

ENERGY SAVING VITERBI DECODER FOR FORWARD ERROR CORRECTION IN MOBILE NETWORKS

A dissertation submitted to The University of Manchester for the degree of
Master of Science
in the Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences

2010

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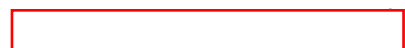


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Abstract

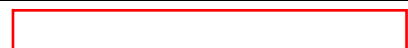
This project is concerned with bit-error control mechanisms that are used in mobile telephone and wireless computer networks today. The use of Forward Error Correction (FEC) techniques using convolutional codes is studied along with the Viterbi Algorithm for decoding convolutional codes. Due to its computational complexity, a major portion of the energy consumption at a wireless digital receiver results from the Viterbi decoder. This project investigates a new energy saving strategy that may enable receivers to decode convolutionally coded transmissions with lower energy utilization.

In practical applications, there can be large variations in the bit-error rate encountered at a mobile receiver. These variations will be more pronounced when the receiver is in motion between access-points. The energy saving strategy is to switch to a simpler decoding mechanism when it is ascertained that bit-errors are not occurring. When the presence of bit-errors is detected by the simple decoder it switches back to the Viterbi decoder to try and correct the bit-errors. On switching from the simple decoder to the Viterbi decoder, the Viterbi decoder must be accurately initialized with the current state of the simple decoder. Similarly, on switching from the Viterbi decoder to the simple decoder, the simple decoder must be accurately initialized with the current state of the Viterbi Decoder. While it is easy for the simple decoder to detect the occurrence of bit-errors, getting the Viterbi decoder to determine when there are no bit-errors and switch back to the simple decoder presents a harder problem. These issues are addressed and a working solution is presented.

Results obtained by MATLAB[®] simulation demonstrate that, with appropriate settings, no increase in bit-error probability appears to be introduced by the new method. The packet loss rate was observed to be identical for all values of signal to noise ratio (E_b/N_0). Evaluating the energy saving capability of the new technique requires the profiling of its energy consumption in comparison to that of a standard Viterbi decoder. To do this accurately for a true VLSI implementation would require resources beyond the scope of the project. However, MATLAB[®] provides some profiling facilities based on execution times and these can give some idea of the likely relationship between the energy consumption of these particular algorithms. Since they perform the same types of operation, they are likely to be equally affected by interpretation efficiency and the



effects of caching. For a message length of 10,000 bits and constant AWGN noise levels, the MATLAB processing time shows that, in comparison to that obtained with a standard Viterbi decoder, the new method requires about the same execution time for SNR values (as measured by E_b/N_0) below 5 dB and always less for values above 5 dB. If E_b/N_0 is increased beyond 5 dB, the difference in execution time between the two methods becomes steadily greater. At $E_b/N_0 = 7, 8, 9$ and 10 dB, the execution time for the new method becomes about 50 %, 35 %, 18 %, and 8 % respectively of that taken by the standard Viterbi decoder. We believe that these profiling measurements indicate that improved energy efficiency is a strong possibility for the new decoder.



Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in the dissertation has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.



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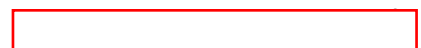
Acknowledgements

I take this opportunity to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Barry Cheetham for his constant guidance and support throughout this project. His encouragement helped me persevere despite setbacks and his valuable suggestions became crucial turning points towards the success of this project.

I would also like to thank Dr. Linda Brackenbury for her valuable advice and direction during the course of this project. She provided me with material that was influential in the success of the project.

I sincerely thank my MSc. program director, Dr. Thierry Scheurer for the opportunity to undertake this project at the University of Manchester.

I am also deeply indebted to my family and friends who were a constant source of encouragement and motivation. Without them this project would not have been a success.



Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an outline of the main motivations and ideas that underpin this project. The main objectives are then presented along with the scope of the investigation and an overview of the report organization.

1.1 Motivation

Unlike wired digital networks, wireless digital networks are much more prone to bit-errors. Packets of bits that are received are more likely to be damaged and considered unusable in a packetized system. Error detection and correction mechanisms are vital and numerous techniques exist for reducing the effect of bit-errors and trying to ensure that the receiver eventually gets an error free version of the packet. The major techniques used are error detection with Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ) [4], Forward Error Correction (FEC) [11] and hybrid forms of ARQ and FEC (H-ARQ) [8, 9]. This project focuses on FEC techniques.

Forward Error Correction (FEC) is the method of transmitting error correction information along with the message. At the receiver, this error correction information is used to correct any bit-errors that may have occurred during transmission. The improved performance comes at the cost of introducing a considerable amount of redundancy in the transmitted code. There are various FEC codes in use today for the purpose of error correction. Most codes fall into either of two major categories: block codes [11] and convolutional codes [6]. Block codes work with fixed length blocks of code. Convolutional codes deal with data sequentially (i.e. taken a few bits at a time) with the output depending on both the present input as well as previous inputs.



In terms of implementation, block codes become very complex as their length increases and are therefore harder to implement. Convolutional codes, in comparison to block codes, are less complex and therefore easier to implement. In packetized digital networks convolutionally coded data would still be transmitted as packets or blocks. However these blocks would be much larger in comparison to those used by block codes. The fact that convolutional codes are easier to implement, coupled with the emergence of a very efficient convolutional decoding algorithm, known as Viterbi Algorithm [1], is one of the reasons for convolutional codes becoming the preferred method for real time communication technologies. This project studies the use of various error detection and correction techniques for mobile networks with a focus on non-recursive convolutional coding and the Viterbi Algorithm.

The constraint length of a non-recursive convolutional code results from the number of stages present in the combinatorial logic of the encoder. The error correction power of a convolutional code increases with its constraint length. However, decoding complexity increases exponentially as the constraint length increases. Fortunately, the efficiency of the Viterbi algorithm allows the use of convolutional coding with quite reasonable constraint lengths in many applications. Due to its high accuracy in finding the most likely sequence of states, the Viterbi algorithm is used in many applications ranging from communication networks [27, 30, 31], optical character recognition [26] and even DNA sequence analysis. Recently, interest has grown in the use of certain error correction codes that provide much superior performance. Two of these codes are Low Density Parity Check codes [19] and Turbo Codes [16]. The ideas presented in this thesis are likely to be relevant to these more advanced codes as well as non-recursive convolutional codes, but this thesis will concentrate on convolutional codes.

Since preservation of battery energy is a major concern for mobile devices, it is desirable that the error detection and correction mechanism take the minimum amount of energy to execute. This project explores the possibility of improving the energy efficiency of the Viterbi decoder and develops an algorithm to achieve this.



1.2 Outline and Context of the Report

This project focuses on the use of Viterbi Algorithm for forward error correction in mobile networks. It is desirable to keep energy consumption at a minimum in order to optimize use of available battery energy. In order to get good error correcting capabilities, the constraint length must be kept high and since the complexity of a convolutional decoder increases exponentially with its constraint length, optimizing the decoding mechanism with respect to energy consumption becomes a worthwhile goal.

The growing need for improved energy efficiency of decoders has resulted in several approaches being explored [20, 34]. The main focus of the project is to explore an idea, proposed by Barry Cheetham [2] which is to switch off the Viterbi decoder and use a simpler decoder when no bit-errors are occurring. It is possible that by doing this, a significant amount of energy could be saved. When bit-errors are detected, the Viterbi decoder can be switched back on to take advantage of its error correction functionality. This process at the receiver depends on having a memory of previous bits received. Correctly maintaining and using this previous memory (previous history) when switching between the two decoders is one of the main technical challenges in the project.

The energy saving mechanism proposed by Barry Cheetham [2] is based on an earlier idea published by Wei Shao [3], though it is hoped that the new approach will be easier to implement. This algorithm can be developed using MATLAB[®] though it will require a custom designed version of the Viterbi algorithm to be developed from scratch, and then adapted to the new energy saving idea [2]. Possible problems that may affect the accuracy and energy saving capabilities of the algorithm must be analyzed and solutions to these problems must be developed. The performance of the resulting algorithm must be studied in terms of bit-error performance, packet loss rates and processing time.

In principle, evaluating the performance of the new technique requires profiling of the energy consumption of the two algorithms involved. To do this accurately would require resources beyond the scope of the project. MATLAB[®], provides some profiling facilities. But relating information obtained to energy consumption as would be



observed in a VLSI implementation of the code is a complex issue. Nevertheless, it is believed that the execution times of particular parts of the algorithms can give some idea of the likely relationship between the energy consumption of these particular parts. Hence, in place of quoting estimations of the likely energy consumption of different techniques, execution times will be quoted with an implicit assumption that this gives a first order approximation to the likely energy consumption. By comparison with the standard Viterbi decoder available in MATLAB[®], an analysis will be made of whether this method provides a significant improvement over existing mechanisms.

1.3 Main Objectives

The main objectives of this project are as follows

- i. An understanding of the background literature relevant to error detection and error control mechanisms as currently used in packetized digital communication networks.
- ii. A detailed understanding of the concept of convolutional coding, and decoding using the Viterbi algorithm.
- iii. An implementation of the Viterbi algorithm in MATLAB[®] to obtain a ‘custom designed’ version called ‘My Viterbi’ and check that it is working correctly by comparing its performance with that of the Viterbi decoder function (vitdec.m) provided by MATLAB[®] (A custom designed Viterbi decoder is needed because MATLAB[®] does not provide access to the code for vitdec.m).
- iv. A resolution of questions that still need to be answered about the new algorithm [2] including the correct initialization of component decoders and the stability of the feedback mechanism
- v. An implementation in MATLAB[®] of the new algorithm [2] as a modification of the custom designed Viterbi algorithm.
- vi. An evaluation of the new algorithm [2] in terms of its accuracy and capacity for achieving energy saving tAnalysis will be performed on the basis of bit-error performance, packet loss rates and execution time (considered to provide a first order approximation to energy consumption).



1.4 Scope of the Project

This project is intended to further develop and implement the energy saving decoding algorithm developed by Barry Cheetham [2]. Solutions to some issues that still remained to be resolved at the beginning of this project. The main focus of this project is to provide a working demonstration of the algorithm by implementation in MATLAB[®] and to analyze its performance by comparison with the standard Viterbi decoder available in MATLAB[®]. The system will be developed using a hard decision Viterbi decoder but may be extended to using a soft decision decoder. The project does not consider the circuit level design of the algorithm but uses a high level approach to test the proposed algorithm. This may be considered in future work if it is found that this algorithm promises considerable benefits over existing mechanisms.

1.5 Overview of the Report

Chapter 2 provides the background literature relevant to Error Detection and Control Mechanisms and describes convolutional codes in detail. Chapter 3 is devoted to a study of the Viterbi algorithm and in particular the Viterbi Decoder. Chapter 4 introduces the new energy saving strategy proposed by Barry [2] and explains the basic principles that drive the mechanism. Chapter 5 describes the research methodology that will be followed to guide the structure of the project. Design and implementation details of the system to be developed are detailed in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 provides a summary of the results obtained through testing and provides a detailed analysis of the results. Chapters 8 and 9 describe the conclusions that were made at the end of the project and provide suggestions for further investigations on the developed algorithm.

1.6 Summary

This chapter has described the motivations behind this project and has defined its main objectives and scope. The following chapter describes the major classifications of error detection and correction mechanisms, their advantages and drawbacks.



Chapter 2

ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION TECHNIQUES

This section describes common methods of error detection and error correction as used in wireless networks. The methods described include Forward Error Correction (FEC) , Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ) and Hybrid- ARQ (H-ARQ)

2.1 Forward Error Correction (FEC)

Forward Error Correction is a method used to improve channel capacity by introducing redundant data into the message [8]. This redundant data allows the receiver to detect and correct errors without the need for retransmission of the message. Forward Error Correction proves advantageous in noisy channels when a large number of retransmissions would normally be required before a packet is received without error. It is also used in cases where no backward channel exists from the receiver to the transmitter. A complex algorithm or function is used to encode the message with redundant data. The process of adding redundant data to the message is called channel coding. This encoded message may or may not contain the original information in an unmodified form. Systematic codes are those that have a portion of the output directly resembling the input. Non-systematic codes are those that do not.

It was earlier believed that as some degree of noise was present in all communication channels, it would not be possible to have error free communications. This belief was proved wrong by Claude Shannon in 1948. In his paper [9] titled “A Mathematical Theory of Communication”, Shannon proved that channel noise limits transmission rate and not the error probability. According to his theory, every communication channel has a capacity C (measured in bits per second), and as long as the transmission rate, R



(measured in bits per second), is less than C , it is possible to design an error-free communications system using error control codes. The now famous Shannon-Hartley theorem, describes how this channel capacity can be calculated. However, Shannon did not describe how such codes may be developed. This led to a wide spread effort to develop codes that would produce the very small error probability as predicted by Shannon. It was only in the 1960's that these codes were finally discovered [10]. There were two major classes of codes that were developed, namely block codes and convolutional codes.

2.2 Block Codes

As described by Proakis [11], linear block codes consist of fixed length vectors called code words. Block codes are described using two integers k and n , and a generator matrix or polynomial [6]. The integer k is the number of data bits in the input to the block encoder. The integer n is the total number of bits in the generated codeword. Also, each n bit codeword is uniquely determined by the k bit input data.

Another parameter used to describe is its weight. This is defined as the number of non zero elements in the code word. In general, each code word has its own weight. If all the M code words have equal weight it is said to be fixed-weight code [11].

Hamming Codes and Cyclic Redundancy Checks are two widely used examples of block codes. They are described below.

2.2.1. Hamming Codes

A commonly known linear Block Code is the Hamming code. Hamming codes can detect and correct a single bit-error in a block of data. In these codes, every bit is included in a unique set of parity bits [12]. The presence and location of a single parity bit-error can be determined by analyzing parities of combinations of received bits to produce a table of parities each of which corresponds to a particular bit-error combination. This table of errors is known as the error syndrome. If all the parities are correct according to this pattern, it can be concluded that there is not a single bit-error in the message (there may be multiple bit-errors). If there are errors in the parities caused



by a single bit-error, the erroneous data bit can be found by adding up the positions of the erroneous parities. The reference [12] provides the general algorithm used for creating Hamming codes and is presented in Appendix B.

While Hamming codes are easy to implement, a problem arises if more than one bit in the received message is erroneous. In some cases, the error may be detected but cannot be corrected. In other cases, the error may go undetected resulting in an incorrect interpretation of transmitted information. Hence, there is a need for more robust error detection and correction schemes that can detect and correct multiple errors in a transmitted message.

2.2.2 Cyclic codes and Cyclic Redundancy Checks (CRC)

Cyclic Codes are linear block codes that can be expressed by the following mathematical property. If $C = [c_{n-1} c_{n-2} \dots c_1 c_0]$ is a code word of a cyclic code, then $[c_{n-2} c_{n-3} \dots c_0 c_{n-1}]$, which is obtained by cyclically shifting all the elements to the left, is also a code word [11]. In other words, every cyclic shift of a codeword results in another codeword. This cyclic structure is very useful in encoding and decoding operations because it is very easy to implement in hardware.

A cyclic redundancy check or CRC is a very common form of cyclic code which is used for error detection purposes in communication systems. At the transmitter, a function is used to calculate a value for the CRC check bits based on the data to be transmitted. These check bits are transmitted along with the data to the receiver. The receiver performs the same calculation on the received data and compares it with the CRC check bits that it has received. If they match, it is considered that no bit-errors have occurred during transmission. While it is possible for certain patterns of error to go undetected, a careful selection of the generator function will minimize this possibility.

Using different kinds of generator polynomials, it is possible to use CRC's to detect different kinds of errors such as all single bit-errors, all double bit errors, any odd number of errors, or any burst error of length less than a particular value. The specific types of generator polynomials for detecting these errors are listed in Appendix C. Due



to these properties, the CRC check is a very useful form of error detection. The IEEE 802.11 standard for CRC check polynomial is the CRC-32 [13].

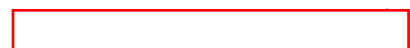
2.3 Convolutional Codes

Convolutional codes are codes that are generated sequentially by passing the information sequence through a linear finite-state shift register. A convolutional code is described using three parameters k , n and K . The integer k represents the number of input bits for each shift of the register. The integer n represents the number of output bits generated at each shift of the register. K is an integer known as constraint length, which represents the number of k bit stages present in the encoding shift register [6]. Each possible combination of shift registers together forms a possible state of the encoder. For a code of constraint length K , there exist 2^{K-1} possible states.

Since convolutional codes are processed sequentially, the encoding process can start producing encoded bits as soon as a few bits have been processed and then carry on producing bits for as long as required. Similarly, the decoding process can start as soon as a few bits have been received. In other words, this means is that it is not necessary to wait for the entire data to be received before decoding is started. This makes it ideal in situations where the data to be transmitted is very long and possibly even endless! e.g.: phone conversations.

In packetized digital networks, even convolutional codes are sent as packets of data. However, these packet lengths are usually considerably longer than what would be practical for block codes. Additionally, in block codes, all the blocks or packets would be of the same length. In convolutional codes the packets may have varying lengths.

There are alternative ways of describing a convolutional code. It can be expressed as a tree diagram, a trellis diagram or a state diagram. For the purpose of this project, trellis and state diagrams are used. These two diagrams are explained below.



2.3.1 State Diagram

The state of the encoder (or decoder) refers to a possible combination of register values in the array of shift registers that the encoder (or decoder) is comprised of. A state diagram shows all possible present states of the encoder as well all the possible state transitions that may occur. In order to create the state diagram, a state transition table may first be made, showing the next state for each possible combination of the present state and input to the decoder. The following tables and figures show how a state diagram is drawn for a convolutional encoder. For the purpose of illustration a 3 stage encoder with rate $\frac{1}{2}$ has been shown. In the project, the standard rate $\frac{1}{2}$, 7stage encoder will be used.

Figure 2.1 shows a convolutional encoder with a rate $\frac{1}{2}$ and $K = 3, (7, 5)$. Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ is used to denote the fact that for each bit of input the encoder a two bit output. K , the constraint length of the encoder being three, establishes that the input persists for 3 clock cycles [11]. The constraint length can be calculated as one more than the number of serially connected shift registers in the encoder. Octal numbers seven and five when converted to binary form represent the generator polynomials signify the shift register connections to the upper and lower modulo-two adders respectively. $7_{(8)}$ in binary form is 111. Hence direct input, output of first shift register and output of second shift register are connected to the first modulo-two adder (A in Figure 2.1). Similarly, $5_{(8)}$ in binary form is 101. Hence direct input and output of second shift register are connected to the second modulo-two adder (B in the Figure 2.1)

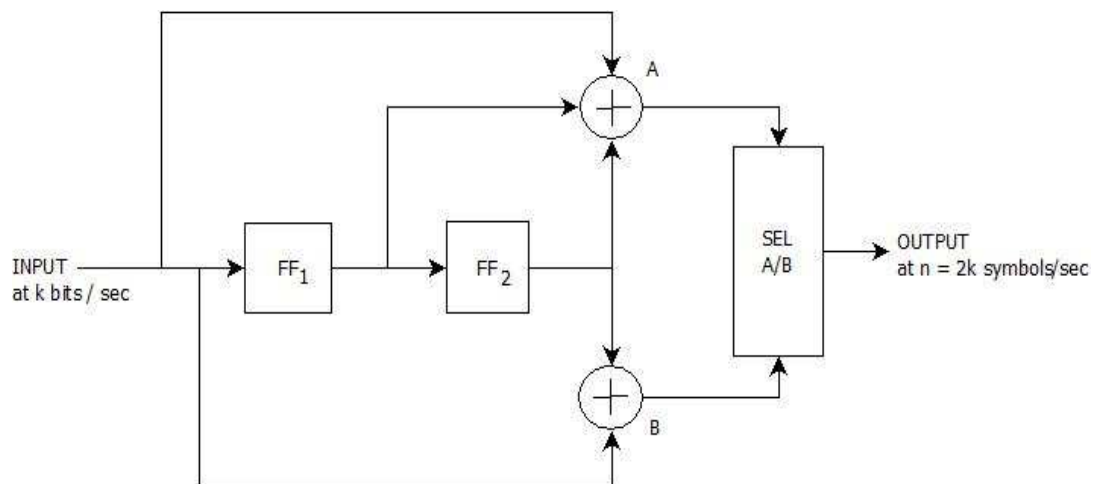


Figure 2.1: $\frac{1}{2}$, $K=3$ Convolutional Encoder



By looking at the transition of shift registers (also known as Flip Flops) FF1 and FF2, the State transition table is created for each combination of Input and Current State. This is shown in Table 2.1

Current State (FF ₁ FF ₂)	Next State if	
	Input =0	Input=1
00	00	10
01	00	10
10	01	11
11	01	11

Table 2.1: State Transition Table

Another table can be created to demonstrate the change in output for each combination of input and previous output. This is called the Output Table and is shown in Table 2.2

Current Output	Output Symbols if	
	Input = 0	Input= 1
00	00	11
01	11	00
10	10	01
11	01	10

Table 2.2: Output Table

Finally, using the information from Table 2.1 and Table 2.2, the state diagram is created as shown in Figure 2.2. The values inside the circles indicate the state of the flip flops. The values on the arrows indicate the output of the encoder.



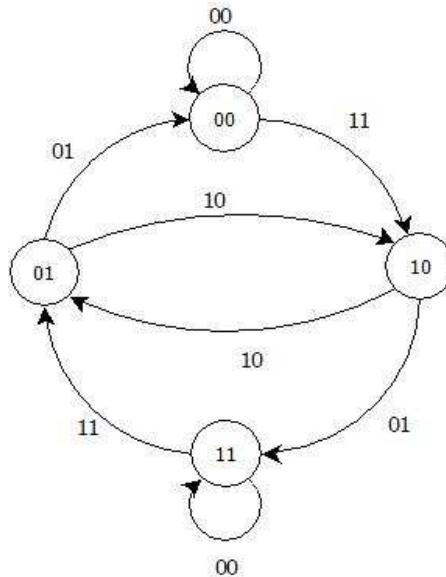


Figure 2.2: State Diagram

2.3.2. Trellis Diagram

In a trellis diagram the mappings from current state to next state are done in a slightly different manner as shown in Figure 2.3. Additionally, the diagram is extended to represent all the time instances until the whole message is decoded. In the following Figure 2.3, a trellis diagram is drawn for the above mentioned convolutional encoder. The complete trellis diagram will replicate this figure for each time instance that is to be considered.

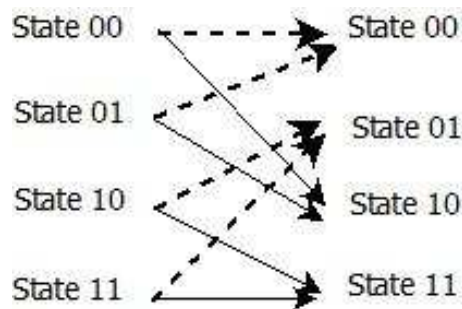


Figure 2.3: Trellis Diagram for a $1/2$, $K=3,(7,5)$ convolutional encoder

The solid lines in Figure 2.3 represent transitions when the input is 1. The dashed lines represent transitions when input is 0. From this diagram it can be observed that each state has two possible successor states depending on whether the input bit was 1 or 0. The diagram also shows that each state has two possible predecessor states.

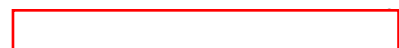
The most common convolutional code used in communication systems has a symbol rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ and constraint length $K = 7$. The most widely used method for decoding convolutional codes has been the Viterbi Algorithm. Chapter 4 is devoted towards a detailed description of the algorithm. Prior to that, some recent developments in this area are described below.

2.4 Recent Developments

Since its discovery, the Viterbi algorithm has been the most widely used method for decoding convolutional codes. However, more complex codes are now increasingly being used to provide superior performance. While understanding these complex codes in a short amount of time is difficult, an attempt has been made to provide a basic description of two of these codes, namely Low Density Parity Check Codes and Turbo Codes.

2.4.1 Low Density Parity Check Codes or LDPC Codes

LDPC codes were first introduced by Gallager in his PhD thesis in 1963[18]. However, it was a long time before interest grew in these codes. As described by Shokrollahi [19], LDPC codes are linear block codes obtained from sparse bipartite graphs. A sparse bipartite graph is a graph with 'n' left nodes known as message nodes and 'r' right nodes known as check nodes. The graph creates a linear code of block length n and dimension at least 'n - r' as described below: The n coordinates of the codewords are associated with the n message nodes. The codewords are those vectors (c_1, \dots, c_n) such that for all check nodes the sum of the neighboring positions among the message nodes is zero. Shokrollahi provides this example [19] shown in Figure 2.7 to illustrate this concept.



