

# Basics of Probability and Probability Distributions

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# Some Basic Concepts You Should Know About

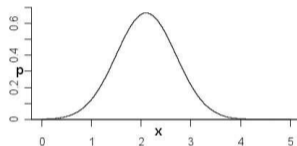
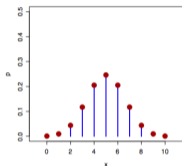
- Random variables (discrete and continuous)
- Probability distributions over discrete/continuous r.v.'s
- Notions of joint, marginal, and conditional probability distributions
- Properties of random variables (and of functions of random variables)
  - Expectation and variance/covariance of random variables
- Examples of probability distributions and their properties
- Multivariate Gaussian distribution and its properties (very important)

**Note:** These slides provide only a (very!) quick review of these things. Please refer to a text such as PRML (Bishop) Chapter 2 + Appendix B, or MLAPP (Murphy) Chapter 2 for more details

**Note:** Some other pre-requisites (e.g., concepts from information theory, linear algebra, optimization, etc.) will be introduced as and when they are required

# Random Variables

- Informally, a random variable (r.v.)  $X$  denotes possible outcomes of an event
- Can be **discrete** (i.e., finite many possible outcomes) or **continuous**



- Some examples of **discrete r.v.**
  - A random variable  $X \in \{0, 1\}$  denoting outcomes of a coin-toss
  - A random variable  $X \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$  denoting outcome of a dice roll
- Some examples of **continuous r.v.**
  - A random variable  $X \in (0, 1)$  denoting the bias of a coin
  - A random variable  $X$  denoting heights of students in this class
  - A random variable  $X$  denoting time to get to your hall from the department

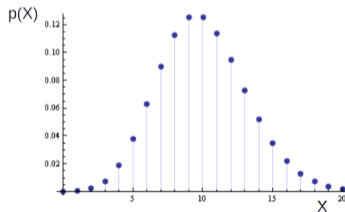
# Discrete Random Variables

- For a discrete r.v.  $X$ ,  $p(x)$  denotes the probability that  $p(X = x)$
- $p(x)$  is called the **probability mass function** (PMF)

$$p(x) \geq 0$$

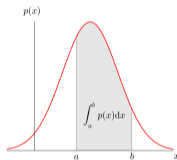
$$p(x) \leq 1$$

$$\sum_x p(x) = 1$$



# Continuous Random Variables

- For a continuous r.v.  $X$ , a probability  $p(X = x)$  is meaningless
- Instead we use  $p(X = x)$  or  $p(x)$  to denote the probability density at  $X = x$
- For a continuous r.v.  $X$ , we can only talk about **probability within an interval**  $X \in (x, x + \delta x)$ 
  - $p(x)\delta x$  is the probability that  $X \in (x, x + \delta x)$  as  $\delta x \rightarrow 0$



- The probability density  $p(x)$  satisfies the following

$$p(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_x p(x) dx = 1 \quad (\text{note: for continuous r.v., } p(x) \text{ can be } > 1)$$

# A word about notation..

- $p(\cdot)$  can mean different things depending on the context
  - $p(X)$  denotes the distribution (PMF/PDF) of an r.v.  $X$
  - $p(X = x)$  or  $p(x)$  denotes the **probability** or **probability density** at point  $x$
- Actual meaning should be clear from the context (but be careful)
- Exercise the same care when  $p(\cdot)$  is a specific distribution (Bernoulli, Beta, Gaussian, etc.)
- The following means **drawing a random sample** from the distribution  $p(X)$

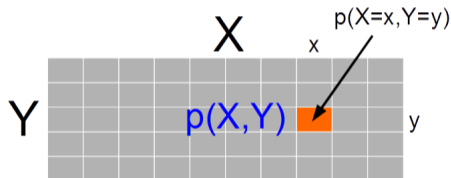
$$x \sim p(X)$$

# Joint Probability Distribution

Joint probability distribution  $p(X, Y)$  models probability of co-occurrence of two r.v.  $X, Y$

