

Minimal Trellis Modules and Equivalent Convolutional Codes

Hung-Hua Tang, Mao-Chao Lin, *Member, IEEE*, and
Bartolomeu F. Uchôa Filho, *Member, IEEE*

Abstract—In this correspondence, it is shown that some convolutional codes with distinct memory sizes of minimal encoders are equivalent in the sense that the minimal trellises of these codes are the shifted versions of one another. For an (n, k) binary convolutional code, the weight spectrum obtained from the minimal trellis may be slightly different from that obtained from the conventional code trellis with n -bit branches. Code search is conducted to find some good $(n, n-1)$ binary convolutional codes. Bounds on the trellis complexity, measured by the number of states and the number of branches in the minimal trellis module, of any convolutional code and its equivalent codes are also derived.

Index Terms—Error-correction coding, convolutional codes, minimal trellis, minimal trellis module, trellis complexity.

I. INTRODUCTION

In most papers in the literature [1]–[3], for the trellis representation of a binary (n, k) convolutional code, the transition between two state nodes is labeled by an n -bit code branch or multiple n -bit code branches, and the number of branches emanating from each node or entering each node is 2^k . Hence, the associated decoding complexity is high for large k . In such a trellis, each n -bit code branch is associated with a k -bit message. In communication systems for which high rate convolutional codes are required, punctured convolutional codes [4]–[7] are usually considered to reduce the trellis complexity. Suppose that a binary (n, k) convolutional code is obtained by puncturing a $(2, 1)$ binary convolutional code. In the associated trellis, each code branch corresponds to one message bit and is labeled by one or two code bits. The trellis of a binary convolutional code can be refined such that the transition between two state nodes (at depth j and depth $j+1$) respectively is labeled by a single code bit in a way similar to the trellis of a binary block code. For the linear block code, Forney introduced the minimal trellis construction, which minimizes the number of vertices (state nodes) at each depth [8][9]. For a binary convolutional code, its minimal trellis can be similarly constructed [10][11], where each one-bit code branch corresponds to one message bit in some sections and no message bit in other sections.

The complexity of the minimal trellis of a linear block code can be described by its state complexity profile. In [8], it has been shown that the state complexity profile of a linear block code is identical to that of its dual code. In [12], similar property has been derived for convolutional codes, i.e., the state complexity profiles of a convolutional

code and the reciprocal of its dual code are identical if minimal encoders for both codes are used, where the state complexity profile of a convolutional code is defined over a minimal trellis module, which is a portion (or a period) of the minimal trellis. For an (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code C , its state complexity profile is the n -tuple $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1})$ [12], where s_j is the dimension of state space at depth j of the minimal trellis module of C .

In this correspondence, we will prove that taking a cyclic-shifted version of a minimal trellis module (or distinct period of a minimal trellis) of a convolutional code C will result in an equivalent convolutional code which has the same weight spectra as C but may have a distinct memory size of the minimal encoder. For convolutional codes which are equivalent in the sense that the associated minimal trellis modules are cyclic-shifted versions of one another, the associated state complexity profiles are also cyclic-shifted versions of one another.

For a binary $(n, n-1, \nu)$ code, it [12] can be shown that the component of its state complexity profile is either ν or $\nu+b$, where b is either -1 or 1 . All the components with values of $\nu+b$ occur consecutively. The sum of the components of the state complexity profile is $\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} s_j = n\nu - \chi$, where $\chi \in \{-n+1, -n+2, \dots, 0, \dots, n-2, n-1\}$, $\chi = -b|\chi|$, and $|\chi|$ is the number of components with values of $\nu+b$. The specified χ is zero if all the components of the state complexity profile are ν . It [12] can be derived that the trellis complexity of a binary $(n, n-1)$ convolutional code is affected by its memory size ν and a parameter χ if the complexity of the minimal trellis is measured by the number of states or the number of branches. The trellis complexity of a binary $(n, n-1, \nu)$ punctured convolutional code obtained from a binary $(2, 1, \nu)$ mother code is identical to that of a binary $(n, n-1, \nu)$ convolutional code with $\chi = -1$, if the complexity is measured by the number of branches. In [12], some good binary $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes of $\chi \geq -1$ are listed, where some of the codes with $\chi = -1$ are slightly better than the best known punctured convolutional codes [4]–[6] of identical rate and complexity by better weight spectra. Graell i Amat, *et al.* [13], [14] proposed a method to construct recursive systematic $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes, where for some codes improved free distances are found as compared to the best known convolutional codes of identical rates and identical memory sizes of encoders. In this correspondence, we extend the search of good binary $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes to codes with χ smaller than -1 . We find that the best codes in [13], [14] have weight spectra almost the same as the searched codes with $\chi = -n+1$. There is an interesting phenomenon, which shows that many good binary $(n, n-1, \nu)$ codes with $\chi < 0$ have weight spectra almost the same as the good $(n, n-1, \nu+1)$ codes with $\chi+n$. However, this phenomenon can be easily explained by the equivalence of binary convolutional codes for which the minimal trellis modules are cyclic shift versions of one another.

The new equivalence condition for binary convolutional codes indicates that the conventional impression [3] of characterizing the complexity of a convolutional code by the memory size of its encoder may be insufficient in case the minimal trellis is used for decoding. For the $(n, n-1, \nu)$ binary convolutional code, it is already known [12] that the trellis complexity measured by the number of states and the number of branches is determined by ν and χ . In this correspondence, we derive bounds on the trellis complexity of the general (n, k, ν) convolutional codes and the equivalent codes based on the minimal trellises.

