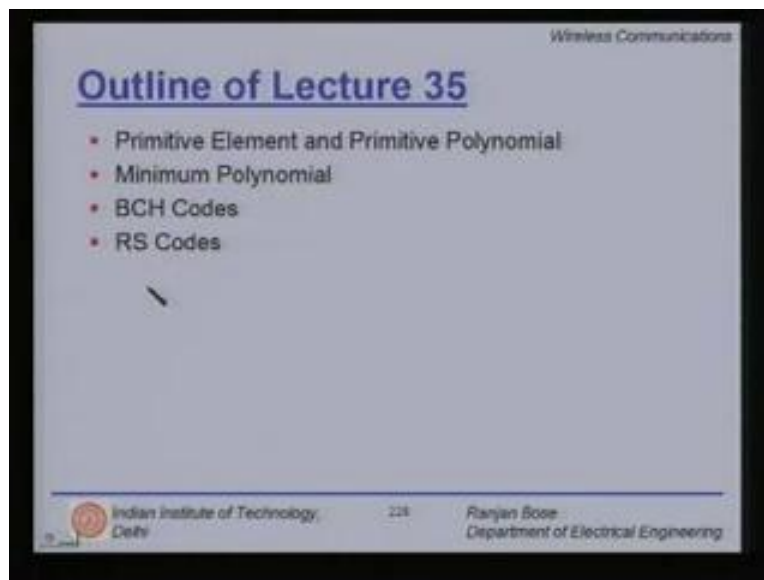


**Wireless Communications**  
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**Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi**  
**Lecture No. # 35**  
**Coding Techniques for Mobile Communications (Continued)**

Welcome to the next lecture on wireless communications. Today we will deal deeper into various coding techniques for mobile communications. Let us look at the outline for today's talk.

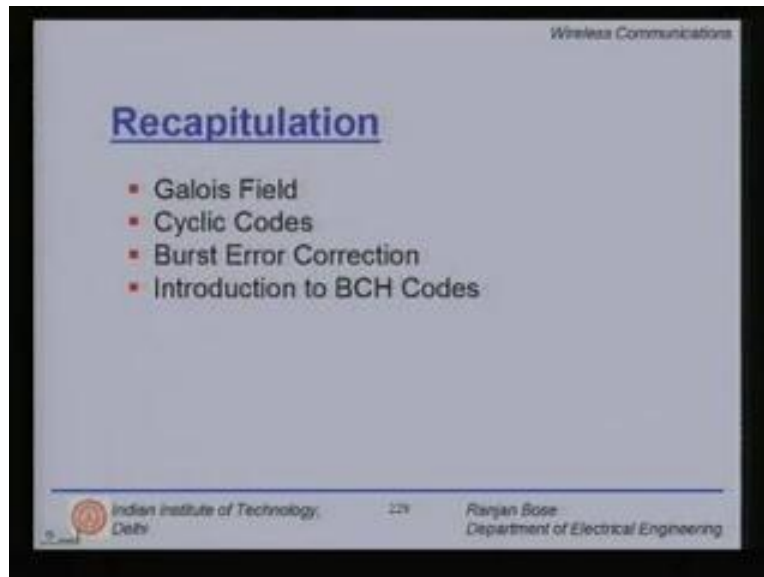
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We will begin with the study of BCH codes followed by the Reed Solomon codes. We'll also talk about the basics of primitive elements and primitive polynomials required to understand the BCH codes and RS codes as well as talk about minimal polynomials required to construct the generator polynomials for BCH codes and RS codes. So this is the brief outline for today's talk; of course we'll start by summarizing what we have learnt so far. So let us recap.

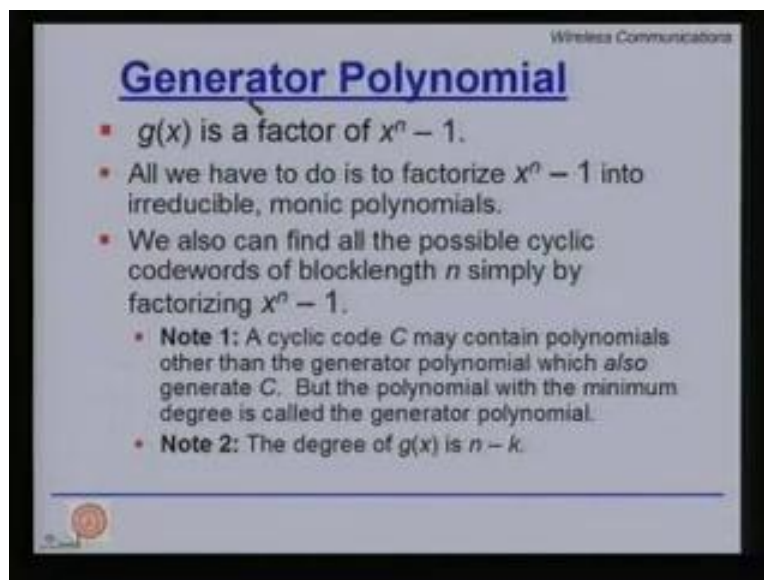
In the previous lectures we have studied the Galois field followed by an understanding of cyclic codes. What we learnt last time was cyclic codes was a subclass of linear block codes except that any cyclic rotation of a valid code word forms another valid code word. We then moved into the domain of burst errors which are very likely in wireless communications, when we get into deep fades we encounter errors which are not randomly distributed but occur in bursts and we also realized that cyclic codes are a very powerful class of error correcting codes which can be used for burst error correction.

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We finally moved into the introduction of BCH codes which is a subclass of cyclic codes. Today we will take a brief mathematical detour to develop some tools to understand BCH codes and then finally come up with a generator polynomial for BCH codes.

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So recapping from last time we realize that the generator polynomial  $g(x)$  must be a factor of  $x^n - 1$  for a cyclic code. Here this  $n$  represents the block length so if I have to find out the generator polynomial for a cyclic code of block length 7, all I have to do is take  $x^7 - 1$  and factorize it.

All of the factors have the potential to generate a cyclic code. In fact this is one way to come up with all possible cyclic codes of a block length  $n$ . So we have to note that a cyclic code  $C$  may contain polynomials other than the generator polynomial which also generate  $C$ , with the polynomial with the minimum degree is called the generator polynomial. We have also observed last time that the degree of  $g(x)$  the generator polynomial is  $n-k$ . All this is under the assumption that there is a unique 1-1 correspondence between a polynomial and a code word. So any code word can be represented by a polynomial and multiplying a polynomial by  $x$  merely tantamounts to rotating the code word polynomial by one to the right side.

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### Encoding with Generator Polynomial

- A simple encoding rule to generate the codewords from the generator polynomial is
 
$$c(x) = i(x)g(x)$$
- where  $i(x)$  is the information polynomial,  $c(x)$  is the codeword polynomial and  $g(x)$  is the generator polynomial.
- The error vector can be also represented as the error polynomial,  $e(x)$ . Thus, the received word at the receiver, after passing through a noisy channel can be expressed as
 
$$v(x) = c(x) + e(x).$$
- We define the **syndrome polynomial**,  $s(x)$  as the remainder of  $v(x)$  under division by  $g(x)$ , i.e.,
 
$$s(x) = R_{g(x)}[v(x)] = R_{g(x)}[c(x) + e(x)] = R_{g(x)}[c(x)] + R_{g(x)}[e(x)] = R_{g(x)}[e(x)],$$
 because  $R_{g(x)}[c(x)] = 0$ .

