

1 Information Measures

1.1 Independence and Markov Chain

Definition 2.1 (Independence) Two random variables X and Y are independent, denoted by $X \perp Y$, if

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

for all x and y (i.e., for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$).

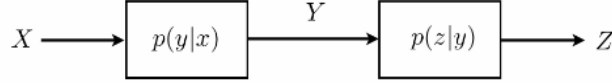


Figure 1: Conceptually, when $X \perp Z | Y$, X, Y, Z are related as above.

Definition 2.2 (Mutual Independence) For $n \geq 3$, random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are mutually independent if, for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2) \cdots p(x_n)$$

Definition 2.3 (Pairwise Independence) For $n \geq 3$, random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are pairwise independent if X_i and X_j are independent for all $1 \leq i < j \leq n$

Definition 2.4 (Conditional Independence) For random variables X, Y , and Z , X is independent of Z conditioning on Y , denoted by $X \perp Z | Y$, if

$$p(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \frac{p(x, y)p(y, z)}{p(y)} = p(x, y)p(z | y) & \text{if } p(y) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proposition 2.5 For random variables X, Y , and Z , $X \perp Z | Y$ if and only if

$$p(x, y, z) = a(x, y)b(y, z)$$

for all x, y , and z such that $p(y) > 0$

Proof A. ‘Only if’ part. Assume $p(x, y, z)$ takes the form in Definition 2.4. For all x and for all y such that $p(y) > 0$, let

$$a(x, y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(y)} \quad b(y, z) = p(y, z)$$

Proof B. ‘If’ part.

1. Assume that for all x, y , and z such that $p(y) > 0$,

$$p(x, y, z) = a(x, y)b(y, z)$$

2. Then for such x, y , and z , we have

$$p(x, y) = \sum_z p(x, y, z) = \sum_z a(x, y)b(y, z) = a(x, y) \sum_z b(y, z)$$

$$p(y, z) = \sum_x p(x, y, z) = \sum_x a(x, y)b(y, z) = b(y, z) \sum_x a(x, y)$$

3. Furthermore,

$$p(y) = \sum_z p(y, z) = \left(\sum_x a(x, y) \right) \left(\sum_z b(y, z) \right) > 0$$

4. Therefore,

$$\frac{p(x, y)p(y, z)}{p(y)} = \frac{(a(x, y) \sum_z b(y, z)) (b(y, z) \sum_x a(x, y))}{(\sum_x a(x, y)) (\sum_z b(y, z))} = a(x, y)b(y, z) = p(x, y, z)$$

5. And for x, y , and z such that $p(y) = 0$, since

$$0 \leq p(x, y, z) \leq p(y) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad p(x, y, z) = 0$$

Definition 2.6 (Markov Chain) For random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , where $n \geq 3$, $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ forms a Markov chain if

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} p(x_1, x_2) p(x_3 | x_2) \cdots p(x_n | x_{n-1}) & \text{if } p(x_2), p(x_3), \dots, p(x_{n-1}) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Remark. $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3$ is equivalent to $X_1 \perp X_3 | X_2$

Proposition 2.7 $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ forms a Markov chain if and only if $X_n \rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_1$ forms a Markov chain.

Proposition 2.8 $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ forms a Markov chain if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} &X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3 \\ &(X_1, X_2) \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4 \\ &\vdots \\ &(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n-2}) \rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow X_n \end{aligned}$$

form Markov chains.

Proposition 2.9 $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ forms a Markov chain if and only if

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1, x_2) f_2(x_2, x_3) \cdots f_{n-1}(x_{n-1}, x_n)$$

for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n such that $p(x_2), p(x_3), \dots, p(x_{n-1})$

Proposition 2.10 (Markov subchains) Let $\mathcal{N}_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and let $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ form a Markov chain. For any subset α of \mathcal{N}_n , denote $(X_i, i \in \alpha)$ by X_α . Then for any disjoint subsets $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m$ of \mathcal{N}_n such that

$$k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_m$$

for all $k_j \in \alpha_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$

$$X_{\alpha_1} \rightarrow X_{\alpha_2} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_{\alpha_m}$$

forms a Markov chain. That is, a subchain of $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ is also a Markov chain. (Exercise)

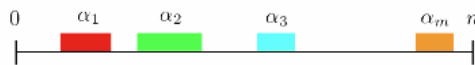


Figure 2: Markov subchains.

1.2 Shannon's Information Measures

- Entropy
- Conditional entropy
- Mutual information
- Conditional mutual information

Definition 2.13 (Entropy.) The entropy $H(X)$ of a random variable X is defined as

$$H(X) = - \sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$$

- Convention: summation is taken over \mathcal{S}_X .
- When the base of the logarithm is α , write $H(X)$ as $H_\alpha(X)$.
- Entropy measures the uncertainty of a discrete random variable.
- The unit for entropy is

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{bit} & \text{if } \alpha = 2 \\ \text{nat} & \text{if } \alpha = e \\ D\text{-it} & \text{if } \alpha = D \end{array}$$

Example (Binary Entropy Function). For $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$, define the binary entropy function

$$h_b(\gamma) = -\gamma \log \gamma - (1 - \gamma) \log(1 - \gamma)$$

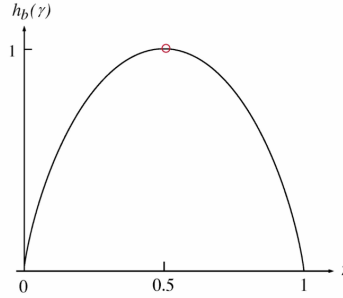


Figure 3: Binary Entropy Function.

Definition 2.14 (Joint Entropy) The joint entropy $H(X, Y)$ of a pair of random variables X and Y is defined as

$$H(X, Y) = - \sum_{x, y} p(x, y) \log p(x, y) = -E \log p(X, Y)$$

Definition 2.15 (Conditional Entropy) For random variables X and Y , the conditional entropy of Y given X is defined as

$$H(Y | X) = - \sum_{x, y} p(x, y) \log p(y | x) = -E \log p(Y | X)$$

Proposition 2.16

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

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

Definition 2.17 (Mutual Information) For random variables X and Y , the mutual information between X and Y is defined as

$$I(X; Y) = \sum_{x,y} p(x, y) \log \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} = E \log \frac{p(X, Y)}{p(X)p(Y)}$$

Remark $I(X; Y)$ is symmetrical in X and Y .

Remark Alternatively, we can write

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

Proposition 2.18 The mutual information between a random variable X and itself is equal to the entropy of X , i.e., $I(X; X) = H(X)$

Proposition 2.19

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

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

and

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

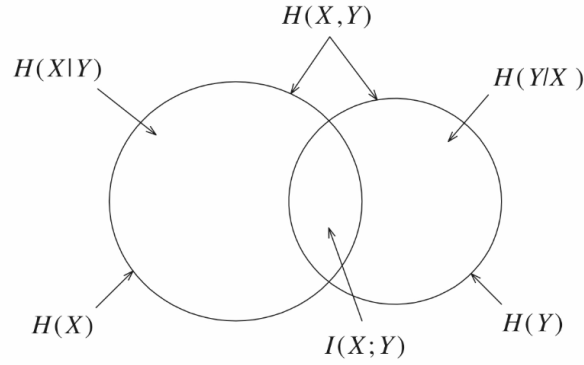


Figure 4: Information Diagram.

Definition 2.20 For random variables X, Y and Z , the mutual information between X and Y conditioning on Z is defined as

$$I(X; Y | Z) = \sum_{x,y,z} p(x, y, z) \log \frac{p(x, y | z)}{p(x | z)p(y | z)} = E \log \frac{p(X, Y | Z)}{p(X | Z)p(Y | Z)}$$

1.3 Continuity of Shannon's Information Measures for Fixed Finite Alphabets

Definition 2.23 (Variational Distance) Let p and q be two probability distributions on a common alphabet \mathcal{X} . The variational distance between p and q is defined as

$$V(p, q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |p(x) - q(x)|$$

The entropy function is continuous at p if

$$\lim_{p' \rightarrow p} H(p') = H\left(\lim_{p' \rightarrow p} p'\right) = H(p)$$

or equivalently, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|H(p) - H(q)| < \epsilon$$

for all $q \in \mathcal{P}_x$ satisfying

$$V(p, q) < \delta$$

1.4 Chain Rules

Proposition 2.24 (Chain Rule for Entropy)

$$H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

Proposition 2.25 (Chain Rule for Conditional Entropy)

$$H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n | Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Y)$$

Proposition 2.26 (Chain Rule for Mutual Information)

$$I(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n; Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

Proposition 2.27 (Chain Rule for Conditional Mutual Information)

$$I(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n; Y | Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Z)$$

Alternative Proof of Proposition 2.25

$$\begin{aligned} H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n | Y) &= \sum_y p(y) H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n | Y = y) \\ &= \sum_y p(y) \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_y p(y) H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Y) \end{aligned}$$

Remark This alternative proof explains why Proposition 2.25 can be obtained from Proposition 2.24 by conditioning on Y .

1.5 Information Divergence

Definition 2.28 (Information Divergence) The informational divergence between two probability distributions p and q on a common alphabet \mathcal{X} is defined as

$$D(p\|q) = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = E_p \log \frac{p(X)}{q(X)}$$

where E_p denotes expectation with respect to p

Convention:

- Summation is over \mathcal{S}_p , i.e., $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p}$
- $\log \frac{c}{0} = \infty$ for $c > 0$
- If $D(p\|q) < \infty$, then $p(x) > 0 \Rightarrow q(x) > 0$, or $\mathcal{S}_p \subset \mathcal{S}_q$
- $D(p\|q)$ measures the "distance" between p and q
- $D(p\|q)$ is not symmetrical in p and q , so $D(\cdot\|\cdot)$ is not a true metric.
- $D(\cdot\|\cdot)$ does not satisfy the triangular inequality.

Lemma 2.29 (Fundamental Inequality) For any $a > 0$,

$$\ln a \leq a - 1$$

with equality if and only if $a = 1$

Corollary 2.30 For any $a > 0$,

$$\ln a \geq 1 - \frac{1}{a}$$

with equality if and only if $a = 1$.

