



Statistics and Fundamental Statistical Learning (II)

Alexander G. Ororbia II
Introduction to Machine Learning
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The Gaussian Distribution



Carl Friedrich Gauss
1777-1855

- For single real-valued variable x

$$N(x | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\}$$

- Parameters:

– Mean μ , variance σ^2 ,

- *Standard deviation* σ

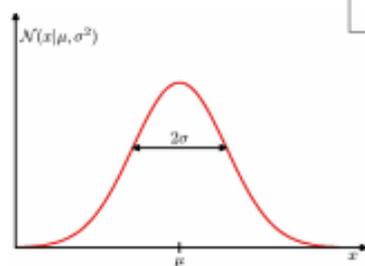
- *Precision* $\beta = 1/\sigma^2$, $E[x] = \mu$, $Var[x] = \sigma^2$

- For D -dimensional vector \mathbf{x} , multivariate Gaussian

$$N(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}} \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}$$

$\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is a mean vector, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a $D \times D$ covariance matrix, $|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|$ is the determinant of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$

$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ is also referred to as the precision matrix



68% of data lies within σ of mean
95% within 2σ

The Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

A p -dimensional random vector \vec{X} has the *multivariate normal distribution* if it has the density function

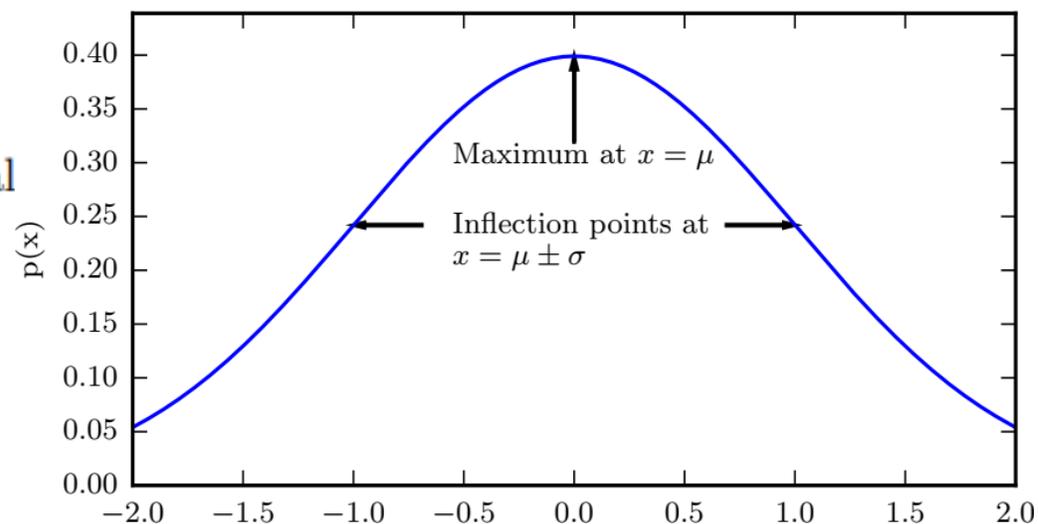
$$f(\vec{X}) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})\right),$$

where $\vec{\mu}$ is a constant vector of dimension p and Σ is a $p \times p$ positive semi-definite which is invertible (called, in this case, *positive definite*). Then, $E\vec{X} = \vec{\mu}$ and $\text{Cov}(\vec{X}) = \Sigma$.

