# Introduction

We model communication:

$$\underbrace{\mathrm{SOURCE}}_{\mathrm{message}} \to \underbrace{\mathrm{ENCODER}}_{\mathrm{codewords}} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{CHANNEL}}_{\mathrm{errors, noise}} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{pecoder}}_{\mathrm{recieved}} \underbrace{\mathrm{DECODER}}_{\mathrm{word \; error \; correction}} \to \underbrace{\mathrm{RECIEVER}}_{\mathrm{message}}.$$

**Examples**: optical signals, electrical telegraph, SMS (compression), postcodes, CDs (error correction), zip/gz files (compression).

Given a source and a channel, modelled probabilistically, the basic problem is to design an encoder and decoder to transmit messages economically (noiseless coding; compression) and reliably (noisy coding).

## **Examples:**

- Noiseless coding: Morse code: common letters are assigned shorter codewords, e.g  $A \mapsto \bullet -$ ,  $E \mapsto \bullet$ ,  $Q \mapsto --\bullet -$ ,  $S \mapsto \bullet \bullet$ ,  $O \mapsto ---$ ,  $Z \mapsto --\bullet \bullet$ . Noiseless coding is adapted to source.
- Noisy coding: Every book has an ISBN  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_9, a_{10}, a_i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, 9\}$  for  $1 \le i \le 9$  and  $a_{10} \in \{0, 1, \ldots, 9, X\}$  with  $\sum_{j=1}^{10} j a_j \equiv 0 \pmod{11}$ . This detects common errors e.g one incorrect digit, transposition of two digits. Noisy coding is adapted to the channel.

## Plan:

- (I) Noiseless coding entropy
- (II) Error correcting codes noisy channels
- (III) Information theory Shannon's theorems
- (IV) Examples of codes
- (V) Cryptography

**Books**: [GP], [W], [CT], [TW], Buchmann, Körner. Online notes: Carne, Körner.

# **Basic Definitions**

**Definition** (Communication channel). A communication channel accepts symbols from a alphabet  $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \ldots, a_r\}$  and it outputs symbols from alphabet  $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \ldots, b_s\}$ . Channel modelled by the probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(y_1 \ldots y_n \text{ recieved}|x_1 \ldots x_n \text{sent})$ . A discrete memoryless channel (DMC) is a channel with

$$p_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(b_j \text{ recieved}|a_i \text{ sent})$$

the same for each channel use and independent of all past and future uses. The channel matrix is  $P = (b_{ij})$ , a  $r \times s$  stochastic matrix.

**Definition** (Binary symmetric channel). The binary symmetric channel (BSC) with error probability  $p \in [0, 1)$  from  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{B} = \{0, 1\}$ . The channel matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1-p & p \\ p & 1-p \end{pmatrix}.$$

A symbol is transmitted correctly with probability 1 - p. Usually assume p < 1/2.

The binary erasure channel (BEC) has  $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = \{0, 1, *\}$ . The channel matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1-p & 0 & p \\ 0 & 1-p & p \end{pmatrix}.$$

So  $p = \mathbb{P}(\text{symbol can't be read}).$ 

**Definition.** We model n uses of a channel by the nth extension, with input alphabet  $\mathcal{A}^n$  and output alphabet  $\mathcal{B}^n$ . A code C of length n is a function  $\mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{A}^n$  where  $\mathcal{M}$  is the set of possible messages. Implicitly we also have a decoding rule  $\mathcal{B}^n \to \mathcal{M}$ . The size of C is  $m = |\mathcal{M}|$ . The information rate is  $\rho(C) = \frac{1}{n} \log_2 m$ . The error rate is  $\hat{e}(C) = \max_{x \in \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}(\text{error}|x \text{ sent})$ .

**Remark.** For the remainder of the course we write log instead of log<sub>2</sub>.

**Definition.** A channel can transmit reliably at rate R if there exists  $(C_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  with each  $C_n$  a code of length n such that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \rho(C_n) = R \& \lim_{n \to \infty} \hat{e}(C_n) = 0.$$

The *capacity* is the supremum of all reliable transmission rates. We'll see in Chapter 9 that a BSC with error probability p < 1/2 has non-zero capacity.

# 1 Noiseless coding

## 1.1 Prefix-free codes

For an alphabet  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $|\mathcal{A}| < \infty$ , let  $\mathcal{A}^* = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} \mathcal{A}^n$ , the set of all finite strings from  $\mathcal{A}$ . The *concatenation* of strings  $x = x_1 \dots x_r$  and  $y = y_1 \dots y_s$  is  $xy = x_1 \dots x_r y_1 \dots y_s$ .