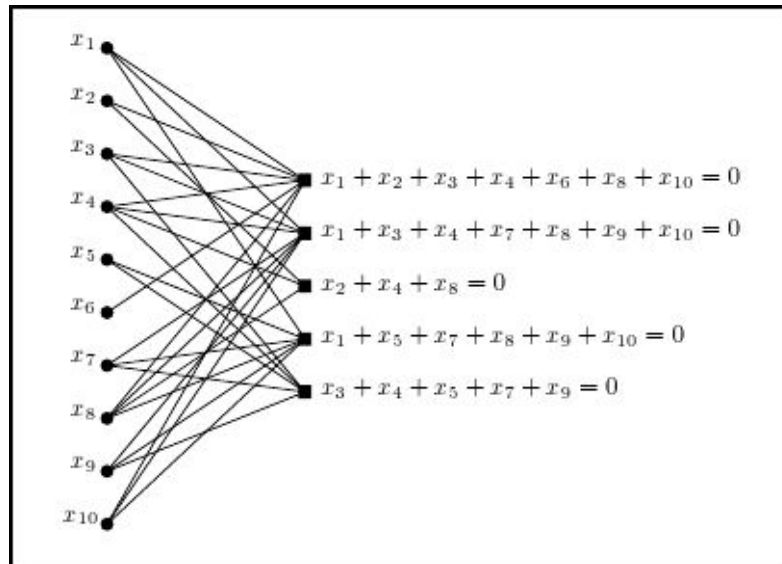


Figure 2.4: Example of an LDPC Code. Reproduced from [19]

LDPC codes can be mathematically defined in the following way [19].

“Let H be a binary $r \times n$ matrix where entry (i, j) is 1 if and only if the i^{th} check node is connected to the j^{th} message node in the graph. Then the LDPC code may be defined by the graph as the set of vectors $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$ such that $H \cdot c^T = 0$. Matrix H defined in this manner is known as the parity check matrix for the code.”

LDPC Codes are not particularly advantageous as compared to other codes in terms of probability of decoding errors for a particular block length. Also, the maximum rate at which LDPC Codes can be used is limited below channel capacity. The biggest advantage of LDPC Codes, as explained by Gallager [18] is that they allow the use of a simple decoding scheme and this outweighs its drawbacks.

One of the simpler decoding schemes that may be used for Binary Symmetric Channels is done by calculating all of the parity checks for the code and then reversing the digit that is contained in more than a certain number of unsatisfied parity check equations. This process is repeated many times until all the parity checks are satisfied. This decoding scheme is not optimal. Better schemes which use *a posteriori* probabilities at the channel output to decode data are described by Gallager [18].

2.4.2. Turbo Codes

Concatenated coding schemes combine two or more relatively simple component codes as a means of achieving large coding gains. Such concatenated codes have the error-correction capability of much longer codes while at the same time permitting relatively easy to moderately complex decoding. [6] Turbo codes, first introduced by Berrou, Glavieux and Thitimajshima, [15] are a modification of the concatenated encoding structure with an iterative algorithm for decoding the associated sequence. Serial and parallel concatenated Turbo codes are in fact a type of LDPC codes.

2.4.2.1 Encoder

In most communication links, bit-errors are introduced into the message as short bursts due to some sudden disturbance in the medium. When many bit-errors occur adjacent to each other, it is more difficult to correct them. Turbo Codes try to reduce the effect of such bursts of error by spreading out adjacent information bits. The encoder as shown in Figure 2.4 and described by Ryan [16], consists of three individual components

- i. The Recursive Systematic Encoders,
- ii. Permuter or N-bit interleaver
- iii. Puncturer (optional).

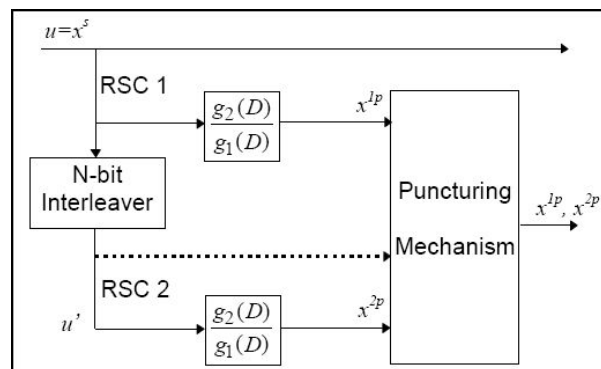


Figure 2.5: Schematic Diagram of a Turbo Encoder with two identical Recursive Systematic Encoders, an N-bit Interleaver and Puncturer. Reproduced from [16]

As shown in the figure, the two Recursive Systematic Encoders are separated by an N-bit interleaver or permuter. However instead of cascading the two encoders serially, as is the convention for concatenation, the encoders are arranged to facilitate parallel concatenation [16]. A conventional interleaver arranges data in a pseudo random order.

The permuter differs from this in that it takes a block of N bits of data and rearranges them in a pseudo random manner. It is hence also called an N-bit interleaver. This rearranged code is then passed to the second encoder.

The advantage is that any bursts of errors that occur will now be spread over a wider range bits. As the bit-errors are now farther apart there is a higher probability that the bit-errors may be corrected at the decoder. This method is advantageous when the medium is known to produce burst errors. There is also a probability that this type of code adversely affects the outcome. This may happen if bit-errors which would have been far apart are adjacent to each other as a result of the rearrangement operations.

2.4.2.2 Decoder

Using a maximum likelihood sequence for the decoder would prove too difficult since the data has been rearranged in a pseudo random fashion. Instead an iterative decoding algorithm is used to provide similar performance. In order to make full use of this method, the decoders must produce soft decision outputs as hard decisions will severely limit its error correcting capability. The decoding algorithm used by Berrou, et al [15], is based on the symbol-by-symbol maximum *a posteriori* (MAP) algorithm of Bahl, et al [17]. In this algorithm, the decoder sets the data input u_k as 1 if $P(u_k = 1 | y)$ is greater than $P(u_k = -1 | y)$, where y is the received message with bit-errors. In other words the decision of the value of u_k equals $\text{sign}[L(u_k)]$ which is the log *a posteriori* probability (LAPP) ratio given by

$$L(u_k) = \log [(P(u_k = +1 | y) / (P(u_k = -1 | y))] \quad \text{---- (Eq.1)}$$

The following figure, Figure 2.5, described by Ryan [16], demonstrates how an iterative decoder is built using component MAP decoders. The N-bit interleavers and de-interleavers are used to arrange information in the right sequence for each decoder.

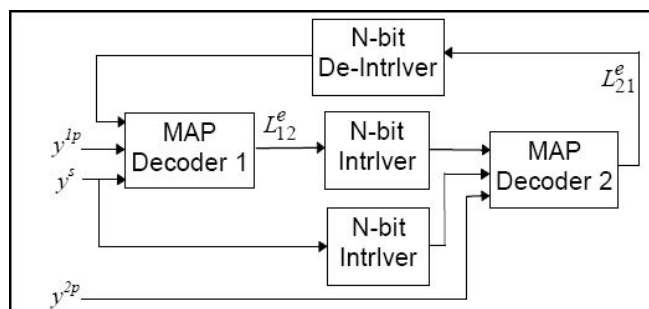
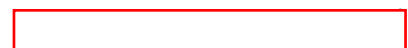


Figure 2.6 Schematic Diagram of Turbo Decoder. Reproduced from [16]



Berrou, Glavieux and Thitimajshima conducted simulations using parallel concatenation of Recursive Systematic Encoders and feedback decoding [15]. The results showed a marked improvement in error correction capabilities as the number of iterations performed was increased. For binary modulation, a bit error probability of 10^{-5} and $E_b/N_0 = 0.2$ dB is often used as a practical Shannon limit reference for a rate $\frac{1}{2}$ code. The error performance of this turbo code at bit error probability 10^{-5} is within 0.5 dB of the pragmatic Shannon limit.

2.5 Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ)

Automatic Repeat request or ARQ is a method in which the receiver sends back a positive acknowledgement if no errors are detected in the received message. In order to do this, the transmitter sends a Cyclic Redundancy Check or CRC along with the message. This has been described in Section 2.2.1 The CRC check bits are calculated based on the data to be transmitted. At the receiver, the CRC is calculated again using the received bits. If the calculated CRC bits match those received, the data received is considered accurate and an acknowledgement is sent back to the transmitter.

The sender waits for this acknowledgement. If it does not receive an acknowledgement (ACK) within a predefined time, or if it receives a negative acknowledgement (NAK), it retransmits the message [4]. This retransmission is done either until it receives an ACK or until it exceeds a specified number of retransmissions.

This method has a number of drawbacks. Firstly, transmission of a whole message takes much longer as the sender has to keep waiting for acknowledgements from the receiver. Secondly, due to this delay, it is not possible to have practical, real-time, two-way communications. There are a few simple variations to the standard Stop-and-Wait ARQ such as Go-back-N ARQ, selective repeat ARQ. These are described below.

2.5.1 'Stop and Wait' ARQ

In this method, the transmitter sends a packet and waits for a positive acknowledgement. Only once it receives this ACK does it proceed to send the next packet [5]. This method results in a lot of delays as the transmitter has to wait for an acknowledgement. It is also



prone to attacks where a malicious user keeps sending NAK messages continuously. As a result the transmitter keeps retransmitting the same packet and the communication channel breaks down.

2.5.2 ‘Continuous’ ARQ

In this method, the transmitter transmits packets continuously until it receives a NAK. A sequence number is assigned to each transmitted packet so that it may be properly referenced by the NAK. There are two ways a NAK is processed.

2.5.2.1 ‘Go-back-N’ ARQ

In ‘Go-back-N’ ARQ, the packet that was received in error is retransmitted along with all the packets that followed after it until the NAK was received. N refers to the number of packets that have to be traced back to reach the packet that was received in error. In some cases this value is determined using the sequence number referenced in the NAK. In others, it is calculated using roundtrip delay [5]. The disadvantage of this method is that even though subsequent packages may have been received without error, they have to be discarded and retransmitted again resulting in loss of efficiency. This disadvantage is overcome by using Selective-repeat ARQ.

2.5.2.2 ‘Selective-repeat’ ARQ

In Selective-repeat ARQ, only the packet that was received in error needs to be retransmitted when a NAK is received. The other packets that have already been sent in the meantime are stored in a buffer and can be used once the packet in error is retransmitted correctly [5]. The transmissions then pick up from where they left off.

Continuous ARQ requires a higher memory capacity as compared to Stop and Wait ARQ. However it reduces delay and increases information throughput [5].

The main advantage of ARQ is that as it detects errors (using CRC check bits) but makes no attempt to correct them, it requires much simpler decoding equipment and much less redundancy as compared to Forward Error Correction techniques which are described below. The huge drawback however, is that the ARQ method may require a large



number of retransmissions to get the correct packet [6], especially if the medium is noisy. Hence the delay in getting messages across maybe excessive.

2.6 Hybrid Automatic Repeat Request (H-ARQ)

Hybrid Automatic Repeat Request or H-ARQ is another variation of the ARQ method. In this technique, error correction information is also transmitted along with the code. This gives a better performance especially when there are a lot of errors occurring. On the flip side, it introduces a larger amount of redundancy in the information sent and therefore reduces the rate at which the actual information can be transmitted. There are two different kinds of H-ARQ, namely Type I HARQ and Type II HARQ [7].

Type I-HARQ is very similar to ARQ except that in this case both error detection as well as forward error correction (FEC) bits are added to the information before transmission. At the receiver, error correction information is used to correct any errors that occurred during transmission. The error detection information is then used to check whether all errors were corrected. If the transmission channel was poor and many bit-errors occurred, errors may be present even after the error correction process. In this case, when all errors have not been corrected, the packet is discarded and a new packet is requested.

In Type II-HARQ, the first transmission is sent with only error detection information. If this transmission is not received error free, the second transmission is sent along with error correction information. If the second transmission is also not error free, information from the first and second packet can be combined to eliminate the error.

Transmitting FEC information can double or triple the message length. Error detection information on the other hand requires fewer numbers of additional bits [7]. The advantage of Type II HARQ therefore, is that it increases the efficiency of the code to that of simple ARQ when channel conditions are good and provides the efficiency of Type I HARQ when channel conditions are bad.



2.7 Summary

This chapter has given a review of background literature pertaining to different error detection and error control techniques. Some of the more recent approaches including LDPC codes and Turbo codes are briefly described. In FEC, convolutional codes are preferred to block codes since they are less complex to decode. The encoding process has been described in this chapter. The next chapter is devoted to a detailed description of the Viterbi Algorithm which is one of the most popular algorithms for decoding convolutional code. Related energy saving techniques that have previously been investigated to optimize its energy consumption are also described.



Chapter 3

THE VITERBI ALGORITHM

The Viterbi Algorithm was developed by Andrew J. Viterbi and first published in the IEEE transactions journal on Information theory in 1967 [1]. It is a maximum likelihood decoding algorithm for convolutional codes. This algorithm provides a method of finding the branch in the trellis diagram that has the highest probability of matching the actual transmitted sequence of bits. Since being discovered, it has become one of the most popular algorithms in use for convolutional decoding. Apart from being an efficient and robust error detection code, it has the advantage of having a fixed decoding time. This makes it suitable for hardware implementation.

3.1 Encoding Mechanism

Data is coded by using a convolutional encoder, as described in Section 2.3.2. It consists of a series of shift registers and an associated combinatorial logic. The combinatorial logic is usually a series of exclusive-or gates. The conventional encoder $\frac{1}{2}$ K=7, (171,133) is used for the purpose of this project. The octal numbers 171 and 133 when represented in binary form correspond to the connection of the shift registers to the upper and lower exclusive-or gates respectively. Figure 3.1 represents this convolutional encoder that will be used for the project.



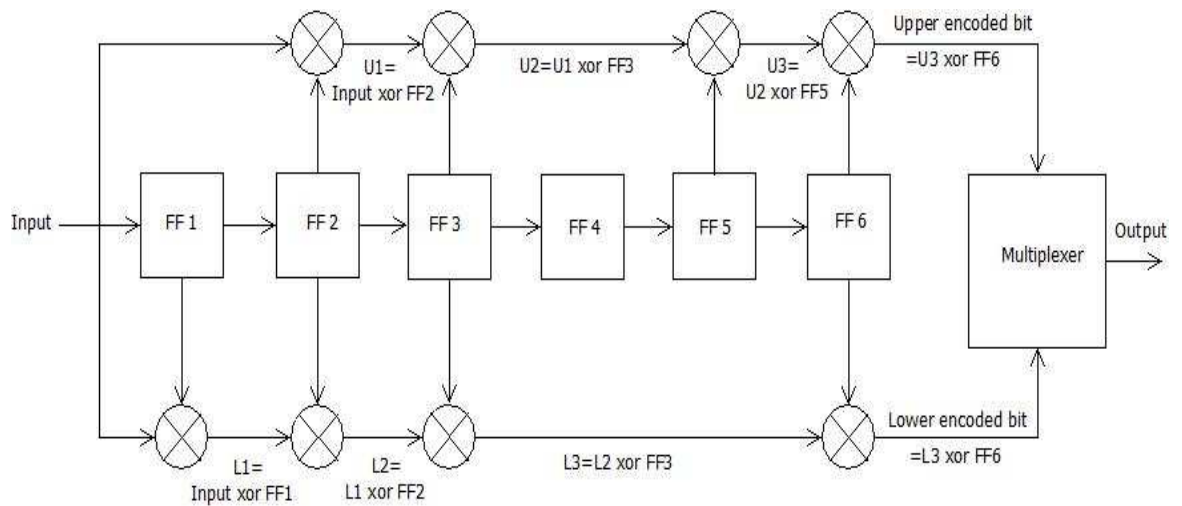


Figure 3.1: Rate = $\frac{1}{2}$ K = 7, (171,133) Convolutional Encoder

3.2 Decoding Mechanism

There are two main mechanisms by which Viterbi decoding may be carried out namely, the Register Exchange mechanism and the Traceback mechanism.

Register exchange mechanisms, as explained by Ranpara and Sam Ha [20] store the partially decoded output sequence along the path. The advantage of this approach is that it eliminates the need for traceback and hence reduces latency. However at each stage, the contents of each register needs to be copied to the next stage. This makes the hardware complex and more energy consuming than the traceback mechanism.

Traceback mechanisms use a single bit to indicate whether the survivor branch came from the upper or lower path. This information is used to traceback the surviving path from the final state to the initial state. This path can then be used to obtain the decoded sequence. Traceback mechanisms prove to be less energy consuming and will hence be the approach followed in this project.

Decoding may be done using either hard decision inputs or soft decision inputs. Inputs that arrive at the receiver may not be exactly zero or one. Having been affected by noise, they will have values in between and even higher or lower than zero and one. The values may also be complex in nature. In the hard decision Viterbi decoder, each input that arrives at the receiver is converted into a binary value (either 0 or 1). In the soft decision



Viterbi decoder, several levels are created and the arriving input is categorized into a level that is closest to its value. If the possible values are split into 8 decision levels, these levels may be represented by 3 bits and this is known as a 3 bit Soft decision. This project uses a hard decision Viterbi decoder for the purpose of developing and verifying the new energy saving algorithm. Once the algorithm is verified, a soft decision Viterbi decoder may be used in place of the hard decision decoder.

Figure 3.2 shows the various stages required to decode data using the Viterbi Algorithm. The decoding mechanism comprises of three major stages namely the Branch Metric Computation Unit, the Path Metric Computation and Add-Compare-Select (ACS) Unit and the Traceback Unit. A schematic representation of the decoder is described below.

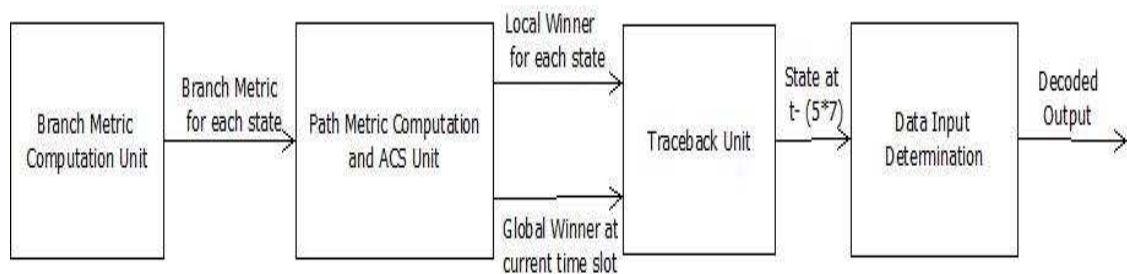


Figure 3.2: Schematic representation of the Viterbi decoding block

Block 1. Branch Metric Computation (BMC)

For each state, the Hamming distance between the received bits and the expected bits is calculated. Hamming distance between two symbols of the same length is calculated as the number of bits that are different between them. These branch metric values are passed to Block 2. If soft decision inputs were to be used, branch metric would be calculated as the squared Euclidean distance between the received symbols [21]. The squared Euclidean distance is given as $(a_1-b_1)^2 + (a_2-b_2)^2 + (a_3-b_3)^2$ where a_1, a_2, a_3 and b_1, b_2, b_3 are the three soft decision bits of the received and expected bits respectively.

Block 2. Path Metric Computation and Add-Compare-Select (ACS) Unit

The path metric or error probability for each transition state at a particular time instant is measured as the sum of the path metric for its preceding state and the branch metric

between the previous state and the present state. The initial path metric at the first time instant is infinity for all states except state 0.

For each state, there are two possible predecessors. The mechanism of calculating the predecessors (and successors) is described below in Section 3.2.1 and Section 3.2.2. The path metrics from both these predecessors are compared and the one with the smallest path metric is selected. This is the most probable transition that occurred in the original message. In addition, a single bit is also stored for each state which specifies whether the lower or upper predecessor was selected. In cases where both paths result in the same path metric to the state, either the higher or lower state may consistently be chosen as the surviving predecessor. For the purpose of this project the higher state is consistently chosen as the surviving predecessor.

Finally, the state with the least accumulated path metric at the current time instant is located. This state is called the global winner and is the state from which traceback operation will begin. This method of starting the traceback operation from the global winner instead of an arbitrary state was described by Linda Brackenbury [22] in her design of an asynchronous Viterbi decoder. This greatly improves probability of finding the correct traceback path quicker and hence reduces the amount of history information that needs to be maintained. It also reduces the number of updates required to the surviving path. Both these measures result in improved energy savings. The values for the surviving predecessors (also called local winners) and the global winner are passed to Block 3.

Block 3. Traceback Unit

The global winner for the current state is received from Block 2. Its predecessor is selected in the manner described in Section 3.2.2. In this way, working backwards through the trellis, the path with the minimum accumulated path metric is selected. This path is known as the traceback path. A diagrammatic description will help visualize this process. Figure 3.3 describes the trellis diagram for a $\frac{1}{2}$ K=3 (7, 5) coder with sample input taken as the received data.



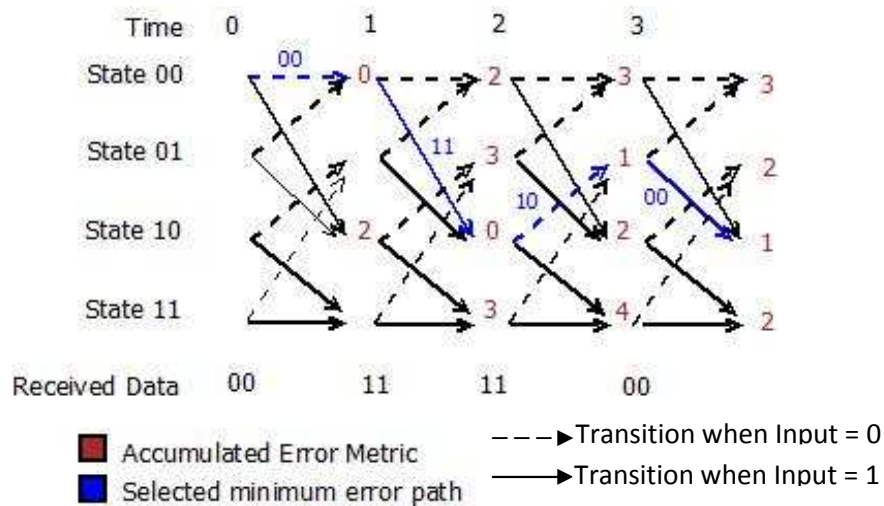


Figure 3.3 Selected minimum error path for a $\frac{1}{2} K = 3 (7, 5)$ coder

The state having minimum accumulated error at the last time instant is State 10 and traceback is started here. Moving backwards through the trellis, the minimum error path out of the two possible predecessors from that state is selected. This path is marked in blue. The actual received data is described at the bottom while the expected data written in blue along the selected path. It is observed that at time slot three there was an error in received data (11). This was corrected to (10) by the decoder.

Local winner information must be stored for five times the constraint length. For a $K = 7$ decoder, this results in storing history for $7 \times 5 = 35$ time slots. The state of the decoder at the time instant 35 time slots prior can then be accurately determined. This state value is passed to Block 4. At the next time slot, all the trellis values are shifted left to the previous time slot. The path metric for the last received data and compute the minimum error path is then calculated. If the global winner at this stage is not a child of the previous global winner, the traceback path has to be updated accordingly until the traceback state is a child of the previous state [22].

Multiple traceback paths are possible and it may be thought that traceback up to the first bit is necessary to correctly determine the surviving path. However, it was found that all possible paths converge within a certain distance or depth of traceback [23][24]. This information is useful as it allows the setting of a certain traceback depth beyond which it is neither necessary nor advantageous to store path metric and other information. This

greatly reduces memory storage requirements and hence energy consumption of the decoder. Empirical observations showed that a depth of five times the constraint length was sufficient to ensure merging of paths [8, 25]. Therefore, local winner information is stored for 35 slots (five times seven) in the decoder used for this project.

Block 4. Data Input Determination

Now going forwards through the traceback path, the state transitions at successive time intervals are studied and the data bit that would have caused this transition (using the method described in Section 3.2.1) is determined. This represents the decoded output.

3.2.1 Determining Successors to a particular State

Each state is represented by 6 shift registers (in the case of a $K=7$ encoder or decoder). The next state can therefore be obtained by a right shift of the values of the shift registers. The first shift register is given a value of 0. The resulting state represents the next state of the coder if the input bit was 0. By adding $32 (1 \times 2^5)$ to this value, the next state of the coder if the input bit was 1 is derived.

3.2.2 Determining Predecessors to a particular State

In a similar way, the first predecessor can be calculated this time by a left shift of the values of the shift registers. By adding one (1×2^0) to this value, the value of the second predecessor to the state is derived.

3.3. Applications

The Viterbi algorithm has a wide range of applications ranging from satellite and space communications, DNA sequence analysis and Optical Character Recognition.

An attempt to perform optical character recognition of text was investigated by Neuhoff [26]. The initial approach considered was to create a dictionary which simulated vocabularies. Each time a character was read by the optical reader, it would search the dictionary for the most likely estimate. The huge amount of computational and storage requirements required under this approach made it impractical. However, another approach makes use of statistical information about the language such as relative



frequency of letter pairs. A maximum a priori probability (MAP) of a word is determined based on its probability as the output of the source model. The Viterbi algorithm may then be used to perform this MAP sequence estimation.

An interesting application discussed by Metzner [27] investigated among others, the use of Viterbi decoding with soft decision to increase the probability of successfully transmitting a data packet during a meteor burst. Since meteor trails are made up of ionized material, these can be used for reliable communications. Some characteristics of such meteor burst communication and descriptions of its practical applications are detailed in [28, 29]. Metzner showed that convolutional codes with soft decision were considerably better for meteor burst applications as compared to Reed-Solomon codes.

