

LECTURE 15:

LINEAR CODES

November 1, 2006

- Shannon's noisy coding theorem states that:
For any channel with capacity C , any desired error probability, $\epsilon > 0$, and any transmission rate, $R < C$, there exists a code with some length N having rate at least R such that the probability of error when decoding this code by maximum likelihood is less than ϵ .
- In other words: We can transmit at a rate arbitrarily close to the channel capacity with arbitrarily small probability of error.
- The converse is also true: We *cannot* transmit with arbitrarily small error probability at a rate greater than the channel capacity. (see BSC example at the end of last class)
- We could always choose to transmit beyond the capacity, but not with vanishingly small error – our best possible error rate would still be finite.

- In error-correcting coding, we transmit a block of K message symbols by *encoding* it as a block of N transmission symbols.
- A *code* $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_X^N$ is a subset of all possible blocks of length N .
- The elements of \mathcal{C} are called the *codewords*.
These are the only blocks that we ever transmit.
- Normally we design the code to have the same number of codewords as possible message blocks (2^K for binary messages) and define a mapping between message blocks and codewords.
- The *rate* of \mathcal{C} is $R = \log_2 |\mathcal{C}|/N$, which is K/N for binary channels.

110010



0011010101011

K message bits

N transmission bits

- Shannon's second theorem (above) tells us that for any noisy channel, there is some code which allows us to achieve error free transmission at a rate up to the capacity.
- However, this might require us to encode our message in very long blocks. Why?
- Intuitively it is because we need to add just the right fraction of redundancy; too little and we won't be able to correct the errors, too much and we won't achieve the full channel capacity.
- For many real world situations, the block sizes used are thousands of bits, e.g. $K = 1024$ or $K = 4096$.

- Using very large blocks could potentially cause some serious practical problems with storage/retrieval of codewords.
- In particular, if we are encoding blocks of K bits, our code will have 2^K codewords. For $K \approx 1000$ this is a huge number!
- How could we even store all the codewords?
- How could we retrieve (look up) the N bit codeword corresponding to a given K bit message?
- How could we check if a given block of N bits is a valid codeword or a forbidden encoding?
- Today, we'll see how to solve all these problems by representing the codes *mathematically* and using the magic of *linear algebra*.

- Addition and multiplication in Z_2 are defined as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} 0 + 0 = 0 & 0 \cdot 0 = 0 \\ 0 + 1 = 1 & 0 \cdot 1 = 0 \\ 1 + 0 = 1 & 1 \cdot 0 = 0 \\ 1 + 1 = 0 & 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \end{array}$$

- This can also be seen as arithmetic modulo 2, in which we always take the remainder of the result after dividing by 2.
- Viewed as logical operations, addition is the same as 'exclusive-or', and multiplication is the same as 'and'.

Note: In Z_2 , $-a = a$, and hence $a - b = a + b$.

- From now on, we will consider only at binary channels, whose input and output alphabets are both $\{0, 1\}$.
- We will look at the symbols 0 and 1 as elements of Z_2 , the integers considered modulo 2.
- Z_2 (also called F_2 or $GF(2)$) is the smallest example of a "field" — a collection of "numbers" that behave like real and complex numbers. Specifically, in a field:
 - Addition and multiplication are defined. They are commutative and associative. Multiplication is distributive over addition.
 - There are numbers called 0 and 1, such that $z + 0 = z$ and $z \cdot 1 = z$ for all z .
 - Subtraction and division (except by 0) can be done, and these operations are the inverses of addition and multiplication.

- Just as we can define vectors over the reals, we can define vectors over any other field, including over Z_2 . We get to add such vectors, and multiply them by a scalar from the field.
- We can think of these vectors as N -tuples of field elements. For instance, with vectors of length five over Z_2 :

$$\begin{array}{l} (1, 0, 0, 1, 1) + (0, 1, 0, 0, 1) = (1, 1, 0, 1, 0) \\ 1 \cdot (1, 0, 0, 1, 1) = (1, 0, 0, 1, 1) \\ 0 \cdot (1, 0, 0, 1, 1) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \end{array}$$

- Most properties of real vector spaces hold for vectors over Z_2 — eg, the existence of basis vectors.
- We refer to the vector space of all N -tuples from Z_2 as Z_2^N ; these are all bitstrings of length N . We will use boldface letters such as \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} to refer to such vectors.

- We can view Z_2^N as the input and output alphabet of the N th extension of a binary channel.
- A code, \mathcal{C} , for this extension of the channel is a subset of Z_2^N .
- \mathcal{C} is a *linear code* if the following condition holds:
 If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are codewords of \mathcal{C} , then $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is also a codeword.
 In other words, \mathcal{C} must be a subspace of Z_2^N .
- Notice that since $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u} = \vec{0}$, the all-zero codeword must be in \mathcal{C} .

Note: For non-binary codes, we need a second condition, namely that if \mathbf{u} is a codeword of \mathcal{C} and z is in the field, then $z\mathbf{u}$ is also a codeword.

- We can construct a linear code by choosing K linearly-independent *basis vectors* from Z_2^N .
- We'll call the basis vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K$. We define the set of codewords to be all those vectors that can be written in the form

$$a_1\mathbf{u}_1 + a_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + a_K\mathbf{u}_K$$

where a_1, \dots, a_K are elements of Z_2 .

