

# EE276: Homework #2 Solutions

## 1. Data Processing Inequality.

The random variables  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $Z$  form a Markov triplet  $(X - Y - Z)$  if  $p(z|y) = p(z|y, x)$ , and as a corollary  $p(x|y) = p(x|y, z)$ . If  $X$ ,  $Y$ ,  $Z$  form a Markov triplet  $(X - Y - Z)$ , show that:

- (a)  $H(X|Y) = H(X|Y, Z)$  and  $H(Z|Y) = H(Z|X, Y)$
- (b)  $H(X|Y) \leq H(X|Z)$
- (c)  $I(X; Y) \geq I(X; Z)$  and  $I(Y; Z) \geq I(X; Z)$
- (d)  $I(X; Z|Y) = 0$

The following definition may be useful:

**Definition:** The *conditional mutual information* of random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  given  $Z$  is defined by

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

**Solution: Data Processing Inequality.**

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} H(X|Y) &= \sum_{x,y} -p(x, y) \log(p(x|y)) \\ &= \sum_{x,y,z} -p(x, y, z) \log(p(x|y)) \\ &= \sum_{x,y,z} -p(x, y, z) \log(p(x|y, z)) \\ &= H(X|Y, Z) \end{aligned}$$

where the third equality uses the fact that  $X$  and  $Z$  are conditionally independent given  $Y$ . A similar argument can be used to show  $H(Z|Y) = H(Z|X, Y)$ .

- (b)  $H(X|Y) = H(X|Y, Z) \leq H(X|Z)$ .
- (c)  $I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) \geq H(X) - H(X|Z) = I(X; Z)$ .
- (d) We showed that  $H(X|Y) = H(X|Z, Y)$ , therefore,  $I(X; Z|Y) = H(X|Y) - H(X|Z, Y) = 0$ .

## 2. Two looks.

Let  $X$ ,  $Y_1$ , and  $Y_2$  be binary random variables. Assume that  $I(X; Y_1) = 0$  and  $I(X; Y_2) = 0$ .

- (a) Does it follow that  $I(X; Y_1, Y_2) = 0$ ? Prove or provide a counterexample.  
 (b) Does it follow that  $I(Y_1; Y_2) = 0$ ? Prove or provide a counterexample.

**Solution: Two looks**

- (a) The answer is “no”. Although at first the conjecture seems reasonable enough—after all, if  $Y_1$  gives you no information about  $X$ , and if  $Y_2$  gives you no information about  $X$ , then why should the two of them together give any information? But remember, it is NOT the case that  $I(X; Y_1, Y_2) = I(X; Y_1) + I(X; Y_2)$ . The chain rule for information says instead that  $I(X; Y_1, Y_2) = I(X; Y_1) + I(X; Y_2|Y_1)$ . The chain rule gives us reason to be skeptical about the conjecture.

This problem is reminiscent of the well-known fact in probability that pair-wise independence of three random variables is not sufficient to guarantee that all three are mutually independent.  $I(X; Y_1) = 0$  is equivalent to saying that  $X$  and  $Y_1$  are independent. Similarly for  $X$  and  $Y_2$ . But just because  $X$  is pairwise independent with each of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ , it does not follow that  $X$  is independent of the vector  $(Y_1, Y_2)$ .

Here is a simple counterexample. Let  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  be independent fair coin flips. And let  $X = Y_1 \text{ XOR } Y_2$ .  $X$  is pairwise independent of both  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ , but obviously not independent of the vector  $(Y_1, Y_2)$ , since  $X$  is uniquely determined once you know  $(Y_1, Y_2)$ .

- (b) Again the answer is “no”.  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  can be arbitrarily dependent with each other and both still be independent of  $X$ . For example, let  $Y_1 = Y_2$  be two observations of the same fair coin flip, and  $X$  an independent fair coin flip. Then  $I(X; Y_1) = I(X; Y_2) = 0$  because  $X$  is independent of both  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$ . However,  $I(Y_1; Y_2) = H(Y_1) - H(Y_1|Y_2) = H(Y_1) = 1$ .

**3. Prefix and Uniquely Decodable codes**

Consider the following code:

$u$	Codeword
a	1 0
b	0 0
c	1 1
d	1 1 0

- (a) Is this a Prefix code?  
 (b) Argue that this code is uniquely decodable, by providing an algorithm for the decoding.

