

## Part I

### Cyclic codes and channel codes

## CHAPTER 3: CYCLIC, STREAM and CHANNEL CODES - SPECIAL DECODINGS

1. **Cyclic codes** are very special linear codes. They are of large interest and importance for several reasons:

- They **posses a rich algebraic structure** that can be utilized in a variety of ways.
- They **have extremely concise specifications**.
- Their encodings **can be efficiently implemented** using simple machinery - **shift registers**.
- Many of the practically very important codes are cyclic.

2. **Channel codes** are used to **encode streams of data** (bits). Some of them, as **Concatenated codes** and **Turbo codes**, **reach theoretical Shannon bound concerning efficiency**, and are currently used very often in practice.

3. **List decoding** is a new decoding technique capable to deal, in an approximate way, with cases that many errors occur, and in many such cases this technique performs better than the classical **unique decoding** technique - the one we dealt with so far.

4. **Locally decodable codes can** be seen as a theoretical extreme of coding theory with deep theoretical implications.

### IMPORTANT NOTE

In order to specify a non-linear binary code with  $2^k$  codewords of length  $n$  one may need to write down

$$2^k$$

codewords of length  $n$ .

In order to specify a linear binary code of the dimension  $k$  with  $2^k$  codewords of length  $n$  it is sufficient to write down

$$k$$

codewords of length  $n$  of a generator matrix of that code.

In order to specify a binary cyclic code with  $2^k$  codewords of length  $n$  it is sufficient to write down

$$1$$

codeword of length  $n$  - a generator of the code  $C$ .

### BASIC DEFINITION AND EXAMPLES

**Definition** A code  $C$  is cyclic if

- $C$  is a linear code;
- any cyclic shift of a codeword is also a codeword, i.e. whenever  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in C$ , then also  $a_{n-1}a_0 \dots a_{n-2} \in C$  and  $a_1a_2 \dots a_{n-1}a_0 \in C$ .

**Example**

- Code  $C = \{000, 101, 011, 110\}$  is cyclic.
- Hamming code  $Ham(3, 2)$ : with the generator matrix

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is equivalent to a cyclic code.

- The binary linear code  $\{0000, 1001, 0110, 1111\}$  is not cyclic, but it is equivalent to a cyclic code. - to get a cyclic code exchange first two symbols in all codewords.
- Is Hamming code  $Ham(2, 3)$  with the generator matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- cyclic?
- or at least equivalent to a cyclic code?

## FREQUENCY of CYCLIC CODES

Comparing with linear codes, cyclic codes are quite scarce. For example, there are 11 811 linear  $[7,3]$  binary codes, but only two of them are cyclic.

**Trivial cyclic codes.** For any field  $F$  and any integer  $n \geq 3$  there are always cyclic the following codes of length  $n$  over  $F$ :

- **No-information code** - code consisting of just one all-zero codeword.
- **Repetition code** - code consisting of all codewords  $(a, a, \dots, a)$  for  $a \in F$ .
- **Single-parity-check code** - code consisting of all codewords with parity 0.
- **No-parity code** - code consisting of all codewords of length  $n$

For some cases, for example for  $n = 19$  and  $F = GF(2)$ , the above four trivial cyclic codes are the only cyclic codes.

## AN EXAMPLE of a CYCLIC CODE

Is the linear code with the following generator matrix cyclic?

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is. It has, in addition to the codeword 0000000, the following codewords

$$\begin{array}{lll} c_1 = 1011100 & c_2 = 0101110 & c_3 = 0010111 \\ c_1 + c_2 = 1110010 & c_1 + c_3 = 1001011 & c_2 + c_3 = 0111001 \\ & c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = 1100101 & \end{array}$$

and it is cyclic because the right shifts have the following impacts

$$\begin{array}{lll} c_1 \rightarrow c_2, & c_2 \rightarrow c_3, & c_3 \rightarrow c_1 + c_3 \\ c_1 + c_2 \rightarrow c_2 + c_3, & c_1 + c_3 \rightarrow c_1 + c_2 + c_3, & c_2 + c_3 \rightarrow c_1 \\ c_1 + c_2 + c_3 \rightarrow c_1 + c_2 & & \end{array}$$

## POLYNOMIALS over $GF(q)$

A codeword of a cyclic code is usually denoted by

$$a_0 a_1 \dots a_{n-1}$$

and to each such a codeword the polynomial

$$a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

is usually associated – an ingenious idea!!.

**NOTATION:**  $F_q[x]$  will denote the set of all polynomials  $f(x)$  over  $GF(q)$ .

$\deg(f(x))$  = the largest  $m$  such that  $x^m$  has a non-zero coefficient in  $f(x)$ .

**Multiplication of polynomials** If  $f(x), g(x) \in F_q[x]$ , then

$$\deg(f(x)g(x)) = \deg(f(x)) + \deg(g(x)).$$

**Division of polynomials** For every pair of polynomials  $a(x), b(x) \neq 0$  in  $F_q[x]$  there exists a unique pair of polynomials  $q(x), r(x)$  in  $F_q[x]$  such that

$$a(x) = q(x)b(x) + r(x), \deg(r(x)) < \deg(b(x)).$$

**Example** Divide  $x^3 + x + 1$  by  $x^2 + x + 1$  in  $F_2[x]$ .

**Definition** Let  $f(x)$  be a fixed polynomial in  $F_q[x]$ . Two polynomials  $g(x), h(x)$  are said to be **congruent modulo  $f(x)$** , notation

$$g(x) \equiv h(x) \pmod{f(x)},$$

if  $g(x) - h(x)$  is divisible by  $f(x)$ .

## EXAMPLES

If binary strings of length 7 are considered then

to the word 1010101 the following polynomial is associated  $1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6$

to the word 1000001 the following polynomial is associated:  $1 + x^6$

The word starting with  $2^{124}$  zeros and followed by one 1 has the polynomial representation:

$$x^{124}$$

In the alphabet  $\{0, 1, 2\}$   $2x^2$  represents the string 002

## EXAMPLE

If  $x^3 + x + 1$  is divided by  $x^2 + x + 1$ , then

$$x^3 + x + 1 = (x^2 + x + 1)(x - 1) + x$$

and therefore the result of the division is

$$x - 1$$

and the remainder is

$$x.$$

## NOTICE

A **code**  $C$  of the words of length  $n$  is a set of **codewords** of length  $n$

$$a_0 a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1}$$

or  $C$  can be seen as

a set of **polynomials** of the degree (at most)  $n - 1$

$$a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

## APPENDIX - III.

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## GROUPS

A **group**  $G$  is a set of elements and an operation, call it  $*$ , with the following properties:

- $G$  is closed under  $*$ ; that is if  $a, b \in G$ , so is  $a * b$ .
- The operation  $*$  is associative, that is  $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$ , for any  $a, b, c \in G$ .
- $G$  has an identity  $e$  element such that  $e * a = a * e = a$  for any  $a \in G$ .
- Every element  $a \in G$  has an inverse  $a^{-1} \in G$ , such that  $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$ .

