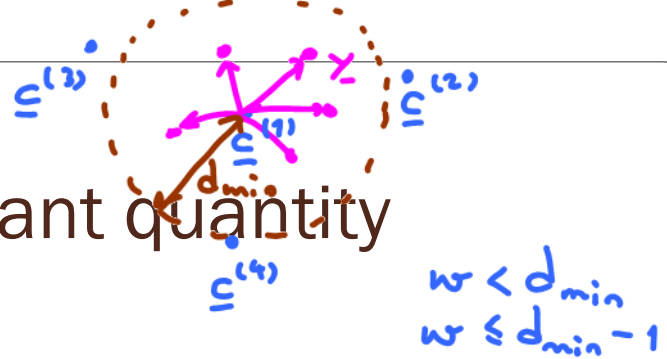


d_{\min} is an important quantity



- To be able to detect *all* w -bit errors, we need $d_{\min} \geq w + 1$.
 - With such a code there is no way that w errors can change a valid codeword into another valid codeword.
 - When the receiver observes an illegal codeword, it can tell that a transmission error has occurred.

$d_{\min} > 2w$

- To be able to correct *all* w -bit errors, we need $d_{\min} \geq 2w + 1 \Rightarrow w \leq \lfloor \frac{d_{\min}-1}{2} \rfloor$
 - This way, the legal codewords are so far apart that even with w changes the original codeword is still *closer* than any other codeword.



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$d(x, y) = w(\underline{e})$
 $y \oplus (-x) = y \oplus x$
 $x \oplus x = 0$
 $0 \oplus x = x$

Example

Consider the code

$C \in \{0000000000, 0000011111, 1111100000, \text{ and } 1111111111\}$

- Is it a linear code?

Yes.

① $0 \in C$

② The sum of any pair of non-zero codewords is still a codeword.

There are $\binom{M-1}{2}$ pairs.

$d_{\min} = \min_{\underline{e} \neq 0} w(\underline{e}) = 5$

- It can detect (at most) 4 errors.

$d_{\min} - 1 = 5 - 1 = 4$

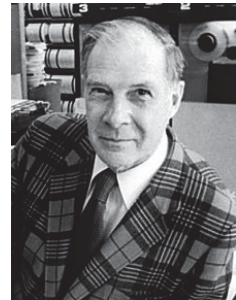
- It can correct (at most) 2 errors.

$\lfloor \frac{d_{\min}-1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{5-1}{2} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{4}{2} \rfloor$