This correspondence is organized as follows. In Section II, some basics of convolutional codes are given. In Section III, we show that taking different portions of a minimal trellis of a convolutional code as minimal trellis modules can yield equivalent codes. In Section IV, the conditions of message mapping of equivalent codes are studied. Some extended results on the search for good $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes are presented in Section V. In Section VI, bounds on the complexity

Manuscript received June 17, 2004; revised March 27, 2006. This work was supported by National Science Council of Taiwan, R.O.C. under Grants NSC 92-2213-E262-013 and NSC 91-2213-E002-100, and by CNPq (Brazil) under Grant 302286/2004-7. The material in this paper was presented in part at the International Symposium on Information Theory and Its Applications, Parma, Italy, October 10–13, 2004.

H.-H. Tang is with the Department of Electrical Engineering, Lunghwa University of Science and Technology, Taoyuan 333, Taiwan, R.O.C. (e-mail: tang@mail.lhu.edu.tw).

M.-C. Lin is with the Department of Electrical Engineering, National Taiwan University, Taipei 106, Taiwan, R.O.C. (e-mail: mclin@cc.ee.ntu.edu.tw).

B. F. Uchôa-Filho is with the Communications Research Group, Department of Electrical Engineering, Federal University of Santa Catarina, Florianopolis, SC, Brazil, CEP 88040-900 (e-mail: uchôa@eel.ufsc.br).

Communicated by Ø. Ytrehus, Associate Editor for Coding Techniques.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TIT.2006.878225

of convolutional codes are studied. Concluding Remarks are given in Section VII.

II. PRELIMINARIES

An (n, k) binary convolutional code C can be characterized by a $k \times n$ transform domain generator matrix [3] $G(D) = [g_{ij}(D)]$, where $g_{ij}(D)$ is a polynomial in D over $GF(2)$, $0 \leq i \leq k-1$, $0 \leq j \leq n-1$. Let $g_i(D) = (g_{i0}(D), g_{i1}(D), \dots, g_{i(n-1)}(D)) = \sum_{l=0}^{m_i} \underline{g}_i^l D^l$, where \underline{g}_i^l is an n -tuple over $GF(2)$ and $m_i = \max_j \{\deg g_{ij}(D)\}$. Write $G(D)$ as $G(D) = \sum_{l=0}^m G_l D^l$, where G_l is a $k \times n$ matrix over $GF(2)$ and $m = \max_i \{m_i\}$. The convolutional code C generated by $G(D)$ can be viewed as a block code over $GF(2)$ of semi-infinite length that has a generator matrix G_{scalar} over $GF(2)$, where

$$G_{\text{scalar}} = \begin{pmatrix} G_0 & G_1 & \cdots & G_m & & \\ & G_0 & G_1 & \cdots & G_m & \\ & & G_0 & G_1 & \cdots & G_m \\ & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Let $\mathbf{x} = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ be a nonzero sequence. Its *left index*, denoted $L(\mathbf{x})$, is the smallest index j such that $x_j \neq 0$. Similarly, the *right index* of \mathbf{x} (if it exists), denoted $R(\mathbf{x})$ is the largest index j such that $x_j \neq 0$. A nonzero sequence \mathbf{x} is said to be active at depth j if both $j-1$ and j are in the interval of $[L(\mathbf{x}), R(\mathbf{x})]$. A generator matrix of a linear code is said to be a *minimal span generator matrix* (MSGM) [15] if for any two distinct rows \mathbf{x}_p and \mathbf{x}_q of it, we have $L(\mathbf{x}_p) \neq L(\mathbf{x}_q)$, and $R(\mathbf{x}_p) \neq R(\mathbf{x}_q)$. If the G_{scalar} is an MSGM, we can obtain the minimal trellis for C [10]. Beginning from depth mn , the minimal trellis is periodic. A period of the trellis is called a minimal trellis module.

Let V_0 be the space generated by G_0 and V_{end} be the space generated by G_{end} which is defined as $[(\underline{g}_0^{m_0})^T \cdots (\underline{g}_{k-1}^{m_{k-1}})^T]^T$, where A^T is the transpose of A . Note that \underline{g}_i^0 is the leftmost nonzero n -bit block and $\underline{g}_i^{m_i}$ is the rightmost nonzero n -bit block of the i -th row of G_{scalar} , where we assume \underline{g}_i^0 is nonzero for each i . Hence, G_0 contains the information of the left index of each row of G_{scalar} and G_{end} contains the information of the right index of each row of G_{scalar} . Let $J = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ be an *index set*. Define [16] $j^- = \{0, \dots, j-1\}$, $j^+ = \{j, \dots, n-1\}$ and $0^+ = n^- = J$ and $0^- = n^+ = \phi$, the empty set. Let V_{0,j^+} be the subspace of V_0 consisting of all the vectors of V_0 for which the components with indices outside j^+ are zero. Let V_{end,j^-} be the subspace of V_{end} consisting of all the vectors of V_{end} for which the components with indices outside j^- are zero. Since $G_0 = [(\underline{g}_0^0)^T \cdots (\underline{g}_{k-1}^0)^T]^T$, there are $\dim(V_{0,j^+})$ rows of G_0 which are inactive at depth j . Similarly, there are $\dim(V_{\text{end},j^-})$ rows of G_{end} which are inactive at depth j . The dimension of state space at depth j for a minimal trellis module of an (n, k, ν) code C is

$$s_j = k + \nu - \dim(V_{0,j^+}) - \dim(V_{\text{end},j^-}). \quad (2)$$

The state complexity profile of the convolutional code C is defined as $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1})$ [12].

