INFO 2950: Intro to Data Science

Lecture 19 2023-11-01

Agenda



- 1. Joint and marginal probabilities
- 2. Hypothesis Tests for Independence
- 3. Conditional probabilities
- 4. Bayes Theorem

@Allison inspired by u I've been asking this as an introductory interview question



Everyone ive asked so far has taken at least like 15 secs to answer and done it by brute force



What is the probability that you roll two fair dice and the sum of their faces is 7?

@Allison inspired by u I've been asking this as an introductory interview question



Everyone ive asked so far has taken at least like 15 secs to answer and done it by brute force



Brute force method:

- $[1,6],[2,5],[3,4],[4,3],[5,2],[6,1] \rightarrow 6$ ways to roll a 7
- 6*6 = 36 total ways to roll two dice
- 6/36 = \(\frac{1}{6}\) probability of rolling a 7

Brute force method:

- $[1,6],[2,5],[3,4],[4,3],[5,2],[6,1] \rightarrow 6$ ways to roll a 7
- 6*6 = 36 total ways to roll two dice
- 6/36 = \% probability of rolling a 7

Non-brute-force method:

Roll one die. No matter what it lands on, there is exactly one roll by the second die such that the sum equals 7



Probabilities on variable(s)

- So far, we've focused on probabilities on a single variable
 - Probability that [you roll a 7 from two dice]
 - ∘ P(X=k)

Probabilities on variable(s)

- So far, we've focused on probabilities on a single variable
 - Probability that [you roll a 7 from two dice]
 - ∘ P(X=k)
- What if we care about probabilities on multiple variables?
 - Probability that [you roll a 7 from two dice]and/or/given [you roll a 1 first]

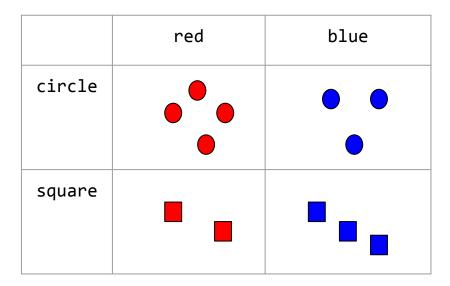
Probabilities and notation

Joint probability of two or more variables

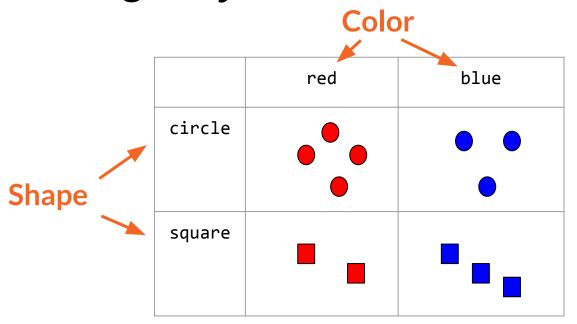
Conditional probability of one variable *given* a value of another variable

$$P(X \mid Y=y)$$

From counting things to probability

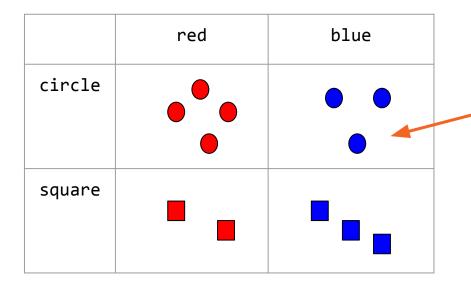


Contingency tables



Each cell represents a combination of two variables

Contingency tables



Value is an integer counting the frequency of a combination

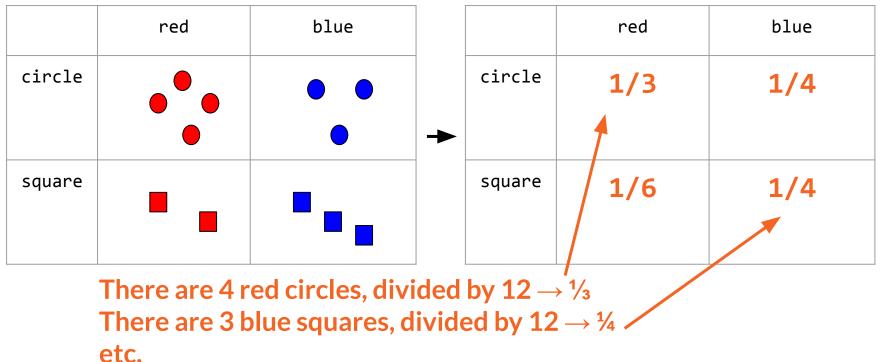
	red	blue			red	blue
circle			-	circle	;	j
square				square	;	j

"Normalize" = Divide everything by the total sum

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			-	circle	?	;
square				square	?	;

Hint: the joint probability denominator is the total # things in the matrix (4+3+2+3 = ?)

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			→	circle	1/3	1/4
square				square	1/6	1/4



Can we reverse normalization?

	red	blue			red	blue
circle	j	j	—	circle	1/3	1/4
square	}	}		square	1/6	1/4

Normalization loses information

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			—	circle	1/3	1/4
square				square	1/6	1/4

This is one possible assortment...

Normalization loses information

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			—	circle	1/3	1/4
square				square	1/6	1/4

But here's another possibility!

	red	blue
circle		
square		

In a 2x2 contingency table, without any other constraints, you can put any four integers into the cells

	red	blue
circle		
square		

In a 2x2 contingency table, without any other constraints, you can put any four integers into the cells

	red	blue
circle		
square		

In a 2x2 contingency table, without any other constraints, you can put any four integers into the cells

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	;

In a joint probability table, if you know three of the fractions, the fourth is **determined**

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	?

