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0 Important

0.1 Key Formulas

- Entropy:

$$H(X) = \sum p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)}$$

- Entropy Change of Base Formula:

$$H_b(X) = \log_b a H_a(X)$$

- Joint Entropy:

$$\begin{aligned} H(X, Y) &= \sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) \log \frac{1}{p(x, y)} \\ &= H(X) + H(Y|X) = H(Y) + H(X|Y) \end{aligned}$$

- Conditional Entropy:

$$\begin{aligned} H(Y|X) &= \sum_x p(x) \sum_y p(y|x) \log \frac{1}{p(y|x)} \\ &= H(X, Y) - H(X) \end{aligned}$$

- Relative Entropy:

$$D(p||q) = \sum p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

– $D(p||q) \geq 0$, with equality iff $p = q$

- Mutual Information:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(X) - H(X|Y) \\ &= H(Y) - H(Y|X) = I(Y; X) \end{aligned}$$

- Conditional Mutual Information:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y|Z) &= H(X|Z) - H(X|Y, Z) \\ &= H(Y|Z) - H(Y|X, Z) \end{aligned}$$

- Chain Rules

– Entropy:

$$H(X_1, \dots, X_n) = H(X_1) + H(X_2|X_1) + \dots + H(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$$

– Information:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y) &= I(X_1; Y) + I(X_2; Y|X_1) + \dots + I(X_n; Y|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

• Information Can't Hurt:

$$H(X) \geq H(X|Y)$$

– Corollary - Independence Bound on Entropy:

$$H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i)$$

• Bound on Entropy:

– $H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}| \Leftrightarrow$ for a fixed alphabet size, the uniform distribution has the largest entropy.

• Weak Law of Large Numbers:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X]$$

• Entropy Rate:

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathcal{X}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \\ H'(\mathcal{X}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

• Kraft Inequality

$$\sum D^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

• Channel Capacity:

$$C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y)$$

– Capacity of a Weakly Symmetric Channel:

$$C = \log |\mathcal{X}| - H(\text{row of transition matrix})$$

• Differential Entropy:

$$h(X) = \int_S f(x) \log \frac{1}{f(x)} dx$$

- Uniform Distribution: $x \sim \mu(0, a) \Rightarrow h(X) = \log a$ (See Example 8.2)
- Normal (Gaussian) Distribution: $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) \Rightarrow h(X) = \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi e\sigma^2$ (See Example 8.3)

- Capacity of a Gaussian Channel:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right)$$

where P is the power constraint and N is the noise variance.

1 Introduction and Preview

Remark 1.1. *2 Main Questions of Information Theory*

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1. What is the ultimate data compression? (Answer: the entropy H)
2. What is the ultimate transmission rate of communication? (Answer: the channel capacity C)

Remark 1.2. *3 Main Concepts*

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1. Entropy
2. Relative Entropy
3. Mutual Information

Remark 1.3.

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How do we measure information?

- Reduction of uncertainty
 - Flip a coin, heads shows up
 - Roll a die, it is an even number

How do we measure uncertainty?

Remark 1.4. *Notation*

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Rather than writing $p_X(x)$ and $p_Y(y)$, the terms $p(x)$ and $p(y)$ shall be used.

Unless otherwise stated, logs are base 2. (Recall: $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}$)

Capital letters denote variables, lowercase letters denote realizations.

The units of entropy are bits.

2 Entropy, Relative Entropy, and Mutual Information

2.1 Entropy

Definition 2.1. Entropy

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Entropy is a measure of the uncertainty of a random variable. Let X be a discrete random variable with alphabet \mathcal{X} and *probability mass function* $p(x)$. The entropy is defined as

$$H(X) = - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log_2 p(x) = \mathbb{E}_p \log \frac{1}{p(x)} = -\mathbb{E}_p \log p(x)$$

where $\mathbb{E}(g(x)) = \sum_x p(x)g(x)$. If the base of the entropy is $b \neq 2$, then we write $H_b(X)$.

Remark 2.2.

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1. We use the convention that $0 \log 0 \equiv 0$. (Note: $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \epsilon \log \epsilon = 0$.) This means that adding any terms of zero probability does not change the entropy.
2. Entropy is a function of the distribution of X . It does not depend on the values taken by X .
3. $H(X) \geq 0$
4. $H_b(X) = \log_b a H_a(X)$

Example 2.3.

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Let

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - p \end{cases}$$

Then

$$H(X) = -p \log p - (1 - p) \log(1 - p) \equiv H(p)$$

In particular, when $p = \frac{1}{2}$ then $H(X) = 1$ bit.

Example 2.4.

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Let

$$X = \begin{cases} a & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \\ b & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{4} \\ c & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{8} \\ d & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{8} \end{cases}$$

Then

$$H(X) = \frac{7}{4} \text{ bits}$$

$\frac{7}{4}$ is the minimum expected number of binary questions required to determine the value of X . This scheme could be stored as

$$a \leftrightarrow 0 \quad b \leftrightarrow 10 \quad c \leftrightarrow 110 \quad d \leftrightarrow 111$$

Note that $-\log p(x)$ is approximately the number of bits we want to assign to x .

2.2 Joint Entropy and Conditional Entropy**Definition 2.5. Joint Entropy**

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The *joint entropy* $H(X, Y)$ of a pair of discrete random variables (X, Y) with a joint distribution $p(x, y)$ is defined as

$$H(X, Y) = - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x, y) \log p(x, y) = -\mathbb{E}_p \log \frac{1}{p(x, y)}$$

Definition 2.6. Conditional Entropy

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If $(X, Y) \sim p(x, y)$, the *conditional entropy* $H(Y|X)$ is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} H(Y|X) &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) H(Y|X = x) \\ &= - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|x) \log p(y|x) \\ &= - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x, y) \log p(y|x) \\ &= -E_{p(x, y)} \log p(Y|X) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.7. Chain Rule

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$$\begin{aligned} H(X, Y) &= H(X) + H(Y|X) \\ &= H(Y) + H(X|Y) \end{aligned}$$

Remark 2.8.

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$$\begin{aligned} H(X|Y) &\neq H(Y|X) \\ H(X) - H(X|Y) &= H(Y) - H(Y|X) \end{aligned}$$

The second line says that the reduction in the uncertainty (achieved via correlation) is the same.

2.3 Relative Entropy and Mutual Information**Definition 2.9. Relative Entropy**

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Relative entropy is a measure of the distance between two distributions. Specifically, the relative entropy $D(p||q)$ is a measure of the inefficiency of assuming that the distribution is q when the true distribution is p . It is also known as the *Kullback-Leibler distance/divergence*. It is given by

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = E_p \log \frac{p(X)}{q(X)}$$

Remark 2.10.

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The number of bits is on the order of $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{1}{q(x)}$ based on the incorrect coding scheme q .

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{1}{q(x)} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)} + D(p||q)$$

Remark 2.11.

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1. $p \log \frac{p}{0} = \infty$. If there is any x such that $p(x) > 0$ but $q(x) = 0$ then $D(p||q) = \infty$.

Next class we will show:

2. $D(p||q) \geq 0$ with equality iff $p = q$.
3. Relative entropy is not a true distance function between distributions because $D(p||q) \neq D(q||p)$, and it also doesn't satisfy the triangle inequality.

Definition 2.12. Conditional Relative Entropy

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Given $p(x, y)$ and $q(x, y)$, the *conditional relative entropy* $D(p(y|x)||q(y|x))$ is the average entropy between $p(y|x)$ and $q(y|x)$ averaged over $p(x)$.

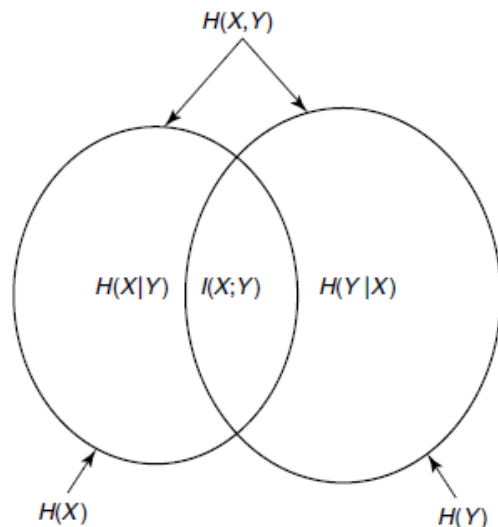
$$D(p(y|x)||q(y|x)) = \sum_x p(x) \sum_y p(y|x) \log \frac{p(y|x)}{q(y|x)} = \sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) \log \frac{p(y|x)}{q(y|x)}$$

Definition 2.13. Mutual Information

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Consider 2 random variables X and Y with a joint probability mass function $p(x, y)$ and marginal probability mass functions $p(x)$ and $p(y)$. The *mutual information* $I(X, Y)$ is the relative entropy between the joint distribution $p(x, y)$ and the product distribution $p(x)p(y)$.

$$I(X; Y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x, y) \log \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} = D(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y)) = E_{p(x, y)} \log \frac{p(X, Y)}{p(X)p(Y)}$$



2.4 Relationship Between Entropy and Mutual Information

Remark 2.14.

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We can prove that:

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y) \\ &= I(Y; X) \\ I(X; X) &= H(X) \end{aligned}$$

This last identity is why entropy is sometimes called *self-information*.

2.5 Chain Rules for Entropy, Relative Entropy, and Mutual Information

Theorem 2.15. Chain Rule for Entropy

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Given: $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim p(x_1), \dots, p(x_n)$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} H(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= H(X_1) + H(X_2|X_1) + H(X_3|X_1, X_2) + \dots + H(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.16. Conditional Mutual Information

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The *conditional mutual information* of random variables X and Y given Z is

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y|Z) &= H(X|Z) - H(X|Y, Z) \\ &= E_{p(x,y,z)} \log \frac{p(X, Y|Z)}{p(X|Z)p(Y|Z)} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.17. Chain Rule for Information

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$$I(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} I(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y) &= H(X_1, \dots, X_n) - H(X_1, \dots, X_n|Y) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, Y) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 2.18. Chain Rule for Relative Entropy

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$$D(p(x, y)||q(x, y)) = D(p(x)||q(x)) + D(p(y|x)||q(y|x))$$

2.6 Jensen's Inequality and Consequences

Definition 2.19. Convex, Concave

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A function f is *convex* if

$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \leq \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2)$$

i.e. the function lies below every chord. If the inequality is strict then it is *strictly convex*. A function g is *concave* if $-g$ is convex.

Theorem 2.20. Jensen's Inequality

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If f is convex, then

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)] \geq f(\mathbb{E}[X])$$

If f is strictly convex then X is a constant, i.e. $X = \mathbb{E}[X]$.

If f is concave, then

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)] \leq f(\mathbb{E}[X])$$

Theorem 2.21. Information Inequality

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$D(p||q) \geq 0$, with equality iff $p = q$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 -D(p||q) &= -\sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \\
 &= \sum_x \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \\
 &\leq \log \sum_x p(x) \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \\
 &\leq \log 1 \leq 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

where (2.1) follows from Jensen's Inequality (Theorem 2.20), since log is concave. \square

Corollary 2.22. Nonnegativity of Mutual Information

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$$I(X; Y) \geq 0, \text{ with equality iff } X \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent} \Rightarrow p(x, y) = p(x)p(y).$$

Theorem 2.23. Conditioning Reduces Entropy \Leftrightarrow Information Can't Hurt

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$$H(X|Y) \leq H(X)$$

with equality iff X and Y are independent.

