

Problem 1

Prove that if  $(E, D)$  is an encryption scheme with message size  $m$  and key size  $n < m$ , then there exist two messages  $x, x' \in \{0, 1\}^m$  such that  $\mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x)$  is not the same distribution as  $\mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x')$ . (In other words, perfect secrecy is only possible if the key length is at least the message length.)

*Proof.* Suppose, to the contrary, that  $\mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x) = \mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x')$  for all plaintexts  $x, x'$ . Let  $y$  be some ciphertext in the range of  $E$ . For every plaintext  $x$ , there is some key  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$  such that  $E_k(x) = y$ . Now,  $E_k(x) = E_k(x')$  implies that  $x = x'$ . Hence, the available  $2^n$  keys are insufficient to map all  $2^m$  distinct plaintexts to the ciphertext  $y$ . Therefore, it must be that there exist two messages  $x, x' \in \{0, 1\}^m$  such that  $\mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x)$  is not the same distribution as  $\mathbf{E}_{U_n}(x')$ .  $\square$

Problem 3

Prove: If  $\{f_k\}_{k \in \{0,1\}^*}$  is a pseudorandom function family, then for every polynomial  $\ell(n)$ , the function  $G$  that maps  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$  to  $f_k(1), \dots, f_k(\ell(n))$  is a secure pseudorandom generator.

*Proof.* Suppose not. Then there is an evil polynomial time algorithm  $A$  so that for all  $\epsilon$  there exists  $n$  such that

$$|\Pr[A(G(U_n)) = 1] - \Pr[A(U_{n\ell(n)}) = 1]| \geq \epsilon(n)$$

We create the oracle equipped polynomial time algorithm  $B^{f_k}$  which computes  $f_k(1), \dots, f_k(\ell(n))$  then shoves it into  $A$ .  $A(G(k)) = B^{f_k}(1^n)$ , so

$$\Pr_{k \in_R \{0,1\}^n} [A(G(k)) = 1] = \Pr_{k \in_R \{0,1\}^n} [B^{f_k}(1^n) = 1]$$

Also if  $g$  is randomly selected then the distribution of  $g(1), \dots, g(\ell(n))$  is uniform. Thus,

$$\Pr_{g \in_R F_n} [B^g(1^n) = 1] = \Pr_{k \in_R \{0,1\}^{n\ell(n)}} [A(k) = 1]$$

Finally,

$$\left| \Pr_{k \in_R \{0,1\}^n} [B^{f_k}(1^n) = 1] - \Pr_{g \in_R F_n} [B^g(1^n) = 1] \right| = |\Pr[A(G(U_n)) = 1] - \Pr[A(U_{n\ell(n)}) = 1]| \geq \epsilon(n)$$

So  $\{f_k\}$  is not a pseudorandom function family, causing a contradiction.  $\square$

Problem 4

Show that if  $f$  is a one-way permutation then so is

$$f^{(k)} = \underbrace{f \circ f \circ \dots \circ f}_k$$

where  $k = n^c$  for some fixed  $c > 0$ . Furthermore, show that the assumption that  $f$  is a permutation is necessary.

*Proof.* Assume  $f^{(k)}$  is not a one-way function. Then let  $A$  be a polynomial time algorithm so that for all  $\epsilon$ , there exists an  $n$  such that

$$\Pr_{\substack{x \in_R \{0,1\}^n \\ y=f^{(k)}(x)}} [f^{(k)}(A(y)) = y] \geq \epsilon(n)$$

Since  $f$  and  $f^{(k)}$  are both permutations,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\substack{x \in_R \{0,1\}^n \\ y=f^{(k)}(x)}} [f^{(k)}(A(y)) = y] &= \Pr_{y \in_R \{0,1\}^n} [f^{(k)}(A(y)) = y] \\ &= \Pr_{\substack{x \in_R \{0,1\}^n \\ y=f(x)}} [f^{(k)}(A(y)) = y] \\ &= \Pr_{\substack{x \in_R \{0,1\}^n \\ y=f(x)}} [f(f^{(k-1)}(A(y))) = y] \end{aligned}$$

$f^{(k-1)}(A(y))$  can be computed in polynomial time. First compute  $A(y)$ , which is polynomial time, then apply  $f$   $k-1$  times, which takes  $n^c$  times the running time of  $f$ , which is polynomial time. This contradicts that  $f$  is a one-way function.

Furthermore, if a one-way function exists, then a one-way function exists whose outputs and inputs are the same length, specifically  $f_U$ . Let  $g$  be the function that computes  $f_U$ , then outputs a string of length  $2n$ , consisting of  $f_U(x)$  listed twice. Then the length of the output of  $f^{(k)}$  is  $2^{n^c}n$ , which is not printable in polynomial time, much less computable in polynomial time.  $\square$

Problem 5

Suppose  $x \in \{0,1\}^m$  is an unknown vector. Let  $r_1, \dots, r_m \in \{0,1\}^m$  be randomly chosen, and  $x \odot r_i$  revealed to us for all  $i \in [m]$ . Describe a deterministic algorithm to reconstruct  $x$  from this information, and show that the probability (over the choice of the  $r_i$ 's) is at least  $1/4$  that it works. (This shows that if  $r_1, \dots, r_m$  are fully independent then we cannot guess  $x \odot r_1, \dots, x \odot r_m$  with probability much better than  $2^{-m}$ , and hence it was crucial to move to a merely pairwise independent collection of vectors in the proof of the Goldreich-Levin Theorem).