Now let us move over to encoding using the generator polynomial for the case of cyclic codes. A simple encoding rule can be  $c(x) = i(x) \times g(x)$  where  $i(x)$  is the information polynomial just like you have the information word you can represent it using a polynomial so  $i(x)$  is an information polynomial,  $g(x)$  we know is the generator polynomial and  $c(x)$  is nothing but the code word polynomial. Now please note that  $g(x)$  has been designed in such a manner that for all possible  $i(x)$  the  $c(x)$  comes out as a valid code word that is it has been ensured that the highest power of  $x$  does not exceed that of the block length.

Now if you move forward and represent the received word  $v(x)$  as  $c(x)$  the code word plus  $e(x)$  the error polynomial, you can also represent the error by a polynomial in that case we can define something called as a syndrome polynomial  $s(x)$  as the remainder of  $v(x)$  under the division by  $g(x)$ . Clearly if  $e(x)$  is zero, your  $v(x)$  will be equal to  $c(x)$  which can be exactly divided by  $g(x)$  because  $c(x)$  has been created by a multiplication of  $g(x)$  with  $i(x)$ . For any other case when the error is nonzero, you would get some remainder and that pertains only to that error pattern hence the syndrome for that error.

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### Matrix description of Cyclic Codes

- Suppose  $C$  is a cyclic code with generator polynomial  $g(x) = g_0 + g_1x + \dots + g_r x^r$  of degree  $r$ . Then the generator matrix of  $C$  is given by

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & g_1 & \dots & g_r & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & g_0 & g_1 & \dots & g_r & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & \dots & g_r & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & \dots & g_r & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{ } n \text{ columns}}$

$\uparrow$   
 $k = (n - r)$  rows

Now we also know that cyclic codes are a subclass of linear block codes that means it is possible to represent them using matrices, a generator matrix and a parity check matrix. Suppose you have your  $g(x)$  represented as  $g_0 + g_1x + g_2x^2 + \dots + g_r x^r$  where  $r$  is the degree of  $g(x)$ . Then the generator matrix can be represented as follows, the first row will be  $g_0, g_1$  so on and so forth until  $g_r$  followed by zeros and then the second row is nothing but a shifted version and the third row is yet another shifted version and so and so forth. Please note that this first row and second row all are shifted with respect to each other by one and the number of rows here is  $n-r=k$ .

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### Parity Check Polynomial

- We already know that  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x^n - 1$ . Hence we can write
 
$$x^n - 1 = h(x)g(x),$$
- where  $h(x)$  is some polynomial. The following can be concluded by simply observing the above equation:
- Since  $g(x)$  is monic,  $h(x)$  has to be monic because the left hand side of the equation is also monic (the leading coefficient is unity).
- Since degree of  $g(x)$  is  $n - k$ , the degree of  $h(x)$  must be  $k$ .
- Suppose  $C$  is a cyclic code in  $R_n$  with the generator polynomial  $g(x)$ . Recall that we are denoting  $F[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$  by  $R_n$ , where  $f(x) = x^n - 1$ .
- In  $R_n$ ,  $h(x)g(x) = x^n - 1 = 0$ . Then, any codeword belonging to  $C$  can be written as  $c(x) = a(x)g(x)$ , where the polynomial  $a(x) \in R_n$ . Therefore in  $R_n$ ,
 
$$c(x)h(x) = a(x)g(x)h(x) = c(x) \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Just like we had a parity check polynomial we also have a parity check polynomial analogous to the parity check matrix in linear block codes. What is the philosophy?  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one which means that  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one can be represented as  $h(x)$  times  $g(x)$ . So  $h(x)$  is the polynomial which will denote as the parity check polynomial so since the degree of  $g(x)$  is  $n-k$ , the degree of  $h(x)$  must be  $k$ . Suppose  $C$  is a cyclic code in  $R_n$ ? What is  $R_n$ ?  $R_n$  is  $F[x]$  by  $f(x)$  where small  $f(x)$  is nothing but  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one? So doing all the operations modulo  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one, this will ensure that if you multiply a codeword by any power of  $x$ , it will pertain to a cyclic shift but the highest power will not exceed that of the block length. So that the highest coefficient moves back into the first place. Hence we take modulo  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one.

Any codeword belonging to  $C$  can be written as  $c(x)$  is equal to  $a(x)$  times  $g(x)$ . However  $c(x)$  into  $h(x)$  can then be represented as  $a(x)$  times  $g(x)$  which is  $c(x)$  times  $h(x)$  and if you take modulo  $x$  raised to power  $n$  minus one, you have this as zero. This means  $h(x)$  has this unique property that if you multiply it with any valid code word polynomial, you end up with the zero polynomial. It's a very simple yet elegant way to check whether a codeword is a valid codeword. (Refer Slide Time: 00:10:05 min)

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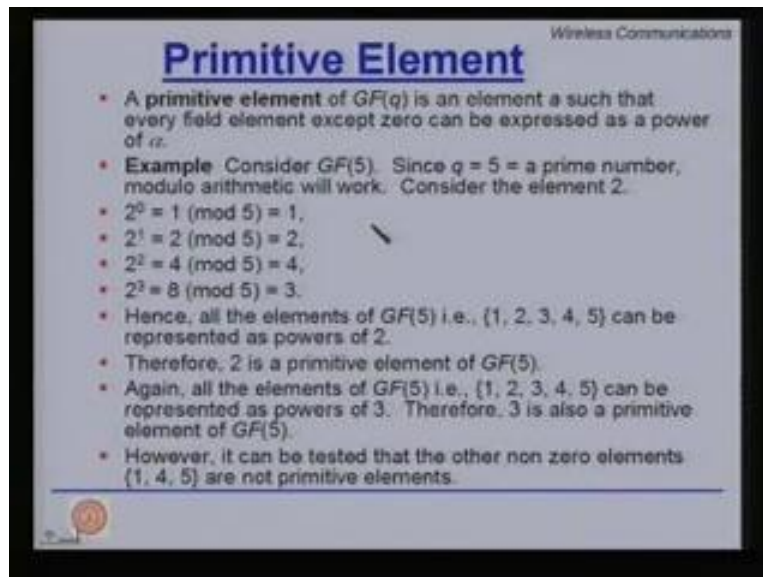
### Example

- For binary codes of block length,  $n = 7$ , we have  $x^7 - 1 = (x-1)(x^2+x+1)(x^2+x^2+1)$ .
- Consider  $g(x) = (x^3+x+1)$ . Since  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x^7 - 1$ , there is a cyclic code that can be generated by it. The generator matrix corresponding to  $g(x)$  is
 
$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
- The parity check polynomial  $h(x)$  is  $(x-1)(x^2+x^2+1) = (x^4+x^2+x+1)$ . And the corresponding parity check matrix is
 
$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
- The minimum distance of this code is 3, and this happens to be the (7, 4) Hamming code.

