# How many neurons does it take to classify a lightbulb?

Charles Zheng

Stanford University

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(Joint work with Yuval Benjamini.)

### Overview

#### Introduction

- Review of information theory.
- Study of neural coding.

#### Related work

- Estimating mutual information between stimulus and response.
- Can we use machine learning methods to estimate MI?

#### Methods

- Gaussian example.
- Using Fano's inequality.
- Using low-SNR universality.

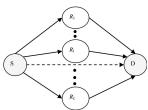
### Results



## Information theory

The high performance and reliability of modern communications system is made possible by information theory, founded by Shannon in 1948.





A information-processing network can be analyzed in terms of interactions between its components (which are viewed as random variables.)

Informal

Image credit CartouCHe, Aziz et al. 2011.

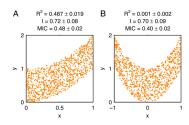
# Entropy and mutual information

X and Y have joint density p(x, y) with respect to  $\mu$ .

Quantity	Definition	Linear analogue
Entropy	$H(X) = -\int (\log p(x))p(x)\mu_X(dx)$	Var(X)
Conditional entropy	$H(X Y) = \mathbf{E}[H(X Y)]$	$\mathbf{E}[Var(X Y)]$
Mutual information	I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X Y)	$Cor^2(X, Y)$

The above definition includes both *differential* entropy and *discrete* entropy. Information theorists tend to use log base 2, we will use natural logs in this talk.

### Properties of mutual information



- $I(X; Y) \in [0, \infty]$ . (0 if  $X \perp Y$ ,  $\infty$  if X = Y and X continuous.)
- Symmetry: I(X; Y) = I(Y; X).
- Bijection-invariant:  $I(\phi(X); \psi(Y)) = I(\psi(Y); \phi(X))$ .
- Additivity. If  $(X_1, Y_1) \perp (X_2, Y_2)$ , then

$$I((X_1, X_2); (Y_1, Y_2)) = I(X_1; Y_1) + I(X_2; Y_2).$$

Relation to KL divergence:

$$\mathbb{D}(p(x,y)||p(x)p(y)) = I(X;Y).$$

Image credit Kinney et al. 2014. 

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### Relationship between mutual information and classification

- Suppose X and Y are discrete random variables, and X is uniformly distributed over its support.
- Classify X given Y. The optimal rule is to guess

$$\hat{X} = \operatorname{argmax}_{X} p(Y|X = X).$$

• Bayes error:

$$p_e = \Pr[X \neq \hat{X}].$$

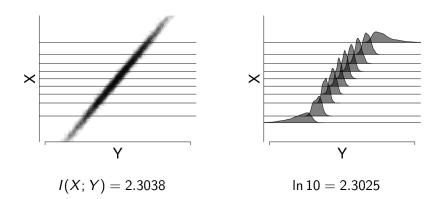
Fano's inequality:

$$I(X;Y) \ge (1-p_e) \ln K - \text{const.}$$

where K is the size of the support of X.

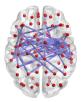
## Nice interpretation of I(X; Y) for continuous rvs

- If we bin the continuous X into  $K \approx e^{I(X;Y)}$  equal-probability bins, we can reliably guess the bin given Y.
- Heuristic is more accurate if I(X; Y) is large, due to Shannon's noisy channel theorem.

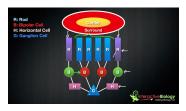


### Motivation: the neural code

The brain is the *most complex* information processing system we know!



Neural network inferred from data. (Hong et al.)

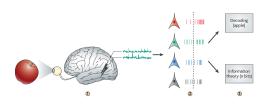


Organization of human retina

How do neurons encode, process, and decode sensory information?

Image credit: Hong et al., Interactive Biology

## Studying the neural code: data



- ullet Let  ${\mathcal X}$  define a class of stimuli (faces, objects, sounds.)
- Stimulus  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$ , where  $X_i$  are features (e.g. pixels.)
- Present X to the subject, record the subject's brain activity using EEG, MEG, fMRI, or calcium imaging.
- Recorded response  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_q)$ , where  $Y_i$  are single-cell responses, or recorded activities in different brain region.

Image credits: Quiroga et al. (2009).

### Problem statement

Given stimulus-reponse data (X, Y), can we estimate the mutual information I(X; Y)?

