

# Information-Theoretic Modeling

## Lecture 3: Mathematical Preliminaries

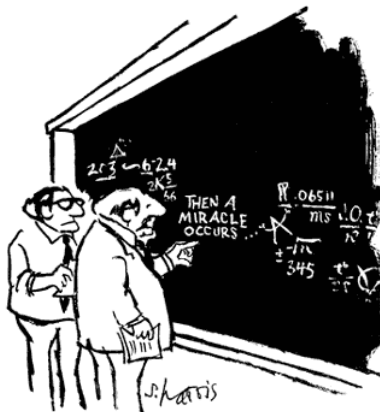
Teemu Roos

Department of Computer Science, University of Helsinki

Fall 2009



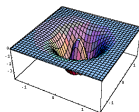
## Lecture 3: Mathematical Preliminaries



"I think you should be more explicit here in step two."

## 1 Calculus

- Limits and Convergence
- Convexity

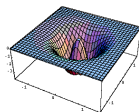


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## 2 Probability

- Probability Space and Random Variables
- Joint and Conditional Distributions
- Expectation
- Law of Large Numbers



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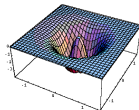
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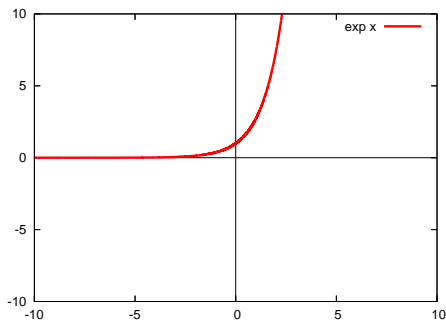
## 3 Inequalities

- Jensen's Inequality
- Gibbs's Inequality



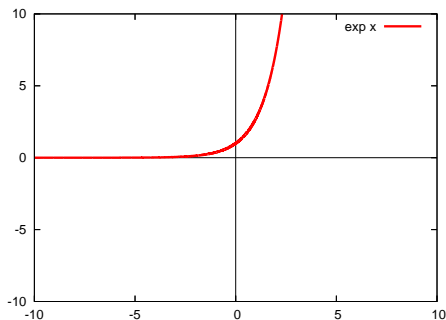
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# Exponent Function



Exponent function  $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ ,  $\exp k = e^k = \overbrace{e \times e \times \dots \times e}^k$ :  
multiplicative growth (nuclear reaction, “interest on interest”, ...)

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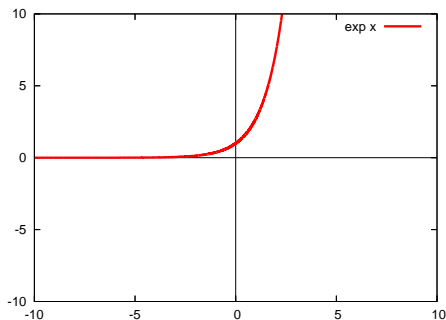


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$$\exp x \cdot \exp y = \exp(x + y)$$



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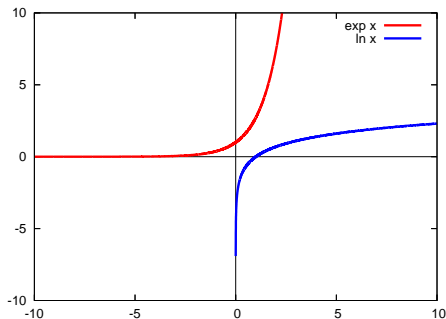


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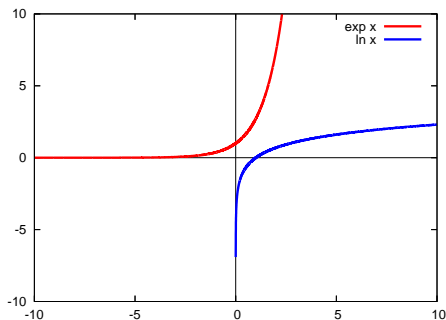
$$\text{Derivative } \frac{d \exp x}{dx} = \exp x.$$

# Examples: Logarithm



Natural logarithm  $\ln : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\ln \exp x = x$ :  
time to grow to  $x$ , number of digits ( $\log_{10}$ ).