A group  $G$  is called an **Abelian group** if the operation  $*$  is commutative, that is  $a * b = b * a$  for any  $a, b \in G$ .

**Example** Which of the following sets is an (Abelian) group:

- The set of real numbers with operation  $*$  being: (a) addition; (b) multiplication.
- The set of matrices of degree  $n$  and operation: (a) addition; (b) multiplication.
- What happens if we consider only matrices with determinants not equal zero?

A **ring**  $R$  is a set with two operations  $+$  (addition) and  $\cdot$  (multiplication), having the following properties:

- $R$  is closed under both operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$ .
- $R$  is an Abelian group under  $+$  (with a unity element for addition called **zero**).
- The associative law for multiplication holds.
- $R$  has an identity element  $1$  for multiplication
- The distributive law holds:  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$  for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

A ring is called a **commutative ring** if multiplication is commutative.

A **field**  $F$  is a set with two operations  $+$  (addition) and  $\cdot$  (multiplication), with the following properties:

- $F$  is a commutative ring.
- Non-zero elements of  $F$  form an Abelian group under multiplication.

A non-zero element  $g$  is a **primitive element** of a field  $F$  if all non-zero elements of  $F$  are powers of  $g$ .

For any polynomial  $f(x)$ , the set of all polynomials in  $F_q[x]$  of degree less than  $\deg(f(x))$ , with addition and multiplication modulo  $f(x)$ , forms a **ring** denoted  $F_q[x]/f(x)$ .

**Example:** Calculate  $(x + 1)^2$  in  $F_2[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$ . It holds

$$(x + 1)^2 = x^2 + 2x + 1 \equiv x^2 + 1 \equiv x \pmod{x^2 + x + 1}.$$

How many elements has  $F_q[x]/f(x)$ ?

**Result**  $|F_q[x]/f(x)| = q^{\deg(f(x))}$ .

**Example:** Addition and multiplication tables for  $F_2[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$

+	0	1	x	1+x
0	0	1	x	1+x
1	1	0	1+x	x
x	x	1+x	0	1
1+x	1+x	x	1	0

•	0	1	x	1+x
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	x	1+x
x	0	x	1+x	1
1+x	0	1+x	1	x

**Definition:** A polynomial  $f(x)$  in  $F_q[x]$  is said to be **reducible** if  $f(x) = a(x)b(x)$ , where  $a(x), b(x) \in F_q[x]$  and

$$\deg(a(x)) < \deg(f(x)), \quad \deg(b(x)) < \deg(f(x)).$$

If  $f(x)$  is not reducible, then it is said to be **irreducible** in  $F_q[x]$ .

**Theorem** The ring  $F_q[x]/f(x)$  is a field if  $f(x)$  is irreducible in  $F_q[x]$ .

## RING (Factor ring) $R_n = F_q[x]/(x^n - 1)$

Computation modulo  $x^n - 1$  in the ring  $R_n = F_q[x]/(x^n - 1)$

Since  $x^n \equiv 1 \pmod{(x^n - 1)}$  we can compute  $f(x) \pmod{(x^n - 1)}$  by replacing, in  $f(x)$ ,  $x^n$  by  $1$ ,  $x^{n+1}$  by  $x$ ,  $x^{n+2}$  by  $x^2$ ,  $x^{n+3}$  by  $x^3$ , ...

Replacement of a word

$$w = a_0 a_1 \dots a_{n-1}$$

by a polynomial

$$p(w) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

is of large importance because

multiplication of  $p(w)$  by  $x$  in  $R_n$  corresponds to a single cyclic shift of  $w$ . Indeed,

$$x(a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}) = a_{n-1} + a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1}$$

## An ALGEBRAIC SPECIFICATION of CYCLIC CODES

**Theorem** A binary code  $C$  of words of length  $n$  is cyclic if and only if it satisfies two conditions

- (i)  $a(x), b(x) \in C \Rightarrow a(x) + b(x) \in C$
- (ii)  $a(x) \in C, r(x) \in R_n \Rightarrow r(x)a(x) \in C$

**Proof**

(1) Let  $C$  be a cyclic code.  $C$  is linear  $\Rightarrow$

- (i) holds.
- (ii)

If  $a(x) \in C, r(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + \dots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$  then

$$r(x)a(x) = r_0 a(x) + r_1 x a(x) + \dots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1} a(x)$$

is in  $C$  by (i) because summands are cyclic shifts of  $a(x)$ .

(2) Let (i) and (ii) hold

- Taking  $r(x)$  to be a scalar the conditions (i) and (ii) imply linearity of  $C$ .
- Taking  $r(x) = x$  the conditions (i) and (ii) imply cyclicity of  $C$ .

## OBSERVATION

- There are also non-linear codes that have cyclicity property.
- A code equivalent to a cyclic code need not be cyclic itself.
- For instance, there are 30 distinct binary [7, 4] Hamming codes, but only two of them are cyclic.

## CONSTRUCTION of CYCLIC CODES

**Notation** For any  $f(x) \in R_n$ , we can define

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \{r(x)f(x) \mid r(x) \in R_n\}$$

(with multiplication modulo  $x^n - 1$ ) to be a set of polynomials - a code.

**Theorem** For any  $f(x) \in R_n$ , the set  $\langle f(x) \rangle$  is a cyclic code (generated by  $f$ ).

**Proof** We check conditions (i) and (ii) of the previous theorem.

(i) If  $a(x)f(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$  and also  $b(x)f(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$ , then

$$a(x)f(x) + b(x)f(x) = (a(x) + b(x))f(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$$

(ii) If  $a(x)f(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$ ,  $r(x) \in R_n$ , then

$$r(x)(a(x)f(x)) = (r(x)a(x))f(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$$

**Example** let  $C = \langle 1 + x^2 \rangle$ ,  $n = 3$ ,  $q = 2$ .

In order to determine  $C$  we have to compute  $r(x)(1 + x^2)$  for all  $r(x) \in R_3$ .

$$R_3 = \{0, 1, x, 1 + x, x^2, 1 + x^2, x + x^2, 1 + x + x^2\}.$$

**Result**

$$C = \{0, 1 + x, 1 + x^2, x + x^2\}$$

$$C = \{000, 110, 101, 011\}$$

## CHARACTERIZATION THEOREM for CYCLIC CODES

We show that **all cyclic codes  $C$  have the form  $C = \langle f(x) \rangle$  for some  $f(x) \in R_n$ .**

**Theorem** Let  $C$  be a non-zero cyclic code in  $R_n$ . Then

- there exists a unique monic polynomial  $g(x)$  of the smallest degree such that
- $C = \langle g(x) \rangle$
- $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x^n - 1$ .

**Proof**

(i) Suppose  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  are two monic polynomials in  $C$  of the smallest degree, say  $d$ .

Then the polynomial  $w(x) = g(x) - h(x) \in C$  and it has a smaller degree than  $d$  and a multiplication by a scalar makes out of  $w(x)$  a monic polynomial. Therefore the assumption that  $g(x) \neq h(x)$  leads to a contradiction.

