CMPT-413: Computational Linguistics

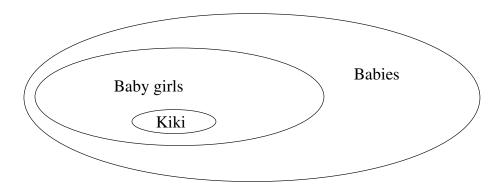
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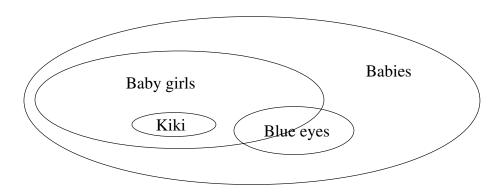
Everything you need to know about probability

- P(X) means probability that X is true
 - P(baby is a girl) = 0.5
 percentage of total number of babies that are girls
 - P(baby girl is named Kiki) = 0.001
 percentage of total number of babies that are named Kiki



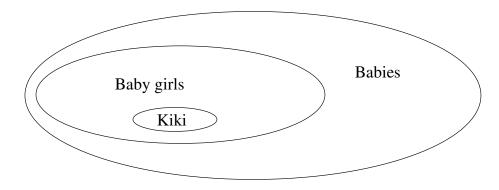
Joint probability

- P(X,Y) means probability that X and Y are both true
 - P(baby girl, blue eyes) percentage of total number of babies that are girls and have blue eyes



Conditional probability

- P(X | Y) means probability that X is true when we already know that Y is true
 - P(baby is named Kiki | baby is a girl) = 0.002
 - P(baby is a girl | baby is named Kiki) = 1

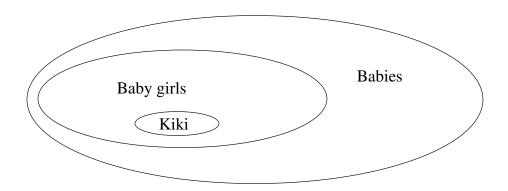


Conditional probability

Conditional and joint probabilities are related:

$$P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(Y)}$$

- $P(\text{baby is named Kiki} | \text{baby is a girl}) = \frac{P(\text{baby is a girl}, \text{baby is named Kiki})}{P(\text{baby is a girl})} = \frac{0.001}{0.5} = 0.002$

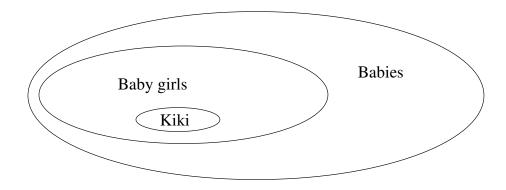


Bayes rule

Conditional probability re-written as likelihood times prior:

$$P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(Y \mid X) \times P(X)}{P(Y)}$$

-
$$P(\text{named Kiki} | \text{girl}) = \frac{P(\text{girl}|\text{named Kiki}) \times P(\text{named Kiki})}{P(\text{girl})} = \frac{1.0 \times 0.001}{0.5} = 0.002$$



Bayes Rule

$$P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(Y)}$$
(1)
$$P(Y \mid X) = \frac{P(Y,X)}{P(X)}$$
(2)
$$P(X,Y) = P(Y,X)$$
(3)
$$P(X \mid Y) \times P(Y) = P(Y \mid X) \times P(X)$$
(4)
$$P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(Y \mid X) \times P(X)}{P(Y)}$$
(5)
$$P(X \mid Y) = P(Y \mid X) \times P(X)$$
(6)

Probability: What does it really mean?

- P(GC drinks and drives | GC is in Hawaii) = 0.9
 - GC drove drunk 90% of the time when in Hawaii
 - If GC visited Hawaii infinitely many times . . .
 - I would bet \$90 to win \$100 (strength of belief)
 - Just the output of a computation based on sets

Probability: Axioms

• *P* measures total probability of a set of events

$$-P(\emptyset)=0$$

- P(all events) = 1
- P(X) ≤ P(Y) for any $X \subseteq Y$
- $P(X) + P(Y) = P(X \cup Y)$ provided that $X \cap Y = \emptyset$
- P(GC drives drunk & GC is in Hawaii) + P(GC drives drunk & GC is not in Hawaii) = P(GC drives drunk)

Probability: Bias and Variance

- P(GC drives drunk | GC is in Hawaii, GC is alone, GC is low in polls, ...)
- As we add more material to the right of | :
 - probability could increase or decrease
 - probability usually gets more relevant (less bias)
 - probability usually gets less reliable (more variance)
 - removing items from the right of | makes it easier to get an estimate (more bias but less variance)

Probability: The Chain Rule

- P(GC is in Hawaii, GC is alone, GC is low in polls | GC drives drunk)
- We cannot remove items from the left of |
 (verify that it violates the definitions we have given based on sets)
- In this case we can use the chain rule of probability to rescue us
- P(GC in Hawaii, GC alone, GC low in polls | GC drives drunk) = P(GC in Hawaii | GC alone, GC low in polls, GC drives drunk) × P(GC alone | GC low in polls, GC drives drunk) × P(GC low in polls | GC drives drunk)

