

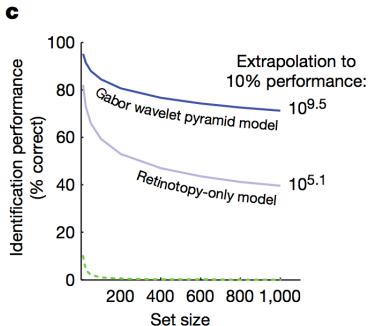
# Estimating mutual information for high-dimensional sparse relationships

Charles Zheng

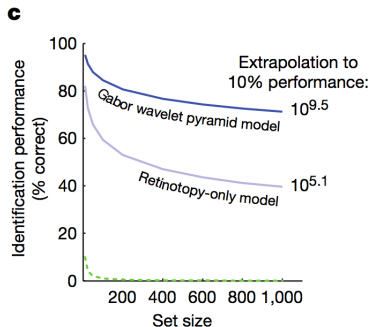
Stanford University

January 24, 2017

(Joint work with Yuval Benjamini, Hebrew University.)

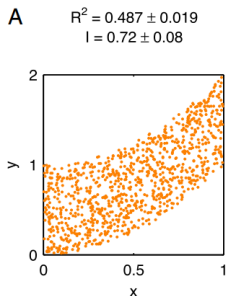


- Much of my work has been inspired by use of machine learning in encoding/decoding models in fMRI (Kay et al. 2008, Nishimoto et al. 2011)



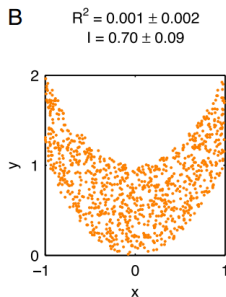
- Much of my work has been inspired by use of machine learning in encoding/decoding models in fMRI (Kay et al. 2008, Nishimoto et al. 2011)
- E.g.: Extrapolating classification accuracy curves (Z., Achanta, and Benjamini 2016)

# This talk

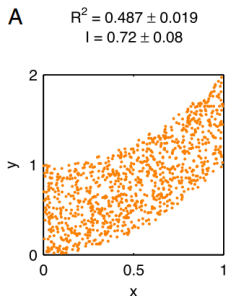


Mutual information  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$

- measures dependence between two random vectors,  $\vec{X}$  and  $\vec{Y}$

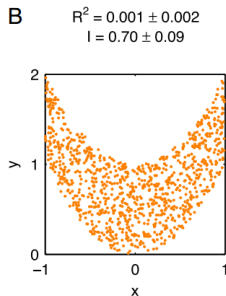


# This talk

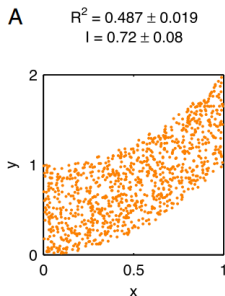


Mutual information  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$

- measures dependence between two random vectors,  $\vec{X}$  and  $\vec{Y}$
- applies to nonlinear and multidimensional relationships (unlike correlation)

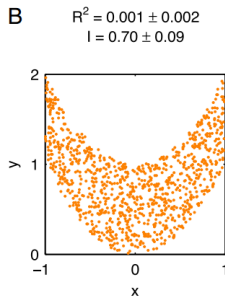


# This talk

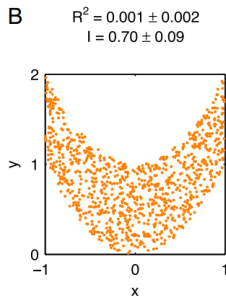
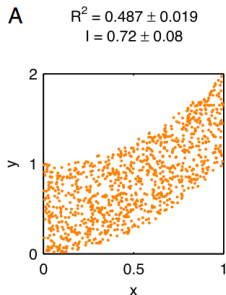


Mutual information  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$

- measures dependence between two random vectors,  $\vec{X}$  and  $\vec{Y}$
- applies to nonlinear and multidimensional relationships (unlike correlation)
- is *difficult to estimate* in high dimensions



