Sliced Mutual Information:
A Scalable Measure of Statistical Dependence

Abstract

Mutual information (MI) is a fundamental measure of statistical dependence, with a myriad of applications to information theory, statistics, and machine learning. While it possesses many desirable structural properties, the estimation of high-dimensional MI from samples suffers from the curse of dimensionality. Motivated by scalability to high dimensions, this paper proposes *sliced* MI (SMI) as a surrogate measure of dependence. SMI is defined as an average of MI terms between one-dimensional random projections. We show that it preserves many of the structural properties of classic MI, while gaining scalable computation and estimation from samples. Furthermore, and in contrast to classic MI, SMI can be created from computation. This violation of the data processing inequality is consistent with modern feature extraction techniques that often result in post-processed representations that are more useful for inference than the raw data. Our theory is supported by a numerical study of independence testing and feature extraction, which demonstrate the potential gains SMI offers over classic MI for high-dimensional inference.

1   Introduction

Mutual information (MI) is a universal measure of dependence between random variables, defined as

$$\mathsf{I}(X;Y) := \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} \log \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}P_{X,Y}}{\mathrm{d}P_X \otimes P_Y} \right) \mathrm{d}P_{X,Y}, \tag{1}$$

where $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y}$ and $\mathrm{d}P/\mathrm{d}Q$ is the Radon-Nikodym derivative of P with respect to (w.r.t.) Q. It possesses many desirable properties, such as meaningful units (bits or nats), nullification if and only if (iff) X and Y are independent, convenient variational forms, and invariance to bijections. In fact, MI can be obtained axiomatically as a unique (up to a multiplicative constant) functional satisfying several natural 'informativeness' conditions [1]. As such, it found a variety of applications in communications, information theory, and statistics [1, 2]. More recently, it was adopted as a figure of merit for studying [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8] and designing [9, 10, 11, 12, 13] machine learning models.

MI is a functional of the joint distribution of the considered random variables, i.e., $P_{X,Y}$ in (1). In most applications this distribution is not known and only samples from it are available, thereby necessitating the estimation of $\mathsf{I}(X;Y)$. While this topic received considerable attention in the literature [14, 15, 16, 17, 18], MI is fundamentally hard to estimate in high-dimensional setups due to an exponentially large (in dimension) sample complexity [19]. Motivated by scalability to high dimensions and inspired by recent slicing techniques of statistical distances [20, 21, 22], this paper introduces *sliced* MI (SMI) as a surrogate notion of informativeness. We show that SMI inherits many of the properties of classic MI, while allowing for efficient statistical estimation. Furthermore, in certain aspects, SMI is more compatible with modern machine learning practice than classic MI. In particular, SMI violates the data processing inequality (DPI) and can be created through computation.

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This is consistent with extracted features often being more useful for inference (under restricted model complexity) than the raw data.

1.1 Contributions

SMI is defined as the average of MI terms between one-dimensional random projections. Namely, if $\mathbb{S}^{d-1}$ denotes the d-dimensional sphere (whose surface area is designated by S_{d-1}), we define

$$\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) := \frac{1}{S_{d_x-1}S_{d_y-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}} \mathsf{I}(\theta^\mathsf{T}X; \phi^\mathsf{T}Y)\mathrm{d}\theta\mathrm{d}\phi. \tag{2}$$

We may similarly define a max-sliced version by maximizing over projection directions, as opposed to averaging over them. Despite the projection of X and Y to a single dimension, SMI preserves many of the properties of MI. For instance, we show that SMI nullifies iff random variables are independent, it satisfies a chain rule, can be represented as a reduction in sliced entropy, admits a variational form, etc. Further, SMI between (jointly) Gaussian variables is tightly related to their canonical correlation coefficient [23]. This is in direct analogy to the relation between classic MI of Gaussian variables (X, Y) and their correlation coefficient, where $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) = -\frac{1}{2}\log\left(1 - \rho^2(X, Y)\right)$.

SMI is well-positioned for statistical estimation in high-dimensional setups, where one estimates $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y)$ from n i.i.d. samples of $P_{X,Y}$. While the error of standard MI (or entropy) estimates, e.g., those in [24, 16, 25], scales as $n^{-1/d}$ when d is large, the same estimators admit statistical efficiency when $d = 1, 2$, converging at (near) parametric rates. Combining such estimators with Monte-Carlo (MC) sampling to approximate the integral over the unit sphere, we prove that the overall error scales (up to log factors) as $m^{-1/2} + n^{-1/2}$, where m is the number of MC samples and n is the size of the high-dimensional dataset. We validate our theory on synthetic experiments, demonstrating that SMI is a scalable alternative to classic MI when dealing with high-dimensional data.

A notable contrast between classic and sliced MI involves the DPI. Classic MI cannot grow as a result of processing the involved variables, namely, $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) \geq \mathsf{I}\left(f(X);Y\right)$ for any deterministic function f. While the DPI makes perfect sense given infinite computational power—an underlying assumption in information theory—it fails to match modern practice. Indeed, deep neural networks extract hierarchies of processed representations of (say, the data) X that are increasingly useful for inferring (the label) Y. SMI, on the other hand, can be created from computation, thus violating the DPI. We show theoretically and demonstrate empirically that SMI can grow by projecting the data on more informative directions, highlighting its compatibility with feature extraction tasks.

