Unit 12: LDPC Codes

EL-GY 6013: DIGITAL COMMUNICATIONS

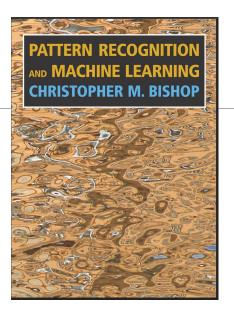
PROF. SUNDEEP RANGAN

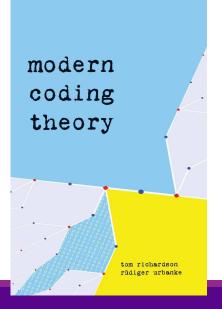




References

- ☐ Extensive tutorial presentation:
 - An Introduction to Low-Density Parity-Check Codes, Paul Siegel
 - https://cmrr-star.ucsd.edu/static/presentations/ldpc_tutorial.pdf
- ☐ Bishop, Pattern Recognition and ML
 - General book on ML from 2006
 - Excellent chapter (Chapter 8) on graphical models
- ☐ Modern Coding Theory, Richardson and Urbanke
 - From 2008
 - By two pioneers in the field
 - Extensive math
- □Richardson, Tom, and Shrinivas Kudekar. "Design of low-density parity check codes for 5G new radio." IEEE Communications Magazine 56.3 (2018): 28-34.









Outline

LDPC Codes: Basics and Motivation

- □LDPC Encoding
- ☐ Graphical Models
- ☐ Inference via Belief Propagation
- □LDPC Decoding
- □5G LDPC codes



Generator Matrices

- \square Consider (n, k) binary linear code
 - k information bits $\boldsymbol{b} = (b_1, ..., b_k)$
 - n coded bits $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$
- lacktriangle Described by a generator matrix c = bG
- Example: (7,4) Hamming Code: $G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$



Parity Check Matrix

- \square Parity check matrix: An $n \times (n-k)$ matrix H such that GH = 0
- ☐Properties:
 - For any codeword, **c**, **cH=0**. Why?
 - Conversely, if G and H are rank k, then cH=0 implies that c is a codeword.
 [Need some more linear algebra to prove this]
- \square For a binary systematic code: $G = [I_k \mid P] \Rightarrow H = \begin{bmatrix} P \\ I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$

Example: Hamming code
$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

LDPC Codes

- □ Low-Density Parity Check Codes
- ☐ Based on three key ideas
- ☐ Linear codes where the parity check matrix is sparse
 - Number of "ones" grows linearly in n
 - Number of "ones" per row is roughly constant
- Randomness in the construction
 - Random placement of "ones"
- ☐ Iterative, message-passing decoder
 - Simple "local" decoding at nodes
 - Iterative exchange of information (message-passing)
 - Based on belief propagation from





First LDPC codes

- □Gallager, R. G., Low-Density Parity-Check Codes, M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Mass: 1963.
- \square Regular (n, j, k) code
 - n = codeword length
 - Number of 1's in each row of the parity check matrix
 - Number of 1's in each column of the parity check matrix
 - Location of 1's chosen randomly
- \square Rate of the code $1 \frac{j}{k}$
- \square Minimum distance tends to grow linearly with n

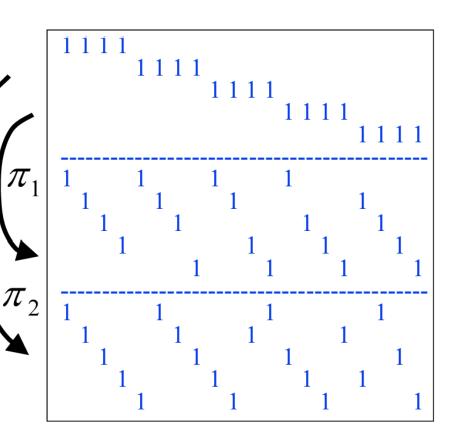
Gallager's Original Regular Code

(n,j,k) = (20,3,4)

• First n/k = 5 rows have k=4 1's each, descending.

• Next **j-1**=2 submatrices of size $n/k \times n$ =5 x 20 obtained by applying randomly chosen column permutation to first submatrix.

• Result: $jn/k \times n = 15 \times 20$ parity check matrix for a (n,j,k) = (20,3,4) LDPC code.



From Siegel, An Introduction to Low-Density Parity-Check Codes



Performance of Regular Codes on BSC

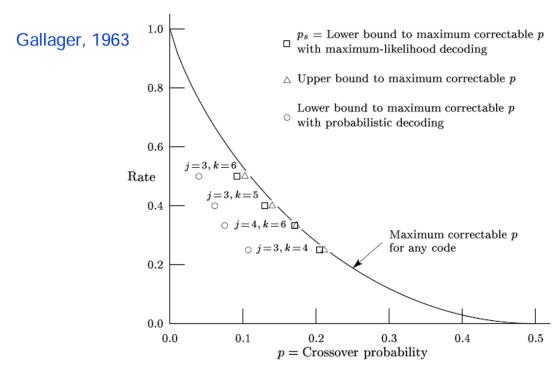
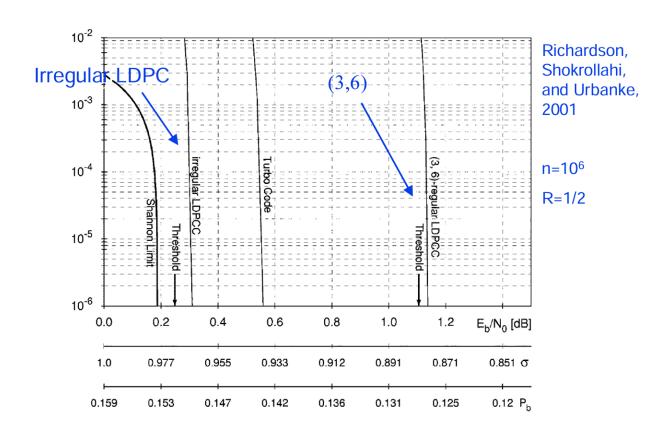


Figure 3.5: Error-correcting properties of (n, j, k) codes on BSC as function of rate for large n.



