

Statistical Natural Language Processing

A refresher on information theory

Çağrı Çöltekin

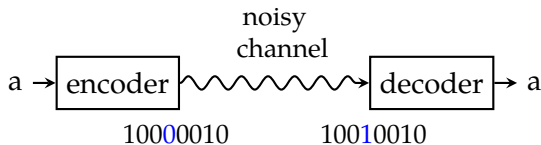
University of Tübingen
Seminar für Sprachwissenschaft

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Information theory

- Information theory is concerned with measurement, storage and transmission of information
- It has its roots in communication theory, but is applied to many different fields NLP
- We will revisit some of the major concepts

Noisy channel model



- We want codes that are efficient: we do not want to waste the channel bandwidth
- We want codes that are resilient to errors: we want to be able to detect and correct errors
- This simple model has many applications in NLP, including in speech recognition and machine translations

Coding example

binary coding of an eight-letter alphabet

- We can encode an 8-letter alphabet with 8 bits using one-hot representation
- Can we do better than one-hot coding?

| letter | code |
|--------|----------|
| a | 00000001 |
| b | 00000010 |
| c | 00000100 |
| d | 00001000 |
| e | 00010000 |
| f | 00100000 |
| g | 01000000 |
| h | 10000000 |

Coding example

binary coding of an eight-letter alphabet

- We can encode an 8-letter alphabet with 8 bits using one-hot representation
- Can we do better than one-hot coding?

| letter | code |
|--------|----------|
| a | 00000000 |
| b | 00000001 |
| c | 00000010 |
| d | 00000011 |
| e | 00000100 |
| f | 00000101 |
| g | 00000110 |
| h | 00000111 |

Coding example

binary coding of an eight-letter alphabet

- We can encode an 8-letter alphabet with 8 bits using one-hot representation
- Can we do better than one-hot coding?
- Can we do even better?

| letter | code |
|--------|----------|
| a | 00000000 |
| b | 00000001 |
| c | 00000010 |
| d | 00000011 |
| e | 00000100 |
| f | 00000101 |
| g | 00000110 |
| h | 00000111 |

Self information / surprisal

Self information (or *surprisal*) associated with an event x is

$$I(x) = \log \frac{1}{P(x)} = -\log P(x)$$

- If the event is certain, the information (or surprise) associated with it is 0
- Low probability (surprising) events have higher *information content*
- Base of the log determines the unit of information
 - 2 bits
 - e nats
 - 10 dit, ban, hartley

Why log?

- Reminder: logarithms transform exponential relations to linear relations
- In most systems, linear increase in capacity increases possible outcomes exponentially
 - The possible number of strings you can fit into two pages is exponentially more than one page
 - But we expect information to double, not increase exponentially
- Working with logarithms is mathematically and computationally more suitable

Entropy

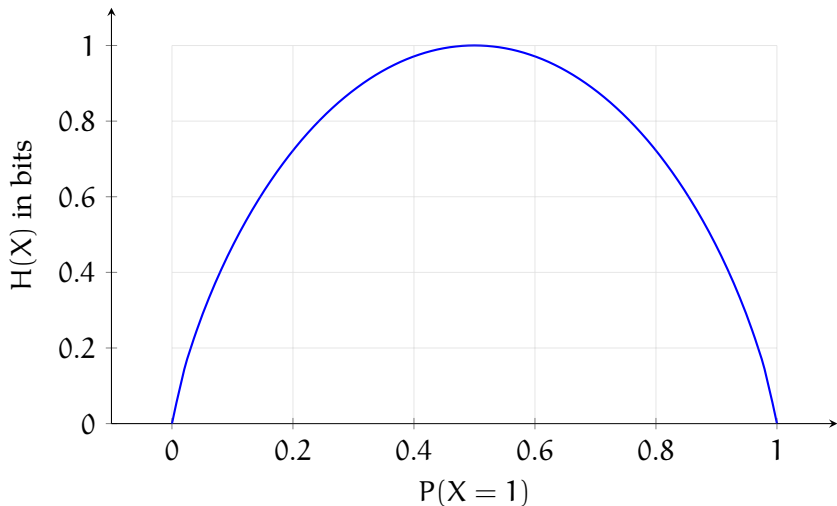
Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty of a random variable:

$$H(X) = - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(\mathbf{x}) \log P(\mathbf{x})$$

