

Multivariate Gaussians

CPSC 440/550: Advanced Machine Learning

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University of British Columbia, on unceded Musqueam land

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Last time: Univariate Gaussians, Bayesian learning

- Continuous density estimation with the Gaussian=normal distribution

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad \text{means} \quad p(x | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right)$$

- Cumulative distribution function (cdf) $F(t)$
- Inverse probability sampling: $F^{-1}(U)$ for $U \sim \text{Unif}([0, 1])$
- MLE: sample mean, sample variance (with the $1/n$)
- With fixed variance: conjugate prior for the mean is Gaussian

- Gaussian likelihood gives linear regression/square loss; MAP gives ridge regression
- Bayesian learning integrates over model uncertainty
 - Posterior predictive: $p(\tilde{y} | \tilde{x}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \int p(\tilde{y} | w)p(w | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) dw$
 - Beta-Bernoulli model: use posterior $\text{Beta}(n_1 + \alpha, n_0 + \beta)$

Bayesian learning in the Categorical-Dirichlet model

- If $X | \boldsymbol{\theta} \sim \text{Cat}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta} | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sim \text{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$, we saw before that

$$\begin{aligned} p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) &\propto p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \propto \theta_1^{n_1} \dots \theta_k^{n_k} \theta_1^{\alpha_1-1} \dots \theta_k^{\alpha_k-1} \\ &= \theta_1^{(n_1+\alpha_1)-1} \dots \theta_k^{(n_k+\alpha_k)-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sim \text{Dir}(\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \quad \text{where } \mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^d, n_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(x^{(i)} = j)$$

- MAP: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{X}) \propto \mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\alpha} - \mathbf{1}$
- Bayesian learning uses the **posterior predictive** distribution,

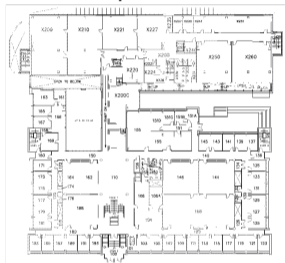
$$\begin{aligned} p(x = c | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(x = c | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \\ &= \int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \theta_c p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \sim \text{Dir}(\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\alpha})} [\theta_c] \propto \mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

Multivariate Gaussian

- To handle Bayesian linear regression, we're going to need one more tool:
multivariate Gaussians
 - (Also useful much more broadly ...)

Motivating problem: Measuring building air quality

- Want to measure “air quality” across rooms in a building
- Measure pollutant concentrations (PM10, CO, O3, ...) in each room over time:



Rm 1	Rm 2	Rm 3	Rm 4	Rm 5	Rm 6	Rm 7	Rm 8	Rm 9
0.1	1.4	0.2	1.8	1.0	1.0	0.1	0.1	1.1
0.2	1.3	0.1	1.9	1.1	0.9	0.1	0.1	1.1
0.1	0.3	1.4	2.0	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.4
0.1	1.1	0.2	2.1	1.1	1.1	0.1	0.3	0.5
2.7	2.6	2.5	5.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	2.5	3.1
0.1	0.4	0.2	1.8	1.3	0.4	0.1	0.4	1.0
0.1	1.2	0.2	1.8	1.4	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.5

- We can model this data to identify patterns/problems:
 - Some rooms usually have worse air than others
 - Some rooms' quality may be correlated with others' (adjacent, shared air...)
 - Also temporal correlations, which we won't handle yet

Start: product of Gaussians

- Like before, simplest thing to do is to make different dimensions **independent**

$$x_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_j, \sigma_j^2)$$

- Gives joint density

$$\begin{aligned} p(x \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2) &= \prod_{j=1}^d p(x_j \mid \mu_j, \sigma_j^2) \propto \prod_{j=1}^d \exp\left(-\frac{(x_j - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{(x_j - \mu_j)^2}{\sigma_j^2}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (x - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_j^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multivariate Gaussians

