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16.36: Communication Systems Engineering

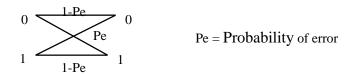
Lectures 13/14: Channel Capacity and Coding

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Channel Coding

 When transmitting over a noisy channel, some of the bits are received with errors

Example: Binary Symmetric Channel (BSC)



- Q: How can these errors be removed?
- A: Coding: the addition of redundant bits that help us determine what was sent with greater accuracy

Example (Repetition code)

Repeat each bit n times (n-odd)

Input	Code		
0	0000		
1	111		

Decoder:

- If received sequence contains n/2 or more 1's decode as a 1 and 0 otherwise
 - Max likelihood decoding

P (error | 1 sent) = P (error | 0 sent)
= P[more than n / 2 bit errors occur]
=
$$\sum_{i=\lceil n/2 \rceil}^{n} \binom{n}{i} P_e^i (1 - P_e)^{n-i}$$

Repetition code, cont.

- For P_e < 1/2, P(error) is decreasing in n
 - ⇒ for any ε, ∃ n large enough so that P (error) < ε

Code Rate: ratio of data bits to transmitted bits

- For the repetition code R = 1/n
- To send one data bit, must transmit n channel bits "bandwidth expansion"
- In general, an (n,k) code uses n channel bits to transmit k data bits
 - Code rate R = k / n
- Goal: for a desired error probability, ϵ , find the highest rate code that can achieve p(error) < ϵ

Channel Capacity (Discrete Memoryless Channel)

The capacity of a discrete memoryless channel is given by,

$$C = \max_{p(x)} I(X;Y) \qquad X \longrightarrow Channel \longrightarrow Y$$

Example: Binary Symmetric Channel (BSC)

$$I(X;Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

$$P_0 = 1 - P_0 = 1$$
 $P_1 = 1 - P_0 = 1$

$$H(Y|X) = H_b(p_e)$$
 (why?)

$$H(Y) \le 1 \text{ (why?)}$$

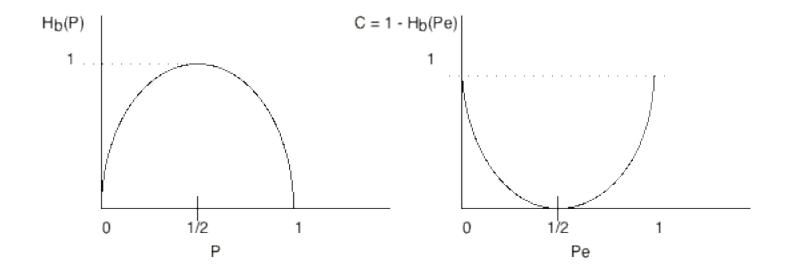
$$H(Y) = 1 \text{ when } p_0 = 1/2$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 C = 1 - H_b(p_e)

Try to compute the capacity starting with H(X) - H(X|Y).

Capacity of BSC

$$C = 1 - H_b(P_e)$$



C = 0 when $P_e = 1/2$ and C = 1 when $P_e = 0$ or $P_e = 1$

Capacity of AWGN channel

- Additive White Gaussian Noise channel
 - r = S + N
 - N is AWGN with power spectral density N₀/2
- Transmission over band-limited channel of bandwidth W
- Average input (transmit) power = P
- Band-limited equivalent noise power = WN_o

$$C = \frac{1}{2}\log(1 + \frac{P}{WN_0})$$
 bits per transmission

$$R_s \le 2W \Rightarrow C = W \log(1 + \frac{P}{WN_0})$$
 bits per second

- Notes
 - Rs ≤ 2W is implied by sampling theorem (see notes on sampling theorem)
 - Capacity is a function of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR = P/WN_o)
 Where the signal power is measured at the receiver
 - As W increases capacity approaches a limit:
 Increasing W increases the symbol rate, but also the noise power

$$Limit_{W\to\infty} W \log(1 + \frac{P}{WN_0}) = \frac{P}{N_0} \log(e) \approx 1.44 \frac{P}{N_0}$$

