

CPSC 532P / LING 530A: Deep Learning for Natural Language Processing (DL-NLP)

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Many of the current slides are a summary Chapter 3 in Goodfellow et al. (2016). More information can be found therein. Note: The authors credit Pearl (1988) for a lot of the content of the chapter. Other sources used here are credited where appropriate.

Information Theory: Claude Shannon

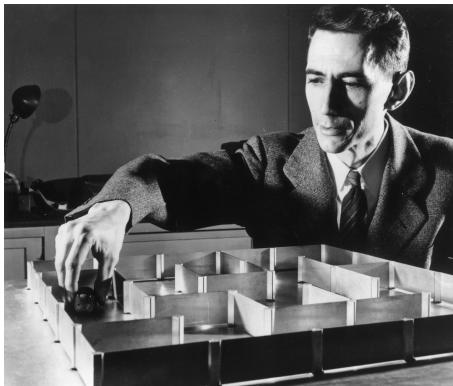


Figure: Claude Shannon. [From Time]. Check about Claude Shannon, e.g. short documentary [here] & lecture by Robert G. Gallager [here].

Information: A Book

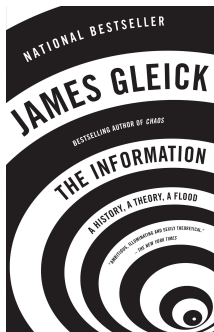


Figure: Blurb: A fascinating intellectual journey through the history of communication and information, from the language of Africa's talking drums to the invention of written alphabets; from the electronic transmission of code to the origins of information theory, into the new information age and the current deluge of news, tweets, images, and blogs. . .

What is information theory?

- Focused on **quantifying** how much information is present in a **signal**
- Originally **invented** to study sending messages from **discrete alphabets** over a **noisy channel**
- Communication via **radio transmission** is an example
- Answers **how to design optimal codes**
- Tells **how to calculate the expected length of messages** sampled from specific probability distributions

Intuition

- Learning that an **unlikely event** has occurred is **more informative** than learning that a likely event has occurred.
- “The sun rose this morning”: **not informative enough** to send as a message
- “There was a solar eclipse this morning”: **very informative**

Goal: Quantify Info. Such That:

- **Likely events:** have **low information content**, events **guaranteed to happen**: **no information content**
- **Less likely events:** higher information content.
- **Independent events:** have **additive information**. Finding out that a tossed coin has come up as heads twice conveys twice as much information as finding out that a tossed coin has come up as heads once.

Self-Information of Event $X=x$

- **Self-information** deals only with a **single outcome**.
- It is the **surprise** when a random variable is sampled.

1: Self-Information of Event $X=x$

$$I(x) = -\log_2 P(x)$$

Example of Self-Information

- When we toss a fair coin, $P(x=\text{"head"}=0.5)$,
 $I(x = 0.5) = -\log_2 P(0.5) = 1$ **bit** of information.
- **Note:** If we use base e , then the unit of measurement is **nats**. (Above gives ~ 0.693 nats).
- **Try it Python:** Base 2: `-math.log(0.5,2)`; Base e : `-math.log(0.5)`.

Surprisal of Document Language I

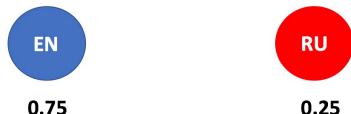


Figure: Probability of document language in and English& Russian collection.

Example: $I(X)$ For Document Language

- If we know the language of the Russian document, we would have a **surprisal of 2 bits** ($-\log_2(0.25)$)
- For English, we will have a **surprisal of 0.4150 bits** ($-\log_2(0.75)$) (We expect most docs to be in English, 75%).
- On avg., we get $(0.25 * 2) + (0.75 * 0.4150) = 0.81125$ bits of **information**. This is entropy! (**Average surprise**)...

Surprisal of Document Language II



0.75



0.25

Example: $I(X)$ For Document Language

- On avg., we get $(0.25 * 2) + (0.75 * 0.4150) = 0.81125$ bits of **information**. This is entropy!
- Entropy measures the **average** amount of information we get from one sample from a given probability distribution P .
- Equivalently, it tells us how **uncertain** we are.

Shannon Entropy

- The **Shannon entropy** of a distribution is the expected amount of information in an event drawn from that distribution.
- Thus allows us to quantify the amount of uncertainty in an entire probability distribution. (See below, but also denoted $H(P)$)

2: Shannon entropy

Recall: self_info. : $I(x) = -\log_2 P(x)$

$$H(x) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim P} [I(x)] = -\mathbb{E}_{x \sim P} [\log_2 P(x)]$$

- Gives a lower bound on the number of bits (or nats) needed on avg to encode symbols drawn from a distribution P .
- Nearly deterministic distributions: have low entropy;
- Distributions closer to uniform: high entropy (i.e., high uncertainty)

Example on Entropy

3: Entropy (Expectation Re-Written)

$$\mathbb{E}(f(x)) = \sum_{x \in X} f(x)P(x)$$

$$H(x) = - \sum_{x \in X} P(x) \log_2 P(x)$$

- Entropy is always **greater than or equal to zero**: $H(X) \geq 0$.
- Let $x=\{1,2,3\}$, with $P=(1/2, 1/4, 1/4)$. **What is $H(X)$?**

