



TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT
BERGAKADEMIE FREIBERG

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Mathematics of machine learning

Appendix: Probability theory

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What is randomness?

Many processes in nature and everyday life are **random**:

- Flipping a coin
- Rolling a dice
- Lifespan of a lamp or electronic device
- Payback of loans by bank customers
- Returns of investmens
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To describe such situations we consider a basic (and abstract) concept:

Random Experiment

A **random experiment** is a well-defined and repeatable experiment with a known set of possible outcomes, but beforehand unknown actual outcome.

Mathematical description of randomness

- The **sample space** Ω is the set of all possible outcomes ω of a random experiment, e.g.,
 - Flipping a coin: $\Omega = \{\text{"heads"}, \text{"tails"}\}$
 - Rolling a die: $\Omega = \{\square, \begin{smallmatrix} \square \\ \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square \\ \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square & \square \\ \square & \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \square & \square & \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \square & \square & \square & \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}\}$
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 - Measuring the lifetime of a device: $\Omega = [0, \infty)$
- An **event** A is a subset possible outcomes $A \subseteq \Omega$. We say the event A **occurs** if the actual outcome of the random experiment belongs to A : $\omega \in A$
 - Rolling a dice: $A = \text{"number of dots is even"} = \{\begin{smallmatrix} \square \\ \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square \\ \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square & \square \\ \square & \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}\}$
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 - Lifetime of a device: $B = \text{"lifetime exceeds 5"} = (5, \infty)$
- Given an event A the **complementary event** A^c is the set of all possible outcomes not belonging A :

$$A^c = \Omega \setminus A = \{\omega \in \Omega: \omega \notin A\}$$

e.g., Rolling a dice: $A = \text{"number of dots is even"} , \quad A^c = \{\square, \begin{smallmatrix} \square \\ \square \end{smallmatrix}, \begin{smallmatrix} \square & \square \\ \square & \square \end{smallmatrix}\}$

Combining events

We use set-theoretic notation to work with combinations of events A , B :

- $A \cup B$: Union of A and B , i.e., A **or** B happens
- $A \cap B$: Intersection of A and B , i.e., A **and** B happens
- $A \subseteq B$: A is a subset of B , i.e., B includes A

Example: Consider rolling a dice as well as the events

$$A = \text{"number of dots is even"} = \{\square, \blacksquare, \boxplus\},$$

$$B = \text{"number of dots greater four"} = \{\boxtimes, \boxplus\}.$$

Then

$$A \cup B = \text{"number of dots is even or greater than four"} = \{\square, \blacksquare, \boxtimes, \boxplus\},$$

$$A \cap B = \text{"number of dots is even and greater than four"} = \{\boxplus\}.$$

Combining multiple events

For an (infinite) sequence A_1, A_2, \dots of events of a sample space Ω we define

- their **union** $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ as the event which consists of all outcomes that are in A_n for at least one value of $n = 1, 2, \dots$

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Example: If $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $A_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}$, $A_3 = \{3, 4, 5\}$, then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^3 A_n = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^3 A_n = \{3\}.$$

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Meaning:

- **union** $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$: One of the events A_n happens
- **intersection** $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$: All of the events A_n happen

Probability of an event

Axioms of probability

A probability measure \mathbb{P} assigns to each event A of a sample space Ω a real number $\mathbb{P}(A)$ called the probability of the event A such that the following three conditions are satisfied

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Frequentist interpretation: If we repeat a random experiment over and over again, then the proportion of time that event A occurs will converge to the value $\mathbb{P}(A)$.

Arithmetics of probability

- $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A)$
- $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ (impossible event)
- $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$ (monotonicity)
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ (additivity)
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Example: For a fair die we have $\mathbb{P}(\square) = \mathbb{P}(\blacksquare) = \dots = \mathbb{P}(\boxplus) = \frac{1}{6}$. Consider now $A = \text{"number of dots is even"} = \{\square, \boxtimes, \boxplus\}$, $B = \text{"number of dots is greater four"} = \{\boxtimes, \boxplus\}$. Then:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \frac{3}{6} + \frac{2}{6} - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Independence

Two events are called **independent** if and only if

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B).$$

Random variables

- Often we are interested in the outcome of a certain *quantity* related to a random experiment, e.g.,
 - Rolling two dice: “sum of dots”, i.e., with realizations in $\{2, 3, \dots, 12\}$
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- An actual outcome $x = X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$, $\omega \in \Omega$, of a random variable X is called a **realization** of X .