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be alphabets. A code is a function  $c : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}^*$ . The strings c(a) for  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  are called *codewords* or *words* (CWS).

**Example 1.1** (Greek fire code).  $\mathcal{A} = \{\alpha, \beta, \dots, \omega\}$  (greek alphabet),  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, c : \alpha \mapsto 11, \beta \mapsto 12, \dots, \psi \mapsto 53, \omega \mapsto 54$ . xy means hold up x torches and another y torches nearby.

**Example 1.2.**  $\mathcal{A} = \text{words in a dictionary}, \ \mathcal{B} = \{A, B, \dots, Z, \omega\}. \ c : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$  splits the word and follows with a space. Send message  $x_1 \dots x_n \in \mathcal{A}^*$  as  $c(x_1) \dots c(x_n) \in \mathcal{B}^*$ . So c extends to a function  $c^* : \mathcal{A}^* \to \mathcal{B}^*$ .

**Definition.** c is said to be *decipherable* if the induced map  $c^*$  (as in the previous example) is injective. In other words, each string from  $\mathcal{B}$  corresponds to at most one message.

Clearly if c is decipherable, it is necessary for c to be injective. However it is not sufficient:

**Example 1.3.**  $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \mathcal{B} = \{0, 1\}.$  Define  $c : 1 \mapsto 0, 2 \mapsto 1, 3 \mapsto 00, 4 \mapsto 01.$  Then  $c^*(114) = 0001 = c^*(312) = c^*(144)$  yet c is injective.

**Notation**:  $|\mathcal{A}| = m$ ,  $|\mathcal{B}| = a$ , call c am a-ary code of size m. For example a 2-ary code is a binary one, and a 3-ary code is a ternary code.

Our aim is to construct decipherable codes with short word lengths. Assuming c is injective, the following codes are always decipherable:

- (i) A block code has all codewords of the same length (e.g Greek fire code);
- (ii) A <u>comma code</u> reserves a letter from  $\mathcal{B}$  to signal the end of a word (e.g Example 1.2);
- (iii) A <u>prefix-free code</u> is a code where no codeword is a prefix of any other distinct word (if  $x, y \in \mathcal{B}^*$  then x is a prefix of y if y = xz for some string  $z \in \mathcal{B}^*$ ).
- (i) and (ii) are special cases of (iii). As we can decode the message as it is recieved, prefix-free codes are sometimes called *instantaneous*.

**Exercise**: find a decipherable code which is not prefix-free.

**Definition** (Kraft's inequality).  $|\mathcal{A}| = m$ ,  $|\mathcal{B}| = a$ ,  $c : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}^*$  has word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . Then Kraft's inequality is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a^{-l_i} \le 1. \tag{*}$$

**Theorem 1.1.** A prefix-free code exists if and only if Kraft's inequality (\*) holds.

*Proof.* Rewrite (\*) as

$$\sum_{l=1}^{s} n_l a^{-l} \le 1, \tag{**}$$

where  $n_l$  is the number of codewords with length l, and  $s = \max_{1 \le i \le m} l_i$ .

Now if  $c: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}^*$  is prefix-free,

$$n_1 a^{s-1} + n_2 a^{s-2} + \ldots + n_{s-1} a + n_a \le a^s$$
.

Indeed the LHS is the number of strings of length s in B with some codeword of c as a prefix, and the RHS is the total number of strings of length S. Dividing through by  $a^s$  we get (\*\*).

Now given  $n_1, \ldots, n_s$  satisfying (\*\*), we try to construct a prefix-free code c with  $n_l$  codewords of length l,  $\forall l \leq s$ . Proceed by induction on s, s = 1 is clear (since (\*\*) gives  $n_1 \leq a$  so can construct code).

By the induction hypothesis, there exists a prefix-code  $\hat{c}$  with  $n_l$  codewords of length l for all  $l \leq s - 1$ . Then (\*\*) implies

$$n_1 a^{s-1} + n_2 a^{s-2} + \dots + n_{s-1} a + n_s < a^s$$
.

The first s-1 terms on the LHS sum to the number of strings of length s with a codeword of  $\hat{c}$  as a prefix and the RHS is the number of strings of length s. Hence we can add at least  $n_s$  new codewords of length s to  $\hat{c}$  and maintain the prefix-free property.

**Remark.** This proof is constructive: just choose codewords in order of increasing length, ensuring that no previous codeword is a prefix.

