

# Advanced Probabilistic Machine Learning

Probability Theory

Ralf Herbrich, Rainer Schlosser

- **Goal:** Enabled you to develop machine learning algorithms from scratch
  - We will pick the pace that helps you to get excited; please interrupt and ask questions!
- **Format:** We have one topic per week with a lecture and tutorial
  - **Lecture:** Tuesday, 9:15am – 10:45am (HS2)
  - **Tutorial:** Wednesday: 3:15pm – 4:45pm (HS3)
- **Assignment:** Five assignments to solve them (groups of two). They account for 40% of all points (8 points each)
  - Handed out every other week on Monday (starting 2<sup>nd</sup> week, October 20)
  - Each assignment has a theory and a practice part
- **Tutorial:** Supporting the material of the lecture and the assignments
  - In the tutorial, Rainer will solve similar exercises to the assignments with you
  - We will answer questions you have with the actual assignments
- **Exam (60 points):** Counts for 60% of all points; 120 minutes long (**February 24**)

- **Books:** All our material and communication will happen over Moodle
  - Bishop, C. [Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning](#). Springer. 2006.
  - MacKay, D. [Information Theory, Inference, and Learning Algorithms](#). CUP. 2003
- **Moodle:** Share our lecture slides, tutorials, solutions
  - **Location:** <https://moodle.hpi.de/course/view.php?id=982>
  - **Announcements:** <https://moodle.hpi.de/mod/forum/view.php?id=33393>
- **GitHub Repository:** Supporting material as well as code samples
  - **Location:** <https://github.com/HPI-Artificial-Intelligence-Teaching/pml-wise2025>
  - If you find mistakes, please submit [issues](#) and [pull requests](#)
- **GitHub Classrooms:** Used for all our assignments
  - If you do not have a GitHub account, please create one now
  - Find a team member as assignments are solved in groups of two
  - More details tomorrow in the first tutorial

## Foundation

1. Probability Theory (Unit 1)
2. Linear Algebra (Unit 2)

## Methods

3. Graphical Models (Unit 3)
4. Exact Inference (Unit 4)
5. Approximate Inference: Expectation Propagation (Unit 5)
6. Approximate Inference: Variational Inference (Unit 6)
7. Approximate Inference: Mixture Models (Unit 7)
8. Approximate Inference: Message Approximation (Unit 8)

## Applications

8. Text: Topic Models (Unit 9)
9. Images: Conditional Markov Random Fields (Unit 10)
10. Policies: Reinforcement Learning (Unit 11)

## Advanced Probabilistic Machine Learning

*Unit 1 – Probability Theory*

- 2012 developed by Jeff Bezanson, Alan Edelman, Stefan Karpinski and Viral B. Shah at MIT
- Used for numerical and scientific computing with high performance
  - Execution speed is similar to C and FORTRAN
  - Hierarchical and parameterized type system as well as method overloading („multiple dispatching“) as central concepts
  - Native calls from C-(compiled) code possible (without wrappers)
- Unicode is efficiently supported (e.g., UTF-8)
- Alongside C, C++ and FORTRAN, the only programming language that has entered the “PetaFlop Club”



Jeff Bezanson  
(1981–)



Alan Edelman  
(1963 –)



Stefan Karpinski  
(1981–)



Viral Shah

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*Unit 1 – Probability Theory*

# Overview

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1. Probability in Machine Learning
2. Probability Theory
3. Exponential Family Distributions

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*Unit 1 – Probability Theory*

# Overview

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1. **Probability in Machine Learning**
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*Unit 1 – Probability Theory*

# What is Probability?

- **Weather forecast:** A meteorologist says

„Tomorrow, it is going to rain in Bangalore with 60%“

- **Two interpretations:**

1. The meteorologist has analyzed all regions which have similar environmental conditions than Bangalore today. His **(objective)** estimate based on past data is that the procedure which predicts rain tomorrow is correct 60% of the time.
2. The meteorologist *believes* that it is more likely that it rains tomorrow in Bangalore (than it is to not rain tomorrow). 60% is the quantification of the **(subjective)** belief of the meteorologist.



