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## INTRODUCTION

In this report, three coding schemes designed for improved data communication are evaluated. In Part A, four block codes are evaluated relative to a quality function, which is a function of both the amount of data rejected and the error rate.

Part B is an evaluation of the Viterbi Maximum Likelihood Decoding Algorithm as a decoding procedure. This evaluation is obtained by simulating the system on a digital computer.

In Part C, Short Constraint Length Rate  $1/2$  'Quick-Look' Codes are studied, and their performance is compared to general nonsystematic codes.

PART A

## PERFORMANCE OF BLOCK CODES

### I. Introduction:

Although the use of error control coding techniques in digital space communication systems has become fairly routine in recent years, there still exists a great deal of uncertainty as to the actual effectiveness of coding in achieving more reliable communication. The reason for this is to be found in the fact that the commonly used performance parameters do not take into account all the pertinent aspects of the coded transmission system. Thus, for example, the widely used Probability of Word Error criterion totally ignores the possibility that the decoder may incorporate some degree of data rejection. Likewise, the minimum distance criterion, another popular measure of code performance, is completely independent of the decoding algorithm and several other important system factors.

As a consequence of this state of affairs, it is virtually impossible to compare, say, a coding system with error correction and data rejection to one with error correction alone, using any of the existing criteria of performance, and it is therefore of value to define and evaluate measures which incorporate most, if not all, of the quantities affecting the overall system reliability. This is the objective of the present work.

### II. Definition of Performance Measure:

For the simple types of block codes normally employed in space communication systems, the complexity of the encoder and decoder is of little consequence, since the use of integrated circuit technology allows the construction of the basic components in an inexpensive fashion. Furthermore, the complexity is essentially independent of the particular code-decoder used.

The processing speed is generally a function of the type of logic used and the technology in the construction of the integrated circuits. Although one could probably obtain cost figures as a function of processing speed, the importance of these costs in the overall system considerations is difficult to assess. Also, as with complexity, processing speed is not a strong function of the code-decoder combination.

Thus, the important factors determining the overall coding system performance are:

1. The accuracy of the data after decoding,
2. The amount of data rejected by the decoder,
3. The amount of redundancy in the code, and
4. The relative importance of data accuracy, data rejection, and data transmission rate.

Let us consider a situation in which  $N$  blocks of received digits from a binary  $(n, k)$  block code are to be decoded. The decoder generally rejects  $N-X$  blocks, leaving  $X$  blocks after decoding, of which  $Y$  are correct. (See Figure 1)

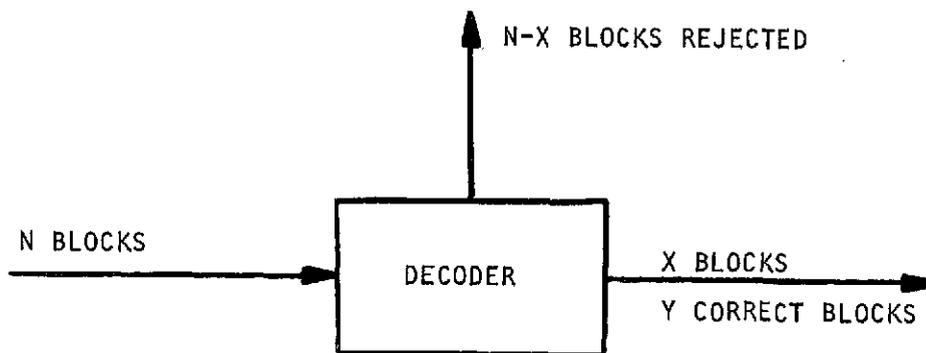


FIGURE 1. GENERAL DECODER CONFIGURATION

The amount of data passed by the decoder is measured by the quantity

$$F_1 = \frac{1}{N} E\{X\} ,$$

the accuracy of the data after decoding is measured by the quantity

$$F_2 = \frac{E\{Y\}}{E\{X\}},$$

and the amount of redundancy in the code is measured by the quantity

$$F_3 = \frac{k}{n} = \frac{\text{number of data digits per block}}{\text{total number of digits per block}},$$

Here  $E$  is the usual expectation operator.

We also define a quantity  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$  which measures the relative importance of data accuracy and data rejection.

As an overall measure of performance of the code-decoder combination, we then take quantity

$$F = 1 - F_1^\alpha F_2^{(1-\alpha)}$$

as a function of the energy per information bit-to-noise ratio,  $E_b/N_0$ .

When the  $N$  blocks are transmitted independently of each other and are treated as such by the decoder,  $1 - F$  reduces to the probability of word rejection. For a decoder with no data rejection,  $F_2$  becomes the probability of correct decoding. Thus, in the two limiting cases  $\alpha = 0$  and  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $F$  reduces to the probability of word error and word rejection, respectively.

### III. Evaluation of $F$ for Hamming Type Block Codes Over the Binary Symmetric Channel:

We assume that  $N$  blocks are transmitted independently and with equal probability over a binary symmetric channel whose digit error probability is  $p = 1-q$ . The codes of interest are of two types: The standard  $(n, k)$  Hamming code described by the parity check matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 \\ \cdot & & & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & & & \cdot \\ 0 & 1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

whose columns are all  $2^m - 1$  nonzero binary  $m$ -tuples ( $m$  any integer greater than 2), and a modified Hamming code whose parity check matrix differs from the above only in having an additional row of ones on top. The first code has block length  $n = 2^m - 1$ ,  $k = n - m$  information digits and minimum distance 3 and is thus able to correct all single errors. The second code has the same block length,  $k = n - m - 1$  and minimum distance 4 and can be decoded in either a single-error-correcting, double-error-detecting mode or a triple-error-detecting mode.

For both codes, the first step in decoding a received block  $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  consists of determining its syndrome. This is a binary  $(n-k)$ -tuple given by

$$s = vH^T$$

where  $T$  denotes matrix transposition and the multiplication and addition operations are modulo 2.

We now consider four cases, including, for purposes of comparison, the uncoded transmission of data blocks of length  $n$ .

#### Case 1. No Coding - $(n, n)$ Code

Decoding Rule: Pass every block unchanged

Evidently,  $X = E\{X\} = N$  and since a block is correct at the decoder output if and only if it is correct at the input, we

$$\text{have } E\{Y\} = N_q^n$$

Hence  $F_1 = 1$ ;  $F_2 = q^n$

and

$$F = 1 - q^{n(1-\alpha)}$$

Since  $F_3 = 1$ , the relation between the channel error probability  $p$  and  $E_b/N_0$  is  $p = \frac{1}{2} - \text{erf} \sqrt{2 E_b/N_0}$

### Case 2. Single-Error-Correcting Hamming Code

Decoding Rule: If the syndrome is zero, pass the block. If the syndrome is not equal to zero, assume a single error has occurred, correct it, and then pass the block.

Again,  $E\{X\} = N$ . For  $E\{Y\}$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} E\{Y\} &= N\{\text{Probability that a block has no error or a} \\ &\quad \text{single error before decoding}\} \\ &= N\{q^n + nq^{n-1} p\} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $F_3 = \frac{k}{n}$ ,  $F_1 = 1$ ,  $F_2 = q^n + nq^{n-1} p$

and

$$F = 1 - (q^n + npq^{n-1})$$

where  $p = \frac{1}{2} - \text{erf} \sqrt{2k/n E_b/N_0}$

### Case 3. Single-Error-Correcting, Double-Error-Detecting Hamming Code

Decoding Rule: If the syndrome is zero, pass the block. If the first digit and at least one of the remaining digits in the syndrome are one, assume a single error has occurred, correct it, and then pass the block. For all other syndromes, reject the block.

We have  $F_3 = \frac{k-1}{n}$ ,

$$F_1 = \frac{E\{X\}}{N} = \{\text{Probability that a block has zero syndrome or the first and at least one of the remaining digits equal one}\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \{A_{2i} q^{n-2i} p^{2i} + [(2i^n + 1) - A_{2i+1}] q^{n-2i+1} p^{2i+1}\}$$

where  $A_j$  is the number of codewords of weight  $j$  of the Single-Error-Correcting Hamming Code,

and for  $F_2$  we obtain

$$F_2 = \frac{E\{Y\}}{E\{X\}} = \frac{1}{F_1} \{\text{Probability that a received block is correct or has a single error}\}$$

#### Case 4. Triple-Error-Detecting Hamming Code

Decoding Rule: If the syndrome is zero, pass the block. Otherwise, reject the block.

$$\text{Here, } F_3 = \frac{k-1}{n} ,$$

$$F_1 = \frac{E\{X\}}{N} = \{\text{Probability that a block has zero syndrome}\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{n-1}{2}} A_{2i} q^{n-2i} p^{2i} ,$$

and

$$F_2 = \frac{E\{Y\}}{E\{X\}} = \frac{q^n}{F_1}$$

The Hamming code weight spectra required for Cases 3 and 4 may be obtained as the coefficients of the polynomial.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{n+1} \left\{ (1+x)^n + n(1+x)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} (1-x)^{\frac{n+1}{2}} \right\}$$

where  $A_i$  is the coefficient of  $x^i$ .

#### IV. Evaluating the Performance Criterion:

A Fortran language program, reproduced in Appendix A, was written to evaluate the function  $F$  for the four cases described above. The program calculates  $F$  for 101 equally spaced values of  $E_b/N_0$  ranging from 2 db to 10 db and all values of redundancy from  $m = 3$  to  $m = 10$ .

A major part of the program is devoted to calculating the coefficients of the function

$$f(X) = \frac{1}{n+1} \left\{ (1+X)^n + n(1+X)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} (1-X)^{\frac{n+1}{2}} \right\}$$

which are used in Cases 3 and 4. The main difficulty in this computation is that some of them have magnitudes on the order of  $10^{300}$  for large values of  $n$ . Overflow on the IBM 370 occurs with numbers as small as  $10^{77}$ . To overcome this problem, most calculations are done using logarithms. Thus, for example, the logarithms of the coefficients of  $(1+X)^n$  are stored in an array called LGCOEF. Similarly, the components of  $(1+X)^{n-1/2}$  and  $(1+X)^{n+1/2}$  are stored in LCNM1 and LCNP1, respectively. Note that LCNP1 contains the logarithms of the coefficients of  $(1+X)^{n+1/2}$  and not  $(1-X)^{n+1/2}$ , since the latter has negative coefficients whose logarithms do not exist. The variable SIGN, which always equals  $\pm 1$ , is used to convert the coefficients of  $(1+X)^{n-1/2}$  to the coefficients of  $(1-X)^{n+1/2}$  when making calculations of  $f(X)$ .

A special procedure is used throughout the program to achieve addition of these very large numbers. Obviously this addition cannot be achieved directly using logarithms. To illustrate this procedure consider adding the numbers  $A = 7.3147 \times 10^{298}$  and  $B = 2.1532 \times 10^{295}$  given the logarithms of these numbers.

$$\text{ALOG} = \log(A) = 298.864196 = 3.864196 + 295.$$

$$\text{BLOG} = \log(B) = 295.333084 = 0.333084 + 295.$$

Let  $Z = X+Y$  and  $Z\text{LOG} = \log(Z)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} Z\text{LOG} &= \log(10^{3.864196} + 10^{0.333084}) + 295 \\ &= \log(7314.7 + 2.1532) + 295 \\ &= \log(7316.8532) + 295 \\ &= 3.864324 + 295 \\ &= 298.864324 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the log of the sum has been calculated using numbers no bigger than 7316.8532. Since the calculations on the IBM 370 have only 16 significant figures, numbers whose magnitudes differ by more than  $10^{16}$  are not added by the above method. In this case the sum is set equal to the larger of the two numbers.

The coefficients of  $f(X)$  are calculated using the aforementioned techniques and stored in an array called RIGHT. The variable RINOM is set equal to the logs of certain binomial coefficients, and it is used in calculating terms of F1CAS3 ( $F_1$  for Case 3; i.e.,  $F_1$  for SEC-DED) of the form

$$\binom{n}{i} - A_i) q^{n-i} p^i.$$

These terms are stored in COEFC3.

In order to calculate the parameters for each case for any particular value of S/N, values for  $q$  and  $p$ , which are dependent on the code rate, must be evaluated. The dependence on code rate requires calculations of  $Q_1$  and  $P_1$ ,  $Q_2$  and  $P_2$ , and  $Q_3$  and  $P_3$  for use with Cases 1, 2, and 3 and 4 respectively. Since Case 4 has the same code rate as Case 3,  $Q_3$  and  $P_3$  are applicable to both.

#### IV. Numerical Results and Conclusions:

In Figures 2-49, we have plotted the performance measure  $F$  as a function of the signal-to-noise ratio  $E_b/N_o$  of the binary symmetric channel in db, for

