

# Information Theory: Principles and Applications

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March 26, 2010

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# Jensen's Inequality

- If  $f(\cdot)$  is a convex function and  $X$  is a random variable

$$E[f(X)] \geq f(E[X])$$

- Let us now show that relative entropy and mutual information are greater than zero and some other interesting properties of the information measures.

# Log-Sum Inequality

- For  $n$  positive numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  and  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} \geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \right) \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n b_i}$$

with equality if and only if  $a_i/b_i = c$ .

- Let us now prove the convexity of the relative entropy and the concavity of the entropy.

# Fano's Inequality

- Suppose we know a random variable  $Y$  and we wish to guess the value of a correlated random variable  $X$ .
- Fano's inequality relates the probability of error in guessing  $X$  from  $Y$  to its conditional entropy  $H(X|Y)$ .
- Let  $\hat{X} = g(Y)$ , if  $P_e = P(\hat{X} \neq X)$ , then

$$H(P_e) + P_e \log(|\mathcal{X}| - 1) \geq H(X|Y)$$

where  $H(P_e)$  is the binary entropy function evaluated at  $P_e$ .

# Source Coding

- From the previous lecture: "A source encoder converts the sequence of symbols from the source into a sequence of bits".
- Types of source:
  - Discrete: keyboard characters, bits, ...
  - Continuous (time, amplitude): speech
  - Continuous amplitude, discrete time: sampled signal before quantization

# Source Coding: Continuous Sources

- For continuous-amplitude sources, there is usually no way to map the source values to a bit sequence such that the map is uniquely decodable.
- For example: the set of real numbers between 0 and 1 requires infinitely many binary digits for exact specification.
- Quantization is necessary  $\rightarrow$  distortion introduced.
- Source encoding: trade off between the bit rate and the level of distortion.

# Source Coding: Discrete Memoryless Sources

- A discrete memoryless source (DMS) is defined by the following properties:
  - The source output is an unending sequence  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$  of randomly selected letters from  $\mathcal{X}$ .
  - Each source output is selected from  $\mathcal{X}$  using a common probability measure.
  - Each source output  $X_i$  is statistically independent of the other source outputs  $X_j, j \neq i$ .



# Source Coding: Discrete Random Variables

- A *source code*  $\mathcal{C}$  for a discrete random variable  $X$  is a mapping from  $\mathcal{X}$ , the range of  $X$ , to  $\mathcal{D}^*$ , the set of finite length strings of symbols from a  $D$ -ary alphabet. Let  $\mathcal{C}(x)$  denote the codeword corresponding to  $x$  and let  $l(x)$  denote the length of  $\mathcal{C}(x)$ .

# Fixed Length Source Codes

- Convert each source letter individually into a fixed-length block of  $L$  bits.
- There are  $2^L$  different combinations.
- If the number of letters in the source alphabet  $\mathcal{X}$  is less or equal to  $2^L$  then a different binary  $L$ -tuple may be assigned to each source symbol.
- Uniquely decoded from the binary blocks, and the code is uniquely decodable.

# Fixed Length Source Codes

- Requires  $L = \lceil \log |\mathcal{X}| \rceil$  bits to encode each source letter.
- Hence  $\log |\mathcal{X}| \leq L < \log |\mathcal{X}| + 1$
- For blocks of  $n$  symbols. The  $n$ -tuple source alphabet is then the  $n$ -fold Cartesian product  $\mathcal{X}^n = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \times \dots \times \mathcal{X}$ .
- $|\mathcal{X}^n| = |\mathcal{X}|^n$ .
- Each source  $n$ -tuple can be coded into  $L = n \log |\mathcal{X}|$  bits.

# Fixed Length Source Codes

- Rate  $\bar{L}$  of coded bits per source symbol:

$$\bar{L} = \frac{L}{n}$$

- Bounds:

$$\log |\mathcal{X}| \leq \bar{L} < \log |\mathcal{X}| + \frac{1}{n}$$

- Letting  $n$  become sufficiently large, the average number of coded bits required per source symbol can be made arbitrarily close to  $\log |\mathcal{X}|$
- This method is nonprobabilistic; it does not takes into account if some symbols occur more frequently than others.

# Variable Length Source Codes

- Intuition: Allocate the shortest codewords to the most probable outcomes and the longer ones to the least likely outcomes.
- Example: Morse code.

