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This theorem establishes a reduced exhaustive search method for a MAXPOL of any given degree. One searches all $k$, the $m_i$ such that $k \geq 0$, $r = k + 2(Zm_i + Xm_j)$, $m_i > 1$, $m_j > 1$, and $m_i \neq m_j$. The MAXPOL exponents are very near to $(2^{n+3})/2$ for which we have no explanation at this time.

### Robustly Optimal Rate One-Half Binary Convolutional Codes

ROlf Johanessson

Abstract—Three optimality criteria for convolutional codes are considered in this correspondence: namely, free distance, minimum distance, and distance profile. Here we report the results of computer searches for rate one-half binary convolutional codes that are "robustly optimal" in the sense of being optimal for one criterion and optimal or near-optimal for the other two criteria. Comparisons with previously known codes are made. The results of a computer simulation are reported to show the importance of the distance profile to computational performance with sequential decoding.

Several distance measures have been proposed for convolutional codes, each of which is important for particular applications. In this correspondence we report the results of the search for "robustly optimal" convolutional codes, i.e., codes that are optimal for one distance measure and are also optimal or near-optimal for the other two distance measures. We have limited the search to binary codes of rate $R = \frac{1}{2}$ as the case of greatest practical interest.

In a rate $R = \frac{1}{2}$ binary convolutional code, the information sequence $i_0, i_1, \ldots$ is encoded as the sequence $t_0^{(1)}, t_1^{(1)}, t_2^{(1)}, t_3^{(1)}, \ldots$, where

$$t_n^{(k)} = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} i_{n-j}g_j^{(k)}.$$

The parameter $M$ is the code memory and

$$G^{(k)} = \{g_0^{(k)}, g_1^{(k)}, \ldots, g_M^{(k)}\}$$

for $k = 1, 2$, are the code generators. The code is systematic when $G^{(1)} = [1, 0, \ldots, 0]$. The code is a quick-look-in (QLI) code [1] when

$$g_j^{(2)} = \begin{cases} g_j^{(1)}, & j \neq 1 \\ 1 + g_1^{(1)}, & j = 1. \end{cases}$$

QLI codes have some advantages in recovering the information sequence from the encoded sequence compared to general nonsystematic codes.

We shall find it convenient to write

$$t_{0, \ldots, n} = (t_0^{(1)}, t_0^{(2)}, t_1^{(1)}, t_1^{(2)}, \ldots, t_{n-1}^{(1)}, t_n^{(2)}).$$

for the encoded path containing the first $n + 1$ "branches" of the encoded sequence. The encoded path $t_{0, M}$ is called the first constraint length of the code. The jth order column distance [2]

$$d_j = \min_{t_0, \ldots, t_n} \{d_j^{(1)}, d_j^{(2)}\}$$

for $j = 0, \ldots, M$ is called the Hamming distance between some $t_{0, j}$ resulting from an information sequence with $i_0 = 1$ and some $t_{0, j}$ with $i_0 = 0$. By linearity, $d_j$ is also the minimum of the Hamming weights of the paths $t_{0, j}$ resulting from information sequences with $i_0 = 1$.

The quantity $d_M$ is called the minimum distance of the convolutional code and determines the guaranteed error-correcting capability when the code is decoded by a "feedback decoder" [3]. The quantity $d_0$ is called the free distance of the code and has been found to be the principal determiner of decoding error probability when maximum-likelihood (or nearly so) decoding is used, i.e., for Viterbi decoding or sequential decoding [1, 4].

It has also been observed [1] that for good computational performance with sequential decoding, the column distances should "grow as rapidly as possible." We are led then to define the distance profile of the code as the $(M + 1)$-tuple

$$d = [d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_M]$$

and to say that a distance profile $d$ is superior to a distance profile $d'$ when there is some $n$ such that

$$d_j^{(1)} = d_j^{(2)}, \quad j = 0, 1, \ldots, n - 1 \quad d_n^{(1)} > d_n^{(2)}, \quad j = n.$$

Thus $d > d'$ implies that the "early growth" of $d_j$ with $j$ is greater than that of $d_j'$ with $j$. (It could, of course, happen that for sufficiently large $j$, $d_j < d_j'$.)

