### Introduction

We model communication:

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

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

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

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 received, 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  $\mathbb{P}(c \text{ sent}|x \text{ received})$ .
- (ii) The maximum likelihood decoding rule decodes  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$  as  $c \in C$  maximising  $\mathbb{P}(x \text{ received}|c \text{ sent})$
- (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

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

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

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

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

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

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 frm 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  $1 \le i \le 7$ .

**Lemma 5.2.** The Hamming distance is a metric on  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$ .

*Proof.* Trivial.

**Definition.** The *minimum distance of a code* is the minimum of  $d(c_1, c_2)$  for all codewords  $c_1, c_2$  with  $c_1 \neq c_2$ .

**Lemma 5.3.** Let C be a code with minimum distance d > 0. Then

- (i) C is (d-1)-error detecting, but cannot detect all sets of d errors.
- (ii) C is  $\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ -error correcting, but cannot correct all sets of  $\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor + 1$  errors. Proof.
  - (i) If  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  and  $c \in C$  are such that  $0 < d(x,c) \le d-1$ , then we know that  $x \notin C$  so this is (d-1)-error detecting. However there must exist  $c_1, c_2 \in C$  such that  $d(c_1, c_2) = d$ , so we cannot say if there's an error if  $c_1$  is 'corrupted' to  $c_2$  in d errors.
- (ii) Take  $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ . If  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  and  $c_1 \in C$  are such that  $d(x,c_1) \leq \lfloor e$  then for any  $c_1 \neq c_2 \in C$  we have  $d(x,c_2) \geq d(c_1,c_2) d(c_1,x) \geq d-e > e$ . So C is e-error correcting. Now take  $c_1,c_2 \in C$  with  $d(c_1,c_2) = d$ . Then take  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  such that x differs from  $c_1$  is prescisely e+1 places where  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  differ. Then  $d(c_1,x) = e+1$  and  $d(x,c_2) = d-(e+1) \leq e+1$ . So C cannot be (e+1)-error correcting.

**Definition.** A [n, m]-code with minimum distance is called a [n, m, d]-code.

#### Notes.

- $m \leq 2^n$  with equality if and only if  $C = \mathbb{F}_2^n$  (trivial code)
- $d \leq n$ , with equality in case of the repitition code.

#### Example 5.2.

- (i) Repitition code of length n is a [n, 2, n]-code, (n 1)-error detecting and  $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$ -error correcting.
- (ii) Simple parity check code is a  $[n, 2^{n-1}, 2]$ -code, 1-error detecting and 0-error correcting.
- (iii) Hamming's original code is 1-error correcting, implying  $d \geq 3$ . Also 0000000, 1110000 are distance 3 apart, so d = 3. So this is a [7, 16, 3]-code and is 2-error detecting.

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## 6 Covering estimates

Take  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ ,  $r \geq 0$ . Then  $\overline{B}(x,r) = \{y \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : d(x,y) \leq r\}$  is the closed Hamming ball. Denote  $V(n,r) = |\overline{B}(x,r)| = \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{n}{i}$ , the volume.

**Lemma 6.1** (Hamming's bound). An e-error correcting code C of length n has

$$|C| \le \frac{2^n}{V(n,e)}.$$

*Proof.* C is e-error correcting so  $\{B(c,e)\}_{c\in C}$  are pairwise disjoint balls, so  $\sum_{c\in C} |B(c,e)| = |C|V(n,e) \le |\mathbb{F}_2^n| = 2^n$ .

**Lemma 6.2.** A code C of length n that can correct e errors is perfect if  $|C| = \frac{2^n}{V(n,e)}$ . Equivalently, for all  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  there exists a unique  $c \in C$  such that  $d(x,c) \leq e$ . In this case, any e+1 errors will make you decode incorrectly.

### Example 6.1.

(a) Hamming [7, 16, 3]-code is 1-error correcting and

$$\frac{2^n}{V(n,e)} = \frac{2^7}{V(7,1)} = \frac{2^7}{1+7} = 2^4 = |C|.$$

(b) Binary repitition code of length n (for n odd) is perfect.

**Remark.** If  $\frac{2^n}{V(n,e)} \notin \mathbb{Z}$  then there does not exist a perfect *e*-error correcting code of length *n*. Converse is also false (n = 90, e = 2 on Example Sheet 2).

**Definition.** Define  $A(n, d) = \max\{m : \exists [n, m, d] \text{-code}\}.$ 

The A(n,d) are unknown in general. But we have some special cases:

### Examples.

- $A(n,1) = 2^n$  (trivial code)
- A(n,n) = 2 (repitition code)
- $A(n,2) = 2^{n-1}$  (simple parity check code)

**Lemma 6.3.**  $A(n, d+1) \leq A(n, d)$ .

Proof. Let m = A(n, d+1) and take a [n, m, d+1]-code C. Let  $c_1, c_2 \in C$  have  $d(c_1, c_2) = d+1$ . Let  $c_1'$  differ from  $c_1$  in a single place where  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  differ. Hence  $d(c_1', c_2) = d$ . If  $c \in C \setminus \{c_1\}$ , then  $d(c, c_1) \leq d(c, c_1') + d(c_1', c_1)$  so  $d+1 \leq d(c, c_1') + 1$ . Hence  $d(c, c_1') \geq d$ . So replacing  $c_1$  with  $c_1'$ , we get an [n, m, d]-code.

