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1 Shearer's Lemma and Combinatorial Applications

The sub-additivity property of entropy lets us bound the entropy of the tuple (X_1, \dots, X_n) in terms of the individual entropies $H(X_1), \dots, H(X_n)$. Shearer's lemma can be viewed as a generalization of this statement which lets us obtain better bounds in case we can estimate the entropy of subsets of random variables containing more than one random variable.

Lemma 1.1 (Shearer's Lemma). *Let $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ be a set of random variables. For any $S \subset [n]$, let us denote $X_S = \{X_i : i \in S\}$. Let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{[n]}$ be a collection of subsets of $[n]$ with the property that for all $i \in [n]$, we have that $|\{S \in \mathcal{F} \mid S \ni i\}| \geq t$. Then*

$$t \cdot H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} H(X_S).$$

We will actually prove a more general version of the lemma which can be stated in terms of a distribution over subsets of $[m]$ such that for each $i \in [n]$, we have a lower bound on the probability that a random subset from the distribution includes i . The lemma below can easily be seen to imply the version above, by using the uniform distribution on the collection \mathcal{F} .

Lemma 1.2 (Shearer's Lemma: distribution version). *Let $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ be a set of random variables. For any $S \subset [n]$, let us denote $X_S = \{X_i : i \in S\}$. Let D be an arbitrary distribution on $2^{[n]}$ (set of all subsets of $[n]$) and let μ be such that $\forall i \in [n] \mathbb{P}_{S \sim D}[i \in S] \geq \mu$. Then*

$$\mu \cdot H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq \mathbb{E}_{S \sim D} [H(X_S)].$$

Exercise 1.3. *Check that [Lemma 1.2](#) implies [Lemma 1.1](#). Also check that both these lemmas imply sub-additivity.*

We now prove [Lemma 1.2](#)

Proof: The proof of the lemma follows simply from the chain rule for entropy and the fact that conditioning reduces entropy (on average).

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}_{S \sim D} [H(X_S)] &= \mathbb{E}_{S \sim D} \left[\sum_{i \in S} H(X_i | X_{S \cap [i-1]}) \right] && \text{by Chain rule} \\
&\geq \mathbb{E}_{S \sim D} \left[\sum_{i \in S} H(X_i | X_{[i-1]}) \right] && H(X_i | X_A) \geq H(X_i | X_B) \text{ for } A \subset B \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{S \sim D} \left[\sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbb{1}_{\{i \in S\}} \cdot H(X_i | X_{[i-1]}) \right] \\
&= \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbb{P}_{S \sim D} [i \in S] \cdot H(X_i | X_{[i-1]}) \\
&\geq \mu \cdot \sum_{i \in [n]} H(X_i | X_{[i-1]}) \\
&= \mu \cdot H(X_1, \dots, X_m)
\end{aligned}$$

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We now consider some simple combinatorial applications of Shearer's lemma.

1.1 Bounding volumes using projections

Consider a set of points S in (say) three dimensions, such that the projections in the xy , yz and zx plain contain n_1 , n_2 and n_3 points respectively. How many points can there be in the set S ? Note that since many points in S can have the same projection on a plane, the numbers n_1 , n_2 and n_3 can each be much smaller than $|S|$. However, since two different points cannot have the same projection in *all three* planes, we know that each triple of projections must determine a unique point. This gives

$$|S| \leq n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot n_3.$$

It turns out that we can significantly improve this bound using Shearer's lemma. Let (X, Y, Z) be a triple of random variables denoting the coordinates of a uniformly sampled point from S . Thus, we have that $H(X, Y, Z) = \log |P|$. Moreover, using Shearer's lemma, we also get that

$$2 \cdot H(X, Y, Z) \leq H(X, Y) + H(Y, Z) + H(Z, X),$$

since the family of pairs on the right includes each random variable twice. Also, since (X, Y) denotes the projection of a random point from S in the xy plane, and total number of

projections is n_1 , we get that $H(X, Y) \leq \log n_1$. Similarly, $H(Y, Z) \leq \log n_2$ and $H(Z, X) \leq \log n_3$. Combining these estimates gives

$$2 \cdot \log |S| \leq \log n_1 + \log n_2 + \log n_3 \Rightarrow |P| \leq \sqrt{n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot n_3}.$$

Note that there is nothing special about three dimensions. One can also prove the following d -dimensional analogue using the same argument.

