In search of the shortest description Damian Niwiński Faculty of Mathematics, Informatics, and Mechanics University of Warsaw Philosophers' Rally, Gdańsk, June 2012



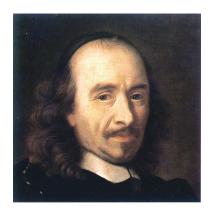
Je n'ai fait celle-ci plus longue que parce que je n'ai pas eu le loisir de la faire plus courte.

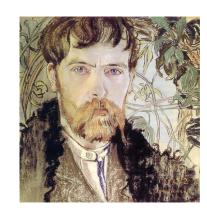
I have made this [letter] longer, because I have not had the time to make it shorter.

Blaise Pascal, *Lettres provinciales*, 1657

Shortening is art







SCÈNE PREMIÈRE – CHIMÈNE, ELVIRE

CHIMÈNE

Elvire, m'as tu fait un rapport bien sincère ?

Ne déguises-tu rien de ce qu'a dit mon père ?

In translation by Stanisław Wyspiański:

SZIMENA

Więc mówił...?

After Tadeusz Boy Żeleński

Shortening is technology



Biblioteca Joanina, Coimbra, Portugal

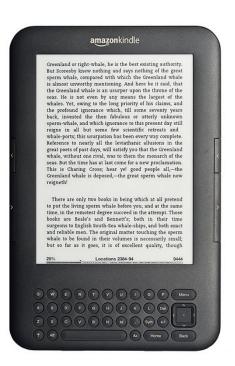


Photo NotFromUtrecht

Shortening is mathematics

7, 625, 597, 484, 987

 3^{3^3}

 $0 \rightarrow 01$

 $1 \rightarrow 10$

3.14159 26535 89793 23846 26433 83279 50288 41971 69399 37510 58209 . . .

program generating π

To find a short description, we need to understand an idea behind an object.

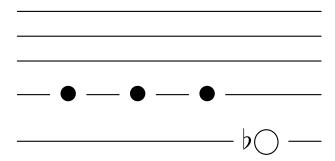




Photo MITO SettembreMusica

But is it always possible to shorten a number?

Not always!

Lemma. If, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\operatorname{short}(n)$ is a word over r symbols and $\operatorname{short}(n) \neq \operatorname{short}(n')$ whenever $n \neq n'$, then for **infinitely many** n's, we have

$$\mathsf{short}(n) \geq \lfloor \log_r n \rfloor.$$

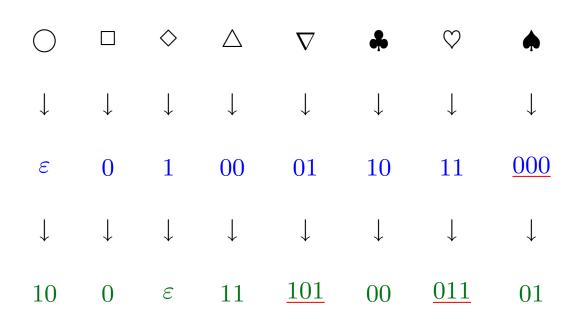
In this case short is not better than the standard positional notation.

This comes from simple calculation.

If r^k objects are described by r symbols then at least one of them has a description of length at least k.

This is because the number of words shorter than k is

$$1 + r + r^2 + \ldots + r^{k-1} = \frac{r^k - 1}{r - 1} < r^k$$
.





