

Correlation & Covariance of Random Processes

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Based on
Probability, Random Variables and Random Signal Principles,
P.Z. Peebles,Jr. and B. Shi

Outline

- 1 Auto / Cross Correlations of Random Processes
 - Auto-correlation of Random Processes
 - Cross-correlation of Random Variables

- 2 Auto / Cross Covariance Random Processes
 - Auto-covariance of Random Processes
 - Cross-covariance of Random Processes

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Correlation functions (1)

- A **correlation function** gives the statistical correlation between random variables, contingent on the spatial or temporal distance between those variables.
- An **auto-correlation function** random variables represent the same quantity measured at two different points
- A **cross-correlation function** random variables are different quantities measured at two different points

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation_function

Correlation functions (2)

- a useful indicator of dependencies as a function of distance in time or space
- can be used to assess the distance required between sample points for the values to be effectively uncorrelated.
- can form the basis of rules for interpolating values at points for which there are no observations.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation_function

Auto-correlation functions (1)

in deterministic processes

- **Autocorrelation** is the correlation of a signal with a delayed copy of itself as a function of delay.
- the similarity between observations as a function of the time lag between them.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocorrelation>

Auto-correlation functions (2)

in deterministic processes

- auto-correlation of continuous time signal (deterministic)

$$R_{ff}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t+\tau)\overline{f(t)}dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\overline{f(t-\tau)}dt$$

- auto-correlation of discrete time signal (deterministic)

$$R_{gg}[k] = \sum_n g[n+k]\overline{g[n]}dt = \sum_n g[n]\overline{g[n-k]}dt$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocorrelation>

Auto-correlation functions (3)

in deterministic processes

- a mathematical tool for
 - finding repeating patterns, such as the presence of a periodic signal obscured by noise,
 - identifying the missing fundamental frequency in a signal implied by its harmonic frequencies.
- often used in signal processing for analyzing functions or series of values, such as time domain signals.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocorrelation>

Auto-correlation functions (4)

In random processes

- the **autocorrelation** of a real or complex random process
- the **Pearson correlation**
between values of the process at different times,
as a function of the two times (t_1, t_2)
or a function of the time lag (τ)

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocorrelation>

Auto-correlation functions (5)

In random processes

- Let $\{X(t)\}$ be a random process, and t be any point in time
 t may be an integer for a discrete-time process
or a real number for a continuous-time process
- Then $X(t)$ is the value (or **realization**) produced
by a given run of the process at time t .
- the auto-correlation function between times t_1 and t_2

$$R_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = E \left[X(t_1) \overline{X(t_2)} \right]$$

- the auto-correlation function for WSS random process $\{X(t)\}$

$$R_{XX}(\tau) = E \left[X(t) \overline{X(t+\tau)} \right]$$

The properties of autocorrelation functions (1)

$$|R_{XX}(\tau)|, R_{XX}(-\tau), R_{XX}(0)$$

$$|R_{XX}(\tau)| \leq R_{XX}(0)$$

$$R_{XX}(-\tau) = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

$$R_{XX}(0) = E[X^2(t)]$$

$$P[|X(t+\tau) - X(t)| > \varepsilon] = \frac{2}{\varepsilon^2} (R_{XX}(0) - R_{XX}(\tau))$$

The properties of autocorrelation functions (2)

$R_{NN}(\tau), R_{XX}(\tau)$

if

$$X(t) = \bar{X} + N(t)$$

where $N(t)$ is WSS,
is zero-mean,

$$m_N(t) = 0$$

has autocorrelation function

$$R_{NN}(\tau) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } |\tau| \rightarrow \infty$$

then

$$R_{XX}(\tau) \rightarrow \bar{X}^2 \text{ as } |\tau| \rightarrow \infty$$

The properties of autocorrelation functions (3)

 $R_{NN}(\tau), R_{XX}(\tau)$

If

$$X(t) = \bar{X} + N(t)$$

$$m_N(t) = 0$$

$$\lim_{|\tau| \rightarrow \infty} R_{NN}(\tau) = 0$$

then

$$\lim_{|\tau| \rightarrow \infty} R_{XX}(\tau) = \bar{X}^2$$

The properties of autocorrelation functions (4)