$N=7$     $\alpha=0.0$

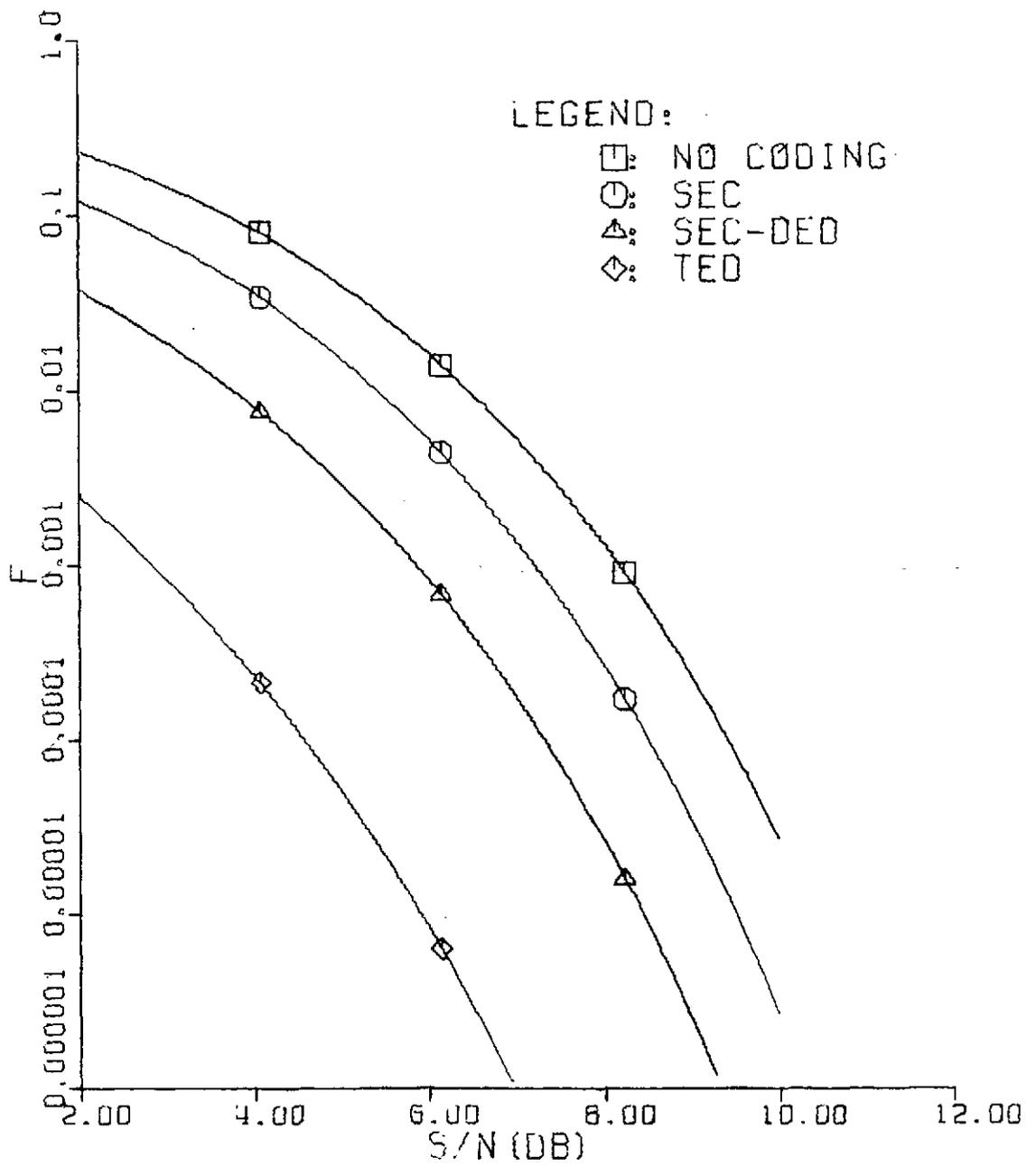


FIGURE 2

$N=7$     $\alpha=0.1$

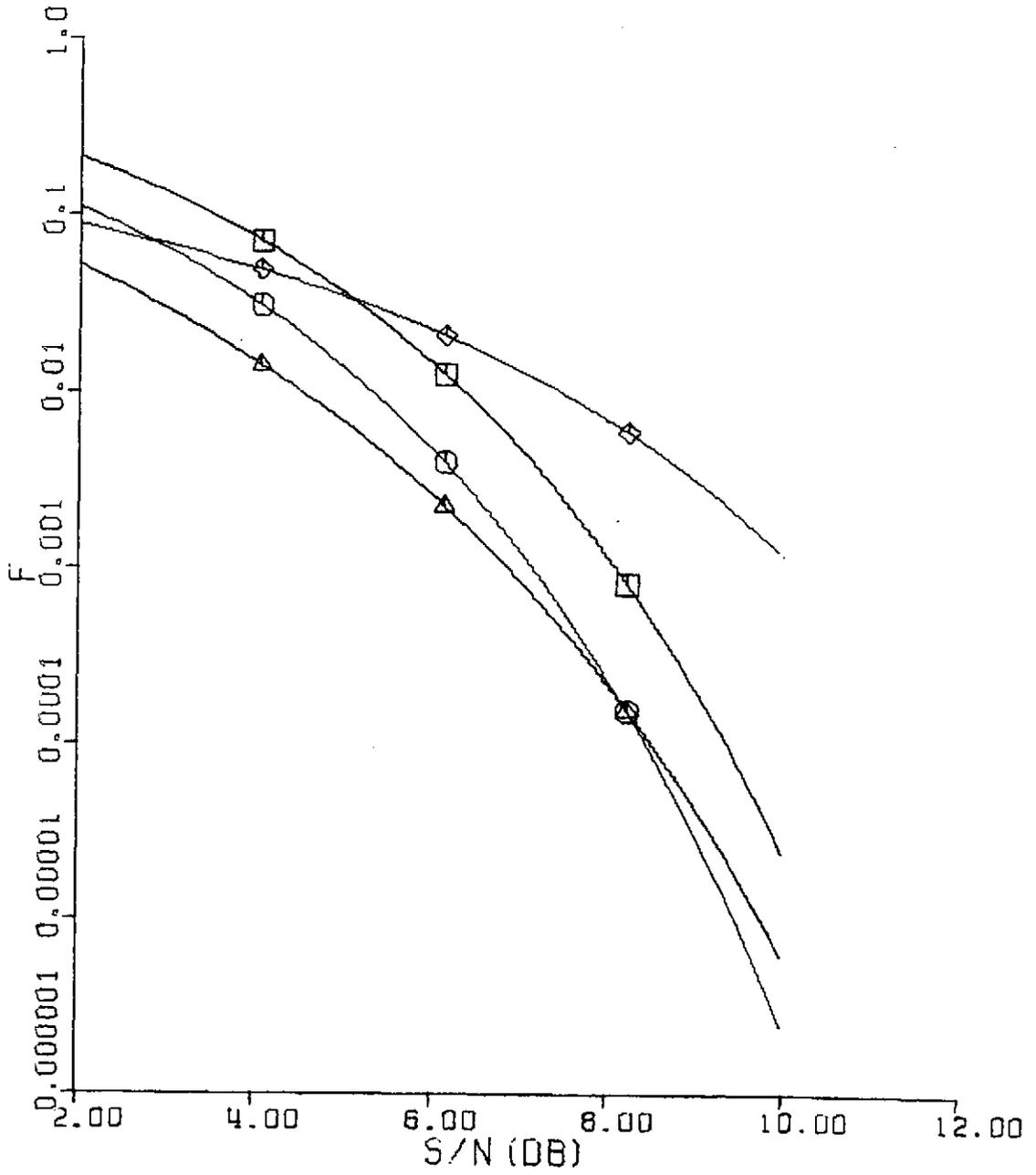


FIGURE 3

$N=7$     $\alpha=0.3$

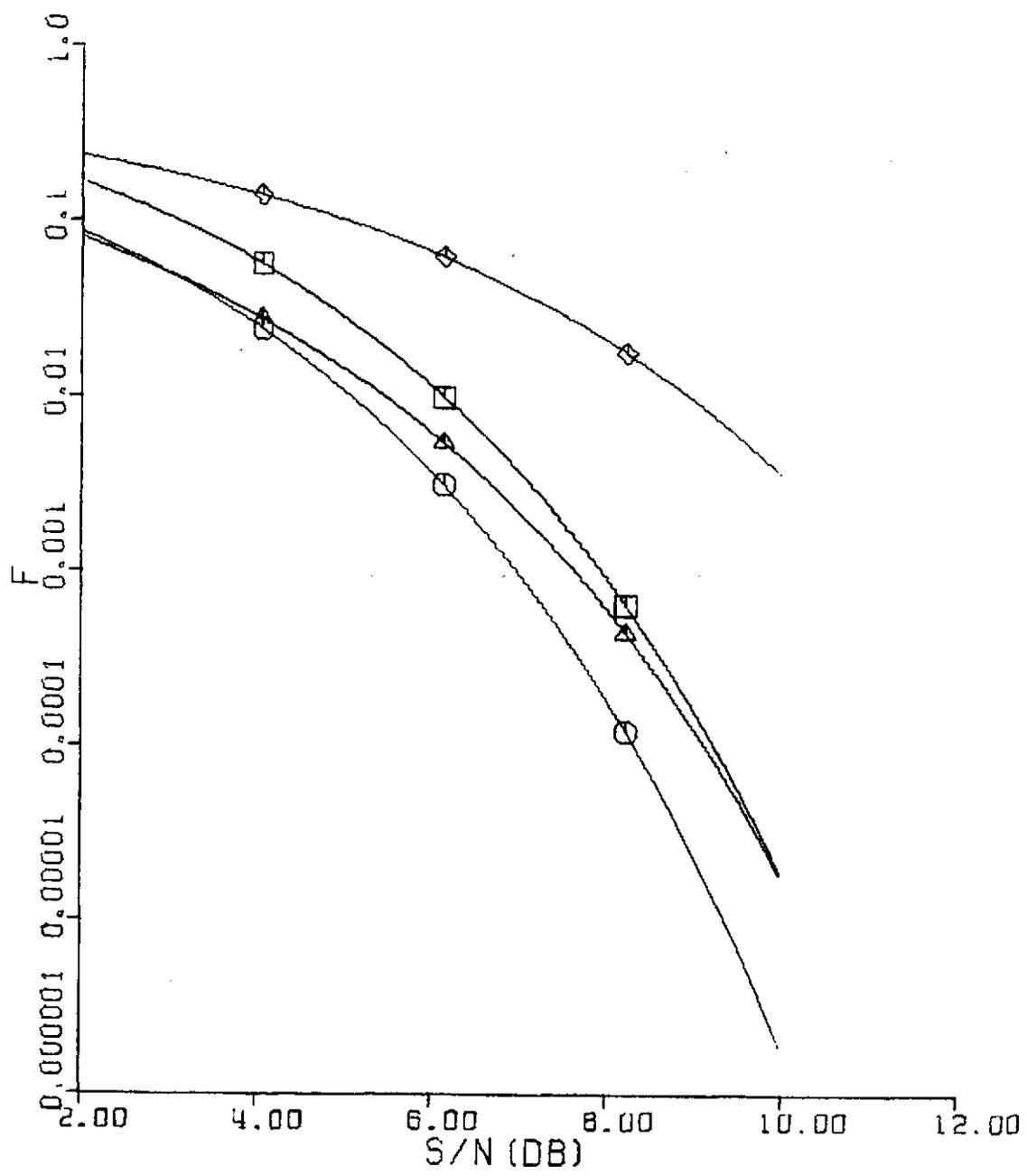


FIGURE 4

$N=7$   $\alpha=0.5$

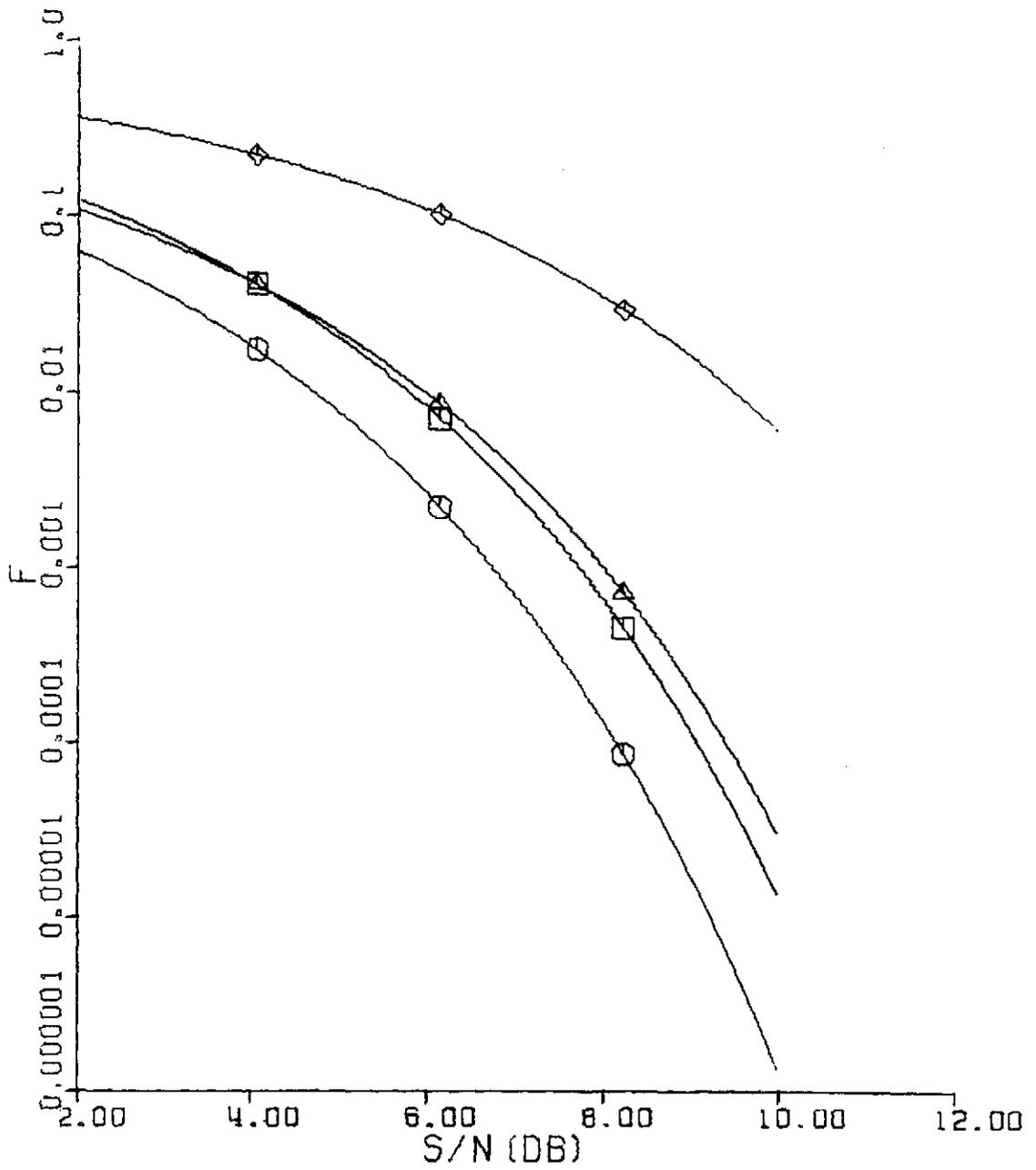


FIGURE 5

$N=7$     $\alpha=0.8$

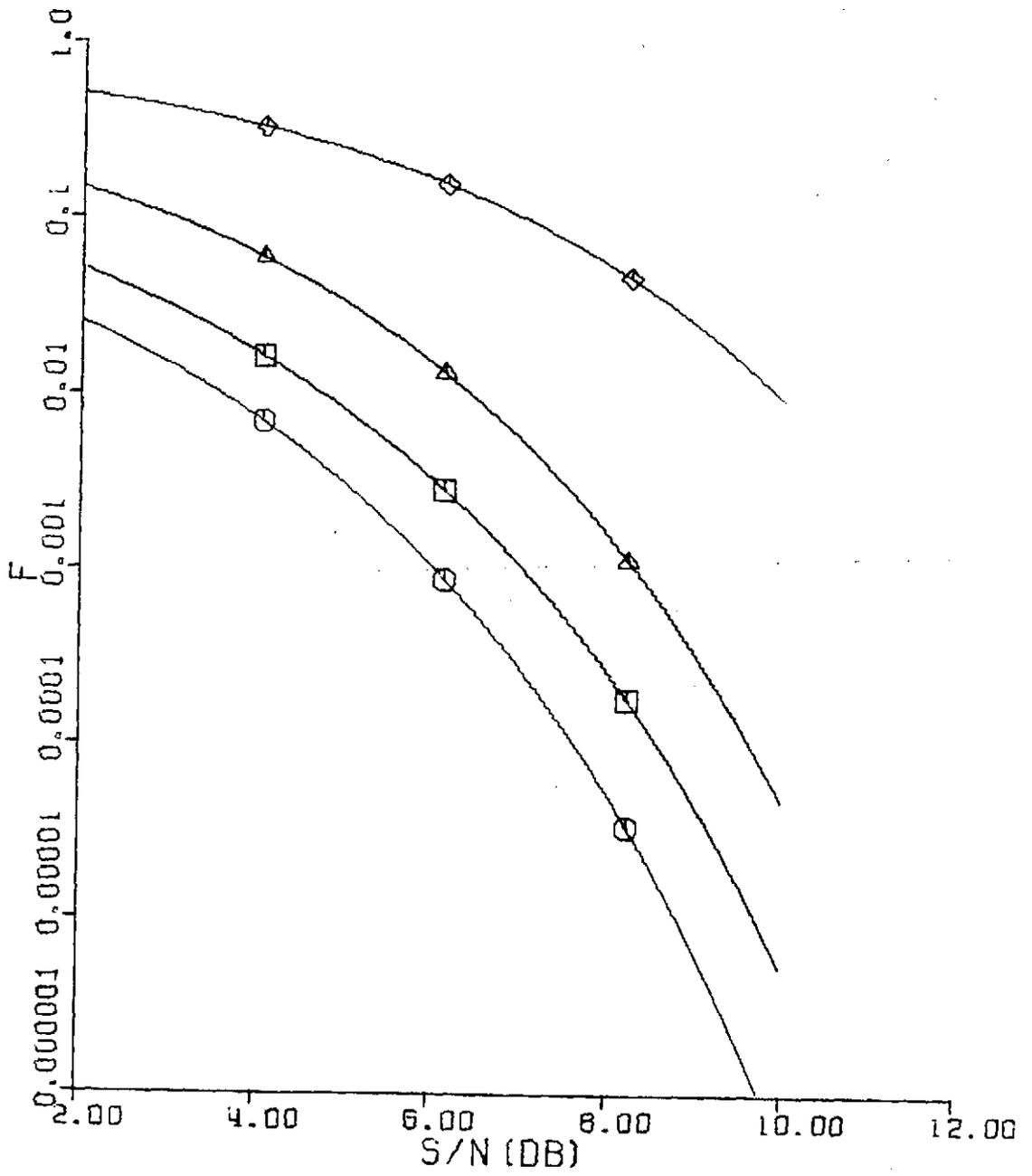


FIGURE 6

$N=7$     $\alpha=1.0$

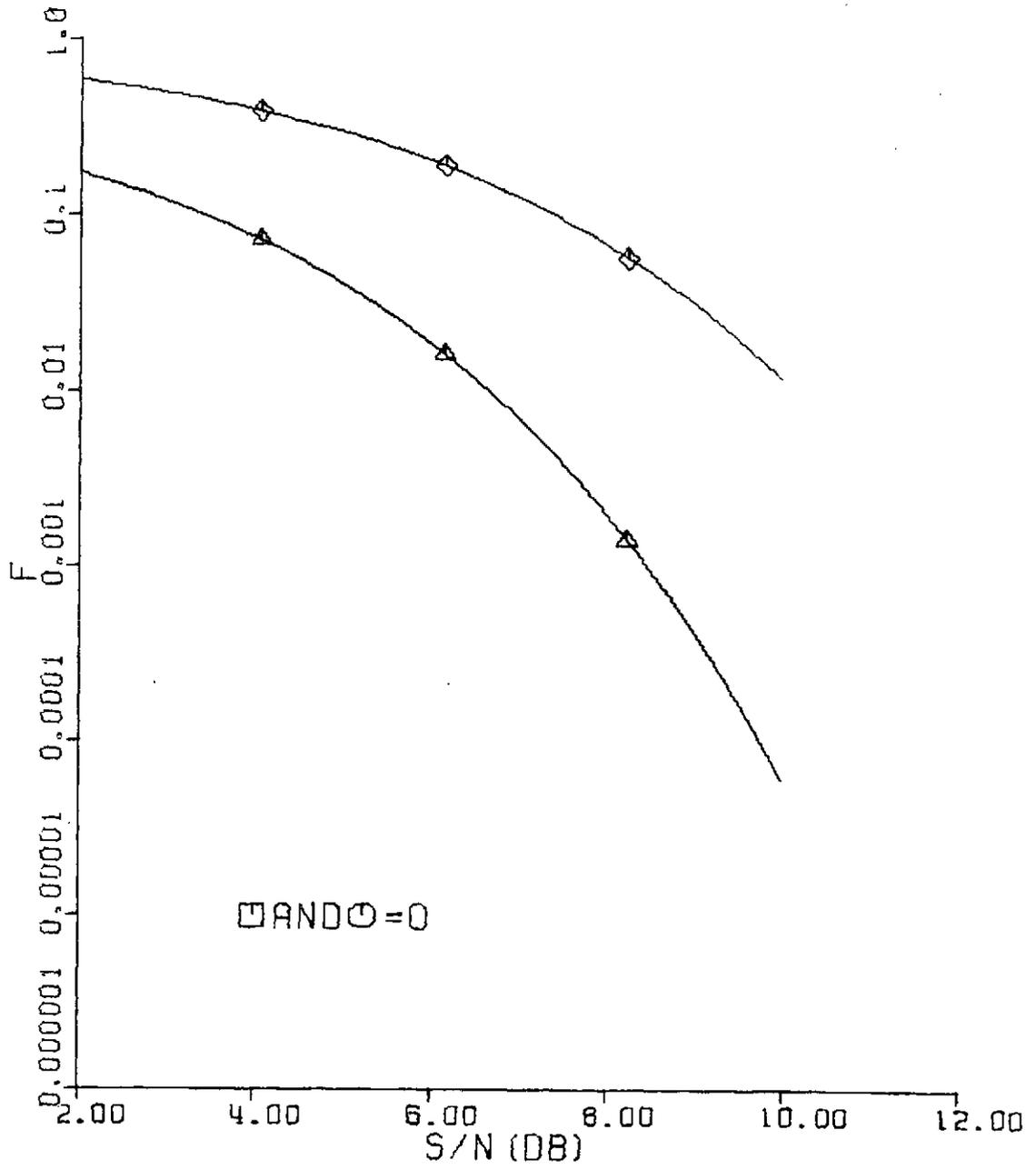


FIGURE 7

$N=15$     $\alpha=0.0$

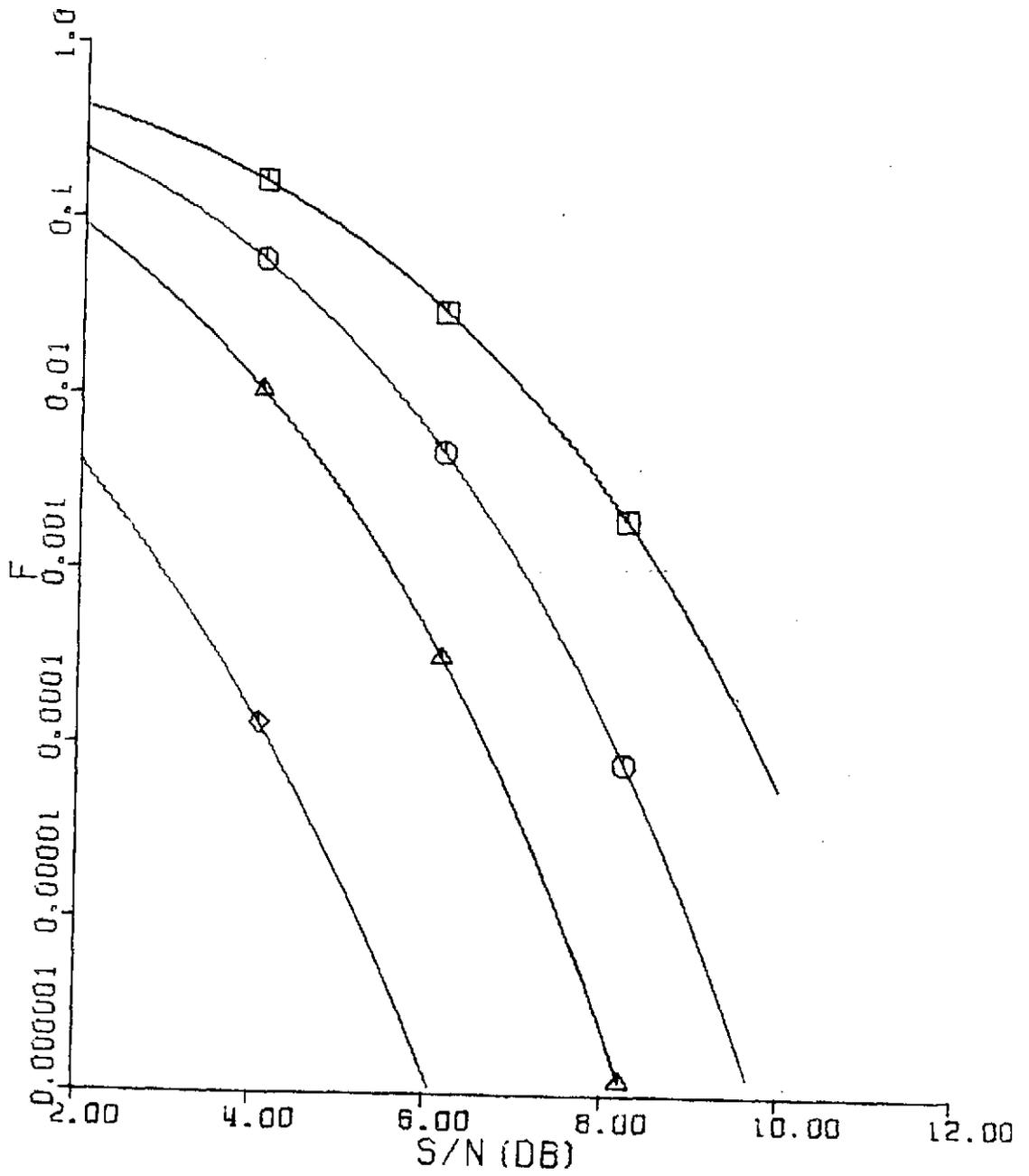


FIGURE 8

$N=15$     $\alpha=0.1$

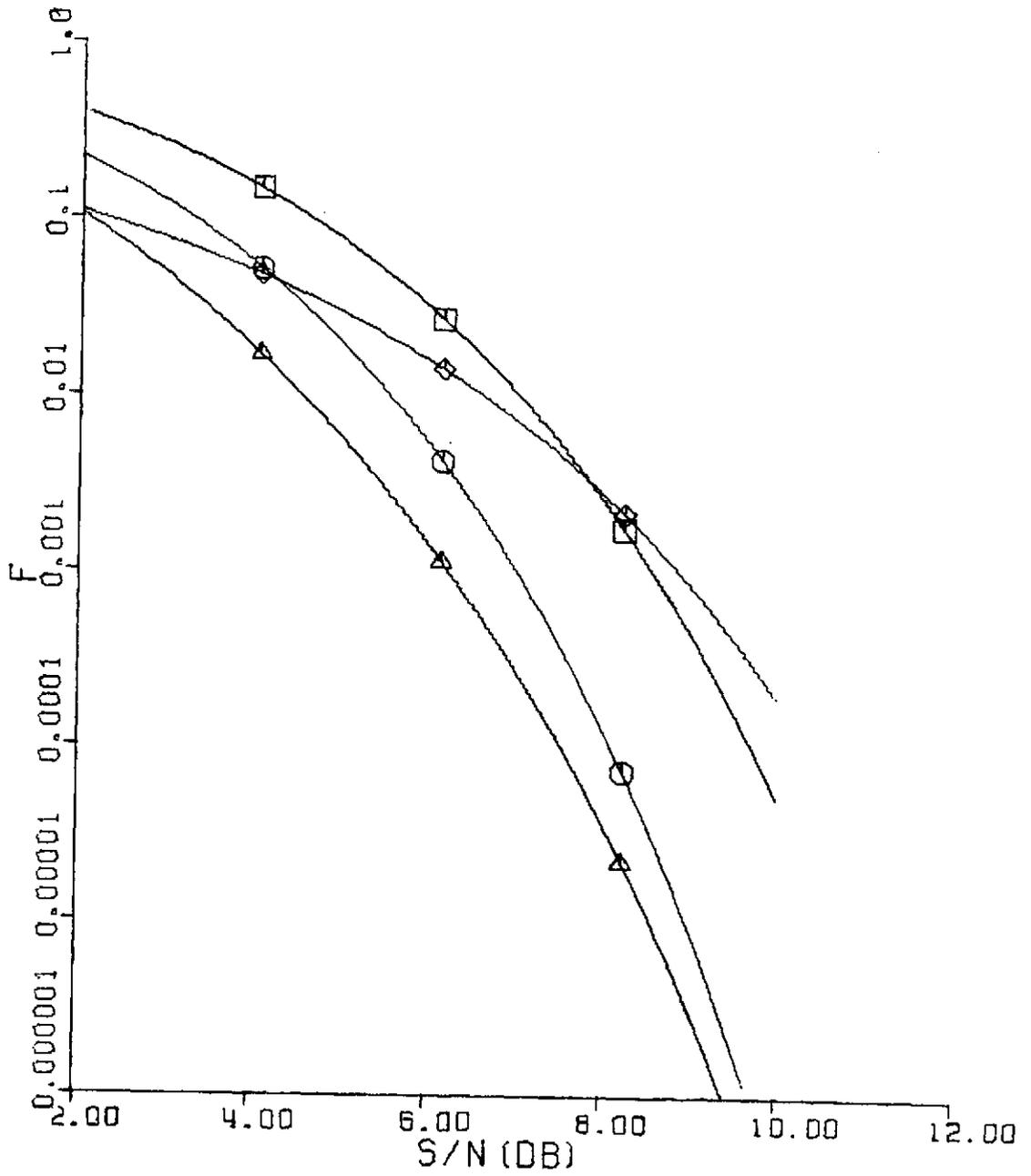


FIGURE 9

$N=15$     $\alpha=0.3$

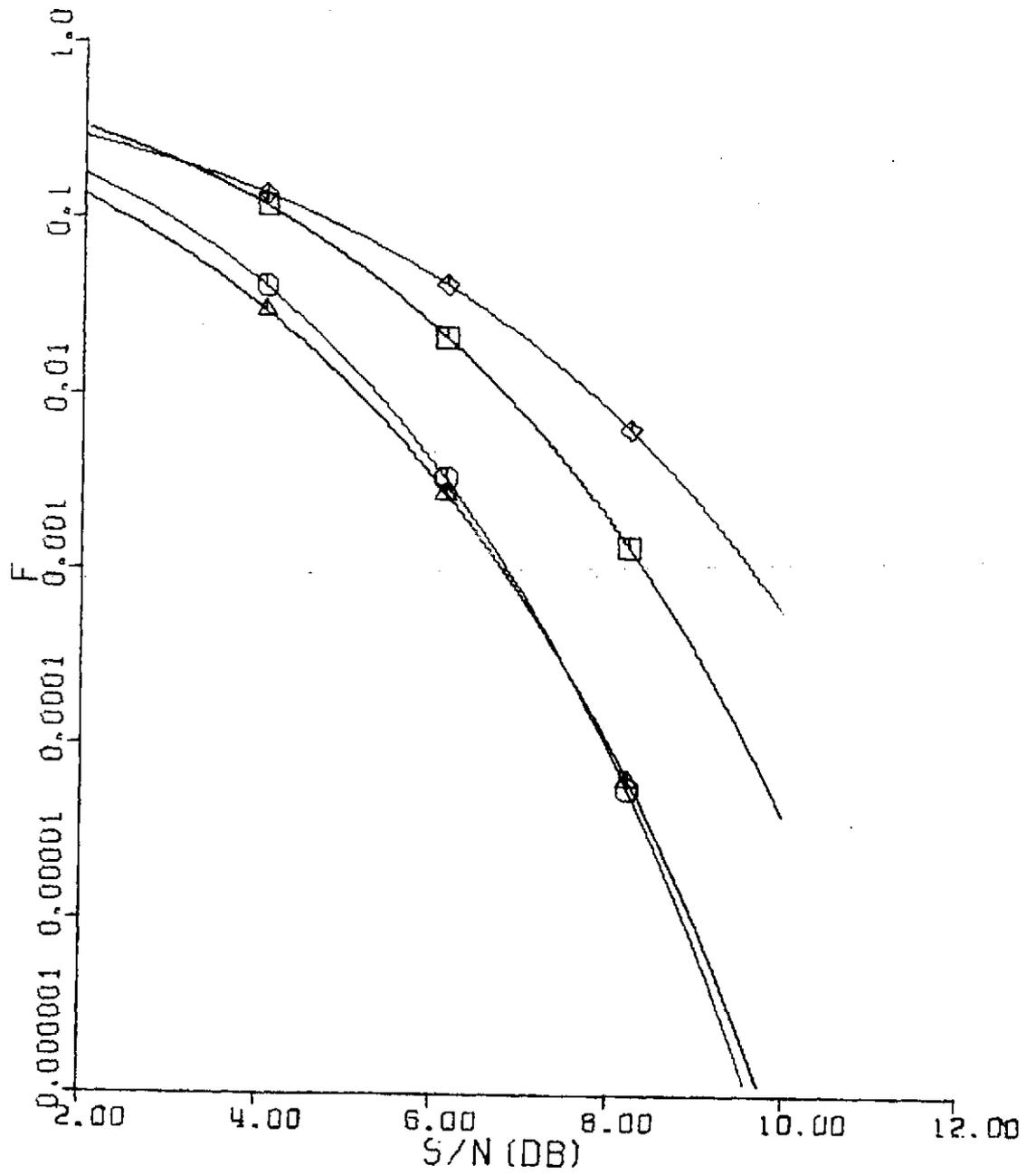


FIGURE 10

$N=15$     $\alpha=0.5$

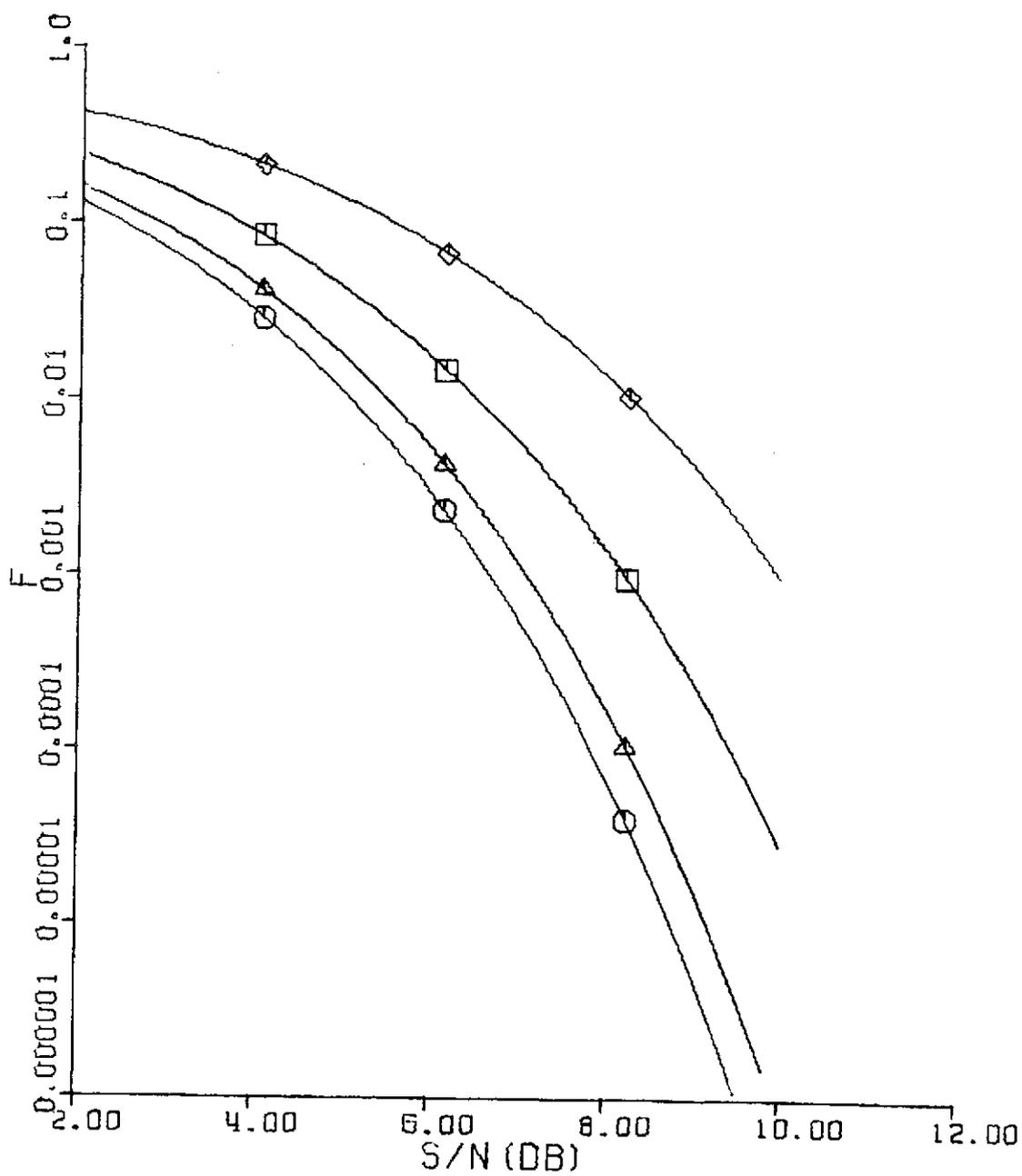


FIGURE 11

$N=15$     $\alpha=0.8$

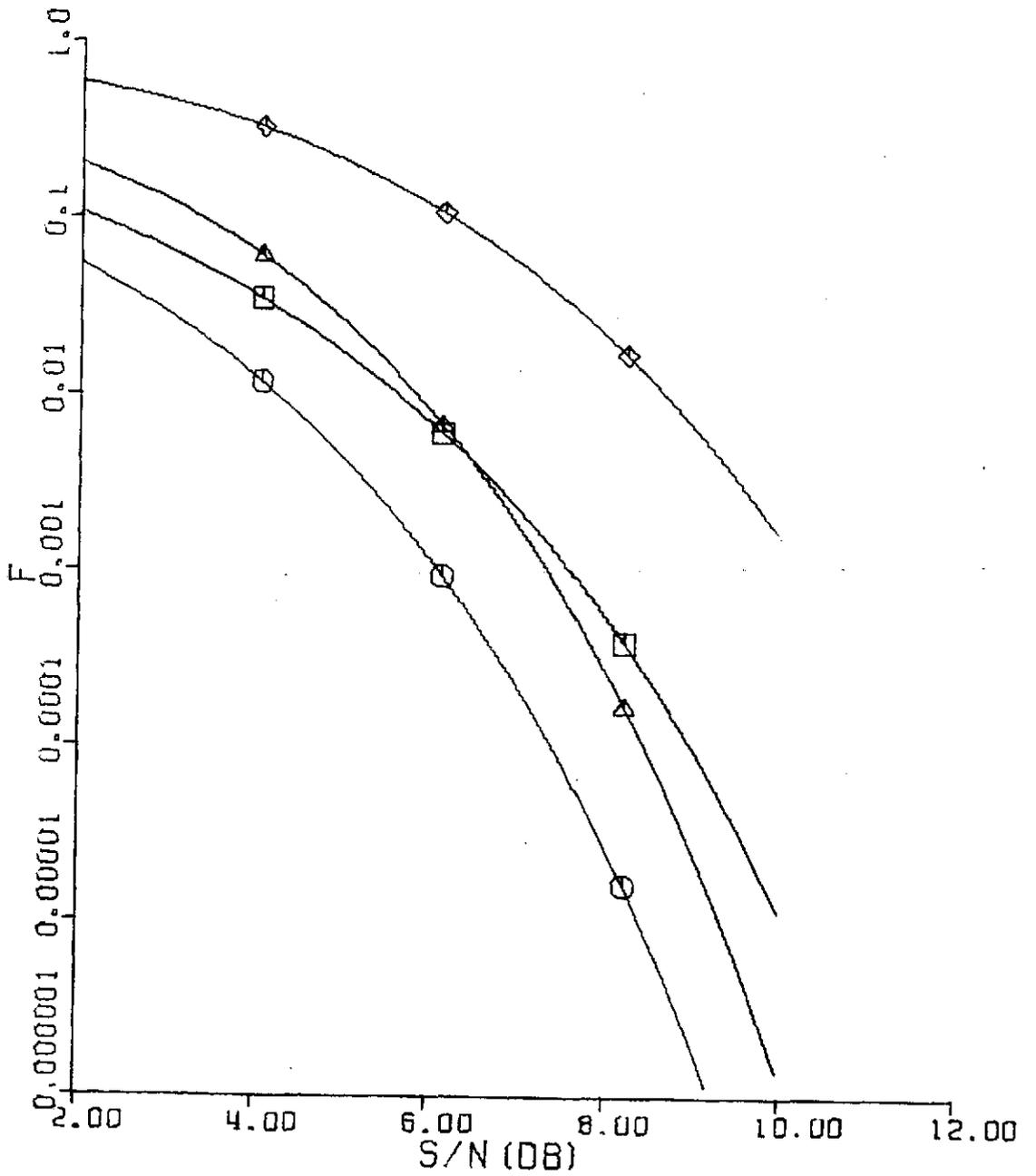


FIGURE 12

$N=15$     $\alpha=1.0$

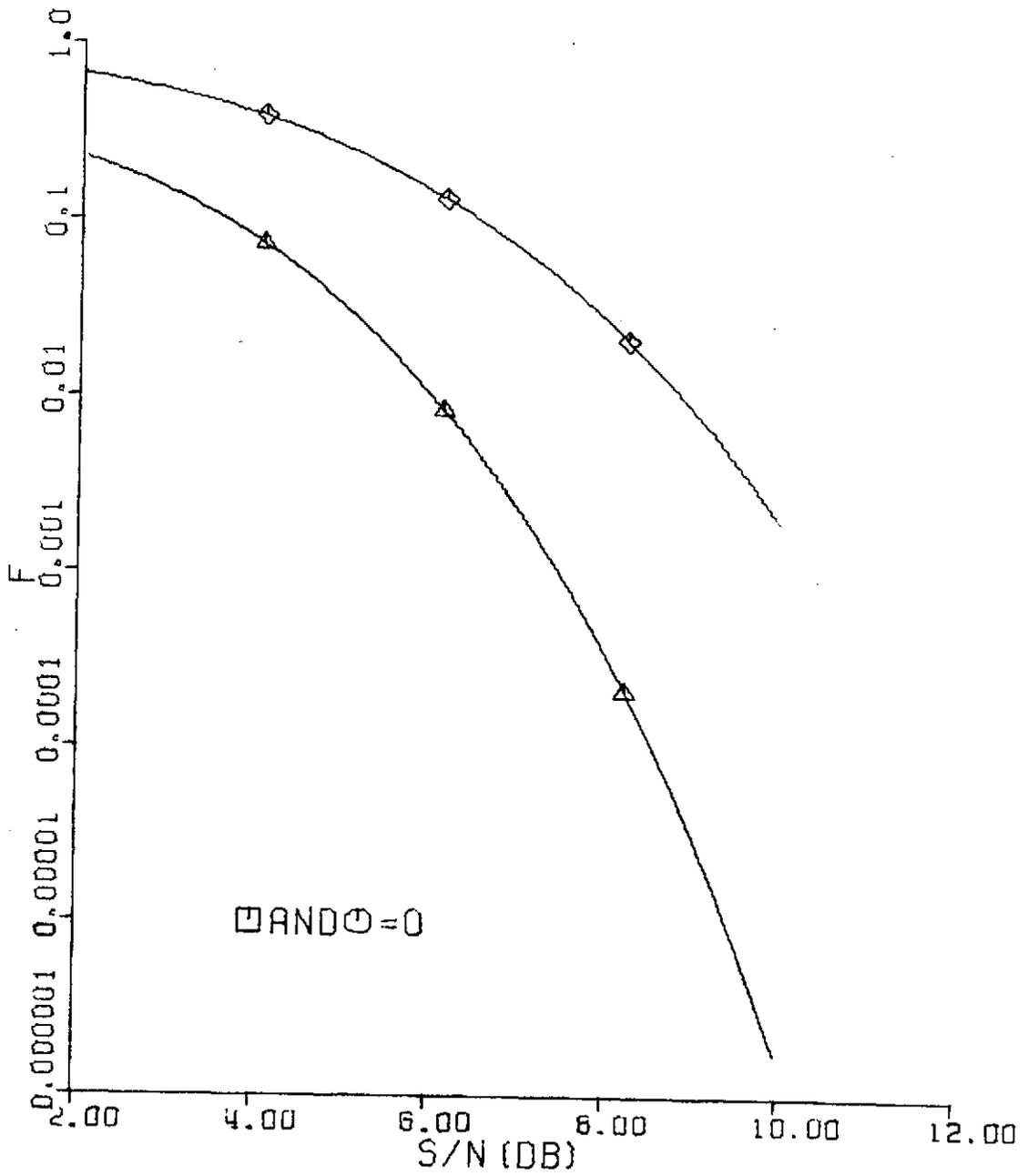


FIGURE 13

$N=31$      $\alpha=0.0$

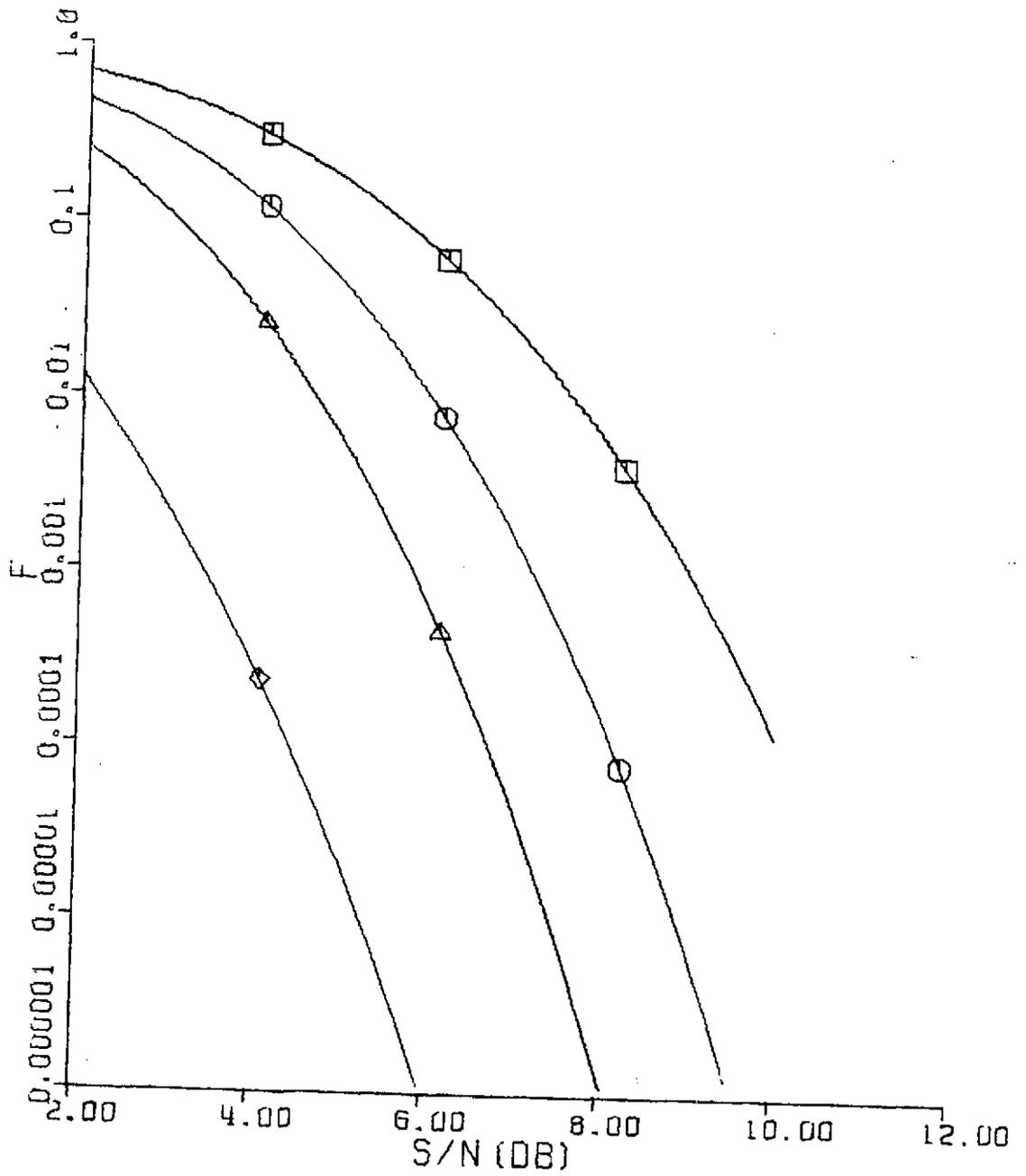


FIGURE 14

$N=31$      $\alpha=0.1$

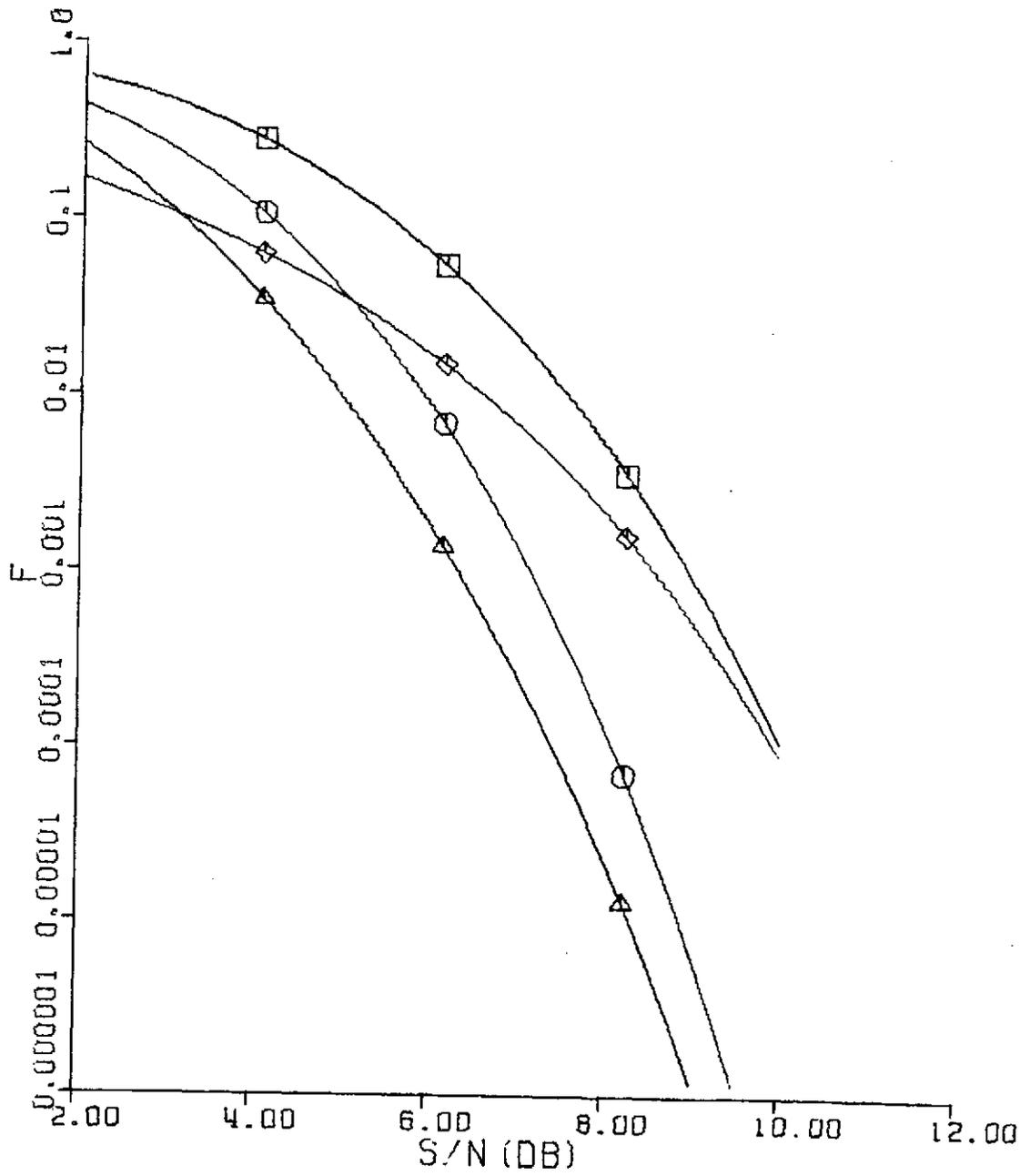


FIGURE 15

$N=31$      $\alpha=0.3$

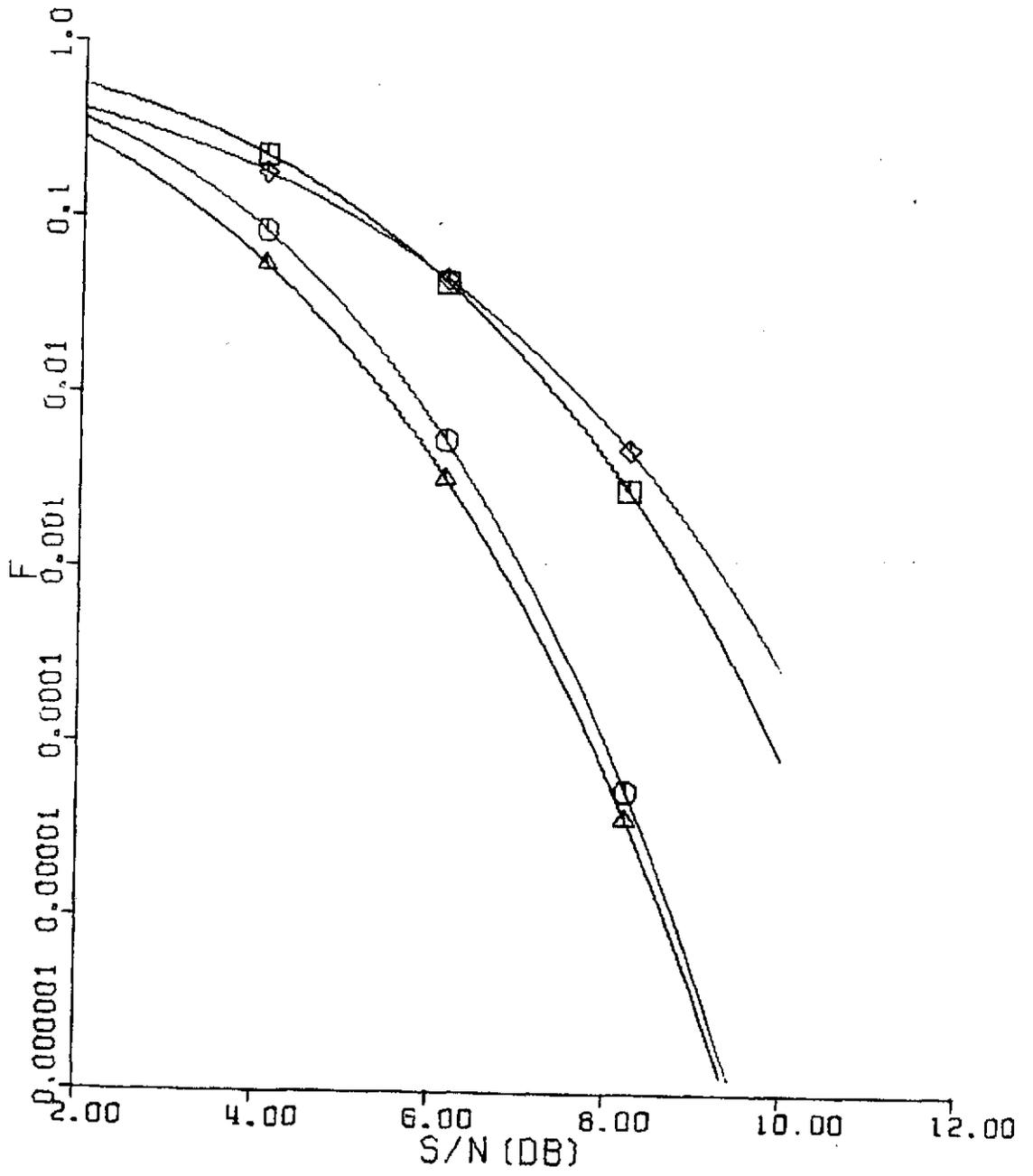


FIGURE 16

$N=31$     $\alpha=0.5$

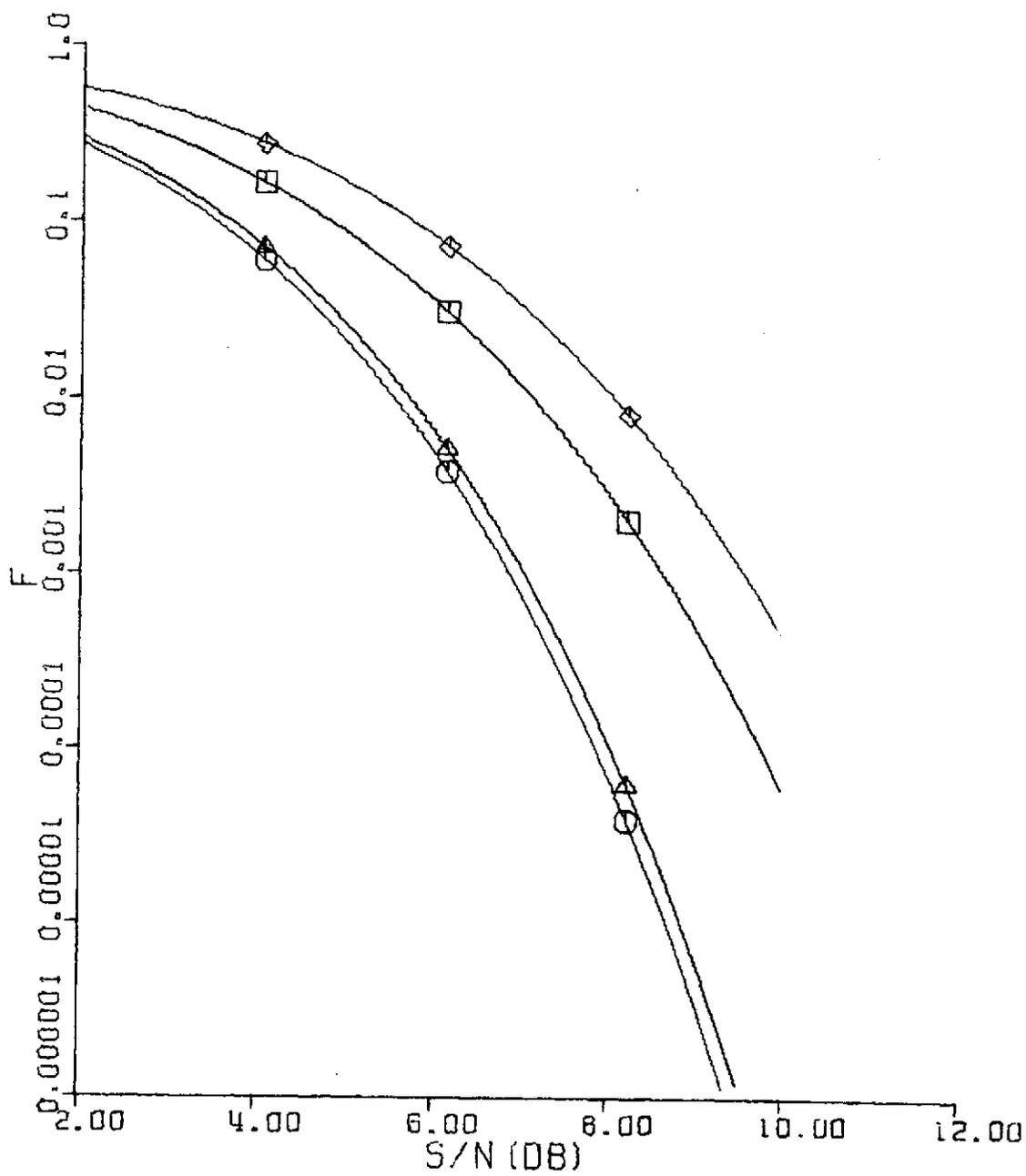


FIGURE 17

$N=31$      $\alpha=0.8$

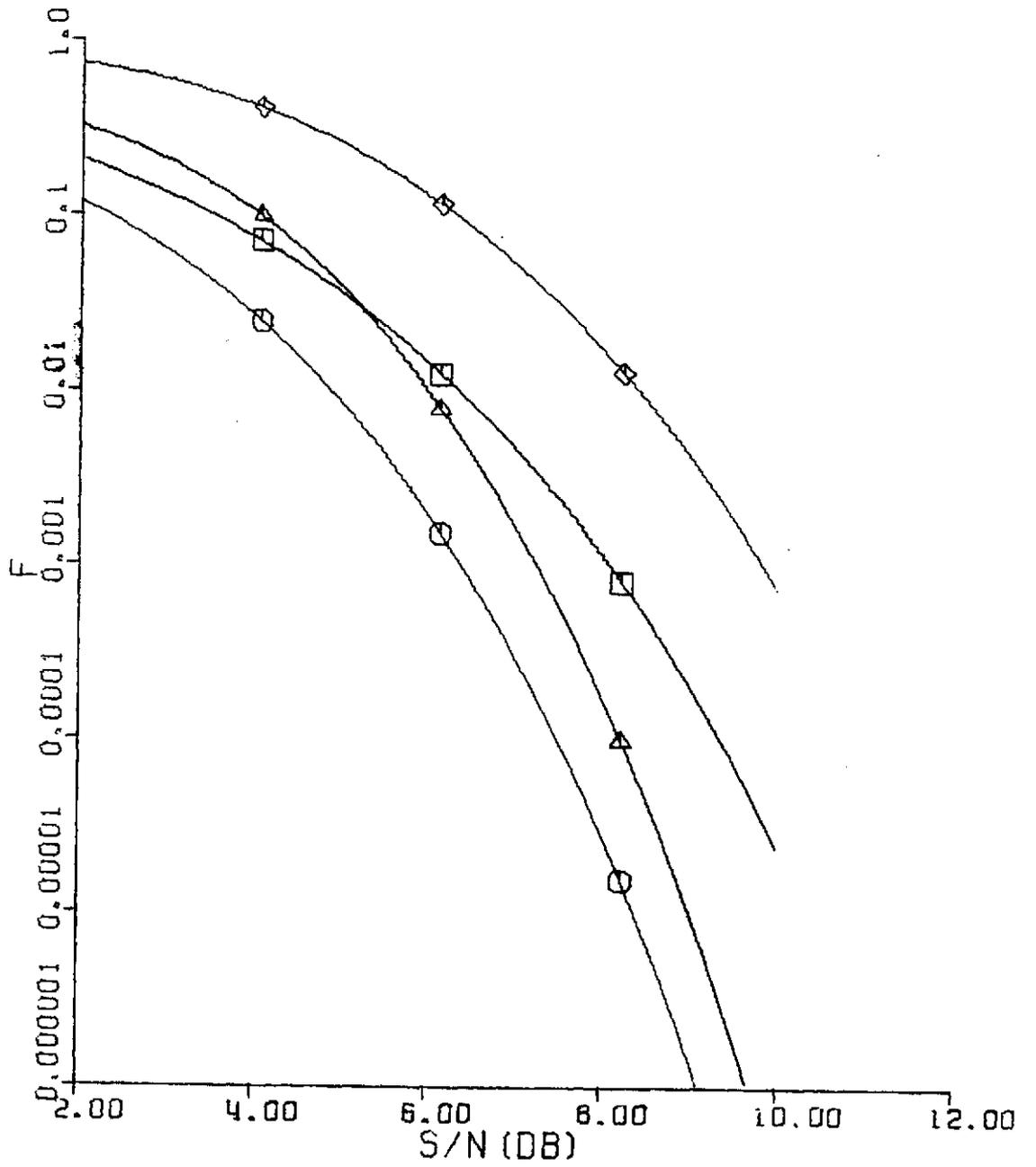


FIGURE 18

$N=31$     $\alpha=1.0$

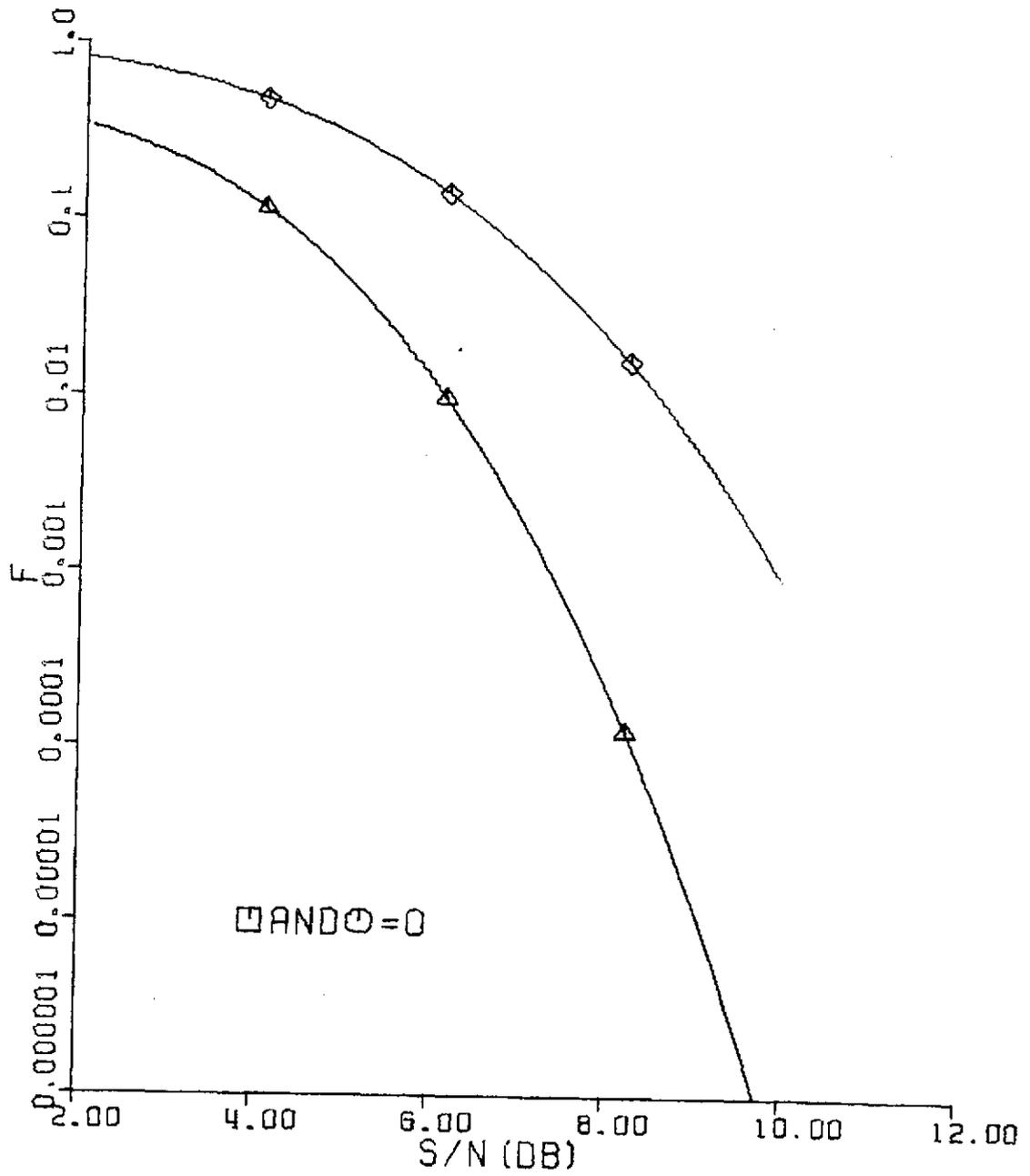


FIGURE 19

$N=63$     $\alpha=0.0$

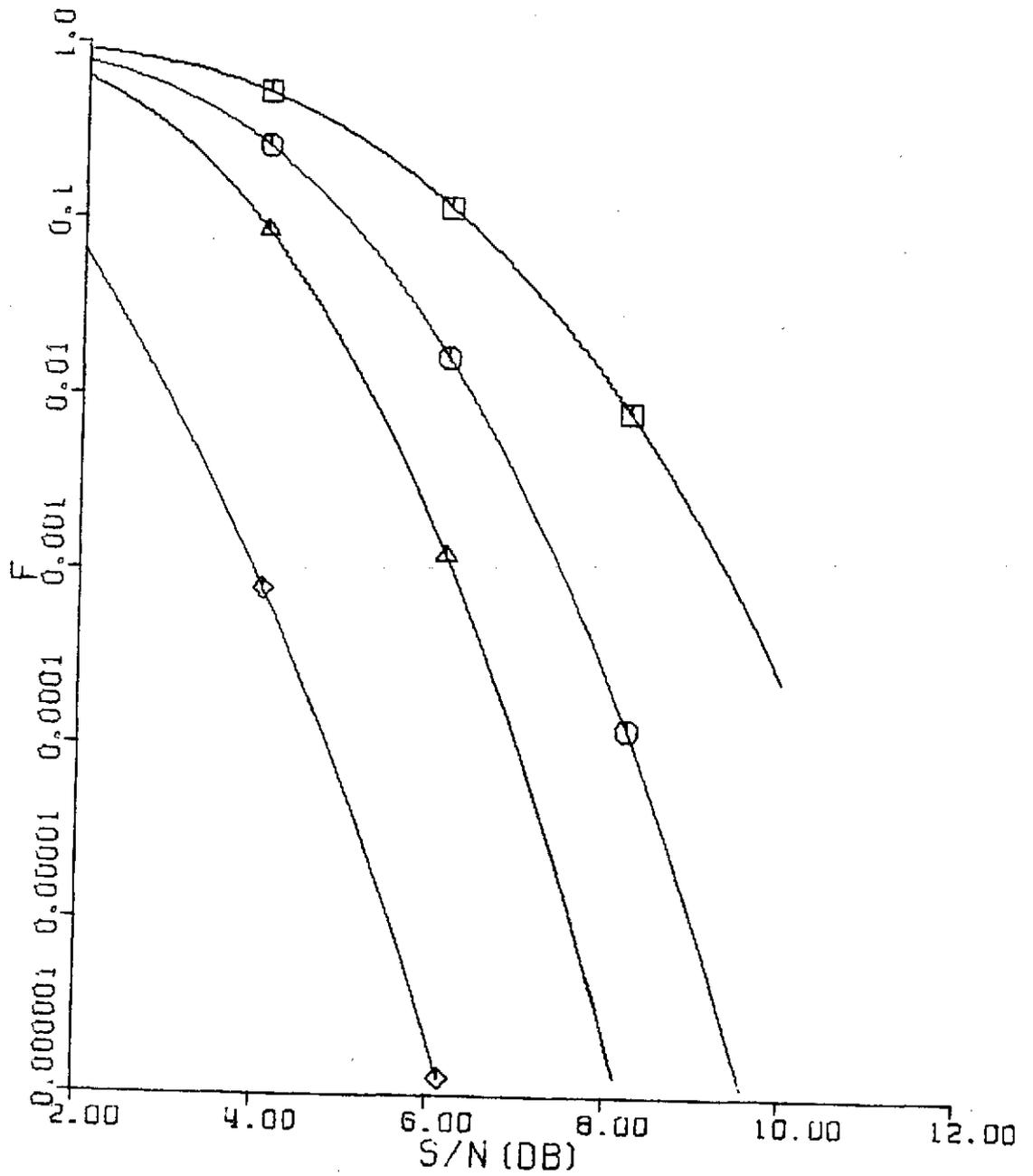


FIGURE 20

$N=63$     $\alpha=0.1$

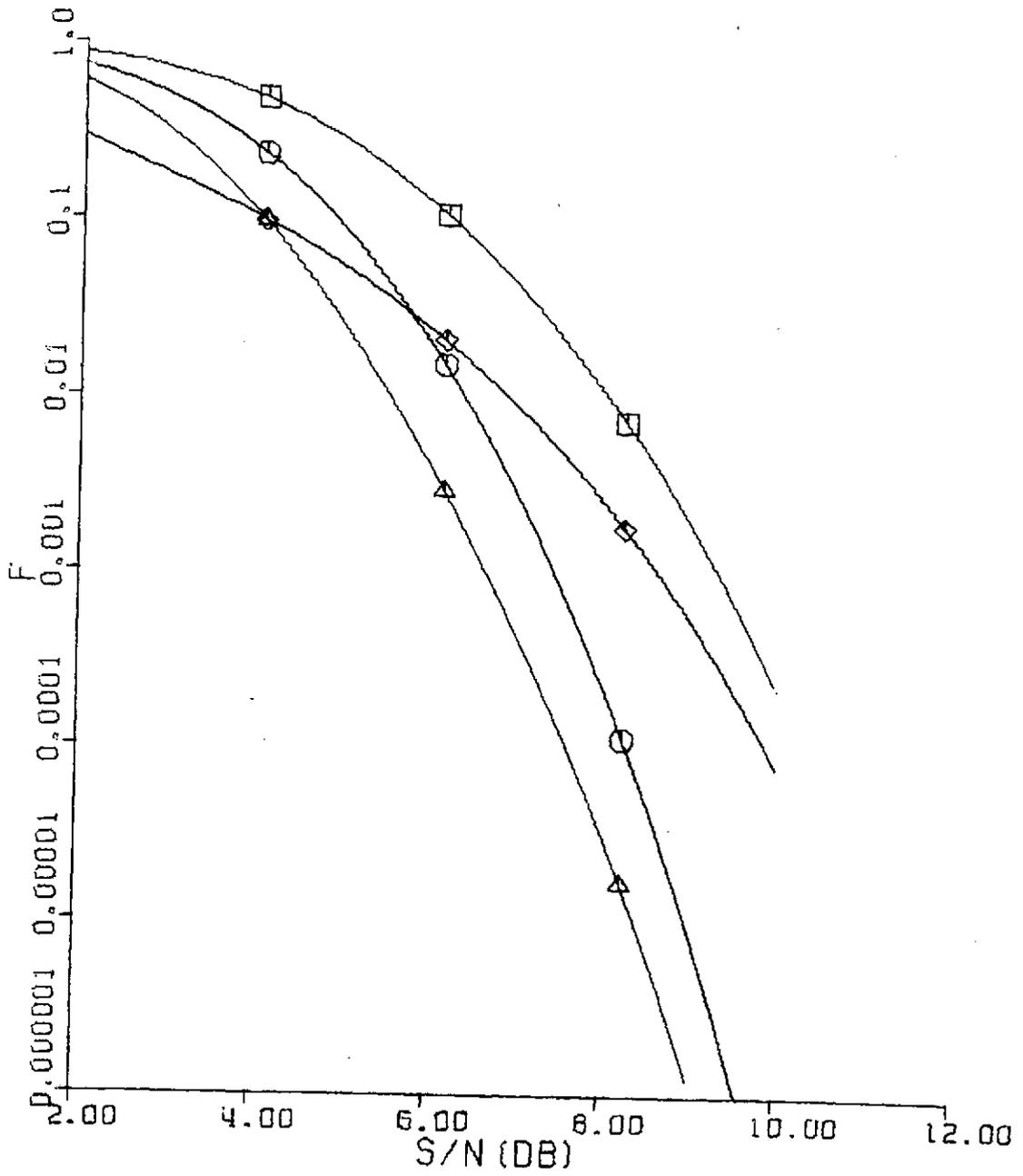


FIGURE 21

$N=63$     $\alpha=0.3$

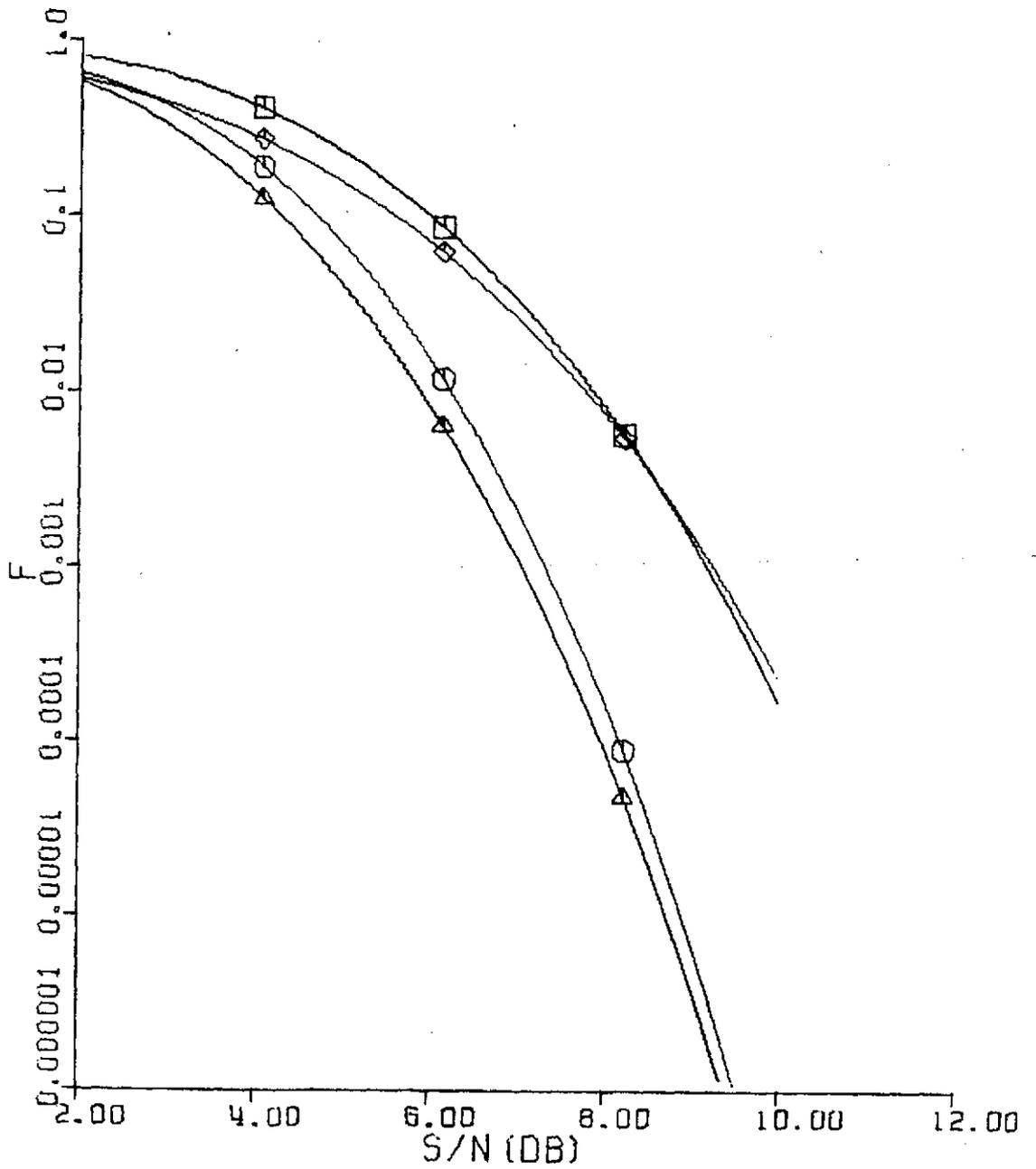


FIGURE 22

$N=63$     $\alpha=0.5$

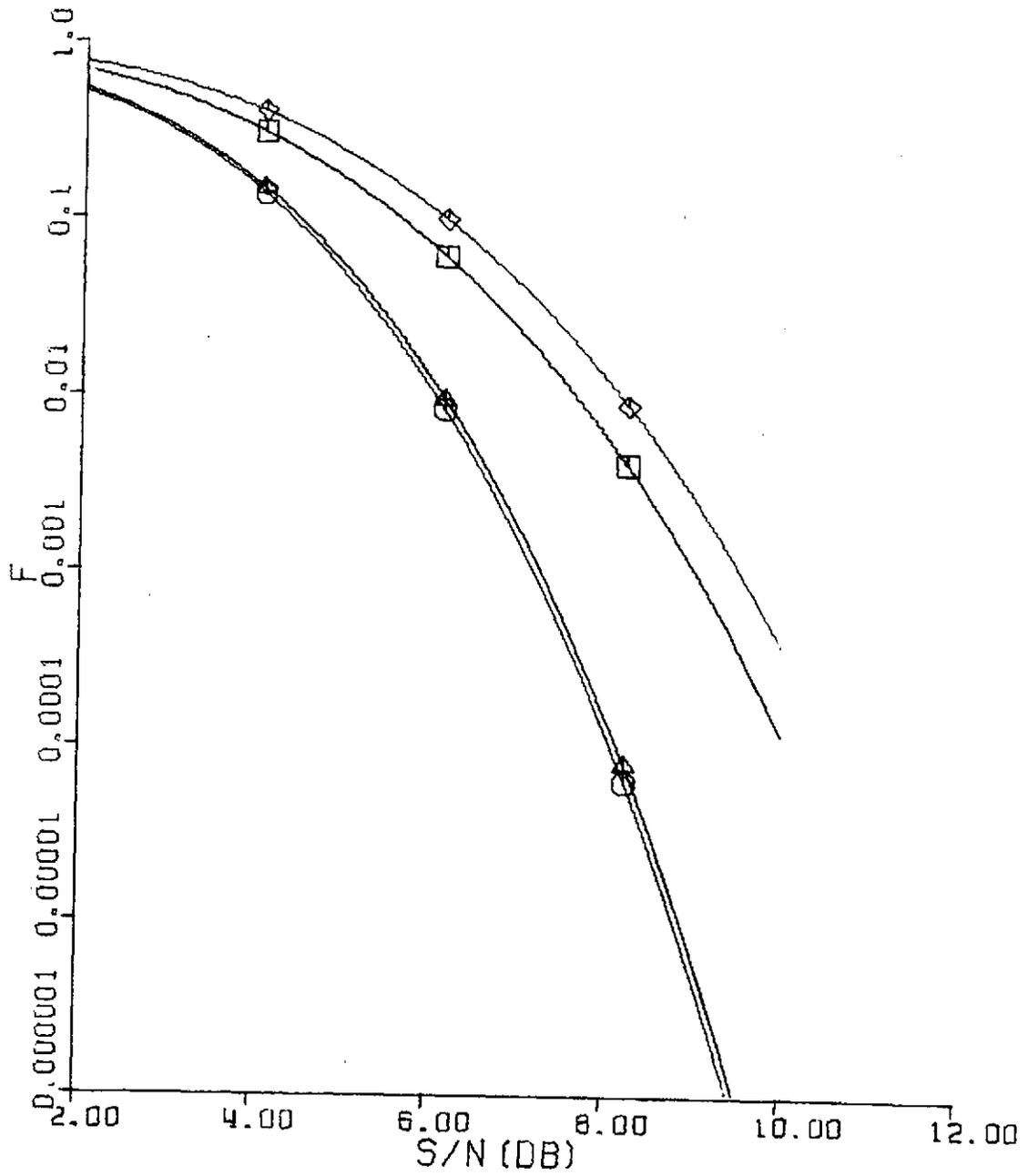


FIGURE 23

$N=63$     $\alpha=0.8$

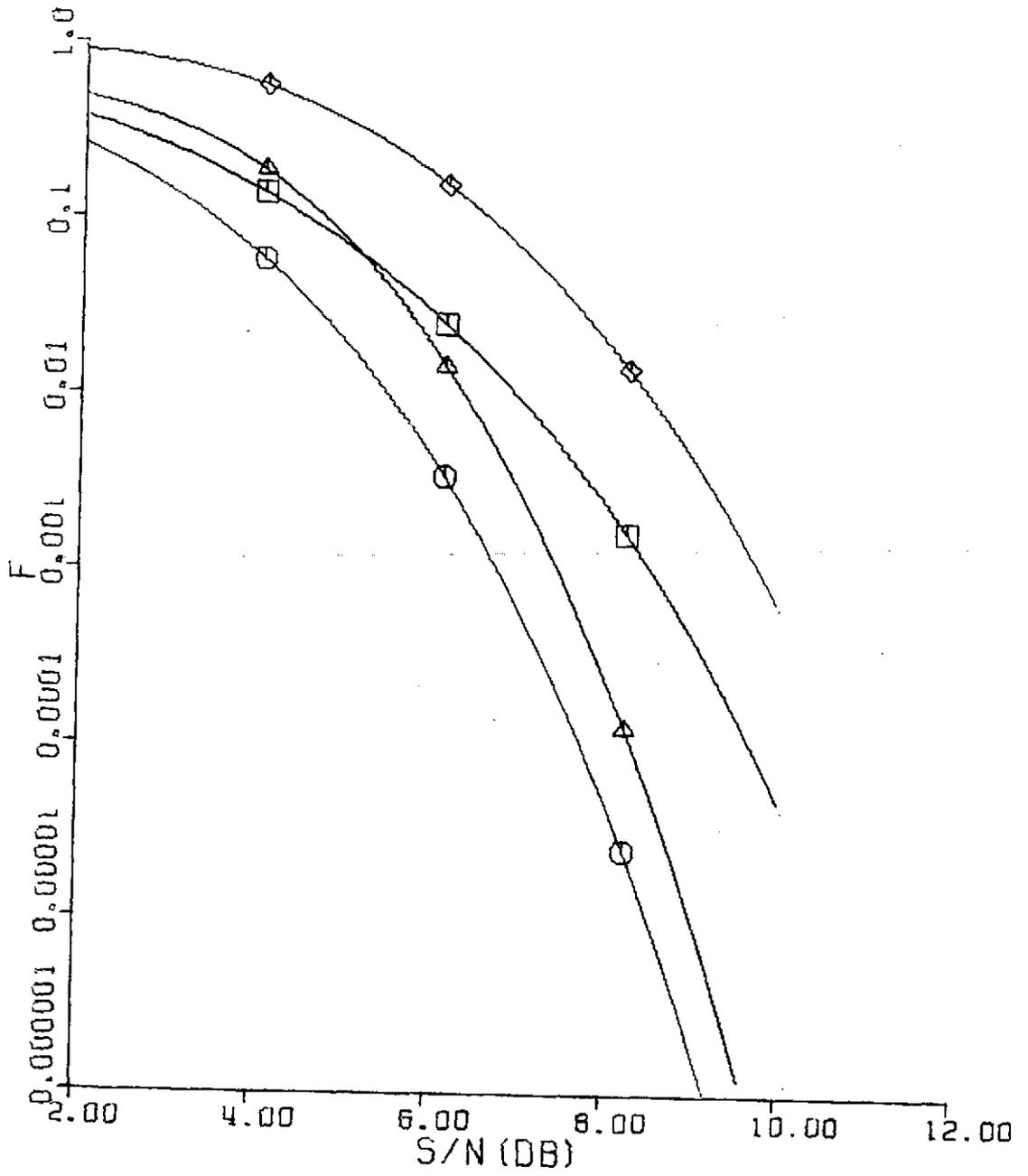


FIGURE 24

$N=63$     $\alpha=1.0$

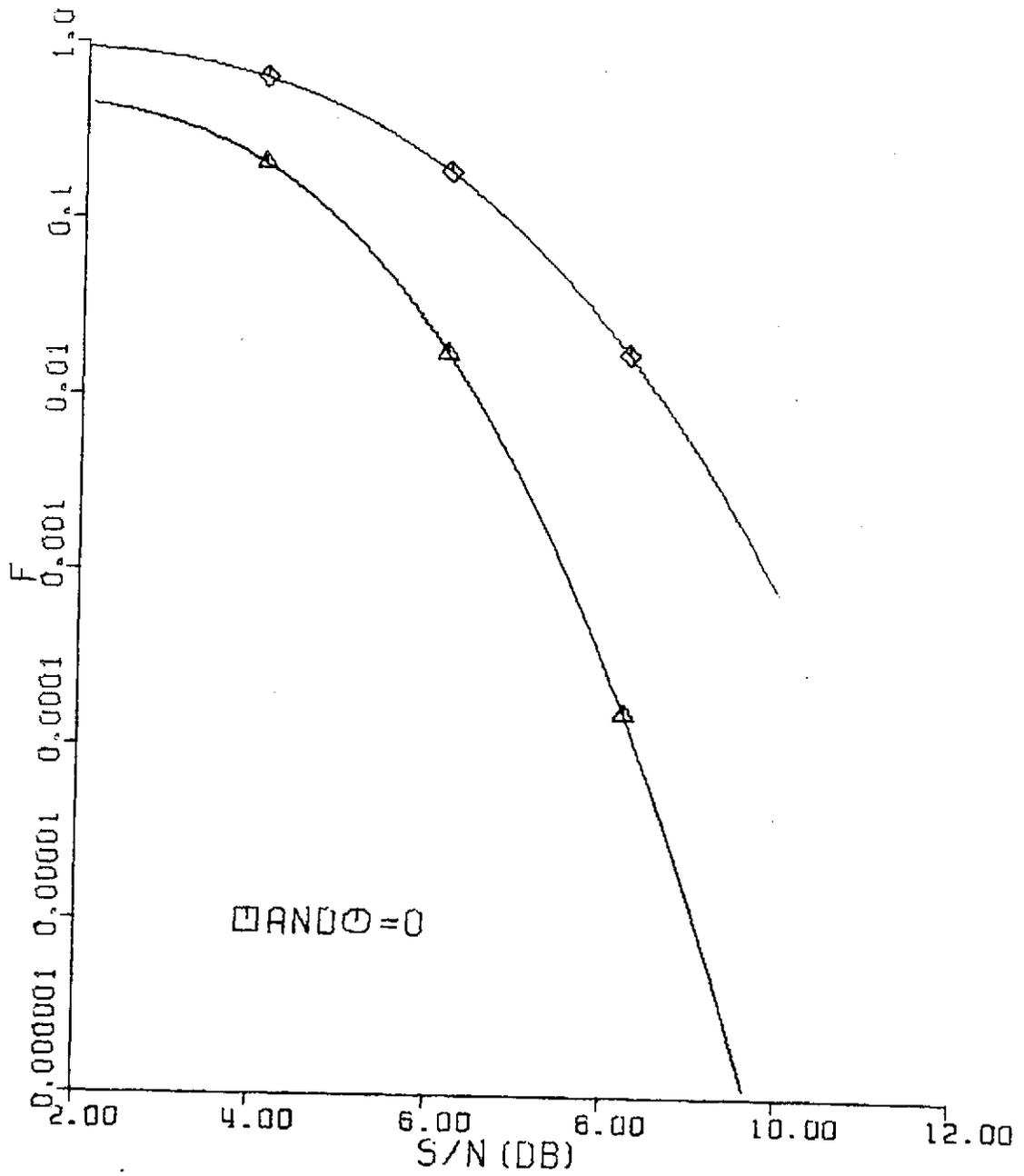


FIGURE 25

$N=127$     $\alpha=0.0$

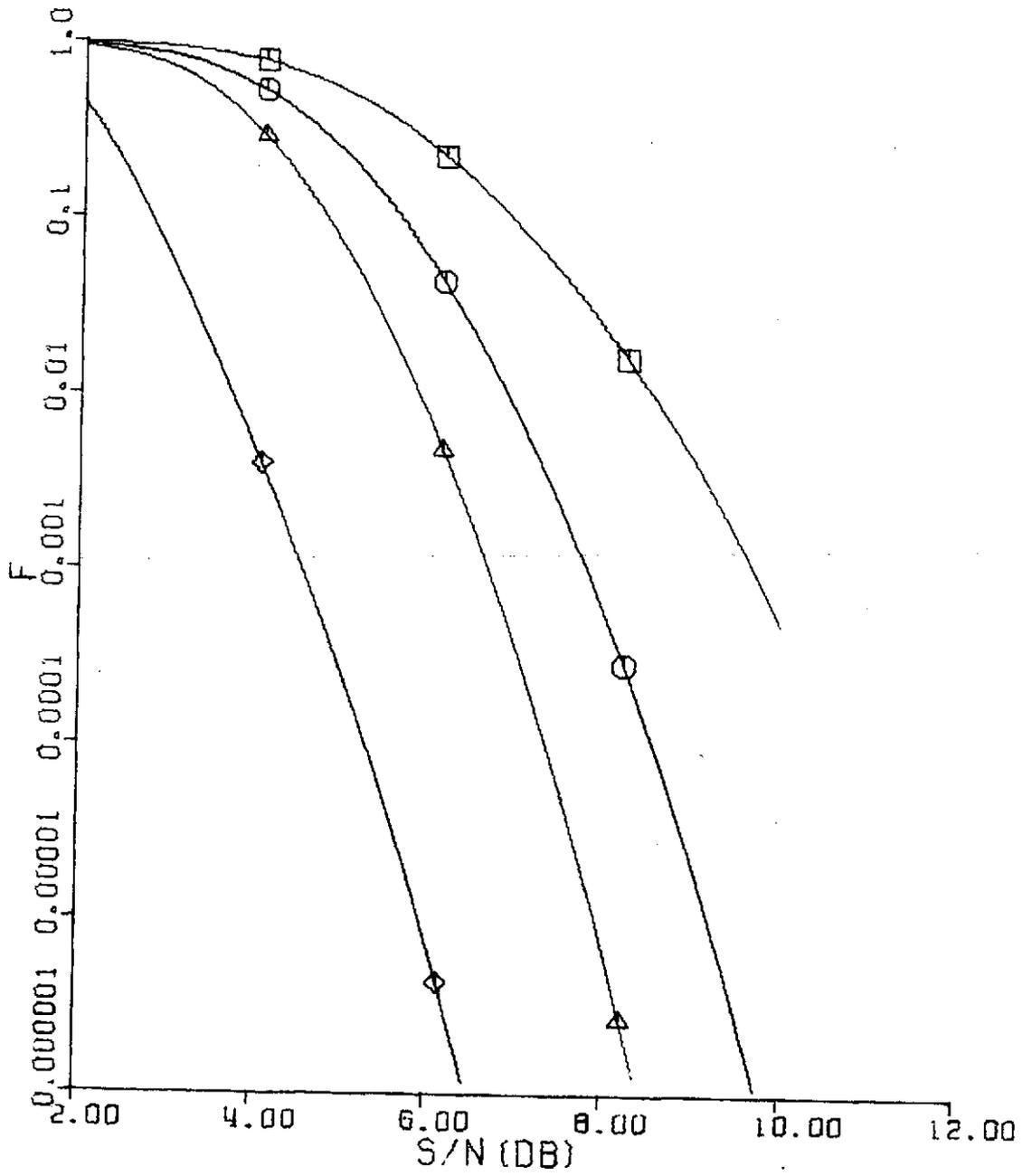


FIGURE 26

$N=127$     $\alpha=0.3$

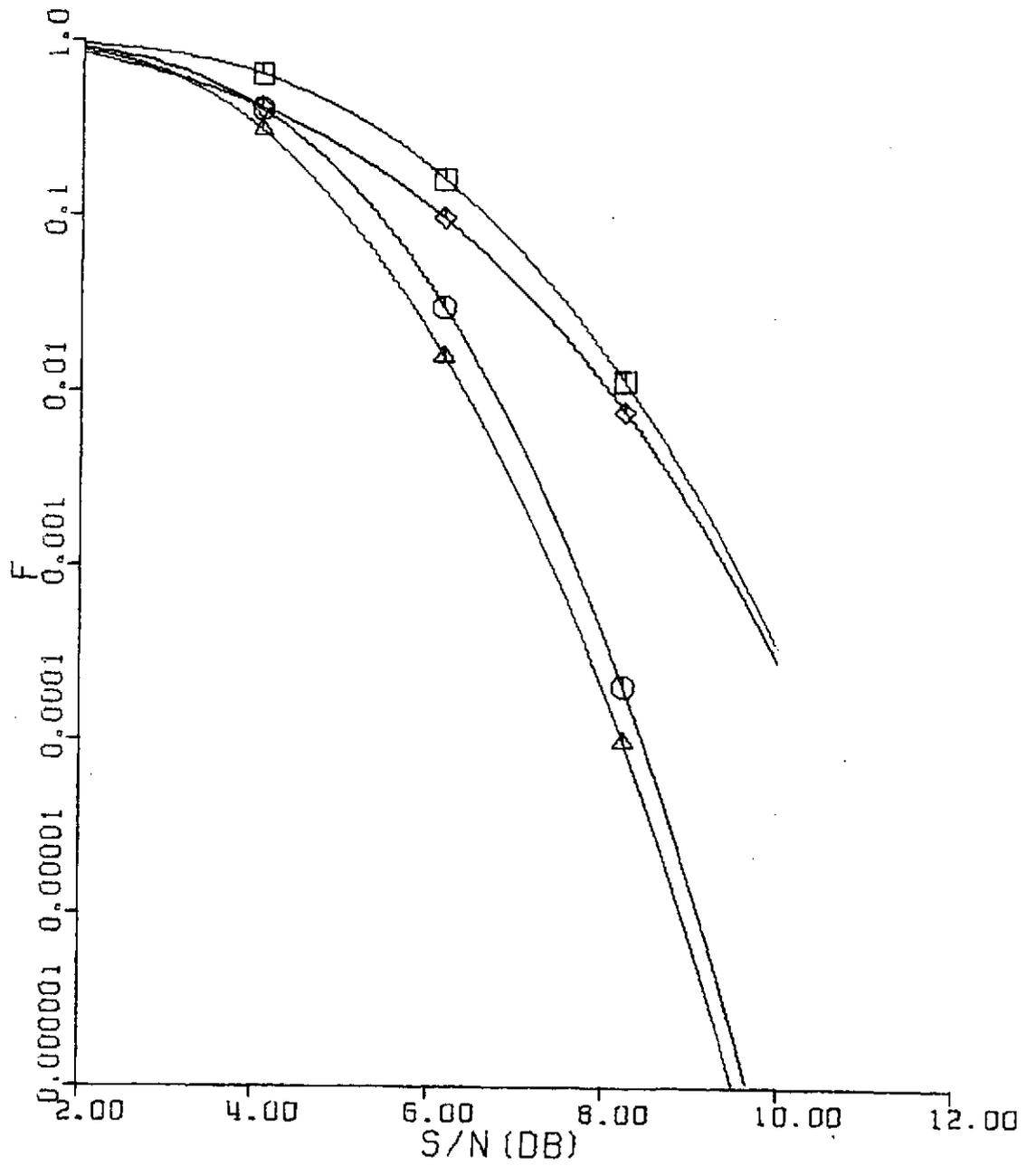


FIGURE 28

$N=127$     $\alpha=0.1$

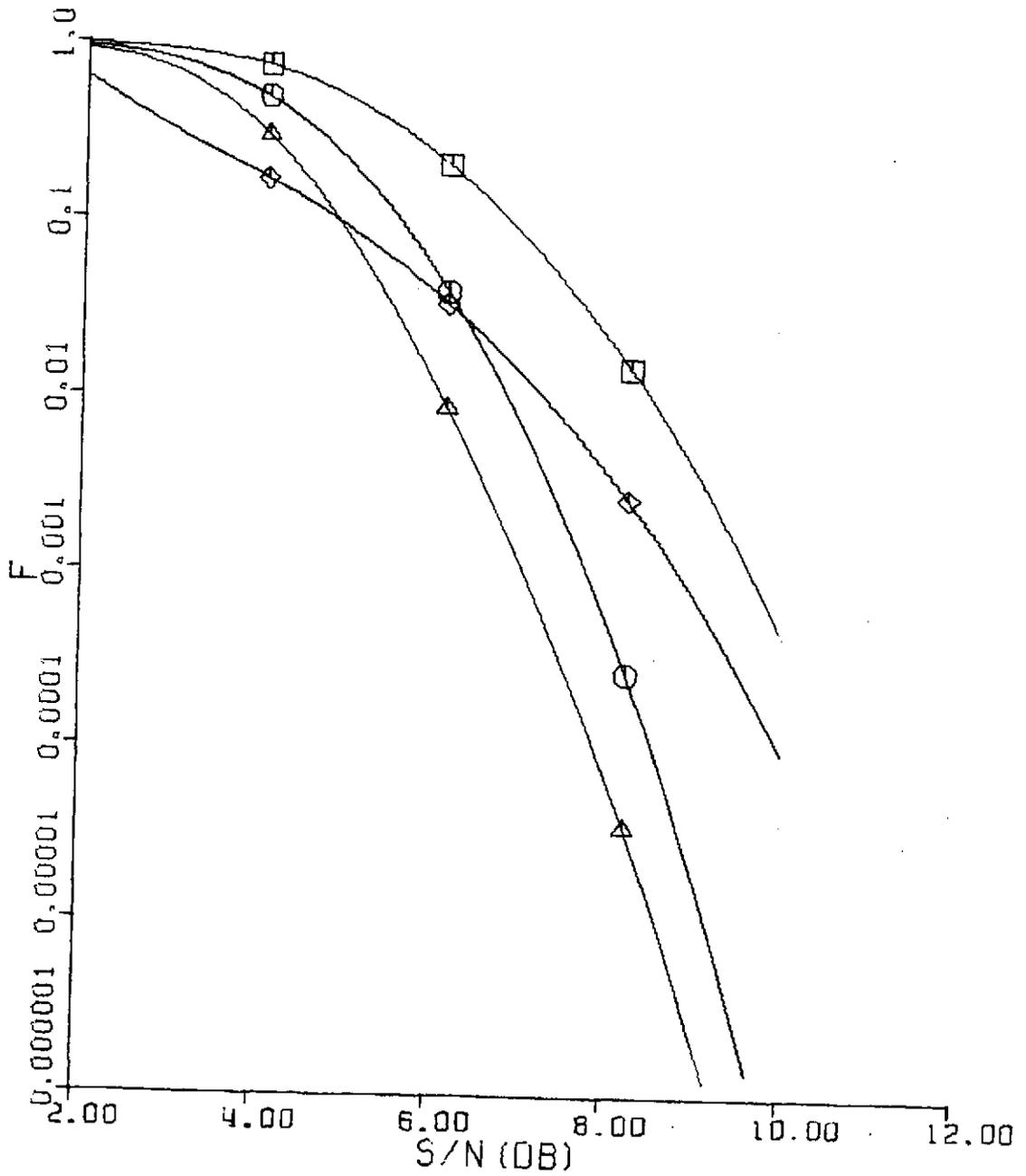


FIGURE 27

$N=127$     $\alpha=0.5$

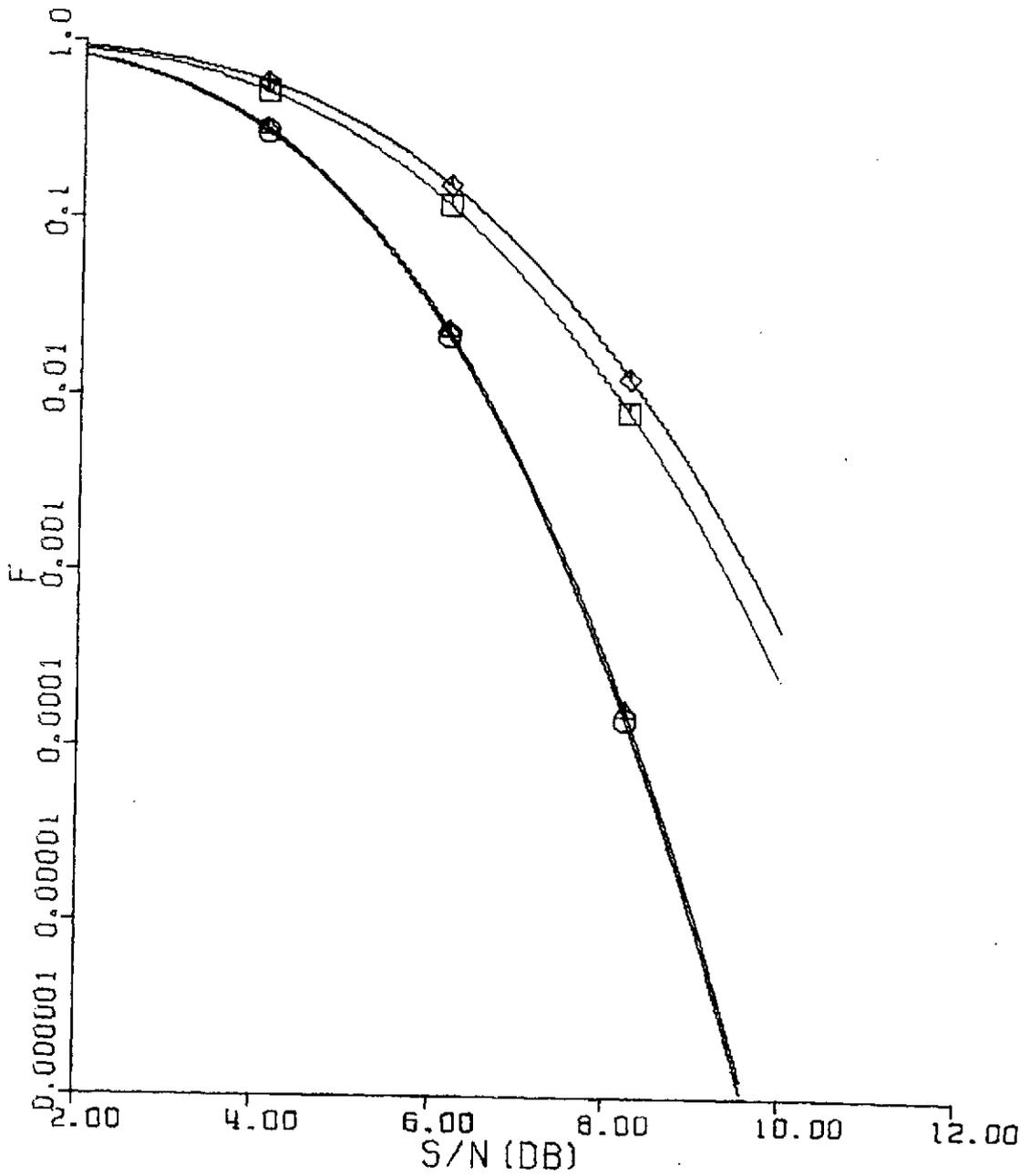


FIGURE 29

$N=127$      $\alpha=0.8$

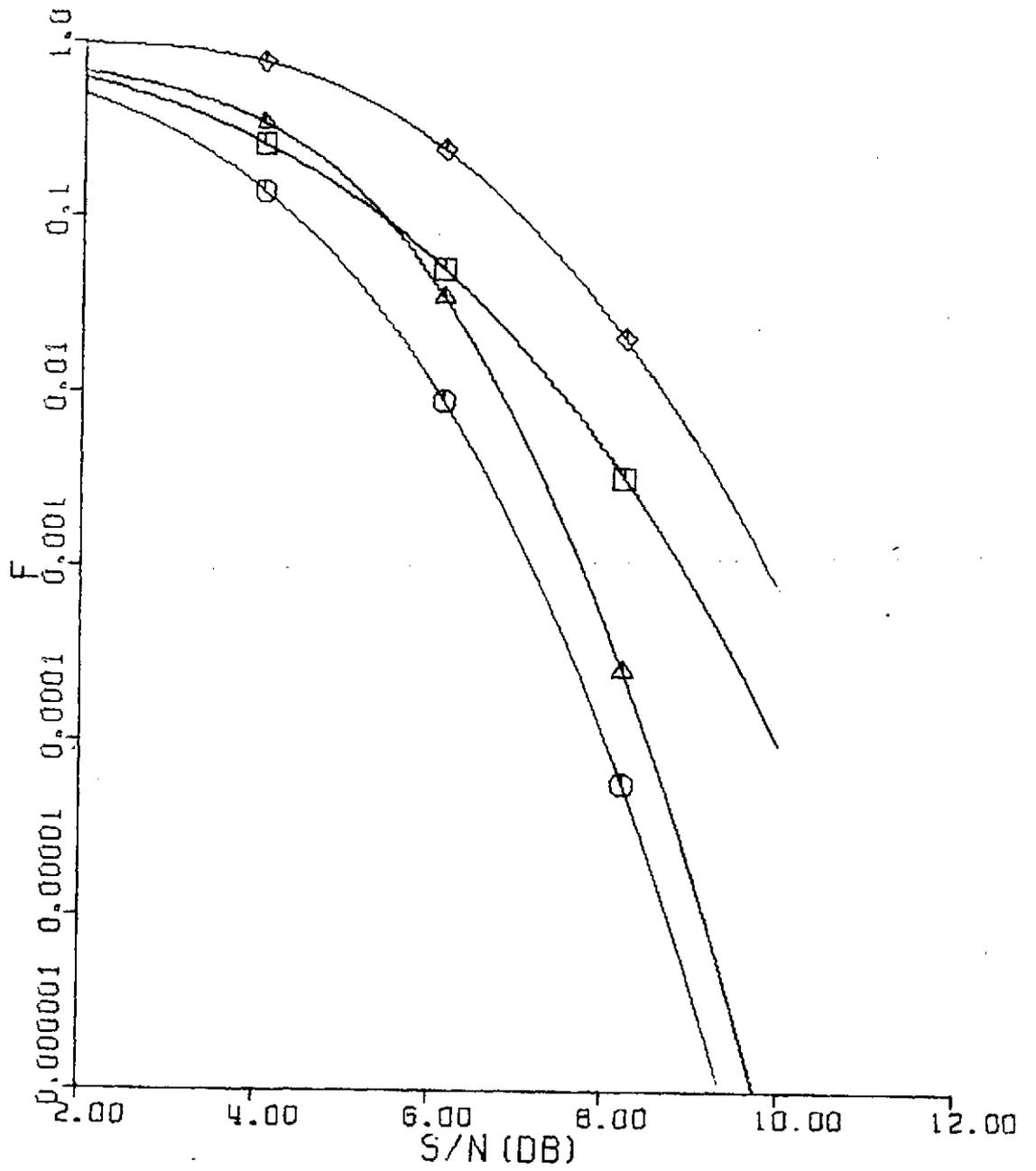


FIGURE 30

$N=127 \quad \alpha=1.0$

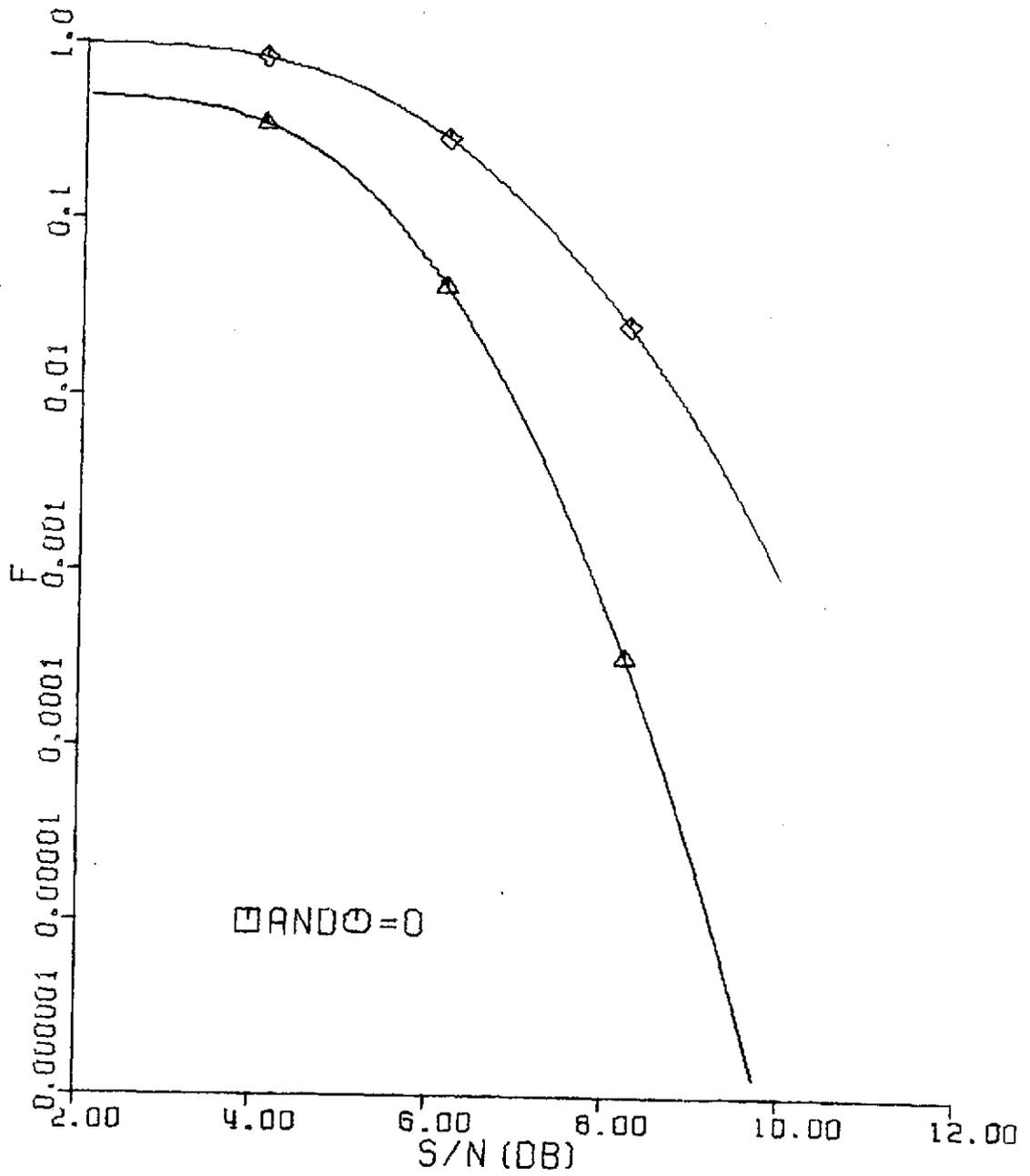


FIGURE 31

$N=255$     $\alpha=0.0$

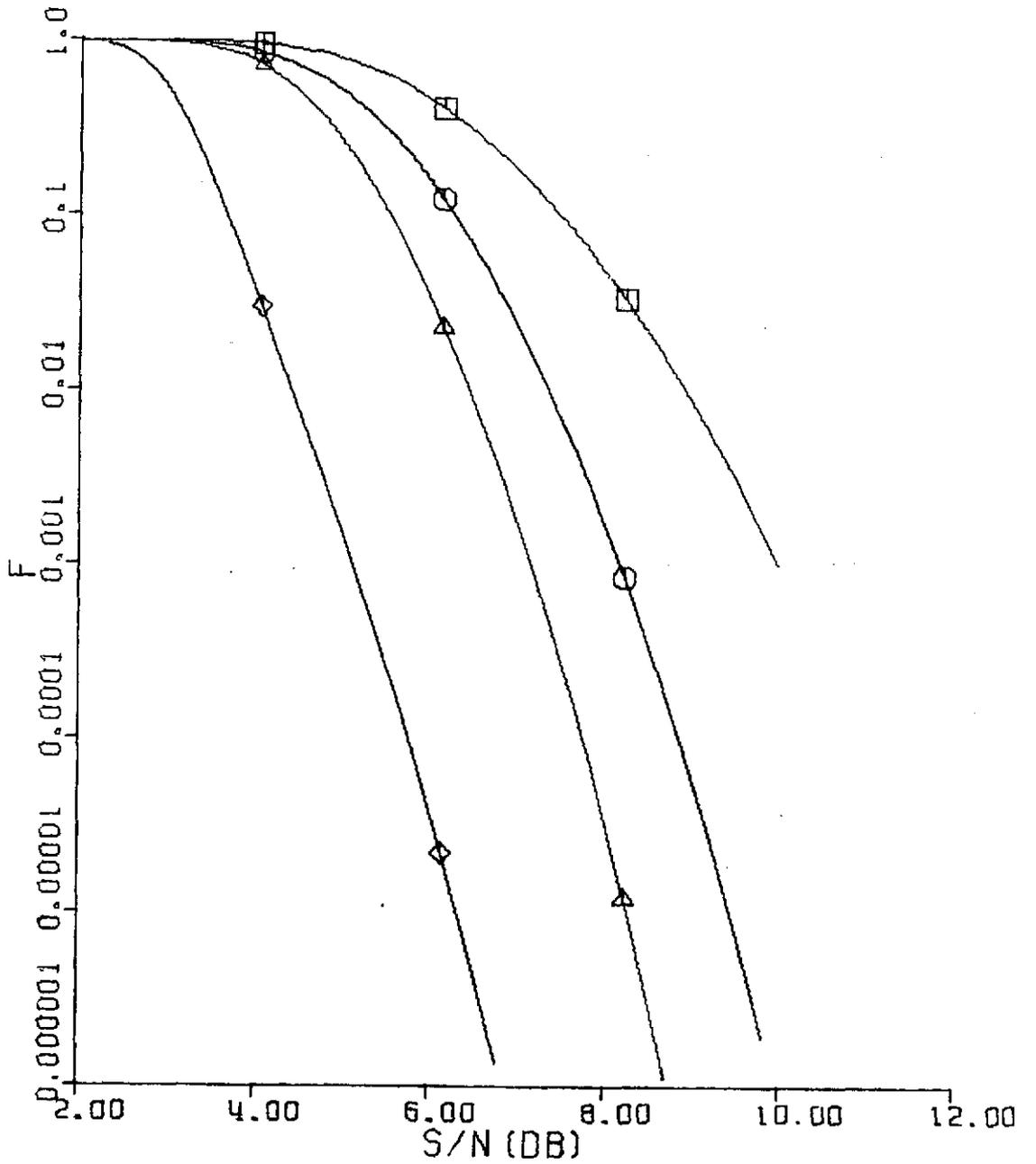


FIGURE 32

$N=255$      $\alpha=0.1$

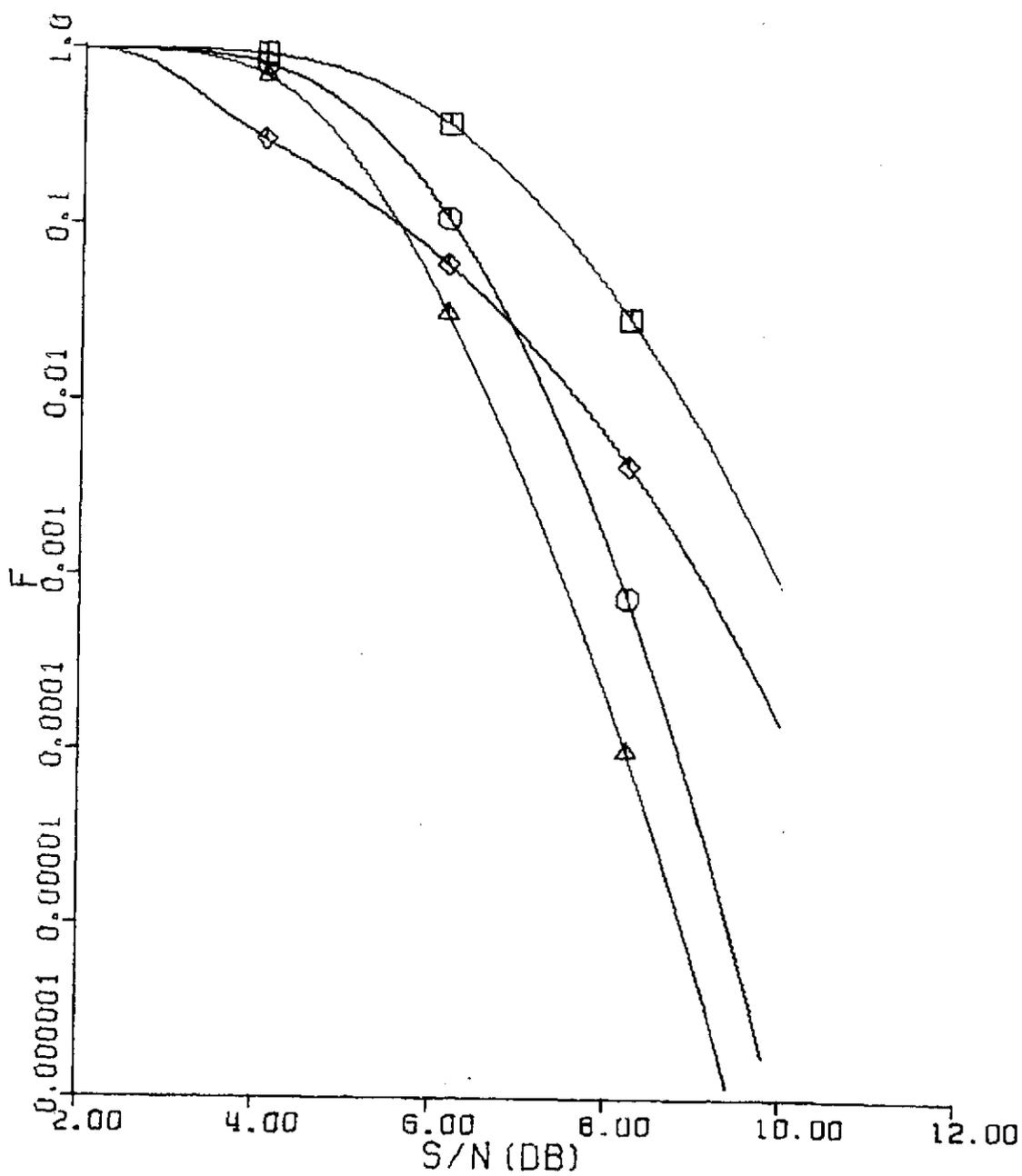


FIGURE 33

$N=255$     $\alpha=0.3$

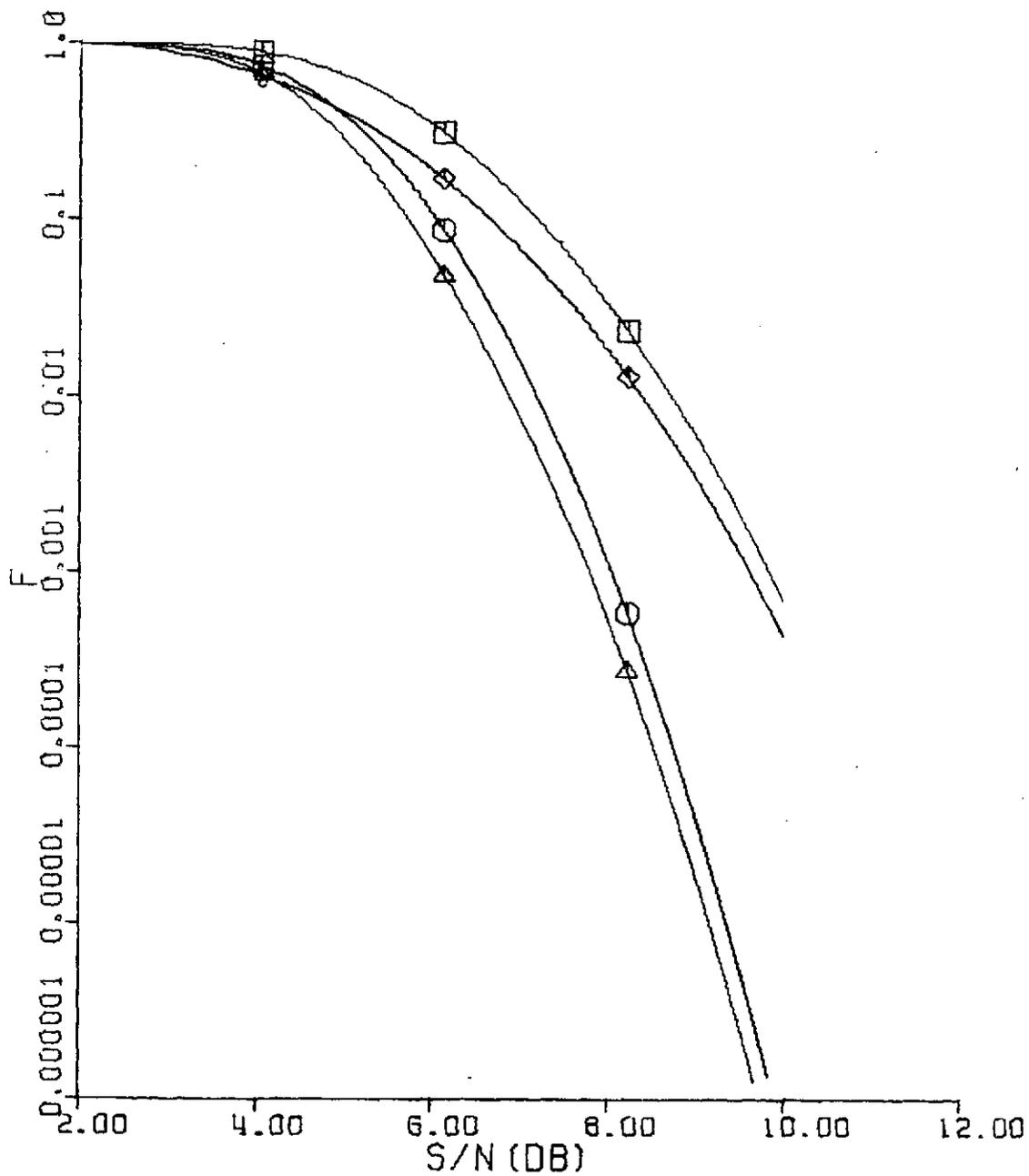


FIGURE 34

$N=255$      $\alpha=0.5$

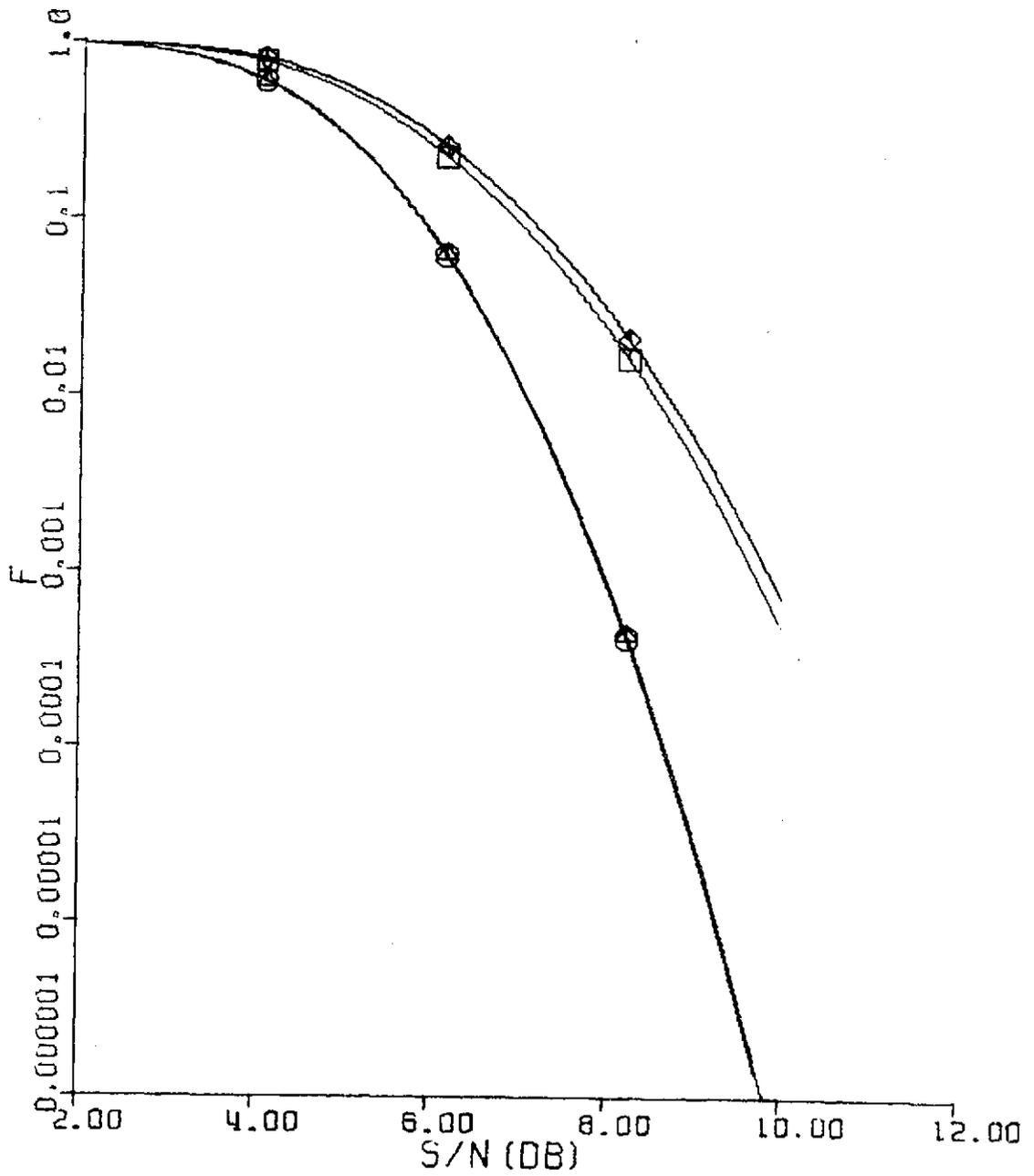


FIGURE 35

$N=255$      $\alpha=0.8$

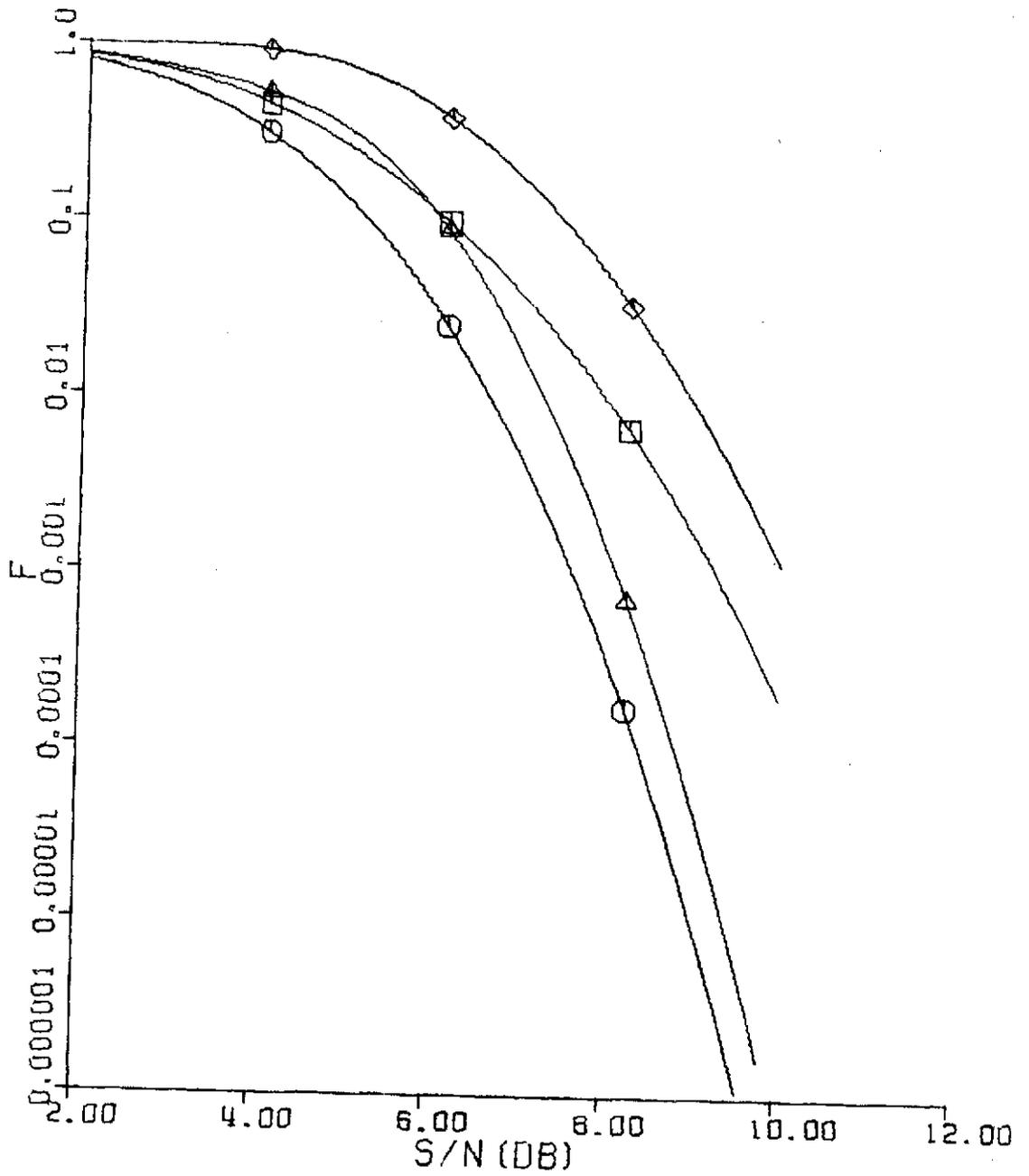


FIGURE 36

$N=255$      $\alpha=1.0$

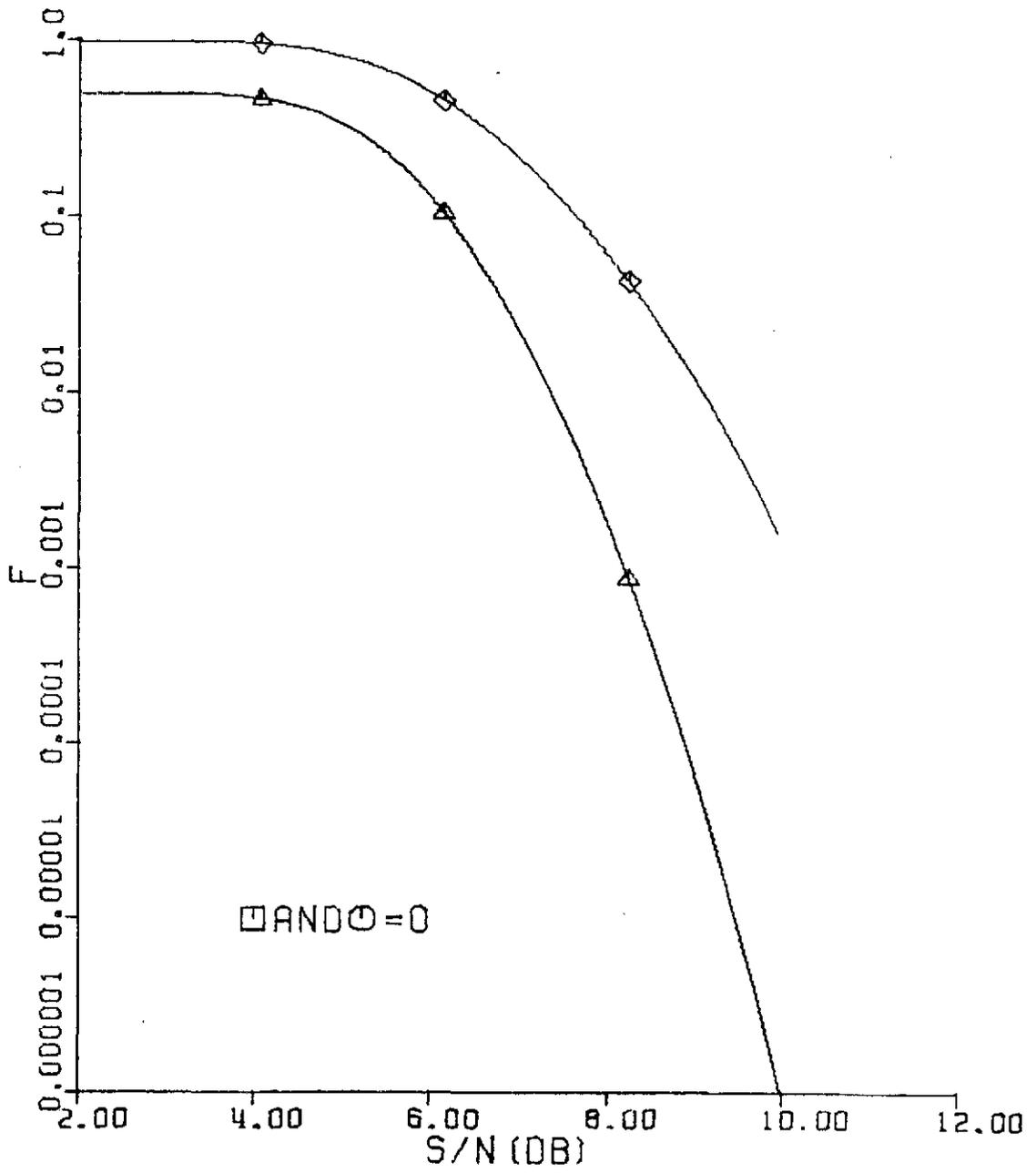


FIGURE 37

$N=511$     $\alpha=0.0$

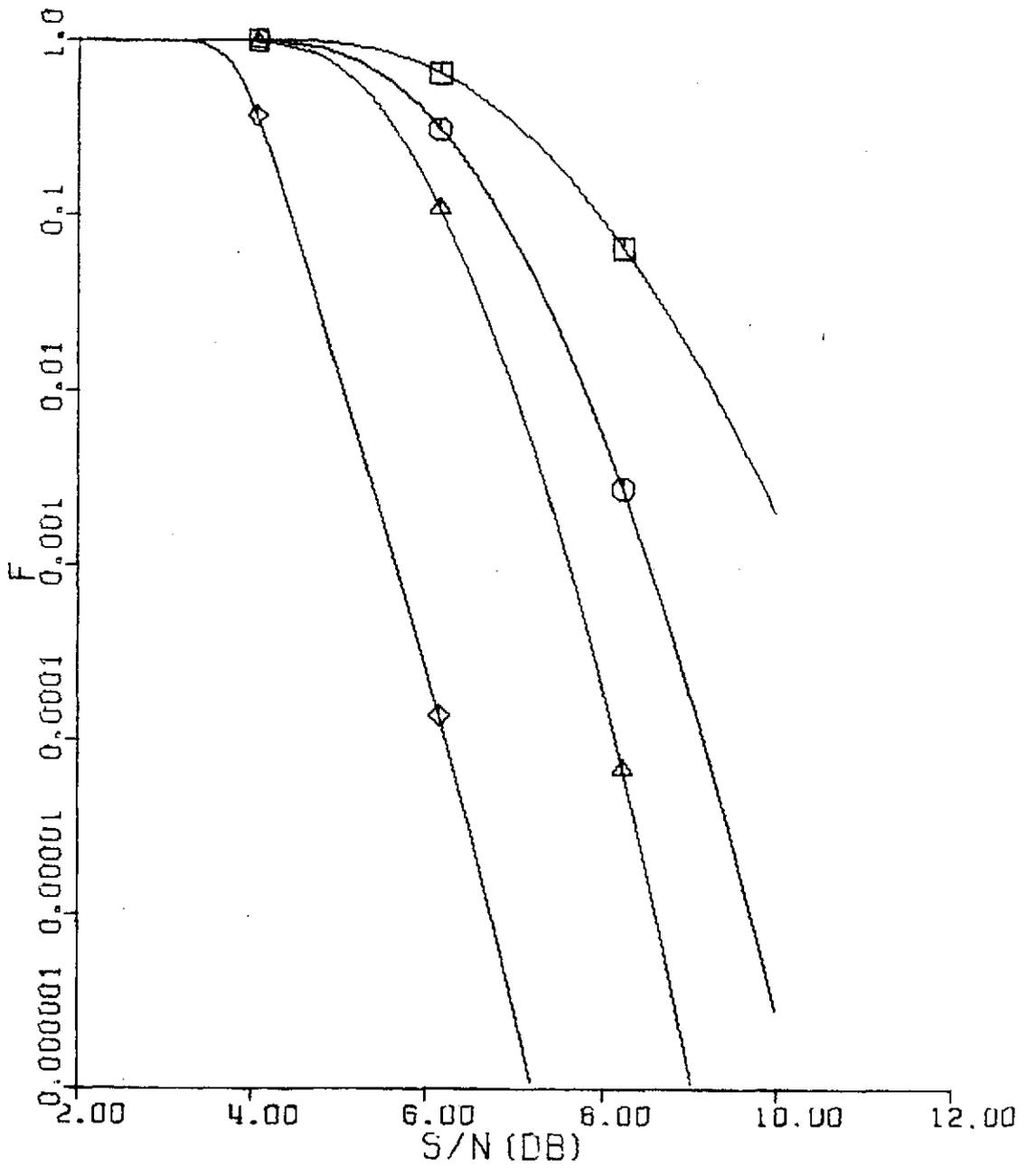


FIGURE 38

$N=511$      $\alpha=0.1$

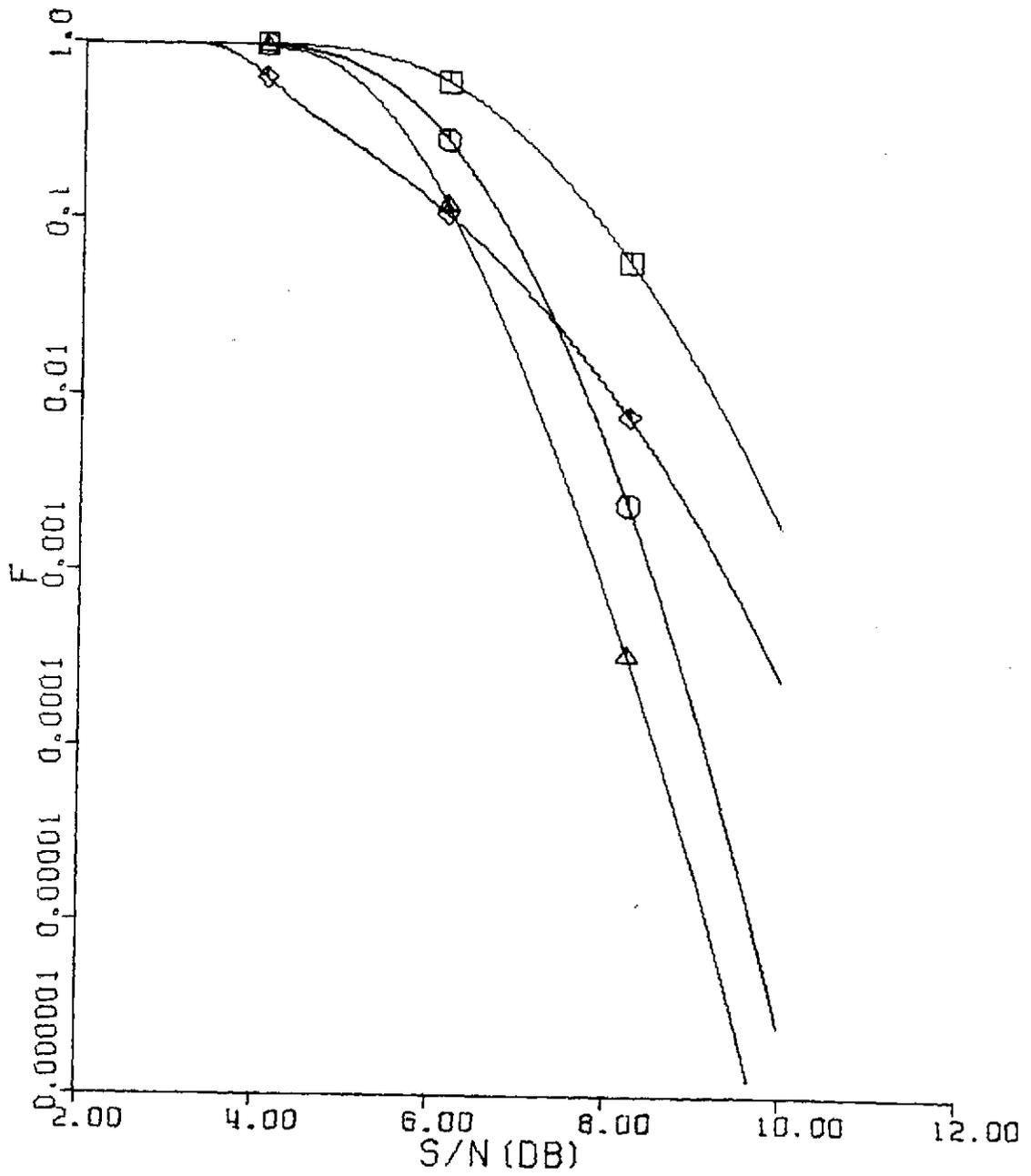


FIGURE 39

$N=511$      $\alpha=0.3$

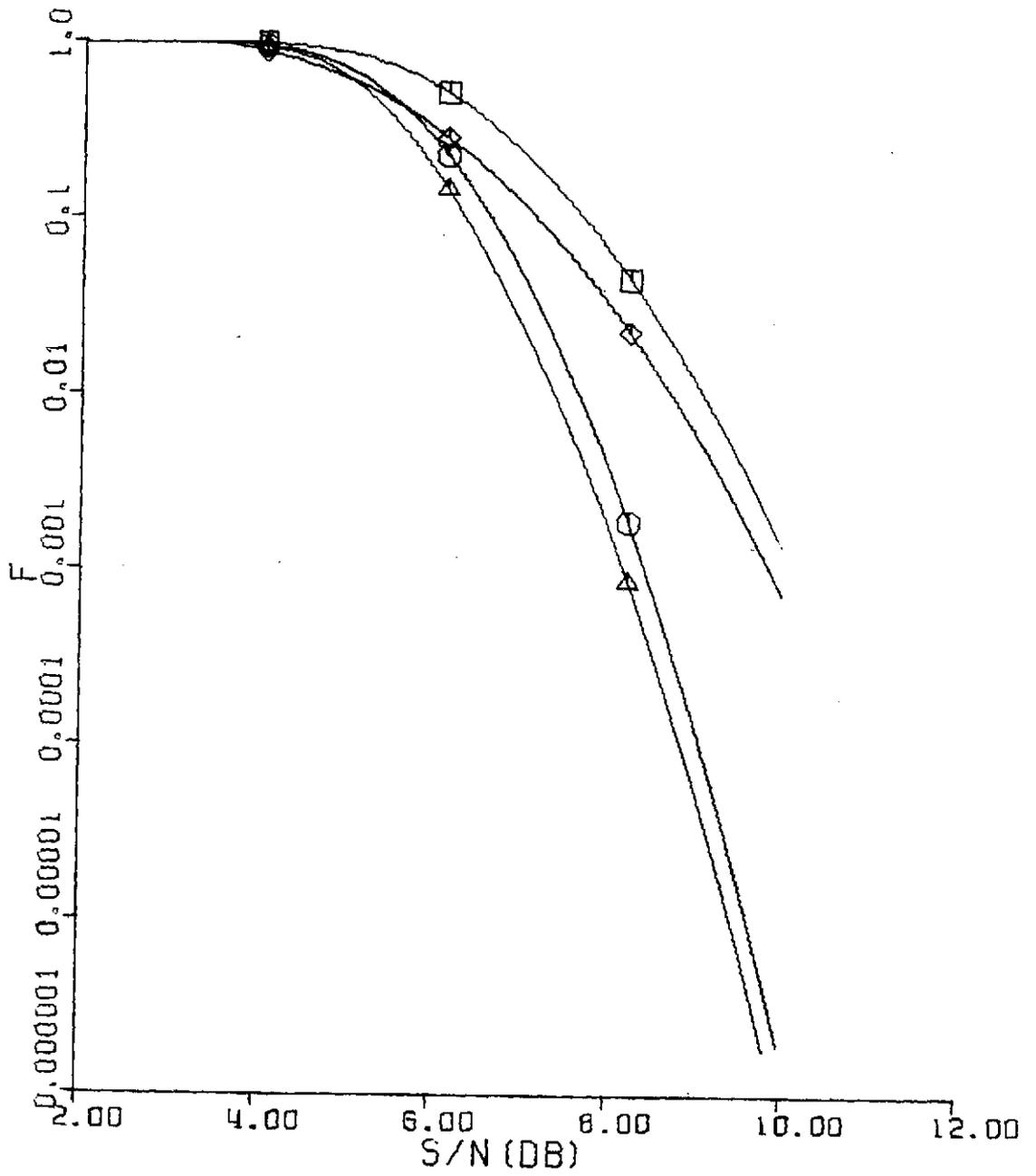


FIGURE 40

$N=511$      $\alpha=0.5$

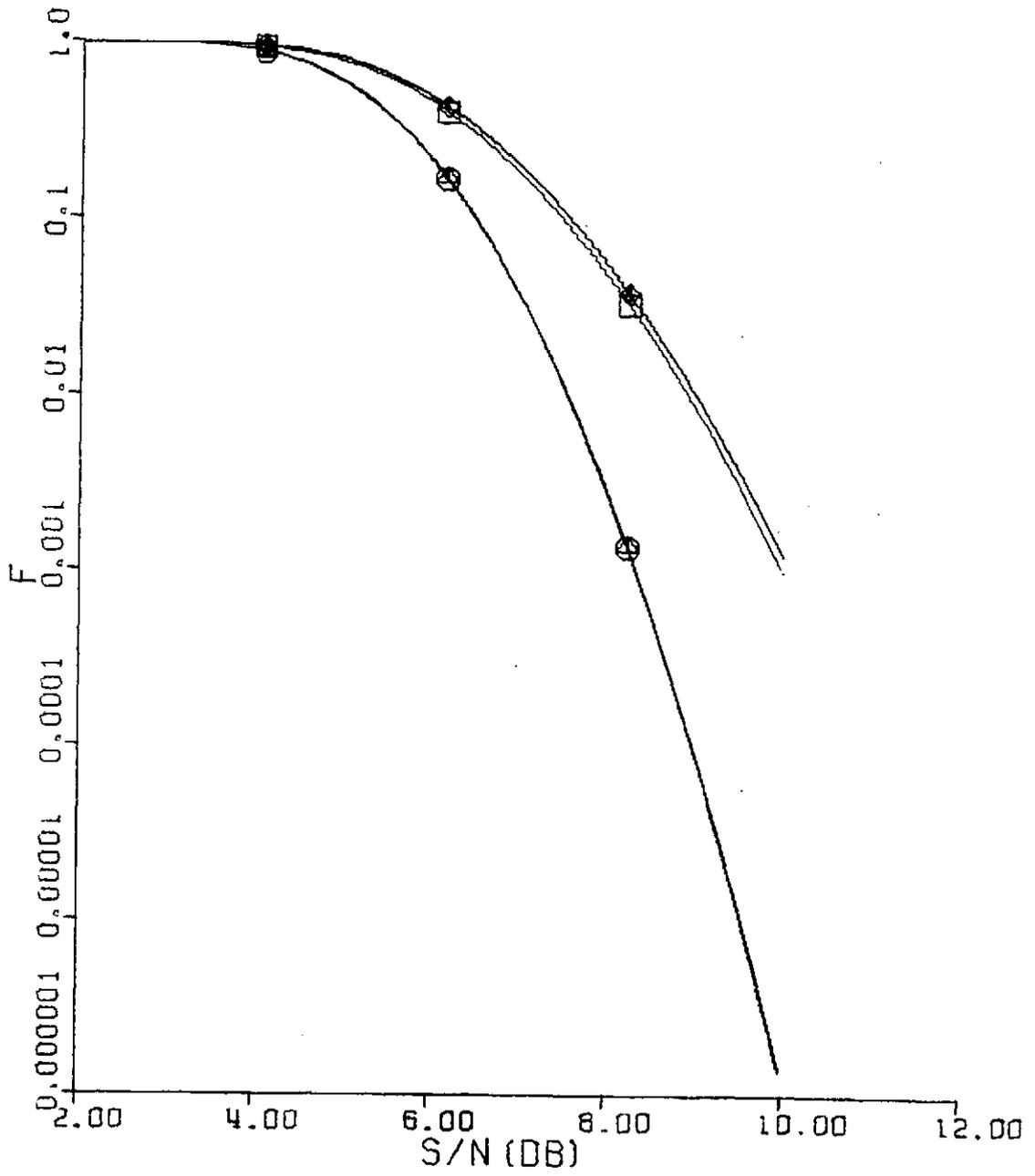


FIGURE 41

$N=511$      $\alpha=0.8$

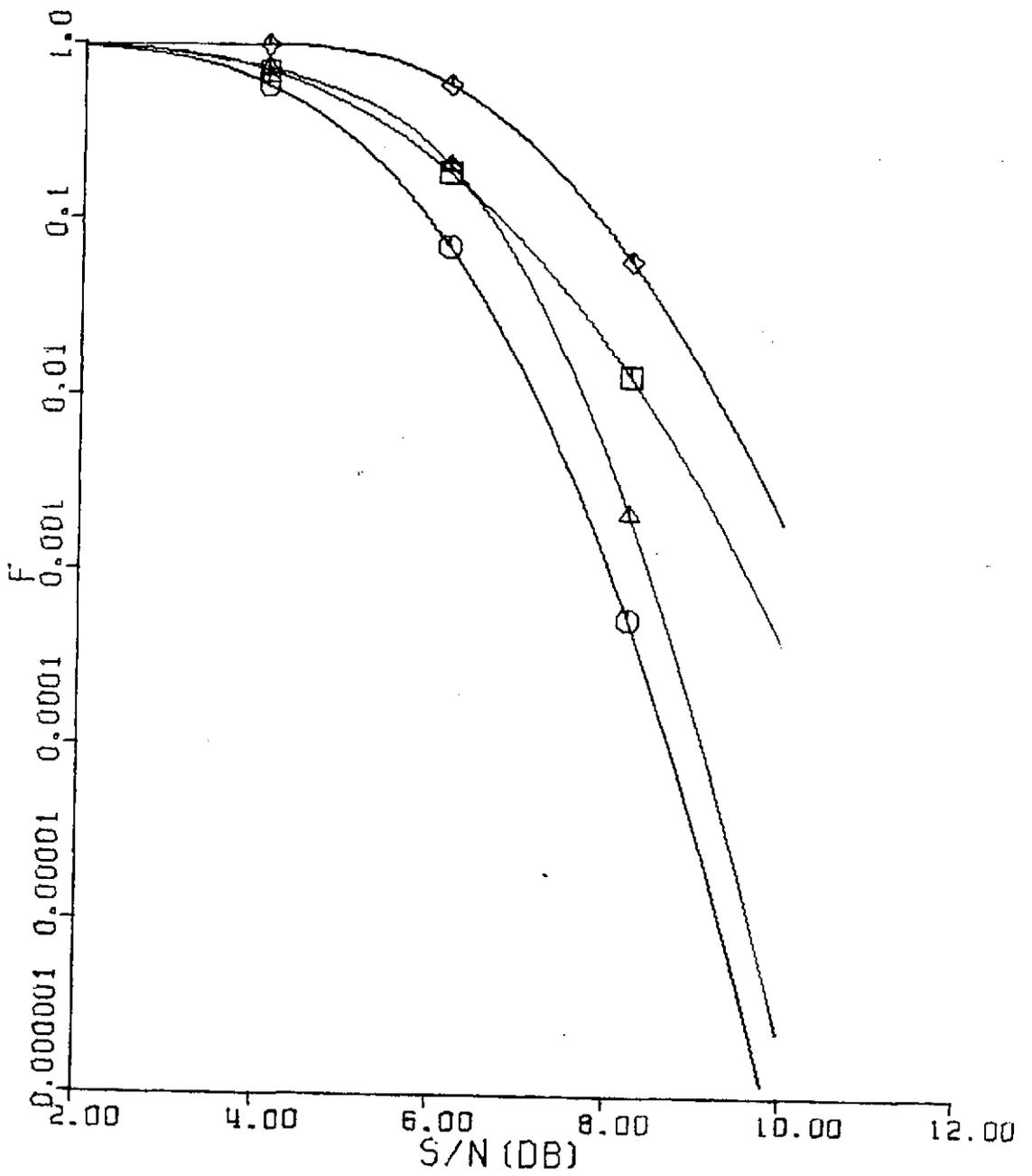


FIGURE 42

$N=511$      $\alpha=1.0$

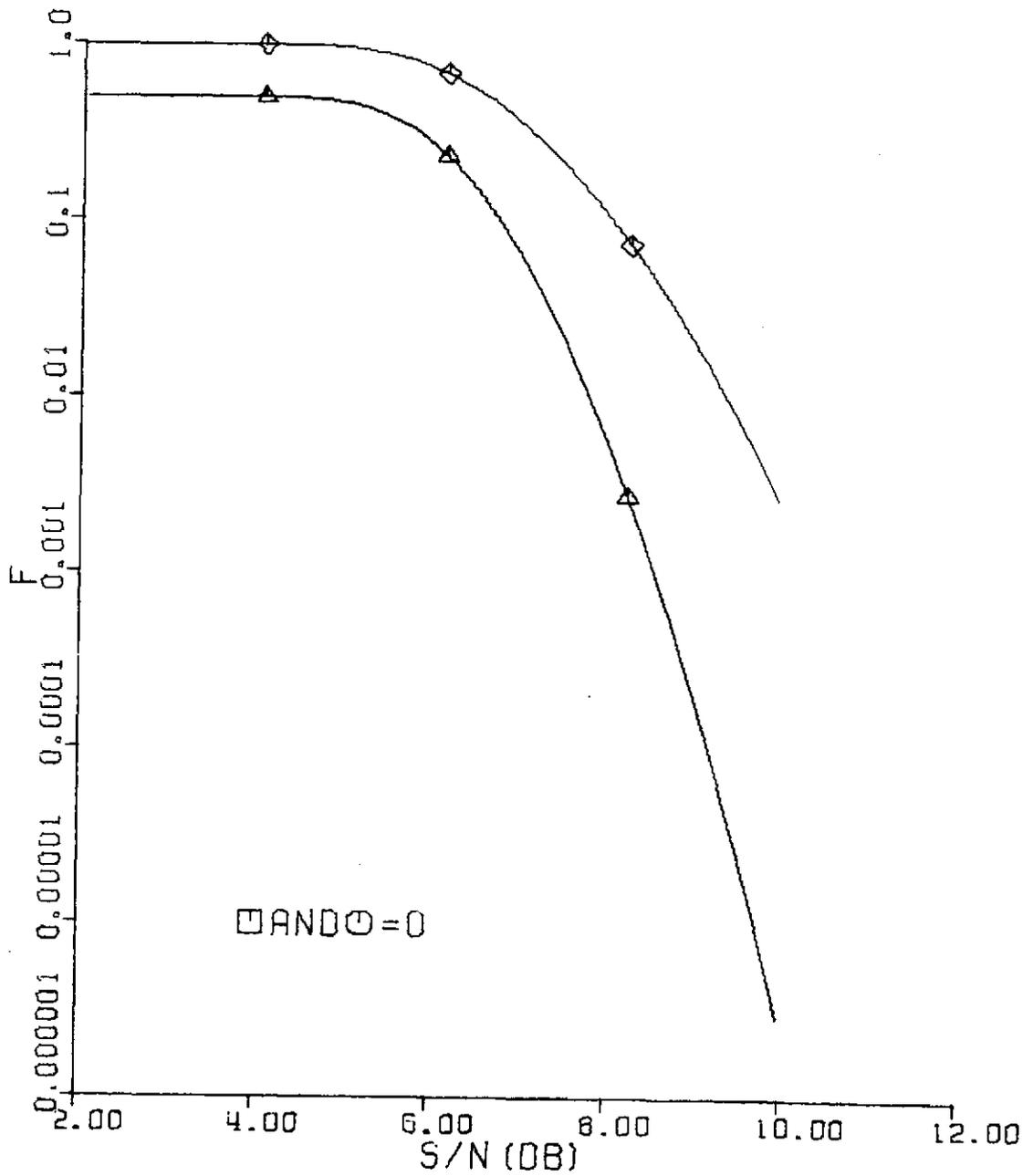


FIGURE 43

$N=1023$      $\alpha=0.0$

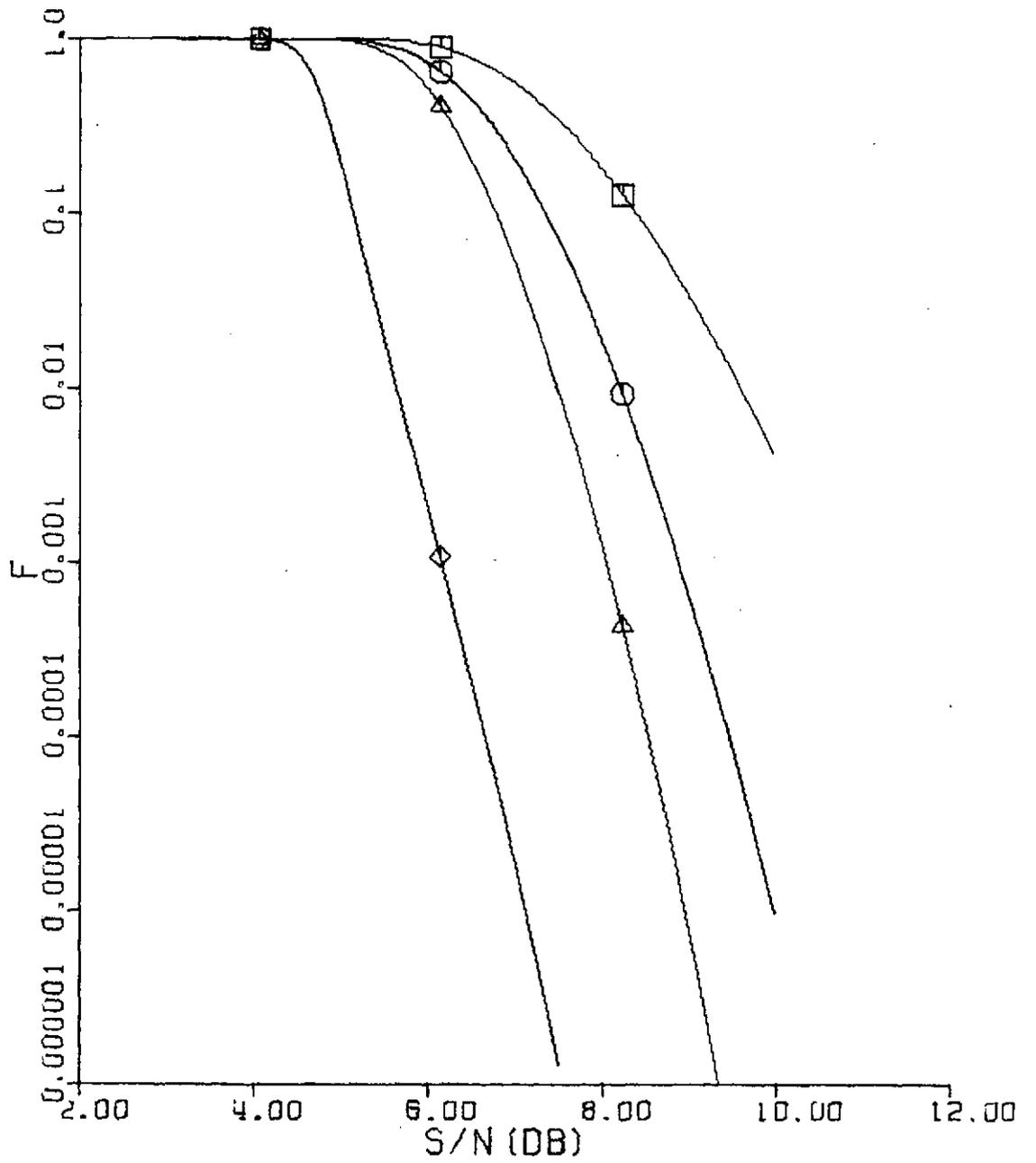


FIGURE 44

$N=1023$      $\alpha=0.1$

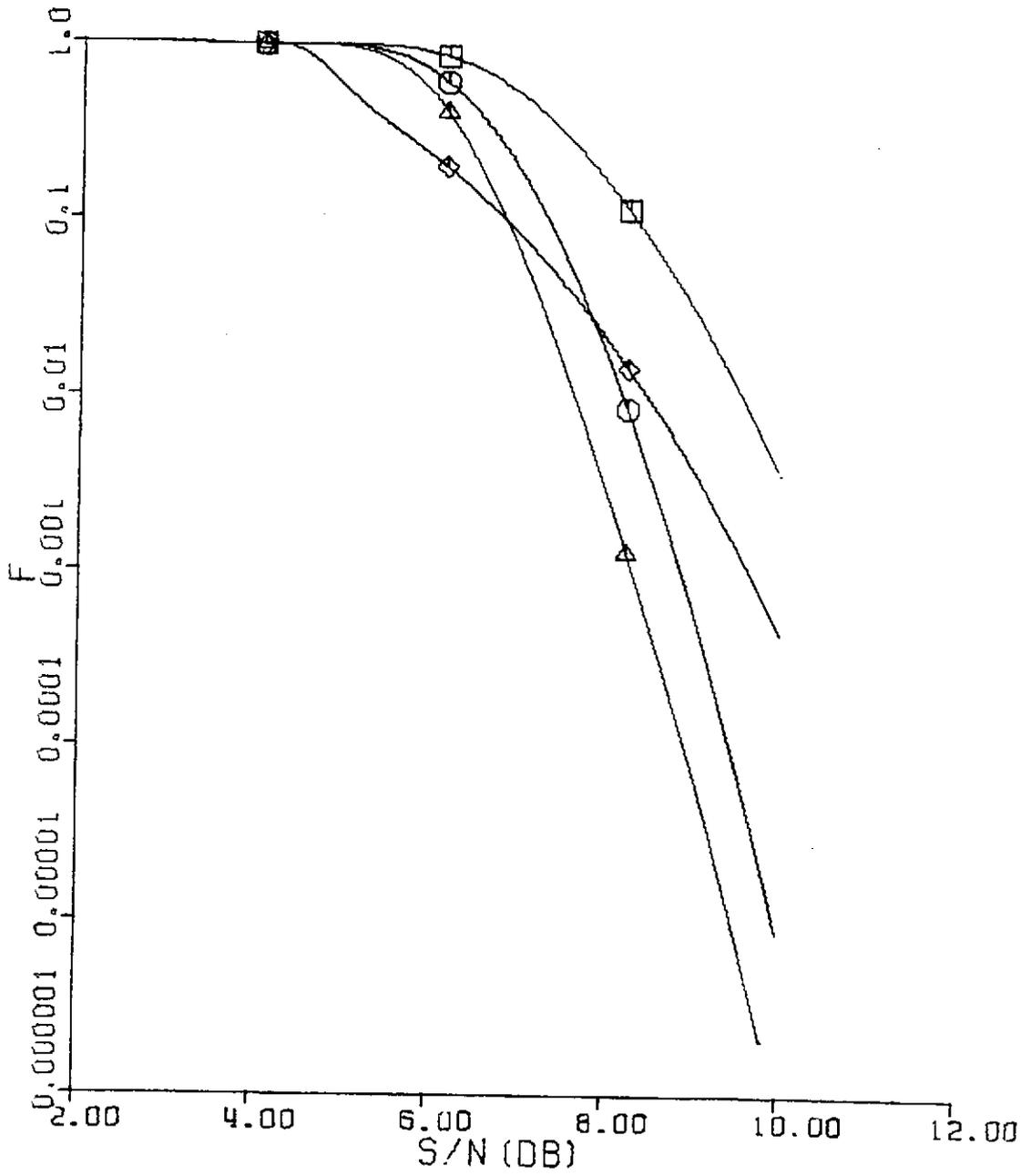


FIGURE 45

$N=1023$      $\alpha=0.3$

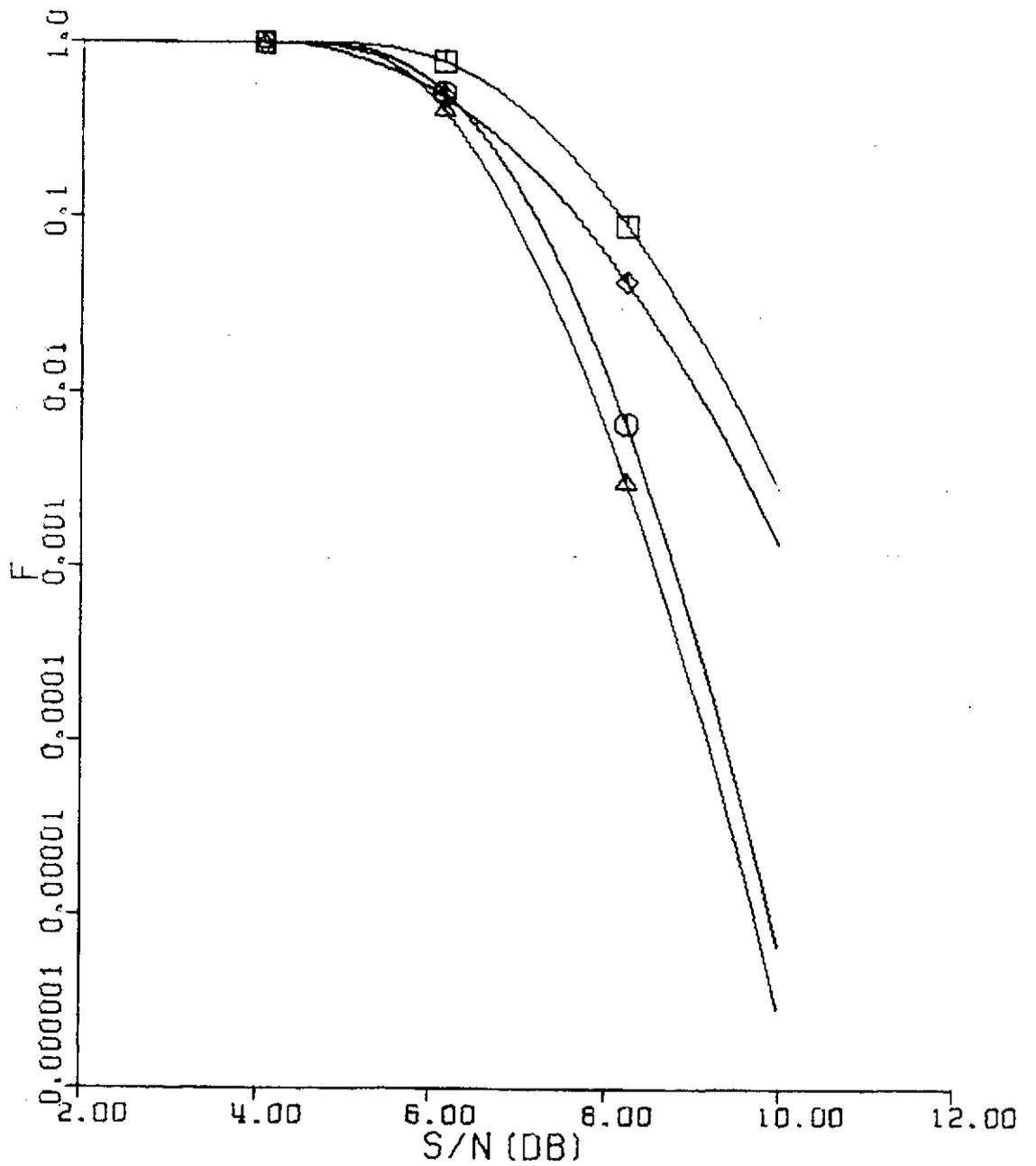