Capacity of AWGN channel (example)

- The capacity of a cooper telephone channel
 - W = 3000Hz
 - SNR = 39dB = 7943
 - C = WLog(1+SNR) = 3000Log(1+7943) = 38,867 bits/sec
- Modern modems achieve a higher data rate of 56,000 bps because they actually use digital transmission over a fiber optic backbone
 - The "bottleneck" is the cooper line from the home to the telephone company's central office; which has less noise than the old end-to-end cooper links
- DSL modems achieve much higher data rates (Mbps) by using a greater bandwidth over the cooper link between the home and the central office
 - The full bandwidth of the cooper line over such short distances can be on the order of MHz

Channel Coding Theorem (Claude Shannon)

Theorem: For all R < C and ϵ > 0; there exists a code of rate R whose error probability < ϵ

- ϵ can be arbitrarily small
- Proof uses large block size n

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ capacity is achieved

- In practice codes that achieve capacity are difficult to find
 - The goal is to find a code that comes as close as possible to achieving capacity
- Converse of Coding Theorem:
 - For all codes of rate R > C, $\exists \ \epsilon_0$ > 0, such that the probability of error is always greater than ϵ_0

For code rates greater than capacity, the probability of error is bounded away from 0

Channel Coding

Block diagram

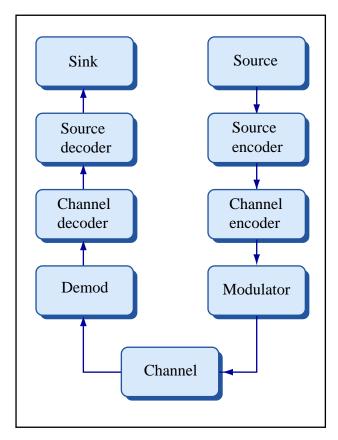


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Approaches to coding

Block Codes

- Data is broken up into blocks of equal length
- Each block is "mapped" onto a larger block

Example: (6,3) code, n = 6, k = 3, R = 1/2

$000 \to 000000$	100 → 100101
$001 \rightarrow 001011$	101 → 101110
$010 \rightarrow 010111$	110 → 110010
011 → 011100	111 → 111001

- An (n,k) binary block code is a collection of 2^k binary n-tuples (n>k)
 - n = block length
 - k = number of data bits
 - n-k = number of checked bits
 - R = k / n = code rate

Approaches to coding

- Convolutional Codes
 - The output is provided by looking at a sliding window of input

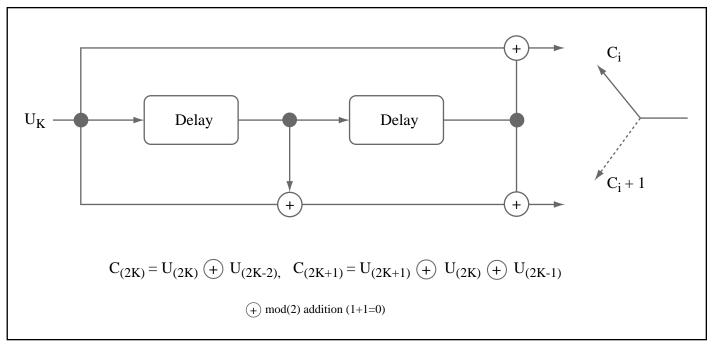


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Block Codes

- A block code is systematic if every codeword can be broken into a data part and a redundant part
 - Previous (6,3) code was systematic

Definitions:

- Given $X \in \{0,1\}^n$, the <u>Hamming Weight</u> of X is the number of 1's in X
- Given X, Y in {0,1}ⁿ, the <u>Hamming Distance</u> between X & Y is the number of places in which they differ,

$$d_{H}(X,Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \oplus Y_{i} = Weight(X + Y)$$

$$X + Y = [x_{1} \oplus y_{1}, x_{2} \oplus y_{2}, ..., x_{n} \oplus y_{n}]$$

 The <u>minimum distance</u> of a code is the Hamming Distance between the two closest codewords:

$$d_{min} = min \{d_H (C_1, C_2)\}$$

$$C_1, C_2 \in C$$

Decoding



- r may not equal to u due to transmission errors
- Given r how do we know which codeword was sent?

