

# Codes

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(Folks, help me proofread and correct this.)

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## Formal languages

**Words.** Use  $\emptyset$  for the empty set. An *alphabet*  $\mathbf{G}$  is a non-empty set, whose members are called *letters*; usually  $2 \leq |\mathbf{G}| < \infty$ . A *word* (over an alphabet  $\mathbf{G}$ ) is a *finite* string of letters; Use  $\mathbf{G}^*$  for the set of all words, and use  $\varepsilon$  for the *nullword*  $\varepsilon$ , the unique length-zero word. E.g if  $\mathbf{G} = \{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\}$ , then  $\mathbf{G}^*$  equals

$$\{\varepsilon, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{aa}, \mathbf{ab}, \mathbf{ba}, \mathbf{bb}, \mathbf{aaa}, \mathbf{aab}, \dots\}.$$

Write  $\mathbf{G}^+$  for  $\mathbf{G}^* \setminus \{\varepsilon\}$ .

Concatenation of words  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{G}^*$  is written  $\mathbf{v} \triangleright \mathbf{z}$  or just  $\mathbf{vz}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{cat} \triangleright \mathbf{nip} = \mathbf{catnip}$ . So  $\mathbf{G}^*$  is a semigroup under concatenation, with  $\varepsilon$  the identity element. Use  $\text{Len}(\mathbf{v})$  or  $|\mathbf{v}|$  for the *length* of word  $\mathbf{v}$ , and have  $|\mathbf{v}| > 3$  mean that  $|\mathbf{v}| > 3$ . For  $n$  a natnum, let  $\mathbf{v}^n$  mean the concatenation  $\mathbf{vv} \dots \mathbf{v}$ . So  $\mathbf{v}^0 = \varepsilon$ .

**Languages.** A “*language over alphabet*  $\mathbf{G}$ ” is a subset  $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbf{G}^*$ . Here are six distinct languages over alphabet  $\{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots, \mathbf{z}\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \emptyset &= \{\}, \{\varepsilon\}, \{\mathbf{catnip}\}, \{\mathbf{cat}, \mathbf{nip}\}, \{\varepsilon, \mathbf{cat}, \mathbf{nip}\} \\ \text{and } \{\mathbf{bc}, \mathbf{bac}, \mathbf{baac}, \mathbf{baaac}, \dots\} &= \{\mathbf{ba}^n \mathbf{c}\}_{n=0}^\infty. \end{aligned}$$

The first five are finite languages, having cardinalities 0, 1, 1, 2, 3. Call  $\emptyset$  the *void language* and call  $\{\varepsilon\}$  the *nullword language*. The “concatenation of languages”  $\mathcal{KL}, \mathcal{L} \subset \mathbf{G}^*$  is

$$\mathcal{KL} = \mathcal{K} \triangleright \mathcal{L} := \{\mathbf{v} \triangleright \mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{K} \text{ and } \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{L}\}.$$

[So  $\emptyset \triangleright \mathcal{L} = \emptyset = \mathcal{L} \triangleright \emptyset$  and  $\{\varepsilon\} \triangleright \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L} \triangleright \{\varepsilon\}$ .] Let  $\mathcal{L}^n$  mean  $\mathcal{LL} \dots \mathcal{L}$ . Hence  $\mathcal{L}^0 = \{\varepsilon\}$ , since the nullword language is the identity element for language-concatenation.<sup>♥1</sup>

For languages  $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathcal{L}$ , language  $\mathcal{L}$  is an *extension* of  $\mathcal{K}$ , and  $\mathcal{K}$  is a *restriction* of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

<sup>♥1</sup>Aside: We already knew that  $(\mathbf{G}^*, \triangleright, \varepsilon)$  is a [non-commutative] semigroup. And letting  $\mathbb{L} = \mathbb{L}_{\mathbf{G}}$  denote the set of all languages over  $\mathbf{G}$ , this generalizes to a [non-commutative] semigroup

$$(\mathbb{L}, \triangleright, \{\varepsilon\}).$$

Of course, we also have the two commutative semigroups  $(\mathbb{L}, \cup, \emptyset)$  and  $(\mathbb{L}, \cap, \mathbf{G}^*)$ .

**Star.** Define the *Kleene star* operator by

$$\mathcal{L}^* := \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{L}^n.$$

[Language  $\mathcal{L}^*$  is the minimal extension of  $\mathcal{L}$  which is sealed (closed) under finite concatenation of words. Since  $\mathcal{L}^*$  contains the concatenation of zero-many words,  $\mathcal{L}^*$  owns  $\varepsilon$ .] In particular  $\emptyset^* = \{\varepsilon\} = \{\varepsilon\}^*$ . Similarly, the *Kleene plus* operator is

$$\mathcal{L}^+ := \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{L}^n.$$

Hence  $[\varepsilon \in \mathcal{L}^+] \Leftrightarrow [\varepsilon \in \mathcal{L}] \Leftrightarrow [\mathcal{L}^+ = \mathcal{L}^*]$ . Each Kleene op is *idempotent*:  $[\mathcal{L}^*]^* = \mathcal{L}^*$  and  $[\mathcal{L}^+]^+ = \mathcal{L}^+$ .

**Prefix/Suffix.** For words, say “ $\mathbf{v}$  is a *prefix* of  $\mathbf{w}$ ” if there exists a word  $\mathbf{z}$  with  $\mathbf{vz} = \mathbf{w}$ ; write  $\mathbf{v} \preceq \mathbf{w}$  for this relation. If, also,  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{w}$ , then  $\mathbf{v}$  is a *proper prefix* of  $\mathbf{w}$ , written  $\mathbf{v} \prec \mathbf{w}$ .

If  $\exists \mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{G}^*$  with  $\mathbf{zv} = \mathbf{w}$ , then “ $\mathbf{v}$  is a *suffix* of  $\mathbf{w}$ ”. [However, we have no special symbol for the relation.]

## Codes

For the time being, a *code*  $\mathcal{C}$  means a non-void subset  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{G}^+$ ; usually  $2 \leq |\mathcal{C}| < \infty$ . [Occasionally it is convenient to consider collections  $\mathcal{C}$  which *might* own  $\varepsilon$ . So if all we know is that  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{G}^*$ , then we call  $\mathcal{C}$  a *nullishcode*. If we can later on prove that  $\mathcal{C} \not\ni \varepsilon$ , then we’ll have shown  $\mathcal{C}$  to be a code.]

Call  $\mathcal{C}$  a *block code* if all its codewords have the same length. E.g,  $\{\mathbf{FBI}, \mathbf{CIA}\}$  is a blockcode, whereas  $\{\mathbf{Go}, \mathbf{Gators}\}$  is *not* a blockcode, –although it *is* (see below) a *prefixcode*. [Caveat: “block code” is used with slightly different meanings in the literature. Perhaps *constant-length code* is a more accurate term.]