FIGURE 46

$N=1023$      $\alpha=0.5$

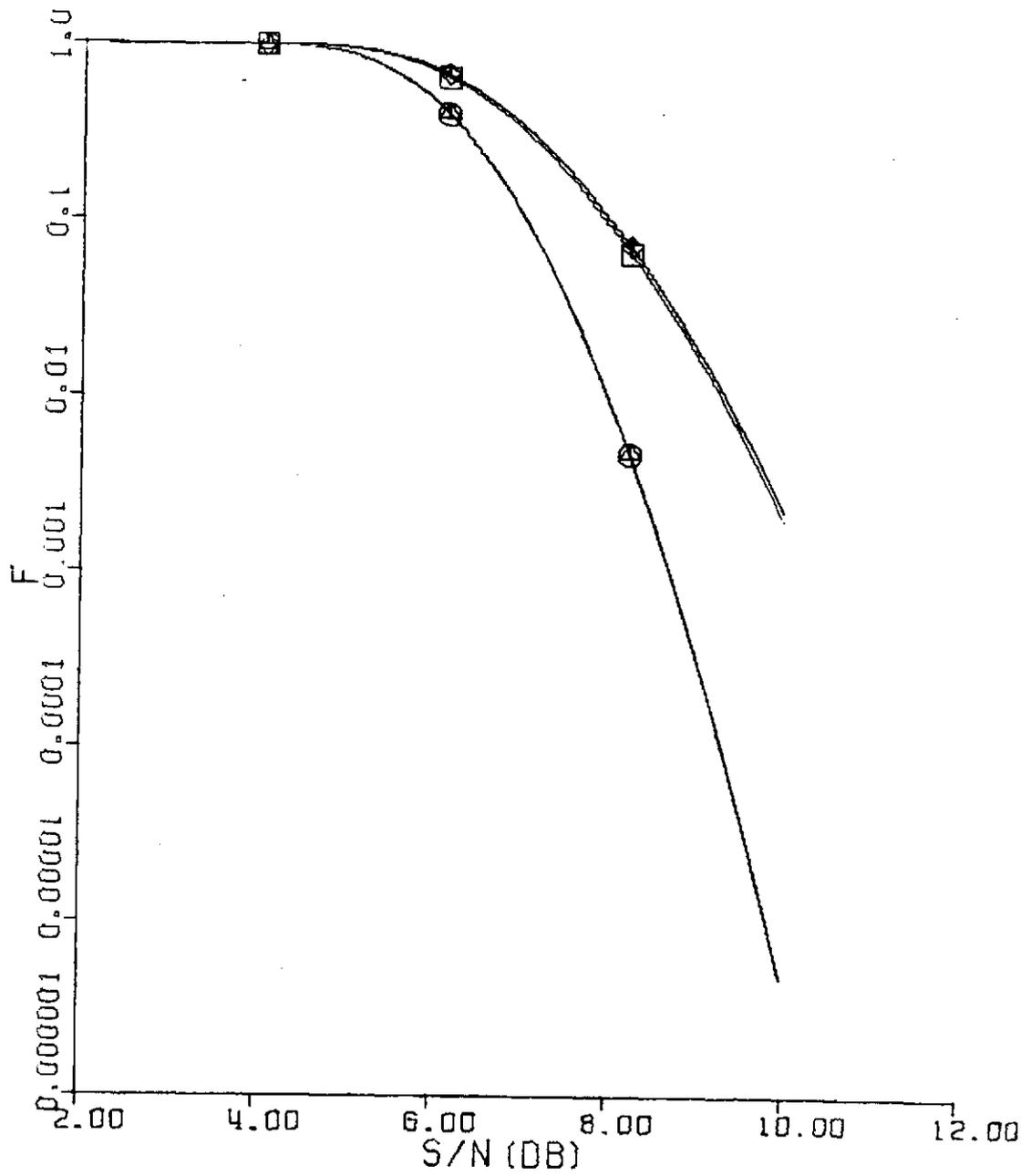


FIGURE 47

$N=1023$      $\alpha=0.8$

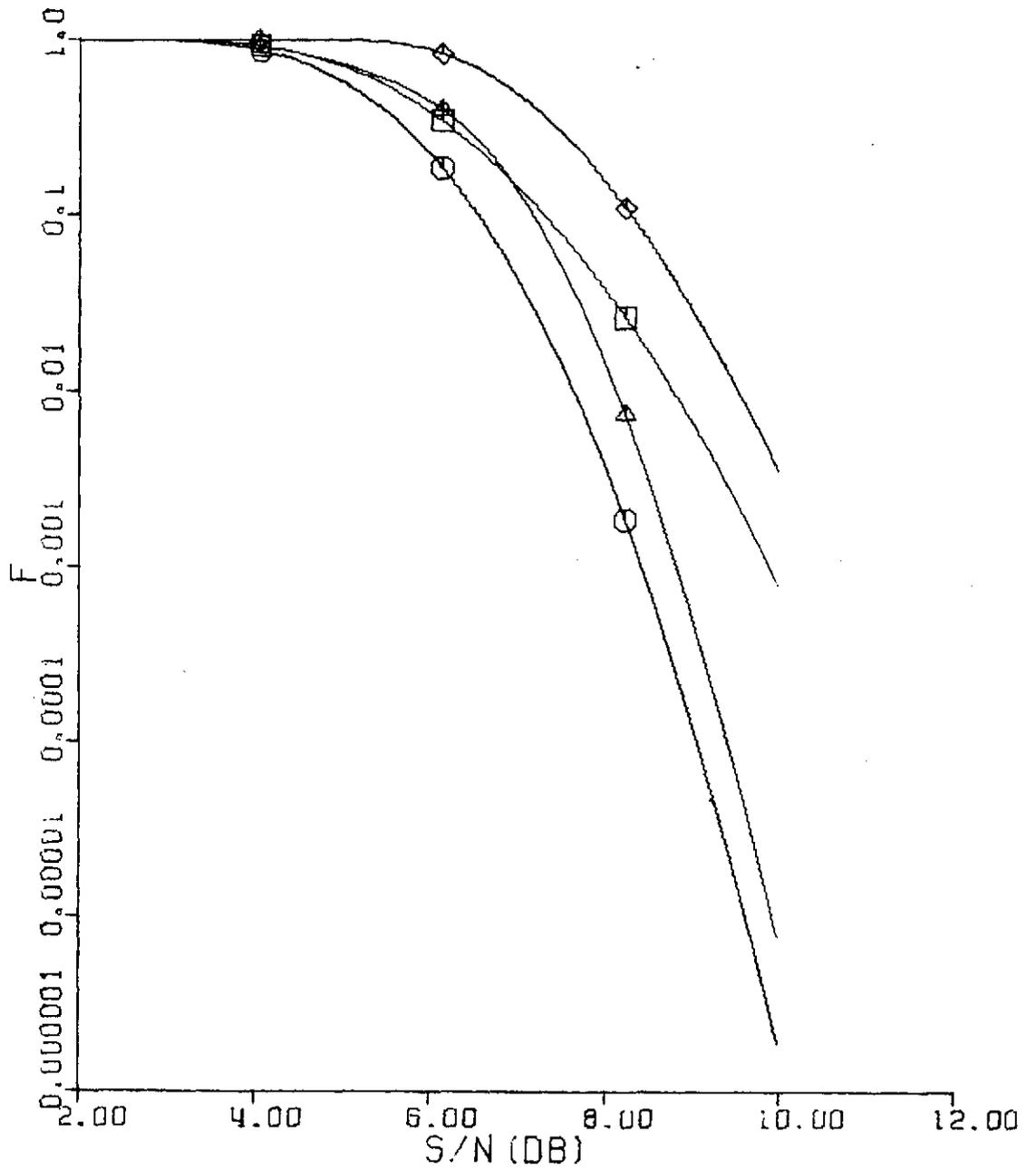


FIGURE 48

N=1023  $\alpha=1.0$

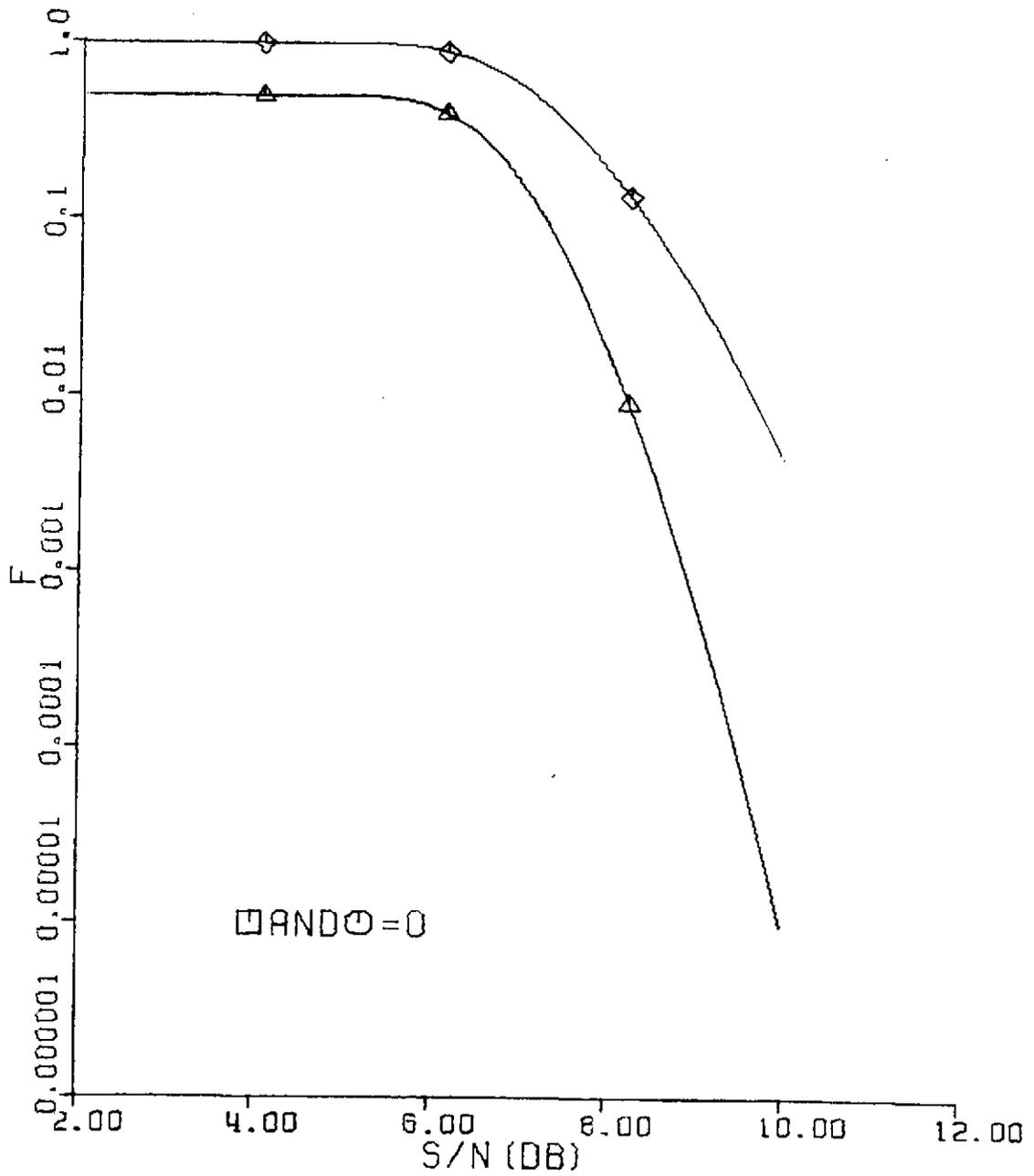


FIGURE 49

all four cases described above, and for  $n = 7, 15, 31, 63, 127, 255, 511, 1023$ , and  $\alpha = 0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.8, 1.0$ . We draw the following conclusions. For the extreme values of alpha the relative importance of each case remains fixed for all values of  $E_b/N_o$ . When  $\alpha = 0$ , indicating an interest only in the quality of the output, the relative ratings from best to worst are: TED, SEC-DED, SEC, No coding. As expected, when  $\alpha = 1$ , indicating an interest only in the quantity of output data, the relative ratings are just opposite to the  $\alpha = 0$  cases. For  $\alpha = .5$  and  $n \geq 15$ , the relative order also remains fixed: SEC, SEC-DED, No coding, TED. Notice that the extreme cases of large quantity of output achievable with no coding and high quality of output achievable with a TEC system are both given poor relative ratings for this value of alpha showing no preference of quantity over quality or vice-versa. Also, for  $\alpha = .5$   $n = 7$ , no coding becomes preferable to SEC-DED at signal-to-noise ratios below 4.1 db. This would be due to the increased data rejection by a SEC-DED decoder as the noise becomes greater.

A preference for quality over quantity without total disinterest in the latter is explored by the  $\alpha = .1$  and  $\alpha = .3$  cases. No coding for these values of alpha is never preferable to any other of the choices considered except TED. As S/N increases TED becomes relatively less desirable as triple errors become less likely and its low transmission rate becomes dominant. Similarly, as  $E_b/N_o$  increases SEC-DED becomes less important than just SEC. However, as the block size increases, TED and SEC-DED become more important since the probabilities of the errors these decoders are designed to correct increase.

Finally, when quantity is somewhat preferred over quality as with  $\alpha = .8$ , as might be expected the relatively extreme quality achieved by TED is shown to be undesirable for all values of S/N tested since this quality is achieved at the expense of quantity. The SEC decoder which employs no data rejection yet achieves some degree of error correction is found to be the best of all

PART B

four cases for all values of  $E_b/N_o$  considered. At very low noise levels the error correcting properties of SEC-DED make it more desirable than no coding, while at high noise levels the data-rejection of SEC-DED make it less desirable than no coding. For example, for  $n = 1023$ , SEC-DED is preferable to no coding for  $E_b/N_o$  from 4.4 to 6.9 db.

More insight into the nature of this function can be gained by looking at what is necessary to achieve a desired level of effectiveness. A typical example is shown in Table 1. Here the desired value of  $F$  is set at .01. With no coding or SEC, a higher value of  $E_b/N_o$  is required as quality becomes more preferable. However, with SEC-DED or TED a lower value of  $E_b/N_o$  is required to achieve the same value of  $F$  as emphasis is switched to quantity.

$E_b/N_o$  IN DB REQUIRED TO  
ACHIEVE  $F = .01$  FOR  $n = 255$

<u>Alpha</u>	<u>No Coding</u>	<u>SEC</u>	<u>SEC-DED</u>	<u>TED</u>
.1	8.88	7.36	6.64	7.68
.3	8.72	7.20	6.88	8.40
.5	8.56	7.04	7.12	8.72