2 Preliminaries and Background

The paper uses the following notation. We take $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ as the class of all Borel probability measures on $\mathbb{R}^d$. Elements of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ are denoted by uppercase letters, with subscripts to indicate the associated random variables, e.g., P_X or $P_{X,Y}$. The support of P_X is denoted by $\mathrm{supp}(P_X)$. Our focus throughout is on absolutely continuous random variables; we use lowercase letters, such as p_X or $p_{X,Y}$, to denote probability density functions (PDFs). For a function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^{d'}$ and a distribution $P_X \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, we write $f_\sharp P_X$ for the pushforward measure of P_X through f. The $L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)$ norm of f is denoted by $\|f\|_{p,d}$. The d-dimensional unit sphere is $\mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, and its surface area is $S_{d-1} = 2\pi^{d/2}/\Gamma(d/2)$, with Γ as the gamma function. We also define slicing along θ as $\pi^\theta(x) := \theta^\mathsf{T}x$.

Mutual information and entropy. Information measures, such as MI and entropy, are ubiquitous in information theory and machine learning. MI is defined in (1) and can be equivalently written in terms of the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence as $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) := \mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{KL}}\left(P_{X,Y}\|P_X \otimes P_Y\right)$. $\mathsf{I}(X;Y)$ thus quantifies how far, in the KL sense, $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y}$ are from being independent. The differential entropy of a continuous random variable X with density p_X is $\mathsf{H}(X) := -\mathbb{E}\left[\log\left(p_X(X)\right)\right]$, quantifying a notion of uncertainty associated with X. For a pair $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y}$, the conditional entropy of X given Y is $H(X|Y) := \int_{\mathcal{Y}} \mathsf{H}(X|Y = y)\mathrm{d}P_Y(y)$, where $\mathsf{H}(X|Y = y)$ is computed w.r.t. $P_{X|Y=y}$. Conditional MI is similarly defined as $\mathsf{I}(X;Y|Z) := \int_{\mathcal{Z}} \mathsf{I}(X;Y|Z = z)\mathrm{d}P_Z(z)$. With these definitions, one can represent MI as[1] $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) = \mathsf{H}(X) - \mathsf{H}(X|Y) = \mathsf{H}(Y) - \mathsf{H}(Y|X)$,

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[1] Assuming that the appropriate PDFs exist.

80 thus interpreting MI as the reduction in the uncertainty regarding one variable as a result of observing
81 the other. Another useful decomposition is the MI chain rule $\mathsf{I}(X; Y, Z) = \mathsf{I}(X; Y) + \mathsf{I}(X; Z|Y)$.

82 **Data processing inequality.** The DPI states that $\mathsf{I}(X; Y) \geq \mathsf{I}(X; Z)$, if $X \leftrightarrow Y \leftrightarrow Z$ forms a
83 Markov chain. This inequality is a cornerstone for many information theoretic derivations and is nat-
84 ural when there are no computational restrictions on the model. However, given a restricted computa-
85 tional budget, processing the input may aid inference. Deep neural network classifiers are an excellent
86 example: they generate a hierarchy of processed representations of the input that are increasingly
87 useful for inferring the label. The incompatibility between the DPI and deep learning practice was
88 previously observed in [26], motivating their definition of a computationally restricted MI variant
89 that can be generated from computation. As we show later, SMI also shares this property.

3   Sliced Mutual Information

91 Our goal is to define a surrogate notion of MI that is more scalable for computation and estimation
92 from samples in high dimensions. We propose SMI as defined next.

93 **Definition 1** (Sliced MI)**.** *Fix* $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y})$. *Let* $\Theta \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1})$ *and*
94 $\Phi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$ *be independent of each other and of* (X, Y). *The SMI between* X *and* Y *is*

$$\mathsf{SI}(X; Y) := \mathsf{I}(\Theta^\intercal X; \Phi^\intercal Y | \Theta, \Phi) = \frac{1}{S_{d_x-1} S_{d_y-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}} \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; \phi^\intercal Y) \mathrm{d}\theta \mathrm{d}\phi. \tag{3}$$

95 Evidently, the SMI between two high-dimensional variables is defined as an average of MI terms
96 between their one-dimensional projections. By the DPI, $\mathsf{SI}(X; Y) \leq \mathsf{I}(X; Y)$ so we inherently
97 introduce information loss. Nevertheless, we will show that SMI inherits key properties of MI such
98 as discrimination between dependence and independence, chain rule, entropy decomposition, etc.

99 **Remark 1** (One-dimensional variables)**.** *If* $d_x = 1$ *then* $\mathbb{S}^0 = \{\pm 1\}$ *and we have* $\mathsf{SI}(X; Y) =$
100 $\mathsf{I}(X; \Phi^\intercal Y | \Phi)$, *which follows by invariance of MI to bijections and the independence of* (X, Y, Φ)
101 *and* Θ. *Similarly, when* $d_x = d_y = 1$ *we have* $\mathsf{SI}(X; Y) = \mathsf{I}(X; Y)$.

102 To later establish a chain rule and entropy-based decompositions, we define SMI between more than
103 two random variables, conditional SMI, and sliced entropy.

104 **Definition 2** (Joint and conditional SMI)**.** *Let* $(X, Y, Z) \sim P_{X,Y,Z} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_z})$ *and*
105 *take* $\Theta \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1})$, $\Phi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$, *and* $\Psi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_z-1})$ *mutually independent. The SMI*
106 *between* (X, Y) *and* Z *is defined as*

$$\mathsf{SI}(X, Y; Z) := \mathsf{I}(\Theta^\intercal X, \Phi^\intercal Y; \Psi^\intercal Z | \Theta, \Phi, \Psi). \tag{4a}$$

107 *The conditional SMI between* X *and* Y *given* Z *is*

$$\mathsf{SI}(X; Y | Z) := \mathsf{I}(\Theta^\intercal X; \Phi^\intercal Y | \Theta, \Phi, \Psi, \Psi^\intercal Z). \tag{4b}$$

108 The expression in (4a) extends Definition 1. Conditional SMI is the sliced information given access
109 to another projected random variable along with its projection direction. Accordingly, conditional
110 SMI is in the spirit of the original definition of $\mathsf{SI}(X; Y)$, incorporating only projected data without
111 introducing additional uncertainty about the direction.

