

Pro Seminar. Kodierungstheorie

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Notes: ① (this filed)
 F_q : Galois field $GF(q)$, where q is prime power.

② $(F_q)^n$: the vector space $V(n, q)$

Def 1:

A linear code over $GF(q)$ is just a subspace of $V(n, q)$, for some positive integer n .

A subset C of $V(n, q)$ is a linear code if and only if.

- (i) $u+v \in C$ for all u and v in C .
(ii) $au \in C$ for $u \in C, a \in GF(q)$.
- (special case)
Binary

Example 2: ①
The code C_1 of Example 1.5, $C_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, C_1 is a subset of $(F_2)^2$

② in Page 7.5 (✗)

Def 3: C is a k -dimensional subspace of $V(n, q)$, then the linear code C is called an $[n, k]$ -code, if we wish to specify also the minimum distance d of C , an $[n, k, d]$ -code.

The weight $w(x)$ of a vector x in $V(n, q)$ is defined to be the number of non-zero entries of x .

Before we prove a theorem that a linear code is that its minimum distance is equal to the smallest of the weights of the non-zero codewords we have firstly a Lemma.

Lemma 4

If $x, y \in V(n, q)$ then $d(x, y) = w(x - y)$

(specially for $q=2$,
 $d(x, y) = w(x + y)$)

Proof: vector $x - y$ has non-zero entries, because they are different.

$$x - y \neq 0$$

(*) Let $G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $F = F_2$

Then the span of G is a $(6, 2)$ code

Its code words are $\begin{cases} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{cases}$

$d = 3$
 $d = 3$
constant
 $d = 6$

So let's prove the important Theorem.

Theorem 5: Let C be a linear code and let $w(C)$ be the smallest of the weights of the non-zero codewords of C . Then

$$d(C) = w(C)$$

Remark: $w(C) = d(C, (0, \dots, 0))$

Proof:

There exist codewords x and y of C such that $d(C) = d(x, y)$

by Lemma 4; $d(C) = w(x-y) \geq w(C)$, because $x-y$ is a codeword of the linear code C .

Besides, for some codeword $x \in C$, $w(C) = w(x) = d(x, 0) \geq d(C)$

since 0 belongs to the linear code C . So $d(C) \geq w(C)$ and also $w(C) \geq d(C)$

$$\Rightarrow d(C) = w(C).$$

□

We now list some of the advantages and disadvantages of restricting one's attention to linear codes.

Advantage:

①. For a general code with M codewords, to find the minimum distance we might have to make $\binom{M}{2} = \frac{1}{2} M(M-1)$. However, Theorem 5.2 enable the minimum distance of a linear code to be found by examining only the weights of the $M-1$ non-zero codewords.

(Minimal distance $w(C)$ is easy to compute if C is linear code)

② To specify a non-linear code, we may have to list all the codewords.

We can specify a linear $[n, k]$ -code by simply giving a basis of k codewords.

(Linear codes have simple specifications)

③ There are nice procedures for encoding and decoding a linear code. (Chap. 7)

Def 6

A $k \times n$ matrix whose rows form a basis of a linear $[(n, k)]$ code is called a generator matrix of the code.

Example 7

(i) The code C_2 of Example 1.5 is a $[[3, 2, 2]]$ -code with generator matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 11 \\ 1 & 01 \end{pmatrix}$.

(ii) The code C of Example 2.73 is a $[[7, 4, 3]]$ -code with generator matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 11 & 11 & 11 \\ 1 & 00 & 01 & 01 \\ 1 & 10 & 00 & 10 \\ 0 & 11 & 00 & 01 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Equivalence of linear codes.

Def 8:

- ① Equivalence of codes is modified for linear codes, by allowing only those permutations of symbols which are given by multiplication by a non-zero scalar. (chapter 2).
- ② Two linear codes over $GF(q)$ are called equivalent if one can be obtained from the other by a combination of operation of following types.

(A) permutation of the code

(B) multiplication of the symbols appearing in a fixed position by a non-zero scalar.

Disadvantage:

① Linear q -ary are not defined unless q is a prime power. But for q not a prime power, can often be obtained from linear codes over a large alphabet. Such as, in chap. 2 how good decimal (10-ary) codes can be obtained from linear 11-ary codes by omitting all codewords containing a given fixed symbol.

This idea is used in ISBN code.

It can be obtained in such a way from the linear 11-ary code $\{x_1, \dots, x_{11} \in V(11, 11) : \sum_{i=1}^{11} x_i = 0\}$. 3.5

Theorem 9:

Two $k \times n$ matrices generate equivalent linear $[n, k]$ -codes over $GF(q)$ if one matrix can be obtained from the other by a sequence of operations of the following types:

- permutation of the rows.
- Multiplication of a row by a non-zero scalar.
- Addition of a scalar multiple of one row to another.
- permutation of the columns.
- Multiplication of any column by a non-zero scalar.

Proof: Operation (a) — (c) just replace one basis by another, (d) and (e) convert a generator matrix to one of an equivalent code.

Theorem 10

Let G be a generator matrix of an $[n, k]$ -code. Then by performing operations of types (a) — (e), G can be transformed to the standard form

$$[I_k | A]$$

where I_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix, and A is a $k \times (n-k)$ matrix

Proof:

During a sequence of transformations of the matrix G , we denote by g_{ij} the (i, j) -th entry of the matrix under consideration at the time and by $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$ and $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$ the rows and columns respectively of this matrix.

The following three-step procedure is applied for $j=1, 2, \dots, k$ in turn, the j^{th} application transforming column C_j into its desired form (with 1 in the j^{th} position and 0s elsewhere), leaving unchanged the first $j-1$ columns already suitably transformed. Suppose then that G has already been transformed to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & g_{1j} & \dots & g_{1n} \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & g_{2j} & \dots & g_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & g_{jj} & \dots & g_{jn} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & g_{kj} & \dots & g_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

1. Step:

If $g_{jj} \neq 0$, go to step 2. If $g_{jj} = 0$, and if for some $i > j$, $g_{ij} \neq 0$, then interchange r_j and r_k . If $g_{jj} = 0$ and $g_{ij} = 0$ for all $i > j$, then choose h such that $g_{jh} \neq 0$ and interchange C_j and C_h .

2. Step

We now have $g_{jj} \neq 0$. Multiply r_j by g_{jj}^{-1} .

3. Step

we now have $g_{jj} = 1$. For each of $i=1, 2, \dots, k$, with $i \neq j$, replace r_i by $r_i - g_{ij} r_j$.

The column C_j now has the desired form.

After this procedure has been applied for $j=1, 2, \dots, k$, the generator matrix will have standard form.

Example 17

① In Example 17(i), Interchanging rows gives the standard form generator matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

② use the Theorem 7.2 to transform (ii)

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

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{---} \rightarrow \\ R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1 \end{array}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1$$

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

⑦

$$\begin{aligned} & \underline{r_1 \rightarrow r_1 - r_2} \\ & r_4 \rightarrow r_4 - r_2 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\underline{r_2 \rightarrow r_2 - r_3}$$

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

$$\overbrace{v_3 \rightarrow v_3 - v_4} \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1000 & 101 \\ 0100 & 111 \\ 0010 & 120 \\ 0001 & 011 \end{pmatrix}$$