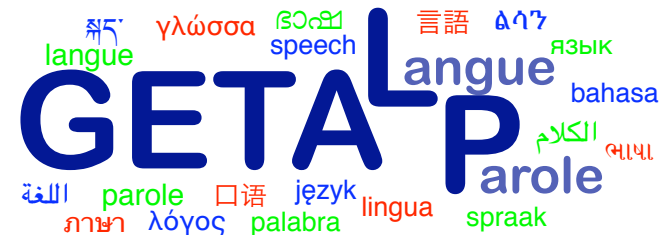


INFORMATION THEORY AND PROBABILITIES





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Language as data

-  Large amounts of texts available in digital form
-  Billions of documents available on the Web
-  Tens of thousands of annotated sentences (syntax trees)
-  Hundred million words translated between English and other languages



Statistics on the novel “Tom Sawyer” by M. Twain

Count Words

Function words
at the top

Exception: **Tom**




word tokens:
73,370

word types:
8,018

tokens to types
ratio: 8.9

Word	Count	Use
the	3332	determiner (article)
and	2973	conjunction
a	1775	determiner
to	1725	preposition, verbal infinitive marker
of	1440	preposition
was	1161	auxiliary verb
it	1027	(personal/expletive) pronoun
in	906	preposition
that	877	complementizer, demonstrative
he	877	(personal) pronoun
I	783	(personal) pronoun
his	772	(possessive) pronoun
you	686	(personal) pronoun
Tom	679	proper noun
with	642	preposition

Distributions

-  3993 singletons
 -  Most words appear somewhat rarely
-  The main part of the text corresponds to the hundred most frequent words

Count	Count of count
1	3993
2	1292
3	664
4	410
5	243
6	199
7	172
8	131
9	82
10	91
11-50	540
51-100	99
> 100	102

Zipf's Law

George Kingsley Zipf
(1902–1950)



Law : $f \times r = k$

Rank r	Word	Count f	$f \times r$
1	the	3332	3332
2	and	2973	5944
3	a	1775	5235
10	he	887	8770
20	but	410	8400
30	be	294	8820
100	two	104	10400
1000	family	8	8000
8000	applausive	1	8000

