Information, Codes and Ciphers

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1 Introduction

1.1 Mathematical Model

To give a mathematical framework for digital data transmission, define

- a source alphabet $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q\}$ of q symbols
- a **code alphabet** A of r symbols probabilities $p_i = P(s_i)$
- a **code** that encodes each symbol s_i by a codeword which is a **string** of code symbols.

1.2 Assumed Knowledge

- Modular Arithmetic and the Division Algorithm
- Probability (Binomial Distribution and Bayes' Rule)
- Linear Algebra (Linear combination, independence, etc...)

1.3 Morse Code

Morse code is a **ternary** code (radix 3). Its alphabet is

- 1. \bullet called **dot**
- 2. called dash
- 3. p a pause

The codewords are strings of • and — **terminated** by p.

1.4 ASCII

 $\underline{\mathbf{A}}$ merican National $\underline{\mathbf{S}}$ tandard $\underline{\mathbf{C}}$ ode for $\underline{\mathbf{I}}$ nformation $\underline{\mathbf{I}}$ nterchange.

Binary code of fixed codeword length, namely 7, with $2^7=128$ encoded symbols.

The extended ASCII is a code like the 7-bit ASCII but with an extra bit in the front used as a check bit, requiring the number of 1's to be even.

1.5 ISBN

International Standard Book Number.

They have 10 bits, with it's last bit being a check bit, requiring

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} ix_i \equiv 0 \pmod{11}.$$

2 Error Detection and Correction Codes

We say that \mathbf{x} corrupted to \mathbf{y} is denoted by $\mathbf{x} \leadsto \mathbf{y}$.

2.1 ISBN-10 Error Capability

ISBN-10 numbers are capable of detecting the two types of errors:

- 1. getting a digit wrong,
- 2. interchanging two (unequal) digits.

2.2 Types of Codes

- variable length code: codewords have different lengths
- block code: codewords have the same lengths
- t-error correcting code: code can always correct up to t errors
- systematic code: code with information digits and check digits distinct

2.3 Binary Repetition Codes

A binary r-repetition code encodes $0 \to \overbrace{0 \cdots 0}^r$ and $1 \to \overbrace{1 \cdots 1}^r$

The binary (2t+1)-repetition code is t-error correcting. The binary 2t-repetition code is (t-1)-error correcting and t-error detecting.

2.4 Information Rate and Redundancy

The **information rate** R is given by,

- For a code C of radix r and length $n, R = \frac{\log_r |C|}{n}$
- For a systematic code, $R = \frac{\text{\# information digits}}{\text{length of code}}$

We then define **redundancy** = $\frac{1}{R}$.

2.5 Binary Hamming Error-Correcting Codes

A Binary Hamming (n, k) code is a code of length n with k information bits, such that it is a single error correcting and has a parity check matrix, H, of size n - k by n.

2.6 Hamming Distance, Weights

The **weight** of an n-bit word \mathbf{x} is defined to be

$$w(\mathbf{x}) = \#\{i : 1 \le i \le n, x_i \ne 0\}.$$

Given two n-bit words, the **Hamming distance** between them is

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

Given some code with set of codewords C, we define (minimum) weight of C to

$$w = w(C) = \min\{w(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in C, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}\}.$$

Similarly, the (minimum) distance of C is defined by

$$d = d(C) = \min\{d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in C, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}\}.$$

If $\mathbf{x} \leadsto \mathbf{y}$, then $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is the number of errors in \mathbf{y} .

2.7 Decoding Strategies

Minimum Distance Decoding Strategy Given a received word y, decode to *closest* codeword x.

Standard Strategy If received word y is distance at most t from a codeword x, then decode y to x; otherwise flag an error.

Pure Error Detection If received word y is not a codeword x, then flag an error.

2.8 Sphere Packing

The **sphere** of radius r around c:

$$S_r(\mathbf{c}) = {\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n : d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \le r}.$$

The volume of this sphere is its size $|S_r(\mathbf{c})|$.

