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Peres 位元亂數產生演算法及其串流版本之分析 Analysis of Peres＇algorithm and its streaming versions for random number generation

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# 國立臺灣大學博士學位論文口試委員會審定書 

Peres 位元亂數產生演算法及其串流版本之分析
Analysis of Peres＇algorithm and its streaming versions for random number generation

本論文係林昭京君（D02621201）在國立臺灣大學農藝學研究所完成之博士學位論文，於民國109年12月21日承下列考試委員審查通過及口試及格，特此證明

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## 摘要

對於利用投擲 $p$－偏銅板來產生獨立無偏的位元亂數，馮•諾伊曼（1951）提出了簡單的演算法，雖然這個演算法並非有效率地用上 $p$－偏銅板所蕴含的資訊摘，然而 Peres（1992）提出可疊代使用上述演算法，並證明了這樣的疊代演算法的亂數產生效率無限趨近於 $p$－偏銅板的資訊摘上界。確切來說，Peres證明了 $\frac{1}{n} b(n, p)$ 均匀（於 $p \in(0,1)$ ）收敛到 $h(p)$ ，其中 $b(n, p)$ 為 Peres 演算法應用於 $n$次 $p$－偏銅板投擲結果 $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ 所產生的獨立無偏位元亂數個數的期望值，而 $h(p)=-p \log p-(1-p) \log (1-p)$ 是單次 $p$－偏銅板投擲的資訊摘。我們考慮了 $b(n, p)$ 的二階行為，即 $n h(p)-b(n, p)$ 於 $n$ 趨近於無窮大時的漸近行為。在 $p=\frac{1}{2}$下，我們得到了 $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \log \left[n-b\left(n, \frac{1}{2}\right)\right] / \log n=\log \left[\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right]$ 這樣的結果。我們也扼要地討論了當 $n h(p)-b(n, p)$ 在 $n$ 䞹近於無窮大時關於其行為的一些待解決問題。Peres 演算法在原來被提出時並非為串流演算法（streaming algorithm），亦即 $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ 所產生的亂數一般上並不一定會全被排在由 $X_{n+1}$ 所產生的亂數之前。我們介紹了 Peres 演算法的二元樹表示，也進一步介紹了一類由二元樹上節點的排序所決定的 Peres 演算法的串流版本。在一般二元樹節點的排序下，Peres演算法的串流版本並不會產生無偏的位元亂數列，然而在特定的排序下，我們證明了這樣的串流版本所產生的位元亂數列是無偏的。

關鍵字：資訊摘，演算法分析，Elias 提取器，Peres 提取器，馮•諾伊曼提取器，超可加性，串流演算法，狀態樹

## Abstract

von Neumann (1951) introduced a simple algorithm for generating independent and unbiased random bits by tossing a coin of unknown bias $p$. While his algorithm fails to attain the entropy bound, Peres (1992) showed that the entropy bound can be attained asymptotically by iterating von Neumann's algorithm. Specifically, Peres showed that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} b(n, p)=h(p)$ uniformly in $p \in(0,1)$, where $b(n, p)$ denotes the expected number of unbiased output bits generated when Peres' algorithm is applied to an input sequence $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ with $X_{i}$ being the outcome of the $i$ th coin toss, and $h(p)=-p \log p-(1-$ p) $\log (1-p)$ (the Shannon entropy of each $X_{i}$ ). We consider the (second-order) behavior of $n h(p)-b(n, p)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. For $p=\frac{1}{2}$, it is shown that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \log \left[n-b\left(n, \frac{1}{2}\right)\right] / \log n=$ $\log \left[\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right]$. Some open problems on the asymptotic behavior of $n h(p)-b(n, p)$ are briefly discussed. The original Peres' algorithm is not streaming in the sense that some of the output bits generated from $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ (the first $n$ coin tosses) may be placed after the output bits induced by $X_{n+1}$. We introduce a binary tree representation of Peres' algorithm,
based on which we further introduce a class of streaming versions of Peres ${ }^{*}$ algorithmin terms of orderings of the nodes of the binary tree. We show by example that ingeneral a streaming version of Peres' algorithm fails to generate unbiased output bits. However, based on a special node ordering, the corresponding streaming version of Peres' algorithm is shown to be unbiased.

Keywords: entropy, analysis of algorithms, Elias' extractor, Peres' extractor, von Neumann's extractor, superadditivity, streaming algorithm, status tree

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$$
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$$
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& \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})=00001
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 3.3 An example of Zhou-Bruck $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}, 1,0\}$-labeled status trees $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{i}}$, $i=1, \ldots, 8$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_{8}=$ TTTHTHHH. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 58

# Chapter 1 Introduction 

## 1.1 von Neumann's algorithm

In his seminal work [26], von Neumann introduced a simple algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ (also known as an extractor) for generating independent unbiased random bits by tossing a (possibly) biased coin of unknown bias. (A random bit is said to be unbiased if its value is 0 or 1 with equal probability.) Specifically, for $i=1,2, \ldots$, let $X_{i} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ denote the outcome of the $i$ th toss of the coin, where H and T stand for heads and tails, respectively. Assume that the input sequence $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right)$ is independent and identically distributed (iid) with $\mathbb{P}\left(X_{i}=\mathrm{H}\right)=p=1-\mathbb{P}\left(X_{i}=\mathrm{T}\right)$ where the bias $p \in(0,1)$ is unknown. (The coin is unbiased if $p=1 / 2$.) The algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ divides $\boldsymbol{X}$ into pairs $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right),\left(X_{3}, X_{4}\right), \ldots$, discards those pairs of equal values, and then generates an infinite Bernoulli sequence $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ whose $i$ th bit is either a 1 or a 0 according as the $i$ th pair of unequal values is HT or TH. It is readily seen that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ consists of iid unbiased bits.

Let $\mathscr{A}$ denote a generic algorithm that generates independent unbiased bits from the sequence $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right)$. Let $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ denote the set of unbiased bits generated by $\mathscr{A}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$, the outcomes of the first $n$ tosses. Denote by $\left|\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ the cardinality of $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, which is an integer-valued random variable whose distribution
depends on $n$ and $p$. We say that $\mathscr{A}$ is nested if $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n_{1}}\right) \subset \mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n_{2}}\right)$ whenever $n_{1}<n_{2}$. We write $X \sim \operatorname{binomial}(n, p)$ if a random variable $X$ has the binomial distribution with parameters $n$ and $p$. Then given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell$, the $\ell$ bits generated by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{yN}}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ are (conditionally) independent unbiased. Moreover, $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \sim$ binomial $\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor, 2 p q\right)$, where $q=1-p$ and $\lfloor x\rfloor$ denotes the largest integer not exceeding $x$. When $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ is applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$, the expected number of unbiased bits generated per toss equals $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n=2 p q\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor / n$, which converges to $p q$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where the subscript $p$ in $\mathbb{E}_{p}$ refers to the bias of each $X_{i}$. Note that $p q$ is less than the entropy bound $h(p):=$ $-p \log p-q \log q$ (the Shannon entropy of each $X_{i}$ ), where $\log =\log _{2}$ (the logarithm to base 2). This indicates that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ does not make efficient use of information contained in $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ It is also worth noting that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ is nested.

### 1.2 Elias' algorithm

To improve the efficiency, Elias [5] presented a more sophisticated algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ which generates unbiased bits from $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ by partitioning $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$ (the set of all possible realizations of $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ ) into disjoint subsets $S_{n, k}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}:|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}}=k\right\}$, $k=0,1, \ldots, n$, with $|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}}$ and $|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{T}}$ being respectively the number of H 's and the number of T's in $\boldsymbol{x}$. Write $\left|S_{n, k}\right|=\binom{n}{k}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{\left\lfloor\log \binom{n}{k}\right\rfloor} c_{\ell} 2^{\ell}$ with $c_{\ell} \in\{0,1\}$ (binary representation of $\binom{n}{k}$ ). Then each $S_{n, k}$ is further partitioned as $S_{n, k}=\bigcup_{\left\{\ell: c_{\ell}=1\right\}} S_{n, k, \ell}$, where $\left|S_{n, k, \ell}\right|=2^{\ell}$ for each $\ell$ with $c_{\ell}=1$. Specify an assignment of $2^{\ell} \operatorname{distinct}$ (output) sequences of $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ to the $2^{\ell}$ distinct sequences of $S_{n, k, \ell}$, so that if $\boldsymbol{X}_{n} \in S_{n, k, \ell}$, then an output sequence of $\ell$ bits is generated according to the assignment. While a naive implementation of Elias' algorithm requires an exponential memory size to make a table of assignment of output sequences, Ryabko and Matchikina [22] provided an efficient method to construct an assignment with
much reduced memory size and running time. Note that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ is not nested. In fact, when $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ is applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$, all of $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ need to be observed before unbiased bits are generated. To show that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ attains the entropy bound asymptotically, Elias [5, equation (15)] proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} p^{k} q^{n-k} \log \binom{n}{k}-3 \leq \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} p^{k} q^{n-k} \log \binom{n}{k} . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Letting $\mathcal{H}(Z)$ denote the Shannon entropy of a random variable $Z$ and noting that $|\boldsymbol{X}|_{\mathrm{H}} \sim$ $\operatorname{binomial}(n, p)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
n h(p)-\mathcal{H}\left(|\boldsymbol{X}|_{\mathrm{H}}\right) & =-n p \log p-n q \log q+\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} p^{k} q^{n-k} \log \left[\binom{n}{k} p^{k} q^{n-k}\right] \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} p^{k} q^{n-k} \log \binom{n}{k},
\end{aligned}
$$

from which it follows that (1.1) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H}\left(|\boldsymbol{X}|_{\mathrm{H}}\right) \leq n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \leq \mathcal{H}\left(|\boldsymbol{X}|_{\mathrm{H}}\right)+3 . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\mathcal{H}\left(|\boldsymbol{X}|_{\mathrm{H}}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \log n+\frac{1}{2} \log e+\log \sqrt{2 \pi p q}+O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)(c f$. [8]), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\frac{1}{2} \log n+O(1) . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n=h(p)$. Later Pae and Loui [19] established the exact optimality of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ that for any algorithm $\mathscr{A}, \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \geq \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ for all $p \in(0,1)$ and $n \geq 1$.

### 1.3 Peres' algorithm

While $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ fails to attain the entropy bound asymptotically, Peres [20] pointed out that the entropy bound can be attained asymptotically by iterating $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$. To describe Peres’ ingenious idea, let $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be decomposed into three infinite Bernoulli sequences $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X}), \lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$, and $\rho(\boldsymbol{X})$, where the $i$ th bit of $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$ is T or H according as the $i$ th pair $\left(X_{2 i-1}, X_{2 i}\right)$ is of equal values or of unequal values, and the $i$ th bit of $\rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ is the common value of the $i$ th pair of equal values. As an example, let

$$
x=\text { THHTHНTTHTTT } \cdots=\text { TH HT HH TT HT TT } \cdots
$$

Then

$$
\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\operatorname{HHTTHT} \cdots, \quad \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\text { HTT } \cdots, \quad \text { and } \quad \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=011 \cdots .
$$

(Here and below, we take the convention that capital $\boldsymbol{X}$ denotes a random sequence and lower case $\boldsymbol{x}$ is a realization.) It is readily seen that (i) $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ are mutually independent, (ii) $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ are each an iid Bernoulli sequence with respective biases $f_{\lambda}(p):=2 p q, f_{\rho}(p):=p^{2} /\left(p^{2}+q^{2}\right)$ and $1 / 2$, (iii) $\boldsymbol{X}$ can be recovered from $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$, implying that they together contain all information in $\boldsymbol{X}$. The first iteration of Peres' algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ yields $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$. Letting $\psi=\lambda$ or $\rho$, on the second iteration of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}, \psi(\boldsymbol{X})(=\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$ or $\rho(\boldsymbol{X}))$ is further decomposed into three iid Bernoulli sequences $\lambda(\psi(\boldsymbol{X})), \rho(\psi(\boldsymbol{X}))$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\psi(\boldsymbol{X}))$ with respective biases $f_{\lambda}\left(f_{\psi}(p)\right), f_{\rho}\left(f_{\psi}(p)\right)$ and $1 / 2$. Thus, after 2 iterations, there are $7\left(=2^{3}-1\right)$ Bernoulli sequences, $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X}), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\rho(\boldsymbol{X})), \lambda(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}))$, $\lambda(\rho(\boldsymbol{X})), \rho(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}))$, and $\rho(\rho(\boldsymbol{X}))$. The first three have bias $1 / 2$. More generally, after $\eta$
iterations ( $\eta=1,2, \ldots$ ), there are $2^{\eta+1}-1$ Bernoulli sequences, $2^{\eta}-1$ of which have bias $1 / 2$. We refer to the $2^{\eta}-1$ Bernoulli sequences having bias $1 / 2$ as unbiased Bernoulli sequences, and refer to the other $2^{\eta}$ Bernoulli sequences as biased Bernoulli sequences. Note that the $2^{\eta+1}-1$ Bernoulli sequences are all mutually independent, from which $\boldsymbol{X}$ can be recovered.

We now consider the finite setting where only the first $n$ terms of the infinite (input) sequence $\boldsymbol{X}$ are available. Let $\psi=\lambda$ or $\rho$ or $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$. Then $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$, the subsequence of $\boldsymbol{X}$ consisting of the first $n$ terms, induces a finite sequence $\psi\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ consisting of the first $n_{\psi}$ terms of $\psi(\boldsymbol{X})$ for some $n_{\psi}$. Specifically, $n_{\lambda}=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$, i.e. $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ consists of the first $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ terms of $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$. Moreover, $n_{\rho}=\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}$ and $n_{\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}}=\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}$. We have $n_{\lambda}=n_{\rho}+n_{\mathscr{A} l_{\mathrm{N}}}=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor, n_{\rho} \sim \operatorname{binomial}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor, p^{2}+q^{2}\right)$ and $n_{\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{N}}} \sim \operatorname{binomial}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor, 2 p q\right)$. While the infinite sequences $\psi(\boldsymbol{X}), \psi=\lambda, \rho, \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$, are mutually independent, the subsequences $\psi\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ 's are no longer independent. However, it is readily seen that, given the value of $n_{\mathscr{A}_{\mathbb{N}}}$, the bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ are (conditionally) independent unbiased. In fact, given the values of the bits in $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ and $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, the bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ remain (conditionally) independent unbiased. Furthermore, for even $n, \boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ can be recovered from $\psi\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \psi=\lambda$, $\rho, \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$, but for odd $n$, the last term of $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ cannot be recovered, resulting in a loss of information. After $\eta$ iterations ( $\eta=1,2, \ldots$ ), $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ induces a (possibly empty) subsequence of each of the $2^{\eta+1}-1$ infinite Bernoulli sequences as decomposed from $\boldsymbol{X}$.

For $\eta=1,2, \ldots$, let $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ denote the total collection of unbiased bits after $\eta$ iterations. Then $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, 1}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ and $\eta \geq 2$, we have the following recursion

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right) * \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right) * \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right), \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $*$ is the concatenation (binary) operator defined by $d * \emptyset=\emptyset * d=d$ and $d_{1} * d_{2}=$ $d_{1} d_{2}$. Since after $\lfloor\log n\rfloor$ iterations, the longest biased subsequence has length 1, no more unbiased bits can be produced by further iteration. We have $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \operatorname{tog} n}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ for $\eta \geq\lfloor\log n\rfloor$. Let $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P},\lfloor\log n\rfloor}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right) * \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right) * \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right) . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider again the example where $\boldsymbol{x}=$ THHTHHTTHTTT $\cdots$. For $n=12$, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, 1}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{12}\right)=011, \quad \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, 2}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{12}\right)=01111, \quad \text { and } \\
\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{12}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, 3}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{12}\right)=011111 .
\end{gathered}
$$

It is shown in Peres [20] that (i) for each $\eta$, given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell$, the $\ell$ bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ are independent unbiased, (ii) the rates $r_{\eta}(p):=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n$ satisfy $r_{1}(p)=$ $p q$ and the recursion

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{\eta}(p)=p q+\frac{1}{2} r_{\eta-1}(2 p q)+\frac{1}{2}\left(p^{2}+q^{2}\right) r_{\eta-1}\left(\frac{p^{2}}{p^{2}+q^{2}}\right) \quad \text { for } \eta \geq 2 \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and (iii) $r_{\eta}(p)$ increases as $\eta \rightarrow \infty$ to $h(p)$ uniformly in $p \in(0,1)$. As a consequence, $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n \rightarrow h(p)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, showing that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ attains the entropy bound asymptotically. Moreover, $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ is nested.

