

**AUTOMATIC RECOGNITION AND CLASSIFICATION**  
**OF FORWARD ERROR CORRECTING CODES**

**By**

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Automatic Recognition and Classification  
of Forward Error Correcting Codes

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of  
Science in Electrical and Computer Engineering at George Mason University.

by

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .....	vii
ABSTRACT .....	viii
1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Potential Applications of FECC Recognition.....	2
1.2 Problem Statement.....	3
2. Identification Approach .....	6
2.1 Operating Environment Assumptions .....	6
2.1.1 Available Bit Stream and Error Rate.....	6
2.1.2 Available Encoding Formats.....	8
2.1.3 Frame Synchronization.....	9
2.2 Parametric Classification Technique.....	10
2.2.1 FEC Architectures .....	10
2.2.2 FECC Parameters .....	11
2.2.2.1 Code Rate .....	12
2.2.2.2 Galois Fields.....	12
2.2.2.3 Memory.....	13
2.2.2.4 Hamming Distance .....	13
2.2.2.5 Generator Matrix and Polynomials.....	15
2.3 Block Code Identification .....	15
2.3.1 Code Rate Estimation .....	16
2.3.1.1 Distance Techniques.....	17
2.3.1.2 Data Compression Techniques.....	23
2.3.2 Alphabet Size Estimation.....	29
2.3.3 Root Search .....	31
2.3.4 Reconstruction of Cyclic Generator Polynomial .....	36
2.3.5 Binary Cyclic Block Code Classification .....	36
2.3.5.1 Binary BCH Codes.....	38
2.3.5.2 Perfect Binary Codes.....	39
2.3.5.3 Binary CRC Codes.....	41
2.3.6 Binary Noncyclic Block Code Classification .....	41
2.3.7 Nonbinary Cyclic Block Code Classification .....	41
2.3.7.1 Nonbinary BCH Codes.....	42
2.3.7.2 Reed-Solomon Codes .....	42
2.3.8 Nonbinary Noncyclic Block Code Classification .....	43
2.4 Convolutional Code Identification .....	43
2.4.1 Memory Detection .....	45
2.4.1.1 Trellis Histogram Technique.....	46
2.4.1.2 Data Compression Technique .....	49
2.4.2 Reconstruction of Convolutional Generator Polynomials.....	50

2.4.3 Single Input Convolutional Code Classification .....	53
2.4.4 Multiple Input Convolutional Code Classification .....	54
2.5 Areas for Future Study.....	55
3. Implementation of a Prototype FECC Recognition System .....	57
3.1 Development Environment .....	57
3.2 System Processing Overview.....	61
3.3 Algorithm Development and Optimization .....	65
3.3.1 Data Compression via Reduced Row Echelon Form .....	66
3.3.2 Extension Field Root Search .....	67
3.3.2.1 Galois Field Fourier Transform .....	68
3.3.2.2 Extension Field Search Space .....	70
3.3.3 Reconstruction of Cyclic Generator Polynomial from Roots .....	74
3.3.4 Consecutive Root Search.....	75
3.3.5 Memory Detection via Reduced Row Echelon Form.....	76
3.3.6 Reconstruction of Convolutional Generator Polynomials via Data Cancellation .....	80
3.4 Areas for Future Prototype Development and Performance Improvement .....	82
4. Results.....	84
4.1 Test Code Set.....	84
4.2 System Performance Results .....	85
4.2.1 Code Recognition Performance .....	86
4.2.2 System Speed Performance .....	89
5. Summary .....	91
APPENDIX A: Matlab Prototype Source Code .....	94
APPENDIX B: C Source Code .....	121
APPENDIX C: Matlab Data Generation Source Code.....	146
LIST OF REFERENCES .....	155

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1: Trial Code Word Matrix after Reduction for a Binary (7,4) Block Code at $n = 7$ .....	27
2: Trial Code Word Matrix after Reduction for Random Data at $n = 7$ .....	27
3: Trial Code Word Matrix after Reduction for a Binary (7,4) Block Code at $n = 8$ .....	27
4: Trial Code Word Matrix after Reduction for a 64-ary (63,57) Block Code at $q = 64, n = 63$ .....	30
5: Source Code Files for Final Prototype .....	59
6: Source Code Files for Test Signal Generation .....	60
7: Source Code Files for Testing Algorithms .....	60
8: Galois Subfields .....	71
9: Extension Field Coverage Map .....	72
10: Optimal Extension Field Partition .....	73
11: Extension Field Search Lengths .....	73
12: Consecutive Root Search .....	76
13: Test Codes .....	85
14: Recognition Time Trials .....	90

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1: FEC Code Classification Hierarchy.....	9
2: Normalized Distance vs. Code Word Length for (7,4) Hamming Code .....	20
3: Probability Density Function of Golay Code vs. Uncoded Data .....	22
4: Root Search Flowchart.....	35
5: Sequence Permutations for a Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ , $K=3$ Convolutional Code.....	47
6: Trellis Diagram for a Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ , $K=3$ Convolutional Code.....	48
7: Segmentation of a Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ , $K=3$ Convolutional Code Word .....	52
8: Top-Level Flowchart .....	62
9: Convolutional Code Flowchart .....	63
10: Block Code Flowchart .....	65
11: Binary Perfect Code Flowchart .....	65
12: Binary RREF Compression Trials for a Rate $\frac{1}{2}$ , $K = 9$ Convolutional Code .....	75

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

$\alpha$ .....	primitive Galois field element
BCH .....	Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem
CRC .....	Cyclic Redundancy Check
DFT .....	Discrete Fourier Transform
DSP .....	Digital Signal Processing/Processor
$d_{min}$ .....	minimum distance
FEC .....	Forward Error Correcting/Correction
FECC .....	Forward Error Correcting/Correction Code
FFT .....	Fast Fourier Transform
FIR .....	Finite Impulse Response
$G$ .....	generator matrix
$g(x)$ .....	generator polynomial
GF( ) .....	Galois Field
GFFT .....	Galois Field Fourier Transform
IIR .....	Infinite Impulse Response
$k$ .....	encoder input word length
$\lambda$ .....	number of bits per symbol
MEX .....	Matlab Extension
MLSE .....	Maximum Likelihood Sequence Estimation
$n$ .....	encoder output code word length
pdf .....	probability density function
$q$ .....	alphabet size
$r$ .....	redundancy
$R$ .....	code rate
RREF .....	Reduced Row Echelon Form
SNR .....	Signal-to-Noise Ratio
$t$ .....	error correction capacity
TCM .....	Trellis Coded Modulation



## **ABSTRACT**

### **AUTOMATIC RECOGNITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF FORWARD ERROR CORRECTING CODES**

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This paper describes a general methodology for recognizing and classifying Forward Error Correcting (FEC) channel codes without a priori knowledge of the coding scheme or code rate. It also develops specific algorithms for use in a parametric classification framework. Such a framework simplifies the task of identifying an unknown code by searching for parameters which exhibit properties unique to the coded bit stream. Extraction of these features allows an uninformed observer to reverse-engineer the encoder structure and subsequently decode the information bits.

Several basic families of linear block and convolutional codes commonly found in the literature and in practice were addressed. This project was limited in scope to near ideal operating conditions and simple FEC architectures for the purpose of developing efficient

algorithms to reduce the vast search space to a manageable size. A software prototype testbed was implemented to test algorithms and to form the basis for a more sophisticated FEC code recognition system. The main parameters of interest are code rate, alphabet size, generator polynomials, and constraint length, which are estimated primarily based on the features of entropy/redundancy, spectral roots, and memory inherent in the coded bit stream.

The prototype system was tested in an error-free environment for a variety of basic coding schemes, with the focus on cyclic block and single input convolutional codes. The recognition system worked for many unmodified cyclic block codes (e.g., BCH, Reed-Solomon, Golay, CRC) with very few glitches, and all critical parameters were recovered perfectly. All single input convolutional codes were recovered perfectly, with an efficient search method for identifying the generator polynomials. Code rate and constraint length were also successfully recovered for multiple input convolutional codes. The software execution time for identifying most codes was under 30 seconds using a 400 MHz Pentium II PC, but several of the more complex codes took up to 15 minutes.

## **1. Introduction**

This thesis investigates the general problem of recognizing and classifying Forward Error Correcting (FEC) channel codes without a priori knowledge of the coding scheme or code rate. Algorithms and optimized search methods have been developed to identify as many parameters of an unknown FEC encoded signal as possible. This section defines the problem at hand, with brief mention of some areas of application for these algorithms. Then section 2 answers the problem statement by providing a general identification framework based on parametric classification. Coding parameters are defined, as is an operating environment in which the code recognition system must work. Then specific methods are described by which various families of block and convolutional codes may be identified. Open areas for future study are mentioned as a guideline for further research beyond this paper.

Section 3 goes on to describe the implementation of a Forward Error Correcting Code (FECC) recognition system in software. An overview of the Matlab development environment and high-level system processing flowcharts are presented here. Then the key algorithms are described in more detail, including optimization of several time-

consuming functions. Finally, I mention open areas for prototype development work, should this project be continued in the future.

Formal test results are the subject of section 4, which enumerates the set of codes tested and describes the prototype system performance with respect to recognition accuracy and execution speed. The last section briefly summarizes all of the above, with emphasis on the successful results obtained from this project.

## **1.1 Potential Applications of FECC Recognition**

As with modulation recognition, this problem is of interest to regulatory and intelligence organizations whose task is to identify and possibly intercept unknown signals that may violate regulation or pose a security threat. It may also be useful in the world of espionage and counter-espionage, where a structured approach to deciphering intercepted messages may offer substantial improvement over trial-and-error methods. Identifying a specific FEC code is a much easier problem than cracking a modern encryption code, but it is by no means trivial. The methods in this paper are intended to design an efficient search mechanism by which FEC codes may be easily detected in software or hardware, thereby reducing the computational burden and freeing resources to solve other problems.

Other possible applications of FECC recognition involve modem reconfiguration for changing channel conditions, in which a receiver may automatically adapt its FEC decoder

to match the variable coding gain on a broadcast transmission. Also, software radio schemes may be employed where the encoding format can be changed arbitrarily for different purposes. Covert military communication links could benefit from such technology.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

The scope of the FEC code recognition problem lies only in the channel coding layer, and therefore makes the assumption that the unknown signal's modulation type and data rate have been successfully identified and the correctly demodulated bit stream is available.

This assumption also covers any possible spreading techniques that may have been used; the spreading method (e.g., direct sequence, frequency hopped), chip rate, and pseudo-random code have been identified and the signal of interest has been correctly despread. Furthermore, I will not address additional post-processing that may be required to fully decode the message, such as descrambling and decryption.

The problem of FEC code identification involves several different aspects and assumptions. The first general aspect involves classifying the nature of the coding scheme, based on the extraction of several key features. The following questions should be answered accurately, but not necessarily in sequential order:

1. Is the code linear?

2. Has block or non-block (e.g., convolutional) encoding been used?
3. Is the code binary?
4. What are the uncoded input word length  $k$ , coded output word length  $n$ , and code rate  $R = k/n$ ?
5. Is the code systematic?
6. What is the minimum or free distance of the code?
7. Have multiple codes been combined (i.e., parallel or serial concatenation)?
8. Has interleaving been integrated into the channel coding process?

After the code recognizer has made its best attempt to answer those questions, it may begin to identify the exact code or codes used. This aspect involves the determination of generator polynomials or matrix, and constraint length and trellis structure in the case of convolutional codes. Specific to block codes only, it should also be determined if the code is cyclic. Concatenated codes offer a particularly complex problem, since two or more codes must be identified, as well as their relationship in the coding scheme. One or more interleavers are also common in serially concatenated codes and turbo (i.e., parallel concatenated) codes.

My original goal was to develop effective algorithms for classifying FEC codes, based on questions 2 through 6 posed earlier relating to the nature of the coding scheme.

Regarding the first question, it is assumed that all codes to be identified are linear, although this may not always be the case in practice. The last two questions involve

concatenation and interleaving, which are too complex for the scope of my research.

Further identification of cyclic code roots (if applicable) and generator polynomials was attempted based on a global set of ten to twenty strategically chosen codes. Several practical considerations such as punctured and lengthened codes will not be addressed at this time.

## **2. Identification Approach**

Pattern recognition systems often use the concept of feature extraction to help identify signals, images, and the like. A complex object may be easier to identify when broken down into individual features or parameters. For example, man-made objects tend to have a larger percentage of straight edges than objects found in nature, hence this feature may be useful to an image recognition system to help identify buildings, airports, and other constructions. Similarly, coded bit streams have a number of features which are generally not as pronounced in uncoded bit patterns. My code recognition approach takes advantage of parameters which are unique to FEC codes. When possible, features are searched for individually, thus reducing the complexity of the identification algorithms. However, this is not always convenient, and sometimes the most efficient test yields estimates of multiple parameters simultaneously.

### **2.1 Operating Environment Assumptions**

#### **2.1.1 Available Bit Stream and Error Rate**



Any pattern recognition system must make certain assumptions about the operating environment and the number of possible items in the set to be classified. My first operating assumption is that the data source is a discrete memoryless source, and therefore the input bit stream exhibits completely random behavior. This is important to several feature extraction algorithms which must estimate the redundancy introduced by coding; my simulation model assumes maximum entropy in the data source. In practice, data sources are often compressed and/or randomized to maximize the code's effectiveness, so this is a realistic assumption.

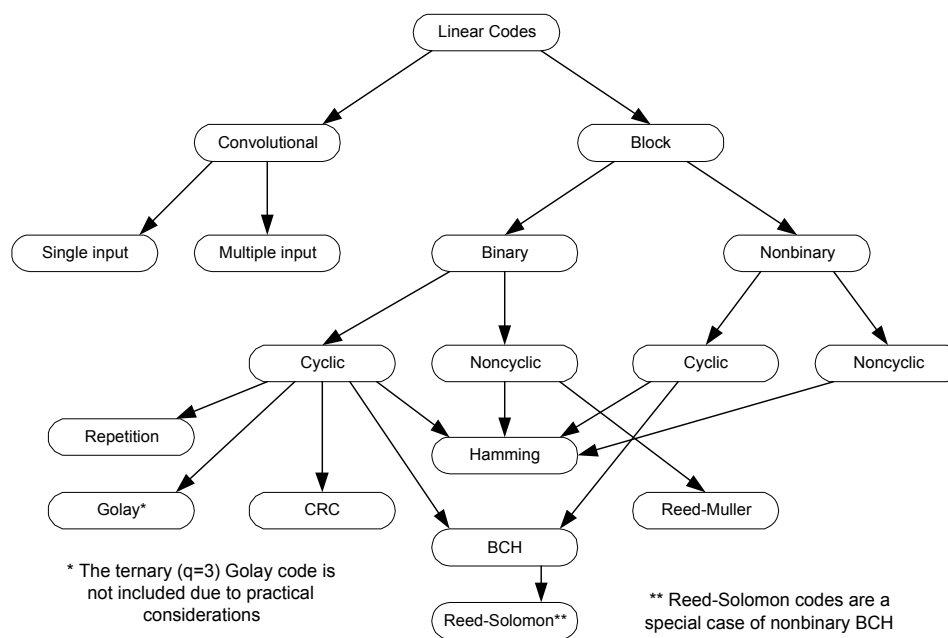
My second major assumption is that the channel conditions, particularly Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) and Inter-Symbol Interference (ISI), are sufficient to produce an error-free bit stream at the demodulator output prior to FEC decoding. In other words, the received bit stream is the same as the encoder output at the transmitter. This is the best possible scenario for the code identifier, assuming that no a priori information about the coding scheme is available. This case should therefore provide an ideal testbed for development of the basic recognition algorithms, and in practice may be a realistic model for channels which provide an error-free environment for long periods of time. Examples of such a channel are fiber optic links which have a very low bit error rate in general, and satellite links which suffer from noise bursts but are generally error-free between bursts.

### 2.1.2 Available Encoding Formats

The code recognition system must also make an assumption about the number of possible codes available to the encoder. In reality there is an undetermined number of codes in the global set of forward error correction codes, since new coding schemes may be introduced to the set at any time. However, a manageable set of code families have been the focus of research and practical implementation since coding theory was born in the 1940s.

Convolutional codes are more common in practice due to ease of implementation (especially decoding), while cyclic block codes have been more popular to research due to their well-defined mathematical structure. My work covers the most common code families found in the literature and major communication systems, including the following linear codes:

- Block codes: Hamming, Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC), Golay, Reed-Muller, Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH), and Reed-Solomon.
- Convolutional codes: Various constraint lengths from  $K = 3$  to 14; rates  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{3}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{2}{3}$ , and  $\frac{3}{4}$ .



**Figure 1: FEC Code Classification Hierarchy**

Figure 1 depicts a generic classification tree for identification of basic linear codes.

Branches terminate at specific code families, and the recognition system may or may not be able to completely classify an encoded signal. Enough information may be derived in either case to successfully decode the received bit stream, depending on what coding parameters are correctly recovered.

### 2.1.3 Frame Synchronization

Finally, it will be assumed that frame synchronization information is available, and therefore the start of the first code word is known. Subsequent code word boundaries, however, must be determined via the code word length  $n$ . This is a realistic assumption

for some burst-mode communications systems, in which a simple uncoded bit pattern may precede the data payload as a preamble to aid receiver tracking loops. Frame synch may be easily identified by the receiver and made available to the code recognizer.

## **2.2 Parametric Classification Technique**

This section describes the basic properties and parameters used to construct and hence classify error-correcting codes. An automatic code recognizer can search for features of an encoded bit stream to estimate what parameters were used to construct the encoder. Then a matching decoder can be used to recover the original message; if the result is not satisfactory the parametric estimation process may be repeated on more data to improve any inaccurate estimates.

### **2.2.1 FEC Architectures**

Forward error correction schemes have several fundamental properties which define the basic FEC subsystem architecture. First, a code may be linear or nonlinear. The majority of research and development has been on linear codes, so the latter will not be addressed in this paper for simplicity. Second, a code may be block-oriented or non-block-oriented (i.e., convolutional), both of which are in common use. A code may also be systematic or

nonsystematic; a systematic encoder duplicates the input word as a complete subset within the output code word, while a nonsystematic encoder does not.

Several codes may be combined in an FEC subsystem, which is referred to as concatenation. Codes may be concatenated in serial or in parallel; examples of the latter include product codes and Turbo codes. Turbo codes derive their power from iterative decoding, in which parallel decoders pass their results to each other in a feedback loop. Due to the complexity of concatenated coding schemes, they will not be investigated. In summary, coding architectures using a single linear nonsystematic block or convolutional code are the focus of my FECC recognition system.

### **2.2.2 FECC Parameters**

Related code parameters can be divided into five major groups, namely code rate, Galois field, memory, distance, and code generation. It is the goal of my code recognition system to estimate these properties by searching for certain features inherent in the encoded bit stream. Features are extracted which indicate the most probable value of one or more parameters. The following five sections provide background information on the key encoder parameter groups.

### 2.2.2.1 Code Rate

The first group includes the input message word length  $k$ , output code word length  $n$ , and the resulting redundancy  $r = n - k$  and code rate  $R = k/n$ . The input message word length  $k$  is the number of symbols input to the encoder at one time to form the output code word of length  $n$  symbols. The redundancy is the number of symbols added by the encoder to provide error-correction capability in the presence of received symbol errors. Code rate describes the efficiency with which information is transferred by a given coding scheme, calculated as the ratio of input (i.e., information) symbols to total (i.e., information plus redundant) symbols.

### 2.2.2.2 Galois Fields

Since coding theory was largely developed from finite field theory, it is no surprise that several code parameters pertain to Galois fields. Encoder input and output symbols are defined over the base field  $GF(q)$ . Hence symbols are defined as integers taken from the set  $\{0, q-1\}$ , where  $q$  is the alphabet size. Each symbol represents  $\lambda = \log_2(q)$  bits of information;  $\lambda$  is a parameter counting the number of bits per symbol. A set of symbols taken from an alphabet of size  $q$  is said to be “ $q$ -ary”. Note that the output code word is

comprised of symbols taken from the same alphabet as the input word for all codes of interest.

Additionally, block codes are constructed from polynomials using field elements taken from some extension field  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ . The parameter  $m$  is the degree of this extension field, which will be required to determine a cyclic code's generator polynomial.

#### **2.2.2.3 Memory**

Specific to convolutional codes, encoder memory is a feature defining the third group. This group contains two parameters called the constraint length  $K$  and memory order  $M$ . Constraint length is the number of consecutive output code words that are dependent on any given input word. Constraint length equals the maximum number of delay elements in any encoder shift register plus one, where each of the  $k$  input symbols in a word has a separate shift register. Encoder memory order equals the total number of delay elements in all encoder shift registers.

#### **2.2.2.4 Hamming Distance**

A fourth group is formed by considering the Hamming distance properties of FEC codes. Hamming distance is the number of symbols by which two words differ, and in general it is desirable to have a large distance between output code words. A particular metric of interest is a code's minimum distance  $d_{min}$ , which is defined as the minimum Hamming distance between any two possible encoder output code words. Minimum distance limits the error correction capacity  $t$  of a code as follows. Any block code designed to correct  $t$  symbol errors in a received code word must have a minimum distance greater than or equal to  $2t+1$ .

Note that these distance parameters must be adapted for convolutional codes, since the discrete code words are very short and are not statistically independent due to memory in the encoder. The error correction power of convolutional codes is measured by  $d_{min}$  or the minimum free distance  $d_{free}$ , depending on the decoding technique used. Minimum distance is defined similar to block codes, except it is based on comparing segments of  $K$  output words instead of single words. Hence the distance is measured between effective words of length  $nK$  bits, and is the appropriate distance metric if the decoder only uses the previous  $nK$  bits to determine the next output bit (e.g., threshold decoding). Minimum free distance is the minimum Hamming distance between any two possible complete encoder output sequences, which is equal to or greater than  $d_{min}$  in practice. This is the appropriate distance metric if the decoder uses the entire received code word sequence to



recover the original message. Error correction performance can be significantly improved in the  $d_{free}$  case at the expense of increased complexity.

#### **2.2.2.5 Generator Matrix and Polynomials**

The last parameter group includes generator polynomials  $g_i(x)$ , and the encoder generator matrix  $G$  and decoder parity check matrix  $H$  for block codes. Generator polynomials are used to generate cyclic block codes and convolutional codes, while a matrix is required for general block codes. The parity check matrix is not used in the code recognition scheme since it may be derived from  $G$  via dual codes, and therefore provides no extra information about the code itself.

### **2.3 Block Code Identification**

Although the final recognition system actually searches for convolutional code parameters first, the first work done relates to block codes. This section presents the winning algorithms used to identify various block codes of interest, and also provides a brief history of techniques that were tried but did not provide the best results. The majority of work done for this project focuses on cyclic codes, due to the intuitive identification approach that is available (described in 2.3.5, 2.3.7, and 3.3.2-4).

For cyclic block codes, complete identification of the code parameters can be achieved in four major steps. First, code rate is estimated using a technique which finds the input length  $k$  by searching a range of values for the coded length  $n$ . Then the alphabet size is determined by searching a range of  $\lambda$  (bits/symbol), given the code rate. Next, a root search is performed to determine the Galois extension field  $\text{GF}(q^m)$  in which the code is defined. Finally, the roots may be used to reconstruct the generator polynomial, completing the code identification process.

For completeness, block codes are divided into four general classes:

- Binary cyclic codes (section 2.3.5)
- Binary noncyclic codes (section 2.3.6)
- Nonbinary cyclic codes (section 2.3.7)
- Nonbinary noncyclic codes (section 2.3.8)

Of these four groups, the third defines the most powerful and widely used block codes.

Fortunately, it is relatively easy to completely specify cyclic block codes using the techniques developed in this paper. Noncyclic codes pose a more challenging problem since they are not generated by a single polynomial, but rather a matrix of basis polynomials. However, the best code rate and alphabet size estimation techniques apply equally well to all four classes.

### **2.3.1 Code Rate Estimation**

Determination of the code rate  $R = k/n$  is the first logical step in specifying a block code. Several techniques have been tested, but all are based on the same general idea. Encoding a bit sequence adds redundant information to aid the intended receiver in correcting symbol errors. However, a tradeoff can be made when there are no (or very few) bit errors present: the inherent redundancy can be measured by the uninformed observer and used to derive the code's rate.

The basic technique used to estimate the intercepted bit stream's entropy is a trial and error approach. This may not sound very efficient, but keep in mind that by using a parametric approach, a trial and error search for each code parameter alone is a vast improvement over trial and error search for the code as a whole. The code word length  $n$  is swept across all reasonable values, and a test is performed at each trial value of  $n$  to estimate the redundancy. Two general types of test have been developed to indicate which value of  $n$  is the correct code word length, assuming the signal is encoded. The first set is based on Hamming distance, and the other is based on data compression.

### **2.3.1.1 Distance Techniques**

Minimum distance is a good property to distinguish a coded bit sequence from an uncoded one, provided that there is enough data to establish meaningful statistics. The first test was implemented as a straightforward search for the binary code word length with the best

minimum distance. A trial length  $n$  is swept from the value 3 to some maximum expected code word size. Three was chosen as a minimum length here because it is the shortest formal error-correcting code word length (i.e.,  $t = 1$  binary repetition code). The maximum search length was chosen on a case-by-case basis during development, with the goal of  $n_{max} = 255$  symbols = 2040 bits at  $q = 256$  (i.e., 8 bits per symbol).

At each trial value of  $n$ , the minimum distance ( $d_{min}$ ) is estimated by calculating the pairwise Hamming distance between  $W$  code words of length  $n$ , and selecting the lowest result (excluding zero). Then after all trial lengths have been run, the maximum value of  $d_{min}$  is found, which should indicate the actual code word length  $n$ . Recall that frame sync is assumed to give the correct starting position of the first code word, so whenever  $n$  is chosen correctly, the length  $n$  blocks align to the actual code words. The entire test is repeated  $M$  times to find a clear winner; a histogram of winning trial values of  $n$  is updated on each pass, and the largest bin is selected afterward as the best estimate of  $n$ .