Let us look at an example. For binary codes of block length  $n = 7$  and that is all I need to specify once I said for block length  $n = 7$  find for me the cyclic codes. All I have to do is take  $x$  raised to power 7 minus one and factorize it which I have done here. They have three factors, clearly individually all three can generate a cyclic code but product of any two will yet still be a factor of  $x$  raised to power 7 minus one and they can themselves generate a cyclic code and so and so forth. So 1, 2, 3 product of these two, product of these two and product of these two, 6; product of all 3 which is  $x$  raised to power 7 minus one is the seventh and unity eight. There are 8 possible cyclic codes some of them may be trivial. All of them will have a block length  $n = 7$  and we are talking about binary, if you talk about non-binary cases then the factorization will be different because the multiplication and addition tables are different in different Galois fields.

So only for binary code if you designate  $x^3 + x + 1$  as our generator polynomial then based on that we can write the generator matrix and whatever is remaining that is if you have the product of the other two that will represent your  $h(x)$  which is given by  $x$  raised to power 4 plus  $x^2$  plus  $x + 1$  and the corresponding  $H$  matrix parity check matrix is given by the following. We also made an observation that this happens to be the 7, 4 the Hamming code. So Hamming code is also a cyclic code, the minimum distance of this code is 3, **it is incorrect, one error so it is a single error correcting code.**

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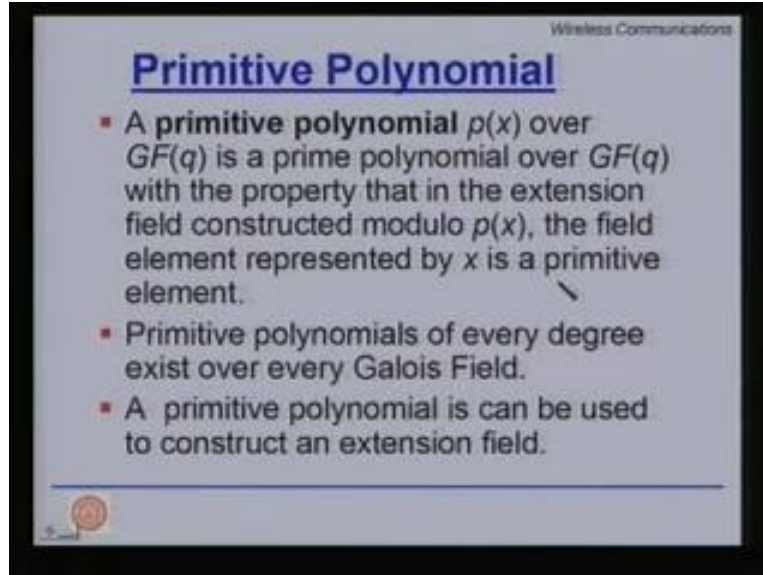


Now let us continue with our mathematical detour and let's talk about something called as a primitive element. A primitive element of  $GF(q)$  is an element such that every field element except the zero element can be expressed as a power of  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  being the primitive element. So example consider  $GF(5)$ , 5 is prime so we know that a Galois field can exist and also since it is a prime number, modulo arithmetic will work. So let's consider the elements 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 as the 5 elements of  $GF(5)$  then we have 2 raised to power zero is 1 but you have to take everything modulo 5 so it's 1, 2 raised to power one comes out to be 2 if taken modulo 5; 2 squared is 4, 2 cubed is 3 hence all the elements of  $GF(5)$  that is 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 is not an element; 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 can be represented as powers of 2 here as you can see except zero. So 2 has this magical property of being a primitive element, all powers of 2 taken modulo 5 will jump on the different elements one by one.

Therefore two is a primitive element of 5, primitive elements are not always unique. So what happens is if you check for 3 you'll find it is also primitive element but not one because any powers of one will remain as 1 or 4, 4 you cannot generate all the elements in  $GF(5)$ . So 2 and 3 can be shown to be primitive elements of  $GF(5)$  so you can test that 1, 4 and 0 are not the primitive elements.



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Now what is a primitive polynomial? A primitive polynomial say  $p(x)$  again defined over a certain  $GF(q)$  a Galois field is a prime polynomial. We know prime polynomial is that which cannot be factorized over  $GF(q)$  with the property that in the extension field constructed modulo  $p(x)$ , the field elements represented by  $x$  is a primitive element. So let's go over this definition again, it appears complex so let's break it up. We are talking about a primitive polynomial  $p(x)$ , it must have certain properties. First of all it is irreducible over  $GF(q)$  it's also monic so it's a prime polynomial over  $GF(q)$ . Now we also know that it is possible to create an extension field from a sub field but what is the property of this primitive polynomial is that in the extension field constructed modulo  $p(x)$  the field element represented by  $x$  is a primitive element. We'll look at an example to illustrate the point.

Primitive polynomials of every degree exist over every Galois field, a primitive polynomial can be used to construct an extension field. We will realize this importance because once you're dealing with BCH codes and Reed Solomon codes, the notion of a sub field and an extension field is important. The philosophy is that if you have  $GF(2)$ , you can construct  $GF(4)$ ,  $GF(8)$  from  $GF(2)$ . If you have  $GF(3)$  you can construct the other fields like  $GF(9)$  from here.

Let's look at an example. The example is of  $GF(8)$  so let's say the primitive polynomial  $p(x)$  is  $x^3+x+1$ . This is clearly non factorizable over  $GF(2)$  because you can substitute 0 and 1 and check that  $x-1$  and  $x-0$ 's are not the factors. Now let alpha be the primitive element and so all the powers of alpha must pertain to elements in  $GF(8)$  provided they are taken modulo  $p(x)$ . So what you do is alpha lets represent it as  $z$ , alpha squared is  $z$  squared, alpha cubed taken modulo  $p(x)$  so if you take  $z$  cubed and divide it by  $z^3+z+1$  you'll be left with  $z+1$ . So modulo  $p(x)$  that is alpha cubed taken modulo  $p(x)$  will be  $z+1$  the remainder.

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## Example: GF(8)

- We can construct GF(8) using the primitive polynomial  $p(x) = x^3 + x + 1$ . Let the primitive element of GF(8) be  $\alpha$ .
- Then, we can represent all the elements of GF(8) by the powers of  $\alpha$  evaluated modulo  $p(x)$ .
- Thus we can form the following table.

Powers of $\alpha$	Elements of GF(8)
$\alpha^0$	$z$
$\alpha^1$	$z^2$
$\alpha^2$	$z + 1$
$\alpha^3$	$z^2 + z$
$\alpha^4$	$z^2 + z + 1$
$\alpha^5$	$z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^6$	$1$

Similarly alpha 4 so take z raise to power 4 because alpha is represented by z take it modulo p(x) that is divide by  $z^3+z+1$  and you'll be left with  $z^2+z$  and so and so forth. So if you carry down this exercise you will realize that you have 7 elements except the zero element which are the elements of GF(8) and it can be verified with all these follow the 8 axioms of a field. Hence we have just constructed using a primitive polynomial p(x), the field GF(8) from GF(2) so we have this following table.

