Some Essentials of Probability for **Probabilistic Machine Learning**

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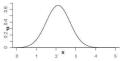
Probabilistic Machine Learning (CS772A)

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Random Variables

- A random variable (r.v.) X denotes possible outcomes of an event
- Can be discrete (i.e., finite many possible outcomes) or continuous





- Some examples of discrete r.v.
 - ullet A random variable $X \in \{0,1\}$ denoting outcomes of a coin-toss
 - ullet A random variable $X \in \{1,2,\ldots,6\}$ denoteing outcome of a dice roll
- Some examples of continuous r.v.
 - ullet A random variable $X\in (0,1)$ denoting the bias of a coin
 - A random variable X denoting heights of students in CS772
 - ullet A random variable X denoting time to get to your hall from the department
- An r.v. is associated with a probability mass function or prob. distribution

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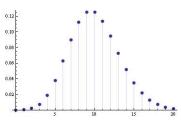
Discrete Random Variables

- For a discrete r.v. X, p(x) denotes the probability that p(X = x)
- p(x) is called the probability mass function (PMF)

$$p(x) \geq 0$$

$$p(x) \leq 1$$

$$\sum_{x} p(x) = 1$$



Picture courtesy: johndcook.com

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Continuous Random Variables

- For a continuous r.v. X, a probability p(X = x) is meaningless
- Instead we use p(x) to denote the probability density function (PDF)

$$p(x) \ge 0$$
 and $\int_{x} p(x) dx = 1$

• Probability that a cont. r.v. $X \in (x, x + \delta x)$ is $p(x)\delta x$ as $\delta x \to 0$



• Probability that X lies between $(-\infty, z)$ is given by the **cumulative** distribution function (CDF) P(z) where

$$P(z) = p(X \le z) = \int_{-\infty}^{z} p(x)dx$$
 and $p(x) = |P'(z)|_{z=x}$

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A word about notation...

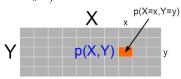
- p(.) can mean different things depending on the context
 - p(X) denotes the PMF/PDF of an r.v. X
 - p(X = x) or p(x) denotes the **probability** or **probability density** at point x
- Actual meaning should be clear from the context (but be careful)
- Exercise the same care when p(.) is a specific distribution (Bernoulli, Beta, Gaussian, etc.)
- The following means drawing a sample from the distribution p(X)

$$x \sim p(X)$$

Joint Probability

Joint probability p(X, Y) models probability of co-occurrence of two r.v. X, YFor discrete r.v., the joint PMF p(X, Y) is like a table (that sums to 1)

$$\sum_{x}\sum_{y}p(X=x,Y=y)=1$$



For continuous r.v., we have joint PDF p(X, Y)

$$\int_{X} \int_{Y} p(X = x, Y = y) dx dy = 1$$

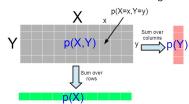
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Marginal Probability

• For discrete r.v.

$$p(X) = \sum_{y} p(X, Y = y), \quad p(Y) = \sum_{x} p(X = x, Y)$$

• For discrete r.v. it is the sum of the PMF table along the rows/columns

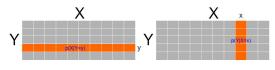


For continuous r.v.

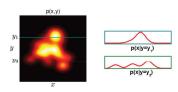
$$p(X) = \int_{Y} p(X, Y = y) dy, \quad p(Y) = \int_{X} p(X = x, Y) dx$$

Conditional Probability

- Meaning: Probability of one event when we know the outcome of the other
- Conditional probability p(X|Y) or p(Y|X): like taking a slice of p(X,Y)
- For a discrete distribution:



- For a continuous distribution¹:



 $^{1}\mathrm{Picture}$ courtesy: Computer vision: models, learning and inference (Simon Price) Probabilistic Machine Learning (CS772A) Some Essentials of Probabilistic Machine Learning