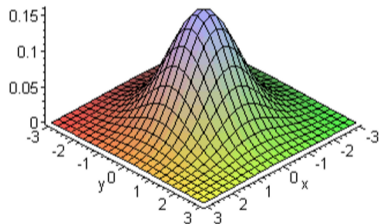
- General multivariate Gaussian: Σ doesn't have to be diagonal

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad \text{means} \quad p(x \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(x - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- $|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|$ is the determinant (product of eigenvalues)

- Many nice properties, like univariate case

- Closed-form, intuitive MLE
- Conjugate priors
- Many nice analytic properties
- Multivariate central limit theorem
- ...



personal.kenyon.edu/hartlaub/MellonProject/Bivariate2.html

- Off-diagonal covariance entries give **covariance**: $\text{Cov}(x_j, x_{j'}) = \Sigma_{jj'}$
 - “Adjacent rooms have similar air qualities”
 - **Correlation** is $\text{Cov}(x_j, x_{j'}) / \sqrt{\text{Var}(x_j) \text{Var}(x_{j'})} = \Sigma_{jj'} / \sqrt{\Sigma_{jj} \Sigma_{j'j'}}$

Covariance matrices

- The $d \times d$ matrix Σ is called the **covariance matrix**, $\text{Cov}(x)$
 - Also called “variance-covariance matrix”; sometimes written $\text{Var}(x)$
- For *any* continuous distribution, $\text{Var}(x) > 0$. What about multivariate dists?
- Consider the **univariate** random variable $v^\top x$. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(v^\top x) &= \text{Var} \left(\sum_{j=1}^d v_j x_j \right) = \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{j'=1}^d \text{Cov}(v_j x_j, v_{j'} x_{j'}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{j'=1}^d v_j \text{Cov}(x_j, x_{j'}) v_{j'} = v^\top \Sigma v\end{aligned}$$

- A continuous multivariate random variable **requires** $v^\top \Sigma v > 0$ for *all* v
- This is exactly the condition that Σ is **strictly positive-definite**
- Equivalent condition (see [notes on website](#)): all eigenvalues are positive
- Equivalent condition: there is some (full-rank) $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $\Sigma = AA^\top$

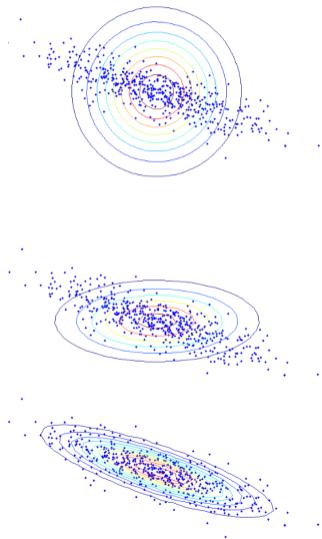
Kinds of covariances

- If $\Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$, level sets of the density are circles
 - One parameter
 - The $x_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ are mutually independent, because

$$p(x | \sigma^2) = p(x_1 | \sigma^2) \cdots p(x_d | \sigma^2)$$

- If $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_d^2)$ is diagonal: axis-aligned ellipses
 - d parameters
 - Each $x_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_j^2)$ is still independent

- For general Σ , might not be axis-aligned
 - $d(d+1)/2$ parameters – **not** d^2 since Σ is symmetric
 - x_j can now be correlated



Degenerate Gaussians

- If $\Sigma \succeq 0$ but not $\succ 0$ – it has some zero eigenvalues – we call it **degenerate**
- Means that there's some direction v where $v^T \Sigma v = 0$, i.e. $v^T x$ is constant
- Standard density function doesn't exist (no inverse, i.e. divide-by-zero error)

- For $d = 1$, $\mathcal{N}(\mu, 0)$ is a **point mass**: every sample is exactly μ
- For $d = 2$, can be a point mass, or all samples can live **along a line**



- In general, has support on a **subspace** of dimension $\text{rank } \Sigma$
 - Has a Gaussian density with respect to that subspace

Affine transformations

- For **any** random vector x , we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[Ax + \mu] &= A \mathbb{E}[x] + \mu \\ \text{Cov}(Ax + \mu) &= A \text{Cov}(x) A^T\end{aligned}$$