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Hamming codes

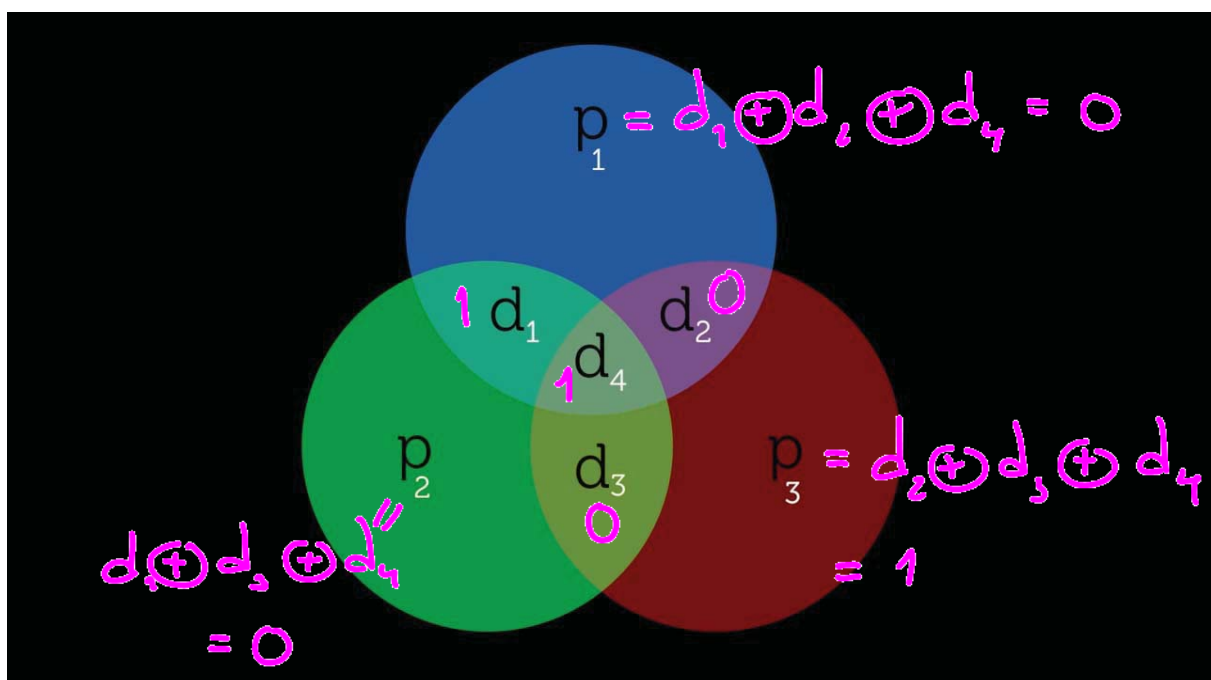
- One of the earliest codes studied in coding theory.
- Named after Richard W. Hamming
 - The IEEE Richard W. **Hamming Medal**, named after him, is an award given annually by Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE), for "exceptional contributions to information sciences, systems and technology".
 - Sponsored by Qualcomm, Inc
 - Some Recipients:
 - 1988 - Richard W. Hamming
 - 1997 - Thomas M. Cover
 - 1999 - David A. Huffman
 - 2011 - Toby Berger
- The simplest of a class of (algebraic) error correcting codes that **can correct one error in a block of bits**



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Hamming codes: Ex. 1



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Hamming codes: Ex. 1

$$n = 7$$

$$k = 4$$

$$\text{code rate} = \frac{k}{n} = \frac{4}{7}$$

This is an example of Hamming (7,4) code

In the video, the codeword is constructed from the data by

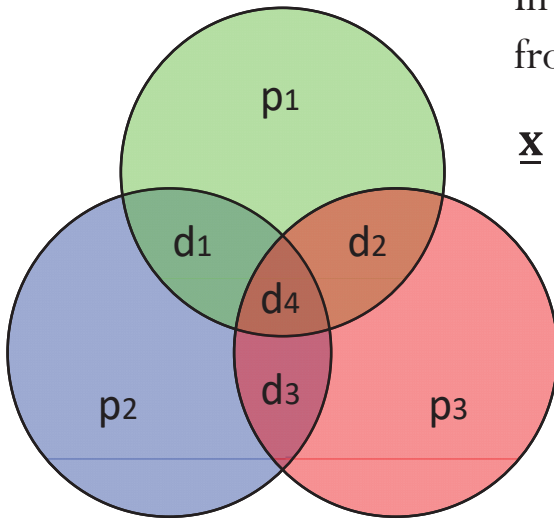
$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = [p_1 \ d_1 \ p_2 \ d_2 \ p_3 \ d_3 \ d_4]$$

where

$$p_1 = d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4$$

$$p_2 = d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4$$

$$p_3 = d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4$$



- The **message bits** are also referred to as the **data bits** or **information bits**.
- The **non-message bits** are also referred to as **parity check bits**, **checksum bits**, **parity bits**, or **check bits**.

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Generator matrix: a revisit

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- Fact: The 1s and 0s in the j^{th} column of \mathbf{G} tells which positions of the data bits are combined (\oplus) to produce the j^{th} bit in the codeword.