### 1.4 Binary tree representation of Peres' algorithm

It is instructive to describe the iterations of Peres' algorithm via a rooted (infinite) complete binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ which is identified with a sequence of nodes $\left(\nu_{1}, \nu_{10}, \nu_{11}, \nu_{100}, \nu_{101}, \ldots\right)$.

Here $\nu_{1}$ is the root node, whose left and right child nodes are denoted by $\nu_{10}$ and $\nu_{11}$, respectively. More generally, for $u=b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{\eta}$ (a string of $\eta$ bits with $b_{1}=1$ and $\eta \geq 1$ ), the node $\nu_{u}$ has two (left and right) child nodes denoted by $\nu_{u 0}$ and $\nu_{u 1}$. It is also convenient to identify $u=b_{1} \ldots b_{\eta}$, with the positive integer $v=\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} b_{i} 2^{\eta-i}$ and write $\nu_{u}=\nu_{(v)}$. Thus we have $\left(\nu_{1}, \nu_{10}, \nu_{11}, \nu_{100}, \ldots\right)=\left(\nu_{(1)}, \nu_{(2)}, \nu_{(3)}, \nu_{(4)}, \ldots\right)$. It is readily seen that $\nu_{(v)}$ has two (left and right) child nodes denoted by $\nu_{(2 v)}$ and $\nu_{(2 v+1)}$, respectively.

We now describe Peres' algorithm as follows. The input (finite or infinite) sequence $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right)$ arrives at the root node $\nu_{1}$, which is decomposed into $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$. The first two sequences $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ become the (derived or induced) input sequences at node $\nu_{10}$ and $\nu_{11}$, respectively, while $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is the output sequence at $\nu_{1}$. On the second iteration of Peres' algorithm, the input sequence $\lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$ at $\nu_{10}$ is decomposed into $\lambda(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}))=\lambda^{2}(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}))=\rho \lambda(\boldsymbol{X})$, and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}))$, which become, respectively, the input sequence at node $\nu_{100}$, the input sequence at node $\nu_{101}$, and the output sequence at node $\nu_{10}$. Similarly, the input sequence $\rho(\boldsymbol{X})$ at node $\nu_{11}$ is decomposed into $\lambda(\rho(\boldsymbol{X}))=\lambda \rho(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho(\rho(\boldsymbol{X}))=\rho^{2}(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\rho(\boldsymbol{X}))$, which become, respectively, the input sequence at node $\nu_{110}$, the input sequence at node $\nu_{111}$, and the output sequence at $\nu_{11}$. More generally, on the $\eta$ th iteration ( $\eta \geq 2$ ), the input sequence $\psi_{b_{\eta}} \ldots \psi_{b_{2}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{\eta}}$ where $\psi_{b_{i}}=\lambda$ or $\rho$ according as $b_{i}=0$ or 1 , is decomposed into $\lambda \psi_{b_{\eta}} \ldots \psi_{b_{2}}(\boldsymbol{X}), \rho \psi_{b_{\eta}} \ldots \psi_{b_{2}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\psi_{b_{\eta}} \ldots \psi_{b_{2}}(\boldsymbol{X})\right)$, which become, respectively, the input sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{\eta}}$, the input sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{\eta} 1}$, and the output sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{\eta}}$. See Figure 1.1.


Figure 1.1: Binary tree representation of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$.

### 1.5 Brief literature review

In addition to the papers mentioned earlier, a number of papers in the literature also discuss von Neumann's problem or related problems. Hoeffding and Simons [7] considered the problem of generating an unbiased bit by a stopping time when $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ (the outcomes from repeatedly tossing a coin of unknown bias $p$ ) are observed sequentially. Note that this problem may be referred to as in the variable-to-fixed length regime as opposed to the fixed-to-variable length regime where the number of input bits is fixed and the number of output bits is random. (In particular, Elias' algorithm is in the fixed-to-variable length regime.) More specifically, their problem is to find an algorithm consisting of a stopping time $\tau$ and a function $f:\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, where $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}=\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty}\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$, such that

$$
\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(f\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{\tau}\right)=0\right)=\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(f\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{\tau}\right)=1\right)=\frac{1}{2}, \quad \text { for all } p \in(0,1)
$$

The objective is to choose $\tau$ such that $\mathbb{E}_{p} \tau$ is as small as possible for all $p$. Note that the stopping time $\tau_{\mathrm{vN}}$ corresponding to von Neumann's algorithm is $\tau_{\mathrm{vN}}=2 \inf \left\{n: X_{2 n-1} \neq\right.$
$\left.X_{2 n}\right\}$ for which $\mathbb{E}_{p} \tau_{\mathrm{vN}}=1 / p q \geq 4$. Dwass [4] and Bernard and Letac [1] considered a more general problem of generating an $r$-valued equiprobable random variable by an . algorithm involving a stopping time when $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ are iid with an unknown discrete distribution. By representing algorithms in terms of trees, Stout and Warren [25] were able to improve the algorithms in Hoeffding and Simons [7], Dwass [4], and Bernard and Letac [1].

Knuth and Yao [11] considered the problem of generating a random variable with a given target discrete distribution when the input sequence consists of iid unbiased bits. They developed optimal algorithms which minimize the expected number of input bits required to generate a desired random variable. Han and Hoshi [6] generalized their approach to the setting where the common (discrete) distribution of the input sequence is general. See [15] and [27] for recent development.

Samuelson [23] studied the problem of generating an unbiased bit when the input sequence is a Markov chain. By considering transitions out of a specific state, he first constructed an iid sequence (with an unknown common discrete distribution) from which iid unbiased bits can then be generated. Elias [5] and Blum [2] also considered this problem. By generalizing Blum's algorithm together with Elias' method, Zhou and Bruck [29] provided an algorithm that generates unbiased random bits from arbitrary finite Markov chains, operates in expected linear time and attains asymptotically the information-theoretic upper bound on efficiency. In the fixed-to-variable length regime, Seroussi and Weinberger [24] derived a second-order term (a term keeping the expected number of output bits below the entropy of the input) for an optimal algorithm in the Markov setting.

As discussed in Sections 1.2 and 1.3 where the input sequence is iid Bernoulli, Elias
[5] proposed an efficient algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ whose exact optimality was established by Pae and Loui [19]. Peres [20] presented an elegant algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ and showed that it is asymptoti-。 cally efficient. Prasitsupparote, Konno and Shikata [21] conducted an extensiye numerical study of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ (with the method of Ryabko and Matchikina [22]) by comparing their memory and running time requirements. Their empirical results suggest that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ would be superior to $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ in practical applications. Pae [17] and Pae [18] generalized Peres' algorithm when the input iid sequence $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ has a common (unknown) distribution on $\{0,1, \ldots, r-1\}$ with $r>1$. Zhou and Bruck [30] proposed a streaming version of Peres’ algorithm in the variable-to-fixed length regime where a given number of iid unbiased bits is to be generated by a random number $\tau$ of (input) $X_{i}$ 's with $\tau$ being a stopping time. Their streaming algorithm will be discussed in Chapter 3.

Von Neumann's algorithm has been used to remove bias in the output of a true random number generator from a variety of physical devices (see e.g. Wei and Guo [28]). It has applications in cryptography to generate random cryptographic keys for secure data transmission.

The so-called Bernoulli factory refers to the problem of using a $p$-coin (coin with probability of heads $p$ ) to simulate an $f(p)$-coin (coin with probability of heads $f(p)$ ) where (unknown) $p$ is known only to belong to a given subset $S$ of $(0,1)$ and the function $f: S \rightarrow[0,1]$ is known. The problem considered in this dissertation deals with the special case that $S=(0,1)$ and $f(p)=1 / 2$ for all $p$. Keane and O'Brien [10] obtained necessary and sufficient conditions on $f$ under which there exists an algorithm to simulate an $f(p)$-coin using a $p$-coin. See also Nacu and Peres [14] for related results.

In Chapter 2, we present an asymptotic analysis of Peres' algorithm along with nu-
merical results. In Chapter 3, streaming versions of Peres' algorithm are introduced and their properties are discussed. Chapter 4 contains concluding remarks. Most of the results in Chapter 2 have appeared in Lim, Liao and Yao [12] while Chapter 3 is based on Lim and Yao [13].

# Chapter 2 Asymptotic Analysis of Peres' algorithm 

### 2.1 Main results

While $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ both attain the entropy bound asymptotically, (1.2) and (1.3) provide a precise (second-order) behavior of $n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{E}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. In contrast, there is not much known about the behavior of $n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ for large $n$. In this regard, Pae [16] gave a formula to compute $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$, which is not convenient for deriving the asymptotic behavior of $n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. Recently, Prasitsupparote et al. [21] showed, based on some heuristics, that for $p=1 / 2$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \geq n^{\log 3-1} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

To derive (2.1), they assumed, without rigorous justification, that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \leq r_{\eta}(p) \quad \text { for } p \in(0,1), n \geq 1, \eta \geq 1 . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In Section 2.2, we prove the following results while numerical results are presented in Section 2.3.

Proposition 2.1. Let $a(n, p, \eta)=\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. Then for $p \in(0,1)$ and $\eta=1,2, \ldots$, the sequence $(a(1, p, \eta), a(2, p, \eta), \ldots)$ is superadditive, i.e. $a(n, p, \eta)+a(m, p, \eta) \leq$ $a(n+m, p, \eta)$ for $n, m \geq 1$. Consequently, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a(n, p, \eta) / n$ exists and is equal to $\sup _{n \geq 1} a(n, p, \eta) / n$. That is,

$$
r_{\eta}(p):=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n=\sup _{n \geq 1} \mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n
$$

which implies (2.2).

Proposition 2.2. For $p=1 / 2$, let $b(n)=\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. Then
(i) the $b(n)$ satisfy $b(0)=b(1)=0$ and the recursion

$$
\begin{equation*}
b(n)=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor / 2+b\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} b\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2}\right) \quad \text { for } n=2,3, \ldots, \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B_{n, p}$ denotes a binomial $(n, p)$ random variable;
(ii)

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log (n-b(n))}{\log n}=\log \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)
$$

Note that with $p=1 / 2$, the coin is unbiased and the input sequence consists on $n$ unbiased bits, so that $n-b(n)$ may be referred to as the cost incurred by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ when not knowing $p=1 / 2$. The next section contains the proofs of Propositions 2.1 and 2.2. In addition, for completeness, a rigorous proof of (2.1) is also given, which is needed for the proof of Proposition 2.2(ii). Most of the results in this chapter have appeared in Lim et al. [12].

### 2.2 Proofs of Propositions 2.1 and 2.2 and (2.1)

Proof of Proposition 2.1. Recall that when $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ is applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), 3$ subsequences $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ are induced where $\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\left|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|+\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=$ $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ and $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 2 p q)$. It follows from (1.4) that

$$
\begin{align*}
a(n, p, \eta) & =\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|  \tag{2.4}\\
& =\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right|+\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right|+2 p q\lfloor n / 2\rfloor .
\end{align*}
$$

Noting that $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is distributed as a sequence $\boldsymbol{U}$ of $n_{\lambda}=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ iid Bernoulli random variables with bias $f_{\lambda}(p)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right|=\mathbb{E}_{f_{\lambda}(p)}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}(\boldsymbol{U})\right|=a\left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), \eta-1\right) . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, conditioning on $n_{\rho}=\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}, \rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is a sequence of $n_{\rho}$ iid Bernoulli random variables with bias $f_{\rho}(p)$, so that the conditional expectation of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right|$ given $n_{\rho}$ equals $a\left(n_{\rho}, f_{\rho}(p), \eta-1\right)$. Since $n_{\rho} \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta-1}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right|=\mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}, f_{\rho}(p), \eta-1\right), \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the expectation operator $\mathbb{E}$ on the right-hand side is on $B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}(\operatorname{abinomial}(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-$ $2 p q)$ random variable). By (2.4), (2.5) and (2.6),

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n, p, \eta)=a\left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), \eta-1\right)+\mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}, f_{\rho}(p), \eta-1\right)+2 p q\lfloor n / 2\rfloor . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now prove by induction on $\eta$ that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n, p, \eta)+a(m, p, \eta) \leq a(n+m, p, \eta) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $\eta=1, a(n, p, 1)=2 p q\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$. Since $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor+\lfloor m / 2\rfloor \leq\lfloor(n+m) / 2\rfloor$ for $n, m \geq 1$, we have $a(n, p, 1)+a(m, p, 1) \leq a(n+m, p, 1)$, implying that (2.8) holds for $\eta=1$. Suppose that for an integer $k>0,(2.8)$ holds for all $n, m \geq 1$, all $p \in(0,1)$, and $\eta=\hat{k}$. We need to show that (2.8) holds for $n, m \geq 1, p \in(0,1)$ and $\eta=k+1$. By the induction hypothesis,

$$
\begin{align*}
a\left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), k\right)+a\left(\lfloor m / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), k\right) & \leq a\left(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor+\lfloor m / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), k\right)  \tag{2.9}\\
& \leq a\left(\lfloor(n+m) / 2\rfloor, f_{\lambda}(p), k\right)
\end{align*}
$$

where the second inequality follows from the fact that $a(n, p, \eta)$ is non-decreasing in $n$. Let $U$ and $V$ be independent random variables with $U \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q)$ and $V \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor m / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q)$. Then $U+V \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor+\lfloor m / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q)$. If $n$ and $m$ are both odd, let $W$ be independent of $U$ and $V$ with $W \sim \operatorname{binomial}(1,1-2 p q)$. If at least one of $n$ and $m$ is even, let $W$ be identically 0 . Then $U+V+W \sim \operatorname{binomial}(\lfloor(n+$ $m) / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q)$. We have by the induction hypothesis that

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\mathbb{E} & a\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}, f_{\rho}(p), k\right)+\mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor m / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}, f_{\rho}(p), k\right) \\
& =\mathbb{E}\left\{a\left(U, f_{\rho}(p), k\right)+a\left(V, f_{\rho}(p), k\right)\right\} \\
& \leq \mathbb{E} a\left(U+V, f_{\rho}(p), k\right)  \tag{2.10}\\
& \leq \mathbb{E} a\left(U+V+W, f_{\rho}(p), k\right) \\
\quad & \mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor(n+m) / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}, f_{\rho}(p), k\right)
\end{array}
$$

Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 p q\lfloor n / 2\rfloor+2 p q\lfloor m / 2\rfloor \leq 2 p q\lfloor(n+m) / 2\rfloor \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.7) and (2.9)-(2.11),

$$
a(n, p, k+1)+a(m, p, k+1) \leq a(n+m, p, k+1),
$$

showing that (2.8) holds for $n, m \geq 1, p \in(0,1)$ and $\eta=k+1$. The proof is complete.

Proof of (2.1). The following argument is taken from the proof of Theorem 1 in Prasitsupparote et al. [21]. With $p=1 / 2$, we have $r_{1}(1 / 2)=p q=\frac{1}{4}$ and, by (1.6)

$$
r_{\eta}(1 / 2)=\frac{1}{4}+\frac{3}{4} r_{\eta-1}(1 / 2) \quad \text { for } \eta \geq 2
$$

from which it follows that $r_{\eta}(1 / 2)=1-\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\eta}, \eta \geq 1$. By Proposition 2.1,

$$
1-\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\eta}=r_{\eta}(1 / 2) \geq \mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n
$$

so that with $\eta=\lfloor\log n\rfloor$ and $b(n)=\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$, we have

$$
1-\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\lfloor\log n\rfloor} \geq \mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P},\lfloor\log n\rfloor}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n=\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n=b(n) / n
$$

implying that

$$
n-b(n) \geq n\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\lfloor\log n\rfloor} \geq n\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{\log n}=n^{\log 3-1}
$$

proving (2.1).

Proof of Proposition 2.2(i). For $p=1 / 2, f_{\lambda}(1 / 2)=f_{\rho}(1 / 2)=1 / 2$, and $B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1-2 p q}=$ $B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2}$. Letting $a(n, p, \eta)=\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$, we have by (2.7) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(n, 1 / 2, \eta)=a(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2, \eta-1)+\mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2}, 1 / 2, \eta-1\right)+\lfloor n / 2\rfloor / 2 . \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}, \eta}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ for $\eta \geq\lfloor\log n\rfloor$. By (2.12),

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(n) & =\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P},\lfloor\log n\rfloor}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \\
& =a(n, 1 / 2,\lfloor\log n\rfloor) \\
& =a(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2,\lfloor\log n\rfloor-1)+\mathbb{E} a\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2}, 1 / 2,\lfloor\log n\rfloor-1\right)+\lfloor n / 2\rfloor / 2 \\
& =b(\lfloor n / 2\rfloor)+\mathbb{E} b\left(B_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor, 1 / 2}\right)+\lfloor n / 2\rfloor / 2,
\end{aligned}
$$

proving (2.3).