For discrete r.v., the joint PMF  $p(X, Y)$  is like a table (that sums to 1)

$$\sum_x \sum_y p(X = x, Y = y) = 1$$

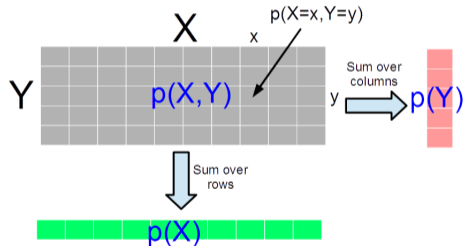


For continuous r.v., we have joint PDF  $p(X, Y)$

$$\int_x \int_y p(X = x, Y = y) dx dy = 1$$

# Marginal Probability Distribution

- Intuitively, the probability distribution of one r.v. regardless of the value the other r.v. takes
- For discrete r.v.'s:  $p(X) = \sum_y p(X, Y = y)$ ,  $p(Y) = \sum_x p(X = x, Y)$
- For discrete r.v. it is the sum of the PMF table along the rows/columns

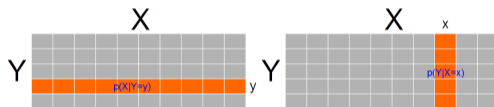


- For continuous r.v.:  $p(X) = \int_y p(X, Y = y) dy$ ,  $p(Y) = \int_x p(X = x, Y) dx$
- Note: Marginalization is also called “integrating out”

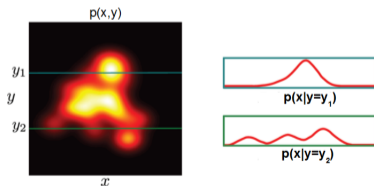


# Conditional Probability Distribution

- Probability distribution of one r.v. given the value of the other r.v.
- Conditional probability  $p(X|Y = y)$  or  $p(Y|X = x)$ : like taking a slice of  $p(X, Y)$
- For a discrete distribution:



- For a continuous distribution<sup>1</sup>:



<sup>1</sup>Picture courtesy: Computer vision: models, learning and inference (Simon Price)

# Some Basic Rules

- **Sum rule:** Gives the marginal probability distribution from joint probability distribution

- For discrete r.v.:  $p(X) = \sum_Y p(X, Y)$
- For continuous r.v.:  $p(X) = \int_Y p(X, Y)dY$

- **Product rule:**  $p(X, Y) = p(Y|X)p(X) = p(X|Y)p(Y)$

- **Bayes rule:** Gives conditional probability

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{p(X)}$$

- For discrete r.v.:  $p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{\sum_Y p(X|Y)p(Y)}$
- For continuous r.v.:  $p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{\int_Y p(X|Y)p(Y)dY}$

- Also remember the **chain rule**

$$p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) = p(X_1)p(X_2|X_1) \dots p(X_N|X_1, \dots, X_{N-1})$$

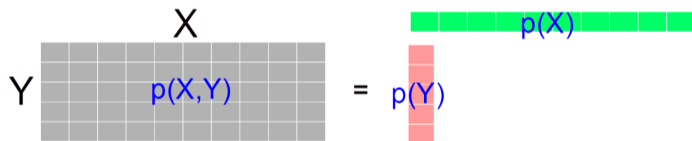
# Independence

- $X$  and  $Y$  are independent ( $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ ) when knowing one tells nothing about the other

$$p(X|Y = y) = p(X)$$

$$p(Y|X = x) = p(Y)$$

$$p(X, Y) = p(X)p(Y)$$



- $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  is also called **marginal independence**
- **Conditional independence** ( $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z$ ): independence given the value of another r.v.  $Z$

$$p(X, Y|Z = z) = p(X|Z = z)p(Y|Z = z)$$

# Expectation

- **Expectation** or **mean**  $\mu$  of an r.v. with PMF/PDF  $p(X)$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_x xp(x) \quad (\text{for discrete distributions})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_x xp(x)dx \quad (\text{for continuous distributions})$$

- **Note:** The definition applies to **functions of r.v.** too (e.g.,  $\mathbb{E}[f(X)]$ )
- **Linearity of expectation**