What is this value?

The combinations of colors and shapes are mutually exclusive. If something is NOT [red circle / blue circle / red square], then it must be a blue square.

$$1 - (\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{4}) = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4
		/

Normalization loses information

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			—	circle	1/3	1/4
square				square	1/6	1/4

Four free parameters for counts (df=4)

Three free parameters (df=3) for joint probability table

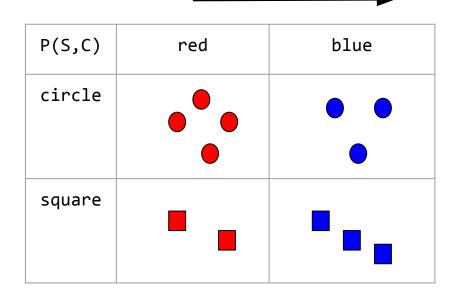
Reminder: joint probability is P(Shape, Color)

	red	blue			red	blue
circle			→	circle	1/3	1/4
square				square	1/6	1/4

Marginal probabilities sum over one axis

Axis 1

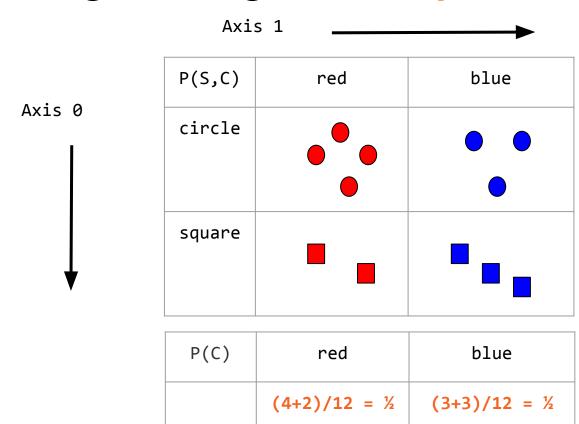




P(S)	
circle	<u>}</u>
square	<u>}</u>

P(C)	red	blue
	?	;

Marginalizing over shapes (counting without joint distributions)



Marginalizing over shapes (summing the joint distributions of shapes)





	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

P(S)	
circle	;
square	;

P(C)	red	blue
	1/3 + 1/6	½ + ½

Marginalizing over shapes

Axis 1

Axis	0
	l
,	

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

P(S)	
circle	;
square	j

P(C)	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Summing joint distributions gives us the correct probability!

Marginal probabilities sum over one axis





	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

P(S)	
circle	j
square	j

P(C)	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Marginalizing over colors



Axis 0

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

P(S)	
circle	÷.
square	?

P(C)	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Marginalizing over colors



Axis 0



	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

P(S)	
circle	7/12
square	5/12

P(C)	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Marginal probabilities lose degrees of freedom



Axis 0

Each marginal distribution has **one** free parameter (df=1), so together they have **two** parameters

P(S)	
circle	7/12
square	5/12

P(C)	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Can we reverse marginalization?

	red	blue
circle	;	j
square	;	j

P(S)	
circle	7/12
square	5/12

P(C)	red	blue
	6/12	6/12

Can we reverse marginalization?

	red	blue
circle	P(red)* P(circle)	P(blue)* P(circle)
square	P(red)* P(square)	P(blue)* P(square)

P(S)	
circle	7/12
square	5/12

P(C)	red	blue
	6/12	6/12

Can we reverse marginalization?

	red	blue
circle	42/144	42/144
square	30/144	30/144

P(S)	
circle	7/12
square	5/12

P(C)	red	blue
	6/12	6/12

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

		red	blue
-	circle	42/144	42/144
	square	30/144	30/144

	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

		red	blue
, -	circle	42/144	42/144
	square	30/144	30/144

P(shape, color) ≠ P(shape) P(color)

	red	blue	
circle	1/3	1/4	7
square	1/6	1/4	

		red	blue
<u>.</u>	circle	42/144	42/144
	square	30/144	30/144

The joint probability is only equal to the product of the marginal probabilities if the variables are **independent!**

OBTAINING THE MARGINAL DISTRIBUTIONS FROM THE JOINT DISTRIBUTION

OBTAINING THE JOINT DISTRIBUTION FROM THE MARGINAL DISTRIBUTIONS





If the joint probability is not equal to the product of the marginals, does that imply that the variables **cannot** be independent?

If the joint probability is not equal to the product of the marginals, does that imply that the variables **cannot** be independent?

Not necessarily! Just like flipping five heads in a row doesn't mean the coin is biased, we expect some degree of random variation in a contingency table.

The critical question is how much evidence the deviation from the expected counts provides that something else is going on.

Example: flipping two coins

I flip two coins 10 times and count the number of pairs

	heads	tails
heads	0	6
tails	2	2

Null hypothesis: P(heads, heads) = P(heads)P(heads)

Alternative hypothesis: P(heads, heads) ≠ P(heads)P(heads)

Are the coins independent?