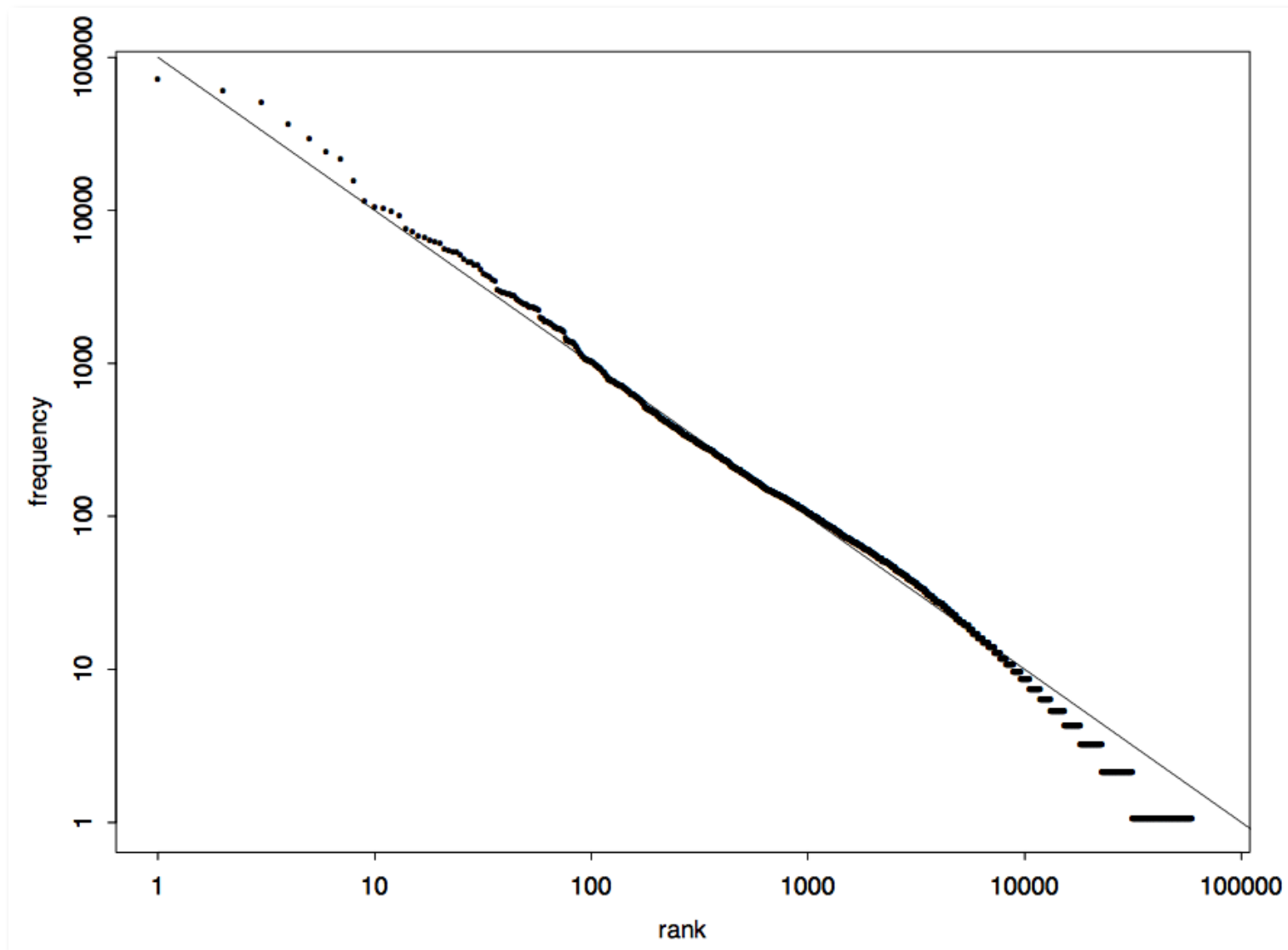
Zipf's Law for the Brown corpus

Brown Univ. Standard Corpus of Present-Day American English

Compiled
in the 60s

1M words




$k = 100,000$



Probability distribution

-  The probability (distribution) $p(w)$ of a word w in a corpus with s distinct words is:

$$p(w) = \frac{\text{count}(w)}{\sum_{i=1}^s \text{count}(w_i)}$$

-  This estimation is referred to as “maximum likelihood”
-  Distribution which answers the question:
 -  “If I select randomly a word from a text, what is the probability that this word is the word w ?”

Formalization

- Let W be a random variable
- We define the probability distribution p ,
 - which indicates how likely the variable W takes the 'value' w ("is the word w ")


$$\text{prob}(W = w) = p(w)$$


Joint Probability

Goal

 Study of two random variables at the same time

 Example:

 the words w_1 and w_2 that appear one after the other (a bigram), we model this with the distribution $p(w_1, w_2)$

 If the occurrence of two words in bigrams is independent, we can write:

 $p(w_1, w_2) = p(w_1)p(w_2)$, this assumption is probably wrong!

 Estimating the joint probability of two variables:


 the same way this is done for a single variable


$$p(w_1, w_2) = \frac{\text{count}(w_1, w_2)}{\sum_{w'_1, w'_2} \text{count}(w'_1, w'_2)}$$

Conditional probability

 Written $p(w_2|w_1)$

 Goal

 answer the question: if the random variable $W_1 = w_1$, what is the probability that the variable W_2 takes the 'value' w_2

 Mathematically: $p(w_2|w_1) = \frac{p(w_1, w_2)}{p(w_1)}$


 $p(w_1, w_2)$ joint probability


 Note

 if W_1 and W_2 are independent then $p(w_2|w_1) = p(w_2)$

Rule 1: “Chain rule”

 We have

 $p(w_1, w_2) = p(w_1)p(w_2|w_1)$

 $p(w_1, w_2, w_3) = p(w_1)p(w_2|w_1)p(w_3|w_1, w_2)$

 etc.

Rule 2: “Bayes rule”

 The rule:

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

 Obtained from:

$$p(x, y) = p(y, x)$$

$$p(x|y)p(y) = p(y|x)p(x)$$

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

In other words...