(ii) If  $a(x) \in C$ , then for some  $q(x)$  and  $r(x)$

$$a(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x), \quad (\text{where } \deg r(x) < \deg g(x)).$$

and therefore

$$r(x) = a(x) - q(x)g(x) \in C.$$

By minimality condition

$$r(x) = 0$$

and therefore  $a(x) \in \langle g(x) \rangle$ .

## CHARACTERIZATION THEOREM for CYCLIC CODES - continuation

(iii) It has to hold, for some  $q(x)$  and  $r(x)$

$$x^n - 1 = q(x)g(x) + r(x) \quad \text{with} \quad \deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$$

and therefore

$$r(x) \equiv -q(x)g(x) \pmod{x^n - 1} \quad \text{and}$$

$$r(x) \in C \Rightarrow r(x) = 0 \Rightarrow g(x) \text{ is therefore a factor of } x^n - 1.$$

### GENERATOR POLYNOMIALS - definition

**Definition** If

$$C = \langle g(x) \rangle,$$

for a cyclic code  $C$ , then  $g$  is called the **generator polynomial** for the code  $C$ .

## HOW TO DESIGN CYCLIC CODES?

The last claim of the previous theorem gives a **recipe to get all cyclic codes of the given length  $n$  in  $GF(q)$**

Indeed, all we need to do is to find all factors (in  $GF(q)$ ) of

$$x^n - 1.$$

**Problem:** Find all binary cyclic codes of length 3.

**Solution:** Make decomposition

$$x^3 - 1 = \underbrace{(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)}_{\text{both factors are irreducible in } GF(2)}$$

Therefore, we have the following generator polynomials and cyclic codes of length 3.

Generator polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} &1 \\ &x + 1 \\ &x^2 + x + 1 \\ &x^3 - 1 (= 0) \end{aligned}$$

Code in  $R_3$

$$\begin{aligned} &R_3 \\ &\{0, 1 + x, x + x^2, 1 + x^2\} \\ &\{0, 1 + x + x^2\} \\ &\{0\} \end{aligned}$$

Code in  $V(3, 2)$

$$\begin{aligned} &V(3, 2) \\ &\{000, 110, 011, 101\} \\ &\{000, 111\} \\ &\{000\} \end{aligned}$$

## DESIGN of GENERATOR MATRICES for CYCLIC CODES

**Theorem** Suppose  $C$  is a cyclic code of codewords of length  $n$  with the generator polynomial

$$g(x) = g_0 + g_1x + \dots + g_r x^r.$$

Then  $\dim(C) = n - r$  and a generator matrix  $G_1$  for  $C$  is

$$G_1 = \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_r & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_r & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_r & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & g_0 & \dots & g_r \end{pmatrix}$$

**Proof**

(i) All rows of  $G_1$  are linearly independent.

(ii) The  $n - r$  rows of  $G$  represent codewords

$$g(x), xg(x), x^2g(x), \dots, x^{n-r-1}g(x) \quad (*)$$

(iii) It remains to show that every codeword in  $C$  can be expressed as a linear combination of vectors from  $(*)$ .

Indeed, if  $a(x) \in C$ , then

$$a(x) = q(x)g(x).$$

Since  $\deg a(x) < n$  we have  $\deg q(x) < n - r$ .

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} q(x)g(x) &= (q_0 + q_1x + \dots + q_{n-r-1}x^{n-r-1})g(x) \\ &= q_0g(x) + q_1xg(x) + \dots + q_{n-r-1}x^{n-r-1}g(x). \end{aligned}$$

## EXAMPLE

The task is to determine all ternary codes of length 4 and generators for them.

Factorization of  $x^4 - 1$  over  $GF(3)$  has the form

$$x^4 - 1 = (x - 1)(x^3 + x^2 + x + 1) = (x - 1)(x + 1)(x^2 + 1)$$

Therefore, there are  $2^3 = 8$  divisors of  $x^4 - 1$  and each generates a cyclic code.

Generator polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} &1 \\ &x - 1 \\ &x + 1 \\ &x^2 + 1 \\ &(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^2 - 1 \\ &(x - 1)(x^2 + 1) = x^3 - x^2 + x - 1 \\ &(x + 1)(x^2 + 1) \\ &x^4 - 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Generator matrix

$$\begin{aligned} &I_4 \\ &\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

## EXAMPLE - II

In order to determine all binary cyclic codes of length 7, consider decomposition

$$x^7 - 1 = (x - 1)(x^3 + x + 1)(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$$

Since we want to determine binary codes, all computations should be modulo 2 and therefor all minus signs can be replaced by plus signs. Therefore

$$x^7 + 1 = (x + 1)(x^3 + x + 1)(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$$

Therefore generators for  $2^3$  binary cyclic codes of length 7 are

$$\begin{aligned} &1, \quad a(x) = x + 1, \quad b(x) = x^3 + x + 1, \quad c(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1 \\ &a(x)b(x), \quad a(x)c(x), \quad b(x)c(x), \quad a(x)b(x)c(x) = x^7 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## CHECK POLYNOMIALS and PARITY CHECK MATRICES for CYCLIC CODES

Let  $C$  be a cyclic  $[n, k]$ -code with the generator polynomial  $g(x)$  (of degree  $n - k$ ). By the last theorem  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x^n - 1$ . Hence

$$x^n - 1 = g(x)h(x)$$

for some  $h(x)$  of degree  $k$ . ( $h(x)$  is called the **check polynomial** of  $C$ .)

**Theorem** Let  $C$  be a cyclic code in  $R_n$  with a generator polynomial  $g(x)$  and a check polynomial  $h(x)$ . Then an  $c(x) \in R_n$  is a codeword of  $C$  if and only if  $c(x)h(x) \equiv 0$  (this and next congruences are all modulo  $x^n - 1$ ).

**Proof** Note, that  $g(x)h(x) = x^n - 1 \equiv 0$

$$(i) \quad c(x) \in C \Rightarrow c(x) = a(x)g(x) \text{ for some } a(x) \in R_n \\ \Rightarrow c(x)h(x) = a(x)\underbrace{g(x)h(x)}_{\equiv 0} \equiv 0.$$

$$(ii) \quad c(x)h(x) \equiv 0$$

$$c(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x), \text{ deg } r(x) < n - k = \text{deg } g(x) \\ c(x)h(x) \equiv 0 \Rightarrow r(x)h(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{x^n - 1}$$

Since  $\text{deg}(r(x)h(x)) < n - k + k = n$ , we have  $r(x)h(x) = 0$  in  $F[x]$  and therefore

$$r(x) = 0 \Rightarrow c(x) = q(x)g(x) \in C.$$

## POLYNOMIAL REPRESENTATION of DUAL CODES

**Continuation:** Since  $\dim(\langle h(x) \rangle) = n - k = \dim(C^\perp)$  we might easily be fooled to think that the check polynomial  $h(x)$  of the code  $C$  generates the dual code  $C^\perp$ .