.8	8.00	6.64	7.28	8.96

TABLE 1

## DIGITAL SIMULATION OF THE VITERBI MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD DECODING ALGORITHM

### I. Introduction:

The Viterbi algorithm is a method for determining the most likely sequence of states of a time-discrete Markov process; and, as such it is an optimal method for decoding convolutional codes. An evaluation of the effectiveness of this algorithm as a decoding method is accomplished herein through simulation on an IBM 370 computer using a main program written in the Fortran language and three subroutines written in Assembler language.

### II. The Simulation Procedure:

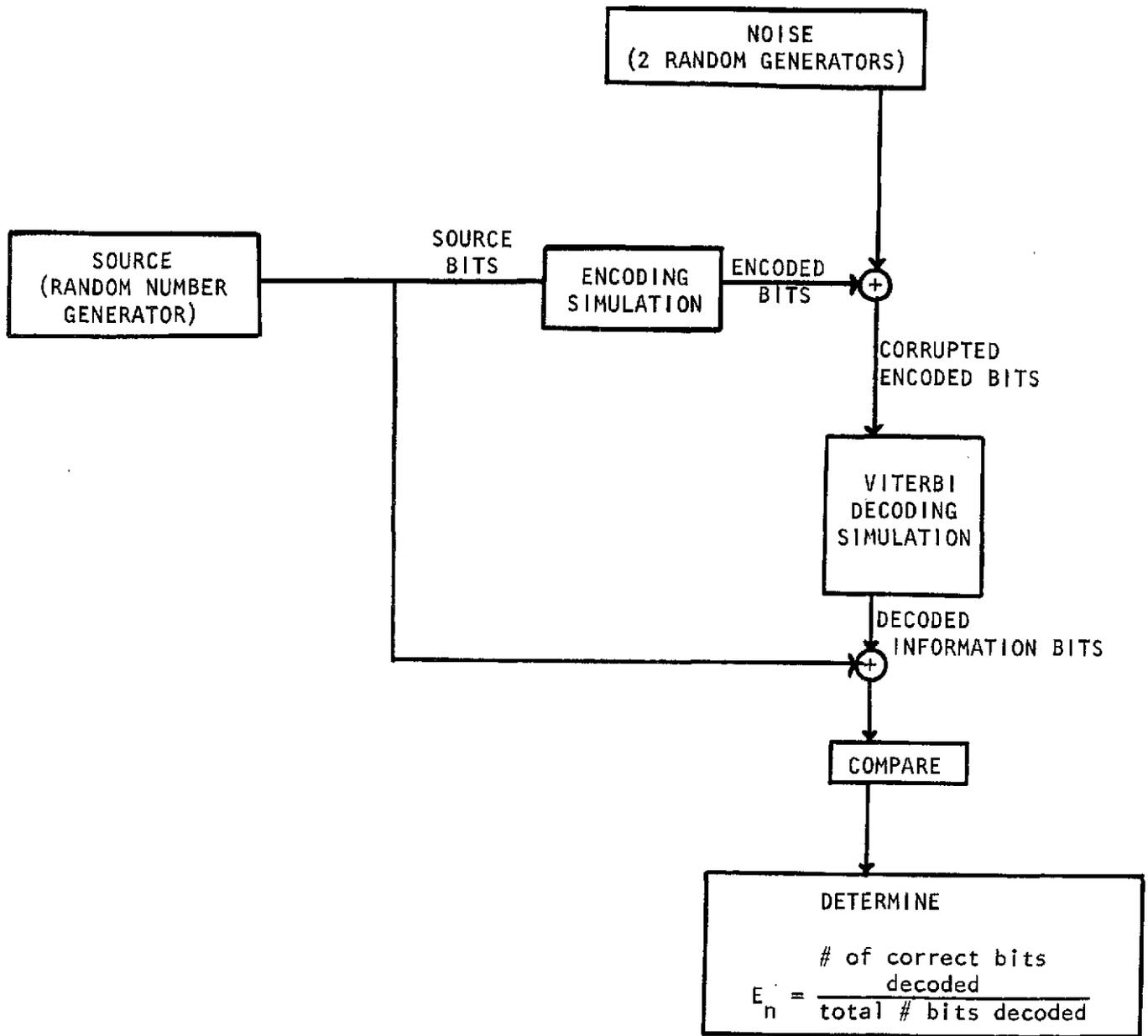
A block diagram of the simulation is shown in Figure 50. A pseudo-random number generator is used to independently generate binary source bits of equal probability and binary noise bits whose probabilities depend on the assumed channel characteristics. The source bits are encoded with the appropriate parity check bits in blocks of two. Each bit is added to a noise bit using modulo-2 arithmetic (simulating channel noise). The information noise bits and parity check noise bits are generated independently. The corrupted bits are then decoded using the Viterbi algorithm. Accuracy of the decoding algorithm is measured as

$$E = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = (\text{Number of correct information bits}) / (\text{Total bits})$$

where  $E_n$  is the ratio after information bits have  
been transmitted.

### III. The Viterbi Algorithm:

Given an observed output sequence  $Z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ , the purpose of the Viterbi algorithm is to determine the most likely input sequence  $X = (x_0,$



BLOCK DIAGRAM OF THE VITERBI ALGORITHM SIMULATION

FIGURE 50

$x_1, \dots, x_k$ ). The subscripts refer to the discrete time states. Since the process is assumed to be Markov, the probability of state  $x_{i+1}$  depends only on the state  $x_i$ :

$$\text{i.e., } \Pr(x_{i+1} | X_0, x_1, \dots, x_i) = \Pr(x_{i+1} | x_i).$$

The channel is assumed to be memoryless so that the observed output  $z_i$  at time  $i$  depends only on the transition from state  $x_i$  to state  $x_{i+1}$ . This transition is symbolized as  $t_i$ . We want to determine the maximum a posteriori  $\Pr(X, Z)$ . Because of the aforementioned Markov and memoryless assumptions:

$$\Pr(X, Z) = \Pr(X) \Pr(Z|X)$$

$$= \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} \Pr(x_{i+1}, x_i) \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} \Pr(z_i | t_i)$$

The Viterbi algorithm is a method of determining the shortest path between two points. We, therefore, assign a 'path length' between each pair of possible states from time =  $i$  to time =  $i + 1$ . This length  $\lambda(t_i)$  is defined as

$$\lambda(t_i) = -\ln \Pr(x_{i+1} | x_i) - \ln \Pr(z_i | t_i).$$

The total length for some input sequence  $X$  would be

$$-\ln \Pr(X, Z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \lambda(t_i)$$

Since path length is a negative logarithm of the probability, the shortest (critical) path length between two points (i.e., the initial and final states) would be the one with the highest probability. This is the maximum a posteriori probability we are seeking. The Viterbi method of finding this critical path is based on the observation that at any given time  $i$ , each state  $x_i$  has associated with it a shortest path to the initial state. This shortest sequence is called a survivor, designated  $\hat{X}(x_i)$ . The path length of survivor  $\hat{X}(x_i)$  is designated

