

# ECE 417 Lecture 9: Gaussians

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- Gaussian pdf; Central limit theorem, Brownian motion
- White Noise
- Vector of i.i.d. Gaussians
- Vector of Gaussians that are independent but not identical
- Facts about linear algebra
- Vector of Gaussians that are neither independent nor identical

# Review: Bayesian Classifier

A Bayesian classifier computes

$$h(x) = \operatorname{argmax} p_{Y|X}(y|x) = \operatorname{argmax} p_Y(y)p_{X|Y}(x|y)$$

- The prior,  $p_Y(y)$  is just a lookup table, but...
- The likelihood,  $p_{X|Y}(x|y)$ , usually needs to be some kind of parameterized pdf. A Gaussian is often an excellent choice.

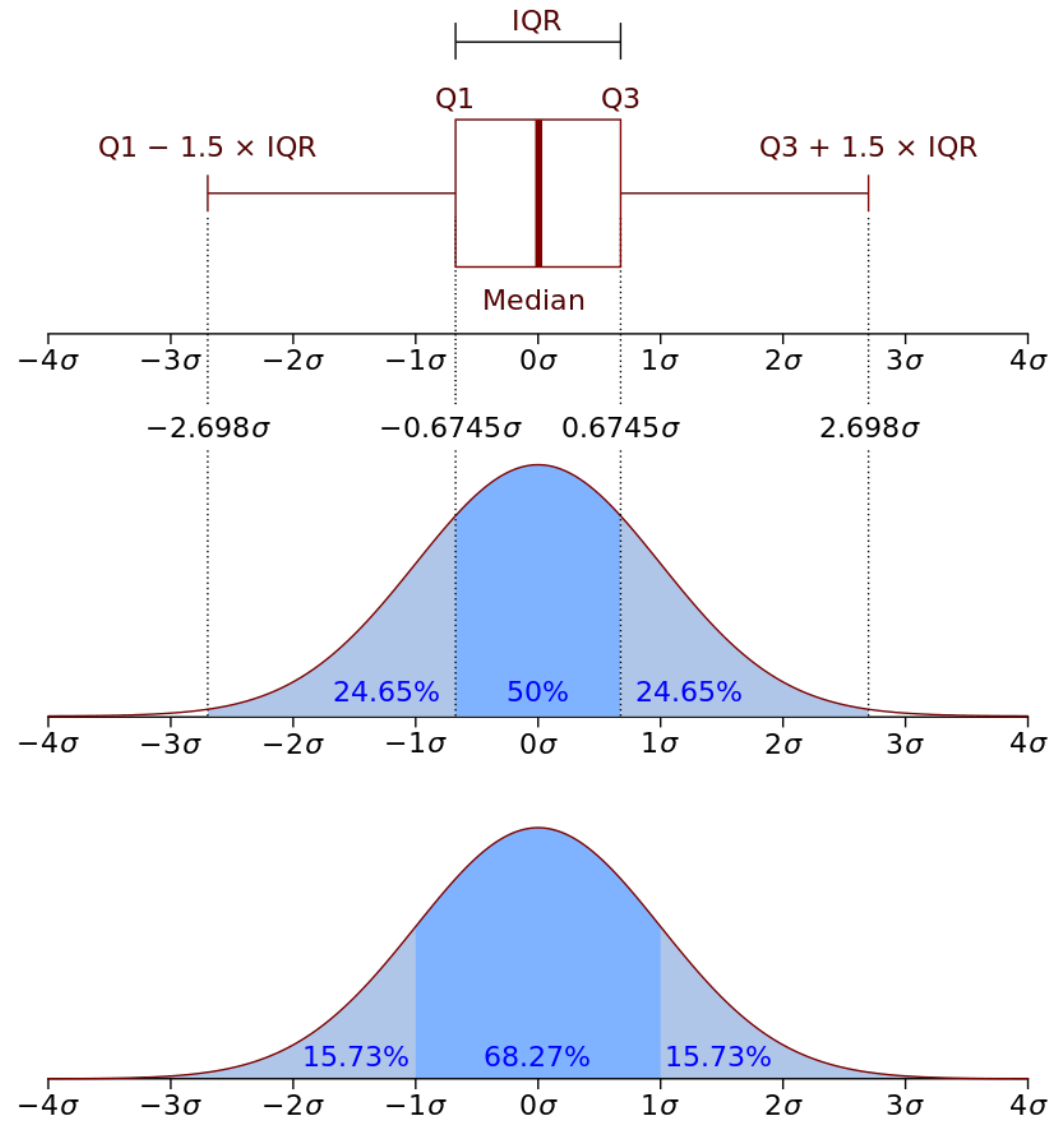
# Gaussian (Normal) pdf

Gauss considered this problem: under what circumstances does it make sense to estimate the mean of a distribution,  $\mu$ , by taking the average of the experimental values,  $m = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ ?