- The codewords obtained with different a_1, \dots, a_K are all different. (Otherwise $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K$ wouldn't be linearly-independent.)
- There are therefore 2^K codewords. We can encode a block consisting of K symbols, a_1, \dots, a_k , from Z_2 as a codeword of length N using the formula above.
- This is called an $[N, K]$ code. (MacKay's book uses (N, K) , but that has another meaning in other books.)

- Another way to define a linear code for Z_2^N is to provide a set of simultaneous equations that must be satisfied for \mathbf{v} to be a codeword.
- These equations have the form $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$, ie

$$c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_Nv_N = 0$$

- The set of solutions is a linear code because $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$ and $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ implies $\mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = 0$.
- If we have $N - K$ such equations, and they are independent, the code will have 2^K codewords.
- The basis representation and the constraint equation representations are equivalent: we can always convert from one to the other. (In linear algebra terms, we can either specify a basis for the codeword subspace or a basis for its complement null space.)
- If K is close to N , it is more compact to specify the constraint equations; if K is close to 0, it is more compact to specify the basis.

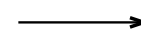
- A repetition code for Z_2^N has only two codewords — one has all 0s, the other all 1s.
- This is a linear $[N, 1]$ code, with $(1, \dots, 1)$ as the basis vector.
- The code is also defined by the following $N - 1$ equations satisfied by a codeword \mathbf{v} :

$$v_1 + v_2 = 0, \quad v_2 + v_3 = 0, \quad \dots, \quad v_{N-1} + v_N = 0$$

- Each of these equations has two solutions, $\{0, 0\}$ and $\{1, 1\}$. But the only solutions which satisfy them all are all 0s or all 1s.

110

K=3 message bits



111111110000

N=12 transmission bits

- An $[N, N - 1]$ code over Z_2 can be defined by the following single equation satisfied by a codeword \mathbf{v} :

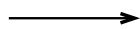
$$v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_N = 0$$

In other words, the *parity* of all the bits in a codeword must be even.

- This code can also be defined using $N - 1$ basis vectors. One choice of basis vectors when $N = 5$ is as follows:

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

110010



1100101

K=6 message bits

N=7 transmission bits

- Recall the following code from lecture 13 (page 12):

$$\{ 00000, 00111, 11001, 11110 \}$$

- Is this a linear code?

We need to check that all sums of codewords are also codewords:

$$\begin{aligned} 00111 + 11001 &= 11110 \\ 00111 + 11110 &= 11001 \\ 11001 + 11110 &= 00111 \end{aligned}$$

- We can generate this code using 00111 and 11001 as basis vectors.

We then get the four codewords as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \cdot 00111 + 0 \cdot 11001 &= 00000 \\ 0 \cdot 00111 + 1 \cdot 11001 &= 11001 \\ 1 \cdot 00111 + 0 \cdot 11001 &= 00111 \\ 1 \cdot 00111 + 1 \cdot 11001 &= 11110 \end{aligned}$$

- We can arrange a set of basis vectors for a linear code in a *generator matrix*, each row of which is a basis vector.
- A generator matrix for an $[N, K]$ code has K rows and N columns.
- We can use a generator matrix for an $[N, K]$ code to encode a block of K message bits as a block of N bits to send through the channel.
- We regard the K message bits as a row vector, \mathbf{s} , and multiply by the generator matrix, G , to produce the channel input, \mathbf{t} :

$$\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{s}G$$

- If the rows of G are linearly independent, each distinct message \mathbf{s} will produce a different channel encoding \mathbf{t} , and every \mathbf{t} that is a valid codeword will be produced by some \mathbf{s} .
- Note: Almost all codes have more than one generator matrix.

- Here's a generator matrix for the $[5, 2]$ code looked at earlier:

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

- Encoding the message block $(1, 1)$ using the generator matrix above:

$$\mathbf{s}G = \mathbf{t}$$

$$[1 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0]$$

- Suppose we have specified an $[N, K]$ code by a set of $M = N - K$ equations satisfied by any codeword, \mathbf{v} :

$$c_{1,1} v_1 + c_{1,2} v_2 + \cdots + c_{1,N} v_N = 0$$

$$c_{2,1} v_1 + c_{2,2} v_2 + \cdots + c_{2,N} v_N = 0$$

⋮

$$c_{M,1} v_1 + c_{M,2} v_2 + \cdots + c_{M,N} v_N = 0$$

- We can arrange the coefficients in these equations in a *parity-check matrix*, as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_{1,1} & c_{1,2} & \cdots & c_{1,N} \\ c_{2,1} & c_{2,2} & \cdots & c_{2,N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{M,1} & c_{M,2} & \cdots & c_{M,N} \end{bmatrix}$$

- If \mathcal{C} has parity-check matrix H , we can check whether \mathbf{v} is in \mathcal{C} by seeing whether $\mathbf{v}H^T = \vec{0}$.

Note: Almost all codes have more than one parity-check matrix.

- An $[N, 1]$ repetition code has the following generator matrix:

$$[1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1] \quad \text{for } N=4$$

Here is a parity-check matrix for this code:

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

- One generator matrix for the $[N, N - 1]$ single parity-check code is:

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

Here is the parity-check matrix for this code:

$$[1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]$$

EXAMPLE: PARITY CHECK MATRIX FOR THE $[5, 2]$ CODE 17

- Here is one parity-check matrix for the $[5, 2]$ code used earlier:

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

- We see that 11001 is a codeword as follows:

$$[1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0 \ 0 \ 0]$$

- But 10011 isn't a codeword, since

$$[1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [1 \ 1 \ 0]$$