

# Information and Entropy in Biological Systems



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<http://www.nimbios.org/wordpress-training/entropy/>

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NIMBioS

**Goal: to unify various ways that information and entropy are used in biology.**

For example:

- ▶ biological communication systems
- ▶ the 'action-perception loop'
- ▶ the thermodynamic foundations of biology
- ▶ the structure of ecosystems
- ▶ measures of biodiversity
- ▶ evolution

The **Shannon entropy** of a probability distribution  $p: S \rightarrow [0, 1]$  on a set  $S$  is

$$H(p) = - \sum_{i \in S} p(i) \log(p(i))$$

It says how much information we learn upon discovering the value of an element of  $S$  that was randomly chosen according to this probability distribution.

We use base 2 for our logarithm if we want to measure information in **bits**. But base  $e$  is also natural: then we're measuring information in **nats**.

All this generalizes from sums to integrals, but let's not now.

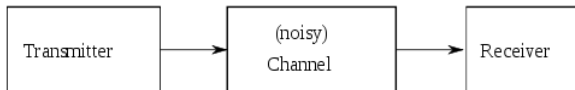
Shannon was concerned with communication.

His **source coding theorem** puts a bound on how much you can compress a signal — a string of symbols — in which each symbol is independently chosen at random from a set  $S$ , with probability distribution  $p$ .

In the limit of long signals, you can find a way to encode each symbol using a string of  $H(p) + \epsilon$  bits, with  $\epsilon$  probability of error, where  $\epsilon > 0$  is as small as you want.

You cannot use  $< H(p)$  bits to encode each symbol while still achieving an arbitrarily small probability of error.

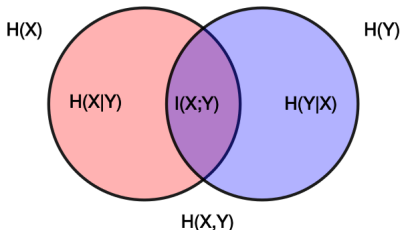
Shannon's **noisy-channel coding theorem** generalizes this to communication channels with noise.



It says how to compute the **channel capacity**: the maximum number of bits per code word that can be transmitted with arbitrarily small error probability.

I won't explain how. But the key idea is **mutual information**: how much information two random variables have in common.

A 'pair of random variables'  $X$  and  $Y$  is a probability distribution on a set  $S \times T$ . This gives probability distributions on  $S$  and on  $T$ . We may thus define three entropies: the **joint entropy**  $H(X, Y)$  and the **individual entropies**  $H(X)$  and  $H(Y)$ .



The **mutual information** is

$$I(X; Y) = H(X, Y) - H(X) - H(Y)$$

The **entropy of  $X$  conditioned on  $Y$**  is

$$H(X|Y) = H(X, Y) - H(Y)$$

Shannon's other main achievement was founding **rate distortion theory**.

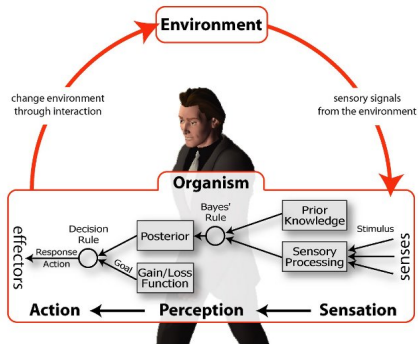
Here we put a *distance function* on our set  $S$  of symbols, and seek to encode them in way that lets the signal be reconstructed *to within some distance*  $d > 0$ , called the **distortion**. We seek to do this using the minimum number of bits per symbol.

All these ideas of Shannon may be important in understanding:

- ▶ communication between organisms
- ▶ the nervous system, which communicates signals via **nerve impulses** and **neurotransmitters**
- ▶ other forms of intercellular communication, for example via **hormones** and **cytokines**
- ▶ intracellular communication, for example via **gene expression** and **gene regulation**



If biological communication is near-optimized by evolution, we may use Shannon's ideas on optimal communication — *appropriately generalized* — to help generate testable hypotheses. But beware: in biology, communication is always just a means to an end.



