

Part I

Basics of coding theory and linear codes

CODING and CRYPTOGRAPHY

IV054

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In spite of the fact that both coding and cryptography areas have already many very efficient systems using only very small memories, new and new applications require to develop again and again new, faster, and less memory demanding systems for both coding and cryptography.

Teaching stuff

- Prof. Jozef Gruska DrSc - lecturer
- RNDr. Matej Pivoluska PhD - tutorials and CRYPTO team member
- RNDr Lukáš Boháč - head of CRYPTO-team
- Mgr. Libor Cáha PhD, member of CRYPTO-team
- Bc. Henrieta Michělová, member of CRYPTO-team
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Prerequisites: Basics of discrete mathematics and linear algebra See: "Appendix" in <http://www.fi.muni.cz/usr/gruska/crypto21>,

Homeworks 5-6 sets of homeworks of 6-8 exercises designed and evaluated by our CRYPTO-team created mainly from some of best former IV054-students

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Each student will get 5 questions. Number of questions a student has to respond will depend on the number of points received for homeworks. Each student will get automatically A in case (s)he received number of points from exercises $\geq 85\%$ of MAX - maximal number of points any student got from exercises.

Automatically a student gets B, with an easy way to get A, in case the number of points (s)he received is in interval $(75,85)\%$ of MAX.....

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- Appendix of fundamental discrete math and linear algebra - 45 pages
- Two lecture notes of solved examples (at least 100 in each one) and short (2-3) pages overviews for all chapters.
- Posted solutions of homeworks

Goals

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2. To verify, for ambitious students, their capability to work hard to be successful in very competitive informatics+mathematics environments.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Fundamentals of quantum information transmission and Cryptography. Surprising and even shocking practical applications of quantum information transmission and cryptography. Top current cryptosystem for applications.

Comment: Concerning both lectures and homeworks the overall requirement for students will be significantly smaller than in previous years.

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an introduction to linear codes**

PROLOGUE - I.

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- [Since that time coding theory has made another enormous progress that has allowed, among other things, almost perfect mobile communication and transmission of music in time and space.](#)

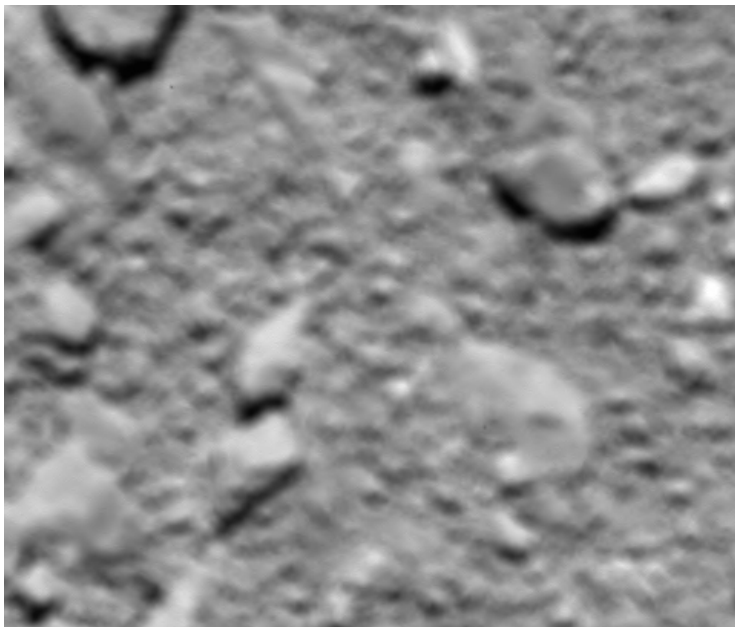
ROSETTA spacecraft



ROSETTA LANDING - VIEW from 21 km -29.9.2016



ROSETTA LANDING - VIEW from 51 m -29.9.2016



CHAPTER 1: BASICS of CODING THEORY

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- Coding theory problems are therefore among the very basic and most frequent

PROLOGUE - II.