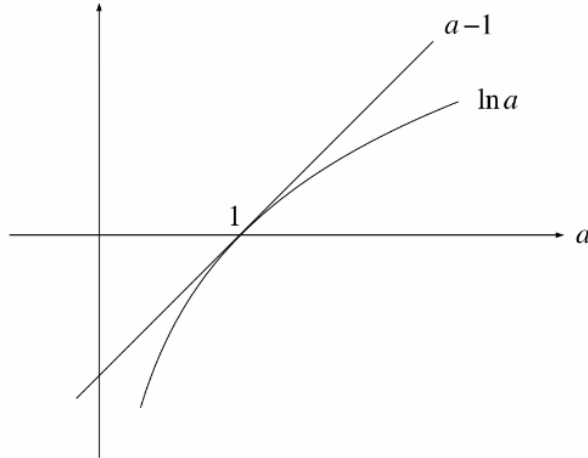


Figure 5: Information Diagram.

Theorem 2.31 (Divergence Inequality) For any two probability distributions p and q on a common alphabet \mathcal{X}

$$D(p||q) \geq 0$$

with equality if and only if $p = q$

Proof. For simplicity, assume $\mathcal{S}_p = \mathcal{S}_q$, consider

$$\begin{aligned} D(p||q) &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \\ &= (\log c) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} p(x) \ln \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \\ &\geq (\log e) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} p(x) \left(1 - \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}\right) \\ &= (\log c) \left[\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} p(x) - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} q(x) \right] \\ &= (\log e) \left[\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_p} p(x) - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_q} q(x) \right] \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

For equality to hold, further require

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = 1 \text{ or } p(x) = q(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{S}_p$$

Theorem 2.32 (Log-Sum Inequality) For positive numbers a_1, a_2, \dots and nonnegative numbers b_1, b_2, \dots such that $\sum_i a_i < \infty$ and $0 < \sum_i b_i < \infty$

$$\sum_i a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} \geq \left(\sum_i a_i \right) \log \frac{\sum_i a_i}{\sum_i b_i}$$

with the convention that $\log \frac{a_i}{0} = \infty$. Moreover, equality holds if and only if $\frac{a_i}{b_i} = \text{constant}$ for all i

Example:

$$a_1 \log \frac{a_1}{b_1} + a_2 \log \frac{a_2}{b_2} \geq (a_1 + a_2) \log \frac{a_1 + a_2}{b_1 + b_2}$$

Proof. Let $a'_i = a_i / \sum_j a_j$ and $b'_i = b_i / \sum_j b_j$. Using the divergence inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &\leq \sum_i a'_i \log \frac{a'_i}{b'_i} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{a_i}{\sum_j a_j} \log \frac{a_i / \sum_j a_j}{b_i / \sum_j b_j} \\
&= \frac{1}{\sum_j a_j} \left[\sum_i a_i \log \frac{a_i / \sum_j a_j}{b_i / \sum_j b_j} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{\sum_j a_j} \left[\sum_i a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} - \sum_i a_i \log \frac{\sum_j a_j}{\sum_j b_j} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{\sum_j a_j} \left[\sum_i a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} - \left(\sum_i a_i \right) \log \frac{\sum_j a_j}{\sum_j b_j} \right]
\end{aligned}$$

Remark Divergence Inequality vs Log-Sum Inequality are equivalent.

Theorem 2.33 (Pinsker's Inequality)

$$D(p||q) \geq \frac{1}{2 \ln 2} V^2(p, q)$$

- If $D(p||q)$ or $D(q||p)$ is small, then so is $V(p, q) = V(q, p)$
- For a sequence of probability distributions q_k , as $k \rightarrow \infty$, if $D(p||q_k) \rightarrow 0$ or $D(q_k||p) \rightarrow 0$, then $V(p, q_k) = V(q_k, p) \rightarrow 0$
- That is, "convergence in divergence" is a stronger notion than "convergence in variational distance."

1.6 Basic Inequalities

Theorem 2.34 For random variables X, Y , and Z ,

$$I(X; Y | Z) \geq 0$$

with equality if and only if X and Y are independent when conditioning on Z .

Corollary All Shannon's information measures are nonnegative, because they are all special cases of conditional mutual information.

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y | Z) &= \sum_{x,y,z} p(x, y, z) \log \frac{p(x, y | z)}{p(x | z)p(y | z)} \\ &= \sum_z \sum_{x,y} p(x, y, z) \log \frac{p(x, y | z)}{p(x | z)p(y | z)} \\ &= \sum_z \sum_{x,y} p(z)p(x, y | z) \log \frac{p(x, y | z)}{p(x | z)p(y | z)} \\ &= \sum_z p(z) \sum_{x,y} p(x, y | z) \log \frac{p(x, y | z)}{p(x | z)p(y | z)} \\ &= \sum_z p(z) D(p_{XY|z} \| p_{X|z} p_{Y|z}) \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 2.35 $H(X) = 0$ if and only if X is deterministic.

Proposition 2.36 $H(Y | X) = 0$ if and only if Y is a function of X

$$H(Y | X) = \sum_x p(x) H(Y | X = x)$$

Proposition 2.37 $I(X; Y) = 0$ if and only if X and Y are independent.

1.7 Some Useful Information Inequalities

Theorem 2.38 (Conditioning Does Not Increase Entropy)

$$H(Y | X) \leq H(Y)$$

with equality if and only if X and Y are independent.

Proof

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

with equality if and only if $I(X; Y) = 0$, or X and Y are independent.

- Similarly, $H(Y | X, Z) \leq H(Y | Z)$
- Warning: $I(X; Y | Z) \leq I(X; Y)$ does not hold in general.

Theorem 2.39 (Independence Bound for Entropy)

$$H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i)$$

with equality if and only if $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are mutually independent.

Proof By the chain rule for entropy,

$$\begin{aligned} H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i) \end{aligned}$$

The inequality is tight iff it is tight for each i , i.e., $H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) = H(X_i)$

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}) p(x_n) \\ &= p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-2}) p(x_{n-1}) p(x_n) \\ &= p(x_1) p(x_2) \cdots p(x_n) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.40

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

with equality if and only if $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ forms a Markov chain.

Proof By the chain rule for mutual information, we have

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

The above inequality is tight iff $I(X; Z | Y) = 0$ (or $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ forms a Markov chain.)

Lemma 2.41 If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ forms a Markov chain, then

$$I(X; Z) \leq I(X; Y)$$

$$I(X; Z) \leq I(Y; Z)$$

Corollary If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, then

$$H(X | Z) \geq H(X | Y)$$

Proof Corollary 1. Assume $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, i.e., $X \perp Z | Y$. Then

$$I(X; Z | Y) = 0$$

2. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Z) &\stackrel{a}{=} I(X; Y, Z) - I(X; Y | Z) \\ &\leq I(X; Y, Z) \\ &\stackrel{b}{=} I(X; Y) + I(X; Z | Y) \\ &= I(X; Y) \end{aligned}$$

a) Chain rule for mutual information:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y, Z) &= I(X; Z) + I(X; Y | Z) \\ \Rightarrow I(X; Z) &= I(X; Y, Z) - I(X; Y | Z) \end{aligned}$$

b) Chain rule for mutual information

3. since $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ is equivalent to $Z \rightarrow Y \rightarrow X$ we also have proved (2) by symmetry.

Proof

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

Remark Suppose Y is an observation of X . Then further processing of Y can only increase the uncertainty about X on the average.

Theorem 2.42 (Data Processing Theorem) If $U \rightarrow X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow V$ forms a Markov chain, then

$$I(U; V) \leq I(X; Y)$$

Proof For two subchains

$$\begin{aligned} U &\rightarrow X \rightarrow Y \\ U &\rightarrow Y \rightarrow V \end{aligned}$$

By applying Lemma 2.41

$$I(U; V) \leq I(U; Y) \leq I(X; Y)$$

1.8 Fano's Inequality

Theorem 2.43 For any random variable X ,

$$H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$$

where $|\mathcal{X}|$ denotes the size of the alphabet \mathcal{X} . This upper bound is tight if and only if X is distributed uniformly on \mathcal{X} .

Remark For a random variable X , if the alphabet is finite, then

$$H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}| < \infty$$

i.e., $H(X)$ is finite.

Proof Let u be the uniform distribution on \mathcal{X} , i.e.,

$$u(x) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|} \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathcal{X}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \log |\mathcal{X}| - H(X) &= - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} p(x) \log \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|} + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} p(x) \log p(x) \\ &= - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} p(x) \log u(x) + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} p(x) \log p(x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{u(x)} \\ &= D(p||u) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.47 (Fano's Inequality) Let X and \hat{X} be random variables taking values in the same alphabet \mathcal{X} . Then

$$H(X | \hat{X}) \leq h_b(P_e) + P_e \log(|\mathcal{X}| - 1)$$

where $P_e = \Pr\{X \neq \hat{X}\}$ and h_b is the binary entropy function.

Corollary 2.48 $H(X | \hat{X}) < 1 + P_e \log |\mathcal{X}|$

1.9 Entropy Rate of a Stationary Source

Definition 2.54 The entropy rate of an information source $\{X_k\}$ is defined as

$$H_X = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

when the limit exists.

2 The I-Measure

$$\begin{array}{ll}
H/I & \leftrightarrow \mu^* \\
, & \leftrightarrow \cup \\
; & \leftrightarrow \cap \\
| & \leftrightarrow -(A - B = A \cap B^c)
\end{array}$$

1. Examples

$$\begin{aligned}
H(X_1 | X_2) &= \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 - \tilde{X}_2) \\
H(X_2 | X_1) &= \mu^*(\tilde{X}_2 - \tilde{X}_1) \\
I(X_1; X_2) &= \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2)
\end{aligned}$$

2. Inclusion-Exclusion formulation in set-theory

$$\mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cup \tilde{X}_2) = \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1) + \mu^*(\tilde{X}_2) - \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2)$$

corresponds to

$$H(X_1, X_2) = H(X_1) + H(X_2) - I(X_1; X_2)$$

in information theory.