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# Frequentist vs. Subjectivist Interpretation

## ■ Frequentist Interpretation

- Probability is a property of the event ("it rains tomorrow in Bangalore")
- Is operationalized by repeated experiments
- Typically used by scientists and engineers

## ■ Subjective Interpretation

- Probability is an expression of belief of the person that makes a statement
- Is subjective and people-dependent: Two people with identical data can come to different probabilities
- Typically used by philosophers and economists

1. Probability is not a physical measure but a thought model for randomness!
2. The mathematical rules for probability are **identical** for both interpretations!

# Rules of Probability

- **Mathematical Definition.** A number  $P(A) \in [0,1]$  assigned to an event or statement  $A$  that indicates how likely  $A$  is to occur.
- **Set Theory.** We model events and statements via set theory and assume
  - A countably infinite total set  $\Omega \supseteq A$
  - If  $A(x)$  is a 1<sup>st</sup> order logic statement, then  $A := \{x \mid A(x)\}$  and
    - $A \subseteq B \equiv \forall x: A(x) \rightarrow B(x)$  and  $A^c \equiv \forall x: \neg A(x)$
    - $A \cup B \equiv \forall x: A(x) \vee B(x)$  and  $A \cap B \equiv \forall x: A(x) \wedge B(x)$
- **Rules:** For all  $A, B \subseteq \Omega$ 
  - **Monotonicity:** If  $A \subseteq B$  then  $P(A) \leq P(B)$
  - **Complement Rule:**  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$
  - **Sum Rule:**  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
  - **Product Rule:**  $P(A \cap B) = \underbrace{\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}}_{P(A|B)} \cdot P(B)$

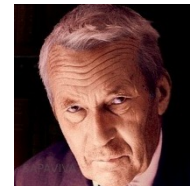
# Frequentist vs. Subjective Probabilities

- **Kolmogorov (1933):** *The rules of probability for **sets** follow from the following 3 axioms*

1.  $P(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \subseteq \Omega$
2.  $P(\Omega) = 1$
3.  $P(\cup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$  if for all  $i \neq j: A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$

- **Cox (1944):** *The rules of probability for **logic** follow from the following 3 axioms*

1.  $P(A) \in [0,1]$  for all logical statements  $A$
2.  $P(A)$  is independent of how the statement is represented
3. If  $P(A|C') > P(A|C)$  and  $P(B|A \wedge C') = P(B|A \wedge C)$  then
$$P(A \wedge B|C') \geq P(A \wedge B|C)$$



Andrey Kolmogorov  
(1903 – 1987)



Richard Threlkeld Cox  
(1898 – 1991)

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# The Role of Probability in Machine Learning

- **Theory:** *How likely is it, that the accuracy of a predictor  $\mathcal{A}(D)$  learned from training data  $D$  is good?*

$$P(\text{Accuracy}(\mathcal{A}(D)) < \varepsilon) \leq \delta$$

## Typical Assumptions

1. Independent identically distributed data (IID)
2. Accuracy is an expected performance measure on the next test example

- **Frequentist view on probability:** Over  $N$  applications of the learning algorithm and draws of random training data  $D$ , for how many is the learned predictor accurate?

- **Practice:** *What can we say about the plausibility of a single predictor  $f$  in light of training data  $D$ ?*

$$P(f|D)$$

## Typical Assumptions

1. Independent identically distributed data (IID)
2. Known conditional dependence of data and predictor

- **Subjectivist view on probability:** Given the certain and known training data  $D$ , what is the remaining uncertainty over the right predictor for (future) data?

Subjective belief that  $f$  is the right predictor given  $D$

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1. Probability in Machine Learning
- 2. Probability Theory**
3. Exponential Family Distributions

