Introduction to Statistics Session 2

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Outline



2 Discrete probability distributions

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- Function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$ (typically n = 1)
- It may be more convenient to work with real number than directly with events

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- \bullet Sum of two dice throws: $\{1..6\}^2 \rightarrow \{2..12\}$

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- It may be more convenient to work with real number than directly with events
- Coin toss: $X : \{H, T\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
- Sum of two dice throws: $\{1..6\}^2 \rightarrow \{2..12\}$
- Probability mass function:

$$\operatorname{p}(x) = \operatorname{P}(X = x) = \operatorname{P}(A)$$
 where $A = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}$

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• Expectation is a mean (weighted average) of a random variable

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• Example: rolling a dice:

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$$E(XY) = E(X)E(Y_{1}) \rightarrow A = A$$

Chrupala (Saarland)

Variance

• Variance measures how much values of a random variable vary

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2]$$

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- $\bullet\,$ Standard deviation σ is the square root of the variance
- What is the variance of a random variable describing a single throw of a dice?



• Entropy is a measure of degree of uncertainty.

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$$H(X) = H(p) = E(-\log_2(p(x))) = -\sum_x p(x) \log_2(p(x))$$

• For $\log_2(x)$ units are bits, for $\ln(x)$, nats

Entropy as amount of information

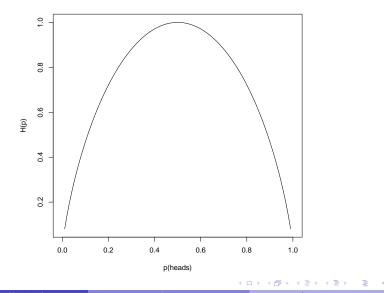
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- Fair coin toss:

Entropy as amount of information

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- Fair coin toss:

$$H(X) = -\sum_{x=0}^{1} p(x) \log_2(p(x))$$
(1)
= $\frac{1}{2} [-\log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \log_2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)]$ (2)
= $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2$ (3)

Entropy of an unfair coin



Properties of entropy

H(*p*) ≥ 0

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Properties of entropy

- *H*(*p*) ≥ 0
- When is entropy H(p) = 0?

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Properties of entropy

- *H*(*p*) ≥ 0
- When is entropy H(p) = 0?
- The highest entropy corresponds to the most uniform distribution

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Entropy: joint and conditional

• For two variables X and Y, the amount of information needed to specify values of both

$$H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x}\sum_{y} p(x,y) \log_2(p(x,y))$$

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$$H(Y|X) = \sum_{x} p(x)H(Y|X=x)$$
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$$= \sum_{x} p(x) \left[-\sum_{y} p(y|x) \log(p(y|x)) \right]$$
(5)

$$= -\sum_{x}\sum_{y} p(y|x)p(x)\log(p(y|x))$$
(6)

$$= -\sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log(p(y|x))$$
(7)

Conditional entropy: example

- Experiment: a toss of two fair coins
- X: how many heads?
- Y: is there at least one heads?

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HH	2	1
ΗT	1	1
TT	0	0
ΤH	1	1

What is H(X)? What is H(X|Y)?

Chain rule for entropy

$$H(X, Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y)$$

$$H(X_1, ..., X_n) = H(X_1) + H(X_2|X_1) + \dots + H(X_n|X_1, ..., X_{n-1})$$

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Mutual information

• From the chain rule we have

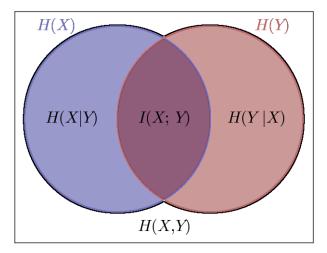
$$H(X) + H(Y|X) = H(Y) + H(X|Y)$$

Therefore

$$H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X)$$

- This difference is known as Mutual information I(X; Y)
- It measures how much knowing one of the variables reduces uncertainty about the other.

Joint and conditional entropy and mutual information



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Mutual information

$$I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

= $H(X) + H(Y) + H(X, Y)$
...
= $\sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x, y) \log \left(\frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)}\right)$

.

• What is
$$H(X|X)$$
?

• What is I(X; X)?

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Kullback Leibler divergence

• A measure of the difference between two probability mass functions p and q is Kullback Leibler divergence (relative entropy)

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x} \mathrm{p}(x) \log\left(rac{\mathrm{p}(x)}{\mathrm{q}(x)}
ight)$$

- $\bullet\,$ Can be interpreted as an average number of bits wasted by encoding events distributed according to p with a code based on q
- We can define mutual information in terms of KL divergence:

$$I(X; Y) = D(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y))$$

Outline





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Bernoulli distribution

- The most basic discrete probability distribution
- Describes the outcome of a single Bernoulli trial
- A Bernoulli trial is an experiment whose outcome is random and can be either of two possible outcomes, success and failure

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- For example, a single toss of a (possibly biased) coin

Bernoulli
$$(k; p) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } k = 1\\ 1-p & \text{if } k = 0 \end{cases}$$

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 for $k \in \{1, 0\}$

• What is the expectation of random variable distributed according to Bernoulli?

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• One of the most important discrete probability distributions

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

where

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}, \ 0 \le r \le n$$

- Binomial(r, n; p) describes the probability of getting exactly r successes in n trials if the probability of success in an individual trial is p
- $\binom{n}{r}$ is the number of different orders in which we can get r successes in n trials
- Each attempt is independent, so we multiply p r times (successes) and (1 - p), n - r times (failures)
- What is the probability of getting **at most** *r* successes?

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$$\sum_{k=0}^{r} \binom{n}{k} p^{k} (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Binomial test example

- We have made an improvement to our POS tagging model.
- We run the old model and the new model on test sentences.
- The accuracy of the new model is better, but
 - Is it because the system is better? If we repeated the experiment on many other test sentences, would be also get improved accuracy?
 - Or maybe we got an improvement by chance

Null hypothesis

- Use binomial distribution to answer this question
- Focus on the tokens (words) where one of the models makes a mistake and the other gets the right answer
- There are 10 such cases. In 7 cases the new system is better.
- Assume that the new system is actually no better, and that the chance of it being better on any one word is pure chance, 0.5. This is the null hypothesis.
 - ► How likely are we to get **at least** 7 out of 10 better, given the null hypothesis?
 - How about 60 out of 100? 550 out of 1000?

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 - In R: pbinom(7, 10, prob=0.5)
- Two-tailed test:
 - Actually we should consider both getting at least 7 out of 10 or at most 3 out of 10

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