

Lecture 14: Graph Entropy

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1 Recap

- Bergman's bound on the permanent
- Shearer's Lemma
- Number of triangles in a graph with l edges.

2 Motivation and Definition of Graph Entropy

So far in this course, we have learned two aspects to coding theory - source coding and channel coding. Graph entropy can be thought as a combinatorial extension of source coding.

Suppose that we are given a source which emits one symbol $x \in V$. The source coding theorem says that if symbols are i.i.d. and the number of symbols is large, it is possible to achieve $Rate \approx H(X)$ and this is the best to hope for. This result is based on the requirement that whenever we have two sequences of symbols (x_1, \dots, x_t) and (y_1, \dots, y_t) , which are different in at least one symbol, the encoder should assign different codewords for them; otherwise at least one of them cannot be recovered.

What does happen if we relax this strict requirement and allow some *confusion* (i.e. it is okay to use the same codeword for certain pairs of strings)? As the requirement is relaxed, we might hope for a better rate. The graph entropy studies this question by representing such requirements by graphs.

2.1 1-symbol Case

We still have a source that emits a symbol in V , and a graph $G = (V, E)$ such that $\{a, b\} \in E$ if a and b must be distinguished. This graph represents the requirement that for any encoder $Enc : V \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^R$,

$$\forall \{a, b\} \in E : Enc(a) \neq Enc(b)$$

How small R can be in this setting? This setting is exactly equal to the well-studied graph (vertex) coloring problem, where the goal is to color each vertex so that no edge has both endpoints with the same color (each color corresponds to a codeword).

Let $\chi(G)$ be the minimum number of colors needed for G . The best $R = \lceil \log \chi(G) \rceil$. If $G = K_n$, which means every symbol must be distinguished, $\chi(G) = n$ and $R_{OPT} = \lceil \log n \rceil$.

2.2 Multi-symbol Case

We now assume that the source emits t i.i.d. symbols, each according to distribution p on V .

Definition 2.1. (x_1, \dots, x_t) is distinguishable from (y_1, \dots, y_t) if $\exists i \in [t]$ such that $(x_i, y_i) \in E$.

Let $G^t = (V^t, E^t)$ where

- $V^t = \{(v_1, \dots, v_t) : v_i \in V\}$
- $\{(v_1, \dots, v_t), (w_1, \dots, w_t)\} \in E$ if and only if $\exists i$ such that $\{v_i, w_i\} \in E$.

We can see (v_1, \dots, v_t) and (w_1, \dots, w_t) are distinguishable when $\{(v_1, \dots, v_t), (w_1, \dots, w_t)\} \in E^t$. Let $p^t(v_1, \dots, v_t) = \prod_{i \in [t]} p(v_i)$ be the probability of (v_1, \dots, v_t) . As in the original source coding theorem, we might decide to ignore small fraction of vertices according to this distribution and color the rest of the graph with a small number of colors. Asymptotically, we take $t \rightarrow \infty$ and allow an *error* parameter ϵ . If $\epsilon = 0$ (i.e. error-free code), the best achievable rate is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log \chi(G^t)}{t}$$

If $\epsilon > 0$, we define *entropy of G* as the best achievable rate allowing ϵ error, namely

$$H(G, p) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \min_{\substack{U \subseteq V^t \\ p^t(U) \geq 1 - \epsilon}} \frac{\log \chi(G^t(U))}{t}$$

where $G^t(U)$ is the subgraph of G^t induced by U . Körner, who introduced this definition, proved that

1. Limit exists
2. Limit is independent of $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$.
- 3.

$$H(G, p) = \min_{(X, Y)} I(X; Y)$$

where $X \in V$ is a random vertex whose marginal distribution is p , and $Y \subseteq V$ is a random independent set of vertices such that $X \in Y$ always. Y is an independent set if for all $v, v' \in Y$, $\{v, v'\} \notin E$. Note that 3 implies 1 and 2.

One rough intuition is that any coloring of G partitions V into independent sets, and as we use a fewer number of colors, the size of each independent set will be larger. This coloring naturally defines the joint distribution (X, Y) - pick $X \in V$ according to p , and let Y be the set of vertices with the same color with X . $I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$ also gets smaller as the size of Y increases, so this roughly explains how coloring is related to a $I(X; Y)$.

3 Examples of Graph Entropy

From now on, p is the uniform distribution on V . In this case define $H(G)$ to be $H(G, \text{uniform})$. To prove an upper bound on $H(G)$, it is enough to find a joint distribution (X, Y) such that $I(X; Y)$ is small.

3.1 Empty Graph

- In a graph with no edge, Y can be V always regardless of X .
- $H(G) \leq I(X; Y) \leq H(Y) = 0$
- Since $H(G) \geq 0$ by definition, $H(G) = 0$.

3.2 Complete Graph

- In a complete graph K_n , given X , Y has to be $\{X\}$ since it is the only set that contains X and is independent.
- This unique distribution gives $H(G) = I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(X) = \log n$.

3.3 Bipartite and r-partite Graph

- Suppose we have a complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$ with partitions A and B such that $|A| = m$, $|B| = n$. Given X , we take $Y = A$ if $x \in A$, and $Y = B$ if $x \in B$.
- Using this joint distribution,

$$H(G) \leq I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = \log(m+n) - \frac{m}{m+n} \log m - \frac{n}{m+n} \log n = h\left(\frac{n}{m+n}\right)$$

where h is the binary entropy function.