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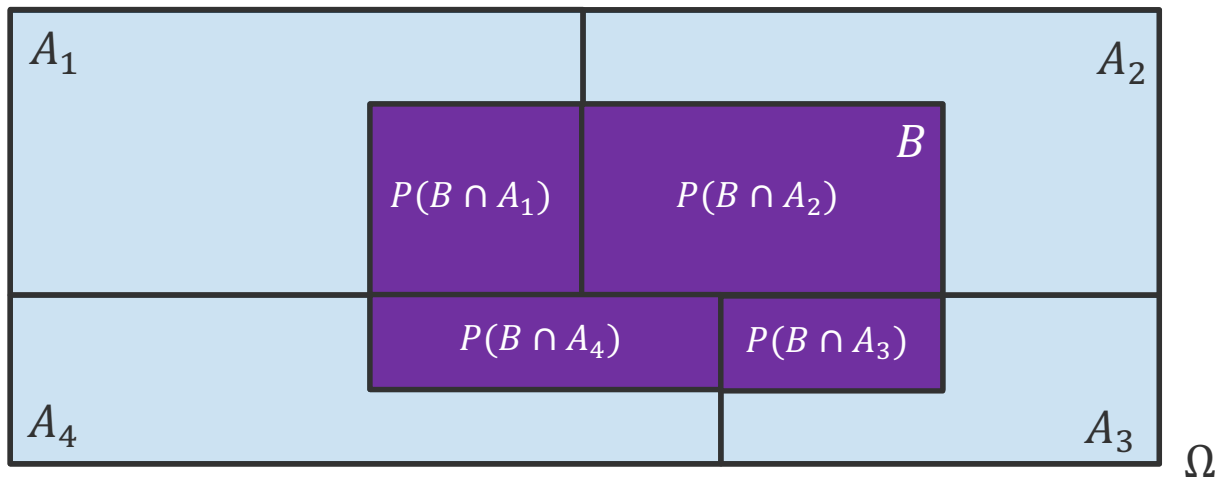
*Unit 1 – Probability Theory*

# Probability Theory: Law of Total Probability

- **Total Probability Theorem.** Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \subseteq \Omega$  be disjoint events that form a partition of the sample space  $\Omega$  and  $P(A_i) > 0$  for all  $A_i$ . Then, for any event  $B \subseteq \Omega$

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B \cap A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i) \cdot P(A_i)$$

- **Geometric Proof**



# Probability Theory: Bayes Rule

- **Bayes' Theorem.** Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  be disjoint events that form a partition of the sample space  $S$  and  $P(A_i) > 0$  for all  $A_i$ . Then, for any event  $B$  with  $P(B) > 0$

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n P(B|A_j) \cdot P(A_j)}$$

law of total probability



(Rev) Thomas Bayes  
(1701 – 1761)

- **Proof.** Follows from the definition of conditional probability and “multiply-by-1”

$$P(A_i \cap B) \cdot \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A_i \cap B) \cdot \frac{P(A_i)}{P(A_i)} = 1 \text{ (by definition } P(A_i) > 0 \text{ and } P(B) > 0)$$

$$P(A_i|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A_i) \cdot P(A_i) \quad \text{by definition of conditional probability}$$

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{P(B)}$$

- **Simplified view** when looking at the probabilities as functions of  $A_i$

$$P(A_i|B) \propto P(B|A_i) \cdot P(A_i)$$

**posterior   likelihood   prior**

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# Bayes Rule: False-Positive Puzzle

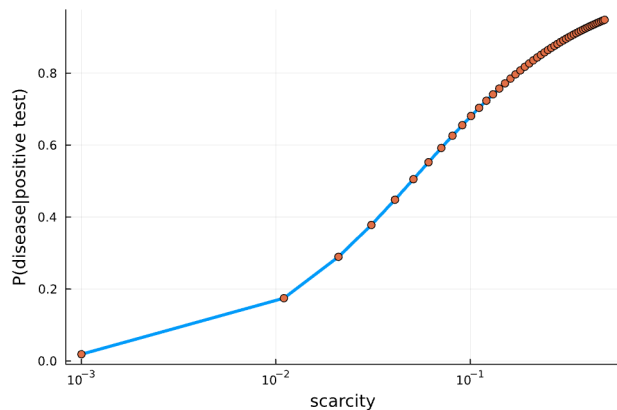
- **Situation:** A test for a rare disease is assumed to be correct 95% of the time (i.e., the probability that the test shows the disease or lack thereof is 95%). It's a rare disease that occurs in 0.1% of the population. If you have a positive test outcome, what is the probability that you have the disease?
- **Solution:**

$A$  = "Person has the disease"

$B$  = "Test result is positive"

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B|A) \cdot P(A) + P(B|\neg A) \cdot P(\neg A)}$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{0.95 \cdot 0.001}{0.95 \cdot 0.001 + 0.05 \cdot 0.999} \approx 0.0187$$



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- **Counterintuitive:** According to *The Economist* (February 20, 1999), 80% of leading American hospital staff guessed the probability to be 95%!



