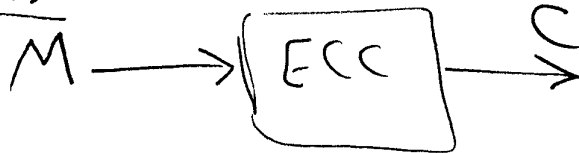


Chapter 4

Linear Block Error-Correcting Codes [ECC]

- Definitions



- The Error-Correcting Codes are functions that maps the input symbols M into a code alphabet C . In this course, we will focus on Binary source alphabets and in this case, the ECC is called Binary error-correcting codes.

- These codes are called linear since the encoder could be described by a linear function \Rightarrow the codewords are linear combination of the inputs. And the mapping could be described by a Matrix called "Generator Matrix"

- Assume we have k information bits, $\bar{m} = (m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{k-1})$
The ECC encoder maps the block \bar{m} into a codeword $\bar{c} = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ of length n , with $n > k$.

- \bar{m} is called the message and \bar{c} is the codeword

- The encoder adds $r = n - k$ redundant bits.

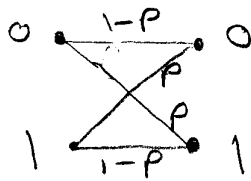
- As we saw in chapter one, the addition of redundant bits to the message bits doesn't change the entropy \Rightarrow information lossless.

- However, this addition will reduce the entropy rate.

The entropy rate will be $R = \frac{k}{n} \Rightarrow$ Code Rate \leq channel capacity

4.1.2 Error Rates and Error Distributions for the Binary Symmetric Channel.

Let the BSC be



where p is the bit error probability.

In a codeword of length n . If p is the ^{bit} probability, what is the probability of having t errors in one block of length n ? Since the channel is memoryless, the bit errors are independent,

$$\Rightarrow \Pr(t; p, n) = \binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}$$

where n choose t $\binom{n}{t} = \frac{n!}{(n-t)!t!} \Rightarrow$ Binomial Coefficient.

— The probability that a block of n bits will have fewer than t errors is

$$\Pr(<t) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j}$$

— The average number of errors in a block of n bits is

$$\bar{t} = \sum_{j=0}^n j \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} = np$$

— The error variance is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_t^2 &= E[(t - \bar{t})^2] = \sum_{j=0}^n (j - \bar{t})^2 \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} \\ &= np(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

4.1.3 Error Detection and Correction

The goals of channel encoders are to detect and/or correct errors. Some codes can do both. Some are designed for detection or correction only.

Example Repetition Codes

$$\begin{aligned} G(0) &\rightarrow 000 \\ G(1) &\rightarrow 111 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} G(0) \\ G(1) \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{two code words}$$

Thus, for this code, $n=3$, $k=1$ and redundancy $r=2$.

The code Rate $R = \frac{1}{3}$.

List all possible Received code words

Received word	Error Detection Decoded	Error Correction Decoded
000	0	0
001	Error	0
010	Error	0
011	...	1
100	...	0
101	...	1
110	Error	1
111	1	1

this code can detect up to two errors.
 This code can correct one error. Thus, it is a single-error correction code.

- Hamming Distance;

We measure distance by the number of different bits between the codewords. For example, the distance between $C_0 = 000$ and Received word 011 is two bits.

The decoding rule is to select the codeword with the closest distance to the received word.

Lecture 11 P.4

We can make the repetition code with $n=4$ correct single-bit errors and detect two-bit errors. This is an error correction and detection capabilities. The rule is to decode received words with Hamming distance ≤ 1 and declare error for Hamming distance = 2

Example

<u>Received word</u>	<u>Decode</u>
0000	0
0001	0
0010	0
0011	Error
0100	0
0101	Error
0110	Error
0111	1
1000	0
1001	Error
1010	Error
1011	1
1100	Error
1101	1
1110	1
1111	1

Hamming Distance and Code Capability

Let \bar{v} be the received word,

Let \bar{c} be the transmitted codeword.

The Hamming Distance is the number of different bits between \bar{v} and \bar{c} . Denoted by

$$d_H(\bar{v}, \bar{c}) \rightarrow \text{Hamming distance.}$$

So, we are receiving \bar{v} , the decoding Rule for BSC with independent errors is to select \bar{c}_i such that

$$\underline{d_H(\bar{v}, \bar{c}_i) < d_H(\bar{v}, \bar{c}_j) \text{ for all } \bar{c}_j \in C}$$

The error detection and correction capabilities of codes are determined by the minimum Hamming Distance of the code.

Let G be an encoder that maps $\bar{m}_i \in M$ to $\bar{c}_i \in C$.

this mapping is one-to-one $\Rightarrow |M| = |C|$

$$\xRightarrow{\text{mutual information}} I(M; C) = H(M)$$

For every pair $\bar{c}_i, \bar{c}_j \in C$ ($i \neq j$), we can calculate a non-zero Hamming Distance $d_H(\bar{c}_i, \bar{c}_j)$.