**Theorem 1.2** (McMillan). Any decipherable code satisfies Kraft's inequality.

Proof (Karush, 1961). Let  $c: A \to B^*$  be a decipherable code with word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . Set  $s = \max_{1 \le i \le m} l_i$ . For  $R \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} a^{-l_i}\right)^R = \sum_{l=1}^{Rs} b_l a^{-l},\tag{\dagger}$$

where  $b_l$  is the number of ways of choosing R codewords of total length l. Since c is decipherable, any string of length l formed from codewords must correspond to at most one sequence of codewords, i.e  $b_l \leq |\mathcal{B}^l| = a^l$ . Subbing this into  $(\dagger)$ 

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} a^{-l_i}\right)^R \le \sum_{i=1}^{Rs} a^l a^{-l} = Rs,$$

so

$$\sum_{i=1}^m a^{-l_i} \le (Rs)^{1/R} \to 1 \text{ as } R \to \infty.$$

Hence  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a^{-l_i} \leq 1$ .

Corollary 1.3.	A	decipherable code with prescribed word lengths exists if an	d
only if a prefix-fre	e	code with the same word lengths exists.	

*Proof.* Combine previous two theorems.

Therefore we can restrict our attention to prefix-free codes.

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# 2 Shannon's Noiseless Coding Theorem

Entropy is a measure of 'randomness' or 'uncertainty'. Suppose we have a random variable X taking a finite set of values  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  with probabilities  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  respectively. The entropy H(X) of X is the expected number of fair coin tosses needed to simulate X (roughly speaking).

**Example 2.1.** Suppose  $p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = 1/4$ . Identify  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  with (HH, HT, TH, TT). Then the entropy is 2.

**Example 2.2.** Suppose  $(p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4) = (1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/8)$ . Identify  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  with (H, TH, TTH, TTT). Then the entropy is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times 1 + \frac{1}{4} \times 2 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 = \frac{7}{4}.$$

In a sense, the previous example (2.1) was 'more random' than this.

**Definition** (Entropy). The *entropy* of X is

$$H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} p_i \log p_i.$$

(Recall that  $\log =: \log_2 \text{ here.}$ ) Note  $H(X) \geq 0$ . It is measured in *bits* (binary digits). Conventionally, we take  $0 \log 0 = 0$ .

**Example 2.3.** Take a biased coin  $\mathbb{P}(H)=p$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(T)=1-p$ . Write H(p,1-p):=H(p). Then

$$H(p) = -p \log p - (1-p) \log(1-p).$$

Note that  $H'(p) = \log \frac{1-p}{p}$ . Hence the entropy is maximised for p = 1/2 (giving entropy 1).

**Proposition 2.1** (Gibbs' inequality). Let  $(p_1, \ldots, p_n), (q_1, \ldots, q_n)$  be probability distributions. Then

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log p_i \le -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log q_i.$$

(The RHS is sometimes called the cross entropy or mixed entropy) Furthermore we have equality iff  $p_i = q_i$  for all i.

*Proof.* Since  $\log x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln 2}$ , we may replace  $\log$  with  $\ln$ . Put  $I = \{1 \le i \le n : p_i \ne 0\}$ . Now  $\ln x = x - 1$  for all x > 0 with equality iff x = 1. Hence  $\ln \frac{q_i}{p_i} \le \frac{q_i}{p_i} - 1$  for all  $i \in I$ . So

$$\sum_{i \in I} p_i \ln \frac{q_i}{p_i} \le \underbrace{\sum_{i \in I} q_i}_{\le 1} - \underbrace{\sum_{i \in I} p_i}_{=1} \le 0$$

$$\implies -\sum_{i \in I} p_i \ln p_i \le -\sum_{i \in I} p_i \ln q_i$$

$$\implies -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \ln p_i \le -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \ln q_i.$$

If equality holds, then  $\sum_{i \in I} q_i = 1$  and  $\frac{p_i}{q_i} = 1$  for all  $i \in I$ . So  $q_i = p_i$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$ .

Corollary 2.2.  $H(p_1, p_2, ..., p_n) \leq \log n$  with equality iff  $p_1 = p_2 = ... = p_n = 1/n$ .

*Proof.* Take  $q_1 = q_2 = \ldots = q_n = 1/n$  in Gibbs' inequality.

Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m\}$ ,  $|\mathcal{B}| = a \ (m, n \ge 2)$ . The random variable X takes values  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m$  with probabilities  $p_1, \dots, p_m$ .

