

# Convolutional Codes

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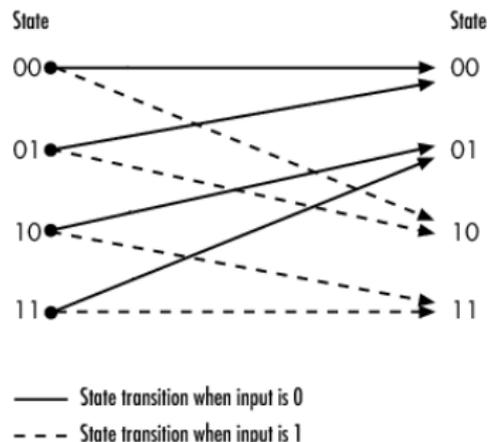
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- Two categories:
  - 1 Binary symbols, linear encoders  $\rightarrow$  Convolutional codes
  - 2 General set of symbols and encoders  $\rightarrow$  Trellis-coded modulation
- The trellis will be assumed to have a periodic structure, meaning that the Viterbi decoding algorithm operations will be the same for every state transition interval.
- To construct such a trellis, we can use a memory- $\nu$  binary shift register whose contents at any given time define the state of the trellis.
- Obviously, the number of states is  $2^\nu$

# Trellis example

- For  $\nu = 2$  we have  $2^2 = 4$  states: 00, 01, 10 and 11.
- From state  $yz$  we can only move to  $xy$ , where  $x$  denotes the input symbol.



A section of the trellis generated by the above shift register.

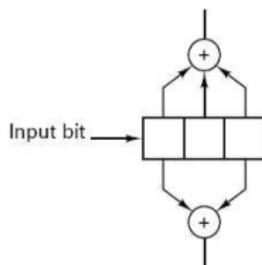
# *Convolutional codes*

# A first look at convolutional codes

- A convolutional code linearly combines the contents of the shift register to create an output.
- Such a code is said to have memory  $\nu$ .
- If for every input bit the code creates  $n_0$  output bits, the code has a rate of  $1/n_0$ .
- The branches of the corresponding trellis are labeled with the output symbols generated by the state transitions they represent.

# Convolutional code example (1/2)

- Consider the following encoder:



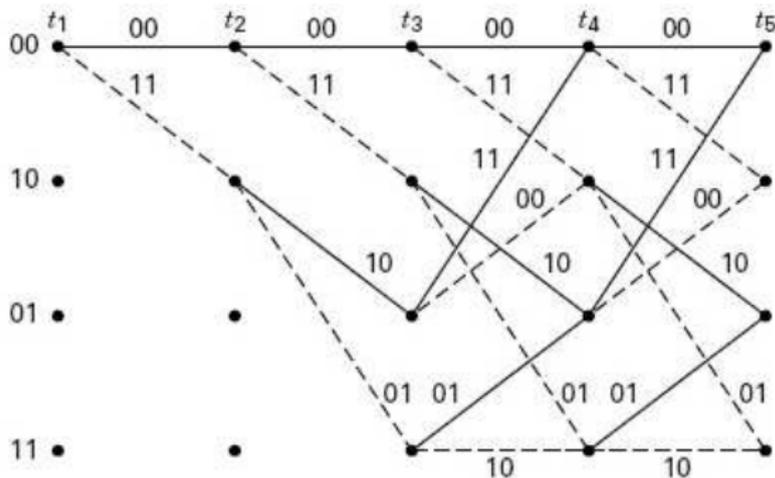
- For each input bit, we have two output bits, so the rate of the encoder is  $1/2$ .
- The output bits are:

$$c_1 = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$$

$$c_2 = x_1 + x_3$$

# Convolutional code example (2/2)

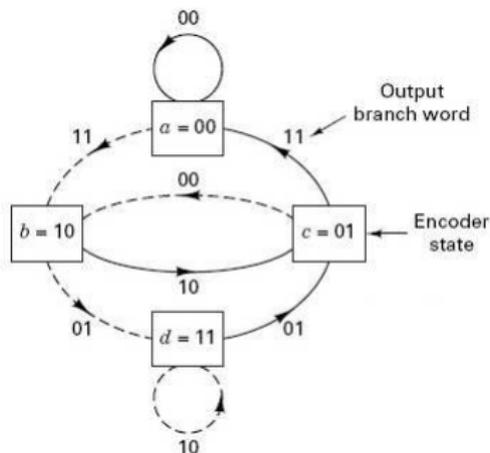
- Conventionally, the initial state is chosen as the all-zero state.



The trellis representing the above code.