- Fact (won't prove here; straightforward if you use **characteristic functions**): affine transformations of multivariate normals are multivariate normal
- So, if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, then $Ax + b \sim \mathcal{N}(A\mu + b, A\Sigma A^T)$
- Even if x is non-degenerate, $A\Sigma A^T$ might be singular!
 - Examples: $A = 0$, or if x is one-dimensional and A is $5 \times 1 \dots$
- This immediately gives us a nice **sampling algorithm**:
 - Sample d independent standard normals, $z_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - Return $AZ + \mu \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, AA^T)$
 - Need to find an A such that $AA^T = \Sigma$
 - Can use **Cholesky factorization** (`np.linalg.cholesky`) to find a (lower-triangular) A
 - Or (a little slower), eigendecompose Σ and use $A^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_j \sqrt{\lambda_j} v_j v_j^T$

Marginalizing Gaussians

- If we have a joint distribution over $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$, might care about just x_j
- $p(x_j) = \int \cdots \int p(x \mid \mu, \Sigma) dx_1 \cdots dx_{j-1} dx_{j+1} \cdots dx_d$
- ... but we can skip that nasty integral by just thinking a little bit!
- Let's **partition** our variables into **block matrices**, $\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Z \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_z \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_x & \Sigma_{xz} \\ \Sigma_{xz}^\top & \Sigma_z \end{bmatrix} \right)$
- For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ -1.3 \\ 9.8 \\ 0.1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1.3 & -0.1 & -0.2 & 0.4 & 0 \\ -0.1 & 3.6 & 0.1 & 0.3 & -0.5 \\ -0.2 & 0.1 & 8.1 & -0.2 & 1.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.3 & -0.2 & 1.8 & -0.7 \\ 0 & -0.5 & 1.4 & -0.7 & 2.3 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

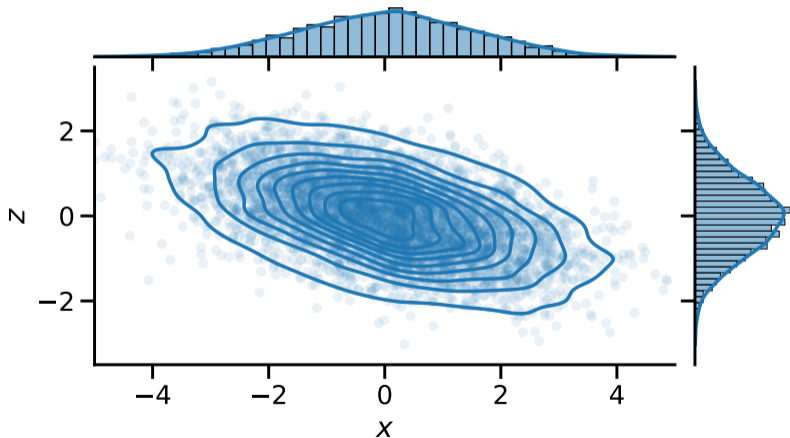
- Notice that $x = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ z \end{bmatrix}$, so

$$X \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_z \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_x & \Sigma_{xz} \\ \Sigma_{xz}^\top & \Sigma_z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}^\top \right)$$

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x, \Sigma_x)$$

Marginalizing Gaussians

- If $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ z \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_z \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_x & \Sigma_{xz} \\ \Sigma_{xz}^\top & \Sigma_z \end{bmatrix}\right)$, then $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x, \Sigma_x)$:
we can just ignore a subset of the variables