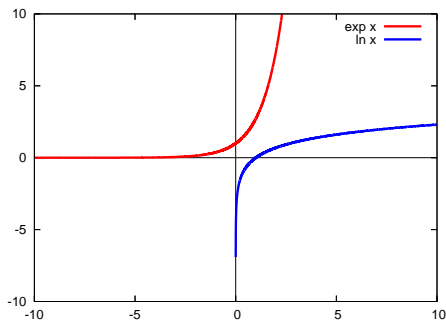
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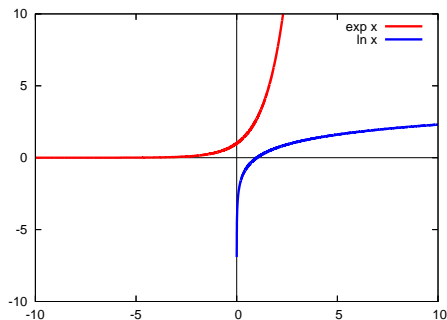
General (base  $a$ ) logarithm,  $\log_a a^x = x$ :  $\log_a x = \frac{1}{\ln a} \ln x$

# Logarithm Function



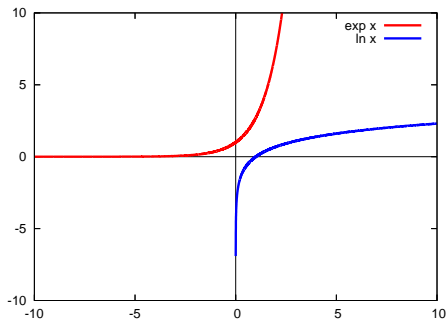
$$\ln xy = \ln x + \ln y$$

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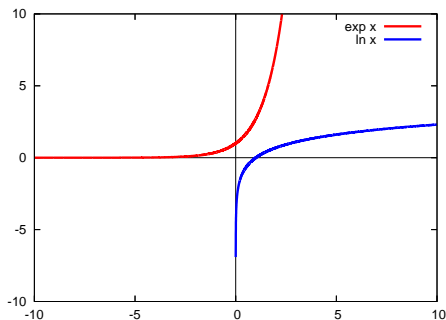
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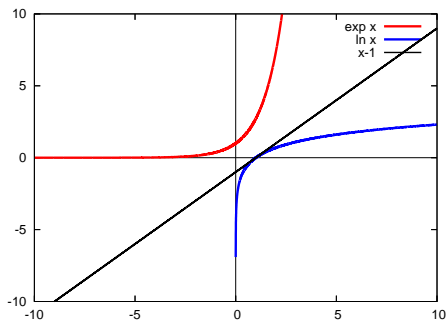
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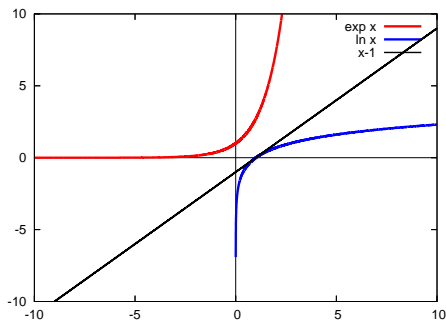
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$$\frac{d \ln x}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$$

# Limits and Convergence

- A sequence of values  $(x_i : i \in \mathbb{N})$  *converges* to *limit*  $L$ ,  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i = L$ , iff for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a number  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

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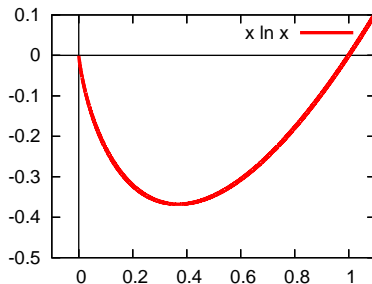
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- $f(x)$  has a *limit*  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ , (from above  $c^+$ /below  $c^-$ ) iff for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a number  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } \begin{cases} c < x < c + \delta & \text{'above'} \\ c - \delta < x < c & \text{'below'} \\ 0 < |x - c| < \delta & \text{—} \end{cases}$$

