ECE253/CSE208 Introduction to Information Theory

Lecture 6: Entropy Rate

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• Chap 4 of Elements of Information Theory (2nd Edition) by Thomas Cover & Joy Thomas

Markov Chains

Consider a discrete-time Markov chain X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n+1} , we have

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n, \dots, X_1 = x_1) = \Pr(X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n)$$
$$p(x_{n+1}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_1)p(x_2 | x_1) \dots p(x_{n+1} | x_n)$$

All knowledge of the past states is embedded in the current state.

A Markov chain of order k (the future state depends on the past k states):

$$p(x_{n+1}|x_n,\ldots,x_1)=p(x_{n+1}|x_n,\ldots,x_{n-k+1})$$

Time-homogeneous Markov chain: The transition probability is independent of time.

That is, for all n

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i) = \Pr(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i), \ \forall i, j \in \mathcal{S} := \{1, 2, \dots, m\}.$$

Let matrix $\mathbf{P}_{m \times m}$ contain all transition probabilities, whose (i,j)-th entry is

$$P_{ij} = \Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i), \ \forall i, j \in \mathcal{S} := \{1, 2, \dots, m\}.$$
 (1)

Three things in a Markov chain: A sequence of random variables (the chain), a state space (from which the random variables take values), and the rules for transition (the transition probability matrix).

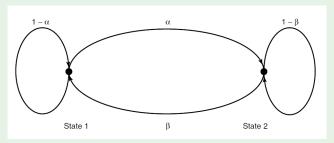
Two-state Markov chain

Example

(Two-state Markov chain).

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1 - \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

As shown in the figure below:



Q: Given $Pr(X_n = i)$, find $Pr(X_{n+1} = j)$, $\forall i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$.

A: $\Pr(X_{n+1} = j) = \sum_{i} \Pr(X_n = i, X_{n+1} = j) = \sum_{i} \Pr(X_n = i) \Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i).$

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Stationary Distribution

Define a row vector to collect all state probabilities at time n+1

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n+1)} = \left[\pi_1^{(n+1)}, \pi_2^{(n+1)}, \dots, \pi_m^{(n+1)}\right],$$

where $\pi_j^{(n+1)} = \Pr(X_{n+1} = j), \ \forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}.$ Hence, we have

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n+1)} = \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n)} \mathbf{P}.$$

Definition (Stationary/steady-state/invariant/equilibrium distribution)

Stationary distribution of a Markov chain: $\pi P = \pi$ and $0 \le \pi \le 1, \pi 1 = 1$, where 1 is the all-ones column vector with an appropriate dimension.

Hence, stationary distribution π is a *fixed point* of the transformation represented by P, which is a *left eigenvector* of P corresponding to eigenvalue 1.

Example

Find the stationary distribution of the aforementioned example of the two-state MC.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \boldsymbol{\pi}\mathbf{P} = \boldsymbol{\pi} \\ \boldsymbol{\pi}\mathbf{1} = 1 \end{array} \right. \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\pi} = \left[\frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta}, \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \right].$$

Classification of States

Definition (Accessible and Communicate)

- State j is said to be accessible from state i if $P_{ij}^{(n)}>0$ for some $n\geq 0$, which is denoted as $i\to j$.
- Two states i and j are said to communicate if they are accessible from each other, which is denoted as $i \leftrightarrow j$. (i.e., there are directed paths between i and j).

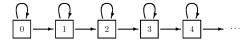


Figure: Each state is accessible from all its previous states, but not vice versa.

Communicate is an equivalence relation, meaning that

- Reflexivity: $i \leftrightarrow i$
- Symmetry: If $i \leftrightarrow j$, then $j \leftrightarrow i$
- Transitivity: If $i \leftrightarrow j$ and $j \leftrightarrow k$, then $i \leftrightarrow k$

An equivalence relation divides the state space into disjoint classes of equivalent states that is called **communication classes**.

Irreducible MC

Definition (Irreducible MC: every state can be reached from every other state)

It is possible to go with positive probability from any state to any other states in a finite number of steps. That is, $\exists n < \infty$, $\Pr(X_n = j | X_0 = i) = P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$, $\forall i, j \in \mathcal{S}$.