2.1 Preliminaries

Definition 3.1 The field \mathcal{F}_n generated by sets $\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{X}_2, \dots, \tilde{X}_n$ is the collection of sets which can be obtained by any sequence of usual set operations (union, intersection, complement, and difference) on $\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{X}_2, \dots, \tilde{X}_n$

Definition 3.2 The atoms of \mathcal{F}_n are sets of the form $\cap_{i=1}^n Y_i$, where Y_i is either \tilde{X}_i or \tilde{X}_i^c , the complement of \tilde{X}_i

Example 3.3

- The sets \tilde{X}_1 and \tilde{X}_2 generate the field \mathcal{F}_2
- There are 4 atoms in \mathcal{F}_2 :

$$\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2, \quad \tilde{X}_1^c \cap \tilde{X}_2, \quad \tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2^c, \quad \tilde{X}_1^c \cap \tilde{X}_2^c$$

- There are a total of $2^4 = 16$ sets in \mathcal{F}_2 , formed by the unions of the above 4 atoms.

Definition 3.4 A real function μ defined on \mathcal{F}_n is called a signed measure if it is set-additive, i.e., for disjoint A and B in \mathcal{F}_n

$$\mu(A \cup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$$

Remark: A signed measure can take positive or negative values. If a signed measure takes only positive values, it is simply called a measure.

2.2 Construction of the I-Measure μ^*

Notations For nonempty subset G of \mathcal{N}_n : $\mathbf{X}_G = (X_i, i \in G)$ $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_G = \cup_{i \in G} \tilde{X}_i$

Theorem 3.6 Let

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \tilde{X}_G : G \text{ is a nonempty subset of } \mathcal{N}_n \right\}$$

Then a signed measure μ on \mathcal{F}_n is completely specified by $\{\mu(B), B \in \mathcal{B}\}$, which can be any set of real numbers.

Remark We have seen that a signed measure μ on \mathcal{F}_n is completely specified by $\{\mu(A), A \in \mathcal{A}\}$, the set of values of μ on the nonempty atoms. This theorem says that μ can instead be specified by $\{\mu(B), B \in \mathcal{B}\}$, the set of values of μ on the unions.

The Inclusion-Exclusion Formula

$$\begin{aligned} \mu \left(\bigcup_{k=1}^m A_k \right) &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq m} \mu(A_i) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} \mu(A_i \cap A_j) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{m+1} \mu(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_m) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3.19 (Variation of the Inclusion-Exclusion Formula)

$$\begin{aligned} \mu \left(\bigcap_{k=1}^m A_k - B \right) &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq m} \mu(A_i - B) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} \mu(A_i \cup A_j - B) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{m+1} \mu(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_m - B) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Lemma 3.7

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(A \cap B - C) &= \mu(A - C) + \mu(B - C) - \mu(A \cup B - C) \\ &= (\mu(A \cup C) - \mu(C)) + (\mu(B \cup C) - \mu(C)) - (\mu(A \cup B \cup C) - \mu(C)) \\ &= \mu(A \cup C) + \mu(B \cup C) - \mu(A \cup B \cup C) - \mu(C) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Lemma 3.8

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y \mid Z) &= H(X \mid Z) - H(X \mid Y, Z) \\ &= H(X, Z) - H(Z) - (H(X, Y, Z) - H(Y, Z)) \\ &= H(X, Z) + H(Y, Z) - H(X, Y, Z) - H(Z) \end{aligned}$$

Construction of the I -Measure μ^* on \mathcal{F}_n Define μ^* by setting

$$\mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_G \right) = H(\mathbf{X}_G)$$

for all nonempty subsets G of \mathcal{N}_n - That is, the value of μ^* on the union of a collection G of set variables is equal to the joint entropy of the collection G of random variables.

Theorem 3.9 μ^* is the unique signed measure on \mathcal{F}_n which is consistent with all Shannon's information measures.

Implications Can formally regard Shannon's information measures for n r.v.'s as the unique signed measure μ^* defined on \mathcal{F}_n Can employ set-theoretic tools to manipulate expressions of Shannon's information measures.

2.3 μ^* can be Negative

For $n = 3$, the values of μ^* on the nonempty atoms of \mathcal{F}_3 all correspond to Shannon's information measures, except

$$\mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 \cap \tilde{X}_3 \right) = I(X_1; X_2; X_3)$$

We will show that it is possible to construct r.v.'s X_1, X_2 , and X_3 such that $\mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 \cap \tilde{X}_3 \right) < 0$

Example 3.10 Let X_1 and X_2 be independent binary random variables with uniform distribution, i.e.,

$$\Pr \{X_i = 0\} = \Pr \{X_i = 1\} = 0.5, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Let

$$X_3 = (X_1 + X_2) \bmod 2$$

It is easy to check that X_3 also has a uniform distribution. Thus, $H(X_i) = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. It is also easy to check that X_1, X_2 , and X_3 are pairwise independent. Therefore,

$$H(X_i, X_j) = 2 \quad I(X_i; X_j) = 0$$

for $1 \leq i < j \leq 3$. We see from (1) that X_3 is a function of X_1 and X_2 , so that

$$H(X_3 | X_1, X_2) = 0$$

Then by the chain rule for entropy, we have

$$H(X_1, X_2, X_3) = H(X_1, X_2) + H(X_3 | X_1, X_2) = 2 + 0 = 2$$

Now for distinct $1 \leq i, j, k \leq 3$

$$\begin{aligned} I(X_i; X_j | X_k) &= H(X_i, X_k) + H(X_j, X_k) - H(X_1, X_2, X_3) - H(X_k) \\ &= 2 + 2 - 2 - 1 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

It then follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 \cap \tilde{X}_3 \right) &= \mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 \right) - \mu^* \left(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 - \tilde{X}_3 \right) \\ &= I(X_1; X_2) - I(X_1; X_2 | X_3) \\ &= 0 - 1 < 0 \end{aligned}$$

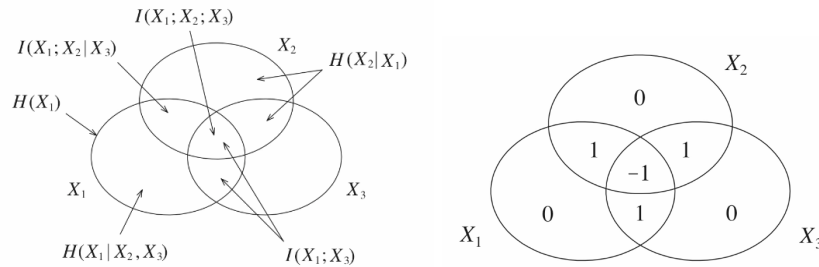


Figure 6: μ^* can be Negative.

Theorem 3.11 If there is no constraint on X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , then μ^* can take any set of nonnegative values on the nonempty atoms of \mathcal{F}_n .

Evidently, we can take $\mu^*(A) = H(Y_A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$. By the uniqueness of μ^* (Theorem 3.9), this is also the only possibility for μ^*

2.4 Information Diagrams for Markov Chains

- If $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_n$ form a Markov chain, then the structure of μ^* is much simpler and hence the information diagram can be simplified.
- For $n = 3$, $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3$ iff $I(X_1; X_3 | X_2) = 0$, or $\mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_3 - \tilde{X}_2) = 0$
- So the atom $\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_3 - \tilde{X}_2$ can be suppressed in the information diagram.

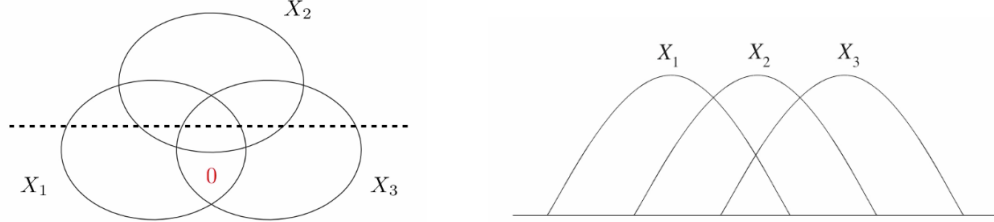


Figure 7: Suppressed information diagram.

Illustration: μ^* for $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3$

In this information diagram,

$$\begin{aligned} I(X_1; X_3 | X_2) &= \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_3 - \tilde{X}_2) \\ &= \mu^*(\emptyset) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_2 \cap \tilde{X}_3) &= \mu^*(\tilde{X}_1 \cap \tilde{X}_3) \\ &= I(X_1; X_3) \\ &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since the values of μ^* on all the remaining atoms correspond to Shannon's information measures and hence are nonnegative, we conclude that μ^* is a measure.

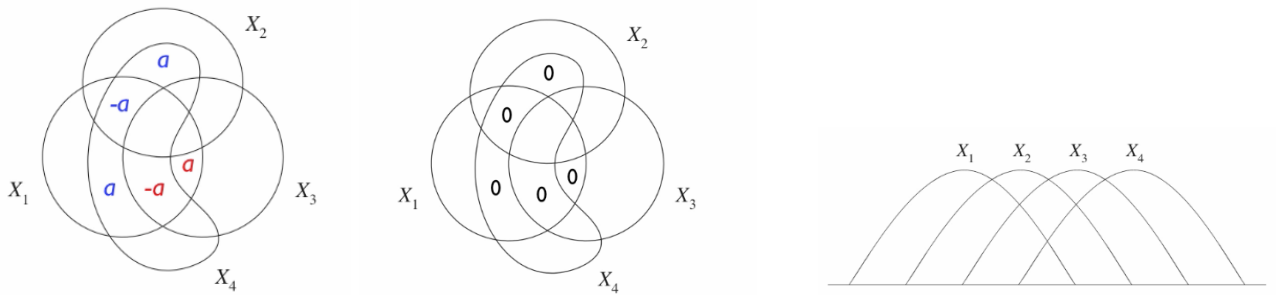


Figure 8: Suppressed information diagram.