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha f(X) + \beta g(Y)] = \alpha\mathbb{E}[f(X)] + \beta\mathbb{E}[g(Y)]$$

(a very useful property, true even if  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent)

- **Note:** Expectations are always w.r.t. the underlying probability distribution of the random variable involved, so sometimes we'll write this explicitly as  $\mathbb{E}_{p(\cdot)}[\cdot]$ , unless it is clear from the context

# Variance and Covariance

- **Variance**  $\sigma^2$  (or “spread” around mean  $\mu$ ) of an r.v. with PMF/PDF  $p(X)$

$$\text{var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2$$

- **Standard deviation:**  $\text{std}[X] = \sqrt{\text{var}[X]} = \sigma$
- For two scalar r.v.'s  $x$  and  $y$ , the **covariance** is defined by

$$\text{cov}[x, y] = \mathbb{E}[\{x - \mathbb{E}[x]\}\{y - \mathbb{E}[y]\}] = \mathbb{E}[xy] - \mathbb{E}[x]\mathbb{E}[y]$$

- For **vector** r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , the **covariance matrix** is defined as

$$\text{cov}[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] = \mathbb{E}[\{\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]\}\{\mathbf{y}^T - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}^T]\}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^T] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}^T]$$

- Cov. of components of a vector r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $\text{cov}[\mathbf{x}] = \text{cov}[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}]$
- **Note:** The definitions apply to functions of r.v. too (e.g.,  $\text{var}[f(X)]$ )
- **Note:** Variance of sum of independent r.v.'s:  $\text{var}[X + Y] = \text{var}[X] + \text{var}[Y]$

# Transformation of Random Variables

Suppose  $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{b}$  be a linear function of an r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$

Suppose  $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\text{cov}[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$

- Expectation of  $\mathbf{y}$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{b}] = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}$$

- Covariance of  $\mathbf{y}$

$$\text{cov}[\mathbf{y}] = \text{cov}[\mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{b}] = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}^T$$

Likewise if  $y = f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} + b$  is a scalar-valued linear function of an r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$ :

- $\mathbb{E}[y] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} + b] = \mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} + b$
- $\text{var}[y] = \text{var}[\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} + b] = \mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{a}$

Another very useful property worth remembering

# Common Probability Distributions

**Important:** We will use these extensively to model **data** as well as **parameters**

Some **discrete distributions** and what they can model:

- **Bernoulli:** Binary numbers, e.g., outcome (head/tail, 0/1) of a coin toss
- **Binomial:** Bounded non-negative integers, e.g., # of heads in  $n$  coin tosses
- **Multinomial:** One of  $K$  ( $>2$ ) possibilities, e.g., outcome of a dice roll
- **Poisson:** Non-negative integers, e.g., # of words in a document
- .. and many others

Some **continuous distributions** and what they can model:

- **Uniform:** numbers defined over a fixed range
- **Beta:** numbers between 0 and 1, e.g., probability of head for a biased coin
- **Gamma:** Positive unbounded real numbers
- **Dirichlet:** vectors that sum of 1 (fraction of data points in different clusters)
- **Gaussian:** real-valued numbers or real-valued vectors
- .. and many others

# Discrete Distributions

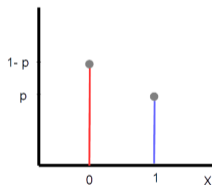


# Bernoulli Distribution

- Distribution over a binary r.v.  $x \in \{0, 1\}$ , like a coin-toss outcome
- Defined by a probability parameter  $p \in (0, 1)$

$$P(x = 1) = p$$

- Distribution defined as:  $\text{Bernoulli}(x; p) = p^x(1 - p)^{1-x}$



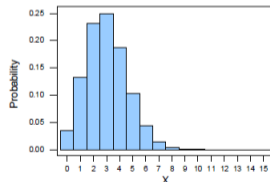
- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x] = p$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x] = p(1 - p)$