- A Markov chain is irreducible iif all states belong to one communication class; i.e., all states communicate with each other.
- A Markov chain is reducible iff if there are two or more communication classes.
- A finite Markov chain is irreducible iff its transition graph is strongly connected (there is a path between any pair of two vertices).

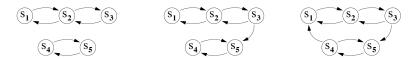


Figure: The first two Markov chains are reducible while the last one is irreducible.

Aperiodic MC

Definition (Aperiodic)

The period of a state i is defined as $k=\gcd\{n>0, P_{ii}^{(n)}>0\}^a$. That is, if $P_{ii}^{(n)}=0$ when n is not a multiple of k and k is the greatest integer with this property. If k=1, the state is said to be aperiodic. A Markov chain is aperiodic if every state is aperiodic.

 ${}^{a}\mathbf{gcd}$ is the greatest common divisor; e.g., $\gcd\{6,8,10,\cdots\}=2;\ \gcd\{3,5,7,\cdots\}=1.$

- All states in the same communication class have the same period.
- An irreducible MC only needs one aperiodic state to imply the chain is aperiodic.

Consider a finite irreducible Markov chain:

- If there is a self transition in the diagram, then the chain is aperiodic.
- Suppose $P_{ii}^{(\ell)}>0$ and $P_{ii}^{(m)}>0$. If ℓ and m are co-prime $(\gcd(\ell,m)=1)$, then state i is aperiodic.







Figure: The first one has period 2 while the last two are aperiodic.

An Exercise¹

Question: Find all communication classes and their periods.

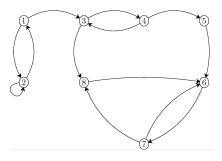


Figure: A state transition diagram.

Answer:

- Class $1=\{1, 2\}$, aperiodic
- Class $2=\{3, 4\}$, period = 2
- Class 3={5}, period = 0 (transient sate)
- Class 4={6, 7, 8}. aperiodic

Unique Stationary Distribution and Limiting Distribution

Theorem

For an irreducible, aperiodic, and finite-state Markov chain, there exists a finite integer N such that $P_{ij}^{(n)}>0$, for all $i,j\in\mathcal{S}$ and all $n\geq N$.

Theorem

An irreducible and aperiodic finite-state Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution.

Lemma

For an irreducible, aperiodic, and finite-state Markov chain, any initial distribution converges to the unique stationary distribution as $n \to \infty$.

- Assuming irreducibility, the stationary distribution is always unique if it exists, and its existence can be implied by positive recurrence of all states.
- The stationary distribution has the interpretation of the limiting distribution when the chain is irreducible and aperiodic.

Motivating Question

Shannon used Markov Chain to describe English texts:

• From 0th-order to 3rd-order letters; 1st-order, 2nd-order words

3. The Series of Approximations to English

To give a visual idea of how this series of processes approaches a language, typical sequences in the approximations to English have been constructed and are given below. In all cases we have assumed a 27-symbol "alphabet," the 26 letters and a space.

- 1. Zero-order approximation (symbols independent and equiprobable).
 - XFOML RXKHRJFFJUJ ZLPWCFWKCYJ FFJEYVKCQSGHYD QPAAMKBZAACIBZL-HJQD.
- 2. First-order approximation (symbols independent but with frequencies of English text).
 - OCRO HLI RGWR NMIELWIS EU LL NBNESEBYA TH EEI ALHENHTTPA OOBTTVA NAH BRL.
- 3. Second-order approximation (digram structure as in English).
 - ON IE ANTSOUTINYS ARE T INCTORE ST BE S DEAMY ACHIN D ILONASIVE TU-COOWE AT TEASONARE FUSO TIZIN ANDY TOBE SEACE CTISBE.
- Third-order approximation (trigram structure as in English).
 - IN NO IST LAT WHEY CRATICT FROURE BIRS GROCID PONDENOME OF DEMONS-TURES OF THE REPTAGIN IS REGOACTIONA OF CRE.
- 5. First-order word approximation. Rather than continue with tetragram, . . , n gram structure it is easier and better to jump at this point to word units. Here words are chosen independently but with their appropriate frequencies.
 - REPRESENTING AND SPEEDILY IS AN GOOD APT OR COME CAN DIFFERENT NAT-URLAND LERGE HE THE A IN CAME THE TO OF TO EXPERT GRAY COME TO FURNISHES THE LINE MESSAGE HAD BE THESE.
- Second-order word approximation. The word transition probabilities are correct but no further structure is included.