Illustration: Structure of μ^* for $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4$

1. The Markov subchain $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3$ implies $0 = I(X_1; X_3 | X_2) = I(X_1; X_3; X_4 | X_2) + I(X_1; X_3 | X_2, X_4)$
Let $I(X_1; X_3 | X_2, X_4) = a \geq 0$. Then

$$I(X_1; X_3; X_4 | X_2) = -a$$

2. The Markov subchain $X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_4$ implies $0 = I(X_1; X_4 | X_2) = I(X_1; X_3; X_4 | X_2) + I(X_1; X_4 | X_2, X_3)$
since $I(X_1; X_3; X_4 | X_2) = -a$

$$I(X_1; X_4 | X_2, X_3) = a$$

3. The Markov subchain $X_1 \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4$ implies $0 = I(X_1; X_4 | X_3) = I(X_1; X_2; X_4 | X_3) + I(X_1; X_4 | X_2, X_3)$ since $I(X_1; X_4 | X_2, X_3) = a$

$$I(X_1; X_2; X_4 | X_3) = -a$$

4. The Markov subchain $X_2 \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4$ implies $0 = I(X_2; X_4 | X_3) = I(X_1; X_2; X_4 | X_3) + I(X_2; X_4 | X_1, X_3)$ since $I(X_1; X_2; X_4 | X_3) = -a$

$$I(X_2; X_4 | X_1, X_3) = a$$

5. The Markov subchain $(X_1, X_2) \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_4$ implies

$$0 = I(X_1, X_2; X_4 | X_3) = I(X_1; X_4 | X_2, X_3) + I(X_1; X_2; X_4 | X_3) + I(X_2; X_4 | X_1, X_3)$$

Then

$$0 = a - a + a = a$$

Therefore $a = 0$, and so μ^* vanishes on the corresponding 5 atoms as shown in the information diagram.

2.5 Examples of Applications

Example 3.12 (Concavity of Entropy) Let $X_1 \sim p_1(x)$ and $X_2 \sim p_2(x)$, and

$$X \sim p(x) = \lambda p_1(x) + \bar{\lambda} p_2(x)$$

where $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ and $\bar{\lambda} = 1 - \lambda$. Show that $H(X) \geq \lambda H(X_1) + \bar{\lambda} H(X_2)$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &\geq H(X | Z) \\ &= \Pr\{Z = 1\} H(X | Z = 1) + \Pr\{Z = 2\} H(X | Z = 2) \\ &= \lambda H(X_1) + \bar{\lambda} H(X_2) \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $H(X)$ is a concave functional of $p(x)$

Interpretation The entropy of a mixture of distributions is **at least** the mixture of the corresponding entropies.

Example 3.13/3.14 (Convexity/Concavity of Mutual Information) Let

$$(X, Y) \sim p(x, y) = p(x)p(y | x)$$

Show that for fixed $p(x)$, $I(X; Y)$ is a convex functional of $p(y | x)$.

Show that for fixed $p(y | x)$, $I(X; Y)$ is a concave functional of $p(x)$

Proof 3.13

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= I(X; Y | Z) + I(X; Y; Z) \\ &\leq I(X; Y | Z) \\ &= \Pr\{Z = 1\} I(X; Y | Z = 1) + \Pr\{Z = 2\} I(X; Y | Z = 2) \\ &= \lambda I(p(x), p_1(y | x)) + \bar{\lambda} I(p(x), p_2(y | x)) \end{aligned}$$

Interpretation For a fixed input distribution $p(x)$, the mutual information between the input and the output of the system as shown, which is obtained by mixing 2 channels $p_1(y | x)$ and $p_2(y | x)$, is **at most** the mixture of the 2 mutual informations corresponding to $p_1(y | x)$ and $p_2(y | x)$, respectively

Proof 3.14

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &\geq I(X; Y | Z) \\ &= \Pr\{Z = 1\} I(X; Y | Z = 1) + \Pr\{Z = 2\} I(X; Y | Z = 2) \\ &= \lambda I(p_1(x), p(y | x)) + \bar{\lambda} I(p_2(x), p(y | x)) \end{aligned}$$

This shows that for fixed $p(y | x)$, $I(X; Y)$ is a concave functional of $p(x)$

Interpretation For a fixed channel, by mixing the input distribution, the mutual information is at least equal to the mixture of the corresponding mutual informations.

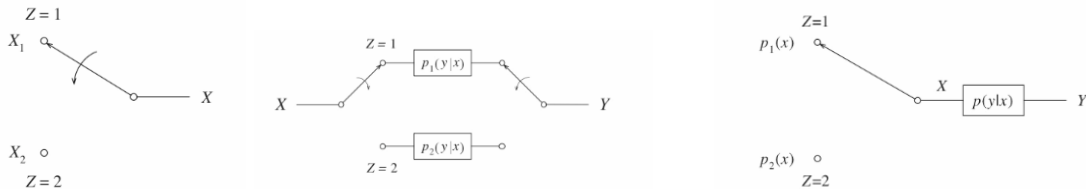


Figure 9: Systems

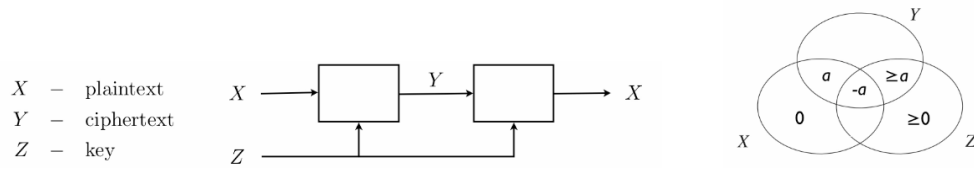


Figure 10: Shannon's Perfect Secrecy Theorem

Shannon's Perfect Secrecy Theorem

- Perfect Secrecy: $I(X; Y) = 0$
- Decipherability: $H(X | Y, Z) = 0$
- These implies $H(Z) \geq H(X)$, i.e., the length of the key is at least the same as the length of the plaintext.
- Shannon (1949) gave a combinatorial proof. Can readily be proved by an information diagram.

Example 3.15 (Imperfect Secrecy Theorem) Let X be the plain text, Y be the cipher text, and Z be the key in a secret key cryptosystem. since X can be recovered from Y and Z , we have

$$H(X | Y, Z) = 0$$

Show that this constraint implies

$$I(X; Y) \geq H(X) - H(Z)$$

Remark $I(X; Y)$ measures the "leakage of information." When $I(X; Y) = 0$, it reduces Shannon's perfect secrecy theorem.

Example 3.17 (Data Processing Theorem) If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z \rightarrow T$, then

- $I(X; T) \leq I(Y; Z)$
- $I(Y; Z) = I(X; T) + I(X; Z | T) + I(Y; T | X) + I(Y; Z | X, T)$

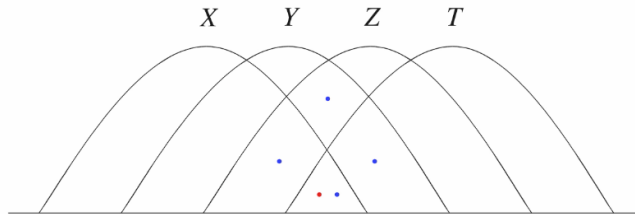


Figure 11: Shannon's Perfect Secrecy Theorem

3 Zero-Error Data Compression

- Why $H(X)$ measures the amount of information in X ?
- A first look at data compression: Prefix codes
- How to construct optimal prefix codes - Huffman codes?

3.1 The Entropy Bound

Definition 4.1 A D -ary source code \mathcal{C} for a source random variable X is a mapping from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{D}^* , the set of all finite length sequences of symbols taken from a D -ary code alphabet.

Definition 4.2 A code \mathcal{C} is uniquely decodable if for any finite source sequence, the sequence of code symbols corresponding to this source sequence is different from the sequence of code symbols corresponding to any other (finite) source sequence.

Example 4.3 Let $\mathcal{X} = \{A, B, C, D\}$. Consider the code \mathcal{C} defined by

x	$\mathcal{C}(x)$
A	0
B	1
C	01
D	10

AAD	$\rightarrow 0010$
ACA	$\rightarrow 0010$
$AABA$	$\rightarrow 0010$

Therefore, \mathcal{C} not uniquely decodable.

Theorem 4.4 (Kraft Inequality) Let \mathcal{C} be a D -ary source code, and let l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m be the lengths of the codewords. If \mathcal{C} is uniquely decodable, then

$$\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \leq 1$$

Proof 1. Without loss of generality, assume

$$l_1 \leq l_2 \leq \dots \leq l_m$$

2. Let N be an arbitrary positive integer, and consider

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \right)^N = \sum_{k_1=1}^m \sum_{k_2=1}^m \dots \sum_{k_N=1}^m D^{-(l_{k_1} + l_{k_2} + \dots + l_{k_N})}$$

3. By collecting terms of the same degree on the RHS, we write

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \right)^N = \sum_{i=1}^{Nlm} A_i D^{-i}$$

where A_i is the coefficient of D^{-i} on the LHS.

4. Now observe that A_i gives the total number of sequences of N codewords with a total length of i code symbols. Since the code is uniquely decodable, these code sequences must be distinct, and therefore

$$A_i \leq D^i$$

because there are D^i distinct sequences of i code symbols. 5. Substitute and we have

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \right)^N \leq \sum_{i=1}^{Nl_m} D^i D^{-i} = \sum_{i=1}^{Nl_m} 1 = Nl_m$$

or

$$\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \leq (Nl_m)^{1/N}$$

since this inequality holds for any N , upon letting $N \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain (1), completing the proof.

Theorem 4.6 (Entropy Bound) Let \mathcal{C} be a D -ary uniquely decodable code for a source random variable X with entropy $H_D(X)$. Then the expected length of \mathcal{C} is lower bounded by $H_D(X)$, i.e.

$$L \geq H_D(X)$$

This lower bound is tight if and only if $l_i = -\log_D p_i$ for all i

Proof 1. since \mathcal{C} is uniquely decodable, the lengths of its codewords satisfy the Kraft inequality. Write

$$L = \sum_i p_i l_i = \sum_i p_i \log_D D^{l_i}$$

and recall that

$$H_D(X) = - \sum_i p_i \log_D p_i$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} L - H_D(X) &= \sum_i p_i (\log_D p_i + \log_D D^{l_i}) \\ &= \sum_i p_i \log_D (p_i D^{l_i}) \\ &= (\ln D)^{-1} \sum_i p_i \ln (p_i D^{l_i}) \\ &\geq (\ln D)^{-1} \sum_i p_i \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i D^{l_i}} \right) \quad (\text{fundamental inequality: } \ln a \geq 1 - \frac{1}{a} \quad (a = p_i D^{l_i})) \\ &= (\ln D)^{-1} \sum_i (p_i - D^{-l_i}) \\ &\geq (\ln D)^{-1} \left[1 - \sum_i D^{-l_i} \right] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The inequality bounds hold tight if and only if $p_i D^{l_i} = 1$, or $l_i = -\log_D p_i$ for all i . If this holds, we have

$$\sum_i D^{-l_i} = \sum_i D^{\log_D p_i} = \sum_i p_i = 1$$

Corollary 4.7 (Theorem 2.43) $H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$.