Low power applications of the Viterbi decoder are particularly relevant to many digital communication and recording systems today. As described by Kawokgy and Salama [30] systems like these are increasingly being used in wireless applications which being battery operated, require low power consumption. In addition, these systems also require processing speeds of over 100Mbps to allow multimedia transmission. Following this trend, many papers have been written on designing low power Viterbi decoding algorithms targeted for next generation wireless applications, particularly CDMA systems [31, 32, 33]. Some of these energy saving ideas that have been investigated are described in the next section.

3.4 Related Work

In mobile networks, decoding capabilities are limited by the receiver which is a mobile handset. As such, it has limited resources of energy and computation power. Another factor that affects wireless communication is that bandwidth is expensive. Therefore, there is a high demand for codes that can correct errors very efficiently while at the same time utilizing minimum energy. Hence, a lot of the past research has been focused on how this may be achieved.

The fixed T-algorithm algorithm is an optimization of the Viterbi algorithm which applies a pruning threshold to the accumulated path metrics of the Viterbi decoder.



Instead of storing all the survivor paths for all 2^{K-1} states, only some of the most-likely paths are kept at every trellis stage. This results in fewer paths being found and stored. The following Figure 3.4 demonstrates the result of an experiment conducted by Henning and Chakrabarti [34] which compares normalized energy estimates for the Viterbi and the fixed T-algorithm decoders as it varies with signal to noise ratio (E_b/N_0) and code rate.

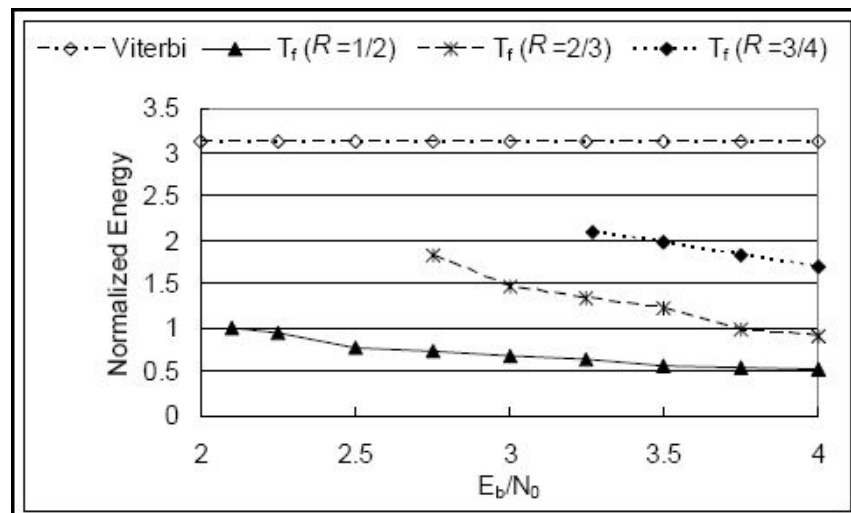


Figure 3.4: Normalized energy estimates for the Viterbi and fixed T-algorithm (T_f) decoders as code rate and signal to noise ratio (E_b/N_0) vary. Reproduced from [34].

From the graph, it is estimated that a 33% to 83 % reduction in energy consumption can be achieved when the signal to noise ratio is between 2.1 and 4 dB.

One of the other approaches taken has been to develop an adaptive T-algorithm which adjusts parameters of the decoder based on real-time variations in signal to noise ratio (SNR), code rate and maximum acceptable bit-error rate. The parameters adjusted are truncation length and pruning threshold of the T-algorithm along with trace-back memory management. Henning and Chakrabarti demonstrate in their paper [34] how this can achieve a potential energy reduction of 70% to 97.5% as compared to Viterbi decoding. Truncation length refers to the number of bits a path is followed back before a decision is made on the bit that was encoded. By reducing the truncation length more bits can be decoded per traceback. Similarly, lowering the pruning threshold means fewer paths need to be found and stored. Both of these measures can reduce the number of memory accesses required by the decoder and hence reduce energy consumption.



However, these measures may cause significant reduction in the error correcting capability of the decoder.

Nevertheless, adjusting these parameters based on real-time changes in the channel can optimize energy consumption. The following figure, Figure 3.5 demonstrates the results of an experiment conducted by Henning and Chakrabarti [34] in which pruning threshold and truncation length are adapted to maintain bit-error rate below 0.0037. From the graph, it is estimated that an energy consumption reduction of 70 to 97.5 % compared to the Viterbi decoder can be achieved when the signal to noise ratio is between 2.1 and 4 dB.

However, the adaptive T-algorithm does require an additional overhead in terms of monitoring the real-time variations and choosing the appropriate truncation and threshold parameters from a lookup table. Since these operations are not complex it is assumed that their energy consumption is negligible.

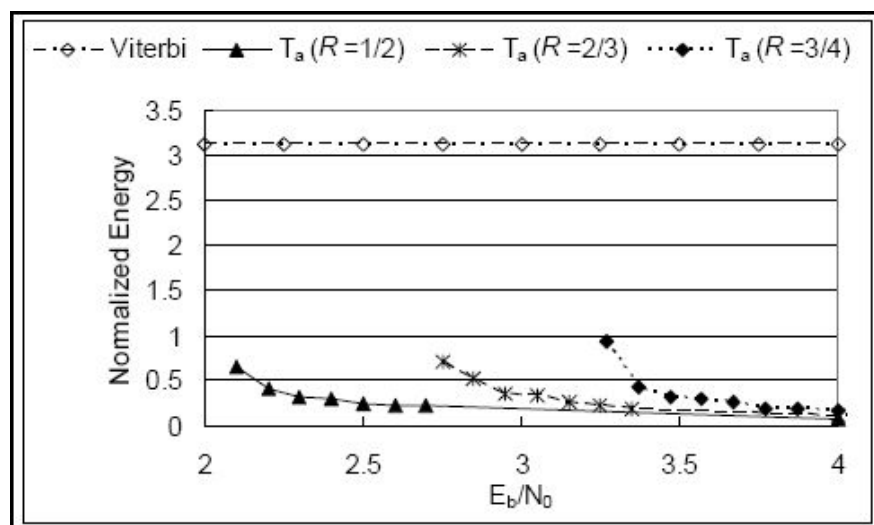


Figure 3.5: Normalized energy estimates for the Viterbi and adaptive T-algorithm (T_a) decoders as code rate and signal to noise ratio (E_b/N_0) vary while maintaining bit-error rate below 0.0037. Reproduced from [34].

Yet another approach that was put forward by Jie Jin and Chi-Ying Tsui in the 2006 International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design, [35] was to integrate the T-algorithm with a Scarce-State-Transition (SST) decoder structure [36]. The SST

structure first pre-decodes the received data (Rx) by performing an inverse operation of the encoder. The pre-decoded signal will contain the original message along with bit-errors (Pre-Dec). This message Pre-Dec is re-encoded and XOR'ed with Rx, the original received data. The operation results in an output which consists of mainly 0's and the errors in the message. This output is then fed to the Viterbi decoder and the errors are corrected. In the end, the pre-decoded data (Pre-Dec) is added to the decoded output of the Viterbi decoder using modulo-2 addition. When channel bit-errors are low, most of the Viterbi decoder output bits are zero and thus reduces switching activity.

The SST structure was used to reduce the switching activities of the decoder and combined with the T-algorithm to reduce the average number of Add-Compare Select calculations. In their experiments, Jie Jin and Chi-Ying Tsui achieved a 30%-76% reduction in power consumption over the traditional Viterbi design for a range of SNR values varying from 4 dB to 12 dB.

A different approach investigated by Sherif Welsen Shaker, Salwa Hussein Elramly and Khaled Ali Shehata [37] at a Telecommunications forum held in Belgrade last year (2009) was to use the traceback approach with clock gating. In clock gating, the clock of each register is enabled only when the register updates its survivor path information. This reduces power dissipation. Their simulations showed a 30% reduction in dynamic power dissipation which gives a good indication of power reduction on implementation.

A similar approach investigated by Ranpara and Sam Ha [20] and presented in the International ASIC conference at Washington in 1999 was the use of clock gating in combination with a concept known as toggle filtering. Signals may arrive at the inputs of a combinational block at different times and this causes the block to go through several intermediate transitions before it stabilizes. By blocking early signals, the number of intermediate transitions can be reduced and hence power dissipation can be minimized. This mechanism of blocking early signals until all input signals arrive, called toggle filtering, was used by Ranpara, et al, [20] to reduce energy consumption of the Viterbi decoder.

Recently a new approach, targeted towards wireless applications has been introduced [38] and involves a pre-traceback architecture for the survivor path memory unit. The start state of decoding is obtained directly through a pointer register pointing to the target traceback state instead of estimating the start state through a recursive traceback operation. This approach makes use of the similarity between bit write and decode traceback operation to introduce the pre-traceback operation. Effectively resulting in a trace forward type of operation, it results in a 50% reduction in survivor memory read operations. Apart from improving latency by 25%, implementation results predict up to 11.9% better energy efficiency when compared to conventional traceback architecture for typical wireless applications.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has explained the decoding mechanism of the Viterbi decoder in detail and described a few of its applications. A number of energy saving techniques that have been investigated in the past has been discussed. The next chapter gives a detailed description of the proposed energy saving algorithm that will be used in this project.



Chapter 4

AN ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SAVING STRATEGY

Much previous research has been focused on making the Viterbi decoder less energy consuming (e.g. [20, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38]). One possible approach is to try to minimize the amount of time which the Viterbi decoder needs to be switched on. Conventionally, the decoder is on all the time, even when there are few or no bit-errors. In practice the bit-error rate with mobile equipment can be very variable especially when the receiver is moving relative to access-points. Switching off the Viterbi decoder when there are no bit-errors seems a promising strategy.

Two different ways of doing this have been investigated previously at the University of Manchester. One method proposed by Wei Shao [3], involves a method of pre-decoding and identifying no-error code word sequences using an ‘inverse circuit’ [35]. An alternative method, proposed by Barry Cheetham [2], makes use of simple properties of the Exclusive-Or (XOR) operation in combination with a simple feedback mechanism for detecting the presence of bit-errors.

An adaptive algorithm is proposed to directly use such pre-decoded data as the decoded output without the Viterbi decoder having to process them. This makes it possible to switch on the Viterbi decoder only when bit-errors occur. In this project, the second approach to reduce energy consumption at the receiver will be investigated.

4.1 Principle

The underlying principle proposed by Barry [2], for the switch off mechanism can be described in the following way. Taking the case of the $\frac{1}{2}$ K=7, (171, 133) convolutional



encoder, it is known that each input bit is XOR'ed with flip flops 1,2 , 3 and 6 for the lower output bit and flip flops 2 ,3 ,5 and 6 for the upper output bit. The lower and upper bit are then interleaved and transmitted as was shown in Figure 3.1.

Exclusive-Or (XOR) has the property that $((A \text{ XOR } B) \text{ XOR } B) = A$. This property has enormous implications and will prove very helpful in our analysis. To understand its importance, let us take the following example. Consider A to be the information bit that must be transmitted and B to be the result of the combinatorial logic of the convolutional encoder before it is XOR'ed with the information bit. A XOR B gives Y, i.e. the transmitted message. Now it is clear from the above property that Y XOR B gives A which was the original information bit. In other words, XORing the transmitted message with the same combinatorial logic result that was used in the encoder gives back the original information bit. As long as there are no bit-errors, the message can be decoded this way and the Viterbi decoder need not be switched on.

In the conventional $\frac{1}{2}$ rate encoder, each input bit is XOR'ed with 2 different combinations of flip flops (FF1, FF2,FF 3 and FF6 for lower bits and FF2, FF3, FF5 and FF6 for upper bits) to produce two output bits. These bits are then interleaved and transmitted. This is the structure described in Figure 3.1. At the receiver, XORing alternate arriving bits with the corresponding set of flip flops (FF1, FF2, FF3 and FF6 for lower bits and FF2, FF3, FF5 and FF6 for upper bits), gives back the original message bit.

It is also understood that each upper received bit and each corresponding lower received bit were produced, at the transmitter, by the same original information bits. Assume that a correct copy of all previous information bits is available at the receiver. This assumption is bound to be correct at the beginning of a packet transmission, since all previous bits, at both the transmitter and receiver, are assumed to be zero. XORing the upper received bit with the 'appropriate' correct copies (as held at the receiver) of the previous information bits should produce the current original information bit. The term 'appropriate' refers to the information bits that were taken into account in the upper part of the convolutional encoder i.e. the 2nd, 3rd, 5th and 6th bit in this example.



Similarly, XORing the lower received bit with the 'appropriate' correct receiver copies of the previous information bits should also produce the same correct information bit. If there is no bit-error the same correct value for both the upper and lower decoded bits will be obtained at the receiver. Clearly, in this case, the process can then continue with the next received upper and lower bits. The diagram for the proposed design is provided in Figure 4.1.

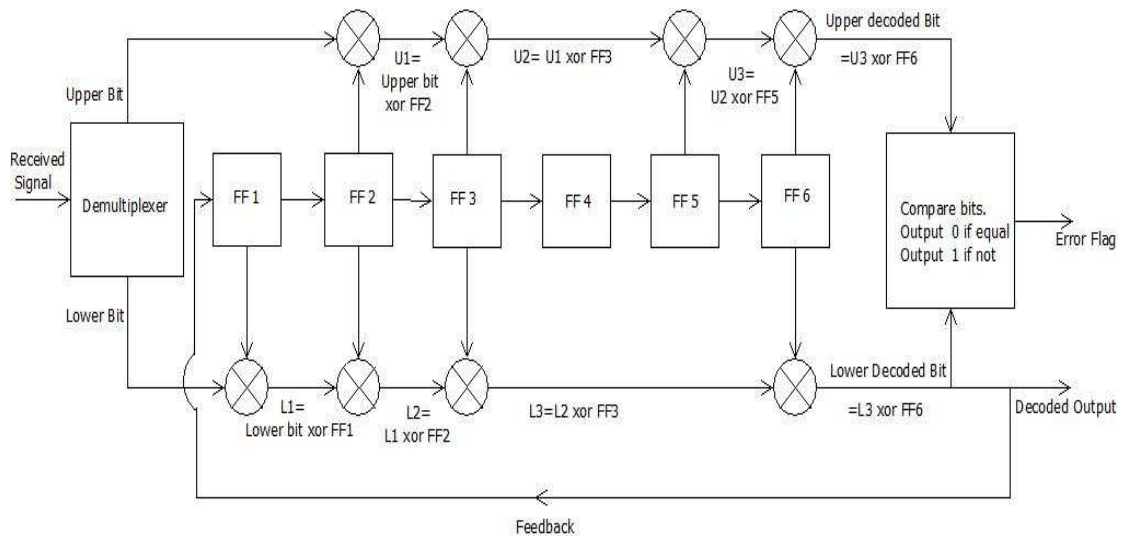


Figure 4.1: Proposed Simple Decoder

If the upper and lower received bits are found to be different at any stage, it can be concluded that a single bit-error has just occurred, either in the upper transmission or in the lower one.

On the other hand, if they are found to be equal, it cannot be concluded that there was no bit-error introduced in transmission. There may be two bit-errors, one in the upper transmission and one in the lower transmission. Therefore the occurrence of multiple bit-errors may not be detected straight away, and it is indeed possible for some bit-error patterns to pass completely undetected. As will be shown in the following chapters, it is expected that in these rare cases not even the Viterbi algorithm would be able to detect the presence of bit-errors.

However, in most cases, the occurrence of a bit-error pattern, containing one, two, three or more bit-errors would create a difference between the upper and lower decoded bits.



When such a difference is observed, it may be concluded that there has been at least one bit-error recently (within in the last 14 bits i.e. 7 time slots). However, it is not known exactly where and how many. When this happens, the current proposal is to go back 14 bits, start up the Viterbi decoder and proceed conventionally. This principle lies at the heart of the attempt to reduce energy consumption of the Viterbi decoder.

Since this method involves going back 14 bits when an error is detected, it will require the last 14 received data bits to be stored. When a bit-error occurs, the Viterbi decoder will be switched on and the 14th previous data bit (that was stored) will be taken as the next input.

4.2 Summary

This chapter gives only a description of the basic concepts that motivated this approach. There still remain many issues that have to be addressed in this algorithm such as the mechanism of switching and determining the initial state of the decoder. These are described in Section 5.4 as ‘Likely Issues’ and addressed in the Chapter 6. The next chapter describes the research methods that will be adopted to structure the project.



Chapter 5

RESEARCH METHODS

The core objectives of the project were discussed in Chapter 1 and in this Chapter the research methodologies that were adopted to achieve project goals are described. Based on the strategy described in Chapter 4, the key deliverables and software tools that will be used are identified. A project plan for the research project has been developed and summarized with the help of a Gantt chart. The likely issues that may be faced during the design and implementation of the algorithm are also discussed.

5.1 Research Approach

As discussed in Chapter 1, the main aim of this project is to develop a more energy efficient method of decoding convolutionally encoded data. Towards this end, the new algorithm described in Section 4 is developed and tested. A structured research approach is essential in obtaining reliable results and ensuring that all aspects of the problem to be solved are addressed. A major portion of this research will require observation and evaluation of performance of the new algorithm in comparison with conventional systems. Hence, this project will follow an empirical approach [39, 40]. Some of the main objectives of this approach are to learn from collective experience of the field and to identify, explore, confirm and advance theoretical concepts. An emphasis will be laid on utilizing the appropriate test cases, data collection and analysis techniques.

The project also uses a constructive research methodology. A constructive research approach is defined as “A research procedure for producing innovative constructions, intended to solve problems faced in the real world and, by that means, to make a contribution to the theory of the discipline in which it is applied.” [41]. A construction as described by the author, may be a new theory, algorithm, model, framework or method. In this project, the construction is a new algorithm for an energy efficient technique of



decoding convolutional codes. Some of the fundamental focus points in this type of research are listed and answered here.

5.1.1 Definition of the research problem.

As described in Section 1.2, with the sudden growth of wireless applications, there is an inherent need for efficient and less energy consuming decoders. Conventional decoders such as the Viterbi decoder are computationally expensive and hence consume a lot of energy. This project seeks to provide a more energy efficient solution that will prolong battery life of the receiving device.

5.1.2 A general and comprehensive understanding of the topic.

Sections 2.1 -2.5 were devoted to a detailed description of the background surrounding Error Detection and Forward Error Correction mechanisms and recent developments in the area.

5.1.3 Construct a solution idea.

The basic solution idea based on the work done by Barry Cheetham [2] has been described in Section 2.6. Some key issues remain to be solved and these will be pursued in the following stages. Chapter 4 gives a comprehensive description of the design and implementation features of the solution. Some of the key deliverables for the project are

- i. A MATLAB[®] Implementation of the algorithm to turn the Viterbi decoder on/off at the appropriate time
- ii. A mechanism to detect when errors have started/stopped occurring
- iii. A communication channel that simulates the effects of AWGN noise over a range of bit-error rates
- iv. A fully functional decoder unit based on the new algorithm and implemented in MATLAB[®]

5.1.4. Demonstrate that the solution works.

Chapter 5 is devoted towards testing and analysis of the designed system. In order to demonstrate that the proposed system works as expected, it is compared at every stage with the MATLAB[®] Viterbi decoder. The criteria that will be used to evaluate the system



include Bit-Error Probability (BEP) Performance, Packet Loss Rate and Measurement of Processing Time. Actual design components of the new system need to be defined in order to explain exactly how this system will be evaluated. Therefore a detailed statement of evaluation criteria has been deferred to Section 7.1

5.2 Implementation Tools

The configuration of the computer used affects the processing time required by MATLAB[®] to execute its commands. The code was implemented using a DELL Inspiron 6400 Laptop with the following specifications.

Operating System (OS) Name: Microsoft[®] Windows Vista[™] Ultimate

Processor: Intel(R) Core(TM)2 CPU T7200 @ 2.00GHz, 2000 MHz, 2 Core(s), 2 Logical Processor(s)

Random Access Memory (RAM): 2 GB

Total Physical Memory: 2.00 GB

Total Virtual Memory: 4.23 GB

Available Physical Memory: 810 MB

Available Virtual Memory: 2.16 GB

Implementation of the algorithm was done using MATLAB[®] Version 7.5.0.342 (R2007b), a product of MathWorks. The main toolboxes that were used include the Signal Processing Toolbox and the Communications Toolbox.

There was an initial consideration to use Simulink, another product of Mathworks to build a simulation of the system. This would involve building a circuit level implementation of the Viterbi decoder and then adapting it to meet the requirements of the new system. We were unable to acquire the detailed knowledge required to do this. The fact that Embedded MATLAB[®] Functions do not support variable sized arrays in MATLAB[®] Version R2007b created further complications in using Simulink. It was then decided to leave this pursuit as a future direction for research.



5.3 Research Plan

The project has been categorized into four main tasks namely Background Research, Design and Implementation of the Code, Experimentation with Data and Analysis of Results and Preparation of Dissertation report. Work on the dissertation report was done in parallel with the corresponding sections of the project in order to ensure sufficient time for refinement of the report. A detailed description of the sub-tasks and the expected timeline is provided in Appendix A Section (i) and (ii).

Reviewing this plan at the end of the project showed that most of the project went on track as planned. Tasks 2.4 and 2.8 took slightly longer than planned. However this time was recovered by the time allocated to Task 2.9 which was not implemented. It was also found that doing parallel work on the report helped in clarifying thoughts and continuously improving analysis methods. Task 3 therefore, was carried out in conjunction with the report writing process. Reviewing of the report, Task 4.7 took slightly longer than expected. However this was completed with remaining time available before submission.

5.4 Likely Issues

The issues that needed to be addressed in the proposed method are explained below. It seems easy to detect when bit-errors start occurring. Therefore, switching on the Viterbi decoder at the appropriate time will not be difficult. However, the initial state of the decoder must also be known. In a conventional decoder, the initial state is set to 0 before decoding begins. In this algorithm however, switching to the Viterbi decoder may take place at any time in the middle of the decoding operation. Therefore, the initial state must be figured out.

Once switching to the Viterbi decoder is carried out, the question of determining when to switch off the decoder i.e. determining when errors stop occurring, presents a tougher problem. Finding a solution to this issue will be a major focus of this project. If it is possible to detect that bit-errors have stopped occurring, the control must be switched to



the Simple Decoder. This also requires initializing the Simple Decoder to the correct state. This presents the next issue that must be taken care of.

Another concern that needs to be tackled is whether the decoder will go into an unstable state when errors start occurring. Since the decoder employs a feedback mechanism, there is a possibility that when an error occurs, this error will be propagated through the system and result in the registers moving to an incorrect state. If this happens, it will not be possible to decode subsequent bits correctly.

It also remains to be discovered whether this new technique is in fact capable of providing adequate energy savings. Careful experimentation and analysis of data is required before this can be ascertained. The Simple Decoder does not need to store state history and path metrics as the Viterbi decoder does. Therefore it requires far less storage units and state transitions. It is hence reasonable to expect the Simple Decoder to consume much less energy. Nevertheless, it is possible that the overheads involved in the process of switching between the Simple Decoder and the Viterbi decoder is energy expensive. As a result, there may be an SNR limit below which using the switching technique is not advantageous.

Of even more importance is an analysis of whether the switching mechanism results in a considerable degradation of bit-error probability performance. The performance of the new strategy will depend on how accurately errors can be detected and the corresponding decoders initialized during switching. Even if the above method does save energy, a poor BEP performance will severely limit its relevance to applications.

5.5 Summary

This chapter has described the research approach and plan that will be followed along with the implementation tools that will be used. A description of issues that still remain to be solved has also been detailed in this chapter. The next chapter describes the design of the system and its implementation in MATLAB[®].



Chapter 6

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

This section gives a comprehensive description of the various components of the developed system and explains how these components are implemented in MATLAB[®]. Finally, a flowchart is drawn to provide a visual representation of flow of control through the significant sections of the system. Appendix G contains the MATLAB[®] code for all the modules of the system.

6.1 The Transmitter Block

The transmitter block is designed with the following components

6.1.1 A Data Generating Source

Random binary data is generated using the 'randsrc' function. Six '0' bits are appended to the randomly generated data. These act as zero buffers. Since there are 6 shift registers in the convolutional encoder, it is necessary to run the encoder for an additional 6 time slots after the last data input for the last data bit to appear at the output of the encoder. For this reason, zero buffers are appended to the end of the data bits.

6.1.2. A Convolutional Encoder

A $\frac{1}{2}$ K=7 (171 133) convolutional encoder is used. The six shift registers are initialized to 0. At each time slot a new data bit is accepted and XOR'ed with values of the corresponding shift registers as was shown in the Figure 4.1. These connections represent $(171)_8$ and $(133)_8$ in binary form. In this way the value for the upper encoded bit and lower encoded bit is determined. The values of all registers are then shifted to the register on the right. The 2:1 multiplexer outputs the upper encoded bit and lower encoded bit in alternating sequences.