Proof. $0 \leq I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$ \square

Remark 2.24.

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$H(X|Y = y)$ may actually be bigger than $H(X)$. For example, consider

		X	
		1	2
Y			
1		0	$\frac{3}{4}$
2		$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$

$$H(X) = H\left(\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}\right) = 0.544$$

$$H(X|Y = 2) = 1$$

$$H(X|Y = 1) = 0$$

$$H(X|Y) = \frac{3}{4} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{4} < H(X)$$

Theorem 2.25. Independence Bound on Entropy

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$$H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i)$$

Proof. By the chain rule for entropies (Theorem 2.15),

$$\begin{aligned} H(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(X_i) \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 2.26.

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For a fixed alphabet size, the uniform distribution has the largest entropy. Given X with a finite alphabet \mathcal{X} , then $H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$ and

$$0 \leq D(p||u) = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{\frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|}} = \sum_x p(x) \log p(x) + \log |\mathcal{X}| = \log |\mathcal{X}| - H(X)$$

2.7 Log Sum Inequality and its Applications**Theorem 2.27. Log Sum Inequality**

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For nonnegative numbers a_1, \dots, a_n and b_1, \dots, b_n ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} \geq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \right) \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n b_i}$$

with equality if $a_i = cb_i$ for some constant c .

The proof of this uses Jensen's Inequality (Theorem 2.20).

Theorem 2.28. Convexity of Relative Entropy

page 32 and Notes 3/30/11

$D(p||q)$ is convex in the pair (p, q) . That is, if (p_1, q_1) and (p_2, q_2) are two pairs of probability mass functions, then

$$D(\lambda p_1 + (1 - \lambda)p_2 || \lambda q_1 + (1 - \lambda)q_2) \leq \lambda D(p_1 || q_1) + (1 - \lambda)D(p_2 || q_2)$$

Proof. Applying the log sum inequality (Theorem 2.27) to the LHS of the above equation, we get

$$(\lambda p_1(x) + (1 - \lambda)p_2(x)) \log \frac{\lambda p_1(x) + (1 - \lambda)p_2(x)}{\lambda q_1(x) + (1 - \lambda)q_2(x)} \leq \lambda p_1(x) \log \frac{\lambda p_1(x)}{\lambda q_1(x)} + (1 - \lambda)p_2(x) \log \frac{(1 - \lambda)p_2(x)}{(1 - \lambda)q_2(x)}$$

Summing over all x , we get the desired result. \square

Theorem 2.29. Concavity of Entropy

page 32 and Notes 4/4/11

$H(p)$ is a concave function of p .

Proof.

$$H(p) = \log |\mathcal{X}| - D(p||u)$$

This is because

$$\begin{aligned} D(p||u) &= \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{u(x)} = \sum_x p(x) \log |\mathcal{X}| + \sum_x p(x) \log p(x) \\ &= \log |\mathcal{X}| - H(X) \end{aligned}$$

$D(p||u)$ is convex in p , so the negative makes $H(p)$ concave. \square

Example 2.30.

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Let $p_1 = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}\}$ and $p_2 = \{\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\}$.

Then $H(p_1) = \frac{7}{4}$ and $H(p_2) = 2$

If we take $\lambda = \frac{1}{4}$, then

$$H(\lambda p_1 + (1 - \lambda)p_2) \geq \lambda H(p_1) + (1 - \lambda)H(p_2)$$

2.8 Data-Processing Inequality**Definition 2.31. Markov Chain**

page 34 and Notes 4/4/11

Random variables X, Y, Z are said to form a *Markov chain*, denoted $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, if

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(y|x)p(z|y)$$

Remark 2.32.

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1. $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ iff X and Z are conditionally independent given Y
2. If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ then $Z \rightarrow Y \rightarrow X$
3. If $Z = f(Y)$, then $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$
4. If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, then $I(X; Z|Y) = 0$

Theorem 2.33. Data Processing Inequality

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If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$, then $I(X; Y) \geq I(X; Z)$ *Proof.* By the chain rule,

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y|Z) &= I(X; Z) + \underbrace{I(X; Y|Z)}_{\geq 0} \\ &= I(X; Y) + \underbrace{I(X; Z|Y)}_{=0} \end{aligned}$$

where $I(X; Z|Y) = 0$ because X and Z are conditionally independent given Y . Since $I(X; Y|Z) \geq 0$, we have

$$I(X; Y) \geq I(X; Z)$$

with equality iff $I(X; Y|Z) = 0$, i.e. $X \rightarrow Z \rightarrow Y$ forms a Markov chain. □

Corollary 2.34.

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If $Z = f(Y)$ then $I(X; Y) \geq I(X; f(Y))$ **Remark 2.35.**

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It is possible that $I(X; Y|Z) > I(X; Y)$ when X, Y, Z do not form a Markov chain. For example, let X and Y be independent binary random variables and set $Z = X + Y$. Then $I(X; Y) = 0$ and

$$I(X; Y|Z) = H(X|Z) - H(X|Y, Z) = H(X|Z) = P(Z = 1)H(X|Z = 1) = \frac{1}{2} \text{ bit}$$

2.9 Sufficient Statistics

2.10 Fano's Inequality

Theorem 2.36. *Fano's Inequality*

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Suppose that we want to estimate the value of a random variable X using a correlated random variable Y . Let $\hat{X} = f(Y)$. We define the *probability error*

$$P_e = \Pr[\hat{X} \neq X]$$

Fano's Inequality tells us that for any estimator \hat{X} such that $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow \hat{X}$, with $P_e = \Pr[\hat{X} \neq X]$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H(P_e) + P_e \log |\mathcal{X}| &\geq H(X|Y) && \text{if } \hat{X} \neq X \\ H(P_e) + P_e \log(|\mathcal{X}| - 1) &\geq H(X|Y) && \text{if } \hat{X} = X \end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$P_e \geq \frac{H(X|Y) - 1}{\underbrace{\log |\mathcal{X}|}_{\text{or } \log(|\mathcal{X}|-1)}}$$

Proof. Let

$$E = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{X} \neq X \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{X} = X \end{cases}$$

Then $\Pr[E = 1] = P_e$ and

$$\begin{aligned} H(E, X|\hat{X}) &= H(X|\hat{X}) + \underbrace{H(E|X, \hat{X})}_{=0} \\ &= \underbrace{H(E|\hat{X})}_{\leq H(P_e)} + \underbrace{H(X|E, \hat{X})}_{\leq P_e \log |\mathcal{X}|} \end{aligned}$$

We can show that

$$H(X|\hat{X}) \leq H(P_e) + P_e \log |\mathcal{X}|$$

and it follows from the data-processing inequality that

$$H(X|\hat{X}) \geq H(X|Y)$$

□

Remark 2.37.

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Fano's Inequality is sharp, as seen in these 2 cases:

1. If $X = g(Y)$ then $H(X|Y) = 0$ and $P_e = 0$ because $\hat{X} = g(Y)$
2. No observation (no knowledge of Y)
 $X \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, $p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_m$
 $\hat{X} = 1$, $P_e = 1 - p_1$, and equality in Fano's Inequality is achieved when the probabilities are
 $\left(p, \frac{1-p}{m-1}, \dots, \frac{1-p}{m-1}\right)$
 This is found by setting $H(P_e) + P_e \log(m-1) = H(X)$

Remark 2.38. Review of Key Concepts

Notes 4/6/11

$$H(X) = H(p) = -\mathbb{E}[\log p(X)] = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)}$$

$$D(p||q) = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

$$I(X; Y) = D(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y)) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X)$$

Jensen's Inequality: If f is convex, then $\mathbb{E}[f(X)] \geq f(\mathbb{E}[X])$.

It follows that $D(p||q) \geq 0$, $I(X; Y) \geq 0$, $H(X|Y) \leq H(X)$, $H(X) \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$, $H(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_i H(X_i)$.

Log-Sum Inequality:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \log \frac{a_i}{b_i} \geq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \right) \log \frac{\sum_i a_i}{\sum_i b_i}$$

$D(p||q)$ is convex, $H(p)$ is concave, $I(X; Y)$ is concave in $p(x)$ for fixed $p(y|x)$ and convex in $p(y|x)$ for fixed $p(x)$.

Data Processing Inequality:

$$\text{If } X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z, \text{ then } I(X; Y) \geq I(X; Z)$$

Fano's Inequality: For any estimator \hat{X} such that $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow \hat{X}$, we have

$$H(P_e) + \underbrace{P_e \log |\mathcal{X}|}_{P_e \log(|\mathcal{X}|-1)} \geq H(X|Y)$$

$$P_e \geq \frac{H(X|Y) - 1}{\underbrace{\log |\mathcal{X}|}_{\log(|\mathcal{X}|-1)}}$$

Lemma 2.39.

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Let X, X' be two independent random variables, $X \sim p$, $X' \sim p'$. Then

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Pr [X = X'] \geq 2^{-H(p)-D(p||p')} \\ \Pr [X = X'] \geq 2^{-H(p')-D(p'||p)} \end{array} \right\} \text{not necessarily the same value}$$

If X and X' are *independent identically distributed* random variables (*i.i.d.*), meaning that $p = p'$, then

$$\Pr [X = X'] \geq 2^{-H(p)}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{-H(p)-D(p||p')} &= 2^{\sum_x p(x) \log p(x) - \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{p'(x)}} \\ &= 2^{\sum_x p(x) \log p'(x)} \\ &= 2^{\mathbb{E}[\log p'(x)]} \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_p \left[2^{\log p'(x)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_p [p'(x)] = \sum_x p(x)p'(x) = \Pr [X = X'] \end{aligned}$$

□

3 Asymptotic Equipartition Property

3.1 Asymptotic Equipartition Property Theorem

Theorem 3.1. Weak Law of Large Numbers

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If X_1, X_2, \dots are i.i.d. random variables drawn from p , then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \mathbb{E}_p[X] \text{ in probability}$$

($X_n \xrightarrow{\text{in prob}} X$ means that $\Pr [|X_n - X| > \epsilon] \rightarrow 0$.)

Theorem 3.2. Asymptotic Equipartition Property (AEP) Theorem

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If X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. $\sim p(x)$, then

$$-\frac{1}{n} \log p(X_1, \dots, X_n) \rightarrow H(X) \text{ in probability}$$

Proof. The LHS:

$$-\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \log p(X_i) \rightarrow -\mathbb{E}[\log p(X)] = H(X)$$

□

Definition 3.3. Typical Set

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For any $\epsilon > 0$, the *typical set* $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ with respect to $p(x)$ is the set of all sequences (x_1, \dots, x_n) satisfying

$$2^{-n[H(X)+\epsilon]} \leq p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq 2^{-n[H(X)-\epsilon]}$$

Properties of $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$:

1. $\Pr [A_\epsilon^{(n)}] > 1 - \epsilon$ for n sufficiently large
2. $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n[H(X)+\epsilon]}$
3. $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \geq (1 - \epsilon) \cdot 2^{n[H(X)-\epsilon]}$

Remark 3.4. Number of Typical Sequences

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The number of typical sequences $\approx \binom{n}{np} \sim 2^{nH(X)}$.