**Solution: Prefix and Uniquely Decodable**

- (a) No. The codeword of  $c$  is a prefix of the codeword of  $d$ .
- (b) We decode the encoded symbols from left to right. At any stage,
- If the next two bits are 10, output  $a$  and move to the third bit.
  - If the next two bits are 00, output  $b$  and move to the third bit.
  - If the next two bits are 11, look at the third bit:
    - If it is 1, output  $c$  and move to the third bit
    - If it is 0, count the number of 0's after the 11:
      - \* If even (say  $2m$  zeros), decode to  $cb\dots b$  with  $m$   $b$ 's and move to the bit after the 0's.
      - \* If odd (say  $2m + 1$  zeros), decode to  $db\dots b$  with  $m$   $b$ 's and move to the bit after the 0's.

Some examples with their decoding:

- 11011. It is not possible to split this string as 11 – 0 – 11 because there is no codeword “0” . Therefore the only way is: 110 – 11.
- 1110. It is not possible to split this string as 1 – 11 – 0 or 1 – 110 because there is no codeword “0” or “1” . Therefore the only way is: 11 – 10.
- 110010. It is not possible to split this string as 110 – 0 – 10 because there is no codeword “0” . Therefore the only way is: 11 – 00 – 10.

For a more elaborate discussion on this topic read Problem 5.27<sup>1</sup>. In this problem, the *Sardinas-Patterson* test of unique decodability is explained.

4. **Relative entropy and the cost of miscoding.** Let the random variable  $X$  defined on  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  according to pmf  $p$ . Let  $p$  and another pmf  $q$  be

Symbol	$p(x)$	$q(x)$	$C_1(x)$	$C_2(x)$
1	1/2	1/2	0	0
2	1/8	1/4	100	10
3	1/8	1/16	101	1100
4	1/8	1/16	110	1101
5	1/16	1/16	1110	1110
6	1/16	1/16	1111	1111

- (a) Calculate  $H(X)$ ,  $D(p||q)$  and  $D(q||p)$ .
- (b) The last two columns above represent codes for the random variable. Verify that codes  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are optimal under the respective distributions  $p$  and  $q$ .
- (c) Now assume that we use  $C_2$  to code  $X$  (as we assumed with pmf  $p$ ). What is the average length of the codewords? By how much does it exceed the entropy  $H(X)$ , i.e., what is the redundancy of the code?
- (d) What is the redundancy if we use code  $C_1$  for a random variable  $Y$  with pmf  $q$ ?

**Solution:**

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<sup>1</sup>from: T.M. Cover and J.A. Thomas, “Elements of Information Theory”, Second Edition, 2006.

(a) For  $X \sim p$

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{8} \log 8 + \frac{1}{8} \log 8 + \frac{1}{8} \log 8 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2.125. \end{aligned}$$

For  $X \sim q$

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{4} \log 4 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 + \frac{1}{16} \log 16 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{4} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2. \end{aligned}$$

Lets calculate  $D(p||q)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} D(p||q) &= \frac{1}{2} \log 1 + \frac{1}{8} \log \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} \log 2 + \frac{1}{8} \log 2 + \frac{1}{16} \log 1 + \frac{1}{16} \log 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \log \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} \log 2 + \frac{1}{8} \log 2 \\ &= 1/8. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} D(q||p) &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{4} \log 2 + \frac{1}{16} \log \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{16} \log \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{16} \log 1 + \frac{1}{16} \log 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \log 2 + \frac{1}{16} \log \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{16} \log \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{16} \\ &= \frac{1}{8}. \end{aligned}$$

(b) For  $X \sim p$ , the expected length of  $C_1$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[\ell(X)] &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2.125 \\ &= H(X) \end{aligned}$$

and for  $X \sim q$ , the expected length of  $C_2$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[\ell(X)] &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{4} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2 \\ &= H(X) \end{aligned}$$

and thus both  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are optimal codes.

(c) Average length of the codeword when  $C_2$  is assigned to  $X \sim p$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[\ell(X)] &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{8} + \frac{4}{8} + \frac{4}{8} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2.25 \\ &= H(X) + .125 \\ &= H(X) + D(p||q)! \end{aligned}$$

(d) Similarly the average length of the codeword when  $C_1$  is assigned to  $X \sim q$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[\ell(X)] &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{3}{16} + \frac{3}{16} + \frac{4}{16} + \frac{4}{16} \\ &= 2.125 \\ &= H(X) + .125 \\ &= H(X) + D(q||p)! \end{aligned}$$

5. **The AEP and source coding.** A discrete memoryless source emits a sequence of statistically independent binary digits with probabilities  $p(1) = 0.005$  and  $p(0) = 0.995$ . The digits are taken 100 at a time and a binary codeword is provided for every sequence of 100 digits containing three or fewer ones.