Sphere-Packing Condition Theorem A t-error correcting binary code C of length n has minimum distance d=2t+1 or 2t+2, and

$$|C|\sum_{i=0}^{t} \binom{n}{i} \le 2^{n}.$$

If we have equality in the bound, then we say that the code is perfect. This means that codewords are evenly spread around in \mathbb{Z}_2^n space.

2.9 Binary Linear Codes

A linear code C is a vector space over some field \mathbb{F} . Equivalently it is the null-space of

$$C = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n : H\mathbf{x}^T = \mathbf{0} \}$$

of an $m \times n$ parity check matrix H with m = rank(H).

- $\dim C = k = n m$ by the Rank-Nullity Theorem.
- If C is binary, then $|C| = 2^k$.
- C is systematic.
- If *H* is **reduced echelon form**, then we can choose the non-leading columns of *H* to be **information bits** and the leading columns of *H* to be **check bits**.

Minimum Distance for Linear Codes If C is a linear code with parity check matrix H, then

- w(C) = d(C),
- $d(C) = \min\{r : H \text{ has } r \text{ linearly dependent columns}\}.$

For a linear code C, the **row space** (or **row span**) of a $k \times n$ **generator matrix** G over \mathbb{F} generates C, in the sense that C is a set of linear combinations of G.

2.10 Standard Form Matrices

For a linear code C of dimension k and length n = k + m,

- $H = (I_m \mid B)$ is a parity check matrix for C if and only if
- $G = (-B^T \mid I_k)$ is a generator matrix C.

Linear codes C and C' are **equivalent** if C' is obtained by permuting the codeword entries of C by a fixed permutation:

$$C' = CP = \{ \mathbf{x}P : \mathbf{x} \in C \}$$
 for some permutation matrix P

Note that G' = GP and H' = HP.

2.11 Extending Linear Codes

The **extension** of a linear code C:

$$\hat{C} = \{x_0 x_1 \cdots x_n : x_1 \cdots x_n \in C, x_0 = -(x_1 + \cdots + x_n)\}.$$

The **extension** \hat{C} is a linear code with minimum distance d(C) or d(C) + 1.

2.12 Radix r Hamming Codes

- Let r be a prime number and m > 1 some integer.
- Write the numbers $1, \ldots, r^m 1$ in base r, as length m column vectors.
- Of each set of r-1 parallel columns, delete all whose first nonzero entry is not 1.
- This gives the radix r Hamming code of length $n = \frac{r^m 1}{r 1}$.

3 Compression Coding

Definitions

source S	with	symbols	s_1, \ldots, s_q
	with	probabilities	p_1, \ldots, p_q
$\mathbf{code}\ C$	with	codewords	$\mathbf{c}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{c}_q$
		of lengths	ℓ_1, \ldots, ℓ_q
		and radix	r

3.1 Instantaneous and UD Codes

A code C is

- uniquely decodable (UD) if it can always be decoded unambiguously
- **instantaneous** if no codeword is a **prefix** of another. Such a code is an **I-code**.

Decision trees can represent I-codes.

- Branches are numbered from the top down.
- Any radix r is allowed.
- Two codes are equivalent if their decision trees are isomorphic.
- By shuffling source symbols, we may assume that $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2 \leq \cdots \leq \ell_q$.

The Kraft-Mcmillan Theorem The following are equivalent:

- 1. There is a radix r **UD-code** with codeword lengths $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2 \leq \cdots \leq \ell_q$
- 2. There is a radix r **I-code** with codeword lengths $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2 \leq \cdots \leq \ell_n$
- 3. $K = \sum_{i=1}^{q} (\frac{1}{r})^{\ell_i} \le i$

3.2 Minimal UD-Codes

The (expected or) average length and variance of codewords in C are

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{q} p_i \ell_i$$
 $V = (\sum_{i=1}^{q} p_i \ell_i^2) - L^2$

A UD-code is **minimal** with respect to p_1, \ldots, p_q if it has minimal length.