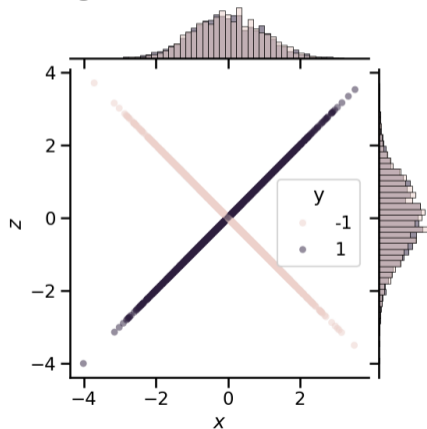
Independence structure in Gaussians

- For **bivariate** Gaussians, if $\Sigma_{12} = 0$ then Σ is diagonal, and so $x_1 \perp x_2$
- So, in multivariate Gaussians, $x_j \perp x_{j'}$ iff $\Sigma_{jj'} = 0$
- If $\Sigma_{jj'} \neq 0$, x_j and $x_{j'}$ are correlated: can have **all pairs** correlated
- Multivariate Gaussians don't have any nonlinear or "higher-order" interactions

- Example:

$$\begin{aligned}x &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \\y &\sim \text{Unif}(\{-1, 1\}) \\z &= xy\end{aligned}$$

- $x \perp y$, $\text{Cov}(x, z) = 0$, $y \perp z$
- $x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - But they're **not jointly normal**



Conditioning in Gaussians

- If $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ z \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_x \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_z \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz}^\top & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z \end{bmatrix}\right)$, then what's $x \mid z$?
- By doing a bunch of linear algebra (see PML1 7.3.5), you get

$$\begin{aligned}x \mid z &\sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x|z}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|z}) \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{x|z} &= \boldsymbol{\mu}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z^{-1} (z - \boldsymbol{\mu}_z) \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|z} &= \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz}^\top\end{aligned}$$

- If you know the value of z , the distribution of x is a **different Gaussian**
- If $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xz} = \mathbf{0}$, then $x \mid z \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_x, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x)$; another way to see $x \perp\!\!\!\perp z$
- Notice that while $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x|z}$ depends on the value of z , $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|z}$ **doesn't!**
 - This property is occasionally surprisingly important

Outline

- 1 Multivariate Gaussians
- 2 Learning multivariate Gaussians**

MLE for the mean of a multivariate Gaussian

- If $x^{(i)} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ for $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \succ 0$, we have

$$p\left(x^{(i)} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)\right),$$

so up to a constant our **negative log-likelihood** for n examples is

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|$$

- This is a **convex quadratic** in $\boldsymbol{\mu}$; setting gradient to zero gives

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x^{(i)}$$

- Mean along each dimension; it **doesn't depend on $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$**

MLE for the covariance of a multivariate Gaussian

- To get MLE for Σ we can re-parameterize in terms of **precision matrix** $\Theta = \Sigma^{-1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| \\ = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top \boldsymbol{\Theta} \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Theta}^{-1}| \end{aligned}$$

- After some work (**bonus slides**), we get that this is equal to

$$f(\boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \frac{n}{2} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\Theta}) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Theta}|, \text{ with } \mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top$$

- \mathbf{S} is the **sample covariance**: if $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}_n \boldsymbol{\mu}^\top$ is centred data, $\mathbf{S} = (1/n) \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^\top \tilde{\mathbf{X}}$
- **Trace operator** $\text{Tr}(A)$ is the sum of the diagonal elements of A
- $\text{Tr}(A^\top B) = \sum_j (A^\top B)_{jj} = \sum_j \sum_i (A^\top)_{ji} B_{ij} = \sum_{ij} A_{ij} B_{ij}$, i.e. $(A * B) . \text{sum}()$

MLE for the covariance of a multivariate Gaussian

- Gradient matrix of NLL with respect to Θ is (not obvious, see **bonus slides**)

$$\nabla f(\Theta) = \frac{n}{2} (\mathbf{S} - \Theta^{-1}) \quad \text{for } S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^{(i)} - \mu)^\top$$

- The MLE for a given μ is obtained by setting the gradient matrix to zero, giving

$$\Theta = \mathbf{S}^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad \Sigma = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^i - \mu)(x^i - \mu)^\top$$

- To have $\Sigma \succ 0$, we **need a positive-definite sample covariance, $S \succ 0$**
 - If S is not positive definite, NLL is unbounded below, and MLE doesn't exist
 - Like requiring “not all values are the same” in univariate Gaussian
 - In d -dimensions, you need d linearly independent $x^{(i)}$ values (no “multi-collinearity”)
 - This is only possible if $n \geq d$! (But might not be true even if it is)
- Note: most distributions' MLEs **don't** correspond with “moment matching”