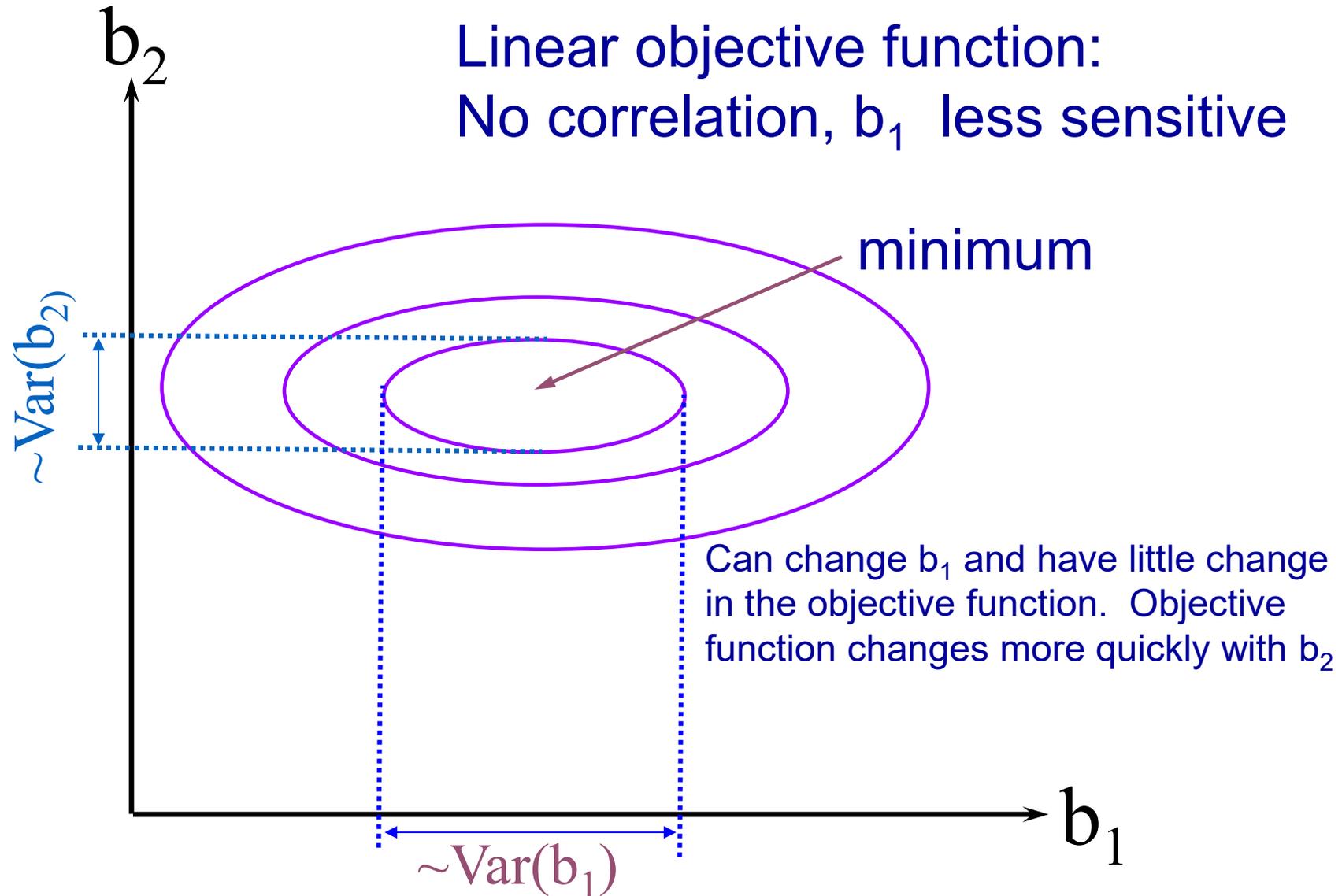
The *standard multivariate normal distribution* is obtained when $\vec{\mu} = 0$ and $\Sigma = I_p$, the $p \times p$ identity matrix:

$$f(\vec{X}) = (2\pi)^{-p/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\vec{X}^T \vec{X}\right).$$

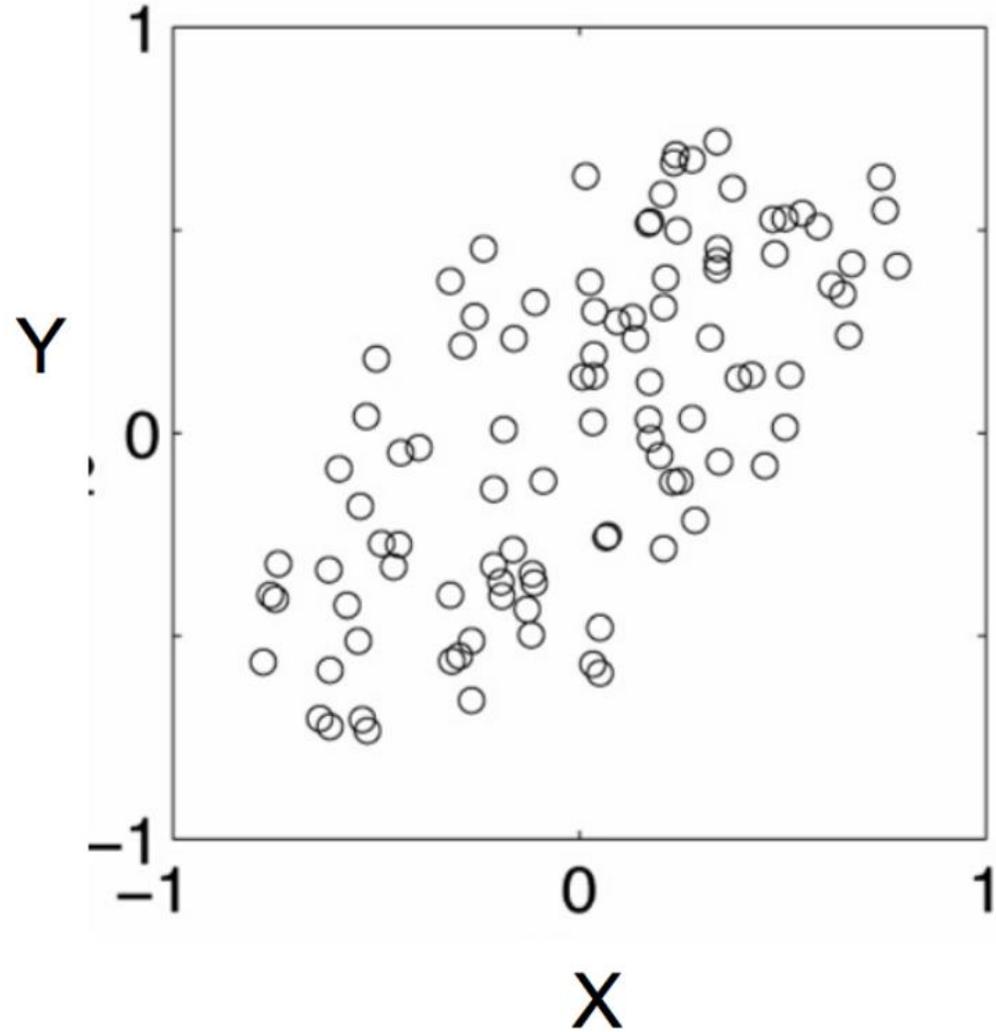
This corresponds to the case where X_1, \dots, X_p are i.i.d. standard normal