*Proof.* If  $r_1, \dots, r_m$  are linearly independent vectors then for each  $i \in [m]$ :

- Determine the linear combination  $\sum_{j=1}^m c_j r_j$  which gives the vector  $e_i$  with a 1 in the  $i$ th position and 0 elsewhere.
- Compute the  $i$ th coordinate of  $x$  as follows:

$$x_i = x \odot e_i = x \odot \sum_{j=1}^m c_j r_j = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j (x \odot r_j)$$

Now the probability that  $r_1, \dots, r_m$  are linearly independent is:

$$\prod_{i=1}^m \left( \frac{2^i - 1}{2^i} \right) \geq \frac{1}{2} \prod_{i=2}^m \frac{2^{i-1} + 1}{2^{i-1} + 2} = \frac{2^{m-1} + 1}{8} \prod_{i=2}^{m-1} \frac{2^{i-1} + 1}{2^i + 2} = \frac{2^{m-1} + 1}{2^{m+1}} > \frac{1}{4}$$

$\square$

Problem 6

Let  $V_n$  denote the binomial distribution on  $n$  points with probability  $1/3$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{P}_{V_n}(w) = \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{\text{wt}(w)} \left( \frac{2}{3} \right)^{n - \text{wt}(w)}$$

for each  $w \in \{0,1\}^n$ , where  $\text{wt}(w)$  denotes the number of 1's in  $w$ . Call a polynomial-time computable function  $G : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  of stretch  $\ell(n)$  a “secure biased pseudorandom generator” if, for every probabilistic polynomial time algorithm  $A$ , there exists a negligible function  $\epsilon : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0,1]$  such that, for all  $n$ ,

$$|\mathbf{P}[A(G(U_n)) = 1] - \mathbf{P}[A(V_{\ell(n)}) = 1]| < \epsilon(n).$$

Show that, if a secure biased pseudorandom generator exists, then a secure pseudorandom generator of stretch  $\alpha \ell(n)$  exists for some fixed  $\alpha > 0$ . (Hint: You may want to use Chernoff-type bounds: see Corollary A.15 in Arora-Barak.) In particular, provide a *deterministic* polynomial-time algorithm which transforms the output of a secure biased pseudorandom generator into that of a secure pseudorandom generator.

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha = 7/18$  (We'll use it later). To transform the biased pseudorandom number  $x$  into a pseudorandom number  $y$ , we proceed along  $x$  taking two digits at a time. If we find a 00, then the next digit of  $y$  is 0, if we find a 01 or 10, then the next digit of  $y$  is 1, otherwise do nothing. We continue until either we have  $\alpha \ell(n)$  bits, in which case we output the bits we've collected, or we get to the end of  $x$ , in which case we output all zeros. Call this pseudorandom generator  $g$ . We need to show that this a secure pseudorandom generator.

Suppose not. Then there is an algorithm  $A$  that ruins its day. Let's take an arbitrary negligible  $\epsilon$ .  $\epsilon(n) + 2e^{n/72}$  is also a negligible function so there exists an  $n$  such that

$$\Pr[A(g(U_n)) = 1] - \Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] \geq \epsilon(n) + 2e^{n/72}$$

Build algorithm  $B$  to be the algorithm that takes a biased pseudorandom number, uses our method to compute a pseudorandom number  $y$ , then return  $A(y)$ . Then  $B(G(x)) = A(g(x))$ , so  $\Pr[A(g(U_n)) = 1] = \Pr[B(G(U_n)) = 1]$ .

Now  $\Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1]$  depends on  $A(0^{\alpha l(n)})$ . Let  $E$  be the event that the input for  $B$  has too many 11 pairs, and so our conversion process returns  $0^{\alpha l(n)}$ . Then if  $A(0^{\alpha l(n)}) = 0$

$$\Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1] = (1 - \Pr(E))\Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1]$$

otherwise  $A(0^{\alpha l(n)}) = 1$  and

$$\Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1] = (1 - \Pr(E))\Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] + \Pr(E)$$

Either way

$$\Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] - \Pr(E) \leq \Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1] \leq \Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] + \Pr(E)$$

Now the expectation for the number of 11 pairs is  $l(n)/18$ . And I rigged  $\alpha$  (this is where we use  $7/18$ ) so that event  $E$  is having more than  $l(n)/9$  pairs. So we use Chernoff bounds to estimate  $\Pr(E)$  with  $c = 1$  and  $\mu = l(n)/18$ .

$$\Pr(E) \leq 2e^{n/72}$$

Hence

$$\Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] - 2e^{n/72} \leq \Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1] \leq \Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1] + 2e^{n/72}$$

Now to drive it home,

$$\begin{aligned} |\Pr[B(G(U_n)) = 1] - \Pr[B(V_{l(n)}) = 1]| &\geq |\Pr[A(g(U_n)) = 1] - \Pr[A(U_{\alpha l(n)}) = 1]| - 2e^{n/72} \\ &\geq \epsilon(n) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $G$  is not a secure biased pseudorandom generator, which is a contradiction.  $\square$

1. Let  $S \subset \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$  be such that  $S = -S$ , where  $p$  is prime. Define the "circulant graph"  $G_S$  by  $V(G_S) = \mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $\{x, y\} \in E(G_S)$  iff there exists  $s \in S$  so that  $x + s = y$ . Define the  $k^{\text{th}}$  discrete Fourier coefficient of a function  $f : \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , by

$$\hat{f}(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} e^{2\pi i j k / p} f(j).$$

Show that

$$\lambda(G) = \frac{\sqrt{p}}{|S|} \max_{k \neq 0} |\hat{\chi}_S(k)|,$$

where  $\chi_S$  is the characteristic function of  $S$ . Hint: First prove that  $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}_p}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}_p}$ , where  $f_k(j) = \exp(2\pi i j k / p) / \sqrt{p}$ .

*Proof.*

$$\langle f_k, f_k \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \frac{e^{2\pi i j k / p}}{\sqrt{p}} \frac{e^{-2\pi i j k / p}}{\sqrt{p}} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \frac{1}{p} = 1$$

Let  $k \neq l$

$$\langle f_k, f_l \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \frac{e^{2\pi i j k / p}}{\sqrt{p}} \frac{e^{-2\pi i j l / p}}{\sqrt{p}} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \frac{e^{2\pi i j (k-l) / p}}{p} = 0$$

So  $\{f_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}_p}$  is an orthonormal basis.

