

INTRODUCTION TO EECS II  
**DIGITAL  
 COMMUNICATION  
 SYSTEMS**

# 6.02 Fall 2012 Lecture #6

- Convolutional codes
- State-machine view & trellis

# Error Control Codes for Interplanetary Space Probes

- Early Mariner probes, 1962-1967 (Mars, Venus) – no ECC
- Later Mariner and Viking probes, 1969-1976 (Mars, Venus) – linear block codes, e.g.,  
  
(32,6,16) bi-orthogonal or Hadamard code
  - codewords comprise: the all-0 word, the all-1 word, and the other codewords all have sixteen 0's, sixteen 1's. The complement of each codeword is a codeword.

# Bi-orthogonal Codes

- e.g., used on Mariner 9 (1971, Mars orbit) to correct picture transmission errors.
  - Data word length:  $k=6$  bits, for 64 grayscale values.
  - Usable block length  $n$  around 30 bits. Could have done 5-repetition code, but comparable rate with better error correction from a  $[32, 6, 16]$  Hadamard code.
  - Used through the 1980's.
- The efficient decoding algorithm was an important factor in the decision to use this code. The circuitry used was called the "Green Machine".
- More generally for such codes,  
 $n=2^{(k-1)}, \quad d=2^{(k-2)}$

# Mariner 9 (400 million km trip)

- “Spacecraft control was through the central computer and sequencer which had an **onboard memory of 512 words**. The command system was programmed with 86 direct commands, 4 quantitative commands, and 5 control commands. Data was stored on a digital reel-to-reel tape recorder. The 168 meter 8-track tape could store 180 million bits recorded at 132 kbits/s. Playback could be done at 16, 8, 4, 2, and 1 kbit/s using two tracks at a time. Telecommunications were via dual S-band **10 W/20 W transmitters** and a single receiver through the high gain parabolic antenna, the medium gain horn antenna, or the low gain omnidirectional antenna.” (NASA)