**Definition.** If  $c: A \to \mathcal{B}^*$  is a code, we say it is *optimal* if has the smallest possible expected word length. i.e  $\mathbb{E}S := \sum_{i=1}^n p_i l_i$  is minimal amongst all decipherable codes.

**Theorem 2.3** (Shannon's Noiseless Coding Theorem). The expected word length  $\mathbb{E}S$  of an optimal code satisfies

$$\frac{H(X)}{\log a} \le \mathbb{E}S < \frac{H(X)}{\log a} + 1.$$

**Remark.** The lower bound is actually true for any decipherable code.

*Proof.* We first get the lower bound. Let  $c: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}^*$  be decipherable with word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . Let  $q_i = \frac{a^{-l_i}}{D}$  where  $D = \sum_{i=1}^m a^{-l_i}$ . Note  $\sum_{i=1}^m q_i = 1$ . By Gibbs' inequality

$$H(X) \le -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log q_i$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i (-l_i \log a - \log D)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i l_i\right) \log a + \log D.$$

By McMillan,  $D \leq 1$  so  $\log D \leq 0$ . Hence

$$H(X) \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i l_i\right) \log a \implies \frac{H(X)}{\log a} \le \mathbb{E}S.$$

And we have equality iff  $p_i = a^{-l_i}$  for some integers  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . Note we have only used decipherability so far.

Now we get the upper bound. Take  $l_i = [-\log_a p_i]$ . Then

$$-\log_a p_i \le l_i < -\log_a p_i + 1.$$

Hence  $\log_a p_i \geq -l_i$ , so  $p_i \geq a^{-l_i}$ . Therefore  $\sum_{i=1}^m a^{-l_i} \leq \sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1$ . By Kraft's inequality, there exists a prefix-free code c with word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . c has expected word length

$$\mathbb{E}S = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i l_i < \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i (-\log_a p_i + 1) = \frac{H(X)}{\log a} + 1.$$

**Example 2.4** (Shannon-Fano Coding). We mimic the above proof: given  $p_1, \ldots, p_m$ , set  $l_i = \lceil -\log_a p_i \rceil$ . Construct a prefix-free code with word lengths  $l_i$  by choosing codewords in order of increasing length, ensuring any new codeword has no previous codeword as a prefix (Kraft's inequality ensures we can do this).

**Example 2.5.** Take a = 2, m = 5.

i	$p_i$	$\lceil -\log_2 p_i \rceil$	code
1	0.4	2	00
2	0.2	3	010
3	0.2	3	011
4	0.1	4	1000
5	0.1	4	1001

Then  $\mathbb{E}S = \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i l_i = 2.8$ ,  $H = H/\log a = 2.12$ . [See also Carne p13.]

# 3 Huffman Coding

How to construct an optimal code? Take  $\mathcal{A} = \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m\}$ ,  $p_i = \mathbb{P}(X = \mu_i)$ . For simplicitly take  $|\mathcal{B}| = a = 2$ . Without loss of generality  $p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_m$ . Huffman gave an inductive definition of codes that we can prove are optimal. If m = 2, we take codewords 0,1. If m > 2, first take the Huffman code for messages  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{m-2}, \nu$  with probabilities  $p_1, \dots, p_{m-2}, p_{m-1} + p_m$ . Then append 0 (respectively 1) to the codeword for  $\nu$  to give a codeword for  $\mu_{m-1}$  (respectively  $\mu_m$ ).

### Notes.

- Huffman codes are prefix-free;
- Huffman codes are not unique: choice is needed if some of the  $p_i$  are equal.

**Example 3.1.** Revisit Example 2.5. We have

i	$p_i$	$c^{(1)}$	$p_i^{(2)}$	$c^{(2)}$	$p_i^{(3)}$	$c^{(3)}$	$p_i^{(4)}$	$c^{(4)}$
1	0.4	1	0.4	1	0.4	1	0.6	0
2	0.2	01	0.2	01	0.4	00	0.4	1
3	0.2	000	0.2	000	0.2	01		
4	0.1	0010	0.2	001				
5	0.1	0011						

Theorem 3.1. Huffman codes are optimal (Huffman, 1952).

*Proof.* We show by induction on m that Huffman codes of size  $m = |\mathcal{A}|$  are optimal.

 $\underline{m} = \underline{2}$ : codewords are 0, 1 - clearly optimal.