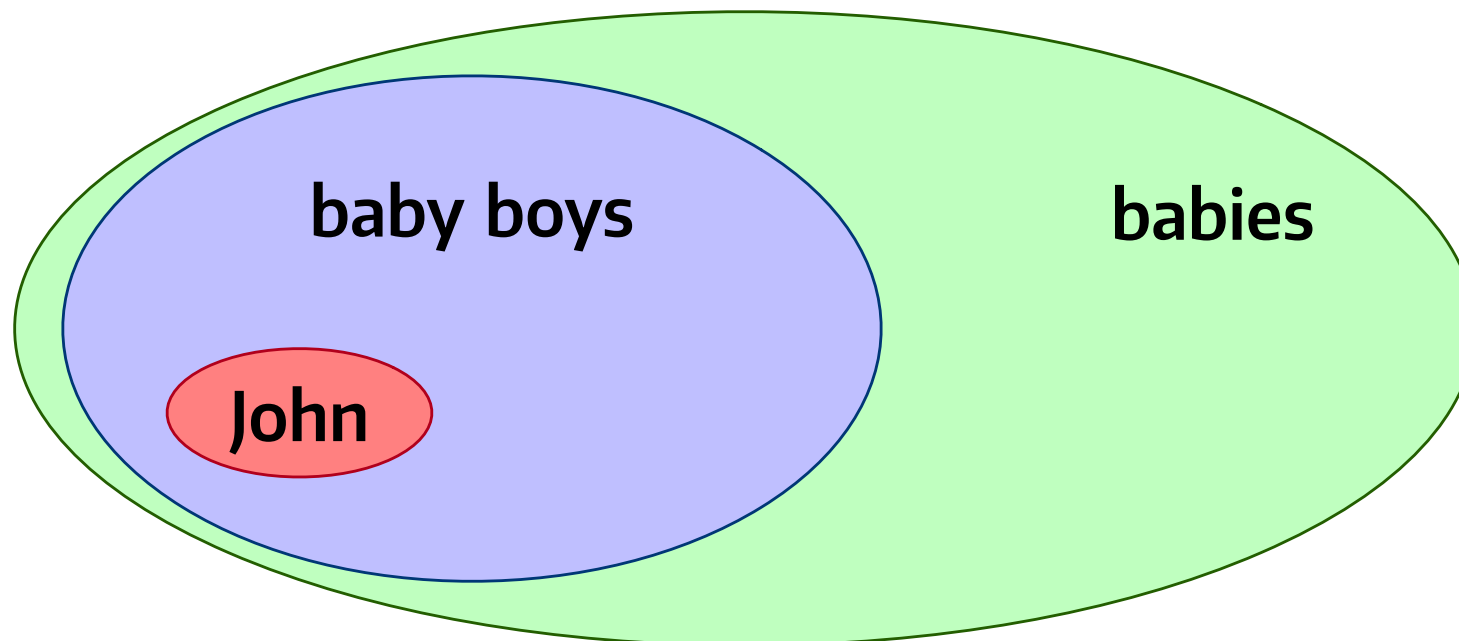
 $P(X)$ means “probability that X is true”