# 7329 images, e.g.:

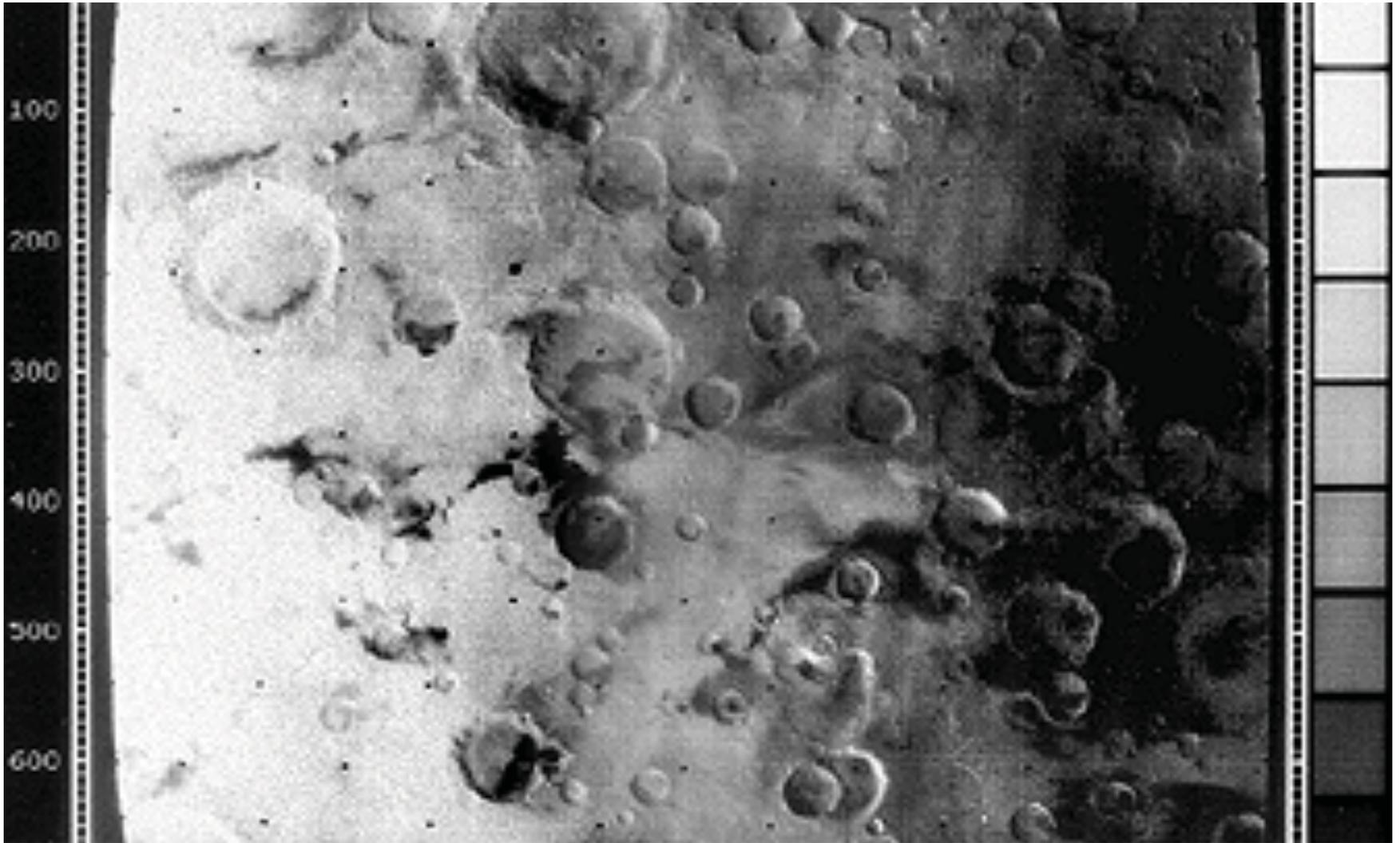


Image in the public domain. Source: NASA

# More powerful codes needed for higher data rates with limited transmitter power

- Space probe may have a 20W transmitter to cover tens of billions of kilometers!
  - Part of the secret is the antenna --- directs the beam to produce the same received intensity as an omnidirectional antenna radiating in the megawatts
  - Also “cryogenically-cooled low-noise amplifiers, sophisticated receivers, and data coding and error-correction schemes. These systems can collect, detect, lock onto, and amplify a vanishingly small signal that reaches Earth from the spacecraft, and can extract data from the signal virtually without errors.” (JPL quote)
- **Convolutional codes with Viterbi decoding** – Voyager (1977) onwards, Cassini, Mars Exploration Rover, ...