A code  $\mathcal{C}$  is *uniquely decodable* (a *UD-code*) if each code-message  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{C}^*$  has a unique decomposition w.r.t  $\mathcal{C}$ . That is, if words  $\mathbf{v}_j, \mathbf{w}_k \in \mathcal{C}$  satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} 1.1: \quad & \text{If } \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_J = \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{w}_2 \dots \mathbf{w}_K \\ & \text{then } J = K \text{ and } \forall i: \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{w}_i. \end{aligned}$$

A *prefix code*  $\mathcal{C}$  (more accurately called a “prefix-free code”) has no codeword being a proper prefix of another. Prefix-codes are UD-codes since, stronger than (1.1), they have the *RI-UD property* (the “right-infinite-UD property”) that

$$1.2: \left[ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \mathbf{v}_3 \cdots = \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{w}_2 \mathbf{w}_3 \cdots \\ \text{with each } \mathbf{v}_j, \mathbf{w}_k \in \mathcal{C} \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_+: \\ \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{w}_i \end{array} \right].$$

We have these non-reversible implications

$$1.2': \text{Block} \Rightarrow \text{Prefixcode} \xRightarrow{*1} \text{RI-UD} \xRightarrow{*2} \text{UD}.$$

A code showing (\*2) non-reversible has these words

$$1.2'': \quad \mathbf{v} := \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{w} := \mathbf{ba}, \mathbf{z} := \mathbf{aa}.$$

It is uniquely decodable ([Exer. E1](#)), yet fails (1.2), since  $\mathbf{vzzz} \cdots$  equals  $\mathbf{wzzz} \cdots$ . Finally, that (\*1) is non-reversible will be shown by (1.5), the “Chris code”.

A **suffix code** (no codeword is a proper suffix of another) is automatically a UD-code. Dually to (1.2') we have non-reversible implications

$$1.3': \text{Block} \Rightarrow \text{Suffixcode} \Rightarrow \text{LI-UD} \Rightarrow \text{UD},$$

where a **left-infinite-UD-code** (a **LI-UD-code**) satisfies

$$1.3: \left[ \begin{array}{l} \cdots \mathbf{v}_{-2} \mathbf{v}_{-1} = \cdots \mathbf{w}_{-2} \mathbf{w}_{-1} \\ \text{with each } \mathbf{v}_j, \mathbf{w}_k \in \mathcal{C} \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_-: \\ \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{w}_i \end{array} \right].$$

Note (1.2'') is an example of a suffixcode which is not a prefixcode.

**Bi-infinite.** A bi- $\infty$   $\mathbf{G}$ -string  $\sigma$  can be viewed as a map  $\sigma: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ . A  **$\mathcal{C}$ -parsing** of  $\sigma$  is a sequence

$$\cdots < k_{-2} < k_{-1} < k_0 < k_1 < k_2 < k_3 < \cdots$$

of integers st. each substring  $\sigma|_{[k_\ell \dots k_{\ell+1})}$  is a codeword, that is, lies  $\mathcal{C}$ . Write sequence  $(k_\ell)_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}}$  as  $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$ .

Say that  $\mathcal{C}$  has the **bi-infinite-UD property** (is **BI-UD**) if

$$1.4: \text{Each bi-}\infty \text{ string } \sigma \text{ which has a } \mathcal{C}\text{-parsing, has only \underline{one} \mathcal{C}\text{-parsing. I.e, with } \vec{\mathbf{j}} \text{ and } \vec{\mathbf{k}} \text{ two } \mathcal{C}\text{-parsings of } \sigma, \text{ then the \underline{sets} } \{j_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ and } \{k_\ell\}_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ are equal.}$$

Slightly weaker, consider two parsings  $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$  and  $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$ , and let  $\mathbf{v}_\ell := \sigma|_{[j_\ell \dots j_{\ell+1})}$  and  $\mathbf{w}_\ell := \sigma|_{[k_\ell \dots k_{\ell+1})}$ . The **weak-BI-UD** property asserts

For each  $\sigma$  and parsings as above, there exists a translation  $T \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that:

$$1.4^{\text{weak}}: \quad \forall \ell \in \mathbb{Z}: \quad \mathbf{v}_{\ell+T} = \mathbf{w}_\ell.$$

(I.e, one parsing may be a shift of the other, but the codeword sequences are the same.)

Immediately,

$$1.4': \text{BI-UD} \xRightarrow{*3} \text{weak-BI-UD} \xRightarrow{*4} \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Both LI-UD} \\ \text{and RI-UD} \end{array} \right].$$

The code  $\{\mathbf{bbb}\}$  produces  $\sigma := \cdots \mathbf{bbb} \cdots$ , which is its only bi- $\infty$  string. This  $\sigma$  has *three* parsings, since the cutpoints  $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$  can all be mod-3 congruent to -1 or 0 or 1. Yet each parsing yields the *same* codeword sequence, namely  $\cdots \boxed{\mathbf{bbb}} \boxed{\mathbf{bbb}} \boxed{\mathbf{bbb}} \cdots$ . Hence (\*3) is *not reversible*.

The “Pirate code”  $\{\mathbf{OH}, \mathbf{HO}\}$  is trivially LI-UD and RI-UD, since it is a blockcode. Yet the Pirate code admits bi- $\infty$  string  $\cdots \mathbf{HOHOHOHO} \cdots$ , which can be parsed as  $\cdots \boxed{\mathbf{OH}} \boxed{\mathbf{OH}} \boxed{\mathbf{OH}} \cdots$  or as  $\cdots \boxed{\mathbf{HO}} \boxed{\mathbf{HO}} \boxed{\mathbf{HO}} \cdots$ , two different codeword sequences. Yup; (\*4) *ain't reversible either*.

The “Chris code” (evidently a cry for help)

$$1.5: \quad \{\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{SOS}\}$$

is BI-UD, since each occurrence of “O” must lie in  $\boxed{\mathbf{SOS}}$ , and every other codeword must be  $\boxed{\mathbf{S}}$ . Not being a prefixcode, (1.5) proves (\*1) not reversible. [So (1.5) is neither a prefix nor suffix code, yet is UD.]

**Trees.** Here, a (rooted) **tree** is a set  $T$  of nodes, equipped with two operators:  $\text{Root}(T)$  is the root-node of  $T$ . For each node  $v \in T$ , let  $\text{Kids}(v)$  be the *set* of children of  $v$ . A node  $w$  is a **leaf-node** if: The set  $\text{Kids}(w)$  is empty. A tree has the property that, from the root-node, one can get to an arbitrary node, by applying the  $\text{Kids}(\cdot)$  operator finitely-many times.

