MATH32031: Coding Theory • Part 2: Hamming Distance

2 Hamming Distance

Throughout this lecture F is a finite field with q elements.

Definition The Hamming distance $d(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$ between two vectors $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in F^{(n)}$ is the number of coefficients in which they differ, e.g.

in
$$\mathbb{F}_2^{(5)}$$
 $d(00111, 11001) = 4$
in $\mathbb{F}_3^{(4)}$ $d(0122, 1220) = 3$.

Proposition 1 d satisfies the usual conditions for a metric:

- (a) $d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \ge 0$ and $d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\underline{x} = \underline{y}$
- (b) $d(\underline{x}, y) = d(y, \underline{x})$
- $\text{(c)} \ \ d(\underline{x},\underline{z}) \leq d(\underline{x},\underline{y}) + d(\underline{y},\underline{z}) \ \text{for any} \ \underline{x},\underline{y},\underline{z} \in F^{(n)}.$

Proof. (a) $d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\underline{x}, \underline{y}$ agree in all coordinates and this happens if and only if $\underline{x} = \underline{y}$.

- (b) The number of coordinates in which \underline{x} differs from \underline{y} is equal to the number of coordinates in which \underline{y} differs from \underline{x} .
- (c) $d(\underline{x},\underline{y})$ is equal to the minimal number of coordinate changes necessary to get from \underline{x} to \underline{y} . In its turn, $d(\underline{y},\underline{z})$ is equal to the minimal number of coordinate changes necessary to get from y to \underline{z} .

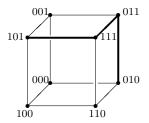
So $d(\underline{x},\underline{y}) + d(\underline{y},\underline{z})$ changes will get us from \underline{x} to \underline{z} . Hence

$$d(\underline{x}, y) + d(y, \underline{z}) \ge d(\underline{x}, \underline{z})$$

which is the minimal number of coordinate changes necessary to get from \underline{x} to \underline{z} .

Example: Hamming distance over the binary alphabet. Words in $\mathbb{F}_2^{(3)}$ can be represented as the vertices

of a three dimensional cube.



Imagine that the cube is made of wire. Then the Hamming distance between two words is the number of edges in a shortest path connecting the corresponding vertices. For example, d(101,010) = 3. Analogously, the Hamming distance in $\mathbb{F}_2^{(n)}$ can be interpreted as the minimal number of edges in a path connecting two vertices of a n-dimensional cube.

This notion of distance now enables us to make precise the concept of a nearest neighbour.

Nearest neighbour. Given a code $C \subset F^{(n)}$ and a vector $\underline{y} \in F^{(n)}$ then $\underline{x} \in C$ is a nearest neighbour to y if

$$d(\underline{x}, y) = \min \left(d(\underline{z}, y) \mid \underline{z} \in C \right)$$

Notice that a vector might have more than one nearest neighbour, so a nearest neighbour is not always unique.

Weight. Let $\underline{v} \in F^n$. Then the weight of \underline{v} , $w(\underline{v})$, is the number of non-zero co-ordinates in \underline{v} .

Lemma For $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in F^n$

$$d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = w(\underline{x} - \underline{y}).$$

Proof.

$$d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = \text{number of } \{i \mid x_i \neq y_i\}$$

= number of $\{i \mid x_i - y_i \neq 0\}$
= $w(\underline{x} - y)$.

Symmetric channels. Next we consider some of our initial assumptions; these were deliberately omitted in the introduction.

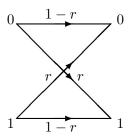
Suppose that a codeword \underline{x} is transmitted and a vector \underline{y} is received. If \underline{y} has a unique nearest neighbour $\underline{x}' \in C$, then it seems "reasonable" to suppose that \underline{x}' was the original message. To justify this we henceforth suppose:

- Errors in different positions in a word are independent; the occurrence of an error in one position in the word does not affect the probability of an error in another position.
- Each symbol $f \in F$ has the same probability r of being erroneously transmitted. We also assume that this probability of error is small, $r \ll 1/2$.
- If $f \in F$ is mistransmitted, then we suppose that all q-1 remaining symbols are equally likely to be received.

We call such channel a q-ary symmetric channel.