Corollary 6.4.  $A(n,d) = \max\{m : \exists [n,m,d'] \text{-}code \text{ for some } d' \geq d\}.$ 

Theorem 6.5.

$$\frac{2^n}{V(n,d-1)} \underbrace{\leq}_{GSV\ bound} A(n,d) \underbrace{\leq}_{Hamming\ bound} \frac{2^n}{V\left(n,\lfloor\frac{d-1}{2}\rfloor\right)}.$$

*Proof.* We have already proved the Hamming bound. So let m = A(n, d). Let C be a [n, m, d]-code. Then there does not exist  $d(x, c) \ge d$  for all  $c \in C$  (otherwise could replace C with  $C \cup \{x\}$ , contradicting maximality of m). Hence

$$\mathbb{F}_2^n \subseteq \bigcup_{c \in C} \overline{B}(c,d-1) \implies 2^n \le \sum_{c \in C} |\overline{B}(c,d-1)| = mV(n,d-1).$$

**Example 6.2.**  $n=10,\ d=3,\ \text{have}\ V(n,1)=11,\ V(n,2)=56.$  The above theorem gives  $19 \le \frac{2^{10}}{56} \le A(10,3) \le \frac{2^{10}}{11} \le 93.$  It was known that  $72 \le A(10,3) \le 93$ , but the exact value of A(10,3) was only found in 1999.

## Asymptotics of V(n,r)

We study  $\frac{\log A(n,\lfloor n\delta \rfloor)}{n}$  as  $n \to \infty$  to see how large the information rate can be for a given error rate.

**Proposition 6.6.** Let  $\delta \in (0, 1/2)$ . Then

(i) 
$$\log V(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor) \le nH(\delta);$$

(ii) 
$$\frac{1}{n} \log A(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor) \ge 1 - H(\delta)$$

Where 
$$H(\delta) = -\delta \log \delta - (1 - \delta) \log(1 - \delta)$$
.

*Proof.* First we show (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii): by the GSV bound,

$$A(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor) \geq \frac{2^n}{V(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor - 1)} \geq \frac{2^n}{V(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor)}$$

and so

$$\frac{\log A(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor)}{n} \geq 1 - \frac{\log V(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor)}{n} \geq 1 - H(\delta).$$

Now we prove (i):  $H(\delta)$  is increasing for  $\delta < 1/2$ , so wlog we may assume  $n\delta \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now

$$1 = (\delta + (1 - \delta))^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \delta^i (1 - \delta)^{n-i} \ge \sum_{i=0}^{n\delta} \binom{n}{i} \delta^i (1 - \delta)^{n-i}$$
$$= (1 - \delta)^n \sum_{i=0}^{n\delta} \binom{n}{i} \left(\frac{\delta}{1 - \delta}\right)^i$$
$$\ge (1 - \delta)^n \sum_{i=0}^{n\delta} \binom{n}{i} \left(\frac{\delta}{1 - \delta}\right)^{n\delta}$$
$$= \delta^{n\delta} (1 - \delta)^{n(1 - \delta)} V(n, n\delta).$$

Now taking logs:

$$0 > n(\delta \log \delta + (1 - \delta) \log(1 - \delta)) + \log V(n, n\delta).$$

The constant  $H(\delta)$  in the above bound best possible:

Lemma 6.7. We have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log V(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor)}{n} = H(\delta).$$

Proof. Exercise.

# 7 Constructing new codes from old

We're given C, a [n, m, d]-code. Can check the details in the following:

### Examples.

1. The parity check extension  $C^+$  is

$$\left\{ \left( c_1, \dots, c_n, \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \right) : (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in C \right\}$$

Is a [n+1, m, d']-code with  $d \leq d' \leq d+1$ , depending on whether d is odd or even.

2. Fix  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Deleting the ith digit from each codeword gives the punctured code  $C^-$ 

$$\{(c_1,\ldots,c_{i-1},c_{i+1},\ldots,c_n):(c_1,\ldots,c_n)\in C\}.$$

If  $d \geq 2$ , then it is a [n-1, m, d']-code with  $d-1 \leq d' \leq d$ .

3. Fix  $1 \le i \le n$ , and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_2$ . The shortened code C' is

$$\{(c_1,\ldots,c_{i-1},c_{i+1},\ldots,c_n):(c_1,\ldots,c_{i-1},\alpha,c_{i+1},\ldots,c_n)\in C\}.$$

It has parameters [n,m',d'] with  $d'\geq d$  and  $m'\geq \frac{m}{2}$  for a suitable choice of  $\alpha$ .

### Shannon's Theorems

# 8 AEP and Shannon's first coding theorem

**Definition.** A source is a sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  taking values in some alphabet  $\mathcal{A}$ . A source is *Bernouilli* (memoryless) if  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  are iid: write  $(X, X_n)$ . A source  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  is reliably encodable at rate r if there exists a sequence of subsets  $(A_n)_{n\geq 1}$  with  $A_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}^n$  such that:

- 1.  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\log A_n}{n} = r;$
- 2.  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}((X_1,\ldots,X_n)\in A_n)=1.$

The information rate H of a source is the infimum of all reliable encoding rates. Exercise:  $0 \le H \le \log |\mathcal{A}|$  with both bounds attainable.