The parameter  $M$  is chosen based on our confidence in the estimate of  $n$ , while the parameter  $W$  is chosen based on the number of code words in the largest expected code. Ideally, if we observed an encoded bit sequence long enough, eventually we would see all possible code words and could determine  $d_{min}$  exactly. Even if we did not encounter all words in the code, it would still be possible to measure the correct value of  $d_{min}$ , provided that we captured at least one pair of code words separated by the minimum distance. The

likelihood of correctly measuring  $d_{min}$  depends on the distance distribution of the code, which is equivalent to its weight distribution<sup>1</sup>. The total number of code word pairs measured in the complete test is:

$$\binom{W}{2} (n_{max} - 3)M, \quad \text{where } \binom{W}{2} = \frac{W!}{2! (W-2)!}$$

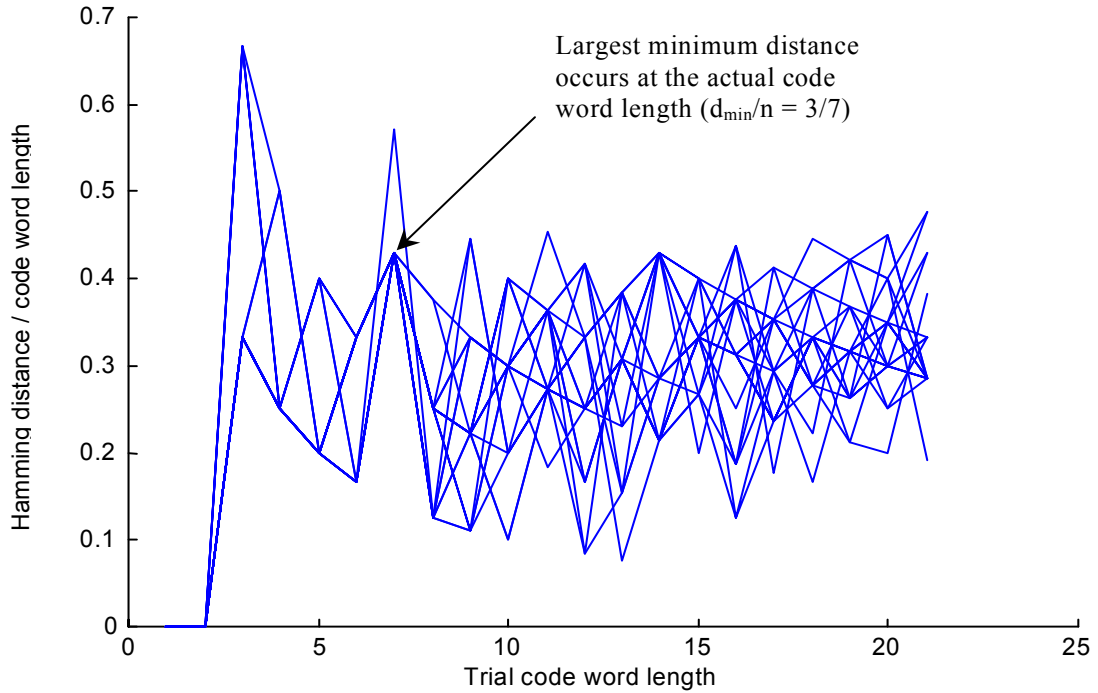
Unfortunately most codes have very few words of weight  $d_{min}$ , so many words must be measured to make an accurate estimate. Compounding the problem, as the input word length  $k$  increases, the number of code words in the set also increases as  $q^k$ . Hence, the complexity of this method increases proportionally to  $q^k n \lambda$ , since this represents the total number of bits in all words in a  $q$ -ary  $(n, k)$  block code. Clearly, large codes such as a (63,57) Reed-Solomon code have far too many words (over  $10^{100}$ ) to make a brute-force search feasible. Note that the search for  $d_{min}$  could be somewhat improved by looking for the code word with minimum nonzero weight instead of measuring distance directly. This would reduce the total number of code word measurements to  $(n_{max} - 3)WM$ , but does not reduce the complexity of the code itself, hence  $W$  must be very large.

The minimum distance technique was tried on two small binary Hamming codes as an experiment. A (7,4) code was able to consistently pass the test with  $W = 5$  words,

---

<sup>1</sup> This can be seen by considering the fact that the modulo- $q$  sum of any two code words, which is equivalent to the distance, yields another code word for any linear block code. Hence, the set of all distance vectors is equivalent to the set of code word vectors themselves, and the distance distribution is therefore equivalent to the weight distribution.

$n_{max} = 3n$ , and  $M = 10$  iterations (total of 1800 distance measurements). But the weakness of this technique became evident even with a simple (15,11) Hamming code, which could not pass at all with the given parameters. Sampling 5 out of 16 total words gave decent results in the first case, but the problem grew exponentially in the second case considering that there are 2048 total words in this code.



**Figure 2: Normalized Distance vs. Code Word Length for (7,4) Hamming Code**

Another more significant improvement to the minimum distance technique was made by estimating the discrete probability density function (p.d.f.) of distance between code words at each trial code word length. Coded bit sequences should exhibit a different p.d.f. from uncoded sequences, which exhibit a binomial density function. Distance between code words is measured as in the previous technique, but now a histogram of the resulting distance between pairs is recorded instead of solely searching for the minimum. The purpose is to highlight the difference from the binomial distribution for all distances. After forming the histogram an error metric is calculated as follows:

$$pdf\ error = \sum_{i=0}^n | histogram(i) - binomial\ pdf(i) |.$$

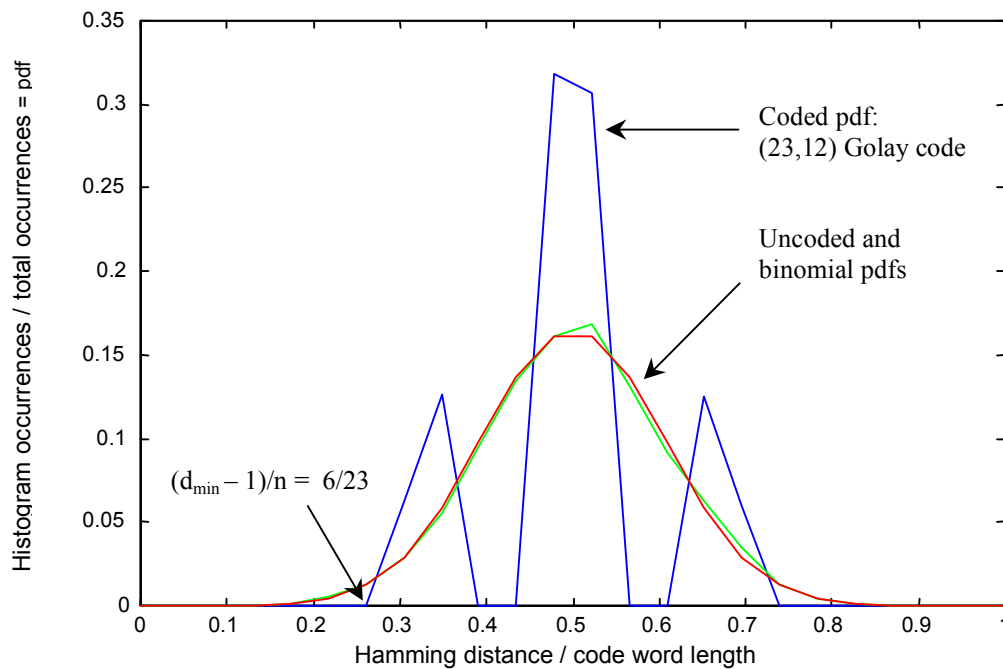
Now the trial length with the greatest error indicates least random structure, and therefore the actual value of  $n$ . Note that the coded p.d.f. is constrained such that there are no distance occurrences below the code's minimum distance. The binomial p.d.f. should closely approximate the distance p.d.f. for randomly selected words, and hence the p.d.f. at incorrect trial word lengths. The binomial density function is defined as follows:

$$\text{Probability of } i \text{ one bits in an } n \text{ bit word} = \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i},$$

where  $p$  is the probability that a given bit equals one (assume  $p = 1/2$ ).

This p.d.f. approach is an improvement because it accurately estimates  $n$  for a given code with less code words than the minimum distance technique. The latter method does not

make use of most of the distance information measured, which is used by the p.d.f. method to further distinguish a coded bit stream from a random one. For some codes, the weight distribution is very different from the binomial, so this approach works well. For instance, Golay codes have a very limited number of code word weights, so the p.d.f. has many zero values making it quite distinct from the bell-shaped binomial distribution. On the down side, large BCH codes have a distribution that is very similar to binomial except for the truncated tails, making it difficult to distinguish the two without sampling a very large number of code words.



**Figure 3: Probability Density Function of Golay Code vs. Uncoded Data**



The total number of code word measurements is similar to the minimum distance technique, the only difference being that the required number of measured code words  $W$  is reduced. However, code size is still the factor which determines whether a trial and error search is feasible or not. Note that code word weight can be substituted in for distance as in the minimum distance technique to reduced complexity somewhat.

Both distance techniques described above provide an estimate of the code word length  $n$ , but they do not inherently provide any indication of the input word length  $k$ . The next section discusses several techniques which do estimate both  $n$  and  $k$  inherently; hence the code rate is derived in a single step. In particular, the last method presented will show that the code rate can be derived using a simple trial and error search over  $n$ , without a high dependency on size of the code.

### **2.3.1.2 Data Compression Techniques**

Recall that FEC encoding adds redundancy to a data source in a controlled manner, and the heart of our code rate estimation problem is to measure the entropy of an encoded data stream. Data compression can be used to remove redundancy, so the obvious approach for estimating entropy is to compress a data stream of sufficient length for the compression algorithm to be effective. Then the resultant ratio of compressed length to uncompressed length should roughly indicate the code rate.

An early attempt was made to compress coded data files using conventional software based on the Lempel-Ziv dictionary compression algorithm. Results were erratic and did not properly estimate the code rate for all but a few cases, even with very large files. The source file was also checked to ensure it met the assumption of maximum entropy, and it did not compress at all, as expected. So the obvious approach was initially abandoned in favor of the distance techniques.

After some more thought, a simple modification was made to the universal dictionary technique to tailor the compression to FEC encoded sources. Universal compression typically uses a variable input word length to construct the dictionary, which does not take advantage of the fact that FEC block codes have a fixed word length and furthermore a constant amount of redundancy from word to word. A fixed word length dictionary can be constructed at each trial value of  $n$ , such that the only trial length to compress significantly is the actual code word length.

This modified dictionary compression technique can be summarized by the following simple procedure:

1. Read an  $n$ -symbol word from the input stream, where  $n$  is the trial code word length;
2. Search the dictionary for this word; if it is not present, then add it to the dictionary;

3. After processing  $W$  input words in this manner, check the dictionary length  $L$ ;
4. If  $L$  is equal or close to  $q^n$  then this was not the actual code word length; if it is significantly less than  $q^n$ , then this should yield the correct value of  $n$  as well as  $k$ ;
5. If  $n$  was found in step 4, then estimate  $k = \log_q(L)$ ;
6. Otherwise repeat for all trial lengths of  $n$  until  $k$  is found;
7. If all trials produce a maximal dictionary length, then assume the source was not FEC encoded.

This compression technique provides the exact value of  $k$  if and only if each word in the code has been encountered. Furthermore, enough repeat words should be processed to build confidence that the algorithm is actually compressing, after an initial stage in which almost every word is added to the dictionary (this is true for any dictionary compression).

This is what allows us to differentiate coded from uncoded maximum entropy sources.

The latter do not compress at all, but may falsely appear to if the dictionary has not been fully established. Hence, the accuracy of  $k$  and the compression reliability are dependent on  $W$ , the number of words processed. Experiments have shown that values of  $W$  on the order of  $q^n$  give a correct estimate for all but very high rate codes, since  $q^k$  is much smaller than  $q^n$ . As the code rate approaches one, less compression is achieved for coded sources, so more words must be processed.

From the preceding arguments one may conclude that the modified dictionary compression method is still highly dependent on code size, as are the distance techniques. However, it does provide a rough estimate of  $k$  even if only a subset of all possible code

words is captured. But once again the computational requirements for complex codes make this technique infeasible, due to the linear dependence on number of code words.

To overcome the implementation problems associated with distance and dictionary compression algorithms for finding code rate, a new method was developed based on matrix reduction. The general idea is to find a basis of the vector space in which the code is defined. Keep in mind that a block encoder generator matrix  $G$  is a set of  $k$  basis vectors which span the vector subspace of dimension  $k$ . Since the basis vectors are linearly independent, all code words are formed as a linear combination of the rows of  $G$ .

A trial and error search for  $n$  may be executed similar to the dictionary compression technique, but instead of building a dictionary of code words at each trial length we perform a matrix reduction. Several well-known algorithms exist to reduce a  $W$ -by- $n$  matrix to its minimal form, known as Reduced Row Echelon Form (RREF). Such a reduction yields a set of  $k$  linearly independent basis vectors for a block coded data stream, or  $n$  basis vectors for a random data source. Therefore, the correct code word length should be the only trial length to compress to significantly fewer than  $n$  words, similar to dictionary compression. The code rate  $k/n$  is derived in a single test. The following example illustrates the difference between coded and uncoded RREF matrices.



0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

The matrix reduction algorithm is superior to the dictionary compression and distance-based techniques since a much smaller percentage of code words is required to achieve an accurate result. Recall that the other methods require  $W$  on the order of  $q^n$  or greater, since they are highly dependent on the code size. This method is dependent on the code's dimension  $k$ , not its size, since we are working with the vector basis instead of the entire vector space. Testing has shown accurate results with  $W$  set to  $2n\lambda$ , for a wide variety of block codes. Note that the matrix reduction is always performed in GF(2) for simplicity, but it works equally well for the nonbinary case if  $q$ -ary code words are left as a  $n\lambda$ -bit sequence.

To illustrate the improvement in efficiency over the other techniques, consider searching for code rate given a (63,57) Reed-Solomon encoded input bit stream. The size of this code is  $64^{57}$  (over  $10^{100}$ ), and at least this many code words must be processed at each trial length using the distance techniques just to find  $n$ . Dictionary compression provides an inherent estimate of  $k$  in addition, but no significant improvement in complexity. Matrix reduction requires only about  $2 \cdot 63 \cdot 6 = 756$  code words at each trial length to correctly deduce the code rate. The RREF process itself involves up to  $W^2$  iterative operations per trial length, versus less than  $WL$  for dictionary compression ( $L \leq W$ ), or  $WM$  for either distance technique (typically  $M \leq 10$ ). Even with this increased processing load relative to

$W$ , the RREF algorithm requires less than  $10^6$  total operations per trial length. RREF matrix reduction is described further in section 3.3.1 since it was the winning algorithm for code rate estimation.

### 2.3.2 Alphabet Size Estimation

Once the code rate has been established, the alphabet size  $q$  can be determined by searching a range of  $\lambda$  (bits/symbol). Since the initial matrix reduction was done in GF(2), the resulting code rate estimation actually represents  $k\lambda/n\lambda$ . We must find  $\lambda$  to determine  $q$ ,  $k$ , and  $n$ , but not the code rate itself.

The number of bits per symbol  $\lambda$  is swept from one to eight to cover binary through 256-ary codes. At each trial value of  $\lambda$  another matrix reduction is performed, but first the matrix of  $W n\lambda$ -bit words is transformed into a matrix of  $n$ -symbol words by grouping every  $\lambda$  bits into a symbol. This time, the RREF algorithm modified for general GF( $q$ ) arithmetic is used to compress the trial code words into a set of basis vectors. The trial  $\lambda$  to achieve the greatest compression (i.e., lowest code rate) is declared the winner.

Generally, only one trial value should compress significantly, which indicates the correct alphabet size  $q = 2^\lambda$ . Note that this search only requires testing trial values of  $\lambda$  that evenly divide into the previously estimated value of  $n\lambda$ . Also, the number of code words

per RREF trial was set to  $W = n + 10$ , and this was found to be adequate for all nonbinary test cases.

No other algorithms were explored for deriving the alphabet size, but if a direct estimation of  $q$  could be performed before the code rate estimation, then a significant increase in performance would occur for nonbinary codes. This issue is discussed further in section 2.5 as an area for future study.

**Table 4: Trial Code Word Matrix after Reduction for a 64-ary (63,57) Block Code at  $q = 64$ ,  $n = 63$**

1	0	0	0	0	<columns 6-57>	0	0	43	32	40	50	2	58
0	1	0	0	0	<rows 1-57>	0	0	13	46	27	28	47	49
0	0	1	0	0	:	0	0	25	11	9	39	42	39
0	0	0	1	0	:	0	0	21	26	35	57	19	39
0	0	0	0	1	:	0	0	26	55	13	55	24	52
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	13	27	62	26	32	5
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	36	7	54	42	53	49
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	39	2	60	4	21	12
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	49	41	53	13	51	51
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	29	12	60	39	51	56
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	41	12	16	47	10	38
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	56	51	57	62	34	6
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	16	44	61	4	27	25
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	62	36	52	6	37	39
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	62	33	28	48	11	61
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	14	38	35	23	19	46
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	8	5	30	24	26	38
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	29	39	43	28	39	26
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	46	44	8	32	50	49
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	28	4	32	14	23	46
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	25	1	22	24	36	18
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	27	28	49	33	41	20
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	46	30	46	9	61	26
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	39	37	41	45	60	57
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	44	3	2	33	46	61
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	10	26	15	20	54	2
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	25	31	19	27	21	18
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	16	38	44	39	34	21
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	9	10	44	23	45	37



0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	42	48	46	44	31	2
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	60	56	55	40	45	32
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	2	47	6	57	61	38
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	19	60	40	2	59	30
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	36	32	10	62	51	46
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	26	54	58	25	2	11
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	41	55	40	49	21	13
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	60	8	52	43	15	32
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	46	16	63	11	39	56
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	35	29	4	36	2	60
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	33	39	21	29	18	1
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	3	47	38	37	5	1
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	32	61	58	63	59	28
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	5	11	41	14	12	34
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	4	58	20	59	36	55
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	11	6	39	26	2	30
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	13	34	55	43	30	28
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	3	31	61	23	12	34
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	42	30	11	53	61	8
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	23	16	34	4	48	49
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	5	7	46	32	30	60
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	63	60	42	47	56	15
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	40	60	47	13	34	13
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	45	10	34	48	20	47
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	53	26	57	28	12	63
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	0	11	7	60	23	18	25
0	0	0	0	0	:	1	0	42	33	7	62	11	34
0	0	0	0	0	:	0	1	9	9	50	33	18	22
0	0	0	0	0	<all zeros, etc>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

### 2.3.3 Root Search

Cyclic block codes are generated from a single generator polynomial  $g(x)$ , which may be factored into one or more minimal polynomials defined over the Galois extension field  $GF(q^m)$ . In turn, these minimal polynomials may be factored into the product of one or more first-order terms based on field elements of  $GF(q^m)$ . Each element is a root of  $g(x)$ , similar to generalized polynomial factors defined over an infinite field. Since a cyclic code word  $c(x)$  is generated by polynomial multiplication of a message word  $m(x)$  by  $g(x)$ , the coded symbol sequence also contains roots corresponding to the Galois field in which the code is based.

As a simple example, consider a basic (7,4) binary cyclic code defined over the extension field  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ , where  $\alpha$  is an element of  $\text{GF}(8)$ , and a seventh root of unity since  $\alpha^7 = 1$ .

The generator polynomial in this case is chosen as the single minimal polynomial based on the conjugacy class  $\{\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^4\}$ , hence every code word has these three roots.

$$g(x) = x^3 + x + 1 = (x + \alpha)(x + \alpha^2)(x + \alpha^4)$$

$$c(x) = m(x) g(x) = m(x)(x + \alpha)(x + \alpha^2)(x + \alpha^4)$$

Once the code word length and alphabet size are known, it is a straightforward procedure for an FEC recognition system to derive the generator polynomial if the correct extension field roots can be found. Fortunately, there is also a straightforward procedure for finding the extension field roots of an arbitrary polynomial using an algorithm called the Galois Field Fourier Transform (GFFT). This transform technique is explained in more detail in section 3.3.2.1.

A block encoder may also be viewed as a feedforward linear system which has spectral zeros in its transfer function due to the roots of  $g(x)$ , just as a linear Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter has zeros in its transfer function  $H(f)$  to achieve the desired frequency response. In the case of a block encoder, the desired “frequency response” is one that separates output code words by a maximum distance, such that the decoder has

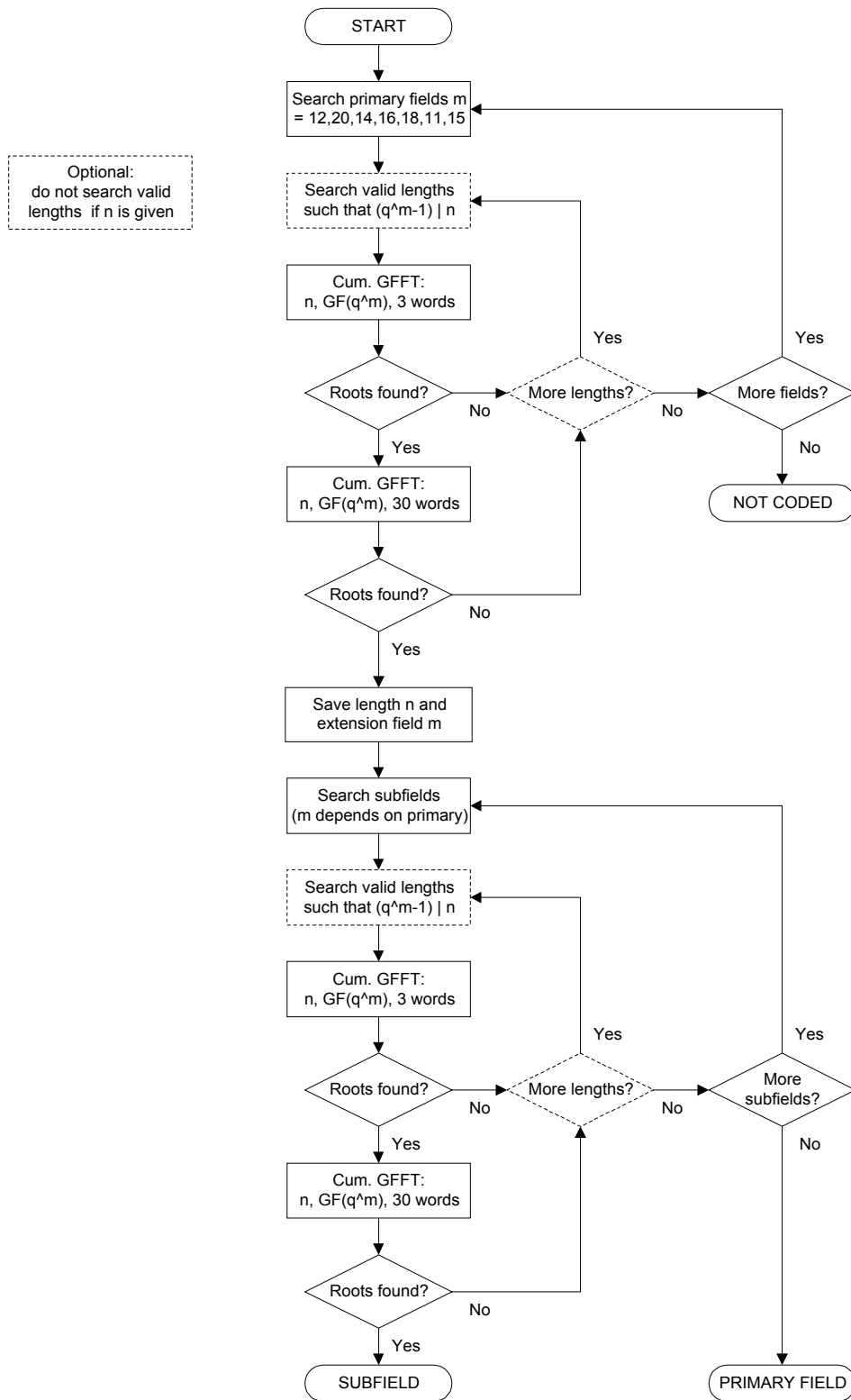
the greatest probability of correctly recovering the message words. In fact, several decoding techniques are based on the spectral characteristics of cyclic block codes.

The basic approach used for identifying cyclic codes using the GFFT is simple but extremely effective. Given that the alphabet size  $q$ , code word length  $n$  and frame starting position are known, the GFFT of each code word can be calculated for a trial extension field  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ . Each code word  $c(x)$  independently has roots due to both factors  $m(x)$  and  $g(x)$ , but only the roots of  $g(x)$  remain consistent from word to word since the input message sequence  $m(x)$  is presumed random. Also, zeros in the GFFT spectrum only appear for the roots of  $g(x)$  whenever the correct extension field (or a subfield thereof) has been chosen.

With this information, the following search algorithm was developed:

1. Select a set of trial values of  $m$  to search, such that this set of primary fields covers all subfields of interest in an optimal manner (more on this partitioning later);
2. For each extension field  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ , determine the set of valid trial code word lengths  $n$  such that  $q^m - 1$  divides  $n$  evenly. This step is only required if the actual code word length has not already been determined. If  $n$  is known, search only the extension fields for which  $q^m - 1$  divides  $n$  evenly.
3. For a given  $n$  and  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ , perform a cumulative GFFT over  $W_I$  code words. A cumulative GFFT is calculated by logically OR-ing together the individual spectrum vectors for all code words. This has the effect of preserving spectral zeros which are present over all code words, and eliminating any zeros which are not always present. The number of code words to measure may be as small as  $W_I = 3$  for good results in an error-free environment.

4. If any spectral zeros are present after step 3, repeat the cumulative GFFT test over a larger number of words  $W_2$ . Thirty code words provide very accurate results in an ideal environment. This two-stage approach is used to improve the efficiency of the search algorithm. The quick zero test in step 3 weeds out most incorrect trials, while the second test validates surviving zeros over a longer observation interval to ensure they arise from  $g(x)$  and not a random recurrence of factors in  $m(x)$ .
5. If no zeros remain after step 3, repeat that test for all trial lengths and extension fields until consistent spectral zeros are found.
6. If all extension fields have been exhausted without finding consistent zeros, then conclude that the symbol sequence has not been encoded by a cyclic block encoder and terminate the search.
7. If a valid extension field has been found in step 4, now search the set of trial values of  $m$  representing all subfields of this primary extension field. The tests performed on these trial subfields are the same as those performed on the primary fields in steps 2-5. The trials are tested in order of smallest subfield to largest; return after the first subfield to pass both root tests. Note that if a given subfield of the current primary field has already been covered by a previous primary test which failed, then it is bypassed in the current subfield search.
8. If all extension subfields of the winning primary have been exhausted without finding consistent zeros, then conclude that the cyclic code has been defined in the primary extension field.



**Figure 4: Root Search Flowchart**

### 2.3.4 Reconstruction of Cyclic Generator Polynomial

Once the correct extension Galois field  $GF(q^m)$  has been identified for a sample code word sequence using the root search method, the roots themselves can be used to reconstruct the cyclic code's generator polynomial. It is a very straightforward approach: the generator polynomial is simply formed as the product of first-order polynomials based on each root found. Consider the example given in the previous section, where the generator polynomial roots are based on the conjugacy class  $\{\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^4\}$ . First-order polynomials are formed for the three roots as  $(x + \alpha^i)$ , then multiplied together using  $GF(8)$  arithmetic since this was the extension field in which the roots were found.

$$(x + \alpha)(x + \alpha^2)(x + \alpha^4) = x^3 + x + 1 = g(x)$$

Implementation details of the algorithm used to form this product are discussed in section 3.3.3.

### 2.3.5 Binary Cyclic Block Code Classification

The previous two sections focus on identification of cyclic codes down to the generator polynomial. Cyclic codes may be either binary (i.e., alphabet size  $q = 2$ ) or nonbinary ( $q > 2$ ), as determined by the search defined in 2.3.2. This section provides some methods to

further classify binary cyclic codes, once the extension field roots and generator polynomial have been successfully identified.

First an integrity check may be performed to verify that the results derived to this point are correct. Recall that the code rate  $R = k/n$  was determined via matrix reduction, and therefore the code's redundancy  $r = n - k$ . The redundancy can also be independently derived as the degree of the generator polynomial (i.e.,  $r = \deg[g(x)]$ ). If these two results do not agree, then the code recognition system flags an error and may start a more thorough search.