Example: Multivariate Gaussians on MNIST

- Let's try **continuous** density estimation on (binary) handwritten digits

$$x^i = \text{vec} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{[Handwritten digit 4]} \end{array} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$$

Diagonal Σ :

$$\hat{\mu} = \text{vec} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{[Blurred digit 4]} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \text{diag} \left(\text{vec} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{[Blurred digit 4]} \end{array} \right) \right)$$



General Σ :

$\hat{\mu}$ is the same (!)
 $\hat{\Sigma}$ is big
(784 by 784)

7 7
4 4

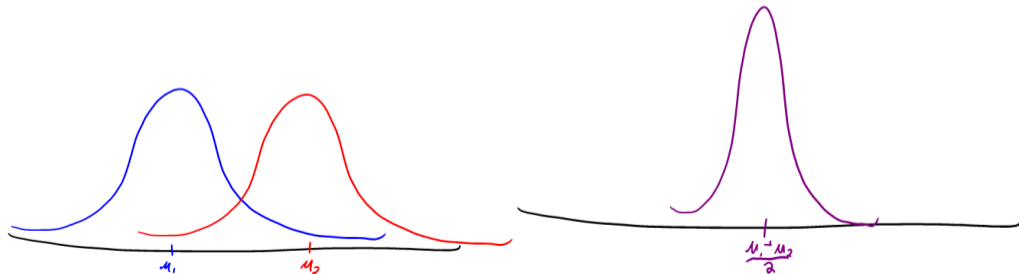


Product of Gaussian densities

- This property will be helpful in deriving MAP/Bayesian estimation:
- Consider a variable x whose pdf is written as product of two Gaussians,

$$p(x) \propto \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(x \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \mathbf{I})}_{\text{density of } \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \mathbf{I}) \text{ at } x} \mathcal{N}(x \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \mathbf{I})$$

- This **product of Gaussian pdfs is a Gaussian** with $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 + \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{I}$



Product of Gaussian densities

- If $p(x) \propto \mathcal{N}(x | \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1) \mathcal{N}(x | \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2)$,
- then x is Gaussian with (see PML2 2.2.7.6 – complete the square in the exponent)

$$\text{covariance } \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\text{mean } \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 + \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$$

- Consider $x^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ for fixed $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0)$:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\boldsymbol{\mu} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0) &\propto p(\boldsymbol{\mu} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x^{(i)} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) && \text{(Bayes rule)} \\ &= p(\boldsymbol{\mu} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0) \prod_{i=1}^n p(\boldsymbol{\mu} | x^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) && \text{(symmetry of } x^{(i)} \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\mu}) \\ &= (\text{product of } (n + 1) \text{ Gaussians}) \end{aligned}$$

- So, working it out gives. . .

MAP estimation for mean

- For fixed Σ , conjugate prior for mean is a Gaussian:

$$x^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \Sigma_0) \quad \text{implies} \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} \mid \mathbf{X}, \Sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^+, \Sigma^+),$$

where

$$\Sigma^+ = (n\Sigma^{-1} + \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1},$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}^+ = \Sigma^+(n\Sigma^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}} + \Sigma_0^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}_0) \quad \text{MAP estimate of } \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

- In special case of $\Sigma = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}$ and $\Sigma_0 = \frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{I}$, we get

$$\Sigma^+ = \left(\frac{n}{\sigma^2}\mathbf{I} + \lambda\mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda}}\mathbf{I},$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}^+ = \Sigma^+ \left(\frac{n}{\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{MLE}} + \lambda\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 \right)$$

- Posterior predictive is $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^+, \Sigma + \Sigma^+)$ – take product of $(n+2)$ then marginalize
 - Many Bayesian inference tasks have closed form; if not, Monte Carlo is easy

MAP Estimation in Multivariate Gaussian (Trace Regularization)

- A common MAP estimate for Σ is

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \mathbf{S} + \lambda \mathbf{I},$$

where S is the covariance of the data.

