CS3236 Lecture Notes #4: Channel Coding

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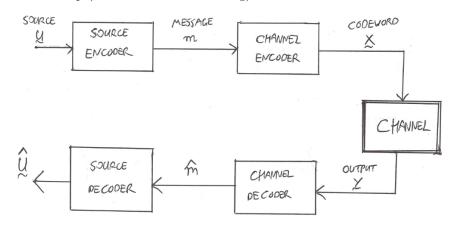
Useful references:

- Cover/Thomas Chapter 7
- \bullet MacKay Chapters 8–10
- Shannon's 1948 paper "A Mathematical Introduction to Communication"

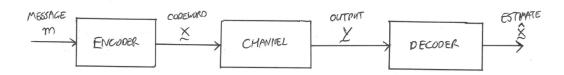
1 Setup

Overview.

• Full communication setup (source and channel coding):

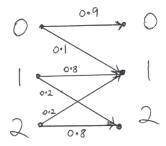


• Channel coding setup:



Channel model.

- The channel is the medium over which we transmit information
- We denote the input by x and the output by y (or X and Y when we want to highlight that they are random)
- We assume (for now) that the channel input and output only take finitely many possible values (e.g., binary, $x \in \{0,1\}$ and $y \in \{0,1\}$). These sets of possible inputs/outputs are denoted by \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} . We call these the *input alphabet* and *output alphabet*.
- We adopt a probabilistic modeling approach: When the input is $x \in \mathcal{X}$, a given output $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ is produced with probability $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$.
- The channel transition probabilities are typically depicted graphically. A simple example:



Problem description.

- We generically view the communication problem as seeking to transmit a message $m \in \{1, ..., M\}$. In particular, if a fixed-length source code outputs a length-k sequence of bits, then we can set $M = 2^k$ and map each such sequence to a unique index m.
- The encoder takes as input the message m, and outputs a sequence of channel inputs x_1, \ldots, x_n . To make the dependence on the message explicit, we define the codeword $\mathbf{x}^{(m)} = (x_1^{(m)}, \ldots, x_n^{(m)})$, which is the sequence produced when the message is m.
 - The collection of codewords $C = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(M)}\}$ is referred to as the *codebook*. It is known at both the encoder and decoder, but only the encoder knows m.

The codeword $\mathbf{x}^{(m)}$ is transmitted over the channel in n uses, and the resulting output sequence is denoted by $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

- We focus (for now) on discrete memoryless channels:
 - Discrete: The input/output alphabets \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are finite, as stated above;
 - Memoryless: When we transmit several symbols (say, n of them) over the channel in successive uses, the outputs are (conditionally) independent:

$$P_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P_{Y|X}(y_i|x_i).$$

• Given the output sequence \mathbf{y} (and knowledge of the codebook \mathcal{C}), the decoder forms an estimate \hat{m} of the message m.

A fundamental trade-off.

• Clearly we would like $\hat{m} = m$; if not then an *error* has occurred. Accordingly, we define the *error* probability

$$P_{\rm e} = \mathbb{P}[\hat{m} \neq m]. \tag{1}$$

We will henceforth consider this probability as being averaged over m uniform on $\{1, \ldots, M\}$ (along with the randomness in the channel), though without much extra effort we can actually get similar results for the maximal error probability $\max_{m=1,\ldots,M} \mathbb{P}[\hat{m} \neq m \mid m \text{ chosen}]$.

• We would like to transmit as much data as possible (i.e., high M); instead of considering M directly, we usually measure this via the rate (measured in bits per channel use):

$$R = \frac{1}{n} \log_2 M.$$

That is, the number of messages is $M = 2^{nR}$.

- For instance, if $M = 2^n$ then R = 1, which makes sense because n bits (each a 0 or 1) corresponds to 2^n possible combinations (of 0s and 1s).
- The quantity n also plays a fundamental role; it is referred to as the *block length*.
- Key question: What is the fundamental trade-off between error probability P_e , rate R, and block length n? In particular, how high can the rate be while keeping the error probability small?

2 Channel Capacity

Definition.