He demonstrated that  $m$  is the maximum likelihood estimate of  $\mu$  if (not only if!)  $X$  is distributed with the following probability density:

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

# Gaussian pdf



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[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Boxplot\\_vs\\_PDf.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Boxplot_vs_PDf.svg)

## Unit Normal pdf

Suppose that  $X$  is normal with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  (variance  $\sigma^2$ ):

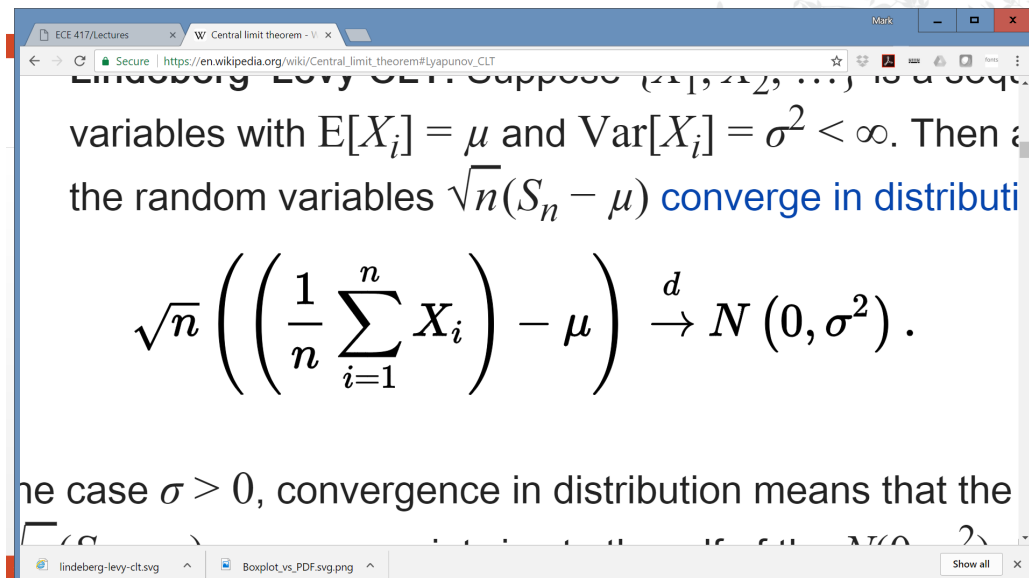
$$p_X(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

Then  $U = \left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$  is normal with mean 0 and standard deviation 1:

$$p_U(u) = \mathcal{N}(u; 0, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}u^2}$$