6.1.3 A QPSK Modulator

Before transmitting the signal it is modulated into QPSK signals with Gray encoding. This is implemented via predefined functions available in MATLAB[®]. An oversampling rate of 4 is used which results in 4 pulses for each data bit.

6.2 The Communications Channel

In order to simulate the effects of the communication channel Additive White Gaussian noise is added to the transmitted signal. The signal to noise ratio is reduced by $10 \times \log_{10}(4)$ in to account for oversampling. It is further reduced by $10 \times \log_{10}(1/\text{code rate})$ so that the noise power is scaled to match coded symbol rate. The symbol to noise ratio is varied over different iterations.

6.3 The Receiver Block

The receiver block contains the following components

6.3.1 A QPSK Demodulator

The demodulator accepts the received signals and demodulates them. The demodulated signals are then passed to the Simple Decoder.

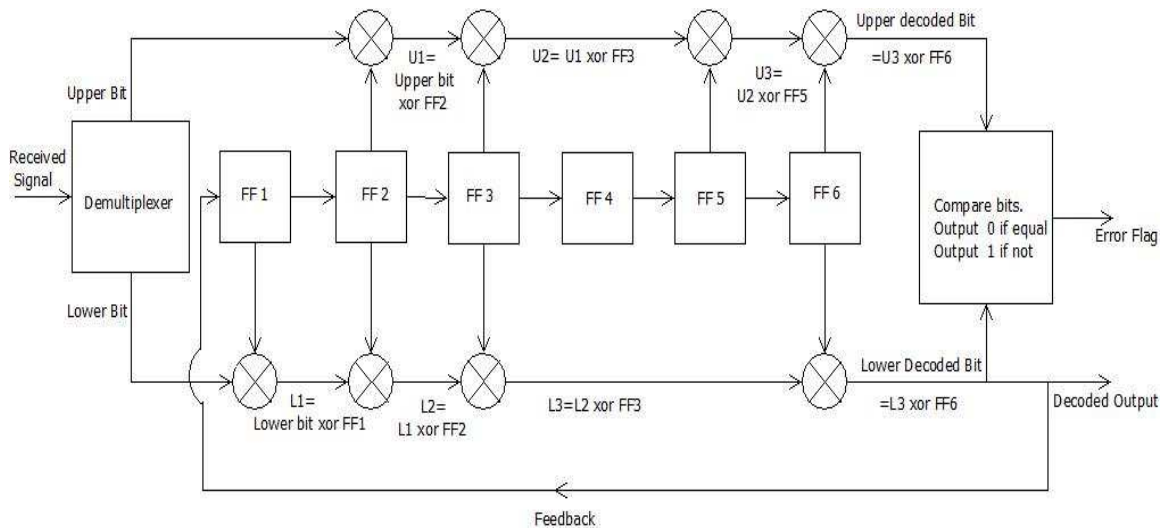
6.3.2 The Switching Decoder

The Switching Decoder is made up of two components: A Simple Decoder which will be used when there are no bit-errors and an Adapted Viterbi decoder which will be used when bit-errors start occurring. The two components are described in detail below.



Part 1. The Simple Decoder

As shown in Figure 6.1 below, a 1:2 demultiplexer is used to separate alternate arriving bits into the upper and lower combination of XOR's. Initially all the flip flops are set to 0. This mirrors the initial state of the transmitter flip flops at start of transition. Therefore



the result of the XOR operations is the correct decoded output as explained by the principle in Section 4. The result of the upper XOR operation is compared with the result of the lower XOR operation.

Figure 6.1: Proposed Simple Decoder that will be used when there are no bit-errors

If both bits are equal, Error Flag is set to 0. Either one of the outputs, in this case the lower branch output, is taken as the decoded output and appended to the decoded output array. The decoded output is also fed back to the first flip flop. This ensures that the set of flip flops still mirror the state of the encoder when the next bit arrives.

If the two bits are different, an error has occurred either in the upper or lower branch. There may also have been a double, triple or a complex combination of errors in the previous bits which could have resulted in giving the same bit at the output. In order to reduce the possibility that such errors go undetected, once an error is detected, the input is retraced by 14 bits, the Error Flag set to 1 and control switched to the Viterbi decoder. Since a $\frac{1}{2}$ rate encoder is used, going back 14 input bits stops at the 7th previous output.

During the operation of the Simple Decoder, an array of length 7 is also maintained which contains values of the 7 previous states of the encoder. When errors occur and

decoding is switched to the Viterbi decoder, the accumulated error metric of the 7th previous state is set as 0 for the first time slot of the Viterbi decoder. Since a 14 input bit traceback occurs before starting the Viterbi decoder, the above operation will ensure that the Viterbi decoder starts from the correct state. If an error occurs before 7 bits are decoded during a particular function call, the initial state of the Viterbi decoder is set to the traceback state that gave the last decoded bit.

Part 2. Adapted Viterbi Decoder

A traceback Viterbi decoder with a traceback depth of 35, i.e. five times the constraint length is used. Instead of setting the accumulated error for the first state to 0 as is the convention, the accumulated error for 7th previous state of the Simple Decoder is set to 0 for the first time slot. The reasoning behind this is described in Section 6.3 (ii - a). After this slight adjustment, the conventional procedure is followed.

Two major issues needed to be resolved here. The first problem was to establish when bit-errors have stopped occurring. The second was to accurately determine the initial state of the flip flops while switching from the Viterbi decoder to the Simple Decoder. The following solutions are proposed.

Once data for 35 time slots have been built up using Block 1 and Block 2 as described in Section 3.2, traceback operations can begin. When this traceback begins, a counter is also maintained. This counts the number of consecutive time slots for which the accumulated path metric of the global winner has remained constant. If this path metric has remained constant for 7 consecutive slots it is fairly certain that bit errors have stopped occurring. The Viterbi decoder is then stopped and the last traceback state passed to the Simple Decoder. The Simple Decoder can then resume operations accurately.

On switching from the Viterbi decoder to the Simple Decoder (when errors stop occurring), the initial state of the flip flops is set to the binary value representation of the traceback state that gave the last decoded bit. This ensures that the initial state of the Simple Decoder is correct and therefore it gives correct outputs.



A check is also maintained on whether less than 35 time slots are remaining for end of data. If this condition is satisfied no switch is made to the Simple Decoder even if errors have stopped occurring. This ensures that if errors do occur shortly afterwards, a sufficient traceback depth still exists to accurately decode remaining data. However this check can be performed only if data length is known beforehand.

In order to develop the Adapted Viterbi Decoder, the code for a normal Viterbi decoder is developed that would function just as the MATLAB[®] Viterbi decoder would. Henceforth, this is called ‘My Viterbi’ Decoder. This decoder was then modified into what will be called an Adapted Viterbi Decoder to enable switching. The flowcharts in Figure 6.2a and 6.2b will help in summarizing the overall flow of control through the entire Switching Decoder.

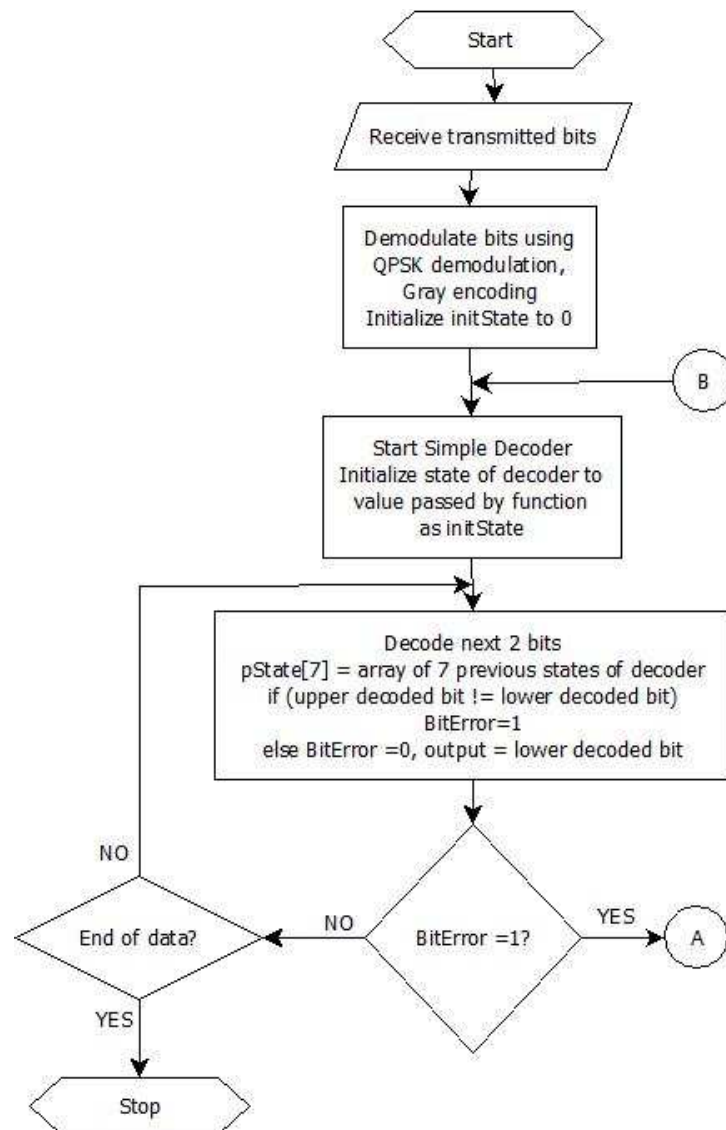


Figure 6.2a: Flowchart for the Switching Decoder: Part A

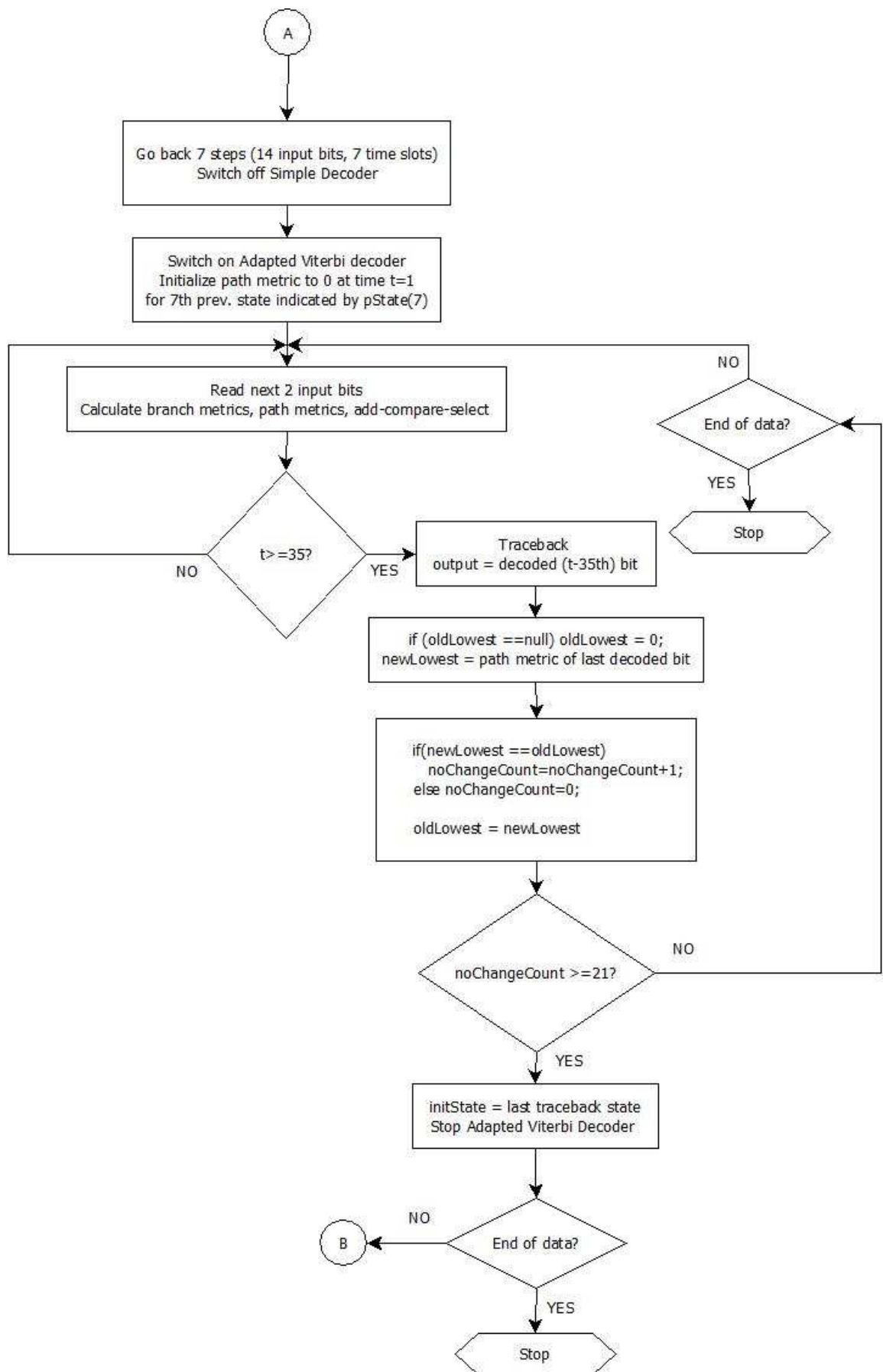


Figure 6.2b: Flowchart for the Switching Decoder: Part B

6.4 Analysis of Failure Cases for Simple Decoder

There are certain cases when the Simple Decoder will fail to detect a particular sequence of bit-errors in the received bit-stream. An analysis of why these sequences exist and their probabilities of occurrence are provided below. The impact of these cases on the behaviour of the energy saving decoder [2] is then considered. In all cases, the convolutional encoder referred to is the $\frac{1}{2}$ K=7, (171, 133) convolutional coder.

6.4.1 Logical evaluation

The presence of bit-errors in the input bit-stream is not detected by the Simple Decoder until its upper and lower branches give different outputs. With an isolated single bit error, this will occur straight away, but two consecutive bit-errors can clearly cause the upper and lower branches to remain equal even though they are both wrong. Hence this double error will not be detected straight away, though it may be detected when the next pair of input bits arrives. Extrapolating from this very simple case, it is not difficult to see that further bit-errors may delay the error detection until the third pair of input bits arrive, or even the fourth, fifth, sixth or seventh pair. Therefore, if the upper and lower branches become different at any stage, the bit-errors causing this may occur within the current pair of input bits or any of the previous six pairs. In any of these cases, the detection of a difference between upper and lower outputs will cause a switch to the standard Viterbi decoder with a seven slot trace-back. The seven slot trace-back ensures that the standard Viterbi decoder has the best possible chance of correcting the bit-errors that have occurred. In fact it has exactly the same chance that a standard Viterbi decoder would have without the Simple Decoder's switching mechanism. It may fail, but nothing is lost by using the Simple Decoder first.

Going back to the Simple Decoder, it is straightforward to invent an input sequence which causes the presence of bit-errors to remain undetected by the Simple Decoder until the seventh pair of bits arrives. It is also straightforward to extend such a sequence to 8, 9 pairs or even to infinity. In this case, the switch to standard Viterbi will occur too late, since we only wind back by 7 pairs, or the switch may never occur at all. So the Simple Decoder will definitely produce a wrong output which the standard Viterbi Decoder will



not have any chance to correct. The question arises whether we may now have lost decoding power by not switching early enough.

The answer is that no decoding power is lost since it can be shown and it is demonstrated below that a sequence of 8 pairs for which the upper and lower outputs of a Simple Decoder are identical cannot be corrected by a standard Viterbi decoder because the inputs will be compatible with a different (incorrect) message bit-stream when it is received without bit-errors. The incorrect message is that generated by the Simple Decoder which is guaranteed to produce smaller accumulated distances than the true message. Looking at this another way, for a constraint length 7 convolutional coder, the minimum free distance is about 10, and there will be many more than 4 bit-errors in the sequence.

This argument also shows that there is no point in ‘winding back’ by more than 7 input pairs when switching from the Simple Decoder (SD) to the standard Viterbi Decoder (VD). This means that a latency of only 7 message bits is imposed by the SD to VD switching mechanism.

We must also ask if problems could occur when switching back to the Simple Decoder from the standard Viterbi decoder. The switching occurs when no changes occur to the minimum accumulated distance for a suitable number of input pairs, since this is taken as an indication that there are no bit-errors. But it is possible to invent an input sequence of pairs, of any desired length, for which there are many bit errors, but yet the minimum accumulated distance does not change despite the output generated being totally incorrect. In this case an inappropriate switch to the Simple Decoder may be made. However, again nothing is lost by this inappropriate switch since the Viterbi Decoder is failing to correct the bit-errors, so we just replace one incorrect output by another.

6.4.2 Evidence through practical examples

The following examples that were developed manually by logically applying the ‘odd number of bit inversions to invert output’ rule for 8 consecutive time slots. These examples demonstrate how certain input sequences delay the detection of bit-errors by the Simple Decoder. The message bit obtained from the decoder will be incorrect if the output of BOTH the upper and lower branches have been inverted and thus give the same



output. Since the output of each branch is the ‘exclusive-or’ of a current input bit and several previous ones, this inversion occurs when there have been an odd number of bit inversions (bit-errors) in each branch (a property of XOR). If there is an even number of bit inversions, the output remains correct. Using this principle, examples of sequences that delay the bit-error detection of the Simple Decoder may be generated as shown below. We assume that a pair of input bits are received from the channel at time slot T1, another pair at time-slot T2, and so on.

Example Sequence 1: Output Bit-Error at slot T1

Message bits: 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 0

Transmitted sequence: 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1

Received sequence: 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 (Bit-errors are shown in red)

At the Simple Decoder, the following operations take place:

$$\text{Lower branch Output} = \text{Rx(L)} \text{ xor FF1 xor FF2 xor FF3 xor FF6}$$

$$\text{Upper branch Output} = \text{Rx(U)} \text{ xor FF2 xor FF3 xor FF5 xor FF6}$$

where Rx(U) represents the input to the upper branch, Rx(L) represents the input to the lower branch and FF1 to FF6 are the shift register outputs. The output of the decoder is fed back to FF1.

Time Slot	Rx(L)	Rx(U)	FF1	FF2	FF3	FF4	FF5	FF6	Output (L)	Output (R)
T1	0	0							0	0
T2	1	1	0						1	1
T3	0	1	1	0					1	1
T4	0	1	1	1	0				0	0
T5	1	1	0	1	1	0			1	1
T6	0	1	1	0	1	1	0		0	0
T7	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
T8	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0

Table 6.1: Operation of Simple Decoder under Example Sequence 1

In Table 6.1, we see that the outputs of both branches are identical in all cases despite the presence of nine bit-errors in the input bit-stream. Hence the two bit-errors in the inputs



at slot T1 are not detected, and neither are any of the others. This was confirmed by simulation in MATLAB[®] and the same sequence, embedded within a longer sequence of zeros, was also applied the conventional Viterbi decoder. Again as expected, the Viterbi decoder could not correct the bit-errors. This implies that even if the Simple Decoder had been able to detect the bit-errors and switch earlier to the Viterbi decoder, the bit-errors would still not be corrected.

It can now be explained more clearly why, if the Simple Decoder does not detect a sequence of bit-errors, neither will the Viterbi decoder. Since convolutional codes are linear, the number of bit-errors in the output depends only on the error sequence in the input and not on the actual message bits. It is possible to calculate which bit-error sequences can produce errors in the output of the Simple Decoder.

It is known that the ‘free distance’, the minimum hamming distance (d_{free}) between any two possible code sequences, is 10 for a rate $\frac{1}{2}$, constraint length 7 convolutional code [42]. The number of close proximity errors that can be corrected is calculated as a function of the code’s free distance. It is given by $t = (d_{\text{free}} - 1) / 2$ [43]. The Viterbi Decoder can therefore correct a maximum of 4 errors occurring relatively near each other.

If it is true that the minimum number of bit-errors required for the Simple Decoder to give an incorrect output is greater than 4, this implies that any bit-error that the Simple Decoder cannot detect will not be corrected even by the conventional Viterbi Decoder. The Error Sequence producing Table 6.1 is $E = [1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0]$ where 1’s represent the positions at which bit-errors occur. There are 9 bit-errors in the input to the decoder within a space of 16 bits. As shown in Example Sequence 1, this results in a single bit-error in the output at slot T1. There are also sequences which cause more than one bit-error to occur in the output. Examples are given below

Example Sequence 2: Output Bit-Error at T1 and T3

Decoding of an input stream with the error sequence $E = [1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1]$ is represented in Table 6.2. ‘e’ represents a bit inversion (bit-error).



Time	Rx(L)	Rx(U)	FF1	FF2	FF3	FF4	FF5	FF6	Output
T1	e	e							e
T2	e		e						
T3				e					e
T4		e	e		e				
T5	e	e		e		e			
T6	e				e		e		
T7	e	e				e		e	
T8		e					e		

Table 6.2 Operation of Simple Decoder under Example Sequence 2

Taking into consideration the 7 slot (14 bit) trace-back, once an error is detected, the final output of the decoder will have at least one error at T1 after which it switches to the Viterbi decoder. This example requires 10 bit-errors in the input sequence in a space of 16 bits.

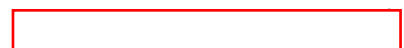
Testing in MATLAB[®] confirmed that both the Switching Decoder and the Viterbi decoder had 2 bit-errors in their output. Therefore, even the Viterbi decoder could not correct these errors as expected.

Example Sequence 3: Output Bit-Error at T1 T2 T3 T4 T5 T6 T7 T8

Decoding of error sequence $E = [1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1]$ is represented in Table 6.3

Time	Rx(L)	Rx(U)	FF1	FF2	FF3	FF4	FF5	FF6	Output
T1	e	e							e
T2		e	e						e
T3	e		e	e					e
T4		e	e	e	e				e
T5		e	e	e	e	e			e
T6			e	e	e	e	e		e
T7	e	e	e	e	e	e	e	e	e
T8	e	e	e	e	e	e	e	e	e

Table 6.3: Operation of Simple Decoder under Example Sequence 3



Taking into consideration the 7 slot (14 bit) trace-back once a bit-error is detected, the final output of the decoder will have at least one error at T1 after which it switches to the Viterbi decoder. This example also requires 10 bit-errors in the input sequence in a space of 16 bits.

Testing in MATLAB[®] confirmed that both the Switching Decoder and the Viterbi decoder had 8 bit-errors in their output. Therefore, even the Viterbi decoder could not correct these errors as expected.

In all the above examples the number of bit-errors required in the input sequence is 9 or 10 and exceeds the number that can be corrected by the conventional Viterbi Decoder which is 4. Therefore even if the Viterbi Decoder was used conventionally, i.e. without a Simple Decoder, these bit-errors would not be corrected.

The conclusion is that there has to be an odd number of bit-inversions in BOTH the two branches for a bit-error not to be detected. The error sequence must be at least 16 bits long to ensure that at least one bit-error is propagated to the output after the 7 slot (14 bit) trace-back.

Since there is only one input to each of the branches at each slot, there is only one possible error sequence that can result in a particular combination of errors at the output. Therefore, by calculating the number of such error combinations, the number of input error sequences that will not be detected by the Simple Decoder can be calculated.

The number of such error combinations can be calculated in the following way. Accounting for the 7-bit trace-back, at least one output bit-error goes undetected only if an error occurs in slot T1 (or T_n) and an error is not detected until after slot T8 (or T_{n+8}). There is only one 16-bit error sequence that goes undetected AND results in a single bit-error at the output (as in the Example Sequence 1 described above). The number of sequences with double bit-errors having one of the bit-errors at slot T1 (or T_n) is 7C_1 (as in Example sequence 2). The number of sequences with triple bit-errors having one of the bit-errors at slot T1 is 7C_2 . Proceeding in a similar fashion, it is found that the total number of error sequences that go undetected is calculated as



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Number of sequences} &= 1 + {}^7C_1 + {}^7C_2 + {}^7C_3 + {}^7C_4 + {}^7C_5 + {}^7C_6 + {}^7C_7 \\ &= 128 \text{ possible 16 bit sequences.}\end{aligned}$$

There are 2^{16} possible 16-bit sequences. Among these, only one of them is correct for a given sequence of message bits, and the rest contain bit-errors. Therefore out of a possible $2^{16}-1$ error sequences, only 128 of them go undetected by the Simple Decoder. The probability of the errors not being detected is therefore 1.95×10^{-3} . It has been argued that the Viterbi Decoder will not be able to correct ANY of these error sequences, and the failure has been illustrated by the examples given above [Example Sequence 1, 2 & 3].

6.5 Summary

This chapter has described the flow of control and data processing that takes place in the system. Solutions to some of the unresolved questions have been proposed. The next chapter details how the system will be tested and provides an analysis of the results obtained.



Chapter 7

TESTING AND ANALYSIS

Now that the system has been developed, adequate testing is required to ensure it works as expected and also evaluate its performance. This section describes testing and evaluation criteria for the developed system and provides an analysis of the results obtained.

7.1 Overview of Testing

In order to ensure that the new algorithm works accurately the following checkpoints are used.

