Probabilities and Data

Digging into Data: Jordan Boyd-Graber

University of Maryland

February 3, 2014





Slides adapted from Dave Blei and Lauren Hannah

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

- 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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- So pay attention!

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- A reasonable (but geeky) definition of data science is how to get probabilities we care about from data
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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



Properties of Probability Distributions

Working with probability distributions

Combining Probability Distributions

Continuous Distributions

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,...}
- 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.

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

$$P(X = H) = 0.7$$

 $P(X = T) = 0.3$

- 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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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

$$P(A \cap B) \tag{1}$$

• Union: drawing a spade or a King

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \quad (2)$$

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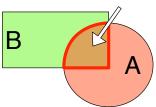
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Intersection of A and B

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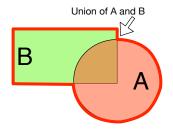
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Joint distribution

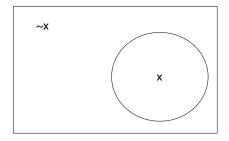
- Typically, we consider collections of random variables.
- The joint distribution is a distribution over the configuration of all the random variables in the ensemble.
- For example, imagine flipping 4 coins. The joint distribution is over the space of all possible outcomes of the four coins.

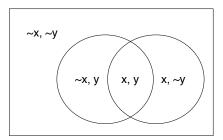
P(HHHH)	=	0.0625
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. . .

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

Visualizing a joint distribution





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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*:

$$\sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(X, Y = y, Z = z) = \sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(X) P(Y = y, Z = z | X)$$
$$= P(X) \sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(Y = y, Z = z | X)$$
$$= P(X)$$

Joint distribution					
temperature (T) and weather (W)					
T=Hot T=Mild T=Cold					
W=Sunny	.10	.20	.10		
W=Cloudy .05 .35 .20					

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

- Marginalize out weather
- Marginalize out temperature

Joint	distri	bution
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• Marginalize out temperature

W=Sunny	.40
W=Cloudy	.60

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

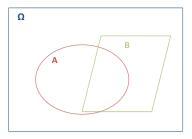
$$\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{A}|\mathsf{B}) = \frac{\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{A}\cap\mathsf{B})}{\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{B})}.$$

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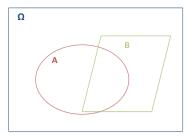
Conditional Probabilities

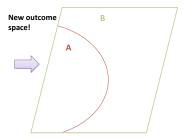
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Conditional Probabilities

Example

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- $A \equiv$ First die
- $B \equiv$ Second die

	B=1	B=2	B=3	B=4	B=5	B=6
A=1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A=2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A=3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A=4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A=5	6	7	8	9	10	11
A=6	7	8	9	10	11	12

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$$P(A > 3 \cap B + A = 6) =$$
$$P(A > 3) =$$
$$P(A > 3|B + A = 6) =$$

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$$P(A > 3 \cap B + A = 6) = \frac{2}{36}$$
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	• /	$A \equiv First$	st die		2			
• $B \equiv$ Second die								$P(A > 3 \cap B + A = 6) = \frac{2}{36}$
		B=1	B=2	B=3	B=4	B=5	B=6	$P(A>3)=\frac{3}{6}$
	A=1	2	3	4	5	6	7	· · · 6
	A=2	3	4	5	6	7	8	$P(A > 3 B + A = 6) = \frac{\frac{2}{36}}{\frac{3}{6}} = \frac{2}{36} \frac{6}{3}$
	A=3	4	5	6	7	8	9	$F(A > 3 B + A = 0) = \frac{3}{\frac{3}{6}} = \frac{3}{36} \frac{3}{3}$
	A=4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1
	A=5	6	7	8	9	10	11	$= - \frac{1}{2}$
	A=6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Ŭ

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Properties of Probability Distributions

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Expectation and Entropy

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|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

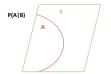
$$P(X_1,...,X_N) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(X_n|X_1,...,X_{n-1})$$

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

- Start with P(A|B)
- 2 Change outcome space from B to Ω
- (a) Change outcome space again from Ω to A

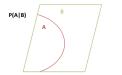
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- **(3)** Change outcome space again from Ω to A





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

- **1** Start with P(A|B)
- **2** Change outcome space from *B* to Ω : P(A|B)P(B)
- **③** Change outcome space again from Ω to A: $\frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$



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:

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$$P(X = x | Y) = P(X = x)$$

• 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?

Intuitive Examples:

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

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

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

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4 Continuous Distributions

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

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

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

$$P(X \in (-2.4, 6.5)) = \int_{-2.4}^{6.5} p(x) dx$$

• Notice when we use *P*, *p*, *X*, and *x*.