# Central Limit Theorem

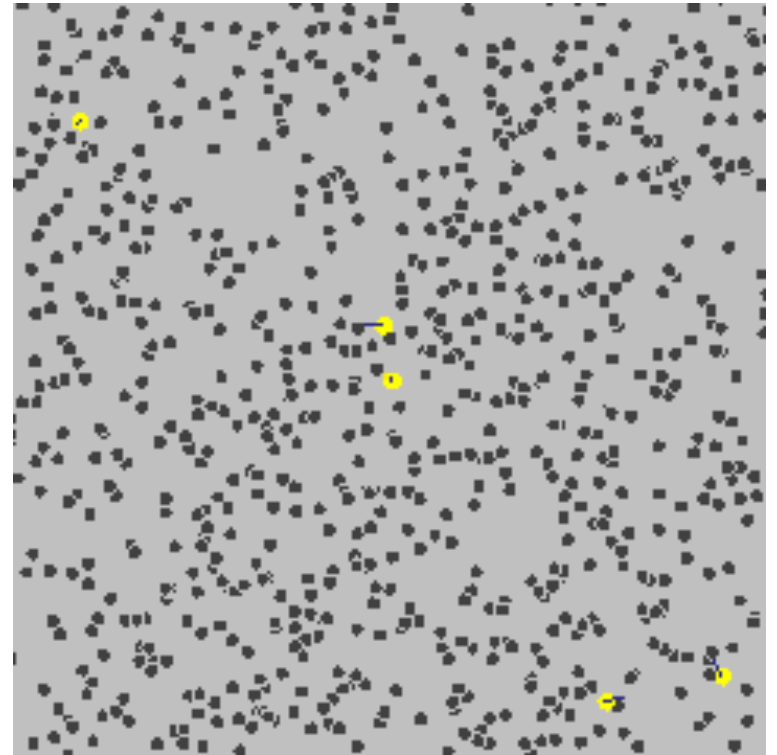
The Gaussian pdf is important because of the Central Limit Theorem. Suppose  $X_i$  are i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed), each having mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then



# Brownian motion

The Central Limit Theorem matters because Einstein showed that the movement of molecules, in a liquid or gas, is the sum of  $n$  i.i.d. molecular collisions.

In other words, the position after  $t$  seconds is Gaussian, with mean 0, and with a variance of  $Dt$ , where  $D$  is some constant.



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# Contents

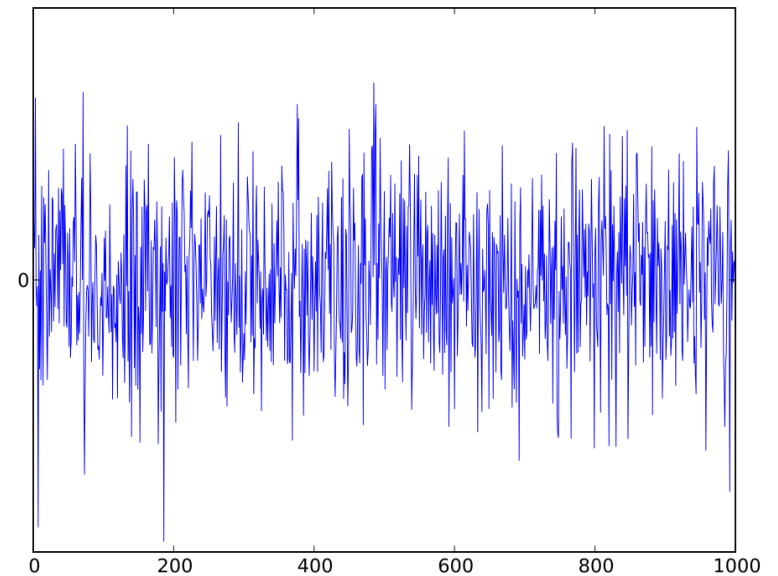
- Gaussian pdf; Central limit theorem, Brownian motion
- White Noise
- Vector of i.i.d. Gaussians
- Vector of Gaussians that are independent but not identical
- Facts about linear algebra
- Vector of Gaussians that are neither independent nor identical

# Gaussian Noise

- Sound = air pressure fluctuations caused by velocity of air molecules
- Velocity of warm air molecules without any external sound source = Gaussian

Therefore:

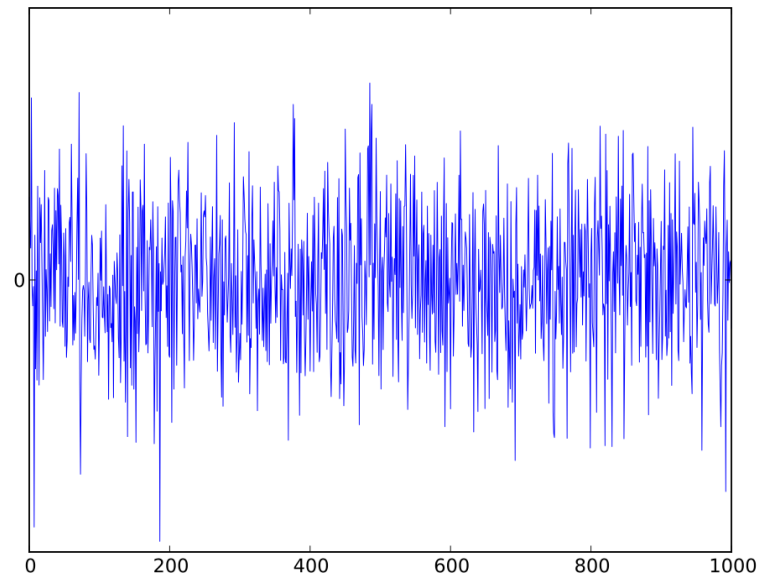
- Sound produced by warm air molecules without any external sound source = Gaussian noise
- Electrical signals: same.



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# White Noise

- White Noise = noise in which each sample of the signal,  $x_n$ , is i.i.d.
- Why “white”? Because the Fourier transform,  $X(\omega)$ , is a zero-mean random variable whose variance is independent of frequency (“white”)
- ***Gaussian White Noise***:  $x[n]$  are i.i.d. and Gaussian



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# Vector of Independent Gaussian Variables

Suppose we have a frame containing D samples from a Gaussian white noise process,  $x_1, \dots, x_D$ . Let's stack them up to make a vector:

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_D \end{bmatrix}$$

This whole frame is random. In fact, we could say that  $\vec{x}$  is a sample value for a Gaussian random vector called  $\vec{X}$ , whose elements are  $X_1, \dots, X_D$ :

$$\vec{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_D \end{bmatrix}$$

# Vector of Independent Gaussian Variables

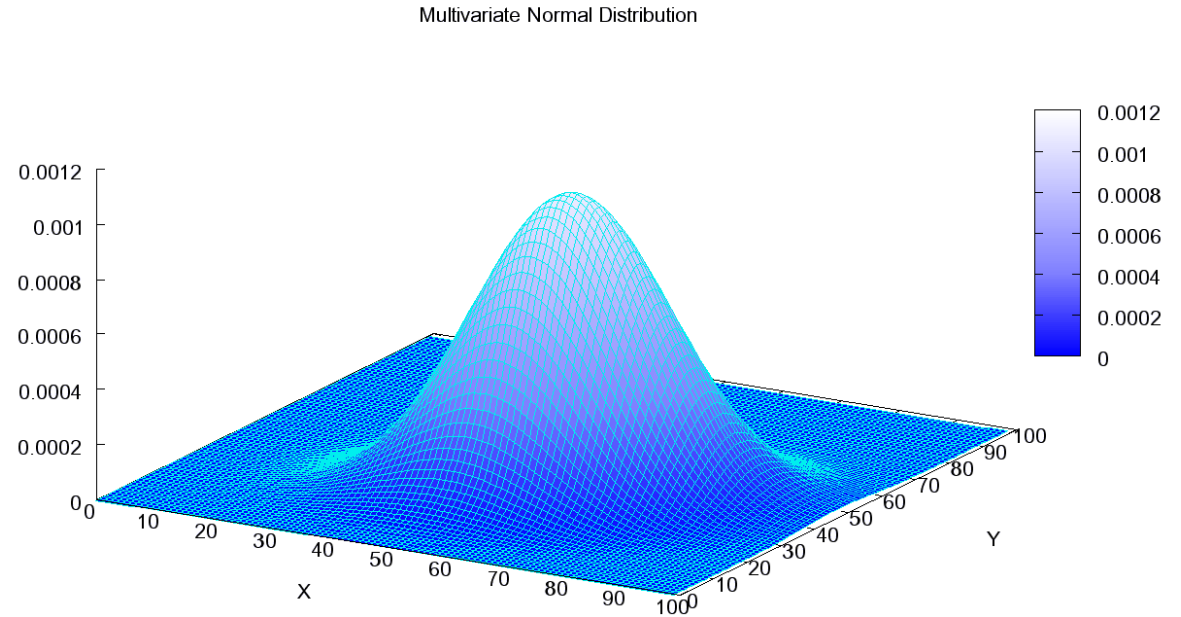
Suppose that the  $N$  samples are i.i.d., each one has the same mean,  $\mu$ , and the same variance,  $\sigma^2$ . Then the pdf of this random vector is