Proof Let $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, \dots, |\mathcal{X}| - 1\}$. Let \mathcal{C} be the identity code, i.e.,

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} x & 0 & 1 & \cdots & |\mathcal{X}| - 1 \\ \hline \mathcal{C}(x) & 0 & 1 & \cdots & |\mathcal{X}| - 1 \end{array}$$

Evidently, \mathcal{C} is an $|\mathcal{X}|$ -ary uniquely decodable code, with expected length equals 1. By the entropy bound, we have

$$1 = L \geq H_{|\mathcal{X}|}(X)$$

Leaving the base unspecified, we have

$$H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$$

Definition 4.8 The redundancy R of a D -ary uniquely decodable code is the difference between the expected length of the code and the entropy of the source. By the entropy bound,

$$R = L - H_D(X) \geq 0$$

3.2 Prefix Codes

Definition 4.9 A code is called a prefix-free code if no codeword is a prefix of any other codeword. For brevity, a prefix-free code will be referred to as a prefix code.

Code Tree for Prefix Code

- A D -ary tree is a graphical representation of a collection of finite sequences of D -ary symbols.
- A node is either an internal node or a leaf.
- The tree representation of a prefix code is called a code tree.

$$1011011110110 \cdots \rightarrow 10, 110, 1111, 0, \underline{110}, \cdots$$

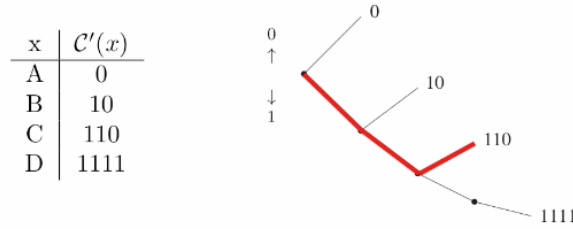


Figure 12: Instantaneous Decoding

Theorem 4.11 There exists a D -ary prefix code with codeword lengths l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m if and only if the Kraft inequality

$$\sum_{k=1}^m D^{-l_k} \leq 1$$

is satisfied.

Proof Direct part follows because a prefix code is uniquely decodable and hence satisfies Kraft's inequality.

(Converse) 1. We need to prove the existence of a D -ary prefix code with codeword lengths l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m if these lengths satisfy the Kraft inequality. Without loss of generality, assume that

$$l_1 \leq l_2 \leq \dots \leq l_m$$

2. Consider all the D -ary sequences of lengths less than or equal to l_m and regard them as the nodes of the full D -ary tree of depth l_m . We will refer to a sequence of length l as a node of order l .

3. There are $D^{l_1} > 1$ (since $l_1 \geq 1$) nodes of order l_1 which can be chosen as the first codeword. Thus choosing the first codeword is always possible.

4. Assume that the first i codewords have been chosen successfully, where $1 \leq i \leq m-1$, and we want to choose a node of order l_{i+1} as the $(i+1)$ st codeword such that it is not prefixed by any of the previously chosen codewords.

5. Since all the previously chosen codewords are not prefixes of each other, their descendants of order l_{i+1} do not overlap. The $(i+1)$ st node to be chosen cannot be a descendant of any of the previously chosen codewords. Therefore, the number of nodes which can be chosen as the $(i+1)$ st codeword is

$$D^{l_{i+1}} - D^{l_1+1} - l_1 - D^{l_2+1} - l_2 - \dots - D^{l_i+1} - l_i$$

6. If l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m satisfy the Kraft inequality, we have

$$D^{-l_1} + \dots + D^{-l_i} + D^{-l_{i+1}} \leq 1$$

7. Multiplying by D^{l_i+1} , we have

$$D^{l_{i+1}-l_1} + \dots + D^{l_{i+1}-l_i} \leq D^{l_{i+1}}$$

Or

$$D^{l_{i+1}} - D^{l_{i+1}-l_1} - \dots - D^{l_{i+1}-l_i} \geq 1$$

Thus we have shown by induction the existence of a prefix code with codeword lengths l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m completing the proof.

Definition (D -adic distribution)

- $p_i = D^{-t_i}$ for all i , where t_i is integer
- dyadic when $D = 2$

Corollary 4.12 There exists a D -ary prefix code which achieves the entropy bound for a distribution $\{p_i\}$ if and only if $\{p_i\}$ is D -adic.

3.3 Huffman Codes

A simple construction of optimal prefix codes.

- Binary Case: Keep merging the two smallest probability masses until one probability mass (i.e., 1) is left.
- D-ary Case: Insert zero probability masses until there are $D + k(D - 1)$ masses (if necessary). Keep merging the D smallest probability masses until one probability mass (i.e., 1) is left.
- In general there can be more than one Huffman code.

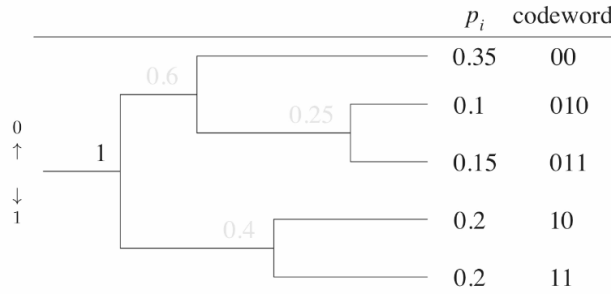


Figure 13: Instantaneous Decoding

Optimality of Huffman Codes

- Without loss of generality, assume $p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_m$
- Denote the codeword assigned to p_i by c_i , and its length by l_i

Theorem 4.17 The Huffman procedure produces an optimal prefix code.

Lemma 4.15 In an optimal code, shorter codewords are assigned to larger probabilities, i.e.,

$$l_1 \leq l_2 \leq \dots \leq l_m$$

Lemma 4.16 There exists an optimal code in which the codewords assigned to the two smallest probabilities are siblings, i.e., the two codewords have the same length and they differ only in the last symbol.

Proof 1. Consider a probability distribution

$$\{p_1, \dots, p_i, \dots, p_j, \dots, p_m\}$$

such that $p_i > p_j$. Assume that in a particular code, the codewords c_i and c_j are such that $l_i > l_j$, i.e., a shorter codeword is assigned to a smaller probability. 2. Intuitively, by exchanging c_i and c_j , the expected length of the code should be improved. 3. Specifically, let

$$L = \sum_k p_k l_k = \sum_{k \neq i, j} p_k l_k + (p_i l_i + p_j l_j)$$

be the expected length of the code, and

$$L' = \sum_{k \neq i, j} p_k l_k + (p_i l_j + p_j l_i)$$

be the expected length of the code obtained by exchanging c_i and c_j

4. Comparing L' and L , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} L' - L &= (p_i l_j + p_j l_i) - (p_i l_i + p_j l_j) \\ &= (p_i l_j - p_i l_i) - (p_j l_j - p_j l_i) \\ &= p_i (l_j - l_i) - p_j (l_j - l_i) \\ &= (p_i - p_j) (l_j - l_i) \end{aligned}$$

This is negative because $p_i > p_j$ and $l_i > l_j$. Therefore, $L' < L$ 5. Since the original code can be improved, it is not an optimal code. 6. Therefore, for an optimal code, shorter codewords are assigned to larger probabilities. The lemma is proved.

4 Strong Typicality

4.1 Strong AEP

Definition 6.1 The strongly typical set $T_{[X]\delta}^n$ with respect to $p(x)$ is the set of sequences $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in X_n$ such that $N(x; \mathbf{x}) = 0$ for $x \notin \mathcal{S}_X$ and

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta \quad (1)$$

where $N(x; \mathbf{x})$ is the number of occurrences of x in the sequence \mathbf{x} and δ is an arbitrarily small positive real number. The sequences in $T_{[X]\delta}^n$ are called strongly δ -typical sequences.

Theorem 6.2 (Strong AEP) There exists $\eta > 0$ such that $\eta \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$, and the following hold:

1) If $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, then

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\eta)} \leq p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\eta)}$$

2) For n sufficiently large,

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} > 1 - \delta$$

3) For n sufficiently large,

$$(1 - \delta) 2^{n(H(X)-\eta)} \leq \left| T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \leq 2^{n(H(X)+\eta)}$$

Proof.

1. To prove Property 1, for $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, we write

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}) &= \prod_x p(x)^{N(x; \mathbf{x})} \\ \log p(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_x N(x; \mathbf{x}) \log p(x) \\ &= \sum_x (N(x; \mathbf{x}) - np(x) + np(x)) \log p(x) \\ &= n \sum_x p(x) \log p(x) - n \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right) (-\log p(x)) \\ &= -n \left[H(X) + \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right) (-\log p(x)) \right] \end{aligned}$$

Since $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta$$

which implies

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right) (-\log p(x)) \right| &\leq \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| (-\log p(x)) \\ &\leq -\log \left(\min_x p(x) \right) \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \\ &\leq -\delta \log \left(\min_x p(x) \right) \\ &= \eta > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$-\eta \leq \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right) (-\log p(x)) \leq \eta$$

It then follows from (6.9) that

$$\begin{aligned} -n(H(X) + \eta) &\leq \log p(\mathbf{x}) \leq -n(H(X) - \eta) \\ 2^{-n(H(X) + \eta)} &\leq p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X) - \eta)} \end{aligned}$$

where $\eta \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$, proving Property 1.

2. To prove Property 2, we write $N(x; \mathbf{X}) = \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x)$

$$B_k(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_k = x \\ 0 & \text{if } X_k \neq x \end{cases}$$

Then $B_k(x), k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are i.i.d. random variables with

$$\Pr \{B_k(x) = 1\} = p(x)$$

and

$$\Pr \{B_k(x) = 0\} = 1 - p(x)$$

Note that

$$EB_k(x) = (1 - p(x)) \cdot 0 + p(x) \cdot 1 = p(x)$$

By the weak law of large numbers, for any $\delta > 0$ and for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} < \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|}$$

for n sufficiently large. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} \\ &= \Pr \left\{ \bigcup_x \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \right\} \\ &\leq \sum_x \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &< \sum_x \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} = \delta \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the union bound ($\Pr\{A \cup B\} \leq \Pr\{A\} + \Pr\{B\}$) to obtain (6.27). since

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| > \delta$$

implies

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \quad \text{for some } x \in \mathcal{X}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \delta \right\} \\ &\geq 1 - \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X} \right\} \\ &> 1 - \delta \end{aligned}$$

proving Property 2 .