Trees  $T$  and  $S$  are (**tree-**)**isomorphic** if *there exists* a bijection  $f: T \rightarrow S$  such that:

$$\text{TI 1: } f(\text{Root}(T)) = \text{Root}(S).$$

$$\text{TI 2: For each } v \in T:$$

$$\{f(k) \mid k \in \text{Kids}(v)\} = \text{Kids}(f(v)).$$

For a  $\Gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , a tree is  $\Gamma$ -**bounded** if each node has at most  $\Gamma$  many children. The tree is  $\Gamma$ -**full** if every node is either has *no* children [is a **leaf-node**], or has precisely  $\Gamma$  many children; otherwise, the tree is  $\Gamma$ -**deficient**.

## Inequalities

Kraft proved (2a) for *prefix-codes*, as well as its converse, (2b). McMillan strengthened (2a) to UD-codes.

**2: Kraft-McMillan Inequality.** Consider a countable code  $\mathcal{C}$  over finite alphabet  $\mathbf{G}$ . If  $\mathcal{C}$  is a UD-code then

$$2a: \quad \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} 1/\Gamma^{\text{Len}(\mathbf{v})} \leq 1,$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the number of letters in  $\mathbf{G}$ .

Conversely, consider posints  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_R)$ .

$$2b: \quad \text{If } \sum_{j=1}^R 1/\Gamma^{\ell_j} \leq 1 \text{ then there exists a prefix } \mathbf{G}\text{-code } \mathcal{C} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_R) \text{ with each } \text{Len}(\mathbf{v}_j) = \ell_j.$$

[The also result holds for infinite tuples  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \dots)$  that satisfy  $[\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1/\Gamma^{\ell_j}] \leq 1$ .]  $\diamond$

**Exer. E2.** Give an example of a code,  $\mathcal{X}$ , that violates (2a). [So  $\mathcal{X}$  must fail to be UD.]  $\square$

**Defn.** A code  $\mathcal{C}$  is **weakly-UD** if the following holds. For each posint  $N$  and words  $\mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{w}_i \in \mathcal{C}$ :

$$1.1': \quad \text{If } \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_N = \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{w}_2 \dots \mathbf{w}_N \text{ then } \forall i: \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{w}_i.$$

Contrast this with the (1.1) defn of **UD**.  $\square$

**Exer. E3.** POSTING RACE: Who can be the first to post a code which is weakly-UD, but not UD?  $\square$

**Preliminaries for (2a).** The below proof uses  $S_{n,\ell}$ , the number of length- $\ell$  strings which are concatenations of  $n$  many codewords. E.g, consider a code  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z}\}$  have lengths 5, 7, 8, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} S_{1,15} &= |\emptyset| = 0. & S_{2,15} &= |\{\mathbf{wz}, \mathbf{zw}\}| = ? \\ S_{3,15} &= |\{\mathbf{vvv}\}| = 1. & S_{4,15} &= |\emptyset| = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Indeed,  $S_{n,15}$  is zero for each  $n \geq 4$ . As for  $S_{2,15}$ : If  $\mathbf{wz} = \mathbf{zw}$  then  $S_{2,15} = 1$ , else  $S_{2,15} = 2$ .  $\square$

**Proof of (2a).** WLOGenerality,  $\mathcal{C}$  is finite. (**Exer. E4**)

With  $\Gamma := |\mathbf{G}|$ , our goal is

$$2a': \quad \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} 1/\Gamma^{\text{Len}(\mathbf{v})} \stackrel{?}{\leq} 1.$$

WELOG, suppose the shortest and longest words in  $\mathcal{C}$  have lengths 3 and 7. For  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , each string in  $\mathcal{C}^n$  has a length,  $\ell$ , in  $[3n .. 7n]$ ; let  $S_{n,\ell}$  be the number of such strings. Certainly  $S_{n,\ell} \leq \Gamma^\ell$ , the number of *all* length- $\ell$  strings over  $\mathbf{G}$ . So the “generating function”

$$F_n(x) := \sum_{\ell=3n}^{7n} [S_{n,\ell} \cdot x^\ell]$$

satisfies, for  $x > 0$ , that  $F_n(x) \leq \sum_{\ell=3n}^{7n} \Gamma^\ell \cdot x^\ell$ . Thus

$$*: F_n(\frac{1}{\Gamma}) \leq \sum_{\ell=3n}^{7n} \Gamma^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{\Gamma^\ell} \stackrel{\text{note}}{=} 1 + 7n - 3n \stackrel{\text{note}}{\leq} 5n,$$

for each posint  $n$ .

**Using uniqueness.** Fix  $n$  and an  $\ell \in [3n .. 7n]$ .

The coefficient of  $x^\ell$  in  $[F_1(x)]^n$  is the number of  $\mathcal{C}$ - $n$ -parsings of length- $\ell$  strings, whereas  $S_{n,\ell}$  is the number of length- $\ell$  strings which admit a  $\mathcal{C}$ - $n$ -parsing.

The UD-hypothesis [actually, only “weakly-UD” is being used] says these two numbers are equal. Hence our two polynomials are equal,

$$\begin{aligned} [F_1(x)]^n &= F_n(x). \quad \text{So } (*) \text{ implies} \\ [F_1(\frac{1}{\Gamma})]^n &\leq 5n. \end{aligned}$$

The **LhS** is exponential in  $n$ , whilst the **RhS** is linear. Thus  $F_1(\frac{1}{\Gamma}) \leq 1$ . Finally, observe that  $F_1(\frac{1}{\Gamma})$  is a rewriting of **LhS(2a)**.  $\diamond$

**Proof of (2b).** We’ll show the idea for  $\Gamma = 2$ . Arrange the lengths as  $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2 \leq \dots \leq \ell_R$ . On the full binary-tree of depth  $D := \ell_R$ , put weight  $1/2^D$  on each leaf-node. All the nodes start as **free**; we will iteratively mark some as **busy** as we create words  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots$ . Call a node **very-free** if it and all its descendants are **free**, i.e not **busy**.

Let  $\mathbf{v}_1$  be the leftmost path down to depth  $\ell_1$ ; so  $\mathbf{v}_1 = 000 \dots 0$ . Mark  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and all its descendants as **busy**. This action creates busy *leaf*-nodes of total weight.

$$2^{D-\ell_1} \cdot \frac{1}{2^D} \stackrel{\text{note}}{=} 1/2^{\ell_1}.$$

With  $d := \ell_1$ , note that

\*: Each free node at depth  $\geq d$  is very-free.

