Lecture 14: How to construct LDPC codes

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Outline

Waterfall

2 Error floor

Practical LDPC codes

We know how to decode LDPC codes

Messages are log-likelihood ratios (LLRs):

$$L_{ch} = \log rac{\mathbb{P}(r|v=0)}{\mathbb{P}(r|v=1)}$$
 BSC: $r \in \{0,1\}$ AWGNC: $r \in \mathbb{R}$

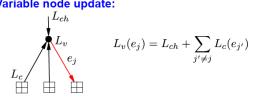
$$\begin{aligned} &\mathsf{BSC} \colon r \in \{0,1\} \\ &\mathsf{AWGNC} \colon r \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

Check node update:



$$L_{c} = 2 \operatorname{atanh} \left(\prod_{k' \neq k} \operatorname{tanh} \left(\frac{L_{v}(e_{k'})}{2} \right) \right)$$

Variable node update:



$$L_v(e_j) = L_{ch} + \sum_{j' \neq j} L_c(e_{j'})$$

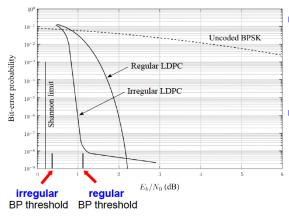
Problems

In what follows the decoding algorithm is fixed.

The decoding algorithm is suboptimal (there are cycles in the Tanner graph).

How to optimize LDPC parity-check matrices for this decoder?

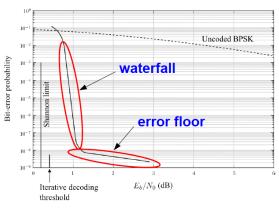
Regular vs Irregular LDPC codes



- Irregular LDPC code ensembles can have optimized thresholds close to capacity
- Regular LDPC code ensembles are asymptotically good and have good graph properties, resulting in a low error floor

Waterfall vs error floor

 The Shannon limit defines capacity and is a property of the physical channel



- The iterative decoding threshold depends on the code structure and iterative decoding algorithm in use.
- Capacity-approaching LDPC codes typically display a waterfall (related to their threshold) and an error-floor (related to their graph/distance properties).

How to define the ensemble of irregular LDPC codes?

Degree (weight if we consider PCM) distribution polynomials

$$\Lambda(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{l_{\text{max}}} \Lambda_i x^i \text{ (variable nodes)}$$

and

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{r_{\text{max}}} P_i x^i \text{ (check nodes)},$$

where Λ_i and P_i are numbers of variable/check nodes of degree i.

Properties:

$$\Lambda(1) = n, P(1) = (1 - R)n, R = 1 - \frac{P(1)}{\Lambda(1)}$$

How to define the ensemble of irregular LDPC codes?

Degree (weight if we consider PCM) distribution polynomials

$$L(x) = \frac{\Lambda(x)}{\Lambda(1)}$$

and

$$Q(x) = \frac{P(x)}{P(1)},$$

where L_i and Q_i are fractions of variable/check nodes of degree i.

Edge perspective

For the asymptotic analysis it is more convenient to take on an edge perspective. Define:

$$\lambda(x) = \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} x^{i-1}$$

and

$$\rho(x) = \sum_{i} \rho_{i} x^{i-1},$$

where λ_i and ρ_i are fractions of edges that connect to variable(check) nodes of degree i.

Properties:

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{L'(x)}{L'(1)}, \rho(x) = \frac{Q'(x)}{Q'(1)}.$$

Example

Consider [7,4] Hamming code

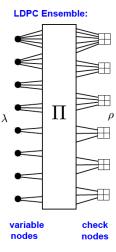
$$\Lambda(x) = 3x + 3x^{2} + x^{3}$$

$$L(x) = \frac{3}{7}x + \frac{3}{7}x^{2} + \frac{1}{7}x^{3}$$

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{4}x^{2}$$

How to define the ensemble of irregular LDPC codes?