To prove Proposition 2.2(ii), we need the following lemmas. Proposition 2.2(ii) follows immediately from Lemmas 2.4 and 2.5 below. For the rest of this section, to simplify notation, we write $B_{n}=B_{n, 1 / 2}$ for a $\operatorname{binomial}(n, 1 / 2)$ random variable. Let $g(n)=n-b(n) \geq 0$, for $n=0,1, \ldots$ We have $g(0)=0, g(1)=1$, and by Proposition 2.2(i), for even $n \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(n)=n-b(n) & =n-\left[\frac{n}{4}+b\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)+\mathbb{E} b\left(B_{\frac{n}{2}}\right)\right] \\
& =\left[\frac{n}{2}-b\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right]+\mathbb{E}\left[B_{\frac{n}{2}}-b\left(B_{\frac{n}{2}}\right)\right] \\
& =g\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)+\mathbb{E} g\left(B_{\frac{n}{2}}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and for odd $n \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(n)=n-b(n) & =n-\left[\frac{n-1}{4}+b\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)+\mathbb{E} b\left(B_{(n-1) / 2}\right)\right] \\
& =1+\left[\frac{n-1}{2}-b\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\right]+\mathbb{E}\left[B_{(n-1) / 2}-b\left(B_{(n-1) / 2}\right)\right] \\
& =1+g\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)+\mathbb{E} g\left(B_{(n-1) / 2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So, for $n \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(n)=g\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} g\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+\mathbf{1}_{\{n \text { is odd }\}}, \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{1}$ denotes the indicator function.

Lemma 2.1. For $\delta \in(0,1)$, we have

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \mathbb{P}\left(B_{n}>\frac{n}{2}(1+\delta)\right)=-\frac{1}{2}[(1-\delta) \log (1-\delta)+(1+\delta) \log (1+\delta)]<0
$$

Lemma 2.2. If $f(0) \leq f(1) \leq \cdots \leq f(n+1)$, then $\mathbb{E} f\left(B_{n+1}\right) \geq \mathbb{E} f\left(B_{n}\right)$.

Lemma 2.1 is a standard result in large deviation theory; see e.g. [9, pages 539-540]. Lemma 2.2 follows from the fact that $B_{n}$ is stochastically smaller than $B_{n+1}$. By (2.13),

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(0)=0, \quad g(1)=1, \quad g(2)=\frac{3}{2}, \quad g(3)=\frac{5}{2}, \quad g(4)=\frac{19}{8}<g(3) \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that $g(n)$ is not non-decreasing. Lemma 2.3 below constructs two non-decreasing sequences $G$ and $H$ that are closely related to $g$ and satisfy $0 \leq H(n) \leq g(n) \leq G(n) \leq n$.

Lemma 2.3. Let $G(n)$ and $H(n), n=0,1, \ldots$ be defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G(n)=g(n) \quad \text { for } n=0,1,2,3, \\
& H(n)=g(n) \quad \text { for } n=0,1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and recursively

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
G(n)=G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} G\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+1 & \text { for } n \geq 4 \\
H(n)=H\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} H\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right) & \text { for } n \geq 2 \tag{2.16}
\end{array}
$$

Then (i) $G$ is non-decreasing and $g(n) \leq G(n) \leq n$ for all $n$, and (ii) $H$ is non-decreasing and $g(n) \geq H(n) \geq 0$ for all $n$.

Proof. In view of (2.13) and (2.15), it is easily shown by induction that $g(n) \leq G(n)$ for
all $n$. By (2.14), $G(n)=g(n) \leq n$ and $G(n)$ is non-decreasing for $n \leq 3$. For $n \geq 4$, if $G(\ell) \leq \ell$ for all $\ell<n$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
G(n) & =G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} G\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+1 \\
& \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor+\mathbb{E} B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}+1 \\
& \leq \frac{3}{4} n+1 \leq n .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows by induction that $G(n) \leq n$ for all $n$. That $G(n)$ is non-decreasing in $n$ also follows by induction and Lemma 2.2. This proves part (i). In view of (2.13) and (2.16), part (ii) can be proved similarly.

Lemma 2.4. For each $\delta \in(0,1)$, there exists an $N \geq 4$ and a non-decreasing sequence $\left(G^{\prime}(0), G^{\prime}(1), \ldots\right)$ such that $G^{\prime}(n) \geq g(n)$ for all $n$ and

$$
G^{\prime}(n)=G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c}\right\rfloor\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c^{2}}\right\rfloor\right), \quad \text { for all } n \geq N
$$

where $c=c(\delta)=2 / \sqrt{1+\delta}$. Moreover,

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log g(n)}{\log n} \leq \limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \leq \frac{1}{\log c} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{c^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right)
$$

Consequently, letting $\delta \rightarrow 0$ so that $c=c(\delta) \rightarrow 2$, we have

$$
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log g(n)}{\log n} \leq \log \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $\delta \in(0,1)$ be fixed. Let $G$ be defined as in Lemma 2.3, so that $G$ is non-
decreasing and $0 \leq g(n) \leq G(n) \leq n$ for all $n$. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} G\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+1 \leq & 1+G\left(\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right) \mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} \leq\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right) \\
& +G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right) \mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}>\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right) \\
\leq & 1+G\left(\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right)+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}>\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right) . \tag{2.17}
\end{align*}
$$

By (2.1), $G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}{2}(1+\delta)\right\rfloor\right) \geq g\left(\left\lfloor\frac{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}{2}(1+\delta)\right\rfloor\right) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and by Lemma 2.1,

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}>\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right)=0
$$

so that by (2.17), there is a (large) $N \geq 4$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E} G\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+1 \leq(1+\delta) G\left(\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{1+\delta}{2}\right)\right\rfloor\right) \quad \text { for all } n \geq N \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Letting $c=2 / \sqrt{1+\delta}$, we have by (2.15) and (2.18) that for all $n \geq N(\geq 4)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
G(n) & =G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} G\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right)+1  \tag{2.19}\\
& \leq G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c}\right\rfloor\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c^{2}}\right\rfloor\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Define $G^{\prime}(n), n=0,1, \ldots$ by $G^{\prime}(n)=G(n)$ for $n<N$ and recursively

$$
\begin{equation*}
G^{\prime}(n)=G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c}\right\rfloor\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{c^{2}}\right\rfloor\right) \quad \text { for } n \geq N . \tag{2.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that for $c>\sqrt{2}$ and $n \geq N \geq 4,\left\lfloor n / c^{2}\right\rfloor \leq\lfloor n / c\rfloor \leq n-1$, so $G^{\prime}$ is well defined.) Since $G(n)$ is non-decreasing and $G(n)=G^{\prime}(n)$ for all $n<N$, we have by (2.19), (2.20) and induction that $G^{\prime}(n) \geq G(n)(\geq g(n))$ for all $n$. To show that $G^{\prime}(n)$ is non-decreasing, note that $G^{\prime}(N) \geq G(N) \geq G(N-1)=G^{\prime}(N-1)$. Since $G^{\prime}(0) \leq G^{\prime}(1) \leq \cdots \leq$ $G^{\prime}(N)$, it follows by (2.20) and induction that $G^{\prime}(n) \leq G^{\prime}(n+1)$ for all $n \geq N$.

It remains to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \leq \frac{1}{\log c} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{c^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) . \tag{2.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\ell_{k}=\left\lfloor c^{k} N\right\rfloor, k=0,1, \ldots$ Let $x_{0}=G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{0}\right), x_{1}=G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{1}\right)$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{k}=x_{k-1}+\frac{4}{c^{2}} x_{k-2}, \quad k=2,3, \ldots \tag{2.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.20) and monotonicity of $G^{\prime}$, we have for $k \geq 2$

$$
\begin{align*}
G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)=G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor c^{k} N\right\rfloor\right) & =G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{\left\lfloor c^{k} N\right\rfloor}{c}\right\rfloor\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{\left\lfloor c^{k} N\right\rfloor}{c^{2}}\right\rfloor\right) \\
& \leq G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor c^{k-1} N\right\rfloor\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G^{\prime}\left(\left\lfloor c^{k-2} N\right\rfloor\right)  \tag{2.23}\\
& =G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k-1}\right)+\frac{4}{c^{2}} G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k-2}\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Since $x_{k}=G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)$ for $k=0,1$, it follows by (2.22), (2.23) and induction that

$$
\begin{equation*}
G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right) \leq x_{k} \quad \text { for all } k \geq 0 . \tag{2.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $x_{k}$ satisfies the difference equation (2.22), we have

$$
x_{k}=\alpha_{1} \lambda_{1}^{k}+\alpha_{2} \lambda_{2}^{k}, \quad k=0,1, \ldots
$$

where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda_{1} & =\frac{1}{2}(1+\gamma),
\end{array} \lambda_{2}=\frac{1}{2}(1-\gamma)
$$

and $\gamma=\sqrt{1+\frac{16}{c^{2}}}$. Noting that $-1<\lambda_{2}<0<1<\lambda_{1}($ since $\sqrt{2}<c<2)$ and $\alpha_{1}>0$,
it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x_{k}}{k}=\log \lambda_{1}=\log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{c^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) . \tag{2.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.24) and (2.25),

$$
\limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)}{\log \ell_{k}} \leq \limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x_{k}}{\log \left\lfloor c^{k} N\right\rfloor}=\frac{\log \lambda_{1}}{\log c} .
$$

Since $G^{\prime}$ is non-decreasing, for each $n \geq 1$, let $k=k(n)$ be such that $\ell_{k} \leq n<\ell_{k+1}$, so that

$$
\frac{\log G^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \leq \frac{\log G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k+1}\right)}{\log \ell_{k}}
$$

implying that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} & \leq \limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k+1}\right)}{\log \ell_{k}} \\
& =\limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log G^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k+1}\right)}{\log \ell_{k+1}} \frac{\log \ell_{k+1}}{\log \ell_{k}} \\
& \leq \frac{\log \lambda_{1}}{\log c}=\frac{1}{\log c} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{c^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

proving (2.21). The proof is complete.

Lemma 2.5. For each $\delta \in(0,1)$, there exists an $N \geq 4$ and a non-decreasing sequence $\left(H^{\prime}(0), H^{\prime}(1), \ldots\right)$ such that $0 \leq H^{\prime}(n) \leq g(n)$ for all $n$ and

$$
H^{\prime}(n)=H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right), \quad \text { for all } n \geq N,
$$

where $d=d(\delta)=2+\delta$ and $\lceil x\rceil$ denotes the smallest integer not less than $x$. Moreover,

$$
\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log g(n)}{\log n} \geq \liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \geq \frac{1}{\log d} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{d^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) .
$$

Consequently, letting $\delta \rightarrow 0$ so that $d=d(\delta) \rightarrow 2$, we have

$$
\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log g(n)}{\log n} \geq \log \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)
$$

Proof. The following proof is similar to that of Lemma 2.4. Let $\delta \in(0,1)$ be fixed. Let $H$ be defined as in Lemma 2.3, so that $H$ is non-decreasing and $0 \leq H(n) \leq g(n)$ for all n. Also $H(0)=g(0)=0, H(1)=g(1)=1$.

For $d=2+\delta>2$, by the law of large numbers, $\mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}<\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. So there exists an $N \geq 4$ such that for all $n \geq N$,

$$
H\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right) \geq H\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} \geq\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) \geq \frac{4}{d^{2}}
$$

By (2.16), for $n \geq N \geq 4$,

$$
\begin{align*}
H(n) & =H\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)+\mathbb{E} H\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}\right) \\
& \geq H\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\mathbb{P}\left(B_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} \geq\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) H\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right)  \tag{2.26}\\
& \geq H\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Define $H^{\prime}(n), n=0,1, \ldots$ by $H^{\prime}(0)=0, H^{\prime}(1)=\cdots=H^{\prime}(N-1)=1$ and recursively

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\prime}(n)=H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) \quad \text { for } n \geq N \tag{2.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that $\left\lceil\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rceil \leq\left\lceil\frac{n}{d}\right\rceil \leq n-1$ for $n \geq N \geq 4$, so that the recursion is well defined.) Since by (2.27), $H^{\prime}(N)=H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{N}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{N}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right)=1+\frac{4}{d^{2}}>1$, we have $H^{\prime}(0)<$ $H^{\prime}(1)=\cdots=H^{\prime}(N-1)<H^{\prime}(N)$. It follows by (2.27) and induction that $H^{\prime}$ is a non-decreasing sequence. Since $H(n) \geq H^{\prime}(n)$ for all $n<N$, we have by (2.26), (2.27) and induction that $H^{\prime}(n) \leq H(n)$ for all $n$.

It remains to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \geq \frac{1}{\log d} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{d^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) \tag{2.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\ell_{k}=\left\lceil d^{k} N\right\rceil, k=0,1, \ldots$ Let $x_{0}=H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{0}\right), x_{1}=H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{1}\right)$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{k}=x_{k-1}+\frac{4}{d^{2}} x_{k-2}, \quad k=2,3, \ldots \tag{2.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.27) and monotonicity of $H^{\prime}$, we have for $k \geq 2$

$$
\begin{align*}
H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)=H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil d^{k} N\right\rceil\right) & =H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{\left\lceil d^{k} N\right\rceil}{d}\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil\frac{\left\lceil d^{k} N\right\rceil}{d^{2}}\right\rceil\right) \\
& \geq H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil d^{k-1} N\right\rceil\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\left\lceil d^{k-2} N\right\rceil\right)  \tag{2.30}\\
& =H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k-1}\right)+\frac{4}{d^{2}} H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k-2}\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Since $x_{k}=H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)$ for $k=0,1$, it follows by (2.29), (2.30) and induction that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right) \geq x_{k} \quad \text { for all } k \geq 0 \tag{2.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the difference equation (2.29) is the same as (2.22) with $c$ replaced by $d$. Solving (2.29) yields (cf. (2.25))

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x_{k}}{k}=\log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{d^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) .
$$

By (2.31),

$$
\liminf _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)}{\log \ell_{k}} \geq \liminf _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x_{k}}{\log \left\lceil d^{k} N\right\rceil}=\frac{1}{\log d} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{d^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right) .
$$

Since $H^{\prime}$ is non-decreasing, for each $n \geq 1$, let $k=k(n)$ be such that $\ell_{k} \leq n<\ell_{k+1}$, so
that

$$
\frac{\log H^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} \geq \frac{\log H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)}{\log \ell_{k+1}}
$$

implying that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\liminf _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}(n)}{\log n} & \geq \liminf _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)}{\log \ell_{k+1}} \\
& =\liminf _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log H^{\prime}\left(\ell_{k}\right)}{\log \ell_{k}} \frac{\log \ell_{k}}{\log \ell_{k+1}} \\
& \geq \frac{1}{\log d} \log \left(\frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{4}{d^{2}}+\frac{1}{4}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

proving (2.28). The proof is complete.

### 2.3 Numerical results and discussion

Recall that $g(n)=n-b(n)=n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. By (2.13), we computed $g(n)$ for all $n \leq 65536$. Figure 2.1 plots $\log g(n) / \log n$ versus $n$ for $n \leq 65536$ where $\theta=$ $\log [(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2] \approx 0.694$. It shows that $\log g(n) / \log n$ is slightly greater than $\theta$ and appears to converge to $\theta$ slowly. Figure 2.2 plots $g(n) / n^{\theta}$ versus $n$ for $n \leq 65536$. By Proposition 2.2(ii),

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \log \left[g(n) / n^{\theta}\right] / \log n=0 .
$$

While it is unclear whether $g(n) / n^{\theta}$ converges to some constant eventually, it appears that $g(n) / n^{\theta}$ fluctuates less when $n$ becomes larger. Figure 2.3 plots $g(2 n) / g(n)$ versus $n$ for $n \leq 32768$. It appears that $g(2 n) / g(n)$ is close to $2^{\theta}$ for large $n$. Figure 2.4 plots $g(3 n) / g(n)$ versus $n$ for $n \leq 21845$, where $g(3 n) / g(n)$ oscillates around $3^{\theta}$. Our limited numerical results provide weak evidence that $g(3 n) / g(n)$ converges to $3^{\theta}$ eventually.

Figure 2.5 plots $\log \operatorname{Var}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2^{k}}\right)\right| / \log 2^{k}$ for $k=1, \ldots, 25$, where $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ is a se-


Figure 2.1: Plot of $\log g(n) / \log n$ versus $n$.


Figure 2.2: Plot of $g(n) / n^{\theta}$ versus $n$ with $\theta=\log [(1+\sqrt{5}) / 2]$.