The Minimum Hamming Distance

$$d_{\min} = \min_{\text{All codewords}} \{d_H(\bar{c}_i, \bar{c}_j)\}$$

Now, the ability of the code is

- ① It can detect up to t errors
if and only if $d_{\min} \geq t + 1$
- ② It can correct up to t errors
if and only if $d_{\min} \geq 2t + 1$
- ③ It can correct up to t_c errors and detect
up to $t_d > t_c$ errors if and only if
 $d_{\min} \geq 2t_c + 1$ and $d_{\min} \geq t_c + t_d + 1$

Looking at it on the other direction,

If a code has a minimum Hamming Distance of d_{\min} ,
then

① it can detect ^{upto} $t \leq d_{\min} - 1$ errors

② it can correct up to: $t \leq \lfloor \frac{d_{\min} - 1}{2} \rfloor$ errors

③ it can correct $t_c \leq \lfloor \frac{d_{\min} - 1}{2} \rfloor$ and detect $t_d \leq d_{\min} - t_c - 1$

Example Repetition code with $n=4$ and $r=3$ redundant bits.

$$d_{\min} = d_H(0000, 1111) = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{can correct } t_c = \lfloor \frac{4-1}{2} \rfloor = 1 \text{ error}$$

$$\text{can detect } t_d = 4 - 1 - 1 = 2 \text{ errors}$$

Singleton bound

Lecture 12 P.3

The minimum Hamming distance of a code is upper bounded by the relation

$$d_{\min} \leq r + 1 \Rightarrow r_{\min} = d_{\min} - 1$$

where r is the number of redundant bits.

Example 4.1.6

Design Example

Suppose we wish to transmit seven-bit code words over a BSC with crossover probability $p = 0.05$, and we wish the prob. of error in a block at the receiving end to be less than 10^{-3} . What is the maximum possible code rate we could achieve?

Assume that the seven-bit code that we like to design can correct up to t_c errors. The probability of having an uncorrectable error is

$$P_u = \sum_{j=t_c+1}^7 \binom{7}{j} p^j (1-p)^{7-j} < 10^{-3}$$

By plotting this function for different t_c , we find that

$$t_c = 2 \Rightarrow P_u = 0.0038 > 10^{-3}$$

$$t_c = 3 \Rightarrow P_u = 1.936 \times 10^{-4} < 10^{-3}$$

\therefore to achieve this goal, we need to correct three errors.

The minimum Hamming distance will be

$$d_{\min} \geq 2(3) + 1 = 7$$

So, we can use a repetition code with $n = 7$

$G(0) \rightarrow 0000000$
 $G(1) \rightarrow 1111111$

the rate of this code is $R_1 = \frac{1}{7}$ bits per channel use

$$= 0.143$$

Assume we want to use the seven-bit repetition code to correct one bit and detect five errors.

$$\Rightarrow P_u = 1.05 \times 10^{-7}$$

and Assume that we ask for retransmission when we detect an error. Thus, the probability of retransmission is

$$P_{rx} = \sum_{j=t_c+1}^t \binom{7}{j} p^j (1-p)^{7-j} = 0.0444.$$

Retransmission slows down information rate per channel use. and on the average, we must send each block $\frac{1}{1-P_{rx}}$ times.

Thus, the rate ^{for this code} will be

$$R_2 = \frac{1}{7} (1 - P_{rx}) = 0.1365 \text{ bit per channel use}$$

The capacity and cutoff rate are

$$C_c = 0.7136 \text{ and } R_0 = 0.4781$$

∴ R_1 and R_2 are much less than R_0 .

4.2 Binary Fields and Binary Vector SpacesBinary Field.

To describe codes, we use a mathematical structure called a field.

A field is defined to be a set of elements A and two arithmetic operations called addition ($+$) and multiplication (\cdot), such that,

1- Closure

$$\text{for all } a, b \in A \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} a + b \in A \\ \text{and } a \cdot b \in A \end{array}$$

2- Associative properties of addition and multiplication

$$a + b + c = (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$$

$$\text{and } a \cdot b \cdot c = (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

3- Identity elements:

$$\text{and } \begin{array}{l} a + 0 = 0 + a = a \quad ; \quad 0 \text{ is the additive identity} \\ a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a \quad ; \quad 1 \text{ is the multiplicative identity} \end{array}$$

4- Additive inverse:

for any $a \in A$, there exist b such that

$$a + b = 0 \Rightarrow b \text{ is the additive inverse.}$$

5- Multiplicative Inverses: $b \Rightarrow -a$

For any element $a \in A$, except 0, there is a multiplicative inverse a such that $a \cdot b = 1$.

$$b \Rightarrow a^{-1}$$

6- Addition is commutative: $a + b = b + a$

7- Distributive property: $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$

$$(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$$

Boolean arithmetic

Lecture 13 P. 2

For Binary source, $A = \{0, 1\}$

— the Field is called Galois field with two elements, $GF(2)$.