Shannon's first coding theorem computes the information rate of certain sources, including Bernouilli sources.

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### Reminders from IA Probability:

We have a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . A discrete random variable X is a function  $X : \Omega \to \mathcal{A}$ . The probability mass function  $p_x : \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$  is defined by  $x \mapsto \mathbb{P}(X = x)$ . Can consider  $p \circ X = p(X) : \Omega \to [0,1]$ , a random varible taking values in [0,1].

Given a source  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  of random variables with values in  $\mathcal{A}$ , the probability mass function of  $X^{(n)} = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  is  $p_{X^{(n)}}$  given by  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \mapsto \mathbb{P}((X_1, \ldots, X_n) = (x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ . Since  $p_{X^{(n)}} : \mathcal{A}^n \to [0, 1]$  and  $X^{(n)} : \Omega \to \mathcal{A}^n$ , you can form  $p(X^{(n)}) = p_{X^{(n)}} \circ X^{(n)} : \Omega \to [0, 1]$ .

**Example 8.1.** Let  $A = \{A, B, C\}$ . Suppose

$$X^{(2)} = \begin{cases} \text{AB} & \text{with probability } 0.3 \\ \text{AC} & \text{with probability } 0.1 \\ \text{BC} & \text{with probability } 0.1 \\ \text{BA} & \text{with probability } 0.2 \\ \text{CA} & \text{with probability } 0.25 \\ \text{CB} & \text{with probability } 0.05 \end{cases}$$

Then

$$p(X^{(2)}) = \begin{cases} 0.3 & \text{with probability } 0.3 \\ 0.1 & \text{with probability } 0.2 \\ 0.2 & \text{with probability } 0.2 \\ 0.25 & \text{with probability } 0.25 \\ 0.05 & \text{with probability } 0.05 \end{cases}$$

So some points are "lumped together".

Given a source  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  converges in probability to a random variable L (possibly constant) if for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(|X_n - L| > \varepsilon) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . We write  $X_n \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\to} L$ .

The Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN) says that if  $(X; X_n)$  are iid real-valued random variables with finite expectation  $\mathbb{E}X$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\to} \mathbb{E}X.$$

**Example 8.2.** If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  are iid Bernouilli, then  $p(X_1), p(X_2), \ldots$  are iid random variables and  $p(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = p(X_1) \ldots p(X_n)$ . Note

$$-\frac{1}{n}\log p(X_1,\ldots,X_n) = -\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\log p(X_i) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} -\mathbb{E}(-\log p(X_1)) = H(X_1) \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

**Lemma 8.1.** The information rate of a Bernouilli source  $X_1, X_2, ...$  is at most the expected word length of an optimal code  $c : A \to \{0,1\}^*$  for  $X_1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $l_1, l_2, \ldots$  be the lengths of codewords when we encode  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  using c. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Set  $A_n = \{x \in \mathcal{A}^n : c^*(x) \text{ has length at less than } n(\mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon)\}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_n) \in A_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n l_i < n(\mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon)\right)$$
$$= \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n l_i - \mathbb{E}l_1\right| < \varepsilon\right)$$
$$\to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Now, c is decipherable so  $c^*$  is injective. Hence  $|A_n| \leq 2^{n(\mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon)}$ . Making  $A_n$  larger if necessary,  $|A_n| = \lfloor e^{n(\mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon)} \rfloor$  so

$$\frac{\log(A_n)}{n} \to \mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon.$$

Hence  $X_1, X_2, ...$  is reliably encodable at rate  $r = \mathbb{E}l_1 + \varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Hence the information rate is at most  $\mathbb{E}l_1$ .

Corollary 8.2. A Bernouilli source has information rate less than  $H(X_1) + 1$ .

*Proof.* Combine the above with the Noiseless Coding Theorem.  $\Box$ 

We encode  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  in blocks

$$\underbrace{X_1,\ldots,X_N}_{Y_1},\underbrace{X_{n+1},\ldots,X_{2N}}_{Y_2},\ldots$$

so  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  take values in  $\mathcal{A}^N$ . Exercise: show that if  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  has information rate H then  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  has information rate NH.

**Proposition 8.3.** The information rate H of a Bernouilli source  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  is at most  $H(X_1)$ .

*Proof.* Apply the previous corollary to  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  and obtain

$$NH < H(Y_1) + 1 = H(X_1, \dots, X_N) + 1 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} H(X_i) + 1 = NH(X_1, \dots, X_n) + 1.$$

Hence  $H < H(X_1) + \frac{1}{N}$ . Since N is arbitrary,  $H \le H(X_1)$ .

**Definition.** A source  $X_1, X_2, ...$  satisfies the Asympotitic Equipartition Property (AEP) for some constant  $H \geq 0$  if

$$-\frac{1}{n}\log p(X_1, X_2, \ldots) \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\to} H \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

**Example 8.3.** Tossing a biased coin,  $\mathbb{P}(H) = p$ . Let  $(X; X_n)$  be the results of independent coin tosses. After a large number N of tosses, expect on average pN heads and (1-p)N tails. The probability of any particular sequence of pN heads and (1-p)N tails is  $p^{pN}(1-p)^{(1-p)N} = 2^{N(p\log p + (1-p)\log (1-p))} = 2^{-NH(X)}$ . Not every sequence of tosses will be like this, but there is only a small probability of "atypical" sequences. With high probability we get a "typical" sequence and its probability will be close to  $2^{-NH(X)}$ .

