

# Lecture 1

## *What is Information*

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# Lecture Information

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**Reference:** Stefan M. Moser and Po-Ning Chen, *A Student's Guide to Coding and Information Theory*,  
Chapter 5.



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# 1. Motivation

A decorative graphic consisting of several overlapping, curved, leaf-like shapes in light blue, light green, yellow, and light red, arranged in a fan-like pattern.

# What is information

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We begin in asking the question:

# What is information ?

An abstract graphic consisting of several overlapping, curved, leaf-like shapes in shades of light blue, light green, light yellow, and light red, positioned behind the main title.

# Example 1

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- “Does the number of typhoons exceed 10 this year?”
  - ◆ This question has only two possible answers: “yes” or “no”.
- “One people in New Taipei City will win the lottery. Who win?”
  - ◆ Here, the question has about 3,897,888 possible answers. (Feb. 2011)
- The second answer provides you a much bigger amount of information than the first one.

# First thing we learn

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- For a question, the number of possible answers  $r$  should be linked to “information”.



## Example 2(from our reference)

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- You observe a gambler throwing a fair dice. There are 6 possible outcomes  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ . You note the outcome and then tell it to a friend. By doing so you give your friend a certain amount of information.
- Next you observe the gambler throwing the dice *three times*. Again, you note the three outcomes and tell them to your friend.
- Obviously, the amount of information that you give to your friend this time is three times as much as the first time.

# Second thing we learn

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- “Information” should be additive in some sense





# Example 2

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- In the first case, we have  $r = 6$  possible answers.
- In the second case, we have  $r = 6^3 = 216$  possible answers.
- We have 36 times more possible outcomes in the second case than in the first. But we would like to have only a 3 times larger amount of information!
- How do we match our “feeling” ?
- Solution: Obtain the exponent of the possible answers. That is, take logarithm.
- The researcher Ralph Hartley has made exactly these observations in 1928 in Bell Labs.

# Hartley's information

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- Definition. We define the following measure of information:

$$\tilde{I}(U) \triangleq \log_b r$$

where  $r$  is the number of all possible outcomes of a random message  $U$ .

- We have desired additivity of information
- $$\tilde{I}(U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n) = \log_b r^n = n \log_b r = n \tilde{I}(U)$$
- The base  $b$  of logarithm decides about the unit of information. Not really important in our measure.

# Base of logarithm

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- If  $b = 2$ , the unit is *bit*.
- If  $b = e = 2.71828\dots$ , that is, we take the natural logarithm, the unit is *nat*.
- If  $b = 10$ , the unit is *Hartley*.
- ◆ In honor of Hartley. It seems that no one use this unit for measuring information ...

# Example 3

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- There are 103710 people living in San-Shia. How long must a telephone number be if we want to be able to connect to every person?
- $\log_2 103710 = 16.66$ . Therefore, we need 17 bits for our phone number.
- $\log_{10} 103710 = 5.01$ . We need 6 Hartleys for our phone number. (In fact, we do not need evaluate the logarithm. Just count the number of the decimal digits since we use radix-10 system.)

# Example 4. Flaw of Hartley information

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- Example. Suppose that we have two boxes. Box 1 contains 8 black balls and 8 white balls. Box 2 contains 1 black ball and 15 white balls. We draw one ball at random and let  $U$  be the color of the ball.
- By Hartley's information,  $\tilde{I}_1 = \log_2 2 = 1\text{bits}$ .  
 $\tilde{I}_2 = \log_2 2 = 1\text{bits}$ .
- Obviously,  $U_2$  contains less information since white ball is much more likely.

# Third thing we learn

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- A proper measure of information needs to take into account the probabilities of the various possible events!
- This has been observed for the first time by Claude Elwood Shannon, Father of Information Theory, in 1948 in his landmark paper: “A Mathematical Theory of Communication” .

# C. E. Shannon, 1916-2001

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Claude Shannon and his clever electromechanical mouse

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# Example 4

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- For Box 2, there is one chance out of 16 possibilities that we draw a black ball. In this case, the Hartley information is

$$\log_2 16 = 4$$

- There is 15 chance out of 16 possibilities that we draw a white ball. That is, 1 chance out of 16/15 possibilities. In this case, the Hartley information is

$$\log_2 16/15 = 0.093$$



# Example 4

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- Now we have two different measures of information depending on the color. How shall we combine them to one value that represents the information? Averaging according to their probabilities :

$$\frac{1}{16} \log_2 16 + \frac{15}{16} \log_2 16/15$$

# Shannon's measure of information

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$$\sum_{i=1}^r p_i \log_b \frac{1}{p_i} = - \sum_{i=1}^r p_i \log_b p_i$$

where  $p_i$  is the probability of the  $i$ th outcome.

- This is the average Hartley information.

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## 2. Uncertainty and Entropy

A decorative graphic consisting of several overlapping, curved, leaf-like shapes in various colors: light green, light blue, yellow, and light red. The shapes are arranged in a fan-like pattern, with the yellow shape at the top and the light blue shape at the bottom.

# Entropy

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**Definition.** The uncertainty or entropy of a random message  $U$  that takes  $r$  different values with probability  $p_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, r$ , is defined as

$$H(U) \triangleq - \sum_{i=1}^r p_i \log_b p_i$$

- We now formally define the Shannon's measure of "self-information of a source". (i.e. we also have "mutual information")
- Shannon called his measure entropy due to its relationship with a corresponding concept in physics.
- "uncertainty" would be a far more precise description.

# Entropy

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- Be careful. Do not to confuse uncertainty with information!
- In Section 1 we have talked a lot about “information” . This is for motivation purposes.
- In fact, what we actually meant is “self-information” or more precisely, “uncertainty” .