If the redundancy check does pass, then further classification is made into one of three general types of binary cyclic block code: BCH, perfect, or general Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC). BCH codes can be identified by the presence of consecutive roots in the Galois field spectrum, since their error correction capacity is defined by consecutive powers of  $\alpha$  as factors of the generator polynomial. Perfect codes fulfill the Hamming bound with equality, and are categorized as binary repetition, Hamming, or Golay codes. If the binary cyclic code fails to meet either of these criteria, then it is concluded to be a general CRC code by default. Finally, note that these three subclassifications are not mutually exclusive. For example, there exist perfect BCH codes, such as the (7,4) binary BCH code which also qualifies as a Hamming code.

### 2.3.5.1 Binary BCH Codes

After specifying a cyclic code's generator polynomial and verifying the redundancy, the first test performed is to check for consecutive zeros in the cumulative GFFT spectrum. The algorithm for isolating the largest group of consecutive zeros in the frequency vector is described in section 3.3.4. If two or more consecutive roots are found in the largest group, then it is concluded that the data source has been encoded by a binary BCH code. The BCH design rule requires that there are twice as many consecutive powers of  $\alpha$  as the error correction capacity  $t$ . Therefore,  $t = z/2$ , where  $z$  is the number of consecutive powers of  $\alpha$  and  $t$  is the guaranteed number of bit errors that can be corrected in any code word.

Another check can be made to ensure the integrity of our result. Since the minimum distance of any FEC block code must be greater than  $2t$ , this can be checked by directly measuring  $d_{min}$  and verifying this relationship. Methods for estimating  $d_{min}$  were discussed in 2.3.1.1, and recall that it becomes very difficult to accurately estimate the correct value for large codes due to the tremendous number of code words required. However, the estimate of  $d_{min}$  is always greater than or equal to the actual value. So the net effect is that this is not a very accurate check when large codes are involved, but it will not inadvertently invalidate our result as long as the estimate of  $t$  is correct.



Assuming everything is still valid at this point, one final check is made before declaring that a binary BCH code has been used. Remembering the criterion that the length  $n$  of a cyclic block code must divide evenly into  $q^m - 1$ , this is verified to ensure that the correct identification has been made.

### 2.3.5.2 Perfect Binary Codes

A perfect block code is defined as one which satisfies the Hamming bound exactly. This is a lower bound on the redundancy required for a length  $n$   $q$ -ary code to correct  $t$  errors.

So for perfect codes we have the following equality:

$$r = \log_q \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^t \binom{n}{i} (q-1)^i \right\}.$$

Specifically in the case of binary codes,  $q = 2$  and the perfect code criterion can be stated as:

$$r = \log_2 \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^t \binom{n}{i} \right\}.$$

This calculation requires an estimate of  $n$  and  $t$ , and  $t$  can be derived from the code's minimum distance:  $t = \text{floor}[(d_{\min} - 1) / 2]$ . Once again, the accuracy of our estimate of  $d_{\min}$

is dependent on the code size, but fortunately perfect codes are limited in size so the minimum distance can be correctly estimated with reasonable computation time.

Assuming we have identified a binary cyclic block code, estimated the exact value of  $d_{min}$  and  $t$ , and have found that the redundancy meets the Hamming bound with equality, then the code is declared to be in the class of perfect binary codes. This class has been proven to contain only three subsets: binary repetition, Golay and Hamming codes. Further logic can be used to easily subclassify a code into the correct group.

Binary repetition codes have the distinct property that  $k = 1$ , so this is the first check. Furthermore, they must satisfy  $t = \lfloor (n-1) / 2 \rfloor$ . If this is found to be true, then we conclude that it is indeed a binary repetition code; otherwise, an error is declared since the other possible perfect binary codes do not have  $k = 1$ . If  $k \neq 1$ , then we check for the condition that  $n = 23$  and  $k = 12$ . If this is true and  $t = 3$ , then the system declares that it is a binary Golay code; otherwise if this is true but  $t \neq 3$  an error is declared. Finally, the last test is to check if  $n = 2^m - 1$ . If this is true and  $t = 1$ , then the system declares that it is a binary cyclic Hamming code; otherwise if this is true but  $t \neq 1$  an error is declared.

### 2.3.5.3 Binary CRC Codes

On the contrary, if either of the estimates for  $d_{min}$  or  $t$  fail, or the redundancy check fails, then we conclude that the code is not perfect and classify it as a general cyclic code. The Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) is a common application for cyclic codes that do not meet the other classifications. Therefore, since there are no further tests to try, an intelligent guess would be to assume by default that the system has identified a CRC code at this point.

### 2.3.6 Binary Noncyclic Block Code Classification

If the block code root search described in 2.3.3 failed to find consistent roots in any Galois extension field  $GF(8)$  through  $GF(2^{20})$ , and the alphabet size  $q$  has been determined to be 2, then the FEC recognition system classifies this block code as a binary noncyclic code. At this stage, finding the generator matrix  $G$  will completely specify the code. How to find  $G$  is an open issue, and will be revisited in section 2.5. General binary Hamming codes and Reed-Muller codes fall into this category.

### 2.3.7 Nonbinary Cyclic Block Code Classification

Once roots are found for a block encoded bit stream with  $q > 2$ , the appropriate extension field  $GF(q^m)$  and generator polynomial  $g(x)$  can be specified for this nonbinary cyclic block code. As was the case for binary cyclic codes, the redundancy  $r$  can be double-checked as the degree of  $g(x)$ . If the two independent results agree, then the code may be subclassified depending on certain properties.

#### 2.3.7.1 Nonbinary BCH Codes

Similar to the binary BCH case, nonbinary BCH codes can be identified as having consecutive roots in the extension field spectrum. Once again, by design a BCH code has  $z = 2t$  consecutive roots, so the error correction capability may be derived as  $t = z/2$ . Consecutive roots of a nonbinary BCH code may or may not be field elements of  $GF(q^m)$ , depending on the length  $n$ . It is important to note that in the latter case, the search for consecutive roots must be carried out using the  $n^{th}$  roots of unity in  $GF(q^m)$ , not equivalent powers of field elements  $\alpha$ .

#### 2.3.7.2 Reed-Solomon Codes

Reed-Solomon codes are a special case of nonbinary BCH codes, where the alphabet size and code word length are matched to the extension field  $GF(q^m)$  such that  $n = q-1$  and

$m = 1$ . These two conditions are checked to determine if the nonbinary BCH code is also a Reed-Solomon code.

### 2.3.8 Nonbinary Noncyclic Block Code Classification

As in the binary case, if the block code root search failed to find consistent roots in any Galois extension field  $GF(8)$  through  $GF(2^{20})$ , but the alphabet size  $q > 2$ , then the FEC recognition system classifies this block code as a nonbinary noncyclic code. Once again, finding the generator matrix  $G$  will completely specify the code, but no methods have been developed yet for determining  $G$ .

## 2.4 Convolutional Code Identification

Convolutional codes are in widespread use, but the search space is smaller (compared to block codes) when considering only the most effective codes. Specifying a convolutional code's rate  $R$ , constraint length  $K$ , and generator polynomials  $g_i(x)$  are required to construct a proper decoder, where a rate  $R = k/n$  code has  $kn$  generator polynomials of length  $K$ .<sup>2</sup> The polynomials which provide the best distance properties and hence error correction performance for a given rate, constraint length, and memory order are known.

---

<sup>2</sup> For the general case when  $k > 1$ , some of the input delay lines may have fewer than  $K-1$  delay elements. Hence multiple input convolutional codes also specify the total number of memory elements  $M$ . However, for our purposes we may consider all delay lines as maximum length, with generator tap values set to zero beyond the actual length of a given delay line where required.

A random search could be performed by which the recognition tool systematically tries every possible combination of rate, constraint length and generator polynomials until a Maximum Likelihood Sequence Estimation (MLSE) decoder converges to an optimal solution<sup>3</sup>. Assuming an error free input bit stream, the sequence detector should yield the best possible maximum likelihood path metric only when all decoder parameters match the encoder. If only the best known generator polynomials are tried at every combination of  $R$  and  $K$ , then a maximum of  $N_R(K_{max} - K_{min} + 1)$  trials must be run through the decoder. In our limited search space, only  $N_R = 5$  rates are considered and  $K$  ranges from 3 to 14, for a worst-case total of 60 trials. Furthermore, each trial must consider  $nk!$  possible orderings of generator polynomials, which ranges from 2 for a rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  code to  $4.8 \times 10^8$  for a rate  $\frac{3}{4}$  code. Clearly the search becomes prohibitive for high rate, multiple input convolutional codes.

If all possible generator polynomials are considered in each trial, instead of only the best known, then the search space increases exponentially. Each length  $K$  generator has  $2^K$  possible combinations of tap coefficients; hence there are  $2^{Knk}$  tap combinations in the encoder when counting all polynomials. Cases where all taps for any given polynomial

---

<sup>3</sup> MLSE decoding algorithms such as the Viterbi decoder generally exhibit convergence of the maximum likelihood path metric to the optimal value when the decoder's input and output are error free. Conversely, no path metric should converge to the optimal value when the output is incorrect, either due to bit errors in the input stream, code word misalignment, or in our case a decoder which is not matched to the encoder.

equal zero may be ignored, reducing the total number of combinations to  $2^{Knk} - \sum_{i=1}^{nk} \binom{nk}{i}$ .

Note that this result includes possible orderings, so the total complexity per trial ranges from  $2^6 - 3 = 61$  for  $\{R = 1/2, K = 3\}$  to  $2^{156} \approx 10^{47}$  for  $\{R = 3/4, K = 14\}$ .

A parametric classification technique may be used to improve upon the random search described above. The convolutional code identification problem may be decoupled into two parts, by first searching for memory in the encoded bit stream, then searching for generator polynomials. The advantage of such an approach is that the code rate and constraint length may be derived without considering possible orderings or tap combinations of the generator polynomials. Also, MLSE decoding is not required at every trial since simple counting methods are adequate, as will be described shortly.

### 2.4.1 Memory Detection

The first part of the convolutional parametric search involves a joint search for the code rate and constraint length. An initial approach to memory detection via autocorrelation of the coded bit stream was investigated, since a convolutional encoder has similar structure to interleaved FIR filters. However, this did not appear to be practical due to modulo-2 summation in the encoder, which effectively makes the memory introduced between bits transparent when observing the output stream.

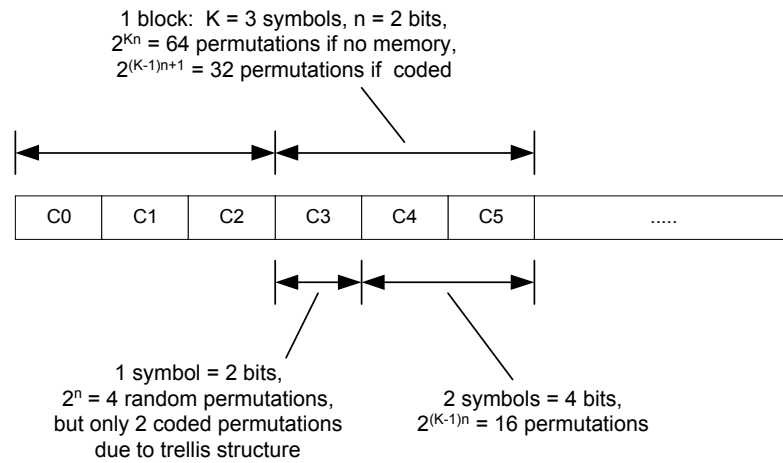
Two alternative methods were later developed, the second of which proved to be very practical and effective. The first promising technique was based on forming a histogram of occurrences of bit sequences of a given length, and it takes advantage of the trellis structure inherent in convolutional codes. Although the trellis histogram algorithm was somewhat successful, a better approach was developed by adapting the best block code rate estimation technique to convolutional codes. It was found that data compression via binary RREF matrix reduction can be used to determine the constraint length and code rate of a convolutional encoded bit stream, if the results are interpreted correctly.

#### **2.4.1.1 Trellis Histogram Technique**

The trellis histogram search method was developed based on simple counting techniques. The idea takes advantage of the trellis structure imposed on a convolutional encoded bit stream. If enough coded bits are observed to cover the constraint length of the encoder, then we should begin to see that the number of bit permutations remains consistently less than the total number of permutations for a random memoryless sequence. This is equivalent to saying that a convolutional encoder limits the number of possible paths through the trellis to ensure that the minimum distance between possible output sequences is greater than one, which is how its error correction property is derived.



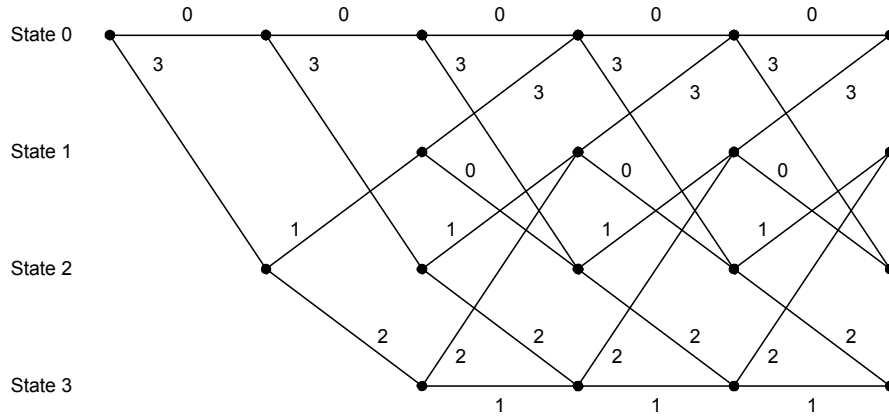
As an example, consider a rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K = 3$  code whose two generator polynomials are unknown. Assuming that frame sync provides us with correct alignment of the discrete code words, the received bit stream may be divided into blocks of length  $nK$ , as shown in figure 5.



**Figure 5: Sequence Permutations for a Rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K=3$  Convolutional Code**

If the received bit stream has no errors, then each block may be one of 32 possible bit patterns due to the trellis structure shown in figure 6. A memoryless random bit stream does not have this limitation, hence 64 bit patterns are possible. The code recognition system may detect a convolutional coded sequence by forming a histogram of occurrences of all possible length  $nK$  bit patterns, counted over  $W$  blocks. This test is performed at trial values of  $nK$ , and the search sweeps over the allowed values of  $K$  and  $n$ . When the

correct value of  $nK$  is tested, the histogram for this example should yield no more than 32 distinct bit patterns, while incorrect trials should yield more than 32 patterns if  $W$  is large enough.



**Figure 6: Trellis Diagram for a Rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K=3$  Convolutional Code**

This technique was tested on several convolutional codes, and it produced the expected results at the correct trial value for  $nK$ . However, histogram entries of zero occurrences also appear at incorrect trials, particularly for constraint lengths longer than the actual value of  $K$ . In hindsight, this is not surprising since the trellis should further limit the number of possible sequences (with respect to all possible random sequences) for all trials beyond the constraint length. This property is applied in the next section, which presents a more efficient means for detecting memory in convolutional codes.

### 2.4.1.2 Data Compression Technique

A brief comparison of memory detection for convolutional codes to rate estimation for block codes can be made. Recall that the best algorithm for finding the block code rate was reduction of a matrix of code words to row echelon form. This exact operation is not possible for convolutional codes, since the encoder output is essentially one continuous code word (the length  $n$  blocks are too short). However, the trellis histogram technique from the last section has a common feature to the RREF method. Namely, it is estimating the encoder entropy by directly observing the reduced dimension of the vector subspace for partial code words, whereas RREF measures the reduced dimension of the vector subspace for complete code words (vs. the full dimension vector space for uncoded words).

With that in mind, it appears that the block code rate estimation techniques may be applied to convolutional codes if we work with partial code words of length  $nK$  instead of length  $n$  blocks (the latter may be viewed as  $2^n$ -ary symbols, not code words). In particular, the GF(2) RREF algorithm may be used to compress a matrix of partial code words to estimate the encoder's entropy. The result will not indicate the exact rate directly, as in the case of block codes, since we are not working with complete code words. However, the resulting matrix rank should always be less than  $nK$  at the correct trial block length.

As indicated by the trellis histogram method, compression should also be observed for trials beyond the constraint length as well.

It was found that binary RREF matrix reduction can be used to determine the constraint length and code rate of a convolutional encoded bit stream. Trials were run across all code word lengths  $n$  and the constraint lengths  $K$  in the search space, and patterns were extracted from the resulting compression curves. Analysis of these trends enabled an algorithm to be developed which can determine the correct values of  $n$  and  $K$  based on a few simple rules. A generalization of the rules for rate  $1/n$  codes allows for determination of the input word length  $k$  as well; hence complete specification of the code rate for an arbitrary convolutional code is possible. Details of memory detection via RREF compression are explained in 3.3.5.

#### **2.4.2 Reconstruction of Convolutional Generator Polynomials**

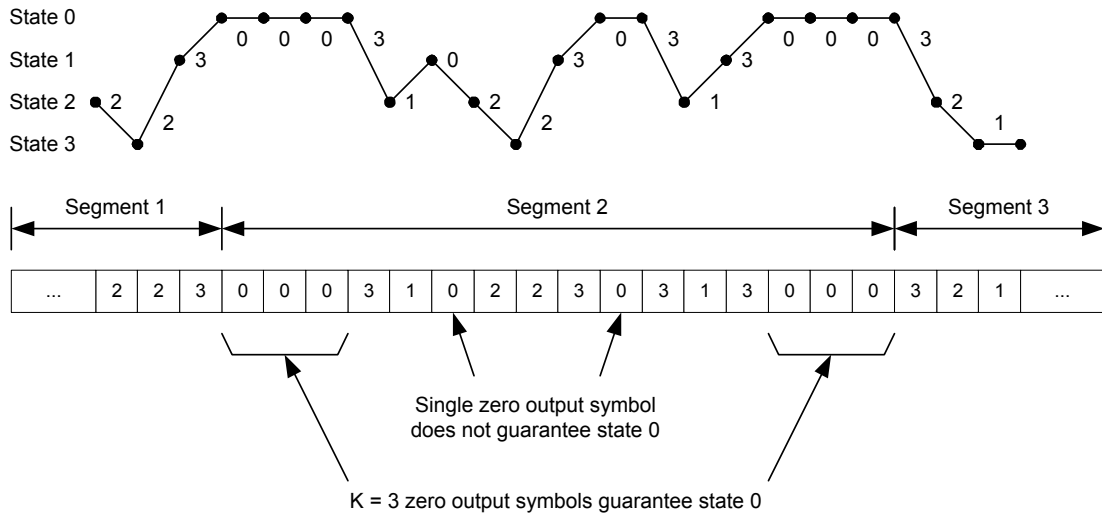
Once the convolutional code rate and constraint length are known, we must identify the  $nk$  generator polynomials (including order) to specify the encoder structure completely. As in the nonparametric random search one could run systematic trials through a tentative MLSE decoder, in which certain combinations of generators are tested until the best path metric indicates success. However, this is more work than required if the assumption of no bit errors is valid.

There is a simple algorithm to recover the original message sequence based on multiplication of the interleaved coded bit streams by inverse generator polynomials, provided no channel bit errors occurred. This technique was modified to remove the data content instead of recover it, for the purpose of finding the unknown generator polynomials. A search can be carried out by substituting in trial inverse polynomials until the sum of interleaved coded bit streams equals zero. This effect of canceling the data content indicates that the correct inverse polynomials have been found, from which the original generator polynomials may be recovered.

Considering the potentially huge number of trials to run, there is an advantage to the proposed data cancellation approach over MLSE decoding at each trial. The computational complexity per trial is very low, allowing an overall faster search. The data cancellation technique is fully described in 3.3.6.

A polynomial root search analogous to the cyclic block code root search would offer a tremendous computational advantage over random search, even with data cancellation. Recall that the cumulative GFFT spectrum is computed over a matrix of code words in the cyclic root search, and consistent zeros in this spectrum represent roots of the generator polynomial. Application of this algorithm to convolutional codes is possible only under certain restrictions.

Since the convolutional encoder output is one continuous code word, the entire stream must be processed for roots to appear in the GFFT spectrum. However, a root search is possible if a partial code word can be found in the bit stream which has  $nK$  zero bits on either end (i.e.,  $K$  zero symbols). Presence of these zeros ensure that the encoder memory has been flushed before and after the partial code word. Figure 7 illustrates a case for our example rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K = 3$  code in which the output stream may be divided cleanly into 3 segments. The middle segment thus represents an entire convolutional code word since our observation guarantees that the encoder was at state zero at the start and end.



**Figure 7: Segmentation of a Rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K=3$  Convolutional Code Word**

Finally, note that a GFFT-based convolutional root search must be performed on the interleaved bit streams in  $GF(2)$ , not on the composite symbols as shown above.

Reconstruction using the roots found for each stream of a rate  $1/n$  code will yield the generator polynomials directly, while roots found for each stream of a rate  $k/n$  code will yield the modulo-2 sum of input generator polynomials corresponding to that stream.

Separation of this sum into the individual generators is left as an open issue.

### 2.4.3 Single Input Convolutional Code Classification

For the most part, the search techniques described above for convolutional codes have been geared toward rate  $1/n$  codes (i.e., single input bit per  $n$  output bits). The opening argument in section 2.4 showed that searches become prohibitively complex for multiple input convolutional codes. The general case for  $k > 1$  is discussed further in the next section.

Unlike block codes, there are no families of convolutional codes based on algebraic theory, however several classifications can be made. As already implied, convolutional codes may first be classified into single or multiple input codes depending on the value of  $k$ . They may also be classified as either systematic or nonsystematic, but this distinction is not very important since nonsystematic linear FIR convolutional codes always have better distance properties than the counterpart systematic codes. Regardless, systematic codes

may be identified by observing the derived generator polynomials: the systematic generators have a single tap connecting the input to output bit.

Convolutional codes may also be classified as feedforward or recursive, similar to FIR or IIR digital filters, and linear or nonlinear. Recursive and nonlinear codes are out of the scope of this project, however, some of the search techniques may apply to these types of code. Future research of recursive and/or nonlinear convolutional codes would be useful, since they are becoming increasingly popular in practice (e.g., trellis coded modulation and turbo codes).

#### **2.4.4 Multiple Input Convolutional Code Classification**

Finally there remains the issue of finding the input length  $k$  if a multiple input convolutional encoder was employed. The basic RREF memory detection process applies to rate  $k/n$  codes regardless of the value of  $k$ , but the specific parameter recovery procedure could not be directly applied without modification. The first approach started by assuming that a rate  $1/n$  code had been used if memory is detected. Generalization of the rules used to derive constraint length from the rate  $1/n$  compression curves led to a closed form solution for rate  $k/n$  codes as well.

The subsequent generator polynomial search is not carried out if the resulting estimate of  $k$  is greater than one, since the search complexity would be prohibitive. This is true for the



rate  $2/3$  and  $3/4$  codes under consideration, regardless of whether we search for the best known generator polynomials or all possible tap combinations.

## 2.5 Areas for Future Study

I conclude section 2 with a summary of some open issues that were previously alluded to. These are potential candidates for future research regarding the general problem of FEC identification.

First, as mentioned in 2.3.2, a substantial improvement in performance could be obtained for nonbinary codes by direct estimation of the alphabet size  $q$ . The current approach is to find the code rate first by RREF compression in  $GF(q)$ , but this search must be conducted for all possible values of  $q$  in the search space. If  $\lambda = \log_2(q)$  were found beforehand, then the search would only need to cover the possible values of  $n$  once.

Another unsolved issue is determination of the generator matrix  $G$  for noncyclic block codes. Cyclic codes are based on a single generator polynomial for which we can find roots, but noncyclic codes use  $k$  generator polynomials to form the rows of  $G$ .

Investigation of this problem has led me to believe that it is not possible to determine  $G$  for an arbitrary noncyclic block code, since the encoder output is an unknown linear combination of  $k$  unknown polynomials. This is a two-dimensional problem space, and

multiple combinations of input bit stream and generator matrix can produce identical coded bit streams. Therefore, the exact determination of  $G$  is ambiguous unless the input bit stream is known.

As discussed in the problem statement, the scope of this project does not address modified linear codes (e.g., punctured, shortened), concatenated codes, interleaving, recursive codes, or nonlinear codes. However, certain applications use these extensions of basic coding theory, so future research of these topics would allow a wider range of operating environment models.

Finally, the one unsolved problem within the scope of this project is determination of the generator polynomials for multiple input convolutional codes. A trial and error search is too large in general, even considering only the ordering of the best known generators. One possible solution to this problem would be a root search via segmentation or use of complete convolutional code words, as described in 2.4.2.

### **3. Implementation of a Prototype FECC Recognition System**

Up to now I have talked about general methods for identifying Forward Error Correction codes given no information about the encoder. This major section will describe the application of these methods in a software FECC recognition system. The Matlab development environment is described first, including its C code extension interface. Then a high-level overview of system processing is depicted via flowchart, followed by a detailed discussion of key algorithms. Finally, system limitations, performance, and open issues are included.

#### **3.1 Development Environment**

The bulk of the software prototype was implemented in Matlab scripts, called M-files. Matlab version 5.2 was used, including several functions in the communications toolbox. The hardware platform was a 400 MHz Pentium II PC with 64 Mbytes of memory and 8 Gbyte hard disk. The Matlab Extension (MEX) interface was used to optimize two key functions in C code, for greatly improved speed of execution. The MEX interface allows C code functions to be called from the core Matlab program transparently, thereby eliminating performance bottlenecks.

Although the Matlab communications toolbox includes many Galois field arithmetic functions, I used a lookup table approach for most Galois field operations for more efficient computation. Tables are generated at startup to represent all Galois fields of interest, which store each field element vector as an integer instead of an array. Hence,  $\text{GF}(q^m)$  operations using the toolbox directly must access  $\log_2(q^m)$  double-precision numbers for each input argument, while the table approach requires only a single access<sup>4</sup>. Two tables are used: a vector table for conversion from a field element symbol representation to vector representation, and a reverse lookup table to perform the opposite conversion. Symbol representation of Galois field elements are defined as:  $\{0 \rightarrow 0, 1 \rightarrow 1, \alpha \rightarrow 2, \alpha^2 \rightarrow 3, \dots, \alpha^{N-2} \rightarrow N-1\}$ , where  $N = q^m$ . As an example, the tables for  $\text{GF}(8)$  based on the primitive polynomial  $\alpha^3 + \alpha + 1$  are listed below:

Vectors = [0, 1, 2, 4, 3, 6, 7, 5]

Symbols = [0, 1, 2, 4, 3, 7, 5, 6]

The following source code tables list all custom Matlab files comprising the final software prototype implementation, including support files for signal generation and testing. Each table entry states the source code file name, function call format including input and output arguments, and a brief description of what the function does. Note that the GFFT

and RREF functions were also implemented in C code MEX files, in addition to Matlab code directly.