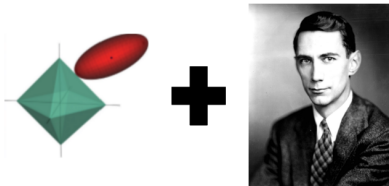
# This talk



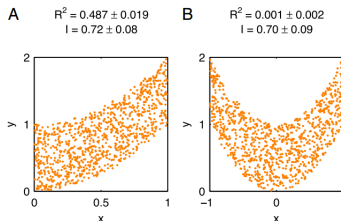
Mutual information  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$

- measures dependence between two random vectors,  $\vec{X}$  and  $\vec{Y}$
- applies to nonlinear and multidimensional relationships (unlike correlation)
- is *difficult to estimate* in high dimensions

We combine *machine learning* (sparse estimation) with *information theory* to obtain better estimates of  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$



# Mutual information $I(X; Y)$



Introduced in Shannon's 1948 paper, "A mathematical theory of communication"

$$I(X; Y) = \int \log \left( \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right) p(x, y) dx dy$$

Image credit Kinney et al. 2014.



# Applications of $I(X; Y)$

Mutual information has since been applied to many areas outside of information theory

# Applications of $I(X; Y)$

Mutual information has since been applied to many areas outside of information theory

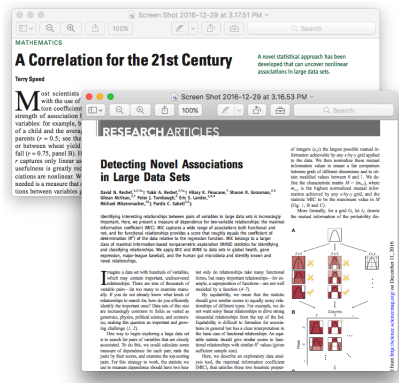
## Applications [\[ edit \]](#)

In many applications, one wants to maximize mutual information (thus

- In [search engine technology](#), mutual information between phrases
- In [telecommunications](#), the [channel capacity](#) is equal to the mutual information
- [Discriminative training](#) procedures for [hidden Markov models](#) have
- [RNA secondary structure](#) prediction from a [multiple sequence alignment](#)
- [Phylogenetic profiling](#) prediction from pairwise presence and absence
- Mutual information has been used as a criterion for [feature selection](#) the [minimum redundancy feature selection](#).
- Mutual information is used in determining the similarity of two documents
- Mutual information of words is often used as a significance function for word pairs; rather, one counts instances where 2 words occur adjacent to each other, goes up with N.
- Mutual information is used in [medical imaging](#) for [image registration](#) reference image, this image is deformed until the mutual information is maximized
- Detection of [phase synchronization](#) in [time series](#) analysis
- In the [infomax](#) method for neural-net and other machine learning,

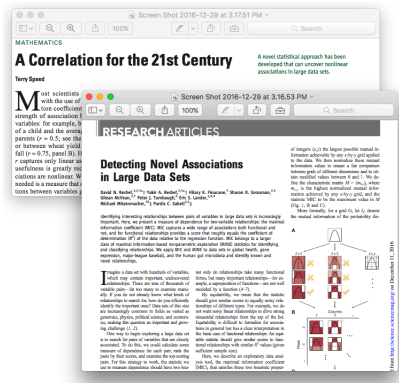
Engineering, biology, computer science, physics, medicine

# Comparing $I(X; Y)$ with Pearson correlation



- In many applications scientists are interested in *dependence*, not *correlation* (Reshef et al. 2011, Speed 2011).

# Comparing $I(X; Y)$ with Pearson correlation



- In many applications scientists are interested in *dependence*, not *correlation* (Reshef et al. 2011, Speed 2011).
- Only mutual information (and derived quantities) measures dependence directly.