Let  $A$  be the random walk matrix of  $G_S$ .  $A_{l,j} = \frac{\chi_S(l-j)}{|S|}$ . Then the  $j$ th entry of  $Af_k$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \chi_S(l-j) \frac{e^{2\pi i l k/p}}{\sqrt{p}} &= \frac{e^{2\pi i j k/p}}{\sqrt{p}} \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{l=0}^{p-1} \chi_S(l-j) e^{2\pi i (l-j)k/p} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{p}}{|S|} \hat{\chi}_S(k) \frac{e^{2\pi i j k/p}}{\sqrt{p}} \end{aligned}$$

So  $f_k$  is an eigenvector with the eigenvalue  $\frac{\sqrt{p}}{|S|} \hat{\chi}_S(k)$ . Since  $\lambda(G)$  is the second largest eigenvalue, with the largest occurring with  $f_0$ , then taking the maximum of the eigenvalues of  $f_1, \dots, f_{p-1}$  gives us  $\lambda(G)$ . Note that since  $f_k$  is a basis of eigenvectors, we are assured of getting all of the eigenvalues.  $\square$

2. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be symmetric stochastic matrices. Prove that  $\lambda(A+B) \leq \lambda(A) + \lambda(B)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{w}$  be the vector that maximizes  $\|(A+B)\mathbf{v}\|_2$  over all vectors  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{1}^\perp$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(A+B) &= \|(A+B)\mathbf{w}\|_2 \\ &= \|A\mathbf{w} + B\mathbf{w}\|_2 \\ &\leq \|A\mathbf{w}\|_2 + \|B\mathbf{w}\|_2 \text{ (by the triangle inequality)} \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that  $\|A\mathbf{w}\|_2 \leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{1}^\perp} \|A\mathbf{v}\|_2$  and  $\|B\mathbf{w}\|_2 \leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{1}^\perp} \|B\mathbf{v}\|_2$ , hence

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(A+B) &\leq \|A\mathbf{w}\|_2 + \|B\mathbf{w}\|_2 \\ &\leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{1}^\perp} \|A\mathbf{v}\|_2 + \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{1}^\perp} \|B\mathbf{v}\|_2 \\ &= \lambda(A) + \lambda(B) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

3. Prove that, for every  $n$ -vertex  $d$ -regular graph, there is some subset  $S$  of  $n/2$  vertices so that  $|E(S, \bar{S})| \leq dn/4 + O(1)$ . Conclude that no  $(n, d, \rho)$ -edge expander family exists if  $\rho > 1/2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S$  be a random subset of  $\frac{n}{2}$  vertices. The probability of an edge belonging to  $E(S, \bar{S})$  is the same as the probability that its endpoints belong to different subsets (with respect to  $S$  and  $\bar{S}$ ). Now, the presence of loops in  $G$  can only lower this probability, making the desired upper bound easier to achieve. Assume, then, that  $G$  does not contain loops. Fix a vertex  $v$  in  $G$ . Each of its  $d$  neighbors has probability  $\frac{\frac{n}{2}}{n-1} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2(n-1)}$  of belonging to the opposite subset (since there are no loops, we know that  $v$  is not a neighbor of itself, hence the denominator of  $n-1$ ). We see that  $v$  contributes an average of  $d(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2(n-1)})$  edges to  $E(S, \bar{S})$ . Taken over all vertices of  $G$  (with a factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$  to account for the double-counting of edges), the expected value of  $|E(S, \bar{S})|$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n}{2} \cdot d \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2(n-1)} \right) &= \frac{nd}{4} + \frac{nd}{4(n-1)} \\ &= \frac{nd}{4} + O(1) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, there must be some subset  $S$  such that  $|E(S, \bar{S})| \leq \frac{nd}{4} + O(1)$ .

Now, suppose  $\rho > \frac{1}{2}$ . A family of graphs  $\{G_n\}$  is an  $(n, d, \rho)$ -edge expander family if, for each  $G_n$ , any subset  $S$  of at most  $\frac{n}{2}$  vertices has the property that  $|E(S, \bar{S})| \geq \rho d |S|$ . If we let  $|S| = \frac{n}{2}$  and use the given  $\rho$ , we require that  $|E(S, \bar{S})| > \frac{nd}{4}$ . By the first part of the problem, we know that, for large  $n$ , we can find some  $S$  that breaks this bound. Hence, there is no edge expander family for  $\rho > \frac{1}{2}$ .  $\square$

4. Let  $G$  be an  $(n, D, \rho)$ -edge expander and  $G'$  be a  $(D, d, \rho')$ -edge expander, for  $\rho, \rho' > 0$ . Prove that  $G \circledast G'$  is a  $(nD, 2d, \rho^2 \rho' / 80)$ -edge expander.

*Proof.* Let  $H = G \circledast G'$  and let  $S$  be a subset of  $V(H)$  of at most  $\frac{nD}{2}$  vertices. We can view  $H$  as being made up of  $n$   $D$ -vertex clusters, and so we can partition the vertices in  $S$  based on the cluster to which they belong. To establish the claim, we must show that there are  $\frac{1}{80} \rho^2 \rho' \cdot 2d|S|$  edges leaving  $S$ .

Define  $S_i$  to be the set of vertices of  $S$  belonging to cluster  $i$ . We partition the indices  $1, \dots, n$  of the clusters into two sets  $I'$  and  $I''$  as follows: If  $|S_i| \leq (1 - \frac{1}{4}\rho)D$ , put  $i$  in  $I'$ . Otherwise, put  $i$  in  $I''$ . Finally, define  $S' = \bigcup_{i \in I'} S_i$  and  $S'' = \bigcup_{i \in I''} S_i$ . Observe that  $S_i \cup S_{i''} = S$ .

Case  $|S'| \geq \frac{1}{10}\rho|S|$

Since  $G'$  is a  $(D, d, \rho')$ -edge expander, there are at least  $\frac{1}{4}\rho\rho'd|S_i|$  edges leaving  $S_i$  within each cluster. Taken over all clusters, we see there are  $\frac{1}{4}\rho\rho'd|S'|$  edges leaving  $S' \subset S$ . Since  $|S'| \geq \frac{1}{10}\rho|S|$ , we conclude that there are at least  $\frac{1}{80}\rho^2\rho' \cdot 2d|S|$  edges leaving  $S$  in  $H$ .