Example: $H(X)$

- **Note 1:** $-\log_2(1/2) = -(\log_2(1) - \log_2(2)) = -(0 - 1) = 1$
- **Note 2:** $-\log_2(1/4) = -(\log_2(1) - \log_2(4)) = -(0 - 2) = 2$
- **$H(X) = -1/2 \log_2(1/2) - 1/4 \log_2(1/4) - 1/4 \log_2(1/4) = 3/2$**

Remarks on Entropy

- **Recall:** $\log_2(0) = -\infty$
- For any element of x_i for which $p(x_i) = 0$, we will get $0 * -\infty$ (undefined).
- In this case, we define $0 * \log_2(0) = 0$.
- (Recall: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \log_2(x) = 0$)

Kullback–Leibler Divergence (KL Divergence) I

KL Divergence

- Measures how one probability distribution is different from a second probability distribution.
- Always greater than or equal to zero
- A smaller KL divergence value means we can expect more similar behavior of the two distributions.

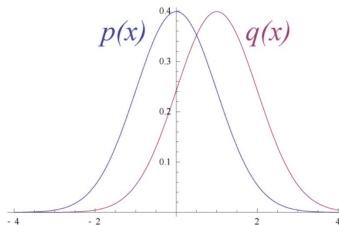


Figure: [From Wikipedia].

- With two prob distributions $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ over the same r.v. x

4: KL Divergence

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) =$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim P} \left[\log_2 \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim P} [\log_2 P(x) - \log_2 Q(x)].$$

- For discrete variables, it is *the extra amount of info. needed* to send a message containing symbols drawn from prob distrib P, **when we use a code designed to *minimize* the len of messages drawn from distrib Q.**

Properties of KL Divergence

- KL divergence is **non-negative**.
- KL divergence is **not symmetric** (i.e., $D_{KL}(P||Q) \neq D_{KL}(Q||P)$ (and so it is not a measure of distance)).
- The **KL divergence is 0 if and only** if P and Q are the same distribution in the case of discrete variables, or equal "almost everywhere" in the case of continuous variables.

KL Divergence for SRL I

- We are interested in how much information a given verb can tell us about the possible semantic class of its argument.
- This is useful for semantic role labeling.

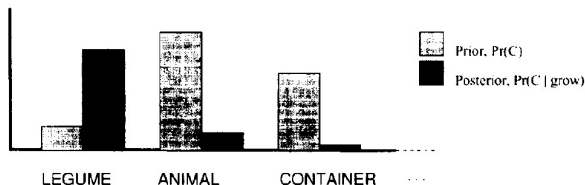


Fig. 1. Example of a prior distribution and a posterior distribution.

Figure: [From Resnik, 1996]

KL Divergence for SRL II

- We have **semantic class** c (e.g., "ANIMAL") to which an object argument of a verb v belongs.
- $P(c|v)$ is the **posterior** and $Q(c)$ is the **prior** of class c .
- Use KL-Divergence to calculate the **selectional preference strength** of a given verb v .

5: KL Divergence for SRL

$$S_R(v) = \sum_c P(c|v) \log_2 \frac{P(c|v)}{Q(c)}$$

KL Divergence for SRL III

```
1 import math
2 P_legume_given_grow= .80
3 P_animal_given_grow= .15
4 P_container_given_grow= .05
5 Q_legume = .20
6 Q_animal = .50
7 Q_container = .30
8 kl_c1=P_legume_given_grow * math.log(P_legume_given_grow/Q_legume)
9 kl_c2=P_animal_given_grow * math.log(P_animal_given_grow/Q_animal)
10 kl_c3=P_container_given_grow * math.log(P_container_given_grow/Q_container)
11 KL=kl_c1+kl_c2+kl_c3
12 print(KL)
```

0.838851594786

```
1 print("kl_c1 % 1.4f"% kl_c1)
2 print("kl_c2 % 1.4f"% kl_c2)
3 print("kl_c3 % 1.4f"% kl_c3)
4
```

kl_c1 1.1090
kl_c2 -0.1806
kl_c3 -0.0896

Figure: [From Resnik, 1996. Note: Resnik's model proceeds with further steps beyond what is shown here.]

Reversed: KL (Q||P)

```
1 kl_c1_r=Q_legume * math.log(Q_legume/P_legume_given_grow)
2 kl_c2_r=Q_animal * math.log(Q_animal/P_animal_given_grow)
3 kl_c3_r=Q_container * math.log(Q_container/P_container_given_grow)
4 KL_R=kl_c1_r+kl_c2_r+kl_c3_r
5 print(KL_R)
```

0.862255370707

```
1 print("kl_c1_r % 1.4f"% kl_c1_r)
2 print("kl_c2_r % 1.4f"% kl_c2_r)
3 print("kl_c3_r % 1.4f"% kl_c3_r)
```

kl_c1_r -0.2773

kl_c2_r 0.6020

kl_c3_r 0.5375