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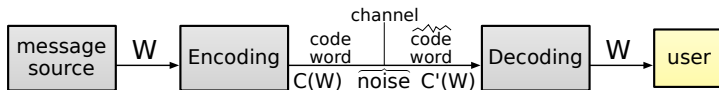
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using mainly classical, but also quantum tools.

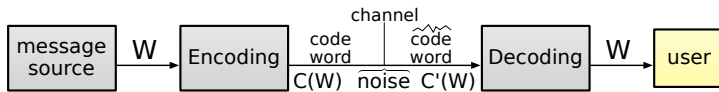
CODING THEORY - BASIC CONCEPTS

Error-correcting codes are used to correct messages when they are (erroneously) transmitted through noisy channels.



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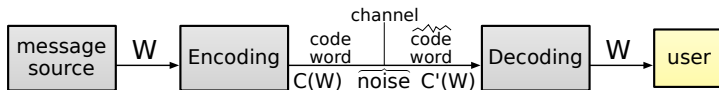
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Error correcting framework

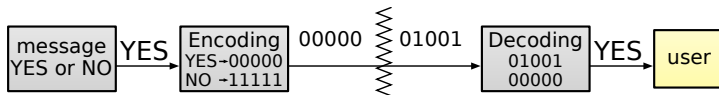
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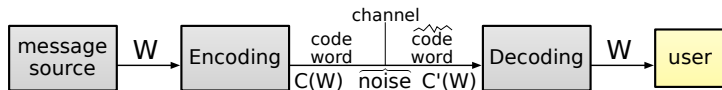
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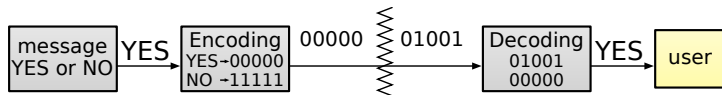
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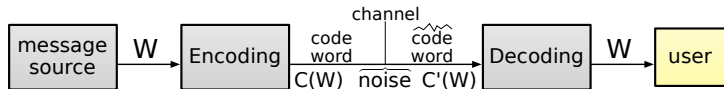
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A code C over an alphabet Σ is a nonempty subset of Σ^* ($C \subseteq \Sigma^*$).

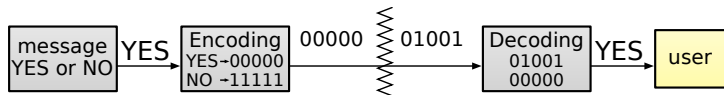
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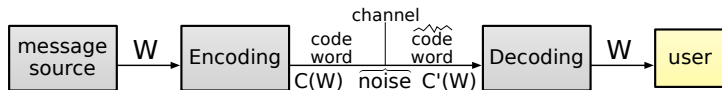


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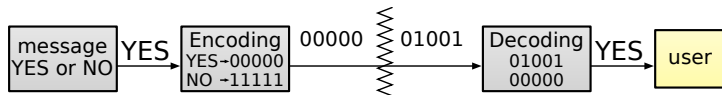
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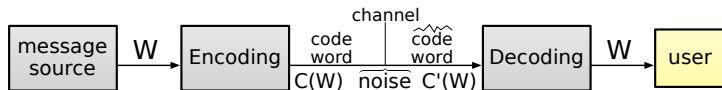
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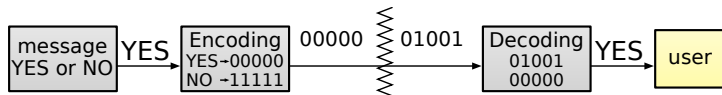
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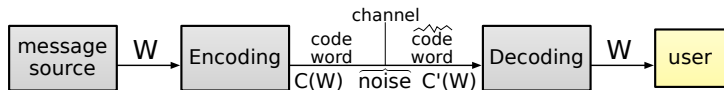
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Examples of codes $C_1 = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$ $C_2 = \{000, 010, 101, 100\}$

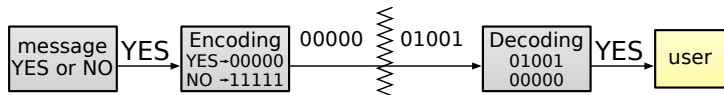
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Example: 0 is encoded as 00000 and 1 is encoded as 11111.