Let  $\mathbf{v}_2$  be the leftmost path to a free node at depth  $\ell_2$ . [So  $\mathbf{v}_2$  has  $\ell_1 - 1$  many 0s, then a 1, then  $\ell_2 - \ell_1$  many 0s.] Mark  $\mathbf{v}_2$  and its descendants as *busy*. Now the total weight of busy leaf-nodes is

$$\frac{1}{2^{\ell_1}} + \frac{1}{2^{\ell_2}}.$$

Moreover, with  $d := \ell_2$ , note (\*) holds, since  $\ell_2 \geq \ell_1$ .

We'd like to continue using depth  $\ell_3$ , depth  $\ell_4$ , ..., depth  $\ell_k$ , .... The only obstruction at a stage  $k$ , is if there is no free node at depth  $\ell_k$ . But the total leaf-weight we've used up so far, is

$$W := \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} 1/2^{\ell_j}.$$

Since this sum is *strictly* less than 1, there exists a free-node at depth  $\ell_{k-1}$ . (Indeed, the number of such free-nodes is precisely  $[1 - W]/2^{k-1}$ .) Finally, since  $\ell_k \geq \ell_{k-1}$ , there is certainly a free-node at depth  $\ell_k$ . ♦

**2c: Defn.** For a  $\Gamma$ -code with lengths  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \dots, \ell_R)$ , use

$$\Sigma(\vec{\ell}) := \Sigma_{\Gamma}(\vec{\ell}) := \sum_{j=1}^R 1/\Gamma^{\ell_j}$$

for its **Kraft-sum**. Kraft's thm says –if the code is UD– that  $\Sigma(\vec{\ell}) \leq 1$ . If equality, then the code [ditto the tuple] is **complete**, otherwise it is **redundant**; more precisely,  $\Gamma$ -**complete** and  $\Gamma$ -**redundant**.

Given tuples  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \dots, \ell_N)$  and  $\vec{s} = (s_1, \dots, s_R)$ , write  $\vec{\ell} \preceq \vec{s}$  if  $N=R$  and  $(\forall j: \ell_j \leq s_j)$ . Write  $\vec{\ell} \prec \vec{s}$  if  $\vec{\ell} \preceq \vec{s}$  yet  $\vec{\ell} \neq \vec{s}$ . [Ditto for  $\infty$  tuples.] Note  $\vec{\ell} \preceq \vec{s}$  implies  $\Sigma(\vec{\ell}) \geq \Sigma(\vec{s})$  □

**Exer. E5.** A finite  $\Gamma$ -bounded tree  $T$  with  $R$  many leaves, yields a length-**spectrum**  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \dots, \ell_R)$ ; so terms “ $\Gamma$ -complete” and “ $\Gamma$ -redundant” makes sense for the tree. Prove:

**2d: Completeness Lemma.** A finite  $\Gamma$ -bounded tree,  $T$ , is  $\Gamma$ -complete IFF it is  $\Gamma$ -full. ♦

In (2e), below, we first consider only *binary* prefix-codes;  $\Gamma = 2$ .

**2e: K-M Completeness corollary.** If finite tuple  $\vec{s}$  has  $\Sigma(\vec{s}) \leq 1$ , then there exists a complete prefix-code with tuple  $\vec{\ell} \preceq \vec{s}$ . ♦

**Proof.** We need but produce a complete  $\vec{\ell} \preceq \vec{s}$ , since Kraft's thm will hand us a prefix-code with lengths  $\vec{\ell}$ .

It suffices, given a redundant  $\vec{s}$ , to produce an  $\vec{\ell} \prec \vec{s}$  with  $\Sigma(\vec{\ell}) \leq 1$ . After all, there are only finitely-many tuples  $\prec \vec{s}$ , so iterating will eventually halt, at a complete tuple.

WLOG,  $T := s_1$  is a max-length in  $\vec{s}$ ; so each  $1/2^{s_j}$  is a multiple of  $1/2^T$ , hence so is  $\Sigma(\vec{s})$ . As  $\vec{s}$  is redundant, the **gap**  $1 - \Sigma(\vec{s})$  dominates  $1/2^T$ . So define  $\vec{\ell}$  by  $\ell_2 := s_2, \dots, \ell_R := s_R$ , and  $\ell_1 := s_1 - 1$ . ♦

**Exer. E6.** POSTING RACE: Does (2e) hold for larger alphabet-sizes? If so, how does the proof need to be modified? □

**Exer. E7.** POSTING RACE: A block code is an example of a **prefix/suffix-code**, i.e, both. (Dis)Prove: There exists a complete prefix/suffix-code  $\mathcal{C}$  whose length-spectrum is not constant. □

**Sardinas-Patterson Algorithm.** An example of a UD-code [indeed, it is a suffixcode], for which the SarPat algorithm eventually cycles (as it must), but not with the empty prefix-list, is

$$\{\mathbf{bc}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Xc}, \mathbf{cX}\}.$$

(On hold...)

**Decoding-delay for UD-codes.** Consider a long word  $\mathbf{w}$  which is the initial part...

(On hold...)

## Cryptography

Affine codes. Breaking affine codes with known/chosen plaintext.

Diffie-Hellman and El Gamal.

RSA. Pollard- $\rho$  algorithm and Floyd cycle-finding alg..

## Data compression

[Huffman codes. Source coding. In Spring2019: Skipped Ziv-Lempel.]

### Expected coding-length

The binary numeral for posint  $K$  has form  $\mathbf{1Bits}(K)$ , where  $\mathbf{Bits}(K)$  is a  $\{0, 1\}$ -word. E.g,  $\mathbf{Bits}(23) = 0111$  because  $\mathbf{Binary}(23) = 10111$ . Also  $\mathbf{Bits}(3) = 1$  and  $\mathbf{Bits}(2) = 0$  and  $\mathbf{Bits}(1) = \varepsilon$ , the nullword. Let

$$|K|_{\text{Bit}} := |\mathbf{Bits}(K)|. \quad \text{So } |23|_{\text{Bit}} = 4, \quad |2|_{\text{Bit}} = 1 \\ \text{and } |1|_{\text{Bit}} = 0.$$

With  $n := |K|_{\text{Bit}}$ , then,  $2^{n+1} > K \geq 2^n$ .