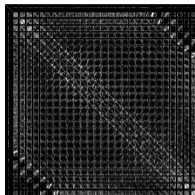
- Key advantage: $\hat{\Sigma}$ is positive-definite (eigenvalues are at least λ)
- This corresponds to L1 regularization of precision diagonals (see bonus)

$$f(\Theta) = \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\mathbf{S}\Theta) - \log |\Theta|}_{\text{NLL times } 2/n} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^d |\Theta_{jj}|$$

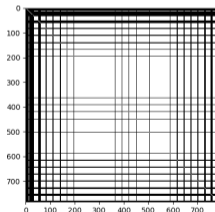
- Note this *doesn't* set Θ_{jj} values to exactly zero
 - Log-determinant term becomes arbitrarily steep as the Θ_{jj} approach 0
 - It's not really the case that "L1 gives sparsity"; it's "L2 + L1 gives sparsity"

Trace Regularization

- For MNIST, MAP estimate of precision Θ with regularizer $\frac{1}{n} \text{Tr}(\Theta)$



- Sparsity pattern using this “L1-regularization of the trace”:



- **Doesn't yield a sparse matrix** (only zeroes are with pixels near the boundary)

Summary

- **Multivariate Gaussians:** random vectors, which allow correlations
- Affine transformations of Gaussians are Gaussian
 - Can use that to sample
- Marginals, conditionals are also Gaussian

- To get MLE for Σ we re-parameterize in terms of **precision matrix** $\Theta = \Sigma^{-1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^{(i)} - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (x^i - \mu) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\Sigma| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^{(i)} - \mu)^\top \Theta (x^i - \mu) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\Theta^{-1}| \quad (\text{okay because } \Sigma \text{ is invertible}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Tr} \left((x^{(i)} - \mu)^\top \Theta (x^i - \mu) \right) + \frac{n}{2} \log |\Theta|^{-1} \quad (\text{scalar } y^\top A y = \text{Tr}(y^\top A y)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Tr}((x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^i - \mu)^\top \Theta) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\Theta| \quad (\text{Tr}(ABC) = \text{Tr}(CAB)) \end{aligned}$$

- $|A^{-1}| = 1/|A|$ (can see e.g. from eigenvalues)
- The **trace** is the sum of the diagonal elements: $\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_i A_{ii}$
 - $\text{Tr}(AB) = \text{Tr}(BA)$ when dimensions match: called **trace rotation** or **cyclic property**

- From the last slide,

$$p(\mathbf{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Tr} \left(\left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top \boldsymbol{\Theta} \right) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Theta}|$$

- We can **exchange the sum and trace** (trace is a linear operator) to get,

$$= \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top \boldsymbol{\Theta} \right) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Theta}| \quad \sum_i \text{Tr}(A_i B) = \text{Tr} \left(\sum_i A_i B \right)$$

$$= \frac{n}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\left(\underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right) \left(x^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)^\top \right)}_{\text{sample covariance, } S} \right) \boldsymbol{\Theta} \right) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Theta}| \quad \left(\sum_i A_i B \right) = \left(\sum_i A_i \right) B$$

- So the NLL in terms of the precision matrix Θ and sample covariance S is

$$f(\Theta) = \frac{n}{2} \text{Tr}(S\Theta) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\Theta|, \text{ with } S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^{(i)} - \mu)^\top$$

- Weird-looking but has nice properties:
 - $\text{Tr}(S\Theta)$ is linear function of Θ , with $\nabla_{\Theta} \text{Tr}(S\Theta) = S$
(it's the matrix version of an inner product $s^\top \theta$; called "Frobenius inner product")
 - Negative log-determinant is strictly convex, and $\nabla_{\Theta} \log |\Theta| = \Theta^{-1}$
(generalizes $\nabla \log |x| = 1/x$ for $x > 0$)
- Using these two properties the **gradient matrix** has a simple form:

$$\nabla f(\Theta) = \frac{n}{2}(S - \Theta^{-1})$$

which is what **we use to get the MLE**