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|  | Lecture 5 |  |
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The goal of this lecture is to present how the entropy of random variables can be used to obtain bounds on the number of combinatorial objects. This is illustrated by a proof of Brègman's theorem found by Radhakrishnan in the late nineties [5].

## 1 Basics on the entropy

We only present some basics concepts about entropy. We refer to the books by McEliece [3, 4] for a nice exposition of the topic. Simonyi wrote a survey on graph entropy [6], and another one devoted to the links between graph entropy and perfect graphs [7].

We consider only finite discrete probabilistic spaces. A discrete probabilistic space is a pair $(\mathscr{U}, p)$ where $\mathscr{U}$ is a finite set and $p: \mathscr{U} \rightarrow[0,1]$ satisfies $\sum_{u \in \mathscr{U}} p(u)=1$. An event is a subset $A$ of $\mathscr{U}$, and its probability is $\operatorname{Pr}(A):=\sum_{u \in A} p(u)$. A random variable is a mapping from $\mathscr{U}$ to some set.

Let $X$ be a random variable taking values in a set $\mathscr{X}$. The entropy of $X$ is

$$
H(X):=\sum_{x \in \mathscr{X}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \log \frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)}
$$

We let $0 \cdot \log (1 / 0):=0$ in the previous definition (or, alternately, we implicitly assume that the sum is taken only over the elements $x \in \mathscr{X}$ such that $P(X=x)>0)$.

The entropy can be sought as the amount of uncertainty the observer of a system is left with once (s)he knows that $X$ has distribution $\operatorname{Pr}$. This can be explained as follows. Let $A \subseteq \mathscr{X}$. We want to associate to $A$ a real number $I_{A}$ that can be interpreted as the amount of information in the claim " $X \in A$ ". If one requires that $I_{A}$ is a continuous function of the probability $\operatorname{Pr}(X \in A)=\sum_{x \in A} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x)$ and that $I_{A \cap B}=I_{A}+I_{B}$ for any two independent events $A$ and $B$ (i.e. such that $p(X \in$ $A \cap B)=p(X \in A) \cdot p(X \in B))$, the only possible choice is $I_{A}=-\log \operatorname{Pr}(X \in A)$, where the logarithm can be taken to any base. The entropy of $X$ thus models the average amount of information of the elementary claims $X=x$ for $x \in \mathscr{X}$.

Note that the values taken by $X$ are not relevant, only the probabilities with which $X$ takes those values are. Moreover, the image of $X$ is a finite set (since $\mathscr{U}$ is).

If $X$ is a $0-1$ random variable being 0 with a fixed probability $p \in(0,1)$, then $\mathbf{E}(X)$ is the binary entropy function, i.e.

$$
\mathbf{E}(X)=H(p):=-p \log p-(1-p) \log (1-p)
$$

Let $Y$ be a random variable taking values in a set $\mathscr{Y}$. The joint entropy of the two random variables $X$ and $Y$ is

$$
H(X, Y)=\sum_{\substack{x \in \mathscr{X} \\ y \in \mathscr{Y}}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}\right)
$$

We can condition the entropy of a random variable on a particular observation, or more generally on the outcome of another random variable. The conditional entropy of $X$ given that $Y=y$ is

$$
H(X \mid Y=y)=\sum_{x \in \mathscr{X}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Y=y) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Y=y)}\right)
$$

The conditional entropy of $X$ given $Y$ is the average of the preceding, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(X \mid Y): & =\sum_{y \in \mathscr{Y}} \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y) H(X \mid Y=y) \\
& =\sum_{\substack{x \in \mathscr{\mathscr { V }} \\
y \in \mathscr{G}}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Y=y)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us see some relations between those quantities.
Proposition 1. Let $X$ and $Y$ be two random variables taking values in $\mathscr{X}$ and $\mathscr{Y}$, respectively.
(i) $H(X) \leq \log (|\mathscr{X}|)$ with equality if and only if $X$ is uniformly distributed.
(ii) $H(X, Y)=H(X)+H(Y \mid X)$.
(iii) $H(X, Y) \leq H(X)+H(Y)$ with equality if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are independent.
(iv) $H(X \mid Y) \leq H(X)$ with equality if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are independent.