 $P(\text{baby is a boy}) \cong 0.5$


 % of total that are boys

 $P(\text{baby is named John}) \cong 0.001$

 % of total named John



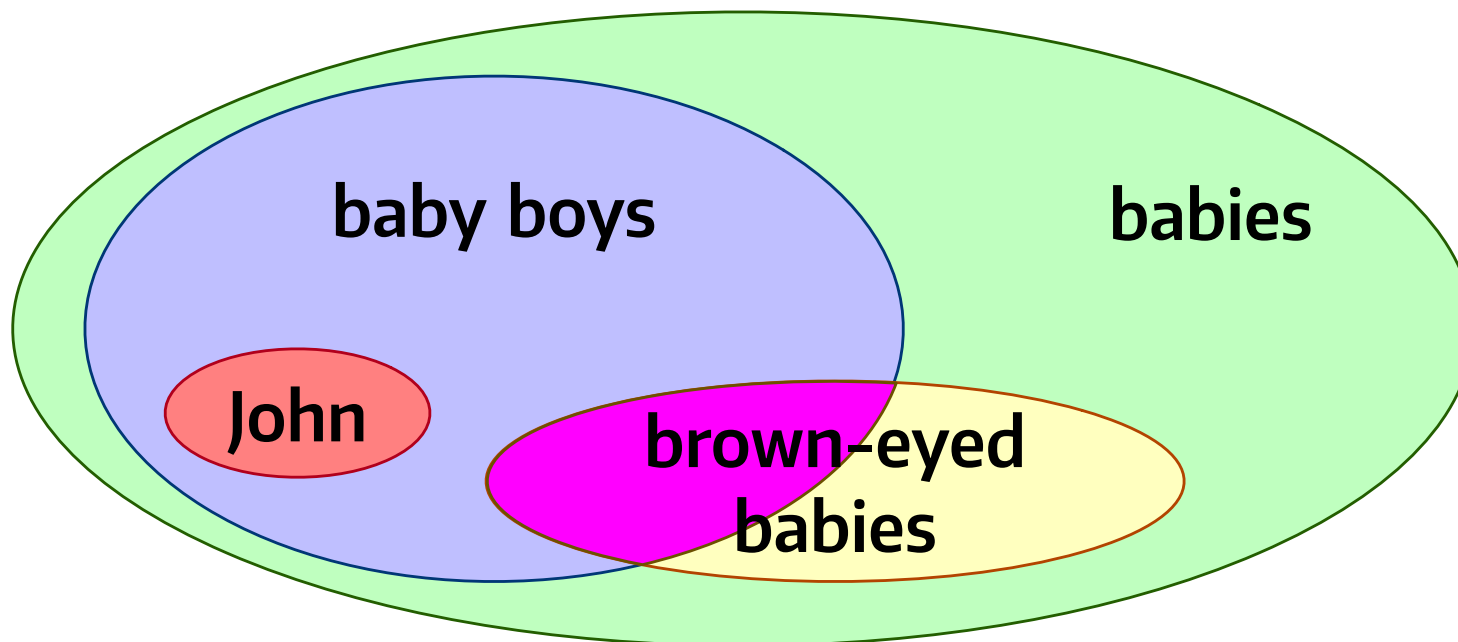
In other words...

 $P(X, Y)$ means “probability that X and Y are both true”


 Size of $X \cap Y$ relative to Ω

 $P(\textit{brown-eyed baby}, \textit{baby boy})$


 Size of $\textit{brown-eyed baby} \cap \textit{baby boy}$ relative to \textit{babies}





In other words...


 $P(X|Y)$ means “probability that X is true while Y is true”

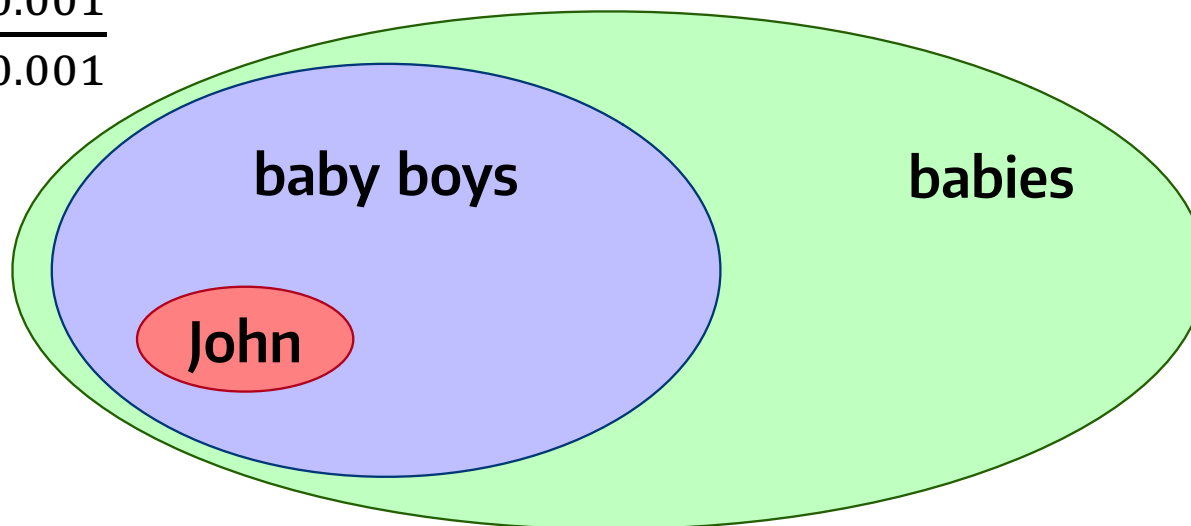
 Size of $X \cap Y$ relative to Y

 $P(\text{baby is named John} \mid \text{baby is a boy}) = 0.002$


$$\frac{p(\text{john,boy})}{p(\text{boy})} = \frac{0.001}{0.5}$$


 $P(\text{baby is a boy} \mid \text{baby is named John}) = 1$


$$\frac{p(\text{john,boy})}{p(\text{john})} = \frac{0.001}{0.001}$$





Expectation

Informal definition



-  the expected value of a random variable is intuitively the long-run mean or average value of repetitions of the experiment it represents