Figure 2.3: Plot of $g(2 n) / g(n)$ versus $n$.


Figure 2.4: Plot of $g(3 n) / g(n)$ versus $n$.


Figure 2.5: Plot for $\operatorname{Var}_{0.5}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2^{k}}\right)\right|$.
quence of $n$ unbiased bits. The first 9 points in the plot, with $k=1, \ldots, 9$, are exact values calculated from the distribution of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2^{k}}\right)\right|$ with $p=1 / 2$, while the latter 16 points in the plot are obtained from simulation with 10000 replications for each $k$. The variance $\operatorname{Var}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ appears to increase in $n$. There is very weak evidence that $\log \operatorname{Var}_{1 / 2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right) / \log n$ converges to a positive constant. While we have discussed mainly the asymptotic behavior of $\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ for $p=1 / 2$, it is also of interest to see how fast $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| / n$ approaches $h(p)$ for $p \neq 1 / 2$. Figure 2.6 plots $\log \left(n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right) / \log n$ for $n=2^{k}, k=1, \ldots, 26, p=0.3$, suggesting that it might also converge to $\theta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In this plot, the first 9 points are exact values, while the latter 17 points are obtained from simulation with 10000 replications for each of $k \in\{10, \ldots, 24\}, 5000$ replications for $k=25$, and 2500 replications for $k=26$.

While the distribution of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ is complicated, it seems natural to ask whether $\left(\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right) / \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|}$ is approximately standard normal for large $n$. For $p=1 / 2$, we conducted a simulation study with 10000 samples for each of $n=2^{10}$, $2^{17}, 2^{25}$. Let $Q_{n, i}, i=1, \ldots, 10000$, denote the 10000 observations of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. For

## $\log \left(2^{k} h(0.3)-\mathbb{E}_{0.3}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2^{k}}\right)\right|\right) / \log 2^{k}$



Figure 2.6: Plot for $2^{k} h(0.3)-\mathbb{E}_{0.3}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2^{k}}\right)\right|$.
$n=2^{10}, 2^{17}, 2^{25}$, Figure 2.7(a)-(c) plots the histograms of the standardized observations $\left\{\left(Q_{n, i}-\bar{Q}_{n}\right) /\right.$ s.d. $\left.\left(Q_{n}\right): i=1, \ldots, 10000\right\}$ where $\bar{Q}_{n}$ and s.d. $\left(Q_{n}\right)$ denote the sample mean and sample standard deviation of $\left\{Q_{n, i}: i=1, \ldots, 10000\right\}$. Also included in the plots is the standard normal density function. It appears that the standard normal distribution approximates reasonably well the standardized distribution of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ for $n=2^{17}$ and $2^{25}$.

Although we have no proof of the asymptotic normality result, the following argument suggests that the asymptotic normality may hold. Choose a sequence $\ell_{n}$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \ell_{n}=\infty$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \ell_{n} / n=0$. Divide the sample $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ into blocks of size $\ell_{n}$,

$$
\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}=\left(X_{(i-1) \ell_{n}+1}, \ldots, X_{i \ell_{n}}\right), \quad i=1, \ldots,\left\lfloor n / \ell_{n}\right\rfloor .
$$

Apply $\mathscr{A}_{p}$ to each $\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}$, yielding output bits $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}\right)$. Note that $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}\right)\right|, i=1, \ldots,\left\lfloor n / \ell_{n}\right\rfloor$, are iid, and that $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \geq \sum_{i=1}^{\left\lfloor n / \ell_{n}\right\rfloor}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}\right)\right|$. If $\ell_{n}$ increases to infinity sufficiently fast, the difference of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{\left\lfloor n / \ell_{n}\right\rfloor}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}^{(i)}\right)\right|$ may be negligible compared to


Figure 2.7: Simulated histograms for the standardized distribution of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ for $p=$ 0.5 and $n=2^{10}, 2^{17}, 2^{25}$.
the standard deviation of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$. In other words, $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ can be approximated by a sum of iid random variables, which suggests the validity of the asymptotic normality.

# Chapter 3 Streaming versions of Peres' algorithm 

### 3.1 Introduction and streaming algorithms

Let $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be the input sequence consisting of the outcomes when a coin of bias $p$ is tossed repeatedly (which is referred to as the source). Let $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$. Recall the binary tree representation of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ introduced in Section 1.4 where the rooted binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ is identified with the sequence of nodes $\left(\nu_{1}, \nu_{10}, \nu_{11}, \nu_{100}, \nu_{101}, \ldots\right)$. At time $n, n=1,2, \ldots$, the input bit $X_{n}$ arrives (is received) at the root node $\nu_{1}$ from the source. For a (fixed) time $n$, the input sequence $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$ at $\nu_{1}$ is decomposed into $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, so that $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ and $\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ become the input sequences at nodes $\nu_{10}$ and $\nu_{11}$, respectively, while $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is the output sequence at $\nu_{1}$. Furthermore, the input sequence $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right.$, resp.) at node $\nu_{10}\left(\nu_{11}\right.$, resp.) is decomposed into $\lambda^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$, $\rho \lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\left(\lambda \rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \rho^{2}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\rho\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)\right.$, resp.). More generally, for a node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ (of level $\eta$ ), when the input sequence $\psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is received at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ where $\psi_{b_{\ell}}=\lambda$ or $\rho$ according as $b_{\ell}=0$ or 1 , it is decomposed into three sequences, $\lambda \psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \rho \psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right)$, so that the first becomes the input sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta} 0}$, the second becomes the input sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta} 1}$,
and the third becomes the output sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}$. Note that no input sequence can be received at node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ of level $\eta \geq\lfloor\log n\rfloor+2$.

We denote by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ the total collection of the output sequences at all the nodes. More precisely, the nodes are ordered lexicographically in the sense that $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{b_{1}^{\prime} \ldots b_{\eta^{\prime}}^{\prime}}$ if for some $1 \leq \ell \leq \min \left\{\eta, \eta^{\prime}\right\}, b_{i}=b_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, \ell$, and either $\ell=\eta<\eta^{\prime}$ or $b_{\ell+1}<b_{\ell+1}^{\prime}$. For example, $\nu_{101} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{11} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{110} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{1100} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{111}$. Then $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is the sequence of all output bits that results from arranging the (non-empty) output sequences at all nodes according to the node ordering $\prec^{\prime}$.

Given two time points $n<n^{\prime}$, while $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is contained in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n^{\prime}}\right)$ (due to $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ being nested), some (output) bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ generated by time $n$ may be placed after bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n^{\prime}}\right) \backslash \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$. As an example, consider $\boldsymbol{x}=$ HTHHTH $\cdots$, we have $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{4}\right)=$ 11 and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{6}\right)=101$. The second 1 in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{4}\right)$ is moved to the third place in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{6}\right)$. To avoid this undesirable property, we introduce the notion of streaming algorithm. For a nested algorithm $\mathscr{A}$, let $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ be the sequence of output bits generated by $\mathscr{A}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$. The output bits in $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right) \backslash \mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n-1}\right)$ are said to be induced by the $n$th input bit $X_{n}$. A (nested) algorithm $\mathscr{A}$ is said to be streaming if for every $n$, the output bits induced by $X_{n}$ are placed after the bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n-1}\right)$. In other words, $\mathscr{A}$ is a streaming algorithm if $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is a prefix of $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n^{\prime}}\right)$ for $n<n^{\prime}$. It is easily seen that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ is a streaming algorithm although it is not efficient. In the previous example with $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ applied to the sequence $\boldsymbol{x}=$ HTHHTH $\cdots$, we have that $x_{2}(=\mathrm{T})$ induces an output bit 1 at node $\nu_{1}$, and $x_{4}(=\mathrm{H})$ induces an output bit 1 at node $\nu_{10}$, and $x_{6}(=\mathrm{H})$ induces an output bit 0 at node $\nu_{1}$. The output sequence for a streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{x}=$ HTHHTH $\cdots$ would be $110 \cdots$. Note that for odd $n, X_{n}$ induces no output bit for any streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$. To define a streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$, when an input bit $X_{n}$ induces two or more
output bits (necessarily at different nodes), it is required to order the output bits according to a pre-specified rule (e.g. a given ordering of the nodes). For example, consider the lexicographical ordering $\prec^{\prime}$. We denote by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}$ the streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ based on the ordering $\prec^{\prime}$. When $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}$ is applied to $\boldsymbol{x}=$ TTHTHTHH, the output sequence is 10110. In this case, $x_{8}(=\mathrm{H})$ induces two output bits 1 and 0 at nodes $\nu_{10}$ and $\nu_{11}$, respectively, and 1 is placed ahead of 0 since $\nu_{10} \prec^{\prime} \nu_{11}$. However, for $n=8$, given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)\right|=5$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)$ is not uniform on $\{0,1\}^{5}$. Indeed, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)=00000\right) \\
& \quad=\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8} \in\{\text { THTHTTTH, TTTHHHTH, THTHHHTH }\}\right) \\
& \quad=p^{3} q^{5}+p^{4} q^{4}+p^{5} q^{3}, \\
& \mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)=00010\right) \\
& \quad=\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8} \in\{\text { THTHTHTT, TTTHHHHT, TTTHTHHH, THTHTHHH }\}\right) \\
& \quad=p^{3} q^{5}+2 p^{4} q^{4}+p^{5} q^{3} \\
& \quad>\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)=00000\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that

$$
\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)=00000| | \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right) \mid=5\right)<\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right)=00010| | \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{8}\right) \mid=5\right)
$$

Thus, in general, the output bits generated by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}$ are not independent unbiased.

Instead of the ordering $\prec^{\prime}$, we consider another lexicographical ordering $\prec$ with the roles of 0 and 1 interchanged. Specifically, we write $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}} \prec \nu_{b_{1}^{\prime} \cdots b_{\eta^{\prime}}^{\prime}}$ if for some $1 \leq \ell \leq$ $\min \left\{\eta, \eta^{\prime}\right\}, b_{i}=b_{i}^{\prime}$ for $i=1, \ldots, \ell$, and either $\ell=\eta<\eta^{\prime}$ or $b_{\ell+1}>b_{\ell+1}^{\prime}$. For example, $\nu_{11} \prec \nu_{111} \prec \nu_{110} \prec \nu_{1100} \prec \nu_{101}$. We denote by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ the streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ based
on the ordering $\prec$. When $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ is applied to $\boldsymbol{x}=$ TTHTHTHH $\cdots$, the outpưt sequence is $10101 \cdots$ as compared to $10110 \cdots$ generated by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{s}}^{\prime}$.

In the next section, we introduce the notation of status tree and discuss its properties, which plays an important role of establishing unbiasedness of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ in Section 3.3. In Section 3.4, we discuss another streaming version of Peres' algorithm which was first introduced by Zhou and Bruck [30]. In Section 3.5, some results on counting status trees are presented, which are useful for computing the distribution of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$.

Remark 3.1. An algorithm $\mathscr{A}$ is said to be unbiased if for all $n$, $p$ and $\ell$, given $\left|\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. An unbiased algorithm is not necessarily a streaming algorithm. In general, for an unbiased algorithm $\mathscr{A}$, given $\left|\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell$ and $\left|\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n^{\prime}}\right)\right|=\ell^{\prime}$ for some $n<n^{\prime}$ and $\ell \leq \ell^{\prime}$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n^{\prime}}\right)$ is not uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell^{\prime}}$. As an example, let $\mathscr{A}^{*}$ denote either $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ or a streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{4}\right)=00| | \mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right)\left|=1,\left|\mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{4}\right)\right|=2\right)\right. \\
& \quad=\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{4}\right)=10| | \mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{2}\right)\left|=1,\left|\mathscr{A}^{*}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{4}\right)\right|=2\right)\right. \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{2} p q \leq \frac{1}{8}<\frac{1}{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, von Neumann's algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}$ enjoys the unbiasedness property in the strongest sense. For any $p, r \geq 1, n_{1}<n_{2}<\cdots<n_{r}$ and $\ell_{1} \leq \ell_{2} \leq \cdots \leq \ell_{r}$, given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n_{i}}\right)\right|=\ell_{i}, i=1, \ldots, r$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n_{r}}\right)$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell_{r}}$.

### 3.2 Status tree

To establish the unbiasedness property of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{s}}$, we need to introduce the notion of status tree. Recall that an (input) sequence $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ from the source can be decomposed into $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right), \rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$. If $n$ is even, $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ can be recovered from $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right), \rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$. If $n$ is odd, the last bit $x_{n}$ of $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ is lost. It is for this reason that we define

$$
\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathrm{O}, & \text { if } n \text { is even } \\ x_{n}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

where O stands for "void". Thus $\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}\}$. (By convention, $\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ if $n=0$.) Then $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ can be recovered from $\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right), \rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$ and $\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$. Also it is readily seen that

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right) & =\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad\left|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|=\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}},  \tag{3.1}\\
\left|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right|_{\mathrm{H}} & =\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+\mathbf{1}\left(\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)=\mathrm{H}\right),  \tag{3.2}\\
\left|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right|_{\mathrm{T}} & =\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}+\mathbf{1}\left(\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)=\mathrm{T}\right), \tag{3.3}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\mathbf{1}(\cdot)$ denotes the indicator function.

For the (infinite complete) binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ with nodes $\nu_{1}, \nu_{10}, \nu_{11}, \ldots$, given an input sequence $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ at the root node $\nu_{1}$ from the source, we can derive an input sequence at each of its descendant nodes. Specifically, the input sequence at node $\nu_{b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ derived (or induced) from $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ is $\psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$ where $\psi_{b_{i}}=\lambda$ or $\rho$ according as $b_{i}=0$ or 1 . For notational simplicity, we write $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n}}\left(\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}\right)=\psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)$. In particular, $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$. (Here $\boldsymbol{I}$ stands for "input".) We call $\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n}}\left(\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}\right)\right)=\sigma\left(\psi_{b_{\eta}} \cdots \psi_{b_{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)\right)$ the status (or label) of
node $\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ at time $n$ (derived from $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ ). A status tree $\mathcal{S}$ is the binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ together with the node status (label) $\mathcal{S}(\nu)$ for every node $\nu \in\left\{\nu_{1}, \nu_{10}, \nu_{11}, \ldots\right\}$. An admissible status tree is a status tree whose status of each node is derived from some finite input sequence at the root node $\nu_{1}$. Note that not every status tree is admissible. As an example, consider the status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}, \mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\mathrm{H}, \mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\mathrm{T}$, and $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ of level $\geq 3$. Clearly, this status tree cannot be derived from any input sequence. From now on, we drop the word "admissible", so that a status tree always refers to an admissible status tree. Note also that for an (admissible) status tree, all but finitely many nodes have status O. A status tree may be derived from more than one input sequence. For example, the status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu \neq \nu_{10}$ is derived from the two input sequences HT and TH .

For notational convenience, we denote by $\lambda \nu$ and $\rho \nu$ the left and right child nodes of $\nu$, respectively. Thus $\rho^{2} \lambda^{3} \rho \nu_{10}=\nu_{10100011}$. By convention, $\lambda^{0} \nu=\rho^{0} \nu=\nu$. For a status tree $\mathcal{S}$, define the depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$ of $\mathcal{S}$ by

$$
\delta_{\mathcal{S}}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } \mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O} \text { for all nodes } \nu \\ 1+\max \left\{m \geq 0: \mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{m} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Note that if $\mathcal{S}$ is derived from a sequence $\boldsymbol{x}$ of length $n \geq 1$, then we have $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=\lfloor\log n\rfloor+1$, and $\mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{\delta_{S}-1} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$, and $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ of level $>\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$. Define $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}=$ $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty}\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$, where $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{0}=\emptyset$. Given a status tree $\mathcal{S}$, define

$$
\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{~T}\}^{*}: \mathcal{S}_{x}=\mathcal{S}\right\},
$$

where $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ denotes the status tree derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$. For a node $\nu$, let $\Delta(\nu)$ denote the subtree consisting of $\nu$ and all its descendant nodes. Note that $\Delta(\nu)$ is an infinite complete binary
tree rooted at $\nu($ and is isomorphic to $\boldsymbol{T})$. For a status tree $\mathcal{S}$, let $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta(\nu)}$ denote the status tree $\mathcal{S}$ restricted to the subtree $\Delta(\nu)$. Note that if $\mathcal{S}$ is derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$, then $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta(\nu)}$ is derived from $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$. Consequently, if $\mathcal{S}$ is an admissible status tree, $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta(\nu)}$ is also admissible for all nodes $\nu$.