Homework 2. Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, where X_k are i.i.d. with generic random variable X . Prove that

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \geq 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2}$$

for any n and $\delta > 0$. This shows that $\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \rightarrow 1$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$ if $\sqrt{n}\delta \rightarrow \infty$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \delta \right\} \\ &\geq 1 - \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X} \right\} \\ \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} \\ &= \Pr \left\{ \bigcup_x \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \right\} \\ &\leq \sum_x \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \quad (\text{i.i.d}) \\ &\leq \sum_x \Pr \left\{ |B_k(x) - p(x)| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &< \sum_x \frac{\sigma^2 |\mathcal{X}|^2}{n\delta^2} \\ &< \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2} \end{aligned}$$

Using Chebyshev's inequality

$$\Pr \left(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq \varepsilon \right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2}$$

Therefore we proved

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \geq 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2}$$

Theorem 6.3. For sufficiently large n , there exists $\varphi(\delta) > 0$ such that

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \notin T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} < 2^{-n\varphi(\delta)}$$

The proof of this theorem is based on the Chernoff bound [66] which we prove in the next lemma.

Apply Lemma 6.4.

$$\begin{aligned} \log \Pr \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) \geq n(p(x) + \delta) \right\} &\leq -\text{sn}(p(x) + \delta) + \log E \left[2^{s \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x)} \right] \\ &\stackrel{a)}{=} -\text{sn}(p(x) + \delta) + \log \left(\prod_{k=1}^n E \left[2^{s B_k(x)} \right] \right) \\ &\stackrel{b)}{=} -\text{sn}(p(x) + \delta) + n \log (1 - p(x) + p(x) 2^s) \\ &\stackrel{c)}{\leq} -\text{sn}(p(x) + \delta) + n(\ln 2)^{-1} (-p(x) + p(x) 2^s) \\ &= -n [s(p(x) + \delta) + (\ln 2)^{-1} p(x) (1 - 2^s)] \end{aligned}$$

where

(a) follows because $B_k(x)$ are mutually independent;

(b) is a direct evaluation of the expectation from the definition of $B_k(x)$ in (6.20)

(c) follows from the fundamental inequality $\ln a \leq a - 1$

In (6.48), upon defining

$$\beta_x(s, \delta) = s(p(x) + \delta) + (\ln 2)^{-1} p(x) (1 - 2^s)$$

we have

$$\log \Pr \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) \geq n(p(x) + \delta) \right\} \leq -n\beta_x(s, \delta)$$

Or

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| \geq \delta \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \left| \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - np(x) \right| \geq n\delta \right\} \\ &\leq \Pr \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) \geq n(p(x) + \delta) \right\} + \Pr \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) \leq n(p(x) - \delta) \right\} \\ &\leq 2^{-n\beta_x(s, \delta)} + 2^{-n\sigma_x(s, \delta)} \\ &\leq 2 \cdot 2^{-n \min(\beta_x(s, \delta), \sigma_x(s, \delta))} \\ &= 2^{-n \lceil \min(\beta_x(s, \delta), \sigma_x(s, \delta)) - \frac{1}{n} \rceil} \\ &= 2^{-n\varphi_x(\delta)} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\varphi_x(\delta) = \min(\beta_x(s, \delta), \sigma_x(s, \delta)) - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta \right\} \\ &\geq \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| \leq \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{X} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X} \right\} \\ &\geq 1 - \sum_x \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \sum_x \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \sum_{x: p(x) > 0} \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &\geq 1 - \sum_{x: p(x) > 0} 2^{-n\varphi_x(\frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|})} \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 6.4 (Chernoff Bound). Let Y be a real random variable and s be any nonnegative real number. Then for any real number a ,

$$\log \Pr\{Y \geq a\} \leq -sa + \log E[2^{sY}]$$

and

$$\log \Pr\{Y \leq a\} \leq sa + \log E[2^{-sY}]$$

Proof . Let

$$u(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } y < 0 \end{cases}$$

Then for any $s \geq 0$

$$u(y - a) \leq 2^{s(y-a)}$$

Taking expectation on both sides

$$E[u(Y - a)] \leq E[2^{s(Y-a)}] = 2^{-sa} E[2^{sY}]$$

since

$$E[u(Y - a)] = \Pr\{Y \geq a\} \cdot 1 + \Pr\{Y < a\} \cdot 0 = \Pr\{Y \geq a\}$$

we see that

$$\Pr\{Y \geq a\} \leq 2^{-sa} E[2^{sY}] = 2^{-sa + \log E[2^{sY}]}$$

4.2 Strong Typicality Versus Weak Typicality

We will prove in the next proposition that strong typicality is stronger than weak typicality in the sense that the former implies the latter

Proposition 6.5. For any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$, if $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{x} \in W_{[X]\eta}^n$, where $\eta \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$

Proof. By Property 1 of strong AEP (Theorem 6.2), if $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, then

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\eta)} \leq p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\eta)}$$

Or

$$H(X) - \eta \leq -\frac{1}{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}) \leq H(X) + \eta$$

where $\eta \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$. Then $\mathbf{x} \in W_{[X]\eta}^n$ by Definition 5.2. The proposition is proved.

4.3 Joint Typicality

Consider a bivariate information source $\{(X_k, Y_k), k \geq 1\}$ where (X_k, Y_k) are i.i.d. with distribution $p(x, y)$. We use (X, Y) to denote the pair of generic random variables.

Definition 6.6. The strongly jointly typical set $T_{[XY]\delta}^n$ with respect to $p(x, y)$ is the set of $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{Y}^n$ such that $N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0$ for $(x, y) \notin \mathcal{S}_{XY}$ and

$$\sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| \leq \delta$$

where $N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is the number of occurrences of (x, y) in the pair of sequences (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) and δ is an arbitrarily small positive real number. A pair of sequences (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is called strongly jointly δ -typical if it is in $T_{[XY]\delta}^n$

Theorem 6.7 (Consistency). If $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$ and $\mathbf{y} \in T_{[Y]\delta}^n$

Proof. If $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then

$$\sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| \leq \delta$$

Upon observing that

$$N(x; \mathbf{x}) = \sum_y N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| &= \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_y N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - \sum_y p(x, y) \right| \\ &= \sum_x \left| \sum_y \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| \\ &\leq \delta \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$. Similarly, $\mathbf{y} \in T_{[Y]\delta}^n$. The theorem is proved.

Theorem 6.8 (Preservation). Let $Y = f(X)$. If

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$$

then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in T_{[Y]\delta}^n$$

where $y_i = f(x_i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

Proof. Consider $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, i.e.,

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| < \delta$$

since $Y = f(X)$

$$p(y) = \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} p(x)$$

for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. On the other hand,

$$N(y; f(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} N(x; \mathbf{x})$$

for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(y; f(\mathbf{x})) - p(y) \right| &= \sum_y \left| \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_y \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \\ &= \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \\ &< \delta \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $f(\mathbf{x}) \in T_{[Y]\delta}^n$, proving the lemma.

For a bivariate i.i.d. source $\{(X_k, Y_k)\}$, we have the strong joint asymptotic equipartition property (strong JAEP), which can readily be obtained by applying the strong AEP to the source $\{(X_k, Y_k)\}$.

Theorem 6.9 (Strong JAEP). Let

$$(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = ((X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_n, Y_n))$$

where (X_i, Y_i) are i.i.d. with generic pair of random variables (X, Y) . Then there exists $\lambda > 0$ such that $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$, and the following hold:

1) If $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then

$$2^{-n(H(X,Y)+\lambda)} \leq p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X,Y)-\lambda)}$$

2) For n sufficiently large,

$$\Pr \left\{ (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n \right\} > 1 - \delta$$

3) For n sufficiently large,

$$(1 - \delta)2^{n(H(X,Y)-\lambda)} \leq |T_{[XY]\delta}^n| \leq 2^{n(H(X,Y)+\lambda)}$$

From the strong JAEP, we can see the following. since there are approximately $2^{nH(X,Y)}$ typical (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) pairs and approximately $2^{nH(X)}$ typical \mathbf{x} , for a typical \mathbf{x} , the number of \mathbf{y} such that (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is jointly typical is approximately

$$\frac{2^{nH(X,Y)}}{2^{nH(X)}} = 2^{nH(Y|X)}$$

on the average. The next theorem reveals that this is not only true on the average, but it is in fact true for every typical \mathbf{x} as long as there exists at least one \mathbf{y} such that (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is jointly typical.

Theorem 6.10 (Conditional Strong AEP). For any $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$, define

$$T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x}) = \left\{ \mathbf{y} \in T_{[Y]\delta}^n : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n \right\}$$

If $|T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x})| \geq 1$, then

$$2^{n(H(Y|X)-\nu)} \leq |T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x})| \leq 2^{n(H(Y|X)+\nu)}$$

where $\nu \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\delta \rightarrow 0$

Proof. Assume that $|T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x})| \geq 1$. We now prove the lower bound on $|T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x})|$. Let

$$\{K(x, y), (x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}\}$$

be any set of nonnegative integers such that

$$\sum_y K(x, y) = N(x; \mathbf{x})$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}^n$, if

$$N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = K(x, y)$$

for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, then $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$. Then by Definition 6.6, $\{K(x, y)\}$ satisfies

$$\sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} K(x, y) - p(x, y) \right| \leq \delta$$

which implies that for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} K(x, y) - p(x, y) \right| \leq \delta$$

Or

$$p(x, y) - \delta \leq \frac{1}{n} K(x, y) \leq p(x, y) + \delta$$

Straightforward combinatorics reveals that the number of \mathbf{y} which satisfy the constraints in (6.128) is equal to

$$M(K) = \prod_x \frac{N(x; \mathbf{x})!}{\prod_y K(x, y)!}$$

and it is readily seen that

$$\left| T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x}) \right| \geq M(K)$$

Lemma 6.11. For any $n > 0$,

$$n \ln n - n < \ln n! < (n+1) \ln(n+1) - n$$

Proof. First, we write

$$\ln n! = \ln 1 + \ln 2 + \cdots + \ln n$$

since $\ln x$ is a monotonically increasing function of x , we have

$$\int_{k-1}^k \ln x dx < \ln k < \int_k^{k+1} \ln x dx$$

Summing over $1 \leq k \leq n$, we have

$$\int_0^n \ln x dx < \ln n! < \int_1^{n+1} \ln x dx$$

Or

$$n \ln n - n < \ln n! < (n+1) \ln(n+1) - n$$

The lemma is proved.