Some Basic Rules

- Sum rule: Gives the marginal probability
 - For discrete r.v.: $p(X) = \sum_{Y} p(X, Y)$
 - For continuous r.v.: $p(X) = \int_Y p(X, Y) dY$
- Product rule: p(X, Y) = p(Y|X)p(X) = p(X|Y)p(Y)
- Bayes rule: Gives conditional probability

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{p(X)}$$

- For discrete r.v.: $p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{\sum_{Y} p(X|Y)p(Y)}$
- For continuous r.v.: $p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{\int_{Y} p(X|Y)p(Y)dY}$
- Bayes rule is also central to parameter estimation (more on this later)
- Also remember the chain rule

$$p(X_1, X_2, ..., X_N) = p(X_1)p(X_2|X_1)...p(X_N|X_1, ..., X_{N-1})$$

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Independence

• X and Y are independent $(X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y)$ when one tells nothing about the other

$$p(X|Y) = p(X)$$

$$p(Y|X) = p(Y)$$

$$p(X,Y) = p(X)p(Y)$$



- $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$ is also called marginal independence
- Conditional independence $(X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y|Z)$: independence when another event Z is observed

$$p(X, Y|Z) = p(X|Z)p(Y|Z)$$

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Expectation

• Expectation or mean μ of an r.v. with PMF/PDF p(X)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\substack{x \\ x}} xp(x) \qquad \text{(for discrete distributions)}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{X} xp(x)dx \qquad \text{(for continuous distributions)}$$

- Note: The definition applies to functions of r.v. too (e.g., $\mathbb{E}[f(x)]$)
- Linearity of expectation (very important/useful property)

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[f(x)] + \beta \mathbb{E}[g(x)]$$

Variance and Covariance

• Variance σ^2 (or "spread" around mean) of an r.v. with PMF/PDF p(X)

$$\operatorname{var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2$$

- Standard deviation: $std[X] = \sqrt{var[X]} = \sigma$
- Note: The definition applies to functions of r.v. too (e.g., var[f(X)])
- For r.v. x and y, the **covariance** is defined by

$$\mathsf{cov}[x,y] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathsf{x},y}\left[\{x - \mathbb{E}[x]\}\{y - \mathbb{E}[y]\}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathsf{x},y}[xy] - \mathbb{E}[x]\mathbb{E}[y]$$

• For vector r.v. x and y, the covariance matrix is defined as

$$\mathsf{cov}[x,y] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}}\left[\{x - \mathbb{E}[x]\}\{y^{\mathsf{T}} - \mathbb{E}[y^{\mathsf{T}}]\}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}}[xy^{\mathsf{T}}] - \mathbb{E}[x]\mathbb{E}[y^{\mathsf{T}}]$$

• Cov. of components of a vector r.v. x with each other: cov[x] = cov[x, x]

Transformation of Random Variables

Suppose y = f(x) = Ax + b be a linear function of an r.v. xSuppose $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$ and $\mathsf{cov}[x] = \mathbf{\Sigma}$

Expectation of y

$$\mathbb{E}[y] = \mathbb{E}[Ax + b] = A\mu + b$$

• Covariance of y

$$cov[y] = cov[Ax + b] = A\Sigma A^T$$

Likewise if $y = f(x) = a^T x + b$ is a scalar-valued linear function of an r.v. x:

$$\bullet \ \mathbb{E}[y] = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x} + b] = \boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} + b$$

•
$$var[y] = var[a^T x + b] = a^T \Sigma a$$

Common Probability Distributions

Important: We will use these extensively to model data as well as parameters Some discrete distributions and what they can model:

- Bernoulli: Binary numbers, e.g., outcome (head/tail, 0/1) of a coin toss
- ullet Binomial: Bounded non-negative integers, e.g., # of heads in n coin tosses
- Multinomial: One of K (>2) possibilities, e.g., outcome of a dice roll
- Poisson: Non-negative integers, e.g., # of words in a document
- .. and many others

Some continuous distributions and what they can model:

- Uniform: numbers defined over a fixed range
- Beta: numbers between 0 and 1, e.g., probability of head for a biased coin
- Gamma: Positive unbounded real numbers
- Dirichlet: vectors that sum of 1 (fraction of data points in different clusters)
- Gaussian: real-valued numbers or real-valued vectors
- .. and many others

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Discrete Distributions

Bernoulli Distribution

- Distribution over a binary r.v. $x \in \{0,1\}$, like a coin-toss outcome
- Defined by a probability parameter $p \in (0,1)$

$$P(x=1)=p$$

• Distribution defined as: Bernoulli(x; p) = $p^x(1-p)^{1-x}$



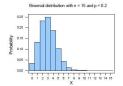
• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x] = p$

• Variance: var[x] = p(1-p)

Binomial Distribution

- Distribution over number of successes m (an r.v.) in a number of trials
- Defined by two parameters: total number of trials (N) and probability of each success $p \in (0,1)$
- Can think of Binomial as multiple independent Bernoulli trials
- Distribution defined as

Binomial(m; N, p) = $\binom{N}{m} p^m (1-p)^{N-m}$



• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[m] = Np$

• Variance: var[m] = Np(1-p)

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Multinoulli Distribution

- Also known as the categorical distribution (models categorical variables)
- Think of a random assignment of an item to one of K bins a K dim. binary r.v. x with single 1 (i.e., $\sum_{k=1}^{K} x_k = 1$): Modeled by a multinoulli

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{length} = \mathcal{K}}$$

- Let vector $\boldsymbol{p} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K]$ define the probability of going to each bin
 - $p_k \in (0,1)$ is the probability that $x_k = 1$ (assigned to bin k)
 - $\sum_{k=1}^{K} p_k = 1$
- The multinoulli is defined as: Multinoulli(x; p) = $\prod_{k=1}^{K} p_k^{x_k}$
- Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x_k] = p_k$
- Variance: $var[x_k] = p_k(1 p_k)$

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Multinomial Distribution

- Think of repeating the Multinoulli N times

• Like distributing
$$N$$
 items to K bins. Suppose x_k is count in bin k
$$0 \le x_k \le N \quad \forall \ k=1,\ldots,K, \qquad \sum_{k=1}^K x_k = N$$

- Assume probability of going to each bin: $\mathbf{p} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K]$
- ullet Multonomial models the bin allocations via a discrete vector ${m x}$ of size ${m K}$

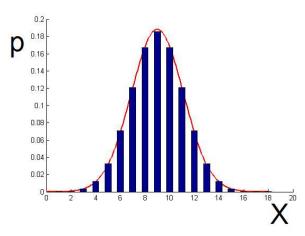
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_{k-1} & x_k & x_{k-1} & \dots & x_K \end{bmatrix}$$

• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x_k] = Np_k$

• Variance: $var[x_k] = Np_k(1 - p_k)$

• Note: For N=1, multinomial is the same as multinoulli

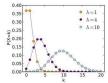
Multinoulli/Multinomial: Pictorially



Poisson Distribution

- Used to model a non-negative integer (count) r.v. k
- Examples: number of words in a document, number of events in a fixed interval of time, etc.
- ullet Defined by a positive rate parameter λ
- Distribution defined as

 $\mathsf{Poisson}(k;\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$



• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[k] = \lambda$ • Variance: $var[k] = \lambda$

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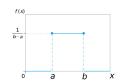
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Continuous Distributions

Uniform Distribution

• Models a continuous r.v. x distributed uniformly over a finite interval [a, b]

$$\mathsf{Uniform}(x;a,b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

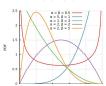


- Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x] = \frac{(b+a)}{2}$
- Variance: $var[x] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$

Beta Distribution

- ullet Used to model an r.v. p between 0 and 1 (e.g., a probability)
- ullet Defined by two **shape parameters** lpha and eta

$$\mathsf{Beta}(\rho;\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} p^{\alpha-1} (1-\rho)^{\beta-1}$$