DeGraffenreid v. General Motors (1976)

- GM did not hire Black women before 1964
- In the early 1970s recession, GM did layoffs by seniority → all the Black women were laid off
- 5 Black women sued GM over discrimination by gender and race
- Unsuccessful because the court didn't know how to deal with the intersection of gender and race

DeGraffenreid v. General Motors (1976)

"The legislative history surrounding Title VII does not indicate that the goal of the statute was to create a new classification of 'black women' who would have greater standing than, for example, a black male. The prospect of the creation of new classes of protected minorities, governed only by the mathematical principles of permutation and combination, clearly raises the prospect of opening the hackneyed Pandora's box."

- Judge Harris Wangelin's ruling against the plaintiffs

Hypothesis testing for intersectionality

GM argued that they were not discriminating against black people because they hired black men, and they were not discriminating against women, because they hired white women.

Null hypothesis: P(Black, woman) = P(Black)P(woman)

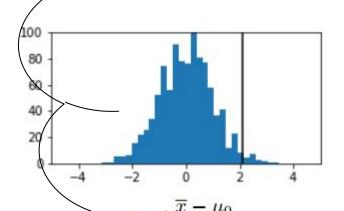
Alternative hypothesis: P(Black, woman) < P(Black)P(woman)

^{*}Sloppy notational shorthand: everything in parentheses refers to the probability of being hired given the worker is Black / female)

Independence

- It's often useful to know "in the real world" if things are independent
 - Joint probabilities are easier if A and B are independent: P(A,B) = P(A) * P(B)
- How do we test for independence?

Hypothesis Testing



- Null (boring) hypothesis H₀
- Alternative (spooky) hypothesis H₁
- Plot where your value is relative to the distribution
- Decide whether you reject the null (Don't assume anything with p < 0.05 is always significant!)

Hypothesis Testing: Independence

- Null (boring) hypothesis: A and B are independent
 - The probability of A occurring is the same for different values of B



- Alternative (spooky) hypothesis: A and B are not independent
 - The probability of A occurring depends on B

Testing for Independence

- Use a contingency table in order to run a chi-squared test
 - A contingency table allows you to look at the frequency distribution of different variables
 - A chi(\square)-squared test is a hypothesis test used when the null is \square^2 distributed (the sum of squares of normal random variables)

Why □² distributed?

 Our hypothesis test's test statistic will be a sum of a squared value. Instead of a "z-score" we now have:

$$\sum_{(i\cdot j)}rac{\left(O-E
ight)^2}{E}$$

- O = observed values
- *E* = expected values
- i = the number of rows in the table
- j = the number of columns in the table

Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
Community College Students	111	96	48	255
Four-Year College Students	96	133	61	290
Nonstudents	91	150	53	294
Column Total	298	379	162	839

These are Observed values (O)

Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
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How do we get Expected (E) values from Observed (O) values?

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Let's calculate the expected frequency of CC students volunteering 1-3 hours.

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Let's calculate the expected frequency of CC students volunteering 1-3 hours

If these are independent, then P(CC and 1-3hr) = P(CC) * P(1-3hr)

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= P(CC) * P(1-3hr)

= [255/839] * P(1-3hr

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= [255/839] *

[298/839]

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P(CC and 1-3hr) = E/839 = [255/839] * [298/839]

 \rightarrow E = [255] * [298] / [839]

	Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
	Community College Students	111	96	48	255
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اً	Column Total	298	379	162	839

$$P(CC \text{ and } 1\text{-}3hr) = E/839 = [255/839] * [298/839]$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 E = [255] * [298] / [839] = [row total] * [col total] / [total] = 90.57

Observed value O:

In contrast to O=111, we calculated an Expected value E for College Students volunteering 1-3 hours

- **=** [255] * [298] / [839]
- = [row total] * [col total] / [total] = 90.57



Contingency table math

Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
Community College Students	111	96	48	255
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1-3 4-6 7-9 **Type of Volunteer** Hours Hours Hours Community College 90.57 115.19 49.24 Students Four-Year College 131.00 56.00 Students **Nonstudents** 104.42 132.81 56.77

Observed values (O)

Hint: row * col / total

Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
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1-3 7-9 4-6 **Type of Volunteer Hours** Hours Hours Community College 90.57 115.19 49.24 Students Four-Year College 131.00 56.00 Students **Nonstudents** 104.42 132.81 56.77

Observed values (O)

290*298 / 839 = 103.00

Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours	Row Total
Community College Students	111	96	48	255
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	Type of Volunteer	1–3 Hours	4–6 Hours	7–9 Hours
	Community College Students	90.57	115.19	49.24
	Four-Year College Students	103.00	131.00	56.00
	Nonstudents	104.42	132.81	56.77

Observed values (O)

Now we have O's and E's

Observed values (O)

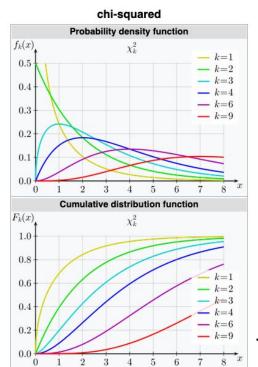
$$\sum_{(i\cdot j)} rac{\left(O-E
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- O = observed values
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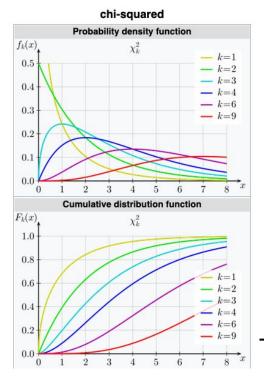
Now we calculate the test statistic:

$$\Box^2 = (111-90.57)^2 / 90.57 + (96-103)^2 / 103 + ...$$

$$\Box^2 = 12.99$$



Need to compare this to a chi-squared distribution. The distribution itself has one parameter: *k*, the # of degrees of freedom



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degrees of freedom: (# rows - 1) * (# cols - 1)

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Need to compare this to a chi-squared distribution. The distribution itself has one parameter: k, the # of degrees of freedom

degrees of freedom: (# rows - 1) * (# cols - 1) = ?