Before starting the proof, we recall that by Jensen's equality for concave functions,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} \log \left(\beta_{i}\right) \leq \log \left(\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} \beta_{i}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all positive reals such that $\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}=1$. Moreover, there is equality if and only if $\beta_{i}=\beta_{j}$ for any $i, j$.

## Proof of Proposition 1:

(i) Jensen's inequality implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(X) & =\sum_{x \in \mathscr{X}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)}\right) \\
& \leq \log \left(\sum_{x \in \mathscr{X}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x) / \operatorname{Pr}(X=x)\right) \\
& =\log (|\mathscr{X}|)
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(X=x^{\prime}\right)$ for all $x, x^{\prime} \in \mathscr{X}$, i.e. if and only if $X$ is uniformly distributed.
(ii) Since $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)=\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y \mid X=x)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)=$ $\sum_{y \in Y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$, we deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(X, Y)-H(Y \mid X)= & \sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}\right) \\
& -\sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(Y=y \mid X=x)}\right) \\
= & \sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}\right) \\
= & \sum_{x \in \mathscr{X}} \log \left(\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)}\right) \cdot \sum_{y \in \mathscr{Y}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \\
= & H(X) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(iii) Since $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)=\sum_{y \in \mathscr{Y}} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$,

$$
H(X)+X(Y)=-\sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log (\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y))
$$

Consequently, using Jensen's inequality we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(X, Y)-(H(X)+H(Y)) & =\sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y) \log \left(\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y)}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}\right) \\
& \leq \log \left(\sum_{x, y} \operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y)\right) \\
& =\log 1=0,
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are independent.
(iv) By (ii) and (iii)

$$
H(X \mid Y)-H(X)=H(X, Y)-H(Y)-H(X) \leq 0
$$

with equality if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are independent.
By induction, (1) generalises to the so-called chain rule, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} H\left(X_{i} \mid X_{1}, \ldots, X_{i-1}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We end by presenting a useful lemma [1] with a small application. If $X=\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathscr{I}}$ is a vector and $A$ a subset of $\mathscr{I}$, we set $X_{A}:=\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in A}$.

Lemma 2 (Shearer, 1986). Let $X=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ be a random variable and let $\mathscr{A}=\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in \mathscr{I}}$ be a collection of subsets of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ such that each integer $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ belongs to at least $k$ sets of $\mathscr{A}$. Then

$$
H(X) \leq \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in \mathscr{I}} H\left(X_{A_{i}}\right)
$$

Proof. By the chain rule, $H(X)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} H\left(X_{i} \mid X_{j}: j<i\right)$. On the other hand, for each $i \in \mathscr{I}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
H\left(X_{A_{i}}\right) & =\sum_{j \in A_{i}} H\left(X_{j} \mid X_{s}: s<j \text { and } s \in A_{i}\right) \\
& \geq \sum_{j \in A_{i}} H\left(X_{j} \mid X_{s}: s<j\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

by Proposition $1(i v)$. Summing the last inequality over all indices $i \in \mathscr{I}$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \in \mathscr{I}} H\left(X_{A_{i}}\right) & \geq \sum_{i \in \mathscr{I}} \sum_{j \in A_{i}} H\left(X_{j} \mid X_{s}: s<j\right) \\
& \geq k \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{n} H\left(X_{j} \mid X_{s}: s<j\right) \\
& =k \cdot H(X)
\end{aligned}
$$

The following geometric proposition illustrates the use of entropy to obtain bounds via Shearer's lemma.