*Exer.E8.*POSTING RACE: *Produce an infinite prefix-code*

$\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \dots\}$  such that  $\lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\mathbf{v}_K|}{|K|_{\text{Bit}}} = 1$ .  $\square$

*Exer.E8.1.* Infinite prefix-code  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots\}$  has the property that each

$$\dagger: \quad |\mathbf{w}_K| \leq |K|_{\text{Bit}} + f(|K|_{\text{Bit}}),$$

where  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . Prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \infty$ , using that  $\mathcal{C}$  satisfies the Kraft inequality.  $\square$

*Exer.E8.2.* (Dis)Prove:  $\exists$  prefix code  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots\}$  satisfying  $(\dagger)$ , with  $f(n) \leq \text{Const} + [1.007] \cdot \log(n)$ .  $\square$

*Exer.E8.3.* (Dis)Prove:  $\exists$  precode  $\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots\}$  with  $\lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\mathbf{w}_K|}{|K|_{\text{Bit}}} = 1$  and subseq  $K_1 < K_2 < \dots$  with each  $|\mathbf{w}_{K_\ell}| \leq |K_\ell|_{\text{Bit}} + 99$ .  $\square$

**Probability distr.** A *probability distribution* on a codeword-set  $\mathcal{C}$  is a map  $P: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  st.

$$3a: \quad \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} P(\mathbf{v}) = 1.$$

We will usually discard from the code all probability-zero words. In practice, then, a “probability distribution” is a map  $P: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow (0, 1)$  fulfilling (3a)

The *expected<sup>♥2</sup> coding length* of  $\mathcal{C}$  is

$$3b: \quad \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) := \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \text{Len}(\mathbf{v}).$$

E.g, consider code  $\mathcal{C} := \{\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_4\}$  where

$$3c: \quad \mathbf{w}_1 := 00, \mathbf{w}_2 := 010, \mathbf{w}_3 := 011, \mathbf{w}_4 := 1,$$

where  $P(\mathbf{w}_4) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and the other three words have probability  $\frac{1}{6}$ . Then  $\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C})$  is then

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot [2 + 3 + 3] = \frac{11}{6}.$$

**Codemap.** A *source alphabet*  $\Omega$ , also called a “message set”, might be

$$\{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \dots, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{.}, \text{Space}\},$$

or might be  $\{\mathbf{tank}, \mathbf{ship}, \dots, \mathbf{plane}\}$ . Fixing a *code-alphabet*  $\mathbf{G}$ , a map  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{G}^+$  is a *codemap* (or *cipher*) if

i:  $f$  is injective, and

ii:  $\mathcal{C} := \text{Range}(f)$  is a code. [Phrased this way, so that if we change our defn of “code” for a given context, then the defn of *codemap* changes with it.]

Every adjective applying to a code, also applies to a codemap; e.g, “a *block/prefix/UD* codemap”.

**ECL.** Consider a [finite or countably-infinite] message set  $\Omega$  and a probability distribution  $P: \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . A codemap  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{G}^+$  puts a probability-distribution on  $\mathcal{C} := \text{Range}(f)$  by assigning, for  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$4a: \quad P(\mathbf{w}) := P(f^{-1}(\mathbf{w})).$$

Thus the code has an *expected coding-length*, which we may write as

$$\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{ECL}(f).$$

<sup>♥2</sup>“Expected” is what probabilists use for “average”.

**MECL.** Use *MECL* for Minimum ECL. Consider a *finite* prob-vector  $\vec{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_L)$ . A code [for the moment, assume a binary code]  $\mathcal{C} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_L)$  has

$$3b': \quad \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) = \sum_{j=1}^L p_j \cdot \text{Len}(\mathbf{v}_j).$$

The minimum of (3b') taken over *all* prefix-codes, or over all UD-codes, we will call

$$4b: \quad \text{PC-MECL}(\vec{p}) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{UD-MECL}(\vec{p}),$$

respectively. Evidently

$$4c: \quad \text{PC-MECL}(\vec{p}) \geq \text{UD-MECL}(\vec{p})$$

since, for UD-codes, we are taking a minimum over the larger collection of codes. By the way, I'll sometimes use  $\text{MECL}(\vec{p})$  as a synonym for  $\text{UD-MECL}(\vec{p})$ .

The minimum in (3b') *depends on*  $\Gamma := |\mathbf{G}|$ , the number of letters in our code alphabet. [We can compress English more by coding into a 3-letter alphabet, rather than a 2-letter alphabet.] To indicate the dependency on cardinality  $\Gamma$ , we may write

$$4d: \quad \text{PC-MECL}_\Gamma(\vec{p}) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{UD-MECL}_\Gamma(\vec{p}).$$



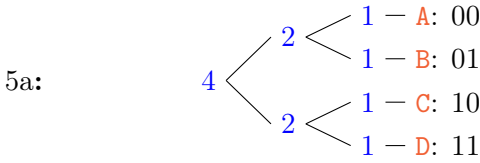
## Huffman codes

[Binary HCs will be described in class.]

Interpret a tuple such as **(3:A 1:B 5:C)** as putting prob-distribution  $(\frac{3}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{5}{9})$  on letters **(A,B,C)**; the 9 is the sum of the *weights*,  $3 + 1 + 5$ .

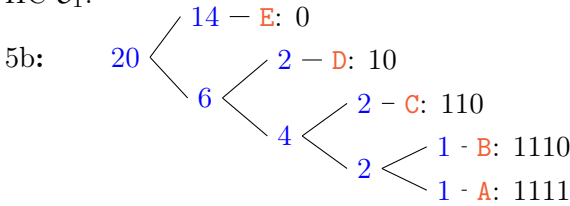
Our convention is that the branch going *up-right* is labeled with bit **0**; the *down-right* with bit **1**. [On exams, all coalescings will be of *distinct* probabilities, and I'll ask that you put the *smaller* probability on the **0**-branch.]

*Non-uniqueness of Huffman Codes.* Frequency-tuple  $F := (1:A 1:B 1:C 1:D)$  admits HC



But  $F$  also admits each other permutation of  $\{A,B,C,D\}$  being attached to those leaves. So this Freq-tuple admits several HCs.

For a more interesting example, consider Frequency-tuple  $F' := (1:A 1:B 2:C 2:D 14:E)$ . This admits HC  $\mathcal{C}_1$ :

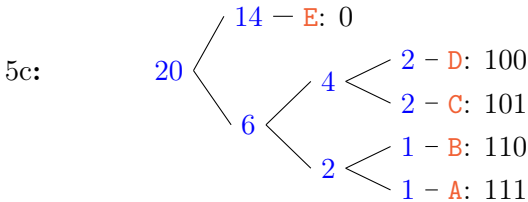


So  $20 \cdot \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}_1)$  equals [Weight · WordLen · Count]

$$\overbrace{1 \cdot 4 \cdot 2}^{B,A} + \overbrace{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 1}^C + \overbrace{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}^D + \overbrace{14 \cdot 1 \cdot 1}^E = 32.$$

Thus  $\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}_1) = \frac{32}{20} = \frac{8}{5}$  bits-per-letter.