The above theorem says that for any typical \mathbf{x} , as long as there is one typical \mathbf{y} such that (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is jointly typical, there are approximately $2^{nH(Y|X)}$ \mathbf{y} such that (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is jointly typical. This theorem has the following corollary that the number of such typical \mathbf{x} grows with n at almost the same rate as the total number of typical \mathbf{x} .

Corollary 6.12. For a joint distribution $p(x, y)$ on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, let $S_{[X]\delta}^n$ be the set of all sequences $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$ such that $T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x})$ is nonempty. Then

$$\left| S_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \geq (1 - \delta) 2^{n(H(X) - \psi)}$$

where $\psi \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\delta \rightarrow 0$.

Proof. By the consistency of strong typicality (Theorem 6.7), if $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$. In particular, $\mathbf{x} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n$. Then

$$T_{[XY]\delta}^n = \bigcup_{\mathbf{x} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n} \left\{ (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \mathbf{y} \in T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x}) \right\}$$

Using the lower bound on $\left| T_{[XY]\delta}^n \right|$ in Theorem 6.9 and the upper bound on $\left| T_{[Y|X]\delta}^n(\mathbf{x}) \right|$ in the last theorem, we have

$$(1 - \delta) 2^{n(H(X, Y) - \lambda)} \leq \left| T_{[XY]\delta}^n \right| \leq \left| S_{[X]\delta}^n \right| 2^{n(H(Y|X) + \nu)}$$

which implies

$$\left| S_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \geq (1 - \delta) 2^{n(H(X) - (\lambda + \nu))}$$

The theorem is proved upon letting $\psi = \lambda + \nu$.

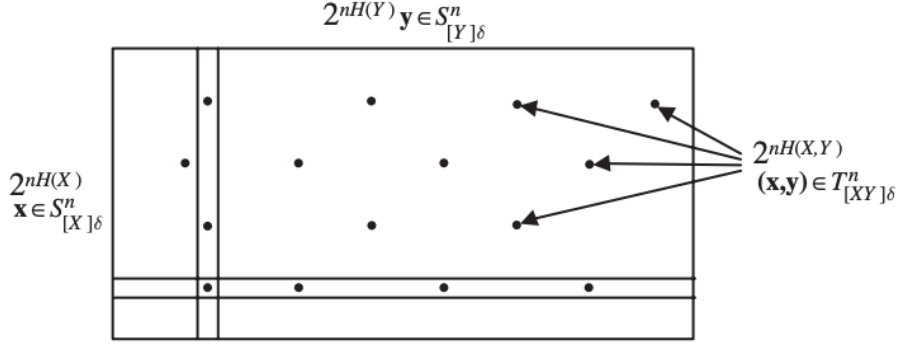


Fig. 6.2. A two-dimensional strong joint typicality array.

Figure 14: In this array, the rows and the columns are the typical sequences $\mathbf{x} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n$ and $\mathbf{y} \in S_{[Y]\delta}^n$ respectively. The total number of rows and columns are approximately equal to $2^{nH(X)}$ and $2^{nH(Y)}$, respectively. An entry indexed by (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) receives a dot if (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) is strongly jointly typical. The total number of dots is approximately equal to $2^{nH(X,Y)}$. The number of dots in each row is approximately equal to $2^{nH(Y|X)}$, while the number of dots in each column is approximately equal to $2^{nH(X|Y)}$.

Proposition 6.13. With respect to a joint distribution $p(x, y)$ on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, for any $\delta > 0$

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} > 1 - \delta$$

for n sufficiently large.

Homework (Proof.) By Theorem 6.7. If $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| &= \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_y N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - \sum_y p(x, y) \right| \\ &= \sum_x \left| \sum_y \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| \end{aligned}$$

By Weak Law of Large Number

$$\Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}||\mathcal{Y}|} \right\} < \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}||\mathcal{Y}|}$$

Then

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| < \delta$$

4.4 An Interpretation of the Basic Inequalities

Consider random variables X, Y , and Z and a fixed $\mathbf{z} \in S_{[Z]\delta}^n$, so that $T_{[XY|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$ is nonempty. By the consistency of strong typicality, if $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[XYZ]\delta}^n$, then $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[XZ]\delta}^n$ and $(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[YZ]\delta}^n$, or $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$ and $\mathbf{y} \in T_{[Y|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$, respectively. Thus

$$T_{[XY|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z}) \subset T_{[X|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z}) \times T_{[Y|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$$

which implies

$$\left| T_{[XY|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z}) \right| \leq \left| T_{[X|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z}) \right| \left| T_{[Y|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z}) \right|$$

Applying the lower bound in Theorem 6.10 to $T_{[XY|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$ and the upper bound to $T_{[X|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$ and $T_{[Y|Z]\delta}^n(\mathbf{z})$, we have

$$2^{n(H(X,Y|Z)-\zeta)} \leq 2^{n(H(X|Z)+\gamma)} 2^{n(H(Y|Z)+\phi)}$$

where $\zeta, \gamma, \phi \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\delta \rightarrow 0$. Taking logarithm to the base 2 and dividing by n , we obtain

$$H(X, Y | Z) \leq H(X | Z) + H(Y | Z)$$

upon letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\delta \rightarrow 0$. This inequality is equivalent to

$$I(X; Y | Z) \geq 0$$

Thus we have proved the nonnegativity of conditional mutual information. Since all Shannon's information measures are special cases of conditional mutual information, we have proved the nonnegativity of all Shannon's information measures, namely the basic inequalities.

Homework Show that $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[X, Y]}^n$ and $(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[Y, Z]}^n$ do not imply $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[X, Z]}^n$

Counter Example In the following problems, for a sequence $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$, let $q_{\mathbf{x}}$ be the empirical distribution of \mathbf{x} , i.e., $q_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = n^{-1}N(x; \mathbf{x})$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Similarly, for a pair of sequences $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{Y}^n$, let $q_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}$ be the joint empirical distribution of (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) , i.e., $q_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}(x, y) = n^{-1}N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$

5. Alternative definition of weak typicality. Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ be an i.i.d. sequence whose generic random variable X is distributed with $p(x)$. Let $q_{\mathbf{x}}$ be the empirical distribution of the sequence \mathbf{x} , i.e., $q_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = n^{-1}N(x; \mathbf{x})$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, where $N(x; \mathbf{x})$ is the number of occurrence of x in \mathbf{x}

$$|D(q_{\mathbf{x}} \| p) + H(q_{\mathbf{x}}) - H(p)| \leq \epsilon$$

Homework Alternative definition of strong typicality. Show that (6.1)

$$\sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta$$

is equivalent to

$$V(q_{\mathbf{x}}, p) \leq \delta$$

where $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the variational distance.

$$V(p, q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |p(x) - q(x)|$$

Thus strong typicality can be regarded as requiring the empirical distribution of a sequence to be close to the probability distribution of the generic random variable in variational distance. Also compare the result here with the alternative definition of weak typicality (Problem 5 in Chapter 5).

Proof.

$$V(q_{\mathbf{x}}, p) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |q_{\mathbf{x}} - p(x)| = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta$$

We can see that strong typicality is stronger than weak in the sense that weak typicality only requires the closeness in entropy. Note that $d(q_x, p) = |D(q_{\mathbf{x}} \| p) + H(q_{\mathbf{x}}) - H(p)| = 0$ when $q_x = p$

Homework 8. The empirical distribution $q_{\mathbf{x}}$ of the sequence \mathbf{x} is also called the type of \mathbf{x} . Assuming that \mathcal{X} is finite, show that there are a total of $\binom{n + |\mathcal{X}| - 1}{n}$ distinct types $q_{\mathbf{x}}$. Hint: There are $\binom{a + b - 1}{a}$ ways to distribute a identical balls in b boxes.

Proof. The original problem may be reformulated as arranging $k - 1$ bars and the n balls, by selecting n positions for balls out of $n + k - 1$ locations.

$$\underbrace{***}_{n \text{ balls}} \quad \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{array} \right]}_{k-1 \text{ bars}}$$

Directly apply this idea to get empirical distribution q_x , treat as for assigning each sample x into $|\mathcal{X}|$ boxes. Which gives the result

$$\binom{n + |\mathcal{X}| - 1}{n}$$

Homework 6. Let p be any probability distribution over a finite set \mathcal{X} and η be a real number in $(0, 1)$. Prove that for any subset A of \mathcal{X}^n with $p^n(A) \geq \eta$

$$|A \cap T_{[X]}^n| \geq 2^{n(H(p) - \delta')}$$

where $\delta' \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof Recall for $x \in T_{[X]\delta}$,

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\delta)} \leq p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\delta)}$$

then for $y \in A \cap T_{[X]\delta}$, we have $p(\mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{x})p(A) = \eta p(\mathbf{x})$

(Note that given in question, $p(A) \geq \eta$, for simplicity, we fix $p(A) = \eta, \eta \in (0, 1)$)

By using the upper bound $p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\delta)}$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) \leq \eta 2^{-n(H(X)-\delta)} = 2^{-n(\frac{\log(\eta)}{n} + H(X) - \delta)}$$

As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{\log(\eta)}{n} H(X) - \delta \rightarrow H(X) - \delta$

$$\left| A \cap T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| 2^{-n(H(X)-\delta)} \geq 1$$

$$\left| A \cap T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \geq 2^{n(H(X)-\delta)}$$

1. Show that $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[X,Y]\delta}^n$ and $(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[Y,Z]\delta}^n$ do not imply $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \in T_{[X,Z]\delta}^n$

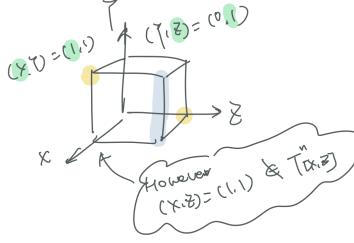


Figure 15: The illustrated random variables (X, Y, Z) gives a counter example.

2. Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, where X_k are i.i.d. with generic random variable X . Prove that

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \geq 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2}$$

for any n and $\delta > 0$. This shows that $\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \rightarrow 1$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$ if $\sqrt{n}\delta \rightarrow \infty$

Answer:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr \left\{ \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \delta \right\} \\ &\geq 1 - \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X} \right\} \\ \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{X}) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} &= \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \text{ for some } x \right\} \\ &= \Pr \left\{ \bigcup_x \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \right\} \\ &\leq \sum_x \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n B_k(x) - p(x) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \\ &\leq \sum_x \Pr \left\{ |B_k(x) - p(x)| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}|} \right\} \quad (\text{Since i.i.d.}) \\ &< \sum_x \frac{\sigma^2 |\mathcal{X}|^2}{n\delta^2} \quad (\text{Chebyshev's inequality}) \\ &< \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2} \end{aligned}$$

Using Chebyshev's inequality

$$\Pr \left(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq \varepsilon \right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n\varepsilon^2}$$

Therefore we proved

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} \geq 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{X}|^3}{n\delta^2}$$

4. Prove Proposition 6.13. Hint: Use the fact that if $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{X} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n$

Proposition 6.13. With respect to a joint distribution $p(x, y)$ on $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, for any $\delta > 0$

$$\Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} > 1 - \delta$$

for n sufficiently large.

By Theorem 6.7. If $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in T_{[XY]\delta}^n$, then $\mathbf{x} \in T_{[X]\delta}^n$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| &= \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_y N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - \sum_y p(x, y) \right| \\ &= \sum_x \left| \sum_y \left(\frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_x \sum_y \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| \end{aligned}$$

By Weak Law of Large Number, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - p(x, y) \right| > \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}||\mathcal{Y}|} \right\} < \frac{\delta}{|\mathcal{X}||\mathcal{Y}|}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_x \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| &< \delta \\ \Pr \left\{ \mathbf{X} \in S_{[X]\delta}^n \right\} &> 1 - \delta \end{aligned}$$

6. Let p be any probability distribution over a finite set \mathcal{X} and η be a real number in $(0, 1)$. Prove that for any subset A of \mathcal{X}^n with $p^n(A) \geq \eta$,

$$\left| A \cap T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \geq 2^{n(H(p) - \delta')}$$

where $\delta' \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$

Answer: Recall for $x \in T_{[X]\delta}$,

$$2^{-n(H(X) + \delta)} \leq p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X) - \delta)}$$

Then for $\mathbf{y} \in A \cap T_{[X]\delta}$, we have $p(\mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{x})p(A) = \eta p(\mathbf{x})$

(Note that given in question, $p(A) \geq \eta$, for simplicity, we fix $p(A) = \eta$, $\eta \in (0, 1)$)

By using the upper bound inequality $p(\mathbf{x}) \leq 2^{-n(H(X) - \delta)}$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) \leq \eta 2^{-n(H(X) - \delta)} = 2^{-n\left(\frac{\log(\eta)}{n} + H(X) - \delta\right)}$$

As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{\log(\eta)}{n} + H(X) - \delta \rightarrow H(X) - \delta$, because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log(\eta)}{n} = 0$ Therefore

$$\left| A \cap T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| 2^{-n(H(X) - \delta')} \geq 1$$

and

$$\left| A \cap T_{[X]\delta}^n \right| \geq 2^{n(H(X) - \delta')}$$

where $\delta' \rightarrow 0$ as $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$

In the following problems, for a sequence $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$, let $q_{\mathbf{x}}$ be the empirical distribution of \mathbf{x} , i.e., $q_{\mathbf{x}}(x) = n^{-1}N(x; \mathbf{x})$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Similarly, for a pair of sequences $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{Y}^n$, let $q_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}$ be the joint empirical distribution of (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) , i.e., $q_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}(x, y) = n^{-1}N(x, y; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$

7. Alternative definition of strong typicality. Show that (6.1) is equivalent to

$$V(q_{\mathbf{x}}, p) \leq \delta$$

where $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the variational distance. Thus strong typicality can be regarded as requiring the empirical distribution of a sequence to be close to the probability distribution of the generic random variable in variational distance. Also compare the result here with the alternative definition of weak typicality (Problem 5 in Chapter 5).

Answer:

$$V(q_{\mathbf{x}}, p) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |q_{\mathbf{x}} - p(x)| = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left| \frac{1}{n} N(x; \mathbf{x}) - p(x) \right| \leq \delta$$

We can see that strong typicality is stronger than weak in the sense that weak typicality only requires the closeness in entropy. Note that $d(q_x, p) = |D(q_{\mathbf{x}} \| p) + H(q_{\mathbf{x}}) - H(p)| = 0$ when $q_x = p$

8. The empirical distribution $q_{\mathbf{x}}$ of the sequence \mathbf{x} is also called the type of \mathbf{x} . Assuming that \mathcal{X} is finite, show that there are a total of $\binom{n + |\mathcal{X}| - 1}{n}$ distinct types $q_{\mathbf{x}}$. Hint: There are $\binom{a + b - 1}{a}$ ways to distribute a identical balls in b boxes.

Answer: The original problem may be reformulated as arranging $k - 1$ bars and the n balls, by selecting n positions for balls out of $n + k - 1$ locations.

$$\underbrace{***}_{n \text{ balls}} \quad \underbrace{[[[[]]]]}_{k-1 \text{ bars}}$$

Directly apply this idea to get empirical distribution q_x , treat as for assigning each sample x into $|\mathcal{X}|$ boxes. Which gives the result

$$\binom{n + |\mathcal{X}| - 1}{n}$$

5 Discrete Memoryless Channels

5.1 Homework 7

- Chapter 7, Problems 3,7,8,9,10,11

- Supplementary Problems:

1. Let X and Y be the input and output of a BSC. Show that if $\epsilon = 0.5$, then X and Y are independent.
2. Show in Example 7.8 that $H(Y | E) = (1 - \gamma)h_b(a)$

3. Memory increases capacity. Consider a BSC with crossover probability $0 < \epsilon < 1$ represented by $X_i = Y_i + Z_i \bmod 2$, where X_i, Y_i , and Z_i are respectively, the input, the output, and the noise variable at time i . Then

$$\Pr\{Z_i = 0\} = 1 - \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr\{Z_i = 1\} = \epsilon$$

for all i . We assume that $\{X_i\}$ and $\{Z_i\}$ are independent, but we make no assumption that Z_i are i.i.d. so that the channel may have memory.

a) Prove that

$$I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) \leq n - h_b(\epsilon)$$

b) Show that the upper bound in (a) can be achieved by letting X_i be i.i.d. bits taking the values 0 and 1 with equal probability and $Z_1 = Z_2 = \dots = Z_n$

c) Show that with the assumptions in (b), $I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y}) > nC$, where $C = 1 - h_b(\epsilon)$ is the capacity of the BSC if it is memoryless.

(Typo: $Y_i = X_i + Z_i$, $X_i + Y_i = (X_i + X_i) + Z_i = 0 + Z_i = Z_i$)

7. Let

$$P(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \epsilon & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 - \epsilon \end{bmatrix}$$

be the transition matrix for a BSC with crossover probability ϵ . Define $a * b = (1 - a)b + a(1 - b)$ for $0 \leq a, b \leq 1$

a) Prove that a DMC with transition matrix $P(\epsilon_1)P(\epsilon_2)$ is equivalent to a BSC with crossover probability $\epsilon_1 * \epsilon_2$. Such a channel is the cascade of two BSCs with crossover probabilities ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 respectively.

b) Repeat (a) for a DMC with transition matrix $P(\epsilon_2)P(\epsilon_1)$.

c) Prove that

$$1 - h_b(\epsilon_1 * \epsilon_2) \leq \min(1 - h_b(\epsilon_1), 1 - h_b(\epsilon_2))$$

This means that the capacity of the cascade of two BSCs is upper bounded by the capacity of either of the two BSCs.

d) Prove that a DMC with transition matrix $P(\epsilon)^n$ is equivalent to a BSC with crossover probabilities $\frac{1}{2}(1 - (1 - 2\epsilon)^n)$

8. Symmetric channel. A DMC is symmetric if the rows of the transition matrix $p(y | x)$ are permutations of each other and so are the columns. Determine the capacity of such a channel.

See Section 4.5 in Gallager [129] for a more general discussion.

9. Let C_1 and C_2 be the capacities of two DMCs with transition matrices P_1 and P_2 , respectively, and let C be the capacity of the DMC with transition matrix P_1P_2 . Prove that $C \leq \min(C_1, C_2)$

10. Two parallel channels. Let C_1 and C_2 be the capacities of two DMCs $p_1(y_1 | x_1)$ and $p_2(y_2 | x_2)$, respectively. Determine the capacity of the DMC

$$p(y_1, y_2 | x_1, x_2) = p_1(y_1 | x_1) p_2(y_2 | x_2)$$

Hint: Prove that

$$I(X_1, X_2; Y_1, Y_2) \leq I(X_1; Y_1) + I(X_2; Y_2)$$

if $p(y_1, y_2 | x_1, x_2) = p_1(y_1 | x_1) p_2(y_2 | x_2)$

11. In the system below, there are two channels with transition matrices $p_1(y_1 | x)$ and $p_2(y_2 | x)$. These two channels have a common input alphabet \mathcal{X} and output alphabets \mathcal{Y}_1 and \mathcal{Y}_2 , respectively, where \mathcal{Y}_1 and \mathcal{Y}_2 are disjoint. The position of the switch is determined by a random variable Z which is independent of X , where $\Pr\{Z = 1\} = \lambda$ a) Show that

$$I(X; Y) = \lambda I(X; Y_1) + (1 - \lambda) I(X; Y_2)$$

b) The capacity of the system is given by $C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y)$. Show that $C \leq \lambda C_1 + (1 - \lambda) C_2$, where $C_i = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y_i)$ is the capacity of the channel with transition matrix $p_i(y_i | x)$, $i = 1, 2$ c) If both C_1 and C_2 can be achieved by a common input distribution, show that $C = \lambda C_1 + (1 - \lambda) C_2$

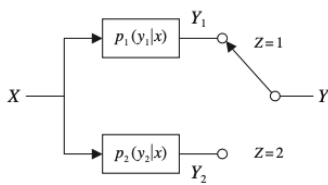


Figure 16: Problem 11.