**Reality is "slightly different":**

**Theorem** Suppose  $C$  is a cyclic  $[n, k]$ -code with the check polynomial

$$h(x) = h_0 + h_1x + \dots + h_kx^k,$$

then

(i) a parity-check matrix for  $C$  is

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} h_k & h_{k-1} & \dots & h_0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & h_k & \dots & h_1 & h_0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & h_k & \dots & h_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(ii)  $C^\perp$  is the cyclic code generated by the polynomial

$$\bar{h}(x) = h_k + h_{k-1}x + \dots + h_0x^k$$

i.e. by the **reciprocal polynomial** of  $h(x)$ .

## ENCODING with CYCLIC CODES I

**Encoding using a cyclic code can be done by a multiplication of two polynomials - a message (codeword) polynomial and the generating polynomial for the code.**

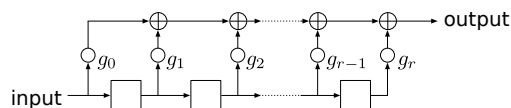
Let  $C$  be a cyclic  $[n, k]$ -code over a Galois field with the generator polynomial

$$g(x) = g_0 + g_1x + \dots + g_{r-1}x^{r-1} \text{ of degree } r - 1 = n - k - 1.$$

If a message vector  $m$  is represented by a polynomial  $m(x)$  of the degree  $k$ , then  $m$  is encoded, by a polynomial  $c(x)$ , using the generator matrix  $G(x)$ , induced by  $g(x)$ , as follows:

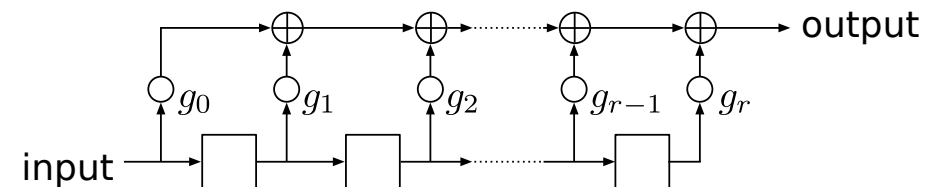
$$m \Rightarrow c(x) = m(x)g(x),$$

Such an encoding can be realized by the **shift register** shown in Figure below, where input is the  $k$ -bit to-be-encoded message, followed by  $n - k$  0's, and the output will be the encoded message.



**Shift-register for encoding a cyclic code. Small circles represent multiplication by the corresponding constant,  $\oplus$  nodes represent modular additions, squares are shift cells.**

## EXAMPLE



**Shift-register encodings of cyclic codes. Small circles represent multiplication by the corresponding constant,  $\oplus$  nodes represent modular addition, squares are delay elements.**

The input (message) is given by a polynomial

$$m^{k-1}x^{k-1} + \dots + m^2x^2 + m_1x + m_0$$

and therefore the input to the shift register is the word

$$m_{k-1}m_{k-2} \dots m_2m_1m_0 \rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow$$

Let us compute

$$\begin{aligned}
 &(m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_{k-1}x^{k-1}) \times (g_0 + g_1x + g_2x^2 + \dots + g_{r-1}x^{r-1}) \\
 &= \\
 &\quad m_0g_0 \\
 &\quad + \\
 &\quad (m_0g_1 + m_1g_0)x \\
 &\quad + \\
 &\quad (m_0g_2 + m_1g_1 + m_2g_0)x^2 \\
 &\quad + \\
 &\quad (m_0g_3 + m_1g_2 + m_2g_1 + m_3g_0)x^3 \\
 &\quad + \\
 &\quad \vdots
 \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLES of CYCLIC CODES

HAMMING CODES as CYCLIC CODES I

**Definition** (Again!) Let  $r$  be a positive integer and let  $H$  be an  $r \times (2^r - 1)$  matrix whose columns are all distinct non-zero vectors of  $GF(r)$ . Then the code having  $H$  as its parity-check matrix is called binary **Hamming code** denoted by  $Ham(r, 2)$ .

It can be shown:

**Theorem** The binary Hamming code  $Ham(r, 2)$  is equivalent to a cyclic code.

**Definition** If  $p(x)$  is an irreducible polynomial of degree  $r$  such that  $x$  is a primitive element of the field  $F[x]/p(x)$ , then  $p(x)$  is called a **primitive polynomial**.

**Theorem** If  $p(x)$  is a primitive polynomial over  $GF(2)$  of degree  $r$ , then the cyclic code  $\langle p(x) \rangle$  is the code  $Ham(r, 2)$ .

HAMMING CODES as CYCLIC CODES II

Hamming code  $Ham(3, 2)$  has the generator polynomial  $x^3 + x + 1$ .

**Example** Polynomial  $x^3 + x + 1$  is irreducible over  $GF(2)$  and  $x$  is primitive element of the field  $F_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$ . Therefore,

$$F_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1) =$$

$$\{0, 1, x, x^2, x^3 = x + 1, x^4 = x^2 + x, x^5 = x^2 + x + 1, x^6 = x^2 + 1\}$$

The parity-check matrix for a cyclic version of  $Ham(3, 2)$

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



## GOLAY CODES - DESCRIPTION

Golay codes  $G_{24}$  and  $G_{23}$  were used by spacecraft Voyager I and Voyager II to transmit color pictures of Jupiter and Saturn. Generator matrix for  $G_{24}$  has the form

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

$G_{24}$  is (24, 12, 8)-code and the weights of all codewords are multiples of 4.  $G_{23}$  is obtained from  $G_{24}$  by deleting last symbols of each codeword of  $G_{24}$ .  $G_{23}$  is (23, 12, 7)-code. It is a perfect code.

## GOLAY CODE II

Golay code  $G_{23}$  is a (23, 12, 7)-code and can be defined also as the cyclic code generated by the codeword

$$1100011101010000000000$$

This code can be constructed via factorization of  $x^{23} - 1$ .

Golay code  $G_{24}$  was used in NASA Deep Space Missions - in spacecraft Voyager 1 and Voyager 2. It was also used in the US-government standards for automatic link establishment in High Frequency radio systems.

Golay codes are named to honour Marcel J. E. Golay - from 1949.

## POLYNOMIAL CODES

A **Polynomial code**, with codewords of length  $n$ , **generated by a (generator) polynomial  $g(x)$**  of degree  $m < n$  over a GF(q) is the code whose codewords are represented exactly by those polynomials of degree less than  $n$  that are divisible by  $g(x)$ .

**Example:** For the binary polynomial code with  $n = 5$  and  $m = 2$  generated by the polynomial  $g(x) = x^2 + x + 1$  all codewords are of the form:

$$a(x)g(x)$$

where

$$a(x) \in \{0, 1, x, x + 1, x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x, x^2 + x + 1\}$$

what results in the code with codewords

$$00000, 00111, 01110, 01001,$$

$$11100, 11011, 10010, 10101.$$

## REED-MULLER CODES

Reed-Muller code  $RM(d, r)$  is the code of  $k$  codewords of length  $n = 2^r$  and distance  $2^{r-d}$ , where

$$k = \sum_{s=0}^r \binom{d}{s}.$$

$RM(d, r)$  code is generated by the set of all up to  $d$  inner products of the codewords  $v_i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq r$ , where  $v_0 = 1^{2^r}$  and  $v_i$  are prefixes of the word  $\{1^i 0^{2^r-i}\}^*$ .