- For the Hamming code in the previous slide,

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = [p_1 \ d_1 \ p_2 \ d_2 \ p_3 \ d_3 \ d_4] = \underline{\mathbf{d}} \mathbf{G}$$

$$p_1 = d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4$$

$$p_2 = d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4$$

$$p_3 = d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4$$

$$= [d_1 \ d_2 \ d_3 \ d_4]$$

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

\mathbf{G}

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Generator matrix: a revisit

- From $\underline{x} = \underline{b}G = \sum_{j=1}^k b_j \underline{g}^{(j)}$, we see that the j element of the codeword \underline{x} of a linear code is constructed from a linear combination of the bits in the message:

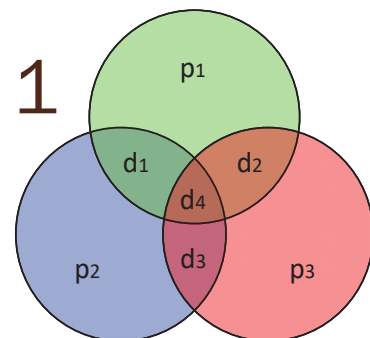
$$x_j = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i g_{ij}.$$

- The elements in the j^{th} column of the generator matrix become the weights for the combination.
 - Because we are working in GF(2), g_{ij} has only two values: 0 or 1.
 - When it is 1, we use b_i in the sum.
 - When it is 0, we don't use b_i in the sum.
- Conclusion: For the j^{th} column, the i^{th} element is determined from whether the i^{th} message bit is used in the sum that produces the j^{th} element of the codeword \underline{x} .

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H = Parity Check Matrix: Ex. 1

$$\underline{x} = [p_1 \quad d_1 \quad p_2 \quad d_2 \quad p_3 \quad d_3 \quad d_4]$$



Structure in the codeword:

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 &= d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4 \\ p_2 &= d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \\ p_3 &= d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \end{aligned} \iff \begin{aligned} p_1 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \\ p_2 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \\ p_3 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

At the receiver, we check whether the received vector \underline{y} still satisfies these conditions via computing the **syndrome vector**:

$$\underline{s} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y_4 & y_5 & y_6 & y_7 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & x_7 \\ p_1 & \underline{d_1} & \underline{p_2} & d_2 & p_3 & \underline{d_3} & \underline{d_4} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}?$$

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Parity Check Matrix: Ex 1

- Intuitively, the **parity check matrix \mathbf{H}** , as the name suggests, tells which bits in the observed vector \underline{y} are used to “check” for validity of \underline{y} .
- The number of rows is the same as the number of conditions to check (which is the same as the number of parity check bits).
- For each row, a one indicates that the bits (including the bits in the parity positions) are used in the validity check calculation.

Structure in the codeword:

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \\ p_2 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \\ p_3 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y_4 & y_5 & y_6 & y_7 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & x_7 \\ p_1 & d_1 & p_2 & d_2 & p_3 & d_3 & d_4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Parity Check Matrix: Ex 1

Relationship between \mathbf{G} and \mathbf{H} .

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & x_7 \\ p_1 & d_1 & p_2 & d_2 & p_3 & d_3 & d_4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} \iff \mathbf{H} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y_4 & y_5 & y_6 & y_7 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 & x_7 \\ p_1 & d_1 & p_2 & d_2 & p_3 & d_3 & d_4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



Parity Check Matrix: Ex 1

Relationship between **G** and **H**.

x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7		y_1	y_2	y_3	y_4	y_5	y_6	y_7
p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4		x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4		p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	↔	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	↔	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	0	1	1	0	↔	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1	↔	0	0	0	1	1	1	1



Parity Check Matrix: Ex 1

Relationship between **G** and **H**.

x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7		y_1	y_2	y_3	y_4	y_5	y_6	y_7
p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4		x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4		p_1	d_1	p_2	d_2	p_3	d_3	d_4
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	↔	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	↔	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	0	1	1	0	↔	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1	↔	0	0	0	1	1	1	1

(columns of) identity matrix
in the data positions

(columns of) identity matrix
in the parity check positions



Parity Check Matrix: Ex 1

Relationship between \mathbf{G} and \mathbf{H} .

x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 x_5 x_6 x_7	y_1 y_2 y_3 y_4 y_5 y_6 y_7
p_1 d_1 p_2 d_2 p_3 d_3 d_4	x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 x_5 x_6 x_7
p_1 d_1 p_2 d_2 p_3 d_3 d_4	p_1 d_1 p_2 d_2 p_3 d_3 d_4
$\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\leftrightarrow \mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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Parity Check Matrix

Key property:

$$\mathbf{GH}^T = \mathbf{0}_{k \times (n-k)}$$

Proof:

- When there is no error ($\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$), the syndrome vector calculation should give $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.