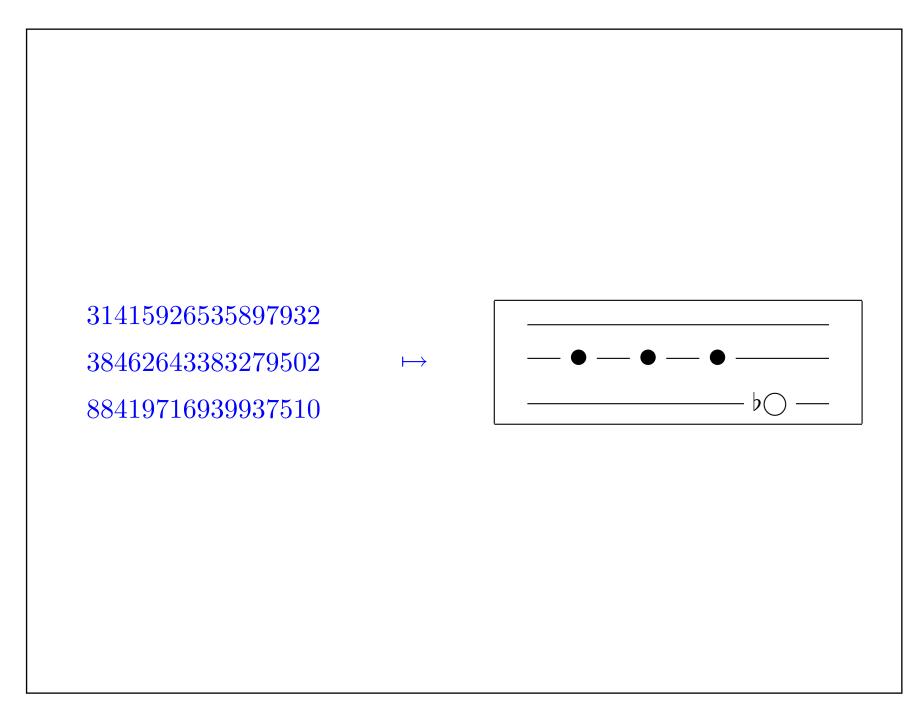
Andrey N. Kolmogorov introduced (in 1960s) the following concept:

the shortest program generating n

(in a fixed programming language, e.g., Pascal)

This program can be viewed as an *ideal* shortening of n.

Remark. The length of the program depends on the choice of a programming language, but only up to additive constant.



By the Lemma,

 $\mathcal{H} \longmapsto \begin{array}{c} \text{While } \min(a,b) > 0 \text{ do} \\ \text{if } b > a \text{ then } b := b \bmod a \\ \\ \text{else } a := a \bmod b \\ \\ \text{Return } \max(a,b) \end{array}$

is not always a shortening.

For some n's, the best what we can do is

9346296618342597

Write (9346296618342597)

i.e., the program is as long as the number itself.

Kolmogorov called such numbers random.

More precisely, the celebrated Kolmogorov complexity of a number n a is:

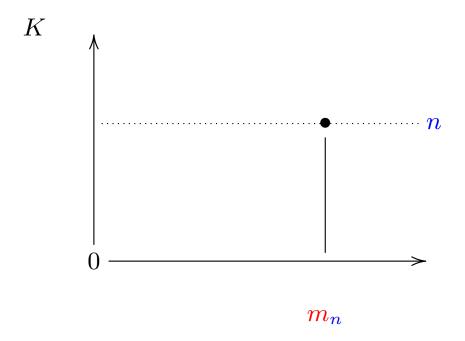
K(n) = the **length** of the shortest binary program generating n.

A number n is **random** whenever

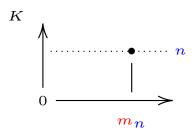
$$K(n) \geq \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$$
.

There are infinitely many random numbers.

Random numbers exist in Nature, but can neither be computed nor recognized.



Let m_n be the least such that $n \leq K(m_n)$. Then m_n is random! (Indeed, some $i \in \{0,1,\ldots,2^n-1\}$ must satisfy $\lfloor \log_2 i \rfloor \leq n \leq K(i)$, whereas $m_n \leq i$ implies $\lfloor \log_2 m_n \rfloor \leq \lfloor \log_2 i \rfloor \leq n \leq K(m_n)$.)



But no program P(x) can compute the function $n \mapsto m_n$, for all n.

Otherwise, for given n, the program $P(\underline{n})$ computes m_n and has the length

$$\log_2 n + const < n$$

A contradiction!

