## Probabilities and Data

## Digging into Data: Jordan Boyd-Graber

University of Maryland

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COLLEGE OF INFORMATION STUDIES
Slides adapted from Dave Blei and Lauren Hannah

## Roadmap

- What are probabilities
- Discrete
- Continuous
- How to manipulate probabilities
- Properties of probabilities


## Preface: Why make us do this?

- Probabilities are the language we use to describe data
- A reasonable (but geeky) definition of data science is how to get probabilities we care about from data
- Later classes will be about how to do this for different probability models and different types of data
- But first, we need key definitions of probability


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- But first, we need key definitions of probability
- So pay attention!
- Also, ya'll need to get your environments set up


## Outline

(1) Properties of Probability Distributions
(2) Working with probability distributions
(3) Combining Probability Distributions

4 Continuous Distributions
(5) Expectation and Entropy

## Random variable

- Probability is about random variables.
- A random variable is any "probabilistic" outcome.
- For example,
- The flip of a coin
- The height of someone chosen randomly from a population
- We'll see that it's sometimes useful to think of quantities that are not strictly probabilistic as random variables.
- The temperature on 11/12/2013
- The temperature on 03/04/1905
- The number of times "streetlight" appears in a document


## Random variable

- Random variables take on values in a sample space.
- They can be discrete or continuous:
- Coin flip: $\{H, T\}$
- Height: positive real values $(0, \infty)$
- Temperature: real values $(-\infty, \infty)$
- Number of words in a document: Positive integers $\{1,2, \ldots\}$
- We call the outcomes events.
- Denote the random variable with a capital letter; denote a realization of the random variable with a lower case letter.
- E.g., $X$ is a coin flip, $x$ is the value ( $H$ or $T$ ) of that coin flip.


## Discrete distribution

- A discrete distribution assigns a probability to every event in the sample space
- For example, if $X$ is an (unfair) coin, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(X=H)=0.7 \\
& P(X=T)=0.3
\end{aligned}
$$

- And probabilities have to be greater than 0
- Probabilities of disjunctions are sums over part of the space. E.g., the probability that a die is bigger than 3 :

$$
P(D>3)=P(D=4)+P(D=5)+P(D=6)
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- The probabilities over the entire space must sum to one


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## Events

An event is a set of outcomes to which a probability is assigned

- drawing a black card from a deck of cards
- drawing a King of Hearts

Intersections and unions:

- Intersection: drawing a red and a King

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\begin{equation*}
P(A \cap B) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Union: drawing a spade or a King

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P(A \cup B)=P(A)+P(B)-P(A \cap B) \tag{2}
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## Joint distribution

- Typically, we consider collections of random variables.
- The joint distribution is a distribution over the configuration of all the random variables in the ensemble.
- For example, imagine flipping 4 coins. The joint distribution is over the space of all possible outcomes of the four coins.

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(H H H H) & =0.0625 \\
P(H H H T) & =0.0625 \\
P(H H T H) & =0.0625
\end{aligned}
$$

...

- You can think of it as a single random variable with 16 values.


## Visualizing a joint distribution



## Marginalization

If we are given a joint distribution, what if we are only interested in the distribution of one of the variables?

We can compute the distribution of $P(X)$ from $P(X, Y, Z)$ through marginalization:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(X, Y=y, Z=z) & =\sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(X) P(Y=y, Z=z \mid X) \\
& =P(X) \sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(Y=y, Z=z \mid X) \\
& =P(X)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Marginalization (from Leyton-Brown)

| Joint distribution |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| temperature ( T ) and weather ( W ) |  |  |  |
|  | $\mathrm{T}=\mathrm{Hot}$ | T=Mild | T=Cold |
| W=Sunny | . 10 | . 20 | . 10 |
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Marginalization allows us to compute distributions over smaller sets of

- Marginalize out weather
- Marginalize out temperature variables:
- $P(X, Y)=\sum_{z} P(X, Y, Z=z)$
- Corresponds to summing out a table dimension
- New table still sums to 1


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| :---: | :---: |
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## Conditional Probabilities

The conditional probability of event $A$ given event $B$ is the probability of $A$ when $B$ is known to occur,

