

The Channel Coding Theorem

It may be stated in a different form as below:

$$R \leq C \text{ or } r_s H(S) \leq r_c I(X,Y)_{\text{Max}} \text{ or } \{ H(S)/T_s \} \leq \{ I(X,Y)_{\text{Max}}/T_c \}$$

If a discrete memoryless source with an alphabet "S" has an entropy $H(S)$ and produces symbols every T seconds and a discrete memoryless channel has a capacity $I(X,Y)_{\text{Max}}$ and is used once every T_c seconds then if there exists a coding scheme for which the source output can be transmitted over the channel and be reconstructed with an arbitrarily small probability of error. The parameter C/T_c is called the critical rate. When this condition is satisfied with the equality sign, the system is said to be signaling at the critical rate.

SOURCE CODING

Encoding of the Source Output:

Need for encoding

Encoding involves the use of a code to change original data into a form that can be used by an external process.

Encoding is the process of converting data into a format required for a number of information processing needs, including:

- Program compiling and execution
- Data transmission, storage and compression/decompression
- Application data processing, such as file conversion

Encoding can have two meanings:

- In computer technology, encoding is the process of applying a specific code, such as letters, symbols and numbers, to data for conversion into an equivalent cipher.
- In electronics, encoding refers to analog to digital conversion.

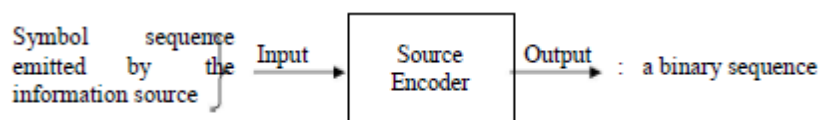
Encoding is also used to reduce the size of audio and video files.

It reduces redundancy thereby power consumption during transmission and space in storage.

It is used to enable error detection and error correction in communication

Let M – messages = 2^N , which are equally likely to occur.

Then recall that average information per messages interval is $H = N$. Say further that each message is coded into N bits, if the messages are not equally likely, then „H“ will be less than „N“ and each bit will carry less than one bit of information, so encoding is needed to improve the situation



If the encoder operates on blocks of „N“ symbols, Produces an average bit rate of GN bits / symbol

$$G_N = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i p(m_i) \log p(m_i)$$

Where, $G_N =$ --

$p(m_i)$ = Probability of sequence ' m_i ' of ' N ' symbols from the source, Sum is over all sequences ' m_i ' containing ' N ' symbols.

G_N in a monotonic decreasing function of N and

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} G_N = H \text{ bits / symbol}$$

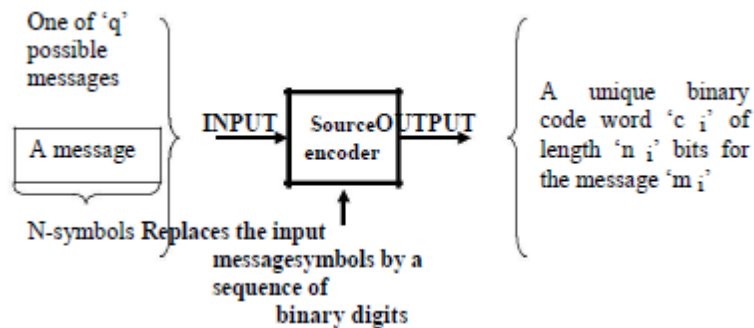
Performance measuring factor for the encoder

Coding efficiency: η_c

Definition of $\eta_c = \frac{\text{Source information rate}}{\text{Average output bit rate of the encoder}}$

$$\eta_c = \frac{H(S)}{H_N}$$

Shannon's Encoding Algorithm:



„q“ messages : $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_i, \dots, m_q$

Probs. of messages : $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_i, \dots, p_q$

n_i : an integer

- **The objective of the designer**

To find „ n_i “ and „ c_i “ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, q$ such that the average number of bits per symbol H_N used in the coding scheme is as close to G_N as possible.

Where, $H_N^{\wedge} = \frac{1}{\ln} \sum_{i=1}^q p_i$

and $G_N = \frac{1}{\ln} \sum_{i=1}^q p_i \log \frac{1}{p_i}$

i.e., the objective is to have

H_N^{\wedge}	G_N	as closely as possible
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Shannon binary encoding procedure:

We present, first, the Shannon's procedure for generating binary codes mainly because of its historical significance.

The procedure is as follows:

1. List the source symbols in the order of decreasing probability of occurrence.

$$S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q\}; \quad P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_q\}; p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_q$$

2. Compute the sequence:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= 0, \\ \alpha_1 &= p_1, \\ \alpha_2 &= p_2 + p_1 = \\ & p_2 + \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_3 &= p_3 + p_2 + p_1 = \\ & p_3 + \alpha_2 \\ & \vdots \\ \alpha_{q-1} &= p_{q-1} + p_{q-2} + \dots + p_1 = p_{q-1} + \alpha_{q-2}. \\ \alpha_q &= p_q + p_{q-1} + \dots + p_1 = p_q + \alpha_{q-1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

3. Determine the set of integers, l_k , which are the smallest integer's solution of the inequalities.

$$2^{l_k} p_k \geq 1, k=1, 2, 3 \dots q. \text{ Or alternatively, find } l_k \text{ such that } 2^{-l_k} \leq p_k.$$

4. Expand the decimal numbers α_k in binary form to l_k places. i.e., neglect expansion beyond l_k digits

5. Removal of the decimal point would result in the desired code.

BLOCK CODES

Linear Block Codes:

A block code is said to be linear (n, k) code if and only if the 2^k code words from a k-dimensional sub space over a vector space of all n-Tuples over the field **GF(2)**. Fields with 2^m symbols are called „Galois Fields“ (pronounced as Galva fields), $GF(2^m)$. Their arithmetic involves binary additions and subtractions. For two valued variables, (0, 1). The modulo – 2 addition and multiplication is defined in Fig below

		Y	
		0	1
X	0	0	1
	1	1	0
$X \oplus Y$			

		Y	
		0	1
X	0	0	0
	1	0	1
$X \otimes Y$			

\oplus	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

\otimes	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

The binary alphabet (0, 1) is called a **field** of two elements (a binary field and is denoted by **GF(2)**).

$X^3 + X^2 + 1$, $X^3 + X + 1$, $X^4 + X^3 + 1$, $X^5 + X^2 + 1$ etc. are irreducible polynomials, whereas $f(X) = X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1$ is not as $f(1) = 0$ and hence has a factor $X + 1$ then $p(X)$ is said to be a „**primitive polynomial**“.

If V_n represents a vector space of all n-tuples, then a subset **S** of V_n is called a subspace if (i) the all Zero vector is in **S** (ii) the sum of any two vectors in **S** is also a vector in **S**. To be more

specific, a block code is said to be linear if the following is satisfied. “If v_1 and v_2 are any two codewords of length n of the block code then $v_1 \oplus v_2$ is also a code word length n of the block code”.

Example: Linear Block code with $k = 3$, and $n = 6$

Messages	Code words	Weight (No. of 1's in the code word)
m_1 000	v_1 0 0 0 0 0 0	0
m_2 001	v_2 0 0 1 1 1 0	3
m_3 010	v_3 0 1 0 1 0 1	3
m_4 100	v_4 1 0 0 0 1 1	3
m_5 011	v_5 0 1 1 0 1 1	4
m_6 101	v_6 1 0 1 1 0 1	4
m_7 110	v_7 1 1 0 1 1 0	4
m_8 111	v_8 1 1 1 0 0 0	3

Observe the linearity property:

$$v_3 = (010\ 101) \text{ and } v_4 = (100\ 011), v_3 \oplus v_4 = (110\ 110) = v_7.$$

Remember that n represents the word length of the code words and k represents the number of information digits and hence the block code is represented as (n,k) block code.

Thus by definition of a linear block code it follows that if g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k are the k linearly

independent code words then every code vector, \mathbf{v} , of our code is a combination of these code words, i.e.

$$\mathbf{v} = u_1 \mathbf{g}_1 \oplus u_2 \mathbf{g}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus u_k \mathbf{g}_k$$

Where $u_j = 0$ or $1, \forall 1 \leq j \leq k$

The eqn. can be arranged in matrix form by noting that each \mathbf{g}_j is an n -tuple, i.e.

$\mathbf{g}_j = (g_{j1}, g_{j2}, \dots, g_{jn})$

Thus we have $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{G}$ Where: $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k)$ represents the data vector and

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{matrix} & \mathbf{g}_1 & \mathbf{g}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{g}_k \\ \mathbf{g}_1 & g_{11} & g_{12} & \dots & g_{1n} \\ \mathbf{g}_2 & g_{21} & g_{22} & \dots & g_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{g}_k & g_{k1} & g_{k2} & \dots & g_{kn} \end{matrix}$$

Systematic Block Codes (Group Property):

Here a code word is divided into two parts – Message part and the redundant part. If either the first k digits or the last k digits of the code word correspond to the message part then we say that the code is a “Systematic Block Code”.

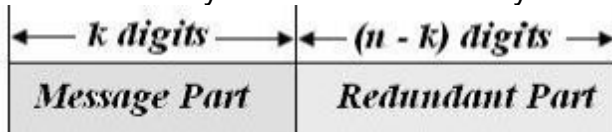


fig format of sys. codes

If \mathbf{I} is the $k \times k$ identity matrix (unit matrix), \mathbf{P} is the $k \times (n - k)$, “**parity generator matrix**”, in which p_{ij} are either 0 or 1 and \mathbf{G} is a $k \times n$ matrix. The $(n - k)$ equations given are referred to as **parity check equations**. Observe that the \mathbf{G} matrix of Example 6.2 is in the systematic format. The n -vectors $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ and $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ are said to be orthogonal if their inner product defined by: $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)^T = 0$.

where, T represents transposition. Accordingly for any $k \times n$ matrix, \mathbf{G} , with k linearly independent rows there exists a $(n - k) \times n$ matrix \mathbf{H} with $(n - k)$ linearly independent rows such that any vector in the row space of \mathbf{G} is orthogonal to the rows of \mathbf{H} and that any vector that is orthogonal to the rows of \mathbf{H} is in the row space of \mathbf{G} . Therefore, we can describe an (n, k) linear code generated by \mathbf{G} alternatively as follows:

“An n – tuple, \mathbf{v} is a code word generated by \mathbf{G} , if and only if $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{H}^T = \mathbf{0}$ ”.

($\mathbf{0}$ represents an all zero row vector.)

This matrix \mathbf{H} is called a “**parity check matrix**” of the code. Its dimension is $(n - k) \times n$.