**Table 5: Source Code Files for Final Prototype**

M-file	Function	Description
go2.m		Main program
FindMem6.m	[ConvCWLlenEst, InputLenEst, ConstraintLenEst] = FindMem6(FileName, kmax, nmax, Kmax)	Detect memory to find convolutional code rate and constraint length
FindGenPolys.m	[G2] = FindGenPolys(FileName, n, K)	Find convolutional code generator polynomials for rate 1/n codes
EstRate3.m	[RateEst, CWLlenEst, InputLenEst, AlphabetSizeEst] = EstRate3(FileName, nmin, nmax, lmax)	Estimate code rate via RREF compression
FindRoots.m	[ExtFieldEst, roots, CWLlenEst] = FindRoots(FileName, WordCount, q, n)	Find roots of the generator polynomial by searching for zeros in the Galois field spectrum
GFFT2.m	[X] = GFFT2(x, WordCount, n, q, qm, mx)	Take Galois Field Fourier Transform of a code word block
CumGFFT2.m	[Xcum] = CumGFFT2(x, WordCount, n, q, qm, mx)	Cumulative GFFT by taking logical OR of all frequency vectors
SumGFx.m	[z] = SumGFx(x)	Sum the elements of input vector using GF(q) vector addition (exclusive OR)
SearchLens.m	[n] = SearchLens(qm1, nmin, nmax)	Calculate valid root search lengths for a given field GF( $q^m$ )
EstMinDist.m	[dmin] = EstMinDist(FileName, n, q, WordCount)	Estimate minimum distance of a code
EstRedundancy.m	redundancy = EstRedundancy(n, q, t)	Estimate the redundancy of a code w.r.t. the Hamming bound
choose.m	[nck] = choose(n, k)	n choose k function = $n! / \{k!(n-k)!\}$
FindConsecRoots.m	[ConsecRoots, t] = FindConsecRoots(BaseRoots)	Find largest group of consecutive zeros in the Galois field spectrum
PolyGFx.m	[v] = PolyGFx(roots, n, q, qm, mx)	Reconstruct cyclic generator polynomial from its Galois field roots
ReadFields.m		Read all Galois field vector and symbol tables from file

<sup>4</sup> Note that all numbers in Matlab, including integers, are stored as double-precision floating point values. The optimized C code functions improve Galois field operations even further by storing the bit-array vectors as actual integers.

ReadGFx.m	[vectors,symbols] = ReadGFx(qm,mx)	Read the vector and symbol tables for a specific Galois field from file
SelField.m	[vectors,symbols] = SelField(qm,mx)	Select the vector and symbol tables for a given Galois field
power2symGFx.m	[y] = power2symGFx(x)	Convert powers of alpha to symbols
sym2powerGFx.m	[y] = sym2powerGFx(x)	Convert symbols to powers of alpha
sym2bits.m	[bits] = sym2bits(symbols)	Convert a q-ary symbol stream to a binary stream
bits2sym.m	[symbols] = bits2sym(s,n,WordCount)	Convert a binary stream to a q-ary symbol stream

**Table 6: Source Code Files for Test Signal Generation**

GenData.m		Generate an encoded random symbol stream
BlockEnc.m	[m,c,WordsWritten] = BlockEnc(FileName, WordCount,BlockCount, n,k,q,G,FileIO)	Block encode a random q-ary symbol stream and save output to file
BCH.m	[n,k,M,q,G,H] = BCH(n,k,t,q,g)	Construct generator matrix for a BCH code (covers Reed-Solomon too)
Golay23.m	[n,k,M,G,H] = Golay23(gen)	Construct generator matrix for a length 23 binary Golay code
Hamming.m	[n,k,M,G,H] = Hamming(m)	Construct generator matrix for a systematic binary Hamming code
GenFields.m		Generate all Galois field vector and symbol tables
GenGFx.m	[vectors,symbols] = GenGFx(qm,mx)	Generate vector and symbol tables for a specific Galois field
ReedMuller.m	[n,k,M,q,G] = ReedMuller(r,m)	Construct generator matrix for a Reed-Muller code
ConvEnc3.m	[m,c,WordsWritten] = ConvEnc3(FileName,Word Count,n,k,K,G,FileIO)	Convolutionally encode a random bit stream via GF(2) convolution

**Table 7: Source Code Files for Testing Algorithms**

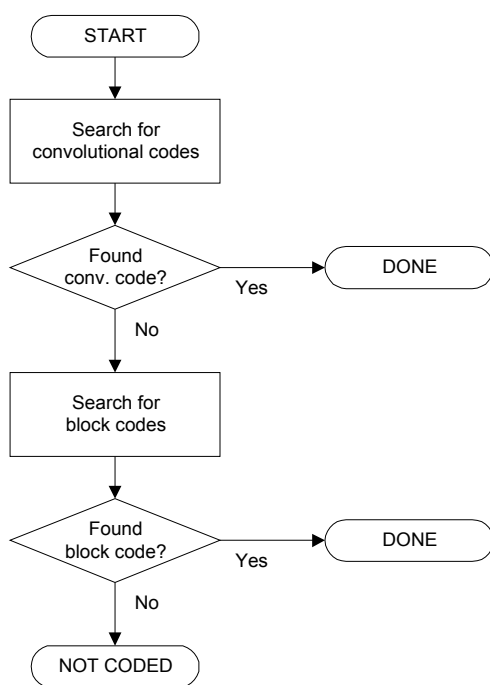
EstCWL.m	[dmax,delay] = EstCWLen(Nmax,r, WordCount)	Estimate code word length by finding minimum distance between code words as the length is varied
EstCWL2.m		Estimate code word length by finding the net difference between the distance p.d.f. and the binomial p.d.f.
binomial.m	[pdf] = binomial(n,p)	Generate a binomial probability density function
EstRate.m		Estimate code rate via dictionary compression
EstRate2.m		Estimate code rate via RREF compression
compress.m	[CompressedWords, DictLen] =	Compress an encoded symbol stream using modified dictionary compression technique

	<code>compress(s,WordCount,n)</code>	
<code>RrefGF2.m</code>	<code>[G,rank] = RrefGF2(A,tol)</code>	Calculate the binary Reduced Row Echelon Form of input matrix
<code>RrefGFx.m</code>	<code>[G,rank] = RrefGFx(A,q,tol)</code>	Calculate the general Reduced Row Echelon Form of input matrix in GF(q)
<code>Spectrum2.m</code>		Calculate the GFFT for a code word block
<code>subfields.m</code>		Generate matrix of Galois subfield coverage
<code>FindMem.m</code>		Detect convolutional code memory via polynomial deconvolution (rate 1/n only)
<code>FindMem3.m</code>		Detect convolutional code memory via direct trellis histogram (rate 1/n only)
<code>FindMem4.m</code>		Detect convolutional code memory via binary RREF compression (rate 1/n only)
<code>FindMem5.m</code>		Detect convolutional code memory via RREF compression in GF(q), (rate 1/n only)
<code>FindConv.m</code>		Find convolutional code generator polynomials via data cancellation (rate 1/2, K=3 example)

### 3.2 System Processing Overview

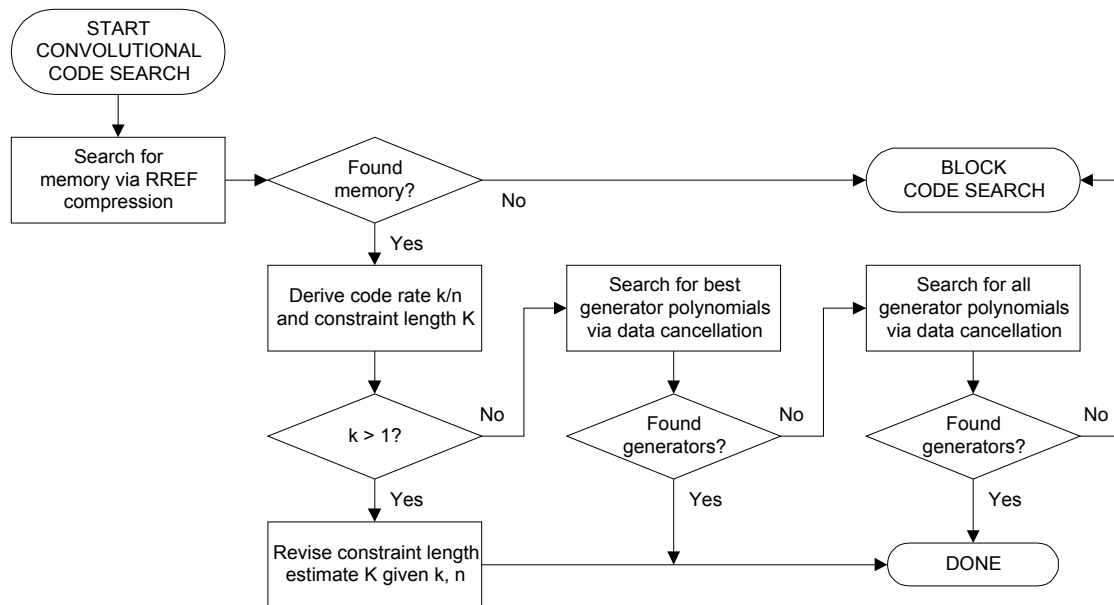
The FEC code recognition system was designed at a high level with both a software architecture and a procedural flow of control. In general, software architecture is the arrangement of processing tasks into discrete functions and modules (i.e., source code files), and the implementation of those functions in an appropriate coding language. The previous section laid out the software architecture for this prototype system. Procedural flow of control dictates at a high level what sequence of events occur given a specific input. I chose to present the procedural design as a set of standard software flowcharts, shown in figures 8-11.

As discussed earlier, classifying a block coded bit stream involves determining the code rate, alphabet size, extension field, and finally generator polynomial or matrix. This order of events was chosen for the final prototype, but other sequences are possible (in fact, the initial root search algorithm was designed for operation prior to finding the code rate or alphabet size). Also note that further classification of exact codes, such as Reed-Solomon or Golay, and nonessential parameters such as  $t$  is performed where possible for completeness.

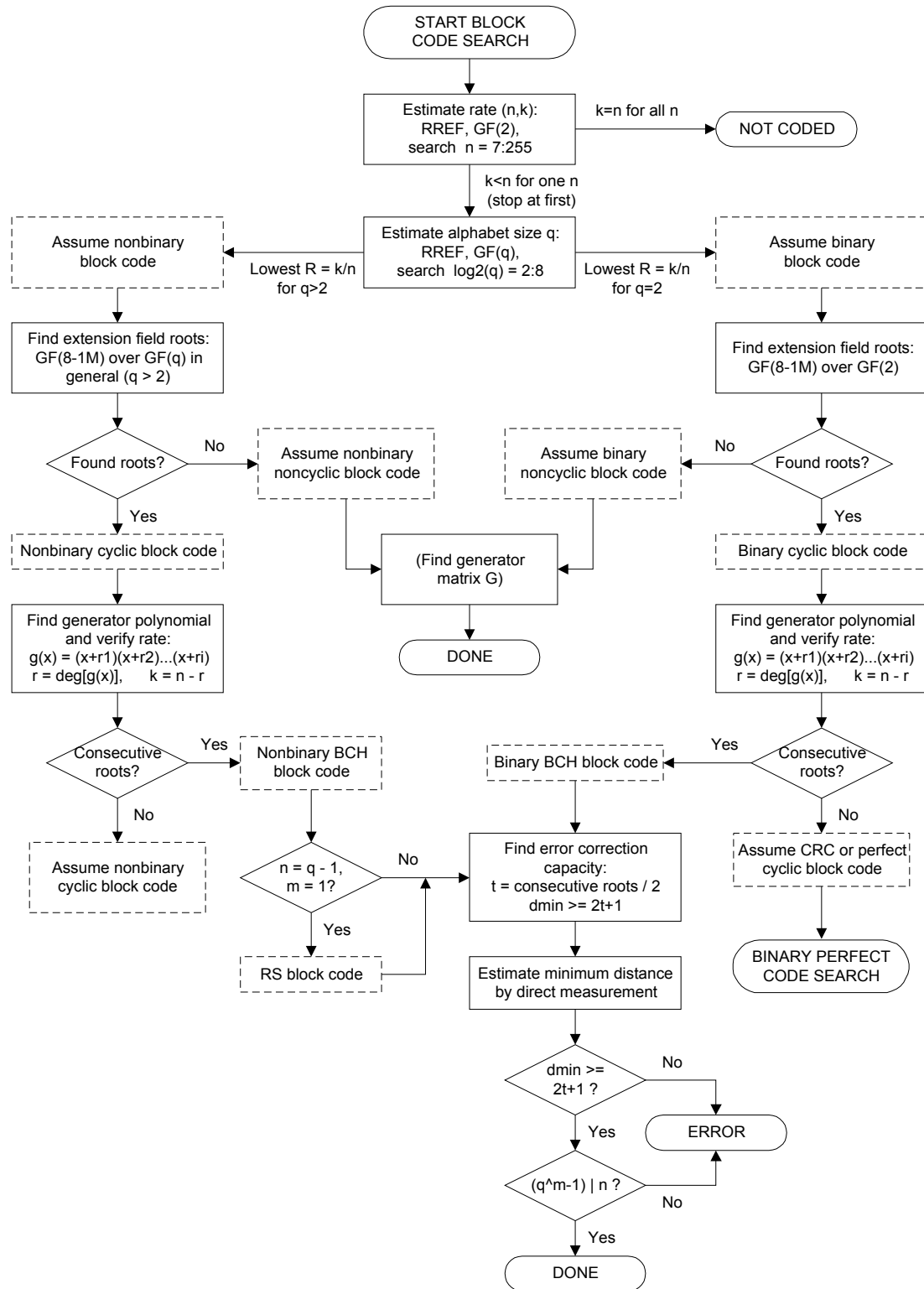


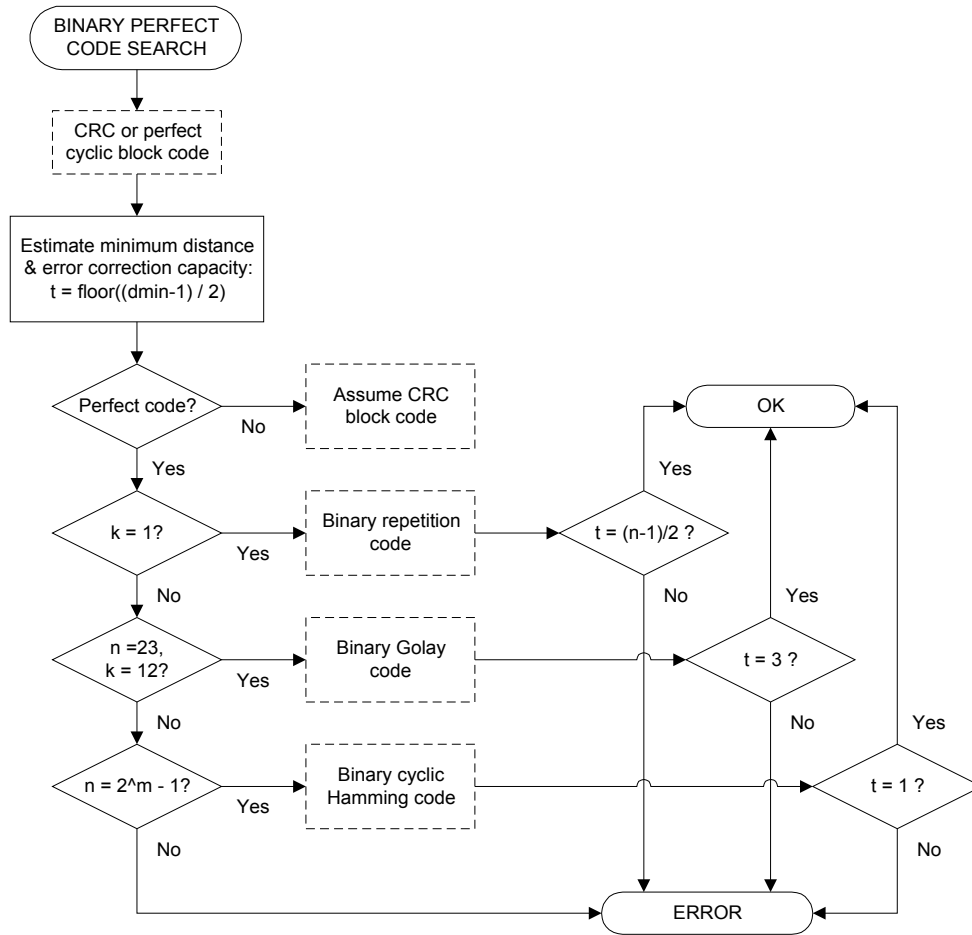
**Figure 8: Top-Level Flowchart**





**Figure 9: Convolutional Code Flowchart**



**Figure 10: Block Code Flowchart****Figure 11: Binary Perfect Code Flowchart**

### 3.3 Algorithm Development and Optimization

Several important low level algorithms require detailed explanation, due to their inherent complexity or efficiency considerations or both. Two frequently called functions, namely row echelon form matrix reduction and Galois Field Fourier Transform, were optimized

with respect to both algorithmic and coding efficiency for improved computational speed. The Galois extension field root search was also improved by partitioning the search space for optimal field coverage. Reconstruction of a cyclic generator polynomial from its roots is done in a straightforward manner, by convolution of a cumulative product polynomial with successive roots. Then I present a novel approach to finding the largest set of consecutive roots in a Galois field spectrum via successive differentiation, which is used for identification of BCH codes. Finally, algorithms are described for convolutional code memory detection using RREF compression and generator polynomial search via data cancellation.

### **3.3.1 Data Compression via Reduced Row Echelon Form**

As derived in 2.3.1.2, the best algorithm for finding the code rate is based on reduction of a matrix of trial code words to Row Echelon Form. This compresses the matrix to a set of  $k$  linearly independent basis vectors if the data source is block coded and the correct trial code word length  $n$  has been selected. The reduction is performed in  $\text{GF}(q)$  arithmetic using a standard linear algebra technique called pivotal condensation. Note that nonbinary code words are represented as binary words for the initial code rate search in  $\text{GF}(2)$ , by storing the  $q$ -ary elements as binary numbers.

The pivot technique was first derived by adapting the Matlab RREF function to GF(2) algebra, then optimization in C code was carried out via the MEX interface. Since the reduction is always performed on a binary matrix, significant optimization was achieved by packing binary columns into sets of 32 bit words. This way, bit operations can be performed on 32-bit unsigned integers, covering 32 columns of the matrix at once. For example, adding two rows of a 100-by-32 matrix in GF(2) can be achieved by a single exclusive-OR operation. The same task in Matlab requires 32 modulo-2 additions.

For the alphabet size search, the RREF algorithm was adapted to arbitrary GF( $q$ ) algebra, a much more complex operation than binary matrix reduction. This function was also ported to C code for greatly improved speed of execution. Further optimization via bit packing was not done for the general case of  $q > 2$ .

### 3.3.2 Extension Field Root Search

The key algorithm to identifying a cyclic block code is the Galois Field Fourier Transform (GFFT), which is used to find roots of the code generator polynomial  $g(x)$ . This transform is defined in the next section, which also discusses optimization of the GFFT. The second subsection then describes in detail a partitioning of the extension field search space for efficient calculation via the GFFT.

### 3.3.2.1 Galois Field Fourier Transform

The GFFT is analogous to the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) for discrete-time signals whose sample values are defined over an infinite field. The DFT produces a spectral representation of a time-domain sample sequence, where the relative strength of each complex exponential frequency (i.e., power of  $e^{j\omega}$ ) occurring in a sample block is calculated. Similarly, the GFFT produces a spectral representation of a polynomial-based symbol sequence whose values are defined over a finite field  $\text{GF}(q)$ . The relative strength of each field element (i.e., power of  $\gamma$ ) occurring in an  $n$ -symbol code word is calculated to produce an  $n$ -point frequency vector consisting of elements in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ .

The Galois Field Fourier Transform is defined as follows:

$$V_j = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [\gamma^{ij} v_i],$$

where  $v_i$  are symbols of the time-domain input vector, and  $V_j$  are symbols of the resultant frequency-domain vector. The length  $n$  of the input and output vectors must divide evenly into  $q^m - 1$ , since the element  $\gamma$  (whose frequency multiples we are measuring) is an  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of unity in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ . Hence the roots of  $g(x)$  will appear only when the correct combination of code word length  $n$ , base field  $\text{GF}(q)$ , and extension field  $\text{GF}(q^m)$  have been specified for the GFFT calculation.

The DFT calculation can be significantly optimized via the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) algorithm. The FFT takes advantage of the periodicity of the complex exponential term  $W_N = e^{-j(2\pi/N)}$ , since  $W_N^N = e^{-j2\pi} = 1$ . Similarly, the GFFT may be optimized to take advantage of the periodicity of  $\gamma$  since it is an  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of unity. Therefore,  $\gamma^{ij} = \gamma^{i(j+n)} = \gamma^{(i+n)j}$  and the FFT optimization approach is valid for the finite field case.

However, an important distinction exists, namely the fact that the GFFT length  $n$  is an odd number for practical codes. The most efficient FFT algorithms rely on decimation of the time-domain signal or frequency domain spectrum vector by powers of 2, hence a length  $N$  which is a power of 2 is highly desirable. For the infinite field case, an arbitrary time-domain signal may be zero padded to extend its length to the closest power of 2, and the frequency vector is typically chosen to be the same length. Therefore decimation in time or frequency may be iteratively applied to achieve maximum efficiency (i.e., the FFT is broken down into a series of 2x2 butterfly operations).

In the finite field case, on the other hand, the frequency vector length is not arbitrary and must be equal to the code word length  $n$  in order to find roots. Therefore, the decimation in frequency algorithm is not practical for GFFT implementation, but decimation in time can be used by zero padding the input code word length to a power of 2. Zero padding

the time-domain code word does not affect the result; also, in many cases adding only a single zero is sufficient to extend the length to a power of 2.

An optimized version of the current C code GFFT function using a basic decimation in time approach could be used to achieve significant processing improvement in the extension field root search. Other GFFT optimization techniques based on polynomial algebra could also be implemented, for example, the method described in [14]. This optimization is left as an open issue for further prototype development.

### 3.3.2.2 Extension Field Search Space

The first step in the root search algorithm presented in 2.3.3 mentioned a partitioning of Galois extension fields into primary and subfields. In general, a Galois field  $GF(q^m)$  can be represented by elements of larger fields based on multiples of  $m$ . Likewise, any so-called primary field  $GF(q^{mI})$  has elements which are shared by subfields  $GF(q^{mi})$ , as long as  $mi$  divides evenly into  $mI$ . If a given primary field shares elements with various subfields, roots and hence spectral zeros are also visible in those fields.

For example, the (63,47) binary BCH code is defined in  $GF(64)$ , where  $n = q^m - 1 = 63$  and  $m = 6$ ,  $q = 2$ . The following extension fields share elements with  $GF(2^6)$ , and therefore roots may be found in any of these fields:



**Table 8: Galois Subfields**

$i$	$mi$	$q^{mi}-1 = n_i$	$n_i / n$	Field element
1	6	63	1	$\gamma$
2	12	4095	65	$\beta$
3	18	262143	4161	$\alpha$
<etc.>	:	:	:	:

As an illustration, consider the case  $I = 2$  and  $i = 1$ . Let  $\beta$  be an element of order 4095 in  $\text{GF}(2^{12})$ , such that  $\beta^{4095} = 1$ . All powers of  $\beta$  from 0 to 4094 are elements of  $\text{GF}(4096)$ . Since  $n_2 = 65n$ , define  $\gamma = \beta^{65}$  as an element of order 63 in  $\text{GF}(2^6)$  such that  $\gamma^{63} = \beta^{4095} = 1$ . Hence  $\beta^{65}$  is also an element of the subfield  $\text{GF}(64)$ , since  $m = 6$  divides evenly into  $2m = 12$ .  $\text{GF}(64)$  in this representation contains the elements  $\{0, \beta^0, \beta^{65}, \beta^{130}, \beta^{195}, \dots, \beta^{4030}\}$  which are equivalent to the set  $\{0, \gamma^0, \gamma^1, \gamma^2, \dots, \gamma^{62}\}$ .

Likewise, let  $\alpha$  be an element of order 262143 in  $\text{GF}(2^{18})$  for the case  $I = 3$ . Since  $n_3 = 4161n$ , define  $\gamma = \alpha^{4161}$  as an element of order 63 in  $\text{GF}(2^6)$  such that  $\gamma^{63} = \alpha^{262143} = 1$ . Hence  $\alpha^{4161}$  is also an element of the subfield  $\text{GF}(64)$ , since  $m = 6$  divides evenly into  $3m = 18$ . Note that a similar relationship does not exist between  $\text{GF}(2^{18})$  and  $(2^{12})$ , since 12 does not divide evenly into 18.

Coverage of subfields by selected primary fields in the range  $\text{GF}(2^4)$  to  $\text{GF}(2^{20})$  is shown graphically based on the factorization of  $m$  for each field. Each column shows which

subfields in the range  $m = 3$  to 10 are covered by each choice of primary search field from  $m = 4$  to 20. This table aided in choosing an optimal root search space such that the fewest Galois Field Fourier Transforms are performed on average. Note that prime values of  $m$  cannot be factored and have no subfields; also, GF(2) and GF(4) are not considered since the minimum search length is 7.

**Table 9: Extension Field Coverage Map**

<b>m</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>3</b>			X			X			X			X			X		
<b>4</b>	X				X				X				X				X
<b>5</b>		X					X					X					X
<b>6</b>			X						X						X		
<b>7</b>				X							X						
<b>8</b>					X								X				
<b>9</b>						X									X		
<b>10</b>							X										X

Due to the inherent repetition of roots in multiply related fields, the root search may be optimized by selecting a number of primary fields from the coverage table to search initially. These fields were chosen to cover the set of all Galois fields from  $m = 3$  to 20, with three selection criteria. The search is strategically ordered such that primary fields covering the most subfields are tested first, with as little redundancy as possible, and otherwise in order of ascending field size. The chosen search order and coverage is illustrated by the following table, with redundant subfields shown in parentheses:

**Table 10: Optimal Extension Field Partition**

Primary field $2^m$	Primary $m$	Subfields $m$	Factorization of $m$
4096	12	3, 4, 6	$2*2*3$
1048576	20	(4), 5, 10	$2*2*5$
16384	14	7	$2*7$
65536	16	(4), 8	$2*2*2*2$
262144	18	(3, 6), 9	$2*3*3$
2048	11	-	-
32768	15	-	-

If the extension field search is performed without knowledge of the code word length  $n$ , then certain trial values of  $n$  are searched at each trial extension field. However, unlike the general code rate estimation problem where all lengths within some range are searched, in this case the trial lengths are restricted. Only values of  $n$  which divide evenly into  $q^m - 1$  must be considered, due to the construction of cyclic codes. The table below enumerates all valid search lengths from  $n = 7$  to 255 for all binary extension fields from  $m = 3$  to 20. Note that the prime values 13, 17 and 19 have no valid lengths, and therefore are not included in the extension field search.

