

# Multivariate Normal Distribution

In this lesson we discuss the multivariate normal distribution. We begin with a brief reminder of basic concepts in probability for random variables that are scalars and then generalize them for random variables that are vectors.

## Basic concepts in Probability

Let  $x \in R$  be a random variable. The expectation of  $x$  is  $E(x) = \sum_x x \Pr(x)$  for discrete variables and  $E(x) = \int xp(x)dx$  for continuous variables (where  $p(x)$  is the probability density function of  $x$ ). The expectation is a linear operator: let  $y \in R$  be another random variable, then  $E(ax + y) = aE(x) + E(y)$ .

The variance of  $x$  is  $\text{var}(x) = E((x - E(x))^2)$ . Notice that  $\text{var}(x) \geq 0$  and that  $\text{var}(x) = E(x^2) - E(x)^2$ . The standard deviation of  $x$  is  $\sigma = \sqrt{\text{var}(x)}$ .

Let  $y \in R$  be another random variable. The covariance of  $x$  and  $y$  is  $\text{cov}(x, y) = E((x - E(x))(y - E(y)))$  (notice that  $\text{cov}(x, x) = \text{var}(x)$ ). Notice that  $\text{var}(x + y) = \text{var}(x) + \text{var}(y) + 2\text{cov}(x, y)$  and that  $\text{cov}(x, y) = E(xy) - E(x)E(y)$ . If  $\text{cov}(x, y) = 0$  we say that  $x$  and  $y$  are uncorrelated. If  $x$  and  $y$  are independent then  $x, y$  are uncorrelated. The opposite is not true in general.

Let  $x \in R$ .  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  ( $x$  is normally distributed with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ ) if

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (1)$$

where  $p(x)$  is the probability density function of  $x$ .  $\mu$  is the expectation of  $x$  and  $\sigma^2$  is the variance of  $x$ .

## Multivariate Normal Distribution

### Generalization for vector random variables: definitions

Let  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \in R^N$ . The expectation of  $x$  is  $E(x) = \begin{bmatrix} E(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ E(x_N) \end{bmatrix} \in R^N$ .

The covariance matrix of  $x$  is  $Cov(x) = E((x - \mu)(x - \mu)^T) \in R^{N \times N}$  where  $\mu = E(x) \in R^N$ . In other words, the entries of the covariance matrix are  $Cov(x)_{i,j} = Cov(x_i, x_j)$ . Notice that the covariance matrix is symmetric and positive definite and  $Cov(x) = E(xx^T) - E(x)E(x)^T$

Let  $x \in R^N$ .  $x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$  ( $x$  is normally distributed with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ ) if

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}{2}} \quad (2)$$

$\mu \in R^N$  is the mean and  $\Sigma \in R^{N \times N}$  is symmetric and positive definite.  $\Sigma$  is the covariance matrix of  $x$ , i.e.  $\Sigma_{i,j} = Cov(x_i, x_j)$ .

### Understanding the multivariate normal distribution

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in R$  be two independent random variables  $x_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2), x_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ . The joint distribution of  $x_1, x_2$  is:

$$p(x_1, x_2) = p(x_1)p(x_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}} = \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} (\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} (\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}}$$

Let  $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$ .  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix, thus

$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} \end{bmatrix}$ . Since  $x_1, x_2$  are independent,  $\Sigma = Cov(x)$ .

$(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) = \left( \frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sigma_1}, \frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 - \mu_1 \\ x_2 - \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2}$ . With these notations we can write the joint distribution  $p(x_1, x_2)$  as:

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} (\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} \det(\Sigma)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}{2}} \quad (4)$$

which shows that the joint distribution is a 2D normal distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ .

The equiprobable curves (curves along which the probability density is constant) of the joint distribution are ellipses: the only term of  $p(x_1, x_2)$  that depends on  $x_1, x_2$  is  $\frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}$ . Setting this positive term equal to a constant, we get the equation of an ellipse with center at  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  and horizontal and vertical axes. The ratio between the length axes of the ellipse is  $\sigma_1/\sigma_2$ .

Suppose that we apply a rotation on  $x_1, x_2$ , we expect to see the ellipse of equal probability rotated correspondingly. Let  $U$  be a 2D rotation matrix. Applying a rotation on  $x_1, x_2$  introduces dependencies: Suppose that  $\sigma_1$  is very large and  $\sigma_2$  is very small, then  $x$  is distributed close to (and along) the horizontal axis. For example, if  $U$  is a rotation of  $\pi/4$ , then  $Ux$  is approximately distributed close to the line  $y = x$  (which means that the two coordinates of  $Ux$  are strongly dependent).

We will now calculate the distribution of  $y = Ux$  using the formula:

$$y = f(x) \Rightarrow p(y) = p(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| = p(f^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{df^{-1}(y)}{dy} \right| \quad (5)$$

for one-to-one mapping  $f$ .

The determinant of a rotation matrix is 1 so we need only substitute  $x = U^T y$  in the exponent:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y) = p(x(y)) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(U^T y - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (U^T y - \mu)}{2}} = & (6) \\ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} \cdot 1 \cdot |\Sigma|^{1/2} \cdot 1} e^{-\frac{(y - U\mu)^T U \Sigma^{-1} U^T (y - U\mu)}{2}} &= \\ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} |U|^{1/2} \cdot |\Sigma|^{1/2} \cdot |U^T|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(y - \mu_y)^T ((U^T)^{-1} \Sigma U^{-1})^{-1} (y - U\mu_y)}{2}} &= \\ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} |U \Sigma U^T|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(y - \mu_y)^T (U \Sigma U^T)^{-1} (y - U\mu_y)}{2}} &= \\ \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2/2} |\Sigma_y|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(y - \mu_y)^T \Sigma_y^{-1} (y - U\mu_y)}{2}} & \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mu_y = U\mu$  is the expectation of  $y$  and  $\Sigma_y = U \Sigma U^T$  is the covariance matrix of  $y$ . A similar computation shows that for a general regular  $A$ ,  $y = Ax$  is distributed normally with  $\mu_y = Ax$  and  $\Sigma_y = A \Sigma A^T$  (for a general  $A$ , its determinant should be considered).

Can we always present a normally distributed vector as a linear transformation of independent scalar normal random variables? In particular, can we represent it as an orthonormal distribution of such variables? Can we always view the normal distribution as an n-dimensional ellipse?

The answer to all these question is yes. To see this we will use the Singular Value Decomposition of the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . Since  $\Sigma$  is symmetric and positive definite, its SVD is  $\Sigma = UDU^T$  where  $U$  is an  $n \times n$  orthonormal matrix and  $D$  is an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries positive. This means that any normally distributed vector  $y \sim N(\mu_y, \Sigma_y)$  can be written as  $y = Ux$  where  $x \sim N(U^T\mu_y, D)$  and the coordinates of  $x$ ,  $x_i$  are independent and normally distributed with variance  $d_i$  (the  $i^{th}$  entry on the diagonal of  $D$ ).