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- **Shannon stochastic (probabilistic) noise model:**
Probability $\Pr(y|x)$, for any output y and input x is given that output is y in case input is x ,

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- **White noise Gaussian channel that models errors in the deep space.**

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BEC (Backward Error Correction Coding) allows the receiver only to detect errors. If an error is detected, then the sender is requested to retransmit the message.]

DEC (Forward Error Correction Coding) allows the receiver to correct a certain amount of errors

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Also many non-cryptography applications require error-correcting codes. For example, mobiles, CD-players, . . .

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- Another field of applications of error-correcting codes is that of mass memories: computer hard drives, CD-Rooms, DVDs and so on.

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This should be done in such a way that even if the message is corrupted by a noise, there will be enough redundancy in the encoded message to recover, or to decode the message completely.

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then the probability of an erroneous decoding (for the case of 2 or 3 errors) is

$$3p^2(1-p) + p^3 = 3p^2 - 2p^3 < p$$

EXAMPLE: Coding of a path avoiding an enemy territory

Story Alice and Bob share an identical map (Fig. 1) shown in Fig.1. Only Alice knows the route through which Bob can reach her avoiding the enemy (graded) territory. Alice wants to send Bob the information about the safe route he should take.

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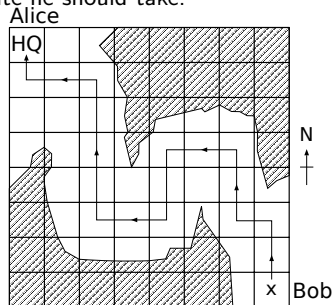


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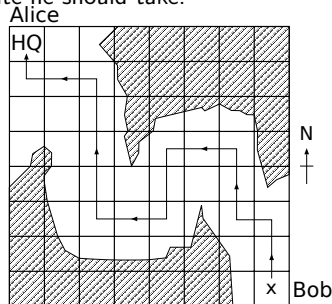


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Proof (1) Trivial.

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HAMMING DISTANCE

The intuitive concept of “closeness” of two words is well formalized through **Hamming distance** $h(x, y)$ of words x, y . For two words x, y

$h(x, y)$ = the number of symbols in which the words x and y differ.

Example: $h(10101, 01100) = 3$, $h(\text{fourth, eighth}) = 4$

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An important parameter of codes C is their **minimal distance**.

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Therefore, $h(C)$ is the smallest number of errors that can change one codeword into another.

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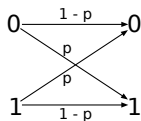
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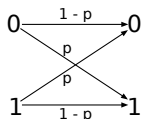
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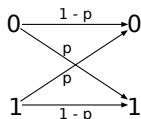


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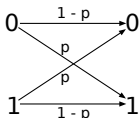
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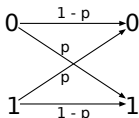
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Corollary One undetected error occurs only once every 2000 days! ($2000 \approx \frac{10^9}{5.5 \times 86400}$).

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Code rate (6/32 for Hadamard code), is an important parameter for real implementations, because it shows what fraction of the communication bandwidth is being used to transmit actual data.

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Lemma Any q -ary (n, M, d) -code over an alphabet $\{0, 1, \dots, q-1\}$ is equivalent to an (n, M, d) -code which contains the all-zero codeword $00 \dots 0$.

Proof Trivial.

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Notation: $A_q(n, d)$ is the largest M such that there is an q -nary (n, M, d) -code.

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Proof Let u be a fixed word in F_q^n . The number of words that differ from u in m positions is

$$\binom{n}{m}(q-1)^m.$$

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In general, does it has a sense to look for such codes that some important sum of any two codewords is again a codeword?