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## Theorem

- Let  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{q-1}$  denote the non zero field elements of GF(q). Then,
 
$$x^{q-1} - 1 = (x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2) \dots (x - \beta_{q-1}).$$
- Proof:** The set of non zero elements of GF(q) is a finite group under the operation of multiplication. Let  $b$  be any non zero element of the field. It can be represented as a power of the primitive element  $\alpha$ . Let  $\beta = \{\alpha\}^r$  for some integer  $r$ .
- Therefore,  $\beta^{q-1} = (\{\alpha\}^r)^{q-1} = \{\alpha\}^{r(q-1)} = (\alpha^q)^r = 1^r = 1$  because,  $(\alpha^q)^r = 1$ .
- Hence,  $\beta$  is a zero of  $x^{q-1} - 1$ . This is true for any non zero element  $\beta$ .
- Hence,  $x^{q-1} - 1 = (x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2) \dots (x - \beta_{q-1})$ .
- Example:** Consider the field GF(5). The non zero elements of this field are {1, 2, 3, 4}. Therefore, we can write
 
$$x^4 - 1 = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4).$$



So let  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots$  and so forth up to  $\beta_{q-1}$  denote the nonzero field elements of  $GF(q)$ . Then what we have is  $x^{q-1}-1$ , if you take this one it can be factorized as  $(x-\beta_1)(x-\beta_2)$  so on and so forth till  $(x-\beta_{q-1})$ . What is the proof? The set of nonzero elements of  $GF(q)$  is a finite group under the operation of multiplication. Let  $\beta$  be any nonzero element of the field then it can be represented as a power of the primitive element  $\alpha$ . So what does it mean, we can say that  $\beta$  is  $\alpha$  raised to power  $r$  for some integer  $r$  because  $\alpha$  is the primitive element. Therefore  $\beta$  raised to power  $q-1$  is  $\alpha$  raised to power  $r$  whole raised to power  $q-1$  can be represented like that is equal to one raised to power  $r$  is one because  $\alpha$  raised to power  $q-1$  is 1. We have seen in the previous example that  $\alpha$  raised to power  $q$  is 8, minus one will ultimately come down to one. It'll look through all the elements and  $\alpha$  raised to power  $q$  minus one will be one.

Hence  $\beta$  is a zero of  $x^{q-1}-1$  and this is true for any nonzero element  $\beta$ , hence we can write  $x^{q-1}-1$  as the product of  $(x-\beta_1)(x-\beta_2)$  so and so forth till  $(x-\beta_{q-1})$ . So if you consider the  $GF(5)$  you can close your eyes and simply write as  $x^4-1$ ,  $q$  is 5 so  $q-1$  is 4 as  $(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)$  and  $(x-4)$ . Now let's go back to our problem because why are we taking this mathematical detour. We are trying to find easier ways to factorize  $x^n-1$  and also try to see if you can come up with a constructive technique for coming up with  $g(x)$  with certain desirable properties.

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### Factorizing $x^n - 1$

- In order to find the generator polynomials for cyclic codes of blocklength  $n$ , we have to first factorize  $x^n - 1$ .
- Thus  $x^n - 1$  can be written as the product of its  $p$  prime factors
 
$$x^n - 1 = f_1(x) f_2(x) f_3(x) \dots f_p(x).$$
- Any combination of these factors can be multiplied together to form a generator polynomial  $g(x)$ .
- If the prime factors of  $x^n - 1$  are distinct, then there are  $(2^p - 2)$  different non-trivial cyclic codes of blocklength  $n$ .

What are those desirable properties? The number of errors, the code can correct per block because the strong or weak code depends on how many errors it can correct and that depends on the minimum distance of the code. What we want to do is having got some kind of a constructive technique, can we pre specify how many errors the code generated by the generator polynomial can correct. So we know in order to find the generator polynomials for cyclic codes and BCH code forms a subclass of cyclic codes we have to first factorize  $x^n-1$ . Now  $x^n-1$  can be written as a product of  $p$  prime factors like this, any combination of these factors can be multiplied together for a generator polynomial  $g(x)$ .

We have done a previous example where we had taken to factorize this and then come up with. The question is can we directly write this factorization from the mathematical tools we have developed. If the prime factors are  $x^n-1$  are distinct then there are  $2^p-2$  different non-trivial cyclic codes for block length  $n$ , this you have seen earlier.

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### Definitions

- A blocklength  $n$  of the form  $n = q^m - 1$  is called a **primitive block length** for a code over  $GF(q)$ .
- A cyclic code over  $GF(q)$  of primitive blocklength is called a **primitive cyclic code**.
- The field  $GF(q^m)$  is an extension field of  $GF(q)$ . Let the primitive block length  $n = q^m - 1$ . Consider the factorization
 
$$x^n - 1 = x^{q^m - 1} - 1 = f_1(x)f_2(x)\dots f_p(x)$$
 over the field  $GF(q)$ . This factorization will also be valid over the extension field  $GF(q^m)$  because the addition and multiplication tables of the subfield forms a part of the tables of the extension field.
- It is possible to factor  $x^{q^m - 1} - 1 = \prod_j (x - \beta_j)$

So let's go over the basic definitions. A block length  $n$  of the form  $n = q^m - 1$  is called the primitive block length for a code over  $GF(q)$ . This definition is particularly important from the perspective of BCH code. So a special block length, what is it? It is  $q$  raised to power an integer  $m-1$ , so if  $q$  is 3 and  $m$  is 2 so  $n$  can be  $3^2 - 1 = 8$ . A cyclic code over  $GF(q)$  of primitive block length is called primitive cyclic code. The field  $GF(q^m)$  is an extension field of  $GF(q)$ . For this let the primitive block length  $n$  be equal to this one (Refer Slide Time: 23:20). So we consider the following factorization  $x^n - 1$  this has been our most famous polynomial  $x^n - 1$  which has to be factorized in order to get the generator polynomials. Now  $n$  clearly is of the type  $q^m - 1$ . So I substitute it here and this can be represented say as  $f_1(x)$  times  $f_2(x)$  so on so forth till  $f_p(x)$ .

This factorization will also be valid over the extension field that we have just generated  $GF(q^m)$  because the addition and multiplication tables of the sub field form a part of the tables of the extension field. This is an important observation that the sub field tables, so if you talk about the sub field as  $GF(2)$  and extension field as  $GF(4)$  then you will see that the addition and multiplication table for  $GF(4)$  contain within itself the addition and multiplication tables of  $GF(2)$ . Since this is valid then you can write one possible factorization  $x^n - 1$  and substituting  $n$  for  $q^m - 1$  minus one as nothing but the products over  $j$   $x$  raise to power minus  $\beta_j$ . So we have a direct way of factorizing.

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## Minimal Polynomial

- If  $f(x)$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\beta$ , then it is also the minimal polynomial of the elements in the set
 
$$\{\beta, \beta^q, \beta^{q^2}, \dots, \beta^{q^{r-1}}\}$$
 where  $r$  is the smallest integer such that  $\beta^{q^r} = \beta$
- This set is called the **set of conjugates**.
- The elements in the set of conjugates are all the zeros of  $f(x)$ .
- Hence, the minimal polynomial of  $\beta$  can be written as
 
$$f(x) = (x - \beta)(x - \beta^q)(x - \beta^{q^2}) \dots (x - \beta^{q^{r-1}})$$

What are minimal polynomials? In order to find the generator polynomials for the cyclic codes of block length  $n$ , we have to first factorize  $x^n - 1$ . We have seen it can be written as the product of  $p$  polynomials and any combination can give you a factor. The smallest degree polynomial with coefficients in the base field  $GF(q)$  that has a zero in the extension field,  $GF(q^m)$  is called the minimum of  $\beta$ . We are talking about a smallest degree polynomial where the coefficients are in the base field  $GF(q)$  but that is a zero in the extension field. It must have a zero because we intend to factorize it as  $(x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2)$  and so forth.