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Natural selection maximizes fitness, not 'bits per second'.

Communication typically deals with a few bits — or terabytes — of *relevant* information. The complete description of a physical object uses vastly more information, most of which is *irrelevant* for understanding its macroscopic properties. Physicists call this irrelevant information **entropy**.

- ▶ your genome:  $10^{10}$  bits.
- ▶ all words ever spoken by human beings:  $\sim 4 \times 10^{19}$  bits.
- ▶ genomes of all living humans:  $6 \times 10^{19}$  bits.
- ▶ one gram of water at room temperature:  $4 \times 10^{24}$  bits.

The tendency for information to shift from more relevant to less relevant forms — the **Second Law of Thermodynamics** — underlies chemistry and thus biology.

*Maximizing entropy* is a powerful way to choose hypotheses.

The **maximum entropy method** for choosing a probability distribution  $p: S \rightarrow [0, 1]$  says we should maximize

$$H(p) = - \sum_{i \in S} p(i) \log(p(i))$$

subject to whatever constraints we want  $p$  to obey.

For example, suppose we have a function  $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and we want to choose  $p$  that maximizes  $H(p)$  subject to the constraint that the expected value of  $f$  is some number  $c$ :

$$\sum_{i \in S} p(i)f(i) = c$$

Then we should choose a **Boltzmann distribution**:

$$p(i) = \frac{e^{-\beta f(i)}}{\sum_{i \in S} e^{-\beta f(i)}}$$

Which  $\beta$  should we choose? It depends on which  $c$  we want.

All this generalizes painlessly when we have a collection of functions  $f_1, \dots, f_n: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Physicists have developed the maximum entropy method to a high art when  $S$  is the set of states of a physical system in thermal equilibrium.

Jaynes emphasized that we can use all this machinery more generally. For example: we can let  $S$  be a set of species, and  $p(i)$  be the probability that an organism belongs to the  $i$ th species. Ideas of this type underlie John Harte's work on ecology.

Intriguingly, in this case the entropy  $H(p)$ , and generalizations like the Rényi entropy  $H_q(p)$ , are widely used as measures of biodiversity!

Is there a sense in which nature maximizes biodiversity subject to constraints?

The truth seems to be more complicated....

Let

$$P = (P_1, \dots, P_n)$$

be the vector of populations of  $n$  different self-replicating entities:  
for example, species of organisms.

The probability that an organism belongs to the  $i$ th species is

$$p_i = \frac{P_i}{\sum_j P_j}$$

We can think of this probability distribution as a 'hypothesis' and its change with time as a 'learning process'. Natural selection is analogous to Bayesian updating.

Let  $p$  and  $q$  be a two probability distributions. The **information of  $q$  relative to  $p$** , or **Kullback–Leibler divergence**, is

$$I(q||p) = \sum_i q_i \ln\left(\frac{q_i}{p_i}\right)$$

This is the amount of information *left to learn* if  $p$  is our current hypothesis and  $q$  is the 'true' probability distribution describing a situation.

In Bayesian language,  $p$  is our **prior**.

Suppose the population  $P(t)$  evolves according to the **replicator equation**:

$$\frac{d}{dt} P_i(t) = F_i(P_1(t), \dots, P_n(t)) P_i(t)$$

where  $F_i$ , the **fitness** of the  $i$ th species, depends smoothly on all the populations.

Suppose  $q$  is a 'dominant distribution' — a distribution of species whose mean fitness is at least as great as that of any other distribution it could find itself amidst. Then **Shahshahani proved**

$$\frac{d}{dt} I(q||p(t)) \leq 0$$

*As time passes, the information the population has 'left to learn' never increases.*

Reality is more complicated; **Marc Harper** will say more.