We notice that only in the range $0 \leq j \leq M$ is each branch of a path $t_{0, j}$ affected by a new portion of the generator as one penetrates into the tree. The great dependence of the branches thereafter mitigates against the semi-infinite choice $d_0 = \ldots = d_{M-1} = 1$.
[\{d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n\}]

1. The code is OFD.
2. This code is OMD.
3. This code is ODN.

Notes: L denotes that this number is actually \(d_{15}\) which is a lower bound on \(d_m\).

Note: I denotes that this number is actually \(d_m\) which is a lower bound on \(d_m\).

We shall say that a code is an optimum minimum distance (OMD) code (or an optimum free distance (OFD) code) or an optimum distance profile (ODP) code) when its minimum distance (or free distance or distance profile) is equal to or superior to that of any code with the same memory.

In Tables I–V we report the results of computer searches for binary convolutional codes that are robustly-optimal, i.e., optimal for one of the preceding distance measures and optimal or near-optimal for the other two. In cases where the optimum code is not unique, we have chosen a code with the fewest number of low-weight paths for the distance measure in question, e.g.,

### Tables

**Table I**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Rate</th>
<th>(d_m)</th>
<th>#Paths</th>
<th>(d_n)</th>
<th>#Paths</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<th>#Paths</th>
<th>(d_n)</th>
<th>#Paths</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Table III**

**Table IV**

**Table V**

Notes: 1. This code is ODN.
2. This code is OMD.
3. This code is OFD.

* The search for the code with the smallest number of \(d_{15}\) paths was not exhaustive and hence a slightly better code might exist.

### Notes

- \(d_{15}\) and \(d_m\) are probably a description of the remainder of the column distances, which is quite adequate for all practical purposes.
- \(d_{15}\) is probably a description of the remainder of the column distances, which is quite adequate for all practical purposes.
Fig. 1. Minimum distance $d_M$ and free distance $d_\infty$ for some rate $\frac{1}{2}$ convolutional codes.

Fig. 2. Minimum distance $d_M$ and free distance $d_\infty$ for some rate $\frac{3}{4}$ convolutional codes.
the fewest number of paths $e_{0,M}$ with Hamming weight $d_M$ resulting from information sequences with $i_0 = 1$ when $d_M$ is the distance measure in question.

In Table I we list ODP systematic codes for the range $1 < M < 14$. In all the tables we write the generators in the octal form where the first octal digit denotes $[g_{0}(0),g_{1}(0),g_{2}(0)]$, the second denotes $[g_{0}(0),g_{1}(0),g_{2}(0)]$, etc. (It should be noted that the “customary” octal notation for generators [5] uses $[g_{0} - 2g_{0} - 1g_{0}]$ for the last octal digit, etc., so that the generators [1111] and [111111] become 17 and 75, respectively. In the notation here these would be 74 and 75, which we think better shows the fact that the former is a truncation of the latter.) In case of ties not resolved by the number of weight $d_M$ paths, we have chosen for Table I a code with the greatest $d$. The codes in Table I are all OMD codes as well as ODP codes. Since the “truncation” to smaller memory of an ODP code must give an ODP code for the reduced memory, the $M = 14$ code in Table I can be used to obtain an ODP code for all $M < 14$ but not necessarily one with the least number of low-weight paths.

For $M = 15$, we have found that an ODP code has $d_{15} = 8$ whereas an OMD code has $d_{15} = 9$ so there is no code that is both ODP and OMD for $M = 15$. We know of no other $M$ in the range $15 < M < 35$ with this property. In Table II we list the systematic ODP codes that we have found for $15 < M < 35$. For $M = 16$, the value of $d_{15}$ for OMD codes is unknown, but the codes in Table II have $d_M$ as large as any previously known codes. In fact, for $M = 30$ and $M = 34$, the codes in Table II have larger $d_M$ than any codes previously known. Moreover, the $M = 35$ code in Table II has $d_{35}$ superior to the best previously known systematic code, viz., the joint [6] code of Forney’s extension [7] of one of Bussgang’s optimal codes [6].

The excellence as regards $d_M$ of the systematic ODP codes in Tables I and II can be seen from Fig. 1 in which we have plotted $d_M$ for these codes and for the best of the codes found previously by Bussgang [6], Lin–Lyne [8], and Forney [7]. For comparison, we have also plotted the Gilbert lower bound [3] on $d_M$. To show the excellence of their $d_M$, we have also plotted $d_M$ for the ODP systematic codes and for the systematic codes found by Costello [2].

