2 Information Theory

Information theory grew largely out of work published in the late 1940s by Claude Shannon, and stems from a theoretical framework in which stochastic trials represent communication, aka data transmission. Shannon's work itself can be understood as motivated to a large degree by his cryptographic work at Bletchley Park together with Alan Turing during the Second World War; thus Shannon's model is expressed in terms of encoding or compression.

2.1 Entropy

- History:
 - Terminology from physics (thermodynamics)
 - Entropy rises as energy (heat) is added to a system.
- Intuitive Definition:
 - Entropy = "chaos", disorder, unpredictability, ...
 - Entropy as a measure of *uncertainty* with respect to the outcome of a stochastic trial:
 - * Low entropy \rightarrow low uncertainty
 - * High entropy \rightarrow high uncertainty

Definition 1 (Entropy) Let X be a random variable with distribution p. Then, the entropy of X is written H(X), and is defined as the mean negative binary logarithm of the probability:

$$H(X) := -\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p(x) \log_2 p(x)$$
$$= \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p(x) \log_2 \frac{1}{p(x)}$$

- Binary logarithm used to measure entropy in bits: unless otherwise specified, $\log x = \log_2 x$
- By convention, we let $0 \log 0 = 0$ and $p \log \frac{p}{0} = \infty$ when computing entropy (and other related quantities).
- Notational variants: $H(X) = H(p) = H_X(p) = H(p_X)$

Example 1 (Entropy: Fair Coin)

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(0) &=& p(1) = 0.5 \\ {\rm H}(p) &=& -(0.5 \log 0.5 + 0.5 \log 0.5) = -2 \cdot (0.5 \cdot -1) = 1 \end{array}$$

Example 2 (Entropy: Fair Die)

$$p(i) = \frac{1}{6} \quad \text{for } 1 \le i \le 6$$
$$H(p) = 6 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6}\log 6\right) = \log 6 \approx 2.58$$

Example 3 (Entropy: Unfair Coin)

p(1) = 0.2, p(0) = 0.8H(p) = $-(0.2 \log 0.2 + 0.8 \log 0.8) \approx 0.722$

Some Properties of Entropy

- Entropy is non-negative: $H(X) \ge 0$
- If p(x) = 1 for some $x \in \Omega_X$, then H(p) = 0
- There is no global upper bound on entropy, but:
 - Uniform distributions maximize entropy (are most unpredictable)
 - In a uniform distribution, all outcomes are equiprobable: $p(x) = \frac{1}{|\Omega_X|}$, so $H(X) \le \log |\Omega_X|$.

2.1.1 Entropy and Encoding

Shannon's notion of entropy represents the average number of bits required to encode the outcome of a single stochastic trial properly modelled by the distribution p in an optimal encoding (read: "maximally compressed"):

- **Recall:** a binary string with n bits can take 2^n possible values this is just the number of binary decisions one has to make to determine which of n equiprobable events has occurred (binary search).
- Idea: using variable-length codes, an optimal encoding scheme will be one in which *common* messages (read: "outcomes with high probability") are encoded with *fewer bits* than *uncommon* messages.¹
- Method: Knowledge of the probability distribution p gives us a way to determine the minimal number of bits required to encode the occurrence of each outcome x: min(length(code(x))) = $-\log_2 p(x)$; Shannon entropy is just the mean of this quantity.

¹There's nothing magical about bits here — we could use logarithms of any arbitrary base b to express code lengths in a b-adic number system. Use of the binary (base-2) number system is just a useful convention.

Example 4 (Entropy: DNA) Suppose we wish to encode a particular DNA (sub)sequence; then:

• Outcomes:

$$\Omega = \{A, C, T, G\}$$

• Naïve Code $code_1$:

 $A:00,\ C:01,T:10,G:11$

• Mean (naïve) Code Length:

$$E(\text{length}(\text{code}_{1}(X))) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) \cdot \text{length}(\text{code}_{1}(x)) \\ = (0.5 \cdot 2) + (0.25 \cdot 2) + 2(0.125 \cdot 2) \\ = 2 \text{ bits}$$

• Distribution:

$$p(A) = 0.5, \ p(C) = 0.25, \ p(T) = 0.125, \ p(G) = 0.125$$

• Minimal Code Lengths = $-\log p(x)$:

A:1 bit, C:2 bits, T:3 bits, G:3 bits

• Entropy = Weighted Mean (minimal) Code Length:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{H}(X) &= \sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) \cdot \min(\mathrm{length}(\mathrm{code}(x))) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) \cdot -\log p(x) \\ &= (0.5 \cdot 1) + (0.25 \cdot 2) + (0.125 \cdot 3) + (0.125 \cdot 3) \\ &= 1.75 \text{ bits} \end{aligned}$$

• **Oops!** Naïve code ain't so great:

$$E(length(code_1(X))) > H(X)$$

• Improved Code code₂:

• Weighted Mean (improved) Code Length:

$$E(\operatorname{length}(\operatorname{code}_2(X))) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) \cdot \operatorname{length}(\operatorname{code}_2(x))$$

= $(0.5 \cdot 1) + (0.25 \cdot 2) + 2(0.125 \cdot 3)$
= 1.75 bits

• Yipee! Improved code is optimal.