$R_{NN}(\tau), R_{XX}(\tau)$

if $X(t)$ is **mean square periodic**, i.e.,
there exists a $T \neq 0$ such that

$$E [\{X(t+T) - X(t)\}^2] = 0 \quad \text{for all } t,$$

then $R_{XX}(t)$ will have a **periodic** component
with the same period

$$R_{XX}(\tau + T) = R_{XX}(\tau)$$

The properties of autocorrelation functions (5)

 $R_{NN}(\tau), R_{XX}(\tau)$

- $R_{XX}(\tau + T) = R_{XX}(\tau)$
- $R_{XX}(T) = R_{XX}(0)$
- $E[X(t)X(t+T)] = E[X(t)X(t)]$
- $E[X(t)X(t+T)] = E[X(t+T)X(t+T)]$
- $2E[X(t)X(t+T)] = E[X(t)X(t)] + E[X(t+T)X(t+T)]$
- $E[\{X(t) - X(t+T)\}^2] = 0$

<http://www.math.pitt.edu/~troy/stochastic/meansquareperiodic.pdf>

The properties of autocorrelation functions (6)

$$R_{NN}(\tau), R_{XX}(\tau)$$

$R_{XX}(\tau)$ cannot have an arbitrary shape

any arbitrary function cannot be an autocorrelation function.

$R_{XX}(\tau)$ is related to the **power density spectrum**
through the Fourier transform and
the form of the spectrum is not arbitrary

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Crosscorrelation functions (1)

In signal processing

- a measure of similarity of two series as a function of the displacement of one relative to the other.
- commonly used for searching a long signal for a shorter, known feature.
- It has applications in pattern recognition, single particle analysis, electron tomography, averaging, cryptanalysis, and neurophysiology.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (2)

In signal processing

- similar in nature to the **convolution** of two functions.
- In an **autocorrelation**,
which is the cross-correlation of a signal with itself,
there will always be a peak at a lag of zero,
and its size will be the signal energy.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (3)

for deterministic signals

- consider two real valued functions f and g differing only by an unknown shift along the x-axis.
- One can use the cross-correlation to find how much g must be shifted along the x-axis to make it identical to f .
- The formula essentially slides the g function along the x-axis, calculating the integral of their product at each position.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (4)

for deterministic signals

- With complex-valued functions f and g , taking the **conjugate** of f ensures that aligned peaks (or aligned troughs) with imaginary components will contribute positively to the integral.

$$(f \star g)(\tau) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overline{f(t)} g(t + \tau) dt$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (5)

for deterministic signals

- When the functions match, the value of $(f \star g)$ is maximized.
- This is because when peaks (positive areas) are aligned, they make a large contribution to the integral.
- Similarly, when troughs (negative areas) align, they also make a positive contribution to the integral because the product of two negative numbers is positive.

$$(f \star g)(\tau) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overline{f(t)} g(t + \tau) dt$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (6)

for random processes

- the **cross-correlation** of a pair of **random processes** is the correlation between values of the **processes** at different times, as a function of the two times.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (6)

for random processes

- Let $(X(t), Y(t))$ be a pair of **random processes**, and t be any point in time
- t may be an integer for a discrete-time process or a real number for a continuous-time process
- Then $X(t)$ is the value (or realization) produced by a given run of the process at time t .

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = E[X_{t_1} \overline{Y_{t_2}}]$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (7)

Normalization

- It is common practice in some disciplines (e.g. statistics and time series analysis) to **normalize** the cross-correlation function to get a time-dependent **Pearson correlation coefficient**.
- However, in other disciplines (e.g. engineering) the normalization is usually dropped and the terms "**cross-correlation**" and "**cross-covariance**" are used interchangeably.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-correlation>

Crosscorrelation functions (8)

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2), R_{XY}(t, t + \tau)$$

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = E[X(t_1)Y(t_2)]$$

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = E[X(t)Y(t + \tau)] = R_{XY}(\tau)$$

Crosscorrelation functions (9)

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2), R_{XY}(t, t + \tau)$$

if

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = R_{XY}(\tau) = 0$$

then $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ are called **orthogonal processes**

Orthogonal Random Variables (1)

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2), R_{XY}(t, t + \tau)$$

vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are **orthogonal**

if their dot product is zero, i.e. $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$.