Proposition 3.1. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a status tree. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, the quantities $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|,\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|$, $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}},\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}$ and $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|$ for all nodes $\nu$ are all $\mathcal{S}$-properties (i.e. independent of the individual input sequence $\boldsymbol{x}$ ) where $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ denotes the input sequence at node $\nu$ derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$. In particular, for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}},|\boldsymbol{x}|,|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}}$ and $|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{T}}$ are $\mathcal{S}$-properties (since $\left.\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right)$.

Proof. Note that $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}$ and $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=\sum_{\nu}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|$. So it suffices to show that for $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}, \quad\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right)\right| . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ (i.e. $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ ), then necessarily $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\emptyset$, so that (3.4) holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=0$. If $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=1$, then necessarily $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ consists only of one element and $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$, so that (3.4) also holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=1$. We now proceed by induction on $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$. Suppose that for $m \geq 1$, (3.4) holds for all $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq m$. Consider a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=m+1$, and two sequences $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. Then $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$ are both status trees of depth less than or equal to $m$. For $i=0,1$, if a node $\nu$ of level $\eta$ is such that $\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$, then the level of $\nu$ is $\eta-1$ with respect to $\Delta\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$. Moreover, for $i=0,1$, the status tree $\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)}$ is derived from each of the two sequences $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$. For $\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$, the input sequence $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{x^{\prime}}(\nu)\right.$, resp. $)$ at $\nu$ derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$ ( $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$, resp.) is exactly the input sequence at $\nu$ derived from $\boldsymbol{I}_{x}\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{x^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)\right.$, resp. $)$ with
respect to $\Delta\left(\nu_{1 i}\right)$. By the induction hypothesis, we have for nodes $\nu$ of level $\geq 2$,

$$
\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}, \quad\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right| .
$$

By (3.2) and (3.5),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}} & =|\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})|_{\mathrm{H}}+2|\rho(\boldsymbol{x})|_{\mathrm{H}}+\mathbf{1}(\sigma(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{H}) \\
& =\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+\mathbf{1}\left\{\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}\right\} \\
& =\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+\mathbf{1}\left\{\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}\right\} \\
& =\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and similarly, by (3.3) and (3.5), $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}$. Moreover, by (3.1) and (3.5),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right)\right| & =\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=|\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})|_{\mathrm{H}} \\
& =\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}} \\
& =\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)\right|_{\mathrm{H}} \\
& =\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right)\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that (3.4) holds for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=m+1$. The proof is complete.

Remark 3.2. For a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ and the corresponding set of sequences $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}: \mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\right.$ $\mathcal{S}\}$, let $n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu), k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu), \ell_{\mathcal{S}}, \ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$ be non-negative integers such that $n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|$, $k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)-k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}, \ell_{\mathcal{S}}=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|, \ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. Thus, for a given status tree $\mathcal{S}$, the above quantities are known. We write $n_{\mathcal{S}}=n_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ and $k_{\mathcal{S}}=k_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$. Furthermore, for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}, \mathbb{P}_{p}(\boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{x})=p^{k_{\mathcal{S}} q^{n_{\mathcal{S}}-k_{\mathcal{S}}},}$ independent of $\boldsymbol{x}$. In other words, this probability is also an $\mathcal{S}$-property.

Remark 3.3. A status tree $\mathcal{S}$ of depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$ with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ is referred to as trivial. A
sequence $\boldsymbol{x}$ of length $n$ for which $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ is trivial must be

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { either } \quad \boldsymbol{x}=\mathrm{H} \cdots \mathrm{H}, \quad \text { or } \quad \boldsymbol{x}=\mathrm{T} \cdots \mathrm{~T}, \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\text { or } \quad \boldsymbol{x}=\mathrm{H} \cdots \mathrm{HT}(\text { for odd } n \geq 3 \text { ), or } \quad \boldsymbol{x}=\mathrm{T} \cdots \mathrm{TH}(\text { for odd } n \geq 3) \text {. }
$$

Furthermore, by Lemma 3.2 below, we have $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=1$ for a trivial status tree $\mathcal{S}$. Indeed, if $\boldsymbol{x}$ satisfies (3.6), then $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}}=\{\boldsymbol{x}\}$. (The status tree $\mathcal{S}$ of depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ is also trivial for which $\left.\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\{\emptyset\}.\right)$

Lemma 3.1. For a status tree $\mathcal{S}$, the $\mathcal{S}$-properties $n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu), k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu), \ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$ satisfy the following conditions. For each node $\nu$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=k_{\mathcal{S}}(\lambda \nu), \quad n_{\mathcal{S}}(\rho \nu)=n_{\mathcal{S}}(\lambda \nu)-k_{\mathcal{S}}(\lambda \nu) \\
k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=k_{\mathcal{S}}(\lambda \nu)+2 k_{\mathcal{S}}(\rho \nu)+\mathbf{1}(\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{H}) \\
n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)-k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=k_{\mathcal{S}}(\lambda \nu)+2\left(n_{\mathcal{S}}(\rho \nu)-k_{\mathcal{S}}(\rho \nu)\right)+\mathbf{1}(\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{T})
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, we have by (3.1)-(3.3),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\lambda \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\rho \nu)\right|=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\lambda \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}} \\
& \left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\lambda \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\rho \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+\mathbf{1}(\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{H}), \\
& \left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\lambda \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}+2\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\rho \nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}+\mathbf{1}(\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{T}),
\end{aligned}
$$

from which the lemma follows.

Lemma 3.2. If $\mathcal{S}$ is a trivial status tree (i.e. $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ ), then $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=1$.

Proof. For $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=0$, we have $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$, implying that $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\{\emptyset\}$. So $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=1$. For $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=1$, we have $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ or T and $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ of level $\geq 2$. Clearly, we have $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\{\mathrm{H}\}$ or $\{\mathrm{T}\}$, implying that $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=1$. We now
proceed by induction on $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$. Suppose $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=1$ for all trivial status trees of depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq m$ for some $m \geq 1$. Consider a trivial status tree $\mathcal{S}$ of depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=m+1$. Let $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. We need to show $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$. Since $\mathcal{S}$ is trivial, both $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$ are trivial of depth $\leq m$. We have $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}), \lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}}$ and $\rho(\boldsymbol{x}), \rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}}$. By the induction hypothesis, $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(L)}}\right|=\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathbb{R})}}\right|=1$, so that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\lambda\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\rho\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset$ and $\sigma(\boldsymbol{x})=\sigma\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$, we have $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$. (Recall that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}), \rho(\boldsymbol{x}), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ and $\sigma(\boldsymbol{x})$ together determine $\boldsymbol{x}$.) The proof is complete.

Proposition 3.2. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a status tree and $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}: \mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\mathcal{S}\right\}$. Let $n(\nu)=n_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$, $k(\nu)=k_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu), \ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}, \ell(\nu)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$ be the $\mathcal{S}$-properties such that $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|=n(\nu)$, $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=k(\nu),\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=\ell,\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|=\ell(\nu)$ for all nodes $\nu$ and all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. Assume $\ell \geq 1$. Then for $\boldsymbol{y} \in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$, there is a unique $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{y}$. That is, $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right)$ consists of the first $\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ bits of $\boldsymbol{y}, \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)$ consists of the next $\ell\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ bits of $\boldsymbol{y}$, and so on, according to the node ordering $\prec^{\prime}$. In other words, $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}$ : $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is 1-1 and onto (i.e. bijective). In particular, $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=2^{\ell}$.

Proof. Although the proposition only considers $\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$, we will say that the proposition holds for $\mathcal{S}$ if either $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ (i.e. $\mathcal{S}$ is trivial) or $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$ and $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is 1-1 and onto. Thus, the proposition holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$. Since a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ of depth $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq 1$ has $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$, the proposition holds for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq 1$. We proceed by induction on $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$. Suppose the proposition holds for all $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq m$ for some $m \geq 1$. Consider a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=m+1$ and $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$. Let $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$. Then $\delta_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}}=m$ and $\delta_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}} \leq m$. If $\delta_{\mathcal{S}^{(R)}}=0$, then $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ is the trivial status tree for which the status of each node is O. It follows that for $\boldsymbol{x}=x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ where $n=n_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$, we have $x_{1} \neq x_{2}, x_{3} \neq x_{4}$, $\ldots, x_{2\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1} \neq x_{2\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}$. Given $\boldsymbol{y}=y_{1} \cdots y_{\ell}$, let $x_{2 i-1} x_{2 i}=$ HT or TH according as $y_{i}=1$
or $0, i=1, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. If $n$ is odd, let $x_{n}=\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$. It is readily seen $\boldsymbol{x}=x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$ is the unique sequence in $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{y}$. This shows that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is. 1-1 and onto.

We now assume $1 \leq \delta_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}} \leq m$. Letting $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}=\sum_{\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)} \ell(\nu)$ and $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}=\sum_{\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)} \ell(\nu)$, for $\boldsymbol{y} \in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$, write $\boldsymbol{y}=\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})} \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ where $\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime}$ consists of the first $\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ bits of $\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ consists of the next $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}$ bits of $\boldsymbol{y}$, and $\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ consists of the remaining $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}$ bits of $\boldsymbol{y}$. By convention, $\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime}=\emptyset$ for $\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})}=\emptyset$ for $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}=0$, and $\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}=\emptyset$ for $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}=0$. If $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}=0$, then $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ is trivial and $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}}\right|=1$ by Lemma 3.2, in which case we write $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right\}$ (i.e. $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ denotes the only sequence in $\mathcal{X}_{\left.\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L}}\right)}$ ). If $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}>0$, by the induction hypothesis applied to $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})}$, there is a unique $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right)=\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})}$. Similarly, if $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}=0$, then $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ is trivial and let $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ denote the only sequence in $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}}$. If $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}>0$, by the induction hypothesis applied to $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}$, there is a unique $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right)=\boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}$. Note by Lemma 3.1 that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|=n\left(\nu_{10}\right), \quad\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=k\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\left|\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime}\right|, \\
& \left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right|=n\left(\nu_{11}\right)=n\left(\nu_{10}\right)-k\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|-\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|_{\mathrm{H}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that there is a unique $x \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that

$$
\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}, \quad \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}, \quad \text { and } \quad \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime}
$$

(Recall that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}), \rho(\boldsymbol{x}), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vn}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ and $\sigma(\boldsymbol{x})$ together determine $\boldsymbol{x}$.) We have shown that there is a unique $x \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that
$\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\rho(\boldsymbol{x}))=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right)=\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{L})} \boldsymbol{y}^{(\mathrm{R})}=\boldsymbol{y}$.

The proof is complete.

Remark 3.4. Peres [20] proved that given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell \geq 1$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. By Proposition 3.2, if we further condition on the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\mathcal{S}$ (with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=\ell$ ), the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ remains uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Actually, Peres [20] proved that if $\boldsymbol{X}$ is an exchangeable sequence (which is more general than an iid sequence), given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{X})\right|=\ell$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Since for an exchangeable sequence $\boldsymbol{X}$, the probability of $\boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{x}$ is the same for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, it follows that given $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ remains uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ when $\boldsymbol{X}$ is an exchangeable sequence.

Remark 3.5. While $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ is the total collection of the (non-empty) output sequences at all nodes arranged according to the node ordering $\prec^{\prime}, \prec^{\prime}$ may be replaced by any other node ordering without losing the unbiasedness property. For example, let $\prec^{\prime \prime}$ be the ordering such that $\nu_{(1)} \prec^{\prime \prime} \nu_{(2)} \prec^{\prime \prime} \nu_{(3)} \prec^{\prime \prime} \cdots$, where $\nu_{(v)}=\nu_{b_{1} \cdots b_{\eta}}$ with $v=\sum_{i=1}^{\eta} 2^{\eta-i} b_{i}$. Let $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}^{\prime}(x)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{(1)}\right)\right) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right)\right) \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{(3)}\right)\right) \cdots$, which is the collection of the output sequence at all nodes arranged according to the node ordering $\prec^{\prime \prime}$. Then for a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$, given $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\mathcal{S}$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{p}}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. This is due to the fact that the number of output bits at each node is an $\mathcal{S}$-property so that for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, there is a 1-1 correspondence between $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{x})$. Remark 3.6. It is instructive to describe how the status tree evolves (changes) as input bits arrive at $\nu_{1}$ one after another. Initially, at time 0 , we have the trivial status tree $\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}$ with $\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$. We write $\mathcal{S}_{0}=\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}$. At time 1 when an input bit $x_{1}$ arrives at $\nu_{1}$, the status tree becomes $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ with $\mathcal{S}_{1}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=x_{1}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{1}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$. At time 2 when a second input bit $x_{2}$ arrives at $\nu_{1}$, the status tree becomes $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ with (i) $\mathcal{S}_{2}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for $\nu=\nu_{1}$ and for all nodes $\nu$ of level $\geq 3$, (ii) $\mathcal{S}_{2}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ if $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$,
(iii) $\mathcal{S}_{2}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}\left(\nu_{11}\right)=x_{1}$ if $x_{1}=x_{2}$. Moreover, if $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$, an output bit is generated at $\nu_{1}$, which is 0 or 1 according as $x_{1} x_{2}=$ TH or HT. More generally, given. the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{n}$ at time $n$, when an input bit $x_{n+1}$ arrives at $\nu_{1}$, the updated status tree $\mathcal{S}_{n+1}$ and the output bits induced by $x_{n+1}$ are determined by $\mathcal{S}_{n}$ and $x_{n+1}$. The following procedure describes how the status tree is updated when input bits arrive at $\nu_{1}$ one after another. Initially, all nodes are labeled as O . When an input symbol (H or T) arrives at $\nu_{1}$, each node $\nu$ may receive a symbol (H or T) from its parent node $\pi \nu$ ( $\pi \nu$ is referred to as the source if $\left.\nu=\nu_{1}\right)$, and may send a symbol ( H or T ) to $\lambda \nu$ or $\rho \nu$. Meanwhile, an output bit (0 or 1) may be generated at $\nu$. Specifically, let $\nu$ be a node with a label $s \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}\}$ and it receives a symbol $\iota \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ from its parent node $\pi \nu$ (or from the source if $\nu=\nu_{1}$ ). We do the following operations on $\nu$.
(i) When $s=\mathrm{O}$, set (update) $s=\iota$, and send no symbol to $\lambda \nu$ or $\rho \nu$.
(ii) If $s \iota=\mathrm{HT}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$, output a bit 1 , and send a symbol H to $\lambda \nu$.
(iii) If $s \iota=\mathrm{TH}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$, output a bit 0 , and send a symbol H to $\lambda \nu$.
(iv) If $s \iota=\mathrm{HH}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$ and send a symbol T to $\lambda \nu$ and a symbol H to $\rho \nu$.
(v) If $s \iota=\mathrm{TT}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$ and send a symbol T to $\lambda \nu$ and a symbol T to $\rho \nu$.

If a node receives no symbol from its parent node, then its label (status) is not updated. Note that if a node receives no symbol from its parent node, then none of its descendant nodes receives a symbol, so that their labels are not updated. When the label of a node $\nu$ is updated from H or T to O , it must have received a symbol from $\pi \nu$ and must send a symbol to $\lambda \nu$ and may also send a symbol to $\rho \nu$ if the current label and the received symbol are the same.

### 3.3 Unbiasedness of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$

For a finite random sequence $\boldsymbol{X}$, the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}$ generated from $\boldsymbol{X}$ is random. In this section, we prove that conditioning on $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\mathcal{S}$ for a given (fixed) status tree $\mathcal{S}$, the sequence of $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}$ output bits generated by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ are (conditionally) iid unbiased. For notational simplicity, we write $n=n_{\mathcal{S}}, k=k_{\mathcal{S}}, \ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}, \ell(\nu)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$. Note that $\ell=\sum_{\nu} \ell(\nu)$. Assume $\ell \geq 1$. By Proposition 3.2, $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}: \mathcal{S}_{x}=\mathcal{S}\right\}$ consists of $2^{\ell}$ sequences of length $n$ each of which has $k$ H's and $n-k$ T's. Each sequence of $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ yields an output sequence of $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. We will show that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is 1-1 (and hence onto).

It is worth noting that if $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}$ is used instead of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$, there may be two different $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)$. Specifically, consider the status tree $\mathcal{S}$ given by $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ except $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1000}\right)=\mathrm{T}, \mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1001}\right)=\mathrm{H}, \mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{110}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. (See Figure 3.1 in which those nodes not explicitly shown have status of O.) It is readily seen that


Figure 3.1: The status tree $\mathcal{S}$ given by $\mathcal{S}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ for all nodes $\nu$ except $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1000}\right)=\mathrm{T}$, $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1001}\right)=\mathrm{H}, \mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{110}\right)=\mathrm{H}$.
$n=n_{\mathcal{S}}=8, k=k_{\mathcal{S}}=4, \ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=5, \ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=2, \ell\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=2$, $\ell\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)=1$. Moreover, $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=00010$ for $\boldsymbol{x}=$ TTTHTHHH and
$\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=$ TTTHHHHT. On the other hand, $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})=00001$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=00010$. In fact, it can be shown that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{5}$ is 1-1 and onto.