**Example 1:**  $RM(1, 3)$  code is generated by the codewords

$$v_0 = 11111111$$

$$v_1 = 10101010$$

$$v_2 = 11001100$$

$$v_3 = 11110000$$

**Example 2:**  $RM(2, 3)$  code is generated by the codewords

$$v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_1 \cdot v_2, v_1 \cdot v_3, v_2 \cdot v_3$$

where, for example  $v_1 \cdot v_3 = 10100000$

Special cases of Reed-Muller codes are Hadamard code and Reed-Solomon code.

**BCH codes** and **Reed-Solomon codes** belong to the most important codes for applications.

**Definition** A polynomial  $p$  is said to be a **minimal polynomial** for a complex number  $x$  in  $GF(q)$  if  $p(x) = 0$  and  $p$  is irreducible over  $GF(q)$ .

**Definition** A cyclic code of codewords of length  $n$  over  $GF(q)$ , where  $q$  is a power of a prime  $p$ , is called **BCH code**<sup>1</sup> of the distance  $d$  if its generator  $g(x)$  is the least common multiple of the minimal polynomials for

$$\omega^l, \omega^{l+1}, \dots, \omega^{l+d-2}$$

for some  $l$ , where

$\omega$  is the primitive  $n$ -th root of unity.

If  $n = q^m - 1$  for some  $m$ , then the BCH code is called **primitive**.

**Applications** of BCH codes: satellite communications, compact disc players, disk drives, two-dimensional bar codes,...

**Comments:** For BCH codes there exist efficient variations of syndrome decoding. A Reed-Solomon code is a special primitive BCH code.

<sup>1</sup>BCH stands for Bose and Ray-Chaudhuri and Hocquenghem who discovered these codes in 1959.

A message of  $k$  symbols can be encoded by viewing these symbols as coefficients of a polynomial of degree  $k - 1$  over a finite field of order  $N$ , evaluating this polynomial at more than  $k$  distinct points and sending the outcomes to the receiver.

Having more than  $k$  points of the polynomial allows to determine exactly, through the Lagrangian interpolation, the original polynomial (message).

Variations of Reed-Solomon codes are obtained by specifying ways distinct points are generated and error-correction is performed.

Reed-Solomon codes found many important applications from deep-space travel to consumer electronics.

They are very useful especially in those applications where one can expect that errors occur in bursts - such as ones caused by solar energy.

## REED-SOLOMON CODES - BASIC IDEAS II.

Reed-Solomon (RS) codes were discovered in 1960 and since that time they have been applied in CD-ROOMs, wireless communications, space communications, DVD, digital TV.

RS encoding is relatively straightforward, efficient decodings are recent developments.

There several mathematical nontrivial descriptions of RS codes. However the basic idea behind is quite simple.

RS-codes work with groups of bits called symbols.

If a  $k$ -symbol message is to be sent, then  $n = k + 2s$  symbols are transmitted in order to guarantee a proper decoding of not more than  $s$  symbols corruptions.

**Example:** If  $k = 223, s = 16, n = 255$ , then up to 16 corrupted symbols can be corrected.

Number of bits in symbols and parameters  $k$  and  $s$  depend on applications.

A CD-ROOM can correct a burst of up to 4000 consecutive bit-errors.

## REED-SOLOMON CODES - HISTORY and APPLICATIONS

- Reed-Solomon (RS) codes are non-binary cyclic codes.
- They were invented by Irving S. Reed and Gustave Solomon in 1960.
- Efficient decoding algorithm for them was invented by Elwyn Berlekamp and James Massey in 1969.
- Using Reed-Solomon codes one can show that it is sufficient to inject  $2e$  additional symbols into a message in order to be able to correct  $e$  errors.
- Reed-Solomon codes can be decoded efficiently using so-called **list decoding** method (described next).
- In 1977 RS codes have been implemented in Voyager space program
- The first commercial application of RS codes in mass-consumer products was in 1982.

## CHANNELS (STREAMS) CODING

Channel coding is concerned with sending streams of data, at the highest possible rate, over a given communication channel and then obtaining the original data reliably, at the receiver side, by using encoding and decoding algorithms that are feasible to implement in available technology.

**How well can channel coding be done?** So called **Shannon's channel coding theorem** says that over many common channels there exist data coding schemes that are able to transmit data reliably at all code rates smaller than a certain **threshold**, called nowadays the **Shannon channel capacity**, of the given channel.

Moreover, the theorem says that probability of a decoding error can be made to decrease exponentially as the block length  $N$  of the coding scheme goes to infinity.

However, the complexity of a "naive", or straightforward, optimum decoding schemes increased exponentially with  $N$  - therefore such an optimum decoder rapidly became unfeasible.

A breakthrough came when D. Forney, in his PhD thesis in 1972, showed that so called concatenated codes could be used to achieve exponentially decreasing error probabilities at all data rates less than the Shannon channel capacity, with decoding complexity increasing only polynomially with the code length.

## CHANNEL (STREAMS) CODING I.

**Therefore, the task of channel coding is to encode streams of data** in such a way that if they are sent over a noisy channel errors can be detected and/or corrected by the receiver.

An important parameter of a channel code is **code rate**

$$r = \frac{k}{n}$$

in case  $k$  bits are encoded by  $n$  bits.

**The code rate express the amount of redundancy in the code - the lower is the code rate, the more redundant is the code.**

## CHANNEL (STREAM) CODING II

Codes with lower code rate can usually correct more errors. Consequently, the communication system can operate

- with a lower transmit power;
- transmit over longer distances;
- tolerate more interference from the environment;
- use smaller antennas;
- transmit at a higher data rate.

**Channel capacity** of a communication channel, is the tightest upper bound on the (code) rate of information that can be reliably transmitted over that channel.

By the **noisy-channel Shannon coding theorem**, the channel capacity of a given channel is the limiting code rate (in units of information per unit time) that can be achieved with arbitrary small error probability.

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables representing the input and output of a channel.

Let  $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$  be the conditional probability distribution function of  $Y$  given  $X$ , which can be seen as an inherent fixed probability of the communication channel.

The joint distribution  $P_{X,Y}(x,y)$  is then defined by

$$P_{X,Y}(x,y) = P_{Y|X}(y|x)P_X(x),$$

where  $P_X(x)$  is the marginal distribution.

The **channel capacity** is then defined by

$$C = \sup_{P_X(x)} I(X, Y)$$

where

$$I(X, Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} P_{X,Y}(x,y) \log \left( \frac{P_{X,Y}(x,y)}{P_X(x)P_Y(y)} \right)$$

is the **mutual distribution** - a measure of variables mutual distribution.