# Probability Theory: Independence

- **Independence.** We say that the events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are independent if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in I} P(A_i), \quad \text{for all subsets } I \text{ of } \{1, \dots, n\}$$

- **Intuition.** Knowledge of an event  $A$  with  $P(A) > 0$  does not provide information about the probability of an independent event  $B$

$$P(B|A) = P(B) \Leftrightarrow P(B|A) \cdot P(A) = P(B) \cdot P(A)$$

$$= P(B \cap A)$$

- **Important modelling assumption** (often implicitly) used in machine learning when making assumptions about training and test data generation: knowing one training example provides no information about the probability of any other training example (realistic?!)
- **Counterintuitive geometry:** If  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint, they are **not** independent!

# Probability Theory: Random Variable

- **Random Variable.** *A random variable is a real-valued function of the outcome of the experiment. A function of a random variable defines another random variable.*
  - **Examples:**
    - Tossing a coin  $N$  times, the **number** of heads
    - Given an image, the **pixel intensity** of the top-left pixel (in 8-bit)
- **Probability Mass Function.** *The probability mass function  $p(x)$  assigns each value  $x$  the probability that the random variable takes the value  $x$ .*
  - **Example:** Coin toss: If  $N = 2$  then

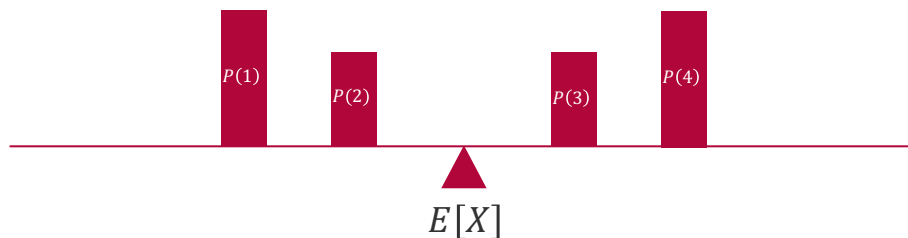
$$\begin{aligned}p(0) &= P(\text{tail, tail}) \\p(1) &= P(\text{head, tail}) + P(\text{tail, head}) \\p(2) &= P(\text{head, head})\end{aligned}$$

# Probability Theory: Expectation and Variance

- **Expected Value.** The expected value  $E[X]$  (also called expectation) of a random variable  $X$  is defined by

$$E[X] := \sum_x x \cdot p(x)$$

- **Intuition.** Center of gravity when placing the weight  $p(x)$  at position  $x$  on a straight line



- **Variance.** The variance  $\text{var}[X]$  of a random variable  $X$  is defined by

$$\text{var}[X] := \sum_x (x - E[X])^2 \cdot p(x) = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

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# Probability Distributions

- Only defined for **random variables**, *not* for events or logic statements!
  - **Discrete random variables:**  $p: \mathbb{Z} \mapsto [0,1]$  and  $\sum_x p(x) = 1$
  - **Continuous random variables:**  $p: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $\int p(x) dx = 1$ 
    - Note that, by definition, they are only a **model** for real data!
- In computational statistics some classes of probability distributions have emerged whose distributions can be fully described with a small number of parameters  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 
  - **Advantages:**
    1. **Storage Efficiency:** Only  $d$  real numbers for whole function!
    2. **Compute Efficiency:** Only  $O(d)$  computation for rules of probability!
  - **Disadvantages:**
    1. **Real World:** Too restrictive to represent true phenomena in real data
    2. **Bayes' Rule:** Function classes often not closed under Bayes' rule

# Efficient Bayes' Rule

- **Bayes' rule** over random variables  $X$  and  $Y$

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x) \cdot p(x)}{p(y)} = \frac{1}{p(y)} \cdot \left[ \int p(y|x) dx \right] \cdot \left[ \frac{p(y|x)}{\int p(y|x) dx} \right] \cdot p(x)$$