Proposition 3. Let $\mathscr{P}_{1}, \mathscr{P}_{2}$ and $\mathscr{P}_{3}$ be the hyperplanes $(x, y),(x, z)$ and $(y, z)$ of $\mathbf{R}^{3}$, respectively. If $n$ points of $\mathbf{R}^{3}$ are have exactly $n_{i}$ different projections on $\mathscr{P}_{i}$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, then

$$
n_{1} n_{2} n_{3} \geq n^{2}
$$

Proof. Let us choose uniformly at random a point among the $n$ points given. We consider the random variable $P=(X, Y, Z)$ corresponding to the three coordinates of the chosen point. By Proposition $1(i)$, it holds that $H(P)=\log n$. Let us consider the sets $A_{i}:=\{i, i+1\}$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$ and the set $A_{3}:=\{1,3\}$. Every index is in two of the three sets, thus Shearer's lemma implies that

$$
2 \cdot H(P) \leq H(X)+H(Y)+H(Z) \leq \log n_{1}+\log n_{2}+\log n_{3} .
$$

Therefore, $2 \cdot \log n \leq \log n_{1}+\log n_{2}+\log n_{3}$, i.e. $n^{2} \leq n_{1} n_{2} n_{3}$.

## 2 Radhakrishnan's proof of Brègman's theorem

Let us state Brègman's theorem in terms of the number of perfect matchings in a bipartite graph.

Theorem 4 (Brègman, 1973). Let $G$ be a bipartite graph with parts $A$ and $B$. The number of perfect matchings of $G$ is at most

$$
\prod_{v \in A}(\operatorname{deg}(v)!)^{1 / \operatorname{deg}(v)}
$$

Proof. Let $G$ be a bipartite graph with parts $A$ and $B$. We define $\mathscr{M}$ to be the set of all the perfect matchings of $G$, and we suppose that $\mathscr{M} \neq \emptyset$, otherwise the statement of the theorem holds trivially. In particular, $|A|=|B|$; let us set $n:=|A|$. For a perfect matching $M$ and a vertex $a \in A$, we let $M(a)$ be the vertex of $B$ that is adjacent to $a$ in $M$. Further, for every vertex $b \in B$, we let $M^{-1}(b)$ be the vertex of $A$ that is adjacent to $b$ in $M$.

We choose a perfect matching $M \in \mathscr{M}$ uniformly at random. Thus, $\log |\mathscr{M}|=$ $H(M)$. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be an ordering of the vertices of $A$. Then, by the chain rule (2),

$$
\begin{align*}
H(M)= & H\left(M\left(a_{1}\right)\right)+H\left(M\left(a_{2}\right) \mid M\left(a_{1}\right)\right) \\
& +\ldots+H\left(M\left(a_{n}\right) \mid M\left(a_{1}\right), M\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{n-1}\right)\right) . \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that this equation yields the trivial upper bound $|\mathscr{M}| \leq \prod_{a \in A} \operatorname{deg}(a)$. Indeed, the conditional entropy of $M\left(a_{i}\right)$ given $M\left(a_{1}\right), M\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{i-1}\right)$ is at most the entropy of $M\left(a_{i}\right)$ (by Proposition $1(i v)$ ), which in turn is at most $\log \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)$ (by Proposition $1(i)$ ). We would obtain a better upper bound on $|\mathscr{M}|$ if we manage to infer a better upper bound on $H\left(M\left(a_{i}\right) \mid M\left(a_{1}\right), M\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right)$.

To this end, note that the range of $M\left(a_{i}\right)$ given $M\left(a_{j}\right)$ for $j \in\{1,2, \ldots, i-1\}$ is actually contained in $N_{G}\left(a_{i}\right) \backslash\left\{M\left(a_{1}\right), M\left(a_{2}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{i-1}\right)\right\}$. So, it may well be smaller than $\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)$. Moreover, its size depends on the ordering chosen for the vertices of $A$.