Let us consider an example, consider a sub field  $GF(2)$  and its extension field  $GF(8)$ . Here clearly  $q = 2$  and that integer  $m = 3$  hence we have  $q^m$  is  $2^3$  which is 8. The factorization in the sub field or the extension field yields  $x^7 - 1$ , 7 is the primitive block length is nothing but  $(x - 1)(x^3 + x + 1)(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$  but next consider the elements of the extension field of  $GF(8)$ . These are the following, these element if you remember we had just constructed from  $GF(2)$  using modulo operation, modulo operation over primitive polynomial which was the primitive polynomial  $x^3 + x + 1$ . Therefore we can write very conveniently the factorization  $x^7 - 1$  is nothing but  $(x - 1)(x - z)(x - z^{-1})$  and so and so forth till  $(x - z^6 - z^{-1})$ . That is  $(x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2)(x - \beta_3)$  and so and so forth. What is magical is when you multiply this out all the terms, all the  $z$  terms will cancel out and you will be left simply with  $x^7 - 1$ .

Now if this is true then we already have a very elegant way to pick and choose the factors and also create a cyclic code as strong as we want. Clearly if we have more number of factors in my  $g(x)$  the highest power of  $g(x)$  increases that is  $n - k$  increases because the degree  $g(x)$  is  $n - k$ . So if  $n - k$  increases we are putting in more and more redundancy. You can build stronger and stronger codes, exactly how strong; we'll just mention. If  $f_x$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\beta$  then it is also the minimal polynomial of the elements in the set  $\beta, \beta^q, \beta^{q^2}$  and so and so forth. This can be shown where  $r$  is the smallest integer such that  $\beta^{q^r} = \beta$ .

It's a property this set is called the set of conjugates; the elements in the set of conjugates are all zeros of  $f(x)$ . Hence the minimal polynomial of  $\beta$  can simply be written as  $f(x)$  is equal to  $(x-\beta)(x-\beta^q)$  so and so forth till  $(x-\beta^{q^r})$  minus one).

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### Generator polynomial for BCH Codes

- We know that  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $x^n - 1$ .
- Therefore, the generator polynomial of a cyclic code can be written in the form
 
$$g(x) = \text{LCM} [f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_p(x)]$$
 where,  $f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_p(x)$  are the minimal polynomials of the zeros of  $g(x)$ .
- Each minimal polynomial corresponds to a zero of  $g(x)$  in an extension field.
- We can design good codes (i.e., determine the generator polynomials) with desirable zeros using this approach.

Now we come back to our BCH codes and try to think of a way to create generator polynomials for BCH codes. Again it is a cyclic code, we have to have a factorization of  $x^n-1$  but this time we'll put a constraint on  $n$ , it cannot be any arbitrary block length, it has to be primitive block length. So what we do is we can write  $g(x)$  as a generator polynomial is simply the LCM, the least common multiple of  $f_1(x), f_2(x)$  so and so forth till  $f_p(x)$  where  $f_1(x), f_2(x)$  and so and so forth till  $f_p(x)$  are the minimal polynomials of the zeros of  $g(x)$ . We have established this, so each minimal polynomial corresponds to zero of  $g(x)$  in an extension field. We can design good codes that determine the generator polynomials with the desirable zeros using this approach.

So with the primitive block length  $n$  is equal  $q^m-1$ , choose a prime polynomial of degree  $m$  and construct  $GF(q^m)$ . Let us now look at the recipe for getting the generator polynomial for any BCH code. We start with a primitive block length because the factorization that we have talked about holds good only for this special block lengths. Choose a prime polynomial of degree  $m$  and construct  $GF(q^m)$  so keep in the back of your mind that we are constructing for example  $GF(8)$  from  $GF(2)$  where  $q$  is 2 and  $m=3$ . Find  $f_i(x)$  the minimal polynomial of an  $\alpha^i$  for  $i=1, 2, 3, 4$  up to  $p$ . The generator polynomial for the  $t$  error correcting code is then simply given by LCM  $f_1(x)$  times  $f_2(x)$  up to  $f_{2t}(x)$ .

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### Generator polynomial for BCH Codes

- For a primitive blocklength  $n = q^m - 1$ :
- Choose a prime polynomial of degree  $m$  and construct  $GF(q^m)$ .
- Find  $f_i(x)$ , the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha^i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, p$ .
- The generator polynomial for the  $t$  error correcting code is simply
 
$$g(x) = \text{LCM} [f_1(x) f_2(x), \dots, f_p(x)].$$
- Codes designed in this manner can correct at least  $t$  errors. In many cases the codes will be able to correct more than  $t$  errors. For this reason,
  - $d = 2t + 1$
  - is called the **designed distance** of the code, and the minimum distance  $d^8 \geq 2t + 1$ .

Codes designed in this manner can correct at least  $t$  errors that is we have a recipe for coming up with a generator polynomial that give us a cyclic code which is BCH which can correct at least  $t$  errors, you can come up with a generator polynomial which can over do the design, it can correct more than  $t$  errors but it will guarantee you that will correct at least  $t$  errors. For this reason  $d = 2t + 1$  is also called the designed distance of the code and the minimum distance  $d^8$  could be less than this one. So you can over design your code using this technique.

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### Example: BCH Codes

- Consider the primitive polynomial
 
$$p(z) = z^4 + z + 1$$
 over  $GF(2)$ .
- We shall use this to construct the extension field  $GF(16)$ .
- Let  $\alpha = z$  be the primitive element.

Powers of $\alpha$	Elements of $GF(16)$	Minimal Polynomials
$\alpha^0$	$z$	$x^4 + x + 1$
$\alpha^2$	$z^2$	$x^4 + x + 1$
$\alpha^4$	$z^4$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^8$	$z^8$	$x^4 + z + 1$
$\alpha^1$	$z^1$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^3$	$z^3$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^5$	$z^5$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^7$	$z^7$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^9$	$z^9$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^{11}$	$z^{11}$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^{13}$	$z^{13}$	$x^4 + z^2 + 1$
$\alpha^{15}$	$1$	$x + 1$

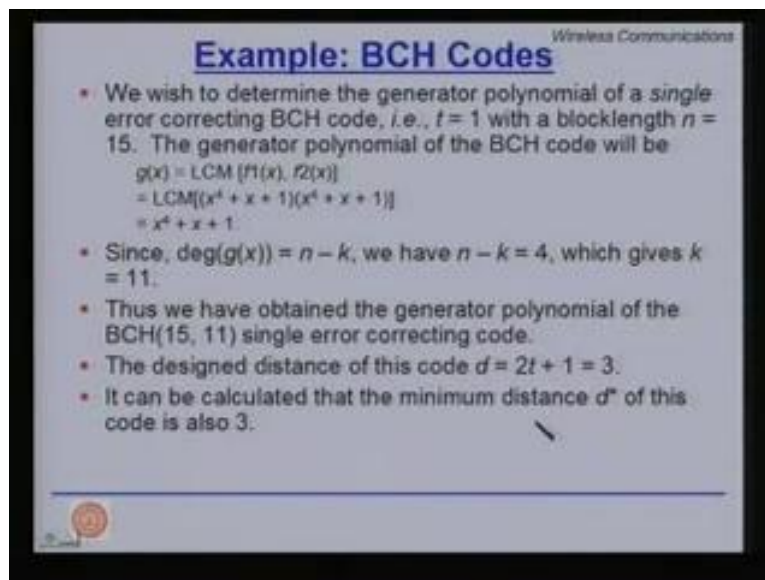
Let's look at an example. We have to start with the primitive polynomial let's say a primitive polynomial is  $z^4 + z + 1$  over  $GF(2)$ .