^{*} When counting df, don't include total rows/cols

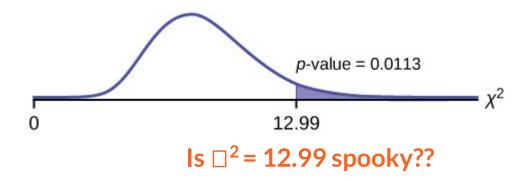
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Need to compare this to a chi-squared distribution. The distribution itself has one parameter: k, the # of degrees of freedom

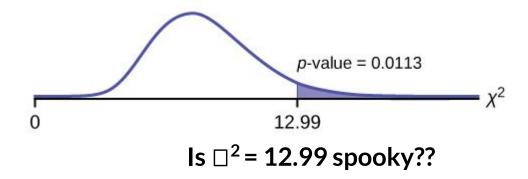
degrees of freedom: (# rows - 1) * (# cols - 1) =
$$(3-1)$$
 * $(3-1)$ = $2 * 2 = 4$

Compare our test statistic against x_4^2



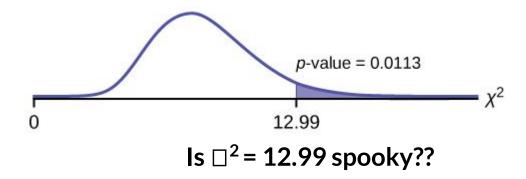
We can reject the null hypothesis (boring H_0 = independent variables) for any alpha level > p-value of 0.0113

Is # hours volunteered independent of type of volunteer?



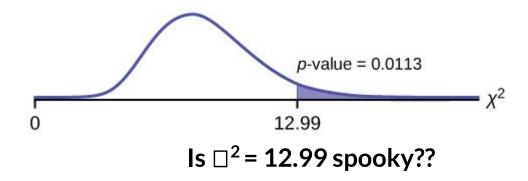
At the 5% level of significance, we reject the null hypothesis that volunteer type and # hours volunteered are independent.

Is # hours volunteered independent of type of volunteer?



Does this necessitate that volunteer type and # hours volunteers are dependent on each other?

Is # hours volunteered independent of type of volunteer?



Does this necessitate that volunteer type and # hours volunteers are dependent on each other? No, we just think it's pretty likely!

Contingency Tables

- A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
- B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)
- 755 individuals are surveyed
 - 70 got a speeding ticket last year
 - 305 use cell phones while driving
- What parts of a contingency table can you fill out?

Contingency Table

- 755 individuals are surveyed
 - 70 got a speeding ticket last year
 - 305 use cell phones while driving

- A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
- B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0			
B=1			
Column Total			

Contingency Table

- 755 individuals are surveyed
 - 70 got a speeding ticket last year
 - 305 use cell phones while driving

- A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
- B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	450 = 755-305
B=1	?	?	305
Column Total	685 = 755-70	70	755

Calculating Expected Values

- A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
- B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)
- What is E?

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	E	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

Calculating Expected Values

- A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
- B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)
- \bullet E/755 = (70/755)*(305/755)
- E = 305*70/755 = row*col/total = 28.3

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	E=28.3	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

Interpreting Expected Values

- How do you interpret E= 28.3?
 - Reminder: E is the expected value under the null hypothesis
 - A = got a speeding ticket last year (binary)
 - B = uses cell phone while driving (binary)

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	E=28.3	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

Interpreting Expected Values

- How do you interpret E= 28.3?
 - If the null hypothesis is true (i.e., using a cell phone while driving and getting a speeding ticket are independent variables), we would expect ~28 people to use cell phones and get a speeding ticket

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	E=28.3	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

Recap: testing A and B independence

Steps to run a chi-squared test:

- 1. Have **observed O's** for orange cells
- 2. Calculate **expected E's** for orange cells

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	?	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

Recap: testing A and B independence

Steps to run a chi-squared test:

- 1. Have **observed O's** for orange cells
- 2. Calculate **expected E's** for orange cells
- 3. Calculate **test statistic** (summing $(O-E)^2/E$ across orange cells)
- 4. Plot test statistic (vertical line) on **chi-squared distribution** (degrees of freedom
- = $(2-1)^*(2-1)$ = 1), decide if significant enough for you to make conclusions

	A=0	A=1	Row Total
B=0	?	?	O=450
B=1	?	?	O=305
Column Total	O=685	O=70	O=755

1 min break & attendance



tinyurl.com/5des96n8

Admin

- Phase 2 feedback (not grades) will be released after class via Gradescope. If you don't see any comments, please contact your mentor TA
- Phase 4/5 rubric will be discussed in Friday discussions this week (along with multiple hypothesis corrections)
- Phase 4 serves as the close-to-final draft, which you'll get peer reviewed on; you can make edits to it for your final Phase 5 submission

Admin

- Your final project should be readable to a non-data-scientist (flow like an essay; interpret/explain everything; data cleaning code relegated to the appendix)
- Avoid "chart barf": don't just make plots of everything because you can. Make sure they serve a purpose (e.g. supporting / rejecting the data arguments you're making re: your hypotheses)