Note a reminiscence of **Berry's paradox**:

the least natural number, which Let m_{1000} be cannot be described in English with less than 1000 symbols.

Consequently, the function $n\mapsto K(n)$ cannot be computed, as otherwise we could use it

```
\begin{array}{l} x := 0 \\ \text{While } K(x) < n \text{ do } x := x+1 \\ \text{Return } \textcolor{red}{m_n} = x \end{array}
```

Neither there is a computable way to *verify* if a given number m is random:

The set of random numbers is not computable.

Otherwise

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{Input } n \\ & count := i := 0 \\ & \text{While } count < n \text{ do} \\ & \text{if Random}(i) \text{ then } count := count + 1 \text{ fi} \\ & i := i + 1 \\ & \text{Return } i \end{aligned}
```

computes the n th random number. Take, e.g., 2^{2^n} to obtain a contradiction.

In general, we can only prove **non**-randomness, e.g.,

 $3\ 14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937510\\ 58209749445923078164062862089986280348253421170679\\ 82148086513282306647093844609550582231725359408128\\ 48111745028410270193852110555964462294895493038196\\ 98336733624406566430860213949463952247371907021798\\ 60943702770539217176293176752384674818467669405132\\ 00056812714526356082778577134275778960917363717872$

is not random.

In about the same time (1960s), **Gregory Chaitin** (born 1947), then a high school student in New York, discovered independently the main concepts of the Kolmogorov complexity.

He found an alternative proof of the

Gödel Incompleteness Theorem.

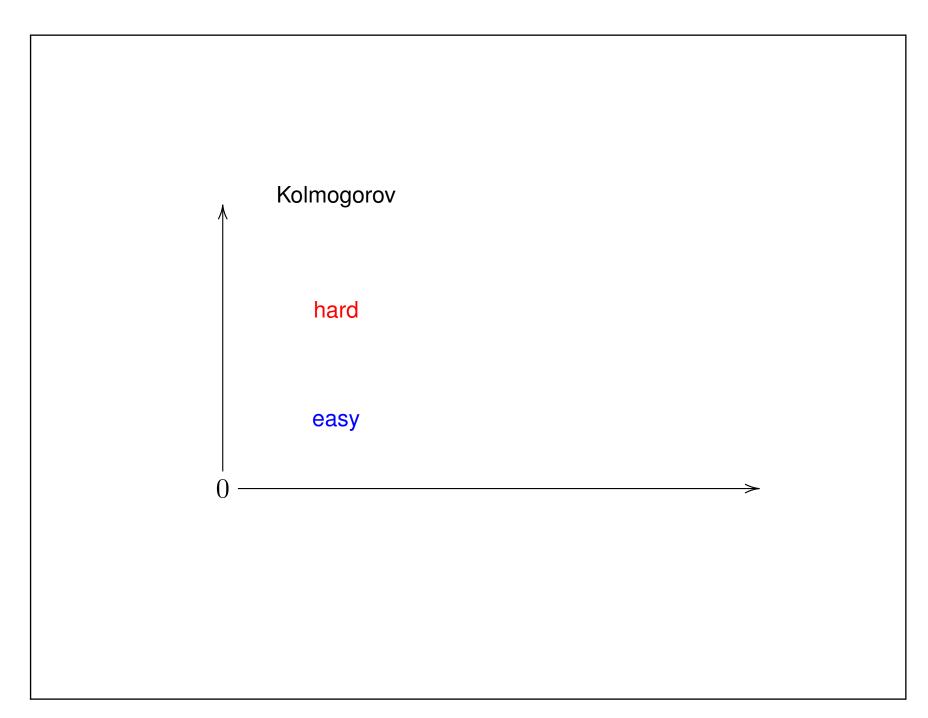
If a theory T is a consistent extension of the Peano arithmetics PA then T is incomplete.

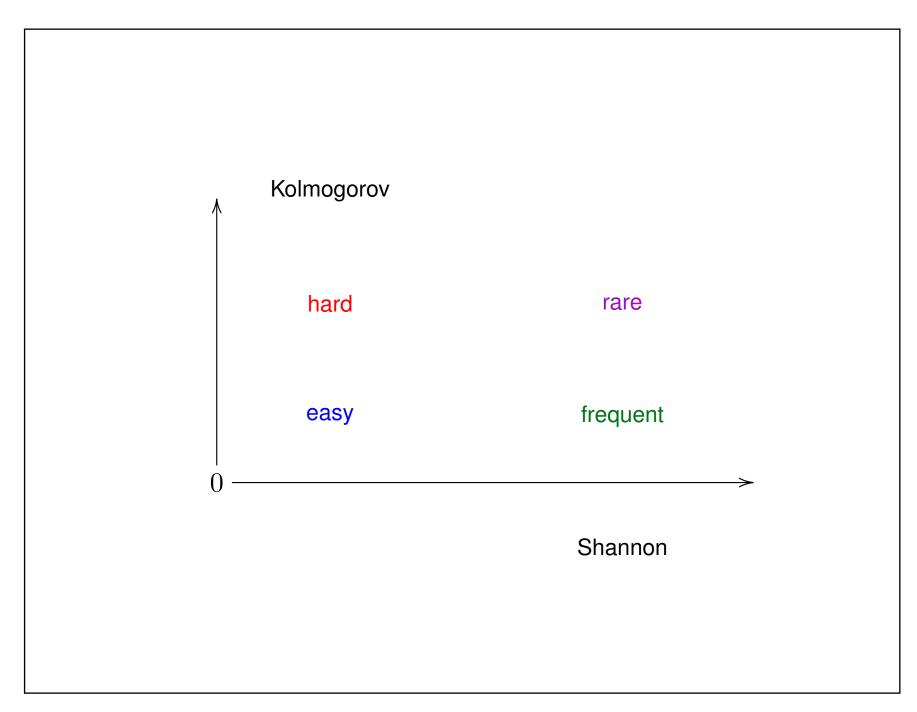
Proof. The property n is not random is semi-representable in PA.

But it is not possible that, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

 $T \vdash n$ is random or $T \vdash n$ is not random,

as otherwise the set of random numbers would computable.