To see this, recall Stirling's formula: $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$

$$M = \binom{n}{np} \sim \frac{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n}{\sqrt{2\pi np} \left(\frac{np}{e}\right)^{np} \sqrt{2\pi nq} \left(\frac{nq}{e}\right)^{nq}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi npq} p^{np} q^{nq}}$$

$$\log M \sim -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi npq) - np \log p - nq \log q$$

$$\sim n \left[H(X) - \frac{\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi npq)}{n} \right]$$

3.2 Consequences of the AEP: Data Compression**Remark 3.5. Code Word Length**

Notes 4/6/11

For sequences in $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$, the code word length is $n(H + \epsilon) + 2$ bits.

For atypical sequences, the code word length is $n \log |\mathcal{X}| + 2$ bits.

Theorem 3.6. Average Code Word Length

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$$L = \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) l_1 + \sum_{x_1^n \notin A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) l_2$$

$$= n(H + \epsilon) \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) + n \log |\mathcal{X}| \sum_{x_1^n \notin A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) + 2$$

$$\leq n(H + \epsilon) + n \log |\mathcal{X}| \epsilon + 2$$

$$\leq n[H(X) + \epsilon']$$

where $\epsilon' = \epsilon + \epsilon \log |\mathcal{X}| + \frac{2}{n}$.

Example 3.7.

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Consider a biased coin with $p(\text{heads}) = 0.9$. The Asymptotic Equipartition Property (Theorem 3.2) says that if we flip it enough times then

$$-\frac{1}{n} \log p(X_1, \dots, X_n) \xrightarrow{\text{i.p.}} H(X)$$

Definition 3.8. High-Probability Set

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For each $n = 1, 2, \dots$, define the *high-probability set* $B_\delta^{(n)} \subset \mathcal{X}^n$ to be the smallest set with

$$\Pr \{B_\delta^{(n)}\} \geq 1 - \delta$$

Remark 3.9. Typical Sequence \neq Most Likely Sequence

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(From Example 3.7) Typical sequences have 90% heads. The most likely sequence is all heads.

Theorem 3.10.

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Let X_1, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. $\sim p(x)$. Then for every $\delta' > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \log |B_\delta^{(n)}| &> H - \delta' \\ |B_\delta^{(n)}| &> 2^{n(H-\delta')} \end{aligned}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \{A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}\} &= \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}} \Pr(x_1^n) = \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) + \sum_{x_1^n \in B_\delta^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) - \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cup B_\delta^{(n)}} p(x_1^n) \\ &> (1 - \epsilon) + (1 - \delta) - 1 \\ &> 1 - \epsilon - \delta \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

We also get

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \{A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}\} &= \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}} \Pr(x_1^n) \\ &\leq \sum_{x_1^n \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}} 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)} = |A_\epsilon^{(n)} \cap B_\delta^{(n)}| 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)} \\ &\leq |B_\delta^{(n)}| 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)} \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

Combining (3.1) and (3.2) gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 |B_\delta^{(n)}| 2^{-n(H-\epsilon)} &\geq 1 - \epsilon - \delta \\
 |B_\delta^{(n)}| &\geq 2^{n(H-\epsilon)}(1 - \epsilon - \delta) \\
 \frac{1}{n} \log |B_\delta^{(n)}| &> H - \epsilon + \underbrace{\frac{\log(1 - \epsilon - \delta)}{n}}_{\delta'} = H - \delta'
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 3.11. Notation: \doteq

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$a_n \doteq b_n$ denotes that a_n and b_n are equal to the first order exponent. That is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$$

For example:

$$a_n = 2^{n\left(H + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n}\right)}, \quad b_n = 2^{n\left(H + \frac{\log n}{n}\right)}, \quad c_n = 2^{nH}$$

It is easily seen that $a_n \doteq b_n \doteq c_n$.

4 Entropy Rates of a Stochastic Process

4.1 Markov Chains

Definition 4.1. *Stochastic Process, Stationary*

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A *stochastic process* $\{X_i\}$ is an indexed sequence of random variables that is characterized by the joint distribution $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. A stochastic process is said to be *stationary* if it is invariant with respect to shifts in the time index; that is,

$$\Pr \{X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n\} = \Pr \{X_{1+l} = x_1, X_{2+l} = x_2, \dots, X_{n+l} = x_n\}$$

4.2 Entropy Rate

Definition 4.2. *Entropy Rate*

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The *entropy rate* of a stochastic process is

$$H(\mathcal{X}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

provided the limit exists. A second definition is given by

$$H'(\mathcal{X}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$$

provided the limit exists.

Example 4.3. Entropy Rate Examples

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- Given: X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. random variables. Then $H(\mathcal{X}) = H(X) = H'(\mathcal{X})$.
- Given: X_i are binary random variables with $p_i = \Pr [X_i = 1]$ independent.

$$p_i = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } \lceil \log i \rceil \text{ is odd} \Rightarrow H(X_i) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } \lceil \log i \rceil \text{ is even} \Rightarrow H(X_i) = 0 \end{cases}$$

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$H(X_i)$	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0

$$H(X_{2^{r-1}+1}) = H(X_{2^r}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r \text{ odd} \\ 0 & \text{if } r \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2^r} H(X_i) = \begin{cases} 1 + 2^2 + 2^4 + \dots + 2^{r-1} = \frac{2^{r+1}-1}{3} & r \text{ odd} \\ 1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^r = \frac{2^{r+1}-1}{3} & r \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{2^r} H(X_i)}{2^r} = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2^r} & r \text{ odd} \\ \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2^r} & r \text{ even} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{no limit}$$

$$H'(\mathcal{X}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_n) \Rightarrow \text{does not exist}$$

Theorem 4.4.

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For a stationary stochastic process, $H(\mathcal{X})$ and $H'(\mathcal{X})$ are defined and equal.

Proof. First show $H'(\mathcal{X})$ is defined.

$$H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \leq H(X_n | X_2, \dots, X_{n-1}) = H(X_{n-1} | X_1, \dots, X_{n-2})$$

because it is stationary. The sequence is nonincreasing and nonnegative, so the limit exists. Computing $H(\mathcal{X})$ we get that

$$\frac{1}{n} H(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{n} (H(X_1) + H(X_2 | X_1) + \dots + H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})) \rightarrow H'(\mathcal{X})$$

by the Cesàro Mean Theorem (Theorem 4.5). □

Theorem 4.5. Cesàro Mean

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If $a_n \rightarrow a$ and $b_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$, then $b_n \rightarrow a$.

Theorem 4.6. Shannon-McMillan-Breiman Theorem (AEP)

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For any stationary ergodic process, we have

$$-\frac{1}{n} \log p(X_1, \dots, X_n) \xrightarrow{i.p.} H(\mathcal{X})$$

with probability 1. The proof uses the law of large numbers for ergodic processes.

Example 4.7. Markov Chain, Time-Invariant, Probability Transition Matrix, Irreducible, Aperiodic, Stationary Distribution

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Consider a Markov chain X_1, \dots, X_n . Each random variable depends only on the one preceding it and is conditionally independent of all the other preceding random variables; that is,

$$\Pr [X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}] = \Pr [X_n | X_{n-1}]$$

If $\Pr [X_n | X_{n-1}] = \text{constant}$ for all n , then the Markov chain is *time-invariant* and we write

$$\Pr [X_n | X_{n-1}] \equiv P_{i,j}$$

We form the *probability transition matrix* $P = [P_{ij}]$, $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ by setting

$$P_{ij} = \Pr [X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i]$$

If it is possible to go with positive probability from any state of the Markov chain to any other state in a finite number of steps then the Markov chain is said to be *irreducible*. If the largest common factor of the lengths of different paths from a state to itself is 1, the Markov chain is *aperiodic*.

If there exists a state $\pi = [P_1, \dots, P_n]$ such that the distribution at the next time step is identical, i.e. $\pi = P\pi$, then π is a *stationary distribution*. If $\Pr [X_1] = \pi$ then we will stay there forever and the Markov chain is a stationary process, and

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathcal{X}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(X_n | X_{n-1}) \\ &= H(X_2 | X_1) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^M \pi_i H(X_2 | X_1 = i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^M \pi_i \sum_{j=1}^M P_{ij} \log \frac{1}{P_{ij}} \end{aligned}$$

In other words, we have (at least for a 2 state Markov chain, see HW3 Problem 4.7)

$$H(\mathcal{X}) = \mu_1 H(\mathbb{P}_{\text{row } 1}) + \mu_2 H(\mathbb{P}_{\text{row } 2}).$$

If we have a finite, irreducible Markov chain with finite space, then it has a limiting distribution (the unique stationary distribution).

5 Data Compression

5.1 Examples of Codes

Definition 5.1. *Source Code*

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A *source code* C for a random variable X is a mapping from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{D}^* , the set of finite-length strings from a D -ary alphabet. Let $C(x)$ denote the codeword corresponding to x and let $l(x)$ denote the length of $C(x)$.

Definition 5.2. *Expected Length*

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The *expected length* $L(C)$ of $C(x)$ is given by

$$L(C) = \sum_x p(x)l(x)$$

Definition 5.3. *Nonsingular*

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A code is nonsingular if every element in \mathcal{X} is mapped to a different codeword. In other words, $x \neq x'$ implies that $C(x) \neq C(x')$.

Definition 5.4. *Extension, Uniquely Decodable*

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The *extension* C^* of a code C is the mapping from finite-length strings of \mathcal{X} to finite-length strings in \mathcal{D}^* given by

$$C(x_1x_2 \dots x_n) = C(x_1)C(x_2) \dots C(x_n)$$

A code is *uniquely decodable* if its extension is nonsingular.

Definition 5.5. *Instantaneous Code, Prefix Code*

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A code is called a *prefix code* or an *instantaneous code* if no codeword is a prefix of any other codeword.

Remark 5.6.

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All codes \supset Nonsingular \supset Uniquely Decodable \supset Instantaneous

Example 5.7.

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X	Singular	Nonsingular, not uniquely decodable	Uniquely decodable, not instantaneous	Instantaneous
1	0	0	10	0
2	0	010	00	10
3	0	01	11	110
4	0	10	110	111

5.2 Kraft Inequality**Theorem 5.8. Kraft Inequality**

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For any prefix code over an alphabet of size $D \geq 2$, the codeword lengths l_1, l_2, \dots, l_m must satisfy

$$\sum_i D^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

Conversely, given a set of codeword lengths satisfying this inequality, there exists a prefix code with those codeword lengths.

Theorem 5.9. Extended Kraft Inequality

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For any countably infinite set of codewords that form a prefix code (or a uniquely decodable code), the codeword lengths satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} D^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

Conversely, given any l_1, l_2, \dots satisfying the above inequality, we can construct a prefix code with these codeword lengths.

Theorem 5.10. Kraft Inequality (McMillan)

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The codeword lengths of any uniquely decodable D -ary code must satisfy the Kraft inequality

$$\sum D^{-l_i} \leq 1$$

Proof. Consider C^k , the k th extension of the code. By the definition of unique decodability, the k th extension

of the code is nonsingular. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} D^{-l(x)} \right)^k &= \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{x_2 \in \mathcal{X}} \dots \sum_{x_k \in \mathcal{X}} D^{-l(x_1)} D^{-l(x_2)} \dots D^{-l(x_k)} \\
 &= \sum_{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathcal{X}^k} D^{-l(x_1)} D^{-l(x_2)} \dots D^{-l(x_k)} \\
 &= \sum_{x^k \in \mathcal{X}^k} D^{-l(x^k)}
 \end{aligned}$$

and somehow this leads to the desired result. □

5.3 Optimal Codes

Remark 5.11.