# Variable Length Source Codes

- Codewords of a variable-length source code: a continuing sequence of bits, with no demarcations of codeword boundaries.
- The source decoder, given an original starting point, must determine where the codeword boundaries are (parsing).

# Classes of Codes

- Non-singular code

$$x_i \neq x_j \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(x_i) \neq \mathcal{C}(x_j)$$

- Unambiguous for a single symbol.
- Example of a non-singular code. For a binary valued random variable  $X$ :

$$\mathcal{C}(x_1) = 0 \quad \mathcal{C}(x_2) = 1.$$

- Example of a singular code. For a binary valued random variable  $X$ :

$$\mathcal{C}(x_1) = 0 \quad \mathcal{C}(x_2) = 0.$$

# Classes of Codes

- Definition: Extension of a code

$$\mathcal{X}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{*n} : \mathcal{C}(x_1 x_2 \dots x_n) = \mathcal{C}(x_1) \mathcal{C}(x_2) \dots \mathcal{C}(x_n)$$

- Example:  $\mathcal{C}(x_1) = 00$ ,  $\mathcal{C}(x_2) = 11$ ,  $\mathcal{C}(x_1 x_2) = 0011$ .
- The extension of an uniquely decodable code is singular.
- Example

$$\mathcal{C}(x_1) = 0 \quad \mathcal{C}(x_2) = 1.$$

- Example of a non uniquely decodable code:

$$\mathcal{C}(x_1) = 0 \quad \mathcal{C}(x_2) = 1 \quad \mathcal{C}(x_3) = 10.$$

- Example:  $\mathcal{C}(x_2 x_1 x_3) = \mathcal{C}(x_2 x_1 x_2 x_1) = 1010$ .



# Classes of Codes

- Prefix-free Codes: no codeword is a prefix of any other codeword
- They are also called instantaneous because the source symbol with essentially no delay. As soon as the entire codeword is received at the decoder, it can be recognized as a codeword and decoded without waiting for additional bits.
- It is very easy to check whether a code is prefix-free, and therefore uniquely decodable.
- Leafs of the code tree.

# Classes of Codes

- All Codes
- Singular Codes
- Uniquely Decodable Codes
- Prefix-free Codes

# Kraft Inequality

- It tells us about the possibility of constructing a prefix-free code for a given source with alphabet  $\mathcal{X}$  with a given set of codeword lengths  $l(x_i), x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ .

$$\sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{X}} D^{-l(x_i)} \leq 1$$

- For the binary case,  $D = 2$ , there exists a full prefix-free code with codeword lengths  $\{1, 2, 2\}$ .
- On the other hand a prefix-free code with codeword lengths  $\{1, 1, 2\}$  does not exist in the binary case.

# Minimum $\overline{L}$ for prefix-free codes

- Kraft Inequality: determines which sets of coderword lengths are possible for prefix-free codes.
- What set of codewords can be used to *minimize* the expected length of a prefix-free code?
- Constrained optimization problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \overline{L} \\ \text{s.t.} & \text{Kraft Inequality} \end{array}$$

# Minimum $\bar{L}$ for prefix-free codes

- Entropy Bounds

$$H(X) \leq \bar{L}_{min} \leq H(X) + 1$$

# Huffman Codes

- Result of an Information Theory class project.
- Huffman ignored the Kraft inequality and focused on the code tree to establish properties that an optimum prefix-free code should have.

# Binary Huffman Codes

- Optimum codes have the property that if  $p_i > p_j$ , then  $l(x_i) \leq l(x_j)$ .
- Code tree is full.
- Longest codeword has a sibling that is another longest codeword. (a sibling differ in the final bit)
- Let  $X$  be a random symbol with a pmf satisfying  $p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_M$ . There is an optimal prefix free code for  $X$  in which the codewords for  $M-1$  and  $M$  are siblings and have maximal length within the code.

# Huffman Codes: An example

- Probability distribution (0.4; 0.2; 0.15; 0.15; 0.1)



# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- In Information Theory, the analog of the law of the large numbers is the Asymptotic Equipartition Property (AEP).
- The AEP says that, given a very long string of  $n$  independent and identically distributed discrete random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  there exists a *typical set* of sample strings  $(x_1; \dots, x_n)$  whose aggregate probability is almost 1.
- There are roughly  $2^{nH(X)}$  typical strings of length  $n$ , and each has a probability roughly equal to  $2^{-nH(X)}$
- “Almost all events are equally surprising”.
- First, let's review the weak law of large numbers.