Our  $F'$  also admits HC  $\mathcal{C}_2$ :



Thus  $20 \cdot \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}_2)$  equals

$$\overbrace{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}^{B,A} + \overbrace{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}^{D,C} + \overbrace{14 \cdot 1 \cdot 1}^E = 32.$$

We see that  $\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}_2) = \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}_1)$ . It is worth noticing that codes  $\mathcal{C}_1$  and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  are not only different, they are not even tree-isomorphic.  $\square$

**6: HC-same-ECL Thm.** Fix a probability  $L$ -vec  $\vec{p}$ , with  $L \geq 2$ . Then all  $\vec{p}$ -HCs have the same ECL.  $\diamond$

*Proof.* We proceed by induction on  $L$ , with proposition  $R(L)$ : For every prob.  $L$ -vec  $\vec{q}$ : Each two  $\vec{q}$ -HCs have the same ECL.

The base  $L=2$  case is easy, since the only Huffman-tree is  $\text{Root} \prec \begin{smallmatrix} \text{Prob.} \\ \text{Prob.} \end{smallmatrix}$  whose ECL is 1.

**Induction step.** Fix an  $L \geq 3$  st.  $R(L-1)$ .

Let  $J := L-2$ . Given  $\vec{p}$ , let  $\alpha, \beta$  denote its two lowest probabilities,<sup>♥3</sup> and write  $\vec{p}$  as  $(\alpha, \beta, p_1, \dots, p_J)$ .

Consider two HCs,  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{X}$ , with length-spectra that I have written above and below  $\vec{p}$ , here.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C}: & \quad D \ D \ d_1 \ d_2 \ \dots \ d_J \\ & \quad (\alpha, \beta, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_J) \\ \mathcal{X}: & \quad Y \ Y \ y_1 \ y_2 \ \dots \ y_J. \end{aligned}$$

So code  $\mathcal{C}$  assigns length- $D$  codewords to the first two nodes it joins, which have probs  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Computing

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) &= D \cdot \alpha + D \cdot \beta + \sum_{i=1}^J [d_i \cdot p_i]; \\ \dagger: \quad \text{ECL}(\mathcal{X}) &= Y \cdot \alpha + Y \cdot \beta + \sum_{i=1}^J [y_i \cdot p_i]. \end{aligned}$$

After joining two nodes, the codes now recursively act on  $\vec{q} := (\alpha + \beta, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_J)$  and assign length-spectra as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C}: & \quad D-1 \ d_1 \ d_2 \ \dots \ d_J \\ & \quad (\alpha + \beta, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_J) \\ \mathcal{X}: & \quad Y-1 \ y_1 \ y_2 \ \dots \ y_J. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\vec{q}$  is an  $[L-1]$ -vector, proposition  $R(L-1)$  says that the above two ECLs are equal, i.e

$$\begin{aligned} \dagger: \quad [D-1] \cdot [\alpha + \beta] + \sum_{i=1}^J [d_i \cdot p_i] \\ = [Y-1] \cdot [\alpha + \beta] + \sum_{i=1}^J [y_i \cdot p_i]. \end{aligned}$$

And this implies equality in the two RhSs of  $(\dagger)$ .  $\diamond$

<sup>♥3</sup>They might be equal; indeed, perhaps  $\beta = \alpha$ , with 8 nodes all having probability  $\alpha$ . We are not picking two *nodes*; we are picking two **probabilities**. In particular, I am not assuming that HCs  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{X}$  join the same two nodes, at the first step.



**7a: Depth Lemma.** Fix a probability  $L$ -vector  $\vec{p}$ , and a  $\vec{p}$ -PC-MECL. Consider two leaf-nodes with probabilities  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha'$ , at depths  $D$  and  $D'$ , respectively. If  $\alpha > \alpha'$ , then necessarily  $D \leq D'$ .  $\diamond$

**Exer. E9.** Prove the above Depth Lemma.  $\square$

**7b: Huffman's theorem.**

i: HCs are PC-MECLs.

ii: HCs are UD-MECLs.  $\diamond$

**Pf of (i).** We induct on  $L$ , with proposition

**HUFF( $L$ ):** Each probability  $L$ -vector  $\vec{q}$ , admits a Huffman Code which is a PC-MECL.

The base  $L=2$  case is immediate, since the only tree is  $\text{Root} \prec_{\text{Prob.}}^{\text{Prob.}}$ , which is a Huffman-tree.

**Induction step.** Fix an  $L \geq 3$  st. **HUFF( $L-1$ )**. Fix  $\vec{p}$ , a prob.  $L$ -vector, and consider a  $\vec{p}$ -PC-MECL, viewed as a tree.

Let  $\alpha \leq \beta$  denote the two smallest probabilities of  $\vec{p}$ . At the tree's deepest level,  $D$ , consider two joined leaf-nodes, and call their probabilities  $x$  and  $y$ . It suffices to show:

We can permute the probabilities of the leaves,  
\*: without changing the ECL, so that, now, these two nodes have probabilities  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

For then, we collapse these two into a single node, producing prob.-vec  $\vec{q} := (\alpha + \beta, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_{L-1})$ . By the induction hypothesis, there is a  $\vec{q}$ -HC which is a  $\vec{q}$ -PC-MECL. Expanding the collapsed node back into  $\prec_{\beta}^{\alpha}$  automatically produces a Huffman-tree<sup>♥4</sup>, which is a  $\vec{p}$ -PC-MECL. And all HCs have the same ECL, by (6).

<sup>♥4</sup>The permuting of probabilities, because it is done recursively, can permute interior-nodes of the tree. So the final Huffman-tree can be non-isomorphic to the original PC-MECL tree. This kind of argument is called *tree surgery*.

**Establishing (\*)**. If  $x = \alpha$ , then leave that leaf-node alone. Otherwise,  $x > \alpha$ . Our Depth Lemma, (7a), says that no  $\alpha$ -node can be shallower than  $x$ , so [since  $x$  is at max depth], every  $\alpha$ -node has to be at  $D$ , the deepest level. Switch some  $\alpha$ -leaf with our  $x$ -leaf.

This does not change the ECL, since the nodes are at the same depth.