- By definition,

$$\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{H}^T = (\underline{\mathbf{x}} \oplus \underline{\mathbf{e}})\mathbf{H}^T = \underline{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{H}^T \oplus \underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T = \underline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{GH}^T \oplus \underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T.$$

- Therefore, when $\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, we have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{GH}^T$.

- To have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$ for any $\underline{\mathbf{b}}$, we must have $\mathbf{GH}^T = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.

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Systematic Encoding

- Code constructed with distinct information bits and check bits in each codeword are called **systematic codes**.
 - **Message bits** are “visible” in the codeword.
- Popular forms of \mathbf{G} :

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} & \mathbf{I}_k \end{array} \right] \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}} = \underline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_k \end{bmatrix} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} & \mathbf{I}_k \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_{n-k} & | & b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_k \end{bmatrix}$$

x_{n-k+1} x_{n-k+2} x_n

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{I}_k & \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} \end{array} \right] \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}} = \underline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_k \end{bmatrix} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{I}_k & \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_k & | & x_{k+1} & x_{k+2} & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

x_1 x_2 x_k

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Parity check matrix

- For the generators matrices we discussed in the previous slide, the corresponding **parity check matrix** can be found easily:

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} & \mathbf{I}_k \end{array} \right] \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{H} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{I}_{n-k} & -\mathbf{P}^T \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Check: } \mathbf{GH}^T = \left[\mathbf{P} \mid \mathbf{I} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ -\mathbf{P} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P} \oplus (-\mathbf{P}) = \mathbf{0}_{k \times (n-k)}$$

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{I}_k & \mathbf{P}_{k \times (n-k)} \end{array} \right] \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{H} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} -\mathbf{P}^T & \mathbf{I}_{n-k} \end{array} \right]$$

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Hamming codes: Ex. 2

- Systematic (7,4) Hamming Codes

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cccc}
 & \mathbf{P} & & & & & & \\
 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \\
 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \\
 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \\
 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \\
 \hline
 & & & \mathbf{I}_4 & & & &
 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cccc}
 & & & & & & & \\
 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \\
 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \\
 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & \\
 \hline
 & & & \mathbf{I}_3 & & & & \mathbf{P}^T
 \end{array} \right]$$

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Hamming codes

Now, we will give a general recipe for constructing Hamming codes.

Parameters:

- $m = n - k =$ number of parity bits 2 3 4 ...
- $n = 2^m - 1 \in \{3, 7, 15, 31, 63, 127, \dots\}$ 3 7 15 ...
- $k = n - m = 2^m - m - 1$ 1 4 11 ...

It can be shown that, for Hamming codes,

- $d_{\min} = 3.$
- Error correcting capability: $t = 1$ $\left\lfloor \frac{d_{\min} - 1}{2} \right\rfloor$

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Construction of Hamming Codes

- Start with m .

1. Parity check matrix \mathbf{H} :

- Construct a matrix whose columns consist of *all* nonzero binary m -tuples.

- The ordering of the columns is arbitrary.

However, next step is easy when the columns are arranged so that $\mathbf{H} = [\mathbf{I}_m \mid \mathbf{P}]$.

2. Generator matrix \mathbf{G} :

- When $\mathbf{H} = [\mathbf{I}_m \mid \mathbf{P}]$, we have $\mathbf{G} = [-\mathbf{P}^T \mid \mathbf{I}_k] = [\mathbf{P}^T \mid \mathbf{I}_k]$.

