

Code Theory

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1. Memoryless resources

1.1. Sources and average word length

Definition 1: a **source** is a finite set \mathcal{S} together with a set of random variables (X_1, X_2, \dots) whose range is \mathcal{S} .

If $P(X_n = \mathcal{S}_i)$ only depends on i and not on n then we say the source is **stationary** and if the X_n are independent then it's **memoryless**.

Example:

Definition 2: Let \mathcal{T} be a finite set called **alphabet**. A map $\mathfrak{C} : \mathbb{S} \longrightarrow \mathbb{U}_{n \geq 1} T^n$ is called a **code**.

If $|\mathcal{T}| = r$ then \mathfrak{C} is a **r -ary code**.

A code extends from \mathbb{S} to $T \cup T^2 \cup \dots$ to $\mathbb{S} \cup \mathbb{S}^2 \cup \dots$ to $T \cup T^2 \cup \dots$ in obvious way.

Example:

Definition 3: The **average word-length** of a code \mathfrak{C} is $L(\mathfrak{C}) := \sum_{i=1}^n p_i l_i$ where l_i is the length of the image of the symbol of \mathbb{S} , which is emitted with probability p_i .

For now, we write \mathfrak{C} to be the image of \mathfrak{C} .

1.2. Uniquely decodeable codes

Definition 4: If for any sequences $u_1 \dots u_n = v_1 \dots v_m$ in \mathfrak{C} implies $m = n$ and $u_i = v_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ then we say that \mathfrak{C} is **uniquely decodeable**.

Example:

Example:

Example:

Let $\mathfrak{C}_0 = \mathfrak{C}$:

- $\mathfrak{C}_n := \{\omega \in T \cup T^2 \cup \dots \mid u\omega = v \text{ for some } u \in \mathfrak{C}_{n-1}, v \in \mathfrak{C} \text{ or } u\omega = v \text{ for some } u \in \mathfrak{C}, v \in \mathfrak{C}_{n-1}\}$
- $\mathfrak{C}_\infty := \bigcup_{k \geq 1} \mathfrak{C}_k$

Since everything is finite either $\mathfrak{C}_m = \emptyset$ for some m and then $\mathfrak{C}_n = \emptyset$ for $n \geq m$ or it will be periodic and start repeating.

Theorem 1: \mathfrak{C} is uniquely decodeable $\iff \mathfrak{C} \cap \mathfrak{C}_\infty = \emptyset$.

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Example:

Example:

Definition 5: A code is a **prefix-code** if no codeword is prefix of another (ie. $\mathfrak{C}_1 = \emptyset$).

A prefix code is uniquely decodeable.

Theorem 2: (Kraft's inequality) \exists r -ary prefix code with word lengths $l_1, l_2, \dots, l_q \iff$

$$\sum_{i=1}^q r^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Theorem 3: (McMillan's inequality) \exists r -ary uniquely decodeable code with word lengths $l_1, l_2, \dots, l_q \iff$

$$\sum_{i=1}^q r^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

proof: Insert proof here

1.3. Optimal codes

Let be \mathcal{S} a source with symbols s_1, \dots, s_q emitted with probabilities p_1, \dots, p_q and \mathfrak{C} is a code which encodes s_i with a codeword length l_i . Recall $L(\mathfrak{C}) = \sum_{i=1}^q p_i l_i$.

Definition 6: An **optimal code** for \mathcal{S} is an uniquely decodeable code \mathfrak{D} such that $L(\mathfrak{C}) \geq L(\mathfrak{D})$ for all unique decodeable code \mathfrak{C} .

Example:

Example:

Definition 7: A code constructed in this way is called a **Huffman code**.

Example:

Construct the r -arg Huffman code we sum together (at each step) the r smallest probabilities.

For this to work we need $q \equiv 1(r-1)$. Recall q is the number of symbols in the source. If not, then we add symbols with probabilities zero so that it is.

Example:

Lemma 1: Every source \mathcal{S} has an optimal binary code \mathfrak{D} in which two of the longest codewords are **siblings**, ie. $\exists x$ (a string) such that $x_0, x_1 \in \mathfrak{D}$.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 4: The Huffman code is an optimal code.

proof: Insert proof here

1.4. Extension of sources

Given a source \mathcal{S} we define \mathcal{S}^n the source with $|\mathcal{S}|^n$ symbols, typically s_1, \dots, s_n , emitted with p_1, \dots, p_n probabilities.

Example:

2. Information and entropy

2.1. Definitions

Definition 1: the **information** conveyed by a source is a function $I : S \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ where S is a **source**¹ with the properties:

- $I(s_i)$ is a decreasing function of the probability p_i , with $I(s_i) = 0$ if $p_i = 1$.
- $I(s_i s_j) = I(s_i) + I(s_j)$, ie. the information gained by two symbols is the sum of the information obtained from each where the source has symbols s_1, \dots, s_q emitted with probabilities p_1, \dots, p_q .

Lemma 1: $I(s_i) = -\log_r p_i$ for some r .

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 2: The r -**ary entropy** $H_r(S)$ of a source S is the average information conveyed by S .

$$H_r(S) := -\sum_{i=1}^q p_i \log_r p_i$$

, by convention $x \log_r x$ evaluated at 0 is 0.

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

2.2. Properties of the entropy function

Theorem 1: $H_r(S) \leq \log_r q$ with equality if and only if S is the source where each symbol is emitted with probability $1/q$.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 2: $H_r(S) \leq L(C)$ for unique decodeable code C .

proof: Insert proof here

2.3. Shannon-Fano Code

Let S be the source with symbols s_i and probabilities p_i . Let $l_i := \lceil \log_r 1/p_i \rceil$.

