Statistical Machine Translation Probability Theory I

Jakub Waszczuk

Heinrich Heine Universität Düsseldorf

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Today

Our goals for today:

- Motivations and intuitions behind probability theory
- Probability space: definition, some examples
- Basic calculation rules:
 - Sum rule
 - Product rule

Let's consider the following situation:

Some dark night a policeman walks down a street, apparently deserted. Suddenly he hears a burglar alarm, looks across the street, and sees a jewelry store with a broken window. Then a gentleman wearing a mask comes crawling out through the broken window, carrying a bag which turns out to be full of expensive jewelry.

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Question: is the gentleman wearing a mask dishonest?

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Question: is the gentleman wearing a mask dishonest? Hints:

- Street deserted
- In the dark of night
- Burglar alarm goes off
- Broken window

- The gentleman crawls out from the jewelry store
- With a bag full of jewelry
- He wears a mask

Is this a logical conclusion?

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There is a trace of doubt...

It might be that this gentleman was the owner of the jewelry store and he was coming home from a masquerade party, and didn't have the key with him. However, just as he walked by his store, a passing truck threw a stone through the window, and he was only protecting his own property.

Deductive vs plausible reasoning

Plausible reasoning

We would rather want to determine the *plausibility* of the conclusion:

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Desiderata

A theory of plausible/rational reasoning:

- Events: *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, . . .
- Function P which describes the plausibility of events
- Language for describing complex events: ∧, ∨, ¬, ⇒ ,...
- Numerical interpretation of the operators: $P(A \land B) = ..., P(\neg A) = ...,$ etc.
- This theory should follow some basic intuitions on rational reasoning.

Proposition

Probability P(A) of an event A is within the range of [0,1], with the following interpretation:

- 0 ≅ impossibility
- 2 1 ≅ certainty
- 3 graded scale between impossible and certain

Some desirable properties

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Notation

Instead of using \land and \lor for conjunction and disjunction of events, we will now use:

- \blacksquare \cap for conjunction ($A \cap B \equiv A$ occurs and B occurs)
- $lue{}$ \cup for disjunction ($A \cup B \equiv A$ occurs or B occurs)

(3)

(4)

(5)

Definition

Let \bot be an event that is completely impossible, i.e., $P(\bot)=0$.

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Let \perp be an event that is completely impossible, i.e., $P(\perp) = 0$.

Example

If you roll a 6-numbered dice, it lands on neither 1, 2, \dots , nor 6.

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Proposition

Then:

$$P(A \cap \bot) = P(\bot) = 0 \tag{7}$$

$$P(A \cup \bot) = P(A) \tag{8}$$

In words: \bot is an absorbing element of conjunction of and neutral element of disjunction.

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Conversely, let \top be an event that is 100% probable, i.e., $P(\top)=1$.

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$$P(A \cap \top) = P(A) \tag{9}$$

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In words: \bot is a neutral element of conjunction and absorbing element of disjunction.

The operations which follow the laws we devised are + for \cup and \times for \cap :

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) \ge P(A)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B) \le P(A)$$

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Not really.

Other problems

$$P(A \cap A) = P(A) \neq P(A) \times P(A)$$

$$P(A \cup A) = P(A) \neq P(A) + P(A)$$

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Notes

- Conjunction and disjunction are idempotent $A \cup A = A$ and $A \cap A = A$
- Multiplication and addition are not idempotent
- The matter is more complex than it seemed...
- Fortunatelly, there is a wonderfully elegant solution satisfies all the necessary laws

Definition

Let M be a set. We say that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \wp(M)$ is a Boolean algebra over M if:

- $M \in \mathcal{A}, \emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$
- if $A \in \mathcal{A}$, then also $\overline{A} \in \mathcal{A}$, where $\overline{A} := M \setminus A$
- **3** if $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$, then also $A \cup B \in \mathcal{A}$

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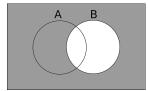
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- $A \cap B = \overline{\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}}$

В



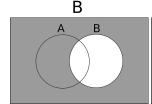
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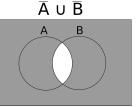
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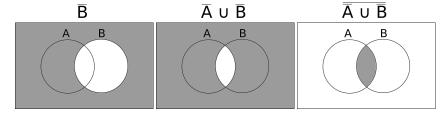
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Why should we care?

