

Mathematical background

Christos Dimitrakakis

February 17, 2023

Outline

Probability background

- Probability facts

- Random variables and expectation

- Conditional probability and inference

Linear algebra

- Vectors

- Linear operators and matrices

Calculus

- Univariate calculus

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Axioms of probability

- ▶ $P(\Omega) = 1$
- ▶ If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.
- ▶ $P(\emptyset) = 0$.

Marginalisation

If A_1, \dots, A_n are a partition of Ω

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

Random variables

A random variable $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a real-value function measurable with respect to the underlying probability measure P

The distribution of f

The probability that f lies in some subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is

$$P_f(A) \triangleq P(\{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \in A\}).$$

Expectation

For any random variable $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the expectation with respect to a probability measure P is

$$\mathbb{E}_P(f) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} f(\omega)P(\omega).$$

Conditional probability

The conditional probability of an event A given an event B is defined as

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

Conditional expectation

The conditional expectation of a random variable $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with respect to a probability measure P conditioned on some event B is simply

$$\mathbb{E}_P(f|B) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} f(\omega)P(\omega|B).$$

The theorem of Bayes

Theorem (Bayes's theorem)

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

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The general case

If A_1, \dots, A_n are a partition of Ω , meaning that they are mutually exclusive events (i.e. $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$) such that one of them must be true (i.e. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \Omega$), then

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

and

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

Independence

Independence

A, B are independent iff $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.

Conditional independence

A, B are conditionally independent given C iff
 $P(A \cap B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$.

Uncorrelated random variables

If $x, y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are two random variables, they are **uncorrelated** under P iff $\mathbb{E}_P[xy] = \mathbb{E}_P[x] \mathbb{E}_P[y]$.

Vector space F axioms

- ▶ $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$, for all $x, y, z \in F$.
- ▶ $x + y = y + x$, for all $x, y \in F$.
- ▶ There is a zero element $0 \in F$ such that $x + 0 = x$ for all $x \in F$.
- ▶ For all $x \in F$, there is an element $-x \in F$ so that $x + (-x) = 0$.
- ▶ $a(x + y) = ax + ay$, For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $x, y \in F$.
- ▶ $(a + b)x = ax + bx$, For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $x \in F$.

The real vector space $F = \mathbb{R}^d$

For $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y \in F$,

- ▶ $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_d)$
- ▶ $x + y = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_d + y_d)$.
- ▶ $ax = (ax_1, \dots, ax_d)$.
- ▶ $-x = (-1)x$.
- ▶ $0 = (0, \dots, 0)$

Linear operators

Linear operator $A : F \rightarrow G$

- ▶ $A(x + y) = Ax + Ay$
- ▶ $A(ax) = a(Ax)$.

Matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is a tabular array $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & \cdots & A_{1,m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n,1} & \cdots & A_{n,m} \end{bmatrix}$

Matrices can be seen as linear operators when used to multiply vectors.

Multiplication operators

Matrix multiplication

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$, the ij -th element of the result of the multiplication AB is

$$(AB)_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^d A_{i,k} B_{k,j}.$$

so that $AB \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

Matrix-vector multiplication

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ defines the following linear operator $A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$Ax = \left(\sum_{j=1}^m A_{i,j} x_j : i = 1, \dots, n \right)$$

All vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are equivalent to matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$.

Matrix inverses

The identity matrix $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

- ▶ For this matrix, $I_{i,i} = 1$ and $I_{i,j} = 0$ when $j \neq i$.
- ▶ $Ix = x$ and $IA = A$.

The inverse of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

A^{-1} is called the inverse of A if

- ▶ $AA^{-1} = I$.
- ▶ or equivalently $A^{-1}A = I$.

The pseudo-inverse of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

- ▶ \tilde{A}^{-1} is called the **left pseudoinverse** of A if $\tilde{A}^{-1}A = I$.
- ▶ \tilde{A}^{-1} is called the **right pseudoinverse** of A if $A\tilde{A}^{-1} = I$.

Derivatives

Derivative

The derivative of a single-argument function is defined as:

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon}.$$

f must be absolutely continuous at x for the derivative to exist.

Directional derivative

Subdifferential

For non-differential functions, we can sometimes define the set of all subderivatives:

$$\partial f(x) = \left[\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x - \epsilon)}{\epsilon}, \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon} \right]$$

Integrals

Riemann integral

The Riemann integral is obtained by taking a horizontal discretisation of a function to the limit:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{t=1}^n f(x_t) \frac{b-a}{n}, \quad x_t = a + (t-1) \cdot \frac{b-a}{n}$$

Lebesgue integral

The Riemann integral is obtained by taking a vertical discretisation of a function to the limit. Let λ be the Lebesgue measure (i.e. area) of a set. Then:

$$\int_X f(x) d\lambda(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{t=1}^n y_t \lambda(S_t),$$

$$S_t = \{x : f(x) \in (y_{t-1}, y_t]\}, \quad y_0 = -\infty, \quad y_n = \sup_x f(x).$$

Fundamental theorem of calculus

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

If $\frac{d}{dx} F = f$ then its integral from a to b is:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a),$$

Multivariate calculus

Multivariate functions $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- ▶ Any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, with $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$.
- ▶ We write $f(x)$ instead of $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

Partial derivative

The partial derivative of f with respect to its i -th argument is:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(x),$$

where we see all x_j with $j \neq i$ as fixed.

Gradient of f

This is the vector of all its partial derivatives:

$$\nabla_x f(x) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(x) \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(x) \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(x) \right)^\top$$