Then: $\sum_{i=1}^q r^{-l_i} \leq \sum r^{-\log_r 1/p_i} = \sum p_i = 1$

¹A **source** is a finite set S together with a sequence of random variables X_i whose range is S

Definition 3: by Kraft exists a prefix code with word length l_1, l_2, \dots, l_1 . This code is called **Shannon-Fano code**.

Example:

Lemma 2: For the Shannon-Fano code C : $H_r(S) \leq L(C) < H_r(S) + 1$.

proof: Insert proof here

2.4. Product of sources

Let S and T be two memoryless sources, S with symbols s_i and probabilities p_i and T with symbols t_j and probabilities q_j .

Definition 4: The **product source** $S \times T$ is a source with symbols $s_i t_j$ and probabilities $p_i q_j$.

Theorem 3: $H_r(S \times T) = H_r(S) + H_r(T)$.

proof: Insert proof here

Corollary 1: $H_r(S^n) = nH_r(S)$.

Theorem 4: Noiseless Coding The average word length L_n of an optimal code of S^n satisfies:

$$\frac{L_n}{n} \rightarrow H_r(S), n \rightarrow \infty$$

proof: Insert proof here

Examples:

2.5. Markov Chains

Definition 4: A **Markov Chain** is a sequence of random variables where X_{n+1} depends only for X_n .

$$P(X_{n+1} = s_j | X_n = s_i) = p_{i,j}$$

This can be represented in a direct graph and also by a matrix $P := (p)_{i,j}$.

Suppose u_0 is the vector which describes the initial distribution, ie. the i -th coordinate of u_0 is probability we start at s_i . Probability of being in the i -th state after r steps is the i -th coordinate of $u_0 P^r$.

Theorem 5: if $\exists r \in \mathbb{N}$ such that P^r has no zero entries, then $u_0 P^r \rightarrow u$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Definition 5: This vector u is called the **stationary distribution**. It is normalised eigenvector of P^t with eigenvalue 1, ie. $u_j = \sum_i p_{i,j} u_i$ and $\sum_j u_j = 1$.

Definition 6: If P is the matrix of a Markov Chain and $\exists r$ such that P^r has non zero entries then we say that the Markov Chain is **regular**.

2.6. Sources with memory

Suppose S is a Markov Chain source with random variables X_1, X_2, \dots such that

$$P(X_{n+1} = s_j | X_n = s_i) = p_{i,j}$$

Definition 7: S is **not memoryless**, but it is stationary.

Theorem 6: suppose S is a regular Markov Chain source with stationary distribution $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$. Let S' be the stationary memoryless source with the same source elements as S (where s_i is emitted with probability w_i). Then:

$$H_r(S) \leq H_r(S')$$

proof: Insert proof here

3. Information channels

3.1. Channel matrix

Let \mathcal{A} be a stationary memoryless source with random variables X_1, X_2, \dots where $P(X_n = a_i) = p_i$ for $a_i \in \mathcal{A}$.

Suppose we transmit \mathcal{A} through a channel Γ .

Let \mathcal{B} be a source with random variables Y_1, Y_2, \dots where $P(Y_n = b_j) = q_j$

For b_j emerging from the channel:

$$\mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\Gamma} \mathcal{B}$$

Definition 1: The **channel** is defined by a matrix (p_{ij}) where $p_{ij} = P(X_n = b_j | X_n = a_i)$ the probability we receive b_j given that a_i was sent, **p_{ij} -forward probabilities**. The **backwards probabilities** are $q_{ij} = P(X_n = a_i | Y_n = b_j)$ and **joint probabilities** $r_{ij} = P(X_n = a_i, Y_n = b_j)$

Example:

Example: Binary Erasure Channel

3.2. System Entropies and mutual information

Definition 2: We define the **input entropy** as:

$$H(\mathcal{A}) := - \sum_i p_i \log(p_i)$$

Definition 3: We define the **output entropy** as:

$$H(\mathcal{B}) := - \sum_j q_j \log(q_j)$$

We suppress the r (base) in the \log_r but it's always the same for every one.

Given that we have received $b_j \in \mathcal{B}$, $H(\mathcal{A} | Y_n = b_j) = - \sum_i q_{ij} \log(q_{ij})$.

This is telling us the average information of \mathcal{A} knowing that $Y_n = b_j$.

If $H(\mathcal{A} | Y_n = b_j) = 0$ then $\exists m$ such that $q_{ij} = 0$ for all $i \neq m$ and $q_{ij} = 1$ if $i = m$, ie. $P(X_n = a_m | Y_n = b_j) = 1$, ie. if we receive b_j then we know that a_m was sent.

If $H(\mathcal{A} | Y_n = b_j) = H(\mathcal{A})$ then we learn nothing about \mathcal{A} when we receive b_j and this occurs when $q_{ij} = P(X_n = a_i | Y_n = b_j) = P(X_n = a_i) = p_i$.

Definition 4: Averaging over $b_j \in \mathcal{B}$ we get the **conditional entropy**:

$$H(\mathcal{A} | \mathcal{B}) := - \sum_j P(Y_n = b_j) H(\mathcal{A} | Y_n = b_j) = - \sum_{i,j} q_j q_{ij} \log q_{ij}$$

Similary:

$$H(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) := - \sum_{i,j} p_i p_{ij} \log p_{ij}$$

Definition 5: The **joint entropy**:

$$H(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) := - \sum_{i,j} r_{ij} \log r_{ij}$$

Example:

Theorem 1: For sources \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} :

$$H(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) = H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) + H(\mathcal{B}) = H(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) + H(\mathcal{A})$$

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 6: We define the **mutual information** as the amount of information about \mathcal{A} we have learnt from \mathcal{B} and vice-versa:

$$I(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) := H(\mathcal{B}) - H(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) = H(\mathcal{A}) - H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})$$

If $H(\mathcal{A}) = H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})$ then \mathcal{B} tells us nothing about \mathcal{A} , so $I(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) = 0$. This is an unreliable channel and useless as a mean of communication.