For every discrete memoryless channel, the channel capacity

$$C = \sup_{P_X} I(X, Y)$$

has the following properties:

1. For every  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $R < C$ , for large enough  $N$  there exists a code of length  $N$  and code rate  $R$  and a decoding algorithm, such that the maximal probability of the block error is  $\leq \epsilon$ .
2. If a probability of the block error  $p_b$  is acceptable, code rates up to  $R(p_b)$  are achievable, where

$$R(p_b) = \frac{C}{1 - H_2(p_b)}$$

and  $H_2(p_b)$  is the binary entropy function.

3. For any  $p_b$  code rates greater than  $R(p_b)$  are not achievable.

Our first example of good, though simple, channel codes are **convolution codes**.

**Convolution codes** have simple encoding and decoding, are quite a simple generalization of linear codes and have encodings as cyclic codes.

An  $(n, k)$  convolution code (**CC**) is defined by an  $k \times n$  generator matrix, entries of which are polynomials over  $F_2$ .

For example,

$$G_1 = [x^2 + 1, x^2 + x + 1]$$

is the generator matrix for a  $(2, 1)$  convolution code, denoted **CC<sub>1</sub>**, and

$$G_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1+x & 0 & x+1 \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{pmatrix}$$

is the generator matrix for a  $(3, 2)$  convolution code denoted **CC<sub>2</sub>**

## ENCODING of FINITE POLYNOMIALS

An  $(n,k)$  convolution code with a  $k \times n$  generator matrix  $G$  can be used to encode a  $k$ -tuple of **message-polynomials** (polynomial input information)

$$I = (I_0(x), I_1(x), \dots, I_{k-1}(x))$$

to get an  $n$ -tuple of **encoded-polynomials**

$$C = (C_0(x), C_1(x), \dots, C_{n-1}(x))$$

where

$$C_j(x) = I_j(x) \cdot G$$

## EXAMPLES

**EXAMPLE 1** – when the code  $CC_1$  is used:

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3 + x + 1) \cdot G_1 &= (x^3 + x + 1) \cdot (x^2 + 1, x^2 + x + 1) \\ &= (x^5 + x^2 + x + 1, x^5 + x^4 + 1) \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** – when the code  $CC_2$  is used:

$$(x^2 + x, x^3 + 1) \cdot G_2 = (x^2 + x, x^3 + 1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1+x & 0 & x+1 \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{pmatrix}$$

## ENCODING of INFINITE INPUT STREAMS

One of the way infinite streams can be encoded using convolution codes will be illustrated on the code  $CC_1$ .

An input stream  $I = (I_0, I_1, I_2, \dots)$  is mapped into the output stream  $C = (C_{00}, C_{10}, C_{01}, C_{11} \dots)$  defined by

$$C_0(x) = C_{00} + C_{01}x + \dots = (x^2 + 1)I(x)$$

and

$$C_1(x) = C_{10} + C_{11}x + \dots = (x^2 + x + 1)I(x).$$

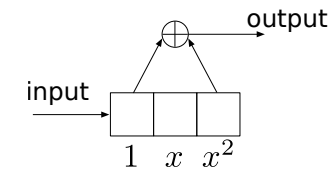
The first multiplication can be done by the first shift register from the next figure; second multiplication can be performed by the second shift register on the next slide and it holds

$$C_{0i} = I_i + I_{i+2}, \quad C_{1i} = I_i + I_{i-1} + I_{i-2}.$$

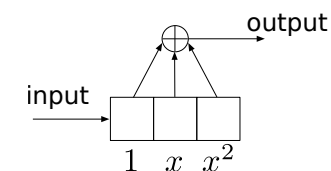
That is the output streams  $C_0$  and  $C_1$  are obtained by convoluting the input stream with polynomials of  $G_1$ .

## ENCODING

The **first shift register**



will multiply the input stream by  $x^2 + 1$  and the **second shift register**

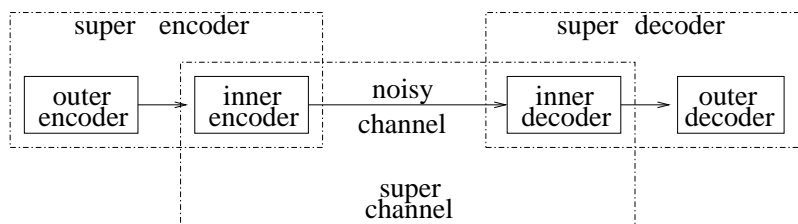


will multiply the input stream by  $x^2 + x + 1$ .



## CONCATENATED CODES - I

The basic idea of concatenated codes is extremely simple. A given message is first encoded by the first (outer) code  $C_1$  ( $C_{out}$ ) and  $C_1$ -output is then encoded by the second code  $C_2$  ( $C_{in}$ ). To decode, at first  $C_2$  decoding and then  $C_1$  decoding are used.



## CONCATENATED CODES II.

In 1962 Forney showed that concatenated codes could be used to achieve exponentially decreasing error probabilities at all data rates less than channel capacity in such a way that decoding complexity increases only polynomially with the code block length.

In 1965 concatenated codes were considered as unfeasible. However, already in 1970s technology has advanced sufficiently and they became standardize by NASA for space applications.

## CONCATENATED CODES BRIEFLY

A code concatenated codes  $C_{out}$  and  $C_{in}$  maps a message

$$m = (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_K),$$

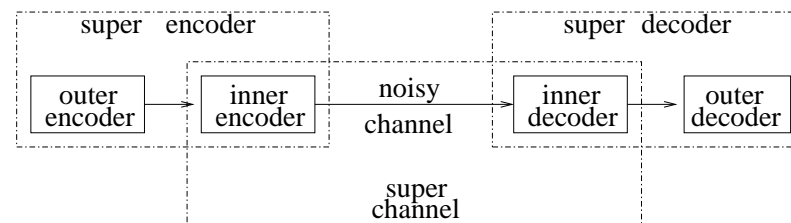
as follows: At first  $C_{out}$  encoding is applied to get

$$C_{out}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k) = (m'_1, m'_2, \dots, m'_N)$$

and then  $C_{in}$  encoding is applied to get

$$C_{in}(m'_1), C_{in}(m'_2), \dots, C_{in}(m'_N)$$

## ANOTHER VIEW of CONCATENATED CODES



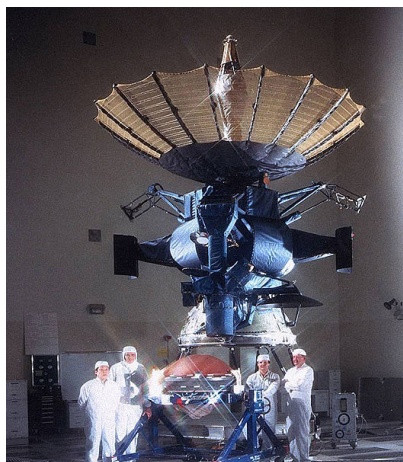
- **Outer code:** -  $(n_2, k_2)$  code
- **Inner code:** -  $(n_1, k_1)$  binary code
- **Inner decoder** -  $(n_1, k_1)$  code
- **Outer decoder** -  $(n_2, k_2)$  code
  
- **length** of such a concatenated code is  $n_1 n_2$
- **dimension** of such a concatenated code is  $k_1 k_2$
- if **minimal distances** of both codes are  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ , then resulting concatenated code has minimal distance  $\geq d_1 d_2$ .