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If the generator matrix has a systematic format, the parity check matrix takes the following form.

$$H = [P^T \ I_{n-k}] = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & \dots & p_{1k} & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & \dots & p_{2k} & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ p_{i1} & p_{i2} & \dots & p_{ik} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ p_{n-k+1} & p_{n-k+2} & \dots & p_{n-k+k} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The i^{th} row of G is:

$$g_i = (0 \ 0 \ \dots \ 1 \ \dots \ 0 \ \dots \ 0 \quad p_{i1} \ p_{i2} \ \dots \ p_{ij} \ \dots \ p_{i, n-k})$$

i^{th} element $(k+j)^{th}$ element

The j^{th} row of H is:

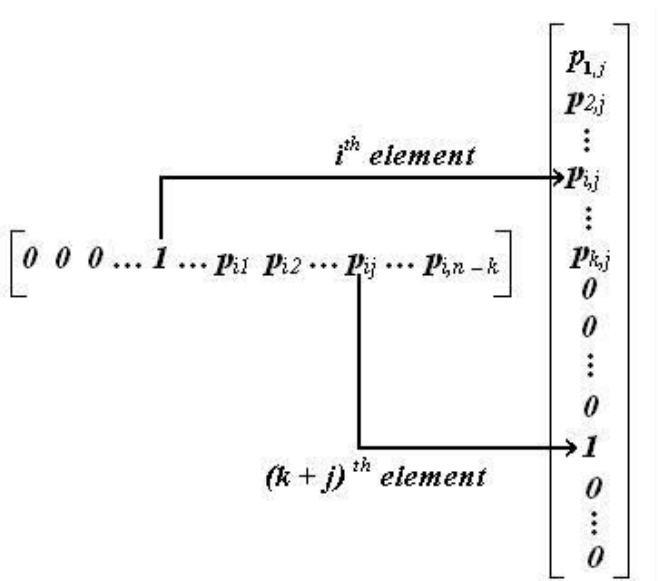
$$\begin{matrix} i^{th} \text{ element} & (k+j)^{th} \text{ element} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \end{matrix}$$

$$h_j = (p_{1j} \ p_{2j} \ \dots \ p_{ij} \ \dots \ p_{kj} \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0)$$

Accordingly the inner product of the above $n - k$ vectors is:

$$g_i \cdot h_j^T = (0 \ 0 \ \dots \ 1 \ \dots \ 0 \ \dots \ 0 \quad p_{i1} \ p_{i2} \ \dots \ p_{ij} \ \dots \ p_{i, n-k}) (p_{1j} \ p_{2j} \ \dots \ p_{ij} \ \dots \ p_{kj} \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0)^T$$

i^{th} element $(k+j)^{th}$ element i^{th} element $(k+j)^{th}$ element



Where $\mathbf{0}_{k \times (n-k)}$ is an all zero matrix of dimension $k \times (n-k)$.

Further, since the $(n-k)$ rows of the matrix H are linearly independent, the H matrix is a parity check matrix of the (n, k) linear systematic code generated by G .

Syndrome and Error Detection:

Suppose $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ be a code word transmitted over a noisy channel and let:

$\mathbf{r} = (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)$ be the received vector. Clearly, \mathbf{r} may be different from \mathbf{v} owing to the channel noise. The vector sum

$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{v} = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$ is an n -tuple, where $e_j = 1$ if $r_j \neq v_j$ and $e_j = 0$ if $r_j = v_j$. This n -tuple is called the "error vector" or "error pattern". The 1's in \mathbf{e} are the transmission errors caused by the channel noise.

$$r = v \oplus e$$

When r is received, the decoder computes the following $(n-k)$ tuple:

$$s = r \cdot H^T = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{n-k})$$

$s = 0$ if and only if r is a code word and $s \neq 0$ iff r is not a code word. This vector s is called the syndrome. Thus if $s = 0$, the receiver accepts r as a valid code word. Notice that there are possibilities of errors undetected, which happens when e is identical to a nonzero code word. In this case r is the sum of two code words which according to our linearity property is again a code word. This type of error pattern is referred to an “**undetectable error pattern**”. Since there are 2^{k-1} nonzero code words, it follows that there are 2^{k-1} error patterns as well. Hence when an undetectable error pattern occurs the decoder makes a “**decoding error**”. as below:

$$s = r \cdot H^T = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{n-k}) = (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n) \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & \dots & p_{1, n-k} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & \dots & p_{2, n-k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{k1} & p_{k2} & \dots & p_{k, n-k} \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$s_1 = r_1 p_{11} + r_2 p_{21} + \dots + r_k p_{k1} + r_{k+1}$$

$$s_2 = r_1 p_{12} + r_2 p_{22} + \dots + r_k p_{k2} + r_{k+2}$$

From which we have

$$M \quad M \quad M \quad M \quad M$$

$$s_{n-k} = r_1 p_{1, n-k} + r_2 p_{2, n-k} + \dots + r_k p_{k, n-k} + r_n$$

The syndrome is simply the vector sum of the received parity digits ($r_{k+1}, r_{k+2}, \dots, r_n$) and the parity check digits recomputed from the received information digits (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n).

Example

We shall compute the syndrome for the (6, 3) systematic code of Example 5.2. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or } s_1 &= r_2 + r_3 s_2 + r_4 \\ &= r_1 + r_3 s_3 + r_5 \\ &= r_1 + r_2 + r_6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} s &= r \cdot H^T = (v \oplus e) H^T \\ &= v \cdot H^T \oplus e \cdot H^T \\ \text{or } s &= e \cdot H^T \end{aligned}$$

as $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{H}^T = \mathbf{0}$. we have the following relationship between the syndrome digits and the error digits.

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_1 &= e_1 p_{11} + e_2 p_{21} + \dots + e_k p_{k,1} + e_{k+1} \\
 s_2 &= e_1 p_{12} + e_2 p_{22} + \dots + e_k p_{k,2} + e_{k+2} \\
 &\vdots \\
 s_M &= e_1 p_{1,M} + e_2 p_{2,M} + \dots + e_k p_{k,M} + e_{k+M}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the syndrome digits are linear combinations of error digits.

3. Uniquely decodable codes:

A non-singular code is uniquely decipherable, if every word immersed in a sequence of words can be uniquely identified. The n^{th} extension of a code, that maps each message into the codewords \mathbf{C} , is defined as a code which maps the sequence of messages into a sequence of code words.

This is also a block code, as illustrated in the following example.

Example: Second extension of the code set given in $\mathbf{C} = \{0, 11, 10, 01\}$

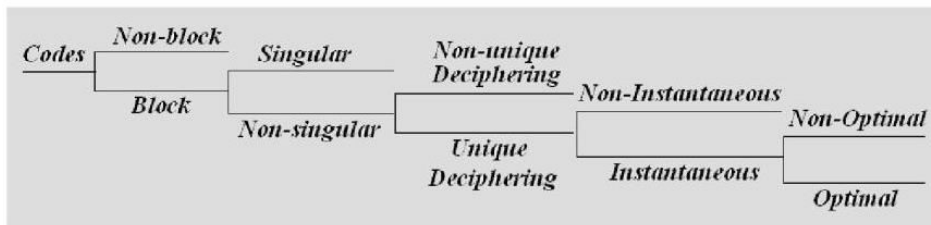
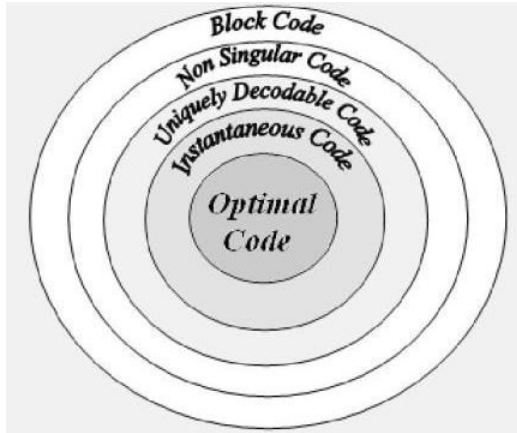
$S^2 = \{s_1s_1, s_1s_2, s_1s_3, s_1s_4; s_2s_1, s_2s_2, s_2s_3, s_2s_4, s_3s_1, s_3s_2, s_3s_3, s_3s_4, s_4s_1, s_4s_2, s_4s_3, s_4s_4\}$

Source Symbols	Codes	Source Symbols	Codes	Source Symbols	Codes	Source Symbols	Codes
s_1s_1	00	s_2s_1	110	s_3s_1	100	s_4s_1	010
s_1s_2	011	s_2s_2	1111	s_3s_2	1011	s_4s_2	0111
s_1s_3	010	s_2s_3	1110	s_3s_3	1010	s_4s_3	0110
s_1s_4	001	s_2s_4	1101	s_3s_4	1001	s_4s_4	0101

Notice that, in the above example, the codes for the source sequences, s_1s_3 and s_4s_1 are not distinct and hence the code is “**Singular in the Large**”. Since such singularity properties introduce ambiguity in the decoding stage, we therefore require, in general, for unique decidability of our codes that “**The n^{th} extension of the code be non-singular for every finite n .**”

4. Instantaneous Codes:

A uniquely decodable code is said to be “**instantaneous**” if the end of any code word is recognizable without the need of inspection of succeeding code symbols. That is **there is no time lag in the process of decoding**. To understand the concept, consider the following codes:



Kraft Inequality:

Given a source $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q\}$. Let the word lengths of the codes corresponding to these symbols be l_1, l_2, \dots, l_q and let the code alphabet be $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r\}$. Then, an instantaneous code for this source exists iff

$$\sum_{k=1}^q r^{-l_k} \leq 1$$

The above Eq is called **Kraft Inequality** (Kraft – 1949).

Example:

A six symbol source is encoded into Binary codes shown below. Which of these codes are instantaneous?

Source symbol	Code A	Code B	Code C	Code D	Code E
s_1	00	0	0	0	0
s_2	01	1000	10	1000	10
s_3	10	1100	110	1110	110
s_4	110	1110	1110	111	1110
s_5	1110	1101	11110	1011	11110
s_6	1111	1111	11111	1100	1111
$\sum_{k=1}^6 r^{-l_k}$	1	$\frac{13}{16} < 1$	1	$\frac{7}{8} < 1$	$1\frac{1}{32} > 1$

As a first test we apply the Kraft Inequality and the result is accordingly tabulated. **Code E does not satisfy Kraft Inequality and it is not an instantaneous code.**

Next we test the prefix property. For **Code D**, notice that the complete code word for the symbol **s4** is a prefix of the code word for the symbol **s3**. Hence it is not an instantaneous code. However, **Code A, Code B** and **Code C** satisfy the prefix property and are therefore they are instantaneous codes.