# Saturn and Titan from Cassini, August 29, 2012

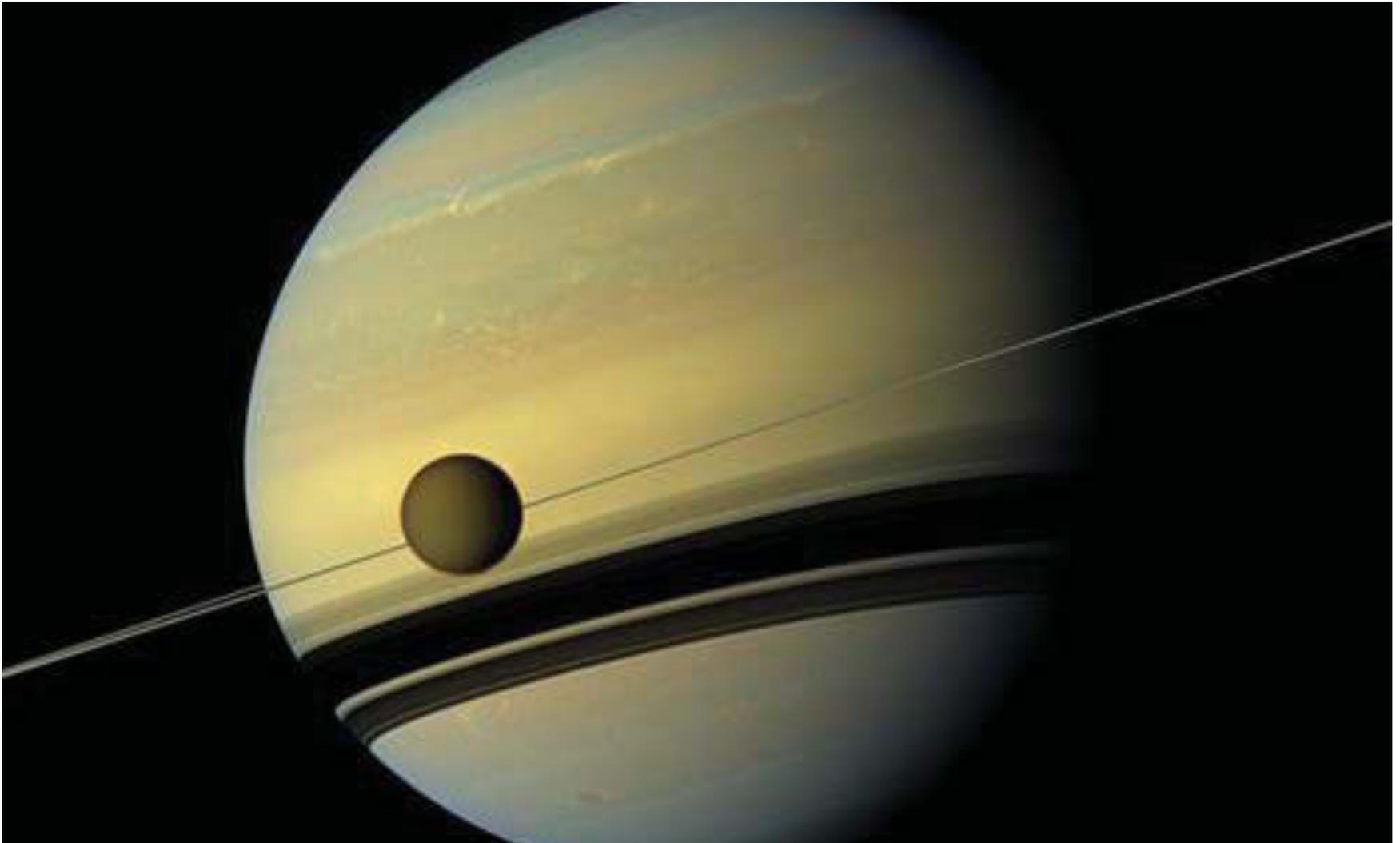
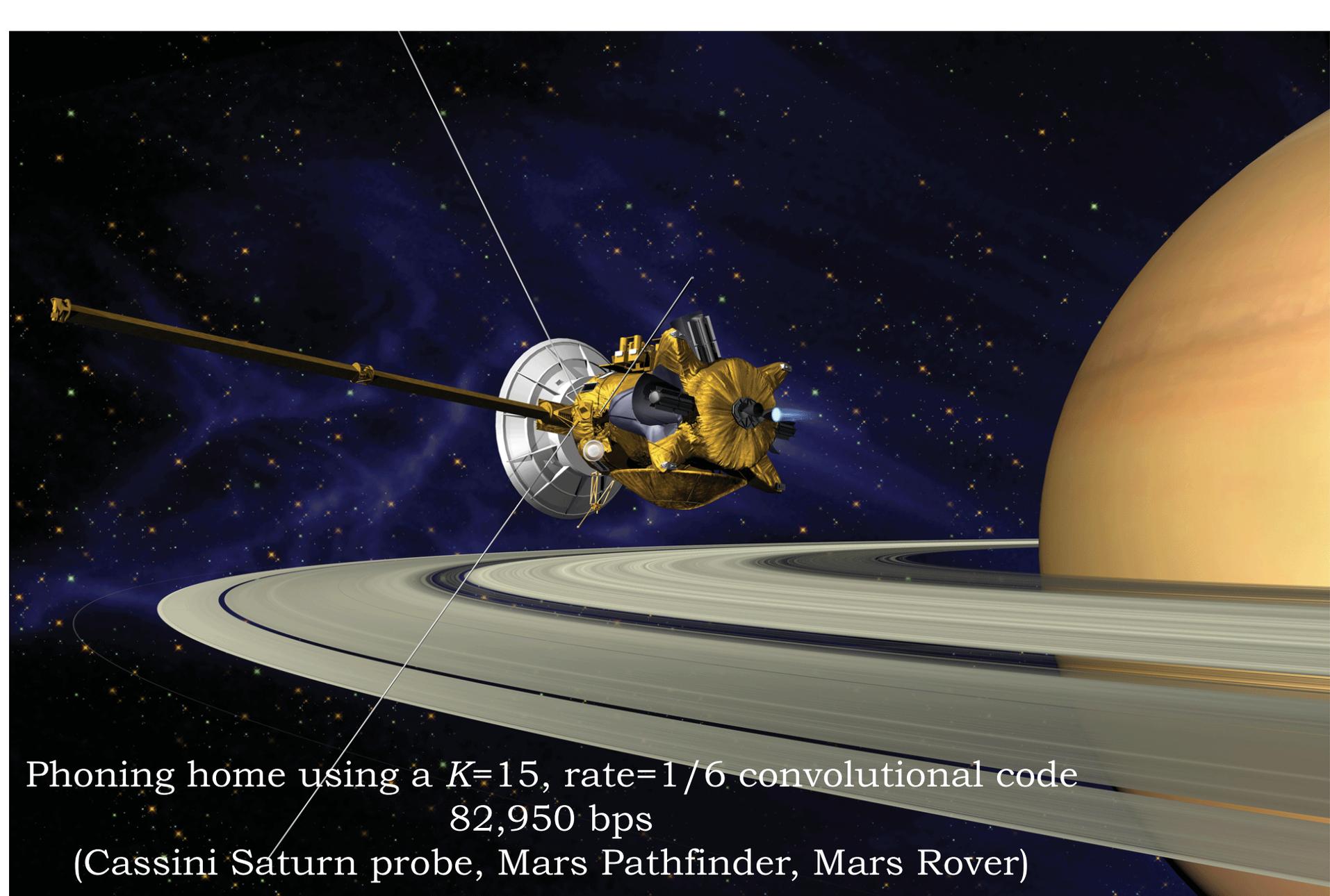