- A natural approach to decoding of concatenated codes is to decode first the inner code and then the outer code.
- For a decoding algorithm to be practical it has to be polynomial time in the final block length.
- Assume there is a polynomial unique decoding algorithm for the outer code.
- Next goal is to find polynomial time decoding algorithm for the inner code that is polynomial in the final block length.
- The main idea is that if the inner block length is logarithmic in the size of the outer code, then the decoding algorithm for the inner code may run in the exponential time of the inner block length.
- In such a case we can use an exponential time but optimal maximum likelihood decoder for the inner code.

- Concatenated codes started to be used for deep space communication starting with Voyager program in 1977 and stayed so until the invention of Turbo codes and LDPC codes.
- Concatenated codes are used also on Compact Disc.
- The best concatenated codes for many applications were based on outer Reed-Solomon codes and inner Viterbi-decoded short constant length convolution codes.

## EXAMPLE from SPACE EXPLORATION

## GALILEO MISSION - SOLUTION



At the very beginning of the Galileo mission to explore Jupiter and its moons in 1989 it was discovered that primary antenna (deployed in the figure on the top) failed to deploy,

The primary antenna was designed to send 100, 000 b/s. Spacecraft had also another antenna, but that was capable to send only 10 b/s. The whole mission looked as being a disaster.

A heroic engineering effort was immediately undertaken in the mission center to design the most powerful concatenated code conceived up to that time, and to program it into the spacecraft computer.

The inner code was a  $2^{14}$  convolution code, decoded by the Viterbi algorithm.

The outer code consisted of multiple Reed-Solomon codes of varying length.

After all reparations and new encodings it was possible to send up to 1000 b/s. Mission was rescued.

Nowadays when so called iterative decoding is used concatenation of even very simple codes can yield superb performance.

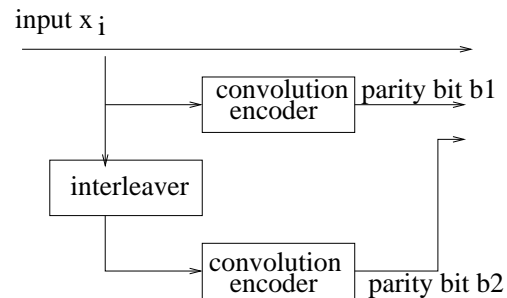


## TURBO CODES

Channel coding was revolutionized by the invention of **Turbo codes**. Turbo codes were introduced by Berrou, Glavieux and Thitimajshima in 1993. Turbo codes are specified by special encodings.

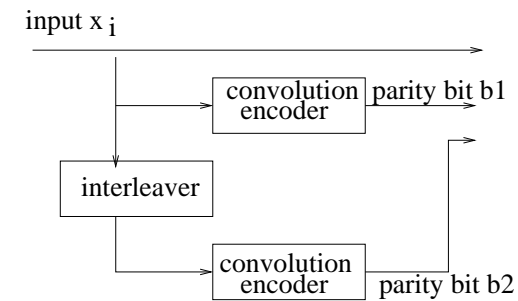
A **Turbo code** can be seen as formed from the parallel composition of two (convolution) codes separated by an **interleaver** (that permutes blocks of data in a fixed (pseudo)-random way).

A **Turbo encoder** is formed from the parallel composition of two (convolution) encoders separated by an interleaver.

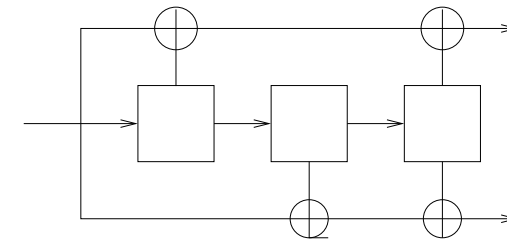


## EXAMPLES of TURBO and CONVOLUTION ENCODERS

A Turbo encoder



and a convolution encoder



## ADVANTAGES of INTERLEAVING

let us assume that a word

*cenaje200kc*

is transmitted and during the transmission symbols 7-10 are lost to get:

*cenaje....c*

In such a case very important information was definitely lost.

However, if the input word is first permuted according to the permutation

3, 8, 7, 9, 10, 1, 2, 6, 4, 11, 5

then the input will be actually the word

*n020kceeacj*

and if the same four positions are lost the output will be

*n020kc....j*

However, after the inverse permutation the output actually will be

*c.n.j.200k.*

which is quite easy to decode correctly!!!!

## DECODING and PERFORMANCE of TURBO CODES

- A **soft-in-soft-out** decoding is used - the decoder gets from the analog/digital demodulator a soft value of each bit - probability that it is 1 and produces only a soft-value for each bit.
- The overall decoder uses decoders for outputs of two encoders that also provide only soft values for bits and by exchanging information produced by two decoders and from the original input bit, the main decoder tries to increase, by an iterative process, likelihood for values of decoded bits and to produce finally hard outcome - a bit 1 or 0.
- Turbo codes performance can be very close to theoretical Shannon limit.
- This was, for example the case for UMTS (the third Generation Universal Mobile Telecommunication System) Turbo code having a less than 1.2-fold overhead. in this case the interleaver worked with block of 40 bits.
- Turbo codes were incorporated into standards used by NASA for deep space communications, digital video broadcasting and both third generation cellular standards.
- Literature: M.C. Valenti and J.Sun: Turbo codes - tutorial, Handbook of RF and Wireless Technologies, 2004 - reachable by Google.

- Though Shannon developed his capacity bound already in 1940, till recently code designers were unable to come with codes with performance close to theoretical limit.
- In 1990 the gap between theoretical bound and practical implementations was still at best about 3dB

The decibel **dB** is a number that represents a logarithm of the ration of two values of a quantity (such as value  $dB = 20 \log(V_1/V_2)$ )

A decibel is a relative measure. If  $E$  is the actual energy and  $E_{ref}$  is the theoretical lower bound, then the relative energy increase in decibels is

$$10 \log_{10} \frac{E}{E_{ref}}$$

Since  $\log_{10} 2 = 0.3$  a two-fold relative energy increase equals 3dB.

- For code rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  the relative increase in energy consumption is about 4.8 dB for convolution codes and 0.98 for Turbo codes.