Example: Parameter Variance & Covariance

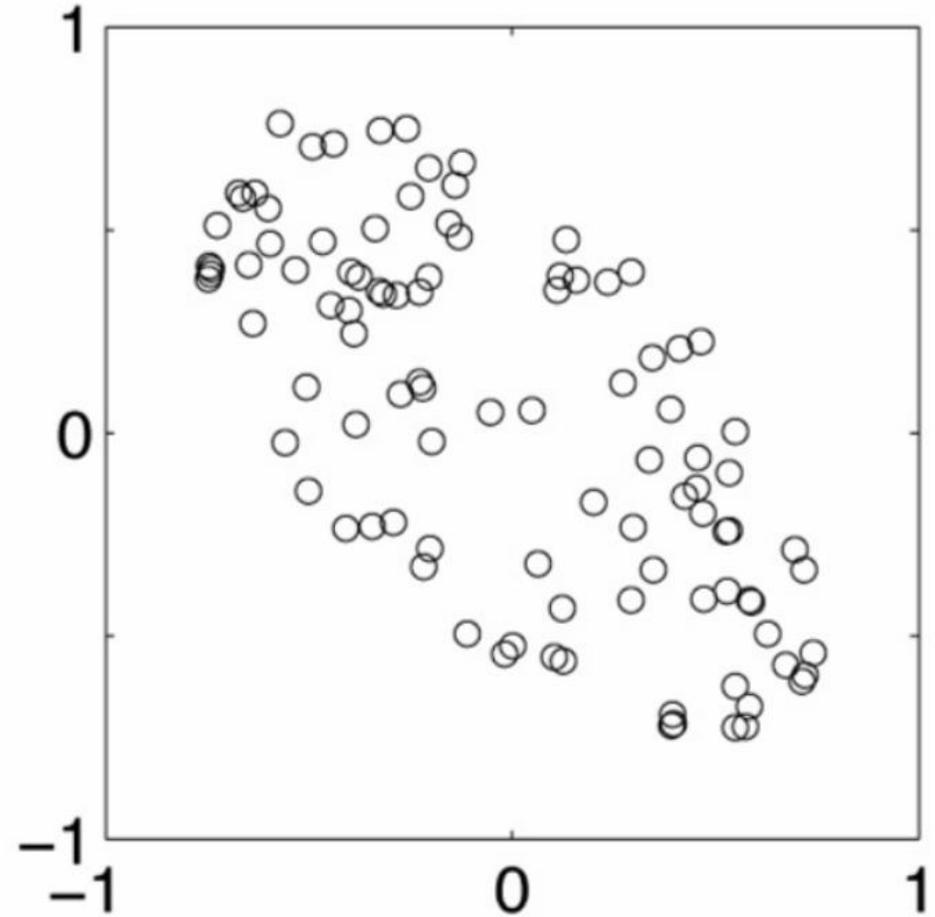


positive covariance



Positive: Both dimensions increase or decrease together

negative covariance



Negative: While one increases the other decreases

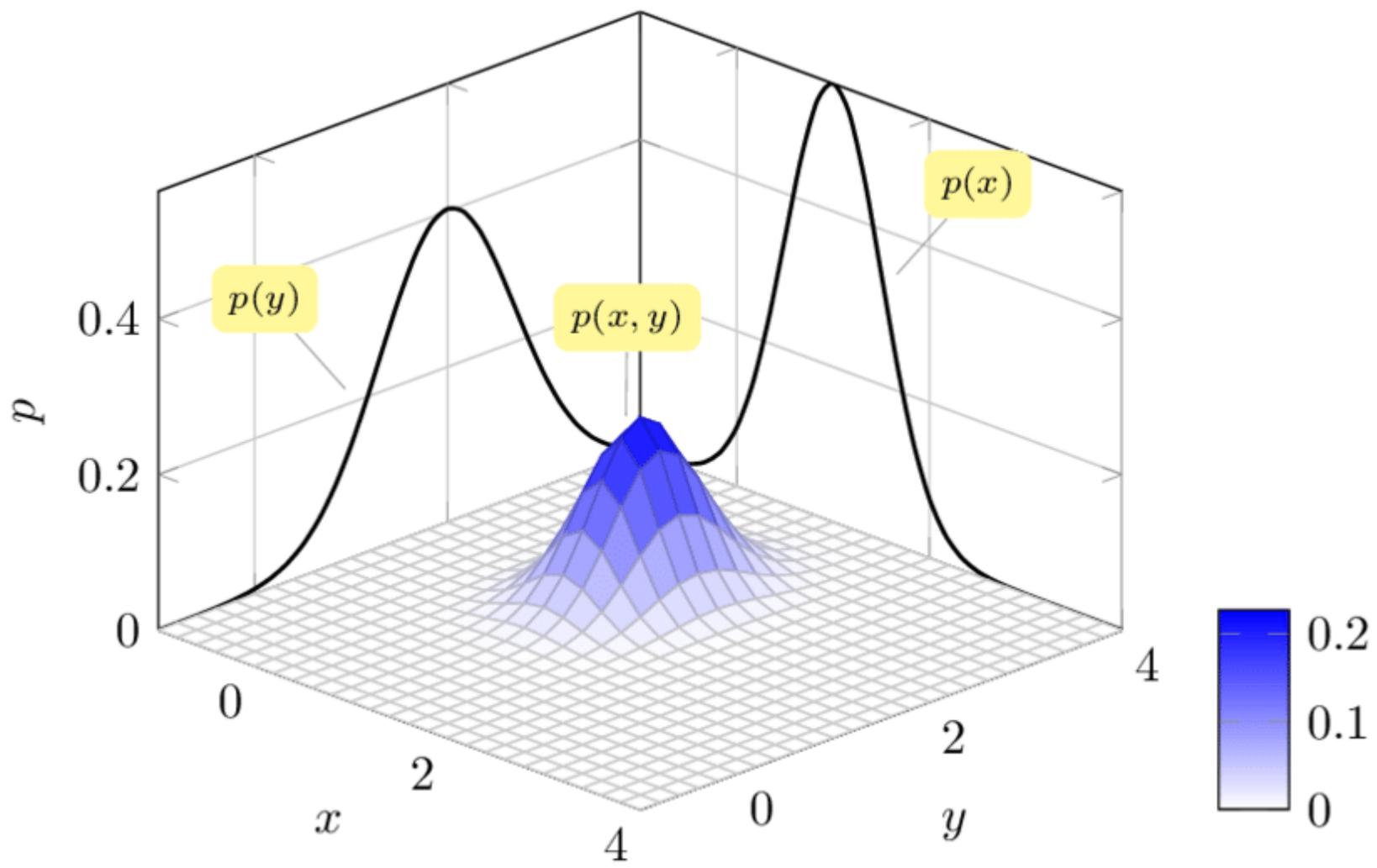
Covariance

- Used to find relationships between dimensions in high dimensional data sets