# Problems with mutual information

- Hard to interpret (compared to  $R^2$ )

# Problems with mutual information

- Hard to interpret (compared to  $R^2$ )
  - Define the “informational correlation” (Linfoot 1957)

$$\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y) = \sqrt{1 - e^{-2I(X; Y)}}$$

# Problems with mutual information

- Hard to interpret (compared to  $R^2$ )
  - Define the “informational correlation” (Linfoot 1957)

$$\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y) = \sqrt{1 - e^{-2I(X; Y)}}$$

- Then  $\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y) \in [0, 1]$ .
- For  $(X, Y)$  bivariate normal,

$$|\text{Cor}_{\text{Pearson}}(X, Y)| = \text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y)$$

# Problems with mutual information

- Hard to interpret (compared to  $R^2$ )
  - Define the “informational correlation” (Linfoot 1957)

$$\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y) = \sqrt{1 - e^{-2I(X; Y)}}$$

- Then  $\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y) \in [0, 1]$ .
- For  $(X, Y)$  bivariate normal,

$$|\text{Cor}_{\text{Pearson}}(X, Y)| = \text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}(X, Y)$$

- Hard to estimate (compared to  $R^2$ )



# How to estimate $I(X; Y)$

Suppose we observe pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n$  iid from density  $p(x, y)$

- Definition of mutual information:

$$I(X; Y) = \int \log \left( \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right) p(x, y) dx dy$$

# How to estimate $I(X; Y)$

Suppose we observe pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n$  iid from density  $p(x, y)$

- Definition of mutual information:

$$I(X; Y) = \int \log \left( \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right) p(x, y) dx dy$$

- Kernel density estimate approaches estimate  $p(x, y)$  (Beirlant et al. 2001, Ivanov and Rozhkova 1981)
- Nearest neighbor estimators rely on distance-based computations (Mnatsakanov et al. 2008, Gorja et al. 2005, Singh et al. 2003)

# How to estimate $I(X; Y)$

Suppose we observe pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n$  iid from density  $p(x, y)$

- **Plug-in estimate:**

$$\hat{I}(X; Y) = \int \log \left( \frac{\hat{p}(x, y)}{\hat{p}(x)\hat{p}(y)} \right) \hat{p}(x, y) dx dy$$

- Kernel density estimate approaches estimate  $p(x, y)$  (Beirlant et al. 2001, Ivanov and Rozhkova 1981)
- Nearest neighbor estimators rely on distance-based computations (Mnatsakanov et al. 2008, Goria et al. 2005, Singh et al. 2003)

# Problems in high dimensions

- Density estimation is known to have *exponential complexity* with respect to dimensionality.
  - E.g. to get the same precision, you need 10 observations for univariate  $X, Y$  but 1000 for trivariate  $\vec{X}, \vec{Y}$ .

# Problems in high dimensions

- Density estimation is known to have *exponential complexity* with respect to dimensionality.
  - E.g. to get the same precision, you need 10 observations for univariate  $X, Y$  but 1000 for trivariate  $\vec{X}, \vec{Y}$ .
- Many applications with high-dimensional  $X, Y$ .
  - Gene expression time series
  - Functional magnetic resonance imaging

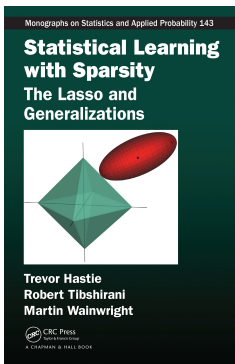
# Problems in high dimensions

- Density estimation is known to have *exponential complexity* with respect to dimensionality.
  - E.g. to get the same precision, you need 10 observations for univariate  $X, Y$  but 1000 for trivariate  $\vec{X}, \vec{Y}$ .
- Many applications with high-dimensional  $X, Y$ .
  - Gene expression time series
  - Functional magnetic resonance imaging
- One approach is to assume joint multivariate normality of  $X, Y$ , but this reduces mutual information to a linear statistic.

# Problems in high dimensions

- Density estimation is known to have *exponential complexity* with respect to dimensionality.
  - E.g. to get the same precision, you need 10 observations for univariate  $X, Y$  but 1000 for trivariate  $\vec{X}, \vec{Y}$ .
- Many applications with high-dimensional  $X, Y$ .
  - Gene expression time series
  - Functional magnetic resonance imaging
- One approach is to assume joint multivariate normality of  $X, Y$ , but this reduces mutual information to a linear statistic.
- Other approaches: binning (Bialek et al. 1991, Paninski 2003), confusion matrix of a classifier (Treves 1997, Quiroga et al. 2009)

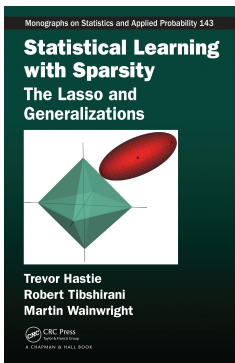
# New idea: Use sparsity!