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In general, mixtures of the two may occur (not considered here)

Working with random variables

- In the following we consider probabilities of events related to a random variable X such as

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- **Example:** Rolling two fair dice we consider X as the “sum of dots”. Now here $\omega = [\text{black die with 4 dots}, \text{white die with 6 dots}]$ denotes the outcome of the random experiment with first dice being black (showing 4) and second dice being (showing 6). Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(X = 4) &= \mathbb{P}(\{ [\text{black die with 1 dot}, \text{white die with 3 dots}], [\text{black die with 2 dots}, \text{white die with 2 dots}], [\text{black die with 3 dots}, \text{white die with 1 dot}] \}) \\ &= \mathbb{P}([\text{black die with 1 dot}, \text{white die with 3 dots}]) + \mathbb{P}([\text{black die with 2 dots}, \text{white die with 2 dots}]) + \mathbb{P}([\text{black die with 3 dots}, \text{white die with 1 dot}]) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(\text{black die with 1 dot}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\text{white die with 3 dots}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{black die with 2 dots}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\text{white die with 2 dots}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{black die with 3 dots}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\text{white die with 1 dot}) \\ &= \frac{1}{12}\end{aligned}$$

Can you explain this calculation?

Describing random variables

- **Discrete:** For a discrete random variable X we have the **probability mass function (pmf)**

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$$\mathbb{P}(X \in [a, b]) = \int_a^b f_X(x) \, dx, \quad a \leq b$$

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- **Both:** For any random variable we have the **cumulative distribution function (cdf)**

$$F_X(x) := \mathbb{P}(X \leq x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Describing random variables

- We have for the two cases

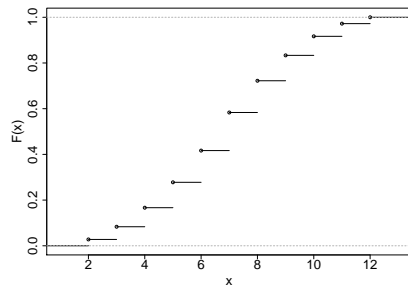
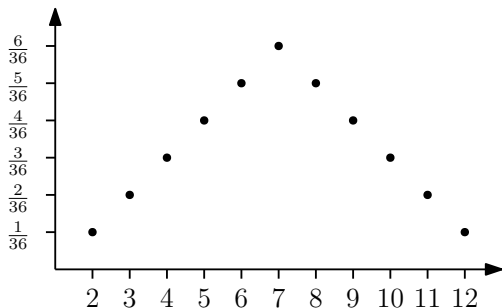
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- **Example:** pmf and cdf for X being the sum of two fair dice:



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- Nonetheless, we are often interested in average characteristics of random variables.
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- The **variance** and **standard deviation** of a random variable describes its “spread around the mean”

$$\mathbb{V}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2], \quad \mathbf{Std}[X] = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}[X]}$$

Calculating with moments

Given real-valued random variables X and Y and $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

- For the **mean**

$$\mathbb{E}[X \pm Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \pm \mathbb{E}[Y], \quad \mathbb{E}[aX] = a\mathbb{E}[X]$$

and for the **variance**

$$\mathbb{V}[X \pm Y] = \mathbb{V}[X] + \mathbb{V}[Y] \pm 2\mathbb{Cov}[X, Y], \quad \mathbb{V}[aX] = a^2\mathbb{V}[X]$$

where $\mathbb{Cov}[X, Y]$ denotes the **covariance of X and Y** (see later)

- Moreover, for functions $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we have for the random variable $g(X)$

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_x g(x) p_X(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) \, dx$$

- For events $A \subseteq \Omega$ we have for the random variable $\mathbf{1}_A$ (indicator function of set A)

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_A].$$

Some common discrete and continuous distributions

Uniform distribution $U[n]$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Models, e.g., rolling a fair dice with n faces.

It is defined by

$$X \sim U[n] \iff \mathbb{P}(X = 1) = \mathbb{P}(X = 2) = \dots = \mathbb{P}(X = n) = \frac{1}{n}$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{n+1}{2}, \quad \mathbb{V}[X] = \frac{n^2-1}{12}.$$

Bernoulli distribution $B(p)$, $0 \leq p \leq 1$

Models binary outcomes of a random experiment, e.g., flipping a coin, surviving an accident or producing flawless components.