Case  $|S'| \leq \frac{1}{10}\rho|S|$

We see immediately that  $|S''| > (1 - \frac{1}{10}\rho)|S|$ . For  $i \in I''$ ,  $|S_i| \geq (1 - \frac{1}{4}\rho)D$ , and so  $\frac{|S''|}{D} \leq |I''| \leq \frac{|S''|}{(1 - \frac{1}{4}\rho)D}$ . Furthermore, since  $|S''| \leq \frac{1}{2}nD$ , we see that  $|I''| \leq \frac{2}{3}n$ . Since  $G$  is an  $(n, D, \rho)$ -edge expander, we can find a set of edges  $M$  with  $|M| \geq \frac{1}{2}\rho D|I''|$  between the vertices of  $I'$  and  $I''$  (that is, the sets  $X_i$  with  $i$  belonging to  $I'$  and  $I''$ , respectively). Now, there are  $d|M| \geq \frac{1}{2}d\rho D|I''|$  edges in  $H$  connecting vertices in the cycles whose index belongs to  $I'$  with vertices in the clusters whose index belongs to  $I''$ . For  $i \in I''$ ,  $|S_i| \geq (1 - \frac{1}{4}\rho)D$ . Hence, at most  $\frac{1}{4}d\rho D|I''|$  of the  $d|M|$  edges connect a vertex not in  $S_i$  with a vertex in one of the clusters whose index belongs to  $I'$ . So, for  $i \in I''$ , at least  $\frac{1}{4}d\rho D|I''|$  edges connect vertices of the  $S_i$  with vertices of the aforementioned clusters. The number of edges connecting the remaining clusters (having  $i \in I''$ ) with  $S'$  is at most  $d|S'|$ . Since  $|S'| \leq \frac{1}{10}\rho|S| \leq \frac{1}{6}\rho D|I''|$ , there are at most  $\frac{1}{6}d\rho D|I''|$  corresponding edges. Hence, at least  $\frac{1}{12}d\rho D|I''|$  edges connect vertices of the  $S_i$  ( $i \in I''$ ) with the complement of  $S_j$  ( $j \in I'$ ) inside the cycles with index  $j$ . Since  $|I''| \geq \frac{|S''|}{D}$  and  $|S''| \geq \frac{1}{2}|S|$ , we conclude that there are at least  $\frac{1}{48}\rho \cdot 2d|S|$  edges leaving  $S$ , proving the claim.  $\square$

5. A (countably) infinite locally finite graph  $G$  is said to be an  $f$ -expander, for  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ , if

$$\min_{S: n \leq |S| < \infty} |E(S, \bar{S})| = \Theta(f(n))$$

Give an example of a 1-expander, an  $n^{2/3}$ -expander and an  $n$ -expander. (Of course, you need to provide proofs that they work.)

**Claim.** Define  $P$  to be the path beginning at a root  $r$  and extending infinitely in one direction.  $P$  is a 1-expander.

*Proof.* Since the graph is infinite and connected,  $|E(S, \bar{S})| \geq 1$  for any  $S$ . Let  $|S| = n$ . If we construct  $S$  by selecting the  $n$  vertices closest to  $r$  (including  $r$  itself), we see that  $|E(S, \bar{S})| = 1 = \Theta(1)$ . Hence,  $P$  is a 1-expander.  $\square$

**Claim.** Define  $T$  to be an infinite binary tree with root  $r$ .  $T$  is an  $n$ -expander.

*Proof.* Suppose first that the graph induced by  $S$  (call it  $T'$ ) is disconnected. Define the e-degree of a vertex (subgraph) to be the number of edges that vertex (subgraph) contributes to  $E(S, \bar{S})$ . By translating this lowest component of  $T'$  upward so that it becomes connected with another component, we can only reduce the e-degree of both components. Hence, the  $S$  which gives the minimum value of  $|E(S, \bar{S})|$  must induce a connected subgraph.

Observe next that if we translate  $T'$  so that it is rooted at  $r$  (that is, we rechoose  $S$  so that we have a new tree that is isomorphic to  $T'$  but rooted at  $r$ ), then  $|E(S, \overline{S})|$  can only be reduced. This is because the number of edges in  $E(S, \overline{S})$  that extend *below* the tree remains unchanged, while some edges in  $E(S, \overline{S})$  that extended *above* the tree have been removed during the translation. Hence, the overall e-degree of  $T'$  is reduced. We will assume, then, that  $T'$  is rooted at  $r$ .

Now, let  $|S| = n$ . We observe next that  $|E(S, \overline{S})| = n + 1$ . To see this, build  $T'$  by first choosing  $r$  and successively appending edges as prescribed by  $S$ . When we have only  $r$ ,  $|E(S, \overline{S})| = 2$ . At the next stage, we append an leaf to  $r$ . This decreases the e-degree of  $r$  by 1, but the leaf itself has e-degree of 2, resulting in a net gain of one edge in  $E(S, \overline{S})$ . Continuing in this way, we see that  $|E(S, \overline{S})| = n + 1 = \Theta(n)$ .  $\square$

**Claim.** Define  $T$  to be the infinite three-dimensional lattice.  $T$  is an  $n^{\frac{2}{3}}$ -expander.

*Proof.* The minimization of  $|E(S, \overline{S})|$  is equivalent to the minimization of the “surface area” (i.e. the number of vertices of  $S$  exposed to vertices of  $\overline{S}$ ), which occurs when the graph induced by  $S$  forms a cube. Let  $|S| = n$  with  $n = k^3$ . The number of vertices on the surface is around  $6k^2 = 6n^{\frac{2}{3}} = \Theta(n^{\frac{2}{3}})$ .  $\square$

1. Show directly that  $P_1(s) \Rightarrow P_1(t)$  for all  $t \leq s$ .

*Proof.* Given  $G$ , let  $H_s$  be a subgraph of  $G$  on  $s$  vertices such that  $\#(H_s \sqsubset G) = n^s 2^{-\binom{s}{2}} (1 + o(1))$ . Let  $H_{s-1}$  be a graph on  $s - 1$  vertices. Each embedding of  $H_{s-1}$  can be extended to  $n$  embeddings of  $s$ -vertex graphs by adding one of the  $n$  vertices as the  $s^{\text{th}}$  vertex. We count these extended embeddings and divide by  $n$ .