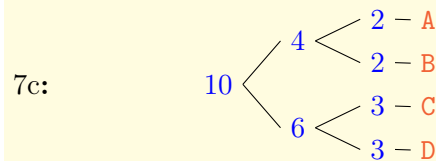
Now our joined-pair is  $\prec_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ . Do the same operation with  $y$  w.r.t  $\beta$ . Now our joined-pair is  $\prec_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ , as desired.  $\diamond$

**Exer. E10.** Prove (ii), that every HC is a UD-MECL.  $\square$

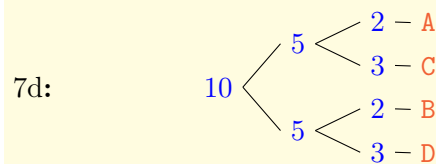
**Pf of (ii), (E10).** Fix  $\vec{p}$  and a  $\vec{p}$ -UD-MECL; write its length-*spectrum* as  $\vec{\ell} = (\ell_1, \dots, \ell_R)$ . By Kraft's thm, there is a PC-code with the same spectrum hence, when assigned to the same probabilities, has the same ECL. And part (i) shows there is a HC with the same ECL.  $\diamond$

**Exer. E11.** POSTING RACE: (Dis)Prove: If prefix code  $C$  is a PC-MECL, then  $C$  is a Huffman code.  $\square$

**Solution to E11.** False. Consider frequency-tuple  $(2:A \ 2:B \ 3:C \ 3:D)$ . Its only Huffman-tree is



(This admits eight HCs, since at each of the three nodes we can choose which edge is labeled 0 and which is 1.) This codetree has ECL = 2. But so does *this* tree,



which is *not* a Huffman code.  $\diamond$

### Entropy/Distropy

Define  $\eta: [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  by  $\eta(x) := x \cdot \log_2(1/x)$ , and extend by continuity, so that  $\eta(0) = 0$ . (Use l'Hôpital's rule, if you like.)

The *distribution entropy*, which I call *distropy*, of a probability-vector  $\vec{v}$  is

$$\mathcal{H}(\vec{v}) := \sum_{p \in \vec{v}} \eta(p).$$

For a probability-distr  $P()$  on a code<sup>♥5</sup>  $\mathcal{C}$ , then,  $\mathcal{H}(P)$  equals  $\sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} \eta(P(\mathbf{v}))$ .

**8: Distropy UD-code Inequality.** Fix a binary code  $\mathcal{C}$  and probability distribution  $P: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow (0, 1)$ . If  $\mathcal{C}$  is uniquely decodable, then

$$8a: \quad \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) \geq \mathcal{H}(P).$$

There is equality in (8a) IFF

$$8b: \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}: P(\mathbf{v}) = 1/2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}},$$

where, here,  $\widehat{\mathbf{v}}$  means  $\text{Len}(\mathbf{v})$ . ♦

**Pf of (8a).** Let “ $\sum_{\mathbf{v}}$ ” mean “ $\sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}}$ ”.

With  $\mathcal{L}() := \log_2()$ , note  $\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C})$  equals  $\sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \widehat{\mathbf{v}}$ , which equals  $\sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \mathcal{L}(2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}})$ . Consequently, we can write  $\mathcal{H}(P) - \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C})$  as

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ \sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \mathcal{L}\left(\frac{1}{P(\mathbf{v})}\right) \right] - \left[ \sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \mathcal{L}(2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}) \right] \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \mathcal{L}\left(\frac{1}{P(\mathbf{v})} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\mathcal{L}()$  is strictly convex-down, Jensen's inequality, (12), applies to say

$$\begin{aligned} \dagger: \quad \mathcal{H}(P) - \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) &\leq \mathcal{L}\left(\sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \frac{1}{P(\mathbf{v})} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{\text{note}}{=} \mathcal{L}\left(\sum_{\mathbf{v}} 1/2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}\right). \end{aligned}$$

By (2a) the Kraft-McMillan inequality,  $\sum_{\mathbf{v}} 1/2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}} \leq 1$ . And  $\mathcal{L}()$  is order-preserving. Thus the above yields

$$\mathcal{H}(P) - \text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) \leq \mathcal{L}(1) = 0,$$

as desired. ♦

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<sup>♥5</sup>For comparison with (binary) distropy/entropy, we will usually be examining a *binary code*; a code over a 2-symbol alphabet,  $\mathbb{B}$ . (Typically,  $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ .) So a *binary code* is a subset  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{B}^+$ .

**Pf of (8b).** Suppose  $\text{ECL}(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{H}(P)$ . This forces equality in Kraft, so  $\sum_{\mathbf{v}} 1/2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}} = 1$ , and in Jensen's, so the map  $\mathbf{v} \mapsto \frac{1}{P(\mathbf{v})} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}}$  is constant; say  $\kappa$ .

Thus  $P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \kappa = 1/2^{\widehat{\mathbf{v}}}$ , for each  $\mathbf{v}$ . Summing over all  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}$  implies that  $1 \cdot \kappa = 1$ . Hence  $\kappa = 1$ . ♦

**Convention.** For  $p \in [0, 1]$ , let  $p^c$  mean  $1 - p$ , in analogy with  $P(B^c)$  equaling  $1 - P(B)$  on a probability space. [See APPENDIX for independence,  $\perp$ , defs.]

**9: Distropy fact.** For partitions  $P, Q, R$  on probability space.

a:  $\mathcal{H}(P) \leq \log(\#P)$ , with equality IFF  $P$  is an equi-mass partition.

b:  $\mathcal{H}(Q \vee R) \leq \mathcal{H}(Q) + \mathcal{H}(R)$ , with equality IFF  $Q \perp R$ .

c: For  $p \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ , the function  $p \mapsto \mathcal{H}(p, p^c)$  is strictly increasing.  $\diamond$

**Proof.** Use the strict concavity of  $\eta()$ , together with Jensen's Inequality.  $\diamond$

**10: Binomial Lem.** Fix  $p \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$  and let  $H := \mathcal{H}(p, p^c)$ . Then for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ :

$$10': \sum_{j \in [0..pn]} \binom{n}{j} \leq 2^{Hn}. \quad \diamond$$

**Proof.** Let  $X \subset \{0, 1\}^n$  be the set of  $\mathbf{x}$  with  $\#\{i \in [1..n] \mid x_i = 1\} \leq p \cdot n$ . On  $X$ , let  $P_1, P_2, \dots$  be the coordinate partitions; e.g.  $P_7 = (A_7, A_7^c)$ , where  $A_7 := \{\mathbf{x} \mid x_7 = 1\}$ . Weighting each point by  $\frac{1}{|X|}$ , the uniform distribution  $\mu()$  on  $X$ , gives that  $\mu(A_7) \leq p$ .

So  $\mathcal{H}(P_7) \leq H$ , by (9c).