THE HEAD AND IN FRONTAL ATTACK ON AN ENGLISH WRITER THAT THE CHAR-ACTER OF THIS POINT IS THEREFORE ANOTHER METHOD FOR THE LETTERS THAT THE TIME OF WHO EVER TOLD THE PROBLEM FOR AN UNEXPECTED.

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Figure: In Section 3 of the paper "A Mathematical Theory of Communication (1948)": Shannon asked "Can we define a quantity which will measure, in some sense, how much information is "produced" by such a process, or better, at what rate information is produced?"

Stationary Stochastic Process

Discrete-time Information Sources:

- Communications take place continually rather than a finite period of time; e.g., Internet cellular networks, ratio stations, TV programs, etc.
- The info source can be modeled as a discrete-time stochastic process $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$

Definition (Stationary stochastic process)

A stochastic process $\{X_k\}$ is *strongly stationary* if the joint distribution of any subset of the sequence is invariant w.r.t. any time shifts. That is,

$$\Pr\{X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n\} = \Pr\{X_{1+l} = x_1, X_{2+l} = x_2, \dots, X_{n+l} = x_n\}$$

for every n, every shift l, and for all $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$.

Time-Homogeneous vs Stationary Markov Chains²

Q: Is a time-homogeneous Markov chain a stationary process? A: Not necessarily.

Example

Consider an MC with
$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and the initial probability state $\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)} = (1, 0)$, then $\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(1)} = \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)} \cdot \mathbf{P} = (1/2, 1/2) \neq \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)}$. So, the chain is not stationary.

• Time-homogeneous MC:

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i) = \Pr(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i), \forall n.$$

- Stationary MC: $\Pr(X_0 = x_0, ..., X_n = x_n) = \Pr(X_l = x_0, ..., X_{n+l} = x_n), \forall n, l.$
- 1. Every stationary chain is time-homogeneous (proved by Bayes' rule).
- 2. A time-homogeneous MC is stationary iff the distribution of X_0 is a stationary distribution of the MC.

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²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Markov_chain

Entropy Rate for Stochastic Processes

 \mathbf{Q} : How does the entropy of a sequence grow with n?

A: We define the entropy rate as the rate of growth:

Definition (Per symbol entropy of n random variables)

$$H(\mathcal{X}) := \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

when the limit exists.

Special cases:

- $\{X_i\}$ are i.i.d.: $H(\mathcal{X}) = H(X_1)$.
- $\{X_i\}$ are independent but not identical: $H(\mathcal{X}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i)$. But, the limit may not even exist; e.g, $H(X_i) = i$.

Definition (Conditional entropy of the last random variable given the past.)

$$H'(\mathcal{X}) \coloneqq \lim_{n \to \infty} H(X_n | X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1)$$

Entropy Rate for Stationary Stochastic Processes

Theorem (Entropy rate)

For a stationary stochastic process, $H(\mathcal{X}) = H'(\mathcal{X})$.

Proof: We first show that $H'(\mathcal{X})$ is well-defined. Due to stationarity, we have

$$0 \le \underbrace{H(X_n | X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1)}_{a_n} \le H(X_n | X_{n-1}, \dots, X_2) = \underbrace{H(X_{n-1} | X_{n-2}, \dots, X_1)}_{a_{n-1}}$$

Hence, sequence $\{a_n\}$ is monotonically non-increasing and lower bounded (by zero). It must converge $\lim_{n\to\infty} H(X_n|X_{n-1},\dots,X_1)=:H'(\mathcal{X})$. Recall that

$$\frac{1}{n}H(X_1,...,X_n) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i|X_{i-1},...,X_1)}_{b_n}$$

By the lemma below, the RHS converges to $H'(\mathcal{X})$. So does the LHS, which is $H(\mathcal{X})$ in the limit.