- **Definition.** The channel capacity C is defined to be the maximum¹ of all rates R such that, for any target error probability $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a block length n and codebook $C = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(M)}\}$ with $M = 2^{nR}$ codewords such that $P_e \leq \epsilon$.
 - In simpler terms: This is the highest rate such that the error probability can be made arbitrarily small at some (possibly large) block length.
- Channel Coding Theorem. The capacity of a discrete memoryless channel $P_{Y|X}$ is

$$C = \max_{P_X} I(X;Y).$$

The proof is split into two parts (given in later sections):

- Achievability part: For any R < C, there exists a code of rate at least R with arbitrarily small error probability.

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{More}$ mathematically precisely, the supremum.

- Converse part: For any R > C, any code of rate at least R cannot have arbitrarily small error probability.
- **Definition.** For a given channel $P_{Y|X}$, any input distribution P_X maximizing the mutual information above is called a *capacity-achieving input distribution*.

Examples.

- Noiseless channel:
 - Consider a noiseless channel with $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ in which the output deterministically equals the input (i.e., Y = X):
 - An illustration:

$$\bigcirc \xrightarrow{1.0} \bigcirc$$

- Since Y = X, we have H(X|Y) = 0 (there is no uncertainty in X once we know Y), and hence

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(X).$$

Therefore, the capacity is

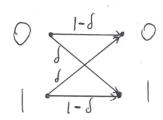
$$C = \max_{P_X} I(X; Y) = \max_{P_X} H(X) = 1$$

since the entropy of a binary random variable is at most one (achieved when $P_X(0) = P_X(1) = \frac{1}{2}$).

- This result should not be surprising if there is no noise, we can reliably transmit one bit per channel use without even doing any coding!
- $\bullet\,$ Binary symmetric channel:
 - Again consider $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$, but now each input is flipped with some probability $\delta \in (0,1)$:

$$P_{Y|X}(y|x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \delta & y = x \\ \delta & y = 1 - x. \end{cases}$$

- An illustration:



- In this case, it is more convenient to use the expansion I(X;Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X).

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- In general we have $H(Y|X) = \sum_{x} P_X(x)H(Y|X=x)$, but due to the symmetry things simplify. Specifically, regardless of whether we condition on X=0 or X=1, the conditional probabilities of Y are still δ and $1-\delta$, and so $H(Y|X=x)=H_2(\delta)$, where $H_2(\delta)=\delta\log_2\frac{1}{\delta}+(1-\delta)\log_2\frac{1}{1-\delta}$ is the binary entropy function.
- This gives $H(Y|X) = H_2(\delta)$ and hence

$$C = \max_{P_X} I(X;Y) = \max_{P_X} (H(Y) - H_2(\delta)).$$

If we were maximizing over P_Y directly, we could get $\max H(Y) = 1$ by the same argument as the noiseless case by letting P_Y be uniform. But in this case, even though we can only control P_X , we can still produce uniform P_Y – just let P_X be uniform!

* Indeed, if $P_X(0) = P_X(1) = \frac{1}{2}$, then we have

$$P_Y(0) = \frac{1}{2}(1-\delta) + \frac{1}{2}\delta = \frac{1}{2},$$

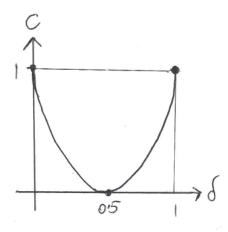
and similarly $P_Y(1) = \frac{1}{2}$.

- Therefore, the capacity is

$$C = 1 - H_2(\delta)$$

and the capacity-achieving input distribution is $P_X(0) = P_X(1) = \frac{1}{2}$.

- An illustration:

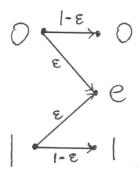


- As expected, setting $\delta = 0$ recovers the noiseless capacity C = 1. Notice also that $\delta = \frac{1}{2}$ gives capacity zero, because in this case we have $P_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{1}{2}$ regardless of the input x, so the output carries no information about the input.
- Binary erasure channel:
 - Consider $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}, \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1, e\},$ and transition probabilities

$$P_{Y|X}(y|x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \epsilon & y = x \\ \epsilon & y = e \\ 0 & y = 1 - x \end{cases}$$

for some erasure probability ϵ . In words, the output equals the input with probability $1 - \epsilon$, but is "erased" (corresponding to output e) with probability ϵ .