Each embedding is a copy of our original graph plus an additional vertex. There are  $2^{s-1}$  such graphs, each embedded  $n^s 2^{-\binom{s}{2}} (1 + o(1))$  times. So

$$\begin{aligned} \#(H_{s-1} \sqsubset G) &= \frac{2^{s-1}}{n} \cdot \#(H_s \sqsubset G) \\ &= \frac{2^{s-1}}{n} (n^s 2^{-\binom{s}{2}} (1 + o(1))) \\ &= n^{s-1} 2^{-\binom{s-1}{2}} (1 + o(1)). \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

2. Show that, for a sequence of  $G$ 's with  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$P_1(3) \not\Rightarrow P_1(4).$$

*Proof.* Let  $G_n$  be comprised of two  $K_n$  and one  $K_{n,n}$  connected in the following way:

- there are no edges between the  $K_n$
- between the  $K_{n,n}$  and each  $K_n$ , every possible edge occurs with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$

To see that  $G_n$  satisfies  $P_1(3)$ , observe first that it suffices to count only copies of  $K_3$  and  $P^1$  (here, we use  $P^j$  to denote a path of length  $j$  to distinguish from the property names), since  $G_n$  is self-complementary. Hence, if the number of  $K_3$  is correct, then the number of  $\overline{K_3}$  is correct. Similarly, if the number of  $P^1$  is correct, then the number of  $\overline{P^1} = P^2$  is correct.

We have the following cases for the  $K_3$ .

If all three vertices belong to a  $K_n$ , then there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n = 2n^3$  copies of  $K_3$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the vertices belong to and  $n$  choices for each vertex).

If exactly two vertices belong to a  $K_n$ , then there are  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot 2n \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 3n^3$  copies of  $K_3$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the two vertices belong to, 3 choices for which vertex of the  $K_3$  belongs to the  $K_{n,n}$ ,  $n$  possible choices for each of the two vertices within the  $K_n$ , and  $2n$  choices for the vertex in the  $K_{n,n}$  having a  $\frac{1}{4}$  probability of successfully linking up with the vertices in the  $K_n$ ).

If exactly one vertex belongs to a  $K_n$ , then there are  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 3n^3$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the two vertices belong to, 3 choices for which vertex of the  $K_3$  belongs to the  $K_n$ ,  $n$  possible choices for the vertex within the  $K_n$ ,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the left partite set of the  $K_{n,n}$ ,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the right partite set of the  $K_{n,n}$ , 2 ways to flip the partite sets, and a  $\frac{1}{4}$  probability of successfully linking up with the vertex in the  $K_n$ ).

In total, we determine there are  $8n^3$  copies of  $K_3$  in  $G_n$  (which has  $4n$  vertices), as desired.

Next, we consider the following cases for the  $P^1$ . For convenience, we view  $P^1$  as a single edge and an isolated vertex.

If the edge lies in a  $K_n$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot (n + \frac{2n}{4}) = 3n^3$  copies of  $P^1$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the edge belongs to,  $n$  choices for each of the two vertices comprising the edge, and  $n + \frac{2n}{4}$  choices for the isolated vertex representing placement in the other  $K_n$  or the  $\frac{1}{4}$  chance of successful placement in the  $K_{n,n}$ , respectively).

If the edge lies in the  $K_{n,n}$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = n^3$  copies of  $P^1$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the isolated vertex belongs to,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the left partite set of the  $K_{n,n}$ ,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the right partite set of the  $K_{n,n}$ , 2 ways to flip the partite sets, and a  $\frac{1}{4}$  probability of keeping the isolated vertex isolated).

If the edge lies between a  $K_n$  and the  $K_{n,n}$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot 2n \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{2}) = 4n^3$  copies of  $P^1$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the isolated vertex belongs to,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the  $K_n$ ,  $2n$  choices for the vertex in the  $K_{n,n}$ , 2 permutations of the labels of these vertices, a  $\frac{1}{2}$  chance of successfully linking these vertices, and finally an  $\frac{n}{2}$  chance of placing the isolated vertex in the same partite set of the  $K_{n,n}$  or a  $\frac{n}{2}$  chance of placing the isolated vertex in the other  $K_n$ ).

In total, we determine there are  $8n^3$  copies of  $P^1$  in  $G_n$  (which has  $4n$  vertices), as desired.

Next, we demonstrate that there are too many (more than  $4n^4$ ) copies of  $K_4$  in  $G_n$ , and so conclude that  $G_n$  does not satisfy  $P_1(4)$ . We again consider cases.

If all four vertices lie in a  $K_n$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n = 2n^4$  copies of  $K_4$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the vertices belong to, and  $n$  choices for each of the vertices within the  $K_n$ ).

If exactly three of the vertices are in a  $K_n$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot 2n \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot 4 = 2n^4$  copies of  $K_4$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the vertices belong to,  $n$  choices for each of these three vertices,  $2n$  choices for the vertex in the  $K_{n,n}$ , and a  $\frac{1}{8}$  probability of successfully linking all the vertices, and 4 ways to permute the labels).

If exactly two of the vertices are in a  $K_n$ , there are  $2 \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot \frac{1}{16} \cdot \binom{4}{2} = \frac{3}{4}n^4$  copies of  $K_4$  (2 choices for which  $K_n$  the vertices belong to,  $n$  choices for each vertex within the  $K_n$ ,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the left partite set of  $K_{n,n}$ ,  $n$  choices for the vertex in the right partite set of  $K_{n,n}$ , a  $\frac{1}{16}$  chance of successfully linking the vertices, and  $\binom{4}{2}$  ways to permute the labels).

We have already accounted for more than  $4n^4$  copies of  $K_4$  in  $G_n$ . Hence,  $G_n$  does not satisfy  $P_1(4)$ .

Therefore,  $P_1(3) \not\Rightarrow P_1(4)$ .  $\square$

3. Show that there is a universal constant  $C$  so that for any collection of  $n$  line segments in the plane, there is some subset  $S$  of them with

$$\left| e(S) - \frac{|S|^2}{4} \right| \geq Cn^2.$$

where  $e(S)$  means the number of pairs of segments in  $S$  which cross one another.