**Lemma 8.4.** The AEP for a source  $X_1, X_2,...$  is equivalent to the following property

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists n_0(\varepsilon) \ such that \ \forall n \geq n_0(\varepsilon) \ \exists \ a \ "typical set" \ T_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}^n \ such that$ 

(i) 
$$\mathbb{P}((X_1,\ldots,X_n)\in T_n)>1-\varepsilon;$$

(ii) 
$$2^{-n(H+\varepsilon)} \le p(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \le 2^{-n(H-\varepsilon)}$$
 for all  $(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \in T_n$ .

*Proof.* Obvious and non-examinable.

**Theorem 8.5** (Shannon's First Coding Theorem (FCT)). If a source  $X_1, X_2, ...$  satisfies the AEP with constant H, then the source has information rate H.

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and let  $T_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}^n$  be typical sets. Then for some  $n_0(\varepsilon)$  and all  $n \geq n_0(\varepsilon)$ 

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \ge 2^{-n(H+\varepsilon)}$$
 for all  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in T_n$ 

$$\implies \mathbb{P}(T_n) \ge 2^{-n(H+\varepsilon)}|T_n| \implies 1 \ge 2^{-n(H+\varepsilon)}|T_n| \implies \frac{\log |T_n|}{n} \le H + \varepsilon.$$

Taking  $A_n = T_n$ , shows the source is reliably encodable at rate  $H + \varepsilon$ . Conversely, if H = 0, we're done. Otherwise pick  $0 < \varepsilon < H/2$  and suppose for contradiction that the source is reliably encodable at rate  $H - 2\varepsilon$ , say with sets  $A_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}^n$ . Let  $T_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}^n$  be typical sets. Then for all  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in T_n$ 

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \le 2^{-n(H-\varepsilon)}$$

$$\implies \mathbb{P}(A_n \cap T_n) \le 2^{-n(H-\varepsilon)} |A_n|$$

$$\implies \frac{\log \mathbb{P}(A_n \cap T_n)}{n} \le H - \varepsilon + \frac{\log |A_n|}{n} \to -(H-\varepsilon) + H - 2\varepsilon = -\varepsilon.$$

Hence  $\log \mathbb{P}(A_n \cap T_n) \to -\infty$  and  $\mathbb{P}(A_n \cap T_n) \to 0$ . But  $\mathbb{P}(T_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_n \cap T_n) + \mathbb{P}(A^n \setminus A_n) \to 0$ , a contradiction to  $\mathbb{P}(T_n) \to 1$ . Thus the information is rate is exactly H.

Corollary 8.6. A Bernouilli source  $X_1, X_2, ...$  has information rate  $H(X_1)$ .

*Proof.* We've already seen that  $-\frac{1}{n}\log p(X_1,\ldots,X_n) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} H(X_1)$ , so done by Shannon's First Coding Theorem.

#### Remarks.

- The AEP is useful for noiseless coding. We can
  - encode the typical sequences using a block code;
  - encode the atypical sequences arbitrarily.
- Many sources, which are not necessarily Bernouilli satisfy the AEP. Under suitable hypotheses the sequence  $\frac{1}{n}H(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$  is decreasing and the AEP is satisfied.

# 9 Capacity & Shannon's second coding theorem

Recall:

**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  $\hat{e}(C) = \max_{x \in \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}(\text{error}|x \text{ sent})$ .

**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.

Suppose we are given a souce where

- it has information rate r bits per second;
- it emits symbols at s symbols per second.

Suppose we are also given a channel where

- it has capacity R bits per transmission;
- it transmits symbols at S transmissions per second.

Usually, information theorists take S = s = 1. If  $rs \le RS$  then you can encode and transmit reliably, and if rs > RS you cannot.

We'll compute the capacity of a BSC with error probability p.

**Proposition 9.1.** A binary symmetric channel with error probability p < 1/4 has non-zero capacity.

*Proof.* We use the GSV bound. Pick  $\delta \in (2p, 1/2)$ . We claim reliable transmission at rate  $R = 1 - H(\delta) > 0$ . Let  $C_n$  be a code of length n, and suppose it has minimum distance  $\lfloor n\delta \rfloor$  of maximal size. Then (by Proposition 6.6(ii))

$$|C_n| = A(n, \lfloor n\delta \rfloor) \ge 2^{n(1-H(\delta))}.$$

Replacing  $C_n$  by a subcode, we can assume  $|C_n| = \lfloor 2^{nR} \rfloor$  and still minimum distance  $\geq \lfloor n\delta \rfloor$ . Using minimum distance decoding

$$\hat{e}(C_n) \leq \mathbb{P}\left(\text{in } n \text{ uses, BSC makes} \geq \left\lfloor \frac{\lfloor n\delta - 1 \rfloor}{2} \right\rfloor \text{ errors}\right)$$
  
  $\leq \mathbb{P}\left(\text{in } n \text{ uses, BSC makes} \geq \left\lfloor \frac{n\delta - 1}{2} \right\rfloor \text{ errors}\right).$ 

Pick  $\varepsilon > 0$  with  $p + \varepsilon < \frac{\delta}{2}$ . For n sufficiently large,  $\frac{n\delta - 1}{2} = n\left(\frac{\delta}{2} - \frac{1}{2n}\right) > n(p + \varepsilon)$ . Hence  $\hat{e}(C_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathrm{BSC\ makes} \geq n(p + \varepsilon)\ \mathrm{errors}) \to 0$ , using the next lemma.

