COS597D: Information Theory in Computer Science

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Lecture 3

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Theorem 1 (Fano's Inequality). Let \hat{X} be an estimator for X such that $P_e = Pr(X = \hat{X})$ then $H(P_e) + P_e \log|\chi| \ge H(X|\hat{X}) \ge H(X|Y).$

Proof [of the first part of the inequality] Define $\mathcal{E} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{X} \neq X \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{X} = X \end{cases}$ $H(\mathcal{E}X|\hat{X}) = H(X|\hat{X}) + H(\mathcal{E}|X\hat{X}) = H(X|\hat{X})$, since \mathcal{E} is completely determined by $X\hat{X}$, $H(\mathcal{E}X|\hat{X}) = H(\mathcal{E}|\hat{X}) + H(X|\mathcal{E}\hat{X}) \le H(\mathcal{E}) + (1-P_e)H(X|\hat{X},\mathcal{E}=0) + P_eH(X|\hat{X},\mathcal{E}=1) \le H(P_e) + P_e\log|\mathcal{X}|.$

1 **Relative Entropy**

The relative entropy, also known as the Kullback-Leibler divergence, between two probability distributions on a random variable is a measure of the distance between them. Formally, given two probability distributions p(x) and q(x) over a discrete random variable X, the relative entropy given by D(p||q) is defined as follows:

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}.$$

In the definition above $0 \log \frac{0}{0} = 0$, $\log \frac{0}{q} = 0$, and $p \log \frac{1}{0} = \infty$.

Example 2. D(p||p) = 0.

Example 3. Consider a random variable X with the law q(x). We assume nothing about q(x). Now consider a set $E \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ and define p(x) to be the law of $X|_{X \in E}$. The divergence between p and q:

Solution

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

=
$$\sum_{x \in E} p(x) \log \frac{q(x|x \in E)}{q(x|x \in E)Pr_q[X \in E]}$$

=
$$\sum_{x \in E} p(x) \log \frac{1}{Pr_q[X \in E]}$$

=
$$\log \frac{1}{Pr[E]}.$$

In the extreme case with $E = \mathcal{X}$, the two laws p and q are identical with a divergence of 0.

We will henceforth refer to relative entropy or Kullback-Leibler divergence as divergence.

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1.1 Properties of Divergence

- 1. Divergence is not symmetric. That is, D(p||q) = D(q||p) is not necessarily true. For example, unlike D(p||q), $D(q||p) = \infty$ in the example mentioned in the previous section, if $\exists x \in \mathcal{X} \setminus E : q(x) > 0$.
- 2. Divergence is always non-negative. This is because of the following:

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$
$$= -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}$$
$$= -\mathbb{E} \left[\log \frac{q}{p} \right]$$
$$\ge -\log \left(\mathbb{E} \left[\frac{q}{p} \right] \right)$$
$$= -\log \left(\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right)$$
$$= 0,$$

where the inequality follows by the convexity of $-\log x$.

3. Divergence is a convex function on the domain of probability distributions.

Theorem 4 (Log-sum Inequality). If $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_n$ are non-negative numbers, then $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} \ge (\sum_{i=1}^n a_i) \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n b_i}$

Lemma 5 (Convexity of divergence). Let p_1, q_1 and p_2, q_2 be probability distributions over a random variable X and $\forall \lambda \in (0, 1)$ define

$$p = \lambda p_1 + (1 - \lambda)p_2$$
$$q = \lambda q_1 + (1 - \lambda)q_2$$

Then, $D(p||q) \leq \lambda D(p_1||q_1) + (1-\lambda)D(p_2||q_2).$

1.2 Relationship of Divergence with Entropy

Intuitively, the entropy of a random variable X with a probability distribution p(x) is related to how much p(x) diverges from the uniform distribution on the support of X. The more p(x) diverges the lesser its entropy and vice versa. Formally,

$$H(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)}$$
$$= \log |\mathcal{X}| - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{\frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|}}$$
$$= \log |\mathcal{X}| - D(p||uniform)$$

1.3 Conditional Divergence

Given the joint probability distributions p(x, y) and q(x, y) of two discrete random variables X and Y, the conditional divergence between two conditional probability distributions p(y|x) and q(y|x) is obtained by computing the divergence between p and q for all possible values of $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and then averaging over these values of x. Formally,

$$D(p(y|x)||q(y|x)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|x) \log \frac{p(y|x)}{q(y|x)}$$

Given the above definition we can prove the following chain rule about divergence of joint probability distribution functions.