— Addition and multiplication are defined as:

$$0+0=0; 0+1=1+0=1; 1+1=0$$

$$0 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot 0 = 0; 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

\Rightarrow Addition is the XOR "Exclusive or"
Multiplication is the AND function

Binary Vectors

— We can construct Binary vectors from the binary Field $GF(2)$.

— Define A^n to be a set with elements $\bar{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ with each $a_i \in A = \{0, 1\}$.

— Define two arithmetic operations

1- Vector addition:; if $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in A^n$

then vector addition (+) is defined as

$$\bar{a} + \bar{b} \equiv (a_0 + b_0, a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})$$

2- Scalar multiplication:

If $\bar{a} \in A^n$ and $b \in A$ is a binary scalar, then

$$b \cdot \bar{a} = \bar{a} \cdot b = (ba_0, ba_1, \dots, ba_{n-1})$$

Vector Space

A vector space is a structure made of: ~~vectors~~ (A^n) ,
~~set~~ — Vectors A^n
 — Scalars A
 — and two arithmetic operations.

The sets and the arithmetic operations satisfy the following constraints:

1. Closure: For every $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in A^n$, the sum $\bar{a} + \bar{b} \in A^n$
- 2- Addition is commutative
- 3- Addition is associative
- 4- A^n contains a vector $\bar{0}$ such that $\bar{a} + \bar{0} = \bar{a}$
- 5- Additive Inverses: For every $\bar{a} \in A^n$, there is some vector $\bar{b} \in A^n$ such that $\bar{a} + \bar{b} = \bar{0}$.
- 6- For every scalar $a \in A$ and every vector $\bar{b} \in A^n$ there is a vector $a\bar{b} \in A^n \Rightarrow$ closure of scalar multiplication
- 7- scalar multiplication is associative
- 8- scalar multiplication is distributive with respect to vector addition
- 9- scalar multiplication is distributive with respect to scalar addition
- 10- if $1 \in A$ is the scalar multiplicative identity, then for every $\bar{a} \in A^n$, $1\bar{a} = \bar{a}$.

Example A 2-D Code

A 2-D code is a simple error correcting code with additional error detection capability. The rate in this example is $9/16$.

Let the 9 bit message be

$$\bar{m} = [m_8 m_7 \dots m_0], m_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

Let m_8 be the first bit transmitted, then the codeword is

$$\bar{c} = [c_0 c_1 c_2 m_0 c_4 m_1 c_6 m_2 c_8 m_3 m_5 c_{12} m_6 m_7 m_8]$$

where

m_8	m_7	m_6	c_{12}	} Parity bits.
m_5	m_4	m_3	c_8	
m_2	m_1	m_0	c_2	
c_6	c_4	c_1	c_0	
Parity bits				

where $c_{12} = m_8 + m_7 + m_6$, similarly c_1, c_2, c_4, c_6 and c_8 .

$$c_0 = m_8 + m_7 + \dots + m_1 + m_0$$

During transmission, bit errors may occur,

the received word is

$$\bar{r} = \bar{c} + \bar{e}$$

where $\bar{e} = [e_0 e_1 \dots e_{15}]$; if $e_i = 1 \Rightarrow$ error.

$e_i = 0 \Rightarrow$ no error

At the receiver, we calculate seven error check bits, which are called syndrome bits,

v_{15}	v_{14}	v_{13}	v_{12}	S_6	$S_6 = v_{15} + v_{14} + v_{13} + v_{12}$ syndrome bits sum over their respective rows
v_{11}	v_{10}	v_9	v_8	S_5	
v_7	v_5	v_3	v_2	S_4	
v_6	v_4	v_1	v_0		
S_3	S_2	S_1		S_0	$S_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{15} v_i$
syndrome bits sum over columns					

This code can correct single-bit errors, and can detect two-bit errors.

Notice that:

- ① If no errors occur, all s_i are zero
- ② if an odd number of errors occur, $S_0 = 1$
- ③ If a single error occurs in one of the m_i message bits, one of the row and one of the column syndrome bits will equal to 1. In this case, we can correct the erroneous bit by adding 1 to the v_i bit corresponding to the intersection of the row and column.
- ④ If a single error occurs in one of the parity bits (r_i), then, either one row or one column syndrome bit (but not both) will be equal to one and the S_0 bit will be 1; In this case, no correction is necessary because none of the message bits are in error.
- ⑤ If two errors occur, $S_0 = 0$, and multiple syndrome bits in a row or a column will be 1. \Rightarrow we can detect two errors. But we can't guarantee to correct these errors. For example, assume the errors are in v_{14} and v_{13} , then S_2 and $S_1 = 1$ but $S_6 = 0$. So, we can't tell.

the error location. However, if v_4 and v_3 are in error, then S_2 and $S_1 = 1$ and S_6 and $S_4 = 1$, in this case, we can know that v_4 and v_3 are in errors.

⑥ If the number of errors are greater than two;

· Odd number \Rightarrow we can't guarantee that we will not miscorrect the error.

· Even number \Rightarrow we can't guarantee to detect the error.