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We want to minimize

$$L = \sum p_i l_i$$

while satisfying

$$\sum D^{-l_i} \leq 1.$$

We do this using Lagrange multipliers. We set

$$\begin{aligned}
 J &= \sum p_i l_i + \lambda \left(\sum d^{-l_i} \right) \\
 \frac{\partial J}{\partial l_i} &= p_i - \lambda D^{-l_i} \log_e D = 0 \\
 D^{-l_i} &= \frac{p_i}{\lambda \log_e D} \\
 \lambda &= \frac{1}{\log_e D} \\
 p_i &= D^{-l_i} \\
 l_i^* &= -\log_D p_i
 \end{aligned}$$

where l_i^* is the optimal code length for x_i .

Theorem 5.12.

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The expected length L of any prefix D -ary code for a random variable X satisfies

$$L \geq H_D(X)$$

with equality iff $\log_D \frac{1}{p_i}$ is an integer for all i .

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} L - H_D(X) &= \sum p_i l_i - \sum p_i \log_D \frac{1}{p_i} \\ &= - \sum p_i \log_D D^{-l_i} + \sum p_i \log_D p_i \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$c = \sum D^{-l_i} \quad \text{and} \quad r_i = \frac{D^{-l_i}}{\sum D^{-l_i}} = \frac{D^{-l_i}}{c}$$

Then continuing from above, we have

$$\begin{aligned} L - H_D(X) &= \sum p_i \log_D r_i c + \sum p_i \log_D p_i \\ &= \sum p_i \log_D \frac{p_i}{r_i c} \\ &= \sum p_i \log_D \frac{p_i}{r_i} - \sum p_i \log_D c \\ &= D(p||r) + \log_D \frac{1}{c} \\ &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 5.13. *D-adic*

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A probability distribution is *D-adic* if each probability equals D^{-n} for some integer n .

5.4 Bounds on the Optimal Code Length

Definition 5.14. *Shannon-Fano Coding*

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Choose code lengths by

$$l_i = \left\lceil \log_D \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil$$

This is a prefix code because

$$\sum_i D^{-l_i} = \sum_i D^{-\lceil \log_D \frac{1}{p_i} \rceil} \leq \sum_i D^{-\log_D \frac{1}{p_i}} = \sum p_i = 1$$

We can bound the expected codeword length by

$$L = \sum_i p_i \left\lceil \log_D \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil \leq \sum_i p_i \left(\log_D \frac{1}{p_i} + 1 \right) = H_D(X) + 1$$

Theorem 5.15.

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Let L^* be the associated expected length of the optimal prefix code. Then

$$H_D(X) \leq L^* \leq H_D(X) + 1$$

Remark 5.16. Approaching the Entropy

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Let L_n be the expected codeword length per input symbol; that is,

$$L_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) l(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Then by Theorem 5.15,

$$H_D(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq nL_n \leq H_D(X_1, \dots, X_n) + 1$$

Because X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d., $H(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum H(X_i) = nH(X)$. Thus, we get

$$H_D(X) \leq L_n \leq H_D(X) + \frac{1}{n}$$

If we have a stochastic process that is stationary, then

$$L_n \rightarrow H(\mathcal{X})$$

Theorem 5.17.

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The minimum expected codeword length per symbol satisfies

$$\frac{H(X_1, \dots, X_n)}{n} \leq L_n^* \leq \frac{H(X_1, \dots, X_n)}{n} + \frac{1}{n}$$

Moreover, if X_1, \dots, X_n is a stationary stochastic process then

$$L_n^* \rightarrow H(\mathcal{X})$$

Theorem 5.18. Wrong Code

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If the true distribution is $p(x)$ and our code is designed for $q(x)$ with $l(x) = \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{q(x)} \right\rceil$, then

$$H(p) + D(p||q) \leq \mathbb{E}_p l(X) \leq H(p) + D(p||q) + 1$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_p l(X) &= \sum_x p(x) \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{q(x)} \right\rceil \\ &< \sum_x p(x) \left(\log \frac{1}{q(x)} + 1 \right) = \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{1}{q(x)} \cdot \frac{p(x)}{p(x)} + 1 \\ &< \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} + \sum_x p(x) \log \frac{1}{p(x)} + 1 \\ &< H(p) + D(p||q) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

□

5.6 Huffman Codes

Example 5.19. Huffman Code ($D = 2$)

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Construction of Huffman code for $D = 2$, $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $p = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

1	0.25 \Rightarrow 01	0.3 \Rightarrow 00	0.45 \Rightarrow 1	0.55 \Rightarrow 0
2	0.25 \Rightarrow 10	0.25 \Rightarrow 01	0.25 \Rightarrow 10	0.2 \Rightarrow 11
3	0.2 \Rightarrow 11	0.25 \Rightarrow 10	0.25 \Rightarrow 01	
4	0.15 \Rightarrow 000	0.2 \Rightarrow 11		
5	0.15 \Rightarrow 001			

Example 5.20. Huffman Code ($D = 3$)

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Construction of Huffman code for $D = 2$, $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $p = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

1	0.25	0.5 \Rightarrow 0
2	0.25	0.25 \Rightarrow 1
3	0.2	0.2 \Rightarrow 2
4	0.15	
5	0.15	

Example 5.21. Huffman Code ($D = 4$)

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Construction of Huffman code for $D = 2$, $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $p = \{0.25, 0.25, 0.2, 0.15, 0.15\}$

1 \Rightarrow 1	0.25	0.3 \Rightarrow 0
2 \Rightarrow 2	0.25	0.25 \Rightarrow 1
3 \Rightarrow 3	0.2	0.25 \Rightarrow 2
4 \Rightarrow 00	0.15	0.2
5 \Rightarrow 01	0.15	
6	0	
7	0	

Remark 5.22.

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- The total number of symbols should be $1 + k(D - 1)$
- It is possible to have 2 optimal codes with different codeword lengths, but the same expected codeword length
- The codeword lengths of optimal codes are not unique

Example 5.23.

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Let $D = 2$, $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $p = \{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{12}\}$.

$1 \Rightarrow 1$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
$2 \Rightarrow 00$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
$3 \Rightarrow 010$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
$4 \Rightarrow 011$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
$1 \Rightarrow 00$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
$2 \Rightarrow 01$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
$3 \Rightarrow 10$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
$4 \Rightarrow 11$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$

5.7 Some Comments on Huffman Codes

Remark 5.24. Huffman vs. Shannon

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For Shannon code, $\lceil \log \frac{1}{p_i} \rceil$, choose p_i small, e.g. $p = \{0.999, 0.001\}$. Then for Huffman code,

$$l_i \leq \left\lceil \log \frac{1}{p_i} \right\rceil$$

5.8 Optimality of Huffman Codes

Lemma 5.25.

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For any distribution, there exists an optimal prefix code that satisfies

1. the lengths of the codeword are ordered inversely with probability, i.e. $p_j \geq p_k \Rightarrow l_j \leq l_k$.
2. the two longest codewords have the same length.
3. two of the longest codewords differ only in the last bit

Proof. Consider C' with codewords j and k interchanged from C^* . Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(C') - L(C^*) &= p_j l_k + p_k l_j - p_j l_j - p_k l_k \\ &= \underbrace{(p_j - p_k)(l_k - l_j)}_{\geq 0} \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 5.26. Canonical Codes

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Canonical codes are codes that satisfy the 3 properties in Lemma 5.25.

Definition 5.27. Huffman Reduction

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$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{X}| &= m, \mathbb{P} = (p_1, \dots, p_m) \text{ with } p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_m \\ |\mathcal{X}'| &= m - 1, \mathbb{P}' = (p_1, \dots, p_{m-2}, p_{m-1} + p_m) \end{aligned}$$

Remark 5.28.

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Let $C_{m-1}^*(\mathbb{P}')$ be the optimal code for \mathbb{P}' .

Let $C_m^*(\mathbb{P})$ be the optimal code for \mathbb{P} .

From $C_{m-1}^*(\mathbb{P}')$ we can construct an extension code for $|\mathcal{X}| = m$. To do this, take the codeword in C_{m-1}^* for $p_{m-1} + p_m$ and extend it by adding 1 more bit at the end. The average length $\sum_i l_i p_i$ is:

$$L(\mathbb{P}) = L^*(\mathbb{P}') + p_{m-1} + p_m$$

Start from a canonical code for $|\mathcal{X}| = m$. We can construct a code for \mathbb{P}' by throwing away the last bit of the two codewords for p_{m-1} and p_m . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathbb{P}') &= L^*(\mathbb{P}) - p_{m-1} - p_m & (L^*(\mathbb{P}) &= p_{m-1} l_{\max} + p_m l_{\max}) \\ L(\mathbb{P}) + L(\mathbb{P}') &= L^*(\mathbb{P}) + L^*(\mathbb{P}') \\ \underbrace{[L(\mathbb{P}') - L^*(\mathbb{P}')] + [L(\mathbb{P}) - L^*(\mathbb{P})]}_0 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

7 Channel Capacity

7.1 Examples of Channel Capacity

Definition 7.1. *Discrete Channel*

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A *discrete channel* consists of

- A discrete alphabet \mathcal{X} (input alphabet)
- A discrete alphabet \mathcal{Y} (output alphabet)
- A conditional probability $p(y^n|x^n)$ for each n

$$x^n = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{X}^n$$

$$y^n = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathcal{Y}^n$$

Definition 7.2. *Memoryless Channel*

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A *memoryless channel* satisfies

$$p(y^n|x^n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|x_i)$$

Remark 7.3.

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A channel can be given by a matrix, \mathbb{P} , with rows corresponding to x and columns corresponding to y .

Definition 7.4. *Operational Channel Capacity*

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Operational channel capacity is the highest rate at which information can be sent (with arbitrarily low probability of error).

Definition 7.5. *Information Channel Capacity*

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We define the *information channel capacity* as

$$C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y)$$

Example 7.6. Noisy Channel with Nonoverlapping Outputs

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 $0 \mapsto 0$ $1 \mapsto 1, 2$ with equal probability $2 \mapsto 3$

$$\mathbb{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

There is no ambiguity (nonoverlapping output).

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y) = \max_{p(x)} H(X) - H(X|Y) = \max_{p(x)} H(X) \\ &= \log 3 \end{aligned}$$

Example 7.7. Noisy Typewriter

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$A \mapsto A, B$ with equal probability, $B \mapsto B, C$ with equal probability, ..., $Z \mapsto Z, A$ with equal probability.

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(Y) - 1 \\ &\leq \log 26 - 1 \\ C &= \max_{p(x)} H(Y) - 1 = \log 26 - 1 \\ &= \log 13 \end{aligned}$$

Example 7.8. Binary Symmetric Channel

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$$\mathbb{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p \\ p & 1-p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(Y) - H(p) \\ &\leq 1 - H(p) \\ C &= 1 - H(p), \quad \text{achieved when } p(x) \text{ is uniform} \end{aligned}$$

Example 7.9. Binary Erasure

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$$0 \mapsto \begin{cases} 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - \alpha \\ e & \text{with probability } \alpha \end{cases}$$

$$1 \mapsto \begin{cases} e & \text{with probability } \alpha \\ 1 & \text{with probability } 1 - \alpha \end{cases}$$

Define

$$E = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } Y = e \\ 1 & \text{if } Y \neq e \end{cases}$$

$$I(X; Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(Y) - H(\alpha)$$

$$H(Y) = H(Y, E) = H(E) + H(Y|E) = H(\alpha)$$

$$H(Y|E) = \Pr[E = 0]H(Y|E = 0) + \Pr[E = 1]H(Y|E = 1)$$

$$\leq 1 - \alpha$$

$$C = \max_{p(x)} [H(E) + H(Y|E) - H(\alpha)]$$

$$= 1 - \alpha$$

Example 7.10.