$$p_{\vec{x}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \sigma^2 I) = \prod_{n=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_n - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

The class label,  $y$ , determines the mean and/or the variance of the Gaussian. For example, suppose that the label,  $y$ , is for a scene classifier. Traffic noise ( $y = \text{“outside”}$ ) has much higher energy (much higher  $\sigma^2$ ) than the background noise in an office building ( $y = \text{“inside”}$ ). So we assume that  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  depend on  $y$ .

# Vector of Independent Gaussian Variables

For example, here's an example from Wikipedia with mean of 50 and standard deviation of about 12.



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# Independent Gaussians that aren't identically distributed

Suppose that the  $N$  samples are independent Gaussians that aren't identically distributed, i.e.,  $X_d$  has mean  $\mu_d$  and variance  $\sigma_d^2$ . The pdf of  $X_d$  is

$$p_{X_d|Y}(x_d|y) = \mathcal{N}(x_d; \mu_d, \sigma_d^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_d^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_d - \mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2}$$

The pdf of this random vector is

$$p_{\vec{X}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \prod_{d=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_d^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_d - \mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2}$$

# Independent Gaussians that aren't identically distributed

Another useful form is:

$$\prod_{d=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_d^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_d-\mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} \prod_{d=1}^D \sigma_d} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^D \left(\frac{x_d-\mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2}$$