For the convolutional code C , its trellis complexity can be evaluated by its state complexity profile and its error performance can be evaluated by the code weight spectrum $\{t_w\}$ and information weight spectrum $\{f_w\}$ [3][17], where t_w is the total number of code sequences with weight $d_{\text{free}} + w - 1$, f_w is the total number of information bits associated to the code sequences with weight $d_{\text{free}} + w - 1$ and d_{free} is the free distance of the code. Suppose that the code is applied over a symmetric and memoryless channel and maximum likelihood decoding is used. The first event error probability of the coding system can be estimated by $P_f \leq \sum_{w=1}^{\infty} t_w P_e(d_{\text{free}} + w - 1)$ and the symbol error probability can be estimated by $P_s \leq (1/k) \sum_{w=1}^{\infty} f_w P_e(d_{\text{free}} + w - 1)$, where

$P_e(d)$ is the probability of erroneously decoding a code sequence \mathbf{c} into another code sequence \mathbf{c}' which is separated from \mathbf{c} by a distance of d .

III. EQUIVALENT CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

There exist in the literature various definitions of equivalence between two (n, k) binary convolutional codes. As an example [2], a convolutional code C' is said to be equivalent to C if the transform domain generator matrix $G'(D)$ of C' is obtained by applying row operations on the transform domain generator matrix $G(D)$ of C . Row operations on $G(D)$ will affect the message mapping. Hence, the two equivalent codes C and C' have the same code weight spectra but possibly different information weight spectra. As another example, a convolutional code C'' is said to be equivalent to C if the n code bits of each code branch of C'' are obtained by a certain permutation of the n code bits of the corresponding code branch of C . The two equivalent codes C and C'' have the same information weight spectra and the same code weight spectra. In [12], the permutation of the n code bits of each code branch is used to find an equivalent code with minimum trellis of the least complexity for the (n, k) binary convolutional code.

In this section, we will introduce a new form of equivalence. A binary convolutional code C''' is equivalent to C in the sense that the minimal trellis module of C''' is obtained from cyclicly shifting the minimal trellis module of C . We first consider a heuristic example and then consider the general case. Consider three $(5, 3)$ binary convolutional codes, all of which have the same free distance $d_{\text{free}} = 4$. The associated minimal encoders are shown respectively as follows.

C_I :

$$G_I(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

C_{II} :

$$G_{II}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

C_{III} :

$$G_{III}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

Each entry of $G_I(D)$, $G_{II}(D)$ and $G_{III}(D)$ is represented in octal form. For example, "3" represents $1 + D$ and "6" represents $D + D^2$. The code weight spectrum and information weight spectrum of C_I are 1, 12, 32, 68, 172, 488, 1364, ..., and 1, 32, 144, 424, 1264, 4116, 13224, ..., respectively. For C_{II} , the spectra are 1, 12, 32, 68, 173, 506, 1484, ..., and 1, 32, 144, 424, 1266, 4185, 13916, ..., respectively. For C_{III} , the spectra are 1, 12, 32, 68, 173, 508, 1512, ..., and 1, 32, 144, 424, 1266, 4190, 14030, ..., respectively. The memory sizes of the encoders of C_I , C_{II} , and C_{III} are 2, 3, and 4, respectively. The state complexity profiles of C_I , C_{II} , and C_{III} are (2, 3, 4, 4, 3), (3, 4, 4, 3, 2), and (4, 4, 3, 2, 3), respectively. Although these three codes have similar weight spectra, the trellis complexities based on their trellises with n -bit code branches are significantly different. However, we notice that there is a cyclic relation among the state complexity profiles and hence there should be some relationship among these codes.

We now examine the decoding complexities in detail through their minimal trellises. A portion of the minimal trellis of C_I , which is the cascade of two minimal trellis modules, is shown in Fig. 1, where the

consider an ordered set. Let $L_0 = \{\ell_{0,0}, \ell_{1,0}, \dots, \ell_{k-1,0}\}$ be the ordered set, where $\ell_{i,0}$ is the left index of the row numbered $i \pmod{k}$ of G_{scalar} . The message mapping of an equivalent code of the j th class denoted by $L_j = \{\ell_{0,j}, \ell_{1,j}, \dots, \ell_{k-1,j}\}$, $0 \leq j < n$, can be systematically characterized using the following rule.

- 1) For $j = 0$, let $L_0 = \{\ell_{0,0}, \ell_{1,0}, \dots, \ell_{k-1,0}\}$.
- 2) For $0 < j < n$, we have $L_j = \{\ell_{0,j}, \ell_{1,j}, \dots, \ell_{k-1,j}\}$ such that $\ell_{i,j} = (\ell_{i,j-1} - 1) \pmod{n}$, where $0 \leq i < k$.

The codes $C_I, C_{II}, C_{III}, C_{IV}$, and C_V with encoders $G_I, G_{II}, G_{III}, G_{IV}$, and G_V given in Section III have $L_0 = \{0, 1, 2\}$, $L_1 = \{4, 0, 1\}$, $L_2 = \{3, 4, 0\}$, $L_3 = \{2, 3, 4\}$, and $L_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ respectively.