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- Weak Law of Large Numbers.
- Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of independent and equally distributed random variables.

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{sample average}$$

- Chebyshev inequality: Let  $X$  be a random variable with mean  $m_X$  and variance  $\sigma_X^2$ , then  $P(|X - m_X| \geq \epsilon) \leq \sigma_X^2/\epsilon^2$ .
- Applying this inequality to the sample mean, we have

$$P(|\bar{X} - m_X| \geq \epsilon) \leq \sigma_X^2/n\epsilon^2$$

- Remember that  $E[\bar{X}] = m_X$  and  $\text{var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma_X^2/n$ .

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of discrete independent and equally distributed random variables over  $\mathcal{X}$ .
- Note that  $w(x) = -\log p_X(x)$  is a real valued function of  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ .
- $W(X_i)$  is a random variable that takes the value  $w(x)$  for  $X = x$ .
- Let  $W(X_1), \dots, W(X_n)$  is a sequence of random variables.

$$E[W(X_i)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p_X(x) \log p_X(x) = H(X)$$

- We have that for independent random variables.

$$w(x_1) + w(x_2) = -\log p_X(x_1) - \log p_X(x_2) = -\log p_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- For a general  $n$ :  $\sum_{i=1}^n w(x_i) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log p_X(x_i) = -\log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n)$ , where  $\mathbf{X}^n = [X_1, \dots, X_n]$  and  $\mathbf{x}^n = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .
- Let's do the sample average of those random variables  $W(X_i)$

$$\overline{W} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n W(X_i) = \frac{-\log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n)}{n}$$

- Using Chebyshev's inequality we get

$$P\left(\left|\frac{-\log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n)}{n} - H(X)\right| \geq \epsilon\right) \leq \sigma_W^2 / n\epsilon^2$$

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- The *typical set*  $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$  with respect to  $p_X(x)$  is the set of sequences  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n$  with the following property:

$$A_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ \mathbf{x}^n : \left| \frac{-\log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n)}{n} - H(X) \right| \leq \epsilon \right\}$$

- Which can be written as:

$$-n(H(X) + \epsilon) \leq \log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n) \leq -n(H(X) - \epsilon)$$

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} \leq p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\epsilon)}$$

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- Properties of the typical set:

- $P(\mathbf{X}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) > 1 - \frac{\sigma_W^2}{n\epsilon}$  for  $n$  sufficient large

$$P(\mathbf{X}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) = P\left(\left|\frac{-\log p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n)}{n} - H(X)\right| \leq \epsilon\right)$$

$$P(\mathbf{X}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) \geq 1 - \frac{\sigma_W^2}{n\epsilon}$$

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- Properties of the typical set:

- $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n(H(X)+\epsilon)}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &= \sum_{\mathbf{x}^n \in \mathcal{X}^n} p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n) \\
 &\geq \sum_{\mathbf{x}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n) \\
 &\geq \sum_{\mathbf{x}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} 2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} \\
 &\geq 2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} \sum_{\mathbf{x}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} 1 \\
 &\geq 2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} |A_\epsilon^{(n)}|
 \end{aligned}$$

# Asymptotic Equipartition Property

- Properties of the typical set:

- $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \geq (1 - \delta)2^{n(H(X) - \epsilon)}$ , where  $\delta = \frac{\sigma_W^2}{n\epsilon^2}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1 - \delta) &\leq P(\mathbf{X}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) \\
 &\leq \sum_{\mathbf{x}^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} 2^{-n(H(X) - \epsilon)} \\
 &= 2^{-n(H(X) - \epsilon)} |A_\epsilon^{(n)}|
 \end{aligned}$$



# Asymptotic Equipartition Property: Summary

- Definition of typical set:

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} \leq p_{\mathbf{X}^n}(\mathbf{x}^n) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\epsilon)}$$

- Size of typical set:

$$(1 - \delta)2^{n(H(X)-\epsilon)} \leq |A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n(H(X)+\epsilon)}$$

# Source coding in the light of the AEP

- A source coder operating on strings of  $n$  source symbols need only provide a codeword for each string  $\mathbf{x}^n$  in the typical set  $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ .
- That will be shown next class.