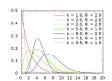
- Mean: $\mathbb{E}[p] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$
- Variance: $var[p] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$
- Often used to model the probability parameter of a Bernoulli or Binomial (also conjugate to these distributions)

Gamma Distribution

Used to model positive real-valued r.v. x

ullet Defined by a **shape parameters** k and a **scale parameter** heta

$$\mathsf{Gamma}(x; k, \theta) = \frac{x^{k-1}e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}}{\theta^k \Gamma(k)}$$



• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x] = k\theta$

• Variance: $var[x] = k\theta^2$

• Often used to model the rate parameter of Poisson or exponential distribution, or to model the inverse variance of a Gaussian

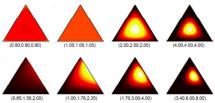
Note: There is another equivalent parameterization of gamma in terms of shape and rate parameters | 4 | 3 | > | 4 | 3 | > |

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Dirichlet Distribution

- For ${m p}=[p_1,p_2,\ldots,p_K]$ drawn from Dirichlet $(lpha_1,lpha_2,\ldots,lpha_K)$
 - ullet Mean: $\mathbb{E}[p_k] = rac{lpha_k}{\sum_{k=1}^K lpha_k}$
 - Variance: $var[p_k] = \frac{\alpha_k(\alpha_0 \alpha_k)}{\alpha_0^2(\alpha_0 + 1)}$ where $\alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$
- Note: \boldsymbol{p} is a point on (K-1)-simplex
- Note: $\alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$ controls how peaked the distribution is
- Note: α_k 's control where the peak(s) occur

Plot of a 3 dim. Dirichlet (2 dim. simplex) for various values of α :



Dirichlet Distribution

ullet Used to model non-negative r.v. vectors $oldsymbol{p} = [p_1, \dots, p_K]$ that sum to 1

$$0 \le \rho_k \le 1, \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, K \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^K \rho_k = 1$$

- ullet Equivalent to a distribution over the K-1 dimensional simplex
- Defined by a K size vector $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K]$ of positive reals
- Distribution defined as

Dirichlet(
$$\boldsymbol{p}; \alpha$$
) = $\frac{\Gamma(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} \Gamma(\alpha_k)} \prod_{k=1}^{K} p_k^{\alpha_k - 1}$

- Often used to model parameters of Multinoulli/Multinomial
- Dirichlet is conjugate to Multinoulli/Multinomial
- Note: Dirichlet can be seen as a generalization of the Beta distribution. Normalizing a bunch of Gamma r.v.'s gives an r.v. that is Dirichlet distributed.

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Now comes the Gaussian (Normal) distribution..

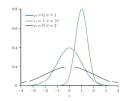
Univariate Gaussian Distribution

• Distribution over real-valued scalar r.v. x

ullet Defined by a scalar **mean** μ and a scalar **variance** σ^2

• Distribution defined as

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



• Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$

• Variance: $var[x] = \sigma^2$

• Precision (inverse variance) $\beta = 1/\sigma^2$

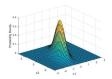
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Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

ullet Distribution over a multivariate r.v. vector $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ of real numbers

ullet Defined by a mean vector $oldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and a D imes D covariance matrix $oldsymbol{\Sigma}$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}$$



ullet The covariance matrix $oldsymbol{\Sigma}$ must be symmetric and positive definite

• All eigenvalues are positive

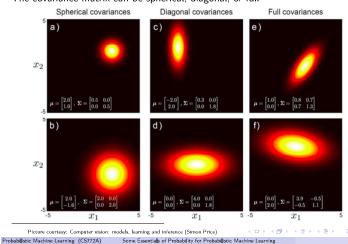
• $z^{\top}\Sigma z > 0$ for any real vector z

• Often we parameterize a multivariate Gaussian using the inverse of the covariance matrix, i.e., the **precision matrix** $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}$

 Q. (*)
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Multivariate Gaussian: The Covariance Matrix

The covariance matrix can be spherical, diagonal, or full



Some nice properties of the Gaussian distribution..