Quickly check that it is a prime polynomial because you cannot factorize it and its monic. We shall use it to construct the extension field GF (16) this time. Clearly I can construct with an appropriate choice of a primitive polynomial any extension field. So GF (2) is the base field and GF (16) is the extension field, let  $\alpha = z$  be the primitive element then you take powers of  $\alpha$  and keep on taking modulo  $p(z)$ . So  $\alpha = z$ ,  $\alpha^2 = z^2$ ,  $\alpha^3 = z^3$  but the moment you have  $\alpha^4 = z^4$  what you do is take modulo of this one so we will get  $z+1$ . Again  $\alpha^5$  is  $z^2 + z$  and so and so forth. Again please note  $\alpha^{15}$  will give you one.

On the right hand side of the table we have the corresponding minimal polynomials. So what is interesting to note is that minimal polynomials are not unique, see you have an  $x^4+x+1$  here then again you have  $x^4+x+1$  for  $\alpha^2$  and then for  $\alpha^4$  again you have the same thing and magically for  $\alpha^8$  again you have this. Consider  $\alpha^3$  you have this term which is all the powers of  $x^4+x^3+x^2+x+1$  but it occurs for  $\alpha^3$ , again it occurs for  $\alpha^6$  then again it occurs for  $\alpha^9$  and again it occurs for  $\alpha^{12}$ . These are definite pattern, the pattern we observed last time  $\beta$ ,  $\beta^2$  and so and so forth.

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So now let us look at an example of constructing the generator polynomial for a particular BCH code. Here let us start with a block length  $n = 15$  and we wish to construct a single error correcting code that is  $t = 1$  then the generator polynomial for the BCH code can be written as  $g(x)$  is equal LCM of  $f_1(x)$ ,  $f_2(x)$  so and so forth till  $f_{2t}(x)$  but  $t = 1$  so we stop at  $f_2$ . Clearly it is LCM for  $f_1(x)$  and  $f_1(x)$  but from the previous example what we have seen is  $f_1(x)$  and  $f_2(x)$  are identical. So this LCM comes to our rescue and we just retain one of them  $x^4 + x + 1$  simple, this is our generator polynomial. We have just found the generator polynomial of a single error correcting code. Now please observe the following, the degree of  $g(x)$  is  $n - k$  but here  $n - k$  is 4 which gives  $k = 11$ . Why,  $n = 15$  the starting point thus we have obtained the generator polynomial for the BCH (15, 11) single error correcting code.



The designed distance of this code is  $2t + 1 = 3$ , it can be also calculated the minimum distance of this code also happens to be 3. If the minimum distance is 3 it is definitely a single error correcting code. In this case the designed distance is actually equal to the minimum distance of the code. Let us now become more ambitious and say no we are not happy with  $t = 1$  but I wanted double error correcting code.

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### Example: BCH Codes

- Next, we wish to determine the generator polynomial of a double error correcting BCH code, i.e.,  $t = 2$  with a blocklength  $n = 15$ .
- The generator polynomial of the BCH code will be
 
$$g(x) = \text{LCM} [f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x), f_4(x)]$$

$$= \text{LCM} [(x^4 + x + 1)(x^4 + x + 1)(x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)]$$

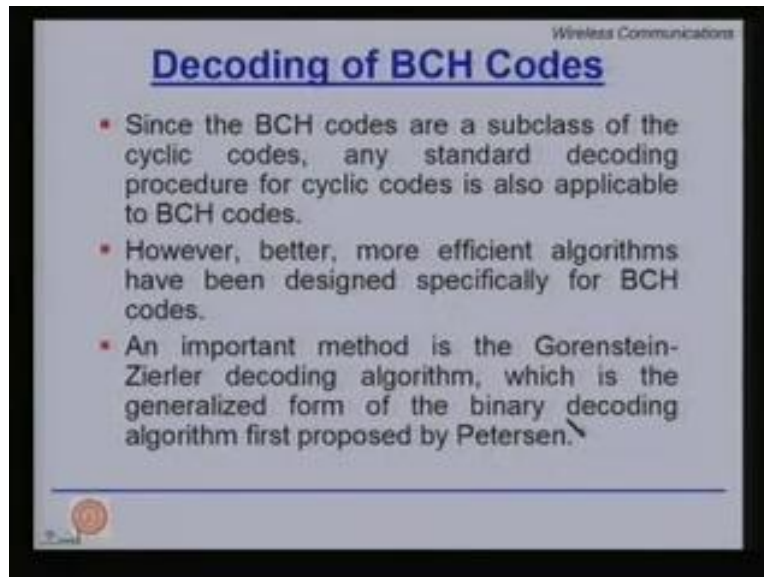
$$= (x^4 + x + 1)(x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)$$

$$= x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + 1$$
- Since,  $\deg(g(x)) = n - k$ , we have  $n - k = 8$ , which gives  $k = 7$ .
- The designed distance of this code  $d = 2t + 1 = 5$ .
- It can be calculated that the minimum distance  $d^*$  of this code is also 5.

It should be able to correct two random errors within the block length  $n=15$ . To do so we carry out the same exercise but this time  $g(x)$  is LCM  $f_1(x)$ ,  $f_2(x)$ ,  $f_3(x)$  and  $f_4(x)$ . Again we take the primitive polynomials like this, take the LCM and after the product we find  $x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + 1$  as the  $g(x)$ . Again the degree  $g(x) = n - k$  is equal to 8 in this case which gives us  $k = 7$  because  $n=15$  this means we have been able to design a 15, 7 code. The design distance of this code is 5 and it can be also seen that the minimum distance is also 5. However if you keep on proceeding beyond  $t = 4$  you will see that the design distance exceeds the minimum distance that is you will start over designing your code.

Now the other part of any good coding scheme is how efficient you can make the decoder. Fortunately very fast algorithms exist for decoding BCH codes. It should be remembered that's since BCH codes are a subclass of cyclic codes which are subclass of linear block codes, any of the previous decoding techniques will work but we have better more efficient algorithms that have been designed specifically for the BCH codes looking at the structures. An important method is the Gorenstein-Zierler algorithm which is the generalized form of the binary decoding algorithm which was first proposed by Petersen.