 $\underline{m>2}$ : let  $c_m$  be a Huffman code for  $X_m$ , which takes values  $\mu_1,\ldots,\mu_m$  with probabilities  $p_1\geq p_2\geq \ldots \geq p_m$ ; each  $c_m$  is constructed from Huffman code  $c_{m-1}$  for  $X_{m-1}$  which takes values  $\mu_1,\ldots,\mu_{m-2},\nu$  with probabilities  $p_1,\ldots,p_{m-2},p_{m-1}+p_m$ . Then the expected word length is

$$\mathbb{E}S_m = \mathbb{E}S_{m-1} + p_{m-1} + p_m. \tag{*}$$

Let  $c'_m$  be an optimal code for  $X_m$ . Wlog  $c'_m$  is still prefix-free. Wlog the last two codewords of  $c'_m$  have maximal length and differ only in the final position (see next lemma). Say

$$c'_m(\mu_{m-1}) = y0, \ c'_m(\mu_m) = y1 \text{ for some } y \in \{0,1\}^*.$$

Let  $c'_{m-1}$  be some prefix-free code for  $X_{m-1}$ , given by

$$c'_{m-1}(\mu_i) = \begin{cases} c'_m(\mu_i) & 1 \le i \le m-2 \\ c'_{m-1}(\nu) = y \end{cases}.$$

Then the expected word length satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}S'_{m} = \mathbb{E}S'_{m-1} + p_{m-1} + p_{m}. \tag{**}$$

By the inductive hypothesis,  $c_{m-1}$  is optimal, so  $\mathbb{E}S_{m-1} \leq \mathbb{E}S'_{m-1}$ . By (\*) and (\*\*) this implies  $\mathbb{E}S_m \leq \mathbb{E}S'_m$ .

**Lemma 3.2.** Suppose letters  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_m$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  are sent with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_m$ . Let c be an optimal (prefix-free) code with word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ . Then

- (i) If  $p_i > p + j$ , then  $l_i \leq l_j$ ;
- (ii) Amongst all codewords of maximal length there exist two that differ only in the final digit.

*Proof.* (i) is obvious. For (ii), could otherwise just delete the final digit of the codeword of maximal length (since prefix-free).

**Remark.** Note not all optimal codes are Huffman (look at the case m=4).

Our main result says that if we have a prefix-free optimal code with word lengths  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$  and associated probabilities  $p_1, \ldots, p_m$ , then there is a Huffman code with these word lengths.

# 4 Joint Entropy

If X, Y are random variables with values in  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  respectively, then (X, Y) is a random variable with values in  $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ , and the entropy H(X, Y) is called the joint entropy, given by

$$H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{P}(X=x,Y=y) \log \mathbb{P}(X=x,Y=y).$$

This generalises to any finite number of random variables.

**Lemma 4.1.** Let X, Y be random variables taking values in  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  respectively. Then

$$H(X,Y) \le H(X) + H(Y),$$

with equality if and only if X and Y are independent.

*Proof.* Write  $\mathcal{A} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}, \mathcal{B} = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ . Let

$$p_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X = x_i, Y = Y_j), \ p_i = \mathbb{P}(X = x_i), \ q_j = \mathbb{P}(Y = y_j).$$

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Apply Gibbs' inequality to the probability distributions  $\{p_{ij}\}$  and  $\{p_iq_j\}$  to obtain

$$-\sum_{i,j} p_{ij} \log p_{ij} \le -\sum_{i,j} p_{ij} \log(p_i q_j)$$

$$= -\sum_i \left(\sum_j p_{ij}\right) \log p_i - \sum_j \left(\sum_i p_{ij}\right) \log q_j$$

$$= -\sum_i p_i \log p_i - \sum_j q_j \log q_j$$

$$= H(X) + H(Y).$$

With equality if and only if  $p_{ij} = p_i q_j$  for all i, j.

# Error-correcting codes

# 5 Noisy channels and Hamming's code

**Definition.** A binary [m, n]-code is a subset C of  $\{0, 1\}^n$  of size m = |C|. n is the length of the code and the elements of C are called codewords.

We use an [n, m]-code to send one of m messages through a BSC (binary symmetric channel) making n uses of the channel. Clearly  $1 \le m \le 2^n$ , so  $0 \le \frac{1}{n} \log m \le 1$ .