- Boolean algebras generalize both set and logic operations:
 - 1 U ≡ V

 - $\neg \equiv \text{complement } (\overline{A})$
- They capture the essential properties of set and logical operations:

 - $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$
 - $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
 - $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}, \quad \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
 - 5
- This gives us a language with desirable properties, which allows us to describe complex probabilistic events.

Boolean algebra: exercise

Dice

Let $M = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ be the set of possible outcomes of rolling a dice.

Tasks

- Assuming that every outcome is possible, determine the corresponding Boolean algebra of events A.
- Is it possible to construct another Boolean alebra for *M*?

Definition

A probability space is a triple $(\Omega, \mathfrak{A}, P)$, where $\mathfrak{A} \subseteq \wp(\Omega)$ is a Boolean algebra (which represents the possible **events**), and $P : \mathfrak{A} \to [0,1]$ is a probability function such that:

- $P(\Omega) = 1$;
- **2** $P(\emptyset) = 0$, and
- \blacksquare if $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ is a sequence of pairwise disjoint sets (mutually exclusive events), then:

$$P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i)$$
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Note that (3) implies that for two given $A, B \in \mathfrak{A}$ such that $A \cap B = \emptyset$:

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Note

Note one of the roles of the Boolean algebra: if $A, B \subseteq \Omega$ are events (to which probabilities are assigned), than $A \cup B$ (i.e., A or B occur), $A \cap B$ (i.e., both A and B occur) and \overline{A} (i.e. A does not occur) are also events with assigned probabilities.

Laplace

- The set of outcomes Ω is finite
- **E**very outcome $\omega \in \Omega$ is possible and equally likely

$$p(\omega) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \tag{13}$$

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Example

An example is a fair cube (dice) with *n* sides:

- \blacksquare *n* is arbitrary, but must be finite (and > 0)
- Question: is each event equally likely?

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- Question: is each event equally likely?

Exercise

Suppose you roll two 6-faced dices.

■ How does the event of getting 2 with the first dice look like?

Bernoulli

The probability space of the Bernoulli distribution has only two outcomes, 0 or 1:

- $\Omega = \{0, 1\}$
- p(1) = 1 p(0)

Example

The typical example is the event of coin tossing, with a possibly unfair coin $(p(1) \neq p(0))$.

Discrete

Generalization of Laplace and Bernoulli:

- Ω is finite
- $\mathbb{I} = \mathcal{Q}(\Omega)$, i.e., every conceivable event has a probability

Example

Suppose you throw a coin n times and that the probability of getting *heads* is h. What is the probability of throwing heads k times?

- $\Omega = \{0, 1, ..., N\}$
- The probability of throwing heads *k* times:

$$p(k) = h^k \times (1 - h)^{(n - k)} \times \binom{n}{k}$$
(14)

Exercise

Setup

- Hans has three children
- The probability of having a boy is $\frac{1}{2}$

Task

Answer the question:

■ What's the probability that Hans has exactly one boy?

To this end:

- Determine the underlying probability space.
- Determine the event of Hans having exactly one boy.

We now proceed to determine the calculation rules for the operators which allow us to build complex event exressions:

- \blacksquare complement (\overline{A})
- U
- \blacksquare

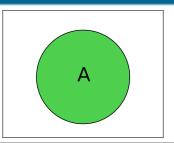
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Venn diagram: P(A)



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Derivation

$$P(A \cup \overline{A}) = P(\Omega) = 1$$
, and $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$

Therefore:

$$1 = P(A \cup \overline{A})$$

$$= P(A) + P(\overline{A})$$

$$\iff P(A) = 1 - P(\overline{A})$$

Sum rule

The sum rule allows us to interpret the logical disjunction arithmetically:

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This is harder to derive... but still follows directly from the set theory and probability axioms.