- An illustration:



- This time it turns out easier to use the expansion I(X;Y) = H(X) H(X|Y), though the I(X;Y) = H(Y) H(Y|X) approach is also possible (see the tutorial).
- -H(X|Y) is fairly easy to characterize, because H(X|Y=0)=H(X|Y=1)=0 (there is no uncertainty in X when $Y\neq e$). Hence,

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{y} P_Y(y)H(X|Y=y) = P_Y(e)H(X|Y=e).$$

Then, given Y = e, we have

$$P_{X|Y}(0|e) = \frac{P_{XY}(0,e)}{P_{Y}(e)} = \frac{P_{X}(0)\epsilon}{\epsilon} = P_{X}(0),$$

and similarly $P_{X|Y}(1|e) = P_X(1)$. Hence, H(X|Y=e) = H(X).

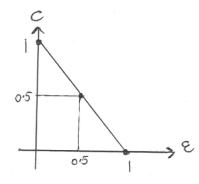
- Combining the above findings gives

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$
$$= (1 - \epsilon)H(X).$$

– Upon maximizing over P_X , we can get the maximal value H(X) = 1 with $P_X(0) = P_X(1) = \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, the capacity is

$$C = 1 - \epsilon$$
.

An illustration:



- In all of these examples, the capacity-achieving input distribution is uniform.
 - In fact, much more general classes of symmetric channels (not necessarily binary) have a uniform capacity-achieving input distribution. See Cover/Thomas Section 7.2 for details.
 - For non-symmetric channels, the capacity-achieving P_X may be non-uniform. Moreover, we often can't find the optimal choice analytically, so instead need to do so numerically (efficient algorithms for doing this are known; see Cover/Thomas Section 10.8).

3 Jointly Typical Sequences

The following definition and properties will be crucial in proving the achievability part mentioned above.

• **Definition**: A pair (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) of length-n input and output sequences is said to be *jointly typical* with respect to a joint distribution P_{XY} if the following conditions hold:

$$2^{-n(H(X)+\epsilon)} \le P_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \le 2^{-n(H(X)-\epsilon)}$$
$$2^{-n(H(Y)+\epsilon)} \le P_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) \le 2^{-n(H(Y)-\epsilon)}$$
$$2^{-n(H(X,Y)+\epsilon)} \le P_{\mathbf{XY}}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \le 2^{-n(H(X,Y)-\epsilon)}.$$

The set of all such sequences is denoted by $\mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)$, and is called the *jointly typical set*.

- In simpler terms: The X sequence, Y sequence, and joint (X,Y) sequence are all typical according to the previous lecture's definition.
- Key properties:²
 - 1. (Equivalent definition) We have $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)$ if and only if the following conditions hold:

$$\begin{split} H(X) - \epsilon &\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log_2 \frac{1}{P_X(x_i)} \leq H(X) + \epsilon \\ H(Y) - \epsilon &\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log_2 \frac{1}{P_Y(y_i)} \leq H(Y) + \epsilon \\ H(X,Y) - \epsilon &\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log_2 \frac{1}{P_{XY}(x_i,y_i)} \leq H(X,Y) + \epsilon. \end{split}$$

- 2. (High probability) $\mathbb{P}[(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)] \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$
- 3. (Cardinality upper bound) $|\mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)| \leq 2^{n(H(X,Y)+\epsilon)}$.
- 4. (Probability for independent sequences) If $(\mathbf{X}', \mathbf{Y}') \sim P_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}')P_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}')$ are independent copies of (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) , then the probability of joint typicality is

$$\mathbb{P}[(\mathbf{X}', \mathbf{Y}') \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)] \le 2^{-n(I(X;Y)-3\epsilon)}$$

- The first three properties have similar intuition to the "X-only" setting of the previous lecture.

²Near-matching lower bounds can also be shown for the final two properties, but these are omitted here.

- The final one is distinct from that setting. Intuitively, if \mathbf{X}' and \mathbf{Y}' are generated independently, then the "further" P_{XY} is from being independent, the less likely it is for those independent sequences to be jointly typical with respect to P_{XY} . Mutual information naturally arises because it measures "how far" (X,Y) are from being independent: $I(X;Y) = D(P_{XY}||P_X \times P_Y)$.
- In fact, the fourth property is a special case of a more general result: If a sequence $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_n)$ is drawn i.i.d. from some distribution Q_Z , then the probability that it is typical with respect to some other distribution P_Z is roughly $2^{-nD(P_Z||Q_Z)}$.