Image in the public domain. Source: NASA



Phoning home using a  $K=15$ , rate= $1/6$  convolutional code  
82,950 bps  
(Cassini Saturn probe, Mars Pathfinder, Mars Rover)

Image in the public domain. Source: NASA

# Convolutional Codes (Peter Elias, 1955)

- Like the block codes discussed earlier, send parity bits computed from blocks of message bits
  - Unlike block codes, generally don't send message bits, send only the parity bits! (i.e., “non-systematic”)
  - The code rate of a convolutional code tells you how many parity bits are sent for each message bit. We'll mostly be talking about **rate  $1/r$  codes, i.e.,  $r$  parity bits/message bit.**
  - Use a sliding window to select which message bits are participating in the parity calculations. The width of the window (in bits) is called the code's **constraint length  $K$ .**

$$p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$$

$$p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-2]$$

*Addition mod 2  
(aka XOR)*



# Parity Bit Equations

- A convolutional code generates sequences of parity bits from sequences of message bits by a **convolution** operation:

$$p_i[n] = \left( \sum_{j=0}^{K-1} g_i[j] x[n-j] \right) \bmod 2$$

- $K$  is the **constraint length** of the code
  - The larger  $K$  is, the more times a particular message bit is used when calculating parity bits
    - greater redundancy
    - *better error correction possibilities (usually, though not always)*
- $g_i$  is the  $K$ -element **generator** for parity bit  $p_i$ .
  - Each element  $g_i[j]$  is either 0 or 1
  - More than one parity sequence can be generated from the same message; the simplest choice is to use 2 generator polynomials

