Introduction to statistics Session 1

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Saarland University

October 9, 2012

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Axioms of probability

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- Chain rule and Bayes theorem

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If you are familiar with these, you don't need this course!

Oct 8 - Oct 9
 Basic concepts of Probability and Information theory with Grzegorz Chrupała gchrupala@lsv.uni-saarland.de

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- Oct 18 19
 Linear models: Grzegorz Chrupała

Textbook and topics

- Foundations of Statistical NLP, Manning and Schütze
 - For each of the first three sessions next week everybody reads a section of the book.
 - A group of students will present the material (45-60 min).
 - Follow up with exercises and discussion.

Suggested topics

- Collocations (5)
- Lexical acquisition (8)
- Clustering (14)

Other topic possible (talk to me!)

- Organize yourselves into three groups and agree on topics by tomorrow
- Within each group, coordinate and decide who presents which subsection

Today: Basic concepts in probability theory

- Probability notation P(X|Y)
 - What does this expression mean?
 - How can we manipulate it?
 - How can we estimate its value in practice?

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Another dimension: Frequentist vs Bayesian (philosophical underpinnings)

Consider an experiment or process

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 - Guess a missing word: $|\Omega| = \text{vocabulary size}$

- An event A is a set of basic outcomes. Event A takes place if the outcome of the experiment $\in A$
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 - $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad \Omega = \\ \quad \left\{ HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT \right\} \end{array}$
 - ▶ Event *A*: there were exactly two tails.

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 - Event B: there were three heads.

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 - Event B: there were three heads.
 - \star $B = \{HHH\}$



Events and probability

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- Past performance. Germany won 90% of games with no rain
- Hypothetical performance. If they played the game in many parallel universes
- Subjective strength of belief. Would bet up to 90 cents for a chance to win 1 euro.
- Output of some computable formula

Probability notation

- Given that event B happens, how likely is event A?
- Germany wins the game is a predicate which selects the outcomes that are members of event A

Frequentist probability

- For series i
 - Repeat experiment many times
 - Record how many times event A occured: $count_i(A)$
- The ratios $\frac{\operatorname{count}_i(A)}{T_i}$, where T_i is the number of experiments in series i, are close to some unknown but constant value
- We can call this constant P(A)

Estimating probabilities

- The constant P(A) is unknown, but we can estimate it:
 - From a single series i: $P(A) = \frac{\operatorname{count}_i A}{T_i}$ (the common case)
 - Or take the weighted average of all series i

Example

- Toss three coins.
 - $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad \Omega = \\ \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\} \end{array}$
- A: there were exactly three tails
 - $A = \{HTT, THT, TTH\}$
- Run 1000 times
- Got one of HTT, THT, TTH 386 times out of 1000
- $\hat{P}(A) = 0.386$
- Run several times: 373, 399, 355, 372, 406, 359
- $\hat{P}(A) = 0.379$
- If each outcome in Ω is equally likely P(A) = 3/8 = 0.375

P as a function of sets of outcomes

$$P(\mathsf{Germany\ wins}|\mathsf{no\ rain}) = \frac{P(\mathsf{Germany\ wins},\mathsf{no\ rain})}{P(\mathsf{no\ rain})}$$





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P as a function of sets of outcomes

$$P(A|B) = P(A,B) / P(B)$$
 notation conjunction predicate

•
$$P(\emptyset) =$$

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- $P(\Omega) =$

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- $P(\Omega) = 1$
- $P(A) \leq P(B)$ for any $A \subseteq B$
- $P(A) + P(B) = P(A \cup B)$ provided $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Joint and conditional probability

- Joint probability and the meaning of commas
 - $P(A,B) = P(A \cap B)$
 - ▶ $P(Germany wins, no rain) = P(Germany wins \land no rain)$

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Joint and conditional probability

- Joint probability and the meaning of commas
 - $P(A,B) = P(A \cap B)$
 - ▶ $P(Germany wins, no rain) = P(Germany wins \land no rain)$
- P(A|B) = P(A,B)/P(B)
 - Estimate from counts

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)} \tag{1}$$

$$= \frac{\operatorname{count}(A \cap B)/T}{\operatorname{count}(B)/T} \tag{2}$$

$$= \frac{\operatorname{count}(A \cap B)}{\operatorname{count}(B)} \tag{3}$$

Chain rule

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

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Chain rule

•
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)}$$

- Therefore P(A,B) = P(A|B)P(B)
- Generalization:

$$P(A_1, A_2, ..., A_n)$$

$$= P(A_1 | A_2, ..., A_n) P(A_2, ..., A_n)$$

$$= P(A_1 | A_2, ..., A_n) P(A_2 | A_3, ..., A_n) P(A_3, ..., A_n)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i | A_{i+1}, ..., A_n)$$

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Independence

• Two events A and B are **independent** if P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)

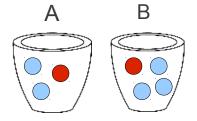
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- Two events A and B are **independent** if P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)
- For independent A, B, does P(A|B) = P(A) hold?

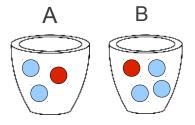
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- Two events A and B are **independent** if P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)
- For independent A, B, does P(A|B) = P(A) hold?
- A and B are conditionally independent if P(A, B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)

There are two urns:



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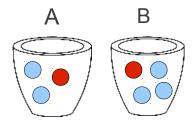
 Suppose we pick an urn uniformly at random and then select a random ball from that urn. What is probability that you pick urn A, and take a blue ball from it?

Marginal probability

- Given $P(A, B_i)$ for disjoint events B_i , find out P(A).
- Use last axiom

$$P(A) = P((A \cap B_1) \cup (A \cap B_2) \cup \cdots \cup (A \cap B_n))$$

= $P(A \cap B_1) + P(A \cap B_2) + \cdots + P(A \cap B_n)$
= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A \cap B_i)$



• Given the same ball-picking procedure as before, what is the probability of picking the blue ball?

- P(A,B) = P(B,A) since $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- P(B, A) = P(B|A)P(A)



- P(A,B) = P(B,A) since $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- P(B, A) = P(B|A)P(A)

Therefore

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

If we are interested in comparing the probability of events A_1, A_2, \ldots given B, we can ignore P(B) since it's the same for all A_i

$$\underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(A_i|B) = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{P(B)}$$
$$= \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

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This idea is sometimes expressed as

$$P(A|B) \propto P(B|A)P(A)$$

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Example

Suppose we are interested in a test to detect a disease which affects one in 100,000 people on average. A lab has developed a test which works but is not perfect.

- If a person has the disease it will give a positive result with probability 0.97
- if they do not, the test will be positive with probability 0.007.

You took the test, and it gave a positive result. What is the probability that you actually have the disease?

Credits

Some material adapted from:

- Foundations of Statistical NLP
- Intro to NLP slides by Jan Hajic
- How to use probabilities slides by Jason Eisner