

INTRODUCTION TO EECS II  
**DIGITAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS**

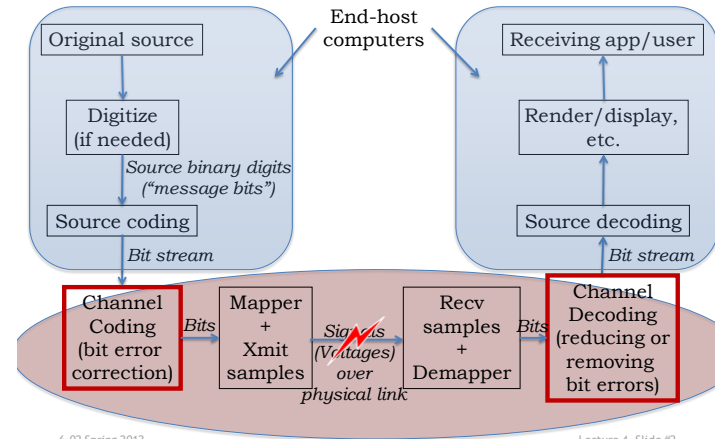
**6.02 Spring 2012  
 Lecture #4**

- Linear block codes - Properties
- Rectangular parity, Hamming

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Lecture 4, Slide #1

**Single Link Communication Model**



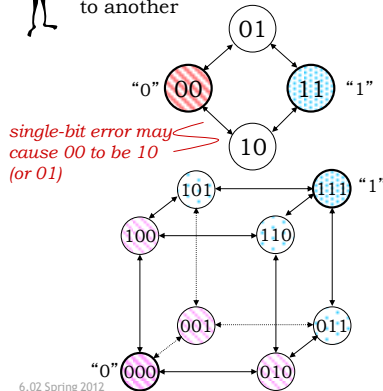
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Lecture 4, Slide #2

**Idea: Embedding for Structural Separation**



Encode so that the codewords are "far enough" from each other  
 Likely error patterns shouldn't transform one codeword to another



Code: nodes chosen in hypercube + mapping of message bits to nodes

If we choose  $2^k$  out of  $2^n$  nodes, it means we can map all  $k$ -bit message strings in a space of  $n$ -bit *codewords*.  
 The **code rate** is  $k/n$ .

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**Linear Block Codes**

Block code:  $k$  message bits encoded to  $n$  code bits  
 i.e., each of  $2^k$  messages encoded into a unique  **$n$ -bit** combination via a *linear transformation*.  
 Set of parity equations (in  $GF(2)$ ) represents code.

**Key property:** Sum of any two codewords is *also* a codeword  $\rightarrow$  necessary and sufficient for code to be linear.

**$(n,k)$  code** has rate  $k/n$ .  
 Sometime written as  **$(n,k,d)$** , where  **$d$**  is the Hamming Distance of the code.

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### Examples: What are n, k, d here?

{000, 111} (3,1,3). Rate= 1/3.

{0000, 1100, 0011, 1111} (4,2,2). Rate = 1/2.

{00000} (5,0,\_) . Rate = 0!

{1111, 0000, 0001}   
 {1111, 0000, 0010, 1100}   
 *Not linear codes!*

The HD of a linear code is the number of "1"s in the non-zero codeword with the smallest # of "1"s

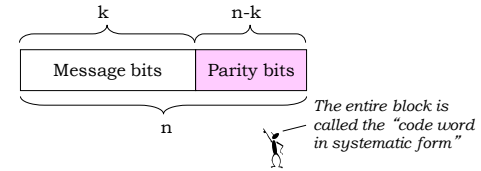
0000000 1100001 1100110 0000111   
 0101010 1001011 1001100 0101101   
 1010010 0110011 0110100 1010101   
 1111000 0011001 0011110 1111111   
 (7,4,3) code. Rate = 4/7.

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### (n,k) Systematic Linear Block Codes

- Split data into **k**-bit blocks
- Add **(n-k)** parity bits to each block using **(n-k)** linear equations, making each block **n** bits long



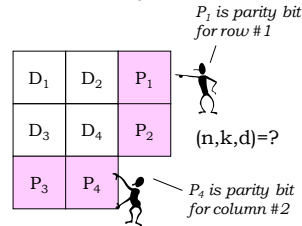
- Every linear code can be represented in systematic form

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### Example: Rectangular Parity Codes

Idea: start with rectangular array of data bits, add parity checks for each row and column. Single-bit error in data will show up as parity errors in a particular row and column, pinpointing the bit that has the error.