# Transmitting Parity Bits

- We'll transmit the parity sequences, not the message itself
  - As we'll see, we can recover the message sequences from the parity sequences
  - Each message bit is “spread across”  $K$  elements of each parity sequence, so the parity sequences are better protection against bit errors than the message sequence itself
- If we're using multiple generators, construct the transmit sequence by interleaving the bits of the parity sequences:

$$xmit = p_0[0], p_1[0], p_0[1], p_1[1], p_0[2], p_1[2], \dots$$

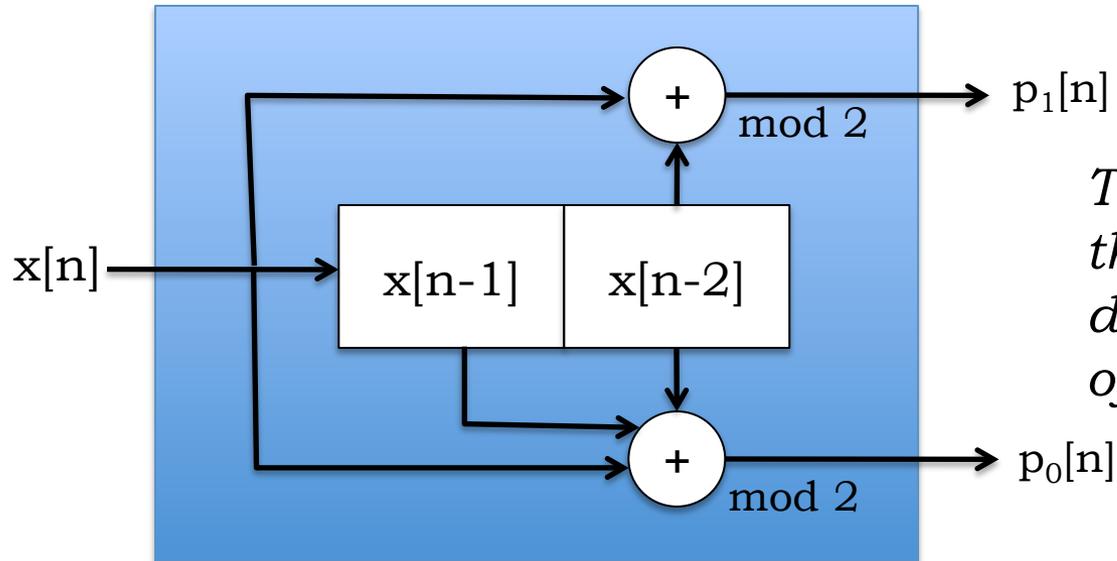
- Code rate is  $1/\text{number\_of\_generators}$ 
  - 2 generators  $\rightarrow$  rate =  $\frac{1}{2}$
  - Engineering tradeoff: using more generators improves bit-error correction but decreases rate of the code (the number of message bits/s that can be transmitted)

# Example

- Using two generators:
  - $g_0 = 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, \dots$  abbreviated as 111 for  $K=3$  code
  - $g_1 = 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, \dots$  abbreviated as 110 for  $K=3$  code
- Writing out the equations for the parity sequences:
  - $p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$
  - $p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-2]$
- Let  $x[n] = [1, 0, 1, 1, \dots]$ ;  $x[n]=0$  when  $n < 0$ :
  - $p_0[0] = (1 + 0 + 0) \bmod 2 = 1$ ,  $p_1[0] = (1 + 0) \bmod 2 = 1$
  - $p_0[1] = (0 + 1 + 0) \bmod 2 = 1$ ,  $p_1[1] = (0 + 0) \bmod 2 = 0$
  - $p_0[2] = (1 + 0 + 1) \bmod 2 = 0$ ,  $p_1[2] = (1 + 1) \bmod 2 = 0$
  - $p_0[3] = (1 + 1 + 0) \bmod 2 = 0$ ,  $p_1[3] = (1 + 0) \bmod 2 = 1$
- Transmit: 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, ...