**Lemma 9.2.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0/$  A BSC with error probability p is used to transmit n digits. Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(BSC \ makes \ge n(p+\varepsilon) \ errors) = 0.$$

*Proof.* Consider random variables  $U_i$  taking value 1 if the *i*th digit is mistransmitted, and value 0 otherwise. Then  $\mathbb{E}U_i = p$ , so  $\mathbb{P}(BSC \text{ makes } \geq n(p + \varepsilon) \text{ errors}) \leq \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} -p\right| \geq \varepsilon\right) \to 0$ .

**Definition** (Conditional Entropy). Let X, Y be random variables taking values in alphabets  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  respectively. Then we define the *conditional entropy* 

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

Clearly  $H(X|Y) \geq 0$ .

Lemma 9.3. We have

$$H(X,Y) = H(X|Y) = H(Y).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} H(X|Y) &= -\sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}(X = x | Y = y) \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \log \mathbb{P}(X = x | Y = y) \\ &= -\sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) \log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(x = x, Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)} \right) \\ &= -\sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) \log \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) \\ &+ \sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) \log \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\ &= H(X, Y) - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \log \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \\ &= H(X, Y) - H(Y). \end{split}$$

**Example 9.1.** We roll fair die. Let X be the value defined by the roll, let Y be equal to 0 if X is even and 1 if X is odd. Then  $H(X,Y) = H(X) = \log 6$ ,  $H(Y) = \log 2 = 1$ ,  $H(X|Y) = \log 3 = H(X,Y) - H(Y)$ . Similarly H(Y|X) = 0 = H(X,Y) - H(X).

Corollary 9.4.  $H(X|Y) \leq H(X)$ .

*Proof.* Combine the previous with Lemma 4.1.

Now replace X, Y with random vectors  $X^{(r)} = (X_1, \dots, X_r), Y^{(s)} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_s)$ . Similarly can define  $H(X_1, \dots, X_r | Y_1, \dots, Y_s) = H(X^{(r)} | Y^{(s)})$ .

**Remark.** H(X,Y|Z) is the entropy of (X,Y) given Z, not the entropy of X and Y|Z.

**Lemma 9.5.** Let X, Y, Z be random variables. Then  $H(X, Y) \leq H(X|Y, Z) + H(Z)$ .

*Proof.* We expand H(X,Y,Z) in two different ways.

$$H(X, Y, Z) = H(Z|X, Y) + H(X|Y) + H(Y),$$
  
 $H(X, Y, Z) = H(X|Y, Z) + H(Z|Y) + H(Y).$ 

Since  $H(Z|X,Y) \geq 0$ , we have

$$H(X|Y) \le H(X|Y,Z) + H(Z|Y)$$
  
$$\le H(X|Y,Z) + H(Z).$$

**Proposition 9.6** (Fano's inequality). Let X, Y be random variables taking values in A, |A| = m. Let  $p = \mathbb{P}(X \neq Y)$ . Then

$$H(X|Y) \le H(p) + p\log(m-1).$$

*Proof.* Define Z=0 if X=Y and Z=1 if  $X\neq Y$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(Z=0)=1-p$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(Z=1)=p$ . So H(Z)=H(p). By the previous lemma,

$$H(X|Y) \le H(p) + H(X|Y,Z). \tag{*}$$

Since Z=0 implies X=Y, H(X|Y=y,Z=0)=0. Also there are m-1 remaining possibilities for X, so  $H(X|Y=y,Z=1) \leq \log(m-1).$  Therefore

$$\begin{split} H(X|Y) &= \sum_{y,z} \mathbb{P}(Y=y,Z=z) H(X|Y=y,Z=z) \\ &\leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{P}(Y=y,Z=1) \log(m-1) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(Z=1) \log(m-1) \\ &= p \log(m-1). \end{split}$$

So by 
$$(*)$$
,  $H(X|Y) \le H(p) + p \log(m-1)$ .

**Remark.** H(p) represents the information needed to decide whether or not there is an error, and  $p \log(m-1)$  represents the information needed to resolve the error assuming the worst possible case.

**Definition.** Let X, Y be random variables. Then the *mutual information* is I(X;Y) := H(X) - H(X|Y). By Corollary 9.4,  $I(X;Y) \ge 0$  with equality if and only if X, Y are independent. Clearly I(X;Y) = I(Y;X).

Suppose we're given a discrete memoryless channel (DMC) with input alphabet  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $|\mathcal{A}| = m$  and output alphabet  $\mathcal{B}$ . Let X be a random variable taking values in  $\mathcal{A}$  and used as input to the channel. Let Y be a random variable output, depending on X and the channel matrix.