 $E(length(code_2(X))) = H(X)$

2.1.2 Perplexity

- Idea: Comparison of information content between two random variables whose sample spaces are of different size i.e. where we can't simply normalize by $|\Omega|$.
- Method: Formalize notion of "information content" in terms of stochastic experiments with uniform distributions, where the only relevant variable is $|\Omega|$.
- Side Effect: Perplexity values are much larger than (normalized) entropies.

Definition 2 (Perplexity) For a random variable X with distribution p, the perplexity of X is written G(X) and is defined as:

$$G(X) := 2^{H(X)}$$

Intuitively, G(X) = k means that X is just as (un)predictable as a stochastic experiment with k equiprobable possible outcomes.

2.1.3 Joint and Conditional Entropy

- Idea: Consider combinations of 2 random variables X and Y.
- Joint Entropy: measures unpredictability of value pairs $(x, y) \in \Omega_X \times \Omega_Y$.
- **Conditional Entropy:** measures (possibly reduced) unpredictability of an event given knowledge of a (different) event allows us to quantify dependence.

Definition 3 (Joint Entropy) For two random variables X and Y, the *joint* entropy of X and Y is written H(X, Y) and is defined as:

$$H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p(x,y) \cdot \log p(x,y)$$

Definition 4 (Conditional Entropy) For two random variables X and Y, the conditional entropy of Y given X is written H(Y|X) and is defined as:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{H}(Y|X) &= \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p(x) \mathbf{H}(Y|X=x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p(x) \left(-\sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p(y|x) \log p(y|x) \right) \end{split}$$

$$= -\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p(x)p(y|x) \log p(y|x)$$
$$= -\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p(x,y) \cdot \log p(y|x)$$
$$= H(X,Y) - H(X)$$

Some Properties of Joint and Conditional Entropy

• Chain Rule

$$H(X,Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y) = H(Y|X) + H(X)$$

• Conditional Entropy Maximum

$$\mathrm{H}(Y|X) \le \mathrm{H}(Y)$$

• Addition Rule

$$H(X,Y) \le H(X) + H(Y)$$

If X and Y are independent, then:

$$H(X,Y) = H(X) + H(Y)$$

2.2 Relative Entropy

- Idea: measure similarity between two distributions p and q.
- **Method:** compute mean number of bits wasted when encoding events governed by one distribution with an optimal code for the other.

Definition 5 (Relative Entropy) Let p and q be probability distributions over a set Ω of basic outcomes. The relative entropy of p and q — also known as the Kullback-Leibler divergence of p and q — is written D(p||q), and defined as the average number of bits wasted when encoding a stochastic process with distribution p under an optimal code for q:

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$
$$= E_p \left(\log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right)$$

Some Properties of Relative Entropy

• Relative entropy is always non-negative: $D(p||q) \ge 0$.

- D(p||q) = 0 iff p = q
- **Caveats:** Relative entropy is **not** a *metric*:
 - No Symmetry: $\diamond D(p||q) \neq D(q||p)$
 - No Triangle Inequality: $O(p||q) \not\leq D(q||p)$

2.3 Mutual Information

- Idea: Exploit dependence when simultaneously encoding outcomes of two stochastic processes.
- Method: Compute relative entropy between the actual joint distribution and an independent distribution – essentially an *information gain* ratio with respect to the assumption that the two distributions are independent.

Definition 6 (Mutual Information) Let X and Y be random variables. The mutual information between X and Y is written I(X;Y) and defined as the relative entropy of the joint distribution and an independent distribution:

$$I(X;Y) = D(p(X,Y)||p(X)p(Y))$$

= $E_{p(X,Y)}\left(\log \frac{p(X,Y)}{p(X)p(Y)}\right)$
= $\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p(x,y)\log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$

Some Properties of Mutual Information

• Relation to Entropy:

$$\begin{split} I(X;Y) &= & {\rm H}(X) - {\rm H}(X|Y) \\ &= & {\rm H}(Y) - {\rm H}(Y|X) \\ &= & {\rm H}(X) + {\rm H}(Y) - {\rm H}(X,Y) \\ &= & I(Y;X) \\ I(X;X) &= & {\rm H}(X) \end{split}$$

Definition 7 (Pointwise Mutual Information) Let x and y be values of random variables X and Y, respectively: $x \in \Omega_X, y \in \Omega_y$. The pointwise mutual information between x and y is written I(x, y) and defined:

$$I(x,y) = \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$$

Pointwise MI is symmetric, but may be negative. It can be used as an indicator of the association between individual elements (points) x and y, but is highly sensitive to low probabilities, so it is sometimes additionally weighted by e.g. p(x, y).



Figure 1: Mutual Information and various entropies