Lemma (Cesáro mean)

If a sequence $\{a_n\} \to c$, its running average $\{b_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i\} \to c$.

Entropy Rate for Stationary Stochastic Processes (cont'd)

Lemma

For a stationary Markov chain, $H'(\mathcal{X}) = H(X_2|X_1)$.

Proof:
$$H'(\mathcal{X}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} H(X_n | X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots X_1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} H(X_n | X_{n-1}) = H(X_2 | X_1).$$

Theorem

Let $\{X_i\}$ be a stationary Markov chain with stationary distribution μ and transition probability matrix \mathbf{P} . If $X_1 \sim \mu$, then the entropy rate $H(\mathcal{X}) = -\sum_{ij} \mu_i P_{ij} \log P_{ij}$

Proof:
$$H(\mathcal{X}) = H(X_2|X_1) = \sum_i \Pr(X_1 = i) H(X_2|X_1 = i) = \sum_i \mu_i \sum_j P_{ij} \log P_{ij}^{-1}$$
.

Note: For an irreducible, aperiodic, and finite MC, any initial distribution converges to the stationary distribution. So, even though we may not start from the stationary distribution, the entropy rate $H(\mathcal{X})$ given above is still correct.

The entropy rate of a stationary Markov chain is not dependent on its initial distribution, but only on the transitions between the states and the stationary distribution.

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Entropy Rate of Random Walk over Graph

Example (Random walk over a weighted graph)

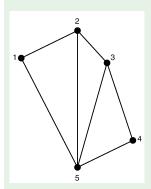


Figure: A weighted graph $G(\mathcal{N},\mathcal{E},\mathcal{W}).$

- w_{ij} = w_{ji} denotes the edge weight between nodes i and j (0 if no edges).
- Given $X_n=i$, the probability of moving from node i to j is $P_{ij}=\frac{w_{ij}}{\sum_k w_{ik}}=\frac{w_{ij}}{w_i}$, where $w_i:=\sum_k w_{ik}$ is the total weight of all edges connecting with node i.
- Intuitively, the stationary distribution of any node $i \in \mathcal{N}$ should be proportional to its degree w_i , which can be derived as $\pi_i = \frac{w_i}{2w}$, where $w \triangleq \sum_{i,i;j>i} w_{ij}$ is the total weight of all edges.
- Sanity check of the stationary distribution: $\sum_i \pi_i P_{ij} = \sum_i \frac{w_i}{2w} \frac{w_{ij}}{w_i} = \frac{w_j}{2w} = \pi_j, \ \forall j \in \mathcal{N}.$
- Locality property of this stationary distribution: it depends only on the total weight and the weight of edges connected to the node.

Entropy Rate of Random Walk over Graph (cont'd)

Example (cont.)

Hence, the entropy rate is

$$H(\mathcal{X}) = H(X_2|X_1) = -\sum_{ij} \mu_i P_{ij} \log P_{ij}$$
 (2)

$$= -\sum_{ij} \frac{w_{ij}}{2w} \log \frac{w_{ij}}{w_i} \tag{3}$$

$$= -\sum_{ij} \frac{w_{ij}}{2w} \log \left(\frac{w_{ij}}{2w} \times \frac{2w}{w_i} \right) \tag{4}$$

$$= -\sum_{ij} \frac{w_{ij}}{2w} \log \frac{w_{ij}}{2w} + \sum_{i} \frac{w_i}{2w} \log \frac{w_i}{2w} \tag{5}$$

$$= H \underbrace{\left(\dots, \frac{w_{ij}}{2w}, \dots\right)}_{|\mathcal{N}|^2 \text{ terms}} - H \underbrace{\left(\dots, \frac{w_i}{2w}, \dots\right)}_{|\mathcal{N}| \text{ terms}} \tag{6}$$

If all the edges have equal weight, the stationary distribution becomes $\pi_i = \frac{D_i}{2D}$, where D_i of is the degree of node i and D is the total degree of the graph. The entropy rate becomes $H(\mathcal{X}) = \log(2D) - H\left(\frac{D_1}{2D}, \dots, \frac{D_{|\mathcal{N}|}}{2D}\right)$.