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$$\mathbb{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Define a probability distribution for X : $p(0, 1, 2, 3) \sim (p_0, p_1, p_2, p_3)$.

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

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_y H(X|Y = y)p(y) = H(X|Y = 3)\Pr(Y = 3)$$

$$= \cancel{(p_2 + p_3)} \left[\frac{p_2}{\cancel{p_2 + p_3}} \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_2} + \frac{p_3}{\cancel{p_2 + p_3}} \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_3} \right]$$

$$= p_2 \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_2} + p_3 \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_3}$$

$$I(X; Y) = p_0 \log \frac{1}{p_0} + p_1 \log \frac{1}{p_1} + p_2 \log \frac{1}{p_2} + p_3 \log \frac{1}{p_3} - p_2 \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_2} - p_3 \log \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_3}$$

$$= p_0 \log \frac{1}{p_0} + p_1 \log \frac{1}{p_1} + (p_2 + p_3) \log \frac{1}{p_2 + p_3}$$

$$C = \log 3, \quad \text{achieved with } p_0 = p_1 = p_2 + p_3$$

7.2 Symmetric Channels**Definition 7.11. Weakly Symmetric**

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A channel is *weakly symmetric* if the rows of \mathbb{P} are permutations of each other and all the column sums are equal.

Definition 7.12. Symmetric

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A channel is *symmetric* if the rows and columns are permutations of each other.

Theorem 7.13.

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For a weakly symmetric channel $(\mathcal{X}, \mathbb{P}, \mathcal{Y})$,

$$C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y) = \log |\mathcal{Y}| - H(\text{row of transition matrix})$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(Y) - H(\text{row of } \mathbb{P}) \\ \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y) &= \log |\mathcal{Y}| - H(\text{row of } \mathbb{P}) \end{aligned}$$

which is achieved for $p(x) = \text{uniform distribution}$. □

7.3 Properties of Channel Capacity**Remark 7.14.**

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1. $C \geq 0$ (since mutual information is nonnegative)
2. $C \leq \log |\mathcal{X}|$
3. $C \leq \log |\mathcal{Y}|$
4. $I(X; Y)$ is a continuous and concave function of $p(x)$, so $C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y)$, and a local maximum is a global maximum

7.5 The Communication System

Definition 7.15. *The Communication System*

page 193 and Notes 4/27/11

$$\xrightarrow{W(\text{message})} \text{Encoder} \xrightarrow{X^n} \text{Channel } p(y|x) \xrightarrow{Y^n} \text{Decoder} \xrightarrow{\hat{W}(\text{estimate of message})}$$

A message W , drawn from $\{1, 2, \dots, M\}$, results in the signal $X^n(W)$. $X^n(i)$ denotes the codeword for message i .

The receiver receives the message as $Y^n \sim p(y^n|x^n)$.

The receiver guesses the message using a decoding rule $\hat{W} = g(Y^n)$.

If $\hat{W} \neq W$ then the receiver has made an error.

Definition 7.16. *(M, n) Codebook*

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An (M, n) code for the channel $(\mathcal{X}, p(y|x), \mathcal{Y})$ consists of the following:

1. An index set $\{1, 2, \dots, M\}$.
2. An encoding function $X^n : \{1, 2, \dots, M\} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^n$. The set of codewords $x^n(1), x^n(2), \dots, x^n(M)$ is called the *codebook*.
3. A decoding function $g : \mathcal{Y}^n \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$.

Definition 7.17. *Conditional Probability of Error*

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The *conditional probability of error* given that message i is sent is

$$\lambda_i = \Pr [g(Y^n) \neq i \mid x^n = x^n(i)]$$

Definition 7.18. *Maximal Probability of Error*

page 194 and Notes 4/27/11

The *maximal probability of error* is

$$\lambda^{(n)} = \max_{i=1, \dots, M} \lambda_i$$

Definition 7.19. Average Probability of Error

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The *average probability of error* is

$$P_e^{(n)} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i$$

Definition 7.20. Rate, Achievable

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The *rate* R of an (M, n) code is

$$R = \frac{\log M}{n}$$

A rate is said to be *achievable* if there exists a sequence of $(\lceil 2^{nR} \rceil, n)$ codes such that the max probability of error $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$.**7.6 Jointly Typical Sequences****Definition 7.21. Jointly Typical Sequence**

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Let n be a positive integer and set $\epsilon > 0$. The set $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ of *jointly typical sequences* with respect to $p(x, y)$ is given by

$$A_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ (x^n, y^n) \in \mathcal{X}^n \times \mathcal{Y}^n \mid \begin{array}{l} \left| 1 - \frac{1}{n} \log p(x^n) - H(X) \right| < \epsilon, \\ \left| 1 - \frac{1}{n} \log p(y^n) - H(Y) \right| < \epsilon, \\ \left| 1 - \frac{1}{n} \log p(x^n, y^n) - H(X, Y) \right| < \epsilon \end{array} \right\}$$

Theorem 7.22. Joint AEP Theorem

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Let X^n, Y^n be sequences of length n drawn according to $p(x^n, y^n) = \prod p(x_i, y_i)$.

1. $\Pr [(X^n, Y^n) \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}] \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$
2. $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \leq 2^{n[H(X, Y) + \epsilon]}$
3. $|A_\epsilon^{(n)}| \geq 2^{n[H(X, Y) - \epsilon]}$
4. If $(\tilde{X}^n, \tilde{Y}^n) \sim p(x^n)p(y^n)$, then

$$\Pr [(X^n, Y^n) \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}] \leq 2^{-n[I(X; Y) - 3\epsilon]}$$

$$\Pr [(X^n, Y^n) \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}] \geq 2^{-n[I(X; Y) - 3\epsilon]}$$

Proof. By the weak law of large numbers,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n) &\rightarrow -\mathbb{E}[\log p(X)] = H(X) \\ -\frac{1}{n} \log p(Y^n) &\rightarrow H(Y) \\ -\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n, Y^n) &\rightarrow H(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$

For n large,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[\left| -\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n) - H(X) \right| \geq \epsilon \right] &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ \Pr \left[\left| -\frac{1}{n} \log p(Y^n) - H(Y) \right| \geq \epsilon \right] &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ \Pr \left[\left| -\frac{1}{n} \log p(X^n, Y^n) - H(X, Y) \right| \geq \epsilon \right] &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} \end{aligned}$$

For the rest of the proof see pages 197 and 198. □

7.7 Channel Coding Theorem

Theorem 7.23. Channel Coding Theorem

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For a discrete memoryless channel, all rates below capacity C are achievable. Specifically, for every rate $R < C$ there exists a sequence of $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes with maximum probability of error $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$.

Conversely, any sequence of $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes with $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$ must have $R < C$.

(See the Channel Coding Theorem Converse, Theorem 7.27.)

Proof. Fix $p(x) = p^*(x)$ that minimizes $I(X; Y)$. Generate each codebook according to $p(x)$. Fix $R < C$. Our $(2^{nR}, n)$ codebook is a $w^{nR} \times n$ matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} X^n(1) \\ X^n(2) \\ \vdots \\ X^n(2^{nR}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1(1), & X_2(1), & \dots, & X_n(1) \\ X_1(2), & X_2(2), & \dots, & X_n(2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_1(2^{nR}), & X_2(2^{nR}), & \dots, & X_n(2^{nR}) \end{bmatrix}$$

All $2^{nR} \times n$ elements are i.i.d. $\sim p(x)$.

Assume: all messages are equally likely.

Optimal decoder: $\hat{W} = \arg \max \Pr [Y^n | X^n(i)], X^n(i) \in \text{codebook}$.

We consider the jointly typical decoder: when we receive a sequence Y^n , if there exists a unique codeword $X^n(i)$ that is jointly typical with Y^n , then $\hat{W} = i$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(\varepsilon) &= \sum_{\mathcal{C} \text{ (codebooks)}} \Pr(\mathcal{C}P_e^{(n)}(\mathcal{C})) \\
&= \sum_{\mathcal{C}} \Pr(\mathcal{C}) \cdot \frac{1}{2^{nR}} \sum_{W=1}^{2^{nR}} \lambda_W(\mathcal{C}) \quad (W \text{ is the index of the message}) \\
&= \frac{1}{2^{nR}} \sum_{W=1}^{2^{nR}} \sum_{\mathcal{C}} \Pr(\mathcal{C}) \lambda_W(\mathcal{C}) \\
&= \Pr[\varepsilon | W = 1]
\end{aligned}$$

Define the event E_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, 2^{nR}$, as

$$E_i = \left\{ (X^n(i), Y^n) \in A_\varepsilon^{(n)} \right\}$$

where Y^n is generated by $X^n(1)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon &= E_1^C \cup E_2 \cup E_3 \cup \dots \cup E_{2^{nR}} \\
\Pr[\varepsilon | W = 1] &= \Pr[E_1^C \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_{2^{nR}} | W = 1] \\
&\leq \Pr[E_1^C] + \sum_{i=2}^{2^{nR}} \Pr[E_i] \\
\Pr[E_1^C] &\leq \epsilon \text{ for } n \text{ sufficiently large}
\end{aligned}$$

To bound $\Pr[E_i]$,

$$\Pr[E_i] \leq 2^{-n[I(X;Y) - 3\epsilon]}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[\varepsilon] &= \Pr[E | W = 1] \\
&\leq \epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{2^{nR}} 2^{-n[I(X;Y) - 3\epsilon]} \\
&\leq \epsilon + (2^{nR} - 1) \cdot 2^{-n[I(X;Y) - 3\epsilon]} \\
&\leq \epsilon + 2^{-n[I(X;Y) - R]} \cdot 2^{3n\epsilon} \\
&\leq 2\epsilon \text{ for } n \text{ sufficiently large}
\end{aligned}$$

Make $C - R > 3\epsilon \Rightarrow \epsilon < \frac{C-R}{3} \Rightarrow I(X;Y) - R - 3\epsilon > 0$. There exists a codebook \mathcal{C}^* with average probability of error $P_e^{(n)}(\mathcal{C}^*) \leq 2\epsilon$, i.e.

$$P_e^{(n)}(\mathcal{C}^*) = \frac{1}{2^{nR}} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{2^{nR}} \lambda_i(\mathcal{C}^*)}_{\leq 2^{nR} \cdot 2\epsilon} \leq 2\epsilon$$

At least half of the messages have $\lambda_i(\mathcal{C}^*) \leq 4\epsilon$. Consider a codebook containing only these “good” codewords. We have $2^{nR-1} = 2^{nR'}$ codewords, where $R' = R - \frac{1}{n}$, each with probability of error $\leq 4\epsilon$. \square

7.8 Zero-Error Codes

Remark 7.24.

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For any $(2^{nR}, n)$ code with zero probability of error, we have $R < C$.

$$\Pr [\hat{W} = W] = 1 \Rightarrow H(W|Y^n) = 0$$

Assume W is uniformly distributed.

$$\begin{aligned} nR &= H(W) = \underbrace{H(W|Y^n)}_0 + I(W; Y^n) \\ &\leq I(X^n; Y^n) \\ &\leq nC \quad R \leq C \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} W &\rightarrow X^n \rightarrow Y^n \\ Y^n &\rightarrow X^n \rightarrow W \end{aligned}$$

Recall Fano's Inequality (Theorem 2.36): If \hat{X} is an estimate of X based on Y (i.e. $\hat{X} = g(Y)$), then $P_e \equiv \Pr [\hat{X} \neq X]$.

$$\begin{aligned} P_e &= \Pr [\hat{X} \neq X] \leq 1 + P_e \log |\mathcal{X}| \\ H(W|Y^n) &\leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} \log 2^{nR} = 1 + nRP_e^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

where $P_e^{(n)}$ is the average probability of error.