$$q_{jk} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_{ij} - E(X_j)) (X_{ik} - E(X_k))$$



The sample mean



Anomaly detection with the multivariate Gaussian

1. Fit model $p(x)$ by setting

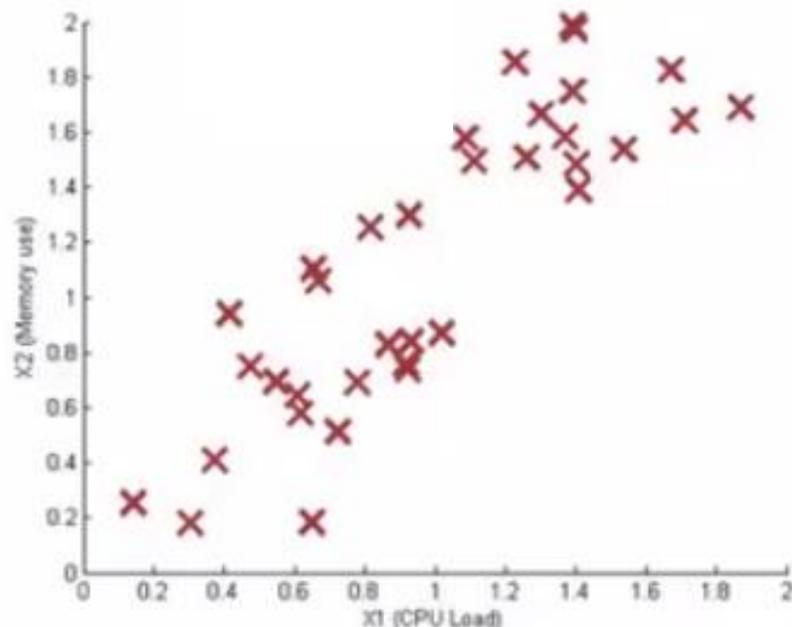
$$\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^{(i)} - \mu)^T$$