• Proofs:

- 1. Simple re-arranging like in the previous lecture.
- 2. Law of large numbers applied (separately) to the 3 conditions in the first property.
- 3. Same as the previous lecture via $P_{\mathbf{XY}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 2^{-n(H(X,Y)+\epsilon)}$ and $\sum_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)} P_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq 1$.
- 4. We have

$$\mathbb{P}[(\mathbf{X}', \mathbf{Y}') \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)] = \sum_{(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}') \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)} P_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}') P_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}')$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y}') \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)} 2^{-n(H(X) - \epsilon)} 2^{-n(H(Y) - \epsilon)}$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} 2^{n(H(X, Y) + \epsilon)} 2^{-n(H(X) - \epsilon)} 2^{-n(H(Y) - \epsilon)}$$

$$\stackrel{(c)}{=} 2^{-n(I(X; Y) - 3\epsilon)},$$

where (a) uses the fact that $P_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}') \leq 2^{-n(H(X)-\epsilon)}$ and $P_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}') \leq 2^{-n(H(Y)-\epsilon)}$ within $\mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)$, (b) uses the upper bound in property 3, and (c) uses I(X;Y) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X,Y).

4 Achievability via Random Coding

Overview.

- Challenge: Devising explicit/specific codes and studying their performance is very difficult.
- Key idea (the probabilistic method): Show that **randomly chosen** codes perform well on average.

 Obviously, the best possible code must perform at least as well as the average.
- <u>Note</u>: The good code whose existence we prove may have very high computation/storage requirements. This approach merely shows that reliable communication is *mathematically* possible for rates below capacity, but not how to get there with a *practical* design.

Codebook generation.

- Recall that the encoding is done via a codebook $C = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(M)}\}$, where message m is encoded into the length-n sequence $\mathbf{x}^{(m)} = (x_1^{(m)}, \dots, x_n^{(m)})$.
- We consider the following random coding approach:

Generate each symbol $X_i^{(m)}$ of each codeword randomly and

independently according to some distribution P_X (to be specified)

Note that we use capital letters for $\mathbf{X}, X_i^{(m)}$, etc. when we want to highlight that they are random.

• For example, if $\mathcal{X} = \{0,1\}$ and $P_X(1) = P_X(0) = \frac{1}{2}$, then we are just setting every bit of every codeword according to a fair "coin flip".

Encoding and decoding.

- As mentioned above, the encoder simply maps m to $\mathbf{X}^{(m)} = (X_1^{(m)}, \dots, X_n^{(m)}) \in \mathcal{X}^n$, which is transmitted via n uses of the channel.
- The decoder receives the output sequence $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$, and also knows the codebook. For each $\tilde{m} = 1, \dots, M$, it checks whether the pair $(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y})$ is jointly typical, and does the following:
 - If there exists a unique \tilde{m} that joint typicality holds, then the decoder estimates $\hat{m} = \tilde{m}$.
 - If there exists no such \tilde{m} , or multiple such \tilde{m} , an error is declared (or alternatively, \hat{m} is simply chosen at random).

Note that "joint typicality" is defined with respect to $P_{XY} = P_X \times P_{Y|X}$. The channel $P_{Y|X}$ was fixed as part of the problem, whereas P_X is something we chose ourselves (during the codebook generation).

- Note that the joint distributions between the codewords and the output are exactly those we need to apply properties 2 and 4 of joint typicality:
 - For the correct m (i.e., $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ is transmitted), $P_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$ is i.i.d. according to $P_{Y|X}$, and $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ itself is i.i.d. according to P_X by construction, so overall $(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y})$ is i.i.d. on $P_{XY} = P_X \times P_{Y|X}$.
 - For any incorrect \tilde{m} (i.e., $\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}$ is a non-transmitted codeword), we have that $\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}$ and \mathbf{Y} are independent, since \mathbf{Y} only depends on the transmitted codeword, not the other ones. Therefore, the joint distribution of $(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y})$ takes the form $P_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})P_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y})$.

Analysis of the error probability.

