Noise, Information Theory, and Entropy

CS414 – Spring 2007 By Roger Cheng (Huffman coding slides courtesy of Brian Bailey)

## Why study noise?

 It's present in all systems of interest, and we have to deal with it

 By knowing its characteristics, we can fight it better

 Create models to evaluate analytically

# Communication system abstraction



#### The additive noise channel

Transmitted signal s(t) is corrupted by noise source n(t), and the resulting received signal is r(t)

Noise could result form many sources, including electronic components and transmission interference



#### Random processes

- A random variable is the result of a single measurement
- A random process is a indexed collection of random variables, or equivalently a nondeterministic signal that can be described by a probability distribution
- Noise can be modeled as a random process

## WGN (White Gaussian Noise)

#### Properties

- At each time instant  $t = t_0$ , the value of n(t) is normally distributed with mean 0, variance  $\sigma^2$  (ie E[n(t\_0)] = 0, E[n(t\_0)^2] =  $\sigma^2$ )
- At any two different time instants, the values of n(t) are uncorrelated
   (ie E[n(t<sub>0</sub>)n(t<sub>k</sub>)] = 0)
- The power spectral density of n(t) has equal power in all frequency bands

## WGN continued

- When an additive noise channel has a white Gaussian noise source, we call it an AWGN channel
- Most frequently used model in communications
- Reasons why we use this model
  - It's easy to understand and compute
  - It applies to a broad class of physical channels

## Signal energy and power

• Energy is defined as  $\mathcal{E}_{x} = \int |x(t)|^{2} dt$ 

• Power is defined as  $P_x = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$ 

 Most signals are either finite energy and zero power, or infinite energy and finite power
 Noise power is hard to compute in time domain

 Power of WGN is its variance σ<sup>2</sup>

## Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR)

Defined as the ratio of signal power to the noise power corrupting the signal

$$\mathrm{SNR} = \frac{P_{\mathrm{signal}}}{P_{\mathrm{noise}}} = \left(\frac{A_{\mathrm{signal}}}{A_{\mathrm{noise}}}\right)$$

 Usually more practical to measure SNR on a dB scale

$$\mathrm{SNR}(\mathrm{dB}) = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{\mathrm{signal}}}{P_{\mathrm{noise}}} \right) = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{A_{\mathrm{signal}}}{A_{\mathrm{noise}}} \right)$$

Obviously, want as high an SNR as possible

## Analog vs. Digital

- Analog system
  - Any amount of noise will create distortion at the output
- Digital system
  - A relatively small amount of noise will cause no harm at all
  - Too much noise will make decoding of received signal impossible
- Both Goal is to limit effects of noise to a manageable/satisfactory amount

# Information theory and entropy

- Information theory tries to solve the problem of communicating as much data as possible over a noisy channel
- Measure of data is entropy
- Claude Shannon first demonstrated that reliable communication over a noisy channel is possible (jump-started digital age)



### **Entropy definitions**



## **Properties of entropy**

- Can be defined as the expectation of log p(x) (ie H(X) = E[-log p(x)])
- Is not a function of a variable's values, is a function of the variable's probabilities
- Usually measured in "bits" (using logs of base
   2) or "nats" (using logs of base e)
- Maximized when all values are equally likely (ie uniform distribution)
- Equal to 0 when only one value is possible
  - Cannot be negative

#### Joint and conditional entropy

Joint entropy is the entropy of the pairing (X,Y)  $H(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}_{X,Y}[-\log p(x,y)] = -\sum p(x,y)\log p(x,y)$ Conditional entropy is the entropy of X if the value of Y was known  $H(X|y) = \mathbb{E}_{X|Y}[-\log p(x|y)] = -\sum p(x|y)\log p(x|y)$ Relationship between the two H(X|Y) = H(X,Y) - H(Y).