Code Efficiency and Redundancy:

Consider a zero memory source, **S** with **q**-symbols $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q\}$ and symbol probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_q\}$ respectively. Let us encode these symbols into **r**-ary codes (Using a code alphabet of symbols) with word lengths l_1, l_2, \dots, l_q . We shall find a lower bound for the average length of the codewords and hence define efficiency and redundancy of the code. Let Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_q be any set of numbers such that $Q_k \geq 0$ and

$$\sum_{k=1}^q Q_k = 1.$$

Consider the quantity

Equality holds iff $Q_k = p_k$. Eq. (5.21) is valid for any set of numbers Q_k that are non negative and sum to unity. We may then choose:

$$Q_k = \frac{r^{-l_k}}{\sum_{k=1}^q r^{-l_k}}$$

and obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(s) &\leq \sum_{k=1}^q p_k \log r^{l_k} \sum_{k=1}^q r^{-l_k} \\
 &\leq \sum_{k=1}^q p_k (l_k \log r + \log \sum_{k=1}^q r^{-l_k})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$i.e. H(S) \leq \log r \sum_{k=1}^q p_k l_k + \log \sum_{k=1}^q r^{-l_k}$$

Defining

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^q p_k l_k$$

Which gives the average length of the code words, and

$$\frac{H(S)}{L} \leq \log r$$

LHS of the Eq. is simply (The entropy of the source in bits per source symbol) ÷ (no. of codesymbols per source symbol) or bits per code symbol; which is nothing but the actual entropy of the code symbols. RHS is the maximum value of this entropy when the code symbols are all equiprobable. Thus we can define the code efficiency as

“Code efficiency is the ratio of the average information per symbol of the encoded language to the maximum possible information per code symbol”. Mathematically, we write

Code efficiency

$$\eta_c = \frac{H(S)}{L} : \log r$$

or

$$\eta_c = \frac{H(S)}{L \log r}$$

Accordingly, Redundancy of the code,

$$E_c = 1 - \eta_c$$

Example:

Let the source have four messages **S = {s1, s2, s3, s4}** with **P = 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/8**

$$\therefore H(S) = \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \log 4 + 2 \times \frac{1}{8} \log 8 = 1.75 \text{ bits/sym.}$$

If S itself is assumed to be the alphabet then we have

$$L=1, r=4 \text{ and } \eta_c = \frac{1.75}{\log 4} = 0.875, \text{ i.e. } \eta_c = 87.5\%, \text{ and } E_c = 12.5\%$$

Suppose the messages are encoded into a binary alphabet, $X = \{0, 1\}$ as

p_k	Code	l_k	
s_1	1/2	0	$l_1=1$
s_2	1/4	1 0	$l_2=2$
s_3	1/8	1 1 0	$l_3=3$
s_4	1/8	1 1 1	$l_4=3$

$$\text{We have } L = \sum_{k=1}^4 l_k p_k = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = 1.75 \text{ bits/symbol}$$

$$\text{Since } r=2, \eta_c = \frac{H(S)}{L \log r} = \frac{1.75}{1.75 \log_2 2} = 1$$

i.e. $\eta_c = 100\%$, and hence $E_c = 1 - \eta_c = 0\%$

Thus by proper encoding, the efficiency can be increased.

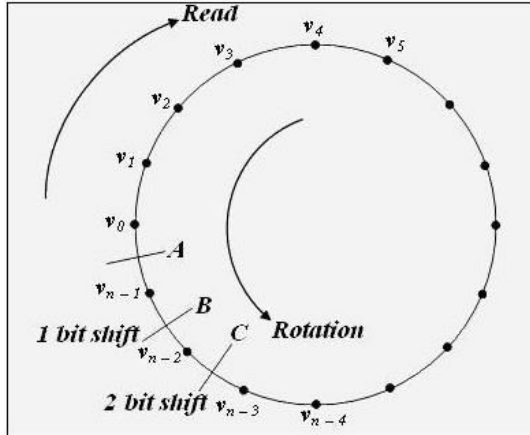
So, the equality $L = H(S) / \log r$ is strict since $l_k = \log 1/p_k$

CYCLIC CODES

A binary code is said to be "cyclic" if it satisfies:

1. Linearity property – sum of two code words is also a code word.
2. Cyclic property – Any lateral shift of a code word is also a code word.

For example, if we move in a counter clockwise direction then starting at „A" the code word is **110001100** while if we start at **B** it would be **011001100**. Clearly, the two code words are related in that one is obtained from the other by a cyclic shift.



Illustrating the Cyclic Property.

If the n - tuple, read from „ **A**“ in the **CW** direction in Fig illustrating cyclic property,

$$\mathbf{v} = (v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_{n-2}, v_{n-1})$$

is a code vector, then the code vector, read from **B**, in the **CW** direction, obtained by a one bit cyclicright shift:

$$\mathbf{V}^1 = (v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_{n-2}, v_{n-1})$$

is also a code vector. In this way, the n - tuples obtained by successive cyclic right shifts:

$$\mathbf{v}^{(2)} = (v_{n-2}, v_{n-1}, v_n, v_0, v_1 \dots v_{n-3})$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{(3)} = (v_{n-3}, v_{n-2}, v_{n-1}, v_n, \dots v_0, v_1, v_{n-4})$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{(i)} = (v_{n-i}, v_{n-i+1}, \dots v_{n-1}, v_0, v_1, \dots v_{n-i-1})$$

$$V(X) = v_0 + v_1 X + v_2 X^2 + v_3 X^3 + \dots + v_{i-1} X^{i-1} + \dots + v_{n-3} X^{n-3} + v_{n-2} X^{n-2} + v_{n-1} X^{n-1} \dots$$

are all code vectors. This property of cyclic codes enables us to treat the elements of each code vector as the co-efficients of a polynomial of degree **(n-1)**.

This is the property that is extremely useful in the analysis and implementation of these codes. Thus we write the "code polynomial" **V(X)** for the code as a vector polynomial as:

Thus it turns out that

$$V^{(1)}(X) = v_{n-1} + v_0 X + v_1 X^2 + \dots + v_{n-2} X^{n-1} \dots$$

is the code polynomial for $\mathbf{v}^{(1)}$. We can continue in this way to arrive at a general format:

$$X^i V(X) = V^{(i)}(X) + q(X)(X^n + 1) \dots$$

Remainder Quotient

Where

$$V^{(i)}(X) = v_{n-i} + v_{n-i+1}X + v_{n-i+2}X^2 + \dots + v_{n-1}X^{i-1} + \dots + v_n X^{n-i} + \dots$$

Generator Polynomial for Cyclic Codes:

An (n, k) cyclic code is specified by the complete set of code polynomials of degree ≤(n-1) and contains a polynomial g(X), of degree (n-k) as a factor, called the "generator polynomial" of the code. This polynomial is equivalent to the generator matrix G, of block codes. Further, it is the only polynomial of minimum degree and is unique. Thus we have an important theorem

Theorem 1 "If g(X) is a polynomial of degree (n-k) and is a factor of (X^n+1) then g(X) generates an (n, k) cyclic code in which the code polynomial V(X) for a data vector u = (u_0, u_1... u_{k-1}) is generated by

$$V(X) = U(X) \times g(X)$$

Where

$$U(X) = u_0 + u_1 X + u_2 X^2 + \dots + u_{k-1} X^{k-1} \dots\dots\dots$$

is the data polynomial of degree (k-1). The theorem can be justified by Contradiction: - If there is another polynomial of same degree, then add the two polynomials to get a polynomial of degree <(n, k) (use linearity property and binary arithmetic). Not possible because minimum degree is (n-k). Hence g(X) is unique. Clearly, there are 2^k code polynomials corresponding to 2^k data vectors. The code vectors corresponding to these code polynomials form a linear (n, k) code. We have then, from the theorem

$$g(X) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-k-1} g_i X^i + X^{n-k}$$

$$\text{As } g(X) = g_0 + g_1 X + g_2 X^2 + \dots + g_{n-k-1} X^{n-k-1} + g_{n-k} X^{n-k}$$

Suppose u_0=1 and u_1=u_2=...=u_{k-1}=0. Then it follows g(X) is a code word polynomial of degree (n-k). This is treated as a „basis code polynomial“ (All rows of the G matrix of a block code, being linearly independent, are also valid code vectors and form „Basis vectors“ of the code).

is a polynomial of minimum degree, it follows that g_0 = g_{n-k} = 1 always and the remaining coefficients may be either 0 or 1. Performing the multiplication ... we have:

$$U(X) g(X) = u_0 g(X) + u_1 X g(X) + \dots + u_{k-1} X^{k-1} g(X)$$

Therefore from cyclic property X^i g(X) is also a code polynomial. Moreover, from the linearity property - a linear combination of code polynomials is also a code polynomial. It follows therefore that any multiple of g(X) as a code polynomial. Conversely, any binary polynomial of degree ≤(n-1) is a code polynomial if and only if it is a multiple of g(X). The codewords generated are in non-systematic form. Non systematic cyclic codes can be generated by simple binary multiplication circuits using shift registers. here we have described cyclic codes with right shift operation. Left shift version can be

obtained by simply re-writing the polynomials. Thus, for left shift operations, the various polynomials take the following form

$$U(X) = u_0X^{k-1} + u_1X^{k-2} + \dots + u_{k-2}X + u_{k-1} \dots \dots \dots (a)$$

$$V(X) = v_0X^{n-1} + v_1X^{n-2} + \dots + v_{n-2}X + v_{n-1} \dots \dots \dots (b)$$

$$g(X) = g_0X^{n-k} + g_1X^{n-k-1} + \dots + g_{n-k-1}X + g_{n-k} \dots \dots \dots (c)$$

$$= X_{n-k} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-k} g_i X^{n-k-i} + g_{n-k} \dots \dots \dots (d)$$

Multiplication Circuits:

Construction of encoders and decoders for linear block codes are usually constructed with combinational logic circuits with mod-2 adders. Multiplication of two polynomials **A(X)** and **B(X)** and the division of one by the other are realized by using sequential logic circuits, mod-2 adders and shift registers. In this section we shall consider multiplication circuits.

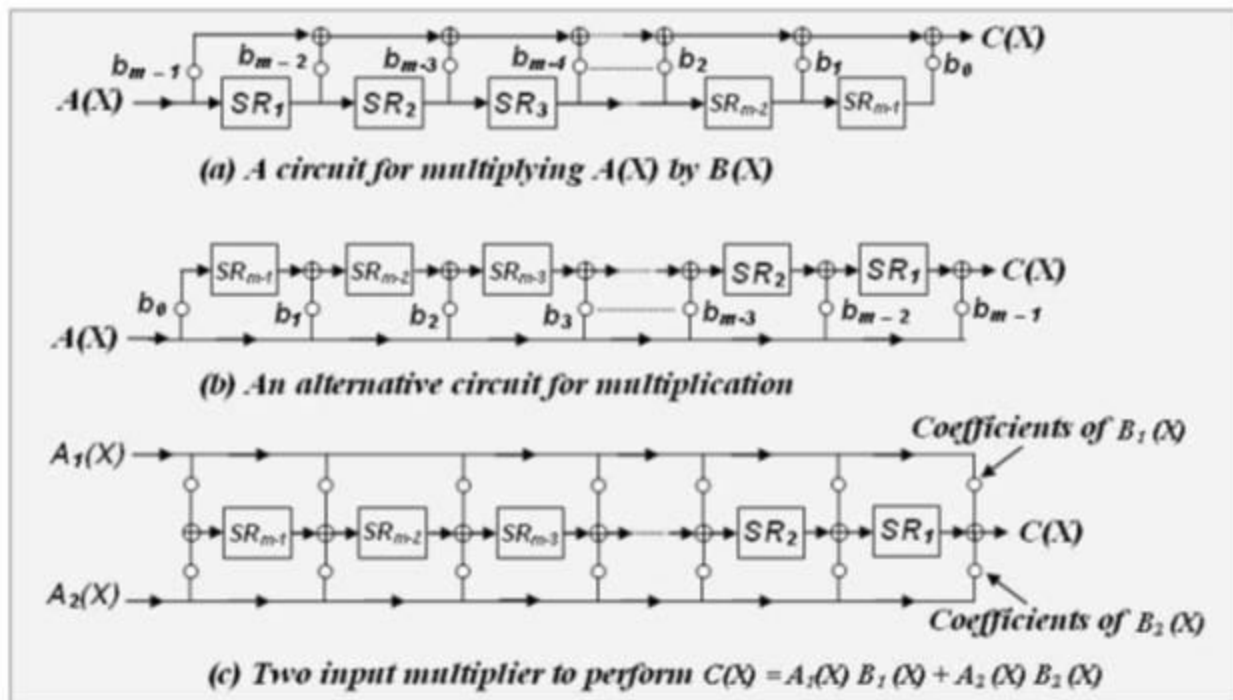
For the polynomial: **A(X) = a₀ + a₁X + a₂X² + ... + a_{n-1}Xⁿ⁻¹** where **a_i**'s are either a '0' or a '1', the right most bit in the sequence (**a₀, a₁, a₂... a_{n-1}**) is transmitted first in any operation. The product of the two polynomials **A(X)** and **B(X)** yield:

$$C(X) = A(X) * B(X)$$

$$= (a_0 + a_1 X + a_2 X^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} X^{n-1}) (b_0 + b_1 X + b_2 X^2 + \dots + b_{m-1} X^{m-1})$$

$$= a^0 b^0 + (a_1 b_0 + a_0 b_1) X + (a_0 b_2 + b_0 a_2 + a_1 b_1) X^2 + \dots + (a_{n-2} b_{m-1} + a_{n-1} b_{m-2}) X^{n+m-3} + a_{n-1} b_{m-1} X^{n+m-2}$$

This product may be realized with the circuits as in fig below illustrate the concepts described so far.