gamma ( $x_i$ ). Extending these survivors to time  $i + 1$  requires merely adding the appropriate digit ("bit" for our purposes) to the existing survivor and adding the corresponding path length gamma ( $x_{i+1}, x_i$ ) for comparison purposes in determining the survivors for each state at time  $i + 1$ . At the end of the sequence (time =  $k$ ) the survivor corresponding to the state with the shortest survivor path length is optimal.

For the purpose of convolutional code decoding, the states correspond to the possible binary state permutations of a block of  $m$  shift registers. Assuming that for the source  $\Pr(0) = \Pr(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ , it follows that for all possible transitions between states the term  $\Pr(x_{i+1} | x_i) = \frac{1}{2}$ ; and, since it is a constant for all possible transitions, it may be ignored when calculating the optimal path. Thus, only the term  $\Pr(z_i | t_i)$  is significant. For systematic codes, the observation  $z_i$  corresponds to both the information bit and the parity bit received as a block at time =  $i$ . For non-systematic codes,  $z_i$  corresponds to a block containing a parity bit for each subgenerator polynomial. These probabilities are pre-calculated for each state and each possible received block before decoding begins.

Since we are concerned with a communications system with a semi-infinite number of bits transmitted, corresponding to a semi-infinite sequence, and since storing the resulting semi-infinite survivors is impractical, a limit must be placed on the number of bits stored as a survivor (i.e., the survivor length). Call this limit delta. Thus, at time =  $i$ , a decision must be made concerning the bit at time =  $i - \text{delta}$  ( $i$  minus delta). This survivor transaction becomes insignificant for delta large enough because survivors tend to converge to the same state nodes.

#### IV. The Simulation Program for Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ Codes:

A Fortran language main program was used in conjunction with three custom written Assembler language subroutines. The main thing to be aware of when using the program is that the delta defined in the program is one greater than the corresponding delta as defined in the Viterbi algorithm (e.g., if you wish to get results for delta = 75, set delta = 76 in this program!). For each state at time  $i$  there are two possible states to which it can branch at time  $i + 1$  (one of which has an incoming 0 bit, the other has an incoming 1 bit). These possible transitions are stored in an array called NEXT. NEXT(1,1) corresponds to the branch of state 1 with an incoming 0; whereas, NEXT(1,2) corresponds to an incoming 1.

Probabilities which determine the path lengths are calculated prior to the main iterative loop. These calculations are done for all four possible two bit permutations corresponding to a received block containing an information bit and a parity check bit in the systematic case, or two parity check bits in the non-systematic case. Array POFZLN stores these predetermined path lengths. Thus in the main iterative loop the increase in the total path length GAMMA of each state can be determined by a simple table reference (i.e., POFZLN). Survivors are stored and saved by arrays SURVIV and SAVUR, while the corresponding path lengths are saved using arrays GAMMA and SAVE.