If we consider the code of the 0th class with transform domain generator matrix $G_{I'}$ given in (8), we have $L_0 = \{0, 2, 1\}$, $L_1 = \{4, 1, 0\}$, $L_2 = \{3, 0, 4\}$, $L_3 = \{2, 4, 3\}$, and $L_4 = \{1, 3, 2\}$ respectively for codes $C_{I'}, C_{II'}, C_{III'}, C_{IV'}$ and $C_{V'}$ with encoders $G_{I'}, G_{II'}, G_{III'}, G_{IV'}$, and $G_{V'}$, respectively, where

$$G_{II'}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (12)$$

$$G_{III'}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (13)$$

$$G_{IV'}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (14)$$

and

$$G_{V'}(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

V. GOOD $(n, n-1)$ CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

For C , there exists a dual code C^\perp . Let $G(D)$ and $H(D)$ be minimal encoders for C and C^\perp respectively. The product of $G(D)$ and $H(D)$ is a zero matrix. A code \hat{C} is said to be the reciprocal code of C if there is a minimal encoder $\hat{G}(D)$ for \hat{C} that is realized by the generators $\hat{g}_i(D) = \sum_{l=0}^{m_i} \hat{g}_i^{m_i-l} D^l$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$. It can be shown that the state complexity profiles of C and its reciprocal dual \hat{C}^\perp are identical [12]. For an $(n, n-1)$ binary convolutional code with memory size ν , we have $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu, \dots, \nu, \nu + b, \dots, \nu + b, \nu, \dots, \nu)$, where the number of consecutive $(\nu + b)$'s is $|\chi|$, $b \in \{1, -1\}$, and

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} s_j = n\nu - \chi \quad (16)$$

$\chi \in \{-n+1, -n+2, \dots, 0, \dots, n-1\}$. The decoding complexity of an (n, k) convolutional code C can be evaluated by the number of states in each minimal trellis module, $\varphi(C)$ and the number of branches in each minimal trellis module, $\psi(C)$. For an $(n, n-1)$ binary convolutional code C with memory size ν , we have

$$\varphi(C) = \begin{cases} n \cdot 2^\nu - \chi \cdot 2^{\nu-1}, & \chi \geq 0 \\ (n - \chi) \cdot 2^\nu, & \chi < 0 \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

and

$$\psi(C) = \begin{cases} (n - \chi) \cdot 2^{\nu+1} + (\chi - 1) \cdot 2^\nu, & \chi \geq 0 \\ (n - \chi - 1) \cdot 2^{\nu+1}, & \chi < 0. \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

For $\chi = -1$, the decoding complexity of C measured by the number of branches will be identical to that of the $(n, n-1)$ punctured code. Based on the simple structure of the $(n, 1)$ convolutional code, many

good $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes were found in [12]. In [12], only codes with $\chi \geq -1$ were searched. Note that a larger χ value will result in lower trellis complexity as (17), (18) show.

In [13], (7, 6) and (8, 7) convolutional codes in recursive form with weight spectra significantly better than those found in [12] were reported. It can be checked that the reciprocal dual codes of the (7, 6) and (8, 7) codes in [13] have χ values of -6 and -7 respectively. By observing this result, we begin to search for good $(n, n-1)$ convolutional codes with $\chi < -1$. The term "good code" is used in this correspondence for three reasons. For the first, the code search is incomplete. We believe the searched code is close to the best one although there may exist codes with better spectra. For the second, there may be two codes for which one has better code weight spectrum $\{t_w\}$ while the other has better information weight spectrum $\{f_w\}$. For the third, the trend is that the currently best $(n, n-1, \nu)$ code with a smaller χ tends to have spectra better than the currently best $(n, n-1, \nu)$ code with a larger χ , although there are some cases of exception. Due to space limitation, we list only some (3, 2) codes and some (4, 3) codes in Tables I and II respectively. In the tables, an entry $g_{ij}(D)$ of each $G(D)$ is represented in octal form.

There is an interesting phenomenon that the spectra of a good $(n, n-1, \nu, \chi)$ code with $\chi < 0$, are very close to those of a good $(n, n-1, \nu+1, \chi+n)$ code. For example, in Table II, the weight spectra of the $(4, 3, \nu=3, \chi=-3)$ code are the same as those of the $(4, 3, \nu=4, \chi=1)$ code. By substituting $\nu+1$ for ν and substituting $\chi+n$ for χ in the upper part of (17) (or (18)), we can have the lower part of (17) (or (18)). This explains the phenomenon. In the following, we give more details.

In [12], it has been proved that for a binary $(n, n-1, \nu, \chi)$ convolutional code using minimal trellis module, we have either $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu+1, \dots, \nu+1, \nu, \dots, \nu)$ or $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu-1, \dots, \nu-1, \nu, \dots, \nu)$, where the number of consecutive $(\nu+1)$'s or consecutive $(\nu-1)$'s is $|\chi|$. Note that $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1})$ is the state complexity profile. For example, the state complexity profiles of the (4, 3) codes with $\nu=4$ in Table II, are (4, 3, 3, 3) for $\chi=3$, (4, 3, 3, 4) for $\chi=2$, (4, 4, 3, 4) for $\chi=1$, (4, 4, 4, 4) for $\chi=0$, (4, 5, 4, 4) for $\chi=-1$, (4, 5, 5, 4) for $\chi=-2$ and (4, 5, 5, 5) for $\chi=-3$, respectively.