Maximum likelihood Decoding:

Map the received n-tuple r into the codeword C that maximizes, $P \{ r \mid C \text{ was transmitted } \}$

Minimum Distance Decoding (nearest neighbor)

Map r to the codeword C such that the hamming distance between r and C is minimized (I.e., min d_H (r,C))

⇒ For most channels Min Distance Decoding is the same as Max likelihood decoding

Linear Block Codes

 A (n,k) linear block code (LBC) is defined by 2^k codewords of length n

$$C = \{ C_1 C_m \}$$

- A (n,k) LBC is a K-dimensional subspace of {0,1}ⁿ
 - (0...0) is always a codeword
 - If $C_1, C_2 \in C$, $C_1+C_2 \in C$
- Theorem: For a LBC the minimum distance is equal to the min weight (W_{min}) of the code

$$W_{min} = min_{(over all Ci)} Weight (C_i)$$

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose $d_{min} = d_H (C_i, C_j)$, where $C_1, C_2 \in C$

$$d_H (C_i, C_j) = Weight (C_i + C_j),$$

but since C is a LBC then $C_i + C_i$ is also a codeword

Systematic codes

Theorem: Any (n,k) LBC can be represented in Systematic form where: data = $x_1...x_k$, codeword = $x_1...x_k$ $c_{k+1}...x_n$

- Hence we will restrict our discussion to systematic codes only
- The codewords corresponding to the information sequences: $e_1 = (1,0,...0)$, $e_2 = (0,1,0...0)$, $e_k = (0,0,...,1)$ for a basis for the code
 - Clearly, they are linearly independent
 - K linearly independent n-tuples completely define the K dimensional subspace that forms the code

Information sequenceCodeword $e_1 = (1,0,...0)$ $g_1 = (1,0,...,0, g_{(1,k+1)}g_{(1,n)})$ $e_2 = (0,1,0...0)$ $g_2 = (0,1,...,0, g_{(2,k+1)}g_{(2,n)})$ $e_k = (0,0,...,1)$ $g_k = (0,0,...,k, g_{(k,k+1)}g_{(k,n)})$

• $g_1, g_2, ..., g_k$ form a basis for the code

The Generator Matrix

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 \\ g_2 \\ \vdots \\ g_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} & \cdots & g_{1n} \\ g_{21} & & & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & & \\ g_{k1} & & & & & & \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

- For input sequence x = (x₁,...,x_k): C_x = xG
 - Every codeword is a linear combination of the rows of G
 - The codeword corresponding to every input sequence can be derived from G
 - Since any input can be represented as a linear combination of the basis (e₁,e₂,..., e_k), every corresponding codeword can be represented as a linear combination of the corresponding rows of G
- Note: $x_1 \leftrightarrow C_1$, $x_2 \leftrightarrow C_2 \implies x_1 + x_2 \leftrightarrow C_1 + C_2$

Example

Consider the (6,3) code from earlier:

 $100 \rightarrow 100101;$ $010 \rightarrow 010111;$ $001 \rightarrow 001011$

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Codeword for (1,0,1) = (1,0,1)G = (1,0,1,1,1,0)

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} I_K & P_{Kx(n-K)} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $I_K = KxK$ identity matrix

The parity check matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} P^T & I_{(n-K)} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $I_{(n-K)} = (n-K)x(n-K)$ identity matrix

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

Now, if c_i is a codework of C then, $c_i H^T = 0$

- "C is in the null space of H"
- Any codeword in C is orthogonal to the rows of H

Decoding

- $v = transmitted codeword = v_1 ... v_n$
- $r = received codeword = r_1 \dots r_n$
- e = error pattern = e₁... e_n
- r = v + e
- $S = rH^T = Syndrome of r$ = $(v+e)H^T = vH^T + eH^T = eH^T$
- S is equal to '0' if and only if e ∈ C
 - I.e., error pattern is a codeword
- $S \neq 0 \Rightarrow \text{error detected}$
- S = 0 => no errors detected (they may have occurred and not detected)
- Suppose S ≠ 0, how can we know what was the actual transmitted codeword?