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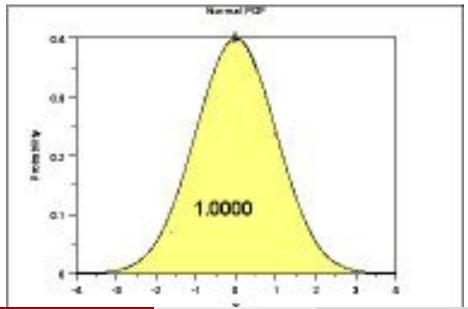
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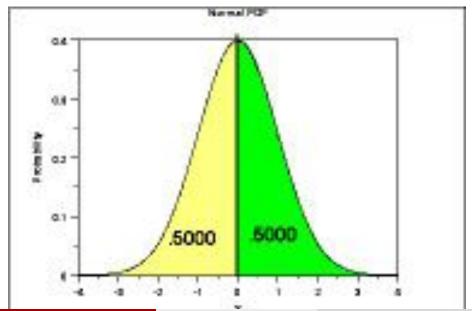
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- Integrals? I didn't sign up for this!

Integrals?



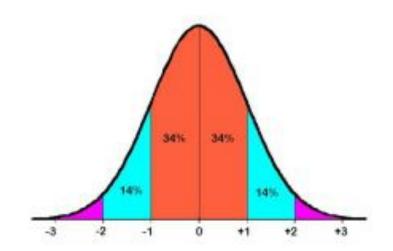
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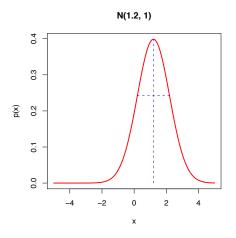


• The Gaussian (or Normal) is a continuous distribution.

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

- The density of a point x is proportional to the negative exponentiated half distance to μ scaled by σ².
- μ is called the *mean*; σ^2 is called the *variance*.

Gaussian density



- The mean μ controls the location of the bump.
- The variance σ^2 controls the spread of the bump.

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An expectation of a random variable is a weighted average:

$$E[f(X)] = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} f(x)p(x) \qquad (discrete)$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)p(x) dx \qquad (continuous)$$

Expectations of constants or known values:

Expectation

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

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

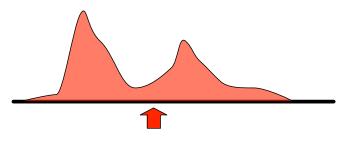
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$$= \mu$$

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?

What is the expectation of the roll of die?

One die

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

One die

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

One die

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What is the expectation of the sum of two dice?

One die

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

What is the expectation of the sum of two dice?

Two die

$$2 \cdot \frac{1}{36} + 3 \cdot \frac{2}{36} + 4 \cdot \frac{3}{36} + 5 \cdot \frac{4}{36} + 6 \cdot \frac{5}{36} + 7 \cdot \frac{6}{36} + 8 \cdot \frac{5}{36} + 9 \cdot \frac{4}{36} + 10 \cdot \frac{3}{36} + 11 \cdot \frac{2}{36} + 12 \cdot \frac{1}{36} = 0$$

One die

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

What is the expectation of the sum of two dice?

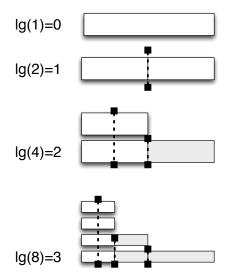
Two die

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

- 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)



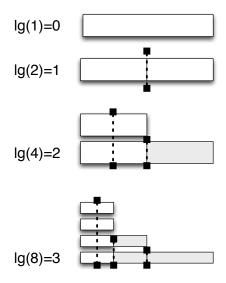
Aside: Logarithms



•
$$\lg(x) = b \Leftrightarrow 2^b = x$$

- Makes big numbers small
- Way to think about them: cutting a carrot

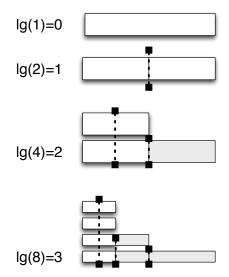
Aside: Logarithms



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- Way to think about them: cutting a carrot
- Negative numbers?

Aside: Logarithms



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

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

$$H(X) = -E[\lg(p(X))]$$

= $-\sum_{x} p(x) \lg(p(x))$ (discrete)
= $-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \lg(p(x)) dx$ (continuous)

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

- $H(X) \ge 0$
- 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* and *Y* have the same entropy

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Examples (in class)

Entropy of one die, two dice.

Digging into Data: Jordan Boyd-Graber (UMD)

- 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