- i. The MATLAB[®] code for the customized ('My Viterbi') decoder, written from scratch, for any input data the same output as that of a MATLAB[®] implemented conventional Viterbi decoder (vitdec.m).
- ii. The Simple Decoder should produce correct outputs when no bit-errors occur
- iii. With no errors introduced, the switching mechanism from the Simple Decoder to the Adapted Viterbi Decoder and vice versa should produce no error in the output. For this test case, switches are forced at equal intervals of 7 in the Simple Decoder. The Adapted Viterbi decoder automatically switches to the Simple Decoder when the path metric remains constant for the predetermined number of consecutive bits.
- iv. With errors introduced in certain sections of the signal, the Switching Decoder should produce the same output as that of the MATAB Viterbi decoder. This is done in the following way. Transmit data at zero bit-error rate. After a short period increase bit-error



rate to 10^{-2} and then bring it back to zero subsequently. This sequence will allow us to monitor the following cases

- a. No bit-errors occur and the Simple Decoder is switched on
 - b. Bit-errors start occurring and the receiver must switch to the Viterbi decoder
 - c. Bit errors stop occurring and the receiver must switch to the Simple Decoder
- v. Finally, with AWGN added to the signal, the output produced by the Switching Decoder should closely match the output produced by the ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. This must be tested over a range of SNR varying from 0.5 to 13 dB.
- vi. Estimating energy consumption of the decoder requires detailed knowledge of the circuitry at transistor level. For the purpose of this project however, a simpler technique is used as described below. Though this method gives a very rough estimate of the energy used, it is useful in loosely predicting the conditions at which the Switching Decoder is likely to give better energy efficiency as compared to the conventional Viterbi decoder.

The profiler tool available in MATLAB[®] is used to run the simulation, first with no errors introduced and then varying SNR from 7 to 4 dB. For each case the simulation is run 10 times. After each simulation the profiler gives a description of the number of times a particular function was called and the total CPU time taken to execute that function for all its function calls. In addition to this information, the number of bits decoded by each decoder (the Simple Decoder and the adapted Viterbi decoder) is also displayed by inserting appropriate statements in the code. Using this information, the total time required by each decoder to decode the bits at different SNR’s can be calculated.

7.2 Results and Analysis

Once the code for ‘My Viterbi’ decoder was written, it was tested against the MATLAB[®] Viterbi Decoder as described in Section 7.1 (i). Multiple tests showed that it followed the MATLAB[®] Viterbi decoder excepting for minor variations. These may have arisen due to the fact that the way in which MATLAB’s Viterbi decoder selects paths when their



path metric is equal is not known. In this algorithm, the higher state is consistently chosen as the surviving state. However, MATLAB[®] may choose the lower state or even choose the upper or lower state in a random fashion. Sample graphs are produced and explained in Section 7.2.1 -7.2.3

The Simple Decoder was then tested without introducing bit-errors as mentioned in Section 7.1 (ii). In all cases, the decoded output matched transmitted data.

In order to ensure that Switching does not introduce errors in the output, switches were between the Simple Decoder and the Adapted Viterbi decoder as explained in Section 7.1 (iii). In all 10 tested cases, no errors occurred in the decoded output. This confirmed that the initialization of states on both decoders was correct.

The process mentioned in Section 7.1(iv) was carried out by separating the transmitted message a 1000 bit long into 3 parts and introducing errors only to the middle part. Once errors were introduced the message was concatenated to form a single array. The results showed that the switching operations occurred at the appropriate places. With one-third of the message bits subjected to BEP of 10^{-2} , about 44% of the bits were decoded by the Simple Decoder. The number of resulting errors was the same for the Switching Decoder and 'My Viterbi' Decoder, though the MATLAB[®] decoder had 3 more errors which could be accounted for by the explanation in the first paragraph.

The following sections give detailed description and analysis of the test cases described in Section 7.1 (i), (v) and (vi).

7.2.1 Bit-Error Probability (BEP) Performance

In order to test the performance of the Switching Decoder, the following measures were adopted. Random data was generated, encoded, modulated and transmitted. Uncoded data was also modulated and transmitted. Depending on the desired E_b/N_0 , the appropriate Additive White Gaussian Noise(AWGN) was added to the signal. At the receiver, data was demodulated. The encoded data was decoded by the three decoders, MATLAB[®] Viterbi decoder, 'My Viterbi' Decoder and the Switching Decoder.

The following parameters are given to the MATLAB[®] Viterbi Decoder.



```
trellis = poly2trellis(7,[171 133]);
tblen = 35;
matdecodedHard = vitdec(Rx,trellis,tblen,'term','hard');
%Rx = Received Data
```

As with the other two decoders, the traceback depth is set to 35. The parameter 'term' is used since the convolutional encoder appends 6 flushing bits at the end of the data bits. The parameter 'hard' is used so that the Viterbi Decoder uses hard decisions in decoding. Now the MATLAB[®] Viterbi Hard Decision decoder can be compared with 'My Viterbi' decoder algorithm and subsequently with the Switching Decoder.

The tests were conducted with a data length of 10,000 bits. E_b/N_0 was varied from 0.5dB to 13 dB with an increment of 0.5 dB at each test. The tests were repeated 5 times and finally the results of the three decoders were compared and analyzed. In order to find the optimum settings for the Switching Decoder, tests were conducted with three different settings on the Adapted Viterbi Decoder. In the first round of tests, decoding was switched to the Simple Decoder if the accumulated path metric for the global winner remained constant for 7 consecutive slots. In the second round of tests, this value was increased to 35 which is five times the constraint length and the maximum amount of state history maintained in the table. In the third round, this value is brought down to 21 which is three times the constraint length. The fact that the accumulated path metric of the global winner has remained constant for a particular number of slots is taken to mean that there have been no errors during those slots.

The tabulated results and calculations tables are provided in Appendix D. A couple of sample graphs are provided below. Since BEP fell to 0 after 6 dB, these data points are not visible on the log-scale graph. The graph is cropped to show values only up to 10 dB instead of 13 dB.



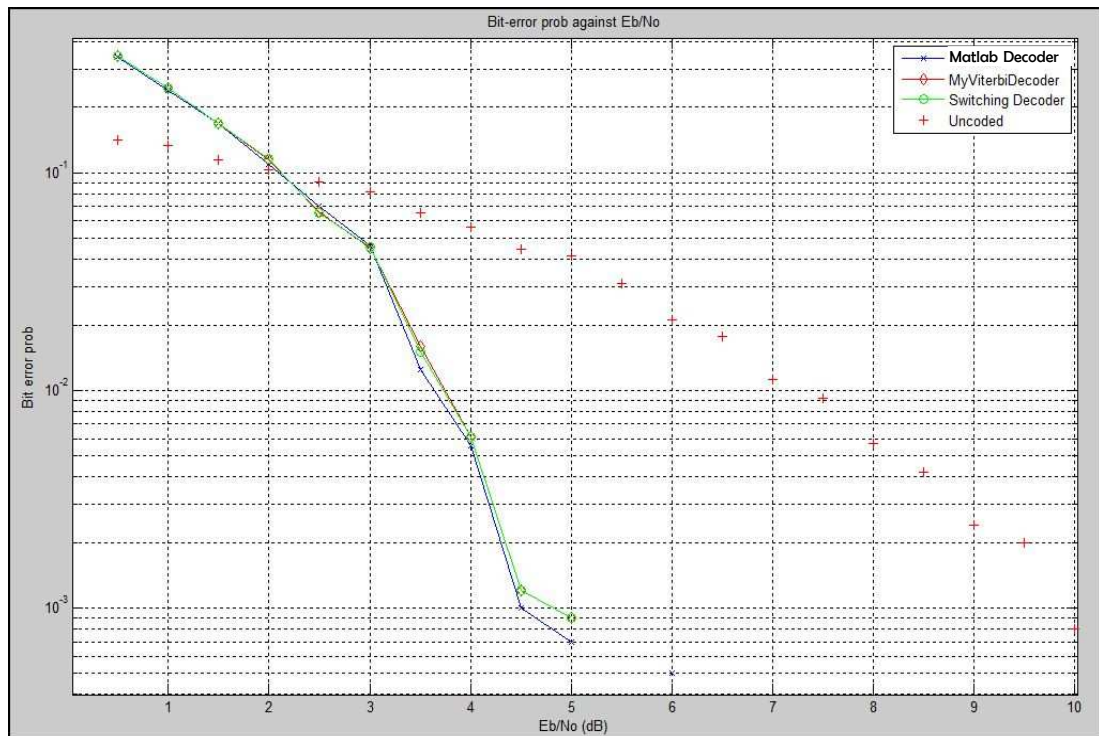


Figure 7.1: Data Length = 10,000, Switched to Simple Decoder when no errors for 7 consecutive slots

Figure 7.1 shows that below 2 dB, the uncoded message performs better than the encoded messages. This is expected since the very high error rates cause the Viterbi decoder to follow an incorrect path. Above 2 dB, it is observed that the MATLAB® decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ Decoder both follow each other closely with only minor variations. As the SNR increases to 5 dB very few bit-errors occur, less than 10 in the 10,000 bits. This makes the result more unreliable at higher SNR. Also, though the graph appears to show a larger difference in values at 5dB, this is not true. As the data moves to lower BEP, the log-scale increases the gap between two consecutive lines from 10^{-3} to 10^{-4} . This causes the gap between the two lines to appear larger even though difference in values remains the same.

Comparing the Switching Decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ decoder, both of them follow each other closely, though there is a slight variation between 3 and 4 dB. Comparison of the average values over 5 tests show there are differences between 0.5 and 5 dB. The values are tabulated in Appendix D and plotted in Figure 7.2.



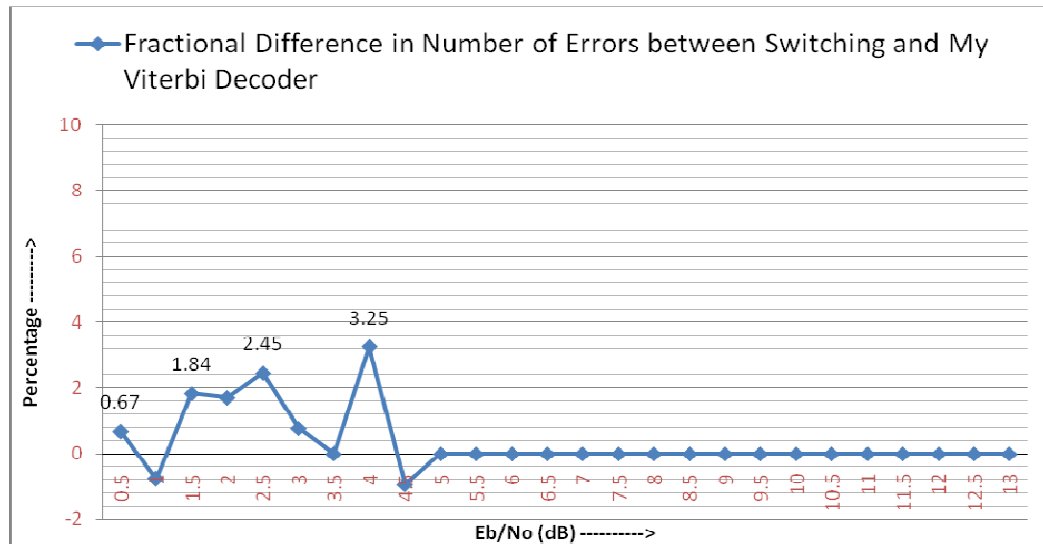


Figure 7.2: Average Fractional Difference in number of errors between Switching Decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ Decoder. Switched to Simple Decoder when no errors for 7 consecutive slots

These differences in values show that the presence or absence of errors has not been accurately detected. The Simple Decoder may have missed the presence of certain combinations of errors and passed an incorrect initial state to the Viterbi. These deductions were verified by the fact that at lower SNR, there were a few cases when the bits decoded by the Simple Decoder were incorrect.

Therefore, the tests are performed with another setting for the Adapted Viterbi decoder. Since state history is maintained for 35 slots, switching to the Simple Decoder is now done only after 35 consecutive slots of constant path metric for the global winner. Doing this causes the switch to the Simple Decoder only if bit-errors haven’t occurred for a longer period. This means that at lower dB the Simple Decoder will be called much less frequently and thus reduce the possibility of error. It was found that in this case the output of the Switching Decoder perfectly matched that of ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. A sample graph is shown below in Figure 7.3.



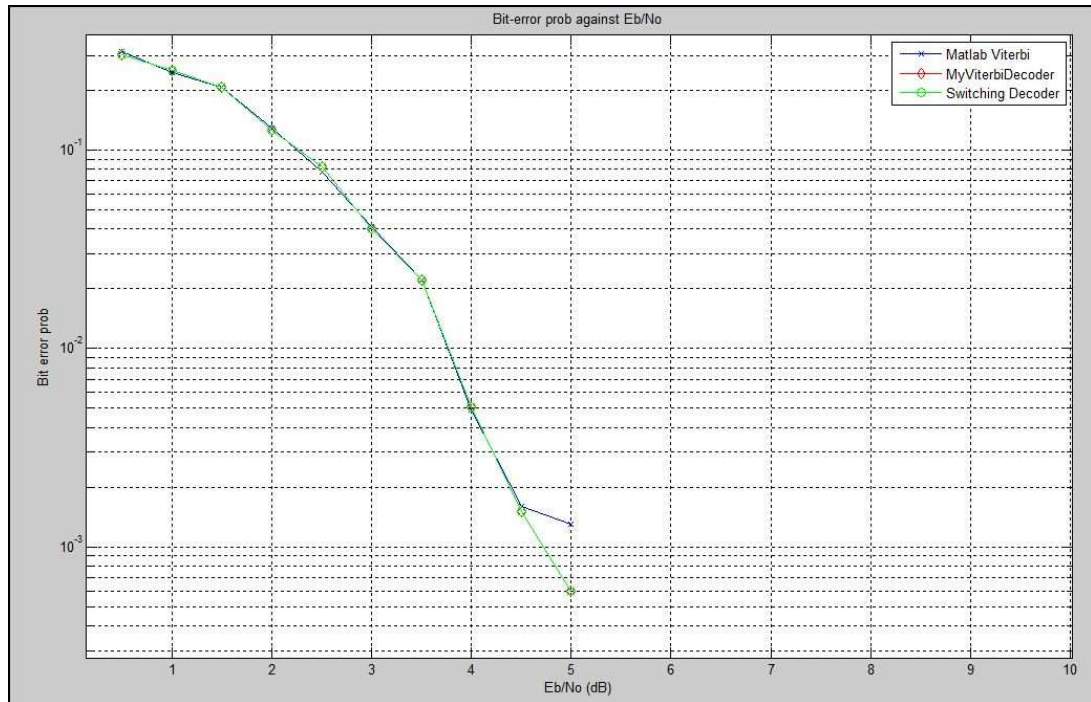
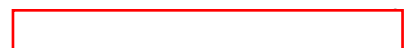


Figure 7.3: Data Length = 10,000. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 35 consecutive slots

However, it may not be necessary to wait for 35 slots. In the third case, Switching to the Simple Decoder is done when no errors have occurred for more than 21 consecutive slots. The graph in Figure 7.4 shows the BEP performance with this third setting. It is observed that the red line for ‘My Viterbi’ Decoder is still not visible as it lies exactly beneath the green line for the Switching Decoder. These results seem promising.

As before, the actual fractional difference in errors between the two lines using average values from 5 tests is studied. Plotted in Figure 7.5, it is observed that the improvement is remarkable. There is almost no difference between the Switching Decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. It was observed that now none of the bits decoded by the Simple Decoder had errors. This shows that the presence of errors has been detected accurately and the correct initial state passed to the Viterbi Decoder. Interestingly, at one point the Switching Decoder has a slightly lesser number errors than ‘My Viterbi’ decoder.



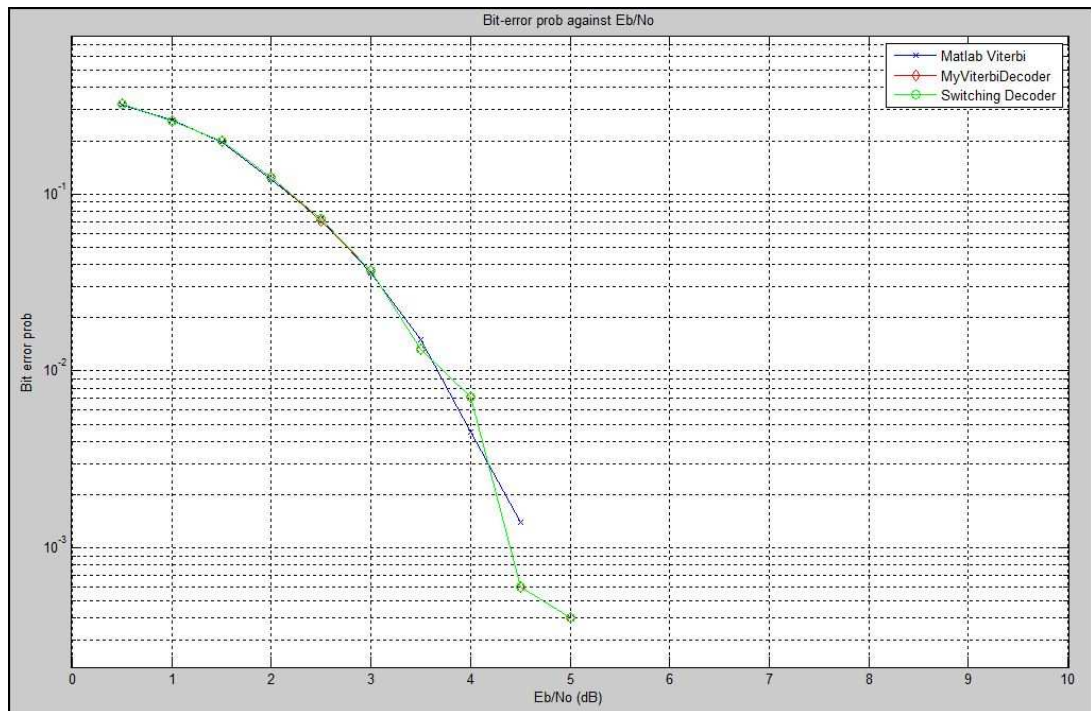


Figure 7.4: Data Length = 10,000. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 21 consecutive slots

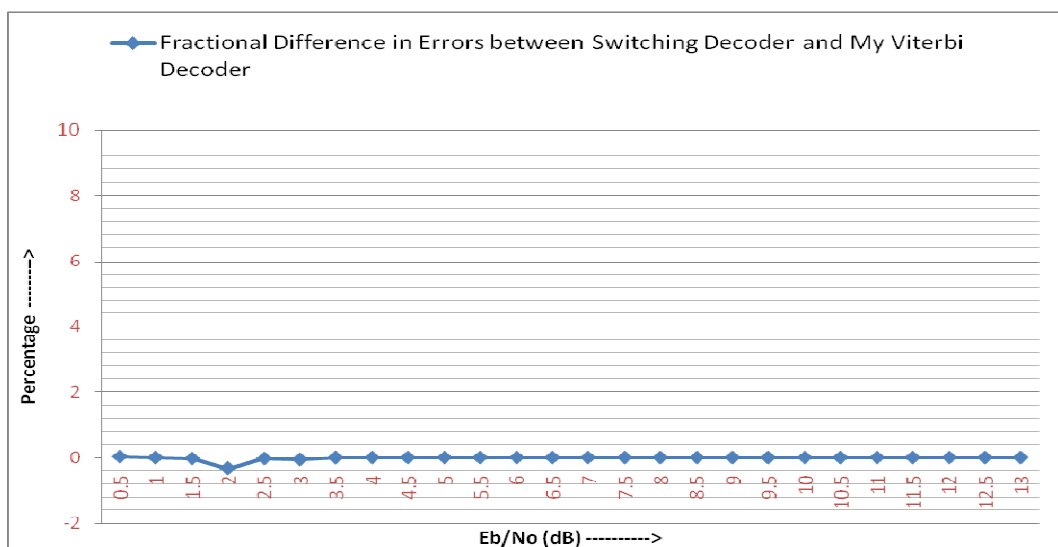


Figure 7.5: Average Fractional difference in errors between the Switching decoder and 'My Viterbi' decoder. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors 21 consecutive slots

Another important observation is that at these settings, the Switching Decoder causes no deterioration in performance compared to the normal Viterbi decoder. This can also be explained theoretically due to the fact that during switching no relevant state history is



lost. The only requirement is that the initial state in both decoders is set correctly and errors are detected accurately. If this is done properly, the outputs are expected to match those given by the normal Viterbi Decoder.

However, this improved performance comes with an additional cost. The Simple Decoder will now be used for only a shorter portion of time. Since the Simple Decoder is the part that is expected to bring energy savings, it is expected that the overall energy savings will be lesser as compared with the first setting.

In order to see exactly how effective the Switching algorithm is, it is necessary to look at how often the Simple Decoder is being used and what percentage of bits are being decoded by each decoder at each SNR. This analysis will also help us determine whether there were too many ineffective calls to the Simple Decoder where in effect it could decode no additional bits. The following graphs in Figure 7.6 and Figure 7.7 show the percentage of decoding that was done by the Simple Decoder and the Adapted Viterbi decoder respectively.

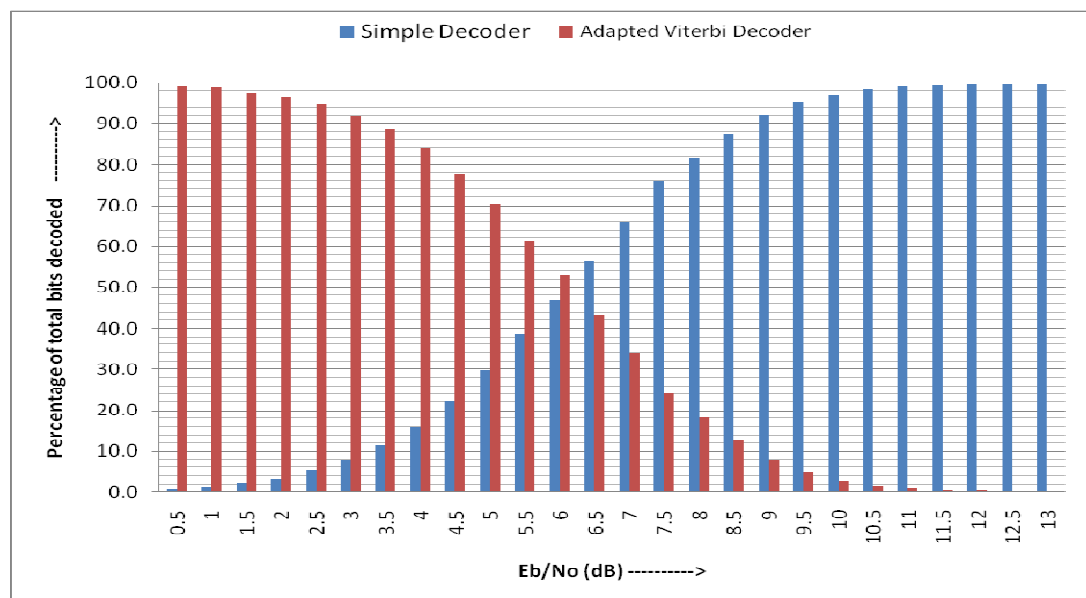


Figure 7.6: Percentage of Decoding done by each decoder in the Switching Decoder. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 7 consecutive slots



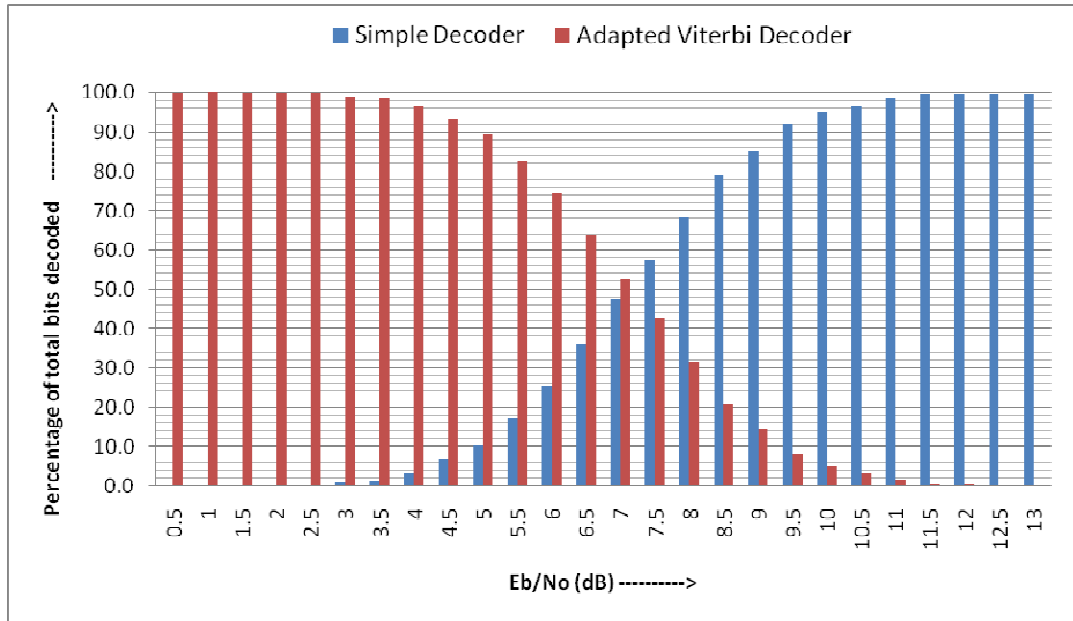


Figure 7.7 Percentage of Decoding done by each decoder in the Switching Decoder. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 21 consecutive slots

From Figure 7.6, it is observed that even at 1.5 dB, about 1% of decoding is being done by the Simple Decoder. This increases to 16% at 4 dB and reach 46% by 6 dB. By 9 dB more than 90% of the decoding is being done by the Simple Decoder. From these results, it seems likely that there will be considerable energy savings.