112 **Remark 2** (Extensions)**.** *Joint and conditional SMI have natural multivariate extensions. For*
113 *example,* $\mathsf{SI}(X_1, \ldots, X_n; Y_1, \ldots, Y_m) := \mathsf{I}(\Theta_1^\intercal X_1, \ldots, \Theta_n^\intercal X_n; \Phi_1^\intercal Y_1, \ldots, \Phi_m^\intercal Y_m | \Theta, \Phi)$, *where*
114 $\Theta = (\Theta_1 \ldots \Theta_n)$ *and* $\Phi = (\Phi_1 \ldots \Phi_m)$. *The extension of conditional SMI is similar.*

115 **Definition 3** (Sliced entropy)**.** *Let* $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y})$ *and take* $\Theta \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1})$
116 *and* $\Phi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$ *to be independent. The sliced entropy of* X *is* $\mathsf{SH}(X) := \mathsf{H}(\Theta^\intercal X | \Theta)$, *while*
117 *the conditional sliced entropy of* X *given* Y *is* $\mathsf{SH}(X | Y) := \mathsf{H}(\Theta^\intercal X | \Theta, \Phi, \Phi^\intercal Y)$.

118 Sliced entropy is interpreted as the average uncertainty in one-dimensional projections of the consid-
119 ered random variable. Conditional SMI is the remaining uncertainty when a projected version and
120 the projection direction of another random variable is revealed.

121 The following proposition shows that SMI retains many of the properties of classic MI.

122 **Proposition 1** (SMI properties). *The following properties hold:*

1. ***Non-negativity:*** $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) \geq 0$ *with equality iff* X *and* Y *are independent.*

2. ***Bounds:*** $\inf_{\substack{\theta \in \mathbb{S}^{d_x-1} \\ \phi \in \mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}}} \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; \phi^\intercal Y) \leq \mathsf{SI}(X;Y) \leq \sup_{\substack{\theta \in \mathbb{S}^{d_x-1} \\ \phi \in \mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}}} \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; \phi^\intercal Y) \leq \mathsf{I}(X;Y).$

3. ***KL divergence:*** *We have* $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) = \mathbb{E}_{\Theta,\Phi}\left[\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{KL}}\left((\pi^\Theta, \pi^\Phi)_\sharp P_{X,Y} \,\middle\|\, \pi_\sharp^\Theta P_X \otimes \pi_\sharp^\Phi P_Y\right)\right].$

4. ***Chain rule:*** *For any random variables* $X_1, \ldots, X_n, Y, Z$, *we have the decomposition* $\mathsf{SI}(X_1, \ldots, X_n; Y) = \mathsf{SI}(X_1; Y) + \sum_{i=2}^n \mathsf{SI}(X_i; Y | X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1})$. *In particular,* $\mathsf{SI}(X, Y; Z) = \mathsf{SI}(X; Z) + \mathsf{SI}(Y; Z | X)$.

5. ***Tensorization:*** *Suppose that* $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ *are pairwise independent. Then* $\mathsf{SI}(X_1, \ldots, X_n; Y_1, \ldots, Y_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{SI}(X_i; Y_i)$.

131 The proof of Proposition 1 is given in Supplement A.1. Similarly to MI, the sliced version simplifies
132 when the variables are jointly Gaussian.

133 **Example 1** (Gaussian SMI). *If* $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_X)$ *and* $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_Y)$ *are jointly Gaussian with*
134 *cross-covariance* Σ_{XY}, *then*

$$\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) = \frac{1}{2S^{d_x-1}S^{d_y-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}} \oint_{\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}} \log\left(\frac{1}{1 - \rho^2(\theta^\intercal X, \phi^\intercal Y)}\right) \mathrm{d}\theta\mathrm{d}\phi,$$

135 *where* $\rho(\theta^\intercal X, \phi^\intercal Y) := \frac{\theta^\intercal \Sigma_{X,Y}\phi}{(\theta^\intercal \Sigma_X \theta \phi^\intercal \Sigma_Y \phi)^{1/2}}$ *is the correlation coefficient of* $\theta^\intercal X$ *and* $\phi^\intercal Y$. *Denoting*
136 *by* $\rho_{\mathsf{CCA}}(X, Y)$ *the* canonical *correlation coefficient, we get* $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) \leq -0.5\log\left(1 - \rho_{\mathsf{CCA}}^2(X, Y)\right)$.

137 The Gaussian distribution is also special for sliced entropy, where, as for classic entropy, it maximizes
138 $\mathsf{SH}(X)$ under a fixed (mean and) covariance constraint.

139 **Proposition 2** (Gaussian maximizes sliced entropy). *Let* $\mathcal{P}_1(\mu, \Sigma) := \left\{P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d) : \mathrm{supp}(P) = \right.$
140 $\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{E}_P[X] = \mu, \mathbb{E}\left[(X - \mu)(X - \mu)^\intercal\right] = \Sigma\right\}$. *Then* $\arg\max_{P \in \mathcal{P}_1(\mu,\Sigma)} \mathsf{SH}(P) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, *i.e.,*
141 *the normal distribution maximizes sliced differential entropy inside* $\mathcal{P}_1(\mu, \Sigma)$.