# Binomial Distribution

- Distribution over number of successes  $m$  (an r.v.) in a number of trials
- Defined by two parameters: total number of trials ( $N$ ) and probability of each success  $p \in (0, 1)$
- Can think of Binomial as multiple independent Bernoulli trials
- Distribution defined as

$$\text{Binomial}(m; N, p) = \binom{N}{m} p^m (1 - p)^{N-m}$$

Binomial distribution with  $n = 15$  and  $p = 0.2$



- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[m] = Np$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[m] = Np(1 - p)$

# Multinoulli Distribution

- Also known as the **categorical distribution** (models categorical variables)
- Think of a random assignment of an item to one of  $K$  bins - a  $K$  dim. binary r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$  with single 1 (i.e.,  $\sum_{k=1}^K x_k = 1$ ): **Modeled by a multinoulli**

$$\underbrace{[0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]}_{\text{length} = K}$$

- Let vector  $\mathbf{p} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K]$  define the probability of going to each bin
  - $p_k \in (0, 1)$  is the probability that  $x_k = 1$  (assigned to bin  $k$ )
  - $\sum_{k=1}^K p_k = 1$
- The multinoulli is defined as:  $\text{Multinoulli}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{p}) = \prod_{k=1}^K p_k^{x_k}$
- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x_k] = p_k$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x_k] = p_k(1 - p_k)$

# Multinomial Distribution

- Think of repeating the Multinoulli  $N$  times
- Like distributing  $N$  items to  $K$  bins. Suppose  $x_k$  is count in bin  $k$

$$0 \leq x_k \leq N \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, K, \quad \sum_{k=1}^K x_k = N$$

- Assume probability of going to each bin:  $\mathbf{p} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K]$
- Multinomial models the bin allocations via a discrete vector  $\mathbf{x}$  of size  $K$

$$[x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots \quad x_{k-1} \quad x_k \quad x_{k-1} \quad \dots \quad x_K]$$

- Distribution defined as

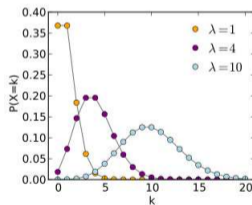
$$\text{Multinomial}(\mathbf{x}; N, \mathbf{p}) = \binom{N}{x_1 x_2 \dots x_K} \prod_{k=1}^K p_k^{x_k}$$

- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x_k] = Np_k$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x_k] = Np_k(1 - p_k)$
- Note: For  $N = 1$ , multinomial is the same as multinoulli

# Poisson Distribution

- Used to model a non-negative integer (count) r.v.  $k$
- Examples: number of words in a document, number of events in a fixed interval of time, etc.
- Defined by a positive rate parameter  $\lambda$
- Distribution defined as

$$\text{Poisson}(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$



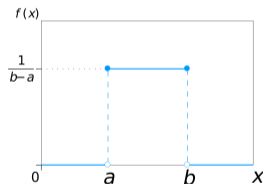
- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[k] = \lambda$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[k] = \lambda$

# Continuous Distributions

# Uniform Distribution

- Models a continuous r.v.  $x$  distributed uniformly over a finite interval  $[a, b]$

$$\text{Uniform}(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

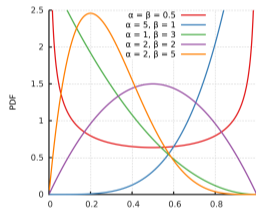


- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x] = \frac{(b+a)}{2}$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$

# Beta Distribution

- Used to model an r.v.  $p$  between 0 and 1 (e.g., a probability)
- Defined by two **shape parameters**  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$

$$\text{Beta}(p; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$$



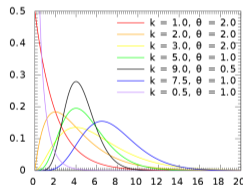
- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[p] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[p] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$
- Often used to model the probability parameter of a Bernoulli or Binomial (also **conjugate** to these distributions)



# Gamma Distribution

- Used to model positive real-valued r.v.  $x$
- Defined by a **shape parameters**  $k$  and a **scale parameter**  $\theta$

$$\text{Gamma}(x; k, \theta) = \frac{x^{k-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)}$$



- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x] = k\theta$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x] = k\theta^2$
- Often used to model the rate parameter of Poisson or exponential distribution (conjugate to both), or to model the inverse variance (precision) of a Gaussian (conjugate to Gaussian if mean known)

Note: There is another equivalent parameterization of gamma in terms of **shape** and **rate** parameters (rate = 1/scale). Another related distribution: [Inverse gamma](#)

# Dirichlet Distribution

- Used to model non-negative r.v. vectors  $\mathbf{p} = [p_1, \dots, p_K]$  that sum to 1

$$0 \leq p_k \leq 1, \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, K \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^K p_k = 1$$

- Equivalent to a distribution over the  $K - 1$  dimensional simplex
- Defined by a  $K$  size vector  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K]$  of positive reals

- Distribution defined as

$$\text{Dirichlet}(\mathbf{p}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^K \Gamma(\alpha_k)} \prod_{k=1}^K p_k^{\alpha_k - 1}$$

- Often used to model the probability vector parameters of Multinoulli/Multinomial distribution
- Dirichlet is conjugate to Multinoulli/Multinomial
- Note:** Dirichlet can be seen as a generalization of the Beta distribution. Normalizing a bunch of Gamma r.v.'s gives an r.v. that is Dirichlet distributed.

# Dirichlet Distribution

- For  $\mathbf{p} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K]$  drawn from  $\text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_K)$

- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[p_k] = \frac{\alpha_k}{\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k}$

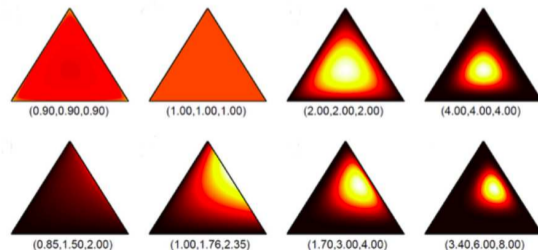
- Variance:  $\text{var}[p_k] = \frac{\alpha_k(\alpha_0 - \alpha_k)}{\alpha_0^2(\alpha_0 + 1)}$  where  $\alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$

- Note:  $\mathbf{p}$  is a point on  $(K - 1)$ -simplex

- Note:  $\alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$  controls how peaked the distribution is

- Note:  $\alpha_k$ 's control where the peak(s) occur

Plot of a 3 dim. Dirichlet (2 dim. simplex) for various values of  $\alpha$ :

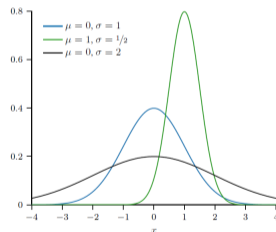


Now comes the  
Gaussian (Normal) distribution..

# Univariate Gaussian Distribution

- Distribution over real-valued scalar r.v.  $x$
- Defined by a scalar **mean**  $\mu$  and a scalar **variance**  $\sigma^2$
- Distribution defined as

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

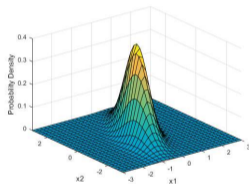


- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$
- Variance:  $\text{var}[x] = \sigma^2$
- Precision (inverse variance)  $\beta = 1/\sigma^2$

# Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

- Distribution over a multivariate r.v. vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  of real numbers
- Defined by a **mean vector**  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and a  $D \times D$  **covariance matrix**  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$

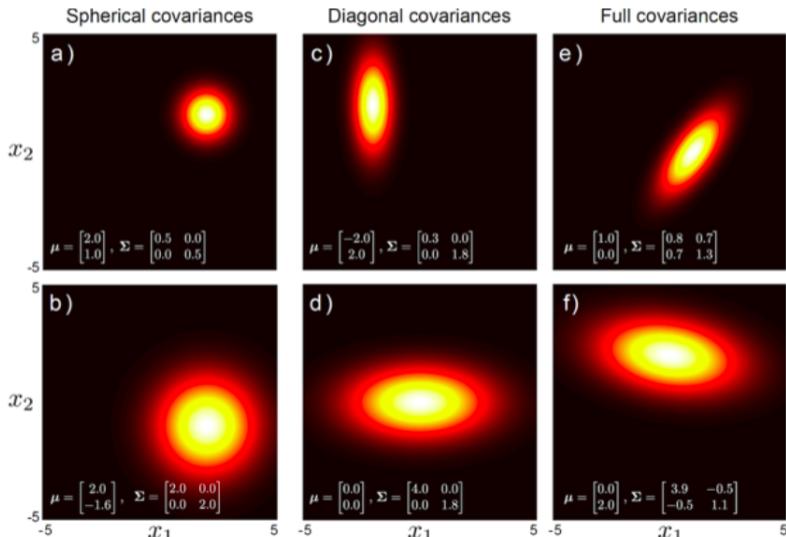
$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$