## Example

Suppose that  $\mu_1 = 1, \mu_2 = -1, \sigma_1^2 = 1, \sigma_2^2 = 4$ . Then

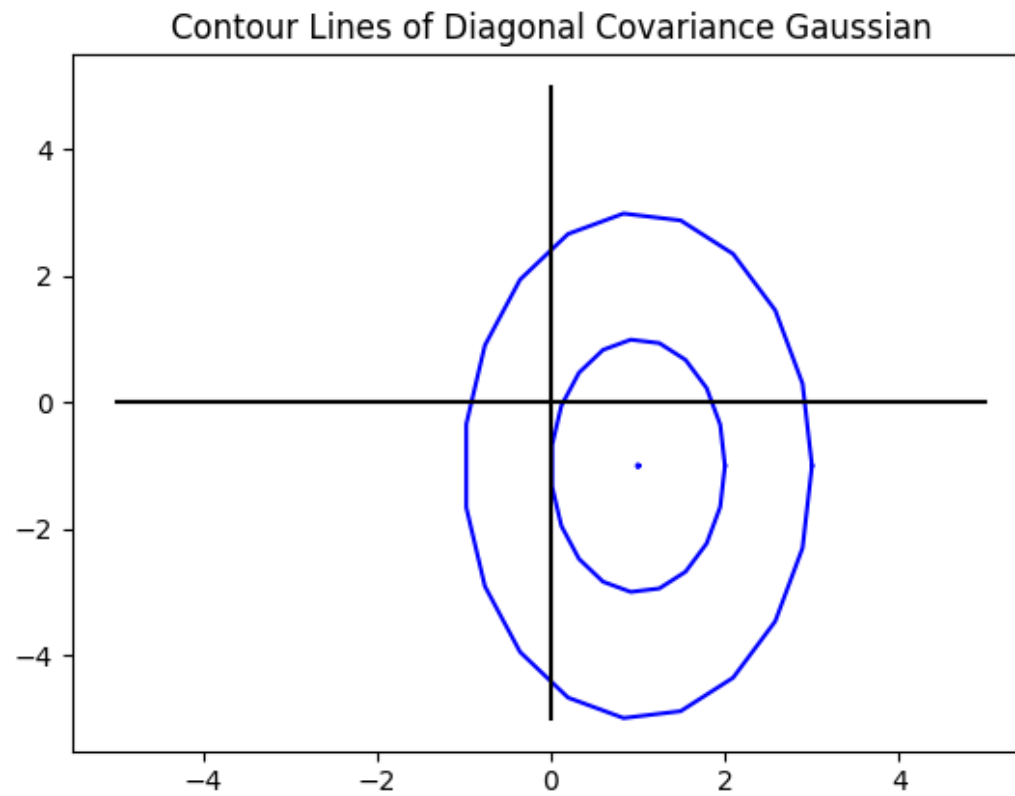
$$f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x}) = \prod_{d=1}^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_d^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_d - \mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\frac{x_1 - 1}{1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2 + 1}{2}\right)^2\right)}$$

The pdf has its maximum value,  $f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi}$ , at  $\vec{x} = \vec{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

It drops to  $\frac{1}{4\pi\sqrt{e}}$  at  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \pm \sigma_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$  and at  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \pm \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

It drops to  $\frac{1}{4\pi e^2}$  at  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \pm 2\sigma_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}$  and at  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \pm 2\sigma_2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# Example



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- **Facts about linear algebra**
- **Vector of Gaussians that are neither independent nor identical**

# Facts about linear algebra #1: determinant of a diagonal matrix

Suppose that  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix, with variances on the diagonal:

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_D^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the determinant is

$$|\Sigma| = \prod_{d=1}^D \sigma_d^2$$

So we can write the Gaussian pdf as

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^D \left(\frac{x_d - \mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^D \left(\frac{x_d - \mu_d}{\sigma_d}\right)^2}$$

## Facts about linear algebra #2: inner product

Suppose that

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_D \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_D \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}) = (x_1 - \mu_1)^2 + \cdots + (x_D - \mu_D)^2$$

## Facts about linear algebra #3: inverse of a diagonal matrix

Suppose that  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix, with variances on the diagonal:

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_D^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then its inverse,  $\Sigma^{-1}$ , is

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\sigma_D^2} \end{bmatrix}$$



# Facts about linear algebra #4: squared Mahalanobis distance with a diagonal covariance matrix

Suppose that all of the things on the previous slides are true.

Then the squared Mahalanobis distance is

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\Sigma}^2(\vec{x}, \vec{\mu}) &= (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}) = \\ & [x_1 - \mu_1, \dots, x_D - \mu_D] \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\sigma_D^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_D - \mu_D \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \dots + \frac{(x_D - \mu_D)^2}{\sigma_D^2} \end{aligned}$$

# Mahalanobis form of the multivariate Gaussian, independent dimensions

So we can write the multivariate Gaussian as

$$p_{\vec{X}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

$$p_{\vec{X}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}d_{\Sigma}^2(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

# Facts about linear algebra #5: ellipses

The formula

$$1 = (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})$$

... or equivalently

$$1 = \frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \dots + \frac{(x_D - \mu_D)^2}{\sigma_D^2}$$

... is the formula for an ellipsoid (an ellipse in two dimensions; a football shaped object in three dimensions; etc.). The ellipse is centered at the point  $\vec{\mu}$ , and it has a volume proportional to  $|\Sigma|$ . (In 2D the area of an ellipse is  $\pi|\Sigma|^{1/2}$ , in 3D it's  $\frac{4}{3}\pi|\Sigma|^{1/2}$ , etc.)