# State diagram

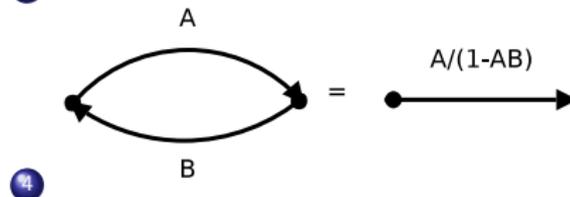
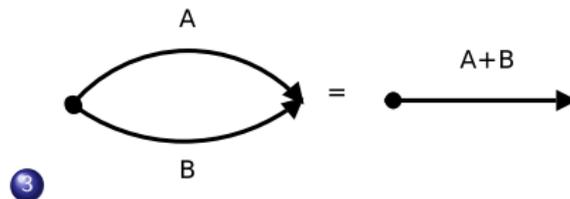
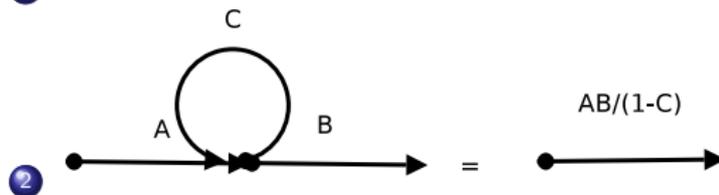
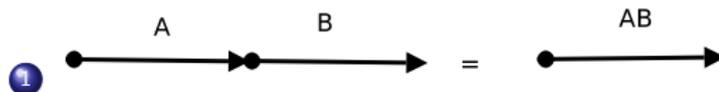
- Another representation of a convolutional code is its state diagram.
- A state diagram describes the transitions between states and the corresponding output symbols without an explicit time axis.



The state diagram representing the above code.

# Graph reduction rules

- We can gradually reduce a graph to a straight line to find its transfer function, using the following rules:



# Rate $k_0/n_0$ convolutional codes

- Having only rate  $1/n_0$  codes is obviously not very practical.
- We can define rate  $k_0/n_0$  codes. These codes create  $n_0$  output bits for each  $k_0$  input bits.
- To achieve this, we need  $k_0$  shift registers and  $n_0$  binary adders.

# Theoretical foundations (1/4)

- In general, a single input, single output causal time-invariant system is characterized by its impulse response:

$$\mathbf{g} \triangleq \{g_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$$

- The output sequence  $\mathbf{x} \triangleq \{x_i\}_{i=-\infty}^{\infty}$  is related to the input sequence  $\mathbf{u} \triangleq \{u_i\}_{i=-\infty}^{\infty}$  by the convolution:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g} * \mathbf{u}$$

## Theoretical foundations (2/4)

- We can associate the sequences  $\mathbf{g}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  with their D-transforms.
- The D-transform is a function of the indeterminate  $D$  (the delay operator) and is defined as:

$$g(D) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g_i D^i$$

$$x(D) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} x_i D^i$$

$$u(D) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} u_i D^i$$

## Theoretical foundations (3/4)

- The convolution  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g} * \mathbf{u}$  can be now written as:

$$x(D) = u(D)g(D)$$

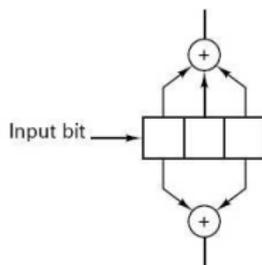
- If  $g(0) = 1$  we say that the polynomial  $g$  is *delay-free*.
- $g(D)$  may have an infinite number of terms, if for example it has the form of a ratio between polynomials:

$$g(D) = p(D)/q(D)$$

- Every rational transfer function with a delay-free  $q(D)$  can be realized in the “controller form” (i.e. with feedback).
- Each such function is called *realizable*.

# Theoretical foundations (4/4)

- We can now describe a rate  $k_0/n_0$  convolutional code through a  $k_0 \times n_0$  generator matrix  $\mathbf{G}$  which contains its  $k_0 n_0$  impulse responses.
- Recall the following encoder:



- We have 1 input and 2 outputs, so the generator matrix will have dimensions  $1 \times 2$  with:

$$g_{11} = 1 + D + D^2 \quad g_{12} = 1 + D^2$$

# Defining convolutional codes (1/2)

- We can define a rate  $k_0/n_0$  convolutional code as the set of all possible sequences one can observe at the output of a convolutional encoder.
- For a convolutional encoder to be useful, we require it to:
  - 1 be realizable
  - 2 be delay free
  - 3 have a rank  $k_0$  generator matrix

## Defining convolutional codes (2/2)

- The same convolutional code can be generated by more than one encoder.
- Let  $\mathbf{Q}(D)$  denote an invertible matrix, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}(D) &= \mathbf{u}(D)\mathbf{G}(D) \\ &= \mathbf{u}(D)\mathbf{Q}(D)\mathbf{Q}^{-1}(D)\mathbf{G}(D) \\ &= \mathbf{u}'(D)\mathbf{G}'(D)\end{aligned}$$

- All encoders generating the same code are called *equivalent*.
- We look for useful properties, e.g. minimum number of memory elements for a minimum complexity Viterbi decoder.