Comparing these results with Figure 7.7 it is observed that at lower dB's the percentage contribution of the Simple Decoder is lesser. 1% of decoding is done by the Simple Decoder at 4 dB. This increases to 26% at 6 dB and reaches 46% at 7dB. By 9.5 dB it crosses 90%. Despite the slightly lower contribution, these results still seem promising since it provides a BEP performance that matches the Viterbi decoder.

On the basis of these results it is also proposed to use this counter setting of the Adapted Viterbi Decoder as a variable to optimize operations depending on the specific application, the importance of data accuracy versus energy savings and the expected SNR range in which the decoder will operate.



Using the collected data, the average number of bits that were being decoded between switches from the Simple Decoder to the Viterbi decoder and vice-versa is calculated. This helps in understanding how effective the switching mechanisms are. Figure 7.8 shows the results of the analysis done using the first setting (7) for the Adapted Viterbi decoder. Above 9 dB, only few bit-errors occurred in the channel. Therefore very few switches took place between the two decoders and almost all decoding was done by the Simple Decoder. Hence, the number of bits decoded between switches was very high for the Simple Decoder above 9 dB and it was difficult to scale onto the graph. Since what happens at lower SNR is of more concern, the graph is drawn only up to 9 dB.

From the results tabulated in Appendix D Section (iii) , it is observed that the Adapted Viterbi decoder decodes approximately the same number of bits between switches at all SNR values. This is not ideal. The Simple Decoder, as expected decodes fewer bits between switches at lower dB. Rounding off to an integer value, at 4 dB four bits are effectively decoded before a switch to the Simple Decoder. At 6 dB this value reaches fifteen bits between switches and crosses to fifty-one bits between switches at 7.5 dB.

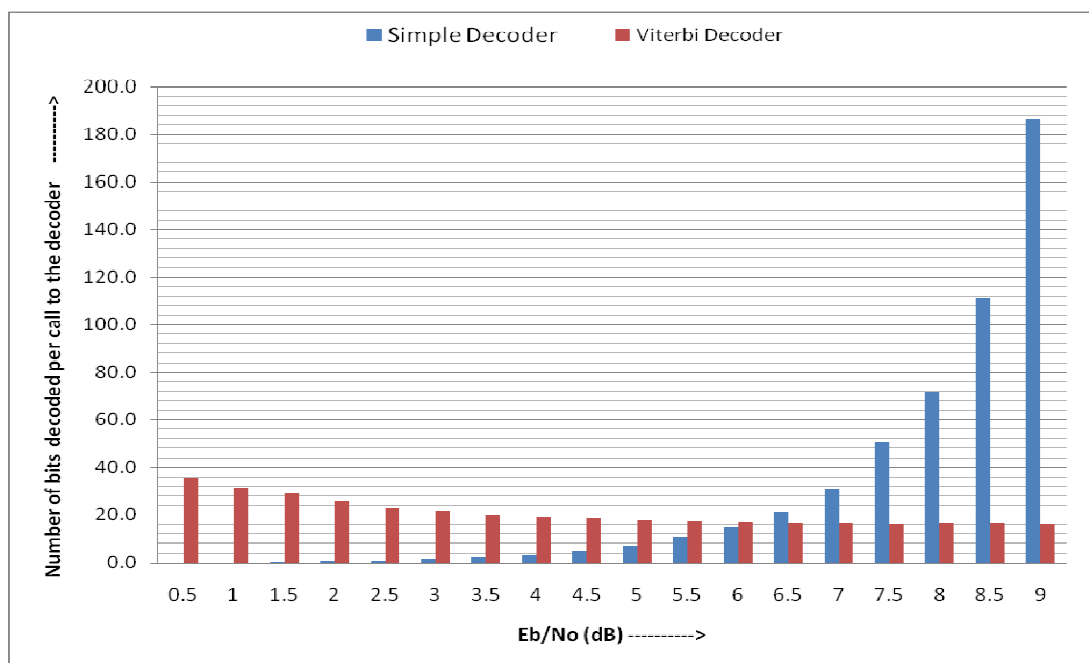
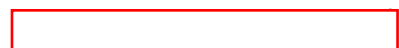


Figure 7.8: Average number of bits being decoded per call to each decoder. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 7 consecutive slots



From these observations it is also clear that at lower SNR, a lot of switches are taking place since both the Simple Decoder as well as the Adapted Viterbi decoder decode less than 35 bits per call. As SNR increases above 7 dB, the situation improves and the Simple Decoder is able to decode a much larger number of bits before it encounters a bit-error.

Now an analysis is made for the second setting of the Adapted Viterbi decoder, i.e. with waiting for 21 slots with no bit-errors before switching to the Simple Decoder. Figure 7.9 shows a striking difference from the earlier graph and has many points of interest. Firstly, attention is drawn to the Y axis of the graph. Unit distances are now 250 bits instead of 20 bits as in the earlier graph. Straightaway it is observed that at lower dB the Adapted Viterbi decoder is able to decode a much larger number of bits between switches. As the SNR improves, decoding switches to the Simple Decoder more often and therefore number of bits decoded by the Adapted Viterbi decoder between switches decreases. From the results tabulated in Appendix D Section (iii) that at 4 dB the Adapted Viterbi decoder decodes an average of 97 bits between switches and this value decreases to 42 by 7.5 dB.

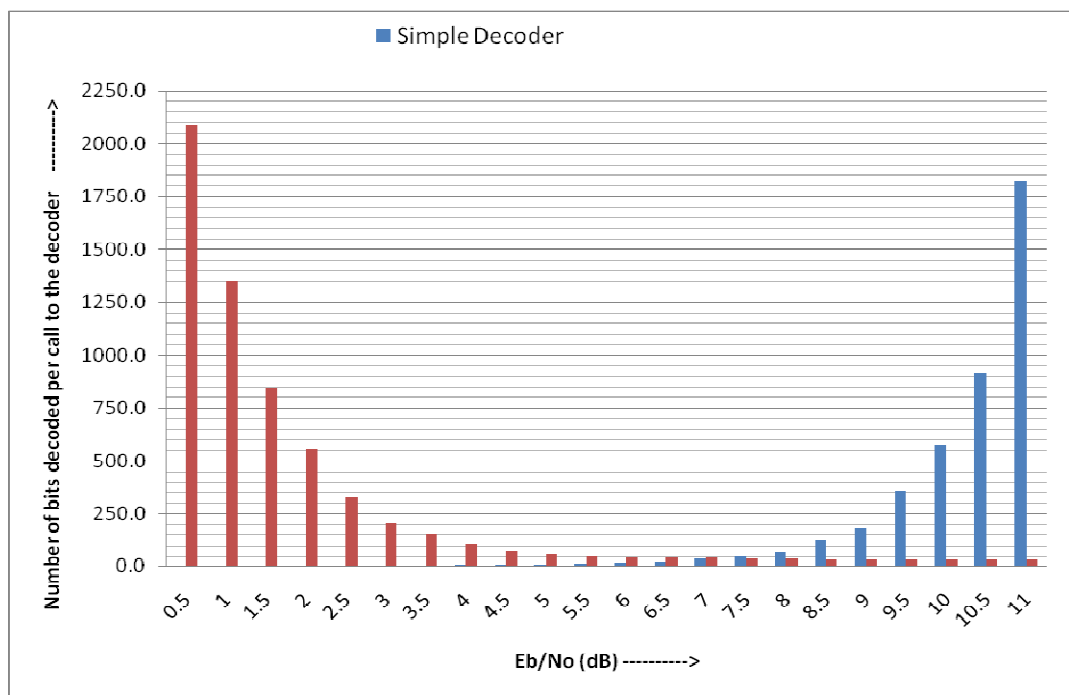


Figure 7.9: Average number of bits being decoder per call to each decoder. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors for 21 consecutive slots

The most interesting observation was that Simple Decoder still decoded almost the same number of bits between switches. Rounding off to an integer value, at 4 dB three bits are effectively decoded per call to the Simple Decoder. At 6 dB this value reaches fifteen bits between switches and reaches forty-eight bits between switches at 7.5 dB. This analysis shows that with the second setting it is possible to reduce a large number of unnecessary switches especially at lower SNR.

7.2.2. Packet Loss Rate

In wireless communications most data is sent as packets. At the receiver, a check (usually a CRC check) is used to see whether the decoder was able to correct all bit-errors in the packet. If there is even one bit-error in the packet, the packet is discarded. A new packet maybe requested as described in Section 2.1 and 2.2. In this case, slight variations BEP performance will not matter. Whether the packet contained 1 bit-error or 10, the packet will still be discarded.

Packet loss rate may differ from BEP depending on how close the bit-errors occur. Multiple bit-errors occurring within a single packet will result in only 1 packet loss. If these bit-errors are spread out into different packets, the packet loss rate increases considerably. In order to estimate the packet loss rate, 100 packets of 1000 data bits each were transmitted and the number of packets that were received without error after decoding using the three decoders was counted separately. Measurements were taken at each 0.25 dB going from 5 to 7.5 dB. The results are tabulated in Appendix E and plotted in Figure 7.10.

The results show that both the Switching Decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ decoder give exactly the same packet loss rate at each data point. This reinforces the fact that the Switching Decoder does not degrade performance of the Viterbi decoder. On comparing with the MATLAB Viterbi decoder, there are slight variations in packet loss rate at some points though in several cases the packet loss rate is the same.

According to the ITU Recommendations (ITU-R M.1079-2) [44], a packet loss rate (PLR) of less than 3% is acceptable for real time audio communications. For video



communications, PLR must be less than 1% and data communications require a PLR of 0%. From the graph in Figure 7.10, it is observed that above 5.75 dB packet loss rate is below 2%. When E_b/N_0 drops below this value, packet loss rate increases rapidly.

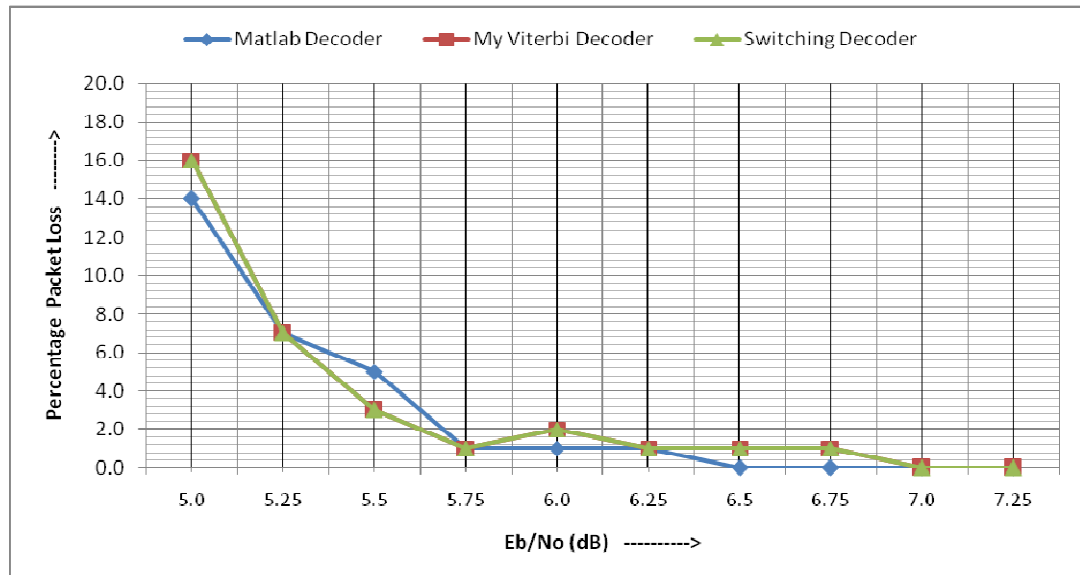


Figure 7.10: Packet Loss Rate. Decoding switched to Simple Decoder when there are no bit-errors 21 consecutive slots

7.2.3 Predicting Packet Loss

Keeping the goal of minimizing energy consumption in mind, it would be very advantageous if there was a way of predicting that a packet was likely to fail. Processing that packet could then be stopped and a retransmission request sent. An interesting method of determining a reliability estimate for the decoded data, suitable for use in Type I HARQ protocols, was described by Harvey and Wicker in their papers [45, 46]. The Yamamoto-Itoh algorithm that they describe [47] performs a comparison of the surviving path and the best non-surviving path at each state and at every stage of the decoding process. If the difference in path metric between the two paths falls below a certain threshold value, the survivor is considered unreliable. If all paths are found to be unreliable before the end of decoding, a retransmission request is sent. The reliability of this repeat request technique in combination with Viterbi decoding was found to be asymptotically twice that of the normal decoding algorithm [47]. This mechanism may also be incorporated in the Switching Decoder to prevent it from attempting to decode a packet that is likely to fail, thus saving energy.

Type II HARQ protocols, mentioned in Section 2.6, use data from multiple retransmissions to correctly decode data. This reduces number of retransmissions required and hence delay incurred in receiving a correct packet. Different mechanisms of combining data from such retransmissions have been investigated by Harvey and Wicker in another paper on Packet combining systems based on the Viterbi decoder. [48]. One of the techniques used, called the averaged diversity combiner (ADC), combines packets bit by bit by averaging their soft decision values. This produced results that matched those of the interleaved code combining technique [49], a method of interleaving symbols received from multiple copies of a packet to form a single packet at the receiver.

7.2.4 Measurements of Processing Time

In absolute terms, the execution times taken by the MATLAB[®] implementations of the two decoders depend on the configuration of the computer used and its processor. These specifications of the laptop used for this project are provided in Section 5.2, its main features being a Microsoft[®] Windows Vista[™] Ultimate OS, Intel(R) Core(TM)2 CPU T7200 @ 2.00GHz, 2000 MHz Processor and 2 GB RAM. Benchmarking using the MATLAB function ‘bench’ was used to measure the performance of the MATLAB[®] version R2007b on the laptop. Since these tests may give a variation of up to 10% between successive readings, the tests were repeated 10 times. On average, it took 0.189 seconds to perform standard operations in data structures and M files. The graph of relative speed for each of the 10 runs as compared to standard values for other machines is reproduced in Figure 7.11. These figures are given for the convenience of researchers wishing to reproduce the results presented in this thesis. As may be noted, on most occasions its speed matched that of a Linux (32 bit) dual 2.6 GHz Opteron.



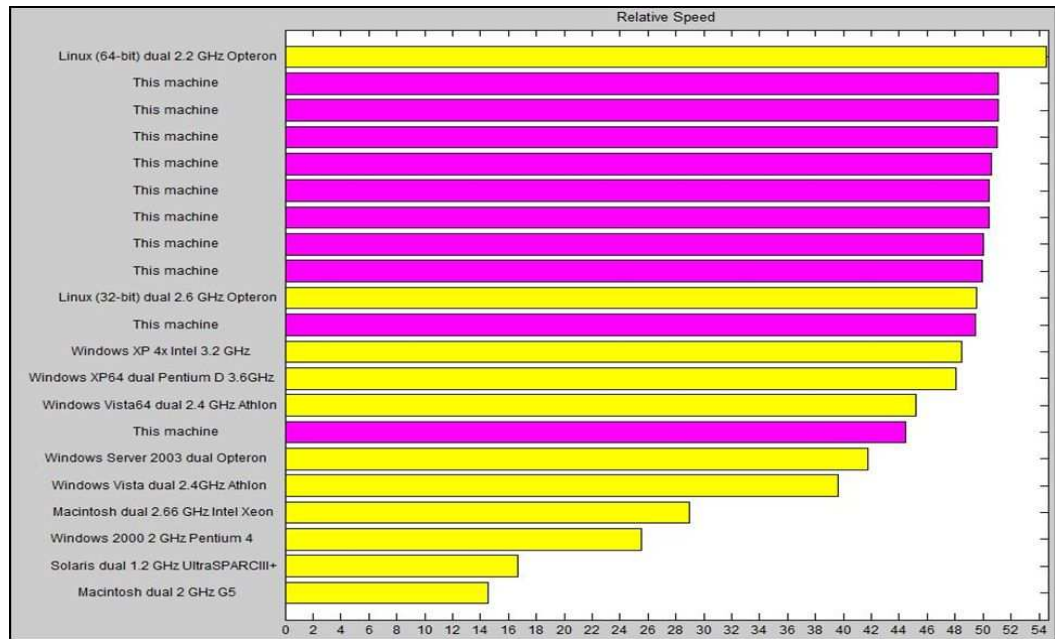
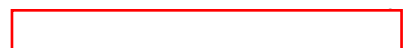


Figure 7.11: Results of Benchmarking on MATLAB®

One of the other concerns was how the use of large arrays would affect the memory requirements and timing of code execution. According to MATLAB® Documentation [50], if an array is expanded beyond the available contiguous memory of its original location, MATLAB® has to make a copy of the array in a new location and then set this array to its new value. This operation may not only result in the program running out of memory (due to a temporary doubling in the size of memory required), but also create a variation in the time required to execute the code. In order to solve both these problems, sizes have been pre-allocated to all the arrays used in the code. This means allocation of memory spaces occurs at the beginning of program execution. The code does not expand or reduce the size of the array at any other point in the program but only modifies the values contained in the memory spaces.

As described in Section 7.1, timing measurements are used to compare the likely energy consumption of the two decoders. To a first degree of approximation, it is expected that energy consumption will be proportional to the execution time.

Using a data length of 10000, the decoders were run using the MATLAB® Profiler tool. Data for the profiler was collected for single packets, each containing 10000 bits, when bit-errors result from constant AWGN channel noise. Simulations were run for Eb/No



varying from 1 to 12 dB. For each run the value of E_b/N_0 remained constant. The results are presented in Appendix F and plotted in Figure 7.12.

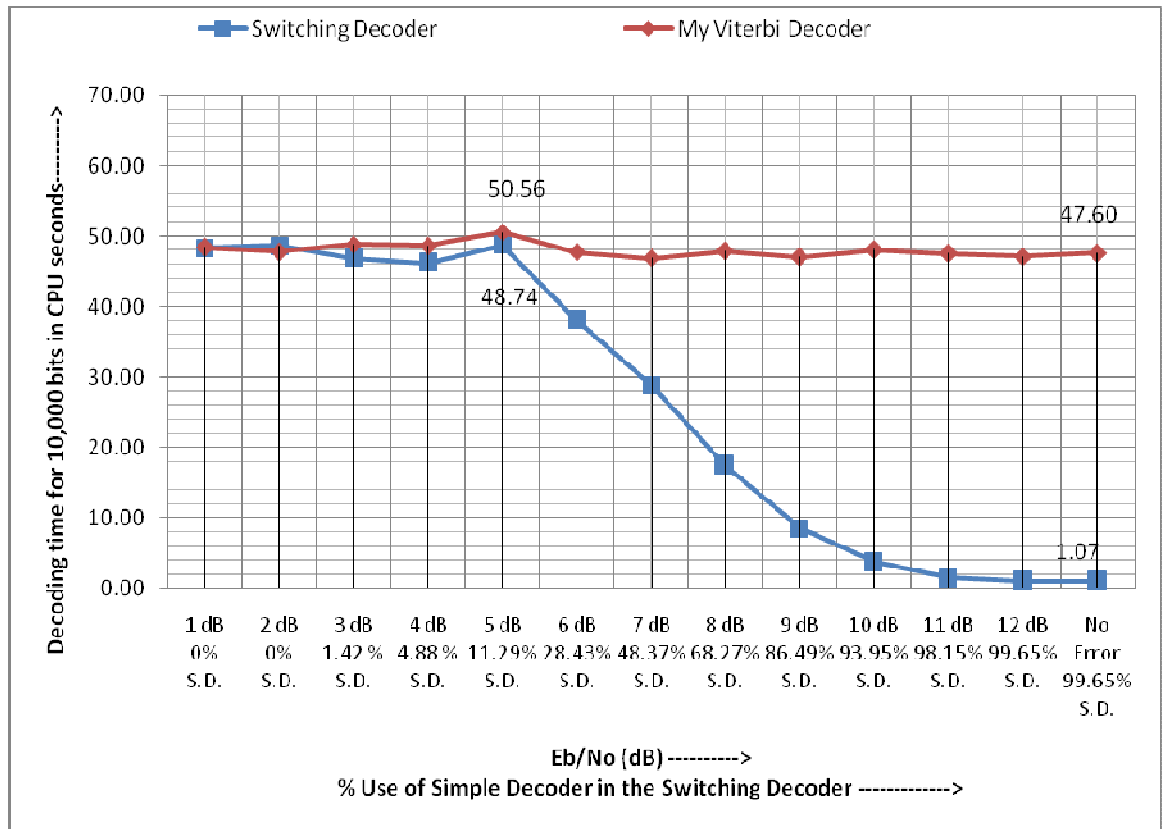


Figure 7.12: Timing Measurements

It is found that while the conventional Viterbi decoder requires a fixed execution time of about 48 seconds at all values of E_b/N_0 , the time taken by the Switching Decoder is dependent on E_b/N_0 . At higher E_b/N_0 values, where a large portion of the decoding is being done by the simple decoding part, less time is required to complete the decoding. As the E_b/N_0 value decreases, a greater portion of decoding is done by the Adapted Viterbi decoding part. Therefore the time required to complete the decoding increases. It is observed that when E_b/N_0 equals 5 dB, the time requirement of the Switching Decoder is almost equal to that of the standard Viterbi decoder. Below 5 dB the time requirements for the Switching Decoder and standard Viterbi decoder remain more or less constant and equal.

When there are no bit-errors, the Switching Decoder is about 44.5 times faster than the Viterbi Decoder i.e. the Switching Decoder takes about 2.2 % of the execution time



required by the standard Viterbi decoder. The graph shows that at 5 dB approximately 11% of the decoding is being done by the Simple Decoder. Therefore, it can be estimated that as long as at least 11% of the decoding is being done by the Simple Decoder, the Switching Decoder is likely to be advantageous in terms of energy consumption.

Another implication of these results is that whilst the conventional Viterbi decoder requires a fixed decoding time, the Switching Decoder has a variable decoding time. This could potentially make hardware implementation of the decoder more difficult. In order to produce a steady stream of output bits, adequate delays and synchronization between the two components of the Switching Decoder will be necessary.

7.3 Summary

This chapter has demonstrated by analysis of test results in terms of BEP and packet loss rates, that appropriate settings allow the Switching Decoder to give exactly the same results as the standard Viterbi decoder. It was also demonstrated that for E_b/N_0 values above 5 dB, the Switching Decoder takes considerably less execution time in MATLAB[®] than the standard Viterbi decoder while for values below 5 dB, execution time remained roughly constant and equal to that of the standard Viterbi decoder.



Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

This chapter summarizes the conclusions and inferences made from the project and recommends points that require further investigation.

8.1 Conclusions

The main objective of this project was to further develop the work started by Barry Cheetham and investigate an energy efficient method for decoding convolutionally encoded messages transmitted in a wireless environment, and received by energy limited devices such as mobiles. One of the major tasks of the project involved understanding and building the code for the Viterbi Algorithm. This code was then modified and used as an Adapted Viterbi decoder that could pick up decoding when the Simple Decoder detected bit-errors. Similarly control is transferred back to the Simple Decoder once errors stop occurring.

Two significant issues in the development of the switching algorithm were resolved. The first issue was the problem of switching between the two decoders without introducing errors. This was solved by correctly initializing the starting states of the decoder based on the last known state passed by the other decoder. This initialization was a significant step towards the success of the algorithm as it facilitated switching between to the two decoders without any loss of information and hence there was no deterioration in the output.

The second issue was to accurately determine when bit-errors have stopped occurring so that a switch from the Viterbi Decoder to the Simple Decoder could be initiated. This issue was solved by using the path metric of the global winner at each time slot to check if errors had occurred. If the path metric remained constant for a predetermined number



of slots, it was fairly certain that bit-errors had stopped occurring. It was found that if this predetermined number was set at 21, switching occurred without causing any deterioration in the BEP performance. Results obtained also indicate that this setting may be varied to optimize performance based on the required data accuracy and expected SNR in the application.

It was also possible to determine the exact error sequences where the Simple Decoder would fail to detect the presence of errors and determine the probability of these errors occurring. A strong argument was given to support the belief that the standard Viterbi decoder would fail to correct these sequences too.