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Example: Binary symmetric channel. Consider the alphabet $F = \mathbf{F}_2$ with the above assumptions and parameters on the channel. Then the above conditions can be summarised schematically by the following diagram:



Suppose now that a q-ary codeword of length n is transmitted. Then

- (0) the probability of no errors is $(1-r)^n$,
- (1) the probability of 1 error in a specified position is $(1-r)^{n-1}r$,

:

(i) the probability of i errors in specified positions is $(1-r)^{n-i}r^i$,

:

When exactly i errors occur, the number of possible positions for these errors is $\binom{n}{i}$. Here $\binom{n}{i}$ (read 'n choose i') is a binomial coefficient, the number of ways to choose i elements from a set of n elements. Recall that

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} n\\i \end{array}\right) = \frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!}.$$

It is easy to see that

$$\begin{pmatrix} n \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = n, \begin{pmatrix} n \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}, \dots$$

Hence

- (0) the probability of no errors is $(1-r)^n$,
- (1) the probability of exactly 1 error (in any position) is $n \cdot (1-r)^{n-1}r$;
- (2) probability of exactly 2 errors (in arbitrary positions) is

$$\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \cdot (1-r)^{n-2}r^2,$$

:

(i) the probability of exactly i errors (in any positions) is

$$\binom{n}{i} (1-r)^{n-i} r^i,$$

:

Comparing these probabilities, we see that if r is sufficiently small (r < 1/(n+1) works), then the vector with no error is the most likely of these classes to be received. A vector with exactly 1 error is next most likely, etc. We skip the technical details and restrict ourselves to comparing the probabilities of 0 and 1 errors:

$$(1-r)^n > n \cdot (1-r)^{n-1}r$$

is, after cancelation, equivalent to

$$1-r>n\cdot r$$
,

which is equivalent to r < 1/(n+1).

Thus this argument justifies our initial treatment—at least for symmetric channels.

Notice also that even with higher possibility of error, provided that r < (q-1)/q, a codeword closest in terms of Hamming distance to the received word has the greatest probability of being the sent codeword. After all, the probability that the received vector is a *specific* word at a distance m from the sent word is $(1-r)^{n-m}(r/(q-1))^m$, which is strictly decreasing with m whenever r < (q-1)/q.

The minimum distance. We return now to the Hamming distance function. In order to avoid trivialities, in the sequel we *always* suppose that |C| (the number of codewords) is greater than 1.

Definition. The minimum distance of a code C, denoted d(C), is

$$d(C) = \min \left(d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \mid \underline{x}, \underline{y} \in C, \underline{x} \neq \underline{y} \right)$$

Note that this definition makes sense, since |C| > 1. Moreover, it is clear that $d(C) \ge 1$.

Example. Consider $C_1 = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$. Then $d(C_1) = 1$.

d(C) is a crucial invariant of a code, as is shown by the following simple but very important result.

Theorem 2 (a) If, for a code C,

$$d(C) \ge s + 1$$

then C can detect up to s errors.

(b) If

$$d(C) > 2t + 1$$

then the code C can correct up to t errors.

Proof.

- (a) Suppose that $d(C) \ge s+1$. Let \underline{x} be the codeword sent and \underline{y} the vector received. Suppose that \underline{y} is subject to at most s errors i.e. $d(\underline{x},\underline{y}) \le s$. Then \underline{y} cannot be a codeword (since $d(\underline{x},y) < d(C)$); thus the error is detected.
- (b) Suppose that $d(C) \geq 2t + 1$. Let \underline{x} be the codeword sent and \underline{y} be the vector received. Suppose that y has at most t errors, i.e. $d(\underline{x}, y) \leq t$.

If \underline{x}' is any codeword different from \underline{x} , then we claim that $d(\underline{x}',\underline{y}) \geq t+1$, because

$$\begin{array}{lcl} d(\underline{x}',\underline{y}) + t \geq d(\underline{x}',\underline{y}) + d(\underline{y},\underline{x}) & \geq & d(\underline{x}',\underline{x}) \\ & \geq & d(C) \\ & \geq & 2t + 1. \end{array}$$

This means that \underline{x} is the unique nearest neighbour to \underline{y} , so \underline{y} may be corrected to \underline{x} by finding the nearest neighbour to y and choosing that as the decoded word.

This completes the proof. \Box

This method of decoding is called nearest neighbour decoding.