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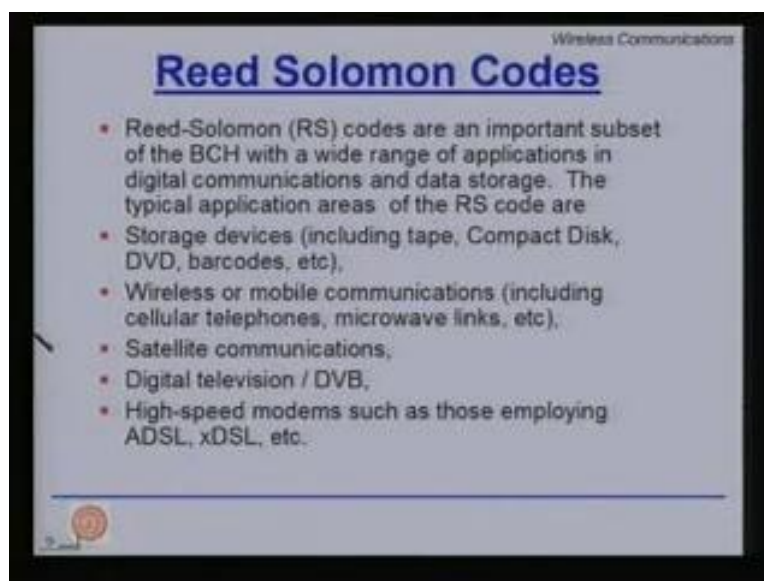
## Decoding of BCH Codes

- Since the BCH codes are a subclass of the cyclic codes, any standard decoding procedure for cyclic codes is also applicable to BCH codes.
- However, better, more efficient algorithms have been designed specifically for BCH codes.
- An important method is the Gorenstein-Zierler decoding algorithm, which is the generalized form of the binary decoding algorithm first proposed by Petersen.

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Now let us go into subclass of BCH codes called the Reed Solomon codes or the famous RS codes. RS codes are an important sub set of the BCH codes with a wide range of applications in digital communications as well as in data storage. The typical application areas of RS codes are storage devices including tapes, your music CD's, DVD's, barcodes, wireless and mobiles communications cell phones and microwave links, satellite communications, digital TV, high speed modems. Let us talk more about the Reed Solomon codes, the payoff is a coding system based on groups of bits such as bytes rather than the individual zeros and ones. Here we are actually looking at non-binary codes.

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## Reed Solomon Codes

- Reed-Solomon (RS) codes are an important subset of the BCH with a wide range of applications in digital communications and data storage. The typical application areas of the RS code are
- Storage devices (including tape, Compact Disk, DVD, barcodes, etc),
- Wireless or mobile communications (including cellular telephones, microwave links, etc),
- Satellite communications,
- Digital television / DVB,
- High-speed modems such as those employing ADSL, xDSL, etc.

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## Reed Solomon Codes

- The payoff is a coding system based on groups of bits, such as bytes, rather than individual 0s and 1s.
- That feature makes Reed-Solomon codes particularly good at dealing with *bursts* of errors: six consecutive bit errors, for example, can affect at most two bytes.
- Thus, even a double-error-correction version of a Reed-Solomon code can provide a comfortable safety factor.
- Current implementations of Reed-Solomon codes in CD technology are able to cope with error bursts as long as 4000 consecutive bits.

If we are now talking about symbols and each symbol represents a set of bits then if you can even make a single symbol error correcting code then eventually you can correct all the burst errors embedded therein because correcting one symbol amounts to correcting all the errors within that symbol but one symbol represents several bits in succession. So we are actually come up with a very strong burst error correcting code naturally. This feature makes the Reed Solomon codes particularly good at dealing with bursts errors, 6 consecutive bit errors for example can affect at most two bytes. Thus even a double error correcting version of a Reed Solomon code can provide a comfortable safety margin that is the inherent advantage. The disadvantage of codes is you have to work in higher Galois fields. The current implementations of RS codes in CD technology are able to cope up with error bursts as long as 4000 consecutive bits.

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## Reed Solomon Codes

- In this sub-class of BCH codes, the symbol field  $GF(q)$  and the error locator field  $GF(q^m)$  are the same, i.e.,  $m = 1$ . Thus, in this case
$$n = q^m - 1 = q - 1.$$
- The minimal polynomial of any element  $\beta$  in the same field  $GF(q)$  is
$$f_\beta(x) = x - \beta.$$
- Since the symbol field (sub-field) and the error locator field (extension field) are the same, all the minimal polynomials are linear. The generator polynomial for a  $t$  error correcting code will be
$$g(x) = \text{LCM}\{f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_{2t}(x)\} \\ = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha^2) \dots (x - \alpha^{2t-1})(x - \alpha^{2t}).$$
- Hence, the degree of the generator polynomial will always be  $2t$ . Thus, the RS code satisfies
$$n - k = 2t.$$

So in this subclass of BCH codes, the symbol field  $GF(q)$  and the error locator field  $GF(q^m)$  are one and the same. That is we are dealing with  $m=1$  so the base field and the extension field that we are talking about for so long are one and the same but in order to make this thing effective I should start with a large value of  $q$ . So let's put  $n=q^m-1$  is nothing but  $q-1$  here. The minimal polynomials of any element  $\beta$  in the same field  $GF(q)$  is given by  $f_{\beta}(x) = x - \beta$ . Since the symbol field which is the sub field and the error locator field which is the extension field are one and the same.

All the minimal polynomials are linear, hence the generator polynomial for  $t$  error correcting code in this case can be simply written as this, which is true for BCH codes you go from  $f_1, f_2$  up to  $f_{2t}$  but here again we have a very simple linear product  $(x - \alpha)(x - \alpha^2)$  so and so forth till  $(x - \alpha^{2t})$ , a really very simple generator polynomial for Reed Solomon codes. Hence the degree of the generator polynomial will always be **2 raise to power t**. So you can always comment upon the degree of the generator polynomial, hence  $n-k$  is  $2t$  why, because the degree of  $g(x)$  is  $n-k$ .

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### Example

- Consider the double error correcting RS code of blocklength 15 over  $GF(16)$ . Here  $t = 2$ .
- We use here the elements of the extension field  $GF(16)$  constructed from  $GF(2)$  using the primitive polynomial  $p(z) = z^4 + z + 1$ . The generator polynomial can be written as
 
$$g(x) = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha^2)(x - \alpha^4)(x - \alpha^8)$$

$$= x^4 + (z^2 + z^2 + 1)x^3 + (z^2 + z^2)x^2 + z^3x + (z^2 + z + 1)$$

$$= x^4 + (\alpha^{13})x^3 + (\alpha^6)x^2 + (\alpha^3)x + \alpha^{10}$$
- Here  $n - k = 4$ , which implies  $k = 11$ .
- Thus we have obtained the generator polynomial of a RS(15, 11) code over  $GF(16)$ .
- Note that this coding procedure takes in 11 symbols (equivalent to  $4 \times 11 = 44$  bits) and encodes them into 15 symbols (equivalent to 60 bits).

Let's look at an example. Consider the double error correcting Reed Solomon code of block length 15 over  $GF(16)$ . Please note  $m$  is 1 so  $q$  is 16 so  $q-1$  is 15, as we have seen in the previous case  $n = q^m - 1$ ,  $q$  is 16,  $q-1$  is 15. So your block length is 15 that we are talking about. Now we use here the elements of the extension field  $GF(16)$  constructed from  $GF(2)$  using the primitive polynomial  $z^4 + z + 1$ . We have done this just before so the generator polynomial can be written as  $(x - \alpha)(x - \alpha^2)(x - \alpha^4)(x - \alpha^8)$ . Why because  $t=2$  so the maximum power of  $\alpha$  is  $2t$  is equal to 4 as simple as this, we immediately have the generator polynomial. We have to expand it out and get a standard polynomial, so if you multiply it out you get this and if you solve this and try to write it in this form you get this one. Please note we are working in  $GF(16)$ , we have all the elements  $\alpha$  one,  $\alpha$  squared,  $\alpha$  cubed and so and so forth. So you have these representations.