Probabilities so far

Joint probability P(A, B) represents proportion of all combinations of values of variables A and B

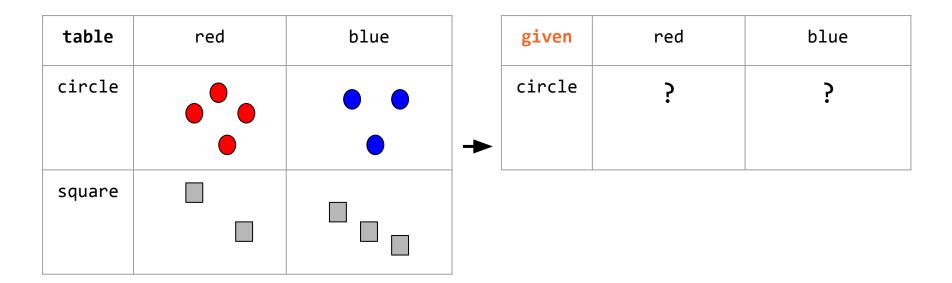
Marginal probabilities P(A) and P(B) represent the summation of P(A, B) over all values of the "other" variable

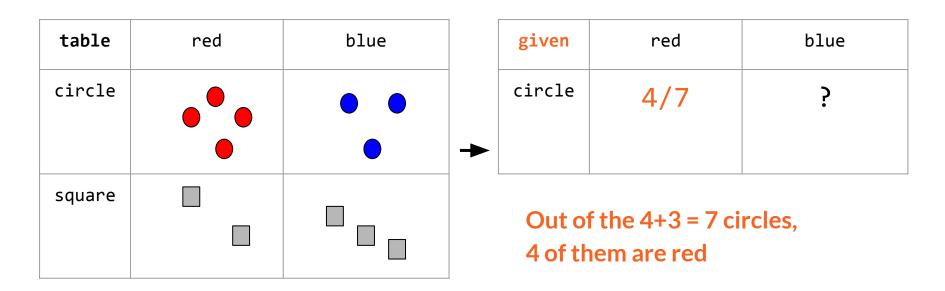
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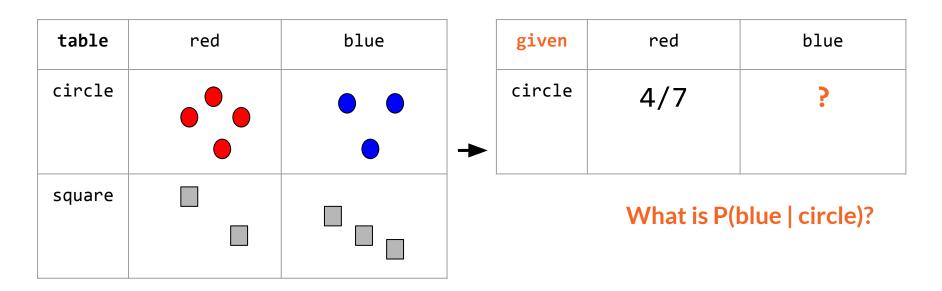
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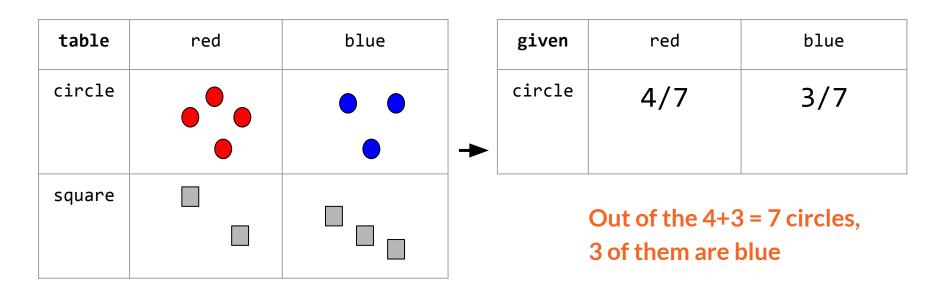
Marginal probabilities P(A) and P(B) represent the summation of P(A, B) over all values of the "other" variable

Conditional probabilities P(A | B) and P(B | A) each represent a "slice" of the joint probability table, renormalized









joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Step 1: Calculate the marginal distribution of the conditioned (given) variable

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

/

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

Step 1: Calculate the marginal distribution of the conditioned (given) variable

Step 2: Divide each column of the joint probability by the value of the marginal for that column

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

/

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

=

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	,
square	?

Step 1: Calculate the marginal distribution of the conditioned (given) variable

Step 2: Divide each column of the joint probability by the value of the marginal for that column

Pr(circle|red) =
$$\frac{1}{3} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Pr(square|red) = $\frac{1}{6} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{3}$

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

/

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

=

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	?
square	?

Step 1: Calculate the marginal distribution of the conditioned (given) variable

Step 2: Divide each column of the joint probability by the value of the marginal for that column

Pr(circle|red) =
$$\frac{1}{3} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Pr(square|red) = $\frac{1}{6} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{3}$

Fill out these givens!