- In order to have $\hat{m} = m$, it is clearly sufficient that the following two events occur:
 - 1. $(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y})$ is jointly typical;
 - 2. None of the other $(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y})$ are jointly typical (with $\tilde{m} \neq m$).
- Let $\overline{P}_{\rm e}^{(m)}$ denote the error probability given that the message is m, averaged over both the randomness in the channel and the random codebook (previously we only averaged over the former). This is called the random-coding error probability.
- We have just argued that the success probability $1 \overline{P}_{\rm e}^{(m)}$ satisfies

$$1 - \overline{P}_{e}^{(m)} \ge \mathbb{P}\bigg[(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_{n}(\epsilon) \cap \bigcap_{\tilde{m} \ne m} \Big\{ (\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y}) \notin \mathcal{T}_{n}(\epsilon) \Big\} \bigg],$$

which, by de Morgan's laws, is equivalent to

$$\overline{P}_{\mathrm{e}}^{(m)} \leq \mathbb{P}\bigg[(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y}) \notin \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon) \cup \bigcup_{\tilde{m} \neq m} \Big\{(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)\Big\}\bigg].$$

• Using the union bound $\mathbb{P}[A_i \cup \ldots \cup A_N] \leq \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}[A_i]$, we obtain

$$\overline{P}_{\mathrm{e}}^{(m)} \leq \mathbb{P}\big[(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y}) \notin \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)\big] + \sum_{\tilde{m} \neq m} \mathbb{P}\big[(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)\big].$$

- By the i.i.d. random coding method and the memoryless property of the channel, $(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y})$ is i.i.d. on P_{XY} . Moreover, since $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ is the only codeword that \mathbf{Y} depends on, we also have that $(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y})$ is an independent pair with the same $P_{\mathbf{X}}$ and $P_{\mathbf{Y}}$ marginals as $(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y})$.
- Therefore, the joint typicality properties in the previous section give $(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)$ with probability approaching one (as n increases), and that the probability of $(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y}) \in \mathcal{T}_n(\epsilon)$ is at most $2^{-n(I(X;Y)-3\epsilon)}$, which gives

$$\overline{P}_{e}^{(m)} \leq \mathbb{P}\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}, \mathbf{Y}\right) \notin \mathcal{T}_{n}(\epsilon)\right] + \sum_{\tilde{m} \neq m} \mathbb{P}\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{(\tilde{m})}, \mathbf{Y}\right) \in \mathcal{T}_{n}(\epsilon)\right] \\
\leq \delta_{n} + \sum_{\tilde{m} \neq m} 2^{-n(I(X;Y) - 3\epsilon)} \\
\leq \delta_{n} + M \times 2^{-n(I(X;Y) - 3\epsilon)},$$

where in (a) δ_n denotes a sequences that tends to 0 as $n \to \infty$, and in (b) we used the fact that the number of terms in the summation is $M-1 \le M$.

- Since $M = 2^{nR}$, we find that for $R < I(X;Y) 3\epsilon$ the overall upper bound on $\overline{P}_{\rm e}^{(m)}$ tends to zero as $n \to \infty$. Since ϵ may be arbitrarily small, this means $\overline{P}_{\rm e}^{(m)}$ can be made arbitrarily small for any rate R arbitrarily close to I(X;Y).
- Since this holds for any m, it also holds for the random-coding error probability $\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \overline{P}_{e}^{(m)}$ averaged over the message m. (In fact, due to the symmetry of random coding, $\overline{P}_{e}^{(m)}$ is the same for all m.)
- Finally, by choosing P_X to achieve the maximum in the definition $C = \max_{P_X} I(X;Y)$, we deduce that we can get vanishing error probability for rates arbitrarily close to the capacity C.

(Optional) Alternative proof.

• In an interesting alternative proof, instead of the notion of joint typicality we considered in the discrete setting, the decoder looks for a codeword \mathbf{x} such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log_2 \frac{P_{Y|X}(y_i|x_i)}{P_{Y}(y_i)} \ge \gamma$$

for some threshold γ . This can be viewed as a form of *one-sided* typicality.

- Using a simple change of measure argument, one can show that a given incorrect codeword passes this threshold test with probability at most $2^{-\gamma}$. By the union bound, the probability of this occurring for any incorrect codeword is at most $M2^{-\gamma}$, which tends to zero if we set γ to be slightly above $\log_2 M$.
- By the law of large numbers, for the *correct* codeword, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log_2 \frac{P_{Y|X}(y_i|x_i)}{P_Y(y_i)}$ is close to nI(X;Y) with high probability. Therefore, to exceed the threshold $\gamma \approx \log_2 M = nR$, we just need R < I(X;Y).

• This proof is rooted in two early works: "Certain results in coding theory for noisy channels" (Shannon, 1957) and "A new basic theorem of information theory" (Feinstein, 1954).