Node degrees: random variables [Luby, et al., '97] $\lambda(x) = \sum_k \lambda_k x^{k-1} \qquad \text{variable node distribution}$ $\rho(x) = \sum_k \lambda_k x^{k-1} \qquad \text{check node distribution}$



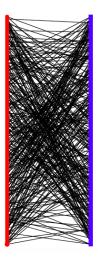
Outline

Waterfall

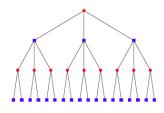
2 Error floor

3 Practical LDPC codes

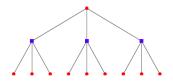
Computational graph

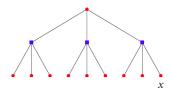


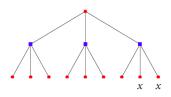
 $\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{E}[P_b(G,n,\ell)]$

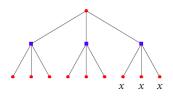


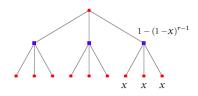
probability that computation graph of fixed depth becomes tree tends to 1 as n tends to infinity

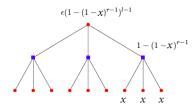


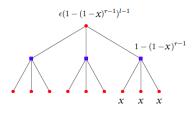




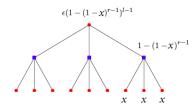








$$x_t = \epsilon (1 - (1 - x_{t-1})^{r-1})^{l-1}$$



$$x_{\ell} = \epsilon \lambda \left(1 - \rho \left(1 - x_{\ell-1}\right)\right)$$

Example 3.52 (Density Evolution for $(\lambda(x) = x^2, \rho(x) = x^5)$). For the degree distribution pair $(\lambda(x) = x^2, \rho(x) = x^5)$ we have $x_0 = \epsilon$ and for $\ell \ge 1$, $x_\ell = \epsilon(1 - (1 - x_{\ell-1})^5)^2$. For example, for $\epsilon = 0.4$ the sequence of values of x_ℓ is 0.4, 0.34, 0.306, 0.2818, 0.2617, 0.2438, and so forth.

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Does this sequence converge to 0?

LEMMA 3.53 (MONOTONICITY OF $f(\cdot, \cdot)$). For a given degree distribution pair (λ, ρ) define $f(\epsilon, x) = \epsilon \lambda (1 - \rho(1 - x))$. Then $f(\epsilon, x)$ is increasing in both its arguments for $x, \epsilon \in [0, 1]$.

Lemma 3.54 (Monotonicity with Respect to Channel). Let (λ, ρ) be a degree distribution pair and $\epsilon \in [0,1]$. If $P_{\mathcal{T}_{\ell}}^{BP}(\epsilon) \stackrel{\ell \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ then $P_{\mathcal{T}_{\ell}}^{BP}(\epsilon') \stackrel{\ell \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ for all $0 \le \epsilon' \le \epsilon$.

phase transition:
$$\epsilon^{\rm BP}$$
 so that
$$x_t \to 0 \text{ for } \epsilon < \epsilon^{\rm BP}$$

$$x_t \to x_\infty > 0 \text{ for } \epsilon > \epsilon^{\rm BP}$$

Threshold

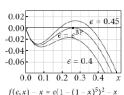
DEFINITION 3.56 (THRESHOLD OF DEGREE DISTRIBUTION PAIR). The *threshold* associated with the degree distribution pair (λ, ρ) , call it $\epsilon^{\text{BP}}(\lambda, \rho)$, is defined as

$$\epsilon^{\mathrm{BP}}(\lambda, \rho) = \sup\{\epsilon \in [0, 1] : P_{\mathcal{T}_{\ell}(\lambda, \rho)}^{\mathrm{BP}}(\epsilon) \xrightarrow{\ell \to \infty} 0\}.$$

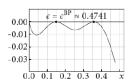
Example 3.57 (Threshold of $(\lambda(x) = x^2, \rho = x^5)$). Numerical experiments show that $\epsilon^{BP}(3,6) \approx 0.42944$.

Fixed point characterization, BEC

$$f(\epsilon, x) = \epsilon \lambda (1 - \rho(1 - x))$$



$$(\lambda, \rho) = (x^2, x^5)$$

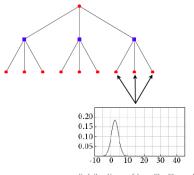


$$\lambda(x) = 0.106257x + 0.486659x^{2} + 0.010390x^{10} + 0.396694x^{19}$$

$$\rho(x) = 0.5x^7 + 0.5x^8$$

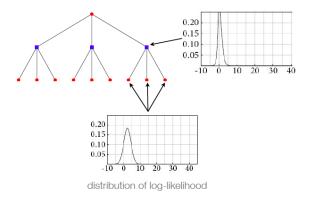
1	r	r(1,r)	$\epsilon^{\mathrm{Sha}}(\mathtt{l},\mathtt{r})$	$\epsilon^{\mathrm{BP}}(\mathtt{l},\mathtt{r})$
3	6	1/2	$\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$	≈ 0.4294
4	8	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$	≈ 0.3834
3	5	$\frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{3}{5} = 0.6$	≈ 0.5176
4	6	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3} \approx 0.667$	≈ 0.5061
3	4	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4} = 0.75$	≈ 0.6474