*Proof.* Define the incidence matrix  $G$  where each vertex represents a line segment in the plane and two vertices are adjacent if and only if their corresponding line segments intersect. Observe that the negation of  $P_4$  implies the desired claim. Hence, it suffices to show that  $G$  is not quasirandom. We accomplish this by providing a graph that cannot occur as an induced subgraph of  $G$ , thereby violating  $P_1(s)$ .

Let  $H$  be a copy of  $K_5$  in which every edge has been subdivided. Consider the “original” vertices of  $H$  (that is, those vertices that were present before the subdivisions). None of these vertices are adjacent in  $H$ , and so represent line segments in the plane that are pairwise non-intersecting. Call this set of line segments  $A$ . Now, the vertices arising as a result of the subdivisions specify another set of line segments (call this set of line segments  $B$ ). The graph  $H$  specifies that each pair of line segments in  $A$  is intersected by a single line segment in  $B$  in a bijective manner and that all line segments in  $B$  are mutually non-intersecting. This is equivalent to drawing  $K_5$  in the plane without intersection, which is impossible. Therefore,  $H$  cannot be a subgraph of  $G$ , which violates  $P_1(15)$ , thus asserting the desired claim.  $\square$

4. Show that a random graph is quasirandom.

*Proof.* We proceed by demonstrating that the random graph satisfies  $P_5$ . We seek to employ Chebyshev’s Inequality,

$$\Pr(|X - E[X]| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

where our random variable  $X$  is the number of common neighbors. On an  $n$ -vertex graph, we take  $\mu = \frac{n-2}{4}$  as the expected number of common neighbors of some fixed vertices  $v$  and  $w$ . To determine the total variance, consider the variance at a single vertex  $u$ . Now,  $u$  can either be a common neighbor of  $v, w$  or it cannot, so  $X$  can take on only values 0 or 1. Hence, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E[X^2] - E[X]^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} - \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \end{aligned}$$

Summing over all possible  $u$ , we obtain a total variance of  $\frac{3}{16}(n-2)$ . Hence,  $\sigma = c\sqrt{n}$ , some constant  $c$ . Returning to Chebyshev, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(|X - E[X]| \geq k\sigma) &\leq \frac{1}{k^2} \\ \Pr\left(\left|X - \frac{n-2}{4}\right| \geq kc\sqrt{n}\right) &\leq \frac{1}{k^2} \\ \Pr\left(\left|X - \frac{n-2}{4}\right| = o(n)\right) &\geq \frac{k^2 - 1}{k^2} \end{aligned}$$

for all  $k = o(\sqrt{n})$ , as desired.  $\square$

5. Define the Paley Graph  $G_p$ , for  $p$  a prime congruent to 1 mod 4, by setting  $V(G_p) = \mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $\{x, y\} \in G_p$  iff  $x - y$  is a quadratic residue (i.e.,  $x - y = s^2$  for some  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ ). Show that  $G_p$  is quasirandom.

*Proof.* We count the number of common neighbors for any two vertices  $v, w \in G_p$ . In other words, we count the number of solutions to the equation

$$v - w = s + t,$$



where  $s$  and  $t$  are quadratic residues. Since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $-t$  is a quadratic residue whenever  $t$  is a quadratic residue. Hence, we can consider the equivalent equation

$$v - w = s - t.$$

Consider,

$$\begin{aligned} v - w &= (x + h)^2 - x^2 \\ v - w &= 2hx + h^2 \\ v - w - h^2 &= 2hx \\ (2h)^{-1}(v - w - h^2) &= x \end{aligned}$$

So long as  $h \neq 0$ , we get one solution for each  $h$  (not necessarily distinct).

If  $a$  is a solution to

$$(x + h)^2 - x^2 = v - w$$

then  $-a$  is a solution to

$$(x - h)^2 - x^2 = v - w,$$

so if we have  $a$ , we don't need  $-a$ . So, we throw out exactly half of our solutions.

If  $a$  is a solution to

$$(x + h)^2 - x^2 = v - w$$

then it is also a solution to

$$(x - 2a - h)^2 - x^2 = v - w.$$

So,  $a$  occurs at least twice in our list of solutions so long as  $h \neq -2a - h$ . Now,  $h = -2a - h$  implies  $a^2 = v - w$ , which happens only once. Furthermore, if  $a = 0$ , then  $x - 2a - h = x - h$ , and we have already thrown out either the solution to  $(x - h)^2 - x^2 = v - w$  or  $(x + h)^2 - x^2 = v - w$ . So, we throw out nearly half of our solutions. With  $p - 1$  possibilities for  $h$ , if  $v - w$  is not a quadratic residue, we have at most  $\frac{p-1}{4}$  distinct solutions. If  $v - w$  is a quadratic residue, we have at most  $\frac{p+3}{4}$  distinct solutions. This gives  $P_5$ , and so  $G_p$  is quasirandom.  $\square$

- Two  $n$ -sided dice with sides labeled 1 through  $n$  are rolled, resulting in the i.i.d. random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ . Let  $Z = X + Y$ . Compute  $H(X)$ ,  $H(X, Y)$ ,  $H(Z)$ ,  $H(X|Z)$ ,  $I(X; Y)$  and  $I(X; Y|Z)$ .

We compute the entropy of  $X$ , we compute directly.

$$\begin{aligned} H(X) &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X = i) \log(\mathbf{P}(X = i)) \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= \log(n) \end{aligned}$$

We compute the the joint entropy of  $X$  and  $Y$  directly.

$$\begin{aligned} H(X, Y) &= H(X) + H(Y | X) \\ &= H(X) + H(Y) && \text{(since } X \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent)} \\ &= 2 \log(n) \end{aligned}$$