# Gaussian contour plots = ellipses

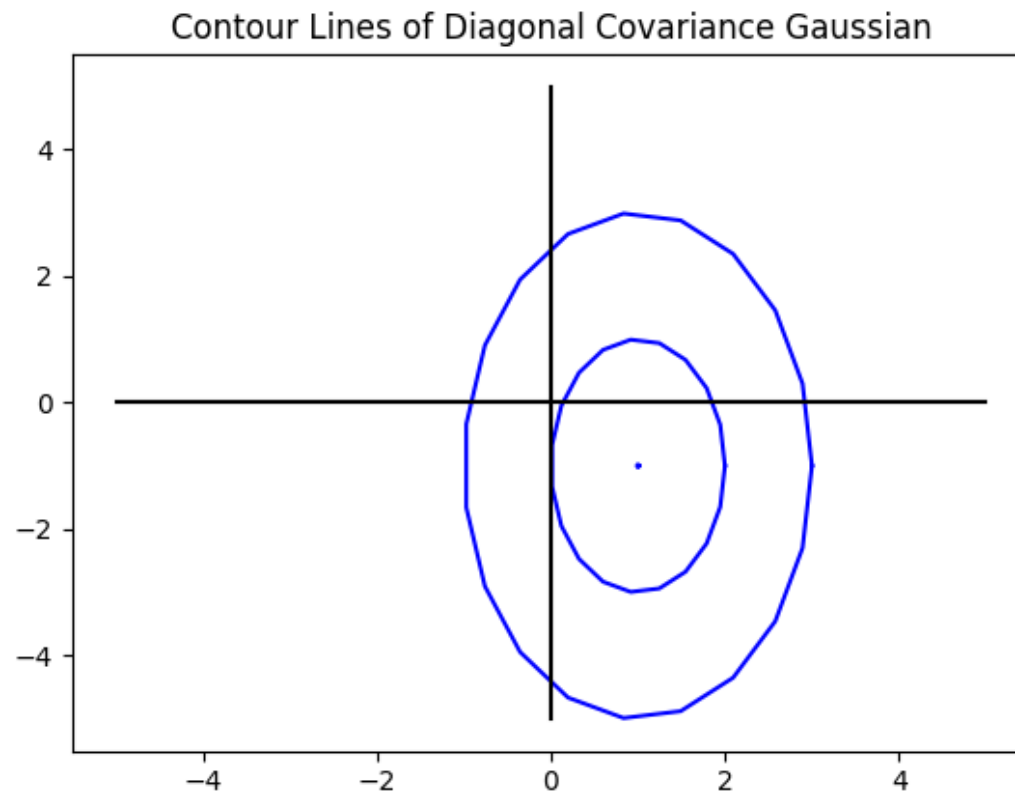
$$c = (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})$$

... is equivalent to

$$p_{\vec{X}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}c}$$

Therefore the contour plot of a Gaussian pdf --- the curves of constant  $f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x})$  --- are ellipses. If  $\Sigma$  is diagonal, the main axes of the ellipse are parallel to the  $x_1, x_2$ , etc. axes. If  $\Sigma$  is NOT diagonal, the main axes of the ellipse are tilted.