It should be mentioned that, in Table II (as well as later in Table III), a notation of $L$ indicates that $d_M$ is a lower bound on $d_M$ is actually given rather than $d_M$, which is unknown. It is likely, however, that $d_{71} - d_{70}$ in most, if not all, of these cases.

In Table III, we list the ODP QLI codes we have found for $1 < M < 23$. These codes, except when $M = 1$, are nonsystematic. QLI codes can generally achieve a greater $d_{2}$ for a given $M$ than is possible with systematic codes.

The excellence of the ODP QLI codes of Table III as regards $d_M$ and $d_M$ can be seen from Fig. 2 where we have plotted $d_M$ and $d_M$ for these codes and $d_M$ for the QLI codes of Massey–Costello [1]. The ODP QLI codes of Table III appear very attractive for use with sequential decoding since 1) their QLI structure guarantees easy recovery of the information sequence from the encoded sequence with small “error amplification” [1]; 2) their ODP property ensures good computational performance; and 3) their large $d_M$ ensures a small decoding error probability.

In Table IV, we list the QLI codes that we have found to have the greatest $d_M$ for any QLI codes for $1 < M < 13$. For $M < 5$ these codes are also OFD, but for $M > 6$ larger $d_M$ is possible only with more general nonsystematic codes. Ties were resolved using $d_M$ and then $d_M$ further optimality criteria. The codes of Table IV appear attractive for use with Viterbi decoders for $1 < M < 5$.

In Table V, we list ODP general nonsystematic convolutional codes with ties resolved first according to $d_M$ and then according to $d_M$. The codes for $M < 10$ and $M = 13$ are all OFD codes [5], and it is surprising that the ODP property can be obtained over such a wide range at no sacrifice in free distance.

The excellence as regards $d_M$ of the codes in Table V can be seen from Fig. 2 where we have plotted their $d_M$ as well as that of the “complementary codes” found earlier by Bahl–Jelinek [9]. The codes of Table V are attractive candidates for use with Viterbi decoding when the QLI feature is of no interest. The $M = 5$ code in Table V is quite remarkable being simultaneously optimal for all three distance measures and also being QLI.

To illustrate the importance of the ODP property for sequential decoding computation, we have simulated the performance of a stack sequential decoder [10] on a binary symmetric channel (BSC) for 1) the ODP QLI code with $M = 23$, $d_M = d_{23} = 19$, and $d_M = 11$ of Table III; 2) the $M = 23$ Massey–Costello QLI code [1] with $d_M = d_M = 17$ and $d_M = 9$, which is currently being used by NASA in several deep-space programs; and 3) the $M = 23$ Bahl–Jelinek complementary code [9] with $d_M = 24$ and $d_M = 10$. The results of decoding 1000 frames of 256 information bits in length for each of these codes are given in Tables VI and VII for BSC’s with crossover probability $p = 0.045$ and $p = 0.50$, respectively. No decoding errors were made in any case. It can be seen from Tables VI and VII that the computational performance of the ODP QLI code is far superior to the Massey–Costello QLI code and slightly better than the Bahl–Jelinek code that (while having larger $d_M$) lacks the desirable QLI property.

**TABLE VI**

Simulation Results for Decoding 1000 Frames of 256 Bits Each for the BSC with $p = 0.045$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$R = R_0 = 0.50$; $R = R_{BSC}$</th>
<th>$R = 1.1R_0 = 0.50$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fraction of Frames Decoded in Error</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fraction of Frames Decoded in Error</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE VII**

Simulation Results for Decoding 1000 Frames of 256 Bits Each for the BSC with $p = 0.057$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$R = R_0 = 0.50$</th>
<th>$R = 1.1R_0 = 0.50$</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Fraction of Frames Decoded in Error</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fraction of Frames Decoded in Error</strong></td>
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A Class of Binoid Single-Error-Correcting Codes

VASILE V. MASGRAS

Abstract—A new class of group binoid single-error-correcting codes is given. The codes are nonbinary group codes over the additive group of integers modulo q.

I. NOTATION AND DEFINITIONS

Let n and q (n > q) be two positive integers. We denote by \((n)_q\) the radix-q representation of n. Suppose that this representation has s digits. Let \(I_q^l\) be the following set:

\[
I_q^l = \{ i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, (i)_q = i_1, \ldots, i_{k-1}, i_{k+1}, \ldots, i_s \},
\]

\[1 \leq j \leq q - 1, \quad 1 \leq k \leq s.\]

We denote by \(Z_q^s\) the additive group of integers \((mod\ q)\).