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\begin{aligned}
P(A>3 \cap B+A=6) & =\frac{2}{36} \\
P(A>3) & = \\
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\begin{aligned}
P(A>3 \mid B+A=6) & =\frac{\frac{2}{36}}{\frac{3}{6}}=\frac{2}{36} \frac{6}{3} \\
& =\frac{1}{9}
\end{aligned}
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## The chain rule

- The definition of conditional probability lets us derive the chain rule, which let's us define the joint distribution as a product of conditionals:

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- For example, let $Y$ be a disease and $X$ be a symptom. We may know $P(X \mid Y)$ and $P(Y)$ from data. Use the chain rule to obtain the probability of having the disease and the symptom.
- In general, for any set of $N$ variables

$$
P\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{N}\right)=\prod_{n=1}^{N} P\left(X_{n} \mid X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right)
$$

## Bayes' Rule

What is the relationship between $P(A \mid B)$ and $P(B \mid A)$ ?

$$
P(B \mid A)=\frac{P(A \mid B) P(B)}{P(A)}
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(1) Start with $P(A \mid B)$
(2) Change outcome space from $B$ to $\Omega$
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What is the relationship between $P(A \mid B)$ and $P(B \mid A)$ ?

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

(1) Start with $P(A \mid B)$
(2) Change outcome space from $B$ to $\Omega: P(A \mid B) P(B)$
(3) Change outcome space again from $\Omega$ to $A: \frac{P(A \mid B) P(B)}{P(A)}$


## Independence

Random variables $X$ and $Y$ are independent if and only if
$P(X=x, Y=y)=P(X=x) P(Y=y)$.
Conditional probabilities equal unconditional probabilities with independence:

- $P(X=x \mid Y)=P(X=x)$
- Knowing $Y$ tells us nothing about $X$


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Mathematical examples:

- If I draw two socks from my (multicolored) laundry, is the color of the first sock independent from the color of the second sock?


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Mathematical examples:

- If I draw two socks from my (multicolored) laundry, is the color of the first sock independent from the color of the second sock?
- If I flip a coin twice, is the first outcome independent from the second outcome?


## Independence

Intuitive Examples:

- Independent:
- you use a Mac / the Green line is on schedule
- snowfall in the Himalayas / your favorite color is blue


## Independence

Intuitive Examples:

- Independent:
- you use a Mac / the Green line is on schedule
- snowfall in the Himalayas / your favorite color is blue
- Not independent:
- you vote for Mitt Romney / you are a Republican
- there is a traffic jam on the Beltway / the Redskins are playing


## Independence

Sometimes we make convenient assumptions.

- the values of two dice
- the value of the first die and the sum of the values
- whether it is raining and the number of taxi cabs
- whether it is raining and the amount of time it takes me to hail a cab
- the first two words in a sentence


## Outline

(1) Properties of Probability Distributions

2 Working with probability distributions

3 Combining Probability Distributions

## 4 Continuous Distributions

(5) Expectation and Entropy

## Continuous random variables

- We've only used discrete random variables so far (e.g., dice)
- Random variables can be continuous.
- We need a density $p(x)$, which integrates to one.
E.g., if $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) d x=1
$$

- Probabilities are integrals over smaller intervals. E.g.,

$$
P(X \in(-2.4,6.5))=\int_{-2.4}^{6.5} p(x) d x
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- Notice when we use $P, p, X$, and $x$.


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- Notice when we use $P, p, X$, and $x$.
- Integrals? I didn't sign up for this!


## Integrals?



## Integrals?



## Integrals?



## The Gaussian distribution

- The Gaussian (or Normal) is a continuous distribution.

$$
p(x \mid \mu, \sigma)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} \exp \left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right\}
$$

- The density of a point $x$ is proportional to the negative exponentiated half distance to $\mu$ scaled by $\sigma^{2}$.
- $\mu$ is called the mean; $\sigma^{2}$ is called the variance.


## Gaussian density



- The mean $\mu$ controls the location of the bump.
- The variance $\sigma^{2}$ controls the spread of the bump.