It is defined by

$$X \sim B(p) \iff \mathbb{P}(X = 0) = 1 - p, \quad \mathbb{P}(X = 1) = p$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = p, \quad \mathbb{V}[X] = p(1 - p).$$

Binomial distribution $\text{Bin}(n, p)$, $0 \leq p \leq 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

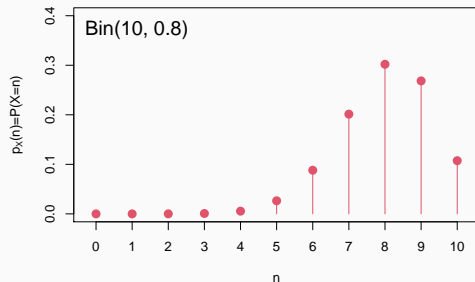
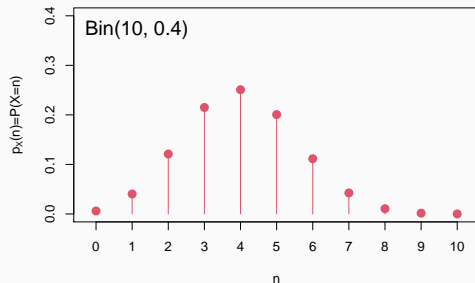
Models the number of successes in a sequence of n independent Bernoulli experiments, each having success probability p .

It is denoted by $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ and defined by

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = np, \quad \mathbb{V}[X] = np(1-p).$$



Uniform distribution $U[a, b]$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Models “pure” randomness within the interval $[a, b]$, i.e., there is no preference which of those values might be the actual outcome.

It is defined by

$$X \sim U[a, b] \iff f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \mathbf{1}_{[a,b]}(x)$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{b+a}{2}, \quad \mathbb{V}[X] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}.$$

Normal or Gaussian distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 > 0$

Models symmetric deviation from mean value. Appears quite often in nature, i.e., measurement errors, logarithm of conductivities, exchange rates or blood pressure.

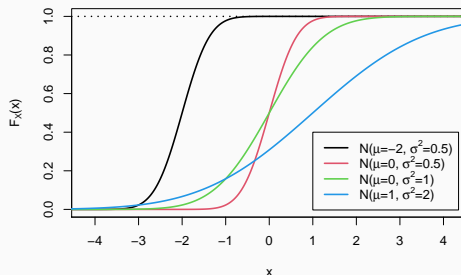
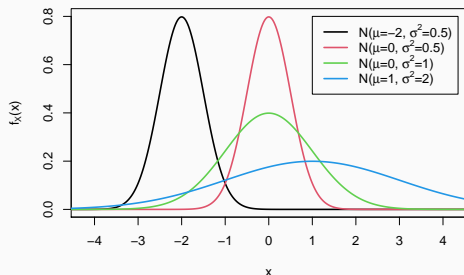
$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) \iff f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu, \quad \mathbb{V}[X] = \sigma^2.$$



Carl F. Gauss
(1777 – 1855)



Multivariate Distributions

- We consider now pairs (X, Y) and, more general, tuples (X_1, \dots, X_n) of random variables.
- For two random variables X and Y we have the **joint cumulative distribution function**

$$F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

- If X and Y are **discrete** we define their **joint probability mass function** by

$$p(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y), \quad F(x, y) = \sum_{s \leq x} \sum_{t \leq y} p(s, t)$$

- If X and Y are **continuous** we define their **joint probability density function** $f: \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ by $f(x, y)$, defined for all $x \in \mathcal{R}$ and $y \in \mathcal{R}$ such that for all real numbers $a_1 \leq b_1$, $a_2 \leq b_2$

$$\mathbb{P}(a_1 \leq X \leq b_1, a_2 \leq Y \leq b_2) = \int_{a_1}^{b_1} \int_{a_2}^{b_2} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx, \quad F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(s, t) \, dt \, ds$$

Example (Rolling two fair dice)

- We roll two fair dice independently of each other.
- The probability of getting 3 on the red dice and 5 on the black dice is

$$p(3, 5) = \mathbb{P}(X = 3, Y = 5) = \frac{1}{36}.$$

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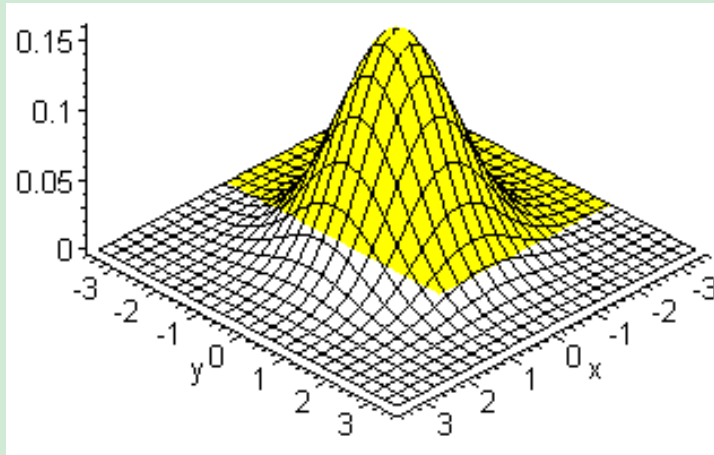
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$$p(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{36} & \text{for } x = 1, 2, \dots, 6 \\ & \text{and } y = 1, 2, \dots, 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example (Joint density function)

The probability of simultaneously $-4 < X \leq 1$ and $-4 < Y \leq 2$ is the yellow **volume** under the joint density.



