## Lecture 10: Linear Codes

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We gave bounds on the theoretical possibility of detecting/decoding errors, but we did not address the problem of performing this task efficiently. In this section, we introduce a secial class of codes for which error detection/correction is easy: The linear codes.

### 10.1 Basic properties of linear codes

Definition 10.1 (Linear codes) $A(m, k)$ code over a field $\mathbb{F}$ is a linear subspace of $\mathbb{F}^{m}$ of dimension $k$.

Example 1 Let

$$
G=\left(\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{F}_{2}$. Then the linear span of the rows of $G$ (i.e., all the possible linear combinations of the rows of $G)$ is a (6,2) code. Its codewords are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (1,0,1,0,1,0) \\
& (0,1,0,1,0,1) \\
& (1,1,1,1,1,1) \\
& (0,0,0,0,0,0)
\end{aligned}
$$

The important parameters quantifying how many errors we can handle is $d(\mathcal{C})$.

Definition 10.2 (Hamming weight) The Hamming weight $w(v)$ of $v \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$ is the number of non-zero entries of $v$. Incidentally, it is also $w(v)=d(v,(0, \ldots, 0))$.

Proposition 10.3 Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a linear code, then

$$
d(\mathcal{C})=\min \{w(v) \mid v \neq 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}
$$

Proof: Let $u, v \in \mathcal{C}, u \neq v$ such that $d(u, v)=d(\mathcal{C})$. Then $u-v \in \mathcal{C}$ and

$$
d(u, v)=d(u-v,(0, \ldots, 0))=w(u-v) \geq \min \{w(x) \mid x \neq 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}
$$

So $d(\mathcal{C}) \geq \min \{w(v) \mid v \neq 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Also, let $u \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $w(u)=\min \{w(x) \mid x \neq 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Then $w(u)=d(u,(0, \ldots, 0)) \geq d(\mathcal{C})$ because $u \in \mathcal{C},(0, \ldots, 0) \in \mathcal{C}$. So $d(\mathcal{C}) \leq \min \{w(v) \mid v \neq 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$.

Example 2 The code defined by the span of the rows of

$$
G=\left(\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

has distance 3.

Definition 10.4 The matrix $G$ such that $\mathcal{C}$ is the span of the rows of $G$ is called the generating matrix of $\mathcal{C}$. If $G=\binom{I_{h}}{$\hline} where $I_{h}$ is the $h \times h$ identity matrix: 1's on the diagonal, 0 's everywhere else. $P$ is a $h \times(m-h)$ matrix. $\mathcal{C}$ is said to be systematic.

Let $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{h}$ be the rows of $G$. A codeword is of the form

$$
c=\lambda_{1} G_{1}+\cdots \lambda_{h} G_{h}=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{h}, ?, \ldots, ?\right)
$$

where $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{h}$ are information symbols and ?,...? are check symbols.

Definition 10.5 A matrix $H$ such that

$$
v H^{T}=0 \Longleftrightarrow v \in \mathcal{C}
$$

is a parity check matrix for $\mathcal{C}$.

Proposition 10.6 If $G=\left(I_{h} P\right)$ is a generating matrix for $\mathcal{C}$, then $H=\left(-P^{T} I_{m-h}\right)$ is a parity check matrix for $\mathcal{C}$.

Proof: We start by proving that each row $G_{i}$ of $G$ satisfies $G_{i} H^{T}=0 . H^{T}$ has the form:

$$
\binom{-P}{I_{n-h}}
$$

The coordinate $j$ of $G_{i} \cdot H^{T}$ is the dot product of $G_{i}=\left(0, \cdots, 0,1,0, \cdots, 0, P_{i, 1}, \cdots, P_{i, n-k}\right)$ where 1 in ith position, $H_{j}=\left(-P_{1, j}, \cdots,-P_{i, j}, \cdots,-P_{h, j}, 0, \cdots, 1,0, \cdots, 0\right)$ where $H_{j}$ is j th column of $H^{T}$, i.e. j th row of $H$, it equals $-P_{i l}+P_{i j}=0$.

Moreover, the column rank of $H^{T}$ is $n-k$ while the sign of its columns is $n$. So by the rank-nullity theorem, the dimension of the left nullspace $\operatorname{Null}\left(H^{T}\right)$ of $H^{T}$ is $\operatorname{dim}\left(N u l l\left(H^{T}\right)\right)=n-(n-k)=k$.

We found $k$ independent vectors $G_{i}$ in $\operatorname{Null}\left(H^{T}\right)$, therefore they are a basis of $N u l l\left(H^{T}\right)$. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
v \cdot H^{T}=0 & \Leftrightarrow v \in \operatorname{Null}\left(H^{T}\right) \\
& \Leftrightarrow v \in \operatorname{Span}\left(G_{i}\right) \\
& \Leftrightarrow v \in \mathcal{C}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 3 With

$$
G=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

$$
H^{T}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and we see that $G_{1} \cdot H^{T}=0, G_{2} \cdot H^{T}=0$.
Use for decoding: We can use this property to determine if $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ is in $\rfloor$, but we can also find the nearest $\overline{c \in \mathcal{C}}$ to the received message $r \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ !

Before we show how to decode, we need to introduce the notion of coset.

Definition 10.7 (coset) Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a linear code, and let $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$.

- The sets of the form $\mu+\mathcal{C}:=\{\mu+c \mid c \in \mathcal{C}\}$ are called cosets of $\mathcal{C}$.
- Any $\mu^{\prime} \in \mu+\mathcal{C}$ is a member of the coset, and the one with the smallest Hamming weight is called a coset leader.

Definition 10.8 The syndrome of $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ is $S(\mu)=\mu H^{T}$.

Lemma 10.9 Two vectors $\mu$ and $v$ belongs to the same coset if and only if they have the same syndrome.

Proof: Clearly, $c \in \mathcal{C} \Leftrightarrow S(c)=0$. moreover, $\mu$ and $v$ belongs to the same coset if and only if $\mu-v \in \mathcal{C}$. So:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mu \text { and } v \text { belongs to the same coset }) & \Leftrightarrow \mu-v \in \mathcal{C} \\
& \Leftrightarrow S(\mu-v)=0 \\
& \Leftrightarrow S(\mu)-S(v)=0 \\
& \Leftrightarrow S(\mu)=S(v)
\end{aligned}
$$

To decode $r$, we simply observe that we want to find the smallest $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ such that $r-\mu \in \mathcal{C}$ (Otherwise stated: the smallest pertubation of $r$ leading to a code word).
This is by definition the coset leader of $r+\mathcal{C}$.
So we keep a lookup table of all the coset leaders with their syndromes and we follow the procedure:

- Calculate the syndrome $S(r)=r H^{T}$ of the received vector $r$.
- Find the coset leader $G$ with the same syndrome as $S(r)$
- Return $r-c_{0} \in \mathcal{C}$.


## Example 4 For

$$
\begin{gathered}
G=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \\
H=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

There are four different cosets and we have the lookup table

| Coset leader | syndrome |
| :--- | :--- |
| $(0,0,0,0)$ | $(0,0)$ |
| $(1,0,0,0)$ | $(1,1)$ |
| $(0,1,0,0)$ | $(1,0)$ |
| $(0,0,0,1)$ | $(0,1)$ |

Suppose we receive $r=(0,1,0,1)$, we first calculate its syndrome $S(r)=r H^{T}=(1,1)$. Then we decode $r-\underbrace{(1,0,0,0)}=(1,1,0,1) \in \mathcal{C}$.
coset leader with syndrome $(1,1)$.

### 10.2 Hamming codes

The Hamming codes are a class of linear codes with distance $d=3$, which means that the decoding procedure works under the assumption that the number of errors does not exceed 1 .
In the case of a single error, the decoding procedure can be simplified. Supposed $H$ is the parity check matrix of $\mathcal{C}$, and suppose we receive $r \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$.

1. If $r H^{T}=0$, then return $r \in \mathcal{C}$.
2. Otherwise $r=c+e_{i}$ where $c \in \mathcal{C}, e_{i}=(0,0, \cdots, 0,1,0, \cdots, 0)$ where 1 in ith position. $r H^{T}=c H^{T}+e_{i} H^{T}=0+e_{i} H^{T}=\mathrm{i}$ th column of $H$

Flip the coefficient $i$ of $r$ and return the corresponding vector. Now, how do we construct a Hamming code? We start by building $H$. The two parameters are $m$ and $n=2^{m}-1$.
We first build the $m \times n$ matrix whos columns are the bits of $1,2, \cdots, 2^{m}-1$.

Example 5 Ex. for $m=3, n=7$ :

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then we reorder the columns such that the last block be the $m \times m$ identity matrix, and that gives us $H$.

$$
H=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(-p^{T}, I_{m}\right)
$$

From that, we deduce the generality matrix $G=\left(I_{h} P\right)$ where $h=2^{n}-1-m$.

Proposition 10.10 The distance of a Hamming code is 3 .

Proof: The generating matrix is of the form $G=\left(I_{h} P\right)$. Each row of $P$ is the bit vector of an integer that has between 2 and $m$ no zero bits. Therefore some of the rows of $G$ have Hamming weight 3 (Since the rows of $I_{h}$ have Hamming weight 1). Moreover, we cannot obtain a linear combination of the rows of $G$ with weight less than 3 because rows of $P$ cannot add to the 0 vector. Any linear combination of more rows of $G$ will have at least weight 3 on the first $k$ coordinates.
So $d(\mathcal{C})=\min \{W(\mu), \mu t \mathcal{C}\}=3$.