**Definition.** The *(information) capacity* is  $\max_X I(X;Y)$ .

### Remarks.

- The maximum is over all probability distributions  $(p_1, \ldots, p_m)$  for X on A.
- The maximum is attained since  $(p_1, \ldots, p_m) \mapsto I((p_1, \ldots, p_m); Y)$  is continuous on the compact set

$$\{(p_1,\ldots,p_m)\in[0,1]^m:p_1+\ldots+p_m=1\}.$$

• The information capacity depends only on the channel matrix.

**Theorem 9.7** (Shannon's Second Coding Theorem). For a DMC, the operational capacity is equal to the information capacity.

**Remark.** We'll show one inequality in general and the other for the BSC only.

Assuming Shannon's Second Coding Theorem, let us compute he capacity of certain channels.

**Example 9.2.** BSC, error probability p. Input X:  $\mathbb{P}(X=0) = \alpha$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(X=1) = 1-\alpha$ . Output Y:  $\mathbb{P}(Y=0) = \alpha(1-p) + (1-\alpha)p$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(Y=1) = (1-\alpha)(1-p) + \alpha p$ . Then C is

$$\max_{\alpha} I(X;Y) = \max_{\alpha} (H(Y) - H(Y|X))$$
$$= \max_{\alpha} (H(\alpha(1-p) + (1-\alpha)p) - H(p))$$
$$= 1 - H(p).$$

Where the maximum is attained for  $\alpha = 1/2$ . Hence  $C = 1 + p \log p + (1 - p) \log(1 - p)$ .

**Remark.** We can choose to calculate either H(Y) - H(Y|X) or H(X) - H(X|Y) depending on which is easier.

**Example 9.3.** BEC, erasure probability p. Input X:  $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = \alpha$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(X = 1) = 1 - \alpha$ . Output Y:  $\mathbb{P}(Y = 0) = \alpha(1 - p)$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(Y = *) = p$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = (1 - \alpha)(1 - p)$ . Can calculate H(X|Y = 0) = 0, H(X|Y = 1) = 0,  $H(X|Y = *) = H(\alpha)$ , which gives  $H(X|Y) = pH(\alpha)$ . So

$$\begin{split} C &= \max_{\alpha} I(X;Y) = \max_{\alpha} (H(X) - H(X|Y)) = \max_{\alpha} (H(\alpha) - pH(\alpha)) \\ &= (1-p) \max_{\alpha} H(\alpha) \\ &= 1-p. \end{split}$$

Where the max is attained for  $\alpha = 1/2$ .

Now model using a channel n times as the nth extension, i.e replace alphabets  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  with  $\mathcal{A}^n, \mathcal{B}^n$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(y_1, \dots, y_n \text{ received}|x_1, \dots, x_n \text{ sent}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(y_i|x_i).$$

**Lemma 9.8.** The nth extension of a DMC with information capacity C has information capacity nC.

*Proof.* Take random variable input  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  producing output  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ . Since the channel is memoryless,

$$H(Y_1, \dots, Y_n | X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i | X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i | X_i).$$

Hence

$$I(X_{1},...,X_{n};Y_{1},...,Y_{n}) = H(Y_{1},...,Y_{n}) - H(Y_{1},...,Y_{n}|X_{1},...,X_{n})$$

$$= H(Y_{1},...,Y_{n}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y_{i}|X_{i})$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} (H(Y_{i}) - H(Y_{i}|X_{i}))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X_{i};Y_{i}) \leq nC.$$

To finish, we find a distribution for  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  giving equality. Equality is attained by taking  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  independent, each of the same distribution such that  $I(X_i; Y_i) = C$ . Indeed, if  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent, so are  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ .

**Proposition 9.9.** For a DMC the (operational) capacity is at most the information capacity. Let C be the information capacity. Suppose reliable transmission is possible at some rate R > C, i.e there exist a sequence of codes  $(C_n)_{n\geq 1}$  with  $C_n$  having length n and size  $\lceil 2^{nR} \rceil$  for all n such that

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

 $(Recall \ \hat{e}(C_n) = \max_{c \in C_n} \mathbb{P}(error|c \ sent).)$ 

Proof. Define the average error rate  $e(C_n) = \frac{1}{|C_n|} \sum_{c \in C_n} \mathbb{P}(\text{error}|c \text{ sent})$ . Note  $e(C_n) \leq \hat{e}(C_n)$  and so  $e(C_n) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Take input random variable X equidistributed over  $C_n$  (i.e takes all values with equal probability). Let Y be the random variable output when X is transmitted and decoded. So  $e(C_n) = \mathbb{P}(X \neq Y)$ , define  $p := e(C_n)$ . Now we have

$$H(X) = \log |C_n| = \log \lceil 2^{nR} \rceil \ge nR - 1$$
 for sufficiently large  $n$ .

And

$$H(X|Y) \le H(p) + p \log(|C_n| - 1)$$
 (Fano's inequality)  
  $\le 1 + pnR$ .

Recall I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y). By the previous lemma  $nC \ge I(X;Y)$  so

$$nC \ge nR - 1 - (1 + pnR)$$

$$\implies pnR \ge n(R-C)-2 \implies p \ge \frac{n(R-C)-2}{nR} \to \frac{R-C}{R} \ne 0.$$

Since R > C, which contradicts  $p \to 0$ . Hence we conclude that we cannot transmit reliably at any rate exceeding C.