Proposition 3.3. For a given status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $n=n_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$ such that $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ consists of $2^{\ell}$ sequences of length $n$, we have that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{s}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is a 1-1 (and hence onto). Consequently, given $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\mathcal{S}$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$, which implies that

$$
\mathbb{P}_{p}\left(\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{X})=\beta_{1} \cdots \beta_{\ell}| | \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{X}) \mid=\ell\right)=\frac{1}{2^{\ell}}, \quad \text { for all } \beta_{i} \in\{0,1\}, i=1, \ldots, \ell .
$$

Proof. Although the proposition only considers $\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$, we will say that the proposition holds for $\mathcal{S}$ if either $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ (i.e. $\mathcal{S}$ is trivial) or $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$ and $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}}: \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is 1-1. Thus, the proposition holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$. For $\mathcal{S}$ with $n_{\mathcal{S}}=1, \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ must be either $\{\mathrm{H}\}$ or $\{\mathrm{T}\}$, so that $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=0$. This shows that the proposition holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $n_{\mathcal{S}}=1$. We now proceed by induction on $n_{\mathcal{S}}$.

Suppose that for some $m \geq 2$, the proposition holds for all status trees $\mathcal{S}$ with $n_{\mathcal{S}} \leq$ $m-1$. Consider a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $n_{\mathcal{S}}=m$. Let $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}} \geq 1$ and $\ell(\nu)=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}(\nu)$ for all nodes $\nu$. Since $m=n_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\ell=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}, \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ consists of $2^{\ell}$ sequences of length $m$. For $\boldsymbol{x}=x_{1} \cdots x_{m} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, we write $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}=x_{1} \cdots x_{m-1}$ (which is $\boldsymbol{x}$ with the last bit $x_{m}$ deleted). A node $\nu$ is said to be affected by $x_{m}$ (or more precisely, by the last bit $x_{m}$ of $\left.\boldsymbol{x}\right)$ if $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu) \neq \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}}(\nu)$. It is readily seen that $\nu$ is affected by $x_{m}$ if and only if $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu) \neq \mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}(\nu)$. In other words, $\nu$ is affected by $x_{m}$ if and only if the status of $\nu$ changes at time $m$ when $x_{m}$ joins the input sequence at $\nu_{1}$. Note that if a node $\nu$ is not affected by $x_{m}$, then none of its descendant nodes are affected by $x_{m}$. Note also that $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)=\emptyset$ for all nodes $\nu$ of level $>\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$, implying that none of the nodes of level $>\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$ are affected by the last bit $x_{m}$ of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$.

Let $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=x_{1}^{\prime} \cdots x_{m}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}=x_{1}^{\prime \prime} \cdots x_{m}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}=y_{1} \cdots y_{\ell} \in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ be such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{y}$. We want to show $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}$ (implying that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\right|_{\chi_{S}}=\mathcal{X}_{\mathrm{S}} \rightarrow$ i $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is $\left.1-1\right)$. We make the following claim.

Claim (A):

We have $x_{m}^{\prime}=x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}=\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}$ (i.e. the status trees derived from $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$ are identical).

Assume for now that claim (A) holds. In view of $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}=\mathcal{S}_{x_{x_{-}^{\prime}}}$ and $x_{m}^{\prime}=x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$, for any node $\nu, x_{m}^{\prime}$ induces an output bit at $\nu$ if and only if $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ induces the same output bit at $\nu\left(c f\right.$. Remark 3.6). Since $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)(=\boldsymbol{y})$, we must have $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Letting $\mathcal{S}^{*}=\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime}{ }_{-m}}\left(=\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime \prime}{ }_{-m}}\right)$, if $\ell_{\mathcal{S}^{*}}=0$, then $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$ since $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{*}}\right|=1$ by Lemma 3.2. If $\ell_{\mathcal{S}^{*}}>0$, since $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}^{*}}$ and since $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, it follows from the induction hypothesis that $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$. In either case, we have $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$, which together with $x_{m}^{\prime}=x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ implies that $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}$.

It remains to establish claim (A). If $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ or T (i.e. $m$ is odd), then $x_{m}^{\prime}=x_{m}^{\prime \prime}=$ $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$, and $\nu_{1}$ is the only node affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}\left(\right.$ and $\left.x_{m}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. So $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime \prime}-m}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime}-m}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$. This proves claim (A) for the case $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ or T. Next suppose $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ (i.e. $m$ is even). For any $\boldsymbol{x}=x_{1} \cdots x_{m} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, we must have that $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}\left(\nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$ and $\nu_{10}$ is affected by $x_{m}$. If $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\mathrm{O}$, then $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}\left(\nu_{10}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$ and $\nu_{100}$ is affected by $x_{m}$. More generally, $\lambda^{i} \nu_{1}, i=0,1, \ldots, r$ are affected by $x_{m}$ where $r=\min \left\{i \geq 1: \mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{i} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\} \geq 1$. Clearly, $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}\left(\lambda^{i} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$ for $i=0, \ldots r-1$, and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$. Moreover, all descendant nodes of $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ are not affected by $x_{m}$. So $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}(\nu)$ for all descendant nodes $\nu$ of $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$.

A node $\nu$ is said to be good if

$$
\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu) \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-1}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)
$$

The first equality implies that one of the two cases occurs:
(i) node $\nu$ is neither affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ nor by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$;
(ii) $\nu$ is affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ and by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ and the input bit at $\nu$ derived from $x_{m}^{\prime}$ is the same as that derived from $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$.

A good node $\nu$ is said to be great if

$$
\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu) \neq \emptyset .
$$

We have shown that for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}, \mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$ and all descendant nodes of $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ are not affected by $x_{m}$, where $r=\min \left\{i: \mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{i} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\} \geq$ 1. In particular, $\mathcal{S}_{x_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x_{x_{-}^{\prime \prime}}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x^{\prime \prime}}\left(\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}$, which implies that the node $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ is great. Moreover, all the descendant nodes of $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ are good since they are not affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ or $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$. Note also that a node $\nu \succ \lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ is necessarily a descendant node of $\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$. So all nodes $\nu \succ \lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ are good. We make the following claim. Claim (B):

If a node $\nu^{\prime} \neq \nu_{1}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}$ are good, then there is a node $\nu^{\prime \prime} \prec \nu^{\prime}$ such that $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime}$ are good.

If claim (B) holds, then starting with $\nu^{\prime}=\lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$, there is a node $\nu^{\prime \prime} \prec \lambda^{r} \nu_{1}$ such that $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime}$ are good. If $\nu^{\prime \prime} \neq \nu_{1}$, by claim (B) applied to $\nu^{\prime \prime}$, there is
a node $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime} \prec \nu^{\prime \prime}$ such that $\nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime \prime}$ are good. Since there are only finitely many nodes that are great, eventually $\nu_{1}$ will be reached. That is, $\nu_{1}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu_{1}$ are good, which implies claim (A).

It remains to establish claim (B). Suppose $\nu^{\prime} \neq \nu_{1}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}$ are good. We need to show that there is a node $\nu^{\prime \prime} \prec \nu^{\prime}$ such that $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is great and all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime}$ are good. Consider the following four cases separately.

Case (1): $\nu^{\prime}$ is the left child node of its parent node (denoted $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ ) and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=$ $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. Clearly, $x_{m}^{\prime}$ induces an output bit at $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ and $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ induces an output bit at $\pi \nu^{\prime}$. Let $S^{\prime}=\left\{\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}: x_{m}^{\prime}\right.$ induces an output bit at $\left.\nu\right\}$ and $S^{\prime \prime}=$ $\left\{\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}: x_{m}^{\prime \prime}\right.$ induces an output bit at $\left.\nu\right\}$. Since all nodes $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}$ are good, we have $S^{\prime}=S^{\prime \prime}$. Since $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{y}=y_{1} \cdots y_{\ell}$, the output bits at the nodes in $S^{\prime}\left(=S^{\prime \prime}\right)$ induced by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ (by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$ ) must be $y_{\ell-\gamma+1} \cdots y_{\ell}$ or $\emptyset$ if $\gamma=0$, where $\gamma=\left|S^{\prime}\right|=\left|S^{\prime \prime}\right|$. Thus, the output bit at $\nu^{\prime}$ induced by $x_{m}^{\prime}\left(\right.$ and by $\left.x_{m}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ must be $y_{\ell-\gamma}$. If $y_{\ell-\gamma}=0$, then $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{T}$, and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=$ $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. If $y_{\ell-\gamma}=1$, then $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{H}$, and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\pi \nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{T}$. So $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ is great. Moreover, $\rho \pi \nu^{\prime}$ and its descendant nodes are not affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ or by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$. So $\rho \pi \nu^{\prime}$ and its descendant nodes are good. Furthermore, a node $\nu \succ \pi \nu^{\prime}$ must satisfy one of the following conditions: $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime} ; \nu=\nu^{\prime} ; \nu=\rho \pi \nu^{\prime} ; \nu$ is a descendant node of $\rho \pi \nu^{\prime}$. It follows that all nodes $\nu \succ \pi \nu^{\prime}$ are good. So $\nu^{\prime \prime}=\pi \nu^{\prime}$ satisfies the requirement in claim (B).

Case (2): $\nu^{\prime}$ is the left child node of $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{T}$. It follows that $\rho \pi \nu^{\prime}$ (the sibling node of $\nu^{\prime}$ ) is affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ and by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$. Let $r^{\prime}=$ $\min \left\{i: \mathcal{S}\left(\lambda^{i} \rho \pi \nu^{\prime}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\} \geq 0$. It is readily seen that the nodes $\lambda^{i} \rho \pi \nu^{\prime}, i=0, \ldots, r^{\prime}$
are affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ and by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime}$. Moreover, letting $\nu^{\prime \prime}=\lambda^{r^{\prime}} \rho \pi \nu^{\prime}$, we havè $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}^{\prime \prime}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=$ $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathcal{S}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right) \neq \mathbf{O}$, implying. that $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is great. Furthermore, no descendant nodes of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ are affected by $x_{m}^{\prime}$ or by $x_{m}^{\prime \prime \prime}$. Thus, all descendant nodes of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ are good. Note that every node $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime}$ must satisfy one of the following conditions: $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime} ; \nu=\nu^{\prime} ; \nu$ is a descendant node of $\nu^{\prime \prime}$. So $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ satisfies the requirement in claim (B).

Case (3): $\nu^{\prime}$ is the right child node of $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. Let $\nu^{\prime \prime}=\pi \nu^{\prime}$. Necessarily, we have $\mathcal{S}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathrm{O}$, and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathcal{S}_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\mathrm{H}$, and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime \prime}\right)=$ H. Thus, $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ is great. Also, every node $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime \prime}$ is good since either $\nu=\nu^{\prime}$ or $\nu \succ \nu^{\prime}$. So $\nu^{\prime \prime}$ satisfies the requirement in claim (B).

Case (4): $\nu^{\prime}$ is the right child node of $\pi \nu^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}\left(\nu^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{T}$. This case is similar to Case (3). It can be shown that $\nu^{\prime \prime}=\pi \nu^{\prime}$ satisfies the requirement in claim (B).

The proof is complete.

The proof of Proposition 3.3 contains (implicitly) a procedure to reconstruct $\boldsymbol{x}$ from $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})$. As an illustration, consider a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ given in Figure 3.2(a) and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})=00001$. It is readily seen that $n=|\boldsymbol{x}|=8$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. We write $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}=\boldsymbol{x}_{8}$ for the "unknown" $\boldsymbol{x}$ satisfying $\mathscr{A}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)=00001$. For $\nu$ with $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n}}(\nu)=\emptyset$, let $r_{n}(\nu)=$ $\min \left\{i \geq 0: \mathcal{S}_{x_{n}}\left(\lambda^{i} \nu\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{n}(\nu)=\lambda^{r_{n}(\nu)} \nu$. Recall that $\nu$ is said to be affected by the last term $x_{n}$ of $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}$ if $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n}}(\nu) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{n-1}}(\nu) \neq \emptyset$. To find the last term $x_{8}$ of $\boldsymbol{x}_{8}=x_{1} \cdots x_{8}$, we need to identify all the nodes affected by $x_{8}$ backwards (with respect to the ordering
$\prec)$. By definition, $\nu_{1}$ is always affected by an input symbol.
(i) The last affected node is $z_{8}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\nu_{(8)}$.

Since $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$, we have $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right)=\mathrm{O}$. As $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right) \backslash$ $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(8)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$,
(ii) the second-to-last affected node is $\xi_{8}\left(\rho \pi \nu_{(8)}\right)=\nu_{(9)}$.

Since $\mathcal{S}_{x_{8}}\left(\nu_{(9)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\nu_{(9)}$ is a right child node, we have $\mathcal{S}_{x_{7}}\left(\nu_{(9)}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and
(iii) $\quad$ the third-to-last affected node is $\pi \nu_{(9)}=\nu_{(4)}$,
and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(4)}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(4)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(4)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. Since $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(4)}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(4)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\nu_{(4)}$ is a left child node, we have
(iv) the fourth-to-last affected node is $\pi \nu_{(4)}=\nu_{(2)}$ and
an output bit (indeed the last output bit) is induced at $\nu_{(2)}$ by $x_{8}$, which is " 1 " according to $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{8}\right)=00001$. So $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$. As $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right) \backslash$ $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(2)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$,
(v) the fifth-to-last affected node is $\varepsilon_{8}\left(\rho \pi \nu_{(2)}\right)=\nu_{(6)}$.

Since $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(6)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$, we have $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(6)}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(6)}\right) \backslash \boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(6)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$, so that
(vi) the sixth-to-last affected node is $\pi \nu_{(6)}=\nu_{(3)}$
and an output bit (second-to-last output bit) is induced at $\nu_{(3)}$ by $x_{8}$, which is " 0 " according to $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}\left(x_{8}\right)=00001$. As the output bit is a 0 , we have $\mathcal{S}_{x_{7}}\left(\nu_{(3)}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{(3)}\right)\right\rangle_{\text {: }}$ $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{7}}\left(\nu_{(3)}\right)=\mathrm{H}$, implying that $x_{7} x_{8}=\mathrm{HH}$. Figure 3.2(a)-(h) provides a step-by-step description of identifying the affected nodes along with their labels at time 7 .
(a) $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}$
(b)

(c)

(d)


Figure 3.2: An illustration of reconstructing $\boldsymbol{x}$ given $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})=00001$.
(e)

(g)

(f)
(h) $\mathcal{S}_{x_{7}}$

(i) $\mathcal{S}_{x_{6}}$


Figure 3.2: (contd.) An illustration of reconstructing $\boldsymbol{x}$ given $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}(\boldsymbol{x})=00001$.

We have found $x_{8}=\mathrm{H}$ and $x_{7}=\mathrm{H}$ as well as $\mathcal{S}_{x_{7}}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{6}}$, which is given in Figure
3.2(i). Given $\mathcal{S}_{x_{6}}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathcal{S}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{6}\right)=000$, we can further identify $x_{6}$ and $x_{5}$. In the end, we arrive at $\boldsymbol{x}_{8}=$ TTTHTHHH.

### 3.4 Zhou-Bruck's streaming version of Peres' algorithm

Peres [20] described and analyzed his algorithm in the fixed-to-variable length regime where the length of the input sequence is fixed. In order to generate a pre-specified number $k$ of (unbiased) output bits, Zhou and Bruck [30] introduced a streaming version of Peres' algorithm (denoted by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$ ). Letting $\tau=\inf \left\{n:\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right| \geq k\right\}$, they showed that the first $k$ bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\tau}\right)$ are independent unbiased. While we do not consider the variable-to-fixed length regime in this dissertation, we will show that given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\ell$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$.

