

# Probability, Information Theory, and Physics

From Information Theory to Physics  
and from Physics to Deep Learning

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Today's main goal:

- ▶ Introduce basic concepts used in *information theory*
- ▶ Go through some examples to demonstrate the capabilities of information theory
- ▶ Relate the above to well-known results in physics—particularly, some *Statistical Mechanics*
- ▶ Use physics to motivate some *Deep Learning* algorithms

For this, the prerequisites are:

- ▶ Understanding of calculus
- ▶ Exposure to basic ideas in probabilities and statistics
- ▶ Physics will be derived, but previous exposure will help



*Probability* measures how likely an event is to occur or a proposition be true. In other words, it represents *uncertainty*.

There is some subtlety here, however...

- ▶ Frequentist: relative *occurrence* of the event under consideration after repeated (infinite) trials
- ▶ Bayesian: the *confidence* in a belief or a prediction

This is a very interesting and important debate, but we will use 'probability' interchangeably.

Mathematically, the probability of a state  $x$  in the set of all possibilities  $X$  is denoted as  $P_X(x)$  and  $0 \leq P_X(x) \leq 1$ . Probability density  $p_X(x)$  is the generalization of this concept to continuous variable (uncountable set of possibilities) and is unbound.



## Property 1: Range & Limits

The statement “sun rose from the east this morning” doesn't really mean much; it has *zero* information. However, a surprising/rare event holds *a lot* of information. Mathematically,

$$P(x) \rightarrow 1^- \implies I(x) \rightarrow 0^+$$

$$P(x) \rightarrow 0^+ \implies I(x) \rightarrow \infty$$

## Property 2: Independence $\iff$ Additivity

Suppose that two events  $x$  and  $y$  are *independent*. When we learn that  $x$  *and*  $y$  happened, the information gained must be a *sum* of information held by each. Hence,

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y) \implies I(x, y) = I(x) + I(y)$$



In addition, we assume that  $I(x)$  is continuous. Then, such a function is *unique* (up to a constant  $> 0$ ). Hence, we define:

$$I(x) \equiv -\log(P(x))$$

and call it the *self-information* (also called surprisal) of an event  $x$ . Note that the base of the log is irrelevant.

Another crucial quantity for today is the *Shannon entropy*:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H}[P] &\equiv \mathbb{E}[I(x)] = - \sum_{x \in X} P(x) \log P(x) \\ \mathcal{H}[p] &\equiv \mathbb{E}[I(x)] = - \int_X p(x) \log p(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

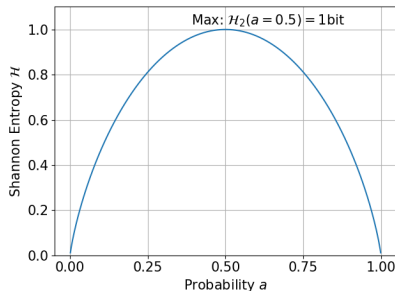
and we define  $0 \log 0 = 0$  (continuous extension).

(The generalization to continuous variables is sometimes called the *differential entropy* and has some caveats.)



Consider a *Bernoulli process* (i.e., coin flip) such that  $X = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $P(x = 0) = a$ , and  $P(x = 1) = 1 - a$ . Then:

$$\mathcal{H}_2 = -a \log_2 a - (1-a) \log_2 (1-a)$$



Moreover, for any discrete distribution  $P(x)$  on  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ ,

$$\mathcal{H}[P] \leq \log n$$

and equality holds if and only if  $P$  is a *uniform* distribution. In other words, for a discrete distribution, the entropy is *maximized* when it is uniform.



Now, let  $x$  be a *continuous* variable taking values from an interval  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$  with a finite total length  $\ell$ . Then, similarly, the uniform distribution

$$p : x \in X \mapsto \frac{1}{\ell}$$

has the *maximum* entropy:  $\mathcal{H}[p] = \log \ell$ .

The proof is analogous to that of the discrete case, but replace all  $\sum_{i=1}^n$  to  $\int_X dx$ .

Hence, if there are *no other constraints*, the probability distribution over  $X$  with maximum entropy is a uniform distribution.



... but

*so what?*

We just re-derived the principle of *indifference* (equal a priori probability), which is almost common sense and has been known for long time. Are we doing anything *new*?

Yes. We can re-formulate the same (equilibrium) statistical mechanics differently (with less assumption)!