Packet loss rate analysis confirmed the accuracy of the Switching algorithm as both the Switching Decoder and ‘My Viterbi’ decoder gave exactly the same packet loss rate in all test cases. This shows that switching had no impact on the error correcting capability of the decoder.

Measurements on the execution time of the code show that above 5 dB the Switching Decoder takes lesser time to execute as compared to ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. When there are no errors, the Switching Decoder takes 44.5 times as many CPU seconds as does ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. Below 5 dB, the time taken by the Switching Decoder remains roughly constant and at the same level as that of ‘My Viterbi’ decoder. These results give a good indication that there will be substantial energy savings above 5 dB. Added to this is the previous observation that there is no degradation in BEP performance. Combining these factors, there is strong evidence that the Switching Decoder provides an energy efficient method of decoding convolutional codes.

8.2 Future Work

The results thus far have been very encouraging and further investigations would help in fine tuning the decoder to bring maximum benefit. It would be very worthwhile investigating the use of soft decision input Viterbi decoding in place of hard decision in the Adapted Viterbi Decoder. Studies have shown that Soft decision inputs quantized to three or four precision bits provide a 2 dB improvement in BEP performance of the



Viterbi code [14]. It is expected that soft decision input will further improve the BEP performance of the new algorithm. This algorithm could also be used in conjunction with some of the approaches outlined in Section 3.4 to further increase energy efficiency.

In order to accurately measure energy consumption of the new system, VLSI implementations need to be built and tested. This requires a detailed knowledge of the circuitry involved and synchronization of both the decoders. This analysis will be crucial in determining the commercial viability of the new system. An important factor that needs to be investigated is how a variable decoding time will affect implementation complexity of the algorithm.

Based on the strong argument given in Section 6.4, it would also be helpful to build a conclusive proof to establish that the standard Viterbi decoder would not be able to correct any bit-errors that the Simple Decoder does not detect.



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Appendix A – Gantt Chart

Referred to in Section 5.3

1	BACKGROUND RESEARCH	69 days	10-Feb-10	14-May-10
1.1	Study of Papers & Other Literature	59 days	10-Feb-10	30-Apr-10
1.2	Familiarization with Software Tool (MATLAB®)	14 days	24-Mar-10	12-Apr-10
1.3	Preparation of Background Report	25 days	12-Apr-10	14-May-10
2	DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION	65 days	12-May-10	6-Aug-10
2.1	Study Viterbi Algorithm	6 days	12-May-10	18-May-10
2.2	Break for Exams	14 days	19-May-10	7-Jun-10
2.3	Implement code to perform simple decoding using Viterbi Algorithm	6 days	8-Jun-10	15-Jun-10
2.4	Design algorithm to perform decoder switch on/ off operation appropriately	7 days	16-Jun-10	24-Jun-10
2.5	Implement code for switch on/off operation	7 days	16-Jun-10	24-Jun-10
2.6	Design algorithm to convolutionally encode input data & introduce errors	7 days	25-Jun-10	5-Jul-10
2.7	Implement code to convolutionally encode data & introduce errors	7 days	1-Jul-10	9-Jul-10
2.8	Design algorithm to estimate energy use	7 days	10-Jul-10	19-Jul-10
2.9	Design simulation of entire communication system in Simulink	14 days	20-Jul-10	6-Aug-10
3	EXPERIMENTATION & ANALYSIS	7 days	9-Aug-10	17-Aug-10
4	PREPARATION OF REPORT	64 days	8-Jun-10	1-Sep-10
4.1	Chapter 1: Introduction	6 days	22-Jul-10	29-Jul-10
4.2	Chapter 2: Background	10 days	30-Jul-10	12-Aug-10
4.3	Chapter 3: FEC in mobile networks	7 days	8-Jun-10	16-Jun-10
4.4	Chapter 4: Design & Implementation of Experiment	40 days	17-Jun-10	10-Aug-10
4.5	Chapter 5: Results & Analysis, Chapter 6: Conclusion	6 days	13-Aug-10	20-Aug-10
4.6	Abstract, References & Formatting of Report	6 days	21-Aug-10	27-Aug-10
4.7	Review & Correction of Report	3 days	30-Aug-10	1-Sep-10

Table A.1: Gantt Chart Task List



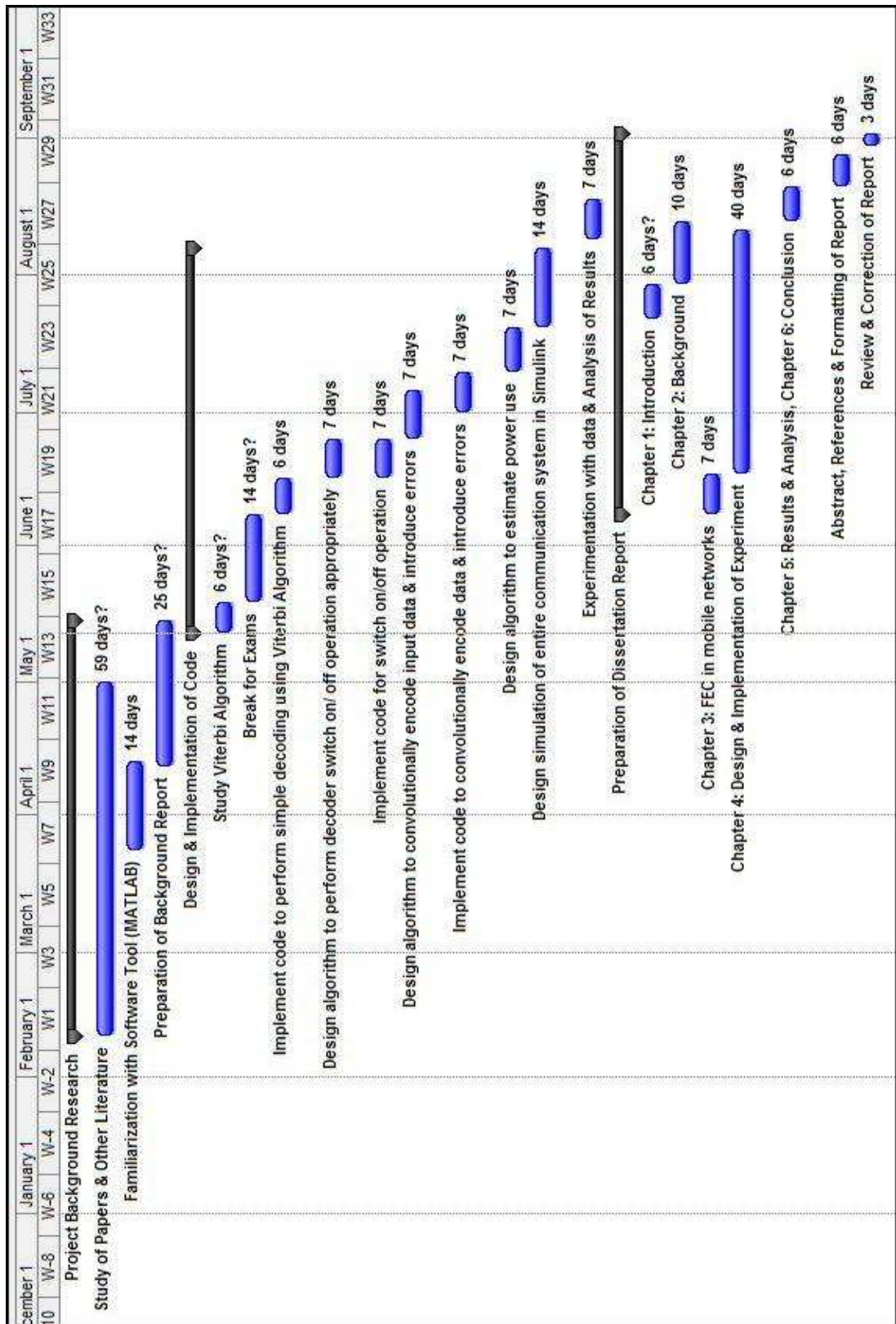


Figure A.1: Gantt Chart



Appendix B: General Algorithm for Hamming Codes

The general algorithm used to construct hamming codes as stated in [12] has been reproduced below.

S.No:	Algorithm	Example
1	The bits are numbered starting from 1	Bit 1, 2, 3, 4, 5...
2	The binary representation of the bit positions are written	1, 10, 11, 100, 101...
3	Parity Bits: These are all the bits whose position number is power of 2. They will have only 1 bit having value 1 in their binary representation	Bit 1, 2, 4, 8,16 ...
4	Data Bits: These are all the remaining bits having two or more 1 bits in their binary representation	Bit 3,5,6,7,9 ...
5	Each data bit is included in a unique set of two or more parity bits, as determined by its binary representation	
6	Each parity bit covers all bits where the binary AND of the parity position and the bit position is non-zero.	

Table B.1: General algorithm for Hamming Codes [12]

The parity bits and the corresponding bits that they check are listed below as .

Parity Bit		Data Bits Covered
Parity Bit 1	Covers all bit positions which have the least significant bit set	bit 1 (the parity bit itself), 3, 5, 7, 9, 11...
Parity Bit 2	Covers all bit positions which have the second least significant bit set	bit 2 (the parity bit itself), 3, 6, 7, 10, 11...
Parity Bit 3	Covers all bit positions which have the third least significant bit set	bits 4–7, 12–15, 20–23...
Parity Bit 4	Covers all bit positions which have the fourth least significant bit set	bits 8–15, 24–31, 40–47...

Table B.2: Table describing the bits covered by each parity bit [12]

A diagrammatic representation of the result is shown in Figure B.1 and helps in understanding the algorithm better.

Bit Position		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Encoded message bits		P1	P2	D3	P4	D5	D6	D7	P8	D9	D10	D11	D12	D13	D14	D15	P16
Parity Bit Coverage	P1	X		X		X		X		X		X		X		X	
	P2		X	X			X	X			X	X			X	X	
	P4				X	X	X	X					X	X	X	X	
	P8								X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Figure: B.1: Visual representation of Parity and Data bits



Appendix C: CRC Generator Polynomials

CRC Check Codes have some properties that make them suitable for use in error detection. The fact that CRC checks are simple to implement has also resulted in CRC checks being widely used as an error detection mechanism in all forms of communications.

There are different kinds of generator polynomials each of which are used for detecting different types of errors.

As elaborated in the article [51], three kinds of errors and their detection mechanisms are briefly described below.

When we divided the received codeword polynomial by the generator polynomial, a non-zero remainder indicates that an error has occurred.

1. Single errors

These errors can be detected using a generator polynomial $G(x)$ that has at least two terms X^n and 1 where n is the degree of the codeword polynomial.

2. Double errors

These errors can be detected by using a generator polynomial $G(x)$ such that $G(x)$ does not divide $X^p + 1$ for any value of $p < N-1$

3. Any odd number of errors

These errors may be detected if the generator polynomial $G(x)$ has a factor $1+X$

4. Any error burst having length $< n$

A generator polynomial of degree n can detect an error burst of length $< n$

The most commonly used CRC codes are CRC-16 and CRC -32.



Simulation Number 3																										
SNR	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13	
Channel Bit error Rate	0.5	0.26	0.23	0.2	0.18	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
No. of calls	My Viterbi Decoder	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	Switching Simple decoder Decoder	285	323	347	374	397	418	450	452	436	408	352	258	188	183	133	88	46	35	22	7	2	1	1	1	
	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	285	323	347	374	397	418	450	452	436	408	352	258	188	183	133	88	46	35	22	7	2	1	1	1	
No. of bits decoded	Switching Simple decoder Decoder	48	120	230	434	496	831	1107	1649	2185	2886	3994	4804	5786	6968	7001	7851	8608	9260	9425	9637	9875	9955	9971	9971	9971
	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	9958	9885	9776	9572	9510	9175	8899	8357	7821	7120	6012	5202	3038	3005	2155	1398	746	581	369	131	51	35	35	35	
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.48	1.20	2.30	4.34	4.96	8.31	11.06	16.48	21.84	28.84	39.92	48.01	57.83	69.64	69.97	78.46	86.03	92.54	94.19	96.31	98.69	99.49	99.65	99.65	99.65	
No. bit errors	Matlab Decoder	3405	2400	1683	1090	699	461	120	56	10	7	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Conventional Decoder	3428	2449	1688	1151	661	453	160	61	12	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Switching Decoder	3432	2440	1691	1161	654	456	151	61	12	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Errors in Simple decoded bits	1	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

Simulation Number 4																									
SNR	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel Bit error Rate	0.5	0.27	0.24	0.21	0.18	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.1	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No. of calls	My Viterbi Decoder	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Switching Simple decoder Decoder	296	302	341	372	410	436	445	446	425	390	372	314	268	219	129	103	78	44	26	17	10	4	1	2
	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	296	302	341	372	410	436	445	446	425	390	372	314	268	219	129	103	78	44	26	17	10	4	1	2
No. of bits decoded	Switching Simple decoder Decoder	80	113	206	370	522	801	1106	1557	2113	3181	3689	4781	5657	6467	7943	8336	8742	9314	9571	9723	9827	9931	9971	9971
	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	9926	9893	9800	9636	9484	9205	8900	8449	7893	6825	6317	5225	4349	3539	2063	1670	1264	692	435	283	179	75	35	51
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.80	1.13	2.06	3.70	5.22	8.01	11.05	15.56	21.12	31.79	36.87	47.78	56.54	64.63	79.38	83.31	87.37	93.08	95.65	97.17	98.21	99.25	99.65	99.49	99.65
No. bit errors	Matlab Decoder	2997	2651	1873	1322	581	325	169	47	12	8	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Conventional Decoder	2983	2743	1939	1314	608	399	168	75	14	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Switching Decoder	3046	2698	1962	1306	631	402	187	84	14	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Errors in Simple decoded bits	0	2	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0



Simulation Number 5																											
SNR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13	
Channel Bit error Rate	0.28	0.27	22.1	0.21	0.18	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
No. of calls	My Viterbi Decoder	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	Switching Simple decoder	291	296	342	379	410	430	445	405	415	364	315	275	204	161	94	68	45	35	16	8	9	3	1	2	1	
	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	291	296	342	379	410	430	437	445	405	364	315	275	204	161	94	68	45	35	16	8	9	3	1	2	1	
No. of bits decoded	Switching Simple decoder	64	108	289	291	440	826	1301	1684	2550	2874	3807	4672	5441	6677	7465	8488	8885	9265	9427	9739	9859	9843	9939	9971	9955	9971
	Decoder Adapted Viterbi	9942	9898	9717	9715	9566	9180	8705	8322	7456	7132	6199	5334	4565	3329	2541	1518	1121	741	579	267	147	163	67	35	51	35
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.64	1.08	2.89	2.91	4.40	8.26	13.00	16.83	25.48	28.72	38.05	46.69	54.38	66.73	74.61	84.83	88.80	92.59	94.21	97.33	98.53	98.37	99.33	99.65	99.49	99.65	
No. bit errors	Matlab Decoder	3139	2711	1787	1148	595	340	143	51	31	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Conventional Decoder	3089	2712	1784	1187	582	351	192	48	26	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Switching Decoder	3129	2698	1808	1227	638	370	189	48	25	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Errors in Simple decoded bits	6	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	



ii. Datalength 10,000. Switching when there are no bit-errors for 21 consecutive slots

Simulation Number 1																										
SNR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel bit error Rate	0.294	0.263	0.255	0.202	0.19	0.154	0.135	0.114	0.09	0.073	0.063	0.047	0.033	0.024	0.021	0.012	0.008	0.004	0.003	0.001	7E-04	1E-04	0	0	0	0
No. of calls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
No. of bits	4	10	11	18	25	37	60	90	135	150	159	174	161	130	127	96	73	40	25	15	8	9	2	1	1	1
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.99	1.09	3.73	7.34	12.17	14.92	22.22	37.27	49.52	54.13	68.74	76.64	87.44	92.23	95.45	97.55	99.35	99.65	99.65	99.65	99.65
No. bit errors	3232	2598	1927	71	811	259	80	74	34	10	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Errors in Simple decoded bits	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Simulation Number 2																										
SNR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel bit error Rate	0.286	0.267	0.233	0.197	0.185	0.163	0.137	0.116	0.09	0.072	0.055	0.045	0.032	0.024	0.02	0.013	0.008	0.005	0.003	0.001	0.001	4E-04	1E-04	0	0	0
No. of calls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
No. of bits	6	7	10	23	30	50	60	95	120	152	160	168	160	134	128	101	69	46	29	16	14	5	2	1	1	1
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.17	0.26	1.02	1.25	2.30	7.85	11.69	19.67	25.74	37.33	50.32	54.64	66.93	78.51	85.38	90.96	95.15	95.67	98.45	99.35	99.65	99.65	99.65
No. bit errors	3032	2693	1811	930	821	352	140	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Errors in Simple decoded bits	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Simulation Number 3

SMR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel Bit error Rate	0.296	0.257	0.227	0.208	0.182	0.162	0.133	0.112	0.092	0.079	0.062	0.043	0.017	0.025	0.018	0.013	0.008	0.005	0.003	0.001	7E-04	1E-04	2E-04	0	0	
No. of calls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
No. of bits	5	2	10	29	75	163	263	674	971	1630	2636	3831	4504	6051	6909	7810	8558	9168	9641	9756	9791	9941	9928	9971	9971	
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	10006	10001	10004	9996	9977	9931	9843	9743	9332	9035	8376	7370	6175	5502	3955	3097	2196	1448	838	365	240	215	65	78	35	35
No. bit errors	3055	2444	1563	1069	747	428	85	52	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Errors in Simple decoded bits	3044	2459	1575	1246	761	407	128	34	10	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	3044	2459	1575	1246	761	407	128	34	10	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

Simulation Number 4

SMR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel Bit error Rate	0.289	0.269	0.238	0.209	0.181	0.157	0.114	0.114	0.095	0.075	0.059	0.044	0.035	0.027	0.018	0.014	0.008	0.005	0.002	0.002	0.001	3E-04	1E-04	0	0	
No. of calls	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
No. of bits	4	5	14	18	31	50	53	98	117	148	171	166	167	145	119	110	67	49	25	18	15	4	2	1	1	
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	10006	9996	10003	10004	9950	9914	9889	9700	9451	8947	8395	7159	6656	5557	4109	3572	2094	1550	749	545	454	125	65	35	35	
No. bit errors	3055	2884	1988	1303	710	394	244	34	23	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Errors in Simple decoded bits	3148	2852	2102	1291	713	407	212	52	26	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	3148	2852	2102	1291	713	409	212	52	26	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	



Simulation Number 5

SNR	0.5	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12	12.5	13
Channel Bit error Rate	0.295	0.265	0.233	0.211	0.182	0.154	0.098	0.107	0.091	0.077	0.056	0.046	0.037	0.025	0.017	0.011	0.006	0.006	0.002	0.002	7E-04	1E-04	0	1E-04	0	0
My Viterbi Decoder	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Switchin Simple decoder	4	6	13	14	38	52	80	104	135	148	168	172	161	147	120	84	53	51	23	22	8	2	1	2	1	1
g Adapted	4	6	13	14	38	52	80	104	135	148	168	172	161	147	120	84	53	51	23	22	8	2	1	2	1	1
No. of bits	28	2	1	1	25	124	251	433	696	857	1891	2471	3372	4675	5950	7240	8342	8406	9305	9343	9761	9941	9971	9941	9971	9971
%bits decoded by Simple Decoder	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.25	1.24	2.51	4.33	6.96	8.56	18.90	24.70	33.70	46.72	59.46	72.36	83.37	84.01	92.99	93.37	97.55	99.35	99.65	99.35	99.65	99.65
No. bit errors	3554	2625	1784	1380	636	424	80	62	14	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
My Viterbi Decoder	3558	2664	1842	1355	605	434	109	57	25	14	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Switching Decoder	3558	2663	1840	1355	605	431	109	57	25	14	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Errors in Simple decoded bits	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

iii. Comparison of average number of bits decoded between switches with both settings. Referred to in Section 7.1.

SNR	Setting 1 - Switch after 7 consecutive error free slots		Setting 1 - Switch after 21 consecutive error free slots	
	Avg number of bits decoded per call to Simple Decoder	Avg number of bits decoded per call to normal decoder	Avg number of bits decoded per call to Simple Decoder	Avg number of bits decoded per call to normal decoder
0.5	0.28	35.43	1.17	2083.42
1	0.37	31.34	0.46	1351.70
1.5	0.70	28.82	0.44	847.53
2	0.90	25.83	0.51	555.38
2.5	1.26	23.00	1.01	323.86
3	1.90	21.57	2.04	205.55
3.5	2.54	19.92	2.31	148.84
4	3.56	18.77	3.32	100.26
4.5	5.23	18.18	5.53	74.78
5	7.37	17.46	7.14	60.56
5.5	10.71	16.94	10.56	50.91
6	14.83	16.75	15.06	44.01
6.5	21.48	16.39	22.11	39.28
7	31.37	16.19	32.94	36.84
7.5	50.93	16.04	47.97	35.42
8	72.10	16.13	70.72	32.86
8.5	111.50	16.13	119.60	31.54
9	186.50	16.05	182.53	31.27
9.5	328.57	16.46	357.05	30.78
10	571.78	16.81	572.49	30.28
10.5	1232.58	18.18	913.45	30.51
11	1905.12	19.12	1822.04	30.93
11.5	3825.15	23.31	5526.11	32.78
12	6225.88	27.88	7111.71	35.43
12.5	8306.50	31.83	9971.00	35.00
13	9971.00	35.00	9971.00	35.00



Appendix E: Packet Loss Rate Calculations

Referred to in Section 7.2.2

Eb/No	Percentage Packet Loss		
	MATLAB Decoder	'My Viterbi' Decoder	Switching Decoder
5.0	14.0	16.0	16.0
5.25	7.0	7.0	7.0
5.5	5.0	3.0	3.0
5.75	1.0	1.0	1.0
6.0	1.0	2.0	2.0
6.25	1.0	1.0	1.0
6.5	0.0	1.0	1.0
6.75	0.0	1.0	1.0
7.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
7.25	0.0	0.0	0.0
7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0



Appendix F: Timing Measurements

Referred to in Section 7.2.4

Eb/No	TIME (cpu seconds)				No of Switches	Bits decoded by Simple Decoder	% bits decoded Simple Decoder	TIME PER BIT (cpu seconds)	
	Simple Decoder	Adapted Viterbi Decoder	Switching Decoder	My Viterbi Decoder				Simple Decoder	Adapted Viterbi Decoder
1 dB	0	48.304	48.30	48.369	5	0	0.00	-	0.0048
2 dB	0	48.652	48.65	47.776	18	0	0.00	-	0.0049
3 dB	0.064	46.825	46.89	48.852	49	142	1.42	0.0005	0.0047
4 dB	0.175	45.977	46.15	48.631	106	488	4.88	0.0004	0.0048
5 dB	0.319	42.541	48.74	50.56	138	1130	11.29	0.0003	0.0048
6 dB	0.374	37.674	38.05	47.71	166	2845	28.43	0.0001	0.0053
7 dB	0.754	28.109	28.86	46.82	136	4840	48.37	0.0002	0.0054
8 dB	0.812	16.599	17.41	47.91	96	6831	68.27	0.0001	0.0052
9 dB	1.07	7.529	8.60	47.04	43	8654	86.49	0.0001	0.0056
10 dB	0.849	2.851	3.70	48.09	20	9401	93.95	0.0001	0.0047
11 dB	0.796	0.696	1.49	47.576	6	9821	98.15	0.0001	0.0038
12 dB	1.003	0.093	1.10	47.09	1	9971	99.65	0.0001	0.0027
No Error	0.997	0.077	1.07	47.60	1	9971	99.65	0.0001	0.0022



Appendix G: MATLAB® code

1. encoder.m

```
function Y = encoder(NB,ZInp)

X1=0;X2=0;X3=0;X4=0;X5=0;X6=0; % the input at the 6 stages of the
                               % encoder

Y = repmat(-1, 2*NB,1);

for n=1:NB
    X=ZInp(n);% the nth input to the encoder
    YL = xor( xor(X2,X1), xor(X6, X3));
    YL = xor(YL,X); %(171)
    YU = xor( xor(X3,X2), xor(X6,X5));
    YU = xor(YU,X); %(133)
    Y(2*n-1) = YL;%171 Lower output stored at index 2n-1
    Y(2*n)=YU;    %133 Upper output stored at index 2n

    X6=X5; X5=X4; X4=X3; X3=X2; X2=X1; X1=X;% All the flip flops
% move to the next state. First flip flop gets value of input
end;
% disp(sprintf('Output after Conv. encoding: \t'));
% disp(sprintf('\b %d ',Y));
```

2. modulate.m

```
function [msg_tx, grayencod] = modulate(Y,M,Nsamp)

k= log2(M);

msg_enc = bi2de(reshape(Y, ...
    size(Y,2)*k,size(Y,1) / k)');
grayencod = bitxor(0:M-1, floor((0:M-1)/2));
msg_gr_enc = grayencod(msg_enc+1);
msg_tx = modulate(modem.pskmod(M, pi/4), msg_gr_enc);
msg_tx = rectpulse(msg_tx, Nsamp);
```