↑ Normalization constant independent of  $x$ 
↑ Probability distribution  $p_y(\cdot)$  over  $x$ 
↑ Probability distribution  $p(\cdot)$  over  $x$

- **Idea:** If  $p(y|x)$  and  $p(x)$  are exponentials of a linear function of transformation of  $x$  then (up to normalization), the product becomes a linear operation!

$$p(y|x) \propto \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}_y^T \cdot \mathbf{T}(x))$$

$$p(x) \propto \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \cdot \mathbf{T}(x))$$



$$p(x|y) \propto \exp([\boldsymbol{\theta}_y + \boldsymbol{\theta}]^T \cdot \mathbf{T}(x))$$

Product in distribution becomes addition!

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# Exponential Family

- **Exponential Family Distribution.** A distribution  $p(\cdot | \boldsymbol{\theta})$  over a random variable  $X$  is called an exponential family distribution if it can be expressed as follows:

$$p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{T}(x) - A(\boldsymbol{\theta})\right)$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is called the **natural parameters** of the distribution,  $\mathbf{T}(\cdot)$  is called the **sufficient statistics** and  $A(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is the log-normalization given by

$$A(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log\left(\int \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{T}(x)\right) dx\right)$$

- Every discrete probability distribution over the outcome  $x \in \{1, \dots, K\}$  is an exponential family distribution with

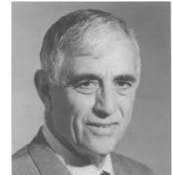
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \log(p(1)) \\ \vdots \\ \log(p(x-1)) \\ \log(p(x)) \\ \log(p(x+1)) \\ \vdots \\ \log(p(K)) \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{T}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



Edwin J. G. Pitman  
(1897 – 1993)



Georges Darmois  
(1888 - 1960)



Bernhard O. Koopman  
(1900 – 1981)

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# Exponential Family Distributions: Categorical Distribution

- **Categorical Distribution.** Given  $\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^K$  or a probability vector  $\boldsymbol{\pi} \in [0,1]^K$  such that  $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$ , a discrete random variable  $X$  over the first  $K$  unit vectors is said to have a categorical distribution if the density is given by

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_k)} \quad \text{Cat}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \boldsymbol{\pi}^T \mathbf{x}$$

- **Properties:**

$$E[X_i] = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_k)} = \pi_i$$

$$\text{var}[X_i] = \pi_i \cdot (1 - \pi_i)$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_K \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \log(\pi_1) \\ \vdots \\ \log(\pi_K) \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Conversions:**

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \text{Cat}\left(\mathbf{x}; \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_k)} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \exp(\eta_1) \\ \vdots \\ \exp(\eta_K) \end{bmatrix}\right) \quad \text{Cat}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \mathcal{C}\left(\mathbf{x}; \begin{bmatrix} \log(\pi_1) \\ \vdots \\ \log(\pi_K) \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

- **Importance.** The categorical distribution plays a key role in selection processes and classification and is also known as the *generalized Bernoulli distribution*.



Jacob Bernoulli  
(1655 – 1705)



# Categorical Distribution: Efficient Products & Divisions

- **Theorem (Multiplication).** Given two categorical distributions  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1)$  and  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1) \cdot \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_2) = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1 + \boldsymbol{\eta}_2) \cdot \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{1,k} + \eta_{2,k})}{\left[ \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{1,k}) \right] \cdot \left[ \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{2,k}) \right]}$$

Additive updates!

Correction factor

- **Theorem (Division).** Given two categorical distributions  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1)$  and  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$

$$\frac{\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1)}{\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_2)} = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}_1 - \boldsymbol{\eta}_2) \cdot \frac{\left[ \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{1,k} - \eta_{2,k}) \right] \cdot \left[ \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{2,k}) \right]}{\left[ \sum_{k=1}^K \exp(\eta_{1,k}) \right]}$$

Subtractive updates!