- Describe the randomness of X or Y given a joint distribution of (X, Y)
- **Discrete:** The **marginal mass function** of X is given by:

$$p_X(x) = \mathbb{P}\{X = x\} = \sum_y p(x, y)$$

- **Continuous:** The **marginal density function** of X is given by:

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \, dy$$

- **Both:** The **marginal distribution function** of X is given by:

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x), \quad F_X(x) = F(x, \infty)$$

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- When rolling a fair dice twice the sample space is $\Omega = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (6, 5), (6, 6)\}$.
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- There are now 6 equally likely allowed outcomes: $(4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4), (4, 5), (4, 6)$.
- Only one of them, $(4, 2)$ gives a sum equal to **6**. Thus, the answer is $\frac{1}{6}$.
- This is different from the unconditional probability of getting a sum of 6 which is $\frac{5}{36}$!

Definition

Let A and B be two events in a sample space Ω with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$. The **conditional probability** of A given B is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}. \quad (1)$$

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$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$$

or, equivalently,

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B) \quad (2)$$

Otherwise, A and B are called **dependent**.

Important theorems

Let $\Omega = \bigcup_k B_k$ with pairwise exclusive B_k . Then

$$A = (A \cap B_1) \cup (A \cap B_2) \cup \dots \cup (A \cap B_k).$$

Law of total probability

Given A and B_1, \dots, B_k as above we have

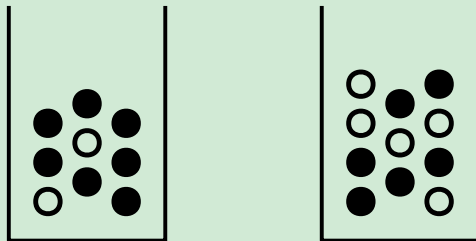
$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_1) \mathbb{P}(B_1) + \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_2) \mathbb{P}(B_2) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(A \mid B_k) \mathbb{P}(B_k).$$

Bayes' rule

For any two events A, B of the sample space Ω with $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$ we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \mid A) \mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

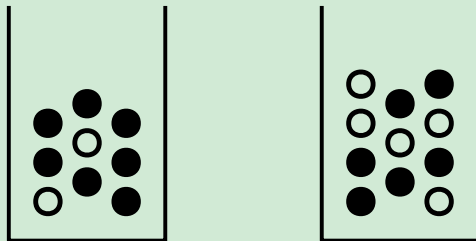
Example



We flip a fair coin.

- head: we draw ball from left urn
- tail: we draw ball from right urn

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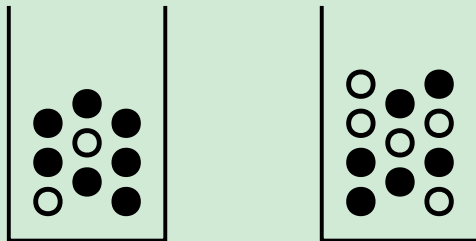


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$$\text{Answer: } \frac{\frac{2}{67}}{\frac{1}{198}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{22}{67}$$

Independent random variables

We generalize the concept of independent events to random variables:

Definition

The random variables X and Y are **independent** if the following equivalent conditions hold for all x and y

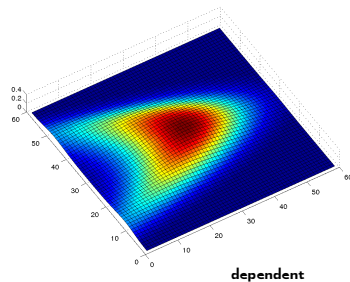
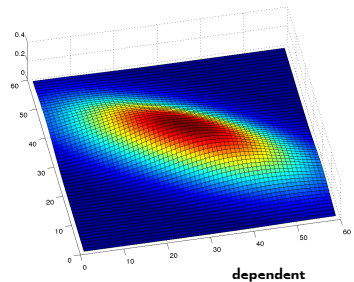
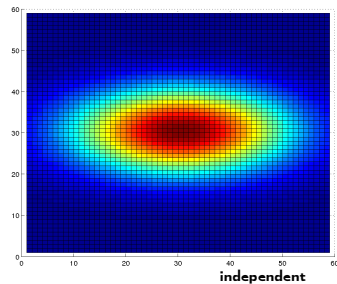
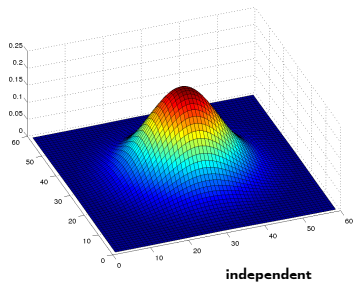
- $\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y).$
- The joint distribution function of X and Y is **separable**

