CS-567 Machine Learning

Nazar Khan

PUCIT

Lecture 9 Information Theory

- \blacktriangleright Amount of additional information \propto degree of surprise.
- If a highly unlikely event occurs, you gain a lot of new information.
- If an almost certain event occurs, you gain not much new information.
- So information $\propto \frac{1}{\text{probability}}$

- For unrelated events x and y
 - Information from both events should equal information from x plus information from y.
 - p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)
- From these two relationships, it can be shown that information must be given by the logarithm function.

$$h(x, y) = -\log(p(x, y))$$

= - log(p(x)p(y))
= - log(p(x)) - log(p(y))
$$h(x) = -\log(p(x))$$

where h(x) denotes the information given by x.

- For base 2 log, units of information h(x) are 'bits'.
- For natural log, units of information h(x) are 'nats' (1 nat= ln 2 bits).

Information Theory Entropy

If information given by random variable x is given by a function h(x) = − log(p(x)), then expected information from r.v x is

$$H[x] = E[h(x)] = -\sum \log(p(x))p(x)$$

- Also called the **entropy** of random variable *x*.
- Entropy is just a fancy name for expected information contained in a random variable.

Information Theory Entropy

- ► To transmit a r.v x with 8 equally likely states, we need 3 bits (= log₂ 8).
- Entropy $H[x] = -\sum \frac{1}{8} \log_2 \frac{1}{8} = 3$ bits.
- ► For non-uniform probabilities, entropy is reduced.
- Entropy quantifies order/disorder.
- Entropy is a lower-bound on the number of bits needed to transmit the state of a random variable.

Information Theory Entropy

► For a *discrete* r.v X with pdf p, entropy is

$$H[p] = -\sum_{i} p(x_i) \ln p(x_i)$$
(1)

- Sharply peaked distribution \implies low entropy.
- Evenly spread distribution \implies high entropy.
- Is the entropy non-negative?
- What is its minimum value?
- When does the minimum value occur?

Information Theory Finding the Maximum Entropy Distribution – Discrete Case

- How can we find the *discrete* distribution p(x) that maximises the entropy H[p]?
- Since p must add up to 1, this a constrained maximisation problem.
- The Lagrangian function is

$$ilde{H} = -\sum_{i} p(x_i) \ln p(x_i) + \lambda \left(\sum_{i} p(x_i) - 1 \right)$$

- The maximum is given by the stationary point of \tilde{H} .
- Why is it the maximum?

Information Theory Entropy

For a continuous r.v X with pdf p, we define differential entropy as

$$H[p] = -\int p(x)\ln p(x)dx$$

For multivariate x

$$H[p] = -\int p(\mathbf{x}) \ln p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Information Theory Finding the Maximum Entropy Distribution – Discrete Case

- How can we find the *continuous* distribution p(x) that maximises the entropy H[p]?
- The maximum entropy discrete distribution was the uniform distribution.
- The maximum differential entropy continuous distribution is the Gaussian distribution (Excercise 1.34 in Bishop's book).

Information Theory Entropy

Differential entropy of the Gaussian is

$$H[x] = \frac{1}{2} \{ 1 + \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \}$$

- Proportional to σ². Entropy increases as more values become probable.
- Can also be negative (for $\sigma^2 < \frac{1}{2\pi e}$).

Information Theory Conditional Entropy

- Let $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ be a joint distribution.
- ► Given x, additional information needed to specify y is the conditional information ln(p(y|x)).
- So expected conditional information is

$$H[\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}] = -\int \int p(\mathbf{y},\mathbf{x}) \ln p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{y} d\mathbf{x}$$

- Also called the **conditional entropy** of **y** given **x**.
- Satisfies H[x, y] = H[y|x] + H[x]. Information needed to specify x and y equals information for x alone plus additional information needed to specify y given x.

Information Theory Relative entropy

- Let r.v. x have a true distribution p(x) and let our estimate of this distribution be q(x).
- Average information required to specify x when its information content is determined using p(x) is given by the entropy

$$H[p] = -\int p(\mathbf{x}) \ln p(\mathbf{x})$$
 (2)

Average information required to specify x when its information content is determined using q(x) is given by

$$\tilde{H}[q] = -\int p(\mathbf{x}) \ln q(\mathbf{x})$$
(3)

Information Theory Relative entropy

- Average *additional* information required to specify x when q(x) is used instead of p(x) is given by $\tilde{H}[q] - H[p] = (-\int p(x) \ln q(x)) - (-\int p(x) \ln p(x)).$
- This is known as the relative entropy, or Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence.