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

/

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

=

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

Step 1: Calculate the marginal distribution of the conditioned (given) variable

Step 2: Divide each column of the joint probability by the value of the marginal for that column

Pr(circle|red) =
$$\frac{1}{3} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Pr(square|red) = $\frac{1}{6} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{3}$

Pr(circle|blue) =
$$\frac{1}{4} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

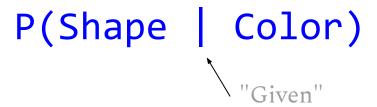
Pr(square|blue) = $\frac{1}{4} / \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

	/	
marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2
=		

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

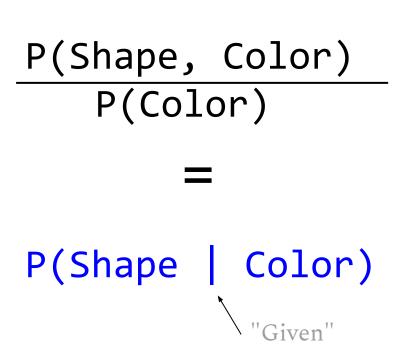


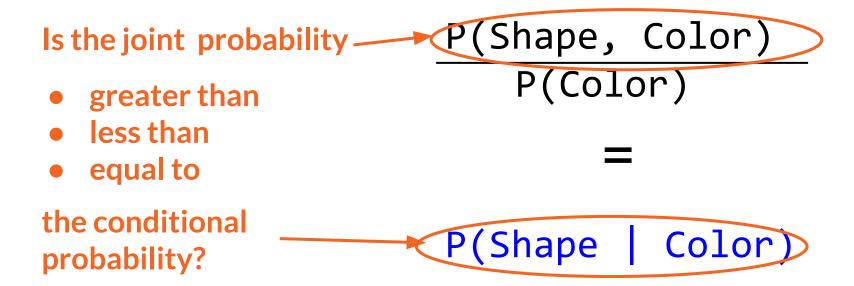


marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

	Y
given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2





P(Shape, Color) Is the joint probability P(Color) less than equal to **only if** P(Color) is 1 P(Shape | Color) the conditional probability?

P(Shape, Color) Is the joint probability P(Color) less than equal to **only if** P(Color) is 1 P(Shape | Color) the conditional P(Shape,Color) = P(Color)*P(Shape|Color) probability?

P(Shape, Color) Is the joint probability P(Color) less than equal to **only if** P(Color) is 1 P(Shape | Color) the conditional P(Shape,Color) = P(Color)*P(Shape|Color) probability? P(Color) is a probability P(Color) so <= 1.

P(Shape, Color) Is the joint probability P(Color)

- less than
- equal to **only if** P(Color) is 1

the conditional

probability?

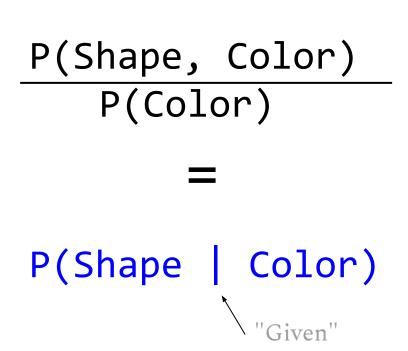
- P(Shape | Color)
- P(Shape,Color) = P(Color)*P(Shape|Color)
- P(Color) is a probability P(Color) so <= 1.
- Hence P(Shape, Color) <= P(Shape | Color)

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

marginal red blue 1/2 1/2

given	red	
circle	2/3	
square	1/3	

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2



Multiply conditionals by marginal to get joint

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

=

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

*

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

P(Shape, Color)

P(Shape | Color) P(Color)

Multiply conditionals by marginal to get joint

joint	red	blue
circle	j	Ş
square	j	;

marginal	red	blue
	-	_
↓		

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

Can you get back to the joint from the conditionals without the marginal?

joint	red	blue
circle	j	j
square	?	;

=

marginal	red	blue
	_	_

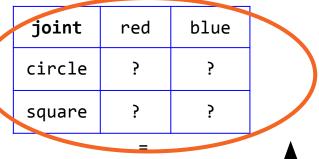
*

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

Can you get back to the joint from the conditionals without the marginal?

No! There are an infinite number of different joint distributions that have the same conditionals

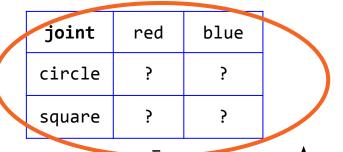


marginal	red	blue
	_	_
*		

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

How many degrees of freedom does the joint distribution table have?



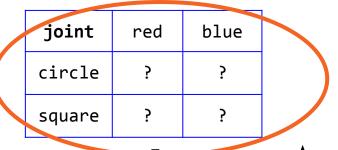
marginal	red	blue
	_	_
*		

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

How many degrees of freedom does the joint distribution table have?

3 (remember, we can figure out the 4th value by doing 1 - sum(other three))!

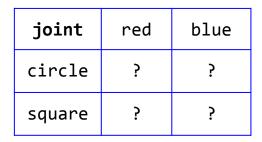


DF for joint distribution: 3



given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2



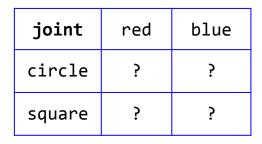
DF for joint distribution: 3



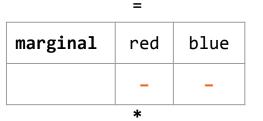
given red
circle 2/3
square 1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

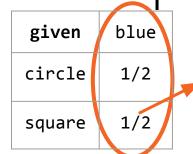
DF for red conditionals: 1 (you can get the other value by subtracting from 1)



DF for joint distribution: 3

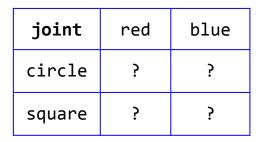


given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

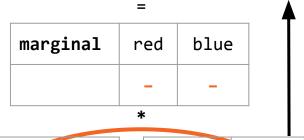


DF for red conditionals: 1 (you can get the other value by subtracting from 1)