- Assuming that all codewords are the same length, find the minimum length required to provide codewords for all sequences with three or fewer ones.
- Calculate the probability of observing a source sequence for which no codeword has been assigned.
- Use Chebyshev's inequality to bound the probability of observing a source sequence for which no codeword has been assigned. Compare this bound with the actual probability computed in part (b).
- If the codewords for sequences with four or more ones were taken as simply the sequences themselves, give a bound on the expected compression rate of the code. Compare this with the entropy rate of the source.

**Solution:** *The AEP and source coding.*

(a) The number of 100-bit binary sequences with three or fewer ones is

$$\binom{100}{0} + \binom{100}{1} + \binom{100}{2} + \binom{100}{3} = 1 + 100 + 4950 + 161700 = 166751.$$

The required codeword length is  $\lceil \log_2 166751 \rceil = 18$ . (Note that  $H(0.005) = 0.0454$ , so 18 is quite a bit larger than the 4.5 bits of entropy.)

(b) The probability that a 100-bit sequence has three or fewer ones is

$$\sum_{i=0}^3 \binom{100}{i} (0.005)^i (0.995)^{100-i} = 0.60577 + 0.30441 + 0.7572 + 0.01243 = 0.99833$$

Thus the probability that the sequence that is generated cannot be encoded is  $1 - 0.99833 = 0.00167$ .

- (c) In the case of a random variable  $S_n$  that is the sum of  $n$  i.i.d. random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , Chebyshev's inequality states that

$$\Pr(|S_n - n\mu| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{n\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2},$$

where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are the mean and variance of  $X_i$ . (Therefore  $n\mu$  and  $n\sigma^2$  are the mean and variance of  $S_n$ .) In this problem,  $n = 100$ ,  $\mu = 0.005$ , and  $\sigma^2 = (0.005)(0.995)$ . Note that  $S_{100} \geq 4$  if and only if  $|S_{100} - 100(0.005)| \geq 3.5$ , so we should choose  $\epsilon = 3.5$ . Then

$$\Pr(S_{100} \geq 4) \leq \frac{100(0.005)(0.995)}{(3.5)^2} \approx 0.04061.$$

This bound is much larger than the actual probability 0.00167.

- (d) Let the random variable  $L$  be defined as the length of the resulting codeword. Then the compression rate is

$$\frac{1}{n}E(L) = \frac{1}{100}(18 \times 0.99833 + 100 \times 0.00167) = 0.181369. \quad (1)$$

Meanwhile, if  $Y$  is the random string of length  $n = 100$  at the source, then the entropy rate is given by

$$\frac{1}{n}H(Y) = H(p) = 0.0454 \quad (2)$$

where  $H(p)$  is the binary entropy.

## 6. AEP

Let  $X_i$  for  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  be an i.i.d. sequence from the p.m.f.  $p(x)$  with alphabet  $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ . Denote the expectation and entropy of  $X$  by  $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X]$  and  $H := -\sum p(x) \log p(x)$  respectively.

For  $\epsilon > 0$ , recall the definition of the typical set

$$A_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ x^n \in \mathcal{X}^n : \left| -\frac{1}{n} \log p(x^n) - H \right| \leq \epsilon \right\}$$

and define the following set

$$B_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ x^n \in \mathcal{X}^n : \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \mu \right| \leq \epsilon \right\}.$$

In what follows,  $\epsilon > 0$  is fixed.

- (a) Does  $\mathbb{P}\left(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

(b) Does  $\mathbb{P}\left(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}\right) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

(c) Show that for all  $n$ ,

$$|A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n(H+\epsilon)}.$$

(d) Show that for  $n$  sufficiently large.

$$|A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| \geq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)2^{n(H-\epsilon)}.$$

**Solution: AEP**

(a) Yes, by the AEP for discrete random variables the probability  $X^n$  is typical goes to 1.

(b) Yes, by the Law of Large Numbers  $P(X^n \in B_\epsilon^{(n)}) \rightarrow 1$ . So there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $N_1$  such that  $P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) > 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for all  $n > N_1$ , and there exists  $N_2$  such that  $P(X^n \in B_\epsilon^{(n)}) > 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for all  $n > N_2$ . So for all  $n > \max(N_1, N_2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}) &= P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}) + P(X^n \in B_\epsilon^{(n)}) - P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cup B_\epsilon^{(n)}) \\ &> 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{2} - 1 \\ &= 1 - \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

So for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$  such that  $P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}) > 1 - \epsilon$  for all  $n > N$ , therefore  $P(X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}) \rightarrow 1$ .