Proposition 1.4. *Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be a finite set of points in d dimensions, and let S_1, \dots, S_d denote the set of projections orthogonal to each of the d coordinate axes. Then we have*

$$|S| \leq \left(\prod_{i=1}^d |S_i| \right)^{1/(d-1)}.$$

This can also be used to bound the volume of a body B in d dimensions in terms of the $(d-1)$ -dimensional volumes of its projections. One can consider the body to be a union of axis parallel cubes, with a point at the center of each cube. Then, a limiting argument combined with the above estimate gives the following result known as the Loomis-Whitney inequality.

Proposition 1.5 (Loomis-Whitney inequality). *Let $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be a measurable body and let B_1, \dots, B_d denote its projections orthogonal to each of the coordinate axes. Then, we have*

$$\text{Vol}_d(B) \leq \left(\prod_{i=1}^d \text{Vol}_{d-1}(B_i) \right)^{1/(d-1)}.$$

1.2 Counting graph homomorphisms

Shearer's lemma can be used to give an estimate of the number of ways of "embedding" a small graph G into a large graph H . For two graphs $G : (V_G, E_G)$ and $H = (V_H, E_H)$, an embedding (also called a homomorphism) of G in H is defined as a function $f : V_G \rightarrow V_H$ such that for all $(u, v) \in E_G$, we have $(f(u), f(v)) \in E_H$. Note that the definition does not prevent the image of non-edge pairs in E_G from being edges in E_H .

We will show an upper bound on the maximum number of embeddings for a graph G into any H with at most m edges. For now, let us take G to be the 5-cycle with vertex set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. Consider any graph H with at most m edges and let $F = (F(1), \dots, F(5))$ be a collection of random variables denoting an embedding of G chosen uniformly from the set of all embeddings. Using Shearer's lemma, we can write

$$2 \cdot H(F(1), \dots, F(5)) \leq H(F(1), F(2)) + H(F(2), F(3)) + \dots + H(F(5), F(1)).$$

Since $\{1,2\}$ is an edge in G , the pair $(F(1), F(2))$ must correspond to an (ordered) edge in H . Since the number of edges in H is at most m , we get that $H(F(1), F(2)) \leq \log(2m)$. Using the same bound for all terms on the right, we get

$$H(F(1), \dots, F(5)) \leq \frac{5}{2} \cdot \log(2m),$$

which gives a bound of $(2m)^{5/2}$ on the number of embeddings.

Exercise 1.6. Check that the exponent of $5/2$ in the above bound is tight.

The above method can also be used to give a tight estimate for any graph G (of constant size). In general, the exponent depends on a parameter known as the *fractional independent set number* of G . I will divide this proof in a few parts and add this as an extra problem in the homework. The solution to this problem need not be submitted.

The proof, along with many other combinatorial applications can also be found in the surveys by Radhakrishnan [Rad03] and [Gal14]. A generalization of Shearer's lemma was also used in the paper by Friedgut [Fri04] that we discussed in the previous lecture.

2 Mutual Information

The mutual information is a quantity which measures the amount of dependence between two random variables. Unlike correlation, which defines the random variables to take values in the same space, the mutual information can be defined for any two random variables. The mutual information between two random variables X and Y is defined by the formula

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

Using the chain rule for entropy, we can see that

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X,Y).$$

We can use the first two expressions to observe that $I(X;Y) \geq 0$ and the last one to observe that $I(X;Y) = I(Y;X)$.

Example 2.1. Consider the random variable (X, Y) with $X \vee Y = 1$, $X \in \{0,1\}$ and $Y \in \{0,1\}$ such that:

$$(X, Y) = \begin{cases} 10 & \text{w.p } 1/3 \\ 01 & \text{w.p } 1/3 \\ 11 & \text{w.p } 1/3 \end{cases}$$

Then, we can calculate the entropy and mutual information as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &= H(Y) = \frac{1}{3} \log 3 + \frac{2}{3} \log \frac{3}{2} = \log 3 - \frac{2}{3} \\ H(X, Y) &= \log 3 \\ I(X; Y) &= H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y) = \log 3 - \frac{4}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Conditioning on a third random variable Z , we can also define the conditional mutual information $I(X; Y|Z)$ as

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y|Z) &:= \mathbb{E}_z [I(X|Z = z; Y|Z = z)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_z [H(X|Z = z) - H(X|Y, Z = z)] \\ &= H(X|Z) - H(X|Y, Z). \end{aligned}$$

Consider the following example of three random variables.