Functions of Markov Chain

Theorem

Consider a stationary Markov chain $\{X_i\}$ and $Y_i = \phi(X_i)$ for all i. We have:

$$H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},...,Y_1,X_1) \le H(\mathcal{Y}) \le H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},...,Y_1)$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} H(Y_n | Y_{n-1}, \dots, Y_1, X_1) = H(\mathcal{Y}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} H(Y_n | Y_{n-1}, \dots, Y_1).$$

Claim: For a stationary MC $\{X_i\}$, $\{Y_i = \phi(X_i)\}$ is stationary, but not necessarily a MC (unless ϕ is injective or constant)³.

Example (Process $\{Y_i\}$ is not MC)

Consider a mapping $\phi:\mathcal{X}=\left\{ x_{1},x_{2},x_{3}\right\} \mapsto\mathcal{Y}=\left\{ y,z\right\}$ s.t. $\phi\left(x_{1}\right) =\phi\left(x_{2}\right) =y,\phi\left(x_{3}\right) =z.$

Transitions on \mathcal{X} are $\Pr(x_1 \to x_3) = \Pr(x_3 \to x_1) = \Pr(x_2 \to x_2) = 1$.

Assuming X_0 is uniformly distributed on \mathcal{X} , we have

$$P(Y_2 = z \mid Y_1 = y) = \frac{P(Y_1 = y, Y_2 = z)}{P(Y_1 = y)} = \frac{P(X_0 = x_3)}{P(X_0 \in \{x_2, x_3\})} = 0.5$$

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$$P(Y_2 = z \mid Y_1 = y, Y_0 = z) = \frac{P(Y_0 = z, Y_1 = y, Y_2 = z)}{P(Y_0 = z, Y_1 = y)} = \frac{P(X_0 = x_3)}{P(X_0 = x_3)} = 1.$$

 $\verb|a-function-of-a-markov-chain-is-necessarily-again-a-markov-chain| \\$

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https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2262424/

Injective vs Surjective Functions⁴

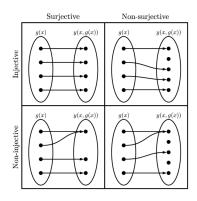


Figure: Injective/one-to-one/left

invertible: each element of the codomain is mapped to by *at most* one element of the domain (image \subseteq codomain).

Surjective/onto/right invertible: each element of the codomain is mapped to by at least one element of the domain (image=codomain).

Bijective/one-to-one correspondence/invertible: each element of the codomain is mapped to by exactly one element of the domain

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- Function $f: \mathscr{A} \mapsto \mathscr{B}$ is left invertible if $\exists g: \mathscr{B} \mapsto \mathscr{A}$ such that $g(f(x)) = x, \forall x \in \mathscr{A}$
- Function $f: \mathscr{A} \mapsto \mathscr{B}$ is right invertible if $\exists g: \mathscr{B} \mapsto \mathscr{A}$ such that $f(g(y)) = y, \forall y \in \mathscr{B}$

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⁴https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bijection,_injection_and_surjection

Functions of Markov Chain (cont'd)

Proof.