- Entropy is the lower bound on the best average code length, given the distribution P that generates the data
- Entropy is average surprisal: $H(X) = E[-\log P(\mathbf{x})]$
- It generalizes to continuous distributions as well (replace sum with integral)

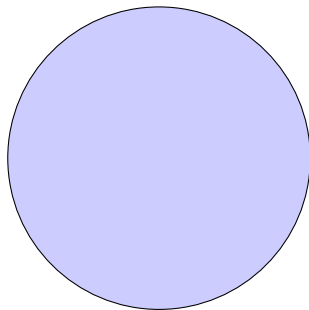
Note: entropy is about a distribution,
while self information is about individual events

Example: entropy of a Bernoulli distribution



Entropy: demonstration

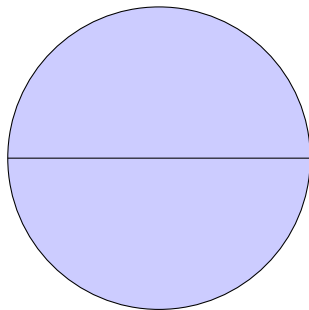
increasing number of outcomes increases entropy



$$H = -\log 1 = 0$$

Entropy: demonstration

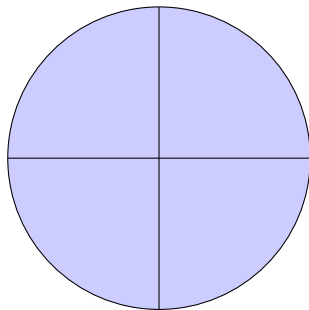
increasing number of outcomes increases entropy



$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

Entropy: demonstration

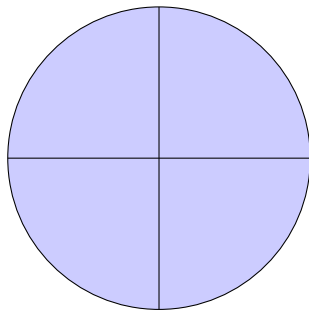
increasing number of outcomes increases entropy



$$H = -\frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} = 2$$

Entropy: demonstration

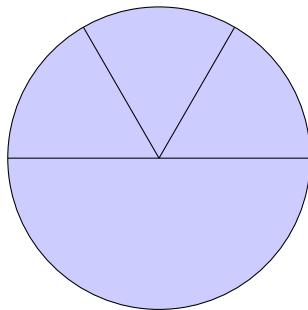
the distribution matters



$$H = -\frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \frac{1}{4} = 2$$

Entropy: demonstration

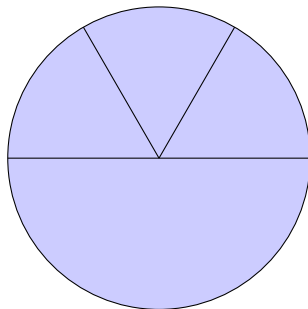
the distribution matters



?

Entropy: demonstration

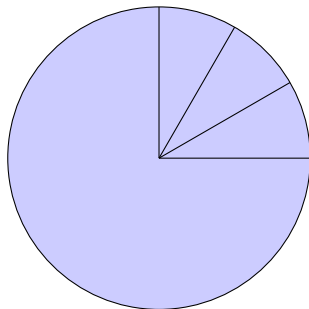
the distribution matters



$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \log_2 \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6} \log_2 \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{6} \log_2 \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{6} \log_2 \frac{1}{6} = 1.79$$

Entropy: demonstration

the distribution matters



$$H = -\frac{3}{4} \log_2 \frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{16} \log_2 \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{16} \log_2 \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{16} \log_2 \frac{1}{16} = 1.06$$

Back to coding letters

- Can we do better?



| letter | prob | code |
|--------|---------------|------|
| a | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 000 |
| b | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 001 |
| c | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 010 |
| d | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 011 |
| e | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 100 |
| f | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 101 |
| g | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 110 |
| h | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 111 |

Uniform distribution has the maximum uncertainty, hence the maximum entropy.