- *Sparsity* refers to existence of low-dimensional structure hidden in high-dimensional data.

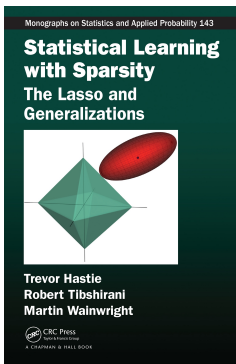


# New idea: Use sparsity!



- *Sparsity* refers to existence of low-dimensional structure hidden in high-dimensional data.
- E.g. suppose  $X$  is 100-dimensional but  $Y$  is only a function of  $(X_5, X_9)$ .

# New idea: Use sparsity!



- *Sparsity* refers to existence of low-dimensional structure hidden in high-dimensional data.
- E.g. suppose  $X$  is 100-dimensional but  $Y$  is only a function of  $(X_5, X_9)$ .
- Can we exploit sparsity to obtain a good estimate of  $I(X; Y)$  even under low sample sizes?

# Our proposal

Suppose we observe pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n$  iid from density  $p(x, y)$ .

- 1 Estimate a (sparse) regression model for  $\mathbf{E}[\vec{Y}|\vec{X}]$ .
- 2 Assess the *prediction accuracy* of the model using *identification loss* (Kay et al. 2008)
- 3 Use the identification loss to obtain a lower bound for the mutual information  $I(X; Y)$

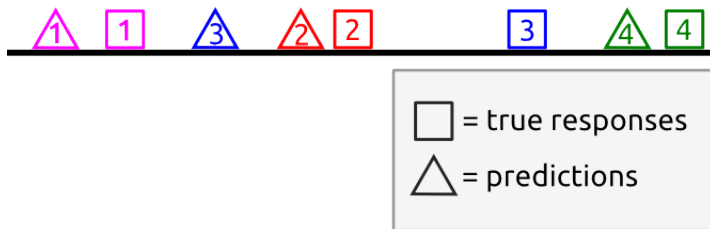
# Multiple-response regression

- Pairs  $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ , where  $X$  is  $p$ -dimensional and  $Y$  is  $q$ -dimensional.
- Data matrices  $\mathbf{X}_{n \times p}$ ,  $\mathbf{Y}_{n \times q}$ .
- For each column of  $Y$ , fit sparse model  $Y^{(i)} \approx X^T \beta^{(i)} + \epsilon$ , e.g. by using elastic net (Zou 2008),

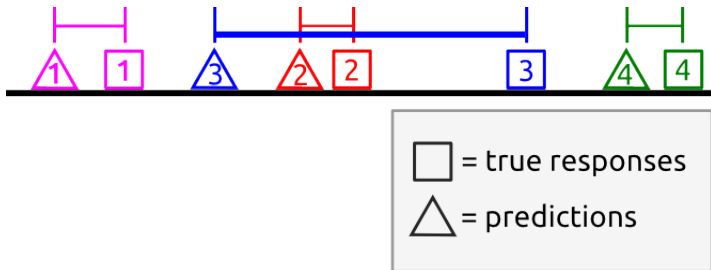
$$\hat{\beta}^{(i)} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \|\mathbf{X}^T \beta^{(i)} - Y^{(i)}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \|\beta^{(i)}\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \|\beta^{(i)}\|_1$$

- Or, fit a *random forest* model for each column of  $Y$  (Breiman 2001)