To determine the entropy of  $Z = X + Y$ , observe that there are a total of  $n^2$  possible outcomes. There is no way to get  $Z = 1$ . For  $2 \leq k \leq n + 1$ , there are  $k - 1$  ways to achieve  $Z = k$  (for a given  $k$ , we have the results  $(1, k - 1)$ ,  $(2, k - 2)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $(k - 1, 1)$ ). For  $n + 2 \leq k \leq 2n - 1$ , we see by a similar argument that there are  $2n - (k - 1)$  ways. Observe that for sums other than  $n + 1$ , there is a kind of parity (both 2 and  $2n$  have 1 possibility, 3 and  $2n - 1$  have 2 possibilities, etc.). Combining this information, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
H(Z) &= - \sum_{i=2}^{2n} \mathbf{P}(Z = i) \log(\mathbf{P}(Z = i)) \\
&= -2 \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \mathbf{P}(Z = i) \log(\mathbf{P}(Z = i)) + \mathbf{P}(Z = n + 1) \log(\mathbf{P}(Z = n + 1)) \\
&= -2 \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \frac{i-1}{n^2} \log\left(\frac{i-1}{n^2}\right) + \frac{n}{n^2} \log\left(\frac{n}{n^2}\right) \\
&= -\frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \log\left(\frac{i}{n^2}\right) + \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= -\frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i (\log(i) - \log(n^2)) + \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= -\frac{2}{n^2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n i \log(i) - \sum_{i=1}^n i \log(n^2) \right) + \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= -\frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \log(i) + \frac{2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1) \log(n^2)}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= -\frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \log(i) + \frac{(2n+1) \log(n)}{n}
\end{aligned}$$

To determine the entropy of  $X$  given the value of  $Z$ , we employ a similar parity argument to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
H(X | Z) &= - \sum_{i=2}^{2n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X = j | Z = i) \log(\mathbf{P}(X = j | Z = i)) \right) \\
&= -2 \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \left( \frac{i-1}{n^2} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{i-1} \log\left(\frac{1}{i-1}\right) \right) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= -2 \sum_{i=2}^{n+1} \left( \frac{i-1}{n^2} \log\left(\frac{1}{i-1}\right) \right) + \frac{1}{n} \log\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\
&= \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \log(i) - \frac{1}{n} \log(n)
\end{aligned}$$

We compute the mutual information of  $X$  and  $Y$  directly.

$$\begin{aligned}
I(X; Y) &= H(X) - H(X | Y) \\
&= H(X) - H(X) && \text{(since } X \text{ and } Y \text{ independent)} \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

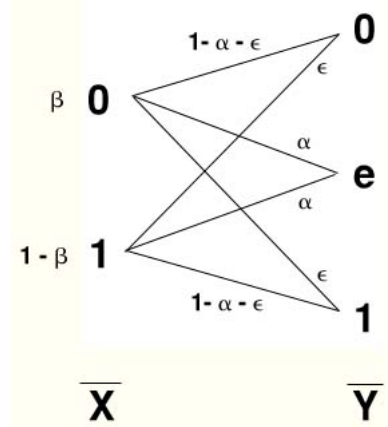
We compute the mutual information of  $X$  and  $Y$  given the value of  $Z$  directly.

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

since knowing both  $Y$  and  $Z$  completely determines  $X$ .

2. Consider a channel with binary inputs that has both erasures and errors. Let the probability of error be  $\epsilon$  and the probability of erasure be  $\alpha$ . (Hence, the probability of correct transmission is  $1 - \alpha - \epsilon$ .) What is the capacity of this channel?

We can visualize the channel in the following way



where  $e$  denotes erasure and we write the probability distribution of the input in terms of  $\beta$ . The capacity of the channel is given by

$$\max_{\mathbf{P}(X)} I(X; Y) = \max_{\mathbf{P}(X)} [H(Y) - H(Y | X)]$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} H(Y) &= - \sum_{y \in Y} \mathbf{P}(Y = y) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = y)) \\ &= -[\mathbf{P}(Y = 0) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 0)) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = e) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = e)) \\ &\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = 1) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 1))] \\ &= -[(\beta(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) + (1 - \beta)\epsilon) \log(\beta(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) + (1 - \beta)\epsilon) \\ &\quad + (\beta\alpha + (1 - \beta)\alpha) \log(\beta\alpha + (1 - \beta)\alpha) \\ &\quad + (\beta\epsilon + (1 - \beta)(1 - \alpha - \epsilon)) \log(\beta\epsilon + (1 - \beta)(1 - \alpha - \epsilon))] \\ &= -[(\beta(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) + (1 - \beta)\epsilon) \log(\beta(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) + (1 - \beta)\epsilon) \\ &\quad + \alpha \log(\alpha) \\ &\quad + (\beta\epsilon + (1 - \beta)(1 - \alpha - \epsilon)) \log(\beta\epsilon + (1 - \beta)(1 - \alpha - \epsilon))] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
H(Y | X) &= - \sum_{x \in X} \mathbf{P}(X = x) \left( \sum_{y \in Y} \mathbf{P}(Y = y | X = x) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = y | X = x)) \right) \\
&= - \mathbf{P}(X = 0) [\mathbf{P}(Y = 0 | X = 0) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 0 | X = 0)) \\
&\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = e | X = 0) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = e | X = 0)) \\
&\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = 1 | X = 0) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 1 | X = 0))] \\
&\quad - \mathbf{P}(X = 1) [\mathbf{P}(Y = 0 | X = 1) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 0 | X = 1)) \\
&\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = e | X = 1) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = e | X = 1)) \\
&\quad + \mathbf{P}(Y = 1 | X = 1) \log(\mathbf{P}(Y = 1 | X = 1))] \\
&= -\beta[(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) \log(1 - \alpha - \epsilon) \\
&\quad + \alpha \log(\alpha) \\
&\quad + \epsilon \log(\epsilon)] \\
&\quad - (1 - \beta)[\epsilon \log(\epsilon) \\
&\quad + \alpha \log(\alpha) \\
&\quad + (1 - \alpha - \epsilon) \log(1 - \alpha - \epsilon)] \\
&= -(\epsilon \log(\epsilon) + \alpha \log(\alpha) + (1 - \alpha - \epsilon) \log(1 - \alpha - \epsilon))
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $H(Y | X)$  does not depend on  $\beta$ , we need only to maximize  $H(Y)$ , which occurs at  $\beta = \frac{1}{2}$ . So

$$\begin{aligned}
\max_{\mathbf{P}(X)} I(X; Y) &= \max_{\mathbf{P}(X)} [H(Y) - H(Y | X)] \\
&= -(1 - \alpha) \log\left(\frac{1}{2}(1 - \alpha)\right) + \epsilon \log(\epsilon) + \alpha \log(\alpha) + (1 - \alpha - \epsilon) \log(1 - \alpha - \epsilon)
\end{aligned}$$

**3.** Let  $s_t(n)$  denote the number of graphs on  $n$  vertices not containing a  $K_t$ ,  $t \geq 3$ . Show that

$$1 - \frac{1}{t-1} + o(1) \leq \frac{\log s_t(n)}{\log N} \leq 1 - \epsilon_t,$$

where  $N = 2^{\binom{n}{2}}$  is the number of total graphs on  $n$  vertices and

$$\epsilon_t = \frac{1}{\binom{t}{2} 2^{\binom{t}{2}}}.$$

Hint: Shearer's Inequality.