If $H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) = 0$ then knowing \mathcal{B} we know everythin about \mathcal{A} , so $I(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) = H(\mathcal{A})$. This is the perfect situation because when we recive something, we know exactly what was sent.

Example:

3.3. Extension of noiseless coding theorem to information channels

We have proved that given a source \mathcal{A} we can find an encoding of \mathcal{A}^n such that the average word lenght L_n satisfies $\frac{L_n}{n} \rightarrow H(\mathcal{A})$.

$\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$, imagine we know \mathcal{B} .

Lemma 1: $H(\mathcal{A}^n|\mathcal{B}^n) = nH(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})$

proof: EXERCISE

Theorem 2: if \mathcal{B} is know then we can find encodings of \mathcal{A}^n such that the average word length L_n satisfies $\frac{L_n}{n} \rightarrow H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})$.

proof: Insert proof here

3.4. Decision rules

$$\mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\Gamma} \mathcal{B}$$

Where \mathcal{A} is the **input**, \mathcal{B} is the **output** and Γ is the **channel**.

The channel is given by a matrix (p_{ij}) , $p_{ij} = P(Y_n = b_j | X_n = a_i)$. We defined $r_{ij} = P(X_n = a_i | X_n = b_j)$.

So if we recive b_j we should “decode” b_j as a_{j*} where $r_{j*j} \geq r_{ij}$ for all i .

Definition 7: We would define our decision $\Delta : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ as $\Delta(b_j) := a_{j*}$, this is called the **ideal observer rule**.

Howecer, most likely we only know p_{ij} ’s.

Definition 8: In **maximun likelihood decoding** we use the decision rule $\Delta(b_j) := a_{j*}$, where $p_{j*j} \geq p_{ij}$ for all i .

Definition 9: The **average probability of a correct decoding** is:

$$P_{cor} := \sum_j q_j q_{j*j} - \sum_j r_{j*j}$$

Remind $q_{ij} = P(X_n = a_i | Y_n = b_j)$. Given that we received b_j if we dcode it as a_{j*} then the probability we have decoded correctly is $P(X_n = a_{j*} | Y_n = b_j) = q_{j*j}$

3.5. Improving reliability

Suposse Γ is the binary symmetrical channel $\begin{pmatrix} \phi & 1-\phi \\ 1-\phi & \phi \end{pmatrix}$ (and assume $\phi > \frac{1}{2}$).

If we extends the source $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1\}$ to $\{000, 001\}$ then the outpout source if $\{000, 001, 010, 100, 110, 101, 011, 111\}$. Now we have the channel matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \phi^3 & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & (1-\phi)^3 \\ (1-\phi)^3 & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^2(1-\phi) & \phi^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

if we decode $\Delta(000) = \Delta(001) = \Delta(010) = \Delta(100) = 0$ and $\Delta(111) = \Delta(110) = \Delta(101) = \Delta(011) = 1$.

effectively we have the channel:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1-\phi) & 3\phi^2(1-\phi) + (1-\phi)^3 \\ 3\phi^2(1-\phi) + (1-\phi)^3 & \phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1-\phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

since $\phi > 1 - \phi$ we have $\phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1 - \phi) > \phi$.

So we have proved the reliability of the channel, because $P_{cor} = \sum_j r_{j*j} = p(\phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1 - \phi)) + (1 - p)(\phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1 - \phi)) = \phi^3 + 3\phi^2(1 - \phi)$.

Observe if we do not extend the sorce $P_{cor} = \phi$.

3.6. Rates of transmission and Hamming distance

noindent Suppose \mathcal{A} is a source with r symbols. By extending the source, consider \mathcal{C} to be a subset of \mathcal{A}^n .

Definition 10: The **(transmission) rate of \mathcal{C}** is:

$$R := \frac{\log_r |\mathcal{C}|}{n}$$

By increasing n in the previous exercise we can make $P_{cor} \rightarrow 1$. However $R \rightarrow 0$ since $|\mathcal{C}| = \frac{\log_2 2}{n} \rightarrow 0$.

Definition 11: The **capacity of a channel Γ** is:

$$\Lambda = \max_{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}} I(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$$

Maximising over \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} means we can vary p_i 's and q_j 's.

Since \mathcal{C} is a subset of \mathcal{A}^n the rate tell us how many bits of information we can send in n bits (it is Rn).

Lemma 2: The capacity of a binary symmetric channel $\begin{pmatrix} \phi & 1-\phi \\ 1-\phi & \phi \end{pmatrix}$ is $\Lambda = 1 + \phi \log_2 \phi + (1 - \phi) \log_2 (1 - \phi)$.

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 12: For any $u, v \in \mathcal{A}^n$, the **Hamming distance** is $d(u, v) :=$ number of coordinates where u and v differ.

Lemma 3: The Hamming distance satisfies the triangle inequality $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$

proof: Insert proof here

Lemma 4: For the binary symmetric channel, maximum likelihood decoding is $\Delta(v) = u$, where u is the closest element of \mathcal{C} with respect to the Hamming distance.