Enter Irregular Codes



- ☐ Irregular codes
 - Began work in 2001
 - Showed significant improvement
- □On BSC channel at infinite lengths:
 - Theoretically hits capacity
- ☐ At practical code lengths:
 - Very close to capacity





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Encoding with a Parity Check Matrix

- \Box Given a parity check matrix H how do we encode
- \square Parity check matrix can be used to tell if c is a codeword
- ☐ But does not say how to find a codeword from information bits
- \square If $H = \begin{bmatrix} P \\ I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$ then we can obtain generator matrix: $G = [I_k \mid P]$
- \Box Then, we can use G: c = bG
- ☐ But LDPC parity check matrices are not in general systematic

Encoding via Equation Solving

- Partition code word: $c = [c_1, ..., c_{n-k}, c_{n-k+1}, ..., c_n]$ Parity Info
- \square Set last k bits as information bits: $c_{n-k+\ell} = b_{\ell}$ for $\ell = 1, ..., k$
- ☐ Write each check node equation:

$$0 = \sum_{\ell=1}^{n-k} c_{\ell} H_{\ell k} + \sum_{\ell=n-k}^{n} c_{\ell} H_{\ell k} \Rightarrow \sum_{\ell=n-k}^{n} c_{\ell} H_{\ell k} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{n-k} c_{\ell} H_{\ell k}$$

- \circ Solve n-k unknowns with n-k equations
- Equations are linear, but over the binary field



Gaussian Elimination

☐ Equation solving can be performed via Gaussian elimination

Example: Solve:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Add R1 to R2 and R3:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Exchange R2 and R3:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c_3 = 0$$

$$c_2 = 1 + c_3 = 1$$

$$c_1 = c_2 + c_3 = 1$$

• Solution
$$c = [1,1,0]$$



MATLAB

- ☐ MATLAB can also perform binary arithmetic
- □ Define arrays with elements in GF(2)
 - The binary field
- Solve equations just as if they were real numbers

```
% Create the parity check matrix
H = [1,1,1; 1, 1, 0; 1, 0, 1; 0, 1, 1; 1 0 0; 0 1 0; 0 0 1];
H = gf(H);

% Get dimensions
[n,m] = size(H);
k = n-m;

% Generate random bits
b = randi([0,1], 1, k);
b = gf(b);

% Solve c(1:m)H(1:m,:) = b*H(m+1:n,:)
z = b*H(m+1:n,:);
c = z / H(1:m,:);

% Add information bits
c = [c b];
```

Complexity

- \square In general, we partition the parity check matrix: $H = \begin{pmatrix} H^{(1)} \\ H^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$
- We solve: $[c^{(1)} \ c^{(2)}] \begin{bmatrix} H^{(1)} \\ H^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow c^{(1)}H^{(1)} = c^{(2)}H^{(2)}$
- \square Since we place information bits in last code bits: $c^{(2)} = b$
- \square Therefore, we must solve: $c^{(1)} = bH^{(2)}(H^{(1)})^{-1}$
- \square Complexity: If **H** has d elements per column:
 - Multiplication: $bH^{(2)}$ has complexity O(kd)
 - $\circ (H^{(1)})^{-1}$ can be computed once and stored \checkmark
 - But $(\mathbf{H}^{(1)})^{-1}$ is not, in general, sparse.
 - Multiplication by $(\mathbf{H}^{(1)})^{-1}$ has complexity is $O((n-k)^2)$



Reducing Complexity

- ☐ For most LDPC codes, complexity can be reduced
- \square Find a "mostly" sparse upper triangular $H^{(1)}$
 - Use column permutations with a greedy algorithm
 - Remaining small number of rows that are dense
- □Overall complexity:
 - Pre-processing $O(n^{\frac{3}{2}})$
 - Encoding: O(n)

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MAP and Marginal Estimation

☐ Given a posterior distribution:

$$p(x|y), \quad x = (x_1, ..., x_N), \quad y = (y_1, ..., y_M)$$

- *N* unknowns: $x = (x_1, ..., x_N)$
- *M* observed variables: $y = (y_1, ..., y_M)$
- ☐ Two common estimation problems:
- \square MAP: Find $\hat{x} = \arg \max p(x|y)$
 - Finds the most likely unknown vector
- \square Marginal: Find marginal distribution $p(x_i|y)$ for some i
 - Finds the posterior probability of a particular variable

Complexity is Generally Exponential

- ☐ Brute force estimation is generally exponentially complex
- \square Suppose N unknowns $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_N)$, L choices for each x_i
- \square MAP: Find $\hat{x} = \arg \max p(x|y)$
 - Search over vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_N)$
 - Search over L^N vectors \boldsymbol{x}
- \square Marginal: For any possible value a for x_i :

$$p(x_i = a|y) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}: x_i = a} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$$

- Sum is over all vectors x with $x_i = a$
- For each a, search over L^{N-1} vectors x

Need structure for tractable estimation

Factorizable Distributions

☐ Assume posterior distribution is factorizable:

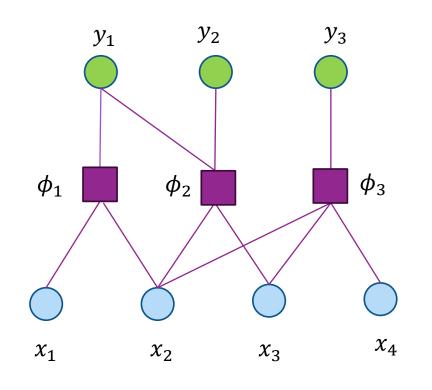
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{y})} \phi_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \cdots \phi_K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