## Example: Logarithm Again



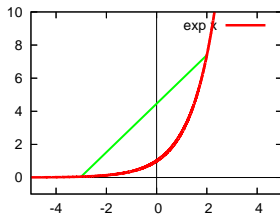
Even though  $x \ln x$  is undefined at  $x = 0$ , we have (by l'Hôpital's rule):

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x = 0 .$$

# Convexity

Function  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **convex** iff for any  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  and any  $t \in [0, 1]$ , we have

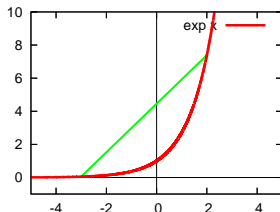
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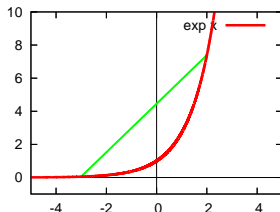


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Function  $f$  is (strictly) **concave** iff the above holds for  $-f$ .

# Convexity and Derivatives

## Theorem

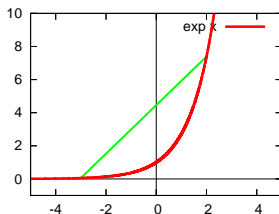
If function  $f$  has a second derivative  $f''$ , and  $f''$  is non-negative ( $\geq 0$ ) for all  $x$ , then  $f$  is convex. If  $f''$  is positive ( $> 0$ ) for all  $x$ , then  $f$  is *strictly* convex.



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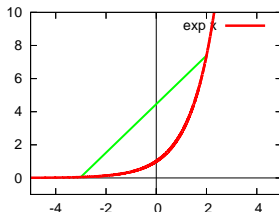


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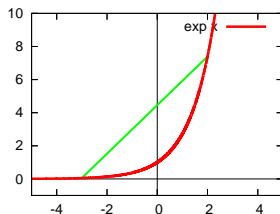


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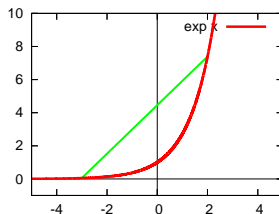


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$e^x$  is *conve*<sup>x</sup>!

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# Probability



A.N. Kolmogorov, 1903–1987

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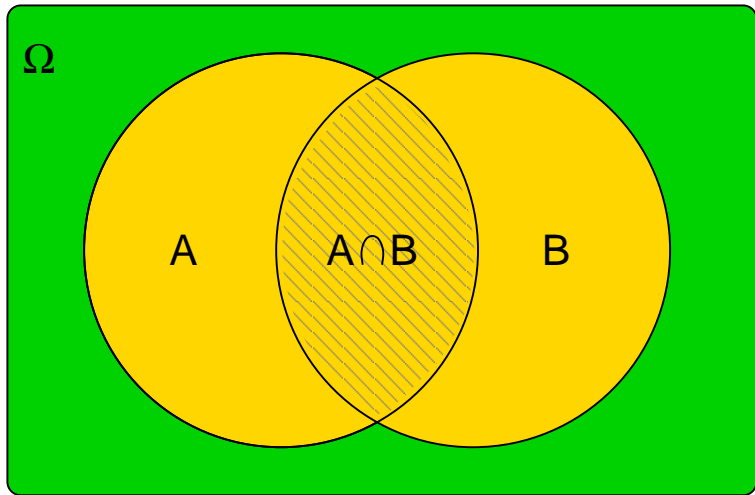
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These axioms imply the usual rules of **probability calculus**, e.g.,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ ,  $P(\Omega \setminus E) = 1 - P(E)$ , etc.