- If ϕ is a constant mapping, it is trivial to show stationarity and Markovianity of $\{Y_i\}$.
- If $\phi: \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$ is injective, then $\phi^{-1}: \mathcal{Y} \mapsto \mathcal{X}$ is well defined, where \mathcal{Y} is the image of ϕ . Thus, for Markovianity we have:

$$\Pr\left(Y_{n+1} = y_{n+1} | \{Y_k = y_k\}_{k \le n}\right) = \Pr\left(X_{n+1} = \phi^{-1}(y_{n+1}) | \{X_k = \phi^{-1}(y_k)\}_{k \le n}\right) \tag{7a}$$

=
$$\Pr\left(X_{n+1} = \phi^{-1}(y_{n+1})|X_n = \phi^{-1}(y_n)\right)$$
 (7b)

$$= \Pr(Y_{n+1} = y_{n+1} | Y_n = y_n). \tag{7c}$$

Similarly, for stationarity we have

$$\Pr(Y_0 = y_0, \dots, Y_n = y_n) = \Pr(X_0 = \phi^{-1}(y_0), \dots, X_n = \phi^{-1}(y_n))$$

$$= \Pr(X_l = \phi^{-1}(y_0), \dots, X_{n+l} = \phi^{-1}(y_n))$$
(8b)

$$= \Pr\left(Y_l = y_0, \dots, Y_{n+l} = y_n\right), \forall n, l. \tag{8c}$$

• If ϕ is surjective, but not injective. Then, in (8) by replacing those "=" with " \in ", we prove the stationarity of $\{Y_i\}$.

Function of Markov Chain (cont'd)

Proof: We have proved the upper bound. For the lower bound,

$$H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots,Y_1,X_1) = H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots,Y_1,X_1,\frac{X_0,\ldots,X_{-k}}{})$$
(9)

$$= H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots,Y_1,X_1,X_0,\ldots,X_{-k},Y_0,\ldots,Y_{-k})$$
 (10)

$$\leq H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots,Y_1,Y_0,\ldots,Y_{-k})$$
 (11)

$$= H(Y_{n+k+1}|Y_{n+k},\dots,Y_1), \tag{12}$$

where

- (9) follows from Markovity of X;
- (10) is due to the fact that Y is a function of X;
- (11) follows from conditioning reduces entropy;
- (12) follows from stationarity of Y.

The inequality is true for all k, it is also true in the limit:

$$H(Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots,Y_1,X_1) \le \lim_{k\to\infty} H(Y_{n+k+1}|Y_{n+k},\ldots,Y_1) = H(\mathcal{Y}).$$

Function of Markov Chain (cont'd)

Next, we show that the upper and lower bounds converge to the same value:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} H(Y_n | Y_{n-1}, \dots, Y_1, X_1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} H(Y_n | Y_{n-1}, \dots, Y_1),$$

which is equivalent to $\lim_{n\to\infty}I(X_1;Y_n|Y_{n-1},\ldots Y_1)=0.$

Note that
$$\underbrace{I(X_1;Y_n,\ldots,Y_1)}_{\text{increases in }n}=H(X_1)-H(X_1|Y_n,\ldots,Y_1)\leq H(X_1).$$
 Hence, we have

$$H(X_1) \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} I(X_1; Y_n, Y_{n-1}, \dots Y_1)$$
 (13)

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X_1; Y_i | Y_{i-1}, \dots Y_1)$$
 (14)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} I(X_1; Y_i | Y_{i-1}, \dots Y_1)$$
 (15)

The infinite sum of nonnegative terms is finite \implies the terms must tend to 0.

Hidden Markov Model (HMM)⁵

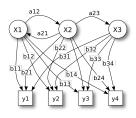


Figure: HMM diagram:

 $X \rightarrow \mathsf{states};$

 $y \rightarrow \text{possible observations};$

 $a \rightarrow {\rm state} \ {\rm transition}$

probabilities;

 $b \rightarrow \text{output (or emission)}$

probabilities.

Given a Markov process $\{X_n\}$, each Y_i is drawn according to $p(y_i|x_i)$, conditionally independent of all the other X_j , $j \neq i$; i.e.,

$$p(x^n, y^n) = p(x^n)p(y^n|x^n) = p(x_1) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} p(x_{i+1}|x_i) \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|x_i)$$

 The same argument used for functions of Markov chain carries over to HMMs; i.e., lower bounding the entropy rate by conditioning it on the underlying Markov state.

⁵Wiki: HMM is widely used in many real applications such as speech recognition, handwriting recognition, musical score following, bioinformatics, etc.

Thank You!

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