Expectation of a random variables X

-  a set of values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n
-  a probability $p(x_i), \forall i \in [1..n]$



$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i)x_i$$

Example: a dice

-  6 equiprobable ($1/6$) resting positions (1, 2, ... 6)
-  $E(\text{dice}) = \frac{1}{6} \times 1 + \frac{1}{6} \times 2 + \frac{1}{6} \times 3 + \frac{1}{6} \times 4 + \frac{1}{6} \times 5 + \frac{1}{6} \times 6 = 3.5$

Variance

Variance (Var)




-  the expectation of the squared deviation of a random variable from its mean
-  measures how far a set of (random) numbers are spread out from their average value


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

-  For a discrete random variable $X: x_1 \mapsto p_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto p_n$

 $Var(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \cdot (x_i - E(X))^2$

Standard deviation (σ)

-  quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of a set of data values
-  Low: points close to the mean (expected value)
-  High: points spread out over wider range of values

 $\sigma^2 = Var(X)$

Variance

Example with the dice

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \frac{1}{6}(1 - 3.5)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(2 - 3.5)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(3 - 3.5)^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{6}(4 - 3.5)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(5 - 3.5)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(6 - 3.5)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{6}((-2.5)^2 + (-1.5)^2 + (-0.5)^2 + 0.5^2 + 1.5^2 + 2.5^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{6}(6.25 + 2.25 + 0.25 + 0.25 + 2.25 + 6.25) \\ &= 2.917 \end{aligned}$$

Distributions


Uniform


 All events are equiprobable


 $p(x) = p(y)$ for all x, y

Binomial

 a series of trials with binary output (eg success / failure) with probability p of success

 the probability of k successes in n trials is given by the probability mass function:


 $Pr(k; n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$


 with $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$ (*binomial coefficient*)

Bayesian estimation

Model M , Data D


 What is the most likely model given the data? $\Rightarrow p(M|D)$


$$p(M|D) = \frac{p(D|M) p(M)}{p(D)}$$



$$\operatorname{argmax}_M p(M|D) = \operatorname{argmax}_M p(D|M) p(M)$$


 with

 $p(M)$: a priori probability of the model

 the estimation of a model $p(w)$ with the frequencies of words corresponds to a Bayesian estimation with a uniform prior probability (estimated by maximum likelihood)

Entropy

 Important concept that measures the “degree of disorder”

 $H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log p(x_i)$

 Examples

 1 event: $p(a) = 1$

 $H(X) = 0 = -1\log 1$

 2 equiprobable events: $p(a) = 0.5, p(b) = 0.5$


 $H(X) = 1 = -0.5\log 0.5 - 0.5\log 0.5$

 4 equiprobable events:

 $H(X) = 2$

Entropy

 4 events with a more likely than other

 $p(a) = 0.7, p(b) = 0.1, p(c) = 0.1, p(d) = 0.1$

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &= -0.7 \log_2 0.7 - 0.1 \log_2 0.1 \\ &\quad - 0.1 \log_2 0.1 - 0.1 \log_2 0.1 \\ &= -0.7 \log_2 0.7 - 0.3 \log_2 0.1 \\ &= -0.7 \times -0.5146 - 0.3 \times -3.3219 \\ &= 0.36020 + 0.99658 \\ &= 1.35678 \end{aligned}$$

Entropy



Intuition:










a good model should have a low entropy ...






Many probabilistic models in language processing lead to a reduction of entropy

Information theory and entropy

-  Suppose we want to encode a sequence of events X
-  Each event is encoded by a sequence of bits
-  Examples
 -  Coin: $a = 0, b = 1$
 -  Four equiprobable events: $a = 00, b = 01, c = 10, d = 11$
 -  Huffman coding (less bits for more frequent letter)
-  The number of bits needed to encode the events of X is greater than or equal to the entropy of X

References

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-  Jurafsky and Martin: “Speech and Language Processing”, 2000, Prentice Hall.
-  Rajman M. “Speech and language engineering”, 2007, EPFL Press.