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 13: in general this decoding is called **nearest neighbour decoding**.

Lemma 5: For $0 < \lambda < \frac{1}{2}$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lambda n} \binom{n}{i} \leq 2^{n(-\lambda \log(\lambda) - (1-\lambda) \log(1-\lambda))}$$

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 2: (Shannon) Let $\delta, \varepsilon > 0$. For all sufficiently large n there is a code of length n and rate R satisfying $\Lambda - \varepsilon < R < \Lambda$ together with a decision rule Δ such that $P_{cor} \rightarrow 1 - \delta$.

proof: Insert proof here (ONLY FOR BINARY SYMMETRIC CHANNEL)

Lemma 6: For an input source \mathcal{A} and output source \mathcal{B} and decision rule $\Delta(b_j) = a_{j*}$.

$$H(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) \leq -P_{cor} \log(P_{cor}) - (1 - P_{cor}) \log(1 - P_{cor}) + (1 - P_{cor})(\log |\mathcal{C}| - 1)$$

where \mathcal{C} is the set of input source elements emitted with non zero probability.

Theorem 3: If $\Lambda' > \Lambda$ and we fix the input probability distribution is uniform then there is no sequence of codes C_n of rate R satisfying $\Lambda' - \varepsilon < R < \Lambda'$ such that $P_{cor} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

proof: Insert proof here

4. Finite fields

4.1. Basic definitions

Definition 1: A **field** is a commutable ring in which every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

Example:

Example:

Notation 1: We denote as (f) with $f \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$, the **ideal consisiting of all multiples of f**.

Theorem 1: if f is an irreducible polynomial of degree h then $\mathbb{F}_p[X]/(f)$ is a finite field with p^h elements.

proof: Insert proof here

Examples:

Exercise : construct a field with 9 elements.

Let \mathbb{F} be a finite field. Let n minimal such that adding 1 n times gives 0.

Since $\overbrace{(1 + \dots + 1)}^n = \overbrace{(1 + \dots + 1)}^r \overbrace{(1 + \dots + 1)}^{n/r} = 0$ minimally implies that $n = p$ is prime.

Definition 2: In this situation, we say that \mathbb{F} has **characteristic** p . If no such p exists then we say that \mathbb{F} has **characteristic zero**, in which case $\mathbb{F} \supset \mathbb{Z}$ and so $\mathbb{F} \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$.

insert exercise here

4.2. Properties of finite fields

Theorem 2: Let \mathbb{F} be a field with q elements. For all $x \in \mathbb{F}$. $x^q = x$.

proof: Insert proof here

The finite field with q elements is unique since it is the splitting field of the polynomial $x^q - x \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$.

Consider the map $x \mapsto x^p$ in \mathbb{F} ($q = p^h$).

$$(x + y)^p = \sum_{j=0}^p \binom{p}{j} x^j y^{p-j} = x^p + y^p$$

Observe that $\binom{p}{j} = 0$ (modulo p) for $j = 1, \dots, p-1$.

$$(x * y)^p = x^p y^p$$

So this map is partially an automorphism of \mathbb{F}_p since it preserves addition and multiplication.

Definition 3: This is called the **Frobenius automorphism**.

$$x \mapsto x^p \mapsto x^{p^2} \mapsto x^{p^3} \mapsto \dots \mapsto x^{p^{h-1}} \mapsto x$$

4.3. Factorization of polynomials

Let \mathbb{F}_p denote the unique finite field with q elements ($q = p^h$).

Lemma 1: The polynomial $x^{q-1} - 1$ factories into distinct linear factors in $\mathbb{F}_q[X]$.

proof: Insert proof here

Lemma 2: The polynomial $x^q - 1$ factories into distinct irreducible factors whose degree divides h .

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Example:

Observation 1: if q is odd $x^{q-1} - 1 = (x^{\frac{q-1}{2}} - 1)(x^{\frac{q-1}{2}} + 1)$ the zeros of the first factor are on the non-zeros squares in \mathbb{F}_q and vice-versa ($x = y^2$ then $x^{\frac{q-1}{2}} = y^{q-1} = 1$).

Observation 2: if $q^1 = q^r$ then $x^n - 1 = (x^{n/q'} - 1)^{q'}$ so if we want to factorise $x^n - 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ we can assume $(n, p) = 1$.

To factorise $x^n - 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_q[X]$, we find an extension field in \mathbb{F}_q which contains n -th roots of 1, ie. find h such that n divides $q^h - 1$ since then $x^{q^n-1} - 1$ is divisible by $x^n - 1$, ie. $q^n = 1 \pmod{1}$, ie. h is the multiplicative order of q in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

If we let ε be a primitive n -th root of 1 in \mathbb{F}_{q^n} then $(x - \varepsilon)(x - \varepsilon^q)(x - \varepsilon^{q^2})\dots(x - \varepsilon^{q^{h-1}})$ is a polynomial whose coefficients are in \mathbb{F}_q since $(x - \varepsilon)(x - \varepsilon^q)(x - \varepsilon^{q^2})\dots(x - \varepsilon^{q^h})$.

Example:

insert exercise here

Example:

5. Block codes

5.1. Minimum distance

Let \mathcal{A} be a finite set (an alphabet).

Definition 1: A **block code** \mathfrak{C} of length n is a subset of \mathbb{A}^n .

Definition 2: The **minimum distance of \mathfrak{C}** is the minimum Hamming distance between any 2 codewords (elements of \mathfrak{C}).

We are going to use nearest neighbour decoding so we want d as large as possible. We also can't $|\mathfrak{C}|$ to be as large as possible.