**Table 11: Extension Field Search Lengths**

Primary field $2^m$	Primary $m$	Valid lengths $n$
4096	12	7, 9, 13, 15, 21, 35, 39, 45, 63, 65, 91, 105, 117, 195
1048576	20	11, 15, 25, 31, 33, 41, 55, 75, 93, 123, 155, 165, 205
16384	14	43, 127, 129
65536	16	15, 17, 51, 85, 255
262144	18	7, 9, 19, 21, 27, 57, 63, 73, 133, 171, 189, 219
2048	11	23, 89
32768	15	7, 31, 151, 217

### 3.3.3 Reconstruction of Cyclic Generator Polynomial from Roots

Section 2.3.4 described at a high level the approach by which a cyclic code's generator polynomial  $g(x)$  may be reconstructed from roots in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ . Here the mechanics of forming  $g(x)$  from these roots are described in detail. Recall that the generator polynomial is simply formed as the product of first-order polynomials based on each root found.

$$g(x) = \prod_i (x + \gamma^i), \text{ where } \gamma \text{ is an } n^{\text{th}} \text{ root of unity in } \text{GF}(q^m).$$

Polynomial multiplication is equivalent to convolution of the polynomial coefficients, which in our case are powers of  $\gamma$ . Hence, this product is formed algorithmically as follows:

1. Convert the  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$  to primitive field elements (i.e.,  $q^m-1$  roots of unity) by multiplying the exponent by  $(q^m-1)/n$ ;
2. Multiply the first two first-order polynomials together by convolving the coefficient vectors in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$ , resulting in a second-order polynomial;
3. Multiply the previous resultant polynomial with the next first-order term, via convolution;
4. Repeat step 3 until all terms have been multiplied together to form  $g(x)$ .
5. Convert the polynomial coefficients from primitive elements in  $\text{GF}(q^m)$  back to  $\text{GF}(q)$  by multiplying the exponent by  $(q-1)/(q^m-1)$ .

As an example, consider the (21,15) 4-ary BCH code, where  $\gamma$  is a  $21^{st}$  root of unity in  $GF(4^3)$  and  $\alpha$  is a primitive element of  $GF(64)$ . Since the GFFT is performed over length  $n$  code words in the root search, step 1 converts the resulting roots  $\gamma$  to elements  $\alpha$  for convolution in  $GF(64)$ . Step 5 has no effect for this particular example, since all coefficients of  $g(x)$  are binary; however, this is not always the case so the conversion must be performed in general.

### 3.3.4 Consecutive Root Search

Once it has been established that a cyclic code has been found due to finding consistent roots in some extension field, then the placement of those roots may be observed to determine if a BCH code has been found. In particular, BCH codes have  $2t$  consecutive spectral zeros by design. Other zeros may exist in the spectrum for certain BCH codes outside the designed group of consecutive roots, either individually or in smaller groups. An algorithm was developed to isolate the largest cluster of consecutive roots using a differentiation approach.

The basic algorithm takes successive derivatives of an array of roots, represented as powers of  $\alpha$ . Each time the first difference is calculated, the resulting array contains a one between each pair of consecutive roots. Then the index of all ones in the resultant array is used to replace the previous array of roots, which at this stage now represents only roots occurring in groups of two or more. Then the new array is differentiated, and the index of all ones is again used to replace the previous array. The array size is shortened in each

step, and this procedure is repeated until there are no ones left in the resultant array. The final result is the starting index and size of the largest group of roots. The size is determined by the number of differentiations performed.

As an example, consider the array of roots for a (63,45) binary BCH code expressed as powers of  $\alpha$ , shown in step 1 of the table below. The first difference of this array indicates three clusters of consecutive zeros (1-6, 16-17, and 32-34). Six successive iterations are required to complete the search, and the resultant root array at each stage is shown below. The largest cluster contains 6 successive roots, as indicated by the number of iterations performed.

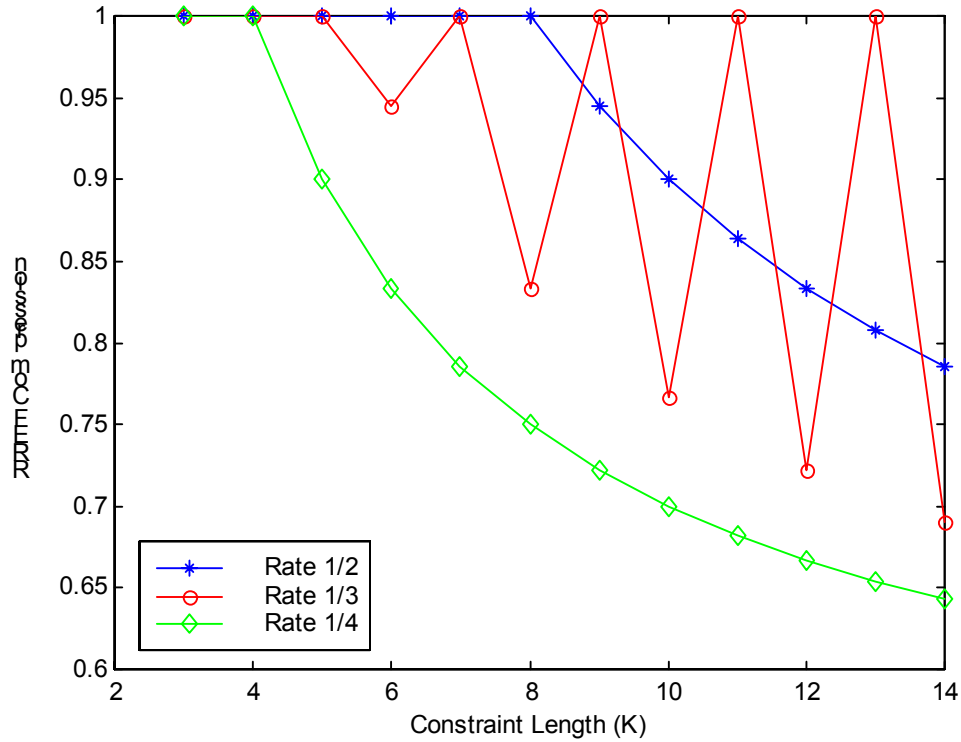
**Table 12: Consecutive Root Search**

Step	Root Array	First Difference
1	[1 2 3 4 5 6 8 10 12 16 17 20 24 32 33 34 40 48]	[1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 4 1 3 4 8 1 1 6 8]
2	[1 2 3 4 5 16 32 33]	[1 1 1 1 11 16 1]
3	[1 2 3 4 32]	[1 1 1 28]
4	[1 2 3]	[1 1]
5	[1 2]	[1]
6	[1]	-

### 3.3.5 Memory Detection via Reduced Row Echelon Form

The winning algorithm for detection of convolutional codes is data compression via RREF compression in GF(2). Trials are run for various values of  $n$  and  $K$ , and RREF compression is applied to a matrix of  $nK$ -bit partial convolutional code words at each trial. The values tested are  $n = 2, 3$  and  $4$ , and  $K$  ranging from  $3$  to  $14$ , since these are the values most commonly found in practice.

It was observed for all trials in the search space that the compression ratio  $\Gamma$  is a monotonically decreasing function of  $K$ , given the correct value of  $n$  or integer multiples of  $n$ . Other values of  $n$  may yield compression at some values of  $K$ , but  $\Gamma$  does not consistently decrease. An example test case is shown below, in which RREF compression is applied to a rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K = 9$  convolutionally encoded bit stream for all trials. Note that the rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  trials both exhibit monotonically decreasing compression ratios, starting at the point where  $nK \geq 18$  ( $2*9 = 18$  for the correct trial code rate,  $4*5 = 20$  for the incorrect trial).



**Figure 12: Binary RREF Compression Trials for a Rate  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $K = 9$  Convolutional Code**

Based on these observed patterns, correct values of  $n$  and  $K$  may be derived for rate  $1/n$  codes by a simple interpretation of the RREF compression trials. First, the correct value of  $n$  is the smallest trial value to result in a monotonically decreasing function of  $K$ . Second, once  $n$  has been determined, the correct value of  $K$  is the trial at which the compression ratio first drops below the threshold value of  $2/n$ . In the previous example, this threshold is equal to one, since  $n = 2$ . The other two cases considered have thresholds of  $2/3$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , for rate  $1/3$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  codes, respectively.



Extension of these rules to the general case of rate  $k/n$  codes was possible by observing compression curves for rate  $2/3$  and  $3/4$  codes. First, the threshold value in general is  $(k+1)/n$ , which is in agreement with results above, and also indicates a threshold value of one for rate  $1/2$ ,  $2/3$ , and  $3/4$  codes. The second modification involves the trial where the compression ratio  $\Gamma$  first drops below the threshold. In general, this trial constraint length  $K_{est}$  actually represents  $k(K-1)+1$ , which evaluates to  $K$  when  $k = 1$ . For cases when  $k > 1$ , the actual value of  $K$  may be derived as  $[(K_{est}-1)/k]+1$ .

Finally, a third critical observation was required to deduce  $k$  directly, without an additional search loop. Define the compression ratio  $\Gamma = kK/nK$  and  $\Delta(K) = nK - kK = (n-k)K$ .

The function  $\Delta(K)$  represents the difference between compressed and uncompressed words at trial values of  $K$ ; the first difference of  $\Delta$  is  $\Delta' = \Delta(K) - \Delta(K-1) = n-k$ . The derivative  $\Delta'$  is calculated with each successive trial, and when the compression ratio begins to monotonically decrease its value accurately represents  $n-k$  (provided the correct trial value of  $n$ ). Thus  $k$  may be recovered under these conditions as  $n - \Delta'$ .

Due to the required logic to simultaneously search for  $n$ ,  $k$ , and  $K$ , sometimes the estimate of  $K$  was corrupted for multiple input convolutional codes. A simple solution was implemented to make a second search pass through all constraint lengths only, once the

values of  $n$  and  $k$  (and hence the exact threshold) are known. The combined techniques proved effective for all arbitrary rate  $k/n$  codes that were tested (i.e., rate  $\frac{1}{2}$  through  $\frac{3}{4}$ ).

One important feature is that this binary RREF technique is robust against false identification of block codes. The inherent memory in a convolutional code is required to produce a monotonically decreasing compression ratio versus constraint length. As seen in the block code rate testing, binary RREF compression of a block code will produce values less than one only at multiples of  $n\lambda$ , where  $n$  is the actual block code word length, and  $\lambda = \log_2(q)$ . This is important because the search for convolutional codes precedes the block code search; therefore, the memory detection test must fail for all uncoded or block coded bit streams.

### **3.3.6 Reconstruction of Convolutional Generator Polynomials via Data Cancellation**

Once the convolutional code rate and constraint length are known, we must identify the  $nk$  generator polynomials (including order) to specify the encoder structure completely. As in the nonparametric random search one could run systematic trials through a tentative MLSE decoder, in which certain combinations of generators are tested until the best path metric indicates success. However, this is more work than required if the assumption of

no bit errors is valid. In [5] it was shown that there exist a set of polynomials  $a_i(x)$  such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) g_i(x) = 1,$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) c_i(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) g_i(x) m(x) = m(x).$$

Hence the original data word  $m(x)$  can be recovered by multiplying each interleaved generator polynomial  $g_i(x)$  by an inverse polynomial  $a_i(x)$ , provided the channel code word  $c(x)$  is uncorrupted. This technique was modified to remove the data instead of recover it, for the purpose of finding the unknown generator polynomials:

$$\left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) g_i(x) \right] \bmod n = 0,$$

$$\left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) c_i(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) g_i(x) m(x) \right] \bmod n = 0.$$

$$\text{Solution: } a_i(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} g_j(x),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i(x) c_i(x) \right] &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left\{ \prod_{j \neq i} g_j(x) \right\} g_i(x) m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left\{ \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} g_j(x) \right\} m(x) \bmod n = \\ &0. \end{aligned}$$

A search can now be carried out by substituting in the product of trial generator polynomials until the sum of interleaved coded bit streams equals zero. Note that modulo- $n$  summations are used instead of modulo-2, to force a zero result for odd values of  $n$ ; polynomial products are still formed in GF(2). Also, the zero test should be validated over at least two  $nK$  bit blocks, so that the  $n(K-1)$  bit convolution startup transient may be ignored<sup>5</sup>. A practical search approach would be to start with the best known generators and test all possible orderings until a winner is found. If this fails, a more thorough search is required by testing all permutations of generator coefficients.

Considering the potentially huge number of trials to run, there is an advantage to the proposed data cancellation approach over MLSE decoding at each trial. Data cancellation involves only polynomial multiplication and modulo- $n$  summation. MLSE decoding at each trial would be more complex, even with the efficient Viterbi algorithm.

### 3.4 Areas for Future Prototype Development and Performance Improvement

The software prototype FEC code recognition system was developed in Matlab and two performance bottlenecks were optimized in C code. Further performance improvement could be realized by implementation of the RREF and GFFT functions in dedicated

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<sup>5</sup> Binary polynomial multiplication is equivalent to convolution in GF(2). As with a linear FIR filter, the convolution output includes a startup transient of length consistent with the filter memory. Therefore, the

hardware, yet retaining software control over most of the processing. For example, a commercially available multiprocessor Digital Signal Processing (DSP) card could be used to improve upon the PC environment, since DSPs are optimized for fast multiplication/addition and modulo operations. It is doubtful that custom hardware would yield much benefit, since the nature of the problem requires great flexibility in changing parameters.

The GFFT algorithm itself can also be optimized similar to the FFT or via algebraic techniques. The issues involved with this particular task were described in section 3.3.2.1. Additionally, the nonbinary RREF algorithm could be somewhat optimized for a more efficient C code implementation, since this is a time consuming operation.

Note that the current prototype was tested with generated test signals only, not actual recorded signals. Another item for future prototype development would be to identify several actual FEC encoded bit streams, provided that the captured data meets the operating criteria stated in 2.1. Finally, identification of test signals and actual signals in the presence of bit errors would prove the robustness of the parametric search algorithms.

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zero test output is always zero only if we begin at the start of the entire convolutional code word; otherwise, entering “mid-stream” results in nonzero outputs until the delay line memory is filled.

## 4. Results

The prototype recognition system was repeatedly tested throughout development to aid in debugging the software. Matlab files were developed to generate encoded test vectors, which were used to test algorithms individually and then integrate the best ones into a final working system. The set of test vectors that were generated is enumerated in section 4.1, and then performance results are presented in 4.2. More specifically, performance results are categorized into accuracy of code recognition, and speed of algorithm processing for each test case.

### 4.1 Test Code Set

The set of 18 codes chosen for system development and testing is listed in the following table, plus an uncoded “control” test case. The amount of data generated for each test vector was roughly determined by the recognition system operating parameters. Generally speaking, the more complex the code, the more data is required to detect it. Note that random  $q$ -ary symbols were used as input to each encoder.

**Table 13: Test Codes**

Test #	Code Type	$n$	$k$	$q$	$m$	$q^m$	$t$	$K$
0	Uncoded	N/A	N/A	2	N/A	N/A	0	N/A
1	Hamming	7	4	2	N/A	N/A	1	N/A
2	Hamming	15	11	2	N/A	N/A	1	N/A
3	Golay	23	12	2	11	2048	3	N/A
4	CRC	7	4	2	3	8	1	N/A
5	BCH	63	45	2	6	64	3	N/A
6	Reed-Muller	16	5	2	N/A	N/A	3	N/A
7	BCH	21	15	4	3	64	1	N/A
8	BCH	21	12	4	3	64	2	N/A
9	BCH	85	73	16	2	256	3	N/A
10	Reed-Solomon	63	57	64	1	64	3	N/A
11	Reed-Solomon	255	245	256	1	256	5	N/A
12*	Convolutional	2	1	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	3-9, 14
13*	Convolutional	3	1	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	3, 8, 14
14*	Convolutional	4	1	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	3, 7, 14
15**	Convolutional	2	1	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	9
16**	Convolutional	3	1	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	4
17*	Convolutional	3	2	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	3, 6
18*	Convolutional	4	3	2	N/A	N/A	N/A	4

\* Convolutional codes with best known polynomials and maximal memory order  $M$

\*\* Convolutional codes with suboptimal polynomials

## 4.2 System Performance Results

Performance of the final prototype FEC code recognition system was measured by running the tests cases in table 13 through the Matlab main program. This section summarizes system performance with respect to time of computation and accuracy of code parameters recovered.

### 4.2.1 Code Recognition Performance

Overall, the accuracy of code recognition was exactly as expected for most codes tested, since the algorithms were tested in an error-free environment. Recall that the goal of this prototype testbed was to prove that the techniques are fundamentally sound. I believe that the current algorithms can be modified or repeatedly applied to provide near perfect performance for low but nonzero bit error rates; this was mentioned as an open issue in section 3.4.

Note that all code parameters are not critical to successfully decode a bit stream, however, the system attempts to derive as much information as possible to classify a given code.

The following six parameters are considered critical:  $n$ ,  $k$ ,  $q$ ,  $m$  (cyclic codes only),  $K$  (convolutional codes only), and  $g(x)$  or  $G$ . From these parameters one can directly derive other parameters:  $n$  and  $k$  imply code rate  $R$  and redundancy  $r$ ; alphabet size  $q$  implies  $\lambda$  bits/symbol;  $m$  implies the Galois extension field for cyclic codes; and the generator polynomial(s) or matrix imply the parity check polynomial  $h(x)$  or matrix  $H^T$  or trellis structure.

In contrast, there are several parameters which are not critical and cannot be derived directly from the critical code parameters. These include the error correction capacity  $t$ , minimum or free distance, and memory order  $M$  (convolutional codes only). By noncritical it is meant that these parameters are not required to construct a working



decoder, but they may be useful properties to know for other reasons. For example,  $M$  implies the number of states in a convolutional encoder and hence the required minimum complexity of a matching Viterbi decoder.  $M$  is not a critical parameter since a working decoder can be constructed with more than the minimum number of states, but it could be used to reduce the recovered state machine to an optimal size, thus reducing the trellis decoding complexity.

With the concept of critical and noncritical parameters in mind, specific results of system testing were as follows:

- The uncoded test case failed the convolutional memory test and block code compression test as expected, successfully indicating a rate 1 uncoded bit stream.
- All but one parameter for the noncyclic binary Hamming codes (test cases 1 and 2) were correctly identified. No estimate of the generator matrix  $G$  was provided, but this does not appear possible (recall section 2.5). Correct classification as a perfect binary Hamming code was achieved in both cases, with  $t = 1$  derived from  $d_{min} = 3$ .
- The binary Golay code was falsely classified as a 2 error correcting BCH code due to consecutive roots in its spectrum. However, all critical parameters were correctly identified ( $n$ ,  $k$ ,  $q$ ,  $m$ , and  $g(x)$ ), as was the minimum distance of 7.
- The binary CRC code in case 4 was correctly classified as a BCH code (note that they are not mutually exclusive and it is also a Hamming code as well). All parameters were correct.

- All six BCH codes (cases 5, 7-11) including the special case Reed-Solomon codes were correctly classified and all applicable parameters were recovered. The minimum distance estimates provided for these codes were not accurate for reasons examined in 2.3.1.1, but  $d_{min}$  is not even known for some BCH codes due to their large size.
- The (16,5) Reed-Muller code in test case 6 initially failed to recover the correct code rate, since compression was encountered before the actual code word length (estimated  $k = 4$  at  $n = 8$ ). The code rate search was modified to continue searching after the first trial to show significant compression, as long as subsequent trials showed higher compression. This change allowed accurate estimation of  $n$ ,  $k$  and  $q$ , but then the root search incorrectly classified it as a cyclic code due to roots found in GF(8). However, this failure was caught by the redundancy check described in 2.3.5.
- The rate  $1/n$  convolutional codes in test cases 12-16 were successfully identified, and  $n$ ,  $K$  and  $G$  were accurately recovered (where  $G$  is a matrix representation of the  $n$  generator polynomials). Note that the polynomial search order was varied during testing for cases 12-14, as was the order of trial tap permutations for cases 15 and 16, in order to validate robustness of the search algorithms. No attempt was made to estimate the minimum free distance.
- The rate  $2/3$  and  $3/4$  multiple input convolutional codes in test cases 17 and 18 were also successfully identified, and  $n$ ,  $k$ , and  $K$  were accurately recovered for several test constraint lengths. These codes were constructed using the best known generator

polynomials of maximal memory order  $M = k(K-1)$ . No attempt was made to search for the generators due to the complexity issue.

#### **4.2.2 System Speed Performance**

Time trials were performed during final testing to measure algorithm and implementation efficiency. Most test cases were completed in several seconds, but several nonbinary BCH codes and one convolutional code with suboptimal generators took up to 15 minutes.

Note that the timing results shown in table 14 do not include the time required to read in the Galois field lookup tables. This task only takes several seconds, and is only performed on the first trial after starting Matlab.

The third column below shows the execution time prior to fixing the initial problem with the Reed-Muller code, while the fourth column shows results after changing the block code rate estimation routine. This fix does not affect the convolutional code trials, and adds roughly 20 seconds on average to the block code trials which did not involve an extensive rate search to begin with.

**Table 14: Recognition Time Trials**

<b>Test #</b>	<b>Code Type</b>	<b>Time (min:sec)</b>	
0	Uncoded	13:26	13:26
1	Hamming	0:04	0:22
2	Hamming	0:04	0:22
3	Golay	0:06	0:22
4	CRC	0:01	0:19
5	BCH	0:02	0:20
6	Reed-Muller	-	0:18
7	BCH	0:01	0:19
8	BCH	0:01	0:19
9	BCH	3:34	3:35
10	Reed-Solomon	7:27	7:29
11	Reed-Solomon	15:13	15:14
12	Convolutional	0:01	0:01
13	Convolutional	0:01	0:01
14	Convolutional	0:01	0:01
15	Convolutional	14:18	14:18
16	Convolutional	0:13	0:13
17	Convolutional	0:01	0:01
18	Convolutional	0:01	0:01

## 5. Summary

In conclusion, a general parametric classification methodology was developed in this thesis to reconstruct an error correction encoder from its output bit stream only, given no information about the coding scheme used. Algorithms were developed in an intuitive fashion, mainly using linear algebra principles and finite field arithmetic. An FEC code recognition prototype testbed was built to experiment with different techniques for extracting features from a coded sequence to determine the encoding parameters. This system must also differentiate between block, convolutional, and uncoded bit streams.

A number of different algorithms and procedures were developed, but the most important and successful techniques rely on two basic concepts: vector basis representation and spectral analysis in finite fields. The first concept led to several applications of matrix reduction to row echelon form, primarily to estimate the entropy of a coded bit stream. The latter enabled a straightforward solution to completely specify cyclic block codes, based on finding generator polynomial roots.

The prototype system was tested in an error-free environment for a variety of basic coding schemes, with the focus on cyclic block and single input convolutional codes. The

recognition system worked for many unmodified cyclic block codes (e.g., BCH, Reed-Solomon, Golay, CRC) with very few glitches, and all critical parameters were recovered perfectly. Several noncyclic block codes were also tested, with varying degrees of success; these codes have a fundamental limitation which makes complete specification of the generator matrix impossible given the operating circumstances.

Convolutional codes are more difficult to detect due to their continuous nature and lack of mathematical structure, but the ideas presented in this paper worked very well upon implementation (after some refinement). All single input codes were recovered perfectly, with an efficient search method for identifying the generator polynomials. Code rate and constraint length were also successfully recovered for multiple input convolutional codes, but no attempt was made to search for generator polynomials due to complexity of possible combinations involved. The software execution time for identifying most codes was under 30 seconds using a 400 MHz Pentium II PC, but several of the more complex codes took up to 15 minutes.

The goals that I set out to achieve in this project were almost completely met, and a solid foundation has been laid for growth in this area of research. I believe that there are several niche applications for this work, but more importantly, I think the underlying algorithms themselves may offer a simple and effective solution to various bit-level analysis problems. Finally, the insight into coding theory and understanding of the

relationship between block and convolutional codes will prove invaluable in my career as Shannon limit digital communications becomes practical.