# Example



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# Mahalanobis form of the multivariate Gaussian, dependent dimensions

If the dimensions are dependent, and jointly Gaussian, then we can still write the multivariate Gaussian as

$$p_{\vec{X}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

# Example

Suppose that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are linearly correlated Gaussians with means 1 and -1, respectively, and with variances 1 and 4, and covariance 1.

$$\vec{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remember the definitions of variance and covariance:

$$\sigma_1^2 = E[(x_1 - \mu_1)^2] = 1$$

$$\sigma_2^2 = E[(x_2 - \mu_2)^2] = 4$$

$$\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21} = E[(x_1 - \mu_1)(x_2 - \mu_2)] = 1$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Determinant and inverse of a 2x2 matrix

You should know the determinant and inverse of a 2x2 matrix. If

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Then  $|\Sigma| = ad - bc$  and

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\Sigma|} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

You should be able to verify the inverse, for yourself, by multiplying  $\Sigma\Sigma^{-1}$  and discovering that the result is the identity matrix.

## Example

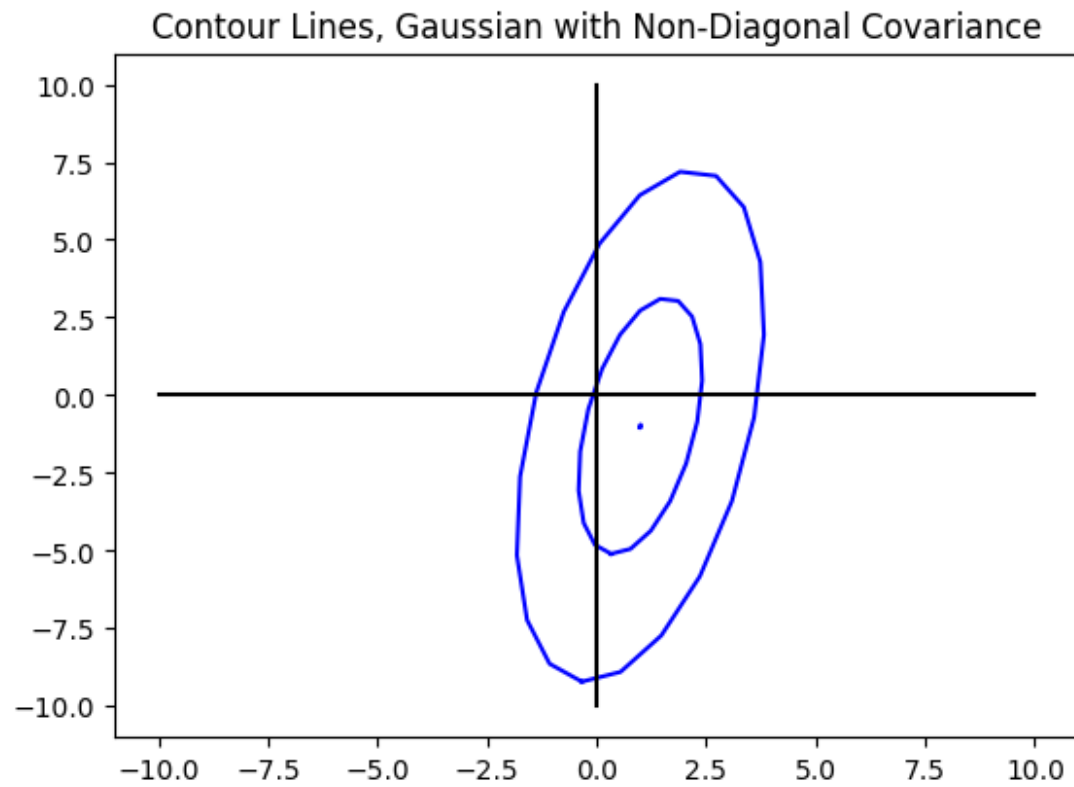
Therefore the contour lines of this Gaussian are ellipses centered at

$$\vec{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The contour lines are ellipses that satisfy this equation. Each different value of  $c$  gives a different ellipse:

$$c = \frac{4}{3}(x_1 - 1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x_2 + 1)^2 - \frac{1}{3}(x_1 - 1)(x_2 + 1)$$

# Example



# Conclusion: Summary of Today's Lecture

$$p_{\vec{x}|Y}(\vec{x}|y) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T\Sigma^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