Lemma 1: A block code of minimum distance d can correct up to $\left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor$ errors using nearest neighbour decoding.

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Example:

Definition 3: Let \mathfrak{C} be a binary code of length n . The **extended code** $\overline{\mathfrak{C}}$ is the code of length $n+1$ defined by:

$$\overline{\mathfrak{C}} := \{(u_1, \dots, u_{n+1}) : u \in \mathfrak{C} \text{ where } u_{n+1} = u_1 + \dots + u_n \pmod{2}\}$$

Theorem 1: if the minimum distance d of a binary code is odd then the minimum distance of $\widehat{\mathfrak{C}}$ is $d+1$.

proof: Insert proof here

5.2. Bounds on block codes

Let $\mathcal{A}_r(n, d)$ denote the maximum $|\mathfrak{C}|$, such that exists a block code \mathfrak{C} of length n , minimum distance d over an alphabet with r -elements.

Theorem 1: (Gilbert-Varshamov Bound)

$$\mathcal{A}_r(n, d) \left(1 + \binom{n}{1}(r-1) + \dots + \binom{n}{d}(r-1)^d \right) \geq r^n$$

proof: Insert proof here

Recall 1: we defined the binary entropy function as $h(p) = -p \log p - (1-p) \log (1-p)$.

Corollary 1: in the case $r = 2$:

$$\frac{1}{n} \log_2 \mathcal{A}_2(n, d) \geq 1 - h(\delta), \text{ where } \delta = \frac{d}{n}$$

Definition 4: $\delta = \frac{d}{n}$ is called **relative minimum distance**.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 2: (Sphere packing bound)

$$A_r(n, d) \left(1 + \binom{n}{d}(r-1) + \dots + \binom{n}{t}(r-1)^t \right) \leq r^n \text{ where } t = \left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor$$

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 5: A code meeting the Spheree-packing bound is called **perfect code**.

Observation 1: the parameteres (n, t, r) must be such that:

$$1 + \binom{n}{d}(r-1) + \dots + \binom{n}{t}(r-1)^t \text{ is a power of } r$$

Example:

insert exercise here

Lemma 2: (Plotking Lemma) An r -ary code \mathfrak{C} of length n and minimum distance d satisfies $|\mathfrak{C}| \left(d + \frac{n}{r} - n \right) \leq d$.

proof: Insert proof here

insert exercise here

Theorem 3: (Plotkin-Bound) if \mathfrak{C} is a binary code of length n , minimum distance $d < \frac{n}{2}$. then:

$$|\mathfrak{C}| \leq d2^{n-2d+2}$$

proof: Insert proof here

5.3. Asymptotically good codes

We will construct and use short length codes which we can encode and decoode quickly, this is very useful in manyaplications.

Examples:

However, in many cases we will have a lot of data and if we chop n bits into $\frac{n}{n_0}$ chunks which we can send with $P_{cor} = P$ close to 1.

$$P^{\frac{n}{n_0}} \longrightarrow 0$$

Let's suppose we have a binary code of length n and rate R (so $|\mathfrak{C}| \approx 2^{nR}$).

In the proof of the Shannon's Theorem, we wed to the fact that the expected number of errors (using the binary symmetric channel) was $(1-\phi)n$, so if we are going to use the nearest neighbour decoding we need that d is also linear in n (as n gets very large), so we want $\delta = \frac{d}{n} > 0$.

Definition 5: We call the sequence codes of length n , where $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\delta > 0$. $R > 0$. **asymptotically good**.

inset exercise here

Theorem 4: (Sphere packing bound) Asymptotically (for n large):

$$R \leq 1 - h\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$$

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 5: (Plotkin) if $\delta \leq \frac{1}{2}$ then $R \leq 1 - 2\delta$.

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 6: Let $\mathcal{A}(n, d, \omega)$, **The maximum size** of a binary code of length n with minimum distance d in which all the codewords have weight ω .

(For any tuple $v \in \mathcal{A}^n$ where $0 \in \mathcal{A}$, the **weight** $wt(v) := \{ \text{number of non-zero coordinates that it has} \}$).

Lemma 3:

$$\mathcal{A}(n, d, \omega) \leq \frac{nd}{2\omega^2 - 2n\omega + dn}$$

proof: Insert proof here

CONJECTURE: there's no perfect constant (apart from the trivial bounds) weight codes.

Theorem 6: Let R be the rate of a sequence of asymptotically good binary codes if $\delta < \frac{1}{2}$ then:

$$R < 1 - h\left(\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{1 - 2\delta})\right)$$

where $h(p) = -p \log_2(p) - (1 - p) \log_2(1 - p)$

6. Linear codes

6.1. Basics

Definition 1: Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{F}_q$. If \mathcal{C} is a subspace of \mathfrak{F}_q^n then we say \mathcal{C} is a **linear code**.

If \mathcal{C} is a k -dimensional subspace then $|\mathcal{C}| = q^k$.

Definition 2: For $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$, $wt(v) := \{\text{number of non-zero coordinates that it has}\}$.

Lemma 1: (Minimum Weight Lemma) the minimum distance of a linear code \mathcal{C} is equal to the minimum non-zero weight of the vector in \mathcal{C} .

