

Mathematics Review (2)

CS-585

Natural Language Processing

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INFORMATION THEORY REVIEW



Information Theory

- Developed in the 1940s by Claude Shannon
- Concerned with the optimal compression of information for communication over a channel with limited capacity
- Basic measure of information is bits—the number of binary 1/0 indicators used to encode a value

Information content / Bits

		Bits
	$egin{bmatrix} m{0} \ 1 \end{bmatrix} m{0} \ m{1} \end{bmatrix}$	2
	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$	4
SECRS II	$ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} $	2 log ₂ 6
	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}$	$6\log_2 20$

Information content / Bits

 Generally, the information content or optimal code length of an event drawn from a distribution with N equiprobable outcomes is

$$-\log_2 \frac{1}{N} = \log_2 N$$
 bits

 The information content of an event e drawn from a distribution P(X) over a discrete random variable X is

$$-\log_2 P(X=e)$$
 bits



Bits and nats

• In information theory, we generally use base-2 logs because it makes information values interpretable as the number of 0/1 bits of information we use to encode data for computers

$$-\log_2 P(X=e)$$
 bits

But an alternative unit using the natural logarithm is nats:

$$-\ln P(X=e)$$
 nats

• To convert from bits to nats, divide by $\log_2 e$:

$$-\log_2 P = -\log_2 e^{\ln P}$$

$$-\log_2 P = -\ln P \times \log_2 e$$

$$-\frac{\log_2 P}{\log_2 e} = -\ln P$$



Entropy

 Entropy (self-information) of a discrete random variable X is

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

• Optimal code length for X = x:

$$-\log_2 P(X = x)$$
 (bits)
 $-\ln P(X = x)$ (nats) ILLINOIS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

Entropy example

$$H(\langle 0.5,0.5 \rangle) = -E[\log_2 \langle 0.5,0.5 \rangle]$$

= $-\frac{1}{2}\log_2(0.5) - \frac{1}{2}\log_2(0.5)$
= 1

$$H\left(\left\langle \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6} \right\rangle\right) = -E\left[\log_2\left\langle \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6} \right\rangle\right]$$

$$= -\sum_{1}^{6} \frac{1}{6}\log_2\left(\frac{1}{6}\right)$$

$$= \log_2 6$$

Entropy example

$$H(\langle .1, .7, .15, .05 \rangle) = -E[\log_2 \langle .1, .7, .15, .05 \rangle]$$

$$= -.1 \log_2 (.1) - .7 \log_2 (.7)$$

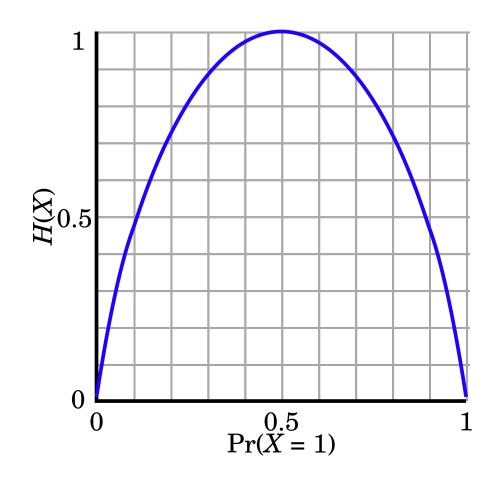
$$= -.15 \log_2 (.15) - .05 \log_2 (.05)$$

$$= .33 + .36 + .41 + .22 = 1.32$$

 Lower entropy than we would get for a uniform distribution (0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25) (which would be 2 bits)

Entropy of a weighted coin

- Think of entropy as uncertainty
- For a Bernoulli
 distribution, the
 uncertainty is
 maximized when
 both outcomes are
 equiprobable





The Entropy of English

- We can think of a language as an orthographic symbol generation process governed by some unknown probability distribution $P_{lang}(X)$
- What is $H(P_{lang}(X))$?
- How uncertain/unpredictable is the next symbol in a text from a given language?