# Shift-Register View

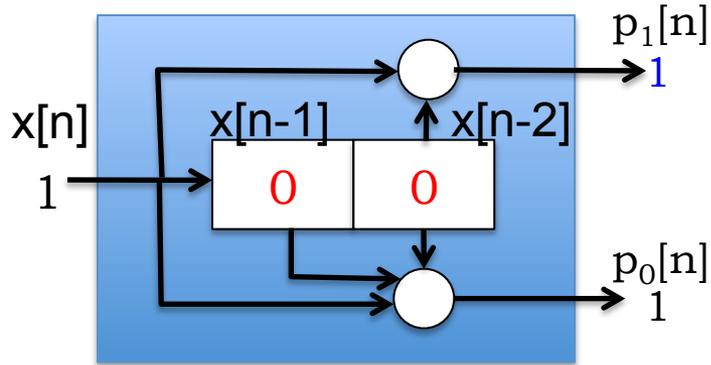
- One often sees convolutional encoders described with a block diagram like the following:



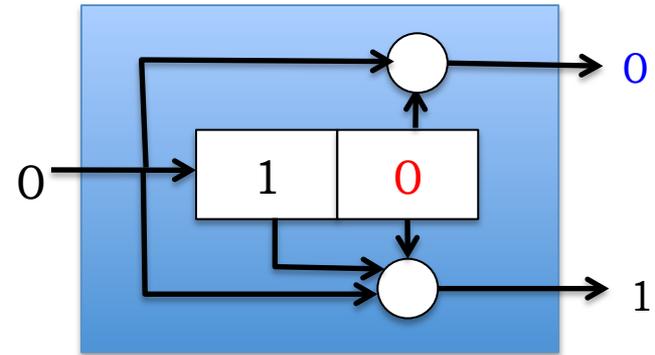
*The values in the registers define the **state** of the encoder*

- Message bit in, parity bits out
  - Input bits arrive one-at-a-time from the left
  - The box computes the parity bits using the incoming bit and the  $K-1$  previous message bits
  - At the end of the bit interval, the saved message bits are *shifted right* by one, and the incoming bit moves into the left position.

