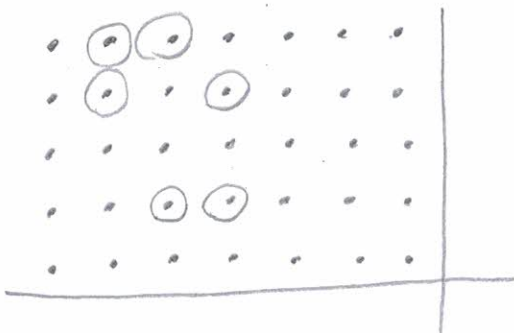


① You may give your answers based on the content in Section 1.3 in the textbook. Basically, we'd like to see your reasoning here (e.g., not just say "it offers better understandability; explain why it offers better understandability.)

2a) Refer to Section 2.3.1. Basically, using the single parity check, the resulting "data bits + parity check bit" must have even number of 1's. Now, in presence of odd number of errors (be it from 0 to 1 or from 1 to 0) we will have odd number of 1's in "data bits + parity check bit."

2b) Following the answer of 2a, a random bit string has 50% of chance to have even number of 1's in total. Alternatively, you may use the metric in Section 2.3.3 and argue that $L=1$ in the single parity check and thus $2^{-1} = 50\%$.

2c) 2d) Refer to Section 2.3.4.



If $g(D)$ is of degree 4, then the remainder polynomial is of degree 3 at most, which means we will use 4 bits to hold the coefficients of the remainder polynomial. Thus the number of parity checks in this case is 4.

P₂

(2e)

$$\begin{array}{r} 000 \\ 101 \overline{) 000000} \\ \underline{000} \\ 000 \\ \underline{000} \\ 000 \\ \underline{000} \\ 00 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
000000

$$\begin{array}{r} 001 \\ 101 \overline{) 00100} \\ \underline{000} \\ 010 \\ \underline{000} \\ 100 \\ \underline{101} \\ 01 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
00101

$$\begin{array}{r} 010 \\ 101 \overline{) 01000} \\ \underline{000} \\ 100 \\ \underline{101} \\ 010 \\ \underline{000} \\ 10 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
01010

$$\begin{array}{r} 011 \\ 101 \overline{) 01100} \\ \underline{000} \\ 110 \\ \underline{101} \\ 110 \\ \underline{101} \\ 11 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
01111

$$\begin{array}{r} 101 \\ 101 \overline{) 10000} \\ \underline{101} \\ 010 \\ \underline{000} \\ 100 \\ \underline{101} \\ 01 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
10001

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 101 \overline{) 10100} \\ \underline{101} \\ 000 \\ \underline{000} \\ 000 \\ \underline{000} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
10100

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \\ 101 \overline{) 11000} \\ \underline{101} \\ 110 \\ \underline{101} \\ 110 \\ \underline{101} \\ 11 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
11011

$$\begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 101 \overline{) 11100} \\ \underline{101} \\ 100 \\ \underline{101} \\ 010 \\ \underline{000} \\ 10 \end{array}$$

⇒ code word
11110

The minimum distance of

is 2 #

{ 00000
00101
01010
01111
10001
10100
11011
11110

2f

$$\begin{array}{r}
 11011 \\
 101 \overline{) 1110100} \\
 \underline{101} \\
 100 \\
 \underline{101} \\
 011 \\
 \underline{000} \\
 110 \\
 \underline{101} \\
 110 \\
 \underline{101} \\
 11
 \end{array}$$

\Rightarrow the code word is 1110111 *

(which we stated as Theorem 1 in class)

3a

Because otherwise the Hamming weight of a linear code would be zero, which in turn would make Theorem 3 useless. On the other hand, Theorem 3 still applies to a linear code within which a code word may be all-zero, even if we do not consider that code word when determining the Hamming weight of the linear code: the definition of the Hamming weight implicitly considers the Hamming distance between ANY non-zero code word and the all-zero code word, since $d(u, v) = wt(u - v)$.

3b1

| data bits | code word |
|-------------------|-----------|
| 000 \rightarrow | 000000 |
| 001 \rightarrow | 001101 |
| 010 \rightarrow | 010001 |
| 011 \rightarrow | 011100 |
| 100 \rightarrow | 100110 |
| 101 \rightarrow | 101011 |
| 110 \rightarrow | 110111 |
| 111 \rightarrow | 111010 |

\Rightarrow the Hamming weight of this linear code is 2 *

(3b2)

Using the nearest-neighbor rule, we will say that the original data is $(100110)_2$, which differs by one bit with respect to $(101110)_2$.