# Systematic encoders (1/2)

- Consider an encoder with the following transfer function:

$$\mathbf{G}(D) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & D^2 & D \\ D & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Observe that:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & D^2 & D \\ D & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & D^2 \\ D & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{D}{1+D^3} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{D^2}{1+D^3} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{Q}(D)\mathbf{G}'(D)$$

## Systematic encoders (2/2)

- $\mathbf{Q}(D)$  is full rank, so  $\mathbf{u}'(D) = \mathbf{u}(D)\mathbf{Q}(D)$  is a permutation of all possible input sequences.
- We can write:

$$\mathbf{x}(D) = \mathbf{u}(D)' \mathbf{G}'(D)$$

- Recall that:

$$\mathbf{G}'(D) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{D}{1+D^3} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{D^2}{1+D^3} \end{bmatrix}$$

- This encoder is said to be *systematic*.
- It can be shown that for each code there exists a systematic encoder.

- Let  $q(D)$  denote the least common multiple of all the denominators of the entries of the generator matrix.
- Then we have that:

$$\mathbf{G}'(D) = q(D)\mathbf{G}(D)$$

where  $\mathbf{G}'(D)$  is an encoder which is polynomial and equivalent to  $\mathbf{G}(D)$ .

- Thus, every convolutional code admits a polynomial encoder.

- It can be shown that among all equivalent encoder matrices, there exists one corresponding to the minimum number of trellis states.
- The above means that its realization in controller form requires the minimum number of memory elements.
- We have seen that every encoder can be transformed into a systematic rational one.
- It can be shown that systematic encoders are minimal.

# Punctured convolutional codes

- By puncturing we can obtain a higher rate code from one with a lower rate.
- A fraction of symbols  $\epsilon$  is punctured (i.e. not transmitted) from each encoded sequence, resulting in a code with rate  $r_0/(1 - \epsilon)$ .
- For example, if we puncture 1/4 of the output symbols of a rate 1/2 code, we will get a rate  $(1/2)/(3/4) = 2/3$  code.
- Several rates can be obtained from the same “mother code”, making it possible to create a “universal encoder/decoder”.

# *Block codes from convolutional codes*

# Block codes from convolutional codes

- In practice, a convolutional code is used to transmit a finite sequence of information bits, so its trellis must be terminated at a certain time.
- At each time  $t > 0$ , the  $n_0$  output bits of a rate  $1/n_0$  polynomial encoder are a linear combination of the contents of the shift register:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = u_t \mathbf{g}_1 + u_{t-1} \mathbf{g}_2 + \dots + u_{t-\nu} \mathbf{g}_{\nu+1}$$

- The above equation can be written in a matrix form as follows:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{G}_\infty$$

where

$$\mathbf{G}_\infty = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{g}_1 & \mathbf{g}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{g}_{\nu+1} & & & & \\ & \mathbf{g}_1 & \mathbf{g}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{g}_{\nu+1} & & & \\ & & \mathbf{g}_1 & \mathbf{g}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{g}_{\nu+1} & & \\ & & & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \end{bmatrix}$$

# Direct termination

- Consider an input sequence with finite length  $N$ .
- The first  $n_0N$  output bits can be computed as:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{G}_N$$

- The downside of this method is that the coded symbols are not equally error protected.
- This happens because for the first bits the decoder starts from a known state, thus decreasing their BER.
- The exact opposite happens for the last bits in the block, increasing their BER.

# Zero termination

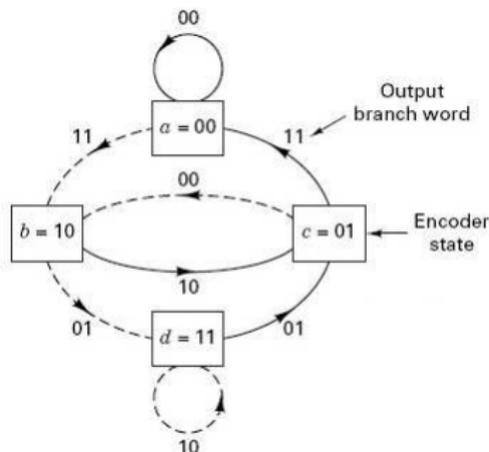
- To avoid the above problem, we can have the encoder end in a predefined state (usually the all-zero state).
- To achieve this, we have to append a deterministic sequence at the end of the input, which forces the decoder to end in the desired state.
- This sequence has length  $k_0/n_0$ , in order to fill the shift register(s).
- Obviously, we will have a decrease in rate which may be substantial for short blocks.



# *Performance evaluation*

# Performance evaluation (1/2)

- We can describe the transfer function for each transition of a graph describing a convolutional code as a function of the indeterminate  $X$  raised to the power of the Hamming weight of the corresponding output word.
- Recall the following graph:



- For example, the transfer function for the transition  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$  would be  $X^2$ .

## Performance evaluation (2/2)

- By fully reducing the graph, according to the rules we have seen, we can compute its transfer function.
- The transfer function will be a polynomial of  $X$ :

$$T(X) = \nu_\alpha X^\alpha + \nu_\beta X^\beta + \dots$$

- The minimum exponent of  $T(X)$  is called the *free distance* of the code, denoted  $d_{\text{free}}$ .
- It can be shown that the error probability for the AWGN channel for large SNR can be written as:

$$P(e) \leq \nu_{d_{\text{free}}} Q\left(\sqrt{2\rho d_{\text{free}} \frac{\mathcal{E}_b}{N_o}}\right)$$