- \square Each term $\phi_k(x,y)$ is a factor
 - \circ Assume depends on only a small number, d, of components x_i
- \square Normalization term $Z(y) = \sum_{x} \prod_{k} \phi_{k}(x, y)$
 - Ensures posterior density normalizes to one
 - \circ Generally, we will not have to explicitly compute Z(y)
- ☐ Key idea: Break hard estimation problem to local problems in each factor
 - \circ If d is small, local estimation problems are tractable

Factor Graph

- ☐ Represent statistical relations graphically
- ☐ Factor graph:
 - Unknown variable nodes
 - Observed or known variable nodes
 - Check or factor nodes
- ☐ Edges between variable and factor nodes
 - When variable is part of factor
- ■Example:

$$p(x_1, ..., x_4 | y_1, ..., y_3) = \frac{1}{Z(y)} \times \phi_1(x_1, x_2, y_1) \phi_2(x_2, x_3, y_1, y_2) \phi_3(x_2, x_3, x_4, y_3)$$



Example: Hidden Markov Chain

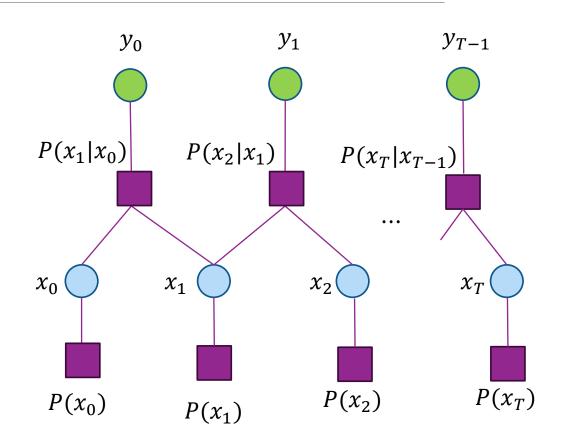
■ Markov chain:

$$p(x) = p(x_0)p(x_1|x_0)\cdots p(x_T|x_{T-1})$$

□ Observations

$$p(y|x) = p(y_0|x_0) \cdots p(y_{T-1}|x_{T-1})$$

- ☐ Hidden Markov chain problem:
 - Estimate state sequence $x = (x_0, ..., x_T)$
 - Use observations $y = (y_0, ..., y_{T-1})$



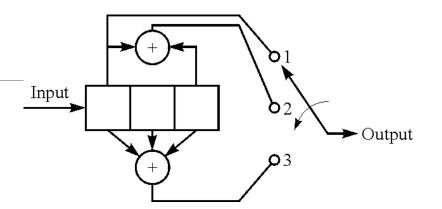
Convolutional Codes

- ☐ Example of an HMM
- \square Consider 1/k convolutional code with constraint length K
- \square State is $x_t = (b_{t-1}, \dots, b_{t-K+1})$ [Last K-1 bits]
- ☐ Transition probability:
 - Given current state x_t , can transition to one of two new states x_{t+1}

$$P(x_{t+1}|x_t = (b_{t-1}, \dots, b_{t-K+1})) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x_{t+1} = (?, b_{t-1}, \dots, b_{t-K+2}) \\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$

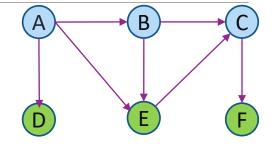
- \square Output is $y_t = (c_{t1}, ..., c_{tk})$
- \square Assume bitwise channel $P(r_{ti}|c_{ti})$
- Proabability is factorizable:

$$P(r|x) = \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \prod_{i=1}^{k} P(r_{ti}|x_t) \times \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} P(x_{t+1}|x_t)$$



Bayes Net Representation

- ☐ Bayes Net: A directed graph
- ☐ Represents conditional probabilities
 - Child is conditioned on parent(s)
 - Example to the right: P(A, ..., F) = P(A)P(D|A)P(B|A)P(E|A, B)P(C|B, E)P(F|C)
- ☐ Can write any Bayes Net as a factor graph
 - Remove directional arrows
 - Add factor node on leaf nodes and edges
- ☐ If a factor graph has no cycles: it can be represented as Bayes Net



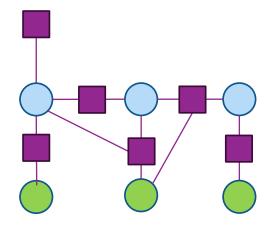


Plate Notation

- ☐ Simplify graphical representation
- ☐ Write repeated nodes in a "plates"
- **■**Example:
 - \circ HMM with parameter heta

 $P(x,\theta) = P(x_0)P(\theta)\prod P(x_{t+1}|x_t,\theta)P(y_t|x_t,\theta)$

• Put update maps in a plate

Standard Representation

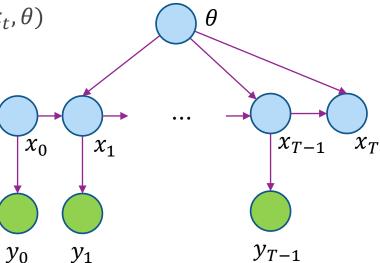
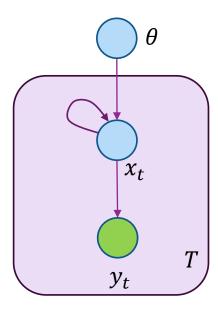
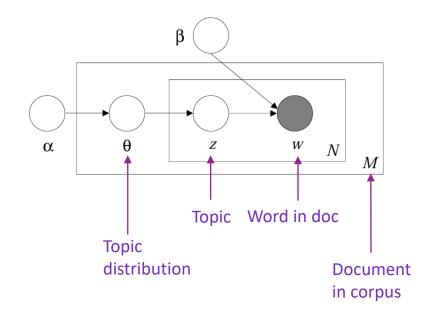


Plate Representation



Examples in ML

- ☐ Graphical model descriptions were used in many ML fields
 - Document modeling
 - Image segmentation
 - 0
- □Allows "explainable" models
 - See example to right
- Not used much any more
- ☐ Modern deep NN methods outperform graphical models



Blei, David M., Andrew Y. Ng, and Michael I. Jordan. "Latent dirichlet allocation." *Journal of machine Learning research* 3.Jan (2003): 993-1022.