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Each base \mathbf{B} of C is usually represented by a (k, n) matrix, $G_{\mathbf{B}}$, so called a **generator matrix of C** , the i -th row of which is the i -th codeword of \mathbf{B} .

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$$\frac{1}{k!} \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (2^k - 2^i)$$

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Proof Operations (a) - (c) just replace one basis by another. Last two operations convert a generator matrix to one of an equivalent code.

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Theorem Let G be a generator matrix of an $[n, k]$ -code. Rows of G are then linearly independent. By operations (a) - (e) the matrix G can be transformed into the form: $[I_k|A]$ where I_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix, and A is a $k \times (n - k)$ matrix.

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Moreover

$$u_1 G = u_2$$

if and only if

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APPENDIX II.

EFFICIENT TRANSMISSION of INFORMATION

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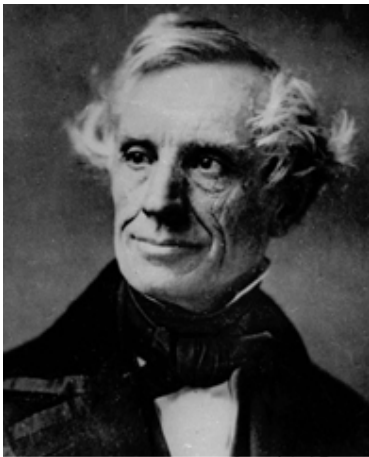
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Basic idea: Encode more (less) probable outputs of X by shorter (longer) binary words.

Example (Morse code - 1838)

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h	i ..	j .—	k -.-	l .-..	m -	n -.
o —	p .-.	q -.-	r .-	s ...	t -	u ..-
v ...-	w .-	x -.-	y -.-	z -..		

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0000	10	0100	010	1000	011	1100	11101
0001	000	0101	11001	1001	11011	1101	111110
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Observe that this is a **prefix code** - no codeword is a prefix of another codeword.

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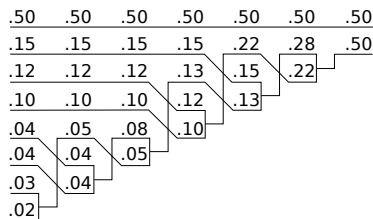
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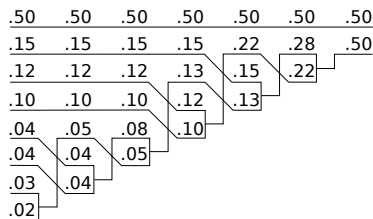


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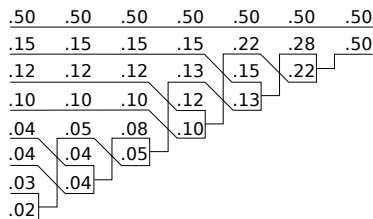


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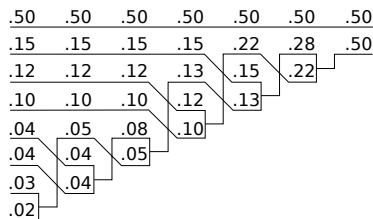
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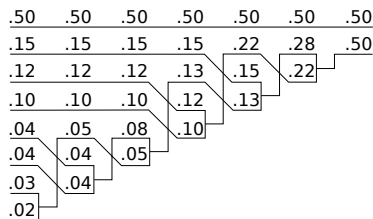
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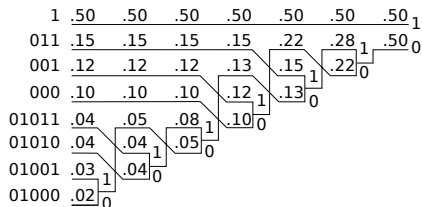
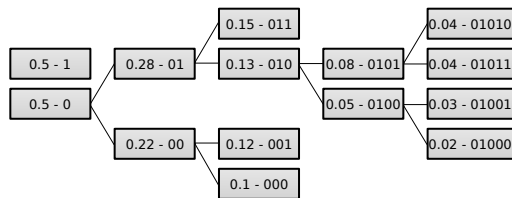
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Originally, information theory was a part of electrical engineering. Nowadays, it is an important part of mathematics and also of informatics.