142 The proposition is proven in Supplement A.2, where two additional max-entropy claims are estab-
143 lished. Specifically, we show that (i) the uniform distribution on the sphere maximizes sliced entropy
144 over measures supported inside a ball; and (ii) the symmetric multivariate Laplace distribution [27] is
145 the maximizer subject to mean constraints on the d-dimensional variable and its projections.

146 Lastly, SMI admits a variational form in the spirit of the Donsker-Varadhan representation of MI.

147 **Proposition 3** (Variational form). *Let* $\Theta \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1})$, $\Phi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$ *be independent of each*
148 *other and of* $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y})$, *and set* $(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}) \sim P_X \otimes P_Y$. *We have*

$$\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) = \sup_{g:\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y} \times \mathbb{S}^{d_x-1} \times \mathbb{S}^{d_y-1} \to \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}\left[g(\Theta, \Phi, \Theta^\intercal X, \Phi^\intercal Y)\right] - \log\left(\mathbb{E}\left[e^{g(\Theta, \Phi, \Theta^\intercal \tilde{X}, \Phi^\intercal \tilde{Y})}\right]\right),$$

149 *where the supremum is over all measurable functions for which both expectations are finite.*

150 This representation is leveraged in Section 4.3 to implement a feature extractor based on SMI neural
151 estimation. The proof is found in Section A.3 of the supplement.

3.1 Estimation

153 A main virtue of SMI is that its estimation from samples is much easier than classic MI. One may
154 combine any MI estimator between scalar variables with an MC integrator to estimate SMI between
155 high-dimensional random variables without suffering from the curse of dimensionality. This gain is
156 expected as SMI is defined as an average of low dimensional MI terms.

157 For $P_{A,B} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})$, let $(A_1, B_1), \ldots, (A_n, B_n)$ be pairwise i.i.d. from $P_{A,B}$. Consider an MI
158 estimator $\hat{\mathsf{I}} : \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{B}^n \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ that attains $\delta(n)$ absolute error uniformly over a class $\mathcal{F}$ of distributions:

$$\sup_{P_{A,B} \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\hat{\mathsf{I}}(A^n, B^n) - \mathsf{I}(A; B)\right|\right] \leq \delta(n). \tag{5}$$

We use $\hat{\mathsf{I}}$ to construct an estimator of SMI. Given high-dimensional pairwise i.i.d. samples $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ from $P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y})$, first note that $(\theta^\mathsf{T} X_i, \phi^\mathsf{T} Y_i)$, for $\theta \in \mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}$ and $\phi \in \mathbb{S}^{d_y-1}$, is distributed according to $(\pi^\theta, \pi^\phi)_\sharp P_{X,Y}$. Thus, we can convert $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ into pairwise i.i.d. samples of the projected variables. Let $\Theta_1, \ldots, \Theta_m$ and $\Phi_1, \ldots, \Phi_m$ be i.i.d. according to $\mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1})$ and $\mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$, respectively, set $(\Theta_j^\mathsf{T} X)^n := (\Theta_j^\mathsf{T} X_1, \ldots, \Theta_j^\mathsf{T} X_n)$ for $j = 1, \ldots, m$, and similarly define $(\Phi_j^\mathsf{T} Y)^n$. We consider the following SMI estimator:

$$\widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m} = \widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}(X^n, Y^n, \Theta^m, \Phi^m) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{\mathsf{I}}\big((\Theta_i^\mathsf{T} X)^n, (\Phi_i^\mathsf{T} Y)^n\big). \tag{6}$$

3.1.1 Non-asymptotic performance guarantees

We now present convergence guarantees for the estimator (6) over the following class of distributions:

$$\mathcal{F}_d(M) := \big\{ P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y}) : \mathsf{I}(X;Y) \leq M, (\pi^\theta, \pi^\phi)_\sharp P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{F}, \forall \theta \in \mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}, \phi \in \mathbb{S}^{d_y-1} \big\},$$

i.e., the class of all $P_{X,Y}$ with bounded MI and projections that belong to the class $\mathcal{F}$ from (5).

Theorem 1 (Convergence rate). *The following uniform error bound over $\mathcal{F}_d(M)$ holds:*

$$\sup_{P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{F}_d(M)} \mathbb{E}\Big[\big|\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) - \widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}\big|\Big] \leq \frac{M}{2\sqrt{m}} + \delta(n). \tag{7}$$

See Supplement A.4 for the proof.

Remark 3 (Instance-dependent bound). *An inspection of the proof of Theorem 1 reveals that (7) can be converted into the instance-dependent bound $\mathbb{E}\big[|\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) - \widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}|\big] \leq \frac{1}{2}\mathsf{I}(X;Y)m^{-1/2} + \delta(n)$, for any $P_{X,Y}$ with $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) < \infty$ (and projections that are inside $\mathcal{F}$).*

Theorem 1 applies to classes of distribution with bounded MI. Since this boundedness may be hard to verify in practice, we present a primitive sufficient condition for (7) to hold. Specifically, when $P_{X,Y}$ is log-concave and symmetric, it is enough to require that the canonical correlation coefficient of (X, Y) is bounded. Recall that a probability measure $P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is called log-concave if for any compact Borel sets A and B and $0 < \lambda < 1$, we have $P\big(\lambda A + (1-\lambda)B\big) \geq P(A)^\lambda P(B)^{1-\lambda}$. Let

$$\mathcal{F}_d^{(\mathsf{LC})}(M) := \big\{ P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y}) : P_{X,Y} \text{ is symmetric and log-concave}, \rho_{\mathsf{CCA}}^2(X, Y) \leq M \big\}.$$

The following error bound is proved in Supplement A.5.