Definition 1: The set \(C \subseteq Z_q^n\) is the nonbinary group code [3], such that

\[
c = (c_1, \ldots, c_n) \in C
\]

if and only if

\[
\sum_{i \in I_q^l} c_i = 0 \quad (mod\ q), \quad 1 \leq j \leq q - 1, \quad 1 \leq k \leq s. \quad (1)
\]

If we let \(r = \#(I_q^l \setminus I_q^l) \neq 0, 1 \leq i \leq q - 1, 1 \leq k \leq s\), then the group code has \(r\) check symbols and \(m = n - r\) information symbols.

For \(q = 2\) and \(n = 2^q - 1\), \(C\) is a binary Hamming code [1], [2]. For \(q > 2\), \(C\) represents another nonbinary generalization of the Hamming code [3].

Definition 2: A pair of sets \((A, M)\) is a binoid [4], if the following two conditions are satisfied:

1. there are two operations \(\oplus : A \times A \rightarrow A\) and \(\ominus : A \times M \rightarrow A\);
2. the set \(A\) is a group with respect to the \(\ominus\) operation.

A binoid \((A, M)\) is called distributive if the \(\ominus\) operation is distributive with respect to the \(\oplus\) operation, and it will be termed commutative if \(A\) is a commutative group. The set \(A^* = \{a \mid a \in A, a \ominus m \neq a \ominus m' ; \forall m, m' \in M, m \neq m'\}\) is called the univalence domain. If, in addition, we have \(A^* = A \setminus \{0\}, (A, M)\) is termed a completely univalent binoid.

Definition 3: A set \(C \subseteq A^*\) is a binoid code [4], if there is a set \(M\) such that following conditions are satisfied:

1. \((A, M)\) is a binoid;
2. \(C\) is a nonbinary group code \((of\ length\ n)\);
3. the parity check matrix of \(C\) has its components from \(M\).

II. LINK THEOREM

Taking into account Definitions 1 and 3, we may formulate the following theorem.

Theorem 1: The nonbinary group code \(C\) of Definition 1 is always a binoid code for \(M = \{0,1\}\), where \(\oplus\) is modulo \(q\) addition and \(\ominus\) is ordinary multiplication.

Proof: This is obvious if we note that the code \(C\) is the null space of the matrix \(H = [c_{i,j,k}]\), where \(c_{i,j,k} \in M = \{0,1\}\) are defined in the following way:

\[
\delta_{i,j,k} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i \in I_q^l \setminus I_q^l, \\ 0, & \text{if } i \notin I_q^l \setminus I_q^l. \end{cases}
\]

Q.E.D.

Any group code \(C\) may be regarded as a binoid code. The binoid \((A, M)\) is completely univalent.

III. DETECTION AND CORRECTION OF SINGLE ERROR

Theorem 2: The nonbinary group code \(C \subseteq Z_q^n\) of Definition 1 is a single-error-correcting code.

Proof: Let \(c = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)\) be a codeword and \(b = (b_1, \ldots, b_n)\) be the received vector. We define

\[
d_k^l = \sum_{i \in I_q^l} b_i \quad (mod\ q). \quad (2)
\]

If we assume that no more than a single error occurred, then we suppose

\[
b_i = \begin{cases} c_i, & \text{for } i \neq h, \\ c_i + p \quad (mod\ q), & \text{for } i = h, \end{cases}
\]

where \(p\) and \(h\) are the value and position of the error. We have

\[
b_i = c_i + \delta_{i,h} p, \quad \text{where } \delta_{i,h} \text{ is the Kronecker symbol.}
\]

From the (2) congruences we have

\[
d_k^l = \sum_{i \in I_q^l} b_i - \sum_{i \in I_q^l} \delta_{i,k}^l \ominus b_i
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i,k}^l \ominus c_i \ominus \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{i,k}^l \ominus \delta_{i,k}^l p
\]

\[
= 0 \quad \delta_{i,k}^l p = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } i \in I_q^l \setminus I_q^l, \\ 0, & \text{if } i \notin I_q^l \setminus I_q^l. \end{cases}
\]

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