The concept of **ENTROPY** is one of the most basic and important in modern science, especially in physics, mathematics and information theory.

So called **physical entropy** is a measure of the unavailable energy in a closed thermodynamics system (that is usually considered to be a measure of the system's disorder).

Entropy of an object is a measure of the amount of energy in the object which is unable to do some work.

Entropy is also a measure of the number of possible arrangements of the atoms a system can have.

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History Rudolf Clausius coined the term **entropy** in 1865.

SHANNON'S VIEW

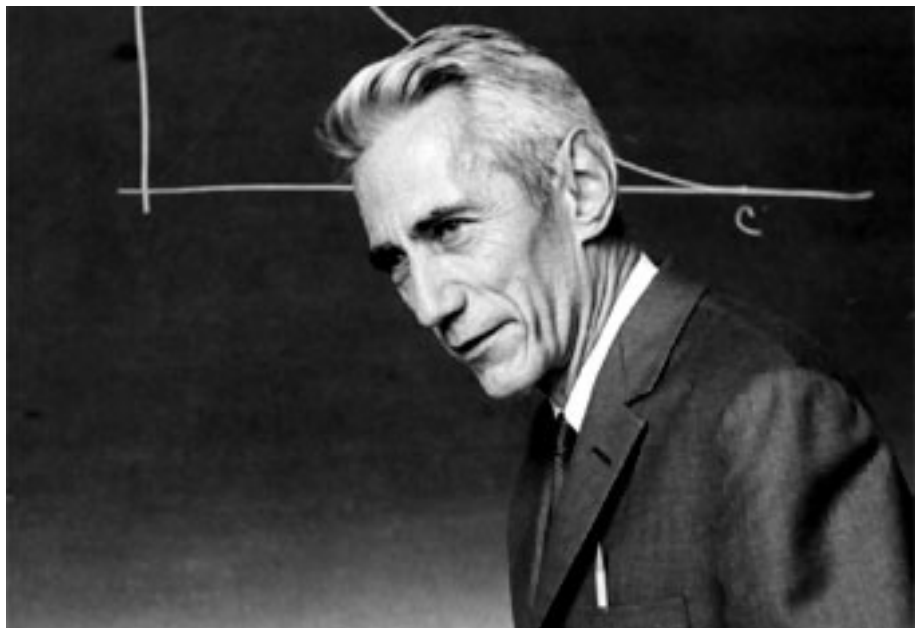
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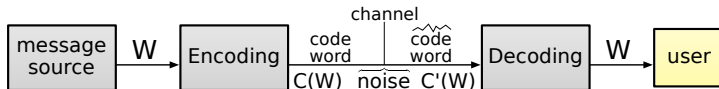
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APPENDIX

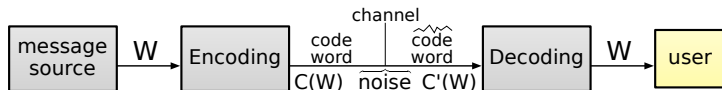
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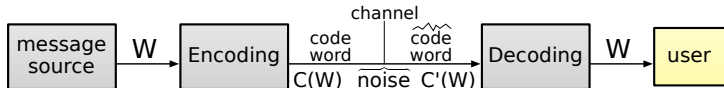
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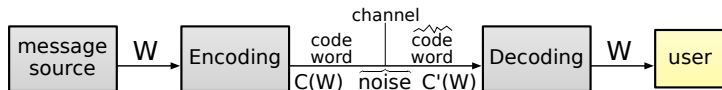


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This is a simplified view of the whole process.