Example 2.2. Consider the random variable (X, Y, Z) , $X \in \{0, 1\}$, $Y \in \{0, 1\}$ and $Z = X \oplus Y$ such that:

$$(X, Y, Z) = \begin{cases} 000 & \text{w.p } 1/4 \\ 011 & \text{w.p } 1/4 \\ 101 & \text{w.p } 1/4 \\ 110 & \text{w.p } 1/4 \end{cases}$$

We can check that in this case, X, Y are independent and thus $I(X; Y) = 0$. However,

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y|Z) &= \mathbb{E}_z [I(X|Z = z; Y|Z = z)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} I(X|Z = 0; Y|Z = 0) + \frac{1}{2} I(X|Z = 1; Y|Z = 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{2} \log 2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

The above example illustrates that unlike entropy, it is not true that conditioning (on average) decreases the mutual information. In the above example, while $I(X; Y) = 0$, we have $I(X; Y|Z) = 1$ which is in fact the maximum possible.

Recall that entropy provides theoretical limits on source coding, where the goal is to compress information when transmitting in a way such that whatever we send is received without any error. The concept of mutual information provides limits on transmission, when the transmission "channel" is noisy. We will discuss this in detail when we consider error-correcting codes, but it is instructive to consider the following example known as the "Binary Symmetric Channel".

Exercise 2.3. Let X be a random variable supported on $\{0, 1\}$, and let Y be a “noisy” copy of X , which is equal to X with probability $1 - p$, and has the opposite value (0 if X is 1, and 1 if X is 0) with probability p . Calculate the maximum possible value of $I(X; Y)$ over all possible distributions for X . This is known as the capacity of the binary symmetric channel.

As in the case of entropy, mutual information also obeys a chain rule.

Lemma 2.4. $I((X_1, \dots, X_m); Y) = \sum_{i=1}^m I(X_i; Y | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$

Proof: The chain rule for mutual information is a simple consequence of the chain rule for entropy. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 I((X_1, \dots, X_m); Y) &= H(X_1, \dots, X_m) - H(X_1, \dots, X_m | Y) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^m H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^m H(X_i | Y, X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^m [H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) - H(X_i | Y, X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})] \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^m I(X_i; Y | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})
 \end{aligned}$$

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2.1 Data Processing Inequality

We consider a set of random variables in a particular relationship and its consequences for mutual information. An ordered tuple of random variables (X, Y, Z) is said to form a Markov chain, written as $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, if X and Z are independent conditioned on Y . Here, we can think of Y as being sampled given the knowledge of X , and Z being sampled given the knowledge of Y (but not using the “history” about X).

Note that although the notation $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ (and also the above description) makes it seem like this is only a Markov chain the forward order, the conditional independence definition implies that if $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ is Markov chain, then so is $Z \rightarrow Y \rightarrow X$. This is sometimes written as $X \leftrightarrow Y \leftrightarrow Z$ to clarify that the variables form a Markov chain in both forward and backward orders. The following inequality shows that information about the starting point cannot increase as we go further in a Markov chain.

Lemma 2.5 (Data Processing Inequality). Let $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ be a Markov chain. Then

$$I(X; Y) \geq I(X; Z).$$

Proof: It is perhaps useful to consider a useful special case first: let $Z = g(Y)$ be a function of Y . Then it is easy to see that $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow g(Y)$ form a Markov chain. We can prove the inequality in this case by observing that conditioning on Y is the same as conditioning on $Y, g(Y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(X) - H(X|Y) \\ &= H(X) - H(X|Y, g(Y)) \\ &\geq H(X) - H(X|g(Y)) = I(X; g(Y)). \end{aligned}$$

The first two lines of the above proof amounted to the fact that

$$I(X; Y) = I(X; (Y, g(Y))) = I(X; (Y, Z)).$$

However, this continues to be true in the general case, since

$$I(X; (Y, Z)) = I(X; Y) + I(X; Z|Y) = I(X; Y),$$

where the second term is zero due to the conditional independence. Hence, the proof for the general case is the same and we have

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= I(X; (Y, Z)) \\ &= H(X) - H(X|Y, Z) \\ &\geq H(X) - H(X|Z) = I(X; Z). \end{aligned}$$

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The special case $Z = g(Y)$ is also useful to define the concept of a “sufficient statistic”, which is a function of Y that makes the data processing inequality tight.

Definition 2.6. For random variables X and Y , a function $g(Y)$ is called a sufficient statistic (of Y) for X if $I(X; Y) = I(X; g(Y))$ i.e., $g(Y)$ contains all the relevant information about X .

Exercise 2.7.

$$X = \begin{cases} p_1 & \text{w.p. } 1/2 \\ p_2 & \text{w.p. } 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Let Y be a sequence of n tosses of a coin with probability of heads given by X . Let $g(Y)$ be the number of heads in Y . Prove $I(X; Y) = I(X; g(Y))$.

References

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