Corollary 1 (Convergence for log-concave class). *The following uniform error over $\mathcal{F}_d^{(\mathsf{LC})}(M)$ holds:*

$$\sup_{P_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{F}_d^{(\mathsf{LC})}(M)} \mathbb{E}\Big[\big|\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) - \widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}\big|\Big] \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{\pi^2}{8} \frac{1}{1-M}\right) \frac{1}{m}\right)^{-1/2} + \delta(n). \tag{8}$$

3.1.2 End-to-end guarantees via entropy estimation over Lipschitz balls

To provide a concrete SMI estimator with guarantees, we instantiate the low-dimensional MI estimate via the entropy estimator from [25] for densities in the generalized Lipschitz class.

Definition 4 (Generalized Lipschitz class). *For $d \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in [2, \infty)$, $s > 0$, and $L \geq 0$, let $\mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}(L)$ be the class of probability density functions $f : [0, 1]^d \to \mathbb{R}$ with $\|f\|_{\mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}} \leq L$, where*

$$\|f\|_{\mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}} := \|f\|_{p,d} + \sup_{t > 0} t^{-s} \sup_{e \in \mathbb{R}^d, \|e\|_2 \leq 1} \big\|\Delta_{te}^{\lceil s \rceil} f\big\|_{p,d} \tag{9}$$

and $\Delta_h^r f(x) := \sum_{k=0}^r (-1)^{r-k} \binom{r}{k} f\big(x + \big(k - \frac{r}{2}\big)h\big)$.

We note that the norm of $\Delta_{te}^{\lceil s \rceil} f$ is taken over the whole Euclidean space to enforce a smooth decay of f at the boundary. Consequently, the $\mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}(L)$ class includes, e.g., densities whose derivatives up to order $\lceil s \rceil - 1$ all vanish at the boundary, where s is the smoothness parameter.

Differential entropy estimation over $\mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}(L)$ was considered in [25], where an optimal estimator based on best polynomial approximation and kernel density estimation techniques was proposed. Adhering to their setup, for $A \sim P_A \in \mathcal{P}([0, 1]^d)$ with density $p_A \in \mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d}(L)$, we denote the aforementioned entropy estimate based on n i.i.d. samples A^n by $\hat{\mathsf{H}}(A^n)$.

The SMI estimator from (6) employs a MI estimate between scalar variables (A, B). Assume their joint density is $p_{A,B} \in \mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,2}(L)$ and let (A^n, B^n) be i.i.d. samples. To estimate $\mathsf{I}(A; B)$, consider

$$\hat{\mathsf{I}}_{\mathsf{Lip}}(A^n; B^n) := \hat{\mathsf{H}}(A^n) + \hat{\mathsf{H}}(B^n) - \hat{\mathsf{H}}(A^n, B^n). \tag{10}$$

Plug (10) into (6) and denote the resulting SMI estimate by $\widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}^{(\mathsf{Lip})}$. The effective estimation rate over $\mathcal{F}_{s,p,d_x+d_y}^{(\mathsf{Lip})}(L,M) := \left\{ p_{X,Y} : [0,1]^{d_x+d_y} \to \mathbb{R} : p_{X,Y} \in \mathsf{Lip}_{s,p,d_x+d_y}(L), \mathsf{I}(X;Y) \le M \right\}$ is stated next.

Corollary 2 (Effective rate). *Let* $d_x, d_y \in \mathbb{N}$, $s \in (0, 2]$, $p \in [2, \infty)$, *and* $L \ge 0$. *The following uniform error bound over* $\mathcal{F}_{s,p,d_x+d_y}^{(\mathsf{Lip})}(L, M)$ *holds:*

$$\sup_{p_{X,Y} \in \mathcal{F}_{s,p,d_x+d_y}^{(\mathsf{Lip})}(L,M)} \mathbb{E}\left[\left| \mathsf{SI}(X;Y) - \widehat{\mathsf{SI}}_{n,m}^{(\mathsf{Lip})} \right| \right] \le \frac{M}{2} m^{-\frac{1}{2}} + C\left((n \log n)^{-\frac{s}{s+2}} (\log n)^{\left(1 - \frac{2}{p(s+2)}\right)} + n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right).$$

for a constant C *that depends only on* d_x, d_y, p, s, *and* L.

The dimension free SMI estimation rate improves the classic estimation rates from [25] that scale as $n^{-1/d}$, when $d \gg 1$. This scalability to high dimensions is the expected gain from slicing. The proof of Corollary 2 (Supplement A.6) shows that densities in the generalized Lipschitz class have the property that all their projections are also in that class (with different parameters). We then invoke [25, Theorem 4] to bound $\delta(n)$ by controlling the error of each differential entropy estimate in (10).

Remark 4 (Optimal rate for smooth densities). *Restricting attention to densities of maximal possible smoothness in Corollary 2, i.e.,* $s = 2$, *the resulting estimation rate is*

$$\frac{1}{2} M m^{-\frac{1}{2}} + C n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + (\log n)^{\frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)} \right).$$

Equating the number of MC and data samples, m *and* n, *the rate is parametric, up to polylog factors.*

3.2 Extracting Sliced Information

We now discuss the creation of SMI via processing. In contrast to the DPI of classic MI, we show that SMI can be increased by extracting linear features of X and Y that are informative of each other.