## APPENDIX A: Matlab Prototype Source Code

### ***Go2.m:***

```
% FEC CODE RECOGNITION MAIN PROGRAM

% Select test code to identify
%FileName = 'Uncoded'; % control test case
%%% Binary codes
%FileName = 'Hamming3';
%FileName = 'Hamming4';
%FileName = 'Golay23-1';
%FileName = 'Golay23-2';
%FileName = 'Crc7-4-1';
%FileName = 'Bch63-45-3';
%FileName = 'rm16-5-3';
%%% 4-ary codes
%FileName = 'Bch21-15-1-4';
%FileName = 'Bch21-12-2-4';
%%% 16-ary codes
%FileName = 'Bch85-73-3-16';
%%% 64-ary codes
%FileName = 'Rs63-57-3';
%%% 256-ary codes
%FileName = 'Rs255-245-5';
%%% Rate 1/n convolutional codes
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K3';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K4';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K5';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K6';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K7';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K8';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K9';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K9b';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-2_K14';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-3_K3';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-3_K4b';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-3_K8';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-3_K14';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-4_K3';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-4_K7';
%FileName = 'ConvR1-4_K14';
%FileName = 'ConvR2-3_K3_M4';
%FileName = 'ConvR2-3_K6_M10';
FileName = 'ConvR3-4_K4_M9';
```



```

% Search for rate k/n convolutional codes via RREF in GF(2), including
% constraint length
[ConvCWLlenEst,InputLenEst,ConstraintLenEst] = FindMem6(FileName,3,4,14);

if (ConvCWLlenEst > 0) & (ConstraintLenEst > 0)
    if (InputLenEst == 1)
        % Search for generator polynomials given K for rate 1/n
        % convolutional codes
        G = FindGenPolys(FileName,ConvCWLlenEst,ConstraintLenEst);
    else
        % Generator polynomial search for k>1 convolutional codes is too
        % complex
        G = [];
    end

    fprintf('\n-----\n')
    fprintf('Identified (%d,%d,%d) convolutional code\n',...
        ConvCWLlenEst,InputLenEst,ConstraintLenEst);
    if ~isempty(G)
        fprintf('Order-%d generator polynomials (in octal):\n',...
            ConstraintLenEst-1);
        G
    end
    return
end

% Generate Galois Field vector representations for GF(2^3) to GF(2^13)
if ~exist('vectors8_m1')
    ReadFields
end

WordCount = 30;
warning off          % disable log of zero warning message

% Estimate block code params (n,k,q) via RREF in GF(q)
[RateEst,CWLlenEst,InputLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst] = ...
    EstRate3(FileName,7,255,8)

if RateEst<1

% Search for cyclic codes via GFFT root search in extension fields
[ExtFieldEst,ExtRoots,CWLlenEst2] = ...
    FindRoots(FileName,WordCount,AlphabetSizeEst,CWLlenEst)
warning on

if ~isempty(ExtFieldEst)
    if CWLlenEst ~= CWLlenEst2
        disp 'Error: conflicting code word lengths'
        dbcont % exit
    end
end

if length(ExtRoots)>0
    disp 'Found cyclic block code'

    % Convert roots to base field by multiplying by (q^m-1)/n

```

```

ExtRoots = ExtRoots-1;
BaseRoots = ExtRoots*(ExtFieldEst-1)/CWLenEst

% Rebuild generator polynomial by convolving all roots together:
% g(x) = (x+alpha^r1)*(x+alpha^r2)...*(x+alpha^ri)
g = PolyGFx(BaseRoots,CWLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,ExtFieldEst,1)

redundancy = length(g) - 1
InputLenEst2 = CWLenEst - redundancy
if InputLenEst ~= InputLenEst2
    disp 'Error: conflicting input word lengths'
    dbcont % exit
end

[ConsecRoots,t] = FindConsecRoots(ExtRoots)
dmin = EstMinDist(File Name,CWLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,InputLenEst*2)
if t>0
    CodeType = 'BCH'
    if (CWLenEst==AlphabetSizeEst-1 & ExtFieldEst==AlphabetSizeEst)
        CodeType = 'Reed-Solomon'
    end
    if dmin < 2*t+1
        disp 'Error: invalid minimum distance (dmin < 2*t+1)'
        dbcont % exit
    else
        disp 'Check: dmin > 2*t'
    end
    if rem(ExtFieldEst-1,CWLenEst) == 0
        disp 'Check: q^m-1 | n'
    else
        disp 'Error: invalid BCH code (n != q^m-1)'
        dbcont % exit
    end
else
    CodeType = 'CRC or perfect cyclic block'
    t = floor((dmin-1)/2)

    redundancy2 = EstRedundancy(CWLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,t)
    if redundancy == redundancy2
        disp 'Assume perfect block code'
        CodeType = 'perfect block'
        if InputLenEst== 1
            if t == (CWLenEst-1)/2
                CodeType = 'binary repetition'
            else
                disp 'Error: invalid repetition code (t != (n-1)/2)'
                dbcont % exit
            end
        elseif (InputLenEst==12 & CWLenEst==23)
            if t == 3
                CodeType = 'binary Golay'
            else
                disp 'Error: invalid Golay code (t != 3)'
                dbcont % exit
            end
        elseif CWLenEst == ExtFieldEst-1

```

```

        if t == 1
            CodeType = 'binary Hamming'
        else
            disp 'Error: invalid Hamming code (t != 1)'
            dbcont % exit
        end
    else
        disp 'Error: invalid perfect code (no match)'
        dbcont % exit
    end

    else
        disp 'Assume CRC block code'
        CodeType = 'CRC block';
    end
end
else
    disp 'Assume non-cyclic block code'
    CodeType = 'non-cyclic block';
    dmin = EstMinDist(FileName,CWLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,InputLenEst*2)
    t = floor((dmin-1)/2)
    redundancy = CWLenEst - InputLenEst;
    redundancy2 = EstRedundancy(CWLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,t)
    if (redundancy==redundancy2 & t==1)
        CodeType = 'binary Hamming';
    end
end
end

fprintf('\n-----\n')
fprintf('Identified code:\n')
fprintf('(%d,%d) %d-ary %d-error correcting %s code\n',...
        CWLenEst,InputLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst,t,CodeType);
if ~isempty(ExtFieldEst)
    fprintf('Roots in GF(%d) as powers of alpha:\n',ExtFieldEst);
    BaseRoots
    if max(g)<2
        fprintf('Order-%d binary generator polynomial (in octal):\n', ...
                redundancy);
        g = oct2gen(g,[1,1,redundancy])
    else
        fprintf('Order-%d generator polynomial:\n',redundancy);
        g
    end
end
end
end
end

```

### ***FindMem6.m:***

```

function [ConvCWLenEst,InputLenEst,ConstraintLenEst] = ...
    FindMem6(FileName,kmax,nmax,Kmax)

% RREF TECHNIQUE IN GF(2) ADAPTED TO CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

% Increase max memory length to ensure valid test up to Kmax;

```

```

% this avoids false detection of block codes
margin = 4;
Kmax = Kmax+margin;
InputLenEst = 0;
ConvCWLlenEst = 0;
ConstraintLenEst = 0;
compr = ones(nmax,Kmax);
ConsecCompr = 0;

for n=2:nmax
    n
    k = 1;
    TH = (k+1)/n;
    ConstraintLenEst = 0;
    PrevRate = 1;
    PrevK = 2;
    PrevDelta = 0;
    FirstCompr = 0;

    for K=3:Kmax
        nK = n*K;
        WordCount = 2*nK;
        EncodedBitCount = nK*WordCount;
        s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
        CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');

        [r,WordsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
        if(WordsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
            disp 'Error reading file'
            WordsRead
        end

        r2 = reshape(r,nK,WordCount)';
        %[G2,nK] = RrefGF2(r2);
        [G2,kK] = RrefGF2c(r2);    % MEX C-code implementation

        rate = kK/nK;
        compr(n,K) = rate;    % DEBUG: bitwise RREF compression
        delta = nK-kK;
        delta2 = delta - PrevDelta;
        PrevDelta = delta;

        if FirstCompr
            k = n-delta2;
            TH = (k+1)/n;
            if TH > 1
                TH = 1;
            end
        end

        if rate < 1
            fprintf('Rate = %d/%d = %f, n = %d, K = %d, delta = %d, ...
                    delta2 = %d\n',kK,nK,rate,n,K,delta,delta2)
            FirstCompr = 1;
        end
    end
end

```

```

        if (rate < PrevRate) & (K == PrevK+1)
            PrevRate = rate;
            PrevK = K;
            ConvCWLlenEst = n;
            ConsecCompr = ConsecCompr+1;
            if (rate < TH) & (ConstraintLenEst < 1)
                InputLenEst = k
                % Set K at first rate to drop below the threshold
                ConstraintLenEst = ((K-1)/k)+1;
                fprintf('(Rate = %f) < (threshold = %f) at ...
                        K = %d\n',rate,TH,K)
            end
        else
            % Invalidate this trial since its rate is not
            % monotonically decreasing
            ConvCWLlenEst = 0;
            InputLenEst = 0;
            break
        end
    elseif ~FirstCompr
        PrevK = K;
    else
        % Invalidate this trial since its rate is not
        % monotonically decreasing
        ConvCWLlenEst = 0;
        InputLenEst = 0;
        break
    end
end

fclose(CodedFile);
end

if (ConvCWLlenEst > 0) & (InputLenEst > 0) & (ConsecCompr >= margin)
    break
end

end

% Repeat search for K if k > 1, given (n,k) and appropriate threshold,
% to revise estimate of constraint length
if (ConvCWLlenEst > 0) & (InputLenEst > 1)
    TH = (k+1)/n;
    for K=3:Kmax
        nK = n*K;
        WordCount = 2*nK;
        EncodedBitCount = nK*WordCount;
        s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
        CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');
        [r,WordsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
        if(WordsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
            disp 'Error reading file'
            WordsRead
        end
    end
end

```

```

r2 = reshape(r,nK,WordCount)';
[G2,kK] = RrefGF2c(r2);      % MEX C-code implementation
rate = kK/nK;

if (rate < TH)
    % Set K at first rate to drop below the threshold
    ConstraintLenEst = ((K-1)/k)+1;
    fprintf('(Rate = %f) < (threshold = %f) at K2 = %d; ...
            K = %d\n',rate,TH,K,ConstraintLenEst)
    fclose(CodedFile);
    break
end
fclose(CodedFile);
end
end

if (ConvCWLlenEst > 0) & (ConstraintLenEst > 0)
    fprintf('Found convolutional code: n = %d, k = %d, K = %d\n', ...
            ConvCWLlenEst,InputLenEst,ConstraintLenEst)
else
    disp 'CONVOLUTIONAL CODE NOT FOUND'
end

if 0
figure
Ki = [3:Kmax];
plot(Ki,compr(2,Ki),'b*-')
hold
plot(Ki,compr(3,Ki),'ro-')
plot(Ki,compr(4,Ki),'gd-')
xlabel('Constraint Length (K)')
ylabel('RREF Compression')
legend('Rate 1/2','Rate 1/3','Rate 1/4',0)
end

```

### ***FindGenPolys.m:***

```

function [G2] = FindGenPolys(FileName,n,K)

% FIND CONVOLUTIONAL CODE GENERATOR POLYNOMIALS VIA DATA CANCELLATION

WordCount = 20*K;
N = WordCount+(n-1)*(K-1);

EncodedBitCount = n*WordCount;
s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');

[r,WordsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
if(WordsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
    disp 'Error reading file'
end

```

```

WordsRead
end

r2 = reshape(r,n,WordCount);

perm = prod([1:n])      % n! = # of possible orderings of gi(x)
PermLUT = perms(1:n);    % table of index permutations for gi(x)
%PermLUT = fliplr(perms(1:n)) % table of index permutations for gi(x)
comb = 2^(n*K)          % # of tap combinations across all polynomials
MaxComb = 1e6;          % maximum # of tap combinations to search

% Search based on best known polynomials first
if n==2

    switch K
        case 3,
            G = oct2gen([5;7]);
        case 4,
            G = oct2gen([64;74]);
        % G = oct2gen([74;64]);
        case 5,
            G = oct2gen([46;72]);
        case 6,
            G = oct2gen([65;57]);
        case 7,
            G = oct2gen([554;744]);
        case 8,
            G = oct2gen([712;476]);
        case 9,
            G = oct2gen([561;753]);
        case 10,
            G = oct2gen([4734;6624]);
        case 11,
            G = oct2gen([4672;7542]);
        case 12,
            G = oct2gen([4335;5723]);
        case 13,
            G = oct2gen([42554;77304]);
        case 14,
            G = oct2gen([43572;56246]);
    end

    % Try possible orderings until a winner is found
    fprintf('Searching for optimal generators\n')
    for i=1:perm
        a1 = G(i,:);
        a2 = G(perm+1-i,:);
        P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));
        P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
        P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
        P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
        S = mod(P1+P2,2);
        S = S(1:WordCount);
        if sum(S)==0
            fprintf('Found generators at trial %d:\n',i)

```

```

        G2 = oct2gen([a2;a1],[1,n,K-1])
        break
    end
end

if (sum(S)~=0) & (comb<MaxComb)
    % Try all generator tap combinations, except when any gi(x)=0
    fprintf('Searching suboptimal generators\n')
    mask = 2^K-1;
    imin = 2^K;
    j = 0;
    for i=imin:comb-1
        glo = bitand(bitshift(i,-K),mask);
        g2o = bitand(i,mask);
        if (glo>0) & (g2o>0)
            j = j+1;
            a1 = de2bi(glo,K);
            a2 = de2bi(g2o,K);
            P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));
            P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
            P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
            P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
            S = mod(P1+P2,2);
            S = S(1:WordCount);
            if sum(S)==0
                fprintf('Found generators at i=%d (trial %d):\n',i,j)
                G2 = oct2gen([a2;a1],[1,n,K-1])
                break
            end
        end
    end
end

if sum(S)~=0
    fprintf('No generators found\n')
end

elseif n==3

    switch K
        case 3,
            G = oct2gen([5;7;7]);
            % G = oct2gen([7;5;7]);
            % G = oct2gen([7;7;5]);
        case 4,
            G = oct2gen([54;64;74]);
        case 5,
            G = oct2gen([52;66;76]);
        case 6,
            G = oct2gen([47;53;75]);
        case 7,
            G = oct2gen([554;624;764]);
        case 8,
            G = oct2gen([452;662;756]);
        case 9,
            G = oct2gen([557;663;711]);
    end
end

```



```

case 10,
    G = oct2gen([4474;5724;7154]);
case 11,
    G = oct2gen([4726;5562;6372]);
case 12,
    G = oct2gen([4767;5723;6265]);
case 13,
    G = oct2gen([42554;43364;77304]);
case 14,
    G = oct2gen([43512;73542;76266]);
%     G = oct2gen([73542;43512;76266]);
end

% Try possible orderings until a winner is found
fprintf('Searching for optimal generators\n')
for i=1:perm
    g1 = G(PermLUT(i,1),:);
    g2 = G(PermLUT(i,2),:);
    g3 = G(PermLUT(i,3),:);
    a1 = gfconv(g2,g3);
    a2 = gfconv(g1,g3);
    a3 = gfconv(g1,g2);
    P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));
    P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
    P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
    P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
    P3 = gfconv(a3,r2(3,:));
    P3 = [P3 zeros(1,N-length(P3))];
    S = mod(P1+P2+P3,3);
    S = S(1:WordCount);
    if sum(S)==0
        fprintf('Found generators at trial %d:\n',i)
        G2 = oct2gen([g1;g2;g3],[1,n,K-1])
        break
    end
end

if (sum(S)~=0) & (comb<MaxComb)
    % Try all generator tap combinations, except when any gi(x)=0
    fprintf('Searching suboptimal generators\n')
    mask = 2^K-1;
    imin = 2^((n-1)*K);
    j = 0;
    for i=imin:comb-1
        glo = bitand(bitshift(i,-2*K),mask);
        g2o = bitand(bitshift(i,-K),mask);
        g3o = bitand(i,mask);
        if (glo>0) & (g2o>0) & (g3o>0)
            j = j+1;
            g1 = de2bi(glo,K);
            g2 = de2bi(g2o,K);
            g3 = de2bi(g3o,K);
            a1 = gfconv(g2,g3);
            a2 = gfconv(g1,g3);
            a3 = gfconv(g1,g2);
            P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));

```

```

        P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
        P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
        P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
        P3 = gfconv(a3,r2(3,:));
        P3 = [P3 zeros(1,N-length(P3))];
        S = mod(P1+P2+P3,3);
        S = S(1:WordCount);
        if sum(S)==0
            fprintf('Found generators at i=%d (trial %d):\n',i,j)
            G2 = oct2gen([g1;g2;g3],[1,n,K-1])
            break
        end
    end
end
end

if sum(S)~=0
    fprintf('No generators found\n')
end

elseif n==4

    switch K
    case 3,
        G = oct2gen([5;7;7;7]);
        % G = oct2gen([7;7;5;7]);
    case 4,
        G = oct2gen([54;64;64;74]);
    case 5,
        G = oct2gen([52;56;66;76]);
    case 6,
        G = oct2gen([53;67;71;75]);
    case 7,
        G = oct2gen([564;564;634;714]);
        % G = oct2gen([564;634;714;564]);
    case 8,
        G = oct2gen([472;572;626;736]);
    case 9,
        G = oct2gen([463;535;733;745]);
    case 10,
        G = oct2gen([4474;5724;7154;7254]);
    case 11,
        G = oct2gen([4656;4726;5562;6372]);
    case 12,
        G = oct2gen([4767;5723;6265;7455]);
    case 13,
        G = oct2gen([44624;52374;66754;73534]);
    case 14,
        G = oct2gen([42226;46372;73256;73276]);
    end

    % Try possible orderings until a winner is found
    fprintf('Searching for optimal generators\n')
    for i=1:perm
        g1 = G(PermLUT(i,1),:);
        g2 = G(PermLUT(i,2),:);

```

```

g3 = G(PermLUT(i,3),:);
g4 = G(PermLUT(i,4),:);
a12 = gfconv(g1,g2);
a13 = gfconv(g1,g3);
a23 = gfconv(g2,g3);
a1 = gfconv(a23,g4);
a2 = gfconv(a13,g4);
a3 = gfconv(a12,g4);
a4 = gfconv(a12,g3);
P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));
P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
P3 = gfconv(a3,r2(3,:));
P3 = [P3 zeros(1,N-length(P3))];
P4 = gfconv(a4,r2(4,:));
P4 = [P4 zeros(1,N-length(P4))];
S = mod(P1+P2+P3+P4,4);
S = S(1:WordCount);
if sum(S)==0
    fprintf('Found generators at trial %d:\n',i)
    G2 = oct2gen([g1;g2;g3;g4],[1,n,K-1])
    break
end
end
end

if (sum(S)~=0) & (comb<MaxComb)
    % Try all generator tap combinations, except when any gi(x)=0
    fprintf('Searching suboptimal generators\n')
    mask = 2^K-1;
    imin = 2^((n-1)*K);
    j = 0;
    for i=imin:comb-1
        glo = bitand(bitshift(i,-3*K),mask);
        g2o = bitand(bitshift(i,-2*K),mask);
        g3o = bitand(bitshift(i,-K),mask);
        g4o = bitand(i,mask);
        if (glo>0) & (g2o>0) & (g3o>0) & (g4o>0)
            j = j+1;
            g1 = de2bi(glo,K);
            g2 = de2bi(g2o,K);
            g3 = de2bi(g3o,K);
            g4 = de2bi(g4o,K);
            a12 = gfconv(g1,g2);
            a13 = gfconv(g1,g3);
            a23 = gfconv(g2,g3);
            a1 = gfconv(a23,g4);
            a2 = gfconv(a13,g4);
            a3 = gfconv(a12,g4);
            a4 = gfconv(a12,g3);
            P1 = gfconv(a1,r2(1,:));
            P1 = [P1 zeros(1,N-length(P1))];
            P2 = gfconv(a2,r2(2,:));
            P2 = [P2 zeros(1,N-length(P2))];
            P3 = gfconv(a3,r2(3,:));
            P3 = [P3 zeros(1,N-length(P3))];

```

```

        P4 = gfconv(a4,r2(4,:));
        P4 = [P4 zeros(1,N-length(P4))];
        S = mod(P1+P2+P3+P4,4);
        S = S(1:WordCount);
        if sum(S)==0
            fprintf('Found generators at i=%d (trial %d):\n',i,j)
            G2 = oct2gen([g1;g2;g3;g4],[1,n,K-1])
            break
        end
    end
end
end
end

if sum(S)~=0
    fprintf('No generators found\n')
end

end

```

### ***EstRate3.m:***

```

function [RateEst,CWLenEst,InputLenEst,AlphabetSizeEst] = ...
    EstRate3(FileName,nmin,nmax,lmax)

disp 'Searching for code rate via RREF in GF(2)'
RateEst = 1;
nqmin = nmin;
nqmax = nmax;

for n = nmin:nmax
    WordCount = 2*n;          % should be > n symbols for accurate results
    EncodedBitCount = n*WordCount;
    s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
    CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');
    [r,BitsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
    fclose(CodedFile);
    if(BitsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
        disp 'Error reading file'
        BitsRead
        return
    end

    r2 = reshape(r,n,WordCount)';
    %[G2,k] = RrefGF2(r2);
    [G2,k] = RrefGF2c(r2);      % MEX C-code implementation
    rate = k/n;

    if (rate<RateEst)
        RateEst = rate;
        CWLenEst = n;
        InputLenEst = k;
        AlphabetSizeEst = 2;
        if(rate<1)

```

```

        fprintf('Code rate estimate: %d/%d = %f\n',k,n,RateEst)
    end
end
end

for BitsPerSym = 2:lmax
    q = 2^BitsPerSym;
    if RateEst<1
        nmin = CWLenEst*log2(AlphabetSizeEst)/BitsPerSym;
        if (abs(nmin - round(nmin)) > 1e-10) | (nmin<7)
            nmin = [];
        else
            fprintf('\nSearching for code rate via RREF in GF(%d)\n',q)
        end
        nmax = nmin;
    else
        fprintf('\nSearching for code rate via RREF in GF(%d)\n',q)
    end

    for n = nmin:nmax
        nq = BitsPerSym*n;
        WordCount = n+10; % should be > n symbols for accurate results
        EncodedBitCount = nq*WordCount;
        s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
        CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');
        [r,BitsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
        fclose(CodedFile);
        if(BitsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
            disp 'Error reading file'
            BitsRead
            EncodedBitCount
            return
        end

        EncodedBitCount = EncodedBitCount/BitsPerSym;
        r = reshape(r,BitsPerSym,EncodedBitCount)';
        r = bits2sym(r,BitsPerSym,EncodedBitCount);
        r2 = reshape(r,n,WordCount)';
        [G2,k] = RrefGFxc(r2,q); % MEX C-code implementation
        rate = k/n;

        if (rate<=RateEst)
            RateEst = rate;
            CWLenEst = n;
            InputLenEst = k;
            AlphabetSizeEst = q;
            if(rate<1)
                fprintf('Code rate estimate: %d/%d = %f\n',k,n,RateEst)
            end
            if(rate<0.97) % Max BCH rate = 247/255 = .969
                break % STOP AT FIRST CLEAR SIGN OF CODING?
            end
        end
    end
end
end
end

```

```

if RateEst==1
    disp 'INPUT IS NOT CODED'
    return
end

```

### ***FindRoots.m:***

```

function [ExtFieldEst,roots,CWLenEst] = ...
    FindRoots(FileName,WordCount,q,n)

% Look for roots in extension fields assuming base field is nonbinary

BitsPerSym = log2(q);
nmin = 6;
nmax = 255;

EncodedBitCount = nmax*WordCount*BitsPerSym;
s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');
[r,WordsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
if(WordsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
    disp 'Error reading file'
    WordsRead
end

% Search fields covering all subfields from GF(2) to GF(2^20)
m = [12 20 14 16 18 11 15];
n2 = [];
ExtFields = [];

for mi=1:length(m)
    qm = 2.^m(mi)
    % Form array of valid block lengths for this field
    if (nargin < 4),
        n = SearchLens(qm-1,nmin,nmax)
    end
    n1 = [];
    MaxRoots = 0;
    for ni=1:length(n)
        fprintf('Searching for roots in GF(%d), n = %d\n',qm,n(ni));
        if BitsPerSym > 1
            EncodedBitCount = n(ni)*WordCount*BitsPerSym;
            r2 = reshape(r(1:EncodedBitCount),BitsPerSym,...

```

```

        EncodedBitCount/BitsPerSym)';
    r2 = bits2sym(r2,BitsPerSym,EncodedBitCount/BitsPerSym);
    r2 = reshape(r2,n(ni),WordCount)';
else
    EncodedBitCount = n(ni)*WordCount;
    r2 = reshape(r(1:EncodedBitCount),n(ni),WordCount)';
end

% Check combined spectrum of 3 code words for zeros
R = CumGFFT2(r2,3,n(ni),q,qm,1);
roots = find(~R); % find spectral zeros
if length(roots) > 0
    % This length has passed the 1st root test
    n1 = [n1 n(ni)];
    % Check for spectral zeros over many code words
    R = CumGFFT2(r2,WordCount,n(ni),q,qm,1);
    roots = find(~R)
    if length(roots) > 0
        % This length has passed the 2nd root test
        n2 = [n2 n(ni)]
        ExtFields = [ExtFields qm];
        break
    end
end
end % for ni=1:length(n)

if length(n2) > 0
    % there was a winner in this field, so skip the other fields
    break
end
end % for mi=1:length(m)

if length(n2) > 0
    % Find smallest base field with roots, and search any subfields
    % until the smallest field containing roots is found
    [EF,EFI] = sort(ExtFields);
    qm = EF(1);

    switch qm
        % search subfields of q^m
        case 4096,
            % m = 12 = 2*2*3
            m = [3 4 6 12]; % note: GF(2) and GF(4) have no valid lengths
        case 1048576,
            % m = 20 = 2*2*5
            m = [5 10 20];
        case 16384,
            % m = 14 = 2*7
            m = [7 14];
        case 65536,
            % m = 16 = 2*2*2*2
            m = [8 16];
        case 262144,
            % m = 18 = 2*3*3
            m = [9 18];
        case 2048,
            m = 11;
        case 32768,
            m = 15;
        otherwise,
            %return
    end
end

```

```

end

else
    m = [3:12,14:16,18,20]; % search all fields to cover RS codes
    % IMPORTANT NOTE: FIELDS GF(q^m) FOR WHICH m = 13, 17, AND 19
    % HAVE NO VALID LENGTHS n, AND THEREFORE ARE NOT REQUIRED!
    % (e.g., 8K, 128K, 512K)
end

n2 = [];

for mi=1:length(m)
    qm = 2.^m(mi);
    if rem(qm-1,q-1)<1 % bypass invalid nonbinary subfields
        % Form array of valid block lengths for this field
        if (nargin < 4),
            n = SearchLens(qm-1,nmin,nmax)
        end
        n1 = [];
        MaxRoots = 0;
        for ni=1:length(n)
            fprintf('Searching for roots in GF(%d), n = %d\n',qm,n(ni));
            if BitsPerSym > 1
                EncodedBitCount = n(ni)*WordCount*BitsPerSym;
                r2 = reshape(r(1:EncodedBitCount),BitsPerSym,...
                    EncodedBitCount/BitsPerSym)';
                r2 = bits2sym(r2,BitsPerSym,EncodedBitCount/BitsPerSym);
                r2 = reshape(r2,n(ni),WordCount)';
            else
                EncodedBitCount = n(ni)*WordCount;
                r2 = reshape(r(1:EncodedBitCount),n(ni),WordCount)';
            end
            % Check combined spectrum of 3 code words for zeros
            R = CumGFFT2(r2,3,n(ni),q,qm,1);
            roots = find(~R); % find spectral zeros
            if length(roots) > 0
                % This length has passed the 1st root test
                n1 = [n1 n(ni)];
                % Check for spectral zeros over many code words
                R = CumGFFT2(r2,WordCount,n(ni),q,qm,1)
                roots = find(~R)
                if length(roots) > 0
                    % This length has passed the 2nd root test
                    n2 = n(ni)
                    ExtFields = qm;
                    break
                end
            end
        end
        % for ni=1:length(n)

        if length(n2) > 0
            % There was a winner in this field, so skip the other fields
            break
        end
    end
    % if rem(qm1,q-1)<1
end

```



```
end          % for mi=1:length(m)
```

```
fclose(CodedFile);
CWLenEst = n2;
ExtFieldEst = ExtFields;
```

```
if length(n2) < 1
    disp 'NOT A CYCLIC CODE'
end
```

### ***GFFT2.m:***

```
function [X] = GFFT2(x,WordCount,n,q,qm,mx)
```

```
% Galois Field Fourier Transform:
% Time-domain vector x is over GF(q), elements are q-ary
% Frequency-domain vector X is over GF(q^m), elements are q^m-ary
```

```
[vectors,symbols] = SelField(qm,mx);
X = zeros(WordCount,n);
a = zeros(1,n);
qm1 = qm-1;
% Reverse order in time sequence to form polynomial
x = fliplr(x);
```

```
if 1
    % C code implementation
    X = gfft2c(x,vectors,symbols,q,qm);
else
    % Convert symbols {0,1,2=alpha,...} to
    % powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,...}
    x2 = sym2powerGFx(x);
    K1 = qm1/n;
    K2 = qm1/(q-1);

    for l=1:WordCount
        for j=0:(n-1)          % frequency index
            for i=0:(n-1)      % time index
                % Convert GFFT coefficients from powers of gamma to alpha:
                % Calculate gamma as an nth root of unity in GF(q^m)
                ij = rem(i*j,n);
                % Calculate alpha as an (q^m-1) root of unity in GF(q^m)
                ij = rem(ij*K1,qm1);

                % Convert input coefficients from powers of beta to alpha:
                % Calculate beta as an (q-1) root of unity in GF(q)
                k = x2(1,i+1);
                if k >= 0          % only add if input is nonzero (power > -inf)
                    % Calculate alpha as an (q^m-1) root of unity in GF(q^m)
                    k = rem(k*K2,qm1);
                    ai = rem(ij+k,qm1);
                    a(i+1) = vectors(ai+2);
                else
                    a(i+1) = 0;
                end
            end
        end
    end
end
```

```

        end
        Xij = SumGFx(a);
        X(1,j+1) = symbols(Xij+1);
    end
end
end

```

### ***CumGFFT2.m:***

```

function [Xcum] = CumGFFT2(x,WordCount,n,q,qm,mx)

% Cumulative Galois Field Fourier Transform:
% "OR" all frequency words together to isolate spectral zeros (roots).

X = GFFT2(x,WordCount,n,q,qm,mx);
Xcum = zeros(1,n);

for i=1:WordCount
    Xcum = bitor(Xcum,X(i,:));
end