Correction factor

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# Exponential Family Distributions: Dirichlet Distribution

- **Dirichlet Distribution.** Given  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^K$  with  $\alpha_k > 0$ , a continuous random variable  $X \in [0,1]^K$  over the  $K - 1$  dimensional simplex (that is,  $\sum_{k=1}^K X_k = 1$ ) is said to have a Dirichlet distribution if the density is given by

$$\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})} \cdot \prod_{k=1}^K x_k^{\alpha_k - 1} \quad \mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^K \Gamma(\alpha_k)}{\Gamma(\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k)}$$

- **Properties:**

$$E[X_i] = \frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k}$$

$$E[\log(X_i)] = \psi(\alpha_i) - \psi\left(\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k\right) \quad \psi(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \log(\Gamma(z))$$

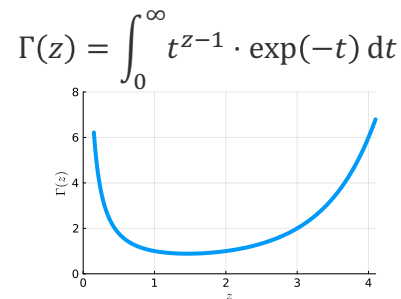
- **Natural Parameters and Sufficient Statistics:**

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \log(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \log(x_K) \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 - 1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_K - 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Importance.** The product of a Dirichlet  $\text{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\pi}; \boldsymbol{\alpha})$  and a categorical  $\text{Cat}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\pi})$  is again a Dirichlet distribution  $\text{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\pi}; \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{x})$ !



Peter Gustav Dirichlet  
(1805 – 1859)



$$\forall z > 0: \Gamma(z + 1) = z \cdot \Gamma(z)$$

# Dirichlet Distribution: Efficient Products & Divisions

- **Theorem (Multiplication).** Given two Dirichlet distributions  $\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1)$  and  $\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_2)$

$$\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1) \cdot \text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_2) = \text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \mathbf{1}) \cdot \frac{\mathcal{B}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - \mathbf{1})}{\mathcal{B}(\alpha_1) \cdot \mathcal{B}(\alpha_2)}$$

Correction factor

Additive updates!

- **Theorem (Division).** Given two Dirichlet distributions  $\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1)$  and  $\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_2)$

$$\frac{\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1)}{\text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_2)} = \text{Dir}(\mathbf{x}; \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + \mathbf{1}) \cdot \frac{\mathcal{B}(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + \mathbf{1}) \cdot \mathcal{B}(\alpha_2)}{\mathcal{B}(\alpha_1)}$$

Correction factor

Subtractive updates!

# Exponential Family Distributions: 1D Gaussian

- **1D Gaussian Distribution.** A continuous random variable  $X$  is said to have a one-dimensional Gaussian distribution if the density is given by

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

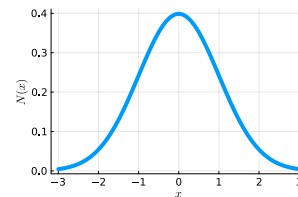
- **Properties:**

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \mu \\ \text{var}[X] &= \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

- **Importance.** The 1D Gaussian distribution plays a fundamental role in ML!
  - **Data Modelling:** The limit distribution for the sum of a large number of independent and identically distributed random variables.
  - **Machine Learning:** The most common belief distribution for the parameters of prediction functions!
  - **Information Theory:** The distribution function with the most uncertainty ("entropy") when fixing mean and variance of the random variable.



Carl Friedrich Gauss  
(1777 - 1855)



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# 1D Gaussian Distribution: Representations

## ■ Scale-Location Parameters

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

## ■ Conversions

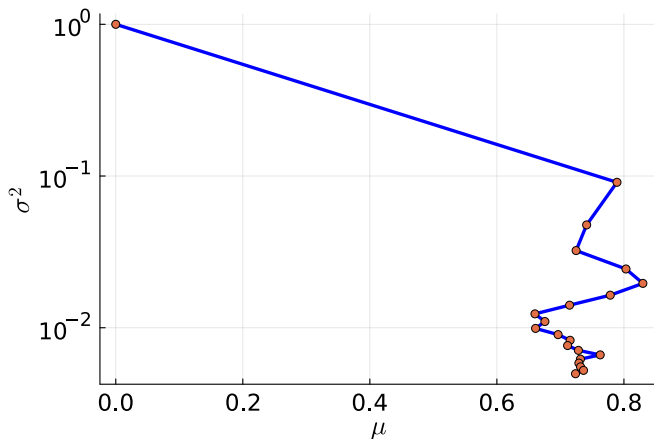
$$\mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{G}\left(x; \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}, \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