The appropriate subgenerator vectors are stored in the array GEN. In the case of a systematic code the second subgenerator is a 1 followed by  $m - 1$  zeros. For example, the subgenerators for an  $m = 5$  systematic code would be: 10000 and 11011. Note that the subgenerator 10000 merely generates the information bit. SHIFT2 saves the contents of the simulated encoding shift registers.

All random bit generation is done independently for each application. Source bits of equal probability are generated using a Scientific Subroutine Package member called RANDU. These source bits are stored in PRSOUR. The generated noise bits ( $\text{Pr}(0) = q$ ) are stored in PNOISE. Decoded bits are stored in PROUT for comparison with the original source bits in PRSOUR.

Many different counters are used to keep track of time states corresponding to source bits, noise bits, and output bits. IOUT determines the printed increments for  $E_n$ . During the course of this research, IOUT was set equal to 1000 so that the accuracy  $E_n$  was printed out for  $n = 1000, 2000, 3000$ , etc. The  $n$  refers to the number of decoded bits and is called NDECOD within the program.

Read and punch statements are included to save the information necessary to restart the program where it left off. This feature is desirable to enable the programmer to check the convergence of the accuracy figures and compare them with other data in order to determine the desirability of decoding a greater number of bits. However, due to the fact that hexadecimal double precision accuracy used by the IBM 370 computer is equivalent to about 16.7 decimal digits, and the data cards are punched with decimal numbers, there is a slight loss in accuracy that is sometimes noticeable but generally insignificant.

Three Assembler language subroutines were written to expedite the execution of the program. These are COPYAR, SHIFT, and TESTBT. COPYAR simply copies SAVSUR into SURVIV. SHIFT is used to shift the survivor of a row in SURVIV, add a 0 or a 1, and transfer the resulting survivor to the row specified by NEXT in the array SAVSUR for the next time increment. TESTBT determines whether the bit at time =  $k - \text{delta}$  (Viterbi definition of delta) is a 0 or a 1 in the survivor of the current state whose total path length is the least.

Typical decoding rates are shown in Table 2. The number of bits refers to the total number of both parity and information bits. To obtain the number of information bits decoded per second, multiply the rates shown in Table 2 by the code rate, which in all cases explored here is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Note that decoding an  $m = 7$  code is approximately twice as slow as decoding an  $m = 6$  code since the latter has half the possible states of the former.

TYPICAL DECODING RATES

<u>m</u>	<u>delta</u>	<u>bits/sec</u>
5	31	578
5	52	506
6	31	324
6	59	275
7	27	165
7	59	145

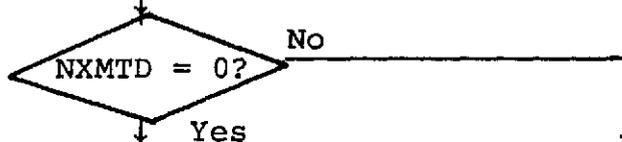
TABLE 2

#### V. Program for Simulating A Viterbi Decoder

Read: MAXBIT, N, M,  
NROWS, NCOL, GEN(M),  
DELTA, STON, NXMTD,  
IXSOUR, IXNOIS(N).  
Define: N2, K, K2,  
DELM1, IDEPTH, IDEPCP,  
IBIT, MAXDEC, NSTATE,  
Q.

Determine the two  
branches for each  
state: i.e.,  
NEXT(I,1),  
NEXT(I,2).

Print initial values  
of IXSOUR and IXNOIS.



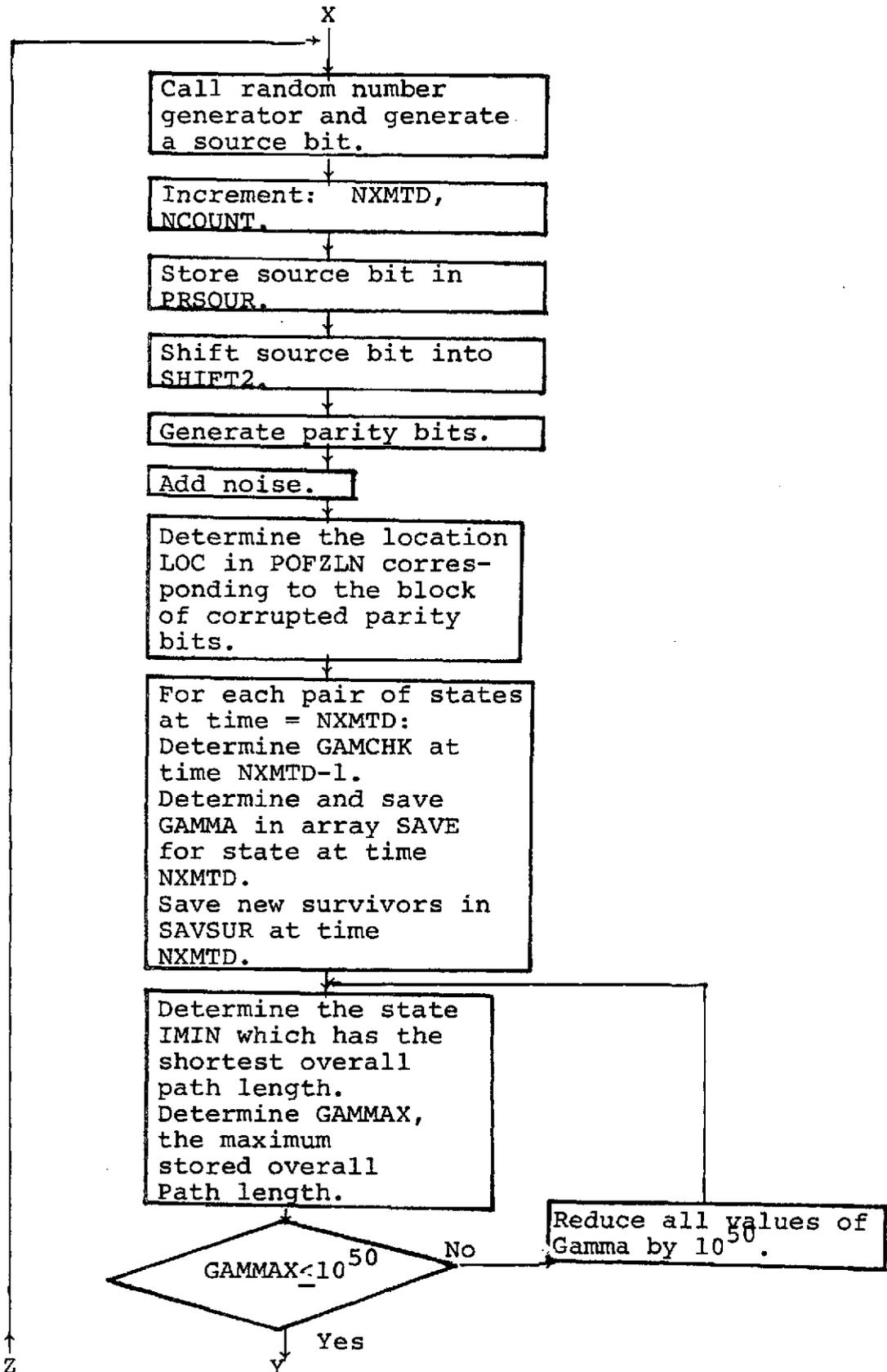
Initialize: ERRORS,  
NTOTAL, NCOUNT,  
NDECOD, PARCK(N),  
SHIFT2(M),  
GAMMA(NSTATE),  
SURVIV(NSTATE, NCOL).

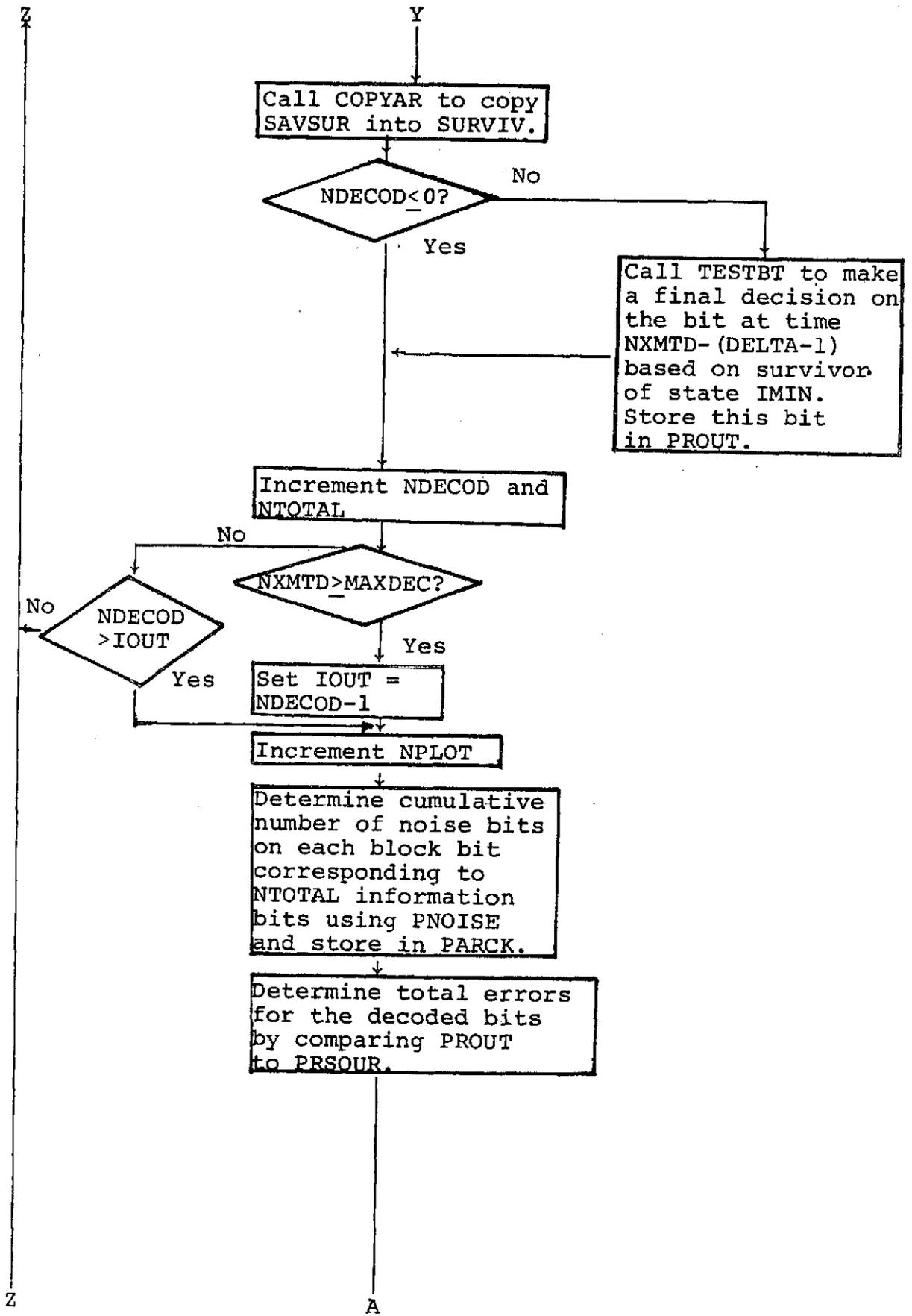
Read: ERRORS,  
NTOTAL,  
PNOISE(NCOUNT, N),  
PRSOR(NCOUNT),  
PARCK(N),  
GAMMA(NSTATE)  
SURVIV(IDEPCP, NCOL),  
SHIFT2(M).