Ex. $m = 2$

$$2^m - 1 = 2^2 - 1 = 3$$

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_2 & \mathbf{P} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

same as repetition code

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$m = 3$

Hamming codes: Ex. 2

- Systematic (7,4) Hamming Codes

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

$-\mathbf{P}^T$

- Columns are all possible 3-bit vectors
- We arrange the columns so that \mathbf{I}_3 is on the left to make the code systematic. (One can also put \mathbf{I}_3 on the right.)

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{0 & 1 & 1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

\mathbf{P}

- Note that the size of the identity matrices in \mathbf{G} and \mathbf{H} are not the same.

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Minimum Distance Decoding

- At the decoder, suppose we want to use minimum distance decoding, then
 - The decoder needs to have the list of all the possible codewords so that it can compare their distances to the received vector $\underline{\mathbf{y}}$.
 - There are 2^k codewords each having n bits. Therefore, saving these takes $2^k \times n$ bits.
 - Also, we will need to perform the comparison 2^k times.
- Alternatively, we can utilize the syndrome vector (which is computed from the parity-check matrix).
 - The syndrome vector is computed from the parity-check matrix \mathbf{H} .
 - Therefore, saving \mathbf{H} takes $(n - k) \times n$ bits.

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Minimum Distance Decoding

- Observe that
- Therefore, minimizing the distance is the same as minimizing the weight of the error pattern.
- New goal:
 - find the decoded error pattern $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{e}}}$ with the minimum weight
 - then, the decoded codeword is $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}} \oplus \hat{\underline{\mathbf{e}}}$
- Once we know $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}}$ we can directly extract the message part from the decoded codeword if we are using systematic code.
- For example, consider

$$\mathbf{G} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Suppose $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = 1011010$, then we know that the decoded message is $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{b}}} = 1010$.

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Properties of Syndrome Vector

- From $\mathbf{GH}^T = \mathbf{0}$, we have

$$\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{H}^T = (\underline{\mathbf{x}} \oplus \underline{\mathbf{e}})\mathbf{H}^T = (\underline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{G} \oplus \underline{\mathbf{e}})\mathbf{H}^T = \underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T$$

$$\mathbf{GH}^T = \mathbf{0}$$



- Thinking of \mathbf{H} as a matrix with many columns inside,

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\mathbf{h}}_1 \\ \underline{\mathbf{h}}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\mathbf{h}}_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}_{(n-k) \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\mathbf{v}}_1^T & \underline{\mathbf{v}}_2^T & \cdots & \underline{\mathbf{v}}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T = \sum_{j=1}^n e_j \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j$$

- Therefore, $\underline{\mathbf{s}}$ is a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{H} .

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Hamming Codes: Ex. 2

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

$$\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T = \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^n e_j \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j}_{\text{Linear combination of the columns of } \mathbf{H}}$$

Note that for an error pattern with a single one in the j^{th} coordinate position, the syndrome $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{H}^T$ is the same as the j^{th} column of \mathbf{H} .

Error pattern $\underline{\mathbf{e}}$	Syndrome = $\underline{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{H}^T$
(0,0,0,0,0,0,0)	(0,0,0)
(0,0,0,0,0,0,1)	(1,1,1)
(0,0,0,0,0,1,0)	(1,1,0)
(0,0,0,0,1,0,0)	(1,0,1)
(0,0,0,1,0,0,0)	(0,1,1)
(0,0,1,0,0,0,0)	(0,0,1)
(0,1,0,0,0,0,0)	(0,1,0)
(1,0,0,0,0,0,0)	(1,0,0)

$$(0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0) \quad (0 \ 1 \ 0) \oplus (1 \ 0 \ 0) = 0 \ 1 \ 1$$

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Properties of Syndrome Vector