DF for blue conditionals: 1 (you can get the other value by subtracting from 1)



DF for joint distribution: 3

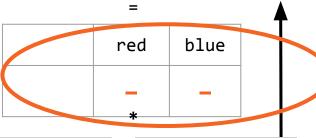


given	red	given	blue
circle	2/3	circle	1/2
square	1/3	square	1/2

DF for conditionals: 2 total

joint	red	blue
circle	j	j
square	j	j

DF for joint distribution: 3



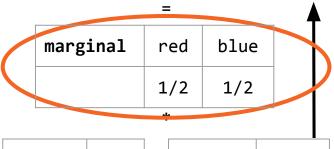
This means we need 1 DF from the
marginal in order to recover the 3 total
DF needed for the joint distribution!

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

DF for conditionals: 2 total

joint	red	blue
circle	j	j.
square	?	j



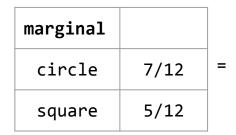
given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

This means we need 1 DF from the marginal in order to recover the 3 total DF needed for the joint distribution!

Hence, we cannot get back to the joint from the conditionals without the marginal.

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

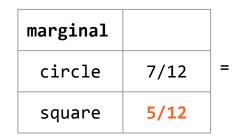


given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	?	?

P(red|square) P(blue|square)

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

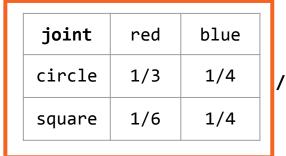


given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

$$P(red|square) = (\%) / (5/12) = \%$$

$$P(blue|square) = (1/4) / (5/12) = 3/5$$

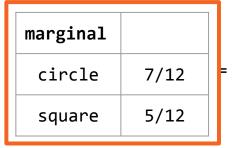


marginal		
circle	7/12	=
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5





given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

marginal		
circle	7/12	=
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7
given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

marginal		
circle	7/12	=
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

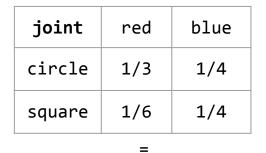
given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

P(Shape, Color)

P(Shape)

P(Color | Shape)

Can we express this in terms of a different conditional and marginal?



marginal		
circle	7/12	=
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

*

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

P(Shape	Color)	P(Color)
ſ	(Shape)	

joint	red	blue
circle	1/3	1/4
square	1/6	1/4

		marginal
7/12 =	7/	circle
5/12	5/	square
		<u> </u>

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

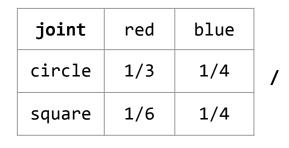
marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

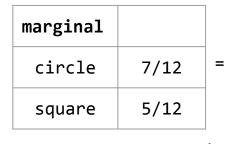
=

*

given	red	given	blue
circle	2/3	circle	1/2
square	1/3	square	1/2

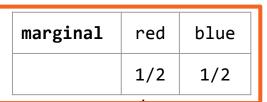
P(Shape | Color) P(Color)
P(Shape)





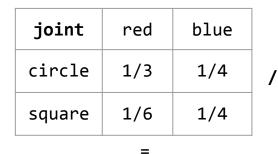
given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5



given	red	given	blue
circle	2/3	circle	1/2
square	1/3	square	1/2

P(Shape | Color) P(Color)
P(Shape)



marginal		
circle	7/12	ŀ
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7

given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

marginal	red	blue
	1/2	1/2

*

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue
circle	1/2
square	1/2

P(Shape | Color) P(Color)

P(Shape)

joint	red	blue	
circle	1/3	1/4	
square	1/6	1/4	

=

marginal		
circle	7/12	=
square	5/12	

given	red	blue
circle	4/7	3/7
given	red	blue
square	2/5	3/5

marginal red blue 1/2 1/2

k

given	red
circle	2/3
square	1/3

given	blue	
circle	1/2	
square	1/2	

P(Shape | Color) P(Color)
P(Shape)



TIL that Poisson misspelled Rev. Thomas Bayes' name throughout his work in the 1830s

entification with moral science was made by Poisson his book. Laplace, he wrote, followed Condorcet when obability of judgements, 'one of the most delicate question for probabilities'. Laplace used the principle originally go He made many happy uses of this principle, but 'it is only he application of Blayes's rule to judgement is due to Condo the majority vote of the jury as an observed effect, and note of the accused as an unknown cause. Then we apply ork out the probability of guilt or innocence.

11:09 AM · Oct 11, 2022 · Twitter for Android

...

What is Bayes' rule for?

We want to know about *causes* but we can usually only observe *effects*

It's much easier to estimate the probability of effects given causes

Bayes' rule lets us reverse the logic of causality!

Actual real-life urn model problem



Prof. Koenecke: "we had almost no trick-or-treaters, in the end one group of rowdy teenagers emptied out the bowl on our porch..."

Student on Nov 1st: "we found a few unattended bowls and emptied them out!"

Did this student raid the candy bowl?



Koenecke urn probability distribution:

Entirely M&Ms



Koenecke urn probability distribution:

Entirely M&Ms



Samples from unknown student urn distribution:

Lots of tootsie pops

P(raiding Koenecke | mostly tootsie pops)





P(raiding Koenecke | mostly tootsie pops)

What do we need to know?