My generator polynomial will have coefficients taken from GF (16) which that the field I am working on but please note by definition  $g(x)$  must be monic. So the coefficients of the highest power of  $x$  is unity and rest of the coefficients are drawn from GF (16) because these are the elements of each power of alpha is some element of GF (16) since alpha is a primitive element of GF (16). Here  $n-k$  is 4 highest power which implies  $k = 11$  why, because  $n = 15$ . Thus we have obtained the generator polynomial of a RS (15, 11) code over GF (16). So clearly this a non binary code, note that the coding procedure takes 11 symbols not bits so it's (15, 11) but it's not dealing with bits its dealing with symbols but we are over GF (16) so each symbol is 4 bits. So we take in 44 bits and throws out 15 symbols which is equivalent to 60.

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### Properties of RS Code

- A Reed Solomon code is a maximum distance separable (MDS) code and its minimum distance is  $n - k + 1$ .
- **Proof :** Let the designed distance of the RS code be  $d = 2t + 1$ . The minimum distance  $d^*$  satisfies the condition
 
$$d^* \geq d = 2t + 1.$$
- But, for an RS code,  $2t = n - k$ . Hence,
 
$$d^* \geq d = n - k.$$
- But, by the Singleton bound for any linear code,
 
$$d^* \leq n - k.$$
- Thus  $d^* = n - k + 1$  and the minimum distance  $d^* = d$ , the designed distance of the code.

Some properties of RS code, a Reed Solomon code is a maximum distance separable code and its minimum distance is  $n-k+1$ . Why? Let the designated distance which is designed for RS code be  $d = 2t+1$  then the minimum distance  $d^*$  satisfied the condition  $d^*$  which is greater than or equal to  $2t+1$ , we know this from basic linear block code theory but for Reed Solomon code we have just seen using the power of  $g(x)$  the degree of  $g(x)$ ,  $n-k=2t$ . Hence  $d^*$  greater than  $d = 2t$  is replaced by  $n-k$  but by singleton bound for any linear code  $d^*$  must be less than or equal to  $n-k$ , using these two upper bound and lower bound we have been able to say the  $d^*$  star is exactly equal to  $n-k + 1$  for any Reed Solomon code.



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### Example: RS Code parameters

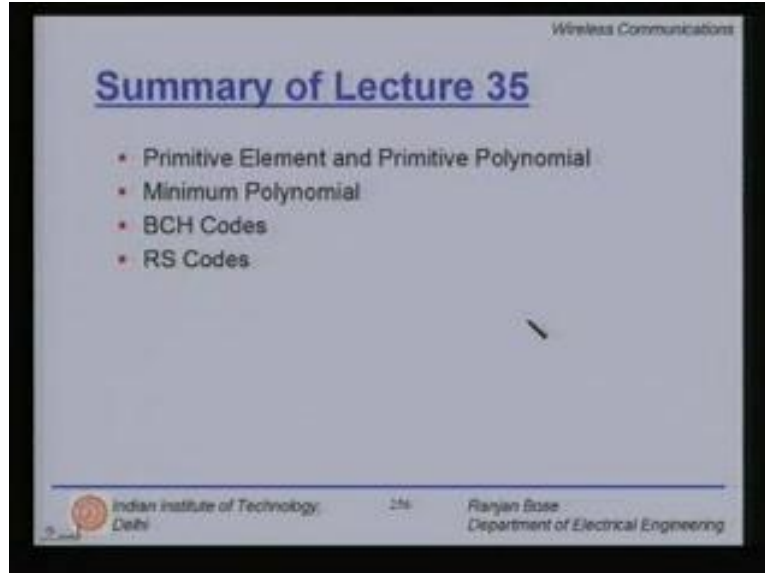
$m$	$q=2^m$	$n=q-1$	$t$	$k$	$d^*$	$r=k/n$
2	4	3	1	1	3	0.3333
3	8	7	1	5	3	0.7143
			2	3	5	0.4286
			3	1	7	0.1429
4	16	15	1	13	3	0.8667
			2	11	5	0.7333
			3	9	7	0.6000
			4	7	9	0.4667
			5	5	11	0.3333
			6	3	13	0.2000
			7	1	15	0.0667
5	32	31	1	29	3	0.9355
			5	21	11	0.6774
			8	15	17	0.4839
8	256	255	5	245	11	0.9608
			15	225	31	0.8824
			50	155	101	0.6078

This table shows some standard Reed Solomon code parameters, please note here we have this  $m$ , second column we have  $q$  which is  $2^m$  and here is the block length. Again this column represents the number of errors that code can correct and here is the  $k$  and the  $d^*$  minimum distance. Finally the measure of the efficiency of the code which is  $k$  over  $n$  which is the code rate. So pick for example  $m=4$  and you are talking about  $q=16$  for  $n=15$  if we just talk about a single error correcting code, you have a fairly high code rate. We know that the code rate is less than one but if you go much closer to one, you get a more efficient code.

At the same time if you move down the table and if you are at  $m=8$  that is your working at 256 GF ( $q$ ) is equal to GF (256) and your block length is 255 then you can have  $t=5$  error correcting code but the code rate being very close to 1.96. So you have a five error correcting code and please note this is the symbol, the five symbols can be corrected. So RS codes form a very efficient yet powerful class of cyclic codes, this is the power of Reed Solomon codes.

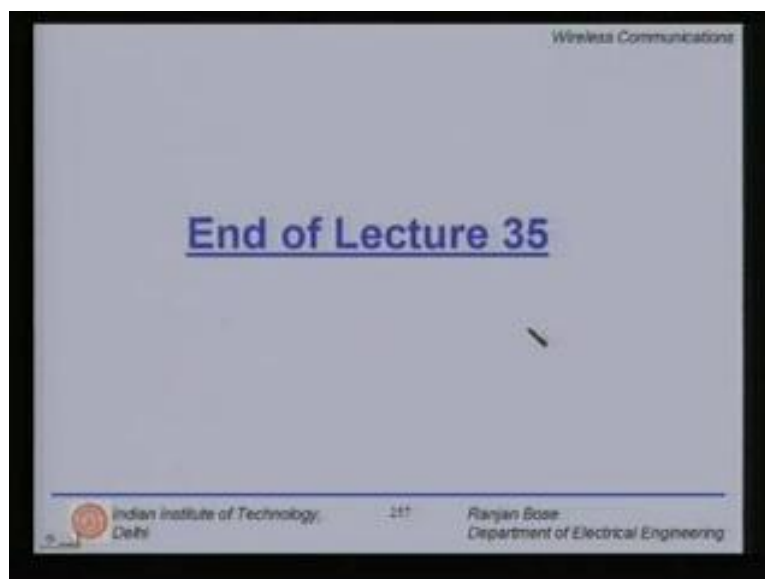


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Let us now summarize today's lecture we started off with a mathematical detour and we talked about the primitive element and the primitive polynomial. Then we discussed the definition and the implications of minimal polynomial, we then discussed BCH codes, how to construct BCH codes followed by the famous Reed Solomon codes.

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We will conclude our lecture here and in the subsequent lectures will talk about codes with memory that is convolutional codes.  
Thank you.