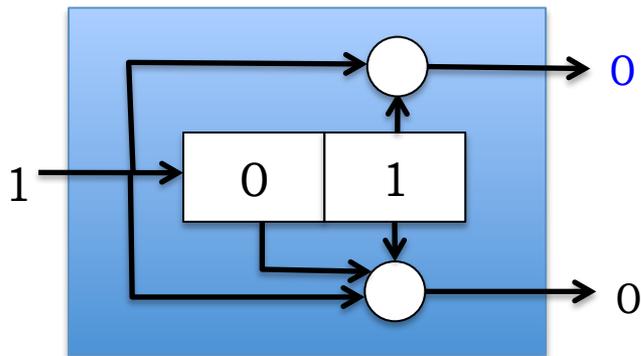
# Example: Transmit message 1011



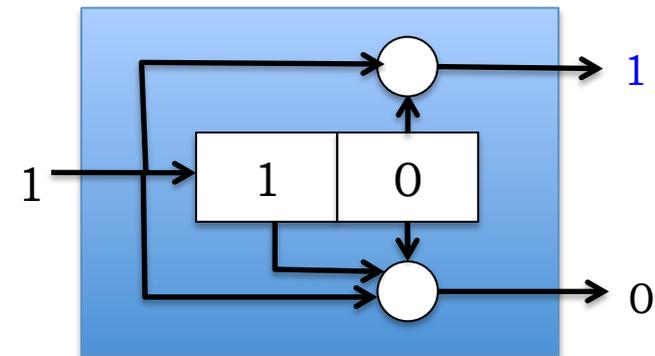
Processing  $x[0]$



Processing  $x[1]$



Processing  $x[2]$



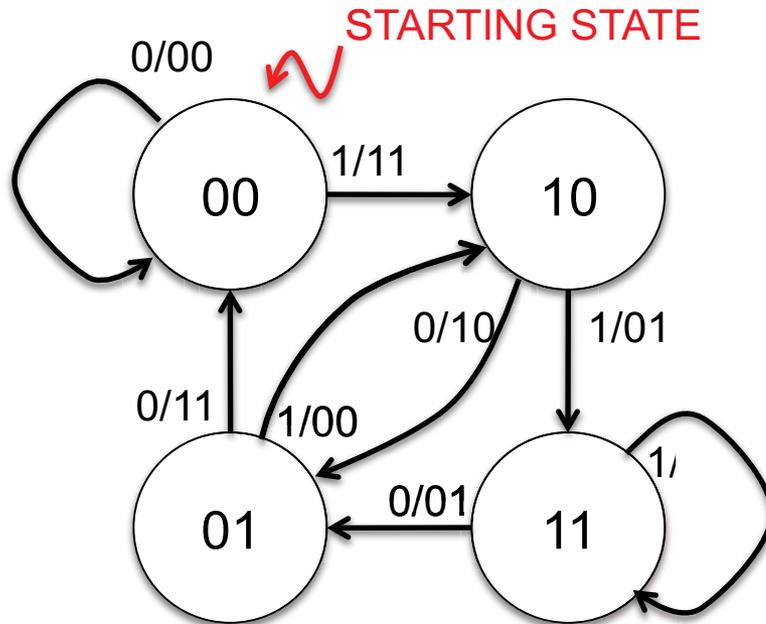
Processing  $x[3]$

$$p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$$

$$p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-2]$$

Xmit seq: 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, ...  
(codeword)

# State-Machine View



$$p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$$

$$p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-2]$$

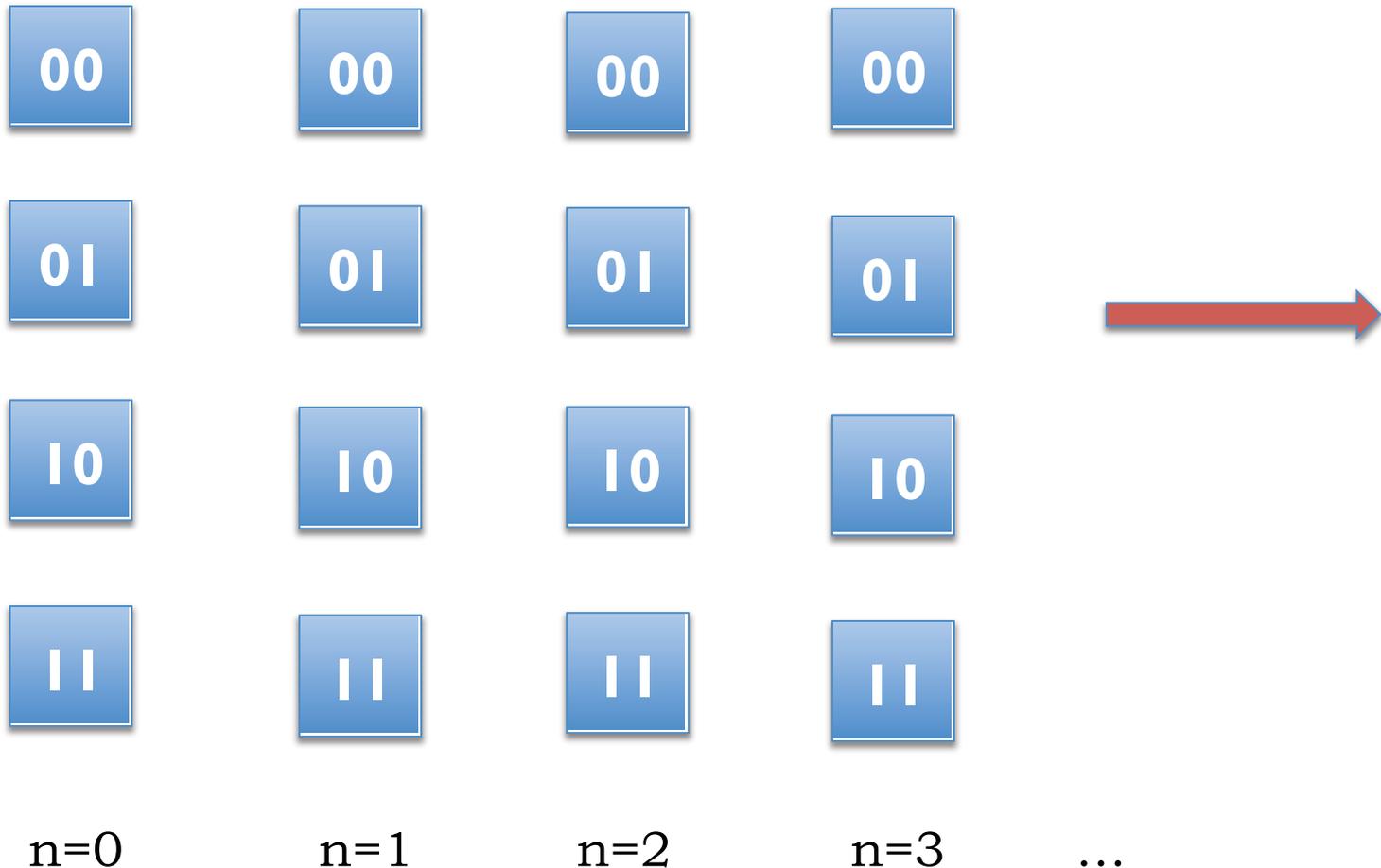
(Generators:  $g_0 = 111$ ,  $g_1 = 101$ )