Two divisions only!

$$\mathcal{G}(x; \tau, \rho) = \mathcal{N}\left(x; \frac{\tau}{\rho}, \frac{1}{\rho}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{T}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ -\frac{x^2}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \tau \\ \rho \end{bmatrix}$$

## ■ Posterior Inference

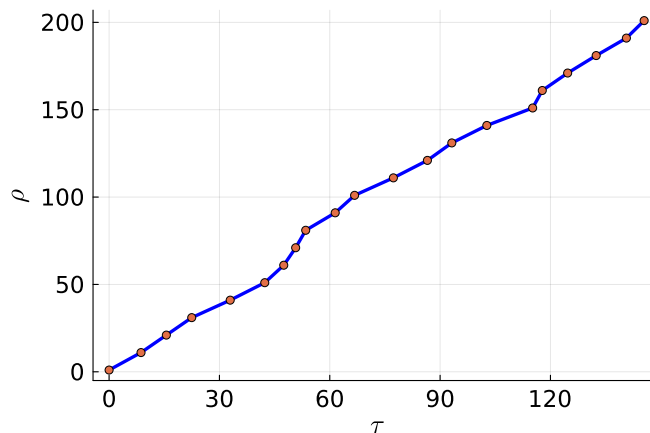


## ■ Natural Parameters

$$\mathcal{G}(x; \tau, \rho) = \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{2\pi}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\tau^2}{2\rho}\right) \cdot \exp\left(\tau \cdot x - \rho \cdot \frac{x^2}{2}\right)$$

## ■ Conversions

## ■ Posterior Inference



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# 1D Gaussian Distribution: Efficient Products & Divisions

- **Theorem (Multiplication).** Given two one-dimensional Gaussian distributions  $\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1, \rho_1)$  and  $\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_2, \rho_2)$  we have

$$\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1, \rho_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}(x; \tau_2, \rho_2) = \mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1 + \tau_2, \rho_1 + \rho_2) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mu_1; \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$$

Gaussian density

Additive updates!

- **Theorem (Division).** Given two one-dimensional Gaussian distributions  $\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1, \rho_1)$  and  $\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_2, \rho_2)$  where  $\rho_1 > \rho_2$  we have

$$\frac{\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1, \rho_1)}{\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_2, \rho_2)} = \frac{\mathcal{G}(x; \tau_1 - \tau_2, \rho_1 - \rho_2)}{\mathcal{N}(\mu_1; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1^2)} \cdot \frac{\sigma_2^2}{\sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1^2}$$

Correction factor

Subtractive updates!

Gaussian density

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# Limit 1D Gaussian Distributions: Dirac Delta and Uniform

- **Dirac Delta.** The Dirac delta function  $\delta(\cdot)$  is defined as the limit  $\sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{\sigma^2 \rightarrow 0} \mathcal{N}(x; 0, \sigma^2)$$

- **Gaussian Uniform.** The Gaussian uniform  $\mathcal{U}(\cdot)$  is defined as the limit  $\sigma^2 \rightarrow \infty$

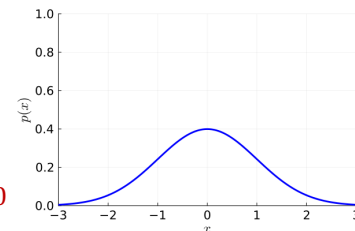
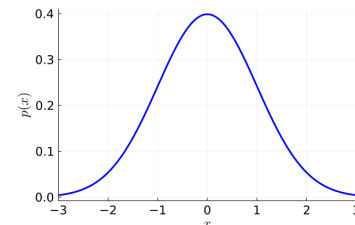
$$\mathcal{U}(x) = \lim_{\sigma^2 \rightarrow +\infty} \mathcal{N}(x; 0, \sigma^2)$$

- **Theorem (Convolution of Normal with Dirac).** For any  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x) \cdot \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2) dx = \mathcal{N}(0; \mu, \sigma^2) \leftarrow \text{Gaussian density at } x = 0$$