To complete the proof of Shannon's SCT for a BSC with error probability p, we need to show that the operational capacity is at least 1-H(p) (i.e the information capacity).

**Proposition 9.10.** Consider BSC with error probability p. Suppose R < 1 - H(p). Then there is a sequence of codes  $(C_n)_{n\geq 1}$  with  $C_n$  of length n and size  $\lceil 2^{nR} \rceil$  for all n such that

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

**Remark.** Note that the above proposition deals with the average error rate e, not the error rate  $\hat{e}$ .

*Proof.* We'll use the method of 'random coding'. Wlog p<1/2. Take  $\varepsilon>0$  such that

$$p + \varepsilon < 1/2$$
 and  $R < 1 - H(p + \varepsilon)$ .

(This is possible by continuity of H). We use minimum distance decoding (in case of a tie, make arbitrary choice). Let  $m = \lfloor 2^{nR} \rfloor$ . Pick  $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\}$  at random from  $\mathcal{C} = \{[n, m]\text{-codes}\}$ , a set of size  $\binom{2^n}{m}$ . Choose  $1 \leq i \leq m$  at random (i.e each with probability 1/m). We sent  $c_i$  through the channel and get output Y. Then

 $\mathbb{P}(Y \text{ not decoded as } c_i) = \text{average value of } e(C) \text{ as } C \text{ runs through } C$ 

$$= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{C}|} \sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} e(C).$$

We can pick  $C_n$ , an [n, m]-code with  $e(C_n)$  at most this average. So it is enough to show

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \text{ is not decoded as } c_i) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Let  $r = |n(p+\varepsilon)|$ . Then if  $B(Y,r) \cap C = \{c_i\}$ , Y is correctly decoded as  $c_i$ . So

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \text{ is not decoded as } c_i) \leq \mathbb{P}(c_i \notin B(Y,r)) + \mathbb{P}(B(Y,r) \cap C \supseteq \{c_i\}).$$

Consider the two cases separately, according as  $d(c_i, Y) > r$  (case (i)) or  $d(c_i, Y) \le r$  (case (ii)). For (i) we have

$$\mathbb{P}(d(c_i, Y) > r) = \mathbb{P}(\text{BSC makes} > r \text{ errors})$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(\text{BSC makes} > n(p + \varepsilon) \text{ errors})$$

$$\to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty \text{ by a previous theorem.}$$

For (ii), if 
$$j \neq i$$
,  $\mathbb{P}(c_j \in B(Y,r)|c_i \in B(Y,r)) = \frac{V(n,r)-1}{2^n-1} \leq \frac{V(n,r)}{2^n}$  (since

 $V(n,r) \leq 2^n$ ). Hence

$$\mathbb{P}(B(Y,r) \cap C \supsetneq \{c_i\}) \leq \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbb{P}(c_j \in B(Y,r) \text{ and } c_i \in B(Y,r))$$

$$\leq \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbb{P}(c_j \in B(Y,r) | c_i \in B(Y,r))$$

$$\leq (m-1) \frac{V(n,r)}{2^n}$$

$$\leq \frac{mV(n,r)}{2^n}$$

$$\leq 2^{nR} 2^{nH(p+\varepsilon)2^{-n}}$$

$$= 2^{n(R-(1-H(p+\varepsilon)))} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$

since  $R < 1 - H(p + \varepsilon)$ .

**Proposition 9.11.** We can replace e by  $\hat{e}$  in the previous result.

*Proof.* Pick R' with R < R' < 1 - H(p). The previous result constructs a sequence  $(C'_n)_{n \ge 1}$  of codes,  $C'_n$  of length n and size  $\lfloor 2^{nR'} \rfloor$  for all n, and  $e(C'_n) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

For each n, order the codewords of  $C'_n$  by  $\mathbb{P}(\text{error}|c \text{ sent})$  and delete the worst half, to get a code  $C_n$  with  $\hat{e}(C_n) \leq 2e(C_n)$ . So  $\hat{e}(C_n) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Since  $C_n$  has length n and size  $\lfloor 2^{nR'} \rfloor / 2 = floor 2^{nR'-1}$ . But  $2^{nR'-1} = 2^{n(R'-1/n)} \geq 2^{nR}$  for all n sufficiently large. So can replace  $C'_n$  by a code of smaller size  $\lfloor 2^{nR} \rfloor$  and still get  $\hat{e}(C_n) \to 0$  and  $\rho(C_n) \to R$ .

### Remarks.

- 1. A BSC with error probability p has operational capacity 1 H(p). Indeed the above proposition says we can transmit reliably at any rate R < 1 H(p), wheras 9.9 says the capacity is at most 1 H(p).
- 2. Shannon's SCT shows that good codes exist, but the proof does not say how to construct them.

# 10 The Kelly criterion

Let 1 > p > 0, u > 0,  $1 > w \ge 0$ . Suppose a coin is tossed n times in succession,  $\mathbb{P}(H) = p$ . If I pay k ahead of a particular throw, then get back ku if the throw is heads, or get back 0 if throw is tails.