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 3: We can describe \mathcal{C} by a basis and if \mathfrak{G} is a $k \times n$ matrix whose rows are a basis for \mathcal{C} then we say that \mathfrak{G} is a **generator matrix** for \mathcal{C} .

$$\mathcal{C} := \{u\mathfrak{G} : u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n\}$$

Linear codes encode q^k multiple messages by simply multiplying by a matrix:

$$u \mapsto u\mathfrak{G}$$

$$\text{message} \mapsto \text{codeword}$$

insert exercise here

Observation 1: The rate of a k -dimensional linear code is:

$$R = \frac{\log |\mathcal{C}|}{n} = \frac{k}{n}$$

Definition 4: a **check matrix** for a linear code is an $m \times n$ matrix \mathfrak{H} such that:

$$\mathcal{C} := \{u \in \mathbb{F}_q^n : u\mathfrak{H}^t = 0\}$$

Example:

insert exercise here

Lemma 2: if \mathfrak{G} is a generator matrix for \mathcal{C} and \mathfrak{H} its check matrix then $\mathfrak{G}\mathfrak{H}^t = 0$.

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

6.2. Syndrom decoding

Definition 5: Let \mathcal{C} be a linear code with check matrix \mathfrak{H} . The **syndrome of a vector** $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$ is $s(v) := v\mathfrak{H}^t$, observe that $v \in \mathcal{C} \iff s(v) = 0$.

Suppose that $t = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ and we correctly up to t errors to use syndrome decoding we calculate $s(e)$ for all vectors $e \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$ such that $wt(e) \leq t$.

Then if we recieve $v \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$ we look for e such that $s(v) = s(e)$ because this implies $s(v - e) = 0 \Rightarrow v - e \in \mathcal{C}$ and we have found the codeword.

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

insert exercise here

6.3. Dual code and Mc Williams identities

Definition 6: Let \mathcal{C} be a k -dimensional linear code of length n (ie. k -dimensional subspace of \mathfrak{F}_2^n). We denote by:

$$\mathcal{C}^\perp := \{v \in \mathbb{F}_q^n : uv = 0 \forall u \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

\mathcal{C}^\perp is a $(n - k)$ -dimensional code of length n .

\mathcal{C}^\perp is the **dual code**.

Lemma 3: if \mathfrak{H} is an $(n \times k)$ check matrix for \mathcal{C} then \mathfrak{H} is a generator matrix for \mathcal{C}^\perp likewise if \mathfrak{G} is a $(k \times n)$ generator matrix for \mathcal{C} then it is a check matrix for \mathcal{C}^\perp .

Definition 7: if $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}^\perp$ then we say \mathcal{C} is **self-dual**.

Observation 2: in a self-dual binary code the weight of a codeword is even since $\bar{u}u = u = wt(u)$ must be zero.

Definition 8: Let \mathcal{A}_i denote the number of codewords of weight i . The **weight enumerator polynomial** is:

$$\mathcal{A}(t) := \sum_{i=0}^n \mathcal{A}_i t^i = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{C}} t^{wt(u)}$$

Theorem 1: Let $\mathcal{A}^\perp(t)$ be the weight enumerator for \mathcal{C}^\perp :

$$\mathcal{A}^\perp(t) = q^{-k} (1 + (q-1)t)^n \mathcal{A}\left(\frac{1-t}{1+(q-1)t}\right)$$

Example:

Example:

6.4. The Griesmer bound

Lemma 4: Let \mathcal{S} be a set of columns of a $k \times n$ generator matrix \mathcal{G} for a linear code \mathcal{C} . \mathcal{S} is a set of n vectors in \mathbb{F}_q^k with property that any hyperplane of \mathbb{F}_q^k contains at most $n - d$ vectors of \mathcal{S} .

proof: Insert proof here

Observation 3: Since there is a codeword of weight d there is a hyperplane of \mathbb{F}_q^k containing exactly $n - d$ vectors of \mathcal{S} .

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 2: (The Griesmer bound) If there is a k -dimensional linear code over \mathbb{F}_q of length n and minimum distance d then:

$$n \geq \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \left\lceil \frac{d}{q^j} \right\rceil$$

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Example:

Example:

Example:

7. Cyclic codes

7.1. Introduction

Definition 1: A linear code \mathcal{C} is **cyclic** if $(c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}) \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow (c_{n-1}, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n-2}) \in \mathcal{C}$.

Observation 1: There is a 1 – 1 correspondence between codewords in \mathcal{C} and polynomials in $\mathfrak{F}_q/(x^n - 1)$:

$$(c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}) \longleftrightarrow c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

Lemma 1: A cyclic code corresponds an ideal in $\mathfrak{F}_q[X]/(x^n - 1)$.

proof: Insert proof here

Lemma 2: The cyclic code $\mathcal{C} = \langle g \rangle$, for some polynomial g dividing $x^n - 1$ and has dimension at least $n - \deg(g)$.

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 2: For any polynomial h , h **reverse** is $\overleftarrow{h} := x^{\deg(h)}h(x^{-1})$.

The following theorem implies $\dim(\mathcal{C}) = n - \deg(g)$.

Theorem 1: The dual code of $\langle g \rangle$ is $\langle \overleftarrow{h} \rangle$ where $g(x)h(x) = x^n - 1$.

(This implies $\dim(\mathcal{C}^\perp) \geq n - \deg(h) = \deg(g) \Rightarrow \dim(\mathcal{C}) = n - \dim(\mathcal{C}^\perp) \leq n - \deg(g)$).

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

7.2. Quadratic residue codes

Let n be a prime and q (a prime too) a square in \mathbb{F}_n .

Example:

Let α be a primitive n -root of 1 in some extension of \mathbb{F}_q . Let $g(x) = \prod_{r \text{ squares in } \mathbb{F}_n} (x - \alpha^r)$. g divides $x^n - 1$, so $\langle g \rangle$ defines a cyclic code of length n over \mathbb{F}_q .

Definition 3: This g is called **quadratic residue code**.