## Statistical Mechanics with Maxwell, Boltzmann, and Gibbs

Equal a priori probability & physical knowledge

⇒ Thermodynamics & statistical mechanics

e.g. large # of degree of freedoms, microstates, etc.





*Principle of Maximum Entropy* states:

Given some testable information, the probability distribution that best represents our current knowledge is the one that maximizes (Shannon) entropy.

Applications: *equilibrium statistical mechanics*, coding theory (FEC), Bayesian inference, *deep learning*, etc.

## *MaxEnt* Statistical Mechanics

*Edwin T. Jaynes*, Physical Review (1957)

*Principle of Maximum Entropy*

⇒ physical results as statistical inference

Known macroscopic physical quantities are merely constraints to the entropy maximization problem.



As a first 'non-trivial' example, consider  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with *extra information*: its mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . i.e.,

$$g_1(p; x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p \, dx - 1 = 0$$

$$g_2(p; x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp \, dx - \mu = 0$$

$$g_3(p; x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 p \, dx - \sigma^2 = 0$$

Then, consider:

$$\begin{aligned} F[p] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -p \log p \, dx + \sum_i \lambda_i g_i(p; x) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -p \log p + \lambda_1 p + \lambda_2 xp + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2 p \, dx - (\text{cons.}) \end{aligned}$$

and define  $\mathcal{L} \equiv -p \log p + \lambda_1 p + \lambda_2 xp + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2 p$ .



The entropy is *maximized* when:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p} = -1 - \log p + \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 x + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2 = 0.$$

$$\therefore p(x) = \exp(\lambda_1 - 1 + \lambda_2 x + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2)$$

Since  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx$  must be finite,  $\lambda_2 = 0$  and  $\lambda_3 < 0$ . Re-defining the constants, we can re-write:  $p(x) = C \exp(-b(x - \mu)^2)$ . Then, the constraints require  $C = \sqrt{\frac{b}{\pi}}$  and  $b = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}$ . Therefore,

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right]$$

which is the *Gaussian distribution* with the specified mean and variance. Gaussian distribution is the *MaxEnt* distribution when the mean and the variance are known.



Now, consider a  $n$ -dimensional distribution  $p : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . As in Example 2, we have constraints: the *mean* and the *covariance* are  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$ . Then, the *MaxEnt* distribution is the *multi-variate Gaussian*:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n |\Sigma|}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu) \right] .$$

In particular, if  $x_i$ 's are independent of each other,

$$\Sigma = \text{diag} (\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2)$$

and therefore the *MaxEnt* distribution becomes:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \left( \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_i} \right) \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i} \right)^2 \right] .$$



Since this is a physics talk after all, let's consider a case found in the natural world. Consider a collection of independent point particles with a common mass  $m$  moving around *randomly and isotropically* with velocity  $\mathbf{v}$ .

Under the constraints  $\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma^2, \sigma^2, \sigma^2)$ , the *MaxEnt* distribution over velocity is:

$$p(v_x, v_y, v_z) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

Empirically, however, it is more useful to consider a distribution over *speed*, not velocity:

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2} \quad \text{and} \quad d\mathbf{v} = v^2 \sin \theta \, dv \, d\theta \, d\phi.$$



Integrating over all solid angle, we obtain:

$$p(v) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2}} 4\pi v^2 \exp\left(-\frac{v^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

Note that  $\sigma^2$  has dimension of  $v^2$ . Since  $KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$  classically, it is useful to define:

$$\sigma^2 \sim \frac{KE}{m} \implies \sigma^2 = \frac{\epsilon}{m}$$

where  $\epsilon$  is some energy scale. (Thermodynamically,  $\epsilon = k_B T$ .)

Then, we retain the 'familiar' expression in physics:

$$p(v) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{2\pi\epsilon}\right)^3} 4\pi v^2 \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2\epsilon}\right)$$

which is the *Maxwell-Boltzmann Distribution* over speed.



Let us go back to *discrete* probabilities. Consider a random variable  $s \in S = \{s_1, \dots, s_N\}$ . Also, let there be a function  $E : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and denote  $E(s_i) \equiv E_i$ . This time, let our constraint be on  $\mathbb{E}(E)$ , instead of  $\mathbb{E}(s)$ . i.e.,  $\sum_{i=1}^N P_i E_i = \langle E \rangle$ .

The corresponding *MaxEnt* distribution is:

$$P_i = \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^N e^{-\beta E_j}}$$

which is often called the *Boltzmann Statistics* (distribution).