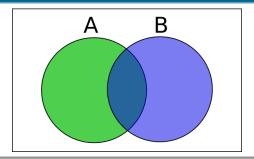
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Venn diagram



Deriving the sum rule (for the record)

Using Venn diagrams, it's easy to verify that:

$$A \cup B = A \dot{\cup} (B \setminus A) \tag{17}$$

$$B \setminus A = B \setminus (A \cap B) \tag{18}$$

$$B = B \setminus (A \cap B) \dot{\cup} (A \cap B) \tag{19}$$

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From which follow:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus (A \cap B))$$
 (via Eq. 17, 18)

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 (via Eq. 19)

Eliminating $P(B \setminus (A \cap B))$ from both equations above gives the sum rule.

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Update

Suppose we know, that Hans has a daugher.

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Update

Suppose we know, that Hans has a daugher.

Question

■ What is the probability that he has exactly one son in this case?

Proposition

Let:

- \blacksquare $(\Omega, \mathfrak{A}, P)$ be a probability space
- $\mathbf{C} \in \mathfrak{A}$ be the event that we know has occurred

We design a modified probability space $(\Omega_C, \mathfrak{A}_C, P_C)$ as follows:

- lacktriangle $\Omega_C = C$ (Ω restricted to outcomes consistent with C)
- $P_C = P|_C$ (P with domain restricted to C)

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Issues

- $P_C(\Omega_C) \neq 1$
- The underlying sample space and algebra of events are changed
- The new probability does not tell us anything about events partially out of C

- $P_C(C) =$
- if $A \subseteq \overline{C}$, then $P_C(A) =$
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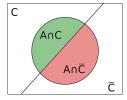
Derivation

If $A \subseteq C \cup \overline{C}$:

$$P_{C}(A) = P_{C}((A \cap C) \cup (A \cap \overline{C}))$$

$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) + P_{C}(A \cap \overline{C})$$

$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) = \alpha P(A \cap C)$$



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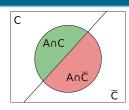
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If $A \subseteq C \cup \overline{C}$:

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$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) + P_{C}(A \cap \overline{C})$$

$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) = \alpha P(A \cap C)$$



Therefore:

$$P_C(C) = \alpha P(C \cap C) = \alpha P(C) = 1 \implies \alpha = \frac{1}{P(C)}$$

Assumptions

- $P_{C}(C) = 1$
- if $A \subseteq \overline{C}$, then $P_C(A) = 0$
- if $A \subseteq C$, then $P_C(A) = \alpha P(A)$, where α is a normalization constant

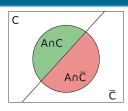
Derivation

If $A \subseteq C \cup \overline{C}$:

$$P_{C}(A) = P_{C}((A \cap C) \cup (A \cap \overline{C}))$$

$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) + P_{C}(A \cap \overline{C})$$

$$= P_{C}(A \cap C) = \alpha P(A \cap C)$$



Therefore:

$$P_C(C) = \alpha P(C \cap C) = \alpha P(C) = 1 \implies \alpha = \frac{1}{P(C)}$$

Finally:

$$P_C(A) = \frac{P(A \cap C)}{P(C)}$$

Notation

We denote with P(A|C) the probability of event $A \in \mathfrak{A}$ in a context where we now that $C \in \mathfrak{A}$ has occurred.

Definition

The conditional probability of A|C is defined as:

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

Product rule

Definition

The product rule stems directly from the conditional probability $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) \tag{20}$$

Product rule

Definition

The product rule stems directly from the conditional probability $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) \tag{20}$$

Since \cap is commutative (A \cap B = B \cap A), it also holds that:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A) = P(B|A)P(A)$$
(21)

Recap

- Probability theory can be seen as a theory of rational reasoning
- In this theory, events are modeled with a Boolean algebra, which:
 - Comprises operators (∪, ∩, etc.) for defining complex events
 - Satisfies the intuitive laws of rational reasoning (e.g., $P(A) \le (A \cup B)$)
- The probability itself is modeled as a function from events to [0,1]
- In case of complex events, it can be calculated based on:

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

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$