Conditional Independence

- \square Let X, Y and Z be random variables
- $\square X$ and Y are independent if: P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y)
- $\square X$ and Y are conditionally independent on Z if:

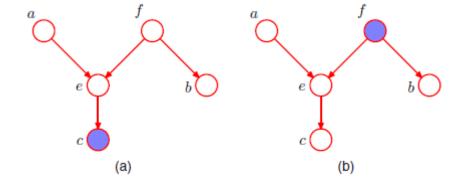
$$P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z)P(X|Z)$$

- \square Written $X \perp Y \mid Z$
- ■Note:
 - Conditional independence does not ⇒ Independence
 - Independence does not ⇒ Conditional independence

c

D-Separation

- ☐ Simple test for a Bayes Net
- \square A set of nodes A and B are d-separated by node C:
- \square For all paths from A to B every node must be:
 - Arrows must tail-tail or head-tail
 - \circ Or, head-head, then the node and its descendants are not in $\mathcal C$
- \square If A and B are d-separated by C, then A and B are conditionally independent of C



False: $a \perp b \mid c$ True: $a \perp b \mid c$

Example: Time-Varying Noise

- Model SNR is a Markov chain:
 - SNR is time-varying
 - $s_t \in \{0, 5, 10\}$ dB. Three possible values
 - \circ Transition probability for s_t : $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p & 0 \\ p/2 & 1-p & p/2 \\ 0 & p & 1-p \end{bmatrix}$
 - \circ SNR changes with probability p=0.1 in each time step
- ☐ Transmission:

$$r_t = x_t + w_t, \qquad w_t \sim CN(0.10^{-0.1s_t})$$

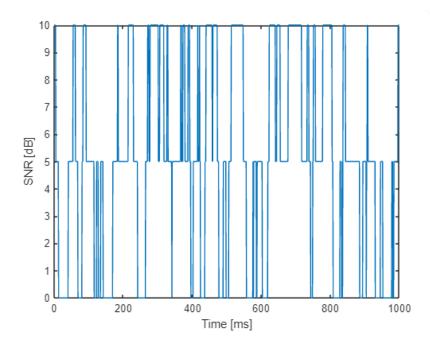
 $\circ x_t$ is a QAM constellation

MATLAB code

```
% Transition probability
Ptrans = [1-p p 0; p/2 1-p p/2; 0 p 1-p];
nstate = length(snrLevel');
% Initial distribution
p0 = [0.4, 0.3, 0.3];
% Get initial state
chanState = zeros(nt+1,1);
state0 = randsample(nstate,1,true,p0);
chanState(1) = state0;
snr = zeros(nt,1);
for t = (1:nt)
    % Get the SNR level based on the current state
    snr(t) = snrLevel(chanState(t));
    % Randomly update state
    p = Ptrans(chanState(t),:);
    chanState(t+1) = randsample(nstate,1,true,p);
end
```

☐ Markov chain simulation

Use randsample function





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Belief Propagation

- \square Given a factorizable distribution: $p(x|y) = \frac{1}{Z(y)} \phi_1(x,y) \cdots \phi_K(x,y)$
- ■Belief Propagation: Fast algorithm for:
 - MAP estimation: $\hat{x} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$
 - Marginal distribution: Find $p(x_i|y)$
- ☐Generalizes the Viterbi algorithm
- □ Applies when factor graph is a tree
 - That is, equivalent to a Bayes Net
- \square BP complexity is $O(KL^d)$
 - \circ K = number of factors
 - $\circ d = \max \text{ number of unknowns in each factor, } L = \text{number of values for each } x_i$
- \square Brute-force complexity is $O(L^{dK})$
 - \circ Significant savings if d is small.
 - Want to break systems in many factors with small number of terms in each factor



BP on a Chain

- \square Drop dependence on observed variables y
- ☐ Consider a simple factor graph:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z}\phi_1(x_1)\phi_2(x_1, x_2) \cdots \phi_N(x_{N-1}, x_N)$$

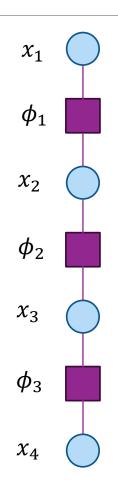
☐ To compute marginal distribution:

$$p(x_n = j, x_{n-1} = i) = \sum_{x: x_n = j, x_{n-1} = i} p(x)$$

Sum is over all x where $x_{n-1} = i$, $x_n = j$

☐ Break sum into three terms:

$$p(x_n = i) = \mu_n^+(i)$$



Forward and Reverse Messages

☐ Define two partial sums:

$$\phi = \mu_n^+(x_n = i) = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}} \phi_1(x_1) \cdots \phi_{n-1}(x_{n-1}, x_n = i)$$

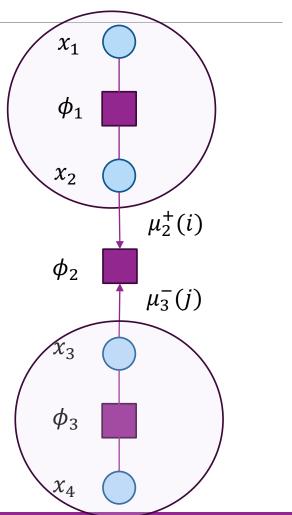
☐ Can verify that:

$$P(x_n, x_{n+1}) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_n^+(x_n) \mu_{n+1}^-(x_{n+1}) \phi(x_n, x_{n+1})$$

$$P(x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_n^+(x_n) \mu_n^-(x_n)$$

Call:

- $\circ \mu_n^+(x_n)$ the forward message
- $\circ \mu_n^-(x_{n+1})$ the reverse message



Recursive Updates

☐ Forward message:

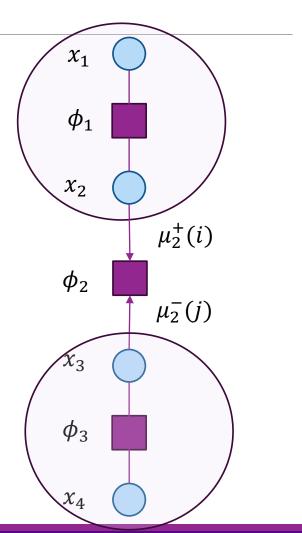
$$\mu_{n+1}^{+}(x_{n+1}) = \sum_{x_{1},\dots,x_{n}} \phi_{1}(x_{1}) \cdots \phi_{n-1}(x_{n-1},x_{n}) \phi_{n}(x_{n},x_{n+1})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{n}} \phi_{n}(x_{n},x_{n+1}) \sum_{x_{1},\dots,x_{n}} \phi_{1}(x_{1}) \cdots \phi_{n-1}(x_{n-1},x_{n})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{n}} \phi_{n}(x_{n},x_{n+1}) \mu_{n}^{+}(x_{n})$$

☐ Similarly, for the reverse message:

$$\mu_n^-(x_n) = \sum_{x_n} \phi_n(x_n, x_{n+1}) \mu_{n+1}^-(x_{n+1})$$



Summary: BP on a Chain

- \square Compute $\mu_n^+(x_n)$ recursively forward from n=1 to N
- \square Compute $\mu_n^-(x_n)$ recursively in reverse from n=N to 1
- □ Compute marginal distributions:

$$P(x_n, x_{n+1}) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_n^+(x_n) \mu_{n+1}^-(x_{n+1}) \phi(x_n, x_{n+1})$$

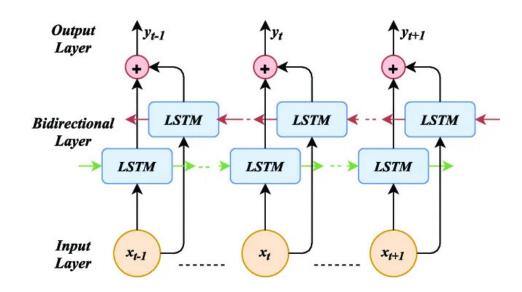
$$P(x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_n^+(x_n) \mu_n^-(x_n)$$

- \square Note that Z can be found since we know $\sum P(x_n) = 1$
- \square Complexity is $O(NL^2)$
 - Linear in time steps N
- ☐ Method is called message passing
 - We pass messages back and forth along the chain



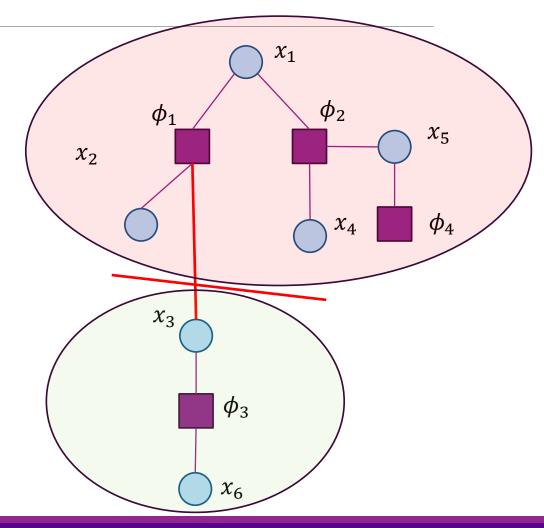
Relation to Bi-LSTMs

- □Bi-LSTMs: Widely-used sequence-to-sequence model in ML
 - Input sequence $(x_0, x_1, ..., x_{T-1})$
 - Output sequence $(y_0, y_1, ..., y_{T-1})$
 - Used in NLP, time-series, signal processing, ...
- Model has a forward and backward structure
- ☐ If the LSTM cell has sufficiently many states
 - Can model an optimal state estimator
 - $\circ x_t$ is an observation
 - $\circ \ y_t$ is the estimate of state or some function of a state
- LSTMs are trained with data
 - Do not need a model of the transition probabilities



Extensions to a Tree

- ☐BP can be easily extended to trees
- ☐ Select any node as the root of the tree
 - Can be a variable or factor node
- \square Given any factor ϕ_i define:
 - $x^{(i)} = \text{set of variables in factor node } i$
 - Ex: $x^{(1)} = (x_1, x_2, x_3), x^{(3)} = (x_3, x_6)$
- \square Given any edge (x_i, ϕ_i) , define:
 - \circ $C^+(x_i, \phi_i) \coloneqq$ set of factors on the "root side" of the edge
 - \circ $C^-(x_j, \phi_i) \coloneqq$ set of factors on the "leaf side" of the edge
 - \circ Ex: $C^+(x_3, \phi_1) = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_4\}, C^-(x_3, \phi_1) = \{\phi_3\}$

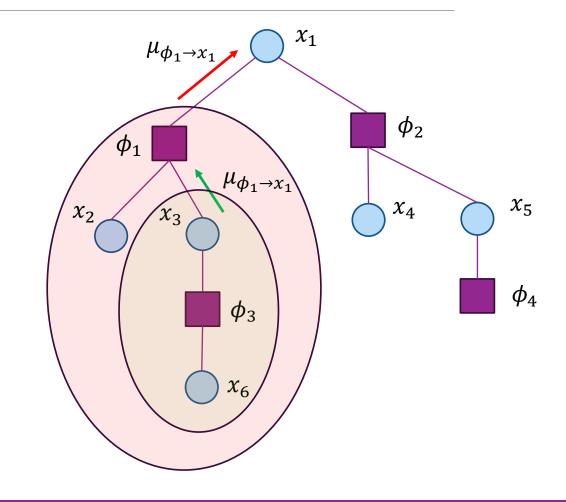


Forward Messages

- ☐Generalize the forward messages on chain:
 - Message towards the tree root
- \square When x_i is a parent of ϕ_i :