5 Converse via Fano's Inequality

- Let m denote a transmitted message uniform on $\{1, \ldots, M\}$, and let \hat{m} be its estimate (in a slight shift from our usual convention, these are random variables even though they are written in lower-case).
- The error probability is $P_e = \mathbb{P}[\hat{m} \neq m]$. Fano's inequality from the previous lecture³ states that

$$H(m|\hat{m}) \le H_2(P_e) + P_e \log_2(M-1)$$

 $\le 1 + P_e \log_2 M.$

• Since m is uniform on $\{1,\ldots,M\}$, we have $H(m)=\log_2 M$, which gives

$$I(m; \hat{m}) = H(m) - H(m|\hat{m})$$

$$\geq \log_2 M - P_e \log_2 M - 1$$

$$= (1 - P_e) \log_2 M - 1,$$

where the inequality uses the previous display equation. Simple re-arranging gives

$$P_{\rm e} \ge 1 - \frac{I(m; \hat{m}) + 1}{\log_2 M}.$$

Intuitively, this says that to achieve a small error probability, we need the amount of information that \hat{m} reveals about m to be close to the prior uncertainty in m (which is $\log_2 M$).

• The key step is to bound the mutual information. We have:

$$I(m; \hat{m}) \overset{(a)}{\leq} I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\overset{(b)}{=} H(\mathbf{Y}) - H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$$

$$\overset{(c)}{\leq} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y_{i}) - H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$$

$$\overset{(d)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y_{i}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(Y_{i}|\mathbf{X})$$

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

$$\overset{(f)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X_{i}; Y_{i})$$

$$\overset{(g)}{\leq} nC,$$

where:

³Now with (m, \hat{m}) in place of the generic symbols (X, \hat{X}) used in that lecture.

- (a) uses the data processing inequality (note that $m \to \mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{Y} \to \hat{m}$ forms a Markov chain);
- (b) and (f) use the definition of mutual information;
- (c) uses the sub-additivity of entropy;
- (d) uses the fact that the Y_i are conditionally independent given **X** (and entropy is additive for independent random variables), i.e., the "memoryless" assumption;
- (e) uses the fact that Y_i depends on **X** only through X_i ;
- (g) uses the definition of capacity (C is the maximum mutual information between X and Y).
- Combining the previous two dot points with $\log_2 M = \log_2 2^{nR} = nR$ gives

$$P_{\rm e} \ge 1 - \frac{C + 1/n}{R},$$

which means that $P_{\rm e}$ is bounded away from 0 as $n \to \infty$ whenever R > C.

- A minor technical detail: We originally stated the channel coding theorem for arbitrary n, not only $n \to \infty$. However, the result for $n \to \infty$ implies the result for arbitrary n. Indeed, the only way to get arbitrarily small error probability at finite n is to have $P_{\rm e}=0$. But if we can achieve $P_{\rm e}=0$ at some rate with finite block length, we can also achieve it as $n \to \infty$ by simply using that codebook many times in succession.

6 (Optional) Joint Source-Channel Coding

- If we can successfully perform both source coding and channel coding, then we can form the overall communication system as shown in the first figure of this document (Page 1).
- Denoting the source block length by k and the channel block length by n, and taking both to be sufficiently large, we obtain the following condition for overall reliable communication:

$$\underbrace{n \times C}_{\text{Total Capacity}} > \underbrace{k \times H}_{\text{Total Entropy}}$$

or equivalently

$$\frac{k}{n} < \frac{C}{H}.$$

Indeed, this result follows from a simple combination of the source coding and channel coding theorems. We first compress the source and represent it using roughly $M \approx 2^{kH}$ bits, and then we send the corresponding index $m \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$ across the channel in n uses.

- It may seem strange that we are removing first redundancy (source coding) only to then add redundancy (channel coding) could a joint approach be better? This is known as *joint source-channel coding*.
- Separation theorem. Even with joint source-channel coding, reliable communication is impossible if $\frac{k}{n} > \frac{C}{H}$. Therefore, separate source-channel coding is asymptotically optimal at large block lengths.
 - <u>Proof</u>: Mostly similar to that above based on Fano's inequality. See Section 7.13 of Cover/Thomas.
 - Note: The gains can be significant at *finite* block lengths (beyond the scope of this course).