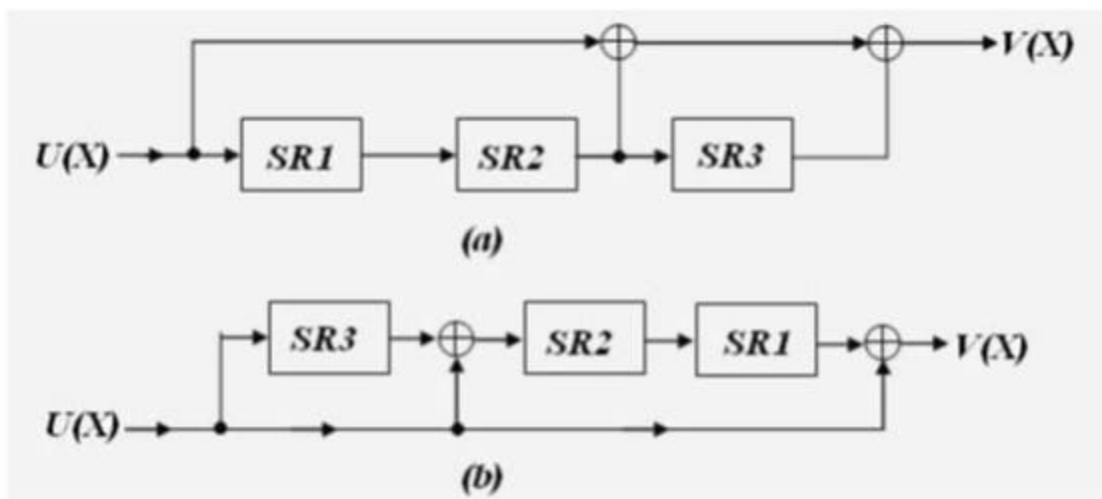


Multiplication circuits

Example : Consider the generation of a (7, 4) cyclic code. Here $(n - k) = (7 - 4) = 3$ and we have to find a generator polynomial of degree 3 which is a factor of $X^n + 1 = X^7 + 1$. To find the factors of degree 3, divide $X^7 + 1$ by $X^3 + aX^2 + bX + 1$, where 'a' and 'b' are binary numbers, to get the remainder as $abX^2 + (1 + a + b)X + (a + b + ab + 1)$. Only condition for the remainder to be zero is $a + b = 1$ which means either $a = 1, b = 0$ or $a = 0, b = 1$. Thus we have two possible polynomials of degree 3, namely $g^1(X) = X^3 + X^2 + 1$ and $g^2(X) = X^3 + X + 1$. In fact, $X^7 + 1$ can be factored as: $(X^7 + 1) = (X + 1)(X^3 + X^2 + 1)(X^3 + X + 1)$. Thus selection of a 'good' generator polynomial seems to be a major problem in the design of cyclic codes. No clear-cut procedures are available. Usually computer search procedures are followed.

Let us choose $g(X) = X^3 + X + 1$ as the generator polynomial. The encoding circuits are shown in

Fig below (a) and (b).



Generation of Non-systematic Cyclic codes $V(X) = U(X).g(X)$

To understand the operation, Let us consider $u = (10 1 1)$ i.e.

$$U(X) = 1 + X^2 + X^3.$$

$$\text{We have } V(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^3)(1 + X + X^3).$$

$$= 1 + X^2 + X^3 + X + X^3 + X^4 + X^3 + X^5 + X^6$$

$$= 1 + X + X^2 + X^3 + X^4 + X^5 + X^6$$

$$\text{because } (X^3 + X^3 = 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow v = (1 1 1 1 1 1 1)$$

the product polynomial is:

$$V(X) = 1 + X + X^2 + X^3 + X^4 + X^5 + X^6$$

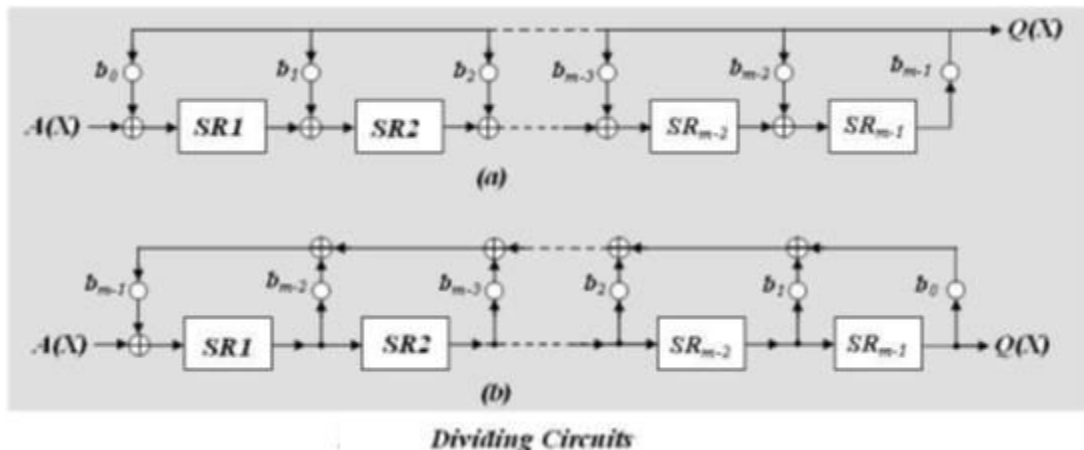
and hence out put code vector is $v = (1 1 1 1 1 1 1)$, as obtained by direct multiplication.

The reader can verify the operation of the circuit in the same manner. Thus the multiplication circuits can be used for generation of non-systematic cyclic codes.

Shift Number	Input Queue	Bit shifted IN	Contents of shift registers.			Out put	Remarks
			SR1	SR2	SR3		
0	0001011	-	0	0	0	-	Circuit In reset mode
1	000101	1	1	0	0	1	Co-efficient of X^0
2	00010	1	1	1	0	1	Co-efficient of X^1
3	0001	0	0	1	1	1	X^2 co-efficient
4	000	1	1	0	1	1	X^3 co-efficient
5	00	0	0	1	0	1	X^4 co-efficient
6	0	0	0	0	1	1	X^5 co-efficient
7	-	0	0	0	0	1	X^6 co-efficient

Dividing Circuits:

As in the case of multipliers, the division of $A(X)$ by $B(X)$ can be accomplished by using shiftregisters and Mod-2 adders, as shown in Fig. below In a division circuit, the first co-efficient of the quotient is $(a_{n-1}/(b_m - 1)) = q_1$, and $q_1.B(X)$ is subtracted from $A(X)$. This subtraction is carried out by the feed back connections shown. This process will continue for the second and subsequent terms. However, remember that these coefficients are binary coefficients. After $(n-1)$ shifts, the entire quotient will appear at the output and the remainder is stored in the shift registers.



It is possible to combine a divider circuit with a multiplier circuit to build a “composite multiplier-divider circuit” which is useful in various encoding circuits.

Example:

Let $A(X) = X^3 + X^5 + X^6$, $\rightarrow A = (0001011)$, $B(X) = 1 + X + X^3$.

We want to find the quotient and remainder after dividing $A(X)$ by $B(X)$. The circuit to perform this division is shown in Fig below. The operation of the divider circuit is listed in the table

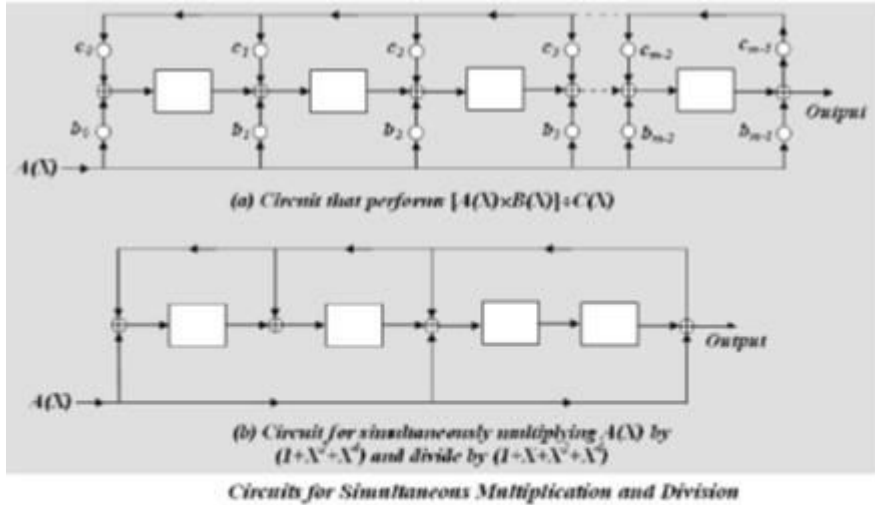


Table Showing the Sequence of Operations of the Dividing circuit

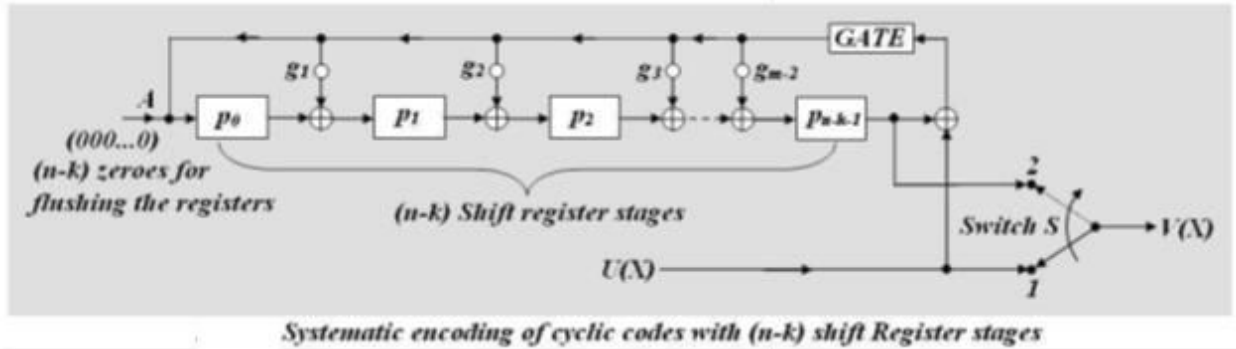
Shift Number	Input Queue	Bit shifted IN	Contents of shift Registers.			Output	Remarks
			SR1	SR2	SR3		
0	0001011	-	0	0	0	-	Circuit in reset mode
1	000101	1	1	0	0	0	Co-efficient of X^0
2	00010	1	1	1	0	0	Co-efficient of X^1
3	0001	0	0	1	1	0	X^2 co-efficient
4	000	1	0	1	1	1	X^3 co-efficient
5	00	0	1	1	1	1	X^2 co-efficient
6	0	0	1	0	1	1	X^1 co-efficient
7	-	0	1	0	0	1	X^0 co-efficient