Claude Shannon led the foundations of information theory in his landmark paper of 1948

A Mathematical Theory of Communication.

In the subsequent paper of 1951

Prediction and Entropy of Printed English,

he related his theory to computational linguistics.

Examples from Shannon's original paper and Lucky's book.

Quoted from T.M.Cover, J.A.Thomas, *Elements of Information Theory*.

The symbols are independent and equiprobable.

XFOML RXKHRJFFJUJ ZLPWCFWKCYJ
FFJEYVKCQSGYD QPAAMKBZAACIBZLHJQD

The symbols are independent. Frequency of letters matches English text.

OCRO HLI RGWR NMIELWIS EU LL NBNESEBYA TH EEI ALHENHTTPA OOBTTVA NAH BRL

The frequency of pairs of letters matches English text.

ON IE ANTISOUTINYS ARE T INCTORE ST B S DEAMY
ACHIN D ILONASIVE TUCOOWE AT TEASONARE FUSO
TIZIN ANDY TOBE SEACE CTISBE

The frequency of triplets of letters matches English text.

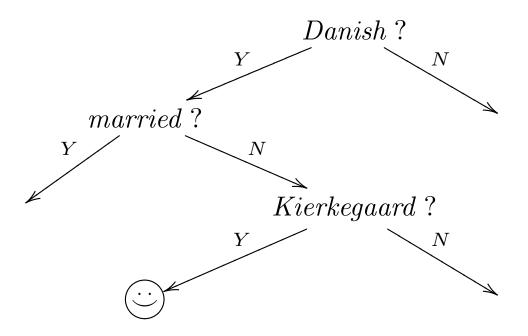
IN NO IST LAT WHEY CRATICT FROURE BERS GROCID
PONDENOME OF DEMONSTURES OH THE REPTAGIN IS
REOGACTIONA OF CRE

The frequency of quadruples of letters matches English text.

Each letter depends previous three letters.

THE GENERATED JOB PROVIDUAL BETTER TRAND THE DISPLAYED CODE, ABOVERY UPONDULTS WELL THE CODERST IN THESTICAL IT DO HOCK BOTHE MERG. (INSTATES CONS ERATION. NEVER ANY OF PUBLE AND TO THEORY. EVENTIAL CALLEGAND TO ELAST BENERATED IN WITH PIES AS IS WITH THE)

Example of 20 question game



Question game

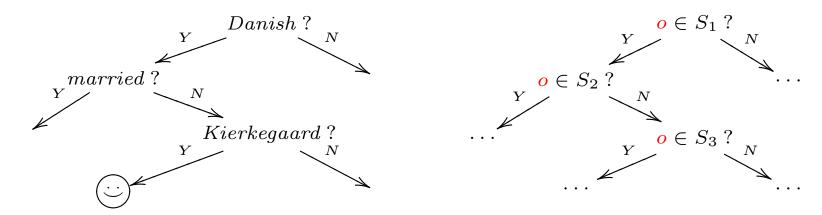
Answerer chooses a challenge from some known set of objects.

The challenge is kept secrete.

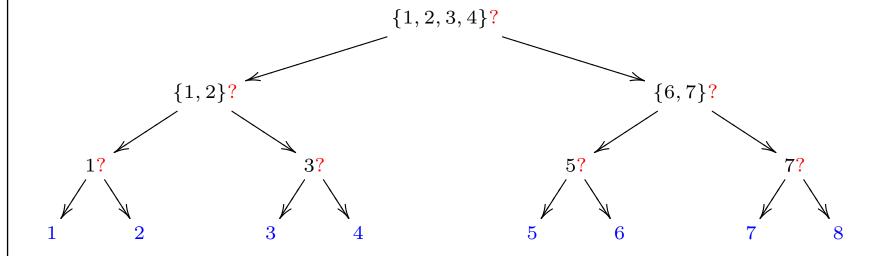
Questioner asks questions: does the challenge belong to the set of objects S?

Answerer answers: *yes* or *no*.

Questioner wishes to guess the challenge ASP.



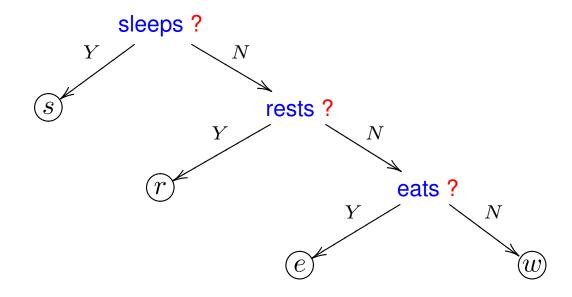
Default strategy



Number of questions is $\log_2 |\textit{Objects}|$.

Knowing the probability distribution, we can do better.

$$Pr (sleeps) = \frac{1}{2}, Pr (rests) = \frac{1}{4}, Pr (eats) = Pr (works) = \frac{1}{8}.$$