- We will assume that the columns of \mathbf{H} are nonzero and distinct.
 - This is automatically satisfied for Hamming codes constructed from our recipe.
- When $\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, we have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - When $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, we can conclude that $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{e}}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - There can also be $\underline{\mathbf{e}} \neq \underline{\mathbf{0}}$ that gives $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - For example, any nonzero $\tilde{\underline{\mathbf{e}}} \in \mathcal{C}$, will also give $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - However, they have larger weight than $\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - The decoded codeword is the same as the received vector.
- When, $e_i = \begin{cases} 0, & i = j, \\ 1, & i \neq j, \end{cases}$ (a pattern with a single one in the j^{th} position) we have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j =$ the j^{th} column of \mathbf{H} .
 - When $\underline{\mathbf{s}}$ is the j^{th} column of \mathbf{H} , we can conclude that $\hat{e}_i = \begin{cases} 0, & i = j, \\ 1, & i \neq j, \end{cases}$
 - There can also be other $\underline{\mathbf{e}}$ that give $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j$. However, their weights
 - can not be 0 (because, if so, we would have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$ but the columns of \mathbf{H} are nonzero)
 - nor 1 (because the columns of \mathbf{H} are distinct).
 - We flip the j^{th} bit of the received vector to get the decoded codeword.

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~~Hamming Codes:~~ Decoding Algorithm

- For general linear codes, the two cases discussed on the previous slide may not cover every cases.
- For Hamming codes, because the columns are constructed from all possible non-zero m -tuples, the syndrome vectors must fall into one of the two cases considered.

~~Hamming Codes:~~ Decoding Recipe

- Compute the syndrome $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{H}^T$ for the received vector.

Case 1: If $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, set $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}$.

Case 2: If $\underline{\mathbf{s}} \neq \underline{\mathbf{0}}$,

- Determine the position j of the column of \mathbf{H} that is the transposition of the syndrome.
- set $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}$ but with the j^{th} bit complemented.

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Properties of Syndrome Vector

- We will assume that the columns of \mathbf{H} are nonzero and distinct.
 - This is automatically satisfied for Hamming codes constructed from our recipe.
- Case 1: When $\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, we have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - When $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, we can conclude that $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{e}}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - There can also be $\underline{\mathbf{e}} \neq \underline{\mathbf{0}}$ that gives $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - For example, any nonzero $\tilde{\underline{\mathbf{e}}} \in \mathcal{C}$, will also give $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - However, they have larger weight than $\underline{\mathbf{e}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$.
 - The decoded codeword is the same as the received vector.
- Case 2: When, $e_i = \begin{cases} 0, & i = j, \\ 1, & i \neq j, \end{cases}$ (a pattern with a single one in the j^{th} position) we have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j =$ the j^{th} column of \mathbf{H} .
 - When $\underline{\mathbf{s}}$ is the j^{th} column of \mathbf{H} , we can conclude that $\hat{e}_i = \begin{cases} 0, & i = j, \\ 1, & i \neq j, \end{cases}$
 - There can also be other $\underline{\mathbf{e}}$ that give $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{v}}_j$. However, their weights
 - can not be 0 (because, if so, we would have $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$ but the columns of \mathbf{H} are nonzero)
 - nor 1 (because the columns of \mathbf{H} are distinct).
 - We flip the j^{th} bit of the received vector to get the decoded codeword.

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(Modified)

Decoding Algorithm

- Assumption: the columns of \mathbf{H} are nonzero and distinct.
- Compute the syndrome $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{H}^T$ for the received vector.
- Case 1: If $\underline{\mathbf{s}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}}$, set $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}$.
- Case 2: If $\underline{\mathbf{s}} \neq \underline{\mathbf{0}}$,
 - determine the position j of the column of \mathbf{H} that is the same as (the transposition) of the syndrome,
 - set $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{x}}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}}$ but with the j^{th} bit complemented.
- For Hamming codes, because the columns are constructed from all possible non-zero m -tuples, the syndrome vectors must fall into one of the two cases considered.
- For general linear block codes, the two cases above may not cover every cases.