```

### ***SumGFx.m:***

```

function [z] = SumGFx(x)

% Sum the elements of vector x using GF(q) vector addition
z = x(1);
for i=2:length(x)
    z = bitxor(z,x(i));
end

```

### ***SearchLens.m:***

```

function [n] = SearchLens(qm1,nmin,nmax)

r = rem(qm1,[1:nmax]);
n = find(~r);
i = find(n>nmin);
n = n(i);

```

***EstMinDist.m:***

```

function [dmin] = EstMinDist(FileName,n,q,WordCount)

% Estimate minimum distance between code words

% Read bit stream and segment a block into a fixed # of code words
EncodedBitCount = n*WordCount;
s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName);
CodedFile = fopen(s,'r');
[r,BitsRead] = fread(CodedFile,EncodedBitCount,'ubit1');
if(BitsRead ~= EncodedBitCount)
    disp 'Error reading file'
    BitsRead
end
r = reshape(r,n,WordCount)';

% Bitwise XOR and sum to find distance between each pair
d = inf*ones(WordCount);
for i=1:WordCount
    for j=(i+1):WordCount
        d(i,j) = sum(rem(r(i,:)+r(j,:),q));
        if d(i,j)<1
            d(i,j) = inf;      % ignore zero distances
        end
    end
end
end

dmin = min(min(d));

```

***EstRedundancy.m:***

```

function redundancy = EstRedundancy(n,q,t)

Vq = 0;
for i=0:t
    Vq = Vq + choose(n,i)*(q-1)^i;
end
redundancy = log2(Vq)/log2(q);      % logq(Vq(n,t))

```

***choose.m:***

```
function [nck] = choose(n,k)

% n choose k, i.e.,  $n!/(k!(n-k)!)$ 
nck = (prod((n-k+1):n)./prod(1:k));
```

***FindConsecRoots.m:***

```
function [ConsecRoots,t] = FindConsecRoots(BaseRoots)

if length(BaseRoots)<2
    ConsecRoots = -1;
    t = -1;
    return
end

derivative = diff(BaseRoots);           % first derivative
CRI = find(derivative==1);
ConsecRoots = BaseRoots(CRI);
DiffCount = 1;

% Take higher derivatives to separate clusters of consecutive roots
% and find the largest group
while length(CRI)>1
    DiffCount = DiffCount+1;
    if DiffCount>20
        disp 'Error: too many derivatives!'
        dbcont
    end
    derivative = diff(ConsecRoots);
    CRI = find(derivative==1);
    ConsecRoots = ConsecRoots(CRI);
end

ConsecRoots = [ConsecRoots:ConsecRoots+DiffCount];
t = length(ConsecRoots)/2;
```

***PolyGFx.m:***

```

function [v] = PolyGFx(roots,n,q,qm,mx)

% Build polynomial from Galois Field roots

[vector,symbols] = SelField(qm,mx);
vector = de2bi(vector); % gfconv requires vector array
qm1 = qm-1;
L = length(roots);
v1 = [0 roots(1)];

for l=2:L
    v2 = [0 roots(l)];
    v1 = gfconv(v1,v2,vector);
end

% Convert coefficients back to GF(q)
v1 = v1*(q-1)/qm1;
% Convert powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,...} to symbols {0,1,2=alpha,...}
j = find(v1<0);
v = v1+1;
v(j) = 0;

```

***ReadFields.m:***

```

global vector8_m1;
global symbol8_m1;
global vector8_m2;
global symbol8_m2;
global vector16_m1;
global symbol16_m1;
global vector32_m1;
global symbol32_m1;
global vector64_m1;
global symbol64_m1;
global vector128_m1;
global symbol128_m1;
global vector256_m1;
global symbol256_m1;
global vector512_m1;
global symbol512_m1;
global vector1K_m1;

```

```

global symbols1K_m1;
global vectors2K_m1;
global symbols2K_m1;
global vectors4K_m1;
global symbols4K_m1;
global vectors16K_m1;
global symbols16K_m1;
global vectors32K_m1;
global symbols32K_m1;
global vectors64K_m1;
global symbols64K_m1;
global vectors256K_m1;
global symbols256K_m1;
global vectors1M_m1;
global symbols1M_m1;

% GF8 symbol to vector mapping and reverse mapping:
% {0 1 alpha alpha^2 ... alpha^6} <---> symbols = {0 1 2 3 ... 7}
% <---> powers = {-inf 0 1 2 ... 6}
% and GF8 is defined by the minimal polynomial selected by mx:
%   mx=1: M(x) = 1 + x + x^3 --> alpha^3 = alpha + 1
%   mx=2: M(x) = 1 + x^2 + x^3 --> alpha^3 = alpha^2 + 1
% 3-bit vectors represent: {alpha^2 alpha 1}
% e.g., alpha^3 = 011 = 3 (mx=1), alpha^3 = 101 = 5 (mx=2)
[vectors8_m1,symbols8_m1] = ReadGFx(8,3);
[vectors8_m2,symbols8_m2] = ReadGFx(8,5);
[vectors16_m1,symbols16_m1] = ReadGFx(16,3);
[vectors32_m1,symbols32_m1] = ReadGFx(32,5);
[vectors64_m1,symbols64_m1] = ReadGFx(64,3);
[vectors128_m1,symbols128_m1] = ReadGFx(128,9);
[vectors256_m1,symbols256_m1] = ReadGFx(256,29);
[vectors512_m1,symbols512_m1] = ReadGFx(512,17);
[vectors1K_m1,symbols1K_m1] = ReadGFx(1024,9);
[vectors2K_m1,symbols2K_m1] = ReadGFx(2048,5);
[vectors4K_m1,symbols4K_m1] = ReadGFx(4096,83);
[vectors16K_m1,symbols16K_m1] = ReadGFx(16384,43);
[vectors32K_m1,symbols32K_m1] = ReadGFx(32768,3);
[vectors64K_m1,symbols64K_m1] = ReadGFx(65536,45);
[vectors256K_m1,symbols256K_m1] = ReadGFx(262144,39);
[vectors1M_m1,symbols1M_m1] = ReadGFx(1048576,83);

% IMPORTANT NOTE: FIELDS GF(q^m) FOR WHICH m = 13, 17, AND 19 HAVE NO
% VALID LENGTHS n, AND THEREFORE ARE NOT REQUIRED!

```

***ReadGFx.m:***

```

function [vectors,symbols] = ReadGFx(qm,mx)

% Read a Galois Field GF( $q^m$ ) based on a minimal polynomial  $m(x)$ .
% Note that mx is provided as a binary number, not an array;
% also, mx is provided as the actual polynomial minus the  $x^{(q^m)}$  term,
% since  $\alpha^{(q^m)} = mx$ ,  $m(x) = mx + x^{(q^m)}$ 

size = sprintf('ubit%d',log2(qm));
s = sprintf('gf%d_%d.vec',qm,mx);
fid = fopen(s,'r');
vectors = fread(fid,qm,size);
fclose(fid);

s = sprintf('gf%d_%d.sym',qm,mx);
fid = fopen(s,'r');
symbols = fread(fid,qm,size);
fclose(fid);

```

***SelField.m:***

```

function [vectors,symbols] = SelField(qm,mx)

global vectors8_m1;
global symbols8_m1;
global vectors8_m2;
global symbols8_m2;
global vectors16_m1;
global symbols16_m1;
global vectors32_m1;
global symbols32_m1;
global vectors64_m1;
global symbols64_m1;
global vectors128_m1;
global symbols128_m1;
global vectors256_m1;
global symbols256_m1;
global vectors512_m1;
global symbols512_m1;
global vectors1K_m1;
global symbols1K_m1;
global vectors2K_m1;
global symbols2K_m1;
global vectors2K_m2;

```

```

global symbols2K_m2;
global vectors4K_m1;
global symbols4K_m1;
global vectors16K_m1;
global symbols16K_m1;
global vectors32K_m1;
global symbols32K_m1;
global vectors64K_m1;
global symbols64K_m1;
global vectors256K_m1;
global symbols256K_m1;
global vectors1M_m1;
global symbols1M_m1;

switch qm
case 2,
    vectors = [0 1];
    symbols = [0 1];
case 4,
    vectors = [0 1 2 3];
    symbols = [0 1 2 3];
case 8,
    if mx==1
        vectors = vectors8_m1;
        symbols = symbols8_m1;
    else
        vectors = vectors8_m2;
        symbols = symbols8_m2;
    end
case 16,
    vectors = vectors16_m1;
    symbols = symbols16_m1;
case 32,
    vectors = vectors32_m1;
    symbols = symbols32_m1;
case 64,
    vectors = vectors64_m1;
    symbols = symbols64_m1;
case 128,
    vectors = vectors128_m1;
    symbols = symbols128_m1;
case 256,
    vectors = vectors256_m1;
    symbols = symbols256_m1;
case 512,
    vectors = vectors512_m1;
    symbols = symbols512_m1;
case 1024,
    vectors = vectors1K_m1;
    symbols = symbols1K_m1;
case 2048,
    if mx==1
        vectors = vectors2K_m1;
        symbols = symbols2K_m1;
    else

```



```

        vectors = vectors2K_m2;
        symbols = symbols2K_m2;
    end
case 4096,
    vectors = vectors4K_m1;
    symbols = symbols4K_m1;
case 16384,
    vectors = vectors16K_m1;
    symbols = symbols16K_m1;
case 32768,
    vectors = vectors32K_m1;
    symbols = symbols32K_m1;
case 65536,
    vectors = vectors64K_m1;
    symbols = symbols64K_m1;
case 262144,
    vectors = vectors256K_m1;
    symbols = symbols256K_m1;
case 1048576,
    vectors = vectors1M_m1;
    symbols = symbols1M_m1;
otherwise,
    disp 'Invalid Galois Field'
    % IMPORTANT NOTE: FIELDS GF(q^m) FOR WHICH m = 13, 17, AND 19
    % HAVE NO VALID LENGTHS n, AND THEREFORE ARE NOT REQUIRED!
    % (e.g., 8K, 128K, 512K)
end

```

### ***power2symGFx.m:***

```

function [y] = power2symGFx(x)

% Convert powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,2=alpha^2,...}
% to symbols {0,1,2=alpha,3=alpha^2,...}
y = log2(2.^(x+1) + (x<0));

```

### ***sym2powerGFx.m:***

```

function [y] = sym2powerGFx(x)

% Convert symbols {0,1,2=alpha,3=alpha^2,...}
% to powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,2=alpha^2,...}

```

```
y = log2(~~x) + x-1;
```

***sym2bits.m:***

```
function [bits] = sym2bits(symbols)

[r,c] = size(symbols)
if c>1
    b = de2bi(symbols);
    [r2,c2] = size(b);
    bits = [];
    for i=1:c
        x = de2bi(symbols(:,i),c2);
        bits = [bits x];
    end
else
    bits = de2bi(symbols);
end
```

***bits2sym.m:***

```
function [symbols] = bits2sym(s,n,WordCount)

symbols = bi2de(fliplr(s));
```

## APPENDIX B: C Source Code

### ***GFFT2.c:***

```
/*
% function [X] = GFFT2(x,WordCount,n,qm,mx)
%     Galois Field Fourier Transform:
%     Time-domain vector x is over GF(q), elements are q-ary
%     Frequency-domain vector X is over GF(q^m), elements are q^m-ary
%     For BCH: n = (q^m-1)
%     For RS: n = q-1, (m=1), hence x and X are both in GF(q)
*/

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <math.h>

#ifndef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
#include "mex.h"
#endif

#define LOG_SESSION      0

void calcGFFT();
#if LOG_SESSION
void printMatrix(int *A);
FILE *logFile;
#endif

#ifndef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
double *pAin;      // double precision input matrix from Matlab workspace
double *pVector;    // GF(q^m) vectors input from Matlab workspace
double *pSymbol;    // GF(q^m) symbols input from Matlab workspace
double *pAout;      // double precision reduced output matrix to Matlab workspace
int *x;             // input matrix, represented as a vector of binary numbers
int *vectors,*pVectors;    // GF(q^m) vectors
int *symbols,*pSymbols;    // GF(q^m) symbols
#else
// DEBUG C CODE
int x[7] = {1,1,0,0,1,0,0};

```

```

int vectors[8] = {0,1,2,4,3,6,7,5};
int symbols[8] = {0,1,2,4,3,7,5,6};
#endif

int *X;           // input matrix, represented as a vector of binary numbers
int m,n;          // number of rows, columns of x
int q,qm;         // alphabet size q, Galois field  $q^m$ 
int *px,*pX;      // input/output matrix pointer

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE

void mexFunction(int nlhs, mxArray *plhs[], int nrhs, const mxArray *prhs[])
{
    int i=0,j=0,k;

    if (nrhs < 5)
    {
        mexErrMsgTxt("Not enough input arguments!");
        return;
    }

    m = mxGetM(prhs[0]);
    n = mxGetN(prhs[0]);
    q = (int)mxGetScalar(prhs[3]);
    qm = (int)mxGetScalar(prhs[4]);
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    printf("x[%d,%d]:\n",m,n);
#endif

    x = calloc(m*n,sizeof(int));
    if(x==NULL)
    {
        printf("x alloc failed\n");
        return;
    }
    px = x;
    X = calloc(m*n,sizeof(int));
    if(X==NULL)
    {
        printf("X alloc failed\n");
        return;
    }
    pX = X;
    vectors = calloc(qm,sizeof(int));
    if(vectors==NULL)
    {
        printf("vectors alloc failed\n");

```

```

    return;
}
symbols = calloc(qm,sizeof(int));
if(symbols==NULL)
{
    printf("symbols alloc failed\n");
    return;
}

// Read input matrix from Matlab workspace; store columns
// such that code words are sequential
for(i=0; i<m; i++)
{
    pAin = mxGetPr(prhs[0]) + i;
    for(j=0; j<n; j++)
    {
        // Convert symbols {0,1,2=alpha,...} to powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,...}
        // by subtracting 1 (-1 represents 0 = alpha^-inf)
        *px++ = (int)*pAin - 1;
        pAin += m;
    }
}

// Read Galois field vectors and symbols from Matlab workspace
pVector = mxGetPr(prhs[1]);
pVectors = vectors;
for(i=0; i<qm; i++)
{
    *pVectors++ = (int)*pVector++;
}
pSymbol = mxGetPr(prhs[2]);
pSymbols = symbols;
for(i=0; i<qm; i++)
{
    *pSymbols++ = (int)*pSymbol++;
}

// Take GFFT of each row of input matrix
calcGFFT();

plhs[0] = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(m,n,mxREAL);
pX = X;
for(i=0; i<m; i++)
{
    pAout = mxGetPr(plhs[0]) + i;
    for(j=n-1; j>=0; j--)
    {
        *pAout = (double)*pX++;
        pAout += m;
    }
}

```

```

    return;
}

```

```

#endif

```

```

void main()
{
    int i;
    int *x2;

    // DEBUG: SET INPUTS
    m = 1;      // rows
    n = 7;      // columns
    q = 2;
    qm = 8;
    x2 = calloc(m*n,sizeof(int));
    if(x2==NULL)
    {
        printf("x2 alloc failed\n");
        return;
    }
    for(i=0; i<n; i++)
    {
        x2[i] = x[n-i-1]-1;      // convert to powers of alpha
    }
    for(i=0; i<n; i++)
    {
        x[i] = x2[i];
    }

    X = calloc(m*n,sizeof(int));
    if(X==NULL)
    {
        printf("X alloc failed\n");
        return;
    }
    pX = X;

    calcGFFT();
}

```

```

void calcGFFT()
{
    int K1,K2,qm1;
    int i,j,k,l,ij;

```

```

int xij,Xij;

#if LOG_SESSION
    logFile = fopen("Gfft2.log","w");
    if(logFile==NULL)
    {
        printf("Error opening log file\n");
    }
    fprintf(logFile,"q = %d, q^m = %d\n",q,qm);
    printMatrix(x);
    fprintf(logFile,"\n\n");
#endif

    qm1 = qm-1;
    K1 = (int)(qm1/n);
    K2 = (int)(qm1/(q-1));
    pX = X;

    for(l=0; l<m; l++)
    {
        for(j=0; j<n; j++)          // frequency index
        {
            Xij = 0;
            px = x + n*l;
            for(i=0; i<n; i++)      // time index
            {
                // Convert GFFT coefficients from powers of gamma to alpha:
                //   power of gamma, where gamma is an nth root of unity in GF(q^m)
                ij = (i*j)%n;
                //   power of alpha, where alpha is an (q^m-1) root of unity in GF(q^m)
                ij = (ij*K1)%qm1;

                // Convert input coefficients from powers of beta to alpha:
                //   power of beta, where beta is an (q-1) root of unity in GF(q)
                k = *px++;
                if(k >= 0)    // only add if input is nonzero (power > -inf)
                {
                    // power of alpha, where alpha is an (q^m-1) root of unity in GF(q^m)
                    k = (k*K2)%qm1;
                    xij = (ij+k)%qm1;
                    Xij ^= vectors[xij+1];    // XOR is GF(qm) addition
                }
            }
            *pX++ = symbols[Xij];
        }
    }

#if LOG_SESSION
    fprintf(logFile,"X[%d] = %d\n",j,symbols[Xij]);
    printMatrix(X);
#endif
}

```

```

    }

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    // Print out results
    fprintf(logFile, "\n-----\n");
    printMatrix(m);
    fprintf(logFile, "Loop count = %d\n", loopCount);
    fclose(logFile);
#endif
}

```

```

#ifdef LOG_SESSION

void printMatrix(int *A)
{
    int i,j,k;
    int maxColumn;
    int *pA;

    if(m>10)
    {
        return;
    }
    fprintf(logFile, "A[%d,%d]:\n", m, n);

    pA = A;
    for(i=0; i<m; i++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile, "%2d: ", i);
        for(j=0; j<n; j++)
        {
            fprintf(logFile, "%d ", *pA++);
        }
        fprintf(logFile, "\n");
    }
    fprintf(logFile, "\n");
}

#endif

```



***RrefGF2.c:***

```

/*
% function [G,rank] = RrefGF2(A)
% Returns reduced row echelon form of A and rank of A;
% matrix reduction is done in GF(2) algebra.
*/

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <math.h>

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
#include "mex.h"
#endif

#define LOG_SESSION      0

void reduceMatrix();
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
void printMatrix(int rows);
FILE *logFile;
#endif

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
double *pAin;          // double precision input matrix from Matlab workspace
double *pAout;          // double precision reduced output matrix to Matlab workspace
double *pRank;          // double precision rank
unsigned long *A;       // input matrix, represented as a vector of binary numbers
#else
unsigned int A[10] = {0xFF,0x7F,0x3F,0x1F,0xF,0x7,0x3,0x1};
#endif

int m,n;                // number of rows, columns of A
int nw;                 // number of parallel words concatenated to form all columns of A
int *jb;
int rank;
unsigned long *pA1;     // input matrix pointer
unsigned long *pA2;     // input matrix pointer

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE

void mexFunction(int nlhs, mxArray *plhs[], int nrhs, const mxArray *prhs[])
{
    int i=0,j=0,k;
    unsigned int bit,word;
    int maxColumn;

```

```

if (nrhs != 1)
{
    mexErrMsgTxt("Not enough input arguments!");
    return;
}

m = mxGetM(prhs[0]);
n = mxGetN(prhs[0]);
nw = (int)ceil((double)n/(double)32);
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    printf("A[%d,%d]:\n",m,n);
    printf("nw = %d\n",nw);
#endif

A = calloc(m*nw,sizeof(unsigned long));
if(A==NULL)
{
    printf("Alloc failed\n");
    return;
}
pA1 = A;

// Read input matrix from Matlab workspace and convert to binary arrays.
if(n<=32)
{
    for(i=0; i<m; i++)
    {
        pAin = mxGetPr(prhs[0]) + i;
        word = 0;
        for(j=0; j<n; j++)
        {
            bit = (int)floor(*pAin + 0.5);
            pAin += m;
            if(bit!=0 && bit!=1)
            {
                printf("A[%d,%d] = %f\n",i,j,*pAin-1);
                mexErrMsgTxt("Nonbinary matrix!");
                return;
            }
            word |= bit<<(n-j-1);
        }
        *pA1++ = (unsigned long)word;
    }
}

// Matrices with >32 columns are stored in an m*nw array as follows:
//  A[0]           = [row 1, columns 1-32]
//  A[1]           = [row 1, columns 33-64]
//  A[2:(nw-1)]    = [   etc      ]

```

```

// A[nw]           = [row 2, columns 1-32]
// A[nw+1]         = [row 2, columns 33-64]
// A[nw:(2*nw-1)] = [   etc       ]
// A[2*nw:m*nw]   = [   etc       ]

else
{
    for(i=0; i<m; i++)
    {
        pAin = mxGetPr(prhs[0]) + i;
        for(k=0; k<nw; k++)
        {
            word = 0;
            if(n < (k+1)*32)
            {
                maxColumn = n-k*32;
            }
            else
            {
                maxColumn = 32;
            }

            for(j=0; j<maxColumn; j++)
            {
                bit = (int)floor(*pAin + 0.5);
                pAin += m;
                if(bit!=0 && bit!=1)
                {
                    printf("A[%d,%d] = %f\n",i,j,*pAin-m));
                    mexErrMsgTxt("Nonbinary matrix!");
                    return;
                }
                word |= bit<<(maxColumn-j-1);
            }
            *pA1++ = (unsigned long)word;
        }
    }
}

reduceMatrix();

plhs[0] = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(rank,n,mxREAL);
if(n<=32)
{
    for(i=0; i<rank; i++)
    {
        pAout = mxGetPr(plhs[0]) + i;
        for(j=n-1; j>=0; j--)
        {

```

```

        bit = (A[i]>>j & 0x1);
        *pAout = (double)bit;
        pAout += rank;
    }
}
else
{
    pA1 = A;
    for(i=0; i<rank; i++)
    {
        pAout = mxGetPr(plhs[0]) + i;
        for(k=0; k<nw; k++)
        {
            if(n < (k+1)*32)
            {
                maxColumn = n-k*32;
            }
            else
            {
                maxColumn = 32;
            }

            for(j=maxColumn-1; j>=0; j--)
            {
                bit = (*pA1>>j & 0x1);
                *pAout = (double)bit;
                pAout += rank;
            }
            pA1++;
        }
    }
}
pRank = mxGetPr(plhs[1] = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(1,1,mxREAL));
*pRank = (double)rank;
return;
}

#endif

void main()
{
    // DEBUG: SET INPUTS
    m = 8;      // rows; length of array
    n = 8;      // columns; width of each word in bits

    reduceMatrix();
}

```

```

void reduceMatrix()
{
    int i=0,j=0,k,l;
    unsigned int columnMask,temp;
    int leadingOneFound=0;
    int loopCount=0;
    int j32 = 0;
    int jnw = 0;

    rank = 0;
    jb = calloc(n,sizeof(int));
    if(jb==NULL)
    {
        printf("Alloc failed\n");
    }

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    logFile = fopen("RrefGF2.log","w");
    if(logFile==NULL)
    {
        printf("Error opening log file\n");
    }
    fprintf(logFile,"A[%d,%d]:\n",m,n);
    printMatrix(m);
    fprintf(logFile,"\n\n");
#endif

    // Loop over the entire matrix.
    i = 0;
    j = 0;
    if(n<=32)
    {
        while((i < m) & (j < n))
        {
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
            fprintf(logFile,"row %d, column %d\n",i,j);
#endif
            // Find index of largest element in the remainder of column j (i.e., leading one)
            // [p,k] = max(abs(A(i:m,j)));
            leadingOneFound = 0;
            columnMask = 0x1 << (n-j-1);
            for(k=i; k<m; k++)
            {
                if(A[k] & columnMask)
                {
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
                    fprintf(logFile,"Pivot row k = %d\n",k);

```

```

#endif
        leadingOneFound = 1;
        break;
    }
    loopCount++; // DEBUG
}
if(leadingOneFound)
{
    // Remember column index
    //   jb = [jb j];
    jb[rank++] = j;
#if LOG_SESSION
    fprintf(logFile, "Rank = %d\n", rank);
    // Swap i-th and k-th rows.
    //   A([i k], j:n) = A([k i], j:n);
    fprintf(logFile, "Swap rows k, i (%d, %d)\n", i, k);
#endif

    temp = A[i];
    A[i] = A[k];
    A[k] = temp;

    // Subtract multiples of the pivot row from all the other rows.
    // for k = [1:i-1 i+1:m]
    for(k=0; k<i; k++)
    {
        // A(k,j:n) = rem(A(k,j:n) + A(k,j)*A(i,j:n), q);
        if(A[k] & columnMask)
        {
            A[k] ^= A[i];
        }
        loopCount++; // DEBUG
    }
    for(k=i+1; k<=m; k++)
    {
        // A(k,j:n) = rem(A(k,j:n) + A(k,j)*A(i,j:n), q);
        if(A[k] & columnMask)
        {
            A[k] ^= A[i];
        }
        loopCount++; // DEBUG
    }
    i++;
}

#if LOG_SESSION
    printMatrix(m);
#endif
    j++;
}

```

```

    }

    else
    {
        // Matrices with >32 columns are stored in an m*nw array as follows:
        // A[0]           = [row 1, columns 1-32]
        // A[1]           = [row 1, columns 33-64]
        // A[2:(nw-1)]    = [   etc   ]
        // A[nw]           = [row 2, columns 1-32]
        // A[nw+1]         = [row 2, columns 33-64]
        // A[nw:(2*nw-1)] = [   etc   ]
        // A[2*nw:m*nw]   = [   etc   ]

        j32 = 0;
        jnw = 0;
        while((i < m) & (j < n))
        {
            #if LOG_SESSION
                fprintf(logFile, "row %d, column %d\n", i, j);
            #endif

            // Find index of largest element in the remainder of column j.(i.e., leading one)
            // [p,k] = max(abs(A(i:m,j)));
            leadingOneFound = 0;
            if(jnw < nw-1)
            {
                columnMask = 0x1 << (31-j32);
            }
            else
            {
                columnMask = 0x1 << (n-jnw*32-j32-1);
            }

            pA1 = A+i*nw+jnw;
            for(k=i; k<m; k++)
            {
                if(*pA1 & columnMask)
                {
                    #if LOG_SESSION
                        fprintf(logFile, "Pivot row k = %d\n", k);
                    #endif

                    leadingOneFound = 1;
                    break;
                }
                pA1 += nw;
                loopCount++; // DEBUG
            }
        }
    }