For an $(n, n-1, \nu, \chi)$ convolutional code C with $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu+1, \dots, \nu+1, \nu, \dots, \nu)$, we see that the number of states in the minimal trellis module is $\varphi(C) = n \cdot 2^\nu + (-\chi) \cdot 2^\nu = (n - \chi) \cdot 2^\nu$, where χ is a negative integer and $|\chi| = -\chi$ is the number of consecutive $(\nu+1)$'s. Cyclicly shifting the minimal trellis module can result in an equivalent code C' , which is an $(n, n-1, \nu+1, n+\chi)$ code with $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu+1, \nu+1, \dots, \nu+1, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu+1, \dots, \nu+1)$, where the number of consecutive ν 's is $n + \chi$. We then have $\varphi(C') = n \cdot 2^{\nu+1} + (-(n + \chi)) \cdot 2^\nu = (n - \chi) \cdot 2^\nu = \varphi(C)$.

For an $(n, n-1, \nu, \chi)$ convolutional code C'' with $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu-1, \dots, \nu-1, \nu, \dots, \nu)$, we have $\varphi(C'') = n \cdot 2^\nu - \chi \cdot 2^{\nu-1} = (2n - \chi) \cdot 2^{\nu-1}$, where χ is a positive integer and is the number of consecutive $(\nu-1)$'s. Cyclicly shifting the minimal trellis module will result in an equivalent code C''' , which is an $(n, n-1, \nu-1, n-\chi)$ code with $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}, s_0) = (\nu-1, \nu-1, \dots, \nu-1, \nu, \dots, \nu, \nu-1, \dots, \nu-1)$, where the number of consecutive ν 's is $n - \chi$. Thus, we have $\varphi(C''') = n \cdot 2^{\nu-1} + (n - \chi) \cdot 2^{\nu-1} = (2n - \chi) \cdot 2^{\nu-1} = \varphi(C'')$.

Considering the number of branches in each minimal trellis module, we can also compute that $\psi(C) = \psi(C') = 2 \cdot 2^{\nu+1}(-\chi - 1) + 2^{\nu+1} + 2 \cdot 2^\nu(n + \chi) = 2^{\nu+1}(n - \chi - 1)$ and $\psi(C'') = \psi(C''') = 2 \cdot 2^{\nu-1}\chi + 2^\nu + 2 \cdot 2^\nu(n - \chi - 1) = 2^\nu(2n - \chi - 1)$.

VI. TRELLIS COMPLEXITY

In Section V, we have seen the possible trellis complexity of an $(n, n-1, \nu)$ binary convolutional code. In this section, we will check

TABLE I
 GOOD (3, 2) CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

n	ν	$G(D)$	d_{free}	χ	Spectra $\frac{t_1, t_2, \dots}{f_1, f_2, \dots}$
3	2	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	2	2	$\frac{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, \dots}{1, 3, 12, 36, 96, 240, 576, \dots}$
3	2	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	2	1	$\frac{1, 2, 4, 10, 20, 40, 80, \dots}{1, 3, 12, 41, 112, 284, 688, \dots}$
3	2	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	3	0	$\frac{3, 7, 15, 34, 76, 171, 384, \dots}{5, 20, 65, 191, 530, 1418, 3696, \dots}$
3	2	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	3	-1	$\frac{1, 4, 14, 40, 115, 331, 953, \dots}{1, 10, 54, 226, 853, 3038, 10423, \dots}$
3	2	$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$	3	-2	$\frac{1, 4, 14, 40, 116, 339, 991, \dots}{1, 10, 57, 240, 911, 3275, 11366, \dots}$
3	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 6 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$	3	2	$\frac{1, 4, 14, 40, 115, 331, 953, \dots}{1, 10, 54, 226, 853, 3038, 10423, \dots}$
3	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 6 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	3	1	$\frac{1, 4, 14, 40, 116, 339, 991, \dots}{1, 10, 57, 240, 911, 3275, 11366, \dots}$
3	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$	4	0	$\frac{10, 0, 86, 0, 739, 0, 6425, \dots}{30, 0, 507, 0, 6470, 0, 74398, \dots}$
3	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-1	$\frac{2, 9, 28, 97, 324, 1091, 3685, \dots}{6, 33, 161, 723, 2976, 11951, 46726, \dots}$
3	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-2	$\frac{1, 5, 24, 71, 238, 862, 2991, \dots}{1, 11, 108, 417, 1857, 7948, 32335, \dots}$
3	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 1 & 7 \\ 7 & 7 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	5	-2	$\frac{2, 13, 45, 143, 534, 2014, 7336, \dots}{5, 51, 248, 1048, 4685, 20691, 86666, \dots}$
3	5	$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 7 & 3 \\ 13 & 7 & 14 \end{pmatrix}$	6	-2	$\frac{6, 27, 70, 285, 1103, 4063, 15359, \dots}{26, 129, 494, 2446, 10878, 46500, 198453, \dots}$
3	6	$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 17 & 13 \\ 13 & 13 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$	7	-2	$\frac{17, 53, 133, 569, 2327, 8624, 32412, \dots}{86, 360, 1148, 5767, 27277, 114524, 481710, \dots}$
3	7	$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 13 & 13 \\ 37 & 21 & 16 \end{pmatrix}$	8	-2	$\frac{41, 0, 528, 0, 7497, 0, 111071, \dots}{234, 0, 4854, 0, 93342, 0, 1741474, \dots}$
3	8	$\begin{pmatrix} 16 & 37 & 23 \\ 27 & 31 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$	8	-2	$\frac{6, 42, 153, 510, 1853, 7338, 28378, \dots}{20, 284, 1312, 5164, 22192, 99382, 428364, \dots}$

the possible trellis complexity of general (n, k, ν) binary convolutional codes based on the minimal trellis.