To exploit this remark, let $\sigma$ be a permutation of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, chosen uniformly at random. For each index $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, we set

$$
R_{i}(M, \sigma):=\left|N_{G}\left(a_{i}\right) \backslash\left\{M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma(k-1)}\right)\right\}\right|
$$

with $k:=\sigma^{-1}(i)$. Observe that, for every integer $j \in\left\{1,2, \ldots, \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)\right\}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{M, \sigma}{\operatorname{Pr}_{r}}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right)=\frac{1}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, for any fixed matching $M$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{\sigma}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j \mid M\right)=\frac{1}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $\sigma$ is chosen uniformly at random. In fact, (5) can also be proved, for instance, by counting directly: the number of permutations such that $\alpha=\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)-j$ vertices of $M^{-1}\left(N_{G}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)$ occur before $a_{i}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{k=1}^{n}\binom{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)-1}{\alpha}\binom{n-\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)}{k-\alpha-1}(k-1)!(n-k)! \\
= & \left(\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)-1\right)!\left(n-\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)!\cdot \sum_{k=1}^{n}\binom{k-1}{\alpha}\binom{n-k}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)-\alpha-1} \\
= & \frac{n!}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right) \cdot\binom{n}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)}} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{k}{\alpha}\binom{n-1-k}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)-\alpha-1} \\
= & \frac{n!}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last line follows from the following classical binomial identity [2, p. 129].

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{k}{j}\binom{n-1-k}{d-j-1}=\binom{n}{d}
$$

Now, (5) implies (4) by averaging over all $M \in \mathscr{M}$, i.e.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{M, \sigma}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right)=\sum_{M} \operatorname{Pr}(M) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}_{\sigma}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j \mid M\right)=\frac{1}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)}
$$

On the other hand, applying Proposition $1(i)$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left(M\left(a_{i}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma\left(\sigma^{-1}(i)-1\right)}\right)\right) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \operatorname{Pr}_{M}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right) \cdot \log j \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, (3) translates to

$$
\begin{align*}
H(M)= & H\left(M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right)\right)+H\left(M\left(a_{\sigma(2)}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right)\right) \\
& +\ldots+H\left(M\left(a_{\sigma(n)}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), M\left(a_{\sigma(2)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma(n-1)}\right)\right) . \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

Summing (7) over all the permutations $\sigma$, we obtain

$$
n!H(M)=\sum_{\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H\left(M\left(a_{\sigma(i)}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma(i-1)}\right)\right),
$$

i.e.

$$
H(M)=\underset{\sigma}{\mathbf{E}}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} H\left(M\left(a_{\sigma(i)}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma(i-1)}\right)\right)\right]
$$

We write the terms of the sum in a different order, and use the linearity of Expectation.

$$
\begin{align*}
H(M) & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \underset{\sigma}{\mathbf{E}}\left[H\left(M\left(a_{i}\right) \mid M\left(a_{\sigma(1)}\right), \ldots, M\left(a_{\sigma\left(\sigma^{-1}(i)-1\right)}\right)\right)\right] \\
& \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underset{\sigma}{\mathbf{E}}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \underset{M}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right) \cdot \log j\right]  \tag{6}\\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \sum_{\sigma} \operatorname{Pr}(\sigma) \underset{M}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right) \cdot \log j .
\end{align*}
$$

Observe that

$$
\sum_{\sigma} \operatorname{Pr}(\sigma) \operatorname{Pr}_{M}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right)=\operatorname{Pr}_{M, \sigma}\left(R_{i}(M, \sigma)=j\right) .
$$

Thus, (4) implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(M) & \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \frac{1}{\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)} \cdot \log j \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)!\right)^{1 / \operatorname{deg}\left(a_{i}\right)},
\end{aligned}
$$

which concludes the proof.
We conclude by explicitly stating some key points when trying to bound the size of a set $\mathscr{M}$ using entropy. We choose an element $M$ of $\mathscr{M}$ uniformly at random, so that $H(M)=\log |\mathscr{M}|$. The goal is then to bound the entropy. To this end, the chain rule and Shearer's lemma are crucial tools.

## References

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