MAD 4471: Cryptography and Coding Theory Fall 2020 Lecture 10: Linear Codes Lecturer: Jean-François Biasse TA: William Youmans TA: William Youmans

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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

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

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

$$(1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0)$$

 $(0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$
 $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$
 $(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$

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, ..., 0)).

Proposition 10.3 Let 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

$$d(u, v) = d(u - v, (0, ..., 0)) = w(u - v) \ge \min\{w(x) \mid x \ne 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

So $d(\mathcal{C}) \ge \min\{w(v) \mid v \ne 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Also, let $u \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $w(u) = \min\{w(x) \mid x \ne 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Then $w(u) = d(u, (0, ..., 0)) \ge d(\mathcal{C})$ because $u \in \mathcal{C}, (0, ..., 0) \in \mathcal{C}$. So $d(\mathcal{C}) \le \min\{w(v) \mid v \ne 0 \in \mathcal{C}\}$.

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

has distance 3.

Definition 10.4 The matrix G such that C is the span of the rows of G is called the generating matrix of C. If $G = (I_h P)$ 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. C is said to be systematic.

Let $G_1, ..., G_h$ be the rows of G. A codeword is of the form

$$c = \lambda_1 G_1 + \cdots + \lambda_h G_h = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_h, ?, \dots, ?)$$

where $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_h$ are information symbols and ?,...,? are check symbols.

Definition 10.5 A matrix H such that

$$vH^T = 0 \iff v \in \mathcal{C}$$

is a parity check matrix for C.

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

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

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} -P\\I_{n-h}\end{array}\right)$$

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The coordinate j of $G_i \cdot H^T$ is the dot product of $G_i = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, P_{i,1}, \dots, P_{i,n-k})$ where 1 in i th position, $H_j = (-P_{1,j}, \dots, -P_{i,j}, \dots, -P_{h,j}, 0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ where H_j is j th column of H^T , i.e. j th row of H, it equals $-P_{il} + P_{ij} = 0$.

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 $Null(H^T)$ of H^T is $dim(Null(H^T)) = n - (n - k) = k$.

We found k independent vectors G_i in $Null(H^T)$, therefore they are a basis of $Null(H^T)$. So

$$v \cdot H^T = 0 \Leftrightarrow v \in Null(H^T)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow v \in Span(G_i)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow v \in C$$

Example 3 With

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

,

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

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 $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 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 C be a linear code, and let $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^n$.

- The sets of the form $\mu + \mathcal{C} := \{\mu + c | c \in \mathcal{C}\}$ are called cosets of \mathcal{C} .
- Any $\mu' \in \mu + C$ is a member of the coset, and the one with the smallest Hamming weight is called a <u>coset leader</u>.

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

Lemma 10.9 Two vectors μ 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, μ and v belongs to the same coset if and only if $\mu - v \in \mathcal{C}$. So:

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

$$\Leftrightarrow S(\mu - v) \equiv 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S(\mu) - S(v) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S(\mu) = S(v)$$

.

To decode r, we simply observe that we want to find the smallest $\mu \in \mathbb{K}^n$ such that $r - \mu \in C$ (Otherwise stated: the smallest pertubation of r leading to a code word). This is by definition the coset leader of r + C.

So we keep a lookup table of all the coset leaders with their syndromes and we follow the procedure:

- Calculate the syndrome $S(r) = rH^T$ 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

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

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 $S(r) = rH^T = (1, 1)$. Then we decode $r - (1, 0, 0, 0) = (1, 1, 0, 1) \in C$.

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 C, and suppose we receive $r \in \mathbb{K}^n$.

- 1. If $rH^T = 0$, then return $r \in \mathcal{C}$.
- 2. Otherwise $r = c + e_i$ where $c \in \mathcal{C}, e_i = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ where 1 in i th position. $rH^T = cH^T + e_iH^T = 0 + e_iH^T = i$ 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 $1, 2, \dots, 2^m - 1$.

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

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

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-p^T, I_m)$$

From that, we deduce the generality matrix $G = (I_h P)$ 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 $G = (I_h P)$. 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 $d(\mathcal{C}) = \min\{W(\mu), \mu t \mathcal{C}\} = 3$.