Let C be an (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code and \hat{C}^\perp is its reciprocal dual. In [12], it has been shown that the state complexity profiles of C and \hat{C}^\perp are identical if minimal encoders for both codes are used. Using (2) for C , we see that the dimension of state space s_j is lower bounded by $\max\{0, -k + \nu\}$ and is upper bounded by $k + \nu$. Using (2) for \hat{C}^\perp , we have $\max\{0, -(n - k) + \nu\} \leq s_j \leq n - k + \nu$. Combining these two inequalities, we have

$$\max\{0, \nu - q\} \leq s_j \leq \nu + q \quad (19)$$

where

$$q = \min\{k, n - k\}. \quad (20)$$

For brevity, we only consider bounds on the complexity of convolutional codes with $\nu \geq q$.

We first consider the case that the state complexity profile of C provides the largest $\varphi(C)$ and the largest $\psi(C)$. In this case, the set of locations of leading "1" of G_0 (i.e., the set of leftmost indices for rows of G_0) is $\{0, 1, \dots, k - 1\}$ and the set of locations of trailing "1" of G_{end} (i.e., the set of rightmost indices for rows of G_{end}) is $\{n - k, n - k + 1, \dots, n - 1\}$. Hence, the first $q + 1$ components of the state complexity profile will be $\nu, \nu + 1, \dots, \nu + q - 1, \nu + q$ respectively and the last q components of the state complexity profile will be $\nu + q, \nu + q + 1, \dots, \nu + 2, \nu + 1$ respectively. The state complexity profile will be $(\nu, \nu + 1, \dots, \nu + q, \dots, \nu + q, \dots, \nu + 2, \nu + 1)$. We can derive that

$$\varphi(C) = 2^\nu [2^q (n - 2q + 3) - 3] \quad (21)$$

TABLE II
GOOD (4, 3) CONVOLUTIONAL CODES

n	ν	$G(D)$	d_{free}	χ	Spectra $\frac{t_1, t_2, \dots}{f_1, f_2, \dots}$
4	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-1	$\frac{29, 0, 532, 0, 9853, 0, 182372, \dots}{124, 0, 4504, 0, 124337, 0, 3059796, \dots}$
4	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-2	$\frac{10, 42, 194, 886, 4091, 18855, 86898, \dots}{32, 212, 1476, 8564, 48760, 265391, 1414806, \dots}$
4	3	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-3	$\frac{5, 36, 152, 708, 3424, 16300, 77640, \dots}{9, 136, 1012, 6380, 38136, 218916, 1219708, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$	4	3	$\frac{29, 0, 532, 0, 9853, 0, 182372, \dots}{124, 0, 4504, 0, 124337, 0, 3059796, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$	4	2	$\frac{10, 42, 194, 886, 4091, 18855, 86898, \dots}{32, 212, 1476, 8564, 48760, 265391, 1414806, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & 0 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$	4	1	$\frac{5, 36, 152, 708, 3424, 16300, 77640, \dots}{9, 136, 1012, 6380, 38136, 218916, 1219708, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	4	0	$\frac{5, 39, 151, 690, 3545, 16935, 80141, \dots}{15, 216, 1188, 6964, 43347, 244875, 1339220, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 6 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-1	$\frac{3, 44, 160, 638, 3556, 17130, 79234, \dots}{6, 296, 1354, 6891, 47092, 263191, 1396139, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 6 & 6 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-2	$\frac{2, 22, 96, 464, 2353, 11736, 58539, \dots}{3, 93, 680, 4461, 28214, 170374, 996609, \dots}$
4	4	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 6 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	4	-3	$\frac{1, 16, 84, 376, 1912, 9728, 48592, \dots}{1, 48, 544, 3244, 20984, 128496, 755008, \dots}$
4	5	$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 5 & 5 \\ 6 & 1 & 6 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	5	-3	$\frac{7, 45, 223, 1066, 5612, 29010, 148269, \dots}{25, 270, 1854, 11190, 71024, 429927, 2522656, \dots}$

and

$$\psi(C) = 2^{\nu+2}(2^q - 1) + 2^{\nu+q}(n + k - 3q). \quad (22)$$

For an (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code with this highest complexity minimal trellis, the memory sizes of encoders of equivalent codes can be $\nu, \nu + 1, \dots, \nu + q - 1$ and $\nu + q$. The code C_I considered in Section III has state complexity profile $(2, 3, 4, 4, 3)$, which has the highest state complexity and branch complexity among all the binary $(5, 3)$ convolutional codes. The possible memory sizes of encoders of equivalent codes can be $\nu = 2$ (for C_I), $\nu + 1 = 3$ (for C_{II}) and $\nu + 2 = 4$ (for C_{III}), respectively.

We then consider the case that the state complexity profile of C provides the smallest $\varphi(C)$ and the smallest $\psi(C)$. In this case, the set of locations of leading "1" of G_0 is $\{n - k, n - k + 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ and the set of locations of trailing "1" of G_{end} is $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, k - 2, k - 1\}$. The first $q + 1$ components of the state complexity profile will be $\nu, \nu - 1, \dots, \nu - q + 1, \nu - q$ respectively and the last q components of the state complexity profile will be $\nu - q, \nu - q + 1, \dots, \nu - 2, \nu - 1$ respectively. The state complexity profile will be $(\nu, \nu - 1, \dots, \nu - q, \dots, \nu - q, \dots, \nu - 2, \nu - 1)$. We can derive that

$$\varphi(C) = 2^\nu [2^{-q}(n - 2q - 3) + 3] \quad (23)$$

and

$$\psi(C) = 2^{\nu-q+2}(2^q - 1) + 2^{\nu-q}(n + k - 3q). \quad (24)$$

For an (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code with this lowest complexity minimal trellis, the memory sizes of encoders of equivalent codes can be $\nu, \nu - 1, \dots, \nu - q + 1$ and $\nu - q$ respectively. The code C with transform domain generator matrix

$$G(D) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (25)$$

has state complexity profile $(4, 3, 2, 2, 3)$, which has the lowest state complexity and branch complexity among all the binary $(5, 3)$ convolutional code. The possible memory sizes of encoders of equivalent codes can be $\nu = 4, \nu - 1 = 3$ and $\nu - 2 = 2$ respectively.