3. demodulate.m

```
function comp_Rx = demodulate(msg_rx,M,Nsamp,grayencod)

k=log2(M);
msg_rx_int = intdump(msg_rx, Nsamp);
msg_gr_demod = demodulate(modem.pskdemod(M, pi/4), msg_rx_int);
[dummy graydecod] = sort(grayencod); graydecod = graydecod - 1;
msg_demod = graydecod(msg_gr_demod+1)';
comp_Rx = de2bi(msg_demod,k)'; comp_Rx = comp_Rx(:);
```



4. simpleDecoder.m

```
function simpleDecoder(NB, Rx, begState)

global pState decoded ErrorFlag fLen numCalls_A ACount decFlag

numCalls_A=numCalls_A+1;
FF = bitget(uint8(begState), 6:-1:1); % initialize flip flops to binary
                                     % value of state
t=fLen; % store last index of output array
index=fLen+2; %index for output array when there are no errors

for i=index:NB

    lowerInput = Rx(2*i-3);
    upperInput = Rx(2*i-2);

    lowerOutput = xor(xor(xor(FF(2),FF(1)), xor(FF(6),FF(3))),
lowerInput);
    upperOutput = xor(xor(xor(FF(3),FF(2)), xor(FF(6),FF(5))),
upperInput);

    if ((lowerOutput ~=upperOutput )||(fLen > NB-35+6))
% Conventional viterbi needs traceback depth of atleast 5 times
% constraint length
        fLen=fLen-7;
        if (fLen <=0)
            fLen=0;
            for p = 1:7
                pState(p)=0;
            end
        end
        break;

    elseif(lowerOutput==upperOutput) % No error in received bits

        fLen=fLen+1;
        decoded(fLen)=lowerOutput;

        for p = 7:-1:2
            pState(p)=pState(p-1);
        end

        sum=0;
        for bit = 6:-1:1
            sum=sum + FF(bit)*(2^(6-bit));
        end
        pState(1)=sum;

        for j=6:-1:2 % shift all the flipflop values to the right
            FF(j)=FF(j-1);
        end
        FF(1)=lowerOutput; % first flipflop value is the last
                           % received output

    end
end
```




```

if(fLen <= t)
    fLen=t;
    pState(7)= begState; %if error occurs before 6 bits are
% decoded return flipflops to state before Simple Decoder was
% switched on
end
ACount=ACount + fLen-t;
for i = t+1:fLen
    decFlag(i)=1;
end
ErrorFlag = 1; % Error has occurred or end of array has been
              % reached

```

5. adapVitDec.m (Adapted Viterbi Decoder)

```

function [currState ] = adapVitDec(NB,Rx)
global pState fLen decoded ErrorFlag numCalls_N NCount;
global decFlag;
accError = repmat (Inf,[64,35]); % initiaize error metric values to
                                % infinity
predecessor = zeros (64,35);    % initialize state history table
tracebackPath=ones(1, 35);     % initialize traceback path
numCalls_N=numCalls_N+1;
% Initial value of error metric is taken as the state of the Simple
Decoder % 6 slots prior
accError(pState(7)+1,1)=0;
RxT=fLen+1; % index for data array containing received signal
oldLowest=Inf; % previous lowest error metric value
noChangeCount=0; % count for the number of slots that error metric
                % has remained constant

beginPt=fLen;
ErrorFlag=0;
endpoint = min(35,NB+1-fLen);

%-----
% Create Previous State Table
%-----
% create 64 states
% STATES ARE NUMBERED FROM 1 to 64 THOUGH ACTUALLY 0 to 63
prevState = ones(64,6); % initialize array representing states of
                        % flipflops

    for i=1:64
        for j=1:6
            %convert to 6 bit binary representation of 0 to 63
            % which is the state of flipflops
            prevState(i,j)=bitget(uint8(i-1),7-j);
        end
    end

%-----

for t = 2:endpoint
    RxT=RxT+1;%index for received signal

    for i=1:64
        lowerBitXOR = xor(xor(prevState(i,1),prevState(i,2)),
            xor(prevState(i,3),prevState(i,6)));

```



```

lowerOutput_IP0 = xor(lowerBitXOR,0);
% Lower output if input is 0
lowerOutput_IP1 = xor(lowerBitXOR,1);
% Lower output if input is 1

upperBitXOR = xor(xor(prevState(i,2),prevState(i,3)),
    xor(prevState(i,5),prevState(i,6)));
upperOutput_IP0 = xor(upperBitXOR,0);
% Upper output if input is 0
upperOutput_IP1 = xor(upperBitXOR,1);
% Upper output if input is 1

%-----
% BRANCH METRICS: Calculate Hamming Distances
%-----

HD_IP0= xor(lowerOutput_IP0,Rx(2*RxT-3))+
xor(upperOutput_IP0,Rx(2*RxT-2));
% add hamming distance of each bit if input is 0
HD_IP1= xor(lowerOutput_IP1,Rx(2*RxT-3))+
xor(upperOutput_IP1,Rx(2*RxT-2));
% add hamming distance of each bit if input is 1

%-----
% Calculate next state
%-----

s=i-1;%i=1 implies state 0 and so on
nextState_IP0 = bitshift(s,-1,6); % next state if input
% is 0. divide i by 2 and round it off
nextState_IP1 = nextState_IP0 + 32;
% next state if input is 1.

%-----
% ADD, COMPARE, SELECT : Update Accumalated Error Metric Table and %
Surviving State table
%-----

if(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)>(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP0))
    if(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)==Inf)
        predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)=0;%lower branch
    else predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)=1;% upper branch
    end
    accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)=(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP0);

elseif(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)==(accError(i,t-1)+
HD_IP0)&&(predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)< i))
    % consistently choose the higher state in cases of
    % equality
    predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)=1;
end

if(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)>(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1))
    if(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)==Inf)
        predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=0;% lower branch
    else predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=1;% upper branch
    end
    accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)=(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1);

```



```

        elseif(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)==(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1)&&
(predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)< i))
            % consistently choose the higher state in cases of
            % equality
            predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=1;
        end
    end
end

%-----
% SURVIVOR PATH DECODING: Traceback Operation Begins
%-----

[value state]=min(accError(:,t));
tracebackPath(t)=state;

for tr=t-1:-1:1
    state=tracebackPath(tr+1);
    temp=bitshift(state-1,1,6);
    tracebackPath(tr)= temp + predecessor(state,tr+1)+1;
end

nextState_IP0 = bitshift(tracebackPath(1)-1,-1,6);
nextState_IP1 = nextState_IP0 + 32;

if(tracebackPath(2)==nextState_IP0+1)
    decoded(fLen+1)=0;

elseif (tracebackPath(2)==nextState_IP1+1)
    decoded(fLen+1)=1;
end
decFlag(fLen+1)=0;

fLen = fLen+1;
tb_index=fLen;
endVal=max(0,NB+1-35);
newLowest=0;
oldLowest=0;
t=35;
while( tb_index<= endVal)
    for j = 1: 34
        for i=1:64
            accError(i,j)=accError(i,j+1);
            predecessor(i,j)=predecessor(i,j+1);
        end
        tracebackPath(j)=tracebackPath(j+1);
    end
    for i = 1:64
        accError(i,35)=Inf;
        predecessor(i,35)=0;
    end

    RxT=RxT+1;%index for received signal

    for i=1:64

```



```

        lowerBitXOR = xor(xor(prevState(i,1),prevState(i,2)),
xor(prevState(i,3),prevState(i,6)));
        lowerOutput_IP0 = xor(lowerBitXOR,0);% Lower output if
                                % input is 0
        lowerOutput_IP1 = xor(lowerBitXOR,1);% Lower output if
                                %input is 1

        upperBitXOR = xor(xor(prevState(i,2),prevState(i,3)),
xor(prevState(i,5),prevState(i,6)));
        upperOutput_IP0 = xor(upperBitXOR,0); % Upper output if
                                % input is 0
        upperOutput_IP1 = xor(upperBitXOR,1); % Upper output if
                                % input is 1

%-----
BRANCH METRICS : Calculate Hamming Distances
%-----

        HD_IP0= xor(lowerOutput_IP0,Rx(2*RxT-3))+
xor(upperOutput_IP0,Rx(2*RxT-2)); % add hamming distance of each
                                % bit if input is 0
        HD_IP1= xor(lowerOutput_IP1,Rx(2*RxT-3))+
xor(upperOutput_IP1,Rx(2*RxT-2)); % add hamming distance of each
                                % bit if input is 1

%-----
% Calculate next state
%-----

        s=i-1;%i=1 implies state 0 and so on
        nextState_IP0 = bitshift(s,-1,6); % next state if input
                                % is 0. divide i by 2 and round it off
        nextState_IP1 = nextState_IP0 + 32; % next state if input
                                % is 1.

%-----
% ADD, COMPARE, SELECT : Update Accumalated Error Metric Table and %
Surviving State table
%-----

        if(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)>(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP0))
            if(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)==Inf)
                predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)=0;%lower branch
            else predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)= 1;
                % upper branch
            end
            accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)=(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP0);

        elseif(accError(1+nextState_IP0,t)==(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP0))
            % consistently choose the higher state in cases of
            % equality
            predecessor(1+nextState_IP0,t)= 1;
        end

        if(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)>(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1))
            if(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)==Inf)
                predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=0; % lower branch
            else predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=1;% upper branch
            end
        end

```



```

        accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)=(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1);

        elseif(accError(1+nextState_IP1,t)==(accError(i,t-1)+ HD_IP1))
        % consistently choose the higher state in cases of equality
            predecessor(1+nextState_IP1,t)=1;
        end
    end
end

[value state]=min(accError(:,t));
tracebackPath(t)=state;

for tr=t-1:-1:1
    state=tracebackPath(tr+1);
    temp=bitshift(state-1,1,6);
    if(tracebackPath(tr)== temp + predecessor(state,tr+1)+1)
        break;
    else tracebackPath(tr)=temp+predecessor(state,tr+1)+1;
    end

end

nextState_IP0 = bitshift(tracebackPath(1)-1,-1,6);
nextState_IP1 = nextState_IP0 + 32;

tb_index=tb_index+1;
if(tracebackPath(2)==nextState_IP0+1)
    decoded(tb_index)=0;

elseif (tracebackPath(2)==nextState_IP1+1)
    decoded(tb_index)=1;
end
decFlag(tb_index)=0;

newLowest = accError(tracebackPath(1));

if(newLowest ==oldLowest)
    noChangeCount=noChangeCount+1;
else
    noChangeCount=0;
end

oldLowest = newLowest;

if ( (noChangeCount >=21 )&&(tb_index <(NB-35-6)) )

%%=====
% Switch Back to Simple Decoder
%%=====
        ErrorFlag=1;
        break;
    end
end
fLen=tb_index;
currState= tracebackPath(2);

if(ErrorFlag~=1 )
    ep=min(34,NB);
    for i=2:ep

```



```

        nextState_IP0 = bitshift(tracebackPath(i)-1,-1,6);
        nextState_IP1 = nextState_IP0 + 32;

        tb_index=tb_index+1;
        if(tracebackPath(i+1)==nextState_IP0+1)
            decoded(tb_index)=0;

        elseif (tracebackPath(i+1)==nextState_IP1+1)
            decoded(tb_index)=1;
        end
        decFlag(tb_index)=0;
    end
    fLen=tb_index;
    currState=tracebackPath(i+1);
end

ErrorFlag=0;
NCount=NCount+fLen-beginPt;

```

6. MAINFILE.m

```

clear all; clc;
global decoded pState fLen ErrorFlag ;
global numCalls_A numCalls_N numCalls_C;
global ACount NCount CCount;
global decFlag

NB =10000; % Number of orig bits for testing.
Inp = randsrc(NB, 1, 0:1);

ZInp=[Inp; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0]; NB=NB+6; %Add 6 extra zeros to flush at
end.

%-----
%Convolutional coder1/2 K= 7 (171,133)
%-----
Y = encoder(NB,ZInp);

%-----
% Coded signal Y. Modulate signal QPSK. Store transmitted signal as
msg_tx
%-----

M=4;k= log2(M);Nsamp=4;
[msg_tx grayencod]=modulate(Y,M,Nsamp);
[msg_tx_uncoded grayencod]=modulate(ZInp,M,Nsamp);
%-----
%Initialize matrices

EbN0 = zeros(1,26);
nErrs_A =zeros(1,26);
nErrs_matHard = zeros(1,26);
nErrs_Conv = zeros(1,5);
nErrs_uncoded = zeros(1,26);
nErrs_channel=zeros(1,26);
BER_A=zeros(1,26);

```



```

BER_matSoft = zeros(1,26);
BER_matHard=zeros(1,26);
BER_Conv = zeros(1,26);
BER_uncoded=zeros(1,26);
BER_channel=zeros(1,26);

for runs = 1:26

    ErrorFlag=0; % Set Error Flag to 0
    decoded = repmat(-1,[NB,1]); % initialize decoded output array
    decFlag=repmat(-1,[NB,1]); % Flag to check which bits were
    % decoded by Simple Decoder
    pState = zeros(7,1); % initialize last 7 states of the
    % decoder
    fLen=0; % initialize last index of
    % decoded output

    numCalls_A=0;
    numCalls_N=0;
    numCalls_C=0;

    ACount=0;
    NCount=0;
    CCount=0;
    EbN0(runs)= runs/2 ;
    EsN0 = EbN0(runs) + 10*log10(2);
%-----
% Modulated signal msg_tx. Introduce bit-errors. Signal at Receiver is
msg_rx
%-----

    msg_rx = awgn(msg_tx, EsN0-10*log10(2)-10*log10(Nsamp));% AWGN %
NOISE to Encoded Signal
    msg_rx_uncoded = awgn(msg_tx_uncoded,EsN0-10*log10(2)-
10*log10(Nsamp)); %AWGN Noise to Uncoded Signal

    %-----
    % Introduce bit errors to certain parts of the message
    %-----
    % msg_rx=msg_tx; % no noise added
    % msg_tx_PART1 = msg_tx (1:NB);
    % msg_tx_PART2=msg_tx(NB+1:2*NB);
    % msg_tx_PART3 = msg_tx(2*NB+1:3*NB);
    % msg_tx_PART4=msg_tx(3*NB+1:4*NB);
    %
    % msg_rx_PART1=msg_tx_PART1;
    % msg_rx_PART2=awgn(msg_tx_PART2, EsN0-10*log10(2)-
10*log10(Nsamp));
    % msg_rx_PART3=awgn(msg_tx_PART3, EsN0-10*log10(2)-
10*log10(Nsamp));
    % msg_rx_PART4=msg_tx_PART4;
    %
    %
msg_rx=cat(2,msg_rx_PART1,msg_rx_PART2,msg_rx_PART3,msg_rx_PART4);

%-----
% Demodulate signal received .Store in comp_Rx
%-----

    comp_Rx = demodulate(msg_rx,M,Nsamp,grayencod);

```



```

comp_Rx_uncoded = demodulate(msg_rx_uncoded,M,Nsamp,grayencod);
Rx= double((comp_Rx > 0.5)); % hard decision, round off

%-----
% Apply MATLAB Viterbi decoder for checking later:-
%-----
trellis = poly2trellis(7,[171 133]); % IEEE802.11
tblen = 35; delay = tblen; % Traceback length
matdecodedHard = vitdec(Rx,trellis,tblen,'term','hard');% Hard
decision

%-----
% Switching Decoder
%-----
currState=1; % Set initial current state to 1
while (fLen < NB)
    if (ErrorFlag==0)
        %-----
        % Start Simple Decoding Method
        %-----
        simpleDecoder(NB, Rx,currState-1); % Perform simple
        % decoding

    elseif(ErrorFlag==1)
        %-----
        % Start Adapted Viterbi Decoder 1/2 K= 7 (171,133)
        %-----

        [currState ] = adapVitDec(NB,Rx); % Perform normal
        % Viterbi decoding

    end
end

%-----% 'My
Viterbi' Decoder Run from Beginning to End
%-----

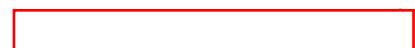
CON_decoded = conVitDec2(NB,Rx);

%-----
countA(runs)=0;
for i =1:NB
    if(xor(ZInp(i),decoded(i)) && (decFlag(i)==1))
        countA(runs)=countA(runs)+1;
    end
end

end
[nErrs_A(runs) BER_A(runs)] = biterr(ZInp, decoded);
[nErrs_matHard(runs) BER_matHard(runs)] = biterr(ZInp,
matdecodedHard);
[nErrs_Conv(runs) BER_Conv(runs)] = biterr(ZInp, CON_decoded);
[nErrs_uncoded(runs) BER_uncoded(runs)] =
biterr(ZInp,comp_Rx_uncoded);
[nErrs_channel(runs) BER_channel(runs)]=biterr(Y,comp_Rx);

disp(sprintf('Eb/No: %0.1f',EbN0(runs)));
disp(sprintf('Channel Bit-error rate = %d',nErrs_channel(runs)));
disp(sprintf('Number of biterrors (Matlab Viterbi Decoder) =
%d',nErrs_matHard(runs)));
disp(sprintf('Number of biterrors ('My Viterbi' Decoder) =
%d',nErrs_Conv(runs)));

```




```

disp(sprintf('Number of bit-errors (Switching Decoder) =
%d',nErrs_A(runs)));

disp(sprintf('NumCalls Simple Decoder : %d',numCalls_A));
disp(sprintf('NumCalls Adapted Viterbi Decoder : %d',numCalls_N));
disp(sprintf('NumCalls Normal Viterbi decoder('My Viterbi' dec.):
%d',
    numCalls_C));

disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded A: %d',ACount));
disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded N: %d',NCount));
disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded C: %d',CCount));

disp(sprintf('No. errors in simple decoded bits:
%d',countA(runs)));
disp(sprintf('-----
-----'));

end

figure(1);

semilogy(EbN0,BER_matHard,'-xb', EbN0,BER_Conv,'-dr',EbN0,BER_A,'-
og',EbN0,BER_uncoded,'+r');% ,EbN0,BER_matSoft,'-Xm');
grid on; title('Bit-error prob against EB/No');
xlabel('Eb/No (dB)'); ylabel('Bit error prob'); legend('Matlab
Viterbi','MyViterbiDecoder','Switching Decoder','Uncoded');

grid on; title('Bit-error prob against Eb/No');
xlabel('Eb/No (dB)'); ylabel('Bit error prob');

```

7. Portion of conVitDec2.m ('My Viterbi' Decoder)

```

function [decoded t ] = conVitDec2(NB,Rx)
global numCalls_C CCount;
numCalls_C=numCalls_C+1;
accError = repmat (Inf,[64,35]); % initiaize error metric to undefined
value.
predecessor = zeros (64,35); %initialize state history table
prevState = ones(64,6);
decoded = repmat (-1,[NB,1]);

```

The rest of the code remains largely the same as the Adapted Viterbi Decoder, the difference being that we don't maintain a counter for determining that bit-errors have stopped occurring. As expected, decoding is continued without any switches to the Simple Decoder.

8. MAINFILE_PacketLoss.m (Modified Main File to Measure Packet Loss)

```

clear all; clc;

```

```

global decoded pState fLen ErrorFlag ;
global numCalls_A numCalls_N numCalls_C;
global ACount NCount CCount;
global decFlag

packetA_Count=0;
packetConv_Count=0;
packetMat_Count=0;
packetUncoded_Count=0;
for packet=1:100
    NB =1000; % Number of orig bits for testing.
    Inp = randsrc(NB, 1, 0:1);
    ZInp=[Inp; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 0]; NB=NB+6; %Add 6 extra zeros to
flush at end.

%-----
% Convolutional coder 1/2 K= 7 (171,133)
%-----

    Y = encoder(NB,ZInp);

%-----
% Coded signal Y. Modulate signal QPSK. Store transmitted signal as
msg_tx
%-----
    M=4;k= log2(M);Nsamp=4;
    [msg_tx grayencod]=modulate(Y,M,Nsamp);
    [msg_tx_uncoded grayencod]=modulate(ZInp,M,Nsamp);
%-----

    %Initialize matrices
    snr = zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_A =zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_matSoft = zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_matHard = zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_Conv = zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_uncoded = zeros(1,1);
    nErrs_channel=zeros(1,1);
    BER_A=zeros(1,1);
    BER_matSoft = zeros(1,1);
    BER_matHard=zeros(1,1);
    BER_Conv = zeros(1,1);
    BER_uncoded=zeros(1,1);
    BER_channel=zeros(1,1);

    for runs = 1:1

        ErrorFlag=0; % Set Error Flag to 0
        decoded = repmat(-1,[NB,1]);
        % initialize decoded output array
        decFlag=repmat(-1,[NB,1]);
        % Flag to check which bits were decoded by Simple Decoder
        pState = zeros(7,1); % intitalize last 7 states of the
        % decoder
        fLen=0; % initialize last index of decoded output
        numCalls_A=0;
        numCalls_N=0;
        numCalls_C=0;

        ACount=0;

```



```

NCount=0;
CCount=0;
snr(runs)= 6.5; %Set snr to a fixed value for all 50 packets
EsN0 = snr(runs) + 10*log10(k);
%-----
% Modulated signal msg_tx. Introduce bit-errors. Signal at
% Receiver is msg_rx
%-----
msg_rx = awgn(msg_tx, EsN0-10*log10(2)-10*log10(Nsamp));
% AWGN NOISE
msg_rx_uncoded = awgn(msg_tx_uncoded,EsN0-10*log10(2)-
10*log10(Nsamp)); %Uncoded Signal
% msg_rx=msg_tx; % no noise added
%-----
% Demodulate signal received .Store in comp_Rx
%-----
comp_Rx = demodulate(msg_rx,M,Nsamp,grayencod);
comp_Rx_uncoded = demodulate(msg_rx_uncoded,M,Nsamp,grayencod);
%-----
Rx= double((comp_Rx > 0.5)); % hard decision, round off
%-----
% Apply MATLAB Viterbi decoder for checking later:-
%-----
trellis = poly2trellis(7,[171 133]); % IEEE802.11
tblen = 35; delay = tblen; % Traceback length % NB length
% has 6 zero's appended
matdecodedHard = vitdec(Rx,trellis,tblen,'term','hard');
% Hard decision
%-----
% Switching Decoder
%-----
currState=1; % Set initial current state to 1
while (fLen < NB)
    if (ErrorFlag==0)
%-----
% Start Simple Decoding Method
%-----
simpleDecoder(NB, Rx,currState-1);
% Perform simple decoding

        elseif(ErrorFlag==1)

%-----
% Start Adapted Viterbi Decoder 1/2 K= 7 (171,133)
%-----

        [currState ] = adapVitDec(NB,Rx); % Perform normal
% Viterbi decoding
    end
end
%-----
% 'My Viterbi' Decoder Run from Beginning to End
%-----
CON_decoded = conVitDec2(NB,Rx); % 'My Viterbi' decoder run
% from beginning to end
%-----
countA(runs)=0;
for i =1:NB

```



```

        if(xor(ZInp(i),decoded(i)) && (decFlag(i)==1))
            countA(runs)=countA(runs)+1;
        end
    end
    [nErrs_A(runs) BER_A(runs)] = biterr(ZInp, decoded);
    [nErrs_matHard(runs) BER_matHard(runs)] = biterr(ZInp,
matdecodedHard);
    [nErrs_Conv(runs) BER_Conv(runs)] = biterr(ZInp, CON_decoded);
    [nErrs_uncoded(runs) BER_uncoded(runs)] =
biterr(ZInp,comp_Rx_uncoded);
    [nErrs_channel(runs) BER_channel(runs)]=biterr(Y,comp_Rx);

    disp(sprintf('Channel Bit-error rate =
%d',nErrs_channel(runs)));
    disp(sprintf('Number of biterrors (matHard-Decoded) =
%d',nErrs_matHard(runs)));
    disp(sprintf('Number of biterrors (ConvBitDec2)      =
%d',nErrs_Conv(runs)));
    disp(sprintf('Number of bit-errors (Decoded With Switching) =
%d',nErrs_A(runs)));

    if nErrs_A(runs) ==0
        packetA_Count=packetA_Count+1;
    end
    if nErrs_matHard(runs) ==0
        packetMat_Count=packetMat_Count+1;
    end
    if nErrs_Conv(runs) ==0
        packetConv_Count=packetConv_Count+1;
    end
    if nErrs_uncoded(runs) ==0
        packetUncoded_Count=packetUncoded_Count+1;
    end

    disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded A: %d',ACount));
    disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded N: %d',NCount));
    disp(sprintf('NumBitsDecoded C: %d',CCount));

    disp(sprintf('No. errors in simple decoded bits:
%d',countA(runs)));
    disp(sprintf('-----
-----'));
%-----
    end
end
disp(sprintf('Successful Packets - Matlab Viterbi Decoder:
%d',packetMat_Count));
disp(sprintf('Successful Packets - 'My Viterbi' Decoder:
%d',packetConv_Count));
disp(sprintf('Successful Packets - Switching decoder
%d',packetA_Count));

```