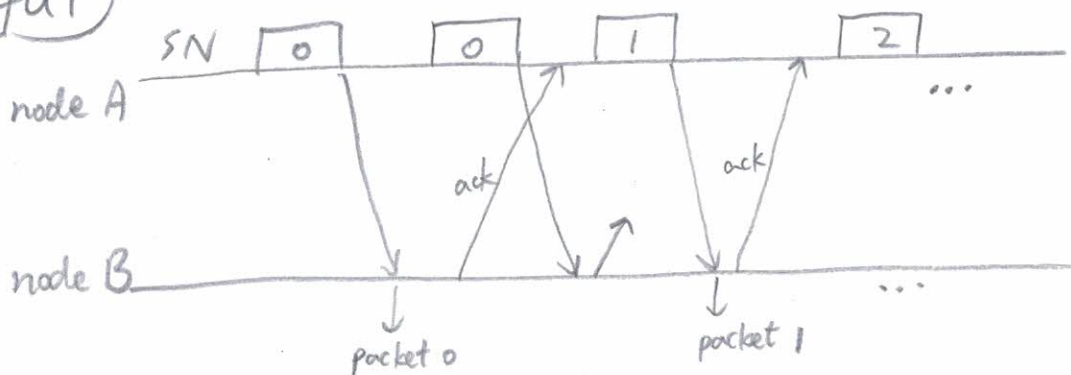
Interestingly, suppose the received bit vector is $(000001)_2$ instead. The nearest-neighbor rule would give two plausible answers: $(000000)_2$ and $(010001)_2$. Because the Hamming weight of this code is 2, our Theorem does not give us any guarantee (since $t=0$ in this case).

(3b3)

Suppose the original data is $(000)_2$ and the code word is thus $(000000)_2$.

If the two-bit error leads to $(010001)_2$ received by a receiver, then we cannot correct the error using the nearest-neighbor rule because $(010001)_2$ itself is a code word.

(4a1)



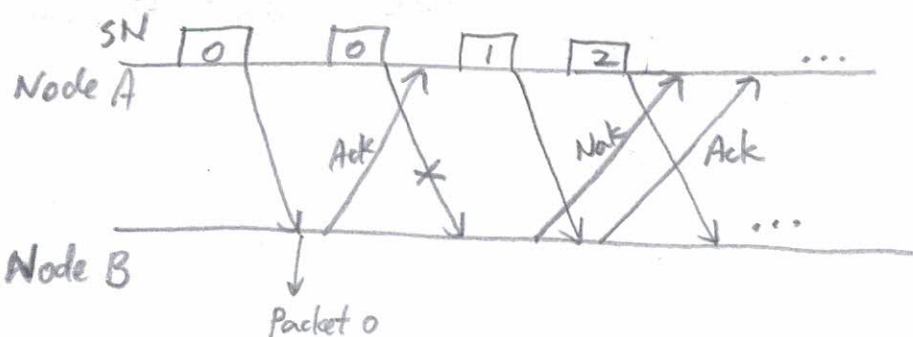
4a2

Case ①: Figure 2.19

case ②: the Nak of packet 1 was lost, and packet 2 was corrupted, and then the Nak for packet 2 was delivered successfully.

4a3

① Yes, and this is possible if Node A does not need to wait for an Ack before it sends a packet with a new SN or that packets may arrive out-of-order:

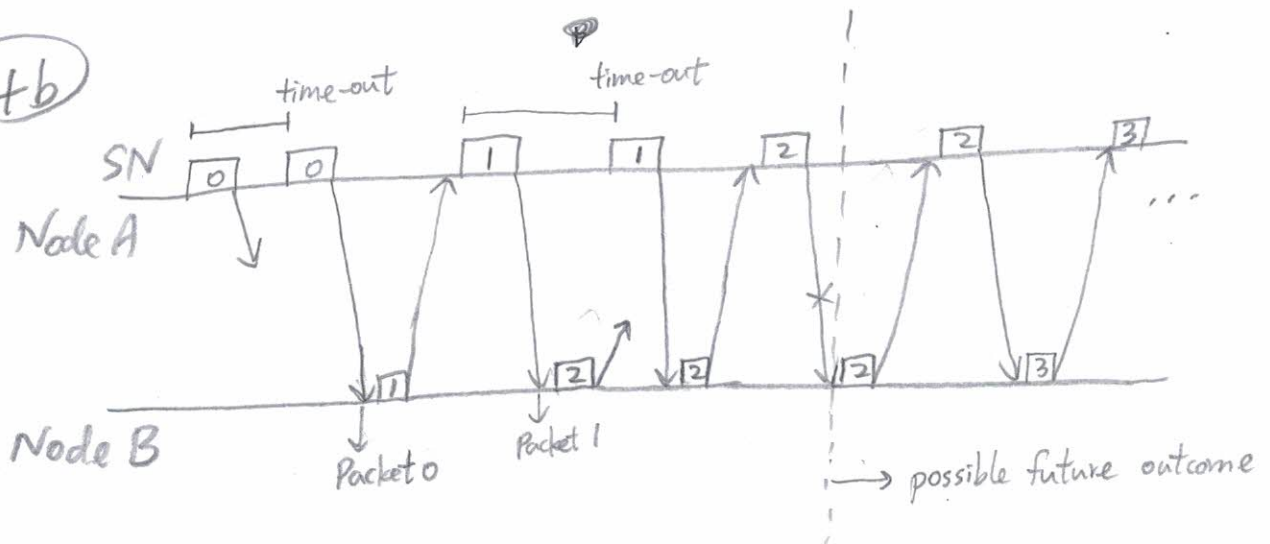


or

② No, if we suppose Node A must receive an Ack before it can send a packet with a new SN, and that packets arrive in order.

Give either
① or ②
is sufficient
to receive
full score

(4b)



(4c)

$$T_2 = T_1 + T_0 (q^{-1} - 1) \leq 1.1 T_1$$

$$\Rightarrow T_1 + T_0 \left(\frac{1}{0.8} - 1 \right) \leq 1.1 T_1$$

$$\Rightarrow T_0 \leq \frac{0.1}{0.25} T_1 = \underline{0.4 T_1}$$

#