We first describe the $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}, 0,1\}$-labeled status tree introduced in [30], which is different from our $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}\}$-labeled status tree discussed in Section 3.2. For $\boldsymbol{x}_{n}=$ $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$, let

$$
\sigma^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}x_{n}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\ \mathrm{O}, & \text { if } n=0 \text { or } n>0 \text { is even and } x_{n-1}=x_{n} \\ 0, & \text { if } n>0 \text { is even and } x_{n-1} x_{n}=\mathrm{TH} \\ 1, & \text { if } n>0 \text { is even and } x_{n-1} x_{n}=\mathrm{HT}\end{cases}
$$

Given an input sequence $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}$ (from the source), let $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ be the input sequence at node $\nu$ derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$. Then Zhou-Bruck's status tree $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ derived from $\boldsymbol{x}$ is the (infinite complete) binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ with the label $\Sigma(\nu)=\sigma^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)$ at each node $\nu$. Note that $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ can be derived from $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ by converting a label of 0 or 1 to O . We may describe dynamically
how Zhou-Bruck's status tree evolves as input bits (symbols) arrive at the root node $\mathcal{N}_{1}$ from the source. Initially at time 0 , we have the trivial status tree $\Sigma_{0}$ with $\Sigma_{0}(\nu)=0$ for all $\nu$. Given the status tree $\Sigma_{n}$ at time $n$, when an input symbol $x_{n+1}$ arrives at node $\nu_{1}$, the updated status tree $\Sigma_{n+1}$ and the output bits induced by $x_{n+1}$ are determined by $\Sigma_{n}$ and $x_{n+1}$. The following procedure describes how the label of each node is updated. When an input symbol ( H or T ) arrives at $\nu_{1}$, each node $\nu$ may receives a symbol ( H or T ) from its parent node $\pi \nu\left(\pi \nu\right.$ is referred to as the source if $\left.\nu=\nu_{1}\right)$, and may send a symbol ( H or T) to $\lambda \nu$ or $\rho \nu$. Meanwhile, an output bit (0 or 1) may be induced at $\nu$. Specifically, let $\nu$ be a node with a label $s \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}, 0,1\}$. Suppose it receives a symbol $\iota \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ from its parent node $\pi \nu$. We do the following operations on $\nu$.
(i) When $s=\mathrm{O}$, set (update) $s=\iota$ (and send no symbol to $\lambda \nu$ or $\rho \nu$ ).
(ii) When $s=0$ or 1 , output $s$ and set $s=\iota$ (and send no symbol to $\lambda \nu$ or $\rho \nu$ ).
(iii) If $s \iota=\mathrm{HT}$, set $s=1$ and send a symbol H to $\lambda \nu$ (and send no symbol to $\rho \nu$ ).
(iv) If $s \iota=\mathrm{TH}$, set $s=0$ and send a symbol H to $\lambda \nu$ (and send no symbol to $\rho \nu$ ).
(v) If $s \iota=\mathrm{HH}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$ and send a symbol T to $\lambda \nu$ and a symbol H to $\rho \nu$.
(vi) If $s \iota=\mathrm{TT}$, set $s=\mathrm{O}$ and send a symbol T to $\lambda \nu$ and a symbol T to $\rho \nu$.

If a node receives no symbol from its parent node, then its label is unchanged and it sends no symbol to its child nodes. Thus, if a node receives no symbol from its parent node, then none of its descendant nodes receives a symbol, so that their labels remain unchanged. When the label of a node $\nu$ is updated from H or T to O or 0 or 1 , it must have received a symbol from $\pi \nu$ and must send a symbol to $\lambda \nu$ and may also send a symbol to $\rho \nu$ if the current label and the received symbol are the same. As an example, let $\boldsymbol{x}_{8}=$ TTTHTHHH
be the input sequence. Then $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{i}}, i=1, \ldots, 8$ are presented in Figure 3.3 where those nodes not shown have label O. Note that at time 4, we have $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{4}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{4}}\left(\nu_{\mathcal{H}_{10}}\right)=0$, and these two 0 's have yet to join the output sequence. At time 5 , the laber 0 at node $\nu_{1}$ joins the output sequence. At time 6 , the label 0 at node $\nu_{10}$ joins the output sequence, while $\Sigma_{x_{6}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$. The second 0 at $\nu_{1}$ joins the output sequence at time 7 . At time 8 , we have $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)=1$ and $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{8}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)=0$, and these labels 1 and 0 have yet to join the output sequence. So we have $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{8}\right)=000$.

Remark 3.7. To implement $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$, a node ordering needs to be specified when two or more bits are simultaneously ready to join the output sequence. However, unlike $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ which requires a particular node ordering to guarantee unbiasedness, we will show that any node ordering in implementation of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$ yields independent and unbiased output bits. We may refer to $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$ as a delayed version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ as a label of 0 or 1 at a node $\nu$ has to wait to join the output sequence until the node $\nu$ receives a symbol from its parent node. Zhou and Bruck [30] wrote that "the timing is crucial that we output a node's label (when it is 1 or 0 ) only after it receives the next symbol from its parent node or from the source." But they did not explain what may go wrong with "no delay". Their approach may be related to an important observation of Blum [2] where in a more general setting, "no delay" results in biased output bits.

Remark 3.8. Before we establish the unbiasedness property of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$, we need to discuss the properties of Zhou-Bruck's status tree. While a status tree $\Sigma$ is the binary tree $\boldsymbol{T}$ with a node label $\Sigma(\nu) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}, 0,1\}$ for each node $\nu$, not all such status trees are derived from an input sequence $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}$. A status tree is said to be admissible if it is derived from some input sequence $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}$. In what follows, we drop the word "admissible" so that a status tree always refers to an admissible status tree. The depth $\delta_{\Sigma}$ of a status tree
(a) $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{1}}$

T
(b) $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{2}}$

(d) $\Sigma_{x_{4}}$


(c) $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{3}}$



Figure 3.3: An example of Zhou-Bruck $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}, 1,0\}$-labeled status trees $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{i}}, i=$ $1, \ldots, 8$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_{8}=$ TTTHTHHH.
$\Sigma$ is defined by

$$
\delta_{\Sigma}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{O} \text { for all nodes } \bar{\nu}, \\ 1+\max \left\{m \geq 0: \Sigma\left(\lambda^{m} \nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H} \text { or } \mathrm{T}\right\}, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

Note that $\delta_{\Sigma_{x}}=\delta_{\mathcal{S}_{x}}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}$.

Lemma 3.3. For an (admissible) status tree $\Sigma$, let $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{*}: \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\Sigma\right\} \neq \emptyset$.
Then for $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, we have

$$
\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}}, \quad\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right)\right|,
$$

for all nodes $\nu$. Consequently, there are non-negative integers $n_{\Sigma}(\nu), k_{\Sigma}(\nu), \ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)$ such that for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ and for all nodes $\nu$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
n_{\Sigma}(\nu)=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|, \quad k_{\Sigma}=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}, \quad n_{\Sigma}(\nu)-k_{\Sigma}(\nu)=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{T}} \\
\ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|-\mathbf{1}(\Sigma(\nu)=0 \text { or } 1)
\end{gathered}
$$

In particular, for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma},|\boldsymbol{x}|,|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}},|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{T}}$ and $\ell_{\Sigma}=\sum_{\nu} \ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)=\sum_{\nu}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|-\mid\{\nu:$ $\Sigma(\nu)=0$ or 1$\} \mid$ are $\Sigma$-properties.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}\}$-labeled status tree given by

$$
\mathcal{S}(\nu)= \begin{cases}\Sigma(\nu) & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{~T} \text { or } \mathrm{O},  \tag{3.7}\\ \mathrm{O} & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=0 \text { or } 1\end{cases}
$$

Then we have $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma} \subset \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, which together with Proposition 3.1 implies Lemma 3.3.

Lemma 3.4. Let $\Sigma$ be a status tree with the corresponding set $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in\{H, T\}^{*}: \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\right.$
$\Sigma\} \neq \emptyset$. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, let $w_{\boldsymbol{x}}=w(\boldsymbol{x})$ denote the last term of the sequence $\boldsymbol{x}, N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\{\Downarrow$ : $\nu$ is affected by $w(\boldsymbol{x})\}$, and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\{\nu$ : an output bit is induced at $\nu$ by $w(\boldsymbol{x})\}$. Then, for $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, we have for all nodes $\nu$,

$$
w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}(\nu)\right)=w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)\right), \quad N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}=N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}} \quad \text { and } \quad \widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}=\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}
$$

In other words, there are $\theta(\nu) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ for all nodes $\nu$ and two sets of nodes $S$ and $\widetilde{S}$ such that for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ and for all nodes $\nu, w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)=\theta(\nu), N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=S$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\widetilde{S}$.

Remark 3.9. Let $n=|\boldsymbol{x}|$. By $w(\boldsymbol{x})$ inducing an output bit at $\nu$, we mean that the $\{0,1\}$ valued label of $\nu$ joins the output sequence at time $n$. More precisely, with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}$, the label of $\nu$ at time $n-1$ is 0 or 1 . When $w(\boldsymbol{x})$ arrives at the root node $\nu_{1}, \nu$ receives a $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$-valued symbol from its parent node which triggers the $\{0,1\}$-valued label of $\nu$ to join the output sequence at time $n$.

Proof of Lemma 3.4. The lemma holds trivially for $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma}=0$ or 1 since $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right|=1$. We proceed by induction on $\delta_{\Sigma}$. Suppose the lemma holds for $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma} \leq m-1$ for some $m \geq 2$. Consider a status tree $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma}=m$. By the induction hypothesis applied to $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}:=\left.\Sigma\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}:=\left.\Sigma\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$ (both of depth $\leq m-1$ ), we have $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)$ independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ for all $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$. (More precisely, for a descendant node $\nu$ of $\nu_{10}$, the input sequence $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ at $\nu$ derived from the input sequence $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ at $\nu_{1}$ may also be referred to as the input sequence at $\nu$ derived from the input sequence $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ at the "root" node $\nu_{10}$ (with respect to $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ ). Then by the induction hypotheses applied to $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$, we have $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)$ independent of $\left.\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}.\right)$ It remains to show that $w(\boldsymbol{x})=w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right)$, $N_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ are independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$.

By Lemma 3.3, let $n=n_{\Sigma}\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ be such that $|\boldsymbol{x}|=\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)\right|=n$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. If $n$ is
odd, then $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ (i.e. $w(\boldsymbol{x})$ is independent of $\left.x \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right)$. Moreover, no node of level $\geq 2$ is affected by $w(\boldsymbol{x})$, implying that $N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\}$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. We have $\tilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \subset N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\}$. To show that $\tilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\emptyset$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ or $\tilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\}$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, by the induction hypothesis applied to $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}$, there is a $z \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ such that $z=w\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right)$ for all $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}}$. Noting that $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right) \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, we have $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=z$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, let $\boldsymbol{x}_{-n}$ be $\boldsymbol{x}$ with the last term $x_{n}$ deleted. If $z=\mathbf{H}$, then $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{x_{-n}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=\mathbf{H}$, implying that $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-n}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$ or 1 for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, so $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\}$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. If $z=\mathrm{T}$, then $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=$ $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-n}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=\mathrm{T}$, implying that $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-n}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, so $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\emptyset$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$.

Next suppose $n$ is even. If $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$, then we have $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{H}$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. Moreover, for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, when the symbol $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{H}$ arrives at $\nu_{1}, \nu_{1}$ sends a symbol H to $\nu_{10}$ and sends no symbol to $\nu_{11}$, implying that $N_{x}$ contains no nodes in $\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)$ for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. (For notational convenience, we write $N_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\emptyset$ for $\left.\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}.\right)$ By the induction hypothesis applied to $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}, N_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ are independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$, where $N_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ is the set of nodes in $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ that are affected by the input symbol H at $\nu_{10}$, and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ is the set of nodes in $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ where an output bit is induced by the input symbol H at $\nu_{10}$. Since $N_{x} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\emptyset$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ (implying that $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\emptyset$ ), we have $N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\} \cup\left(N_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cap \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)$ independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. Similarly, if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=1$, we have $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{T}$, $N_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$.

Finally, suppose $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$. By the induction hypothesis applied to $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}$, we have $z^{(\mathrm{L})} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ and $z^{(\mathrm{R})} \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ such that $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=z^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right)=z^{(\mathrm{R})}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. The fact that $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ implies that $z^{(\mathrm{L})}=\mathrm{T}$. Let $N^{(\mathrm{L})}\left(N^{(\mathrm{R})}\right.$, resp. $)$
be the set of nodes in $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)\left(\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right.$, resp.) that are affected by $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{x}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=z(\mathrm{~L})$ $\left(w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right)=z^{(\mathrm{R})}\right.$, resp. $)$. Let $\widetilde{N}^{(\mathrm{L})}\left(\tilde{N}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right.$, resp. $)$ be the set of nodes in $\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)\left(\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right.$, resp.) where an output bit is induced by $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)=z^{(\mathrm{L})}\left(w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right)=z^{(\mathrm{R})}\right.$, resp. $)$. Note that by the induction hypothesis, the sets $N^{(\mathrm{L})}, N^{(\mathrm{R})}, \widetilde{N}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $\widetilde{N}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ are independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. It follows that $N_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left\{\nu_{1}\right\} \cup N^{(\mathrm{L})} \cup N^{(\mathrm{R})}$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\widetilde{N}^{(\mathrm{L})} \cup \widetilde{N}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ are independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. If $z^{(\mathrm{R})}=\mathrm{H}$, then $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{H}$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. If $z^{(\mathrm{R})}=\mathrm{T}$, then $w(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{T}$, independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. The proof is complete.

Lemma 3.5. For a status tree $\Sigma$, the $\Sigma$-properties $n_{\Sigma}(\nu), k_{\Sigma}(\nu), \ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)$ satisfy the following conditions. For each node $\nu$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)+\mathbf{1}(\Sigma(\nu)=0 \text { or } 1)=k_{\Sigma}(\lambda \nu), \quad n_{\Sigma}(\rho \nu)=n_{\Sigma}(\lambda \nu)-k_{\Sigma}(\lambda \nu) \\
k_{\Sigma}(\nu)=k_{\Sigma}(\lambda \nu)+2 k_{\Sigma}(\rho \nu)+\mathbf{1}(\Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{H}), \\
n_{\Sigma}(\nu)-k_{\Sigma}(\nu)=k_{\Sigma}(\lambda \nu)+2\left(n_{\Sigma}(\rho \nu)-k_{\Sigma}(\rho \nu)\right)+\mathbf{1}(\Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{T}) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a $\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{O}\}$-labeled status tree as defined in (3.7). Noting that $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma} \subset \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, Lemma 3.5 follows from Lemma 3.1.

Lemma 3.6. Let $\Sigma$ be a status tree and $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}: \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\Sigma\right\} \neq \emptyset$. Let $n(\nu)=n_{\Sigma}(\nu)$, $k(\nu)=k_{\Sigma}(\nu), \ell=\ell_{\Sigma}, \ell(\nu)=\ell_{\Sigma}(\nu)$ be the $\Sigma$-properties such that $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|=n(\nu)$, $\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=k(\nu), \ell(\nu)=\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{VN}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)\right)\right|-\mathbf{1}(\Sigma(\nu)=0$ or 1$)$, and $\ell=\sum_{\nu} \ell(\nu)=$ $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|-\mid\{\nu: \Sigma(\nu)=0$ or 1$\} \mid$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. Then $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right|=2^{\ell}$.

Proof. The lemma holds trivially for $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma}=0$ or 1 since $\ell=0$ and $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right|=1$. We proceed by induction on $\delta_{\Sigma}$. Suppose the lemma holds for $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma} \leq m$ for some $m \geq 1$. Consider a status tree $\Sigma$ with $\delta_{\Sigma}=m+1$. Let $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}=\left.\Sigma\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}=\left.\Sigma\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$. Let $\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}=\sum_{\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)} \ell(\nu)$ and $\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}=\sum_{\nu \in \Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)} \ell(\nu)$. By the induction hypothesis applied to
$\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}$, we have $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}}\right|=2^{\ell^{(\mathrm{L})}}$ and $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}}\right|=2^{\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}}$. By Lemma 3.5, for $\boldsymbol{x}$ (L) $\in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}}$,
$\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|_{\mathrm{H}}=k\left(\nu_{10}\right)=\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)+\mathbf{1}\left(\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0\right.$ or 1$), \quad\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}\right|_{\mathrm{T}}=n\left(\nu_{10}\right)-k\left(\nu_{10}\right)=n\left(\nu_{11}\right)=\left|\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right|$.