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Multivariate Gaussian: Marginals and Conditionals

• Given jointly Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \Sigma)$ with $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$ with

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma} = egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}, \quad oldsymbol{\Lambda} = egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The marginal distribution is simply
- The conditional distribution $P(x_a) = N(x_a | \mu_a, \Sigma_{aa})$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} p(\mathbf{x}_a|\mathbf{x}_b) & = & \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b},\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1}) \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b} & = & \boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b) \end{array}$$

Thus marginals and conditionals of Gaussians are Gaussians

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Multivariate Gaussian: Marginals and Conditionals

• Given the conditional and marginal of r.v. being conditioned on

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1})$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$

• Marginal and "reverse" conditional are given by

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{\Sigma}\{\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}\}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$$

where
$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{A})^{-1}$$

• Very useful property for probabilistic models with Gaussian likelihoods and/or priors. Also very handly for computing marginal likelihoods.

Gaussians: Product of Gaussians

• Pointwise multiplication of two Gaussians is another (unnormalized) Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{P}) = \frac{1}{Z} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{T}),$$

$$\mathbf{T} = (\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} + \mathbf{P}^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{P}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\nu})$$

$$Z^{-1} = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{\nu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} + \mathbf{P}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\nu}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} + \mathbf{P})$$

Multivariate Gaussian: Affine Transforms

ullet Given a $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}. \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

ullet Consider an affiline transform of $oldsymbol{x}$ into \mathbb{R}^D

$$y = Ax + b$$

where \mathbf{A} is $D \times d$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^D$

ullet $y \in \mathbb{R}^D$ will have a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(oldsymbol{y}; \mathbf{A}oldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}oldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{A}^{ op})$$

Exponential Family

• An exponential family distribution is defined as

$$p(x;\theta) = h(x)e^{\eta(\theta)T(x)-A(\theta)}$$

- \bullet θ is called the parameter of the family
- h(x), $\eta(\theta)$, T(x), and $A(\theta)$ are known functions
- p(.) depends on x only through T(x)
- T(x) is called the **sufficient statistics**: summarizes the entire $p(x; \theta)$
- Exponential family is the only family for which conjugate priors exist (often also in the exponential family)
- Many other nice properties (especially useful in Bayesian inference)

Many well-known distribution (Bernoulli, Binomial, categorical, beta, gamma, Gaussian, etc.) are exponential family distributions

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exponential_family

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Binomial as Exponential Family

• Recall the exponential family distribution

$$p(x; \theta) = h(x)e^{\eta(\theta)T(x)-A(\theta)}$$

• Binomial in the usual form:

Binomial(x; n, p) =
$$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

• Can re-express it as

$$\binom{n}{x}e^{\left(x\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)+n\log(1-p)\right)}$$

- $h(x) = \binom{n}{x}$
- $\eta(\theta) = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$
- T(x) = x
- $A(\theta) = -n\log(1-p)$

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Gaussian as Exponential Family

• Recall the exponential family distribution

$$p(x;\theta) = h(x)e^{\eta(\theta)T(x)-A(\theta)}$$

• Gaussian in the usual form:

$$\mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-rac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- ullet Can re-express it as $p(x; heta)=h(x)e^{\eta(heta)\mathcal{T}(x)-A(heta)}$ where
 - $h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$
 - $\eta(\theta) = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}, -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right)^T$ $T(x) = (x, x^2)^T$

 - $A(\theta) = \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log \sigma$

Conjugate Priors

- Given a distribution $p(x|\theta)$
- We say $p(\theta)$ is conjugate to $p(x|\theta)$ if

$$p(\theta|x) \propto p(x|\theta)p(\theta)$$

has the same form as $p(\theta)$

- Many pairs of distributions are conjugate to each other, e.g.,
 - Gaussian-Gaussian
 - Bernoulli-Beta
 - Poisson-Gamma
 - .. and many others
- More on this in the next class..

Next class: Parameter estimation in probabilistic models