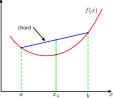
$$\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{KL}(p||q) = \left(-\int p(\mathsf{x}) \ln q(\mathsf{x})\right) d\mathsf{x} - \left(-\int p(\mathsf{x}) \ln p(\mathsf{x})\right) d\mathsf{x} \\ & = -\int p(\mathsf{x}) \ln \left\{\frac{q(\mathsf{x})}{p(\mathsf{x})}\right\} d\mathsf{x} \end{aligned}$$

• $KL(p||q) \neq KL(q||p)$.

• $KL(p||q) \ge 0$ with equality for p = q.

Convex Functions

- ► A function f(x) is convex if every chord lies on or above the function.
- Any value of x in the interval a to b can be parameterised as $\lambda a + (1 \lambda)b$ where $0 \le \lambda \le 1$.
- The corresponding point on the chord can be parameterised as $\lambda f(a) + (1 \lambda)f(b)$.
- The corresponding point on the function can be parameterised as $f(\lambda a + (1 \lambda)b)$.



Convex Functions

 Convexity implies points on chord lie on or above points on function. That is

$$f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) \leq \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b)$$

- Convexity is equivalent to positive second derivative everywhere.
- If function and chord are equal only for λ = 0 and λ = 1, then the function is called strictly convex.
- The inverse property (every chord lies on or below the function) is called concavity.
- If f(x) is convex, then -f(x) will be concave.

Jensen's Inequality

Every convex function f(x) satisfies the so-called Jensen's inequality

$$f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M}\lambda_{i}x_{i}\right)\leq\sum_{i=1}^{M}\lambda_{i}f(x_{i})$$

where $\lambda_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{M} \lambda_i = 1$ for any set of points (x_1, \ldots, x_M) .

Interpreting the λ_i as probabilities p(x_i), Jensen's inequality can be formulated for *discrete random variables* as

$$f(\mathbb{E}[x]) \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x)]$$

► For *continuous random variables*, Jensen's inequality becomes

$$f\left(\int \mathsf{x}p(\mathsf{x}d\mathsf{x})\right) \leq \int f(\mathsf{x})\,p(\mathsf{x}d\mathsf{x})$$

KL-divergence

Using Jensen's inequality

$$\mathcal{KL}(p||q) = -\int p(\mathbf{x}) \underbrace{\ln\left\{\frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})}\right\}}_{\text{concave}} d\mathbf{x} \ge -\ln\underbrace{\int_{=1}^{0} q(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}}_{=0}$$

where the equality holds only when $p(\mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \mathbf{x}$ (because $-\ln x$ is strictly convex).

Since KL(p||q) ≥ 0 and KL(p||p) = 0, KL-divergence can be interpreted as a measure of dissimilarity between distributions p(x) and q(x).

Relation between data compression and density estimation

- Optimal compression requires the true density.
- For estimated density, KL-divergence gives average, additional information required by transmitting via estimated density instead of true density.

Density Estimation via KL-divergence

- ► Suppose we have finite data points x₁,..., x_N drawn from an unknown distribution p(x).
- We want to approximate $p(\mathbf{x})$ by some parametric distribution $q(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$.
- We can do this by finding θ that minimizes KL(p||q). But p is unknown.
- However, KL(p||q) is an expectation w.r.t p(x) and can be approximated by the ordinary average for large N (law of large numbers). So

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{KL}(p||q) = -\int p(\mathbf{x}) \ln \left\{ \frac{q(\mathbf{x}|\theta)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \right\} d\mathbf{x} \\ & \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{ -\ln q(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta) + \ln p(\mathbf{x}) \} \end{aligned}$$

Density Estimation via KL-divergence

- Minimizing w.r.t θ is equivalent to minimizing $\sum_{n=1}^{N} -\ln q(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta)$ which is the negative log-likelihood of data under $q(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$.
- So minimizing KL-divergence is equivalent to maximising likelihood (ML estimation).

Mutual Information

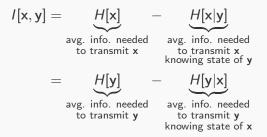
- Given 2 random variables x and y, can we find how independent they are?
- If they are independent then p(x, y) = p(x)p(y). So KL(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y)) = 0.
- Therefore, KL(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y)) is a measure of how independent x and y are.
- Also called the mutual information *I*[x, y] between variables x and y.

$$I[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] = KL(p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) || p(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{y}))$$
(5)
= $-\int \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \ln\left(\frac{p(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}\right) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y}$

• $I[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] \ge 0$ with equality iff \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are independent.

Mutual Information

Using the sum and product rules



- Mutual information captures
 - Information about x that is contained in y.
 - Information about y that is contained in x.
 - Reduction in uncertainty of one variable when the other is known.