Example:

insert exercise here

7.3. BCH Codes

Let α be a primitive n -th root of 1 in some extension of \mathbb{F}_q and suppose that $g \in \mathbb{F}_q[X]$ is the minimum degree polynomial such that $g(\alpha^j) = 0$ for $j = 1, \dots, d_0$.

Definition 4: Then $\langle g \rangle$ is a **BCH code**.

Theorem 2: The minimum distance of $\langle g \rangle$ is at least d_0 .

proof: Insert proof here

insert exercise here

Example:

Example:

Example:

insert exercise here

Theorem 3: There is no infinite sequence of k -dimensional linear BHC codes of length n and minimum distance d with both $\frac{k}{n}$ and $\frac{d}{n}$ bounded away from zero.

7.4. Decision problem, yes/no problem

P

Decision problems which can be resolved with polynomial time algorithms. Polynomial in the input (which is given as a part of the problem).

Example: is n prime? Size of input is the number of bits $\approx \log_2 n$.

NP

Gives a positive answer to the problem we can check with a polynomial time algorithm.

Example: does a graph have a Hamiltonian cycle?

Observation 2: Recall in syndrome decoding we calculate $s(v) = v\mathfrak{H}^t$ where v is the received vector and we look for e whose $wt(e) \leq t$ $s(v) = s(e)$.

Does such a vector e exist is a decision problem, i.e. given \mathfrak{H} and s , does $\exists e$ of $wt(e) \leq t$ and $e\mathfrak{H}^t = s$.

Theorem 4: The decision problem of whether we can decode a linear code using syndrome decoding is NP.

proof: Insert proof here

8. Maximun distance separable codes

8.1. Syngleton bound

Theorem 1: If \mathcal{C} is a r -ary code of length n and minimun distance d , then $|\mathcal{C}| \leq r^{n-d+1}$.

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 1: A **maximun distance separable (MDS) code** is a code reaching the Singleton bound.

Example:

Theorem 2: If \mathcal{C} is a k -dimensional linear code of length n and minimun distance d over \mathbb{F}_q then $k \leq n - d + 1$.

proof: Insert proof here

A k -dimensionl linear MDS code of length n has minumun distance $n - k + 1$.

Example: (Reed-Solomon code)

Theorem 3: There is a (fast) polynomial time algorithm for decoding Reed-Solomon codes.

proof: Insert proof here

8.2. Linear MDS codes

Theorem 4: Let \mathcal{S} be the set of columns of a generator matrize \mathfrak{G} of a k -dimensional linear MDS code over \mathbb{F}_q . Then every k -subset of \mathcal{S} is a basis of \mathbb{F}_q^k (which is called an **arc**).

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 5: if $k \geq q$ then a k -dimensionla linear MDS code has minimun distance at most 2.

proof: Insert proof here

Suppose we want to make a biunary code from a linear MDS code. We can write out every element of \mathbb{F}_q as a tuple of $\{0, 1\}$ of length $\approx \log_2 q$.

Suppose MDS code has length N , then the binary code has length $n \approx N \log_2 q$ and q^k codewords. The binary code hase rate:

$$R = \frac{\log_2 |\mathcal{C}|}{n} \approx \frac{k \log_2 q}{N \log_2 q} = \frac{k}{N}$$

We can make R-S codes of any rate we like so this is good.

The **relative minimun distance** is $\approx \frac{d}{N \log_2 q} \left(=: \delta \right) = \frac{N-k+1}{n} \approx \frac{1}{\log_2 q} - \frac{k-1}{N \log_2 q} = \frac{1-k/n}{\log_2 q}$.

So for a fiz rate if we have an infinite sequence of codes of length n then $q \rightarrow \infty$ as well, so $\delta \rightarrow 0$. So this will not give us asymptotically good codes.

A long burst of errors provohes onlu a few errors in the MDS code. Our theorem frem before says we should concentrate on $k \leq q - 1$.

The Reed-Solomon code gives MDS code of length $n = q + 1$ for $k - 1 \leq q - 2$ (since $x^{q-1} = 1$ for $x \in \mathbb{F}_q - \{0\}$) are there any better codes.

If $k = 3$ and q even, then:

$$\mathfrak{G} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 & 0 \\ x_1 & \dots & x_p & 0 \\ x_1^2 & \dots & x_p^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

we can extend the R-S code.

We have to check that:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ x & y & 1 \\ x^2 & y^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow x = y$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = (x + y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y \text{ (q is even!!)}$$

MDS CONJETURE: if $4 \leq k \leq q - 2$ then a linear MDS code has length $q + 1$.

insert exercise here

\Rightarrow if $\dim(\mathcal{C}) = k$ then $\dim(\mathcal{C}^\perp) = n - k$ so we need to prove that minumun distance of \mathcal{C}^\perp is $n - (n - k) + 1 = k + 1$.

The example with $k = 3$ of length $q + 2$ gives us an example with $k = q - 1$ of length $q + 2$.

Lemma 3: A k -dimensional linear MDS code over \mathbb{F}_q has length at most $q + k - 1$.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 6: if q is prime then MDS conjeture is true. In fact ($q = p^n$) if $k \leq p$ then $n \leq q + 1$.

Theorem 7: if $k \leq p$ then a linear MDS code of length $q + 1$ is a R-S code.

Example:

9. Alternant codes

Definition 1: Let \mathcal{C} be a linear code of length n over \mathbb{F}_q^n . An **alternant code** \mathcal{A} over \mathbb{F}_q is a subset of \mathcal{C} in which the codewords are vectors of \mathbb{F}_q^n .