- \circ Sum is over variables that on the "leaf side" of ϕ_i
- Ex: $\mu_{\phi_1 \to x_1}(a) = \sum_{x_2, x_3, x_6} \phi_1(x_1 = a, x_2, x_3) \phi_3(x_3, x_6)$
- \square When ϕ_i is a parent of x_i

- Sum is over variables that on leaf side of x_i
- Ex: $\mu_{x_3 \to \phi_1}(a) = \sum_{x_6} \phi_3(x_3 = a, x_6)$

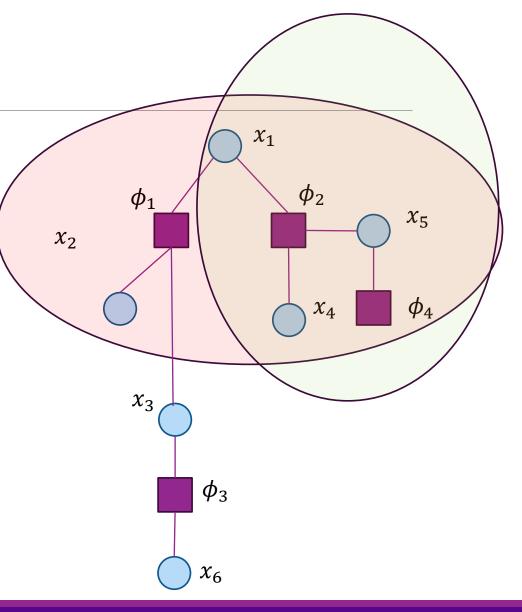


Reverse Messages

- ☐Generalize the reverse messages on chain:
 - Message towards the leaves of the tree
- \square When x_i is a child of ϕ_i :

- \circ Sum is over variables on "root" side of ϕ_i
- Ex: $\mu_{\phi_1 \to x_3}(a) = \sum_{x_1, x_4, x_5} \phi_1(x_1, x_3 = a) \phi_2(x_1, x_4) \phi_4(x_5)$
- \square When ϕ_i is a parent of x_i

- \circ Sum is over variables on "root side" of x_i
- Ex: $\mu_{x_1 \to \phi_1}(a) = \sum_{x_4, x_5} \phi_2(x_1 = a, x_4) \phi_4(x_5)$



Recursive Updates

☐ Messages can be computed recursively

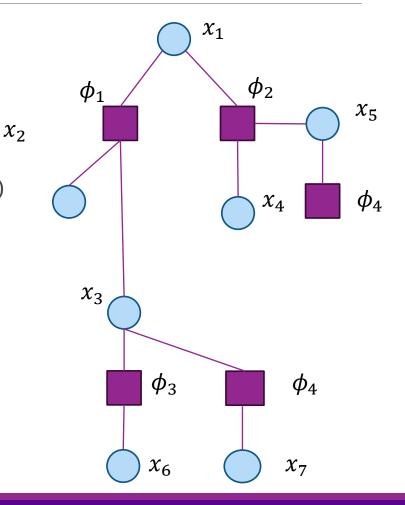
• Let $\partial(\phi_i)$ = variables connected to ϕ_i

• Ex:
$$\mu_{\phi_1 \to x_1}(a) = \sum_{x_2, x_3} \phi_1(x_1 = a, x_2, x_3) \mu_{x_2 \to \phi_1}(x_2) \mu_{x_3 \to \phi_1}(x_3)$$

•
$$\operatorname{Ex}: \mu_{x_3 \to \phi_1}(a) = \mu_{\phi_3 \to x_3}(a) \mu_{\phi_4 \to x_3}(a)$$

☐ Initialization at leaf nodes:

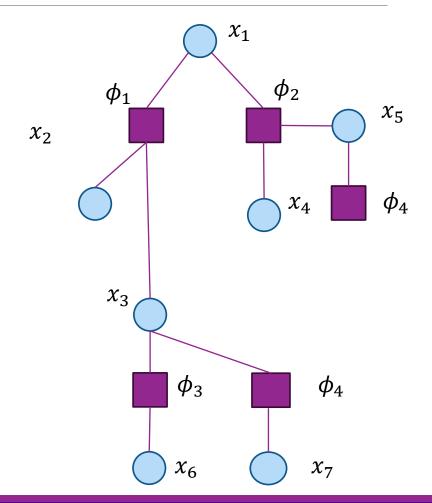
- \circ For variables leaf nodes: $\mu_{x_i \to \phi_i}(a) = 1$ for all a
- For factor leaf nodes: $\mu_{\phi_i \to x_j}(a) = \phi_1(x_j = a)$ for all a



BP Algorithm Summary

- □Called the sum-product algorithm
- Select a root node
 - Many nodes may be possible
- ☐ Initial forward messages from leaf nodes
- ☐ Recursively compute messages towards root node
- ☐ Recursively compute all messages back to leaf nodes
- ☐ Final marginal probabilities are:

$$P(x_j) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{\phi_k \in \partial(x_j)} \mu_{\phi_k \to x_j}(a)$$



Max-Sum

- \square Sum product computes marginal distributions $P(x_i|y)$
- \square Max-sum finds MAP estimates: $\hat{x} = \arg \max p(x|y)$
 - Replace summations with maximum
- □ Example, suppose in sum-product: $\mu_{\phi_1 \to x_3}(a) = \sum_{x_1, x_4, x_5} \phi_1(x_1, x_3 = a) \ \phi_2(x_1, x_4) \phi_4(x_5)$
- \square In max-sum update is: $\mu_{\phi_1 \to x_3}(a) = \max_{x_1, x_4, x_5} \phi_1(x_1, x_3 = a) \phi_2(x_1, x_4) \phi_4(x_5)$
- ☐ In a chain, max-sum obtains the Viterbi algorithm
- ☐ See Bishop for more details