0 1 1   
 1 1 0   
 1 0

Parity for each row and column is correct => no errors

0 1 1   
 1 0 0   
 1 0

Parity check fails for row #2 and column #2 => bit D<sub>4</sub> is incorrect

0 1 1   
 1 1 1   
 1 0

Parity check only fails for row #2 => bit P<sub>2</sub> is incorrect

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### Rectangular Code Corrects Single Errors

Claim: The HD of the rectangular code with **r** rows and **c** columns is **3**. Hence, it is a single error correction (SEC) code.

Code rate =  $rc / (rc + r + c)$ .

*If we add an overall parity bit P, we get a (rc+r+c+1, rc, 4) code*

*Improves error detection but not correction capability*

D <sub>1</sub>	D <sub>2</sub>	D <sub>3</sub>	D <sub>4</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>
D <sub>5</sub>	D <sub>6</sub>	D <sub>7</sub>	D <sub>8</sub>	P <sub>2</sub>
D <sub>9</sub>	D <sub>10</sub>	D <sub>11</sub>	D <sub>12</sub>	P <sub>3</sub>
P <sub>4</sub>	P <sub>5</sub>	P <sub>6</sub>	P <sub>7</sub>	P

Proof: Three cases.

- Msgs with HD 1 → differ in 1 row and 1 col parity
- Msgs with HD 2 → differ in either row OR col or both → HD ≥ 4 here.
- Msgs with HD 3 or more → systematic code so differ in that many bits

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## Decoding Rectangular Parity Codes

Receiver gets possibly corrupted word,  $w$ .

Calculates all the parity bits from the data bits.

If no parity errors, return **rc** bits of data.

Single row or column parity bit error  $\rightarrow$  **rc** data bits are fine, return them

If parity of row  $x$  and parity of column  $y$  are in error, then the data bit in the  $(x,y)$  position is wrong; flip it and return the **rc** data bits

All other parity errors are *uncorrectable*. Return the data as-is, flag an “uncorrectable error”

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## Let's do some rectangular parity decoding

D1	D2	P1
D3	D4	P2
P3	P4	

Received codewords

1	0	1
0	1	0
0	1	

1. Decoded message bits: 1011

0	0	0
1	1	1
1	1	

2. Decoded message bits: 0011  
**P2 parity error**

0	0	1
0	1	0
0	0	

3. Decoded message bits: 0001  
**“uncorrectable”**

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## How Many Parity Bits Do We Really Need?

- We have  $n-k$  parity bits, which collectively can represent  $2^{n-k}$  possibilities
- For **single-bit error** correction, parity bits need to represent two sets of cases:
  - Case 1: No error has occurred (1 possibility)
  - Case 2: Exactly one of the code word bits has an error ( $n$  possibilities, not  $k$ )

So we need  $n+1 \leq 2^{n-k}$   
 $n \leq 2^{n-k} - 1$  (Hamming bound)

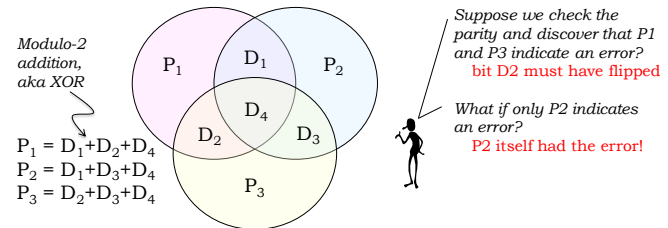
- Rectangular codes do not satisfy the equality
- Hamming codes correct single errors with this minimum number of parity bits  
(7,4,3), ... ,  $(2^m - 1, 2^m - 1 - m, 3)$

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## Towards More Efficient Codes: (7,4,3) Hamming Code Example

- Use multiple parity bits, each covering a subset of the data bits.
- No two message bits belong to exactly the same subsets, so a single-bit error will generate a unique set of parity check errors.



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## Logic Behind Hamming Code Construction

- Idea: Use parity bits to cover each axis of the binary vector space
  - That way, all message bits will be covered with a **unique** combination of parity bits

Index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Binary index	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
(7,4) code	<b>P1</b>	<b>P2</b>	<b>D1</b>	<b>P3</b>	<b>D2</b>	<b>D3</b>	<b>D4</b>



$$P_1 = D_1 + D_2 + D_4$$

$$P_2 = D_1 + D_3 + D_4$$

$$P_3 = D_2 + D_3 + D_4$$

$P_1$  with binary index 00**1** covers

$D_1$  with binary index 0**1**1

$D_2$  with binary index 10**1**

$D_4$  with binary index 1**1**1