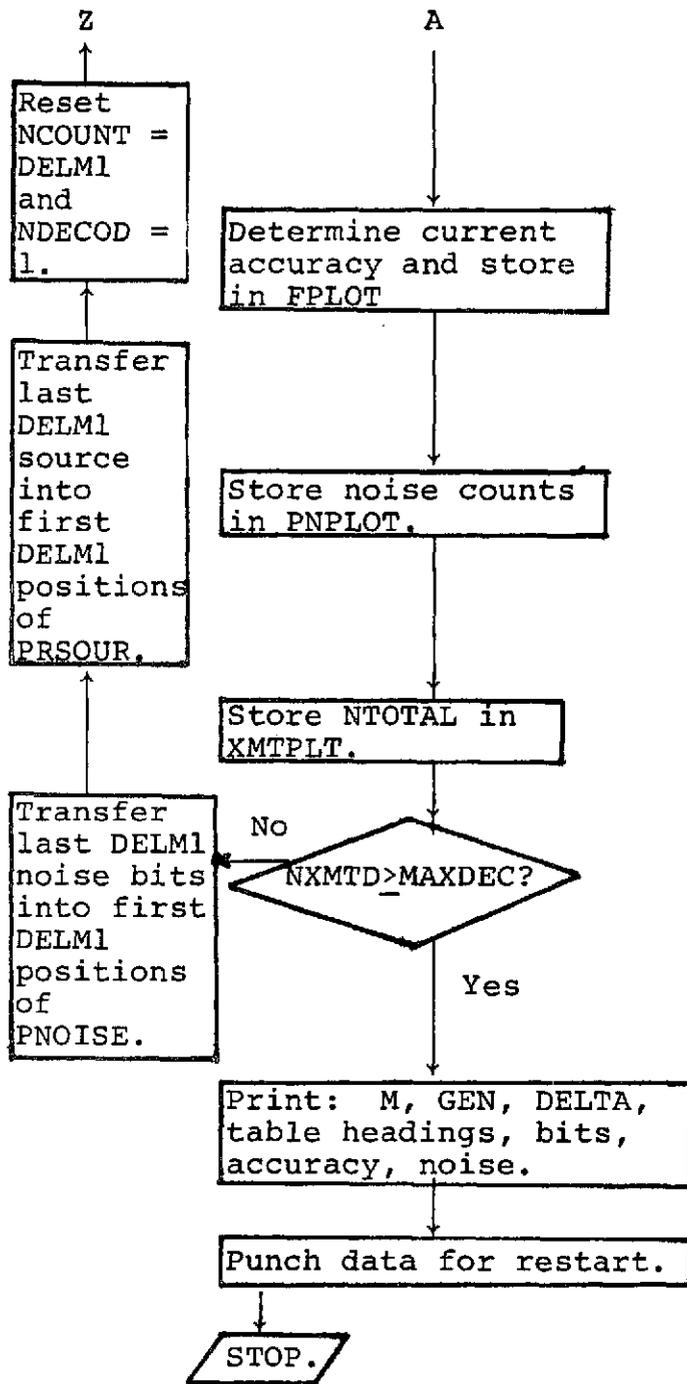
Define IOUT.  
Initialize NPLOT.  
Print STON and Q.  
Establish P with a  
lower limit of  
1.D-75.  
Define: QLN, PLN.

Calculate POFZLN.  
This array contains the  
predetermined branch  
lengths based on the  
probability that a  
given state is correct  
for the block of bits  
received. i.e.,  
POFZLN(I,LOC) contains  
the probability, ex-  
pressed as a path length  
that state I is correct  
for block number LOC  
which can be any of 2\*\*N  
permutations.

X







```

C   PROGRAM FOR SIMULATING A VITERBI DECODER
C
C   FOR STORAGE REASONS DELTA IN THIS PROGRAM SHOULD BE SET TO ONE MORE
C   THAN THE CASE BEING SIMULATED.
C   I.E. TO SIMULATE DELTA=13, SET DELTA=14.
C   THE FOLLOWING MINIMUM ARRAY DIMENSIONS MUST BE ALLOCATED:
C   PNOISE (IOUT+DELTA,N)
C   PRSOUR (IOUT+DELTA)
C   PROUT (IOUT)
C   PNPLT (IOUT,N)
C   GEN (M,N)
C   SHIFT2 (M)
C   L (M)
C   NEXT (NSTATE,2)
C   PAR (N)
C   OUTPUT (N)
C   XMTPLT (NUMBER OF LINES PRINTED=(NUMBER OF INFORMATION
C   BITS DECODED THIS RUN/IOUT))
C   FPLT (SAME AS XMTPLT)
C   PARCK (N)
C   POFZLN (NSTATE,N2=2**N)
C   GAMMA (NSTATE)
C   SAVE (NSTATE)
C   IXNOIS (N)
C
C
C
C
C   SURVIV AND SAVSUR MUST BE DIMENSIONED EXACTLY (NROWS,NCOL) WHERE
C   NROWS MUST BE AT LEAST 2**M AND NCOL MUST BE AT LEAST IDEPTH
C
C
C
C
C   INTEGER PARSUM
C   INTEGER*2 PNOISE(1064,3),PRSOUR(1064)
C   INTEGER GAMCHK,TEST
C   INTEGER*2 PROUT(1000)
C   INTEGER PNPLT(1000,3)
C   INTEGER*2 GEN(8,3),SHIFT2(8),JKL, IOUT,M,K2,DELTA,DELTA1
C   INTEGER*2 DELM1,NSTATE,L(8),LR,NEXT(256,2),PAR(3),PARITY
C   INTEGER*2 OUTPUT(3),LDC,SOURCE
C   INTEGER SURVIV(256,2),SAVSUR(256,2)
C   INTEGER XMTPLT(1000)
C   INTEGER PARCK(3)
C   REAL*8 POFZLN(256,4),GAMMA(256),SAVE(256)
C   REAL*8 FPLT(100)
C   INTEGER NTOTAL,ERRORS,NPLT,NCOUNT,NDECOD,NXMTD,MAXBIT,IXNOIS(3)
C   REAL*8 Q,P,DFLOAT,STON,DERF,DSQRT,QLN,PLN
C   REAL*8 DLOG,GAMMIN,GAMMAX
C   MNPLT AND PNPLT STORE INFO AND PARITY NOISE COUNTS RESPECTIVELY
C   MAXBIT IS THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF BITS TO BE XMTD
1104 READ1104,MAXBIT
C   FORMAT(I7)
C   N IS BLOCK LENGTH
C   READ1100,N
C   N2=2**N
C   K IS THE NUMBER OF INFORMATION BITS REPRESENTED BY A BLOCK
C   OF LENGTH N.
C   THIS PROGRAM WILL ONLY SIMULATE CODES OF RATE 1/N.
C   THEREFORE K MUST ALWAYS EQUAL 1.

```

```

      K=1
      K2=2**K
C   M IS CONSTRAINT LENGTH
      READ1100,M
1100  FORMAT(I1)
      READ1104,NROWS
      READ1104,NCOL
C   GEN IS SURGENERATOR VECTOR
      DO 1506 J=1,N
1506  READ1102,(GEN(I,J),I=1,M)
1102  FORMAT(9I1)
      PRINT698
698   FORMAT('1',' ')
C   DELTA=SURVIVOR LENGTH PLUS ONE
      READ1106,DELTA
1106  FORMAT(I3)
C   STON IS THE SIGNAL-TO-NOISE RATIO IN DECIBELS.
      READ1108,STON
1108  FORMAT(D15.7)
      Q=.500+.500*DERF(DSQRT(DFLOAT(K)/DFLOAT(N))*10.D0**(STON/10.D0))
C   NXMTD=TOTAL SOURCE BITS XMTD
      READ2000,NXMTD
2000  FORMAT(I20)
C   IXSOUR AND IXNOIS ARE RANDOM INTEGERS USED AS STARTING
C   POINTS FOR THE RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR.
      READ2000,IXSOUR
      DO 1510 I=1,N
1510  READ2000,IXNOIS(I)
      DELM1=DELTA-1
C   IDEPTH IS THE NUMBER OF WORDS REQUIRED TO STORE ONE SURVIVOR.
      IDEPTH=DELM1/32+1
      IDEPCP=NCOL+1-IDEPTH
      IBIT=DELTA-32*(IDEPTH-1)
      MAXDEC=MAXBIT+DELM1
      NSTATE=2**M
      M1=M+1
      DO 9 I=1,M
9     L(I)=1
      DO 16 I=1,NSTATE
      DO 11 LR=1,M
11    L(LR)=0
      GO TO 15
14    L(LR)=1
C   NEXT IS AN ARRAY CONTAINING THE NUMBERS CORRESPONDING
C   TO THE 2 STATES THAT ANY GIVEN STATE CAN BRANCH TO.
15    NEXT(I,1)=1
      DO 30 LM=2,M
30    NEXT(I,1)=NEXT(I,1)+2**(LM-2)*L(LM)
16    NEXT(I,2)=NEXT(I,1)+2**(M-1)
      PRINT1138,IXSOUR
1138  FORMAT('0','IXSOUR=',I20)
      DO 1139 I=1,N
1139  PRINT1140,I,IXNOIS(I)
1140  FORMAT('0','IXNOIS(',I1,')=',I20)
      IF(NXMTD.EQ.0)GO TO 1300
      READ2000,ERRORS
      READ2000,NTOTAL
      NCOUNT=DELM1
      NDECOD=1
2001  FORMAT(72I1)

```

```

DO 1550 J=1,N
1550 READ2001,(PNOISE(I,J),I=1,NCOUNT)
   READ2001,(PRSDUR(I),I=1,NCOUNT)
   DO 1551 I=1,N
1551 READ2000,PARCK(I)
   DO 1302 I=1,NSTATE
1302 READ2002,GAMMA(I)
2002 FORMAT(D23.16)
   DO 1303 I=1,NSTATE
   DO 1303 J=IDPCP,NCOL
1303 READ2000,SURVIV(I,J)
   READ2001,(SHIFT2(I),I=1,M)
   GO TO 1301
1300 CONTINUE
C INITIALIZE RANDU SOURCE AND NOISE
C ERRORS=NUMBER OF DECODING ERRORS
  ERRORS=0
C NTOTAL=TOTAL BITS PRINTED
  NTOTAL=1-DELTA
C NCOUNT PLACES OUTPUT BITS IN CORRECT VECTOR POSITION
  NCOUNT=0
C NDECOD=NUMBER OF BITS DECODED
  NDECOD=2-DELTA
C PARCK=TOTAL NUMBER OF PRINTED PARITY CHECK BITS CORRUPTED BY NOISE
  DO 1552 I=1,N
1552 PARCK(I)=0
C SHIFT2=CONTENTS OF ENCODING SHIFT REGISTER
  DO 1 I=1,M
1  SHIFT2(I)=0
   GAMMA(1)=0.D0
   DO 60 I=2,NSTATE
60  GAMMA(I)=1.D40
   DO 61 I=1,NROWS
   DO 61 J=1,NCOL
61  SURVIV(I,J)=0
1301 CONTINUE
C IOUT=NUMBER OF BITS PRINTED PER LINE
  IOUT=1000
C NPLOT COUNTS NUMBER OF TIMES PRINTING ALGORITHM IS USED
  NPLOT=0
  PRINT998,STON
998  FORMAT(' ', 'S/N =',D15.7)
  PRINT704,Q
704  FORMAT(' ',T30,'Q=',D15.7)
  P=1.D0-Q
  IF(P.LT.1.D-75)P=1.D-75
  QLN=-1.D0*DLOG(Q)
  PLN=-1.D0*DLOG(P)
  DO 49 I=1,M
49  L(I)=1
   DO 50 I=1,NSTATE
   DO 51 LR=1,M
   IF(L(LR))51,52,51
51  L(LR)=0
   GO TO 53
52  L(LR)=1
53  DO 1500 IBITNR=1,N
   PARSUM=0
   DO 20 I1=1,M
   IM1=M1-I1
20  PARSUM=PARSUM+GEN(I1,IBITNR)*L(IM1)

```

```

1500 PAR(IBITNR)=PARSUM-PARSUM/2*2
      DO 21 I3=1,N
21   OUTPUT(I3)=1
      DO 50 J=1,N2
      DO 55 I4=1,N
      I4MIN1=N+1-I4
      IF(OUTPUT(I4MIN1))55,56,55
55   OUTPUT(I4MIN1)=0
      GO TO 57
56   OUTPUT(I4MIN1)=1
57   POFZLN(I,J)=0.DO
      DO 50 IL77=1,N
      IF(OUTPUT(IL77).EQ.PAR(IL77))POFZLN(I,J)=POFZLN(I,J)+QLN
50   IF(OUTPUT(IL77).NE.PAR(IL77))POFZLN(I,J)=POFZLN(I,J)+PLN
699   CALL RANDU(IXSOUR,IYSOUR,YSOUR)
      IXSOUR=IYSOUR
      SOURCE=0
      IF(YSOUR-0.5)1511,1512,1512
1512 SOURCE=1
      1511 NXMTD=NXMTD+1
      NCOUNT=NCOUNT+1
      PRSOUR(NCOUNT)=SOURCE
      DO 2 I=2,M
      I1=M+2-I
2    SHIFT2(I1)=SHIFT2(I1-1)
      SHIFT2(I)=SOURCE
C   PARITY=PARITY CHECK DIGIT
      DO 1516 IBITNR=1,N
      PARSUM=0
      DO 1517 I1=1,M
1517 PARSUM=PARSUM+GEN(I1,IBITNR)*SHIFT2(I1)
1516 PAR(IBITNR)=PARSUM-PARSUM/2*2
      DO 1530 I=1,N
      PNOISE(NCOUNT,I)=0
      CALL RANDU(IXNOIS(I),IYNOIS,YNNOIS)
      IXNOIS(I)=IYNOIS
      IF(Q-YNNOIS)1531,1531,1530
1531 PNOISE(NCOUNT,I)=1
      KPAR=PAR(I)
      IF(KPAR.EQ.0)PAR(I)=1
      IF(KPAR.EQ.1)PAR(I)=0
1530 CONTINUE
C   LOC= LOCATION IN PROBABILITY MATRIX CORRESPONDING TO BLOCK RECEIVED
      LOC=1
      DO 1504 LOCSUM=1,N
1504 LOC=LOC+2**(N-LOCSUM)*PAR(LOCSUM)
C
C
C
C   STATES ARE NUMBERED SUCH THAT 1 AND 2, 3 AND 4, ETC. ARE
C   PAIRS THAT BRANCH TO THE SAME STATES.
C   I.E. 0X AND 1X BOTH BRANCH TO X0 AND X1, WHERE X REPRESENTS
C   A PERMUTATION OF M-1 BITS.
C
C
C   GAMCHK IS THE STATE OF GIVEN PAIR OF STATES WHICH HAS THE SHORTEST
C   TOTAL PATH LENGTH GAMMA.
C
C
C
      DO 100 I=1,NSTATE,2

```

```

      GAMCHK=I
      IF(GAMMA(I).GT.GAMMA(I+1))GAMCHK=I+1
      DO 101 J=1,K2
101  SAVE(NEXT(I,J))=GAMMA(GAMCHK)+PDFZLN(NEXT(I,J),LOC)
      IROWC=NEXT(I,1)
      IROW1=NEXT(I,2)
      CALL SHIFT(SURVIV,SAVSUR,NROWS,NCOL,GAMCHK,IROWC,IROW1)
100  CONTINUE
      DO 139 I=1,NSTATE
139  GAMMA(I)=SAVE(I)
142  GAMMIN=1.D70
      GAMMAX=-1.D70
      IMIN=1
      DO 140 I=1,NSTATE
      IF(GAMMA(I).GT.GAMMAX)GAMMAX=GAMMA(I)
      IF(GAMMA(I).GE.GAMMIN)GO TO 140
      GAMMIN=GAMMA(I)
      IMIN=I
140  CONTINUE
155  IF(GAMMAX.LE.1.D50)GO TO 150
      DO 141 I=1,NSTATE
141  GAMMA(I)=GAMMA(I)-1.D50
      GO TO 142
150  CALL COPYR(SAVSUR,SURVIV,NROWS,NCOL)
      IF(NDECOD.LE.0)GO TO 715
      CALL TESTBT(SURVIV(IMIN,IDEPCP),IBIT,TEST)
      PROUT(NDECOD)=TEST
715  NDECOD=NDECOD+1
      NTOTAL=NTOTAL+1
      IF(NXMTD.GE.MAXDEC)GO TO 750
      IF(NDECOD.GT.IOUT)GO TO 700
      GO TO 699
700  CONTINUE
      NPLOT=NPLOT+1
      DO 776 J=1,N
      DO 776 I=1,IOUT
776  IF(PNOISE(I,J).EQ.1)PARCK(J)=PARCK(J)+1
      DO 770 I=1,IOUT
770  IF(PRSOUR(I).NE.PROUT(I))ERRORS=ERRORS+1
      FPLOT(NPLOT)=DFLOAT(NTOTAL-ERRORS)/DFLOAT(NTOTAL)
      DO 1561 I=1,N
1561  PNPLLOT(NPLOT,I)=PARCK(I)
      XMTPLT(NPLOT)=NTOTAL
      IF(NXMTD.GE.MAXDEC)GO TO 900
      DO 778 J=1,N
      DO 778 I=1,DELM1
778  PNOISE(I,J)=PNOISE(IOUT+I,J)
      DO 703 I=1,DELM1
703  PRSOUR(I)=PRSOUR(IOUT+I)
      NCOUNT=DELM1
      NDECOD=1
      GO TO 699
750  IOUT=NDECOD-1
      GO TO 700
900  CONTINUE
      PRINT500,M
500  FORMAT('-', 'CONSTRAINT LENGTH=',I3)
      DO 1565 J=1,N
1565  PRINT501,(GEN(I,J),I=1,M)
501  FORMAT('0', 'SUBGENERATOR=',10I6)
      PRINT1001,DELTA

```

```

1001     FORMAT('-', 'DELTA=', I3)
        PRINT602
602     FORMAT('0', T2, 'BITS', T19, 'ACCURACY', T37, 'NOISE COUNT:  BIT1,BIT2,
1BIT3, ETC.')
```

DO 600 J=1,NPLOT

```

600     PRINT604, XMTPLT(J), FPLOT(J), (PNPLOT(J, I), I=1, N)
604     FORMAT(' ', T2, I7, T15, D16.8, T39, 8I9)
        PUNCH1105, MAXBIT
1105    FORMAT(I7, T73, 'MAXBIT')
```

PUNCH1135, N

```

1135    FORMAT(I1, T73, 'N')
        PUNCH1101, M
1101    FORMAT(I1, T73, 'M')
        PUNCH1136, NROWS
1136    FORMAT(I7, T73, 'NROWS')
        PUNCH1137, NCOL
1137    FORMAT(I7, T73, 'NCOL')
```

DO 1566 J=1, N

```

1566    PUNCH1103, J, (GEN(I, J), I=1, M)
1103    FORMAT(T73, 'GENER(', I1, ')', T1, 9I1)
        PUNCH1107, DELTA
1107    FORMAT(I3, T73, 'DELTA')
```

PUNCH1109, STON

```

1109    FORMAT(D15.7, T73, 'S/N')
        PUNCH3000, NXMTD
3000    FORMAT(I20, T73, 'NXMTD')
```

PUNCH3100, IXSOUR

```

3100    FORMAT(I20, T73, 'IXSOUR')
```

DO 1567 J=1, N

```

1567    PUNCH3200, IXNOIS(J), J
3200    FORMAT(I20, T71, 'IXNOIS(', I1, ')')
```

PUNCH3300, ERRORS

```

3300    FORMAT(I20, T73, 'ERRORS')
```

PUNCH3400, NTOTAL

```

3400    FORMAT(I20, T73, 'NTOTAL')
```

DO 1569 J=1, N

```

1569    PUNCH3101, J, (PNOISE(IDOUT+I, J), I=1, DELM1)
3101    FORMAT(T73, 'PNOISE', I1, T1, 72I1)
        PUNCH3201, (PRSOR(IDOUT+I), I=1, DELM1)
3201    FORMAT(T73, 'PRSOR', T1, 72I1)
```

DO 1570 J=1, N

```

1570    PUNCH3500, PARCK(J), J
3500    FORMAT(I20, T73, 'PARCK(', I1, ')')
```

DO 4000 I=1, NSTATE

```

4000    PUNCH3002, GAMMA(I), I
3002    FORMAT(D23.16, T73, 'I=', I4)
        DO 4001 I=1, NSTATE
        DU 4001 J=IDPCP, NCOL
4001    PUNCH3301, I, J, SURVIV(I, J)
3301    FORMAT(T70, 'I=', I4, ' J=', I2, T1, I20)
        PUNCH3401, (SHIFT2(I), I=1, M)
3401    FORMAT(T73, 'SHIFT', T1, 72I1)
        STOP
        END
```

```

TESTBT PROGRAM
***TESTBIT***CHECKS VALUE OF ANY BIT IN A FULL WORD IN MAIN STORAGE.
* R1--ADDR OF ARGUMENT LIST
* 0(1) ADDR OF WORD
* 4(1) ADDR OF TESTBIT
* 8(1) ADDR FOR RETURN CODE
*
L 2,0(1) LOAD ADDR OF WORD TO BE SHIFTED
L 4,4(1) LOAD ADDR OF TESTBIT
L 0,0(4) LOAD TESTBIT
LA 3,0 SET FOR COMPARE
L 4,0(2) LOAD TEST WORD
LA 5,32 LOAD 32 FOR SUBTRACTION
SR 5,0 FIND COMPLEMENT
SLL 4,0(5) SHIFT SC TEST BIT IS IN THE SIGN POSITION
CR 4,3 COMPARE RESULTS AGAINST ZERO
BNL NCTNEG
LA 3,1 LOAD ONE IF NEGATIVE
NCTNEG ECU *
L 5,8(1) LOAD ADDR OF RETURN WORD
ST 3,0(5) STORE BIT IN RETURN WORD
STOP
END

```

```

CCPYAR  PROGRAM
***COPYARAY***COPIES AN ARRAY THROUGH THE USE OF THE MVCL INSTRUCTION.
* INPUT:
*      R1--ADDR OF ARGUMENT LIST
*      0(1) ADDR OF INPUT ARRAY
*      4(1) ADDR OF OUTPLT ARRAY
*      8(1) ADDR OF NUMBER OF ROWS IN THE ARRAYS
*      12(1) ADDR OF NUMBER OF COLUMNS IN THE ARRAYS
*
CCPYARAY EQU *
L      2,4(1)      ADDR OF ARRAYC
L      4,0(1)      ADDR OF ARRAYI
L      6,8(1)      LCAC ADDR OF NUMBER OF RCWS
L      5,12(1)     LCAC ADDR OF NUMBER OF COLUMNS
L      5,0(5)      LCAC NUMBER OF COLUMNS
MH     5,2(16)     MULTIPLY NUMBER OF ROWS BY COLUMNS
SLA   5,2          (ROWS * COLUMNS) * 4
LR    3,5          COPY LENGTH IN R3 FOR MVCL
MVCL  2,4          CCPY ARRAY
STCP
END

```

SHIFT PROGRAM

\*\*\*CCPYRCWS\*\*\*CONTAINS THE LOGIC NECESSARY TO CCY AND SHIFT  
 \* THE SPECIFIC RCWS AS SPECIFIED. CCYRCWS WILL CCY ROW1  
 \* INTO RCWO AND ROW1, SHIFT THESE ROWS TO THE LEFT ONE BIT,  
 \* AND SET THE RIGHTMOST BIT OF RCWO AND ROW1 TO ZERO AND ONE  
 \* RESPECTIVELY.

\* INPUT:

\* R1--ADDR OF ARGUMENT LIST  
 \* 0(1) ADDR OF INPUT ARRAY (ARRAYI)  
 \* 4(1) ADDR OF OUTPUT ARRAY (ARRAYC)  
 \* 8(1) ADDR OF NUMBER OF RCWS  
 \* 12(1) ADDR OF NUMBER OF COLUMNS  
 \* 16(1) ADDR OF ROWI  
 \* 20(1) ADDR OF ROWO  
 \* 24(1) ADDR OF ROW1

CCPYRCWS EQU	*	
LA	7,C	ZERO OUT R7
L	12,8(1)	LOAD ADDR OF NUMBER OF ROWS
L	12,0(12)	LOAD NUMBER OF RCWS
SLA	12,2	MULTIPLY BY FOUR FOR DISPLACEMENT
L	6,0(1)	LOAD ADDR OF ARRAYI
L	8,12(1)	LOAD ADDR OF NUMBER OF COLUMNS
L	8,0(8)	LOAD NUMBER OF COLUMNS
L	2,4(1)	LOAD ADDR OF ARRAYC
LR	3,8	COPY NUMBER OF COLUMNS FROM R8
BCTR	3,0	SUBTRACT ONE FROM NUMBER OF COLUMNS
L	4,8(1)	LOAD ADDR OF NUMBER OF RCWS
MH	3,2(4)	COMPUTE RCWS*(COLUMNS-1)
LR	9,3	***
LR	10,3	* * CCY RCWS*(COLUMNS-1)
LR	11,3	***
L	3,16(1)	***
L	4,20(1)	* * LOAD ADDRS OF ROWI,RCWO,AND ROW1
L	5,24(1)	***
L	3,0(3)	***
L	4,0(4)	* * LOAD ROWI,RCWO,AND ROW1
L	5,0(5)	***
BCTR	3,0	***
BCTR	4,0	* * DECREMENT EACH BY ONE
BCTR	5,0	***
AR	9,3	***
AR	10,4	* * ADD PRODUCT AND ROWS MINUS ONE
AR	11,5	***
SLA	9,2	***
SLA	10,2	* * MULTIPLY BY 4 TO OBTAIN DISPLACEMENT
SLA	11,2	***
AR	9,6	***
AR	10,2	* * COMPUTE ACTUAL ADDRESSES
AR	11,2	***
MVC	0(4,10),0(9)	CCPY LAST WORD OF ROWI TO ROWO
LA	0,C	INPUT FOR RCWO
LR	2,10	INPUT FOR SLIDE
BAL	14,SLIDE	BRANCH TO SLIDE
MVC	0(4,11),0(9)	COPY LAST WORD OF ROWI TO ROW1
LA	0,1	INPUT FOR ROW1
LR	2,11	INPUT FOR SLIDE
BAL	14,SLIDE	BRANCH TO SLIDE
BCTR	8,0	DECREMENT COLUMN COUNT BY ONE
CR	8,7	COMPARE COLUMN COUNT AGAINST ZERO
BE	THRU	IF EQUAL END

PART C

```

DECADDR EQU *
SR      9,12      ***
SR      10,12     * * DECREMENT ADDR BY ROW MEMBER DIST
SR      11,12     ***
MVC     0(4,10),0(9)  COPY NEXT ROW MEMBER TO ROWO
LR      2,10      SET UP FOR SLIDE--CARRY BIT ALREADY SET
BAL     14,SLIDE   BRANCH TO SLIDE
MVC     0(4,11),0(10) COPY ROWO MEMBER INTO ROW1 MEMBER
BCT     8,DECADDR  DECREMENT AND TEST COLUMN COUNT
THRU    EQU *
        STOP
ARGLSTAD DS F
***SLICE***SHIFTS ONE FULL WORD IN MAIN STORAGE TO THE LEFT ONE BIT
* SETTING THE RIGHTMOST BIT IN THE WORD AS INDICATED BY RO. THE
* ADDR OF THE WORD TO BE SHIFTED IS CONTAINED IN R2 AND THE CARRY
* OVER BIT IS PLACED IN RC.
*
SLICE   EQU *
        STM 3,4,SAVEREGS  SAVE WORKING REGISTERS
        LA  4,C          LOAD ZERO FOR COMPARE
        L   3,0(2)       COPY WORD TO BE SHIFTED
        CR  3,4          CHECK FOR CARRY
        SLL 3,1         SHIFT OVER ONE BIT
        BNL CARRYO       BRANCH ACCORDINGLY
CARRY1  EQU *
        LA  4,1          WORD NEGATIVE, THEREFORE SET CARRY BIT
CARRYO  AR  3,0         SHIFT IN BIT BY ADDITION
        LR  0,4          STORE CARRY VALUE
        ST  3,0(2)       REPLACE SHIFTED WORD
        LM  3,4,SAVEREGS RESTORE WORKING REGISTERS
        BR  14          RETURN TO CALL--BAL 14,SLIDE
SAVEREGS DS 2F
        END

```

## SHORT CONSTRAINT LENGTH RATE 1/2 'QUICK-LOOK' CODES

### 1. Introduction:

A binary convolutional code of constraint length  $K$  and rate  $R = \frac{1}{2}$  is completely specified by a set of two generators which in transform notation have the form

$$G^{(j)}(D) = g_0^{(j)} + g_1^{(j)} D + g_2^{(j)} D^2 + \dots + g_{K-1}^{(j)} D^{K-1} \quad (j = 1, 2)$$

with coefficients from  $GF(2)$ . (Throughout we assume the codes are nondegenerate, i.e., at least one of  $g_0^{(1)}$  and  $g_0^{(2)}$  are at least one of  $g_{K-1}^{(1)}$  and  $g_{K-1}^{(2)}$  are one). If

$$I(D) = i_0 + i_1 D + i_2 D^2 + \dots$$

is a sequence of binary information digits, then the result of applying  $I(D)$  to the encoder is

$$T^{(j)}(D) = I(D) G^{(j)}(D) = t_0^{(j)} + t_1^{(j)} D + t_2^{(j)} D^2 + \dots \quad (j = 1, 2)$$

so that for each information digit  $i_k$  the encoder produces a block of two digits  $[t_k^{(1)}, t_k^{(2)}]$  that are functions of  $i_k$  and the previous  $K-1$  information digits. The linear sequential circuit that performs this operation consists of a shift register whose  $K$  stages are connected to two modulo-2 adders in accordance with the coefficients of  $G^{(1)}(D)$  and  $G^{(2)}(D)$ , respectively. The outputs of the adders at time  $k$  then constitute the block  $[t_k^{(1)}, t_k^{(2)}]$ . For convenience we denote the sequence of these blocks by  $T(D)$ .

In certain situations such as system check-out it is desirable to be able to recover the information sequence from the encoded sequence. Massey and Sain (1968) have shown that this is possible if and only if the code is noncatastrophic, i.e., if and only if

$$\text{gcd} [G^{(1)}(D), G^{(2)}(D)] = D^l$$

for some  $\ell \geq 0$ . In this case, there always exists a linear sequential circuit that produces  $I(D)$  with a delay of exactly  $L$  digits for any integer  $L \geq \ell$  and it is completely described by two generator polynomials  $P^{(1)}(D)$  and  $P^{(2)}(D)$  that satisfy

$$P^{(1)}(D) G^{(1)}(D) + P^{(2)}(D) G^{(2)}(D) = D^\ell$$

To illustrate these ideas we consider the code

$$G^{(1)}(D) = 1 + D + D^2 + D^3 + D^6$$

$$G^{(2)}(D) = 1 + D^2 + D^3 + D^5 + D^6$$

This code has a constraint length  $K = 7$  and its circuit realization is shown in Figure 51. If the input sequence is

1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 . . .

then  $T^{(1)}(D)$  and  $T^{(2)}(D)$  are given by

1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . .

and

1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 . . .

respectively, and the encoder output sequence will be

1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 . . .

Since  $G^{(1)}(D)$  and  $G^{(2)}(D)$  are relatively prime, an inverse circuit with delay zero exists and we may easily prove that  $P^{(1)}(D)$  and  $P^{(2)}(D)$  are given by

$$P^{(1)}(D) = 1 + D + D^2 + D^3 + D^4$$

$$P^{(2)}(D) = D^2 + D^4$$

Two versions of the circuit realization are shown in Figure 52.

Suppose now that the encoder output sequence  $T(D)$  is transmitted over a noisy channel prior to its inversion. Then, of course, the resulting sequence  $\hat{I}(D)$  will generally not be a perfect match of the original information sequence

$I(D)$ . In fact, Massey and Costello (1971) have shown that over the binary symmetric channel and at high signal-to-noise ratios the probability of an error in  $\hat{I}(D)$  is related to the probability of error in the channel by

$$P_{\hat{I}} = A P_{\text{BSC}}$$

where  $A$  is the error amplification factor given by

$$A = W[P^{(1)}(D)] + W[P^{(2)}(D)]$$

and  $W[P^{(i)}(D)]$  denotes the Hamming weight of  $P^{(i)}(D)$ .

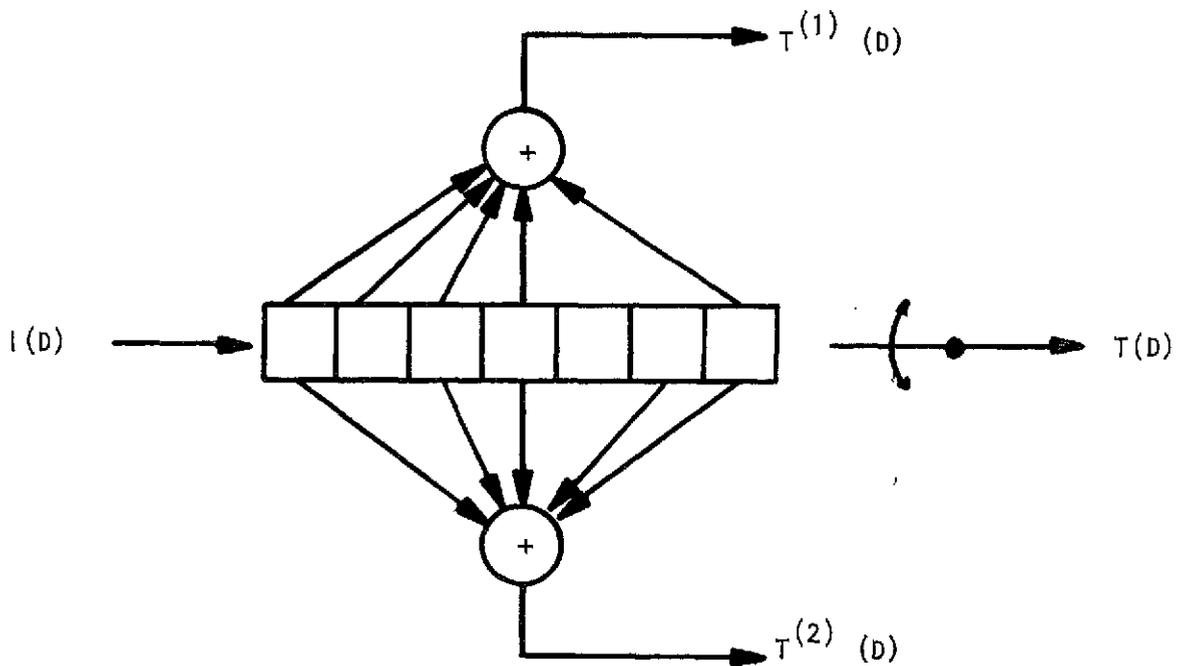


FIGURE 51. ENCODING CIRCUIT FOR THE CODE

1	1	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1

In our example above  $A$  has the value 7, so that an error in  $\hat{I}(D)$  is seven times more likely than an error in the channel. This is quite obvious from Figure 52b. For a single error in the channel will, as it propagates through

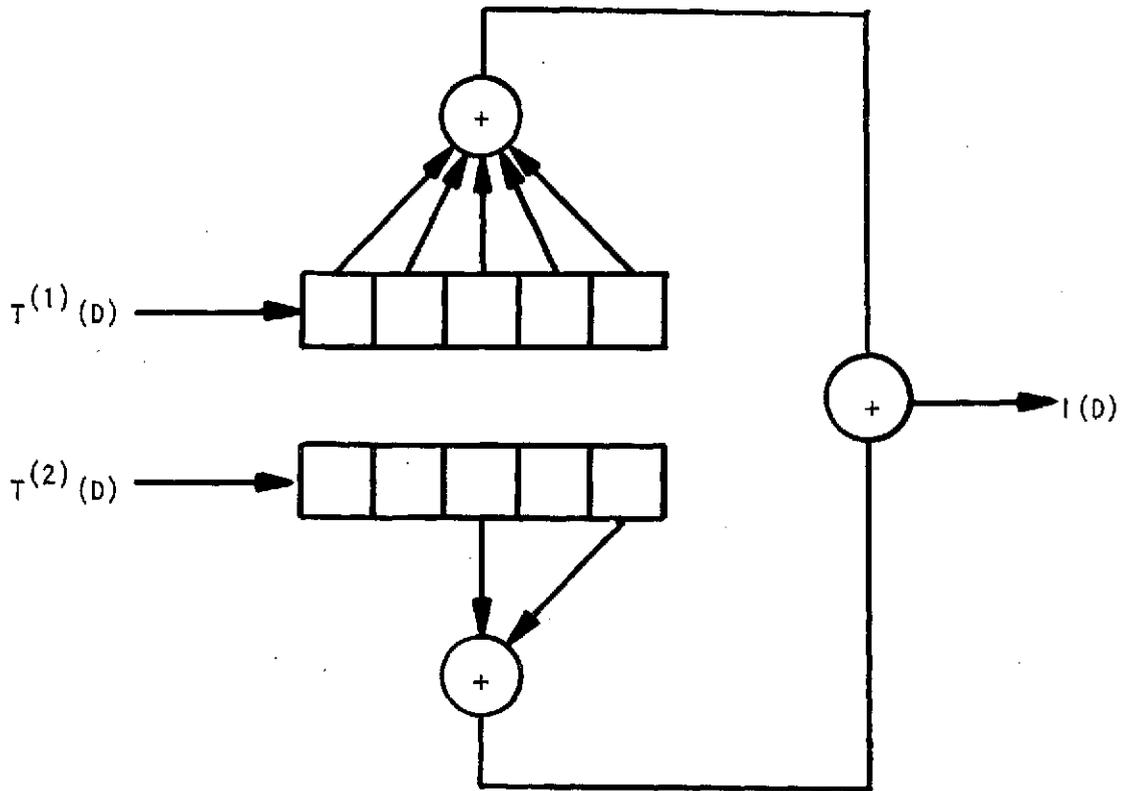


FIGURE 52a. INVERSE CIRCUIT FOR THE CODE

1	1	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1

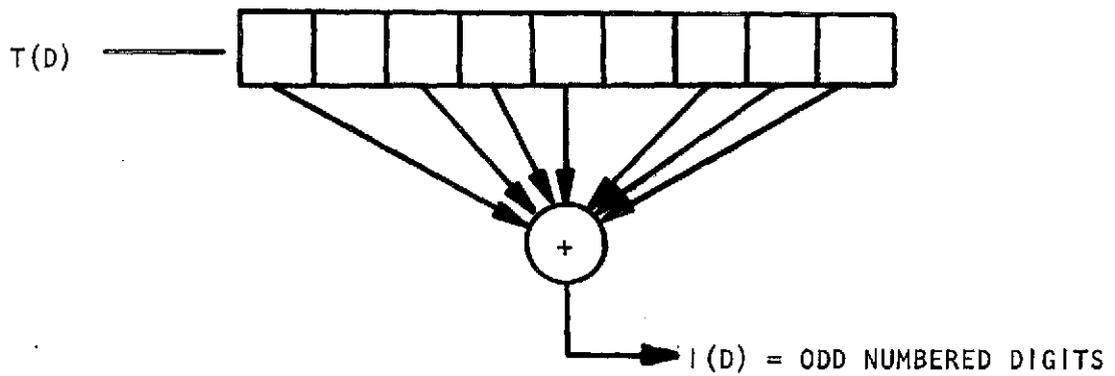


FIGURE 52b. ALTERNATE INVERSE CIRCUIT FOR THE CODE

1	1	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1

the circuit, produce 7 errors in the output of the adder, assuming that the channel errors are spaced far enough apart.

