quad \text{sized matrices (this follows from the definition of trace and} \\
&\quad \text{matrix product)} \\
&= \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{I}_n) \text{ since } \mathbf{\Gamma} \text{ is an orthogonal matrix, so } \mathbf{\Gamma}^{-1} = \mathbf{\Gamma}' \\
&= \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \\
&= \text{TV}(\mathbf{Y} \text{ since } \mathbf{Y} \text{ has a } N_n(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Lambda}) \text{ distribution.}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ have the same total variance.

Lemma 3.5.B. Consider random vector \mathbf{X} with multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ is an orthogonal positive definite matrix. Then for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\|\mathbf{a}\| = 1$, we have $\text{Var}(\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{X}) \leq \text{Var}(Y_1)$. That is, Y_1 has the maximum variance of any linear combination $\mathbf{a}'(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{a}'\| = 1$.

Definition. For random vector \mathbf{X} with multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ is an orthogonal positive definite matrix, random variable Y_1 (the first component of \mathbf{Y} as described in Lemma 3.5.A) is the *first principal component* of \mathbf{X} .

Note. The next result is a generalization of Lemma 3.5.A. The proof is similar to that of the lemma and is to be given in Exercise 3.5.20.

Theorem 3.5.5. Consider random vector \mathbf{X} with multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is an orthogonal positive definite matrix. For $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ we have $\text{Var}(\mathbf{a}'\mathbf{X}) \leq \lambda_j = \text{Var}(Y_j)$ for all vectors \mathbf{a} such that $\mathbf{a} \perp \mathbf{v}_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, j - 1$ and $\|\mathbf{a}\| = 1$.

Definition. Consider random vector \mathbf{X} with multivariate normal distribution $N_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$ where $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is an orthogonal positive definite matrix. The components Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are the *second, third, through the n th principal components* of \mathbf{X} , respectively.

Note. “Principal Component Analysis” (“PCA”) is an area of study in multivariate statistical analysis. It involves reducing the number of dimensions of observational data, or the weighting of components of a random vector in producing a standardized linear combination (“SLC”) of the components. See my online notes (in preparation) for [Applied Multivariate Statistical Analysis](#) (STAT 5730); see “Chapter 11. Principal Components Analysis.”

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