Lemma 1: \mathcal{A} is a linear code.

proof: Insert proof here

Lemma 2: If \mathcal{C} is a k' -dimensional linear code then \mathcal{A} is a k -dimensional linear code satisfying:

$$k' \geq k \geq n - (n - k')h$$

proof: Insert proof here

Definition 2: A **generalised k -dimensional Reed-Solomon code (GRS)** over \mathbb{F}_{q^h} :

$$\mathcal{C} := \{v_1 f(\alpha_1), \dots, v_n f(\alpha_n) : f \in \mathbb{F}_q[X], \deg(f) \leq k' - 1\}$$

where v_1, \dots, v_n are elements of $\mathbb{F}_{q^n} - \{0\}$.

Lemma 3: Suppose a_1, \dots, a_k are distinct elements of \mathbb{F}_q and $b_1, \dots, b_k \in \mathbb{F}_q$. There is a polynomial f of degree $\leq k - 1$ such that:

$$f(a_j) = b_j, \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, k$$

proof: Insert proof here

Lemma 4: The number of GRS codes containing a after permuting the coordinates, we assume the zero.coordinates of a . Choose $v_1, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{F}_{q^k} - \{0\}$ occur in the first $k - 1$ coordinates.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 1: There are long GRS alternant codes of rate R reacting the Gilbert-Varshamov bound.

proof: Insert proof here

10. Low density parity check codes

10.1. Bipartite graphs with the expander property

Definition 1: $\delta \in (0, 1)$, $\gamma \in \mathbb{N}$. A left γ -regular bipartite graph with vertex set $\mathcal{V}_L \cup \mathcal{V}_R$ of size n and m respectively, has the **expander property** if $\forall s \subset \mathcal{V}_L$, $|s| < \delta n$, $|N(s)| > \frac{3}{4}\gamma|s|$ where $N(s)$ is the set of neighbours of s .

Lemma 1: Given $\gamma > 4$ and $R \in (0, 1)$ (dependent on γ and R) for which a left γ -regular bipartite graph with $m = (1 - R)n$ exists, for all n large enough.

proof: Insert proof here

10.2. Low density parity check (LDPC) codes

Definition 2: A **Low density parity check (LDPC) code** is a binary linear code with a check matrix \mathfrak{H} which has a constant number of 1's in each column.

(Recall $\mathcal{C} = \{u \in \mathbb{F}_2^k : u\mathfrak{H}^t = 0\}$).

Lemma 2: Fix R (transmission rate), δ (relative minimum distance), $m \approx (1 - R)n$, \mathfrak{H} is a $m \times n$ matrix. Given a left γ -regular bipartite graph Γ with the expander property, there is (at least) $R, \delta > 0$.

proof: Insert proof here

10.3. Belief propagation

Recall syndrom of $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ is $s(x) = x\mathfrak{H}^t$.

Example:

$$e_j = (0, 0, \dots, \overbrace{1}^j, \dots, 0, 0)$$

Lemma 3: $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ and suppose $d(x, u) < \delta_n$ for some $u \in \mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$. Then $\exists i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ such that $wt(s(x + e_i)) < wt(s(x))$.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 1: there is a polynomial time algorithm for decoding $\mathcal{C}(\Gamma)$.

proof: Insert proof here

11. P-adic codes

We prove there is no 8-dimensional binary linear code of length 16 and minimum distance 6 (ie. $|\mathcal{C}| = 256, n = 16, d = 6$).

11.1. P-adic numbers

Definition 1: Let p be a prime. A **p-adic integer** is a sequence (a_1, a_2, \dots) such that $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}/p^i\mathbb{Z}$ and $a_{j+1} = a_j \bmod(p^j)$.

Example:

$(3, 8, 58, 183, 183, \dots)$ is a 5-adic integer.

Definition 2:

■ **Addition component-wise:**

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots) + (b_1, b_2, \dots) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots)$$

■ **Multiplication component-wise:**

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots) \cdot (b_1, b_2, \dots) = (a_1 \cdot b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2, \dots)$$

This set of sequence, addition and multiplication is denoted \mathbb{Z}_p and it's a ring with multiplicative identity $1 = (1, 1, \dots)$.

\mathbb{Z}_p is an integral domain ($xy = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0 \vee y = 0$), it has a quotient field \mathbb{Q}_p (p-adic numbers).

Definition 3: $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots)$ is a **unit** (it has multiplicative inverse) if and only if $a_1 \neq 0$.

Example:

$$a = (3, 8, 58, 183, \dots)$$

$$a^{-1} = (2, 22, 97, 222, \dots)$$

Non units are of the form $(0, \dots, 0, a_r, a_{r+1}, \dots)$ with $a_r \neq 0$. We can write it as $p^r(a_r, a_{r+1}, \dots)$ in \mathbb{Q}_p the inverse of this number is $p^{-r}b^{-1}$ where $b = (a_r, a_{r+1}, \dots)$.

11.2. Polynomials over \mathbb{Q}_p

Let $\overline{\mathbb{Q}_p}$ denote the algebraic closure of \mathbb{Q}_p .

Lemma 1: if $\alpha = \beta \bmod(p)$, then $\alpha^p = \beta^p \bmod(p^{r+1})$.

proof: Insert proof here

Theorem 1: if h is a monic irreducible divisor of $x^n - 1$ in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})[X]$ then $\exists!$ a monic irreducible polynomial $h_\infty \in \mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ which divides $x^n - 1$ and $h_\infty = h \bmod(p)$.

proof: Insert proof here

Example:

Example:

Example : The Grey map