The quotient co-efficients will be available only after the fourth shift as the first three shifts result in entering the first 3-bits to the shift registers and in each shift output of the last register, **SR3**, is zero. The quotient co-efficient serially presented at the output are seen to be **(1111)** and hence the quotient polynomial is $Q(X) = 1 + X + X^2 + X^3$

The remainder co-efficients are **(1 0 0)** and the remainder polynomial is $R(X) = 1$. after the $(n-k)^{th}$ shift register the result is the division of $X^{n-k} A(X)$ by $B(X)$. Accordingly, we have the following scheme to generate systematic cyclic codes. The generator polynomial is written as:

$$g(X) = 1 + g_1X + g_2X^2 + g_3X^3 + \dots + g_{n-k-1}X^{n-k-1} + X^{n-k} \dots$$

The circuit below does the job of dividing $X^{n-k} U(X)$ by $g(X)$. The following steps describe the encoding operation.



1. The switch **S** is in position **1** to allow transmission of the message bits directly to an output shift register during the first **k**-shifts.
 2. At the same time the '**GATE**' is '**ON**' to allow transmission of the message bits into the **(n-k)** stage encoding shift register
 3. After transmission of the **kth** message bit the **GATE** is turned **OFF** and the switch **S** is moved to position **2**.
 4. **(n-k)** zeroes introduced at "**A**" after step **3**, clear the encoding register by moving the parity bits to the output register
 5. The total number of shifts is equal to **n** and the contents of the output register is the code word polynomial **V(X) = P(X) + X^{n-k}U(X)**.
 6. After step-4, the encoder is ready to take up encoding of the next message input
- Clearly, the encoder is very much simpler than the encoder of an **(n, k)** linear block code and the memory requirements are reduced. The following example illustrates the procedure.

Example:

Let **u = (1 0 1 1)** and we want a **(7, 4)** cyclic code in the systematic form. The generator polynomial chosen is **g(X) = 1 + X + X³**

For the given message, $U(X) = 1 + X^2 + X^3$

$$X^{n-k} U(X) = X^3 U(X) = X^3 + X^5 + X^6$$

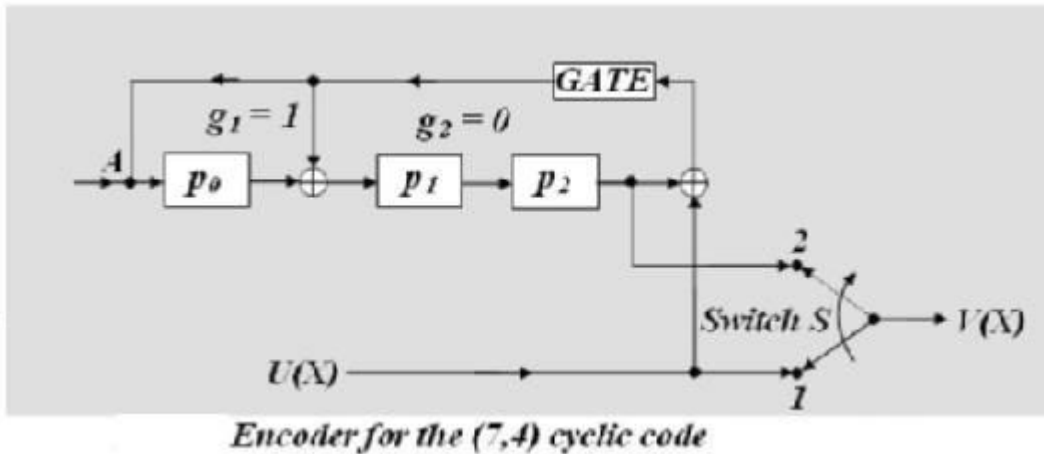
We perform direct division $X^{n-k} U(X)$ by $g(X)$ as shown below.

From direct division observe that

p₀=1, p₁=p₂=0. Hence the code word in systematic format is:

v = (p₀, p₁, p₂; u₀, u₁, u₂, u₃) = (1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)

$$\begin{array}{r|l}
 & X^2+X^2+X+1 \\
 X^4+X^2+X+1 & \hline
 & X^6+X^3+X^3 \\
 & X^6+X^4+X^3 \\
 \hline
 & X^5+X^4 \\
 & X^5+X^4+X^2 \\
 & X^4+X^3+X^2 \\
 & X^4+X^2+X \\
 \hline
 & X^2+X \\
 & X^2+X+1 \\
 \hline
 & 1 \text{ (Remainder)}
 \end{array}$$



The encoder circuit for the problem on hand is shown operational steps are as follows:

Shift Number	Input Queue	Bit shifted IN	Register contents	Output
0	1011	-	000	-
1	101	1	110	1
2	10	1	101	1
3	1	0	100	0
4	-	1	100	1

After the Fourth shift **GATE** Turned **OFF**, switch **S** moved to position **2**, and the parity bits contained in the register are shifted to the output. The out put code vector is **v = (100 1011)** which agrees with the direct hand calculation.

Syndrome Calculation - Error Detection and Error Correction:

Suppose the code vector **v = (v0, v1, v2...vn-1)** is transmitted over a noisy channel. Hence the received vector may be a corrupted version of the transmitted code vector. Let the received code vector be **r = (r0, r1, r2...rn-1)**. The received vector may not be anyone of the **2^k** valid code vectors. The function of the decoder is to determine the transmitted code vector

based on the received vector. The decoder, as in the case of linear block codes, first computes the syndrome to check whether or not the received code vector is a valid code vector. In the case of cyclic codes, if the syndrome is zero, then the received code word polynomial must be divisible by the generator polynomial. If the syndrome is non-zero, the received word contains transmission errors and needs error correction. Let the received code vector be represented by the polynomial

$$R(X) = r_0 + r_1X + r_2X^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}X^{n-1}$$

Let $A(X)$ be the quotient and $S(X)$ be the remainder polynomials resulting from the division of $R(X)$ by $g(X)$ i.e.

$$\frac{R(X)}{g(X)} = A(X) + \frac{S(X)}{g(X)}$$

The remainder $S(X)$ is a polynomial of degree $(n-k-1)$ or less. It is called the "Syndrome polynomial".

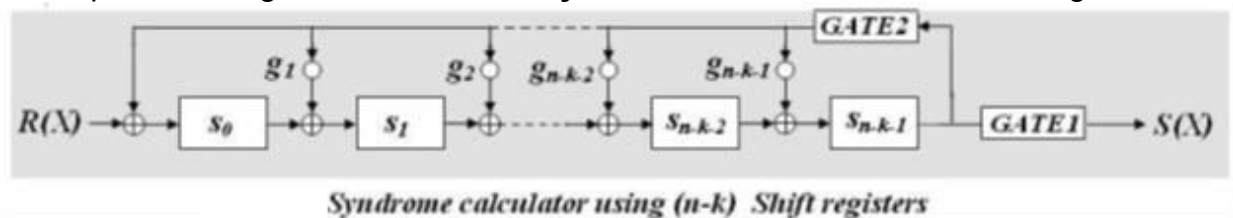
If $E(X)$ is the polynomial representing the error pattern caused by the channel, then we have:

$$R(X) = V(X) + E(X)$$

And it follows as $V(X) = U(X)g(X)$, that:

$$E(X) = [A(X) + U(X)]g(X) + S(X)$$

That is, the syndrome of $R(X)$ is equal to the remainder resulting from dividing the error pattern by the generator polynomial; and the syndrome contains information about the error pattern, which can be used for error correction. Hence syndrome calculation can be accomplished using divider circuits. A "Syndrome calculator" is shown in Fig below.



The syndrome calculations are carried out as below:

1 The register is first initialized. With **GATE 2 -ON** and **GATE1- OFF**, the received vector is entered into the register

2 After the entire received vector is shifted into the register, the contents of the register will be the syndrome, which can be shifted out of the register by turning **GATE-1 ON** and **GATE-2OFF**. The circuit is ready for processing next received vector.

The error correction procedure consists of the following steps:

Step1. Received data is shifted into the buffer register and syndrome registers with switches

SIN closed and **SOUT** open and error correction is performed with **SIN** open and **SOUT** closed.

Step2. After the syndrome for the received code word is calculated and placed in the syndrome

register, the contents are read into the error detector. The detector is a combinatorial circuit designed to output a „ 1“ if and only if the syndrome corresponds to

a correctable error pattern with an error at the highest order position X^{n-1} . That is, if the detector output is a '1' then the received digit at the right most stage of the buffer register is assumed to be in error and will be corrected. If the detector output is '0' then the received digit at the rightmost stage of the buffer is assumed to be correct. Thus the detector output is the estimate error value for the digit coming out of the buffer register.

Step3. In the third step, the first received digit in the syndrome register is shifted right once. If the first received digit is in error, the detector output will be '1' which is used for error correction. The output of the detector is also fed to the syndrome register to modify the syndrome. This results in a new syndrome corresponding to the „ **altered** „ received codeword shifted to the right by one place.

Step4. The new syndrome is now used to check and correct the second received digit, which is the multiplication operation, performed by the circuit, is listed in the Table below step by step. In shift number 4, „ **000**“ is introduced to flush the registers. As seen from the tabulation now at the right most position, is an erroneous digit. If so, it is corrected, a new syndrome is calculated as in step-3 and the procedure is repeated.

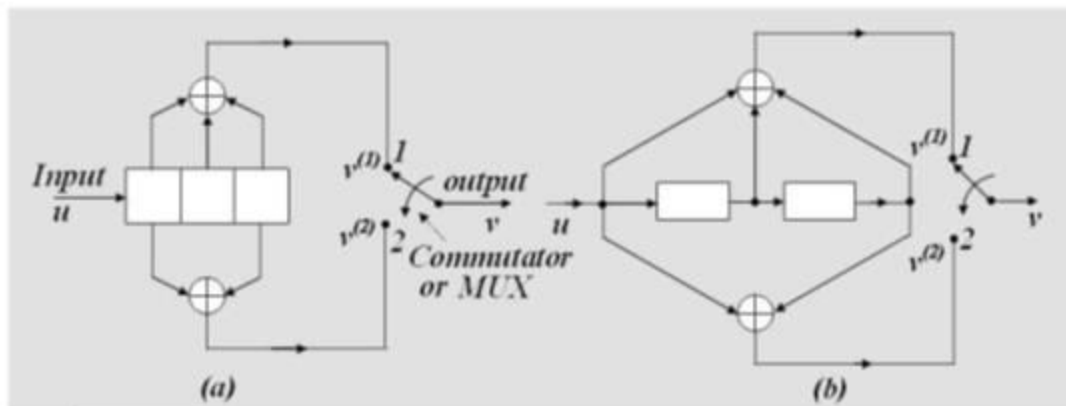
Step5. The decoder operates on the received data digit by digit until the entire received code word is shifted out of the buffer.

CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

In block codes, a block of n -digits generated by the encoder depends only on the block of k data digits in a particular time unit. These codes can be generated by combinatorial logic circuits. In a convolutional code the block of n -digits generated by the encoder in a time unit depends on not only on the block of k -data digits with in that time unit, but also on the preceding „ m “ input blocks. An (n, k, m) convolutional code can be implemented with k -input, n -output sequential circuit with input memory m . Generally, k and n are small integers with $k < n$ but the memory order m must be made large to achieve low error probabilities. In the important special case when $k = 1$, the information sequence is not divided into blocks but can be processed continuously.

Connection Pictorial Representation:

The encoder for a (rate $1/2$, $K = 3$) or $(2, 1, 2)$ convolutional code is shown in. Both sketches shown are one and the same.



(2, 1, 2) Encoder (a) Representation using 3-bit shift register.

(b) Equivalent representation requires only two shift register stages.

Fig.Con1

At each input bit time one bit is shifted into the left most stage and the bits that were present in the registers shifted to the right by one position. Output switch (commutator /MUX) samples the output of each X-OR gate and forms the code symbol pairs for the bits introduced. The final code is obtained after flushing the encoder with "m" zero's where 'm'- is the memory order (In Fig.con.1, $m = 2$). These sequence of operations performed by the encoder of Fig.con.1 for an input sequence $u = (101)$ are illustrated diagrammatically in Fig con.2.

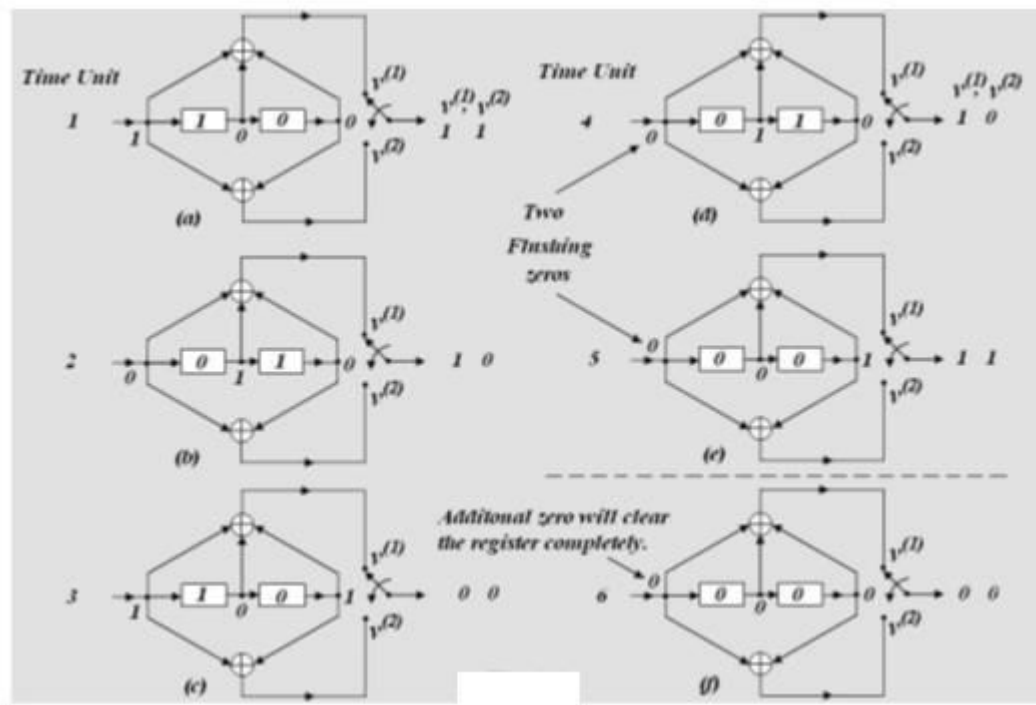


Fig Con2

From Fig con.2, gives the encoding procedure.

Convolutional Encoding – Time domain approach:

The encoder for a $(2, 1, 3)$ code is shown in Fig. con3. Here the encoder consists of $m=3$ stageshift register, $n=2$ modulo-2 adders (X-OR gates) and a multiplexer for serializing the encoder outputs. Notice that module-2 addition is a linear operation and it follows that all convolution encoders can be implemented using a “ **linear feed forward shift register circuit**”.

The “information sequence” $u = (u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots)$ enters the encoder one bit at a time starting from u_1 . As the name implies, a convolutional encoder operates by performing convolutions on the information sequence. Specifically, the encoder output sequences, in this case $v^{(1)} = \{v_1^{(1)}, v_2^{(1)}, v_3^{(1)} \dots\}$ and $v^{(2)} = \{v_1^{(2)}, v_2^{(2)}, v_3^{(2)} \dots\}$ are obtained by the discrete convolution of the information sequence with the encoder "impulse responses". The impulse responses are obtained by determining the output sequences of the encoder produced by the input sequence $u = (1, 0, 0, 0 \dots)$. The impulse responses so defined are called '**generator sequences**' of the code. Since the encoder has a m -time unit memory the impulse responses can last at most $(m + 1)$ time units (That is a

total of $(m+1)$ shifts are necessary for a message bit to enter the shift register and finally come out) and are written as: $g^{(i)} = \{g_1^{(i)}, g_2^{(i)}, g_3^{(i)} \dots g_{m+1}^{(i)}\}$.

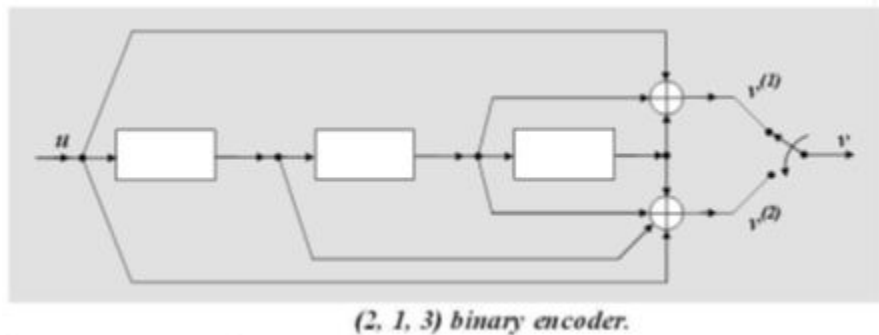


Fig Con3

For the encoder of Fig.con.3, we require the two impulse responses,

$$g^{(1)} = \{g_1^{(1)}, g_2^{(1)}, g_3^{(1)}, g_4^{(1)}\} \text{ and } g^{(2)} = \{g_1^{(2)}, g_2^{(2)}, g_3^{(2)}, g_4^{(2)}\}$$

By inspection, these can be written as: $g^{(1)} = \{1, 0, 1, 1\}$ and $g^{(2)} = \{1, 1, 1, 1\}$

Observe that the generator sequences represented here is simply the 'connection vectors' of the encoder. In the sequences a '1' indicates a connection and a '0' indicates no connection to the corresponding X - OR gate. If we group the elements of the generator sequences so found in to pairs, we get the overall impulse response of the encoder, Thus for the encoder of Fig con.3, the „over-all impulse response“ will be:

$$v = (11, 01, 11, 11)$$

The encoder outputs are defined by the convolution sums:

$$v(1) = u * g(1) \dots \dots \dots \text{(eqn con.1 a)}$$

$$v(2) = u * g(2) \dots \dots \dots \text{(eqn con1.b)}$$

Where * denotes the „discrete convolution“, which implies:

$$v_l^{(j)} = \sum_{i=0}^m u_{l-i} g_{i+1}^{(j)}$$

$$= u_l g_1^{(j)} + u_{l-1} g_2^{(j)} + u_{l-2} g_3^{(j)} + \dots + u_{l-m} g_{m+1}^{(j)}$$

(eqn con2)

for $j = 1, 2$ and where $u_{l-i} = 0$ for all $l < i$ and all operations are modulo - 2. Hence for the encoder of Fig (con3), we have:

$$v_l^{(1)} = u_l + u_{l-2} + u_{l-3}$$

$$v_l^{(2)} = u_l + u_{l-1} + u_{l-2} + u_{l-3}$$

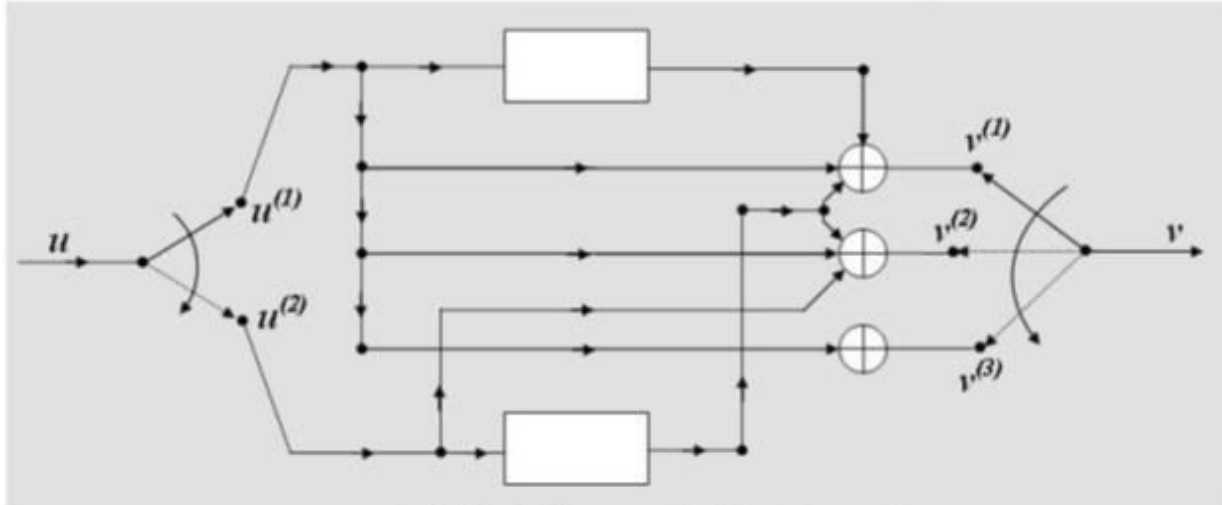
This can be easily verified by direct inspection of the encoding circuit. After encoding, the

two output sequences are multiplexed into a single sequence, called the "code word" for transmission over the channel. The code word is given by:

$$v = \{v_1^{(1)} v_1^{(2)}, v_2^{(1)} v_2^{(2)}, v_3^{(1)} v_3^{(2)} \dots\}$$

Fig.con.4. Here, as $k = 2$, the encoder consists of two $m = 1$ stage shift registers together with $n = 3$ modulo -2 adders and two multiplexers. The information sequence enters the encoder $k = 2$ bits at a time and can be written as $u = \{u_1^{(1)} u_1^{(2)}, u_2^{(1)} u_2^{(2)}, u_3^{(1)} u_3^{(2)} \dots\}$ or as two separate input sequences:

$$u^{(1)} = \{u_1^{(1)}, u_2^{(1)}, u_3^{(1)} \dots\} \text{ and } u^{(2)} = \{u_1^{(2)}, u_2^{(2)}, u_3^{(2)} \dots\}.$$