**Definition.** For any  $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^n$  the Hamming distance is

$$d(x,y) = |\{i : 1 \le i \le n, x_i \ne y_i\}|.$$

### Definition.

- (i) The *ideal observer* decoding rule decodes  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$  as  $c \in C$  maximising  $\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent}|x \text{ recieved})$ .
- (ii) The maximum likelihood decoding rule decodes  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$  as  $c \in C$  maximising  $\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved}|c \text{ sent})$
- (iii) The minimum distance decoding rule decodes  $x \in \{0,1\}$  as  $c \in C$  minimizing d(x,C).

# Lemma 5.1.

- (a) If all the messages are equally likely, then (i) and (ii) above are equivalent.
- (b) If p < 1/2 (error probability) then (ii) and (iii) are equivalent.

**Remark.** If p = 1/2 the code is called *useless*. If p = 0 the code is called *lossless*.

Proof.

(a) We have

$$\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent} | x \text{ recieved}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent}, x \text{ recieved})}{\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved})} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent})}{\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved})} \mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved} | c \text{sent})$$

So by hypothesis,  $\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent})$  is independent of  $c \in C$ . So for fixed x, maximising  $\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent}|x \text{ recieved})$  is the same as maximising  $\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved}|c \text{ sent})$ .

(b) Let r = d(x, c). Then  $\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved}|c \text{ sent}) = p^r (1-p)^{n-r} = (1-p)^n \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^r$ . Since p < 1/2.  $\frac{p}{1-p} < 1$ . So maximising  $\mathbb{P}(x \text{ recieved}|c \text{ sent})$  is the same as minimising r.

We choose to use minimum distance decoding from now on.

**Example 5.1.** Suppose 000, 111 are sent with probabilities  $\alpha = 9/10$ ,  $\beta = 1/10$  respectively through a BSC with error probability p = 1/4. Suppose 110 is recieved. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(000 \text{ sent}|110 \text{ recieved}) = \frac{\alpha p^2(1-p)}{\alpha p^2(1-p) + (1-\alpha)p(1-p)^2} = \frac{3}{4},$$

similarly 
$$\mathbb{P}(111 \text{ sent}|110 \text{ recieved}) = \frac{1}{4}$$
.

So the ideal observer decodes as 000. But the maximum likelihood/minimum distance rules decode as 111.

#### Remarks.

- Minimum distance decoding may be expensive in terms of time and storage if |C| is large.
- Need to specify a convention in case there is no unique maximiser (e.g. make a random choice, or request the message is sent again).

We aim to detect, or even correct errors.

## **Definition.** A code C is

- d-error detecting if changing up to d digits in each codeword can never produce another codeword. In other words, each codeword is of Hamming distance greater than d from every other codeword.
- e-error correcting if knowing that  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$  differs from a codeword in at most e places we can deduce the codeword.

## Examples.

- (a) A repitition code of length n has codewords  $\underbrace{00\ldots0}_{n \text{ times}},\underbrace{11\ldots1}_{n \text{ times}}$ . This is a [n,2]-code. It is (n-1)-error detecting and  $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$ -error correcting. But the information rate is only 1/n.
- (b) A simple parity check code or paper tape code: identify  $\{0,1\}$  with  $\mathbb{F}_2$  and let  $C = \{(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0\}$ . This is a  $[n,2^{n-1}]$ -code, 1-error detecting but cannot correct errors. The information rate is  $\frac{n-1}{n}$ .
- (c) Hamming's original code (1950): a 1-error correcting binary [7, 16]-code. Take  $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^7$  where

$$C = \{c \in \mathbb{F}_2^7 : c_1 + c_3 + c_5 + c_7 = 0, c_2 + c_3 + c_6 + c_7 = 0, c_4 + c_5 + c_6 + c_7 = 0\}.$$

The bits  $c_3, c_5, c_6, c_7$  are arbitrary and  $c_1, c_2, c_4$  are forced (called the check digits) so  $|C| = 2^4$ . To decode: suppose we recieve  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^7$ . We form the syndrome:  $z = z_x = (z_1, z_2, z_4) \in \mathbb{F}_2^7$  where

$$z_1 = x_1 + x_3 + x_5 + x_7$$

$$z_2 = x_2 + x_3 + x_6 + x_7$$

$$z_4 = x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7.$$

If  $x \in C$ , then  $z_x = (0,0,0)$ . If d(x,c) = 1 for some  $c \in C$ , then place where x and c differ is given by  $z_1 + 2z_2 + 4z_4$  (not mod 2). Check: if  $x = c + e_i$  where  $e_i$  has all 0's except a 1 in the ith position, then  $z_x = z_{e_i}$ , so check for each  $1 \le i \le 7$ .