- Turbo codes encoding devices are usually built from two (usually identical) recursive systematic convolution encoders, linked together by nonuniform interleaver (permutation) devices.
- For decoding of Turbo codes so alled soft deoding is used. **Soft decoding is an iterative process** in which each component decoder takes advantage of the work of other at the previous step, with the aid of the original concept of intrinsic information.
- For sufficiently large size of interleavers, the correcting performance of turbo codes, as shown by simulations, appears to be close to the theoretical Shannon limit.
- Permutations performed by interleaver can often by specified by simple polynomials that make one-to-one mapping of some sets  $\{0, 1, \dots, q - 1\}$ .

- Turbo codes are linear codes.
- A "good" linear code is one that has mostly high-weight codewords.
- High-weight codewords are desirable because they are more distinct and the decoder can more easily distinguish among them.
- A big advantage of Turbo encoders is that they reduce the number of low-weight codewords because their output is the sum of the weights of the input and two parity output bits.
- A turbo code can be seen as a refinement of concatenated codes plus an iterative algorithm for decoding.

## LIST DECODING

## UNIQUE versus LIST DECODING

In the **unique decoding** model of error-correction, considered so far, the task is to find, for a received (corrupted) message  $w_c$ , the closest codeword  $w$  to the message  $w_c$  that was received.

**This error-correction task/model is not sufficiently good in case when the number of errors can be large.**

In the **list decoding** model the task to solve when a code  $C$  is used, is for a received message (a corrupted codeword)  $w_c$  and a given  $\epsilon$  to output (list of) all codewords from  $C$  with the distance at most  $\epsilon$  from  $w_c$ .

List decoding is considered to be successful in case the outputted list contains the codeword that was sent.

It has turned out that for a variety of important codes, including the Reed-Solomon codes, there are efficient algorithms for list decoding that allow to correct a large variety of errors.

**List decoding seems to be a stronger error-correcting mode than unique decoding.**

## UNIQUE versus LIST DECODING

### UNIQUE DECODING:

$$m \text{ --- } > e(m) \text{ --- } > \text{NOISE} \text{ --- } > n(e(m)) \text{ --- } > e(m)$$

### LIST DECODING:

$$m \text{ --- } > e(m) \text{ --- } > \text{NOISE} \text{ --- } > n(e(m)) \text{ --- } > S_m \text{ --- } \text{such that } e(m) \in S_m$$

## LIST DECODING - INTUITION BEHIND

For a polynomial-time list decoding algorithm to exist we need that any Hamming ball of a radius  $pn$  around a received word (where  $p$  is the fraction of errors in terms of the block length  $n$ ) has a small number of codewords.

This is because the list size itself is a lower bound for the running time of the algorithm. Hence it is required that the list size has to be polynomial in the block length of the code.

A combinatorial consequence of the above requirement is that it implies an upper bound on the rate of the code. List decoding promises to meet this bound.

## EFFICIENCY of LIST DECODING - SUMMARY

With list decoding the error-correction performance can double.

It has been shown, non-constructively, for any code rate  $R$ , that such codes of the rate  $R$  exist that can be list decoded up to a fraction of errors approaching  $1 - R$ .

The quantity  $1 - R$  is referred to as the **list decoding capacity**.

For Reed-Solomon codes there is a list decoding up to  $1 - \sqrt{2R}$  errors.

Let  $C$  be a  $q$ -nary linear  $[n, k, d]$  error correcting code.

For a given  $q$ -nary input word  $w$  of length  $n$  and a given error bound  $\varepsilon$  **let the task be to output a list of codewords of  $C$  whose Hamming distance from  $w$  is at most  $\varepsilon$**

We are, naturally, interested only in polynomial, in  $n$ , algorithms able to do that.

**$(p, L)$ -list decodability:** Let  $C$  be a  $q$ -nary code of codewords of length  $n$ ;  $0 \leq p \leq 1$  and let  $L > 1$  be an integer.

If for every  $q$ -nary word  $w$  of length  $n$  the number of codewords of  $C$  withing Hamming distance  $pn$  from  $w$  is at most  $L$ , then the code  $C$  is said to be  $(p, L)$ -list-decodable.

**Theorem** let  $q \geq 2$ ,  $0 \leq p \leq 1 - 1/q$  and  $\varepsilon \geq 0$  then for large enough block length  $n$  if the code rate  $R \leq 1 - H_q(p) - \varepsilon$ , then there exists a  $(p, O(1/\varepsilon))$ -list decodable code. [ $H_q(p) = p \log_q(q-1) - p \log_q p - (1-p) \log_q(1-p)$  is  $q$ -ary entropy function.]  
Moreover, if  $R > 1 - H_q(p) + \varepsilon$ , then every  $(p, L)$ -list-decodable code has  $L = q^{\Omega(n)}$

- The concept of list decoding was proposed by Peter Elias in 1950s.
- In 2006 Guruswami and Atri Rudra gave explicit codes that achieve list decoding capacity.
- Their codes are called **folded Reed-Solomon codes** and they are actually nothing but plain Reed-Solomon codes but viewed as codes over a larger alphabet by a careful bundling codeword symbols.

Surprisingly, list-decoding found interesting applications in cryptography and in computational complexity theory. For example, in

- designing of hard core predicates from one-way permutations;
- predicting witnesses for **NP**-problems;
- designing randomness extractors and pseudorandom generators.

## APPENDIX - I.

- Reed-Solomon codes have been widely used in mass storage systems to correct the burst errors caused by media defects.
- Special types of Reed-Solomon codes have been used to overcome unreliable nature of data transmission over erasure channels.
- Several bar-code systems use Reed-Solomon codes to allow correct reading even if a portion of a bar code is damaged.
- Reed-Solomon codes were used to encode pictures sent by the Voyager spacecraft.
- Modern versions of concatenated Reed-Solomon/Viterbi decoder convolution coding were and are used on the Mars Pathfinder, Galileo, Mars exploration Rover and Cassini missions, where they performed within about 1-1.5dB of the ultimate limit imposed by the Shannon theorem.

The following reasons are behind increasing needs to develop new and new codes, new and new encoding and decoding methods:

- Needs for miniaturization, higher quality and better efficiency as well as energy savings of many important information storing and processing devices.
- New channels are used, new types of errors start to be possible.
- New computation tools are developed - for example special types of parallelization,....

Classical error-correcting codes allow one to encode an  $n$ -bit message  $w$  into an  $N$ -bit codeword  $C(w)$ , in such a way that  $w$  can still be recovered even if  $C(w)$  gets corrupted in a number of bits.

The disadvantage of the classical error-correcting codes is that one needs to consider all, or at least most of, the (corrupted) codeword to recover anything about  $w$ .

On the other hand so-called **locally decodable codes** allow reconstruction of any arbitrary bit  $w_i$ , from looking only at  $k$  randomly chosen bits of  $C(w)$ , where  $k$  is as small as 3.

Locally decodable codes have a variety of applications in cryptography and theory of fault-tolerant computation.

Locally decodable codes have another remarkable property:

A message can be encoded in such a way that should a small enough fraction of its symbols die in the transit, we could, with high probability, to recover the original bit anywhere in the message we choose.

Moreover, this can be done by picking at random only three bits of the received message and combining them in a right way.