- **Theorem (Product of Normal with Uniform).** For any  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$

$$\frac{\mathcal{U}(x) \cdot \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2)}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \mathcal{U}(\tilde{x}) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\tilde{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) d\tilde{x}} = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2) \leftarrow \text{Equivalent to multiplying with 1}$$



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# Exponential Family Distributions: Gamma Distribution

- **Gamma Distribution.** Given  $\beta > -1$  and  $\lambda > 0$ , a positive continuous random variable  $X$  is said to have a Dirichlet distribution if the density is given by

$$\text{Gam}(x; \beta, \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^{\beta+1}}{\Gamma(\beta + 1)} \cdot x^{\beta} \cdot \exp(-\lambda x) \cdot \mathbb{I}(x > 0)$$

- **Properties:**

$$E[X] = \frac{\beta + 1}{\lambda}$$

$$E[\log(X)] = \psi(\beta + 1) - \log(\lambda) \quad \psi(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \log(\Gamma(z))$$

- **Natural Parameters and Sufficient Statistics:**

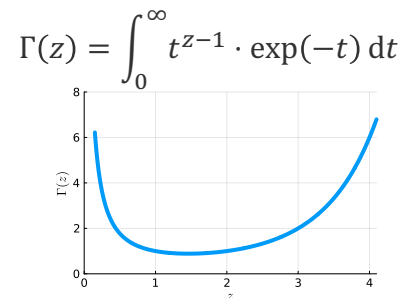
$$\mathbf{T}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \log(x) \\ -x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Importance.** The product of a Gamma distribution  $\text{Gam}(\rho; \beta, \lambda)$  and a Normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \rho^{-1})$  is again a Gamma distribution  $\text{Gam}\left(\rho; \beta + \frac{1}{2}, \lambda + \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2}\right)$ !



Karl Pearson  
(1857 – 1936)



$$\forall z > 0: \Gamma(z + 1) = z \cdot \Gamma(z)$$



# Gamma Distribution: Efficient Products & Divisions

- **Theorem (Multiplication).** Given two Gamma distributions  $\text{Gam}(x; \beta_1, \lambda_1)$  and  $\text{Gam}(x; \beta_2, \lambda_2)$

$$\text{Gam}(x; \beta_1, \lambda_1) \cdot \text{Gam}(x; \beta_2, \lambda_2) = \text{Gam}(x; \beta_1 + \beta_2, \lambda_1 + \lambda_2) \cdot \frac{\text{Gam}(1; \beta_1, \lambda_1) \cdot \text{Gam}(1; \beta_2, \lambda_2)}{\text{Gam}(1; \beta_1 + \beta_2, \lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}$$

Correction factor

Additive updates!

- **Theorem (Division).** Given two Gamma distributions  $\text{Gam}(x; \beta_1, \lambda_1)$  and  $\text{Gam}(x; \beta_2, \lambda_2)$

$$\frac{\text{Gam}(x; \beta_1, \lambda_1)}{\text{Gam}(x; \beta_2, \lambda_2)} = \text{Gam}(x; \beta_1 - \beta_2, \lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \cdot \frac{\text{Gam}(1; \beta_1, \lambda_1)}{\text{Gam}(1; \beta_1 - \beta_2, \lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \cdot \text{Gam}(1; \beta_2, \lambda_2)}$$

Correction factor

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Subtractive updates!

## ■ Probability in Machine Learning

- Probability is not a physical quantity but a mathematical model of uncertainty
- Two different axiomatic justifications of the same math: one for data and one for parameters!

## ■ Probability Theory

- Two key rules of probability theory: (1) Total probability rule and (2) Bayes' rule
- Independence is a concept of probability; it does not require random variables!
- A random variable is a real-valued function of the outcome of the experiment

## ■ Exponential Family Distributions

- Density is proportional to an exponential of a *fixed*  $d$ -dimensional linear mapping of the random variable (*sufficient statistic*) and a (*natural*) *parameter* vector
- Taking products and divisions of densities is an  $\mathcal{O}(d)$  operation!
- Key distributions are categorical, Dirichlet, Gaussian and Gamma distributions

See you next week!