To illustrate the idea we begin with a simple example. Let $X = (X_1 \ X_2) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_2)$, $Y = X_2$, and consider $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y)$ (Y is a scalar and it is thus not sliced). For any $\theta = (\theta_1 \ \theta_2) \in \mathbb{S}^1$ with $\theta_1 \ne 0$, we have $\mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; Y) = \mathsf{I}(X_1 + (\theta_2/\theta_1)X_2; X_1) = \frac{1}{2}\log\left(1 + (\theta_1/\theta_2)^2\right)$, where the last step uses the independence of X_1 and X_2. Consider the function $g_a : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ given by $g_a(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 \ a x_2)^\intercal$, for some $0 < a < 1$. Following the same procedure, we have $\theta^\intercal g_a(X) = \theta_1 Y + a \theta_2 Z$ and $\mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal g_a(X); Y) = \frac{1}{2}\log\left(1 + (\theta_1/(a\theta_2))^2\right) > \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; Y)$, for almost all $\theta \in \mathbb{S}^1$. Consequently, $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y) < \mathsf{SI}(g_a(X);Y)$, violating the DPI. Generally, this shows that by varying a one can both create and diminish sliced information by processing via g_a.

When $a = 0$, we have $\mathsf{SI}(g_a(X);Y) = \infty$, yielding $\mathsf{SI}(g_a(X);Y) = \sup_\theta \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; Y)$. Thus, maximizing SMI by varying a extracts the most informative feature X_1 and deletes the uninformative feature X_2. We next generalize this observation (see Supplement A.7 for the proof).

Proposition 4. *Let* $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_y})$ *and consider optimizing the SMI between linear transformations of* X *and* Y *in the following scenarios:*

1. **Arbitrary linear processing**: *For matrices* A_x, A_y *and vectors* b_x, b_y *of the appropriate dimension, we have*

$$\sup_{\mathrm{A}_x, \mathrm{A}_y, b_x, b_y} \mathsf{SI}(\mathrm{A}_x X + b_x; \mathrm{A}_y Y + b_y) = \sup_{\mathrm{A}_x, \mathrm{A}_y} \mathsf{SI}(\mathrm{A}_x X; \mathrm{A}_y Y) = \sup_{\theta, \phi} \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; \phi^\intercal Y). \tag{11}$$

Furthermore, if $(\theta^\star, \phi^\star) \in \arg\max \mathsf{I}(\theta^\intercal X; \phi^\intercal Y)$, *then an optimal pair of matrices* $\mathrm{A}_x^\star$ *and* $\mathrm{A}_y^\star$ *have* $\theta^\star$ *or* $\phi^\star$, *respectively, in their first rows and zeros otherwise.*

2. **Rank constrained linear processing**: *For* $d_1, d_2, r \in \mathbb{N}$ *and* $c > 0$, *let* $\mathcal{M}_{d_1,d_2}(r, c) := \Big\{ \mathrm{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1 \times d_2} : \frac{1}{c} \le \sigma_r(\mathrm{A}) \le \ldots \le \sigma_1(\mathrm{A}) \le c \Big\}$, *where* $\sigma_i(\mathrm{A})$ *is the* ith *largest singular value of* A. *We have*

$$\sup_{\substack{\mathrm{A}_x \in \mathcal{M}_{d_x,d_x}(r_x,c_x), \\ \mathrm{A}_y \in \mathcal{M}_{d_x,d_x}(r_y,c_y)}} \mathsf{SI}(\mathrm{A}_x X; \mathrm{A}_y Y) = \sup_{\substack{\mathrm{B}_x \in \mathcal{M}_{r_x,d_x}(r_x,c_x), \\ \mathrm{B}_y \in \mathcal{M}_{r_y,d_y}(r_y,c_y)}} \mathsf{SI}(\mathrm{B}_x X; \mathrm{B}_y Y), \quad \forall c_x, c_y > 0.$$

234   *Furthermore, if* $(B_1^\star, B_2^\star)$ *are maximizers of the RHS, then* B_1 *(resp.,* B_2*) has the first* r_x *(resp.,*
235   r_y*) rows span the top* r_x *(resp.,* r_y*) scalar MI slicing directions and the remaining rows are zero.*

236   The proposition suggests that SMI can be used as an objective for extracting informative linear
237   features. The setup in Claim 2 precludes reduction to Case 1. Indeed, if eigenvalues can shrink or
238   grow without bound, it is always better to consider a maximizing slice than to average several slices.

239   **Remark 5** (Processing one variable). *Similar results hold when only one of the arguments (X or Y) is*
240   *processed. In this case, rather than the maximum being a projected MI term, it would be an SMI where*
241   *the slicing is only in the opposite argument. For example,* (11) *becomes* $\sup_{A_x, b_x} \mathsf{SI}(A_x X + b_x; Y) =$
242   $\sup_{A_x} \mathsf{SI}(A_x X; Y) = \sup_\theta \mathsf{I}(\theta^\mathsf{T} X; \Phi^\mathsf{T} Y | \Phi)$, *for* $\Phi \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y - 1})$ *independent of* (X, Y).

243   Proposition 4 accounts for linear processing but the argument readily extends to nonlinear feature
244   extractors. For simplicity, the following corollary states the result for a shallow (single hidden layer)
245   neural network. The argument is a straightforward adaption of the proof of Proposition 4.