Back to coding letters



- Can we do better?
- No. $H = 3$ bits, we need 3 bits on average

Uniform distribution has the maximum uncertainty, hence the maximum entropy.

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Back to coding letters



- Can we do better?
- No. $H = 3$ bits, we need 3 bits on average
- If the probabilities were different, could we do better?

Uniform distribution has the maximum uncertainty, hence the maximum entropy.

| letter | prob | code |
|--------|----------------|------|
| a | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| b | $\frac{1}{4}$ | |
| c | $\frac{1}{8}$ | |
| d | $\frac{1}{16}$ | |
| e | $\frac{1}{64}$ | |
| f | $\frac{1}{64}$ | |
| g | $\frac{1}{64}$ | |
| h | $\frac{1}{64}$ | |

Back to coding letters

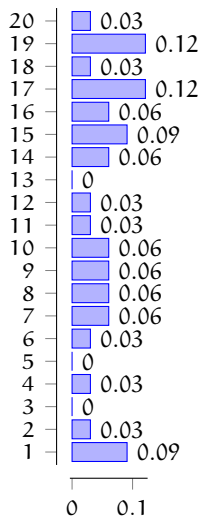


- Can we do better?
- No. $H = 3$ bits, we need 3 bits on average
- If the probabilities were different, could we do better?
- Yes. Now $H = 2$ bits, we need 2 bits on average

Uniform distribution has the maximum uncertainty, hence the maximum entropy.

| letter | prob | code |
|--------|----------------|--------|
| a | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 0 |
| b | $\frac{1}{4}$ | 10 |
| c | $\frac{1}{8}$ | 110 |
| d | $\frac{1}{16}$ | 1110 |
| e | $\frac{1}{64}$ | 111100 |
| f | $\frac{1}{64}$ | 111101 |
| g | $\frac{1}{64}$ | 111110 |
| h | $\frac{1}{64}$ | 111111 |

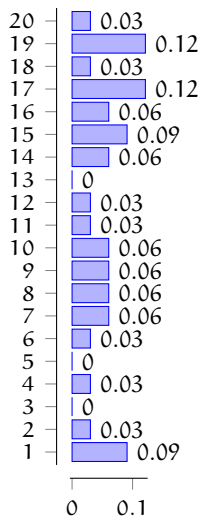
Entropy of your random numbers



- Entropy of the distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= -\left(+ 0.09 \times \log_2 0.09 \right. \\
 &\quad + 0.03 \times \log_2 0.03 \\
 &\quad + \dots \\
 &\quad \left. + 0.03 \times \log_2 0.03 \right) \\
 &= 3.91
 \end{aligned}$$

Entropy of your random numbers



- Entropy of the distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= -\left(+ 0.09 \times \log_2 0.09 \right. \\
 &\quad + 0.03 \times \log_2 0.03 \\
 &\quad + \dots \\
 &\quad \left. + 0.03 \times \log_2 0.03 \right) \\
 &= 3.91
 \end{aligned}$$

- If it was uniformly distributed the entropy would be,

$$H = -20 \times \left(\frac{1}{20} \times \log_2 \frac{1}{20} \right) = 4.32$$

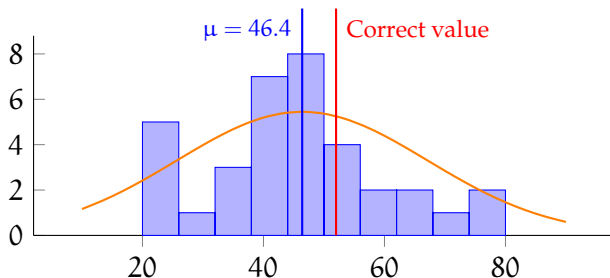
Differential entropy

- Information entropy generalizes to the continuous distributions

$$h(X) = - \int_{\mathcal{X}} p(x) \log p(x)$$

- The entropy of continuous variables is called *differential entropy*
- Differential entropy is typically measures in *nats*