If $\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right) \geq 1$, then for each $\boldsymbol{y} \in\{0,1\}^{\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)},\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}, \boldsymbol{y}\right)$ determines a unique $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ such that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}, \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{y}$ if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right) \neq 0$ or 1 or $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=$ $\boldsymbol{y} * \Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$ or 1, where $*$ is concatenation. If $\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$, then $\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}\right)$ determines a unique $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ such that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{L})}, \rho(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{x}^{(\mathrm{R})}$ and $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\emptyset$ if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right) \neq 0$ or 1 or $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})=\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)$ if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$ or 1 . Indeed, the mapping $f: \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma} \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(L)}} \times \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathbb{R})}} \times\{0,1\}^{\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)}$ with $f(\boldsymbol{x})=\left(\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}), \rho(\boldsymbol{x}), \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x})\right)$ is 1-1 and onto where $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x})$ is $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right) \neq 0$ or 1 or $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ with the last bit deleted if $\Sigma\left(\nu_{1}\right)=0$ or 1. This shows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right| & =\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{L})}}\right| \times\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma^{(\mathrm{R})}}\right| \times 2^{\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)} \\
& =2^{\ell(\mathrm{L})} \times 2^{\ell^{(\mathrm{R})}} \times 2^{\ell\left(\nu_{1}\right)}=2^{\ell} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof is complete.

Proposition 3.4. Let $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ denote the output sequence generated by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{x}$ according to any given node ordering. Let $\Sigma$ be a status tree with $\ell=\ell_{\Sigma} \geq 1$. Then given $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{X}}=\Sigma$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Consequently, given $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}(\boldsymbol{X})\right|=\ell$, the conditional distribution of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}(\boldsymbol{X})$ is uniform on $\{0,1\}^{\ell}$.

Proof. To establish that $\left.\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\right|_{\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}}: \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is 1-1 and onto, by Lemma 3.6, it suffices
to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { if } \mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { for } \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma} \text {, then } \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime} \tag{3,8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $n_{\Sigma}$ be such that $|\boldsymbol{x}|=n_{\Sigma}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$. If $n_{\Sigma}=1$, (3.8) holds trivially since $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}\right|=1$. We proceed by induction on $n_{\Sigma}$.

Suppose (3.8) holds for $\Sigma$ with $n_{\Sigma} \leq m-1$ for some $m \geq 2$. Consider a status tree $\Sigma$ with $n_{\Sigma}=m$ and $\ell=\ell_{\Sigma} \geq 1$. Let $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ be such that $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. We need to show that $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}$. By Lemma 3.4, $w\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=w\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right), N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}=N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}$ and $\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}=\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}$. Let $\boldsymbol{y}=y_{1} \cdots y_{\ell}=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right) \in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Let $\gamma=\left|\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\right|\left(=\left|\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\right|\right)$. Since $\tilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}=\tilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}$, we have $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}\right)=y_{1} \cdots y_{\ell-\gamma}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$ are, respectively, $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}$ with the last term deleted. We claim that $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}=\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}$. To prove the claim, we have $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)=\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)=\Sigma(\nu)$ for $\nu \notin N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(=N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\right)$. For $\nu \in \widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(=\widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\right), \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)$ and $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)$ are the (same) output bit at $\nu$ (induced by $w\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left.w\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$. For $\nu \in N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}} \backslash \widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}\left(=N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}} \backslash \widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}}\right)$, we have

$$
\Sigma_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu)=\Sigma_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}(\nu)= \begin{cases}\mathrm{O} & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{H} \text { or } \mathrm{T}, \\ w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\rho \nu)\right) & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=\mathrm{O}, \\ \mathrm{H} & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=1, \\ \mathrm{~T} & \text { if } \Sigma(\nu)=0\end{cases}
$$

(Note that for $\nu \in N_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}} \backslash \widetilde{N}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}, \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}(\nu) \neq 0$ or 1 . Note also that $w\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\rho \nu)\right)$ is independent of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\Sigma}$ by Lemma 3.4.) This established the claim that $\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}}=\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}$.

By the induction hypothesis applied to the status tree of $\Sigma_{x_{-m}^{\prime}}=\Sigma_{x_{-m}^{\prime \prime}}$ together with $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}\right)=\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{ZB}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}\right)$, we have $\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}_{-m}^{\prime \prime}$, implying that $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime \prime}$ (since

### 3.5 Counting status trees

For $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$, an iid sequence with $\mathbb{P}\left(X_{i}=\mathrm{H}\right)=p$, to compute $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$, it is useful to find $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}=\left|\left\{\mathcal{S}: n_{\mathcal{S}}=n, k_{\mathcal{S}}=k, \ell_{\mathcal{S}}=\ell\right\}\right|$ for integers $k \leq n, \ell \leq n-1$, where $n_{\mathcal{S}}, k_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}$ are the $\mathcal{S}$-properties such that $|\boldsymbol{x}|=n_{\mathcal{S}}$, $|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}}=k_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=\ell_{\mathcal{S}}$ for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$. By Proposition 3.2, we have $\left|\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}\right|=2^{\ell_{\mathcal{S}}}$. We write $\boldsymbol{x} \sim \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$ if $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}}$, which is an equivalence relation. The set $S_{n, k}=\{\boldsymbol{x} \in$ $\left.\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}:|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{H}}=k,|\boldsymbol{x}|_{\mathrm{T}}=n-k\right\}$ is then partitioned into equivalence classes each of which corresponds to a status tree. The equivalence class corresponding to a status trees $\mathcal{S}$ is $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$ whose cardinality is $2^{\ell_{\mathcal{S}}}$. Given $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}=\left|\left\{\mathcal{S}: n_{\mathcal{S}}=n, k_{\mathcal{S}}=k, \ell_{\mathcal{S}}=\ell\right\}\right|$, the set $S_{n, k}$ is partitioned into $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}$ classes of cardinality $2^{\ell}, \ell=0,1, \ldots$. Consequently,

$$
\binom{n}{k}=\sum_{\ell \geq 0} a_{\ell}^{(n, k)} 2^{\ell}
$$

As an example, for $n=10, k=4$, we have
$a_{1}^{(10,4)}=1, \quad a_{2}^{(10,4)}=2, \quad a_{3}^{(10,4)}=1, \quad a_{4}^{(10,4)}=4, \quad a_{5}^{(10,4)}=2, \quad a_{6}^{(10,4)}=1$.
and $a_{\ell}^{(10,4)}=0$ for $\ell \notin\{1, \ldots, 6\}$. It is easily verified that

$$
\sum_{\ell \geq 0} a_{\ell}^{(10,4)} 2^{\ell}=210=\binom{10}{4}
$$

Given $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}$,s, $\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ can be calculated by

$$
\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=\sum_{k=0}^{n} \sum_{\ell \geq 0} \ell a_{\ell}^{(n, k)} 2^{\ell} p^{k} q^{n-k}
$$

To derive a recursive formula for $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}$,s, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 3.7. For a status tree $\mathcal{S}$, we have

$$
|\boldsymbol{x}|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=|\{\nu: \mathcal{S}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\}|
$$

for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$.

Proof. The lemma holds trivially for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=0$ and $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=1$. We proceed by induction on $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}$. Suppose the lemma holds for $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}} \leq m-1$ for some $m \geq 2$. Consider a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ with $\delta_{\mathcal{S}}=m$. Let $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}=\left.\mathcal{S}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$, both of depth $\leq m-1$. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{S}}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
|\boldsymbol{x}| & =2\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|+\mathbf{1}\left(\mathcal{S}\left(\nu_{1}\right) \neq \mathrm{O}\right),  \tag{3.9}\\
\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right| & =\left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right|+\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right| . \tag{3.10}
\end{align*}
$$

By the induction hypothesis applied to $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)\right|=\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{L})}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|,  \tag{3.11}\\
& \left|\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right)\right|=\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}^{(\mathrm{R})}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right| . \tag{3.12}
\end{align*}
$$

Adding the equations (3.9)-(3.12) yields

$$
|\boldsymbol{x}|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{10}\right)\right)\right|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{11}\right)\right)\right|=|\{\nu: \mathcal{S}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\}|+\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{vN}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|,
$$

implying that

$$
|\boldsymbol{x}|-\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}(\boldsymbol{x})\right|=|\{\nu: \mathcal{S}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\}| .
$$

The proof is complete.

By Lemma 3.7, a status tree $\mathcal{S}$ satisfies

$$
n_{\mathcal{S}}-\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=|\{\nu: \mathcal{S}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\}| .
$$

It is convenient to introduce the infinite-dimensional vector

$$
D_{n, k}=\left(a_{n}^{(n, k)}, a_{n-1}^{(n, k)}, \ldots, a_{1}^{(n, k)}, a_{0}^{(n, k)}, 0,0, \ldots\right) .
$$

In other words, the $i$-th element of $D_{n, k}(i \leq n+1)$ is the number of status trees $\mathcal{S}$ with $n_{\mathcal{S}}=n, k_{\mathcal{S}}=k$ and $|\{\nu: \mathcal{S}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\}|=i-1$ (implying that $\ell_{\mathcal{S}}=n_{\mathcal{S}}-i+1$ ). Let $\mathbb{N}^{\infty}$ be the set of infinite-dimensional vectors of non-negative integers with finitely many non-zero elements. For $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots\right)$ and $D^{\prime}=\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{\infty}$, define

$$
D+D^{\prime}=\left(d_{1}+d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}+d_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
D D^{\prime} & =\left(\sum_{i} d_{i} \boldsymbol{e}_{i}\right)\left(\sum_{j} d_{j}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{e}_{j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i, j} d_{i} d_{j}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{e}_{i} \boldsymbol{e}_{j} \\
& =\sum_{i, j} d_{i} d_{j}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{e}_{i+j-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{e}_{i}=(0, \ldots, 0,1,0, \ldots)$ is the infinite-dimensional vector with the $i$ th element 1
and all the other elements zeros.

Lemma 3.8. We have $D_{n, k}=D_{n, n-k}$.

Proof. For $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots x_{n}\right) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$, let $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{x}}=\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_{n}\right) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}^{n}$ be such that $\widetilde{x}_{i} \neq x_{i}, i=1, \ldots, n$. We have $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n, k}$ if and only if $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{x}} \in S_{n, n-k}$. It is readily seen that $\mathcal{S}_{x}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x}}$ satisfy that $\mathcal{S}_{x}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{\left(2^{i}-1\right)}, i=1,2, \ldots$ and that for $\nu=\nu_{\left(2^{i}-1\right)}$, either $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\widetilde{\boldsymbol{x}}}(\nu)=\mathrm{O}$ or $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu), \mathcal{S}_{\widetilde{\boldsymbol{x}}}(\nu) \in\{\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{T}\}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu) \neq \mathcal{S}_{\widetilde{\boldsymbol{x}}}(\nu)$. In particular, $\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}_{x}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|=\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x}}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|$. It follows from Lemma 3.7 that $a_{\ell}^{(n, k)}=a_{\ell}^{(n, n-k)}$. The proof is complete.

Note that $D_{0,0}=(1,0,0, \ldots)=\boldsymbol{e}_{1}$ and $D_{1,0}=D_{1,1}=(0,1,0, \ldots)=\boldsymbol{e}_{2}$.

Proposition 3.5. Let $n \geq 2$ and $k \geq 1$. Then
(i) for even $n \geq 2$ and $k \leq n / 2$,

$$
D_{n, k}=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor k / 2\rfloor} D_{\frac{n}{2}, k-2 i} D_{\frac{n}{2}-k+2 i, i},
$$

(ii) for odd $n \geq 3$ and $k<n / 2$,

$$
D_{n, k}=D_{1,0}\left(D_{n-1, k}+D_{n-1, k-1}\right) .
$$

Proof. To prove (i), let $n \geq 2$ be even and $0 \leq k \leq n / 2$. For $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n, k}$, we have

$$
\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}) \in S_{\frac{n}{2}, k-2 i} \quad \text { and } \quad \rho(\boldsymbol{x}) \in S_{\frac{n}{2}-k+2 i, i} \quad \text { for some } 0 \leq i \leq\lfloor k / 2\rfloor .
$$

Moreover, $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$,

$$
\left.\mathcal{S}_{x}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}=\mathcal{S}_{\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})} \quad \text { and }\left.\quad \mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}=\mathcal{S}_{\rho(x)},
$$

implying that $\mathcal{S}_{x}$ is uniquely determined by $\mathcal{S}_{\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\rho(\boldsymbol{x})}$. On the other hand, for $\boldsymbol{u} \in$ $S_{\frac{n}{2}, k-2 i}$ and $\boldsymbol{v} \in S_{\frac{n}{2}-k+2 i, i}$, there is a unique $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n, k}$ such that $\lambda(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{u}$ and $\bar{\rho}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{v}$. Furthermore, the three status trees $\mathcal{S}_{x}, \mathcal{S}_{u}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{v}$ satisfy $\mathcal{S}_{u}=\left.\mathcal{S}_{x}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{10}\right)}, \mathcal{S}_{v}=\left.\mathcal{S}_{x}\right|_{\Delta\left(\nu_{11}\right)}$ and $\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}_{x}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|=\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}_{u}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|+\left|\left\{\nu: \mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{v}}(\nu) \neq \mathrm{O}\right\}\right|$. This establishes the formula in (i). To prove (ii), note that

$$
S_{n, k}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{~T}: \boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n-1, k}\right\} \cup\left\{\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{H}: \boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n-1, k-1}\right\}
$$

A status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n, k}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ induces the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}$ with $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_{-n} \in S_{n-1, k}$ is $\boldsymbol{x}$ with the last term deleted. Similarly, a status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n, k}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ induces the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}$ with $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{O}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x_{-n}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_{-n} \in S_{n-1, k-1}$. Conversely, a status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n-1, k}$ induces the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{~T}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{~T} \in S_{n, k}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x * \mathrm{~T}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{T}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x * \mathrm{~T}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$. A status tree $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} \in S_{n-1, k-1}$ induces the status tree $\mathcal{S}_{x * \mathrm{H}}$ with $\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{H} \in S_{n, k}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x} * \mathrm{H}}\left(\nu_{1}\right)=\mathrm{H}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{x * \mathrm{H}}(\nu)=\mathcal{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\nu)$ for $\nu \neq \nu_{1}$. This establishes the formula in (ii). The proof is complete.

## Chapter 4 Concluding remarks

In this dissertation, we have studied the asymptotic behavior of Peres' algorithm and introduced and analyzed its streaming versions. Specifically, by exploiting the recursion in (2.3), we derived for $p=\frac{1}{2}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log \left(n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right)}{\log n}=\theta=\log \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is the input sequence of the outcomes of $n$ coin tosses with bias $p,\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ is the number of unbiased output bits generated by Peres' algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{X}_{n}$, and $h(p)=-p \log p-(1-p) \log (1-p)$ is the Shannon entropy of each $X_{i}$. For $p=\frac{1}{2}$, the coin is unbiased and the input sequence consists of $n$ iid unbiased observations, so that $n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|=n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ may be referred to as the cost incurred by $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ when not knowing $p=\frac{1}{2}$. It is a challenging task to obtain more refined results beyond (4.1). A positive sequence $\{L(n)\}$ is said to be regularly varying of index $\theta$ if

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} L(\lfloor\alpha n\rfloor) / L(n)=\alpha^{\theta} \quad \text { for all } \alpha>0
$$

(See Bojanic and Seneta [3] for a unified theory of regularly varying sequences.) Figures 2.3 and 2.4 suggest that $n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ may be a regularly varying sequence. Furthermore, it is of interest to see if $\left(n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right) / n^{\theta}$ converges to a positive
constant (which would imply that $n-\mathbb{E}_{1 / 2}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ is regularly varying of index $\theta$ ). If so, how can this constant be characterized? For $p \neq \frac{1}{2}$, no recursion like (2.3) is available. It seems difficult to derive an asymptotic result on $n h(p)-\mathbb{E}_{p}\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$ similar to (4.1). Furthermore, $\operatorname{Var}_{p}\left(\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right)$, the variance of $\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|$, is also of interest and importance. Even for $p=\frac{1}{2}$, it seems challenging to derive the asymptotic behavior of $\operatorname{Var}_{1 / 2}\left(\left|\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)\right|\right)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The original Peres' algorithm $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ is not streaming in the sense that some of the output bits in $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{n}\right)$ may be placed after the output bits induced by $X_{n+1}$. We introduced a binary tree representation of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$, based on which we further introduced a class of streaming versions of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ in terms of orderings of the nodes of the binary tree. We showed by example that in general a streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ is not unbiased. By establishing some useful properties of status trees, we showed that a particular streaming version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{P}}$ (denoted $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ ) is unbiased. We also showed that a delayed version of $\mathscr{A}_{\mathrm{S}}$ proposed by Zhou and Bruck [30] is unbiased.

The algorithms considered in this dissertation are in the fixed-to-variable length regime where the length of the input sequence is fixed while the number of output bits is random. In practical applications, the variable-to-fixed length regime may be more relevant where a (fixed) number of (unbiased) output bits is required and the length of the input sequence is random, in which case a stopping time is involved (i.e. stopping at the first time when the number of output bits meets the requirement). Variants of Peres' algorithm in the variable-to-fixed length regime are worth further investigation.

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