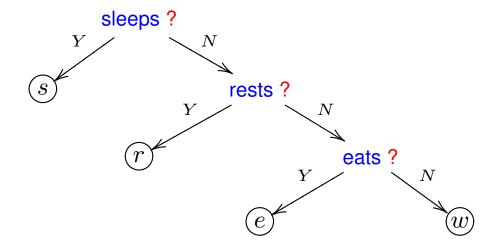


The expected number of questions:

$$1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 3 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}\right) = \frac{7}{4} < 2 = \log_2 4.$$

Knowing the probability distribution, we can do better.

p (sleeps) =
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
, p (rests) = $\frac{1}{4}$, p (eats) = p (works) = $\frac{1}{8}$.



The expected number of questions:

$$1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 3 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}\right) = \frac{7}{4} < 2 = \log_2 4.$$

The number of questions to guess an object with probability q is $\log_2 \frac{1}{q}$.

Shannon's entropy

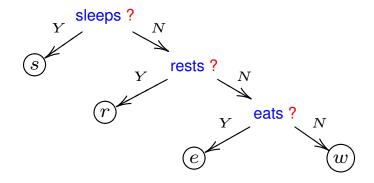
In general, if p is a probability distribution on the set of objects S, the *Shannon entropy* is

$$H(S) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)}.$$

It can be viewed as the average number of questions to be asked in an optimal strategy in the question game.

The number of questions to identify an object s is $\log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)}$.

 $p (sleeps) = \frac{1}{2}, p (rests) = \frac{1}{4}, p (eats) = p (works) = \frac{1}{8}.$



In the example above H(S) =

$$= p(s) \quad \log \frac{1}{p(s)} + p(r) \quad \log \frac{1}{p(r)} + p(e) \quad \log \frac{1}{p(e)} + p(w) \quad \log \frac{1}{p(w)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \quad 1 \quad + \frac{1}{4} \quad 2 \quad + \frac{1}{8} \quad 3 \quad + \frac{1}{8} \quad 3$$

$$= \frac{7}{4}$$

$$H(S) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s) \cdot \log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)}.$$

The number of questions to identify an object s is $\log_2 \frac{1}{p(s)}$.

The definition of entropy conforms to the *Weber-Fechner law* of cognitive science:

the human perception (P) of the growth of a physical stimuli (S), is proportional to the relative growth of the stimuli rather than to its absolute growth,