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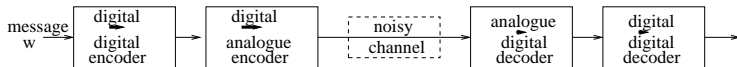
This is a simplified view of the whole process. **In practice the whole process looks quite differently.**

HARD versus SOFT DECODING II

Here is a more realistic view of the whole **encoding-transmission-decoding** process:

HARD versus SOFT DECODING II

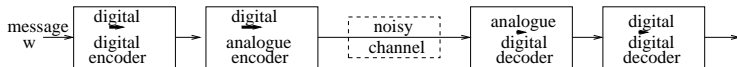
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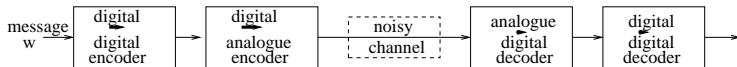


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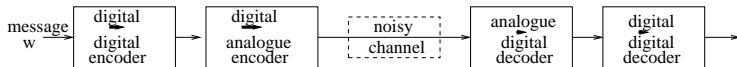


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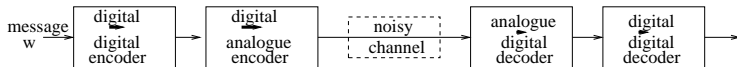


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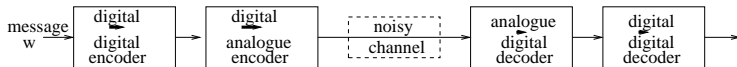


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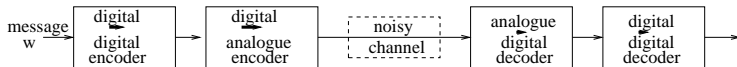
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In case the output of analogous-digital decoding is a pair (p_b, b) where p_b is the probability that the output is the bit b (or a weight of such a binary output (often given by a number from an interval $(-V_{max}, V_{max})$), we talk about a **soft decoding**.

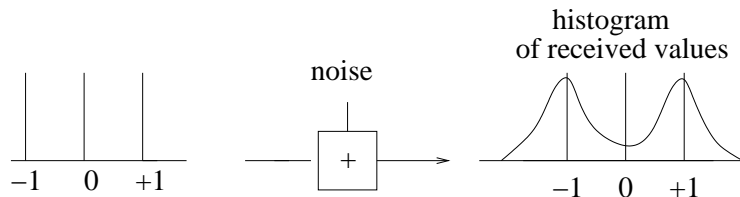
HARD versus SOFT DECODING - III.

In order to deal with such a more general model of transmission and soft decoding, it is common to use, instead of the binary symbols 0 and 1 so-called **antipodal binary symbols** $+1$ and -1 that are represented electronically by voltage $+1$ and -1 .

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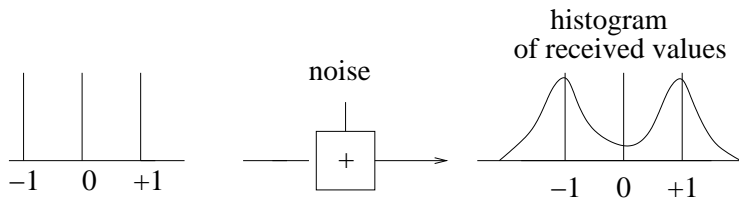
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A very important case in practise, especially for space communication, is so-called **additive white Gaussian noise (AWN)** and the channel with such a noise is called **Gaussian channel**.

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For example, in an important practical case of the Gaussian white noise one searches at the minimal likelihood decoding for a codeword with minimal **Euclidean distance**.

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Hard decoding is used mainly for block codes and soft one for stream codes. However, distinctions between these two families of codes are tending to blur.

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The binary elements 0 and 1 were first called **bits** by J. W. Tickle in 1943.

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In such a case:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} (11 - i)y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{10} (11 - i)x_i + (11 - j)a \neq 0 \pmod{11}$$

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Let x_j and x_k be exchanged.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} (11-i)y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{10} (11-i)x_i + (k-j)x_j + (j-k)x_k = (k-j)(x_j - x_k) \neq 0 \pmod{11}$$

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if $k \neq j$ and $x_j \neq x_k$.

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For details about 13-digit ISBN see

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Standard_Book_Number