2. Given a new example x , compute

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right)$$

Flag an anomaly if $p(x) < \varepsilon$

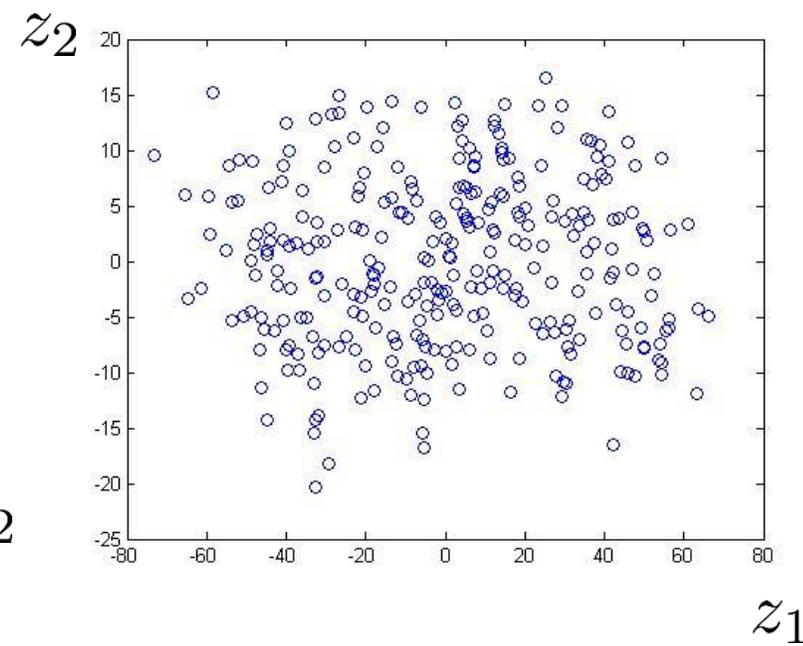
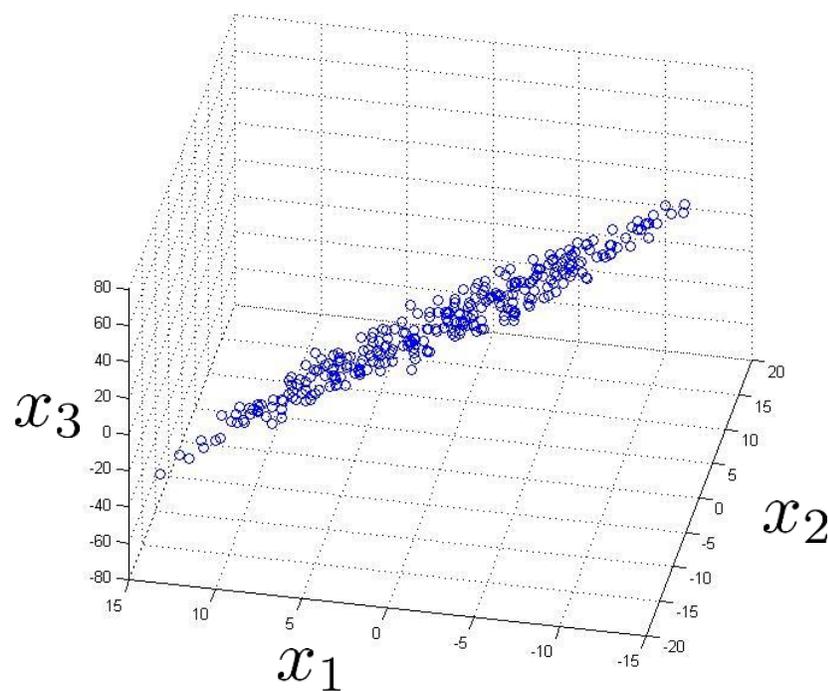
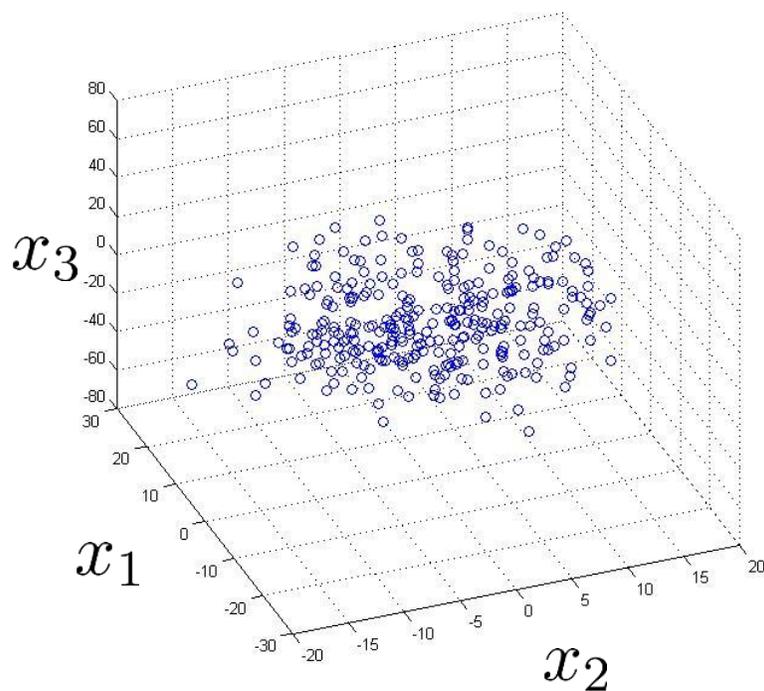


Why? Well, Dimensionality Reduction...

- PCA (Principal Component Analysis):
 - Find projection that maximize the variance (based on Gaussian assumptions)
- ICA (Independent Component Analysis):
 - Similar to PCA except assumes non-Gaussian features
- Multidimensional Scaling:
 - Find projection that best preserves inter-point distances
- LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis):
 - Maximizing the component axes for class-separation
- ...