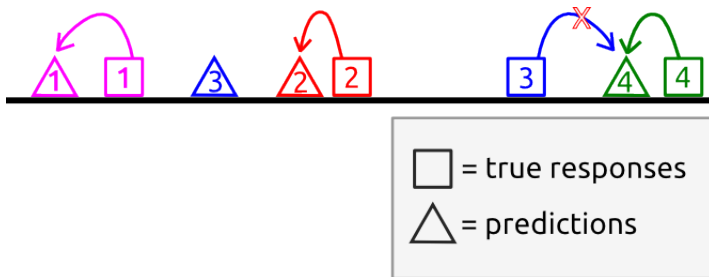
# Regression vs Identification loss



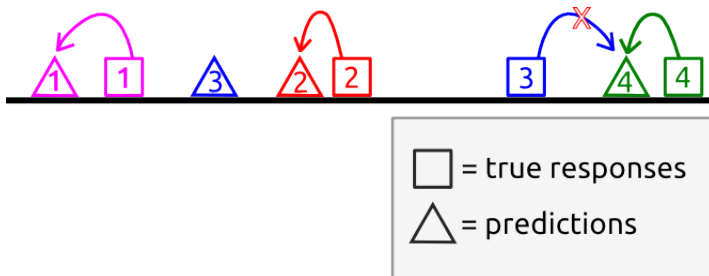
# Mean-squared error



# Identification loss



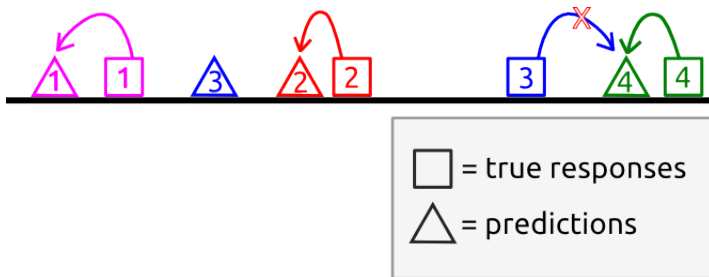
# Identification loss



- First used by Kay et al. (2008) to compare accuracy of center-surround model of V1 versus Gabor filter model of V1.



# Identification loss



- First used by Kay et al. (2008) to compare accuracy of center-surround model of V1 versus Gabor filter model of V1.
- We are the first to explore theoretical properties of the loss (e.g. connection to mutual information)

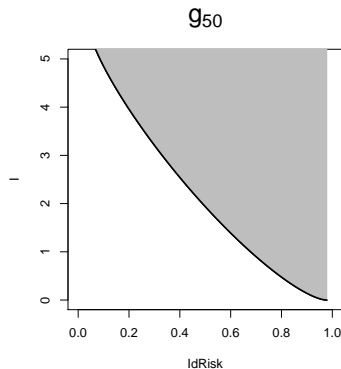
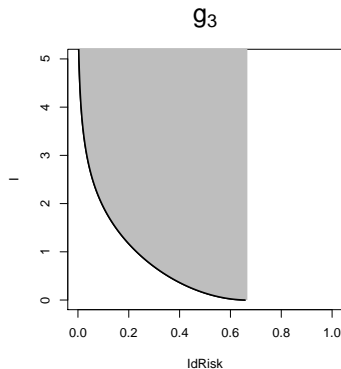
# Identification loss and mutual information

- Define the identification risk as the expected identification loss

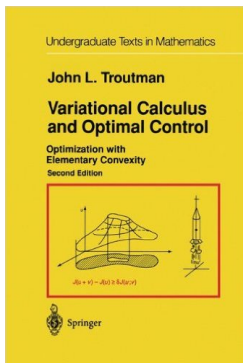
$$\text{IdRisk}_k = \mathbf{E}[\text{IdLoss}_k]$$

- Theorem.** (Z., Benjamini 2017) There exists a function  $g_k$  such that

$$I(X; Y) \geq g_k(\text{IdRisk}_k).$$

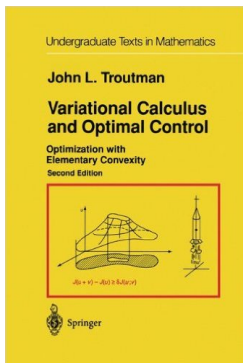


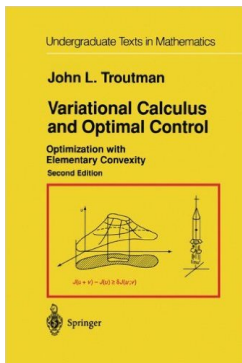
- Variational calculus allows optimization of *functionals*.