Lemma 6 (Chain Rule).

$$D(p(x,y)||q(x,y)) = D(p(x)||q(x)) + D(p(y|x)||q(y|x))$$

Proof

$$\begin{split} D\left(p(x,y)||q(x,y)\right) &= \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{q(x,y)} \\ &= \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x)p(y|x)}{q(x)q(y|x)} \\ &= \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} + \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(y|x)}{q(y|x)} \\ &= D(p(x)||q(x)) + \sum_{x} p(x) \sum_{y} p(y|x) \log \frac{p(y|x)}{q(y|x)} \\ &= D\left(p(x)||q(x)\right) + D\left(p(y|x)||q(y|x)\right) \end{split}$$

2 Mutual Information

Mutual information is a measure of how correlated two random variables X and Y are such that the more independent the variables are the lesser is their mutual information. Formally,

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

2.1 Conditional Mutual Information

We define the conditional mutual information when conditioned upon a third random variable Z to be

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

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)} = \sum_{y} p(y) \sum_{x} p(x|y) \log \frac{p(x,y)/p(y)}{p(x)} = E_y D(p(x|y)||p(x))$$

Example 7. X, Y, Z uniform, conditioned on $X+Y+Z = 0 \mod 2$ I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = 0;I(X;YZ) = H(X) - H(X|YZ) = 1;I(X;Y|Z) = H(X|Z) - H(X|YZ) = 1.

Conditioning can decrease (or eliminate) or increase mutual information:

Example 8. $X = x_1x_2$, $Y = y_1y_2$, random bits s.t. $x_1 \oplus x_2 = y_1 \oplus y_2$. Let $Z := x_1 \oplus x_2 = y_1 \oplus y_2$, then I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = 2 - 1 = 1; I(X;Y|Z) = H(X|Z) - H(X|YZ) = 1 - 1 = 0.

Lemma 9 (Chain Rule). I(XY;Z) = I(X;Z) + I(Y;Z|X)

 \mathbf{Proof}

$$\begin{split} I(XY;Z) &= H(XY) - H(XY|Z) \\ &= H(X) + H(Y|X) - H(X|Z) - H(Y|XZ) \\ &= I(X;Z) + I(Y;Z|X) \end{split}$$

2.2 Convexity/Concavity of Mutual Information

Let (X,Y) have a joint probability distribution p(x,y) = p(x)p(y|x). Write $\alpha = \alpha(x) = p(x)$ and $\pi = \pi(x,y) = p(y|x)$. Then the pair (α,π) specifies the distribution p(x,y).

Lemma 10 (Mutual information is concave in p).

Let I_1 be I(X;Y) where $(X,Y) \sim (\alpha_1,\pi)$, let I_2 be I(X;Y) where $(X,Y) \sim (\alpha_2,\pi)$, let I be I(X;Y) where $(X,Y) \sim (\lambda \alpha_1 + (1-\lambda)\alpha_2,\pi)$, for some $0 \le \lambda \le 1$. then $I \ge \lambda I_1 + (1-\lambda)I_2$.

Proof Let S be a B_{λ} random variable such that S is 1 with probability λ and and 0 with probability $1-\lambda$. If S = 1 we select X using α_1 , and otherwise we select X using α_2 . In both cases, we select Y conditioned on X using π . Note that I(X;Y) = I, and that conditioned on X, Y and S are independent. I(SX;Y) = I(X;Y) + I(S;Y|X) = I; $I(SX;Y) = I(S;Y) + I(X;Y|S) \ge I(X;Y|S) = \lambda I(X;Y|S = 1) + (1-\lambda)I(X;Y|S = 0) = \lambda I_1 + (1-\lambda)I_2$.