Density evolution, AWGNC

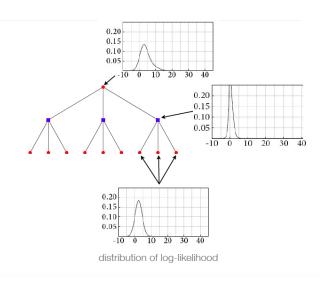


distribution of log-likelihood

Density evolution, AWGNC



Density evolution, AWGNC



Outline

Waterfall

2 Error floor

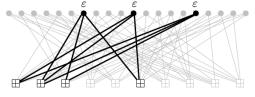
Practical LDPC codes

Error floor

- Error events in the waterfall typically result from large decoding failures (a large number of symbols decoded incorrectly)
- Error events in the error floor typically result from small decoding failures (only a few symbols decoded incorrectly)
- The minimum distance is a code property; under ML decoding, a large minimum distance results in a low error floor
- Under sub-optimal iterative BP decoding, the error floor is also affected by small failures arising due to weaknesses in the Tanner graph
- → These graphical weaknesses have been studied extensively for a variety of channels and are known collectively as pseudocodewords [Frey et al '98], stopping sets [Di et al '02], near-codewords [MacKay & Postol '03], trapping sets [Richardson '03], elementary trapping sets [Laendner & Milenkovic '05], and absorbing sets [Dolecek et al '07].

Error floor, BEC

On the BEC, the cause of failures is **stopping sets** [Di, et al. '02]. **Definition:** A stopping set is a subset *S* of the variable nodes such that all neighboring check nodes are connected to *S* at least twice



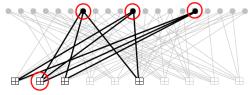
Example stopping set in a (3,6)-regular Tanner graph

- If the highlighted nodes are all erasures then the BP decoder will fail to correct them
- Message-passing decoding is suboptimal! The MAP decoder fails if and only if the set of erasures contains the set of all non-zero positions in the codeword.

Error floor, AWGNC

On the AWGNC, failures are attributed to trapping sets [Richardson '03].

Definition: An (a,b) general trapping set $\tau_{a,b}$ of a bipartite graph is a set of a variable nodes which induce a subgraph with exactly b odd-degree check nodes.



A (3,1) trapping set in a (3,6)-regular Tanner graph

- Low connectivity outside the set causes the iterative decoder to become trapped and fail to correct the symbols in the set
- Certain types of trapping sets with small a and b, such as elementary trapping sets and absorbing sets, are known to be particularly harmful

Progressive-edge grows algorithm

Input: L(x)

Output: PCM with "big" girth

Main idea: greedy algorithm, add edges to the graph in a sequential manner. Each time choose the connection, that maximizes the girth.

Outline

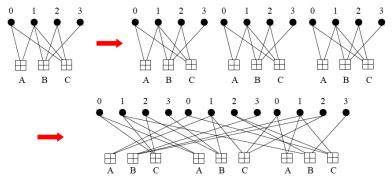
Waterfal

2 Error floor

Practical LDPC codes

Protograph-based LDPC codes

 Codes can be constructed from a protograph using a copy-andpermute operation



[Tho05] J. Thorpe, "Low-Density Parity-Check (LDPC) codes constructed from protographs", Jet Propulsion Laboratory INP Progress Report, Vol. 42-154 Aug. 2003.

Protograph-based LDPC codes

 Compact representation of a permutation matrix based ensemble by a base matrix:

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \Pi_{1,1} & \Pi_{1,2} & \Pi_{1,3} & \Pi_{1,4} & \Pi_{1,5} & 0 \\ \Pi_{2,1} & \mathbf{0} & \Pi_{2,3} & \Pi_{2,4} & \Pi_{2,5} & \Pi_{2,6} \\ \mathbf{0} & \Pi_{3,2} & \Pi_{3,3} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \Pi_{3,6} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 base matrix protograph

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Quasi-cyclic LDPC codes

Replace permutation matrices with circulant matrices (usually of weight 1).

Why this code is quasi-cyclic?

Thank you for your attention!