The state machine is the *same* for all  $K=3$  codes. Only the  $p_i$  labels change depending on number and values for the generator polynomials.

- Example:  $K=3$ , rate- $\frac{1}{2}$  convolutional code
- There are  $2^{K-1}$  states
- States labeled with  $(x[n-1], x[n-2])$  value
- Arcs labeled with  $x[n]/p_0[n]p_1[n]$
- msg=101100; xmit = 11 10 00 01 01 11

# Trellis View

- State machine unfolded in time (fill in details using notes as guide, for the example considered here!)



# The Parity Stream forms a Linear Code

- Smallest-weight nonzero codeword has a weight that (locally in time) plays a role analogous to  $d$ , the minimum Hamming distance. It's called the **free distance (fd)** of the convolutional code.
- What is fd for our example?

# Encoding & Decoding Convolutional Codes

- Transmitter (aka Encoder)
  - Beginning at starting state, processes message bit-by-bit
  - For each message bit: makes a state transition, sends  $p_0p_1\dots$
  - Pad message with  $K-1$  zeros to ensure return to starting state
- Receiver (aka Decoder)
  - Doesn't have direct knowledge of transmitter's state transitions; only knows (possibly corrupted) received parity bits,  $p_i$
  - Must find **most likely sequence of transmitter states** that could have generated the received parity bits,  $p_i$
  - If  $BER < \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P(\text{more errors}) < P(\text{fewer errors})$
  - *When  $BER < \frac{1}{2}$ , maximum-likelihood message sequence is the one that generated the codeword (here, sequence of parity bits) with the smallest Hamming distance from the received codeword (here, parity bits)*
  - I.e., find nearest valid codeword *closest* to the received codeword – Maximum-likelihood (ML) decoding

# In the absence of noise ...

- Decoding is **trivial**:

$$p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$$

$$p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-2]$$

- Can you see how to recover the input  $x[.]$  from the parity bits  $p[.]$  ?
- In the presence of errors in the parity stream, message bits will get corrupted at about the same rate as parity bits, with this simple-minded recovery.

# Spot Quiz!

Consider the convolutional code given by

$$p_0[n] = x[n] + x[n-2] + x[n-3]$$

$$p_1[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2]$$

$$p_2[n] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2] + x[n-3]$$

1. Constraint length,  $K$ , of this code = \_\_\_\_\_
2. Code rate = \_\_\_\_\_
3. Coefficients of the generators = \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_
4. No. of states in state machine of this code = \_\_\_\_\_

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