Data Compression

Reduce data from 3D to 2D



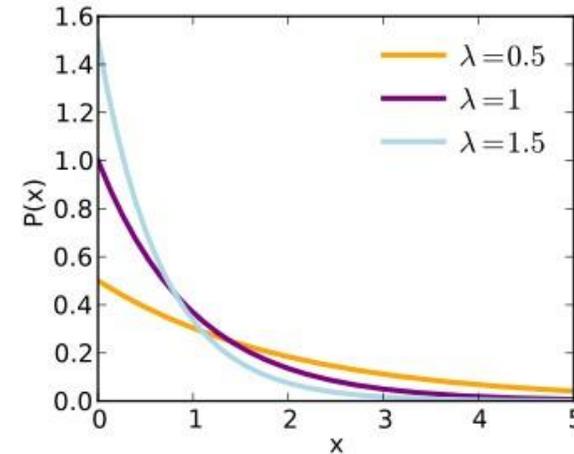
More Distributions

Exponential:

$$p(x; \lambda) = \lambda \mathbf{1}_{x \geq 0} \exp(-\lambda x).$$

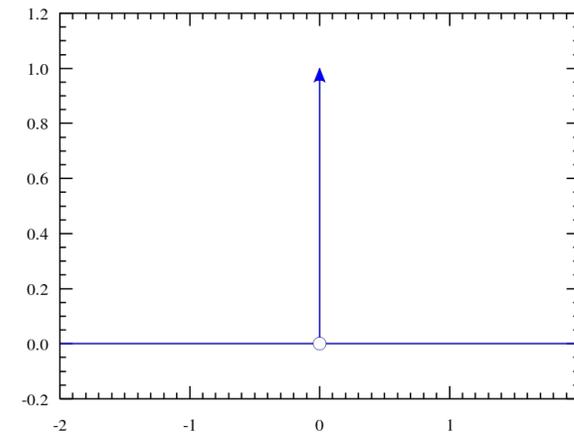


Used to predict the waiting time until the next event occurs, such as a success, failure, or arrival



Dirac

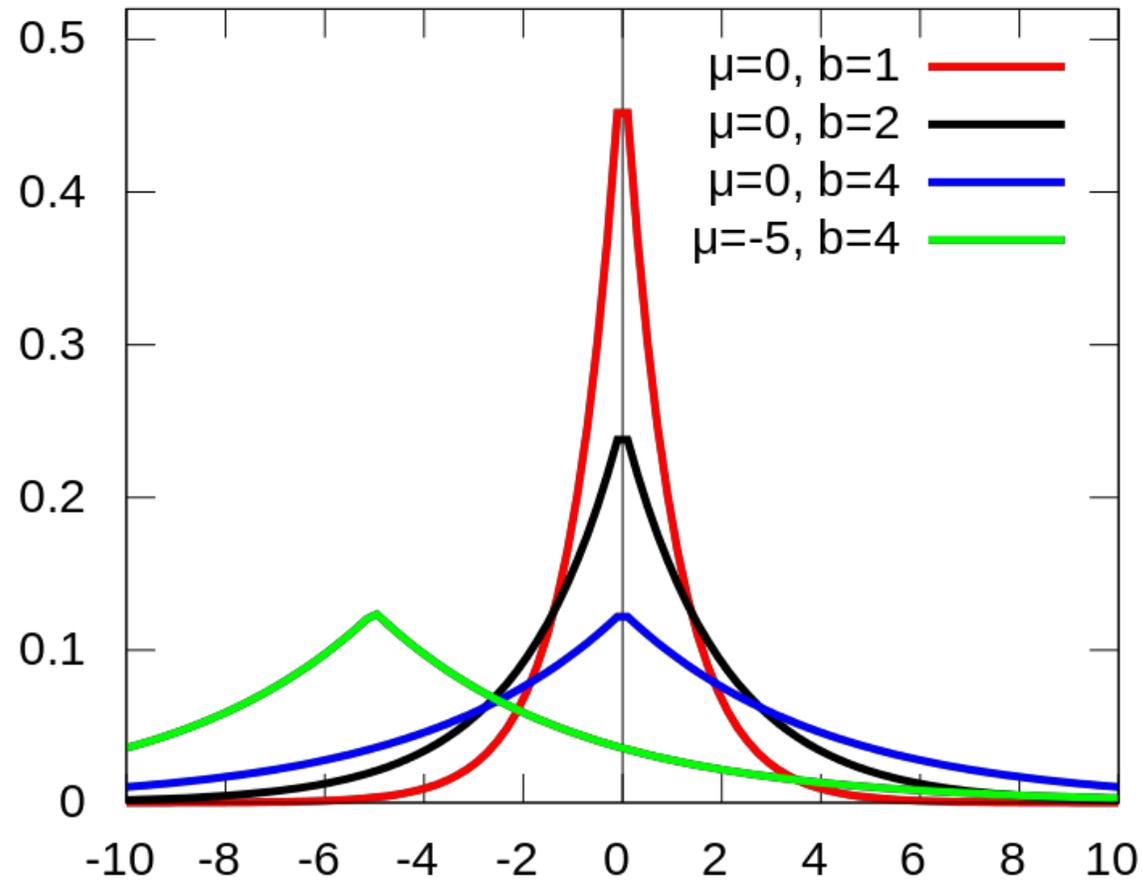
$$p(x) = \delta(x - \mu)$$



“Dirac density” of an idealized point mass or point charge -- a function that is equal to zero everywhere except for zero (integral over the entire real line is equal to one)

Laplace Distribution

$$\text{Laplace}(x; \mu, \gamma) = \frac{1}{2\gamma} \exp\left(-\frac{|x - \mu|}{\gamma}\right)$$



Bernoulli Distribution

The Bernoulli distribution is the “coin flip” distribution.