$$\partial P \approx \frac{\partial S}{S}$$

consequently, after integration,

$$P \approx \log S$$
.

This has been observed in perception of weight, brightness, sound (both intensity and height), and even one's economic status.

Good!	_
Good!	
Good!	
Good!	
Good!	



Intuitively, the Shannon entropy tells us how difficult is it to find an object.

The Kolmogorov complexity tells us, how difficult is it to create it.

Is there a link between them?

Chaitin's constant

$$\Omega = \sum_{P\downarrow} 2^{-|P|}$$

where P ranges over binary programs, and $P \downarrow$ means that P halts.

 Ω can be interpreted as probability that by tossing a coin, we find a binary program, which moreover halts.

this is a program which halts (:



 $0 - - \Omega - 1$ Every prefix of Ω is Kolmogorov random. Knowledge of Ω would suffice to reconstruct any computation. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $P \downarrow n$ means that P halts and produces n.

Let

$$p(n) = \sum_{P \downarrow n} 2^{-|P|}$$

This can be interpreted as probability that by tossing a coin, we find a binary program, which halts and produces n.

Theorem.

$$K(n) \approx \log_2 \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

More precisely, there exists a constant c, such that, for all n,

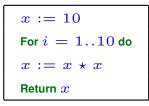
$$K(n) - c \le \log_2 \frac{1}{p(n)} \le K(n) + c$$

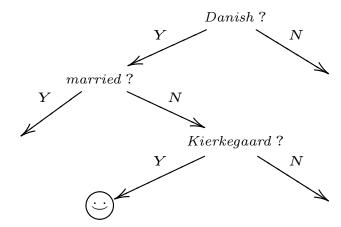


$\log_2 \frac{1}{p(n)}$

Kolmogorov

Shannon





Researchers who have contributed to the theory: C.E.Shannon, A.N.Kolmogorov, R.Solomonoff, G.Chaitin, P.Martin–Löf, L.A.Levin, P.Gacs, and many others.

Literature.

Thomas M. Cover, and Joy A. Thomas,

Elements of Information Theory, John Wiley & Sons, 1991.

Ming Li and Paul Vitanyi,

An Introduction to Kolmogorov Complexity and Its Applications, Springer, 2008.

D.Niwiński, M.Strojnowski, M.Wojnarski, *Teoria informacji*,

http://wazniak.mimuw.edu.pl/