A (3, 2, 1) convolutional encoder

Fig con 4

There are three generator sequences corresponding to each input sequence. Letting $g_i^{(j)} = \{g_{i,1}^{(j)}, g_{i,2}^{(j)}, g_{i,3}^{(j)} \dots g_{i,m+1}^{(j)}\}$

input i and output j . The generator sequences for the encoder are:

$$g_1^{(1)} = (1, 1), g_1^{(2)} = (1, 0), g_1^{(3)} = (1, 0), g_2^{(1)} = (0, 1), g_2^{(2)} = (1, 1), g_2^{(3)} = (0, 0)$$

The encoding equations can be written as:

$$v(1) = u(1) * g_1(1) + u(2) * g_2(1) \dots \dots \dots \text{(eqn con.5 a)}$$

$$v(2) = u(1) * g_1(2) + u(2) * g_2(2) \dots \dots \dots \text{(eqn con5b)}$$

$$v(3) = u(1) * g_1(3) + u(2) * g_2(3) \dots \dots \dots \text{(eqn con.5 c)}$$

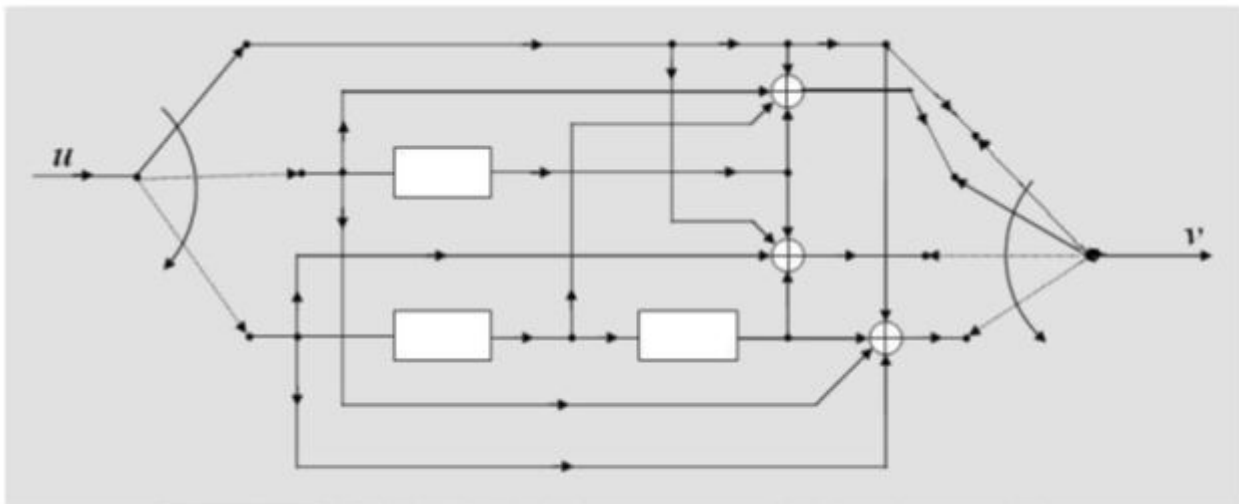
The convolution operation implies that:

$$v_i^{(1)} = u_i^{(1)} + u_{i-1}^{(1)} + u_{i-1}^{(2)} \quad v_i^{(2)} = u_i^{(1)} + u_i^{(2)} + u_{i-1}^{(2)} \quad v_i^{(3)} = u_i^{(1)}$$

as can be seen from the encoding circuit.

After multiplexing, the code word is given by:

$$v = \{v_1^{(1)}v_1^{(2)}v_1^{(3)}, v_2^{(1)}v_2^{(2)}v_2^{(3)}, v_3^{(1)}v_3^{(2)}v_3^{(3)} \dots \}$$



A (4, 3, 2) binary convolutional encoder

Fig con 5

Since each information bit remains in the encoder up to $(m + 1)$ time units and during each time unit it can affect any of the n -encoder outputs (which depends on the shift register connections) it follows that "the maximum number of encoder outputs that can be affected by a single information bit" is

$$n_A \triangleq n(m + 1) \quad (\text{eqn con8})$$

„ n_A “ is called the 'constraint length' of the code output is usually denoted as K . For the encoders of Fig con.3, con.4 and con.5 have values of $K = 4, 2$ and 3 respectively. The encoder in Fig con.3 will be accordingly labeled as a „rate $1/2, K = 4$ “ convolutional encoder. The term K also signifies the number of branch words in the encoder's impulse response.

$$\frac{k/n - kL/n(L + m)}{k/n} = \frac{m}{L + m}$$

and is called "fractional rate loss". Therefore, in order to keep the fractional rate loss at a minimum (near zero), „ L “ is always assumed to be much larger than „ m “. For the information 'sequence of Example we have $L = 5, m = 3$ and fractional rate loss = $3/8 = 37.5\%$. If L is made 1000, the fractional rate loss is only $3/1003 \approx 0.3\%$.

Encoding of Convolutional Codes; Transform Domain Approach:

In any linear system, we know that the time domain operation involving the convolution integral can be replaced by the more convenient transform domain operation, involving polynomial multiplication. Since a convolutional encoder can be viewed as a 'linear time invariant finite state machine, we may simplify computation of the adder outputs by applying appropriate transformation.

As is done in cyclic codes, each 'sequence in the encoding equations can' be replaced by a corresponding polynomial and the convolution operation replaced by polynomial multiplication. For example, for a $(2, 1, m)$ code, the encoding equations become:

$v^{(2)}(X) = v_1^{(2)} + v_2^{(2)}X + v_3^{(2)}X^2 + \dots$ are the encoded polynomials.

$g^{(1)}(X) = g_1^{(1)} + g_2^{(1)}X + g_3^{(1)}X^2 + \dots$, and $g^{(2)}(X) = g_1^{(2)} + g_2^{(2)}X + g_3^{(2)}X^2 + \dots$

are the "generator polynomials" of the code; and all operations are modulo-2. After multiplexing, the code word becomes:

$$v(X) = v^{(1)}(X^2) + X v^{(2)}(X^2)$$

The indeterminate 'X' can be regarded as a "unit-delay operator", the power of X defining the number of time units by which the associated bit is delayed with respect to the initial bit in this sequence.

Example:

For the $(2, 1, 3)$ encoder of Fig con.3, the impulse responses were: $g^{(1)} = (1, 0, 1, 1)$, and $g^{(2)} = (1, 1, 1, 1)$

The generator polynomials are: $g^{(1)}(X) = 1 + X^2 + X^3$, and $g^{(2)}(X) = 1 + X + X^2 + X^3$

For the information sequence $u = (1, 0, 1, 1, 1)$; the information polynomial is:

$$u(X) = 1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^4$$

The two code polynomials are then:

$$v^{(1)}(X) = u(X) g^{(1)}(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^4) (1 + X^2 + X^3) = 1 + X^7$$

$$v^{(2)}(X) = u(X) g^{(2)}(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^4) (1 + X + X^2 + X^3) = 1 + X + X^3 + X^4 + X^5 + X^7$$

From the polynomials so obtained we can immediately write:

$$\mathbf{v}^{(1)} = (1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1), \text{ and } \mathbf{v}^{(2)} = (1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1)$$

Pairing the components we then get the code word $\mathbf{v} = (11, 01, 00, 01, 01, 01, 00, 11)$.

We may use the multiplexing technique of the last code word equation and write:

$$\mathbf{v}^{(1)}(X^2) = 1 + X^{14}$$

$$\text{and } \mathbf{v}^{(2)}(X^2) = 1 + X^2 + X^6 + X^8 + X^{10} + X^{14}; \quad X\mathbf{v}^{(2)}(X^2) = X + X^3 + X^7 + X^9 + X^{11} + X^{15};$$

$$\text{and the code polynomial is: } \mathbf{v}(X) = \mathbf{v}^{(1)}(X^2) + X\mathbf{v}^{(2)}(X^2) = 1 + X + X^3 + X^7 + X^9 + X^{11} + X^{14} + X^{15}$$

Hence the code word is: $\mathbf{v} = (1\ 1, 0\ 1, 0\ 0, 0\ 1, 0\ 1, 0\ 1, 0\ 0, 1\ 1)$; this is exactly the same as obtained earlier.

Shannon – Fano Binary Encoding Method:

Shannon – Fano procedure is the simplest available. Code obtained will be optimum if and only if $p_k = r^{-k}$. The procedure is as follows:

1. List the source symbols in the order of decreasing probabilities.
2. Partition this ensemble into almost two equi- probable groups.
Assign a „0“ to one group and a „1“ to the other group. These form the starting code symbols of the codes.
3. Repeat steps **2** and **3** on each of the subgroups until the subgroups contain only one source symbol, to determine the succeeding code symbols of the code words.
4. For convenience, a code tree may be constructed and codes read off directly.

Example

Consider the message ensemble $\mathbf{S} = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5, s_6, s_7, s_8\}$ with

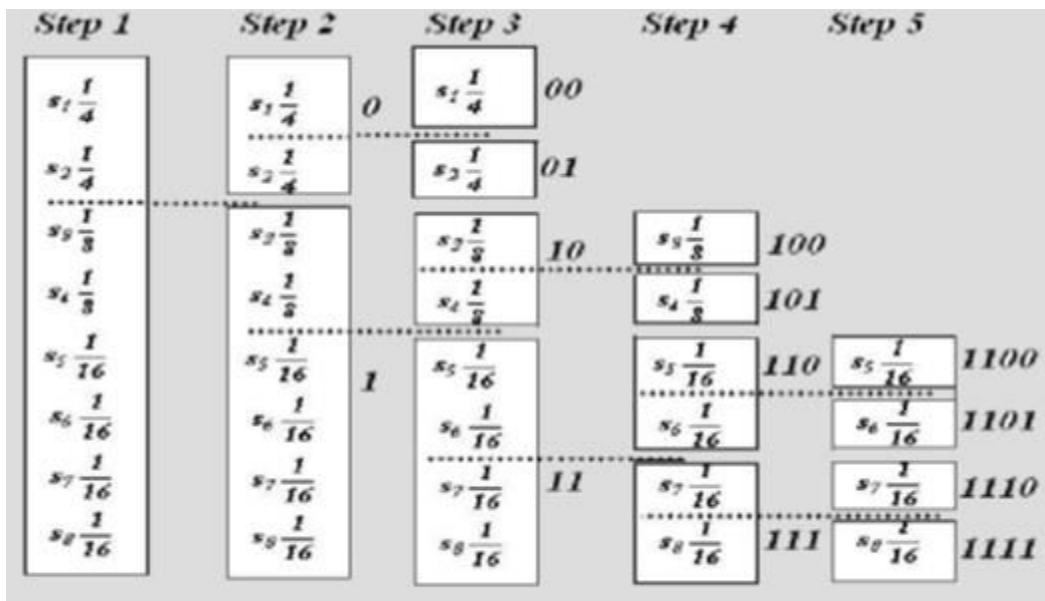
$$P = \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{16} \quad X = \{0, 1\}$$