- Variational calculus allows optimization of *functionals*.
- Mutual information is a functional of  $p(x, y)$ .

$$I[p(x, y)] = \mathbf{E} \left[ \log \frac{p(X, Y)}{p(X)p(Y)} \right].$$



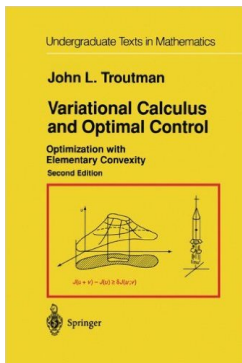


- Variational calculus allows optimization of *functionals*.
- Mutual information is a functional of  $p(x, y)$ .

$$I[p(x, y)] = \mathbf{E} \left[ \log \frac{p(X, Y)}{p(X)p(Y)} \right].$$

- Identification risk is *lower-bounded* by another functional—the **Bayes Risk**.

$$\text{BayesRisk}_k[p(x, y)] = 1 - \mathbf{E}[\max_{i=1}^k p(Y|X_i)].$$



- Variational calculus allows optimization of *functionals*.
- Mutual information is a functional of  $p(x, y)$ .

$$I[p(x, y)] = \mathbf{E} \left[ \log \frac{p(X, Y)}{p(X)p(Y)} \right].$$

- Identification risk is *lower-bounded* by another functional—the **Bayes Risk**.

$$\text{BayesRisk}_k[p(x, y)] = 1 - \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_{i=1}^k p(Y|X_i) \right].$$

- $g_k(u)$  obtained by minimizing  $I[p(x, y)]$  subject to  $\text{BayesRisk}_k[p(x, y)] \leq u$ .

**Theorem.** For any  $\iota > 0$ , there exists  $\beta_\iota \geq 0$  such that defining

$$q_\beta(t) = \frac{\exp[\beta t^{k-1}]}{\int_0^1 \exp[\beta t^{k-1}]},$$

we have

$$\int_0^1 q_{\beta_\iota}(t) \log q_{\beta_\iota}(t) dt = \iota.$$

Then,

$$g_k^{-1}(\iota) = \sup_{I(X;Y)=\iota} \text{BayesAcc}_k = \int_0^1 q_{\beta_\iota}(t) t^{k-1} dt.$$

# Our proposal

Suppose we observe pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n$  iid from density  $p(x, y)$ .

- 1 Estimate a (sparse) regression model for  $\mathbf{E}[\vec{Y}|\vec{X}]$ .
- 2 Compute *identification loss*,  $\text{IdLoss}_k$ , using *leave-k-out*.
- 3 Estimate mutual information using

$$\hat{I}_{\text{IdLoss}}(X; Y) = g_k(\text{IdLoss}_k).$$

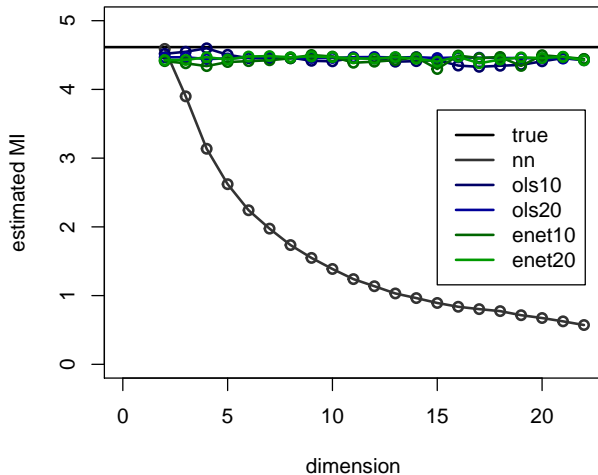


## Section 2

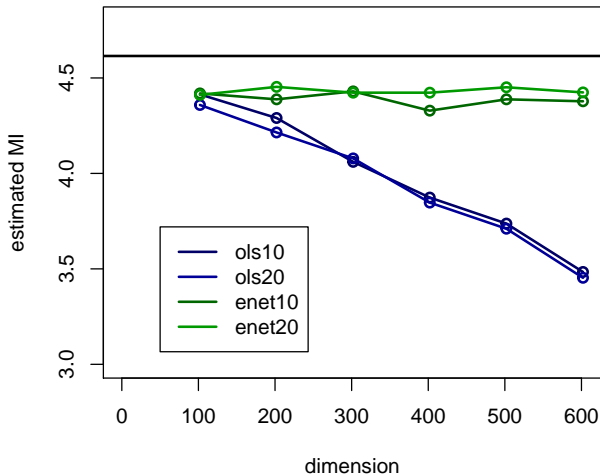
# Applications

- Generate data:  $(Y_1, Y_2) = (X_1, X_2)^T B + \epsilon$   
where  $B$  is a randomly generated coefficient matrix.
- Add extra noise dimensions  $X_3, X_4, \dots$
- $n = 1000$ .
- Compare Nearest-Neighbor estimator (Mnatsakov et al, 2008, implemented in FNN) with our method using OLS and elastic net (sparse).