246   **Corollary 3** (Shallow neural network). *Let* $(X, Y) \sim P_{X,Y}$. *For any scaling matrices* A_x, A_y,
247   *weight matrices* W_x, W_y, *and bias vectors* b_x, b_y *of the appropriate dimensions, define the neural*
248   *network outputs* $X_{\mathsf{nn}} := A_x \sigma(W_x^\mathsf{T} X + b_x)$, $Y_{\mathsf{nn}} := A_y \sigma(W_y^\mathsf{T} Y + b_y)$, *where* σ *is a scalar, contin-*
249   *uous, and monotonically increasing nonlinearity (e.g. sigmoid, tanh) and the hidden dimension is*
250   *arbitrary. Then*

$$\sup_{A_x, A_y, W_x, W_y, b_x, b_y} \mathsf{SI}(X_{\mathsf{nn}}; Y_{\mathsf{nn}}) = \sup_{\theta, \phi, W_x, W_y, b_x, b_y} \mathsf{I}\big(\theta^\mathsf{T} \sigma(W_x^\mathsf{T} X + b_x); \phi^\mathsf{T} \sigma(W_y^\mathsf{T} Y + b_y)\big).$$

4   Empirical Results

4.1   Convergence of the SMI estimator

253   We empirically validate the empirical convergence
254   rates for SMI estimation derived in Section 3.1. Con-
255   sider densities with smoothness parameter $s = 2$
256   in the setup of Corollary 2; the expected conver-
257   gence rate (up to log factors) is therefore $n^{-1/2} +$
258   $m^{-1/2}$. While the theoretical results use the opti-
259   mal estimator of [25] to obtain the tightest bounds,
260   in our experiments we implemented the simpler
261   Kozachenko–Leonenko estimator. The justification
262   for doing so comes from [24], who showed that this
263   estimator achieves the same rate (up to log factors)
264   as the optimal one from [25].

265   Figure 1 shows results for the case where X and
266   Y are overlapping subsets of a standard Gaussian
267   random vector $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_4)$. For $d = 3$, we set $X =$
268   $Z_{[1:3]} := (Z_1\ Z_2\ Z_3)^\mathsf{T}$, $Y = Z_{[2:3]}$, i.e. 2 coordinates
269   overlap. For $d = 10$, we set $X = Z_{1:10}$, $Y = Z_{5:15}$,
270   i.e. 5 coordinates overlap. In each case, we show both
271   convergence as both n, m are increased together (i.e.,
272   $n = m$), and when one is fixed at a large value and
273   the other one grows. The large value is chosen so that
274   the error term corresponding to that fixed parameter
275   is negligible compared to the varying term.

Figure 1: Convergence of the SMI estimator
versus the number of data samples n and/or
slice samples m: (a) $d = 3$, $m_{\mathrm{fixed}} = n_{\mathrm{fixed}}$
$= 10^4$; (b) $d = 10$, $m_{\mathrm{fixed}} = n_{\mathrm{fixed}} = 10^4$.

4.2   Independence testing

277   Recall that Proposition 1 states that $\mathsf{SI}(X; Y) = 0$ if and only if X and Y are independent. This
278   implies that, like MI, we may use SMI for independence testing. MI-based independence test of
279   high-dimensional continuous variables can be burdensome due to the slow empirical convergence of
280   MI estimation [25]. We show next that, as implied by our theory, SMI offers a scalable alternative.

281   Figure 2 shows independence testing results for a variety of relationships between X, Y pairs. The
282   figure shows the area under the curve (AUC) of the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) for

(a) Y encodes a single feature of X.

(b) Y encodes two features of X.

(c) Low rank common signal.

(d) Independent coordinates.

Figure 2: Scalability of independence testing with dimension. The plot show the area under the ROC curve (AUC ROC) as a function of samples n for several dimensions d. The test is based on thresholding SMI and MI. Details for each scenario are in the text.

independence testing via SMI (or MI) thresholding as a function of the number of samples n from the joint distribution.[2] Both the SMI and MI were computed using the Kozachenko–Leonenko estimator [24]; the MC step for SMI estimation (see (6)) uses 1000 random slices, and the AUC ROC curves are computed from 100 random trials. The joint distribution of (X, Y) in each case of Figure 2 is:

(a) **Single feature:** $X, Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_d)$ i.i.d., and $Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{d}\mathbf{1}^\intercal X + Z\right)$, where $\mathbf{1} := (1 \ldots 1)^\intercal \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

(b) **Two features:** $X, Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_d)$ independent, and $Y_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{d}(\mathbf{1}_{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor}0 \ldots 0)^\intercal X + Z, & i \leq \frac{d}{2} \\ \frac{1}{d}(0 \ldots 0\mathbf{1}_{\lceil d/2 \rceil})^\intercal X + Z, & i > \frac{d}{2} \end{cases}$.

(c) **Low rank common signal:** $Z_1, Z_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_d)$ and $V \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_2)$ are independent; $X = \mathrm{P}_1 V + Z_1$ and $Y = \mathrm{P}_2 V + Z_Y$, where $\mathrm{P}_1, \mathrm{P}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 2}$ are projection matrices (realized at the beginning of each iteration by drawing i.i.d. standard normal entries).

(d) **Independent coordinates:** $X, Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_d)$ i.i.d., and $Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X + Z)$.

Note that in all the cases with underlying lower-dimensional structure, SMI scales well with dimension while MI does not; in the independent case of subfigure (d), both perform similarly and rather well.

While the SMI is always on par or better than MI in these experiments, the results suggest that SMI performs best in structured (specifically, low rank) settings. This is because in these settings the MI term associated with random (Θ, Φ) slices has lower variance. This is not the case for the unstructured setting of Figure 2(d). There, when dimension is high, random slices carry relatively little information compared to the maximum MI over slices (which attained between the ith coordinates of X and Y for any i). Since SMI is an average quantity, in this case it offers little gain over classic MI.