However for vectors with random components,
the **orthogonality** condition is modified to be
Expected Value $E[\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}] = 0$.

for orthogonality, each random outcome of $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ may not be zero,
sometimes positive, sometimes negative, possibly also zero,
but Expected Value $E[\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}] = 0$.

<https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/474840/what-does-orthogonal-random-variables-mean>

Orthogonal Random Variables (2)

$$R_{XY}(t_1, t_2), R_{XY}(t, t + \tau)$$

Two random processes $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ are called **orthogonal** if their cross-correlation

$$R_{XY}(\tau) = E[X(t)Y(t + \tau)] = 0$$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stochastic_process#Orthogonality

Statistically independent

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau), R_{XY}(\tau)$$

if $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ are statistically independent

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = E[X(t)Y(t + \tau)] = m_X(t)m_Y(t + \tau)$$

if $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ are statistically independent and are at least WSS,

$$R_{XY}(\tau) = \bar{X} \bar{Y}$$

which is constant

The properties of crosscorrelation functions (1)

$$R_{XY}(\tau), |R_{XY}(\tau)|$$

$$R_{XY}(-\tau) = R_{YX}(\tau)$$

$$|R_{XY}(\tau)| \leq \sqrt{R_{XX}(0)R_{YY}(0)}$$

$$|R_{XY}(\tau)| \leq \frac{1}{2} [R_{XX}(0) + R_{YY}(0)]$$

The properties of crosscorrelation functions (2)

$$R_{YX}(-\tau)$$

$$R_{YX}(-\tau) = E[Y(t)X(t-\tau)] = E[Y(s+\tau)X(s)] = R_{XY}(\tau)$$

$$E\left[\{Y(t+\tau) + \alpha X(t)\}^2\right] \geq 0$$

the **geometric mean** of two positive numbers
cannot exceed their **arithmetic mean**

The properties of crosscorrelation functions (3)

 $|R_{XY}(\tau)|$

$$|R_{XY}(\tau)| \leq \frac{1}{2} [R_{XX}(0) + R_{YY}(0)]$$

$$\sqrt{R_{XX}(0)R_{YY}(0)} \leq \frac{1}{2} [R_{XX}(0) + R_{YY}(0)]$$

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Auto-covariance (1)

- With the usual notation E for the expectation operator, if the stochastic process $\{X(t)\}$ has the mean function $\mu(t) = E[X(t)]$, then the autocovariance is given by

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) &= \text{cov}[X(t_1), X(t_2)] \\ &= E[(X(t_1) - \mu(t_1))(X(t_2) - \mu(t_2))] \\ &= E[X(t_1)X(t_2)] - \mu(t_1)\mu(t_2)\end{aligned}$$

- where t_1 and t_2 are two moments in time.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

Auto-covariance (2)

If $\{X(t)\}$ is a weakly stationary (WSS) process, then the following are true

- $\mu(t_1) = \mu(t_2) \triangleq \mu$ for all t_1, t_2
- $E[|X(t)|^2] < \infty$ for all t
- $K_{XX}(t_1, t_2) = K_{XX}(t_2 - t_1, 0) \triangleq K_{XX}(t_2 - t_1) = K_{XX}(\tau)$

where $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ is the lag time, or the amount of time by which the signal has been shifted.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

Auto-covariance (3)

The autocovariance function of a WSS process is therefore given by

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XX}(\tau) &= E[(X(t) - \mu(t))(X(t - \tau) - \mu(t - \tau))] \\ &= E[X(t)X(t - \tau)] - \mu^2\end{aligned}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XX}(\tau) &= E[(X(t + \tau) - \mu(t + \tau))(X(t) - \mu(t))] \\ &= E[X(t)X(t + \tau)] - \mu^2\end{aligned}$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

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Cross-covariance (1)