Say we have initial bankroll  $X_0 = 1$ . If we have bankroll of  $X_n$  after nth toss, bet  $wX_n$ , retaining  $(1 - w)X_n$ . Then bankroll  $X_{n+1}$  after (n + 1)th throw is

$$X_{n+1} = \begin{cases} X_n(wu + (1-w)) & \text{if } nth \text{ toss is heads} \\ X_n(1-w) & \text{if } nth \text{ toss is tails} \end{cases}.$$

Let  $Y_{n+1} = X_{n+1}/X_n$ . Then  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$ , is a sequence of iid random variables. Hence  $\log Y_1, \log Y_2, \ldots$  is a sequence of iid random variables. Note  $\log X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \log Y_i$ .

**Lemma 10.1.** Let  $\mathbb{E} \log Y_1 = \mu$ ,  $Var(\log Y_1) = \sigma^2$ . Then if a > 0

(i) 
$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\log Y_i - \mu\right| \ge a\right) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{na^2}$$

(ii) 
$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{\log X_n}{n} - \mu\right| \ge a\right) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{na^2}$$

(iii) Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}\left(z\left|\frac{\log X_n}{n} - \mu\right| \geq \delta\right) \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

*Proof.* Obvious by Chebyshev.

**Lemma 10.2.** Conside a single toss of a coin,  $\mathbb{P}(H) = p < 1$ . Suppose a bet of k on H has payout ratio u > 0. Suppose we have initial bankroll 1, and we bet w on H, retaining 1 - w ( $0 \le w < 1$ ). If Y = fortune after toss then  $\mathbb{E} \log Y = p \log(1 + (u - 1)w) + (1 - p) \log(1 - w)$ . The value of  $\mathbb{E} \log Y$  is maximised by taking w = 0 if  $up \le 1$ , and otherwise taking  $w = \frac{up-1}{v-1}$ .

*Proof.* Not given (see Körner's book). 
$$\Box$$

**Remark.** Put q = 1 - p; If up > 1, at the optimum w have

$$\mathbb{E}\log Y = p\log p + q\log q + \log u - q\log(u-1)$$

and  $-(p \log p + q \log q)$  is the entropy of a simple probabilistic system.

The suggestion that those making a long sequence of bets should maximise the expectation of the log is called Kelly's criterion.

Exercise: show that if you bet less than the optimum, your bankroll will tend to increase, but more slowly; and if you bet more than some critical proportion, your bankroll will tend to decrease.

# 11 Algebraic Coding Theory

### 11.1 Linear codes

**Definition.** A code  $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^n$  is *linear* if

- $0 \in C$ ;
- whenever  $x, y \in C$ , we have  $x + y \in C$ .

i.e C is a  $\mathbb{F}_2$ -vector subspace of  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$ .

**Definition.** The rank of a linear code C is its dimension as a  $\mathbb{F}_2$ -vector space. A linear code of length n, rank k is called a (n, k)-code. If the minimum distance of the code is d, it is a (n, k, d)-code.

Let  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$  be a basis of C. Then  $C = \{\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i v_i : \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{F}_2\}$ . So  $|C| = 2^k$ . So an (n, k)-code is a  $[n, 2^k]$ -code. The information rate is k/n.

**Definition.** The weight of  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$  is w(x) = d(x, 0).

**Lemma 11.1.** The minimum distance of a linear code is the minimum weight of a non-zero code word.

*Proof.* Obvious. 
$$\Box$$

**Definition.** For  $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ , let  $x \cdot y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \in \mathbb{F}_2$ . This operation is symmetric and bilinear, but not positive definite.

**Definition.** Take some  $P \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^n$ . The parity check code defined by P is

$$C = \{ x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : p \cdot x = 0, \ \forall p \in P \}.$$

#### Examples.

- $P = \{(1, ..., 1)\}$  gives the simple parity check code;
- $P = \{(1,0,1,0,1,0,1), (0,1,1,0,0,1,1), (0,0,0,1,1,1,1)\}$  gives Hamming's [7,16,3]-code;
- Show that  $C^+$  and  $C^-$  are linear if C is linear. When is C' linear?

Lemma 11.2. Every parity check code is linear.

**Definition.** Take  $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^n$  a linear code. The dual code

$$C^{\perp} = \{ x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : x \cdot y, \ \forall y \in C \}.$$

This is a parity-check code, so is linear. Note  $C \cap C^{\perp}$  is not necessarily  $\{0\}$ .

**Lemma 11.3.**  $\dim(C) + \dim(C^{\perp}) = n$ .

Proof. See later. 
$$\Box$$

Corollary 11.4. Let C be linear. Then  $(C^{\perp})^{\perp} = C$ . In particular, C is a parity check code.

*Proof.* Clearly  $C \subseteq (C^{\perp})^{\perp}$ . Equality follows from the previous lemma.

**Definition.** Let C be a (n, k)-code.

- (i) A generator matrix G for C is a  $k \times n$  matrix with rows a basis of C;
- (ii) A parity check matrix H for C is a generator matrix for  $C^{\perp}$ . It is a  $(n-k)\times n$  matrix.

The codewords of C can be viewed either as:

- Linear combinations of rows of G;
- Linear dependence relations between the columns of H, i.e  $C = \{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : Hx^T = 0\}.$