*Proof.* Let  $Y$  be the random variable representing choosing a random graph on  $n$  vertices without a  $K_t$ . Let  $X_i$  represent the  $i$ th edge of that graph.

$$\log(S_t(n)) = H(Y) = H(X_1 \dots X_{\binom{n}{2}})$$

Let  $G_i$  be the set of possible edges in a  $t$ -vertex subgraph. This is a  $\binom{n-2}{t-2}$  covering of the edges. So by Shearer's inequality:

$$\begin{aligned}
H(X_1 \dots X_{\binom{n}{2}}) &\leq \frac{1}{\binom{n-2}{t-2}} \sum_{G_i} H(X_{G_i}) \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\binom{n-2}{t-2}} \sum_{G_i} \log(2^{\binom{t}{2}} - 1) \\
&= \frac{\binom{n}{t}}{\binom{n-2}{t-2}} \log(2^{\binom{t}{2}} - 1) \\
&= \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{\binom{t}{2}} \log(2^{\binom{t}{2}} - 1)
\end{aligned}$$

Now a little calculus tells us  $\log(2^{\binom{t}{2}} - 1) \leq \binom{t}{2} - \frac{1}{\ln(2)2^{\binom{t}{2}}}$ , since the derivative of  $\log(x)$  is  $\frac{1}{\ln(2)x}$  and  $\log(x)$  is concave down. Also  $\binom{t}{2} - \frac{1}{\ln(2)2^{\binom{t}{2}}} \leq \binom{t}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{\binom{t}{2}}}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\log(S_t(n)) &\leq \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{\binom{t}{2}} \binom{t}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{\binom{t}{2}}} \\
\frac{\log(S_t(n))}{\log(2^{\binom{n}{2}})} &\leq 1 - \frac{1}{\binom{t}{2} 2^{\binom{t}{2}}}
\end{aligned}$$

□

4. Find the capacity  $C$  of the union of two channels  $(\mathcal{X}_1, p_1(y_1|x_1), \mathcal{Y}_1)$  and  $(\mathcal{X}_2, p_2(y_2|x_2), \mathcal{Y}_2)$ , where at each time, one can send a symbol over channel 1 or channel 2 but not both. Assume that the output alphabets are disjoint. Express your answer as a function of the two channel capacities  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ .

Since the output alphabets are disjoint, we can assume without loss of generality that the input alphabets are also disjoint (for any letter  $x \in \mathcal{X}_1 \cap \mathcal{X}_2$ , remove it and add a letter  $x_1$  to  $\mathcal{X}_1$  only and  $x_2$  to  $\mathcal{X}_2$  only). Now,

$$P(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda P_1(x) & : x \in \mathcal{X}_1 \\ (1 - \lambda) P_2(x) & : x \in \mathcal{X}_2 \end{cases}$$

where  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  is the probability of choosing to send through channel 1 (and so  $(1 - \lambda)$  is the probability of sending through channel 2). To determine  $C$ , we need

$$\begin{aligned}
H(Y) &= - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y) \log(P(y)) \\
&= - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_1} P(y) \log(P(y)) - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_2} P(y) \log(P(y)) \\
&= - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_1} \frac{\lambda P(y)}{\lambda} \log\left(\frac{\lambda P(y)}{\lambda}\right) - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_2} \frac{(1 - \lambda) P(y)}{1 - \lambda} \log\left(\frac{(1 - \lambda) P(y)}{1 - \lambda}\right) \\
&= -\lambda \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_1} P_1(y) \log(P_1(y)) - \lambda \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_1} P_1(y) \log(\lambda) \\
&\quad - (1 - \lambda) \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_2} P_2(y) \log(P_2(y)) - (1 - \lambda) \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_2} P_2(y) \log(1 - \lambda) \\
&= \lambda H(Y_1) + (1 - \lambda) H(Y_2) + \lambda \log\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right) + (1 - \lambda) \log\left(\frac{1}{1 - \lambda}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
H(Y | X) &= - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&= - \left( \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_1} P(x) + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_2} P(x) \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&= - \left( \lambda \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_1} \frac{P(x)}{\lambda} + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_2} \frac{P(x)}{1 - \lambda} \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&= - \left( \lambda \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_1} \frac{P(x)}{\lambda} \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&\quad - \left( (1 - \lambda) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_2} \frac{P(x)}{1 - \lambda} \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&= - \left( \lambda \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_1} \frac{P(x)}{\lambda} \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_1} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&\quad - \left( (1 - \lambda) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_2} \frac{P(x)}{1 - \lambda} \right) \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_2} P(y | x) \log(P(y | x)) \right) \\
&= \lambda H(Y_1 | X_1) + (1 - \lambda) H(Y_2 | X_2)
\end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
C &= \max_{P(X)} I(X; Y) \\
&= \max_{P(X)} H(X) - H(Y | X) \\
&= \max_{\lambda} \lambda H(Y_1) + (1 - \lambda) H(Y_2) + \lambda \log \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) + (1 - \lambda) \log \left( \frac{1}{1 - \lambda} \right) \\
&\quad - (\lambda H(Y_1 | X_1) - (1 - \lambda) H(Y_2 | X_2)) \\
&= \max_{\lambda} \lambda C_1 + (1 - \lambda) C_2 + \lambda \log \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) + (1 - \lambda) \log \left( \frac{1}{1 - \lambda} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

Using calculus, we determine that this expression is maximized when  $\lambda = \frac{1}{2^{b-a} + 1}$ .