- Let $\{X(t)\}$ and $\{Y(t)\}$ denote stochastic processes. Then the cross-covariance function of the processes K_{XY} is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XY}(t_1, t_2) &= \text{cov}[X(t_1), Y(t_2)] \\&= E[(X(t_1) - \mu_X(t_1))(Y(t_2) - \mu_Y(t_2))] \\&= E[X(t_1)Y(t_2)] - \mu_X(t_1)\mu_Y(t_2)\end{aligned}$$

- where t_1 and t_2 are two moments in time.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

Cross-covariance (2)

If $\{X(t)\}$ and $\{Y(t)\}$ are a jointly weakly stationary (WSS) process, then the following are true

- $\mu_X(t_1) = \mu_X(t_2) \triangleq \mu_X$ for all t_1, t_2
- $\mu_Y(t_1) = \mu_Y(t_2) \triangleq \mu_Y$ for all t_1, t_2
- $K_{XY}(t_1, t_2) = K_{XY}(t_2 - t_1, 0) \triangleq K_{XY}(t_2 - t_1) = K_{XY}(\tau)$

where $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ is the lag time, or the amount of time by which the signal has been shifted.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

Cross-covariance (3)

The autocovariance function of a WSS process is therefore given by

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XY}(\tau) &= E[(X(t) - \mu_X(t))(Y(t - \tau) - \mu_Y(t - \tau))] \\ &= E[X(t)Y(t - \tau)] - \mu_X\mu_Y\end{aligned}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned}K_{XY}(\tau) &= E[(X(t + \tau) - \mu_X(t + \tau))(Y(t) - \mu_Y(t))] \\ &= E[X(t)Y(t + \tau)] - \mu_X\mu_Y\end{aligned}$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autocovariance>

Units of measurement

- The units of measurement of the **covariance** $\text{cov}(X, Y)$ are those of X times those of Y .
- By contrast, **correlation coefficients**, which depend on the **covariance**, are a dimensionless measure of linear dependence. (In fact, **correlation coefficients** can simply be understood as a **normalized** version of **covariance**.)

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Covariance with itself

- The variance is a special case of the covariance in which the two variables are identical (that is, in which one variable always takes the same value as the other)

$$\text{cov}(X, X) = \text{var}(X) \equiv \sigma^2(X) \equiv \sigma_X^2.$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Covariance of linear combination

- If $X, Y, W,$ and V are real-valued random variables and a, b, c, d are real-valued constants, then the following facts are a consequence of the definition of covariance:

$$\text{cov}(X, a) = 0$$

$$\text{cov}(X, X) = \text{var}(X)$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \text{cov}(Y, X)$$

$$\text{cov}(aX, bY) = ab \text{cov}(X, Y)$$

$$\text{cov}(X + a, Y + b) = \text{cov}(X, Y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(aX + bY, cW + dV) &= ac \text{cov}(X, W) + ad \text{cov}(X, V) \\ &\quad + bc \text{cov}(Y, W) + bd \text{cov}(Y, V) \end{aligned}$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Uncorrelated (1)

- Random variables whose covariance is zero are called uncorrelated.
- For example, let X be uniformly distributed in $[-1, 1]$ and let $Y = X^2$. Clearly, X and Y are not independent, but

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}(X, Y) &= \text{cov}(X, X^2) \\ &= E[X \cdot X^2] - E[X] \cdot E[X^2] \\ &= E[X^3] - E[X]E[X^2] \\ &= 0 - 0 \cdot E[X^2] \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Uncorrelated (2)

- In this case, the relationship between Y and X is non-linear, while correlation and covariance are measures of linear dependence between two random variables.
- This example shows that if two random variables are uncorrelated, that does not in general imply that they are independent.
- However, if two variables are jointly normally distributed (but not if they are merely individually normally distributed), uncorrelatedness does imply independence.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Inner Product