7.9 Fano's Inequality and the Converse to the Coding Theorem

Lemma 7.25. *Fano's Inequality*

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For a discrete memoryless channel, we have

$$H(W|\hat{W}) \leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} nR$$

Lemma 7.26.

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For a discrete memoryless channel,

$$I(X^n; Y^n) \leq nC$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 I(X^n; Y^n) &\leq H(Y^n) - H(Y^n|X^n) \\
 &= H(Y^n) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|X^n, Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}) \\
 &= H(Y^n) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|X_i) \\
 &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|X_i) \\
 &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i; Y_i) \\
 &\leq nC
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 7.27. Converse of the Channel Coding Theorem

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Any sequence of $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes with $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$ must have $R \leq C$.

(See the Channel Coding Theorem, Theorem 7.23.)

Proof. $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$, so $P_e^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$ for any distribution of W . Consider the uniform distribution for W .

$$\begin{aligned}
 nR = H(W) &= H(W|Y^n) + I(W; Y^n) \\
 &\leq 1 + nRP_e^{(n)} + I(X^n; Y^n) && \text{(Fano's \& data-processing inequalities)} \\
 &\leq 1 + nRP_e^{(n)} + nC && \text{(Lemma 7.26)} \\
 P_e^{(n)} &\geq \frac{nR - nC - 1}{nR} = 1 - \frac{C}{R} - \frac{1}{nR}
 \end{aligned}$$

If $R > C$ then $P_e^{(n)} \not\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

□

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Theorem 7.28. Converse to Channel Coding Theorem (Review)

If we have $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes with $\lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$, then $R \leq C$.

Proof. Assume W is uniformly distributed over these 2^{nR} possible messages.
 $W \rightarrow X^n \rightarrow Y^n \rightarrow \hat{W}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 nR = H(W) &= \underbrace{H(W|\hat{W})}_{\substack{\text{bound} \\ \text{by Fano}}} + I(W; \hat{W}) \\
 &\leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} nR + I(X^n; Y^n) && \text{(by Data Processing Inequality)} \\
 nR &\leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} nR + nC \\
 P_e^{(n)} &\geq 1 - \frac{C}{R} - \frac{1}{nR}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 7.29.

So far our channel has looked like:

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{W} \rightarrow \text{Encoder} \xrightarrow{X^n} p(y|x) \xrightarrow{Y^n} \text{Decoder} \xrightarrow{\hat{W}} \\ C \equiv \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y) \end{array}$$

What if our channel has feedback? In other words, the receiver can communicate with the transmitter. Feedback is always immediate and error-free. Can we transmit at a higher rate than without feedback?

With feedback, our channel looks like:

$$\xrightarrow{W} \rightarrow \underbrace{\text{Encoder} \xrightarrow{X_i(W, Y^{i-1})} p(y|x)}_{\leftarrow} \xrightarrow{Y_i} \text{Decoder} \xrightarrow{\hat{W}}$$

$(2^{nR}, n)$ feedback code: a sequence of mappings $x_i(W, Y^{i-1})$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Decoder: $g : y^n \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, 2^{nR}\}$

Probability of Error: $P_e^{(n)} = \Pr [g(Y^n) \neq W]$

Direct: there exists a sequence of $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes ...

Converse:

$$\begin{aligned} nR &= H(W) = H(W|\hat{W}) + I(W; \hat{W}) \\ &\leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} nR + I(W; \hat{W}) && \text{(Fano's Inequality)} \\ &\leq 1 + P_e^{(n)} nR + I(W; Y^n) && W \rightarrow X^n \rightarrow Y^n \rightarrow \hat{W} \\ I(W; Y^n) &= H(Y^n) - H(Y^n|W) \\ &= H(Y^n) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}, W) \\ &= H(Y^n) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}, W, X_i) \\ &= H(Y^n) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|X_i) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n H(Y_i|X_i) \stackrel{?}{=} I(X; Y) \leq nC \end{aligned}$$

This says that for a discrete memoryless channel, feedback doesn't get you anything extra.

Remark 7.30.

$$\underbrace{\text{Source, } V}_{\substack{\text{stationary,} \\ \text{ergodic}}} \rightarrow \underbrace{H(V)}_{R \geq H(V)}$$

We have $nH(V)$ messages and $2^{nH(V)}$ codes. We can transmit a source provided that $H(V) < C$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Source, } V &\rightarrow \text{Encoder} \rightarrow p(y|x) \rightarrow \\ n \text{ outputs} &\rightarrow \text{Source Code} \rightarrow \text{Channel Code} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 7.31. Source-Channel Coding Theorem

If V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n is a finite alphabet stochastic process satisfying AEP (stationary and ergodic) with $H(V) < C$, then there exists a source-channel code with

$$\Pr [\hat{V}^n \neq V^n] \rightarrow 0$$

Conversely, for any source with $H(V) > C$, the probability of error is bounded away from zero.

Definition 7.32. Source-Channel Code

$$\begin{aligned} \xrightarrow{v^n = \{V_1, \dots, V_n\}} \text{Source Coding} &\rightarrow \text{Channel Coding} \xrightarrow{x^n(V^n)} p(y|x) \xrightarrow{Y^n} \text{Channel Coding} \rightarrow \text{Source Coding} \xrightarrow{\hat{V}^n} \\ \xrightarrow{V^n = \{V_1, \dots, V_n\}} \text{Encoder} &\xrightarrow{x^n(V^n)} p(y|x) \xrightarrow{Y^n} \text{Decoder} \xrightarrow{\hat{V}^n} \end{aligned}$$

Remark 7.33.

Need to show:

$$\Pr [\hat{V}^n \neq V^n] \rightarrow 0 \text{ implies } H(V) \leq C$$

$x^n(V^n)$ can be viewed as a function:

$$x^n(V^n) : V^n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^n$$

From Fano's Inequality we know the following:

$$H(v^n | \hat{V}^n) \leq 1 + \Pr [\hat{V}^n \neq V^n] n \log |\mathcal{V}|$$

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathcal{V}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{H(V_1, \dots, V_n)}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(V_n | V_1, \dots, V_{n-1}) \\ &\leq \frac{H(V_1, \dots, V_n)}{n} = \frac{H(V^n)}{n} = \frac{H(V^n | \hat{V}^n) + I(V^n; \hat{V}^n)}{n} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n} (1 + P_e n \log |\mathcal{V}|) + \frac{1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

$$V^n \rightarrow X^n \rightarrow Y^n \rightarrow \hat{V}^n$$

$$H(V) \leq \frac{1}{n} n + P_e \log |\mathcal{V}| + C \quad \rightarrow \quad P_e \log |\mathcal{V}| \geq H(V) - C - \frac{1}{n}$$

7.11 5-11-11

Example 7.34.

of information bits: 4
of parity check bits: 3

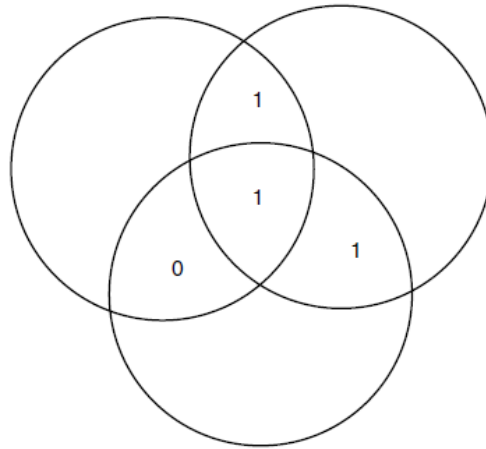


FIGURE 7.10. Venn diagram with information bits.

Definition 7.35. *Hamming Codes*

Codeword length: $n = 2^m - 1$

of information bits: $k = 2^m - m - 1$

of parity check bits: $m = n - k$

Error correcting capability: $t = 1$ (regardless of m)

Coding rate: $\frac{k}{n} = \frac{2^m - m - 1}{2^m - 1}$

\Rightarrow enlarging m gives a higher rate, but you can't correct as effectively

Example 7.36.

$$m = 3, n = 2^3 - 1 = 7, k = 4$$

The parity check matrix:

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A codeword $C = [C_1 \ C_2 \ \dots \ C_7]^T$ is one satisfying

$$HC = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ modulo } 2$$

number of codewords: $2^4 = 16$

List of the codewords:

0000000	0001111	0010110	0011001
0100101	0101010	0110011	0111100
1000011	1001100	1010101	1011010
1100110	1101001	1110000	1111111

The first 4 bits are the information bits, and the last 3 are the parity check bits.

Note that every codeword (except 0000000) has at least 3 ones. Thus, the *minimum weight* = 3. We cannot have 1 or 2 ones because all of the columns of H are different, and thus no two columns can add up to $[0 \ 0 \ 0]^T$. The *minimum distance* (the # of bits that differ) between any two codewords is $d = 3$. Note that the distance between any 2 codewords is also a codeword:

$$HC_1 = 0$$

$$HC_2 = 0$$

$$H(C_1 - C_2) = 0$$

Suppose that a codeword c is transmitted with an error:

$$c \rightarrow r = c + e_i \quad \text{where } e_i = [0 \ \dots \ \underbrace{1}_i \ 0 \ \dots \ 0]$$

$$Hr = Hc + He_i = \text{ith column of } H$$

The column of H that we end up with corresponds to the location of the error.

8 Differential Entropy

8.1 5-11-11

Definition 8.1. *Differential Entropy*

For a discrete r.v. X , $H(X) = -\sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$

For a continuous r.v. with PDF $f(x)$,

$$h(x) = -\int_S f(x) \log f(x) dx$$

where $S = \{x \mid f(x) > 0\} = \text{supp } x$

Example 8.2. *Uniform Distribution*

A random variable distributed uniformly from 0 to a , $X \sim \mu(0, a)$, is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{a} & x \in (0, a) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Its entropy is given by

$$h(x) = -\int_0^a \frac{1}{a} \log \frac{1}{a} dx = \log a.$$

Example 8.3. *Normal (Gaussian) Distribution*

A normally distributed random variable is given by

$$X \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \phi(x).$$

We calculate its entropy as

$$\begin{aligned} h(x) &= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) \ln \phi(x) dx = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) \left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} - \ln \sqrt{2\pi\sigma} \right) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) \frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} dx + \ln \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \ln \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \ln 2\pi\sigma^2 e \text{ nats} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi\sigma^2 e \text{ bits.} \end{aligned}$$

Remark 8.4.

For a fixed variance, a Gaussian distribution has the largest differential entropy.

Definition 8.5. Differential Entropy (Review)

$x \sim f$, support $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) > 0$

$$h(X) = h(f) = - \int_S f(x) \log f(x) dx$$

Uniform Distribution: $x \sim \mu(0, a) \Rightarrow h(X) = \log a$

Normal Distribution: $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) \Rightarrow h(X) = \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi e \sigma^2)$

Theorem 8.6. AEP for Continuous Random Variables

Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables $\sim f$. By the weak law of large numbers,

$$-\frac{1}{n} \log f(X_1, \dots, X_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[-\log f(x)] = h(X) \quad \text{in probability}$$

Definition 8.7. Typical Set $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$

For $\epsilon > 0$ and n , the *typical set* is

$$A_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in S^n \mid \left| -\frac{1}{n} \log f(x_1, \dots, x_n) - h(X) \right| \leq \epsilon \right\}$$

where $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1) \cdots f(x_n)$.