# Venn Diagrams



# Probability Calculus

- 1 The **conditional probability** of event  $B$  given that event  $A$  occurs is defined as

$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} \quad \text{for } A \text{ such that } P(A) > 0.$$

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- ④ Chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\cap_{i=1}^N E_i) &= \prod_{i=1}^N P(E_i \mid \cap_{j=1}^{i-1} E_j) \\ &= P(E_1) \times P(E_2 \mid E_1) \times P(E_3 \mid E_1 \cap E_2) \times \dots \\ &\quad \times P(E_N \mid E_1 \cap \dots \cap E_{N-1}) . \end{aligned}$$

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In practice, we often forget about the underlying probability space  $\Omega$ , and just speak of random variable  $X$  and its distribution  $P_X$ .

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We often omit the subscripts  $X, Y, \dots$  and write  $p(x), f(y)$ , etc.

# Random Variables

Since random variables are functions, we can define more random variables as functions of random variables: if  $f$  is a function, and  $X$  and  $Y$  are r.v.'s, then  $f(X) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a r.v.,  $X + Y$  is a r.v., etc.

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- The pmf of r.v.  $X^2$  is given by  $p_{X^2}(x) = 1/6$  for all  $x \in \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36\}$ .

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- The pmf of r.v.  $X^2$  is given by  $p_{X^2}(x) = 1/6$  for all  $x \in \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36\}$ .

!

In particular, a pmf  $p_X$  is a function, and hence,  $p_X(X)$  is also a random variable. Further,  $p_X^2(X)$ ,  $\ln p_X(X)$ , etc. are random variables.

# Multivariate Distributions

The probabilistic behavior of two or more random variables is described by multivariate distributions.

The **joint distribution** of r.v.'s  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$\begin{aligned} P_{X,Y}(A, B) &= \Pr[X \in A \wedge Y \in B] \\ &= P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in A, Y(\omega) \in B\}) . \end{aligned}$$

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For each multivariate distribution  $P_{X,Y}$ , there are unique **marginal distributions**  $P_X$  and  $P_Y$  such that

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$$\text{pmf: } p_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \quad \text{pdf: } f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx .$$

# Multivariate Distributions

The **conditional distribution** is defined similar to *conditional probability*:

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# Independence

Variable  $X$  is said to be **independent** of variable  $Y$  ( $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ ) iff

$$P_{X,Y}(A, B) = P_X(A) \times P_Y(B) \quad \text{for all } A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

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$$P_{Y|X}(B | A) = P_Y(B) \quad \text{for all } A \text{ such that } P(A) > 0.$$

In words, knowledge about one variable tells nothing about the other. Note that independence is symmetric,  $X \perp Y \Leftrightarrow Y \perp X$ .

# Expectation

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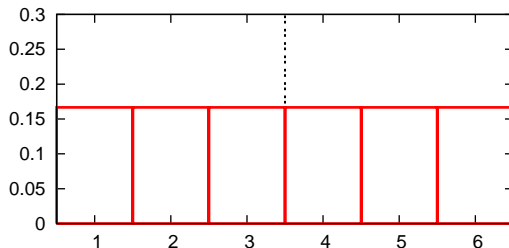
$$E[kX] = kE[X] \quad E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$

$$E[XY] = E[X]E[Y] \quad \text{if } X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$$

# Law of Large Numbers



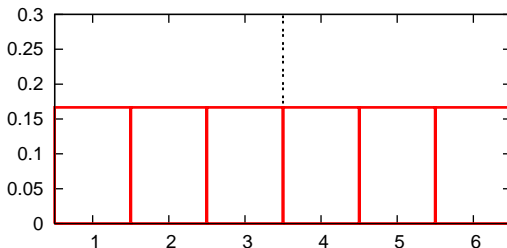
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$$E[X_i] = \sum_{x=1}^6 \frac{1}{6} x = \frac{21}{6} = 3.5 \quad \text{for all } i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

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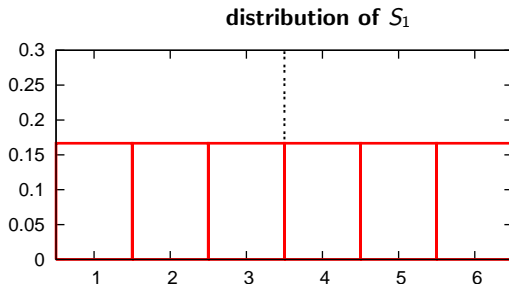
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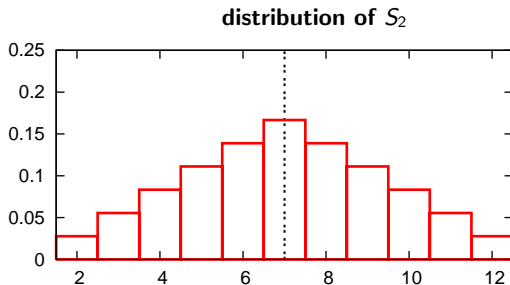