Probability: The Chain Rule

- P(GC in Hawaii, GC alone, GC low in polls | GC drives drunk) = P(GC in Hawaii | GC alone, GC low in polls, GC drives drunk) × P(GC alone | GC low in polls, GC drives drunk) × P(GC low in polls | GC drives drunk)
- Remember: $P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(Y)}$
- $\frac{HALD}{D} = \frac{HALD}{ALD} \times \frac{ALD}{LD} \times \frac{LD}{D}$ (simply cancel out the matching terms)

Probability: The Chain Rule

•
$$P(e_1, e_2, ..., e_n) = P(e_1) \times P(e_2 \mid e_1) \times P(e_3 \mid e_1, e_2) ...$$

$$P(e_1, e_2, ..., e_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(e_i \mid e_{i-1}, e_{i-2}, ..., e_1)$$

Probability: Random Variables and Events

• What is y in P(y)?

• Shorthand for value assigned to a random variable Y, e.g. Y=y

ullet y is an element of some implicit **event space**: ${\mathcal E}$

Probability: Random Variables and Events

• The marginal probability P(y) can be computed from P(x,y) as follows:

$$P(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} P(x, y)$$

Finding the value that maximizes the probability value:

$$\widehat{x} = \underset{x \in \mathcal{E}}{\arg \max} P(x)$$

Information Theory

- Information theory is the use of probability theory to quantify and measure "information".
- Consider the task of efficiently sending a message. Sender Alice wants to send several messages to Receiver Bob. Alice wants to do this as efficiently as possible.
- Let's say that Alice is sending a message where the entire message is just one character *a*, e.g. *aaaa*. . . . In this case we can save space by simply sending the length of the message and the single character.

- Now let's say that Alice is sending a completely random signal to Bob.
 If it is random then we cannot exploit anything in the message to compress it any further.
- The *lower bound* on the number of bits it takes to transmit some infinite set of messages is what is called entropy. This formulation of entropy by Claude Shannon was adapted from thermodynamics.
- Information theory is built around this notion of message compression as a way to evaluate the amount of information. Note that this is a very abstract notion and applies to many situations other than the examples given here.

Entropy

- Consider a random variable X
- Entropy of *X* is:

$$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$

- Any base can be used for the log, but base 2 means that entropy is measured in bits.
- Entropy answers the question: How many bits are needed to transmit messages from event space \mathcal{E} , where p(x) defines the probability of observing X=x.

Entropy

- Alice wants to bet on a horse race. She has to send a message to her bookie Bob to tell him which horse to bet on.
- There are 8 horses. One encoding scheme for the messages is to use a number for each horse. So in bits this would be 001,010,... (lower bound on message length = 3 bits in this encoding scheme)
- Can we do better?

Entropy

Horse 1	$\frac{1}{2}$	Horse 5	$\frac{1}{64}$
Horse 2	$\frac{1}{4}$	Horse 6	$\frac{1}{64}$
Horse 3	$\frac{1}{8}$	Horse 7	1 64
Horse 4	$\frac{1}{16}$	Horse 8	1 64

• If we know how likely we are to bet on each horse, say based on the horse's probability of winning, then we can do better.

 Let X be a random variable over the horse (chances of winning). The entropy of X is:

Most likely horse gets code 0, then 10, 110, 1110, . . .
 What happens when the horses are equally likely to win?

Perplexity

- ullet The value 2^H is called **perplexity**
- Perplexity is the weighted average number of choices a random variable has to make.
- Choosing between 8 equally likely horses (H=3) is $2^3 = 8$.
- Choosing between the biased horses from before (H=2) is $2^2 = 4$.

Cross Entropy

- In real life, we cannot know for sure the exact winning probability for each horse. Let's say p_t is the true probability and p_e is our estimate of the true probability (say we got p_e by observing a limited number of previous races with these horses)
- Cross entropy is a distance measure between p_t and p_e .

$$H(p_t, p_e) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} p_t(x) \log_2 p_e(x)$$

Cross entropy is an upper bound on the entropy:

$$H(p) \le H(p,m)$$

Relative Entropy or Kullback-Leibler distance

Another distance measure between two probability functions p and q
 is:

$$KL(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} p(x) log_2 \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

• KL distance is asymmetric (not a *true* distance), that is:

$$KL(p,q) \neq KL(q,p)$$

Conditional Entropy and Mutual Information

• *Entropy* of a random variable *X*:

$$H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{E}} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$

Conditional Entropy between two random variables X and Y:

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

Mutual Information between two random variables X and Y:

$$I(X;Y) = KL(p(x,y)||p(x)p(y)) = \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log_2 \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$$