4.3 Feature extraction

In the above, we focused on a nonparametric estimator for which we derived tight bounds. In practice, applying neural estimators (à la MINE [28]) is more compatible with modern optimizers. The SMI neural estimator (S-MINE) relies on the variational representation from Proposition 3. Given a sample set $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ i.i.d. from $P_{X,Y}$, we further sample n i.i.d. copies of $(\Theta, \Phi) \sim \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_x-1}) \times \mathsf{Unif}(\mathbb{S}^{d_y-1})$. The negative samples $(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{Y}_1), \ldots, (\tilde{X}_n, \tilde{Y}_n)$ are obtained by permuting the order of, e.g., the Y samples. Parametrizing the potential g in (3) by a neural network g_ξ with parameters $\xi \in \Xi$, we obtain the following empirical objective

$$\sup_{\xi \in \Xi} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_\xi(\Theta_i, \Phi_i, \Theta_i^\intercal X_i, \Phi_i^\intercal Y_i) - \log\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{g_\xi(\Theta_i, \Phi_i, \Theta_i^\intercal \tilde{X}_i, \Phi_i^\intercal \tilde{Y}_i)}\right).$$

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[2]The ROC curve shows test performance as the threshold is varied over all possible configurations. The AUC quantifies the test's discriminative ability: an omniscient classifier has AUC 1, while random tests have AUC 0.5.

This provides an estimate (from below) of $\mathsf{SI}(X;Y)$. We leave a full theoretical and empirical exploration of its performance for future work, and here only provide two proof-of-concept experiments.

The formulation of SMI as an optimization of a loss whose gradients are readily evaluated lends itself to the SMI-extraction formulations of Proposition 4, i.e. we can simultaneously optimize A_x, A_y, and ξ end-to-end. Figure 3 shows results[3] for $X, Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathrm{I}_{10})$, $Y = e_1^\mathsf{T} X + Z$, where $e_1 = (1\ 0 \ldots 0)^\mathsf{T}$. An $(\mathrm{A}_x^\star, \mathrm{A}_y^\star)$ with rows converging to e_1 are recovered. Note that while Proposition 4 identifies an optimal solution where only the first row is nonzero, this will have the same SMI as when all rows equal that first row. The latter solution is found since the gradients do not favor one row over another.

Figure 3: $(\mathrm{A}_x^\star, \mathrm{A}_y^\star)$ optimizers for (11) over a Gaussian dataset using S-MINE: (a) matrix $\mathrm{A}_x^\star$; (b) matrix $\mathrm{A}_y^\star$. Note both have correctly recovered the first standard unit vector as their rows.

We next combine S-MINE with independence testing, looking to maximize the SMI using transformations $\mathrm{A}X, \mathrm{A}Y$, where X, Y are imaged samples from the same random MNIST class (either 0 or 1) and $\mathrm{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{10 \times d}$. Specifically, we choose a class $C \sim \mathsf{Ber}(0.5)$ and then sample X and Y uniformly from that class' training dataset. In this setup, X, Y share up to 1 bit of information, i.e. $\mathsf{I}(X;Y) \leq \mathsf{H}(C) = \log 2$. This suggests that maximizing the SMI between $\mathrm{A}X$ and $\mathrm{A}Y$ will find an A that ex-

Figure 4: Solution for optimizing the A-transformed SMI of the 0-1 MNIST setup using S-MINE: (a) Row 0; (b) Row 1 of A.

tracts information about C, revealing whether X and Y are in the same class. Optimizing A yields an estimated SMI of 0.680 bits (compare this to, e.g., 0.0752 SMI achieved by a matrix A with i.i.d. standard normal entries). To confirm A is not being overfit, we also optimized the SMI over A when X, Y are drawn independently, i.e., no longer sharing a class, yielding 0.0289 estimated SMI (the ground truth is 0 here). These results indicate that (a) an SMI-based independence test would be successful at detecting dependence between X, Y and (b) optimizing A not only succeeds at significantly (almost 10x) increasing the SMI, but also comes relatively close to the true MI of 1 bit. Heatmaps of two rows of A rearranged into the MNIST image dimensions are shown in Figure 4. Observe the $\mathrm{A}_{i:}$ visually correspond to the numeral 0, which, from a matched filter perspective, yields an $\mathrm{A}X$ (resp., $\mathrm{A}Y$) that is informative of whether X (resp., Y) is in class zero or not. This, in turn, conveys information of whether X, Y share a class (since 0 and 1 are the only options), as desired.

5   Summary and Concluding Remarks

Motivated to address the computational and statistical unscalability of MI to high dimensions, this paper proposed a surrogate notion of informativeness dubbed sliced mutual information (SMI). SMI projects high-dimensional random variables to scalars and averages over random projections. We showed that SMI shares many of the structural properties of classic MI, while enjoying statistical efficiency in empirical estimation. We also showed that, as opposed to classic MI, SMI can be created from computation. This observation was quantified for linear and nonlinear SMI-based feature extractors. Experiments validating the theoretical study were provided, demonstrating dimension free empirical convergence rates, scalability for independence testing, and feature extraction examples.

Our results pose SMI as a favorable figure of merit for information quantification between high-dimensional random variables. We expect it to turn useful for a variety of applications in inference and machine learning, although a large-scale empirical exploration is beyond the scope of this paper. In particular, SMI seems well adapted for representation learning via the (sliced) InfoMax principle [29, 30], and we plan to test this hypothesis in future work. On the theoretical side, appealing future directions are abundant, including convergence guarantees for the neural SMI estimator used in Section 4.3, operational channel/source coding settings for which SMI characterizes the information-theoretic fundamental limit, and a statistical analysis of SMI-based independence testing.

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[3]Using a two-layer fully connected neural network with 100 hidden units for g_ξ.

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