- Many of the properties of covariance can be extracted elegantly by observing that it satisfies similar properties to those of an inner product:
- bilinear: for constants a and b and random variables X, Y, Z ,
 $\text{cov}(aX + bY, Z) = a\text{cov}(X, Z) + b\text{cov}(Y, Z)$
- symmetric: $\text{cov}(X, Y) = \text{cov}(Y, X)$
- positive semi-definite: $\sigma^2(X) = \text{cov}(X, X) \geq 0$ for all random variables X , and $\text{cov}(X, X) = 0$ implies that X is constant almost surely. $\text{cov}(X, X) = 0$ implies that X is constant almost surely.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Covariance Functions

$$C_{XX}(t, t + \tau), C_{XY}(t, t + \tau)$$

$$C_{XX}(t, t + \tau) = E[\{X(t) - m_X(t)\} \{X(t + \tau) - m_X(t + \tau)\}]$$

$$C_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = E[\{X(t) - m_X(t)\} \{Y(t + \tau) - m_Y(t + \tau)\}]$$

$$C_{XX}(t, t + \tau) = R_{XX}(t, t + \tau) - m_X(t)m_X(t + \tau)$$

$$C_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) - m_X(t)m_Y(t + \tau)$$

at least jointly WSS

$$C_{XX}(\tau) = R_{XX}(\tau) - \bar{X}^2$$

$$C_{XY}(\tau) = R_{XY}(\tau) - \bar{X}\bar{Y}$$

The properties of covariance functions

$$C_{XX}(0)$$

For a **WSS process**, variance does not depend on time and if $\tau = 0$

$$C_{XX}(0) = R_{XX}(0) - \bar{X}^2$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = E \left[\{X(t) - E[X(t)]\}^2 \right] = C_{XX}(0)$$

if the two random processes **uncorrelated**

$$C_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) - m_X(t)m_Y(t + \tau) = 0$$

$$R_{XY}(t, t + \tau) = m_X(t)m_Y(t + \tau)$$

Discrete-Time Processes and Sequences (1)

$$R_{XX}[n, n+k], R_{YY}[n, n+k], C_{XX}[n, n+k], C_{YY}[n, n+k]$$

$$m_X[n] = \bar{X}, m_Y[n] = \bar{Y}$$

$$R_{XX}[n, n+k] = R_{XX}[k]$$

$$R_{YY}[n, n+k] = R_{YY}[k]$$

$$C_{XX}[n, n+k] = R_{XX}[k] - \bar{X}^2$$

$$C_{YY}[n, n+k] = R_{YY}[k] - \bar{Y}^2$$

Discrete-Time Processes and Sequences (2)

$$R_{XY}[n, n+k], R_{YX}[n, n+k], C_{XY}[n, n+k], C_{YX}[n, n+k]$$

$$m_X[n] = \bar{X}, m_Y[n] = \bar{Y}$$

$$R_{XY}[n, n+k] = R_{XY}[k]$$

$$R_{YX}[n, n+k] = R_{YX}[k]$$

$$C_{XY}[n, n+k] = R_{XY}[k] - \bar{X}\bar{Y}$$

$$C_{YX}[n, n+k] = R_{YX}[k] - \bar{Y}\bar{X}$$

Covariance example (1)

- Suppose that X and Y have the following joint probability mass function, in which the six central cells give the discrete joint probabilities $f(x, y)$ of the six hypothetical realizations

		x			$f_Y(y)$
		5	6	7	
y	8	0	0.4	0.1	0.5
	9	0.3	0	0.2	0.5
$f_X(x)$		0.3	0.4	0.3	1

- $\mu_X = 5(0.3) + 6(0.4) + 7(0.1 + 0.2) = 6$
- $\mu_Y = 8(0.4 + 0.1) + 9(0.3 + 0.2) = 8.5$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

Covariance example (2)

		x			$f_Y(y)$
		5	6	7	
y	8	0	0.4	0.1	0.5
	9	0.3	0	0.2	0.5
$f_X(x)$		0.3	0.4	0.3	1

- $\mu_X = 6$ and $\mu_Y = 8.5$
- $cov(X, Y) = \sigma_{XY} = \sum_{(x,y) \in S} f(x,y)(x - \mu_X)(y - \mu_Y)$
 $(0)(5 - 6)(8 - 8.5) + (0.4)(6 - 6)(8 - 8.5) + (0.1)(7 - 6)(8 - 8.5) +$
 $(0.3)(5 - 6)(9 - 8.5) + (0)(6 - 6)(9 - 8.5) + (0.2)(7 - 6)(9 - 8.5)$
 $= -0.1$

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance>