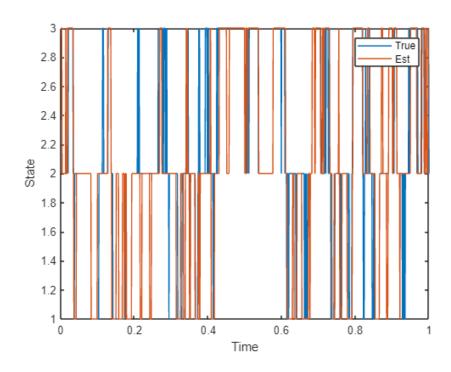
Implementation Details

- \square Often easier to use $\log \mu_{\chi \to \phi}$ instead of $\mu_{\chi \to \phi}$.
 - Provides better conditioning
- ☐ Can rescale weights
- □ Constant multiplicative factors will not influence result



HMM Example:

- ☐ Return to the time varying noise problem
- ☐ Simple to implement in MATLAB



```
% Forward pass
mup = p0;
mup(1,:) = ones(1,nstate);
for t=1:nt
    mup(t,:) = mup(t,:).*pr(t,:);
    mup(t,:) = mup(t,:)./ sum(mup(t,:));
    mup(t+1,:) = mup(t,:)*Ptrans;
end
% Reverse pass
mun = zeros(nt+1,nstate);
mun(nt+1,:) = ones(1,nstate);
for t=nt:-1:1
    mun(t,:) = mun(t+1,:)*Ptrans';
    mun(t,:) = mun(t,:).*pr(t,:);
    mun(t,:) = mun(t,:)./sum(mun(t,:));
end
% Estimated posterior
phat = mun.*mup;
psum = sum(phat,2);
phat = phat ./ psum;
% Compute most likely estimate
[m, im] = max(phat,[],2);
```



Outline

- □LDPC Codes: Motivation and History
- ☐ Graphical Models
- ☐ Inference via Belief Propagation
- □LDPC Encoding
- LDPC Decoding
- □5G LDPC codes



Factorizing the Posterior

- \square Receive data r
 - Assume bit-wise channel $P(r|c) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(r_i|c_i)$
- \square Write parity check equations z = cH
 - Let $N_i = \{i \mid H_{ij} = 1\}$
 - Each check node is a linear equation $z_i = \sum_j H_{ij} c_j = \sum_{j \in N_i} c_j$
 - \circ We need $z_i=0$ for all check nodes i
 - Write a penalty function $\phi_i(z_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & z_i = 0 \\ 0 & z_i = 1 \end{cases}$
 - Penalty $\phi_i(z_i) = \phi_i(c^{(i)})$, is a function of the neighbors of z_i : $c^{(i)} = \{c_j, j \in N_i\}$
- ☐ Posterior probability has a factorizable form:

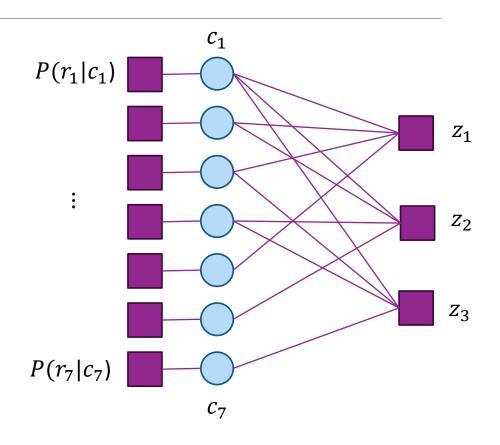
$$P(c|r) \propto P(r|c)P(c) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n-k} \phi_i(c^{(i)}) \prod_{j=1}^{n} P(r_j|c_j)$$



Factor Graph

- ☐ Also called the Tanner Graph
- **■** Variable nodes:
 - \circ One for each coded bit c_i
- ☐ Factor nodes
 - One for each $P(r_j|c_j)$ [These are often not shown]
 - \circ One for each check node z_i
- ☐ Example: Hamming

$$\bullet \ \mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



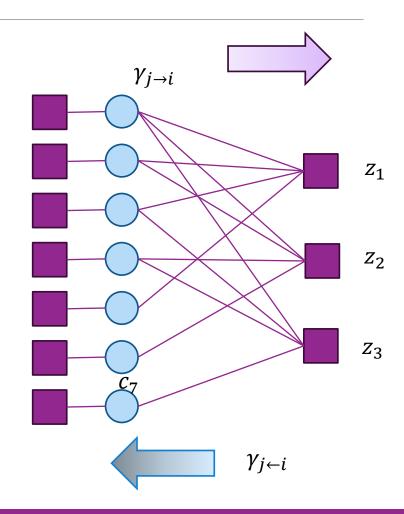
Message Passing Decoding with LLRs

- ☐ Use LLRs instead of messages
 - \circ Each variable has two values $c_i=0$ or 1
- ☐ Easier to write updates with LLRs
- □ Variable to check node message:

$$\circ \ \gamma_{j \to i} \coloneqq \log \frac{\mu_{j \to i}(c_j = 1)}{\mu_{j \to i}(c_j = 0)}$$

☐ Check to variable messages:

$$\circ \ \gamma_{j \leftarrow i} \coloneqq \log \frac{\mu_{j \leftarrow i}(c_j = 1)}{\mu_{j \leftarrow i}(c_j = 0)}$$



Variable Node Update

- \square Consider message from some c_i to z_i
- **LLR** derivation:

$$\mu_{j\to i}(c_j = 1) = \prod_{z_k \in N(c_j) - z_i} \mu_{j \leftarrow k}(c_j = 1)$$