(c) By the law of total probability  $\sum_{x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x^n) \leq 1$ . Also, for  $x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ , from Theorem 3.1.2 in the text,  $p(x^n) \geq 2^{-n(H+\epsilon)}$ . Combining these two equations gives  $1 \geq \sum_{x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x^n) \geq \sum_{x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}} 2^{-n(H+\epsilon)} = |A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| 2^{-n(H+\epsilon)}$ . Multiplying through by  $2^{n(H+\epsilon)}$  gives the result  $|A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n(H+\epsilon)}$ .

(d) Since from (b)  $P\{X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}\} \rightarrow 1$ , there exists  $N$  such that  $P\{X^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}\} \geq \frac{1}{2}$  for all  $n > N$ . From Theorem 3.1.2 in the text, for  $x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ ,  $p(x^n) \leq 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)}$ . So combining these two gives  $\frac{1}{2} \leq \sum_{x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x^n) \leq \sum_{x^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}} 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)} = |A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)}$ . Multiplying through by  $2^{n(H-\epsilon)}$  gives the result  $|A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\epsilon^{(n)}| \geq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)2^{n(H-\epsilon)}$  for  $n$  sufficiently large.

**7. An AEP-like limit and the AEP (Bonus)**

(a) Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. drawn according to probability mass function  $p(x)$ . Find the limit in probability as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  of

$$p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

- (b) Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be an i.i.d. sequence of discrete random variables with entropy  $H(X)$ . Let

$$C_n(t) = \{x^n \in \mathcal{X}^n : p(x^n) \geq 2^{-nt}\}$$

denote the subset of  $n$ -length sequences with probabilities  $\geq 2^{-nt}$ .

- i. Show that  $|C_n(t)| \leq 2^{nt}$ .
- ii. What is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X^n \in C_n(t))$  when  $t < H(X)$ ? And when  $t > H(X)$ ?

**Solution: An AEP-like limit and the AEP.**

- (a) By the AEP, we know that for every  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(-H(X) - \delta \leq \frac{1}{n} \log p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \leq -H(X) + \delta\right) = 1$$

Now, fix  $\epsilon > 0$  (sufficiently small) and choose  $\delta = \min\{\log(1 + 2^{H(X)}\epsilon), -\log(1 - 2^{H(X)}\epsilon)\}$ . Then,  $2^{-H(X)}(2^\delta - 1) \leq \epsilon$  and  $2^{-H(X)}(2^{-\delta} - 1) \geq -\epsilon$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} -H(X) - \delta &\leq \frac{1}{n} \log p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \leq -H(X) + \delta \\ \implies 2^{-H(X)} 2^{-\delta} &\leq (p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq 2^{-H(X)} 2^\delta \\ \implies 2^{-H(X)}(2^{-\delta} - 1) &\leq (p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}} - 2^{-H(X)} \leq 2^{-H(X)}(2^\delta - 1) \\ \implies -\epsilon &\leq (p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}} - 2^{-H(X)} \leq \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

This along with AEP implies that  $P(|(p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}} - 2^{-H(X)}| \leq \epsilon) \rightarrow 1$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and hence  $(p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}}$  converges to  $2^{-H(X)}$  in probability. This proof can be shortened by directly invoking the continuous mapping theorem, which says that if  $Z_n$  converges to  $Z$  in probability and  $f$  is a continuous function, then  $f(Z_n)$  converges to  $f(Z)$  in probability.

**Alternate proof (using Strong LLN):**

$X_1, X_2, \dots$ , i.i.d.  $\sim p(x)$ . Hence  $\log(X_i)$  are also i.i.d. and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim (p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}} &= \lim 2^{\log(p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}}} \\ &= 2^{\lim \frac{1}{n} \sum \log p(X_i)} \\ &= 2^{E(\log(p(X)))} \\ &= 2^{-H(X)} \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality uses the continuity of the function  $2^x$  and the third equality uses the strong law of large numbers. Thus,  $(p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n))^{\frac{1}{n}}$  converges to  $2^{-H(X)}$  almost surely, and hence in probability.



(b) i.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\geq \sum_{x^n \in C_n(t)} p(x^n) \\ &\geq \sum_{x^n \in C_n(t)} 2^{-nt} \\ &= |C_n(t)| 2^{-nt} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $|C_n(t)| \leq 2^{nt}$ .

ii. AEP immediately implies that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X^n \in C_n(t)) = 0$  for  $t < H(X)$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X^n \in C_n(t)) = 1$  for  $t > H(X)$ .