- The covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  must be symmetric and positive definite
  - All eigenvalues are positive
  - $\mathbf{z}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{z} > 0$  for any real vector  $\mathbf{z}$
- Often we parameterize a multivariate Gaussian using the inverse of the covariance matrix, i.e., the **precision matrix**  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$

# Multivariate Gaussian: The Covariance Matrix

The covariance matrix can be spherical, diagonal, or full



# Some nice properties of the Gaussian distribution..



# Multivariate Gaussian: Marginals and Conditionals

- Given  $\mathbf{x}$  having multivariate Gaussian distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  with  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ . Suppose

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The marginal distribution is simply

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a|\boldsymbol{\mu}_a, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa})$$

- The conditional distribution is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a|\mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b)$$

**Thus marginals and conditionals  
of Gaussians are Gaussians**

# Multivariate Gaussian: Marginals and Conditionals

- Given the conditional of an r.v.  $\mathbf{y}$  and marginal of r.v.  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}$  is conditioned on

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1}) \\p(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})\end{aligned}$$

- Marginal of  $\mathbf{y}$  and “reverse” conditional are given by

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\{\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}\}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \\p(\mathbf{y}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^T)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\boldsymbol{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{L}\mathbf{A})^{-1}$

- Note that the “reverse conditional”  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$  is basically the posterior of  $\mathbf{x}$  if the prior is  $p(\mathbf{x})$
- Also note that the marginal  $p(\mathbf{y})$  is the predictive distribution of  $\mathbf{y}$  after integrating out  $\mathbf{x}$
- Very useful property for probabilistic models with Gaussian likelihoods and/or priors. Also very handy for computing **marginal likelihoods**.

# Gaussians: Product of Gaussians

- Pointwise multiplication of two Gaussians is another (unnormalized) Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{P}) = \frac{1}{Z} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{T}),$$

where

$$\mathbf{T} = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} + \mathbf{P}^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \mathbf{T}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{P}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\nu})$$

$$Z^{-1} = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{\nu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} + \mathbf{P}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\nu}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} + \mathbf{P})$$

# Multivariate Gaussian: Linear Transformations

- Given a  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

- Consider a linear transform of  $\mathbf{x}$  into  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^D$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$

where  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $D \times d$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^D$

- $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  will have a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}^\top)$$

# Some Other Important Distributions

- **Wishart** Distribution and **Inverse Wishart** (IW) Distribution: Used to model  $D \times D$  p.s.d. matrices
  - Wishart often used as a conjugate prior for modeling precision matrices, IW for covariance matrices
  - For  $D = 1$ , Wishart is the same as gamma dist., IW is the same as inverse gamma (IG) dist.
- **Normal-Wishart** Distribution: Used to model mean and precision matrix of a multivar. Gaussian
  - **Normal-Inverse Wishart (NIW)**: : Used to model mean and cov. matrix of a multivar. Gaussian
  - For  $D = 1$ , the corresponding distr. are **Normal-Gamma** and **Normal-Inverse Gamma (NIG)**
- **Student-t** Distribution (a more robust version of Normal distribution)
  - Can be thought of as a mixture of infinite many Gaussians with different precisions (or a single Gaussian with its precision/precision matrix given a gamma/Wishart prior and integrated out)

Please refer to PRML (Bishop) Chapter 2 + Appendix B, or MLAPP (Murphy) Chapter 2 for more details