Finally, the join  $P_1 \vee \dots \vee P_n$  separates the points of  $X$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} \log(\#X) &= \mathcal{H}(P_1 \vee \dots \vee P_n) \\ &\leq \mathcal{H}(P_1) + \dots + \mathcal{H}(P_n) \leq Hn, \end{aligned}$$

making use of (9a,b). And  $\#X$  equals LhS(10').  $\diamond$

*NOTE: Below, several quantities need to be natnums, and so some floor or ceiling symbols are needed. I have omitted them, to show the overall idea of the proof.*

**11: Shannon source-coding thm.** Fix probability  $0 < p < \frac{1}{2}$ , and set  $H := \mathcal{H}(p, p^c)$ . Consider the iid-process on alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$  with  $P(1) = p$  (hence  $P(0) = 1 - p$ ). Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $\forall_{\text{large}} N$ , there exists a block-code, mapping

$$N \text{ bits} \rightarrow [H + \varepsilon] \cdot N \text{ bits},$$

with error-probability  $< \varepsilon$ .  $\diamond$

**Pf.** Pick  $\delta > 0$  so small that  $\mathcal{H}(p + \delta, [p + \delta]^c) < H + \varepsilon$ . Define

$$X_N := \left\{ \vec{\mathbf{x}} \in \{0, 1\}^N \mid p - \delta < \text{Freq}(\mathbf{1} \text{ in } \vec{\mathbf{x}}) < p + \delta \right\},$$

where the frequency is  $\frac{1}{N}$  times the number of  $\mathbf{1}$ s in bit-string  $\vec{\mathbf{x}}$ . Courtesy the Binomial Lemma (10),

$$|X_N| \leq 2^{[H + \varepsilon] \cdot N}, \quad \text{for all } N \in \mathbb{Z}_+.$$

And WLLN (13b) allows us to fix a large enough  $N$  such that

$$P(X_N) \geq 1 - \varepsilon. \quad \text{Henceforth, } X := X_N.$$

**Codemap.** Let  $K := \lceil [H + \varepsilon]N \rceil$ . Our  $N\text{bit} \rightarrow K\text{bit}$  code, maps  $X$  [enumerated in, say, lexicographic order] to bit-strings

$$\underbrace{0 \dots 00}_K, \underbrace{0 \dots 01}_K, \underbrace{0 \dots 10}_K, \underbrace{0 \dots 11}_K, \dots$$

And the code maps each  $\vec{\mathbf{x}} \in X^c$  to, say,  $\mathbf{1}^K \mathbf{1}$ .

Every word in  $X$  is decoded correctly, so the probability of error is  $< \varepsilon$ .  $\diamond$

## Error-correcting codes

Hamming codes, distance, weight, bound.

Shannon's Noisy-channel Thm ...

## §A Appendix

Various general tools.

**12: Jensen's inequality.** On an interval  $J \subset \mathbb{R}$ , consider points  $Q_{\mathbf{v}} \in J$ , for each  $\mathbf{v}$  in a countable indexing-set  $\mathcal{C}$ . We have a probability-distr  $P()$  on  $\mathcal{C}$ . Then for each convex-down fnc  $\mathcal{L}: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$12a: \quad \mathcal{L}\left(\sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot Q_{\mathbf{v}}\right) \geq \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}} P(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathcal{L}(Q_{\mathbf{v}}).$$

Now suppose  $\mathcal{L}$  is strictly convex-down. Then:

12b: Equality in (12a) IFF the probability-distr is concentrated on a single point.

IOWords, having removed all zero-probability elements from  $\mathcal{C}$ , the map  $\mathbf{v} \mapsto Q_{\mathbf{v}}$  is constant.

*Proof.* Exercise. [Or see picture on blackboard.]  $\diamond$

### Probability

A **random variable**  $[r.var]$  is a measurable map  $Y: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $\Omega$  is a probability space. [Can take  $\Omega$  to be  $[0, 1]$ .] Unless both the positive and negative parts of  $Y$  have infinite integral, the “**expectation** of  $Y$ ”,  $E(Y) := \int_{\Omega} Y$ , is a value in  $[-\infty, +\infty]$ .

When finite, it is common to call  $\mu := E(Y)$  the **mean** of  $Y$ . Then **variance**  $\text{Var}(Y) := E[(Y - \mu)^2]$  is well-defined, and could be  $+\infty$ .

**Independence.** Events  $A, B$  are **independent**, written  $A \perp B$ , if  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ . A family  $\mathcal{C}$  of events is independent, written  $\perp(\mathcal{C})$  or  $\perp(\{A\}_{A \in \mathcal{C}})$ , if each finite subset  $A_1, \dots, A_N$  has  $P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_N)$  equalling  $\prod_{j=1}^N P(A_j)$ . This property of  $\mathcal{C}$  is much stronger than **pairwise independence**, where each pair of events in  $\mathcal{C}$  is independent.

Random variables  $X, Y$  are **independent**,  $X \perp Y$ , if for each pair of measurable sets  $S, T \subset \mathbb{R}$ , events  $\{X \in S\}$  and  $\{Y \in T\}$  are independent. It turns out that this is equivalent to saying, for each pair  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , that events  $\{X \leq x\} \perp \{Y \leq y\}$ . When  $X \perp Y$  have finite expectations, then  $E(X \cdot Y) = E(X) \cdot E(Y)$ .

Extend notions of **independence** and **pairwise independence** to **collections** of random variables.

**13a: Markov Lemma.** Consider posint  $n$  and random variable  $Y$ . For each  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ :

$$\dagger: \quad P(|Y| \geq \varepsilon) \leq \frac{E(|Y|^n)}{\varepsilon^n}; \quad \text{Markov Inequality.}$$

When  $n$  is even,

$$\ddagger: \quad \begin{aligned} P(|Y| \geq \varepsilon) &\leq \frac{E(Y^n)}{\varepsilon^n}. && \text{In particular, if } Y \text{ has} \\ &&& \text{finite mean } \mu := E(Y), \\ &&& \text{then} \\ P(|Y - \mu| \geq \varepsilon) &\leq \frac{\text{Var}(Y)}{\varepsilon^2}; && \text{Chebyshev Inequality.} \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* Exercise.  $\diamond$

**13b: Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN).** Consider an identically-distributed pairwise-independent sequence  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  where both mean  $\mu := E(X)$  and variance  $\mathbf{v} := \text{Var}(X) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[(X - \mu)^2]$  are finite. Then

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_N - \mu| \geq \varepsilon) = 0,$$

where  $\bar{X}_N := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N X_j$ .  $\diamond$

*Proof.* WLOG  $\mu = 0$ . Then  $N^2 \cdot \text{Var}(\bar{X}_N)$  equals

$$\begin{aligned} E\left(\left[\sum_{j=1}^N X_j\right]^2\right) &= \left[\sum_{i=1}^N E(X_i^2)\right] + \sum_{j \neq k} E(X_j X_k) \\ &= N\mathbf{v} + \sum_{j \neq k} E(X_j) \cdot E(X_k) = N\mathbf{v}, \end{aligned}$$

since each  $E(X_j) = 0$ . Thus  $\text{Var}(\bar{X}_N) = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{N}$ . Hence

$$P(|\bar{X}_N| \geq \varepsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(\bar{X}_N)}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\varepsilon^2},$$

by the Chebyshev Inequality.  $\diamond$

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*This is a test of the pre-note.*

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