Minimal UD-Codes If a UD-code has minimal average length L with respect to p_1, \ldots, p_q , then, possibly after permuting codewords of equally likely symbols,

- $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2 \cdots \leq \ell_q$
- $\ell_{q-1} = \ell_q$
- If C is instantaneous, then \mathbf{c}_{q-1} and \mathbf{c}_q differ only in their last place.
- If C is binary, then

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{q} 2^{-\ell i} = 1$$

3.3 Huffman's Algorithm

Binary Case

- 1. Write the symbols in a column, with highest probability at the top and lowest probability at the bottom.
- 2. Merge the bottom two (least frequent) symbols s_q and s_{q-1} into one big symbol of probability $p_q + p_{q-1}$.
- 3. Write the resulting q-1 symbols in a new column to the right in same order as before. Make sure to place the newly created symbol as high as possible in this column.
- 4. Draw branches from the newly created symbol to its two constituent symbols, and label them 0 and 1.
- 5. Repeat the above, until there is only one symbol left.

Huffman Code Theorem For any given source S and corresponding probabilities, the Huffman Algorithm yields an instantaneous minimum UD-code.

Knuth The average codeword length L of each Huffman code is the sum of all child node probabilities.

3.4 Extensions

For a source $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_q\}$ with probabilities p_1, \ldots, p_q , the n-th extension of S is the Cartesian product S^n , containing all strings of n symbols in S.

The probability of each symbol in S^n is the product of the probabilities of constituent symbols. We also order the new symbols in non-increasing probability.

3.5 Markov Sources

A k-memory source S is one whose symbols each depend on the previous k.

- If k = 0, then no symbol depends on any other, and S is memoryless.
- If k = 1, then S is a Markov source.
- $p_{ij} = P(s_i \mid s_j)$ is the probability of s_i occurring right after a given s_i .
- The matrix $M = (p_{ij})$ is the **transition matrix**.
- Entry p_{ij} is the probability of getting from state s_j to state s_i .

A Markov process M is in equilibrium p if $\mathbf{p} = M\mathbf{p}$.

We will assume that

- M is **ergodic**: we can get from any state j to any state i.
- *M* is **aperiodic**: the gcd of cycle lengths is 1.

Under the above assumptions, M has a non-zero equilibrium state.

3.6 Arithmetic Coding

Consider a source $\{s_1, \ldots, s_q\}$ where $s_q = \bullet$ is called a stop symbol, with probabilities p_1, \ldots, p_q . In this context, a message will always end with a stop symbol. Encoding a message $s_{i1} \ldots s_{in}$ involves the following steps:

- Split up the interval [0,1) into sub-intervals of size p_1,\ldots,p_q .
- Choose the i_1 -th sub-interval.
- Split up this sub-interval again, in proportion to p_1, \ldots, p_q .
- Choose the i_2 -th sub-interval.
- Repeat this for the rest of the symbols, and output any number inside the final sub-interval found.

3.7 Dictionary Methods

Encoding Consider a message $m = m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$. To encode m:

- Begin with an empty table D, and set the 0-th entry to \emptyset , representing an empty string.
- Find the longest prefix s of m in D (possibly the empty string \emptyset), and say s is in entry k.
- Find the symbol c just after s.
- Add a new entry sc to D, remove sc from m, and output (k,c).
- \bullet Repeat until m is fully encoded.

Decoding Consider an encoded message $(k_1, c_1) \dots (k_n, c_n)$. To decode this message, take the following steps:

- Begin with a table D with \emptyset in the 0-th entry.
- Let s_1 be the k_1 -th entry in the table. Append s_1c_1 to the table, and output s_1c_1 .
- Let s_2 be the k_2 -th entry in the table. Append s_2c_2 to the table, and output s_2c_2 .
- Keep doing this until the message is fully decoded.