Theorem 8.8.

The typical set has the following properties:

1. $\Pr(A_\epsilon^{(n)}) > 1 - \epsilon$ for n sufficiently large
2. $\text{Vol}(A_\epsilon^{(n)}) \equiv \int_{A_\epsilon^{(n)}} dx_1 \cdots dx_n \leq 2^{n[h(X)+\epsilon]}$ for all n (this is the *volume* of the typical set)
3. $\text{Vol}(A_\epsilon^{(n)}) \geq (1 - \epsilon)2^{n[h(X)-\epsilon]}$ for n sufficiently large

Theorem 8.9.

The set $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ is the smallest volume set with probability $> 1 - \epsilon$ to the first order in the exponent (i.e. the $nh(X)$ term).

Remark 8.10.

Differential entropy can be negative. For example, $x \sim \mu(0, a)$, $a < 0$.

Remark 8.11.

The sequences in $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ are roughly equally likely, i.e. uniformly distributed.

Remark 8.12.

The differential entropy can be thought of as the log of the side length of the n -dimensional cube that is the typical set, where the volume of the typical set is

$$(2^{h(X)})^n \approx 2^{nh(X)}$$

Remark 8.13. Relationship Between Differential Entropy and Discrete Entropy

We can quantize a differential random variable by dividing the range of X into intervals of length Δ . By the Mean Value Theorem, there exists $x_i \in [i\Delta, (i+1)\Delta]$ such that

$$f(x_i)\Delta = \int_{i\Delta}^{(i+1)\Delta} f(x) dx$$

Consider the quantized random variable x^Δ defined as

$$x^\Delta = x_i \quad \text{if } x \in [i\Delta, (i+1)\Delta]$$

Then $\Pr [x^\Delta = x_i] = \int_{i\Delta}^{(i+1)\Delta} f(x) dx = f(x_i)\Delta$.

$$\begin{aligned} H(X^\Delta) &= - \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} p_i \log p_i = \sum_i f(x_i)\Delta \log(f(x_i)\Delta) = - \sum_i f(x_i)\Delta \log f(x_i) - \sum_i f(x_i)\Delta \log \Delta \\ &\xrightarrow{\Delta \rightarrow 0} - \int_x f(x) \log f(x) dx - \sum_i \left(\int_{i\Delta}^{(i+1)\Delta} f(x) dx \right) \log \Delta \\ &= h(X) - \log \Delta \\ h(X) &\approx H(X^\Delta) + \log \Delta \end{aligned}$$

Definition 8.14. Joint Entropy

Given $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, the *joint entropy* is

$$h(X_1, \dots, X_n) = - \int f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \log f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

Definition 8.15. Conditional Differential Entropy

Given $p(x|Y = y)$,

$$\begin{aligned} h(X|Y = y) &= - \int_y f(y) \int_x f(x|y) \log f(x|y) dx \\ &= - \int_{(x,y)} f(x, y) \log f(x|y) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

Definition 8.16. Relative Entropy (K-L Divergence)

$$D(f||g) = \int_x f(x) \log \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$$

Definition 8.17. Mutual Information

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= D(f(x, y) || f(x)f(y)) \\ &= \int f(x, y) \log \frac{f(x, y)}{f(x)f(y)} dx dy \\ &= h(Y) - h(Y|X) \\ &= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} I(X^\Delta, Y^\Delta) \\ &= \sup_{P, Q} I([X]_P; [Y]_Q) \end{aligned}$$

Example 8.18. Mutual Information between 2 Gaussian r.v.'s

$(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{k})$ where

$$\mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & \rho\sigma^2 \\ \rho\sigma^2 & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= h(X) + h(Y) - h(X, Y) \\ h(X) &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi e\sigma^2 = h(Y) \\ h(X, Y) &= \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi e)^2 |\mathbf{k}| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi e\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi e\sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2} (2\pi e)^2 \sigma^4 (1 - \rho^2) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \log(1 - \rho^2) \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 8.19.

Properties:

- $D(f||q) \geq 0$
- $I(X; Y) \geq 0$ with equality iff X, Y are independent
- $h(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n h(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n h(X_i)$
- $h(X + c) = h(X)$
- $h(\alpha X) = h(X) + \log |\alpha|$
- $h(\mathbf{A}X) = h(X) + \log |\det \mathbf{A}|$

Definition 8.20. Jointly Gaussian

X_1, \dots, X_n are jointly Gaussian if

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{K}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = [\mu_1 \ \dots \ \mu_n]^T = [\mathbb{E}(x_1) \ \dots \ \mathbb{E}(x_n)]^T$$

and

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T] = \{K_{i,j}\}_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$$

where $K_{i,j} = \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)]$.

Theorem 8.21.

$$h(\mathcal{N}(\mu, \mathbf{k})) = \frac{1}{2} \log((2\pi e)^n |\mathbf{k}|)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{N}(\mu, \mathbf{k}) &= - \int f(\mathbf{x}) \log f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \\
&= \int f(\mathbf{x}) \left(\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \mathbf{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu) \right) d\mathbf{x} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \mu)^T \mathbf{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{X} - \mu) \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i,j} (x_i - \mu_i) (\mathbf{k}^{-1})_{i,j} (x_j - \mu_j) \right] + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \mathbb{E} [(x_i - \mu_i) (x_j - \mu_j)] (\mathbf{k}^{-1})_{i,j} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} (\mathbf{k})_{i,j}^{-1} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \sum_i \mathbf{k}_{j,i} (\mathbf{k}^{-1})_{i,j} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_j (\mathbf{k} \mathbf{k}^{-1})_{jj} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{n}{2} + \log \left((\sqrt{2\pi})^n |\mathbf{k}|^{1/2} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \log \left((2\pi e)^n |\mathbf{k}| \right)
\end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 8.22. Connection to Linear Algebra

Hadamard's Inequality tells us that

$$|\mathbf{k}| \leq \prod_{i=1}^n k_{i,i}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
h(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \frac{1}{2} \log((2\pi e)^n |\mathbf{k}|) \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n h(X_i) = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi e k_{i,i} \\
|\mathbf{k}| &\leq \sum_i k_{i,i}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 8.23.

The Gaussian distribution maximizes entropy over all densities with the same variance. Specifically, if we have an n -dimensional vector \mathbf{x} with μ, \mathbf{k} , then

$$h(X) \leq \frac{1}{2} \log((2\pi e)^n |\mathbf{k}|)$$

with equality iff $x \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mu, \mathbf{k})$.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{x} \sim g$, $\phi \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \|\cdot\|)$. Then

$$\int g(\mathbf{x}) \log \phi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int \phi(\mathbf{x}) \log \phi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

We compute the K-L divergence between g and ϕ :

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq D(g||\phi) &= \int g \log \frac{g}{\phi} d\mathbf{x} \\ &= -h(g) - \int g \log \phi d\mathbf{x} \\ &= -h(g) + h(\phi) \\ h(g) &\leq h(\phi) \end{aligned}$$

□

9 Gaussian Channel

9.1 5-23-11

Definition 9.1. *Gaussian Channel*

The *Gaussian channel* accepts a sequence X_1, X_2, \dots of real numbers and produces an output of Y_i 's.

$$Y_i = X_i + Z_i, \quad Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, N)$$

Z_i 's are independent of each other and X_i 's.

Remark 9.2. *Power Constraint*

For any codeword (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) transmitted over the channel,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2(w) \leq P$$

Example 9.3. *One Way To Use Gaussian Channel*

$$x = \begin{cases} \sqrt{p} & \Pr \frac{1}{2} \\ -\sqrt{p} & \Pr \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}, \quad \hat{x} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{p} & Y > 0 \\ -\sqrt{p} & Y < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\text{error}) &= \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{Y \leq 0 \mid x = \sqrt{p}\} + \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{Y \geq 0 \mid x = -\sqrt{p}\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{Z \leq -\sqrt{p}\} + \frac{1}{2} \Pr \{Z \geq \sqrt{p}\} \\ &= \Pr \{Z \geq \sqrt{p}\} \\ &= 1 - \Phi \left(\sqrt{\frac{p}{n}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

Definition 9.4. Capacity (Continuous)

The *capacity (continuous)* of the Gaussian channel with power constraint P is

$$C = \max_{f_x(\cdot), \mathbb{E}x^2 \leq P} I(X; Y)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} I(X; Y) &= h(Y) - h(Y|X) = h(Y) - h(\underbrace{Y - X}_Z | X) \\ &= h(Y) - h(Z|X) \\ &= h(Y) - h(Z) \\ h(Z) &= \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi eN) \\ \mathbb{E}Y^2 &= \mathbb{E}(X + Z)^2 = \mathbb{E}X^2 + 2\mathbb{E}(XZ) + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}Z^2}_N \leq P + N \\ I(X; Y) &\leq \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi e(P + N)) - \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi eN) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{P + N}{N}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log\left(1 + \frac{P}{N}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \max_{f_x, \mathbb{E}X^2 \leq P} I(X; Y) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log\left(1 + \frac{P}{N}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 9.5.

An (M, n) code for the Gaussian channel with power constraint P consists of

- An encoding function $x : \{1, 2, \dots, M\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ yielding codewords $X^n(1), X^n(2), \dots, X^n(M)$ satisfying the power constraint P , i.e. for every $x^n(w) = (x_1(w), \dots, x_n(w))$,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2(w) \leq P, \quad w = 1, 2, \dots, M$$

- A decoding function $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$. The *rate* of the code is

$$R = \frac{\log M}{n} \text{ bits per transmission}$$

The *probability of error* given message W is

$$\lambda_w = \Pr \{g(Y^n) \neq W \mid X^n = X^n(w)\}$$

The *average probability of error* is

$$P_e(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{w=1}^M \lambda_w$$

The *maximum probability of error* is

$$\lambda^{(n)} = \max_{w=1,2,\dots,M} \lambda_w$$

Definition 9.6. Achievable

The rate R is *achievable* if there exists a sequence of $(2^{nR}, n)$ codes such that

$$\lambda^{(n)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Theorem 9.7. Capacity of a Gaussian Channel

The capacity of a Gaussian channel with power constraint P and noise variance N is:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right) \text{ bits per transmission}$$

Proof. (Achievability)

Given $\epsilon > 0$, we have the jointly typical set $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$ with respect to the density of $f(x, y)$:

$$A_\epsilon^{(n)} = \left\{ (x^n, y^n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n : \begin{aligned} & \left| -\frac{1}{n} \log f_{X^n}(x^n) - h(X) \right| < \epsilon \\ & \left| -\frac{1}{n} \log f_{Y^n}(y^n) - h(Y) \right| < \epsilon \\ & \left| -\frac{1}{n} \log f_{X^n, Y^n}(x^n, y^n) - h(X, Y) \right| < \epsilon \end{aligned} \right\}$$

where $f_{X^n, Y^n}(x^n, y^n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, y_i)$.