- On the other hand, for any joint distribution (X, Y) , we see that $Y \subseteq A$ if $X \in A$, and $Y \subseteq B$ if $X \in B$. Therefore,

$$H(X|Y) \leq Pr[X \in A] \log |A| + Pr[X \in B] \log |B| = \frac{m}{m+n} \log m + \frac{n}{m+n} \log n$$

This shows that $H(G) \geq h\left(\frac{n}{m+n}\right)$, and therefore $H(G) = h\left(\frac{n}{m+n}\right)$

- Generally, if we have r -partite graph where $V = [n] \times [r]$ and $E = \{(i, j), (k, l) : j \neq l\}$, following the same argument, we can conclude that $H(G) = \log r$. The bipartite graph with $m = n$ is a special case with $H(G) = h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \log 2 = 1$.

4 Properties of Graph Entropy

4.1 Subadditivity

Lemma 4.1. *Let $G_1 = (V, E_1)$, $G_2 = (V, E_2)$ and $G = (V, E_1 \cup E_2)$. Then $H(G) \leq H(G_1) + H(G_2)$.*

Proof. Take joint distribution (X, Y_1, Y_2) such that

- $H(G_1) = I(X; Y_1)$
- $H(G_2) = I(X; Y_2)$
- Conditioned on X , Y_1 and Y_2 are independent.

$Y_1 \cap Y_2$ is independent on G , and it contains X . Therefore, $(X, Y_1 \cap Y_2)$ is a valid distribution for G .

$$\begin{aligned}
H(G) &\leq I(X; Y_1 \cap Y_2) \\
&\leq I(X; Y_1, Y_2) \text{ (follows from data processing inequality)} \\
&= H(Y_1, Y_2) - H(Y_1, Y_2|X) \\
&= H(Y_1, Y_2) - H(Y_1|X) - H(Y_2|X) \text{ (} Y_1 \perp Y_2 \text{ conditioned on } X\text{)} \\
&\leq H(Y_1) + H(Y_2) - H(Y_1|X) - H(Y_2|X) \\
&= H(G_1) + H(G_2)
\end{aligned}$$

□

4.2 Monotonicity

Lemma 4.2. *Let $G = (V, E), F = (V, E'), E \subseteq E'$. Then $H(G) \leq H(F)$.*

Proof. Since G has fewer edges (less strict requirements) than F , (X, Y) achieving $H(F)$ is feasible for $H(G)$. □

4.3 Disjoint Union

Lemma 4.3. *Let G_1, \dots, G_k are connected components of G and $\rho_i := \frac{|V(G_i)|}{|V(G)|}$. Then*

$$H(G) = \sum_{i \in [k]} \rho_i H(G_i)$$

Proof. First we show that $H(G) \geq \sum \rho_i H(G_i)$. Take a joint distribution (X, Y) such that $H(G) = I(X; Y)$, and let $Y_i = Y \cap V(G_i)$. Define $l(x) : V(G) \rightarrow [k]$ such that $l(x) = i$ iff $x \in V(G_i)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
H(G) &= I(X; Y_1, \dots, Y_k) \\
&= I(X, l(X); Y_1, \dots, Y_k) \text{ (} X \text{ determines } (X, l(X))\text{)} \\
&= I(l(X); Y_1, \dots, Y_k) + I(X; Y_1, \dots, Y_k | l(X)) \text{ (Chain rule)} \\
&\geq \sum_{i \in [k]} \Pr[l(X) = i] I(X; Y_1, \dots, Y_k | l(X) = i) \text{ (Expand only the second term)} \\
&= \sum_{i \in [k]} \rho_i (I(X; Y_i | l(X) = i) + I(X; Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}, Y_{i+1}, \dots, Y_k | l(X) = i, Y_i)) \text{ (Chain rule)} \\
&\geq \sum_{i \in [k]} \rho_i I(X; Y_i | l(X) = i) \text{ (Ignore the second term)} \\
&\geq \sum_{i \in [k]} \rho_i H(G_i) \text{ (Definition of } H(G_i)\text{)}
\end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof that $H(G) \geq \sum \rho_i H(G_i)$. For the other direction, let p_i be a joint distribution (X, Y_i) that achieves $H(G_i) = I(X; Y_i)$. We define a joint distribution (X, Y) such that

1. Pick Y_1, \dots, Y_k independently according to p_1, \dots, p_k .
2. Pick $i \in [k]$ with probability ρ_i .
3. Sample X according to $p_i(X|Y_i)$.

We want to show that $I(X; Y) = \sum \rho_i H(G_i)$. We are going to use the same proof; we only need to check that the three inequalities above indeed hold as equalities.

1. We chose $i = l(X)$ independently from Y_1, \dots, Y_k ; so $I(l(X); Y_1, \dots, Y_k) = 0$ and the first inequality holds with equality.
2. Our choice of X only depends on i and Y_i , so $I(X; Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}, Y_{i+1}, \dots, Y_k | l(X) = i, Y_i) = 0$ and the second inequality holds with equality.
3. By the choice of p_i , $I(X; Y_i) = H(G_i)$ for each i .

Therefore, $H(G) \leq I(X; Y) = \sum \rho_i H(G_i)$. With the lower bound above, we can conclude that $H(G) = \sum_{\rho_i} H(G_i)$.

□