The Entropy of English: Upper Bounds

- We can calculate an upper bound on the entropy of a language like English by
 - Using a model to estimate the probabilities of symbols in the language
 - Calculating the average code length that an encoding based on this probability distribution would assign to symbols that actually occur in the language
- Model 1: unigram probabilities

$$P(X = x \in \{a - z, _\}) = \frac{Count(x)}{Count(y \in \{a - z, _\})}$$

• Unigram probabilities give us an estimate of $\widehat{H}(X) = 4.03$ bits per letter for English

The Entropy of English: Upper Bounds

N-gram probabilities

$$P(X = x \in \{a - z, _\} | \mathcal{H}(X)) = \frac{Count(x, \mathcal{H})}{Count(y \in \{a - z, _\}, \mathcal{H})}$$

- Bigram probabilities give us an estimate of $\widehat{H}(X) = 2.8$ bits per letter for English
- Neural language models give us estimates of under 1.5 bits per letter.
- Experimental estimates put the "true" entropy of English at about 1.3 bits per character
 - https://www.princeton.edu/~wbialek/rome/refs/shannon_51.pdf

Optimal Coding

- We know that the optimal code length for message m drawn from distribution X is $\log P(X = m)$, but how to construct code that approximates this bound?
- Multiple algorithms:
 - Huffman coding
 - Arithmetic coding
 - Hu-Tucker coding

Huffman Coding

- 1. Initialize queue \mathbf{Q} with pairs $\phi_i = [s_i, p_i]$, where s is a symbol from the vocabulary, and p is its associated probability
- 2. While ||Q|| > 1
 - 1. Remove the two lowest-probability elements ϕ_j and ϕ_k from Q, and create a new pair $\phi_{\parallel Q \parallel +1} = [\langle s_j, s_k \rangle, p_j + p_k]$
 - 2. Add the new node to Q
- 3. The remaining pair in the queue contains a binary tree that can be used to assign codes
- [Notebook]



Cross-entropy and perplexity

- If *entropy* is the information in bits required to represent a message using an optimal encoding derived from the **true** distribution...
- Cross-entropy is the information in bits required to represent a message using an optimal encoding derived from a different distribution
- We encountered this already when bounding the entropy of English
- Cross-entropy is always an upper bound on the entropy

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Cross-entropy and perplexity

 The cross-entropy between two distributions P and Q (where Q is often a model of the true distribution P) is

$$H(P(X), Q(X)) = -E_{P(X)}[\log_2 Q(X)]$$
$$= -\sum_{x \in X} P(X = x) \log_2 Q(X = x)$$

 This is the expected number of bits required to encode messages from P using an encoding system from Q, and is <u>not</u> symmetric

$$H(P,Q) \neq H(Q,P)$$

 $H(P,Q) \geq H(P)$



Cross-entropy and perplexity

 Many speech recognition and language modeling tasks use perplexity, rather than cross-entropy as an evaluation measure

$$Perplexity(P(X), Q(X)) = 2^{H(P(X),Q(X))}$$

 For a sequence of observations (words, characters), the perplexity is just

$$\prod_{i=1,n} Q(X_i = x_i)^{-1}$$

Where *n* is the length of the sequence

 Perplexity is the inverse of the probability of the sequence under the model

Conditional Entropy

- How related are two random variables X and Y to one another?
- In information-theoretic terms, how efficiently can you encode X given the value of Y?
- This is the conditional entropy:

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} P(Y = y)H(X|Y = y)$$

Mutual Information

• The difference between the entropy H(X) and the conditional entropy H(X|Y) is called the mutual information between the two random variables:

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

- When Y provides no information about X, I(X;Y) = 0
- When Y provides complete information about X, I(X;Y) = H(X)
- Mutual information is symmetric:

$$I(X;Y) = I(Y;X)$$

Distributional Similarity Measures

- How different are two distributions P(X) and Q(X)?
 - We looked at cross-entropy, which tells us how efficient a coding system designed for one distribution is for encoding a different distribution
 - But cross-entropy depends on the entropy of the distribution to be encoded:

$$H(P,Q) \ge H(P)$$



Distributional Similarity Measures: KL Divergence

- Solution: measure the incremental encoding length, rather then the encoding length directly.
- This measure is the Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence
- It is defined as the cross-entropy minus the entropy of the distribution to be encoded:

$$D_{KL}(P(X) \parallel Q(X)) = H(P(X), Q(X)) - H(P(X))$$

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

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

$$= -\sum_{x \in X} P(X = x) \left(\log_2 \frac{Q(X = x)}{P(X = x)} \right)$$

KL Divergence example

$$P(X) = \langle .1, .5, .4 \rangle$$

$$Q(X) = \langle .2, .2, .6 \rangle$$

$$D_{KL}(P \parallel Q) = -\sum_{x \in X} P(X = x) \left(\log_2 \frac{Q(X = x)}{P(X = x)} \right)$$

$$= -.1 \log_2(\frac{.2}{.1}) - .5 \log_2(\frac{.2}{.5}) - .4 \log_2(\frac{.6}{.4})$$

$$= -0.1 + 0.66 - .23 = \mathbf{0.33}$$

KL Divergence example

$$P(X) = \langle .1, .5, .4 \rangle$$

$$Q(X) = \langle .2, .2, .6 \rangle$$

$$D_{KL}(Q \parallel P) = -\sum_{x \in X} Q(X = x) \left(\log_2 \frac{P(X = x)}{Q(X = x)} \right)$$

$$= -.2 \log_2(\frac{.1}{.2}) - .2 \log_2(\frac{.5}{.2}) - .6 \log_2(\frac{.4}{.6})$$

$$= 0.2 - 0.26 + 0.35 = \mathbf{0}.\mathbf{29}$$

Distributional Similarity Measures: JS Divergence

KL Divergence is not symmetric:

$$D_{KL}(P(X) \parallel Q(X)) \neq D_{KL}(Q(X) \parallel P(X))$$

 A commonly-used symmetric measure of distributional distance is the Jensen-Shannon (JS) Divergence:

$$M(X) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{(P(X) + Q(X))}{2}$$

$$D_{JS}(P(X) \parallel Q(X)) = \frac{D_{KL}(P(X) \parallel M(X)) + D_{KL}(Q(X) \parallel M(X))}{2}$$

- Why not $\frac{D_{KL}(P||Q)+D_{KL}(Q||P)}{2}$?
 - Eliminate case where $\log Q(X = x) = 0$, infinite values

JS Divergence example

$$P(X) = \langle .1, .5, .4 \rangle$$

$$Q(X) = \langle .2, .2, .6 \rangle$$

$$M(X) = \frac{P(X) + Q(X)}{2} = \langle .15, .35, .5 \rangle$$

$$D_{KL}(P \parallel M) = -\sum_{x \in X} P(X = x) \left(\log_2 \frac{M(X = x)}{P(X = x)} \right)$$

$$= -.1 \log_2(\frac{.15}{.1}) - .5 \log_2(\frac{.35}{.5}) - .4 \log_2(\frac{.5}{.4})$$

$$= -0.058 + 0.257 - 0.129 = 0.070$$

JS Divergence example

$$P(X) = \langle .1, .5, .4 \rangle$$

$$Q(X) = \langle .2, .2, .6 \rangle$$

$$M(X) = \frac{P(X) + Q(X)}{2} = \langle .15, .35, .5 \rangle$$

$$D_{KL}(Q \parallel M) = -\sum_{x \in X} Q(X = x) \left(\log_2 \frac{M(X = x)}{Q(X = x)} \right)$$

$$= -.2 \log_2(\frac{.15}{.2}) - .2 \log_2(\frac{.35}{.2}) - .6 \log_2(\frac{.5}{.6})$$

$$= 0.083 - 0.161 + 0.158 = 0.079$$

JS Divergence example

$$D_{JS}(P \parallel Q) = \frac{D_{KL}(P \parallel M) + D_{KL}(Q \parallel M)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{0.70 + 0.79}{2}$$

$$\approx 0.75$$

$$D_{JS}(Q \parallel P) = \frac{D_{KL}(Q \parallel M) + D_{KL}(P \parallel M)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{0.79 + 0.70}{2}$$

$$\approx 0.75$$