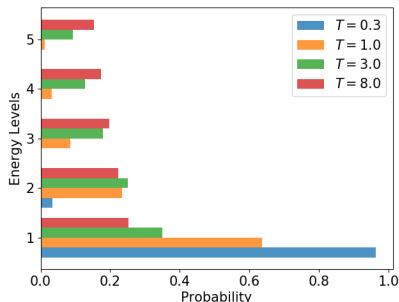
Physically,  $s_i$ 's are discrete (quantum) states and  $E_i$ 's their respective *energies*.  $\beta$  defines (absolute) *temperature*:  $\beta \equiv 1/k_B T$ .



In particular, assuming no degeneracy (no different  $s_i$ 's have same energy  $E_i$ ),

$$0 < k_B T \ll \bar{E} \implies P_1 \approx 1$$

$$k_B T \gg \bar{E} \implies P_i \approx \frac{1}{N}$$



However,  $E$  need not be one-to-one. That is,  $E_i$ 's are not necessarily distinct. Hence,

Physically *different* states can be *equally* likely.

e.g. a collection of gas molecules, magnetic moment (spin) alignment, pixelated images, etc.





In other words, for statistical purposes, energy effectively *summarizes* states.

- ▶ Microscopic: each  $s_i$ , fully specified to the smallest scale, phenomenologically indistinguishable
- ▶ Global/Macroscopic: all  $s_i$ 's with same  $E_i$ , only the total energy is specified, *meaningful* difference

This is at the core philosophy of *statistics* and also is a key challenge of *learning*.

- ▶ Statistics: deducing meaningful overall features from many individual components
- ▶ Learning: must distinguish and extract meaningless and meaningful features in order to generalize properly



Our last application is a basic *deep learning* algorithm.

Consider a system with *many* degrees of freedom, and suppose we want to extract meaningful features from a data set.

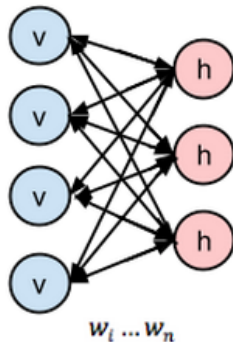
For this, we use to binary vectors:

Visible:  $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$

Hidden:  $\mathbf{h} = [h_1, \dots, h_m]$

and define:

$$E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m v_i w_{ij} h_j \\ - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i - \sum_{j=1}^m b_j h_j$$

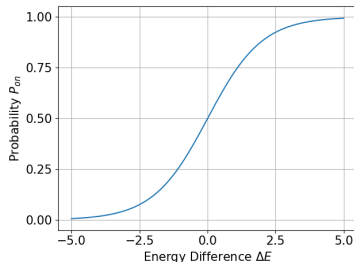




Now, we need to *train* the energy function such that it has stably low values for a *meaningful* set of microscopic states.

First, we need to know how to *update* states. Consider a hidden unit  $h_j$  being on v.s. off. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{on}} &= \frac{e^{-E_{\text{on}}/T}}{e^{-E_{\text{on}}/T} + e^{-E_{\text{off}}/T}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E}{T}\right)} \end{aligned}$$



Hence, given initial training data  $\mathbf{v}$  and prior guesses on  $a_i, b_j, w_{ij}$ , we can stochastically *generate*  $\mathbf{h}$ , *reconstruct*  $\mathbf{v}'$ , and onwards.



Now that we can generate stochastic *neighboring* (microscopic) states, we tune/update parameters such that their energies are *minimized* globally.

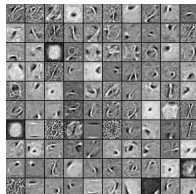
$$\Delta W = \epsilon (\mathbf{v}\mathbf{h}^T - \mathbf{v}'\mathbf{h}'^T),$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{a} = \epsilon (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}'), \quad \Delta \mathbf{b} = \epsilon (\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{h}')$$

Here are some results applied on *text recognition*.



(a) Training Data



(b) Filters ( $w_{ij}$ 's)



(c) Samples



To sum up today's talk, we explored:

- ▶ How to quantify *information* with (Shannon) entropy
- ▶ *Principle of Maximum Entropy* (epistemic modesty)
- ▶ Jaynes formalism of (equilibrium) statistical mechanics, one key result being *Boltzmann Statistics*
- ▶ Application of Boltzmann statistics in *deep learning*

... and there are MANY more interesting applications and research topics in the area. Feel free to talk to me later!

## THANK YOU!



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