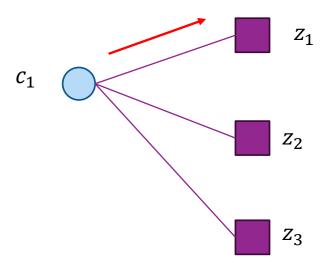
$$\gamma_{j \to i} = \log \left[\prod_{z_k \in N(c_j) - z_i} \frac{\mu_{j \leftarrow k}(c_j = 1)}{\mu_{j \leftarrow k}(c_j = 0)} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{z_k \in N(c_j) - z_i} \gamma_{j \leftarrow k}$$

□ Example in graph to the right:

$$\circ \ \gamma_{1\to 1} = \gamma_{1\leftarrow 2} + \gamma_{1\leftarrow 3}$$

$$\circ \ \gamma_{1 \to 2} = \gamma_{1 \leftarrow 1} + \gamma_{1 \leftarrow 3}$$



Factor Node Update 1

- \square Consider message from z_i to c_i
- \square We know $z_i = \sum_{k \in N_i} c_k = 0$
- ☐ Define:

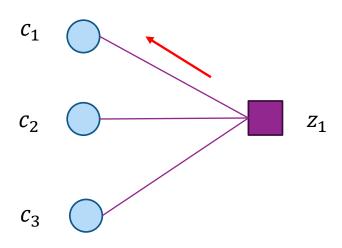
$$A_0 = \{ c^{(i)} \mid \sum_{k \in N_i} c_k = 0, c_j = 0 \},$$

$$A_1 = \{ c^{(i)} \mid \sum_{k \in N_i} c_k = 0, c_j = 1 \},$$

- \square Example, in message from z_1 to c_1 in graph to right:
 - We want $c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = 0$

$$A_0 = \{(c_2, c_3) = (0,0), (1,1)\}$$

$$A_1 = \{(c_2, c_3) = (1,0), (0,1)\}$$



Factor Node Update 2

$$\Box \text{Then } \mu_{j \leftarrow i} (c_j = 0) = \sum_{c^{(i)} \in A_0} \prod_{c_k} \mu_{k \rightarrow i} (c_k)$$

Since
$$\gamma_{j \to i} := \log \frac{\mu_{j \to i}(c_j = 1)}{\mu_{j \to i}(c_j = 0)}$$

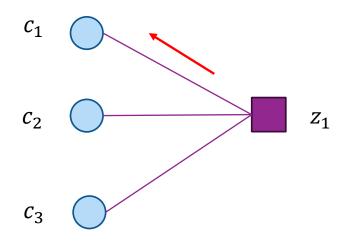
$$\mu_{j \leftarrow i}(c_j = 0) = B \sum_{c(i) \in A_0} \exp[\sum c_k \gamma_{k \to i}]$$

$$\circ B = \prod_k \mu_{k \to i}(0)$$

- \square Similarly, $\mu_{j \leftarrow i} (c_j = 1) = B \sum_{c^{(i)} \in A_1} \exp[\sum c_k \gamma_{k \rightarrow i}]$
- □LLR message is:

$$\gamma_{i \to j} := \log \frac{\mu_{i \to j}(c_j = 1)}{\mu_{i \to j}(c_j = 0)}$$

$$= \log \left[\frac{\sum_{c(i) \in A_1} \exp[\sum c_k \gamma_{k \to i}]}{\sum_{c(i) \in A_0} \exp[\sum c_k \gamma_{k \to i}]} \right]$$



$$\gamma_{1\to 1} = \log \left[\frac{e^{\gamma_{2\to 1}} + e^{\gamma_{3\to 1}}}{1 + e^{\gamma_{3\to 1} + \gamma_{2\to 1}}} \right]$$

Outline

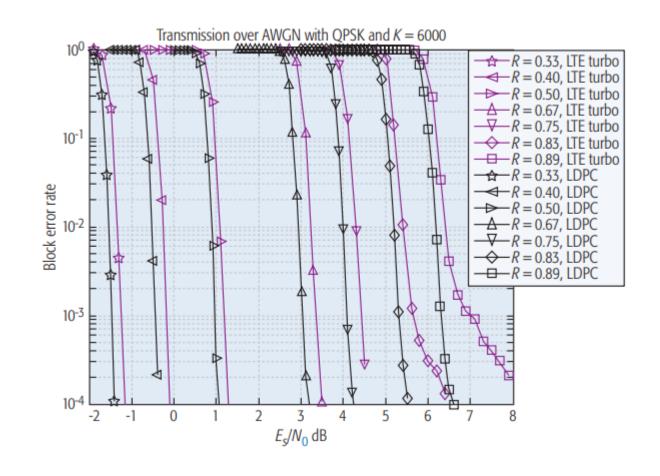
- □LDPC Codes: Motivation and History
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5G LDPC codes



LDPC vs. Turbo

- ☐ Move for Turbo (4G) to LDPC (5G)
- □ Slight performance improvement
- □ Complexity is lower



Structure

- ☐Base graph:
 - A small LDPC graph
 - Two base graphs supported in 5G
- ☐ Lifting:
 - Used to create longer block lengths
- Number of columns and rows adjustable:
 - To support different rates
 - Support incremental redundancy
- We will discuss IR in the wireless class

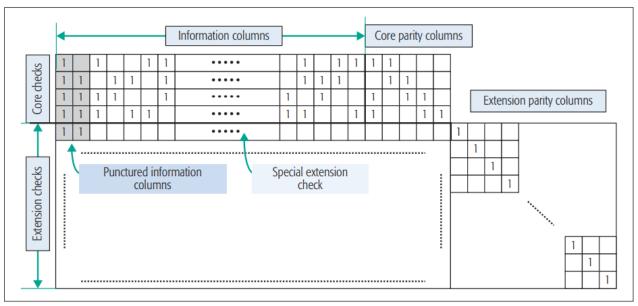


Figure 5. Sketch of base parity check structure for the 5G NR LDPC code.