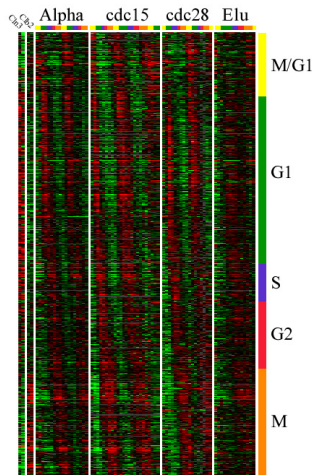
# Simulation Results - I. low dimension



# Simulation Results - III. high dimension



# Application to gene expression time series



- Data from Spellman et al. 1998
- Expression levels of 6178 yeast genes during cell cycle
- Total 73 measurements per gene

# Groups of genes

Group	No. genes
unknown	396
cell cycle	27
DNA replication	27
transport	19
cytoskeleton	17
chromatin structure	16

Total 145 different categories (only top 6 shown).

# Canonical correlations between time series

Top canonical correlation (Hotelling 1936)

	CC	DR	Tr	Cy	CS
CC		1	1	1	1
DR			1	0.99	0.99
Tr				0.99	0.98
Cy					0.98
CS					

CC = cell cycle, DR = DNA replication, Tr = transport,  
Cy = cytoskeleton, CS = chromatin structure

# Sparse canonical correlations between time series

Using sparse CCA\* (Witten and Tibshirani 2009).

	CC	DR	Tr	Cy	CS
CC		0.96	0.87	0.92	0.94
DR			0.83	0.88	0.95
Tr				0.83	0.78
Cy					0.90
CS					

CC = cell cycle, DR = DNA replication, Tr = transport,  
Cy = cytoskeleton, CS = chromatin structure

\*: using CCApermute in R package PMA



# Information correlations between time series

Taking the max of  $\hat{I}(X; Y)$  and  $\hat{I}(Y; X)$ .

	CC	DR	Tr	Cy	CS
CC		0.93	0.78	0.98	0.83
DR			0.85	0.91	0.92
Tr				0.72	0.71
Cy					0.93
CS					

CC = cell cycle, DR = DNA replication, Tr = transport,  
Cy = cytoskeleton, CS = chromatin structure

# Invariance properties

- Transform data from each group with random rotation...

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}E$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}F$$

with  $E^T E = I$ ,  $F^T F = I$ .

# Invariance properties

- Transform data from each group with random rotation...

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}E$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{Y}F$$

with  $E^T E = I$ ,  $F^T F = I$ .

- CCA is invariant:

$$\text{CCA}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \text{CCA}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}, \tilde{\mathbf{Y}})$$

# Invariance properties

- Transform data from each group with random rotation...

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}E$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{Y}F$$

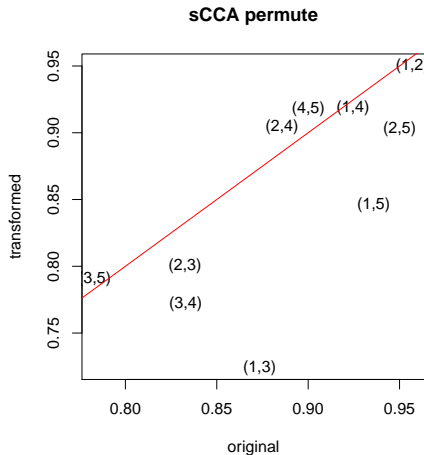
with  $E^T E = I$ ,  $F^T F = I$ .