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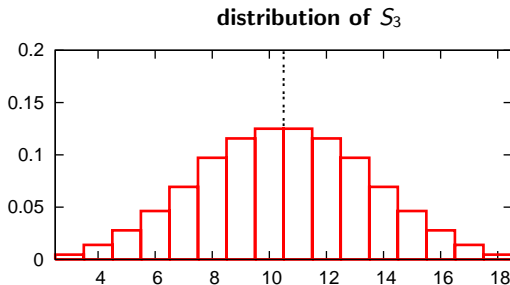


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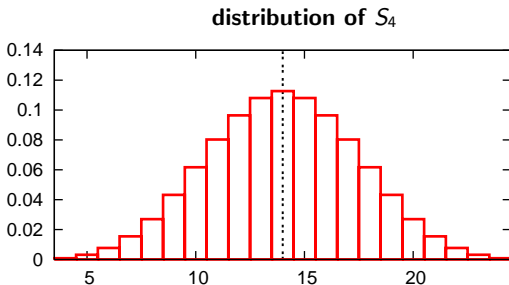


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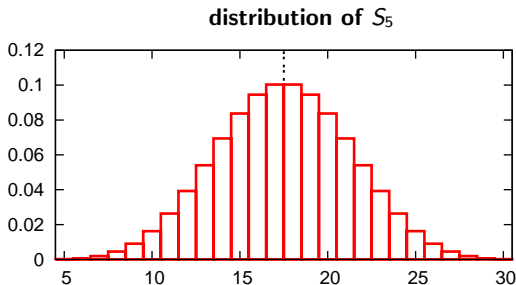


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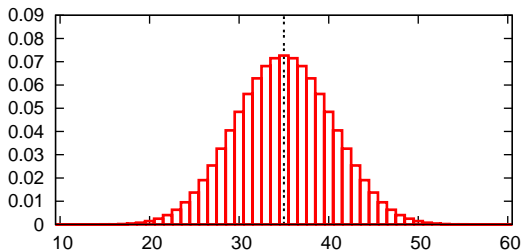
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**distribution of  $S_{10}$**

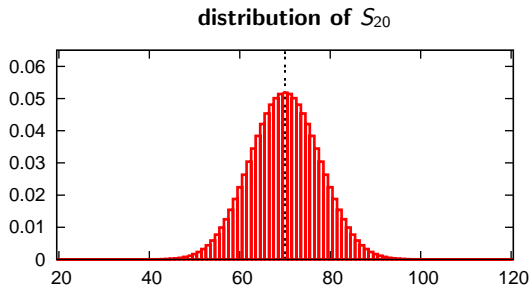


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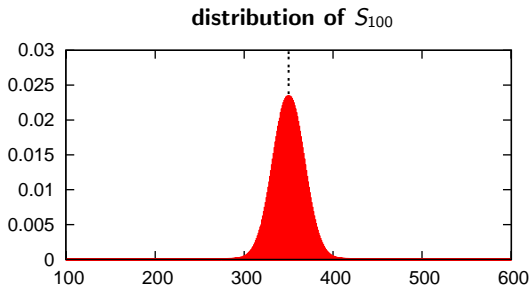


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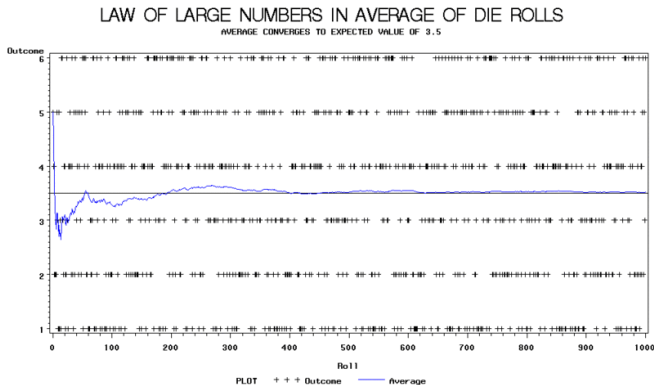
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# Law of Large Numbers