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(Modified)

Hamming Codes: Ex. 1

- Consider the Hamming code with

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

- Suppose we observe $\underline{\mathbf{y}} = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]$ at the receiver. Find the decoded codeword and the decoded message.

$\underline{\mathbf{z}} = \underline{\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{H}^T = \underline{(1 \ 1 \ 0)}$ \rightarrow same as the 2nd column of \mathbf{H}

$\underline{\hat{\mathbf{x}}} = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]$

$\left. \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right\} = [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]$

Interleaving

- Conventional error-control methods such as parity checking are designed for **errors that are isolated or statistically independent events**.
- Some errors occur in **bursts** that span several successive bits.
 - These errors tend to group together in bursts. Thus, they are no longer independent.
 - Examples
 - **impulse noise** produced by lightning and switching transients
 - **fading** in wireless systems
 - channel with memory
- Such multiple errors wreak havoc on the performance of conventional codes and must be combated by special techniques.
- One solution is to spread out the transmitted codewords.
- We consider a type of interleaving called **block interleaving**.

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Interleave as a verb

- To interleave = to combine different things so that parts of one thing are put between parts of another thing
- Ex. To interleave two books together:



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Interleaving: Example

Consider a sequence of m blocks of coded data:

$$\left(x_1^{(1)} x_2^{(1)} \dots x_n^{(1)}\right) \left(x_1^{(2)} x_2^{(2)} \dots x_n^{(2)}\right) \dots \left(x_1^{(\ell)} x_2^{(\ell)} \dots x_n^{(\ell)}\right)$$



$$\begin{array}{cccc} x_1^{(1)} & x_2^{(1)} & \dots & x_n^{(1)} \\ x_1^{(2)} & x_2^{(2)} & \dots & x_n^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_1^{(\ell)} & x_2^{(\ell)} & \dots & x_n^{(\ell)} \end{array}$$



$$\left(x_1^{(1)} x_1^{(2)} \dots x_1^{(\ell)}\right) \left(x_2^{(1)} x_2^{(2)} \dots x_2^{(\ell)}\right) \dots \left(x_n^{(1)} x_n^{(2)} \dots x_n^{(\ell)}\right)$$

- Arrange these blocks as rows of a table.
- Normally, we get the bit sequence simply by reading the table by rows.
- With interleaving (by an **interleaver**), transmission is accomplished by reading out of this table by columns.
- Here, ℓ blocks each of length n are interleaved to form a sequence of length ℓn .

The received symbols must be deinterleaved (by a **deinterleaver**) prior to decoding.

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Interleaving: Advantage

- Consider the case of a system that can only correct single errors.
- If an error burst happens to the original bit sequence, the system would be overwhelmed and unable to correct the problem.

original bit sequence $\left(x_1^{(1)} x_2^{(1)} \dots x_n^{(1)}\right) \left(x_1^{(2)} x_2^{(2)} \dots x_n^{(2)}\right) \dots \left(x_1^{(\ell)} x_2^{(\ell)} \dots x_n^{(\ell)}\right)$

interleaved transmission $\left(x_1^{(1)} x_1^{(2)} \dots x_1^{(\ell)}\right) \left(x_2^{(1)} x_2^{(2)} \dots x_2^{(\ell)}\right) \dots \left(x_n^{(1)} x_n^{(2)} \dots x_n^{(\ell)}\right)$

- However, in the interleaved transmission,
 - successive bits which come from **different** original blocks have been corrupted
 - when received, the bit sequence is reordered to its original form and then the FEC can correct the faulty bits
 - Therefore, single error-correction system is able to fix several errors.

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Interleaving: Advantage

- If a burst of errors affects at most ℓ consecutive bits, then each original block will have at most one error.
- If a burst of errors affects at most $r\ell$ consecutive bits (assume $r < n$), then each original block will have at most r errors.
- Assume that there are no other errors in the transmitted stream of ℓn bits.
 - A single error-correcting code can be used to correct a single burst spanning upto ℓ symbols.
 - A double error-correcting code can be used to correct a single burst spanning upto 2ℓ symbols.