- CCA is invariant:

$$\text{CCA}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \text{CCA}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}, \tilde{\mathbf{Y}})$$

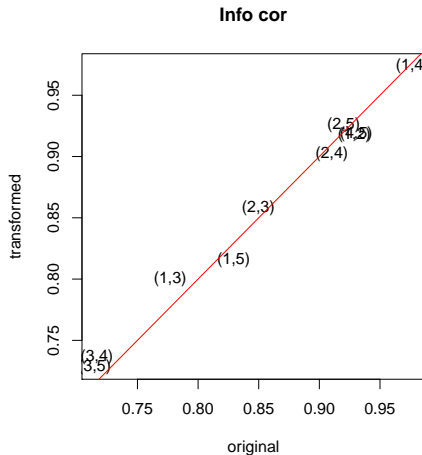
# Invariance properties

However, sparse CCA is not invariant.



# Invariance properties

Our method, on the other hand, is *robust* to rotation.



# Conclusions

- Mutual information, and derived  $\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}$  are useful measures of correlation, but hard to estimate.

# Conclusions

- Mutual information, and derived  $\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}$  are useful measures of correlation, but hard to estimate.
- Our method targets high-dimensional data with sparsity.



- Mutual information, and derived  $\text{Cor}_{Info}$  are useful measures of correlation, but hard to estimate.
- Our method targets high-dimensional data with sparsity.
- How to use: choose a regression model suited to the model assumptions. Our method allows you to convert the prediction accuracy of the model,  $\text{IdLoss}_k$  into an estimate of  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$ .

- Mutual information, and derived  $\text{Cor}_{\text{Info}}$  are useful measures of correlation, but hard to estimate.
- Our method targets high-dimensional data with sparsity.
- How to use: choose a regression model suited to the model assumptions. Our method allows you to convert the prediction accuracy of the model,  $\text{IdLoss}_k$  into an estimate of  $I(\vec{X}; \vec{Y})$ .
- Example application: measure of joint information between two tables which is robust to transformations.

## Related work and future directions

- What if data is high-dimensional, but not sparse? We have another method based on high-dimensional asymptotics (ZB 2016).

# Related work and future directions

- What if data is high-dimensional, but not sparse? We have another method based on high-dimensional asymptotics (ZB 2016).
- Estimating quantities related to mutual information, such as *transfer information*, *stimulus-specific information* and *redundancy* (Borst and Theunissen 1999)

# Related work and future directions

- What if data is high-dimensional, but not sparse? We have another method based on high-dimensional asymptotics (ZB 2016).
- Estimating quantities related to mutual information, such as *transfer information*, *stimulus-specific information* and *redundancy* (Borst and Theunissen 1999)
- Inferring resting-state brain networks.

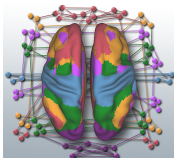


Image credit Simons Foundation

## Section 3

The End

# References

- Reshef et al, 2011. "Detecting Novel Associations in Large Datasets." *Science*.
- Speed, 2011. "A correlation for the 21st century." *Science*.
- Linfoot, 1957. "An informational measure of correlation." *Information and Control*.
- Kay, 2008. "Identifying natural images from human brain activity." *Nature*.
- Mnatsakanov, et al, (2008). "K-nearest neighbor estimators of entropy." *Mathematical Methods of Statistics*
- Spellman et al., (1998). "Comprehensive Identification of Cell Cycle-regulated Genes of the Yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by Microarray Hybridization." *Molecular Biology of the Cell*.
- Hotelling, H. (1936). "Relations Between Two Sets of Variates". *Biometrika*.
- Witten, Daniela M., and Robert J. Tibshirani. (2009). "Extensions of sparse canonical correlation analysis with applications to genomic data." *Statistical applications in genetics and molecular biology*

**Theorem.** For any  $\iota > 0$ , there exists  $\beta_\iota \geq 0$  such that defining

$$q_\beta(t) = \frac{\exp[\beta t^{k-1}]}{\int_0^1 \exp[\beta t^{k-1}]},$$

we have

$$\int_0^1 q_{\beta_\iota}(t) \log q_{\beta_\iota}(t) dt = \iota.$$

Then,

$$\sup_{I(X;Y)=\iota} \text{BayesAcc}_k = \int_0^1 q_{\beta_\iota}(t) t^{k-1} dt = g_k^{-1}(\iota).$$

Back to [main](#).