Let \mathcal{C} be a $(2^{nR}, n)$ code, and $X^n(W) = (X_1(W), \dots, X_n(W))$ be the codeword corresponding to message W . If Y is received and there is a unique W^* for which $(X^n(W^*), Y^n) \in A_\epsilon^{(n)}$, then the decoder's estimate is W^* . An error occurs if:

- $X^n(W)$ does not satisfy the power constraint P
- $(X^n(W), Y^n)$ is not jointly typical
- $(X^n(W^*), Y^n)$ is jointly typical and $W^* \neq W$

We define the events

$$E_0 = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2(1) > P \right\}$$

$$E_W = \left\{ (X^n(W), Y^n) \in A_\epsilon^{(n)} \right\}$$

Thus, the average probability of error is

$$P_e = \Pr \{ E_0 \cup E_1^C \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_{2^{nR}} \}$$

By the Law of Large Numbers, for large n we have that

$$P(E_0) \leq \epsilon$$

where $X_1^2(1), X_2^2(1), \dots, X_n^2(1)$ are i.i.d. with mean $P - \epsilon$ if we choose $X_i(W) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, P - \epsilon)$. By property (1) of $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$, we have that $\Pr \{ E_1^C \} \leq \epsilon$ for large n . ($\Pr \{ E_1 \} \geq 1 - \epsilon$, Theorem 7.69.) By property (2) of $A_\epsilon^{(n)}$,

$$P(E_W) \leq 2^{-n[I(X;Y)-3\epsilon]}, \quad w \geq 2$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} P_e^{(n)} &\leq \epsilon + \epsilon + \sum_{w=2}^{2^{nR}} 2^{-n[I(X;Y)-3\epsilon]} \\ &\leq 2\epsilon + (2^{nR} - 1)2^{-n[I(X;Y)-3\epsilon] \rightarrow -n[I(X;Y)-R-3\epsilon]} \\ &\leq 2\epsilon + (2^{nR} - 1)2^{-n[I(X;Y)-R-3\epsilon]} \end{aligned}$$

This probability will go to zero if

$$\begin{aligned} -(R + 3\epsilon) + I(X; Y) &> 0 \\ R &< I(X; Y) - 3\epsilon \\ R &< I(X; Y) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $R < I(X; Y) \Rightarrow P_e^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$.

To show that the maximum probability of error, we use the “throw half of the codes away” trick that we have used in the past. \square

9.2 5-25-11

Continuing from last time, we want to prove that if $R > C$ then $P_e^{(n)} \not\rightarrow 0$. Equivalently, we want to prove that $P_e^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$ implies that $R \leq C$.

Proof. Assume that we have a $(2^{nR}, n)$ codebook that satisfies the power constraint:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2(u) \leq P \quad \forall w$$

Our scheme looks like:

$$W \rightarrow X^n(W) \rightarrow Y^n(W) \rightarrow \hat{W}$$

Fano's Inequality gives us that

$$H(W|\hat{W}) \leq 1 + nRP_e^{(n)} = n\epsilon_n$$

where $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ because $P_e^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} nR &= H(W) = I(W; \hat{W}) + H(W|\hat{W}) \\ &\leq I(W; \hat{W}) + n\epsilon_n \\ &\leq I(W; Y^n) + n\epsilon_n \\ &\leq I(X^n; Y^n) + n\epsilon_n \\ &= h(Y^n) - h(Y^n|X^n) + n\epsilon_n \\ &= h(Y^n) - h(Z^n) + n\epsilon_n \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n (h(Y_i) - h(Z_i)) + n\epsilon_n \end{aligned}$$

We have that

$$P_i = \mathbb{E}x_i^2 = \frac{1}{2^{nR}} \sum_{w=1}^{2^{nR}} x_i^2(w)$$

Also,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum P_i \leq P$$

We compute the expectation value of Y_i^2 :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}Y_i^2 &= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}X_i^2}_{\rightarrow P_i} + 2\underbrace{\mathbb{E}X_i Z_i}_{\rightarrow N} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}Z_i^2}_{\rightarrow N} \\ &= P_i + N \\ nR &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N} \right) \right) + n\epsilon_n \\ R &\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N} \right) \right) + \epsilon_n \end{aligned} \tag{9.1}$$

The power constraint is that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_i X^2 &< P \quad \forall W \\ \mathbb{E}_W \mathbb{E}_i X^2 &< P \\ \mathbb{E}_i \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_W X^2}_{P_i} &< P \end{aligned}$$

Continuing from (9.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} R &\leq \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{P_i}{N} \right) + \epsilon_n \\ &\leq \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right)}_C + \epsilon_n \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $R \leq C + \epsilon_n$. Therefore, if $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ then $R \leq C$. □

9.2.1 Shannon Limit for Gaussian Channel

Definition 9.8. *SNR for a Code Symbol*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P}{2N} &\triangleq \text{SNR for a Code Symbol} \\ \gamma_G(R) &= \frac{P}{2NR} = \text{Source-bit SNR} \end{aligned}$$

Remark 9.9.

For reliable communication, we know that

$$\begin{aligned} R &\leq C = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log (1 + 2R\gamma_G) \\ R &\leq \frac{1}{2} \log (1 + 2R\gamma_G) \\ \gamma_G &\geq \frac{2^{2R} - 1}{2R} \end{aligned}$$

9.2.2 Parallel Gaussian Channels

Remark 9.10.

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_j &= X_j + Z_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, k, \quad Z_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, N_j) \\
 \mathbb{E} \sum_{j=1}^k X_j^2 &\leq P \\
 C &= \max_{f(\cdot) \mathbb{E} X^2 \leq P} I(X_1, \dots, X_k; Y_1, \dots, Y_k) \\
 &= h(Y_1, \dots, Y_k) - h(Y_1, \dots, Y_k | X_1, \dots, X_k) \\
 &= h(Y_1, \dots, Y_k) - h(Z_1, \dots, Z_k) \\
 &\leq \sum_{i=1}^k h(Y_i) - h(Z_i) \\
 &\leq \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N_i} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

where $P_i = \mathbb{E} X_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=1}^k P_i \leq P$ (power constraint). For the optimization problem, Lagrangian multipliers give us

$$\begin{aligned}
 J(P_1, \dots, P_k) &= \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N_i} \right) + \lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^k P_i - P \right) \\
 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{P_i + N_i} + \lambda &= 0 \\
 P_i &= \nu - N_i
 \end{aligned}$$

This is sometimes referred to as *water-filling*.

Definition 9.11. Kuhn-Tucker Conditions

The *Kuhn-Tucker conditions* can be used to verify that

$$P_i = (\nu \cdot N_i)^+$$

is the solution that maximizes capacity (where the superscript “+” denotes nonnegative), with ν chosen so that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k (\nu - N_i)^+ = P.$$

This means that we favor channels with lower noise (see Figure 9.4 on page 277 (303)).

Remark 9.12.

Consider the following optimization problem: maximize $f(\mathbf{x})$ subject to $g_j(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$, $j = 1, \dots, k$, where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is concave and $g_j : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex.

Theorem 9.13. The Lagrangian

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j g_j(\mathbf{x})$$

Let x^* be a feasible point (satisfies the constraint g). Suppose $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$:

$$\nabla L(x^*) = 0$$

$\lambda_j \geq 0 \forall j$ and $\lambda_j = 0$ if $g_j(x^*) < 0$. Then x^* solves the maximization problem.

Lemma 9.14.

If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is concave and $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{y}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T$$

For a convex function g , we have

$$g(\mathbf{x}) \geq g(\mathbf{y}) + \nabla g(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T$$

Proof. (of Theorem 9.13)

Assume \mathbf{x} is a feasible point, i.e. $g_j(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0 \forall j$. Then from Lemma 9.14,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}) &\leq f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^T \\ g_j(\mathbf{x}) &\geq g_j(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla g_j(\mathbf{x}^*)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^T \\ L(\mathbf{x}^*) &= f(\mathbf{x}^*) - \sum \lambda_j g_j(\mathbf{x}^*) \\ \nabla L(\mathbf{x}^*) &= \mathbf{0} \\ \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) &= \sum \lambda_j \nabla g_j(\mathbf{x}^*) \\ f(\mathbf{x}) &\leq f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^T \\ &\leq f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \sum \lambda_j (g_j(\mathbf{x}) - g_j(\mathbf{x}^*)) \\ &\leq f(\mathbf{x}^*) - \underbrace{\sum \lambda_j}_{\geq 0} g_j(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^*) \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 9.15.

$$f(\mathbf{P}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N} \right)$$

$$g_0(\mathbf{P}) = \sum P_j - P \leq 0$$

$$g_j(\mathbf{P}) = -P_j \leq 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, k$$

9.3 6-1-11

Remark 9.16. *Course & Final Info*

We can pick up the homework on Friday outside her office.

Office hours Tuesday 5-6.

2.5 standard problems (capacity, entropy, Huffman code, etc.), 1.5 tricky problems.

Remark 9.17. *Review of the Gaussian System*

$$Y = X + Z, \quad Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, N)$$

For the problem to be well-posed, we have the constraint

$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] \leq P$$

We know that the capacity is

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N} \right)$$

$\frac{P}{N} = \text{SNR} = \text{Signal to Noise Ratio}$

Remark 9.18. Review of Parallel Gaussian Channels

We have k independent channels:

$$Y_1 = X_1 + Z_1, \dots, Y_k = X_k + Z_k, \quad Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, N_i)$$

The power constraint here is

$$\mathbb{E} \sum_{i=1}^k X_i^2 \leq P$$

For any given power allocation P_1, \dots, P_k with $P_1 + \dots + P_k = P$, then

$$C(P_1, \dots, P_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N_i} \right)$$

We want to maximize $C(P_1, \dots, P_k)$ subject to the constraint $\sum P_i \leq P$. We can do this with Lagrange multipliers:

$$J(P_1, \dots, P_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_i}{N_i} \right) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^k P_i$$

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial P_i} = 0$$

$$0 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{P_i + N_i} + \lambda$$

$$P_i + N_i = \nu$$

$$P_i = (\nu - N_i)^+$$

Definition 9.19. Bandlimited Channel

A *bandlimited channel* cuts out all frequencies greater than its *bandwidth*, W .

$$\underbrace{X(t)}_{P \text{ Watts}} \rightarrow \underbrace{Z(t)}_{\oplus} \rightarrow \underbrace{H(f)}_{\text{bandpass filter}} \rightarrow Y(t)$$

We can model the bandpass filter as a convolution with $h(t)$, giving us:

$$\underbrace{Y(t)}_{\substack{\text{bandlimited} \\ \text{time-limited in } T}} = (X(t) + Z(t)) * h(t) = \underbrace{X(t) * h(t)}_{\substack{\text{bandlimited} \\ \text{time-limited in } T}} + \underbrace{Z(t) * h(t)}_{\substack{\text{bandlimited} \\ \text{time-limited in } T}}$$

We can convert this to a discrete signal with $2WT$ samples (Nyquist). Thus, we have

$$Y_i = X_i + N_i$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{P_{\text{sample}}}{N_{\text{sample}}} \right)$$

where

$$P_{\text{sample}} = \frac{PT}{2TW} = \frac{P}{2W}$$

$$N_{\text{sample}} = \frac{N_0WT}{2TW} = \frac{N_0}{2}$$

$$\text{power spectral density} \triangleq \frac{N_0}{2} \text{ watts/hertz}$$

$$\text{bandwidth} \triangleq W \text{ hertz}$$

So the capacity of a bandlimited channel is

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \frac{P}{N_0} \frac{WN_0}{P} \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N_0W} \right) \\ &= W \log \left(1 + \frac{P}{N_0W} \right) \text{ bits/second} \end{aligned}$$

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