X is Bernoulli if its probability function is:

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p. } p \\ 0 & \text{w.p. } 1-p \end{cases}$$

$X=1$ is usually interpreted as a “success.” E.g.:

$X=1$ for heads in coin toss

$X=1$ for male in survey

$X=1$ for defective in a test of product

$X=1$ for “made the sale” tracking performance

Bernoulli Distribution

$$P(x = 1) = \phi$$

$$P(x = 0) = 1 - \phi$$

$$P(x = x) = \phi^x (1 - \phi)^{1-x}$$

$$\mathbb{E}_x[x] = \phi$$

$$\text{Var}_x(x) = \phi(1 - \phi)$$

Can prove/derive each of these properties!

p is ϕ in these formulas!

Empirical Distribution

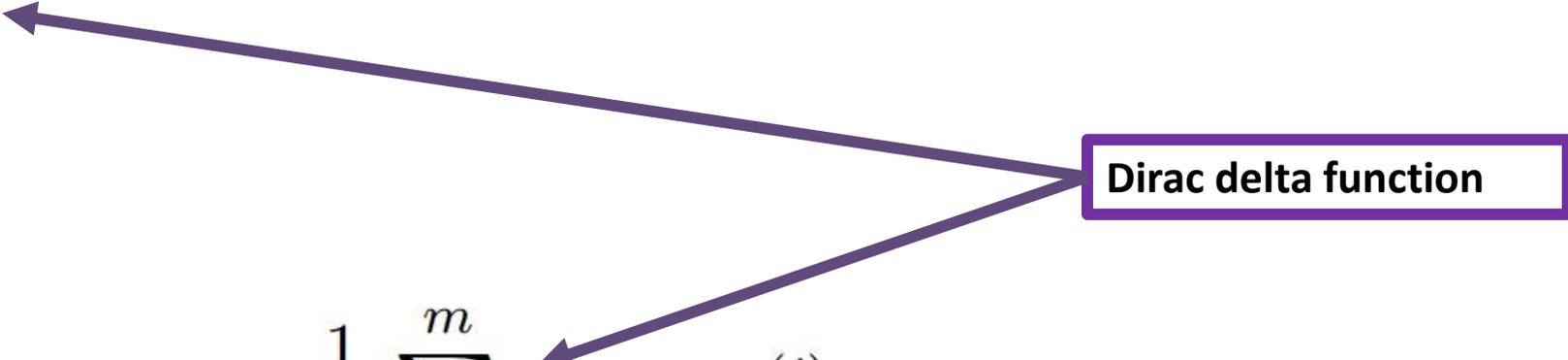
$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \neq 0 \\ \infty, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

such that:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Dirac delta function



An **empirical (Dirac) distribution function** is distribution function associated with empirical measure of a sample
(the data “is” the distribution)

Mixture Distributions

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i P(c = i)P(\mathbf{x} | c = i)$$

Gaussian mixture with
three components

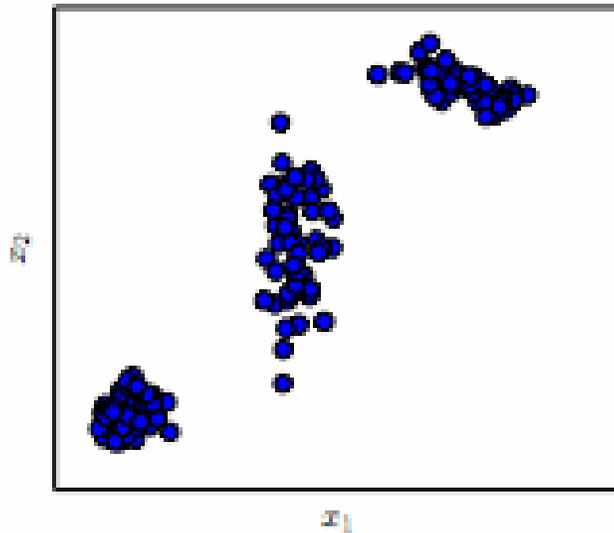


Figure 3.2

Mixtures of Gaussians

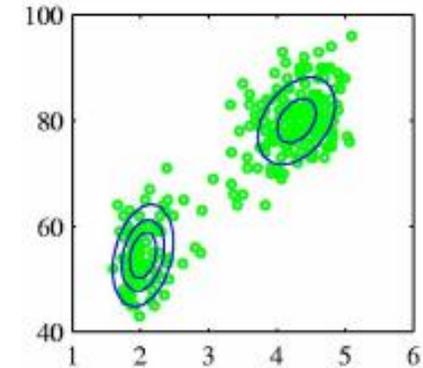
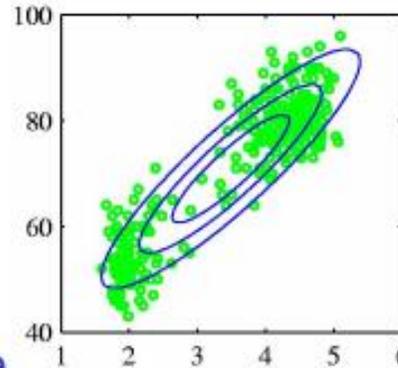
- Gaussian has limitations in modeling real data sets
- Old Faithful (Hydrothermal Geyser in Yellowstone)
 - 272 observations
 - Duration (mins, horiz axis) vs Time to next eruption (vertical axis)
 - Simple Gaussian unable to capture structure
 - Linear superposition of two Gaussians is better