## Outline

# (1) Properties of Probability Distributions 

(2) Working with probability distributions
(3) Combining Probability Distributions

4 Continuous Distributions
(5) Expectation and Entropy

## Expectation

An expectation of a random variable is a weighted average:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}[f(X)] & =\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} f(x) p(x) \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) p(x) d x
\end{aligned}
$$

## Expectation

Expectations of constants or known values:

- $\mathrm{E}[a]=a$
- $\mathrm{E}[Y \mid Y=y]=y$


## Expectation

Example: Gaussian distribution $X \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}[X] & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}(x-\mu)^{2}} d x \\
& =
\end{aligned}
$$

## Expectation

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\mathrm{E}[X] & =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}}(x-\mu)^{2}} d x \\
& =\mu
\end{aligned}
$$

## Expectation Intuition

- Average or outcome (might not be an event: 2.4 children)
- Center of mass

- "Fair Price" of a wager


## Expectation of die / dice

What is the expectation of the roll of die?

## Expectation of die / dice

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## One die

$1 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+2 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+4 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+5 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+6 \cdot \frac{1}{6}=$

## Expectation of die / dice

What is the expectation of the roll of die?

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$1 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+2 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+4 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+5 \cdot \frac{1}{6}+6 \cdot \frac{1}{6}=3.5$

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What is the expectation of the sum of two dice?

## Expectation of die / dice

What is the expectation of the roll of die?

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What is the expectation of the sum of two dice?

## Two die

$2 \cdot \frac{1}{36}+3 \cdot \frac{2}{36}+4 \cdot \frac{3}{36}+5 \cdot \frac{4}{36}+6 \cdot \frac{5}{36}+7 \cdot \frac{6}{36}+8 \cdot \frac{5}{36}+9 \cdot \frac{4}{36}+10 \cdot \frac{3}{36}+11 \cdot \frac{2}{36}+12 \cdot \frac{1}{36}=$

## Expectation of die / dice

What is the expectation of the roll of die?

## One die

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## Entropy

- Measure of disorder in a system
- In the real world, entroy in a system tends to increase
- Can also be applied to probabilities:
- Is one (or a few) outcomes certain (low entropy)
- Are things equiprobable (high entropy)
- In data science
- We look for features that allow us to reduce entropy (decision trees)
- All else being equal, we seek models that have maximum entropy (Occam's razor)



## Aside: Logarithms



- $\lg (x)=b \Leftrightarrow 2^{b}=x$
- Makes big numbers small
- Way to think about them: cutting a carrot
$\lg (4)=2$

$$
\lg (8)=3
$$




## Aside: Logarithms



- $\lg (x)=b \Leftrightarrow 2^{b}=x$
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- Negative numbers?

$$
\lg (8)=3
$$



## Aside: Logarithms

$\lg (1)=0$
$\lg (2)=1$

- $\lg (x)=b \Leftrightarrow 2^{b}=x$
- Makes big numbers small
- Way to think about them: cutting a carrot

$$
\lg (4)=2
$$

- Negative numbers?
- Non-integers?

$$
\lg (8)=3
$$



## Entropy

Entropy is a measure of uncertainty that is associated with the distribution of a random variable:

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(X) & =-\mathrm{E}[\lg (p(X))] \\
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(discrete)
(continuous)

Does not account for the values of the random variable, only the spread of the distribution.

- $H(X) \geq 0$
- uniform distribution $=$ highest entropy, point mass $=$ lowest
- suppose $P(X=1)=p, P(X=0)=1-p$ and

$$
P(Y=100)=p, P(Y=0)=1-p: X \text { and } Y \text { have the same entropy }
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- uniform distribution $=$ highest entropy, point mass $=$ lowest
- suppose $P(X=1)=p, P(X=0)=1-p$ and $P(Y=100)=p, P(Y=0)=1-p: X$ and $Y$ have the same entropy


## Examples (in class)

Entropy of one die, two dice.

## Whew!

- That's it for now
- You don't have to be an expert on this stuff (there are other classes for that)
- This is to get your feet wet and to know the concepts when you see the math


## Next Time

- Technological foundations
- Dealing with messy data
- Telling stories with data