For the general (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code, the complexity measured by the number of states in the minimal trellis module is upper bounded by (21) and is lower bounded by (23), while the complexity measured by the number of branches in the minimal trellis module is upper bounded by (22) and is lower bounded by (24).

It is generally accepted that, the best (n, k, ν) binary convolutional code will have weight spectra better than the best (n, k, ν') code if $\nu > \nu'$. That means by increasing the complexity of the trellis with n -bit branches, it is likely that we can find a convolutional code with better weight spectra. Intuitively, we hope that this rule will apply if we consider the complexity based on the minimal trellis. If the answer is positive, then it will be helpful in the code search for the best (n, k, ν) binary convolutional codes since we do not have to check the weight spectra of codes which have low minimal-trellis complexity. At least, we know that we do not need to check those codes with state complexity profile in the form of $(\nu, \nu - 1, \dots, \nu - q, \dots, \nu - q, \dots, \nu - 2, \nu - 1)$, since such codes will have equivalent codes with memory sizes smaller than ν . In fact, we do not need to check any code for which at least one component in the state complexity profile has value smaller than ν .

By now, we only have some data for $(n, n - 1)$ binary convolutional codes. From Tables I and II for $(n, n - 1)$ codes, we see that for a given ν , larger $\varphi(\cdot)$ and $\psi(\cdot)$, i.e., small χ usually yields better weight spectra, although cases of exception are found in the pair of $(3, 2, \nu = 2, \chi = -1)$, $(3, 2, \nu = 2, \chi = -2)$ codes and the pair of $(4, 3, \nu = 4, \chi = 1)$, $(4, 3, \nu = 4, \chi = 0)$ codes, where in a pair, the code with a larger χ provides weight spectra slightly better than those for another code with a smaller χ . In [14], some best $(n, n - 1)$ convolutional codes were found. The codes with the largest $\varphi(\cdot)$ and $\psi(\cdot)$ (i.e., $\chi = 1 - n$) in Tables I and II have weight spectra almost the same as those of comparable codes listed in [14]. We observe that a convolutional code with the best weight spectra has its $\varphi(\cdot)$ and $\psi(\cdot)$ very close to the largest possible values for $(n, n - 1)$ binary convolutional codes. Whether this phenomenon will occur in (n, k) convolutional codes with k other than $n - 1$ is an interesting and open problem.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

By examining the properties of minimal trellises of the convolutional codes, we find that convolutional codes with distinct memory sizes of minimal encoders may be equivalent. The associated weight spectra and decoding complexity of equivalent convolutional codes are identical. In general, for an (n, k, ν) convolutional code, we can have n equivalent codes for which the minimal trellis module of each code is a cyclicly shifted version of the minimal trellis module of another code. The memory sizes of encoders of equivalent codes may vary in the range of $\{\max\{0, \nu - \min\{k, n - k\}\}, \max\{0, \nu - \min\{k, n - k\}\} + 1, \dots, \nu - 1, \nu, \nu + 1, \dots, \nu + \min\{k, n - k\} - 1, \nu + \min\{k, n - k\}\}$.

On the other hand, for the (n, k, ν) convolutional code, the complexity measured by the number of states and the number of branches

in the minimal trellis module may vary according to the structure of the minimal trellis module. We derive upper bounds and lower bounds on these complexity measures.

In practical applications of decoding, besides state complexity and branch complexity, other measures for complexity such as the complexity of obtaining branch metric, trellis regularity and the number of comparisons may need to be considered. In [14], a soft-in-soft-out (SISO) decoder for the binary $(n, n - 1)$ convolutional code C based on the trellis of its dual C^\perp , i.e., the trellis of a binary $(n, 1)$ convolutional code, is proposed. Such a decoder is definitely superior to the SISO decoder using the minimal trellis of C considering the number of branches and the number of comparisons and the regularity. However, the SISO decoder using the trellis of C^\perp requires some additional complexity in obtaining the branch metric as compared to the SISO decoder using the trellis of C .

Among the various measures of complexity, we guess that the information of the state complexity and the branch complexity of the minimal trellis can help us reduce some effort in the search for (n, k, ν) convolutional codes with best weight spectra. We do not need to consider any code for which at least one component in the state complexity profile has value smaller than ν . From the tabulated results of $(3, 2)$ and $(4, 3)$ convolutional codes, we observe the trend that $(n, n - 1, \nu)$ binary convolutional codes with the best weight spectra have the highest (or close to the highest) state complexity and branch complexity. For the general (n, k, ν) convolutional codes, whether the trend still exists is an interesting and open problem. The state complexity and branch complexity of the minimal trellis are also important factors in the search for convolutional codes with maximum possible code length under given $n - k, \nu$ and d_{free} [18], [19].

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors wish to thank the associate editor and the anonymous reviewers for many helpful comments and suggestions.