The procedure is clearly indicated in the Box diagram shown below. The Tree diagram for the steps followed is also shown in Fig below. The codes obtained are also clearly shown. For this example,

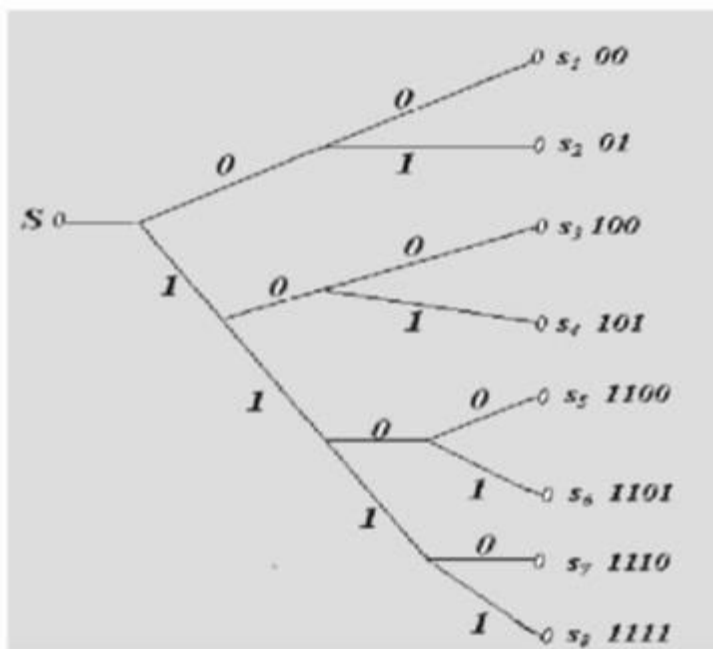
$$L = 2 \times \frac{1}{4} + 2 \times \frac{1}{4} + 3 \times \frac{1}{8} + 3 \times \frac{1}{8} + 4 \times \frac{1}{16} + 4 \times \frac{1}{16} + 4 \times \frac{1}{16} + 4 \times \frac{1}{16} = 2.75 \text{ bits / symbol}$$

$$H(S) = 2 \times \frac{1}{4} \log 4 + 2 \times \frac{1}{8} \log 8 + 4 \times \frac{1}{16} \log 16 = 2.75 \text{ bits/symbol.}$$

$$\text{And as } \log r = \log 2 = 1, \text{ we have } \eta_c = \frac{H(S)}{L \log r} = 100\% \text{ and } E_c = 0\%$$



Box Diagram.



Tree diagram.

Incidentally, notice from tree diagram that the **codes originate from the same source and diverge into different tree branches** and hence it is clear that no complete code can be a prefix of any other code word.

Thus the Shannon- Fano algorithm provides us a means for constructing optimum, instantaneous codes.

In making the partitions, remember that the symbol with highest probability should be made to correspond to a code with shortest word length. Consider the binary encoding of the following

message ensemble.

Example:

$$S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5, s_6, s_7, s_8\}$$

$$P = \{0.4, 0.2, 0.12, 0.08, 0.08, 0.08, 0.04\}$$

Method - I

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	l_k	$p_k l_k$
$s_1 0.4$	$s_1 0.4$ 0	$s_1 0.4$ 00	2	0.8
$s_2 0.2$	$s_2 0.2$ 0	$s_2 0.2$ 01	2	0.4
$s_3 0.12$		$s_3 0.12$ 10	$s_3 0.12$ 100	3	0.36
$s_4 0.08$	$s_3 0.12$ 1	$s_4 0.08$ 10	$s_4 0.08$ 101	3	0.24
$s_5 0.08$	$s_4 0.08$ 1	$s_5 0.08$ 11	$s_5 0.08$ 110	3	0.24
$s_6 0.08$	$s_5 0.08$ 1	$s_6 0.08$ 11	$s_6 0.08$ 111	$s_6 0.08$ 1110	4	0.32
$s_7 0.04$	$s_6 0.08$ 1	$s_7 0.04$ 11	$s_7 0.04$ 111	$s_7 0.04$ 1111	4	0.16
<hr/>						$L=2.52$ bits/sym.

Partition diagram for Method-I

Method – II

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	l_k	$p_k l_k$
$s_1 0.4$	$s_1 0.4$ 0	$s_1 0.4$ 0	1	0.4
$s_2 0.2$		$s_2 0.2$ 10	$s_2 0.2$ 100	3	0.6
$s_3 0.12$	$s_2 0.2$ 1	$s_3 0.12$ 10	$s_3 0.12$ 101	3	0.36
$s_4 0.08$	$s_3 0.12$ 1		$s_4 0.08$ 110	$s_4 0.08$ 1100	4	0.32
$s_5 0.08$	$s_4 0.08$ 1	$s_5 0.08$ 11	$s_5 0.08$ 110	$s_5 0.08$ 1101	4	0.32
$s_6 0.08$	$s_5 0.08$ 1	$s_6 0.08$ 11	$s_6 0.08$ 111	$s_6 0.08$ 1110	4	0.32
$s_7 0.04$	$s_6 0.08$ 1	$s_7 0.04$ 11	$s_7 0.04$ 111	$s_7 0.04$ 1111	4	0.16
<hr/>						$L=2.48$ bits / sym.

Partition diagram for Method-II

For the partitions adopted, we find $L=2.52$ bits / sym. for the **Method – I**
 $L=2.48$ bits/sym for the **Method – II**

For this example, $H(S) = 2.420504$ bits/sym and

For the first method, $\eta c_1 = 96.052\%$

For the second method, $\eta c_2 = 97.6$

This example clearly illustrates the logical reasoning required while making partitions. The Shannon – Fano algorithm just says that the message ensemble should be partitioned into two almost equi-probable groups. While making such partitions care should be taken to make sure that the symbol with highest probability of occurrence will get a code word of minimum possible length. In the example illustrated, notice that even though both methods are dividing the message ensemble into two almost equi-probable groups, the Method – II assigns a code word of smallest possible length to the symbol s_1 .

Compact code: Huffman's Minimum Redundancy code:

for an optimum coding we require:

- 1) Longer code word should correspond to a message with lowest probability.
- 1) Longer code word should correspond to a message with lowest probability.
- 2) $l_k \geq l_{k-1} \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, q-r+1$
- 3) $l_{p-r} = l_{q-r-1} = l_{q-r-2} = \dots = l_1$ (4) The codes must satisfy the prefix property.

Huffman has suggested a simple method that guarantees an optimal code. The procedure consists of step-by-step reduction of the original source followed by a code construction, starting with the final reduced source and working backwards to the original source. The procedure requires α steps, where

$$q = r + \alpha (r-1)$$

The procedure is as follows:

1. List the source symbols in the decreasing order of probabilities.
2. Check if $q = r + \alpha(r-1)$ is satisfied and find the integer „ α “. Otherwise add suitable number of dummy symbols of zero probability of occurrence to satisfy the equation. **This step is not required if we are to determine binary codes.**
3. Club the last r symbols into a single composite symbol whose probability of occurrence is equal to the sum of the probabilities of occurrence of the last r – symbols involved in the step.
4. Repeat steps 1 and 3 respectively on the resulting set of symbols until in the final step exactly r - symbols are left.
5. Assign codes freely to the last r -composite symbols and work backwards to the original source to arrive at the optimum code.
6. Alternatively, following the steps carefully a tree diagram can be constructed starting from the final step and codes read off directly.
7. Discard the codes of the dummy symbols.

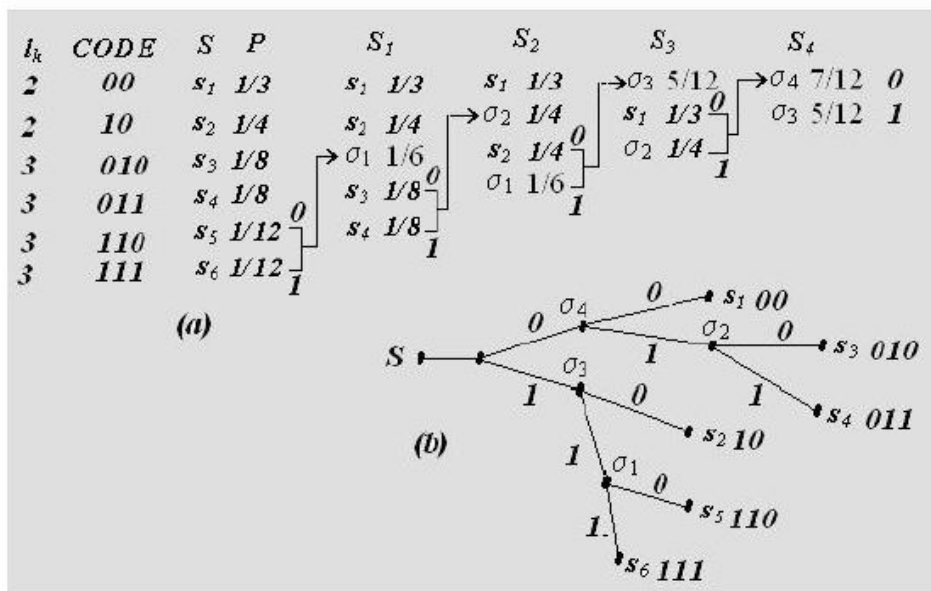
Example 6.12: (Binary Encoding)

$S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5, s_6\}, X = \{0, 1\};$

1	1	1	1	1	1	1
P	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	4	8	8	12	12	

there can be as many as $2 \cdot (2 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 2) = 16$ possible instantaneous code patterns. For example we can take the compliments of First column, Second column, or Third column and combinations there of as illustrated below.

Code	I	II	III
s_1 00	1 0	1 1	1 1
s_2 1 0	0 0	0 1	0 1
s_3 0 1 0	1 1 0	1 0 0	1 0 1
s_4 0 1 1	1 1 1	1 0 1	1 0 0
s_5 1 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 0	0 0 1
s_6 1 1 1	0 1 1	0 0 1	0 0 0



Code I is obtained by taking complement of the first column of the original code. **Code II** is obtained by taking complements of second column of **Code I**. **Code III** is obtained by taking complements of third column

Code II. However, notice that, l_k , the word length of the code word for s_k is a constant for all possible codes.

For the binary code generated, we have:

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^6 p_k l_k = \frac{1}{3} \times 2 + \frac{1}{4} \times 2 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 + \frac{1}{8} \times 3 + \frac{1}{12} \times 3 + \frac{1}{12} \times 3 = \frac{29}{12} \text{ bits/sym} = 2.4167 \text{ bits/sym}$$

$$H(S) = \frac{1}{3} \log 3 + \frac{1}{4} \log 4 + 2 \times \frac{1}{8} \log 8 + 2 \times \frac{1}{12} \log 12$$

$$= \frac{1}{12} (6 \log 3 + 19) \text{ bits/sym} = 2.3758 \text{ bits/sym}$$

$$\therefore \eta_c = \frac{6 \log 3 + 19}{29} = 98.31\%; E_c = 1.69\%$$