For low signal-to-noise ratios the simple reasoning leading to (1) no longer applies and the value of the error amplification must be determined empirically. Figure 53 shows the result for the code in the above example.

Consider next the system configuration of Figure 54.

At high signal-to-noise ratios a well designed decoder will be able to correct the overwhelming majority of the errors introduced in the channel and deliver an essentially perfect copy of  $l(D)$ . If we then compare this output with that of the encoder inverse we obtain an indication of the signal-to-noise ratio in the channel.

With the binary symmetric channel, for example, we can get a good estimate of  $P_1$  by computing the ratio of the number of ones in which the outputs of the decoder and the encoder inverse differ to the total number of digits processed. Using (1) we are then able to determine the value of  $P_{BSC}$ .

The surprising fact is that this scheme also works for low signal-to-noise ratios, where the decoder output also includes errors, and produces a one-to-one relationship between  $p_{BSC}$  and the measured quantity, which we denote by  $\hat{p}_{BSC}$ .

Figure 55 shows the simulation results for the code in our previous example, the binary symmetric channel and a 32 bit path length Viterbi decoder.

From Figure 53 it is clear that if one attempts to reconstruct the original information sequence at the channel output without benefit of decoding, it is desirable to have a code with as low a value of error amplification as possible. The best in this regard are the so-called systematic codes for which one of the  $p^{(i)}(D)$  is one and the other equals zero, resulting in  $A = 1$ . Unfortunately, the error correcting capability of these codes is markedly inferior to that of certain nonsystematic codes when used in conjunction with sequential or maximum likelihood decoding algorithms.

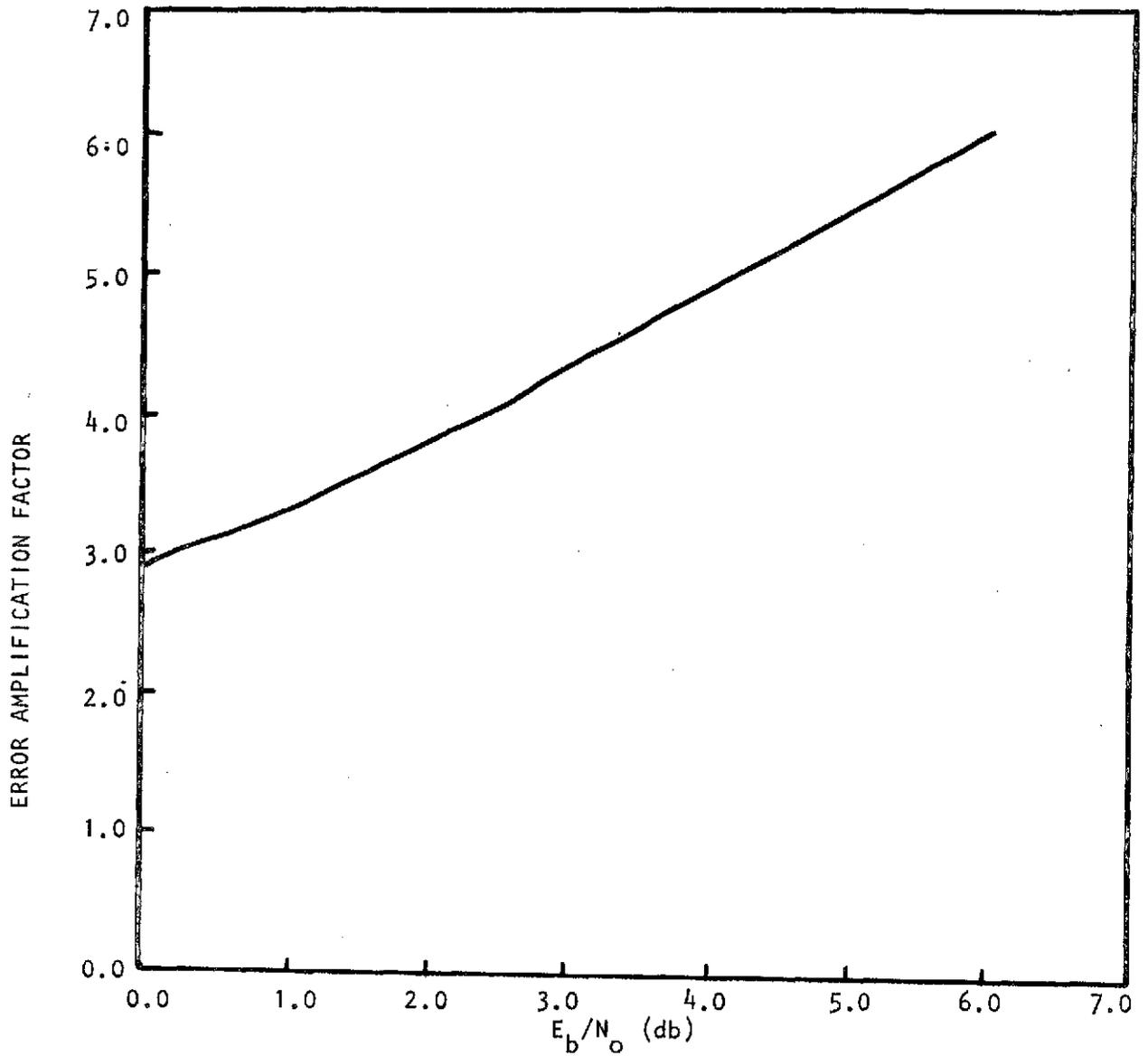


FIGURE 53. ERROR AMPLIFICATION FACTOR FOR THE CODE

1 1 1 1 0 0 1

1 0 1 1 0 1 1

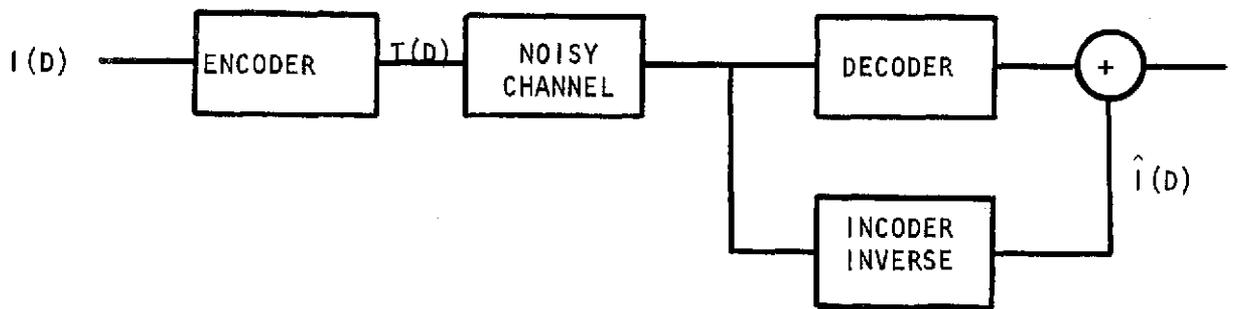


FIGURE 54. CHANNEL NOISE MEASURING SYSTEM

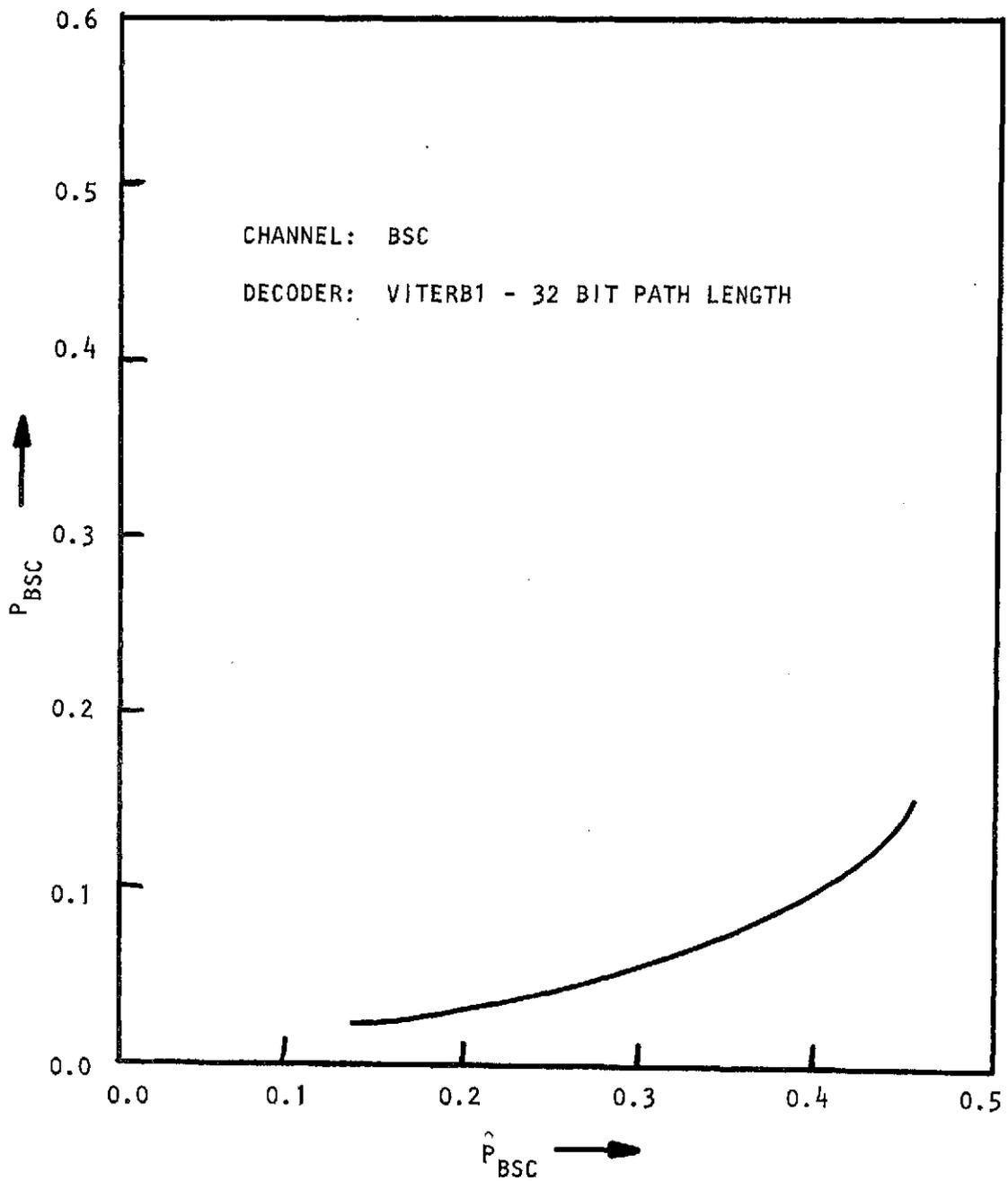


FIGURE 55. MEASURED VERSUS ACTUAL CHANNEL BIT ERROR PROBABILITY FOR CODE

1	1	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1

For nonsystematic codes the lowest possible value of  $A$  is 2 and is attained by the so-called quick-look codes [2]. Our purpose in this note is to investigate their relevant characteristics and in the process we obtain a number of interesting and practically useful results. Since our primary motivation is the application of quick-look codes to Viterbi decoding, we restrict consideration to constraint lengths less than eight.

### 11. Quick-Look Codes:

We define a rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  quick-look code as any code in which the two generators differ in exactly one coefficient. Then

$$G^{(1)}(D) + G^{(2)}(D) = D^L$$

for some  $0 < L < K - 1$  and an inverse circuit with delay  $L$  and error amplification factor  $A = 2$  is given by

$$P^{(1)}(D) = P^{(2)}(D) = 1$$

This, of course, amounts to nothing more than the modulo-2 addition of  $T^{(1)}(D)$  and  $T^{(2)}(D)$ . Hence the word 'Quick-Look' [2].

Since we are dealing with nondegenerate codes only, it follows easily that all quick-look codes have

$$\text{gcd} [G^{(1)}(D), G^{(2)}(D)] = 1$$

Thus, there always exists an inverse with delay zero, which is generally different from the quick-look inverse if  $L > 0$ .

For example, when  $L = 1$ , the zero delay inverse takes the form

$$P^{(i)}(D) = \frac{1 + G^{(j)}(D)}{D} \quad (i \neq j)$$

and its error amplification factor at high signal-to-noise ratios is

$$A = W[G^{(1)}(D)] + W[G^{(2)}(D)] - 2$$

For  $L = 2$  the zero delay inverse becomes

$$P^{(i)}(D) = \frac{1 + (1 + a_1 D) G^{(j)}(D)}{D^2} \quad i \neq j$$

Here  $A$  has the same value as above if  $a_1 = 0$  and is a function of the coefficients of  $G^{(1)}(D)$  and  $G^{(2)}(D)$  if  $a_1 = 1$ .

As a concrete example, consider the constraint length 5 code

$$G^{(1)}(D) = 1 + D + D^2 + D^4$$

$$G^{(2)}(D) = 1 + D + D^4$$

Clearly,  $L = 2$  and the quick-look inverse circuit takes either of the forms in Figure 56.

The inverse circuit with zero delay is given by

$$P^{(1)}(D) = 1 + D^2 + D^3$$

$$P^{(2)}(D) = D + D^2 + D^3$$

and Figure 57 shows the two alternate configurations for this case. Note that the error amplification factor increases from 2 to 6 over the quick-look inverse.

### III. Maximum Free Distance Quick-Look Codes:

One commonly accepted measure of the performance of a convolutional code in conjunction with sequential or maximum likelihood decoding algorithms is free distance. For the codes under consideration here this is simply the smallest nonzero number of ones in the set of semi-infinite output sequences of the encoder.

Our objective is to find quick-look codes of constraint lengths  $3 \leq K \leq 7$ , with as large a free distance as possible.

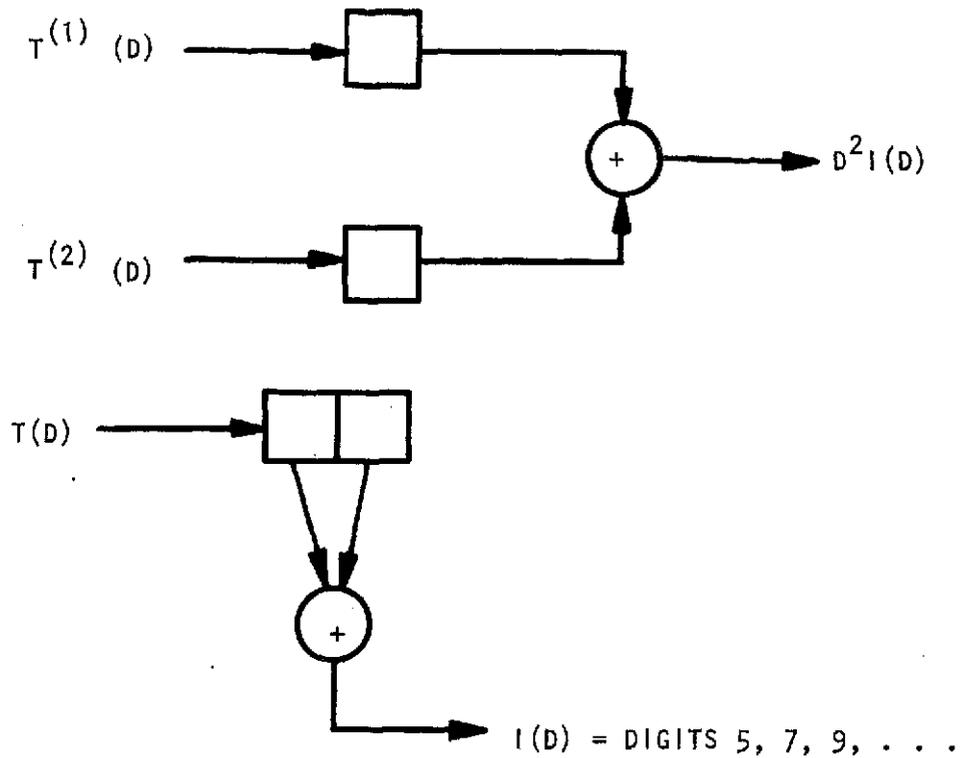


FIGURE 56. QUICK-LOOK INVERSE CIRCUITS FOR THE CODE

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}$$

To narrow the search for such codes we first note that the maximum free distance of any rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  noncatastrophic convolutional code is bound by

$$d_f \leq \begin{cases} K + 2; & 3 \leq K \leq 6 \\ K + 3; & K = 7 \end{cases}$$

and that there always exists a code for which equality holds (Larsen, 1973).

Second, since the input sequence  $100 \dots$  produces as output sequence from each modulo-2 adder of the encoder the coefficients of the respective generator polynomial, the free distance of any code is evidently bounded by

$$d_f \leq W[G^{(1)}(D)] + W[G^{(2)}(D)]$$

Finally, if  $G^*(D)$  denotes the reciprocal polynomial of  $G(D)$ , then the codes

$$G^{(1)}(D), G^{(2)}(D)$$

and

$$G^{(1)*}(D), G^{(2)*}(D)$$

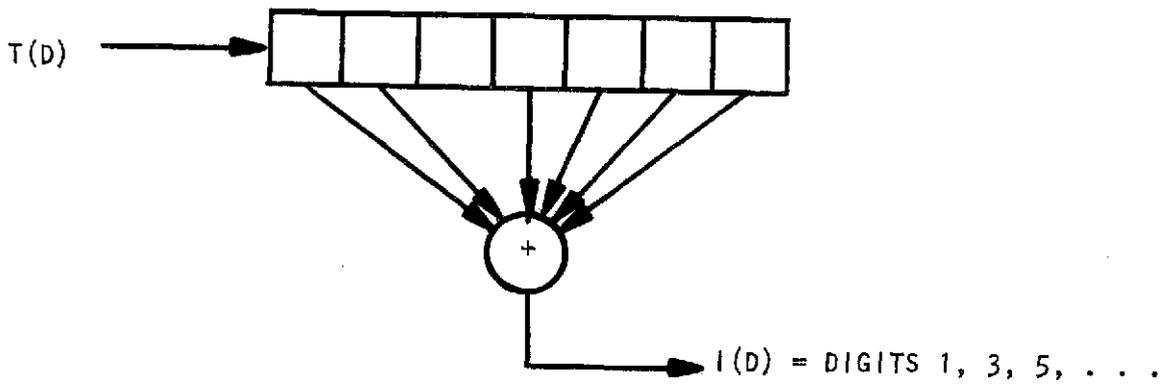
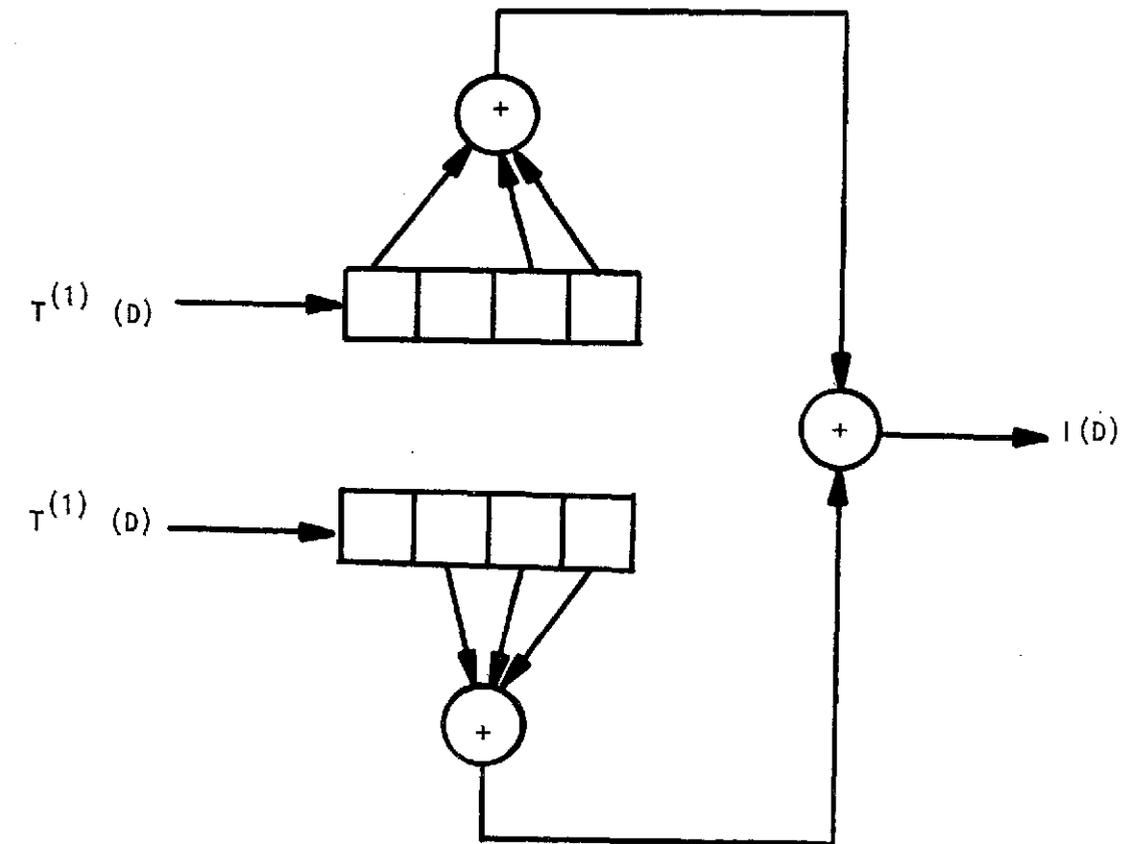


FIGURE 57. ZERO DELAY INVERSE CIRCUITS FOR THE CODE

1	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1

ca

are equivalent. This follows readily from the relation

$$[I(D)G(D)]^* = I^*(D)G^*(D)$$

and the fact that the weights of a polynomial and its reciprocal are identical.

We can, therefore, restrict our search to quick-look codes with delay  $L \leq [K/2]$  and an appropriate number of ones in the generator polynomials (the square brackets denote the integer part).

Now let  $L = 0$ . Then each 1 in the input sequence  $I(D)$  will produce a 1 in the output sequence  $T(D)$  as it enters the encoder shift register and in addition the last 1 in  $I(D)$  will produce two 1's in  $T(D)$  as it enters the last stage of the encoder. Therefore,

$$W[T(D)] \geq 2 + W[I(D)]$$

and it follows that in testing whether a code has free distance less than  $d_f$  only input sequences with fewer than  $d_f - 2$  ones need to be considered.

Since Bahl and Jelinek (1971) have shown that without loss of generality input sequences with zero-runs of length  $K - 2$  or more may likewise be ignored, it follows that the length of the input sequences that must be tested does not exceed

$$(d_f - 4)(K - 2) + 1$$

For  $L > 0$ , the first 1 in  $I(D)$  produces two 1's in  $T(D)$  as it enters the encoder and another 1 as it enters the  $(L + 1)$ st stage of the encoder. Every subsequent 1 in  $I(D)$  likewise produces a 1 in  $T(D)$  as it enters the  $(L + 1)$ st stage. In addition, the last 1 in  $T(D)$  results in two 1's in  $T(D)$  as it enters the last stage of the encoder. Thus, the total number of ones in the output sequence satisfies

$$W[T(D)] \geq 4 + W[I(D)]$$

and we can restrict consideration to input sequences with fewer than  $d_f - 4$  ones and length no larger than

$$(d_f - 6)(K - 2) + 1$$

Using these principles we tested all quick-look codes of constraint length  $3 \leq K \leq 7$ . Table 3 summarizes our results. Note that for  $3 \leq K \leq 6$  the best quick-look codes are comparable to the best general nonsystematic codes, whereas for  $K = 7$  the free distance of the best quick-look codes is one less than the maximum achievable.

We also remark that the quick-look codes with  $L = 0$  are uniformly inferior to those with  $L > 0$ , a result that reinforces the notion that among the best codes of a class there is always one whose generators possess complementarity (Bahl and Jelinek, 1972).

Although under normal circumstances free distance is a good indicator of a code's error correcting capability, this measure nevertheless depends only on the code and thus completely ignores the nature of the channel and the decoding algorithm. Even with the channel and decoder fixed, differences in the weight spectra of two codes with the same free distance can give rise to different decoder bit error rates.

For these reasons we have computed the decoder bit error rates of selected codes from Table 3 used over the binary symmetric channel and in conjunction with a Viterbi maximum likelihood decoding algorithm of 32 bit decoder path lengths. The results are presented in Figure 58. Note that these quick-look codes compare favorably to the best nonsystematic codes obtained in [7] and the complementary codes given by Jelinek and Bahl (1969).

In Figure 59 we show the error amplification factor for the same set of codes as above, as a function of the signal-to-noise ratio of a binary symmetric channel.

K	Code #	$G^{(1)}$ (octal)	L	$d_f$	$d_{fmax}$
3	1	7	1	5	5
4	2	17	1	6	6
5	3	33	1	7	7
	4	35	2	7	7
6	5	67	1	8	8
	6	75	1	8	8
7	7	153	1	9	10
	8	163	1	9	10
	9	127	2	9	10
	10	135	2	9	10
	11	165	2	9	10
	12	171	2	9	10
	13	175	2	9	10
	14	133	3	9	10

Best Rate 1/2 Quick-Look Codes

TABLE 3

Finally, Figure 60 presents the relationship between actual and measured channel bit error rates for the same codes, the binary symmetric channel and a 32 bit path length Viterbi decoder.

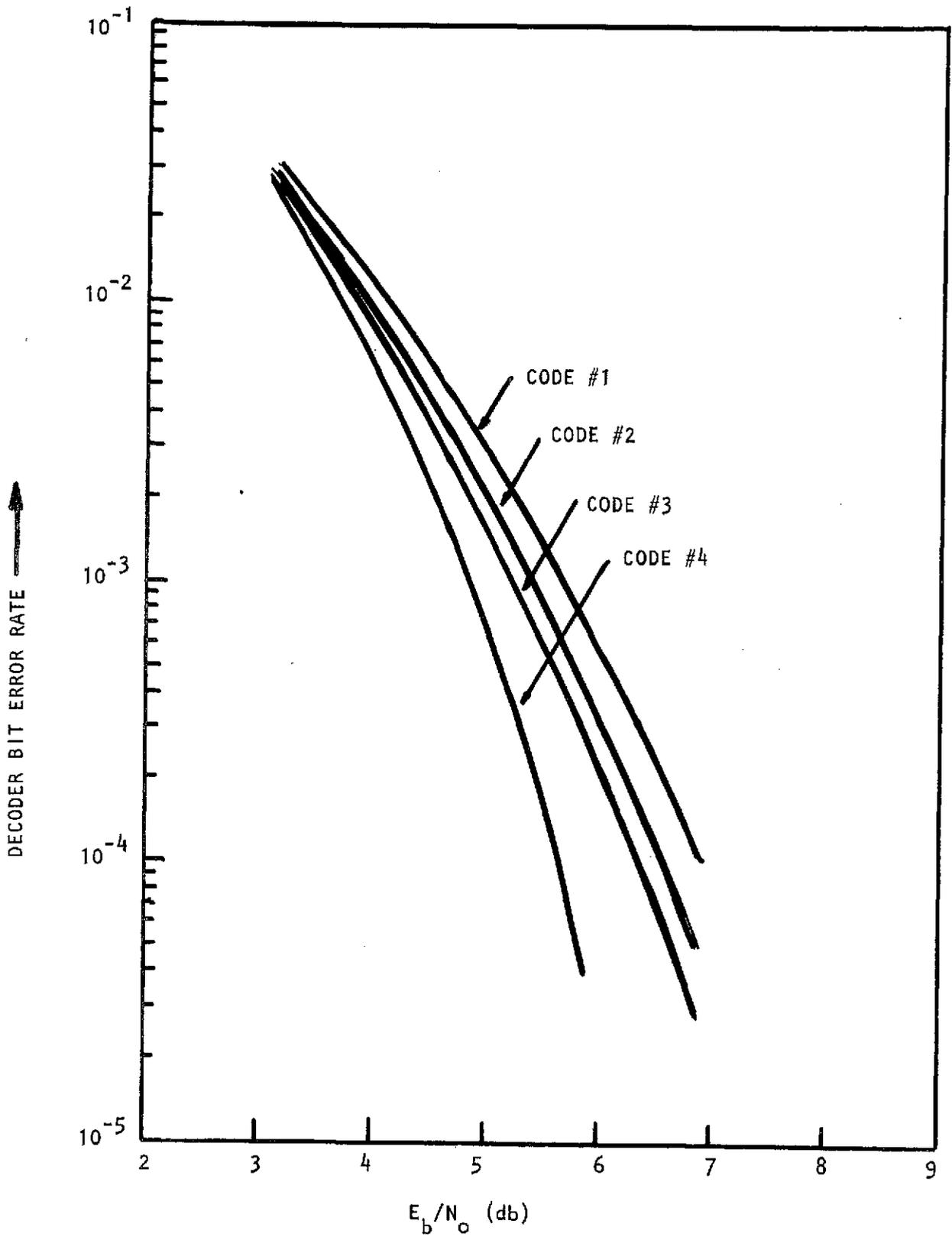


FIGURE 58. VITERBI MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD DECODING  
PERFORMANCE  $\Delta = 32$

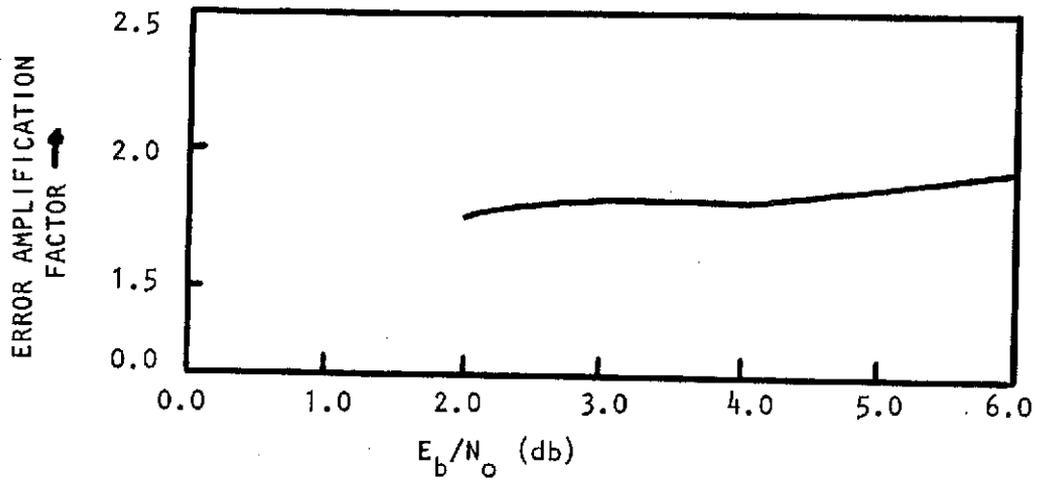


FIGURE 59. ERROR AMPLIFICATION FACTOR FOR CODES #1, 2, 3, 7

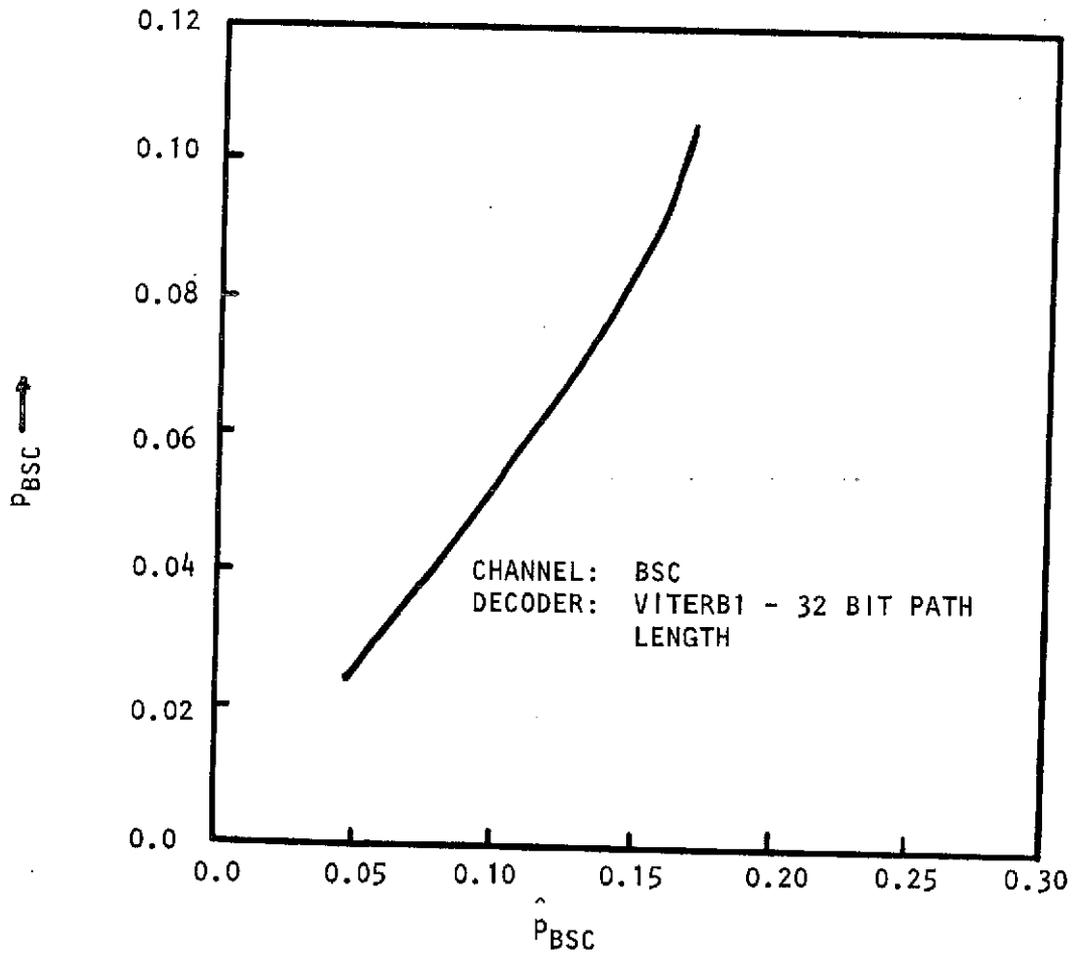


FIGURE 60. MEASURED VERSUS ACTUAL CHANNEL BIT ERROR PROBABILITY FOR CODES #1, 2, 3, 7

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