```

```

    if(leadingOneFound)
    {
        // Remember column index
        //  jb = [jb j];
        jb[rank++] = j32+jnw*32;
    #if LOG_SESSION
        fprintf(logFile,"Rank = %d\n",rank);
        // Swap i-th and k-th rows.
        //  A([i k],j:n) = A([k i],j:n);
        fprintf(logFile,"Swap rows k,i (%d,%d)\n",i,k);
    #endif

        pA1 = A+i*nw;
        pA2 = A+k*nw;
        for(l=0; l<nw; l++)
        {
            temp = *pA1;
            *pA1++ = *pA2;
            *pA2++ = temp;
        }

        // Subtract multiples of the pivot row from all the other rows.
        // for k = [1:i-1 i+1:m]
        for(k=0; k<i; k++)
        {
            pA2 = A+k*nw;
            // A(k,j:n) = rem(A(k,j:n) + A(k,j)*A(i,j:n), q);
            if(*(pA2+jnw) & columnMask)
            {
                pA1 = A+i*nw;
                for(l=0; l<nw; l++)
                {
                    *(pA2+l) ^= *pA1++;
                    loopCount++;    // DEBUG
                }
            }
        }
    }

    for(k=i+1; k<m; k++)
    {
        pA2 = A+k*nw;
        // A(k,j:n) = rem(A(k,j:n) + A(k,j)*A(i,j:n), q);
        if(*(pA2+jnw) & columnMask)
        {
            pA1 = A+i*nw;
            for(l=0; l<nw; l++)
            {
                *(pA2+l) ^= *pA1++;
                loopCount++;    // DEBUG
            }
        }
    }

```



```

        }
    }

    i++;
}

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    printMatrix(m);
#endif

    j++;
    j32++;
    if(j32>=32)
    {
        j32 = 0;
        jnw++;
    }
}

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    // Print out results
    fprintf(logFile,"n-----\n");
    printMatrix(rank);
    for(i=0; i<rank; i++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile,"jb[%d] = %d\n",i,jb[i]);
    }
    fprintf(logFile,"nRank = %d\n\n",rank);
    fprintf(logFile,"Loop count = %d\n",loopCount);
    fclose(logFile);
#endif
}

#ifdef LOG_SESSION

void printMatrix(int rows)
{
    int i,j,k;
    int maxColumn;

    if(rows>10)
    {
        return;
    }
}

```

```

fprintf(logFile,"A:\n");

if(n<=32)
{
    for(i=0; i<rows; i++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile,"%2d: ",i);
        for(j=n-1; j>=0; j--)
        {
            fprintf(logFile,"%d",A[i]>>j & 0x1);
        }
        fprintf(logFile,"\n");
    }
}
else
{
    pA1 = A;
    for(i=0; i<rows; i++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile,"%2d: ",i);
        for(k=0; k<nw; k++)
        {
            if(n < (k+1)*32)
            {
                maxColumn = n-k*32;
            }
            else
            {
                maxColumn = 32;
            }

            for(j=maxColumn-1; j>=0; j--)
            {
                fprintf(logFile,"%d",*pA1>>j & 0x1);
            }
            pA1++;
        }
        fprintf(logFile,"\n");
    }
}
fprintf(logFile,"\n");
}

#endif

```

### ***RrefGFx.c:***

```

/*
% function [G,rank] = RrefGFx(A,q)
% Returns reduced row echelon form of A and rank of A;

```

```

% matrix reduction is done in GF(q) algebra.
*/

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <math.h>

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
#include "mex.h"
#endif

#define LOG_SESSION 0
#define INF 1000

void reduceMatrix();
#ifdef LOG_SESSION
void printMatrix(int rows, int columns);
FILE *logFile;
#endif
FILE *gfxFile;

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE
double *pAin; // double precision input matrix from Matlab workspace
double *pAout; // double precision reduced output matrix to Matlab workspace
double *pRank; // double precision rank
int **A; // input matrix, represented as a 2D array of q-ary elements
int **pA;
#else
unsigned int A[10] = {0xFF,0x7F,0x3F,0x1F,0xF,0x7,0x3,0x1};
#endif

int m,n; // number of rows, columns of A
int *jb;
int rank;
int *pA1; // input matrix pointer
int *pA2; // input matrix pointer
unsigned char vectors[256]; // Galois field LUTs
unsigned char symbols[256];
int q;
int prevQ = 0;

#ifdef MATLAB_MEX_FILE

void mexFunction(int nlhs, mxArray *plhs[], int nrhs, const mxArray *prhs[])
{
    int i=0,j=0,k;

```

```

int element;
char s[20];

if (nrhs != 2)
{
    mexErrMsgTxt("Not enough input arguments!");
    return;
}

m = mxGetM(prhs[0]);
n = mxGetN(prhs[0]);
q = (int)mxGetScalar(prhs[1]);

A = (int **)calloc(m, sizeof(int *));
if(A==NULL)
{
    printf("Alloc failed (row pointers to A)\n");
    return;
}
pA = A;
for(i=0; i<m; i++)
{
    pA1 = (int *)calloc(n, sizeof(int));
    if(pA1==NULL)
    {
        printf("Alloc failed (A)\n");
        return;
    }
    *pA++ = pA1;
}

// Read input matrix from Matlab workspace and convert to binary arrays.
// Matrices are stored in an m*n array as follows:
//  A[0]           = [row 1, columns 1-32]
//  A[1]           = [row 1, columns 33-64]
//  A[2:(n-1)]     = [   etc   ]
//  A[n]           = [row 2, columns 1-32]
//  A[n+1]         = [row 2, columns 33-64]
//  A[n:(2*n-1)] = [   etc   ]
//  A[2*n:m*n]    = [   etc   ]

for(i=0; i<m; i++)
{
    pAin = mxGetPr(prhs[0]) + i;
    for(j=0; j<n; j++)
    {
        // Read elements from matrix and convert from symbols to powers
        element = (int)floor(*pAin - 0.5);
        if(element<0)
        {

```

```

        element = -INF;    // approximate -infinity
    }
    pAin += m;
    A[i][j] = element;
}
}

if(q!=prevQ)
{
    sprintf(s,"gf%d_8x.vec",q);
    gfxFile = fopen(s,"rb");
    if(gfxFile==NULL)
    {
        printf("File open failed (%s)\n",s);
        return;
    }
    fread(vectors,1,q,gfxFile);
    fclose(gfxFile);
    sprintf(s,"gf%d_8x.sym",q);
    gfxFile = fopen(s,"rb");
    if(gfxFile==NULL)
    {
        printf("File open failed (%s)\n",s);
        return;
    }
    else
    {
        printf("Read new tables for q=%d\n",q);
        prevQ = q;
    }
    fread(symbols,1,q,gfxFile);
    fclose(gfxFile);
}

reduceMatrix();

plhs[0] = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(rank,n,mxREAL);
for(i=0; i<rank; i++)
{
    pAout = mxGetPr(plhs[0]) + i;
    for(j=0; j<n; j++)
    {
        if(A[i][j]<0)
        {
            *pAout = (double)0;
        }
        else
        {
            *pAout = (double)(A[i][j]+1);
        }
    }
}

```

```

        pAout += rank;
    }
}
pRank = mxGetPr(plhs[1] = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(1,1,mxREAL));
*pRank = (double)rank;

pA = A;
for(i=0; i<m; i++)
{
    pA1 = *pA++;
    free(pA1);
}
free(A);
return;
}

#endif

void main()
{
    // DEBUG: SET INPUTS
    m = 8; // rows; length of array
    n = 8; // columns; width of each word in bits

    reduceMatrix();
}

void reduceMatrix()
{
    int i=0,j=0,k,l,jj;
    int a,b,c,aa,a1,b1;
    int kmax;
    int temp;
    int maxElement;
    int loopCount=0;

    rank = 0;
    jb = calloc(n,sizeof(int));
    if(jb==NULL)
    {
        printf("Alloc failed (jb)\n");
        return;
    }
}

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    logFile = fopen("RrefGFx.log","w");

```

```

if(logFile==NULL)
{
    printf("Error opening log file\n");
}
printMatrix(m,n);
fprintf(logFile,"\n\n");
#endif

// Loop over the entire matrix.
i = 0;
j = 0;

// Matrices with >32 columns are stored in an m*nw array as follows:
// A[0]           = [row 1, columns 1-32]
// A[1]           = [row 1, columns 33-64]
// A[2:(nw-1)]    = [   etc   ]
// A[nw]          = [row 2, columns 1-32]
// A[nw+1]        = [row 2, columns 33-64]
// A[nw:(2*nw-1)] = [   etc   ]
// A[2*nw:m*nw]  = [   etc   ]

while((i < m) & (j < n))
{
    #if LOG_SESSION
        fprintf(logFile,"row %d, column %d\n",i,j);
    #endif

    // Find index of largest element in the remainder of column j.
    // [p,k] = max(abs(A(i:m,j)));
    maxElement = -INF;
    for(k=i; k<m; k++)
    {
        if(A[k][j] > maxElement)
        {
            maxElement = A[k][j];
            kmax = k;
        }
        loopCount++;    // DEBUG
    }

    if(maxElement<0)
    {
        // The column is negligible, zero it out
        for(k=i; k<m; k++)
        {
            A[k][j] = -INF;
        }
    }
    else
    {
        k = kmax;
    }
}

```

```

#if LOG_SESSION
    fprintf(logFile, "Pivot row k = %d\n", k);
#endif

    // Remember column index
    //   jb = [jb j];
    jb[rank++] = j;
#if LOG_SESSION
    fprintf(logFile, "Rank = %d\n", rank);

    // Swap i-th and k-th rows.
    //   A([i k], j:n) = A([k i], j:n);
    fprintf(logFile, "Swap rows k, i (%d, %d)\n", i, k);
#endif

    for(l=0; l<n; l++)
    {
        temp = A[i][l];
        A[i][l] = A[k][l];
        A[k][l] = temp;
    }

    // Divide the pivot row by the pivot element.
    //   A(i, j:n) = A(i, j:n)/A(i, j);
    a = A[i][j];
    if(a < 0)
    {
        printf("Error: divide by zero\n");
    }
    else
    {
        for(jj=j; jj<n; jj++)
        {
            if(A[i][jj] >= a)
            {
                // Subtract powers to divide elements
                A[i][jj] = (A[i][jj]-a)/(q-1);
            }
            else if(A[i][jj] >= 0)
            {
                // Subtract powers to divide elements
                // Note: must wrap negative result into range [0, q-2]
                A[i][jj] = (A[i][jj]-a+q-1)/(q-1);
            }
        }
    }

    // Subtract multiples of the pivot row from all the other rows.
    // for k = [1:i-1 i+1:m]
    for(k=0; k<m; k++)
    {

```



```

if(k!=i)
{
    aa = A[k][j];
    if(aa >= 0)
    {
        //A(k,j:n) = A(k,j:n) - A(k,j)*A(i,j:n);
        for(jj=j; jj<n; jj++)
        {
            if(A[i][jj] >= 0)
            {
                a1 = (aa+A[i][jj])%(q-1);
            }
            else
            {
                a1 = -INF;
            }

            if(a1 >= 0)
            {
                if(a1 >= q-1)
                {
                    printf("Error: invalid symbol (a1)\n");
                    return;
                }
                // Note: Matlab version adds 2 due to index starting at 1
                a = (int)vectors[a1+1];
            }
            else
            {
                a = 0;
            }

            b1 = A[k][jj];
            if(b1 >= 0)
            {
                if(b1 >= q-1)
                {
                    printf("Error: invalid symbol (b1)\n");
                    return;
                }
                b = (int)vectors[b1+1];
            }
            else
            {
                b = 0;
            }

            c = a^b;
            if(c > 0)
            {

```

```

        if(c >= q)
        {
            printf("Error: Symbol index too large\n");
            return;
        }
        A[k][ij] = (int)symbols[c]-1;
    }
    else
    {
        A[k][ij] = -INF;
    }
} // for jj=j:n
} // if aa >= 0
} // if(k!=i)
} // for k = [1:i-1 i+1:m]

    i++;
} // if(maxElementFound)

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    printMatrix(m,n);
#endif

    j++;
} // while((i < m) & (j < n))

    free(jb);

#ifdef LOG_SESSION
    // Print out results
    fprintf(logFile,"n-----\n");
    printMatrix(rank,n);
    for(i=0; i<rank; i++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile,"jb[%d] = %d\n",i,jb[i]);
    }
    fprintf(logFile,"nRank = %d\n\n",rank);
    fprintf(logFile,"Loop count = %d\n",loopCount);
    fclose(logFile);
#endif
}

#ifdef LOG_SESSION

void printMatrix(int rows, int columns)
{
    int i,j;

```

```
fprintf(logFile,"A[%d,%d]:\n",rows,columns);
for(i=0; i<rows; i++)
{
    fprintf(logFile,"%2d: ",i);
    for(j=0; j<columns; j++)
    {
        fprintf(logFile,"%d\t",A[i][j]);
    }
    fprintf(logFile,"\n");
}
fprintf(logFile,"\n");
}

#endif
```

## APPENDIX C: Matlab Data Generation Source Code

### *GenData.m:*

```
% Build encoder
%[n,k,dim,G,H] = Hamming(3)
%[n,k,dim,G,H] = Hamming(4)
%[n,k,M,G] = Golay23(1)           % g = [1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1], t=3
%[n,k,M,G] = Golay23(2)           % g = [1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1], t=3
%[n,k,M,q,G] = CRC(7,4,2,[1 0 1 1]) % note: also a Hamming & BCH code
%[n,k,M,q,G] = CRC(2047,2035,2,[1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1]) % CRC-12
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(63,45,3,2,[1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1])
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(21,15,1,4,[1 0 1 0 1 1 1]);
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(21,12,2,4,[1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1]);
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(85,73,3,16,[1 4 11 10 2 4 11 15 10 15 8 5 4]);
% Reed-Solomon
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(63,57,3,64,[1 60 49 44 56 11 22]);
%[n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(255,245,5,256,[1 254 72 53 70 129 83 79 111 51 66]);
%[n,k,M,q,G] = ReedMuller(1,4)      % (16,5) binary Reed-Muller, t=3
%[n,k,M,q,G] = ReedMuller(1,5)      % (32,6) binary Reed-Muller, t=7
%G = [1 0 1; 1 1 1];                % rate 1/2, K=3 conv code
%G = [1 1 0 1; 1 1 1 1];            % rate 1/2, K=4 conv code
%G = [1 0 0 1 1; 1 1 1 0 1];        % rate 1/2, K=5 conv code
%G = [1 1 0 1 0 1; 1 0 1 1 1 1];    % rate 1/2, K=6 conv code
%G = [1 0 1 1 0 1 1; 1 1 1 1 0 0 1]; % rate 1/2, K=7 conv code
%G = [1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1; 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1]; % rate 1/2, K=8 conv code
%G = oct2gen([561;753]);              % rate 1/2, K=9 conv code
%G = oct2gen([565;543]);              % rate 1/2, K=9 (suboptimal)
%G = oct2gen([43572;56246]);          % rate 1/2, K=14 conv code
%G = [1 0 1; 1 1 1; 1 1 1];          % rate 1/3, K=3 conv code
%G = [1 0 1 1; 1 0 0 1; 1 1 1 1];    % rate 1/3, K=4 (suboptimal)
%G = oct2gen([452;662;756]);          % rate 1/3, K=8 conv code
%G = oct2gen([43512;73542;76266]);    % rate 1/3, K=14 conv code
%G = [1 0 1; 1 1 1; 1 1 1; 1 1 1];   % rate 1/4, K=3 conv code
%G = oct2gen([564;564;634;714]);      % rate 1/4, K=7 conv code
%G = oct2gen([42226;46372;73256;73276]); % rate 1/4, K=14 conv code
%G = oct2gen([7;1;4; 2;5;7]);          % rate 2/3, K=3, M=4 conv code
%G = oct2gen([63;15;46; 32;65;61]);    % rate 2/3, K=6, M=10 conv code
% rate 3/4, K=4, M=9 conv code
G = oct2gen([40;14;34;60; 04;64;20;70; 34;00;60;64])

% Generate coded bit stream
%[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('',100,1,n,k,q,G,0) % no file output
%[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('Hamming3',1000,1000,n,k,q,G,1);
%[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('Hamming4',1000,100,n,k,q,G,1);
%[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('Golay23-1',1000,100,n,k,q,G,1);
```

```

[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('Golay23-2',1000,100,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('crc7-4-1',1000,1,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('bch63-45-3',1000,10,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('bch21-15-1-4',1000,5,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('bch21-12-2-4',1000,5,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('bch85-73-3-16',1000,5,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('rs63-57-3',100,14,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('rs255-245-5',100,14,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('rm16-5-3',1000,100,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = BlockEnc('rm32-6-7',1000,10,n,k,q,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K3',100000,2,1,3,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K4',100000,2,1,4,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K5',100000,2,1,5,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K6',100000,2,1,6,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K7',100000,2,1,7,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K8',100000,2,1,8,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K9',10000,2,1,9,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K9b',10000,2,1,9,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-2_K14',10000,2,1,14,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-3_K3',10000,3,1,3,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-3_K4b',10000,3,1,4,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-3_K8',10000,3,1,8,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-3_K14',10000,3,1,14,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-4_K3',10000,4,1,3,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-4_K7',10000,4,1,7,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc2('ConvR1-4_K14',10000,4,1,14,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc3('ConvR2-3_K3_M4',10000,3,2,3,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc3('ConvR2-3_K6_M10',10000,3,2,6,G,1);
[m,c,WordCount] = ConvEnc3('ConvR3-4_K4_M9',10000,4,3,4,G,1);

```

### ***BlockEnc.m:***

```

function [m,c,WordsWritten] = ...
    BlockEnc(FileName,WordCount,BlockCount,n,k,q,G,FileIO)

% Generate Galois Field vector representations for GF(2^3) to GF(2^20)
if ~exist('vectors8_m1')
    ReadFields
end
[vectors,symbols] = SelField(q,1);

WordsWritten = 0;
SourceBitCount = k*WordCount*log2(q);
EncodedBitCount = n*WordCount*log2(q);
m = zeros(WordCount,k);           % input message words
c = zeros(WordCount,n);           % output code words

if FileIO
    s = sprintf('%s.src',FileName)

```

```

    SourceFile = fopen(s,'w');
    s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName)
    CodedFile = fopen(s,'w');
end

% Encode a random bit stream (represented as a binary matrix)
for j=1:BlockCount
    m = floor(q*rand(WordCount,k));
    if q==2
        for i=1:WordCount
            c(i,:) = rem(m(i,:)*G,q);
        end
    else
        % Convert symbols {0,1,2=alpha,...}
        % to powers {-inf=0,0=1,1=alpha,...}
        m2 = log2(~m) + m-1;
        G2 = log2(~G) + G-1;
        for l=1:WordCount
            for i=1:n
                a = zeros(1,k);
                for j=1:k
                    ij = m2(l,j)+G2(j,i);
                    if ij >= 0 % only add if input is nonzero (power > -inf)
                        ij = rem(ij,q-1);
                        a(j) = vectors(ij+2);
                    else
                        a(j) = 0;
                    end
                end
                cij = SumGFx(a);
                c(l,i) = symbols(cij+1);
            end
        end
    end
    m1 = fliplr(de2bi(m'));
    c1 = fliplr(de2bi(c'));
    d = reshape(m1',1,SourceBitCount); % source bit stream
    s = reshape(c1',1,EncodedBitCount); % Tx bit stream
    if FileIO
        fwrite(SourceFile,d,'ubit1');
        WordsWritten = WordsWritten + fwrite(CodedFile,s,'ubit1');
    end
end

if FileIO
    fclose(SourceFile);
    fclose(CodedFile);
else
    WordsWritten = 0;
end
end

```

### ***BCH.m:***

```
function [n,k,M,q,G] = BCH(n,k,t,q,g)
```

```

% Check that degree of generator polynomial equals the redundancy
if length(g) ~= (n-k+1)
    disp 'Invalid BCH code'
    return
end

M = q^k;           % code dimension (# of code words)
G = zeros(k,n);
for i=1:k
    G(i,:) = [zeros(1,i-1) g zeros(1,k-i)]; % generator matrix
end

```

### ***Golay23.m:***

```

function [n,k,M,G,H] = Golay23(gen)

% Binary (23,12,7) Golay code
% dmin=7, t=3
n = 23;
k = 12;
M = 2^k;           % code dimension (# of code words)

if gen == 1
    % Generator polynomials for general code
    g = [1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1];
else
    g = [1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1];
end

G = zeros(k,n);
for i=1:k
    G(i,:) = [zeros(1,i-1) g zeros(1,n-k-i+1)]; % generator matrix
end

```

### ***Hamming.m:***

```

function [n,k,M,G,H] = Hamming(m)

% Hamming code w/ parameters m>=2, t=1

```

```

% Ex: m=3 -> (7,4) code
n = 2^m-1;
k = n-m;
M = 2^k;          % code dimension (# of code words)

% Generator polynomials for systematic code
P = zeros(k,n-k);
Pm = zeros(k,1);
j = 3;
ii = 2;
for i=1:k
    % Bypass all power-of-2 elements, since these
    % represent the systematic part
    if abs(j-2^ii) < 1e-10
        j = j+1;
        ii = ii+1;
    end
    Pm(i) = j;
    j = j+1;
    for l=1:(n-k)
        P(i,l) = rem(floor(Pm(i)/(2^(n-k-l))),2);
    end
end
G = [P eye(k)];          % generator matrix
H = [eye(n-k) P'];      % parity check matrix

```

### ***GenFields.m:***

```

global vectors8_m1;
global symbols8_m1;
global vectors8_m2;
global symbols8_m2;
global vectors16_m1;
global symbols16_m1;
global vectors32_m1;
global symbols32_m1;
global vectors64_m1;
global symbols64_m1;
global vectors128_m1;
global symbols128_m1;
global vectors256_m1;
global symbols256_m1;
global vectors512_m1;
global symbols512_m1;
global vectors1K_m1;
global symbols1K_m1;
global vectors2K_m1;
global symbols2K_m1;
global vectors4K_m1;

```



```

global symbols4K_m1;
global vectors16K_m1;
global symbols16K_m1;
global vectors32K_m1;
global symbols32K_m1;
global vectors64K_m1;
global symbols64K_m1;
global vectors256K_m1;
global symbols256K_m1;
global vectors1M_m1;
global symbols1M_m1;

% GF8 symbol to vector mapping and reverse mapping:
% {0 1 alpha alpha^2 ... alpha^6} <---> symbols = {0 1 2 3 ... 7}
%                                     <---> powers = {N/A 0 1 2 ... 6}
% and GF8 is defined by the minimal polynomial selected by mx:
%   mx=1: M(x) = 1 + x + x^3 --> alpha^3 = alpha + 1
%   mx=2: M(x) = 1 + x^2 + x^3 --> alpha^3 = alpha^2 + 1
% 3-bit vectors represent: {alpha^2 alpha 1}
% e.g., alpha^3 = 011 = 3 (mx=1), alpha^3 = 101 = 5 (mx=2)
[vectors8_m1,symbols8_m1] = GenGFx(8,3);
[vectors8_m2,symbols8_m2] = GenGFx(8,5);
[vectors16_m1,symbols16_m1] = GenGFx(16,3);
[vectors32_m1,symbols32_m1] = GenGFx(32,5);
[vectors64_m1,symbols64_m1] = GenGFx(64,3);
[vectors128_m1,symbols128_m1] = GenGFx(128,9);
[vectors256_m1,symbols256_m1] = GenGFx(256,29);
[vectors512_m1,symbols512_m1] = GenGFx(512,17);
[vectors1K_m1,symbols1K_m1] = GenGFx(1024,9);
[vectors2K_m1,symbols2K_m1] = GenGFx(2048,5);
[vectors4K_m1,symbols4K_m1] = GenGFx(4096,83);
[vectors16K_m1,symbols16K_m1] = GenGFx(16384,43);
[vectors32K_m1,symbols32K_m1] = GenGFx(32768,3);
[vectors64K_m1,symbols64K_m1] = GenGFx(65536,45);
[vectors256K_m1,symbols256K_m1] = GenGFx(262144,39);
[vectors1M_m1,symbols1M_m1] = GenGFx(1048576,83);

```

### ***GenGFx.m:***

```

function [vectors,symbols] = GenGFx(qm,mx)

% Generate a Galois Field GF(q^m) based on a minimal polynomial m(x).
% Note that mx is provided as a binary number, not an array;
% also, mx is provided as the actual polynomial minus the x^(q^m) term,

```

```

% since  $\alpha^{(q^m)} = mx$ ,       $m(x) = mx + x^{(q^m)}$ 

vectors = zeros(qm,1);
v = 1;

for i=1:(qm-1)
    vectors(i+1) = v;
    v = v*2;
    if v>(qm-2)
        v = rem(v,qm);
        v = bitxor(v,mx);
    end
end

[y,i] = sort(vectors);
symbols = i-1;
size = sprintf('uint%d',log2(qm));
s = sprintf('gf%d_%d.vec',qm,mx);
fid = fopen(s,'w')
fprintf(fid,'%d',vectors);
fwrite(fid,vectors,size)
fclose(fid)
s = sprintf('gf%d_%d.sym',qm,mx);
fid = fopen(s,'w')
fprintf(fid,'%d',symbols);
fwrite(fid,symbols,size)
fclose(fid)

```

### ***ReedMuller.m:***

```

function [n,k,M,q,G] = ReedMuller(r,m)

q = 2;
if r==1
    % First order Reed-Muller code w/ parameters (1,m)
    n = 2^m;
    k = m+1;
    M = 2^k;          % code dimension (# of code words)
    G = [ones(1,n); flipud(sym2bits([0:n-1]'))]; % generator matrix
else
    disp 'Higher order Reed-Muller codes not implemented'
end

```

### ***ConvEnc3.m:***

```

function [m,c,WordsWritten] = ...
    ConvEnc3(FileName,WordCount,n,k,K,G,FileIO)

R = k/n;          % rate
WordsWritten = 0;

```

```

SourceBitCount = k*WordCount;
EncodedBitCount = n*(WordCount+K-1);
m = zeros(WordCount,k);           % input message words
c = zeros(n,WordCount+K-1);

if FileIO
    s = sprintf('%s.src',FileName)
    SourceFile = fopen(s,'w');
    s = sprintf('%s.fec',FileName)
    CodedFile = fopen(s,'w');
end

% Encode a random bit stream (represented as a binary matrix)
m = floor(2*rand(WordCount,k));

for i1=1:n
    for i2=1:k
        i3 = n*(i2-1)+i1;
        ci = gfconv(m(:,i2),G(i3,:));
        l = length(ci);
        % Conv function does not output entire sequence
        % if ending in a string of zeros
        c(i1,1:l) = rem(c(i1,1:l) + ci, 2);
    end
end

d = reshape(m',1,SourceBitCount);      % source bit stream
s = reshape(c,1,EncodedBitCount);      % Tx bit stream
if FileIO
    fwrite(SourceFile,d,'ubit1');
    WordsWritten = fwrite(CodedFile,s,'ubit1');
end

if FileIO
    fclose(SourceFile);
    fclose(CodedFile);
else
    WordsWritten = 0;
end

```

## **LIST OF REFERENCES**

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## **VITA**

Joseph F. Ziegler was born on August 24, 1971, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and is an American citizen. He graduated from Kiski Area High School, Vandergrift, Pennsylvania, in 1989. He received his Bachelor of Science in Electrical Engineering from Penn State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, in 1994. He was employed as a cooperative education student by the General Motors Technical Center in Warren, Michigan, for three semesters during his undergraduate career. He was employed as an electrical engineer by Stanford Telecom in Reston, Virginia, for four years, and is currently employed as a communications software engineer at Practical Imagineering in Fairfax, Virginia. He was listed as a contributor to two patents pending at Stanford Telecom, related to Internet traffic compression and satellite backlink channel. He received a Master of Science in Electrical and Computer Engineering from George Mason University in 2000.