### 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  $A \mapsto \bullet -$ ,  $E \mapsto \bullet$ ,  $Q \mapsto --\bullet -$ ,  $S \mapsto \bullet \bullet \bullet$ ,  $O \mapsto ---$ ,  $Z \mapsto --\bullet \bullet$ . 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 and only if a prefix-free code with the same word lengths exists.

*Proof.* Combine previous two theorems.

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

## 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).

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