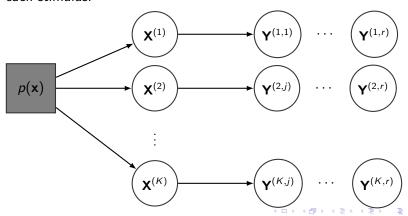
Why do we care?

- Selecting the correct model for neural encoding.
- Assessing the efficiency of the neural code.
- Measuring the redundancy of a population of neurons

$$r' = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{q} I(\mathbf{X}; Y_i) - I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{q} I(\mathbf{X}; Y_i)}.$$

## Experimental design

- How to make inferences about the population of stimuli in  $\mathcal{X}$  using finitely many examples?
- Randomization. Select  $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{X}^{(K)}$  randomly from some distribution  $p(\mathbf{x})$  (e.g. an image database). Record r responses from each stimulus.



# Can we learn I(X; Y) from such data?

Answer: yes.

- We have  $I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) = H(\mathbf{Y}) H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$ .
- We can estimate  $H(\mathbf{Y})$  from the data
- We can estimate  $H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$  from the data, and define

$$\hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}^{(i)})$$

As K and r both tend to infinity,

$$\hat{I}(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) = \hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}) - \hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$$

is consistent for I(X; Y).

# Limitations with the 'naive' approach

Naive estimator:

$$\hat{I}(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) = \hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}) - \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \hat{H}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}^{(i)})$$

- If K is small, the naive estimator may be quite biased, even for low-dimensional problems. Gastpar et al. (2010) introduced an antropic correction to deal with the small-K bias.
- Difficult to estimate differential entropies  $H(\mathbf{Y})$ ,  $H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$  in high dimensions. Best rates are  $O(1/\sqrt{n})$  for  $d \leq 3$  dimensions. Convergence rates for d > 3 unknown!

## Can we use machine learning to deal with dimensionality?

- Supervised learning becomes an extremely common approach for dealing with high-dimensional data, for numerous reasons!
- Perhaps we can use supervised learning to estimate I(X; Y) as well.

#### Procedure.

- Fix  $r_{train} < r$ . Let  $r_{test} = r r_{train}$ .
- Use  $\{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i,j)}) : i = 1, \dots, K, j = 1, \dots, r_{train}\}$  as training data to learn a classifier  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ .
- Compute the confusion matrix, normalized so that each row adds to 1/K:

$$C(i,j) = \frac{1}{K^2 r_{test}} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{\ell=r_{train}+1}^{r} I(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}^{(i,\ell)}) = \mathbf{x}^{(j)}).$$

Normalized this way, C(i,j) gives the empirical joint distribution

$$C(i,j) = \hat{\mathsf{Pr}}[\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{x}^{(j)}].$$

# Can we use machine learning to deal with dimensionality?

• Treves et al. (1997) suggest computing the mutual information from the confusion matrix, i.e.

$$\hat{I}(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} C(i, j) \ln \left( \frac{C(i, j)}{\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{K} C(i, \ell)\right) \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} C(j, \ell)\right)} \right)$$

 Quiroga (2009) review the applications of this approach, and note sources of bias or "information loss."

# Why use supervised learning to estimate I(X;Y)?

- Successful supervised learning exploits structure in the data, which nonparametric methods ignore.
- Using supervised learning to estimate mutual information can be viewed as using prior information to improve the estimate of I(X; Y).

### Interesting connection to machine learning literature

While we are considering

supervised learning  $\rightarrow$  estimate mutual information,

a vast literature exists on applications of mutual information (as the 'infomax criterion') for feature selection, training objectives, i.e.

estimate mutual information  $\rightarrow$  supervised learning.

### Questions

- How much could we potentially gain in estimating I(X; Y) by using supervised learning, compared to nonparametric approaches?
- Is the Bayes confusion matrix sufficient for consistently estimating I(X; Y)?
- Is the Bayes error sufficient for consistently estimating I(X;Y)?
- In practice, we cannot obtain the Bayes error due to:
  - Model mispecification.
  - Finite training data to fit the model (even if correctly specified).
  - Finite test data to estimate the generalization error.

How sensitive is our estimator to these issues?

### References

- Cover and Thomas. Elements of information theory.
- Muirhead. Aspects of multivariate statistical theory.
- van der Vaart. Asymptotic statistics.