

Random Variables

↳ Discrete - PMF, CMF (Σ)
↳ Continuous - PDF, CDF (\int)

- A Random Variable is a Numerical quantity that results from a random phenomenon.

Discrete R.V PMF

$$P(X=n) : P_X(n)$$

CMF

Continuous R.V PDF

$$F(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f_x(n) dn$$

CDF

In machine learning, R.V is often used

- to model uncertainty in predictions
- Hypothesis testing
- Regression analysis

↳ Statistical process for estimating

the relationships between dependant and independent variables

Multivariate Probability Distributions

- Describing the probability Outcomes for multiple random variables

$$P(y_1, y_2) = P(y_1 = y_1, y_2 = y_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} -\infty < y_1 < \infty \\ -\infty < y_2 < \infty \end{aligned}$$

Joint Probability description

- Describes the probability of each combination of outcomes of multiple random variable.

Marginal Probability Distribution

- The probability distribution of a subset of the random variable.

$$P(x_1) = \int p(x_1, x_2) dx_2$$

Common Multivariate distributions

→ Multivariate normal distribution

(Generalization of normal distribution)

→ Multinomial distribution

(Generalization of binomial distribution)

$$F(u, v) = P(U \leq u, V \leq v)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^u \int_{-\infty}^v f(t_1, t_2) dt_2 \cdot dt_1$$

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Common features multivariate distributions.

→ Correlation

→ Independence $P(x_1, x_2) = P(x_1)P(x_2)$

Example Usages of Multivariate distributions

→ ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)

• Statistical Method used to test differences between two / more means.

• If the between-group variance is high and within-group variance is low, this provides evidence that the means of the groups are significantly different.

Conditional Probability

-Probability of an event happening given that another event has already happened.

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

Joint PDF

$$f(u|v) = \frac{f_{uv}(u,v)}{f_v(v)}$$

Marginal PDF

$$f_v(v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{uv}(u,v) f_u$$

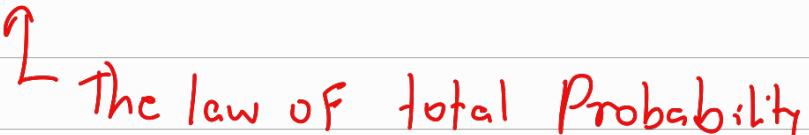
Important Rules of Probability

$$P(X=n_i) = \sum_j P(X=n_i, Y=y_j) \leftarrow \text{Sum rule}$$



$$P(X=n_i, Y=y_j) = P(Y=y_j | X=n_i) P(X=n_i) \leftarrow \text{Product rule}$$

$$P(X=n_i) = \sum_j (X=n_i | Y=y_j) \cdot P(Y=y_j)$$


The law of total Probability

Bayes Theorem

→ Allows to invert the conditional probability

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

Frequentist View

- Probabilities are defined as the long-run relative frequency of an event occurring after many repetitions of an experiment.
- Model parameters are Fixed but Unknown values.
- Inferencing will estimate these fixed params.
- focuses on estimating parameters or testing hypothesis without incorporating prior beliefs.
- Confidence interval and P-values are central concept.
- There will be only one-true value for a given parameter; but this value will change with the sampling distribution.
- These lead us to uncertainty in parameters

↳ Subjective Probabilistic Interpretation

Bayesian View

- Interpreted as a degree of belief about an event based on current knowledge or evidence.
- Model parameters are considered random variables with probability distributions that reflect our uncertainty about the true values
- Inference involves updating a prior-belief (prior-distribution) using observed data to form a posterior distribution.
 - Uncertainty about the parameter is directly modeled through the posterior distribution. Combining prior belief and evidence from data.

Subjective probability

- Contains no formal calculations
- Derived from an individual's personal judgement about whether a specific outcome is likely to occur.

Bayesian Inference

→ A method in statistics and Machine learning that applies Bayes' theorem to update the probability estimate for a hypothesis as new evidence or data available. (Rather than providing a single estimate, giving a probability distribution over all possible values)

$$P(\theta|n) = \frac{P(n|\theta) \cdot P(\theta)}{P(n)}$$

Likelihood

\downarrow

Posterior

Prior

\uparrow

Evidence

Prior $[P(\theta)]$

→ Belief about the parameter θ before we see the data.

Likelihood $[P(n|\theta)]$

describes how likely it is to observe the data for given params.

→ How well the parameter θ explains the observed data.

Posterior $[P(\theta|n)]$

→ Updated belief about the parameter θ after taking into account the observed X

Posterior \propto Likelihood \times Prior.

Evidence $P(n)$

→ A normalizing factor that ensures the posterior is a proper distribution function

→ Marginal likelihood function

$$P(n) = \int p(n|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta$$

More insights on likelihood.

→ How likely it is to observe the given data assuming a particular model and its parameters are correct.

→ "Given that this event has occurred, how likely is it that a particular parameter value caused it"

$$L(\theta|D) = P(D|\theta)$$

→ Likelihood will be a function of parameter.

→ evaluates how well different parameters explain observed data

Minimum Likelihood Estimator

→ Parameter values that maximize the likelihood of the observed data.

$$\hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} P(D|\theta)$$

Maximum A posteriori Estimator

→ Seeks to find the parameter value that best explains the observed data by incorporating prior beliefs or knowledge about the parameters.

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} P(\theta|D)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} P(D|\theta) P(\theta)$$

→ As the data size increases, MAP converges to MLE (IF prior is weak)
check?

4. Example: Coin Toss Problem

Let's say we want to estimate the probability of heads p in a biased coin. We observe 8 heads out of 10 tosses.

Step 1: Choose a Prior

Assume a **Beta prior distribution** for p :

$$P(p) = \text{Beta}(2, 2)$$

This represents a weak belief that the coin is fair (since the Beta(2,2) is symmetric and centered at 0.5).

Step 2: Likelihood Function

Given the observed data (8 heads in 10 tosses), the likelihood follows a binomial distribution:

$$P(X | p) = \binom{10}{8} p^8 (1-p)^2$$

Step 3: Posterior Distribution

The posterior distribution combines the prior and likelihood:

$$P(p | X) \propto P(X | p) \cdot P(p)$$

This gives a new **Beta distribution** as the posterior:

$$P(p | X) = \text{Beta}(10, 4)$$

This posterior reflects our updated belief about p , suggesting a higher probability of heads based on the data.

Step 4: Inference from the Posterior

From the posterior distribution Beta(10, 4), we can:

- Calculate the **mean** of p (expected value) as:

$$\mathbb{E}[p] = \frac{10}{10+4} = 0.71$$

So, the expected probability of heads is around 0.71.

- Find a **credible interval** for p , say the 95% interval. This tells us that with 95% confidence, p lies within a certain range.