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Iterative Soft-Input Soft-Output Decoding of Reed–Solomon Codes by Adapting the Parity-Check Matrix

Jing Jiang, *Student Member, IEEE*, and
Krishna R. Narayanan, *Member, IEEE*

Abstract—An iterative algorithm is presented for soft-input soft-output (SISO) decoding of Reed–Solomon (RS) codes. The proposed iterative algorithm uses the sum–product algorithm (SPA) in conjunction with a binary parity-check matrix of the RS code. The novelty is in reducing a submatrix of the binary parity-check matrix that corresponds to less reliable bits to a sparse nature before the SPA is applied at each iteration. The proposed algorithm can be geometrically interpreted as a two-stage gradient descent with an adaptive potential function. This adaptive procedure is crucial to the convergence behavior of the gradient descent algorithm and, therefore, significantly improves the performance. Simulation results show that the proposed decoding algorithm and its variations provide significant gain over hard-decision decoding (HDD) and compare favorably with other popular soft-decision decoding methods.

Index Terms—Adapting the parity-check matrix, gradient descent, iterative decoding, Reed–Solomon (RS) codes, soft-decision decoding.

I. INTRODUCTION

Reed–Solomon (RS) codes are one of the most popular error-correction codes in many state-of-the-art communication and recording systems. In most of these existing systems, RS codes are decoded via an algebraic hard-decision decoding (HDD) algorithm. When soft information about the channel output is available, HDD can incur a significant performance loss compared to optimal soft decision decoding. For example, for the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) channel, the loss is believed to be about 2–3 dB. Moreover, in some situations, it is desirable to obtain soft output from the decoder. A typical example is when turbo equalization is employed at the receiver and soft outputs

Manuscript received March 8, 2005; revised October 17, 2005. This work was supported in part by the National Science Foundation under Grant CCR0093020 and by Seagate Technology, Pittsburgh, PA 15222 USA.

The authors are with the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843 USA (e-mail: jjiang@ece.tamu.edu; krn@ece.tamu.edu).

Communicated by M. P. C. Fossorier, Associate Editor for Coding Techniques.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TIT.2006.878176

from the decoder have to be fed back to the equalizer. Consequently, soft-input soft-output (SISO) decoding algorithms for RS codes are of research interest both for theoretical and practical reasons.

In the literature, there are several classes of soft-decision decoding algorithms. Enhanced HDD algorithms such as generalized minimum distance (GMD) decoding [1], Chase decoding [2] and a hybrid of Chase and GMD algorithms (CGA) [3] use reliability information to assist HDD decoding. Enhanced HDD usually gives a moderate performance improvement over HDD with reasonable complexity. Recently, algebraic soft interpolation based decoding (the Koetter–Vardy (KV) algorithm [4]), which is a list decoding technique that uses the soft information from the channel to interpolate each symbol, has become popular [5]–[7]. The KV algorithm can significantly outperform HDD for low-rate RS codes. However, to achieve large coding gain, the complexity can be prohibitively large. For detailed discussions of the complexity performance tradeoff of the KV algorithm, we refer interested readers to [7]. Another approach is decoding RS codes using their binary image expansions. Vardy and Be’ery showed that RS codes can be decomposed into Bose–Chaudhuri–Hocquenghem (BCH) subfield subcodes which are glued together using glue vectors [8]. Even though this decomposition significantly reduces the trellis complexity of maximum-likelihood (ML) decoding of RS codes, the complexity still grows exponentially with the code length and d_{\min} and it is thus infeasible for practical long codes. Recent work [9] has reduced the complexity and modified the algorithm in [8] to generate soft output efficiently. By using the binary image expansion of RS codes, we can also use decoding algorithms for general linear block codes such as reliability based ordered statistics decoding (OSD) [10] and its variations [11] for soft-decision decoding of RS codes. Previous such works include the hybrid algorithm by Hu and Lin [12] and the box and match algorithm (BMA) [13] by Fossorier and Valembois. OSD-based algorithms are quite efficient for practical RS codes even though they do not take the structure of the RS codes into account.

Iterative decoding [14] algorithms are of emerging interest for soft decision decoding of RS codes [15]–[17]. The main difficulty in directly applying iterative decoding techniques to RS codes is that the parity-check matrix of an RS code is in general not sparse. In order to deal with such dense parity-check matrices, Yedidia *et al.* [18] proposed a “generalized belief propagation” (GBP) algorithm that introduces hidden states in iterative decoding. However, their results show that this technique does not work well for high-density parity-check (HDPC) codes (such as RS codes) over the AWGN channel. We observe from the simulations that the iterative decoder fails mainly due to some of the unreliable bits “saturating” most of the checks which causes iterative decoding to be stuck at some pseudo-equilibrium points. In [16], the cyclic structure of RS codes is taken advantage of and a sum product algorithm (SPA) is applied to a random shift of the received vector at each iteration to avoid pseudo-equilibrium points (see [16] for details). While significant improvement in performance over HDD was obtained for short codes, the performance improvement diminishes for long RS codes.

In this correspondence, we present an iterative SISO decoding algorithm (which is based on the SPA) for RS codes. The main novelty in the proposed scheme is to adapt the parity-check matrix at each iteration according to the bit reliabilities such that the unreliable bits correspond to a sparse submatrix and the SPA is then applied to the adapted parity-check matrix. This adaptation prevents the iterative decoder from getting stuck at pseudo-equilibrium points and, hence, the convergence behavior of the iterative decoder is significantly improved. Simulation results show that the proposed iterative decoding scheme performs well for RS codes with reasonable decoding complexity, even though the parity-check matrices are not sparse. While the approach in [16] is also one of adapting the parity-check matrix, the adaptation there