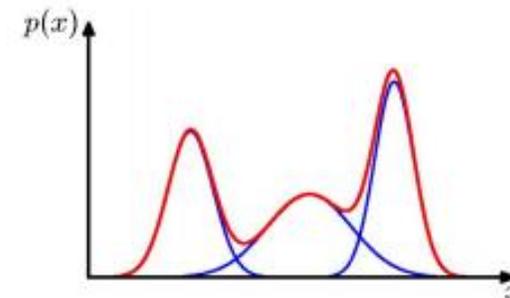
- Linear combinations of Gaussians can give very complex densities

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k N(x | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

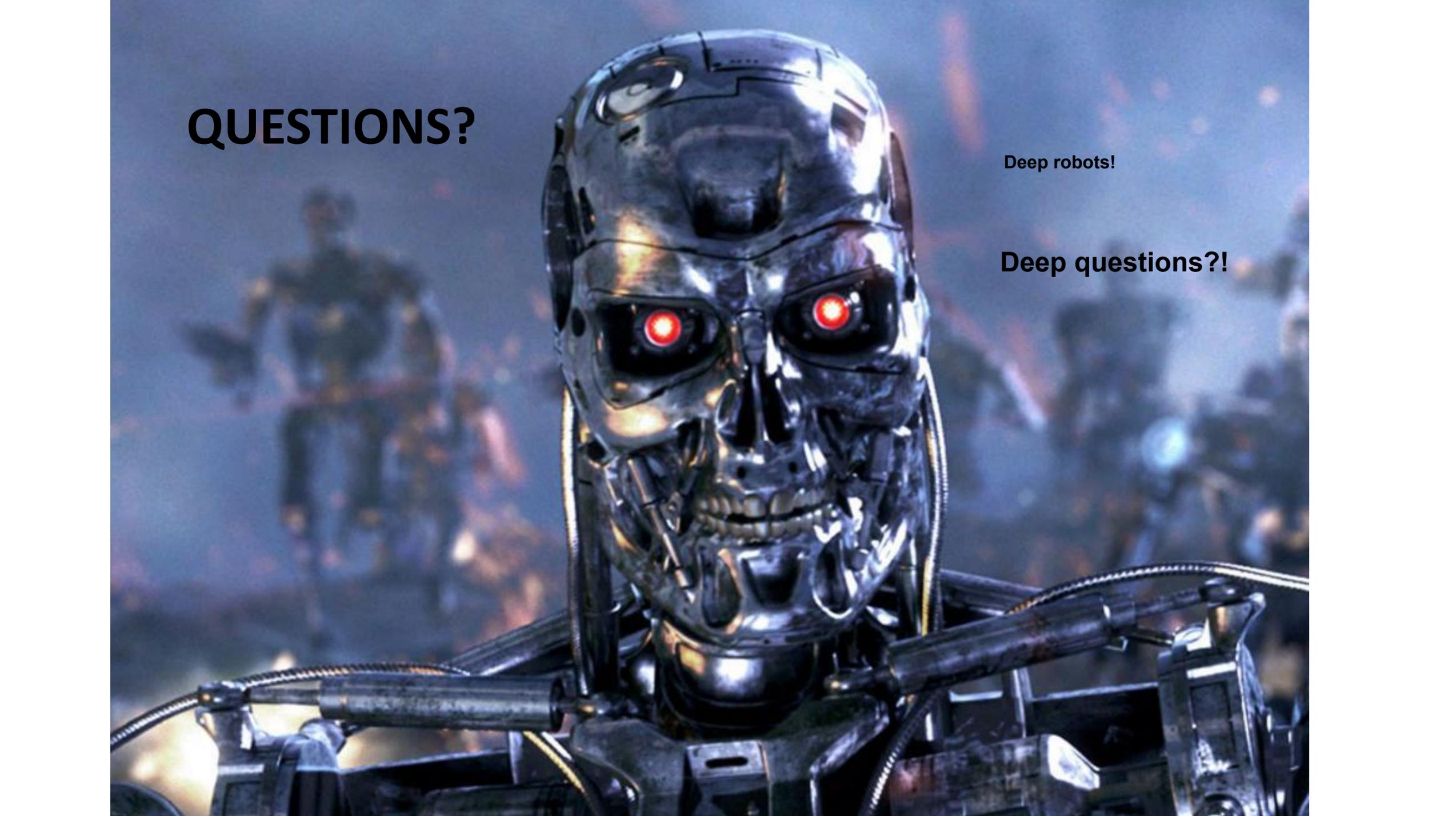
π_k are mixing coefficients that sum to one



- One –dimension
 - Three Gaussians in blue
 - Sum in red



We will build this model later in this class!



QUESTIONS?

Deep robots!

Deep questions?!