#### **Mutual information**

Mutual information is how much information about X can be obtained by observing Y

$$\begin{split} I(X;Y) &= \sum_{y \in Y} p(y) \sum_{x \in X} p(x|y) \log \frac{p(x|y)}{p(x)} = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x) p(y)} \\ I(X;Y) &= H(X) - H(X|Y). \end{split}$$

## Mathematical model of a channel

Assume that our input to the channel is X, and the output is Y

Then the characteristics of the channel can be defined by its conditional probability distribution p(y|x)

## Channel capacity and rate

Channel capacity is defined as the maximum possible value of the mutual information

 $C = \max I(X;Y).$ 

We choose the best f(x) to maximize C
 For any rate R < C, we can transmit information with arbitrarily small probability of error</li>

## Binary symmetric channel

Correct bit transmitted with probability 1-p
Wrong bit transmitted with probability p
Sometimes called "cross-over probability"
Capacity C = 1 - H(p,1-p)



#### Binary erasure channel

Correct bit transmitted with probability 1-p
"Erasure" transmitted with probability p
Capacity C = 1 - p



## Coding theory

- Information theory only gives us an upper bound on communication rate
- Need to use coding theory to find a practical method to achieve a high rate
- 2 types
  - Source coding Compress source data to a smaller size
  - Channel coding Adds redundancy bits to make transmission across noisy channel more robust

## Source-channel separation theorem

Shannon showed that when dealing with one transmitter and one receiver, we can break up source coding and channel coding into separate steps without loss of optimality

Does not apply when there are multiple transmitters and/or receivers

 Need to use network information theory principles in those cases

## Huffman Encoding

 Use probability distribution to determine how many bits to use for each symbol
 higher-frequency assigned shorter codes
 entropy-based, block-variable coding scheme

## Huffman Encoding

- Produces a code which uses a minimum number of bits to represent each symbol
  - cannot represent same sequence using fewer *real* bits per symbol when using code words
  - optimal when using code words, but this may differ slightly from the theoretical lower limit

#### Build Huffman tree to assign codes

#### **Informal Problem Description**

- Given a set of symbols from an alphabet and their probability distribution
  - assumes distribution is known and stable
- Find a prefix free binary code with minimum weighted path length
  - prefix free means no codeword is a prefix of any other codeword

## Huffman Algorithm

Construct a binary tree of codes
 leaf nodes represent symbols to encode
 interior nodes represent cumulative probability
 edges assigned 0 or 1 output code

Construct the tree bottom-up
 connect the two nodes with the lowest probability until no more nodes to connect

### Huffman Example

 Construct the Huffman coding tree (in class)



## **Characteristics of Solution**



## Example Encoding/Decoding

Encode "BEAD"  $\Rightarrow$  001011011

 $\Rightarrow$ Decode "0101100"



## Entropy (Theoretical Limit)

M

$H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} -p(s_i) \log_2 p(s_i)$	Symbol	<i>P</i> (S)	Code
l=1	Α	0.25	11
$=25 * \log_2 .25 +$	В	0.30	00
30 * log <sub>2</sub> .30 + - 12 * log <sub>2</sub> .12 +	С	0.12	010
$15 * \log_2 .15 +$	D	0.15	011
18 * log <sub>2</sub> .18	E	0.18	10
H = 2.24 bits			

## Average Codeword Length

M

$L = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p(s_i) codelength(s_i)$	Symbol	<i>P</i> (S)	Code
	Α	0.25	11
= .25(2) + .30(2) +	В	0.30	00
.12(3) + .15(3) +	С	0.12	010
.18(2)	D	0.15	011
L = 2.27 bits	E	0.18	10

## Code Length Relative to Entropy



Huffman reaches entropy limit when all probabilities are negative powers of 2
 i.e., 1/2; 1/4; 1/8; 1/16; etc.

#### $H \leq Code Length \leq H + 1$







Symbol	<i>P</i> (S)	Code
Α	0.01	1
В	0.99	0

#### Limitations

- Diverges from lower limit when probability of a particular symbol becomes high
   always uses an integral number of bits
- Must send code book with the data
   lowers overall efficiency
- Must determine frequency distribution
   must remain stable over the data set