The components of Bayes' rule!





P(raiding Koenecke | mostly tootsie pops)





P(tootsie pops | raiding Koenecke)

Prior probability

P(raiding Koenecke)

Marginal probability

P(tootsie pops)





P(raiding Koenecke | mostly tootsie pops)

What do we need to know?



P(tootsie pops | raiding Koenecke) is low

Prior probability

P(raiding Koenecke) is moderate

Marginal probability

P(tootsie pops) is moderate







P(raiding Koenecke | tootsie pops) =

P(tootsie pops | raiding Koenecke) P(raiding Koenecke) P(tootsie pops)



= some low number

What is Bayes' rule for?

We want to know about *causes* but we can usually only observe *effects*

Cause: which house? Effect: what candy?

It's much easier to estimate the probability of effects given causes

Bayes' rule lets us reverse the logic of causality!

What is Bayes' rule for?

- Lots of teaching examples involve drawing "balls from urns" because it's an easy way to explain the concept
- But, there are lots of places you might use Bayes' rule in data science jobs, e.g.: estimating probabilities about spam filters detecting spam emails, given they are spam (or not spam)
- This is why lots of data science interviews test for things like understanding Bayes' rule!

- ~50% of the emails you receive are spam emails
- Spam detection software claims that, given a spam email, it has a 90% probability of detecting it as spam
- Their probability for a false positive (given a non-spam email, it is detected as spam) is 10%

- ~50% of the emails you receive are spam emails P(spam) = 0.5
- Spam detection software claims that, given a spam email, it has a 90% probability of detecting it as spam
- Their probability for a false positive (given a non-spam email, it is detected as spam) is 10%

- ~50% of the emails you receive are spam emails P(spam) = 0.5
- Spam detection software claims that, given a spam email, it has a 90% probability of detecting it as spam P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- Their probability for a false positive (given a non-spam email, it is detected as spam) is 10%

- ~50% of the emails you receive are spam emails P(spam) = 0.5
- Spam detection software claims that, given a spam email, it has a 90% probability of detecting it as spam P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- Their probability for a false positive (given a non-spam email, it is detected as spam) is 10%
 - P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

- P(spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Given that an email is detected as spam, what is the probability that it's actually a non-spam email?

- P(spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Given that an email is detected as spam, what is the probability that it's actually a non-spam email?

P(not spam | detected as spam)

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- $P(spam) = 0.50 \rightarrow P(not spam) = 1 0.5 = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50, P(not spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes:

P(not spam | detected as spam)

= P(not spam, detected as spam) / P(detected as spam)

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50, P(not spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes:

P(not spam | detected as spam)

- = P(not spam, detected as spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = P(detected as spam | not spam) * P(not spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = 0.1 * 0.5 / P(detected as spam)

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50, P(not spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes:

P(not spam | detected as spam)

- = P(not spam, detected as spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = P(detected as spam | not spam) * P(not spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = 0.1 * 0.5 / P(detected as spam)

How do we get this??

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- $P(spam) = 0.50 \rightarrow P(not spam) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = $0.50 \rightarrow P(\text{not spam}) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

- P(detected as spam | spam)*P(spam)
- + P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- $P(spam) = 0.50 \rightarrow P(not spam) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

- = P(detected as spam | spam)*P(spam)
 - + P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)

Why?

• P(A|B)*P(B) = P(A, B)

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = $0.50 \rightarrow P(\text{not spam}) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

Probability detected as spam and is truly spam

P(detected as spam

spam)*P(spam)

+ P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)

Why?

• P(A|B)*P(B) = P(A, B)

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- $P(spam) = 0.50 \rightarrow P(not spam) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

P(detected

spam

Probability detected as

+ P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)

as

Why?

- P(A|B)*P(B) = P(A, B)
- P(A|1-B)*P(1-B) = P(A, 1-B)

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = $0.50 \rightarrow P(\text{not spam}) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

Probability email is detected as spam (whether or not it is truly spam)

P(detected as spam | P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)

spam)*P(spam)

• P(A,B)+P(A,1-B) = P(A)

P(A|1-B)*P(1-B) = P(A, 1-B)

• P(A|B)*P(B) = P(A, B)

Why?

New Goal: P(detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = $0.50 \rightarrow P(\text{not spam}) = 0.5$
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes Part 2:

P(detected as spam)

- P(detected as spam | spam)*P(spam)
- + P(detected as spam | not spam)*P(not spam)
- = 0.9*0.5 + 0.1*0.5 = 0.5

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50, P(not spam) = 0.50
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes:

P(not spam | detected as spam)

- = P(not spam, detected as spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = Ridetected as spam | not spam) * P(not spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = 0.1 * 0.5 / P(detected as spam)

How do we get this??

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50, P(not spam) = 0.50
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Bayes:

P(not spam | detected as spam)

- = P(not spam, detected as spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = P(detected as spam | not spam) * P(not spam) / P(detected as spam)
- = 0.1 * 0.5 / P(detected as spam) = 0.1 * 0.5 / 0.5 = 0.1

Goal: P(not spam | detected as spam)

Known:

- P(spam) = 0.50→ P(not spam) = 0.5
- P(detected as spam | spam) = 0.9
- P(detected as spam | not spam) = 0.1

Using Bayes rule (twice) tells us: Given that an email is detected as spam, the probability that it's actually a non-spam email is 0.1.