Source: Wikipedia



# Law of Large Numbers

## Weak Law of Large Numbers

For a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with finite mean  $\mu$ , the average  $\frac{1}{n}S_n$  converges in probability to  $\mu$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left[ \left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \mu \right| < \epsilon \right] = 1 \quad \text{for all } \epsilon > 0.$$

We will use the LLN to prove a result known as the Asymptotic Equipartition Property (AEP), which is a central result in information theory (see next lecture).

- 1 Calculus
  - Limits and Convergence
  - Convexity
- 2 Probability
  - Probability Space and Random Variables
  - Joint and Conditional Distributions
  - Expectation
  - Law of Large Numbers
- 3 **Inequalities**
  - Jensen's Inequality
  - Gibbs's Inequality

# Jensen's inequality



J.L.W.V. Jensen, 1859–1925

# Inequalities: Jensen

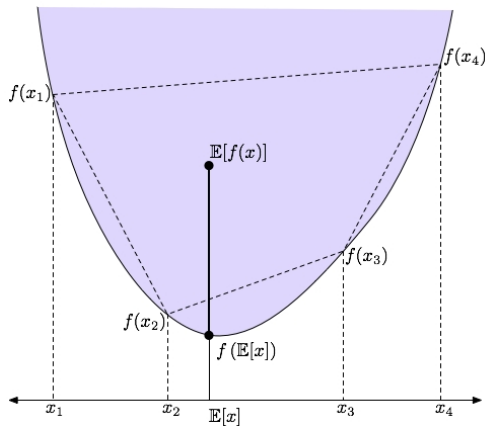
## Jensen's inequality

If  $f$  is a convex function and  $X$  is a random variable, then

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

Moreover, if  $f$  is strictly convex, the inequality holds as an equality if and only if  $X = E[X]$  with probability 1.

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Source: *Inductio Ex Machina*, [mark.reid.name/iem/](http://mark.reid.name/iem/)

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For two mass points, we have  $p(x_2) = 1 - p(x_1)$ , and the claim holds by [definition of convexity](#):

$$p(x_1) f(x_1) + p(x_2) f(x_2) \geq f(p(x_1) x_1 + p(x_2) x_2) .$$



# Inequalities: Jensen

*Induction:* Assume that (\*) the theorem holds for  $N - 1$  mass points.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^N p(x_i) f(x_i) &= p(x_N) f(x_N) + (1 - p(x_N)) \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p'(x_i) f(x_i) \\ &\geq p(x_N) f(x_N) + (1 - p(x_N)) f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p'(x_i) x_i\right) \quad (*) \\ &\geq f\left(p(x_N) x_N + (1 - p(x_N)) \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} p'(x_i) x_i\right) \quad (\text{convexity}) \\ &= f\left(\sum_{i=1}^N p(x_i) x_i\right),\end{aligned}$$

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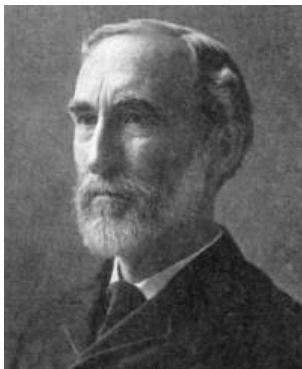
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# Gibbs' inequality



W. Gibbs, 1839–1903

# Inequalities: Gibbs

## Gibbs' inequality

For any two discrete probability distributions  $p$  and  $q$ , we have

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log_2 p(x) \geq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log_2 q(x)$$

with equality if and only if  $p(x) = q(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\log_2 x = \frac{1}{\ln 2} \ln x$ , dividing both sides by  $\ln 2$  changes  $\log_2$  to  $\ln$ .

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