Example: entropy of length measurements



- Assuming the data is distributed normally with $\mathcal{N}(\mu = 46.4, \sigma = 14.64)$

$$h = \log_2 \sigma \sqrt{2\pi e} = 5.92 \text{ bits}$$

Pointwise mutual information

Pointwise mutual information (PMI) between two events is defined as

$$\text{PMI}(x, y) = \log_2 \frac{P(x, y)}{P(x)P(y)}$$

- **Reminder:** $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$ if two events are independent

Pointwise mutual information

Pointwise mutual information (PMI) between two events is defined as

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- **Reminder:** $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$ if two events are independent
 PMI
 - 0 if the events are independent
 - + if events cooccur more than by chance
 - if events cooccur less than by chance
- Pointwise mutual information is symmetric
 $\text{PMI}(X, Y) = \text{PMI}(Y, X)$
- PMI is often used as a measure of association (e.g., between words) in computational/corpus linguistics

Mutual information

Mutual information measures mutual dependence between two random variables

$$\text{MI}(X, Y) = \sum_x \sum_y P(x, y) \log_2 \frac{P(x, y)}{P(x)P(y)}$$

- MI is the average (expected value of) PMI
- PMI is defined on events, MI is defined on distributions
- Note the similarity with the covariance (or correlation)
- Unlike correlation, mutual information is also defined for discrete variables

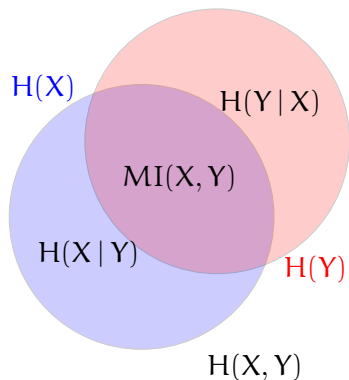
Conditional entropy

Conditional entropy is the entropy of a random variable conditioned on another random variable.

$$\begin{aligned} H(X | Y) &= \sum_{y \in Y} P(y) H(X | Y = y) \\ &= - \sum_{x \in X, y \in Y} P(x, y) \log P(x | y) \end{aligned}$$

- $H(X | Y) = H(X)$ if random variables are independent
- Conditional entropy is lower if random variables are dependent

Entropy, mutual information and conditional entropy



Cross entropy

Cross entropy measures entropy of a distribution (P), under another distribution (Q).

$$H(P, Q) = - \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(\mathbf{x}) \log Q(\mathbf{x})$$

- It often arises in the context of approximation:
 - if we intend to approximate the true distribution (P) with an approximation of it (Q)
- It is always larger than $H(P)$: it is the (non-optimum) average code-length of P coded using Q
- It is a common *error function* in ML for categorical distributions

Note: the notation $H(X, Y)$ is also used for *joint entropy*.

KL-divergence / relative entropy

For two distribution P and Q with same support, Kullback–Leibler divergence of Q from P (or relative entropy of P given Q) is defined as

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P\|Q) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(\mathbf{x}) \log_2 \frac{P(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})}$$

- D_{KL} measures the amount of extra bits needed when Q is used instead of P
- $D_{\text{KL}}(P\|Q) = H(P, Q) - H(P)$
- Used for measuring difference between two distributions
- Note: it is not symmetric (not a distance measure)

Short divergence: distance measure

A *distance* function, or a *metric*, satisfies:

- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 0$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0 \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$
- $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + d(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})$

We will use distance measures/metrics often in this course.

Summary

- Information theory has many applications in NLP and ML
- We reviewed a number of important concepts from the information theory
 - Self information
 - Pointwise MI
 - Cross entropy
 - Entropy
 - Mutual information
 - KL-divergence

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Next:

Wed Exercises

Fri ML intro / regression

Mon Classification

Further reading

- The original article from Shannon (1948), which started the field, is also quite easy to read.
- MacKay (2003) covers most of the topics discussed, in a way quite relevant to machine learning. The complete book is available freely online (see the link below)



MacKay, David J. C. (2003). *Information Theory, Inference and Learning Algorithms*. Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 978-05-2164-298-9. URL: <http://www.inference.phy.cam.ac.uk/itprnn/book.html>.



Shannon, Claude E. (1948). "A mathematical theory of communication". In: *Bell Systems Technical Journal* 27, pp. 379–423, 623–656.