$$F(x, y) = F_X(x) F_Y(y).$$

- The probability mass/density functions is **separable**

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y).$$

Example



Conditional mass and density function

Definition

For two random variables X and Y with joint probability mass / density function $f(x, y)$ the **conditional probability mass / density function** of X given $Y = y$, is defined for all values of Y with $f_Y(y) > 0$, by

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

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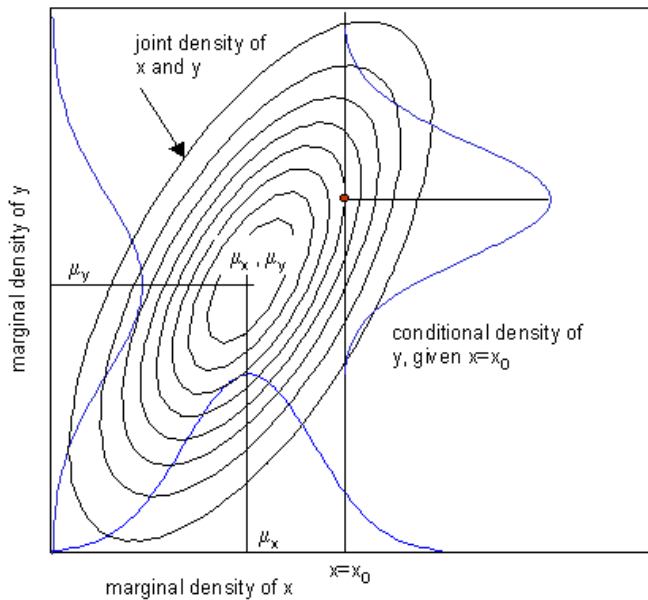
$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

- In general:

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) \neq f_{X|Y}(x|y)$$

- If X and Y are **independent**, conditioning has no effect:

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_Y(y), \quad f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f_X(x).$$



What is the average value we can expect for X , when $Y = y$?

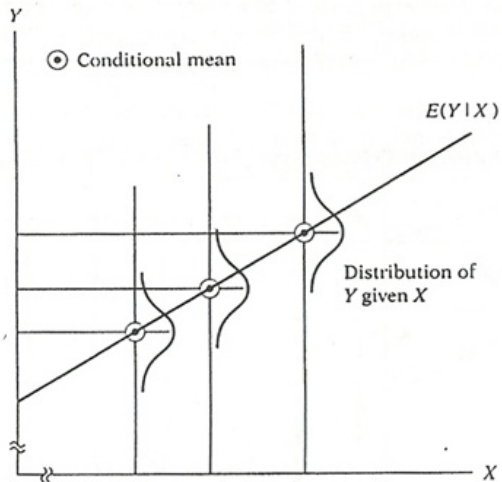
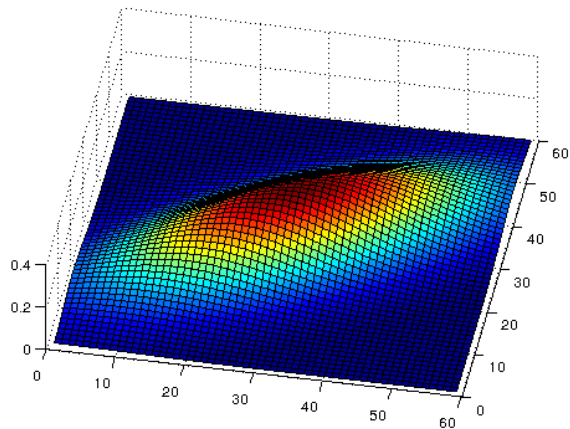
Definition

The **conditional expectation** of X , given that $Y = y$, is defined for all values of Y , such that $f_Y(y) > 0$, by

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] = \sum_x x f_{X|Y}(x|y) \quad (\text{discrete})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) \, dx \quad (\text{continuous})$$

- It is also called **conditional mean**.
- The properties of $\mathbb{E}[X]$ also hold for $\mathbb{E}[X | Y = y]$ w.r.t. X .



- Taking the conditional expectation of $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ for some x .
- This is not always a line!