Syndrome decoding

• Many error patterns may have created the same syndrome For error pattern $e_0 \Rightarrow S_0 = e_0H^T$

Consider error pattern $e_0 + c_i$ ($c_i \in C$)

$$S'_0 = (e_0 + c_{ii})H^T = e_0 H^T + c_i H^T = e_0 H^T = S_0$$

- So, for a given error pattern, e_0 , all other error patterns that can be expressed as $e_0 + c_i$ for some $c_i \in C$ are also error patterns with the same syndrome
- For a given syndrome, we can not tell which error pattern actually occurred, but the most likely is the one with minimum weight
 - Minimum distance decoding
- For a given syndrome, find the error pattern of minimum weight (e_{min}) that gives this syndrome and decode: $r' = r + e_{min}$

Standard Array

$$C_1$$
 C_2 C_M Syndrome C_1 C_2 C_M Syndrome C_M C_M

- Row 1 consists of all M codewords
- Row 2 e₁ = min weight n-tuple not in the array
 - I.e., the minimum weight error pattern
- Row i, e_i = min weight n-tuple not in the array
- All elements of any row have the same syndrome
 - Elements of a row are called "co-sets"
- The first element of each row is the minimum weight error pattern with that syndrome
 - Called "co-set leader"

Decoding algorithm

- Receive vector r
- 1) Find $S = rH^T = syndrome of r$
- 2) Find the co-set leader e, corresponding to S
- 3) Decode: C = r+e
- "Minimum distance decoding"
 - Decode into the codeword that is closest to the received sequence

Example (syndrome decoding)

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

<u>Data</u>	codeword		
00	0000		
01	0101		
10	1010		
11	1111		

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad H^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Standard array	0000	0101	1010	1111	Syndrome
	1000	1101	0010	0111	10
	0100	0001	1110	1011	01
	1100	1001	0110	0011	11

Suppose 0111 is received, S = 10, co-set leader = 1000

Decode: C = 0111 + 1000 = 1111

Minimum distance decoding

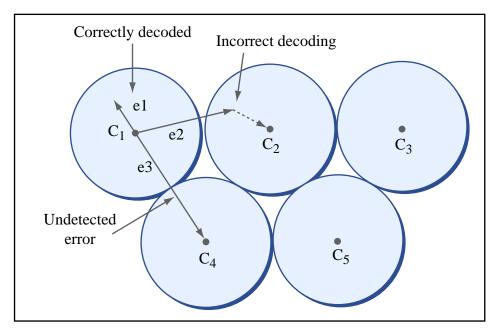


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

- Minimum distance decoding maps a received sequence onto the nearest codeword
- If an error pattern maps the sent codeword onto another valid codeword, that error will be undetected (e.g., e3)
 - Any error pattern that is equal to a codeword will result in undetected errors
- If an error pattern maps the sent sequence onto the sphere of another codeword, it will be incorrectly decoded (e.g., e2)

Performance of Block Codes

- Error detection: Compute syndrome, S ≠ 0 => error detected
 - Request retransmission
 - Used in packet networks
- A linear block code will detect all error patterns that are not codewords
- Error correction: Syndrome decoding
 - All error patterns of weight < d_{min}/2 will be correctly decoded
 - This is why it is important to design codes with large minimum distance (d_{min})
 - The larger the minimum distance the smaller the probability of incorrect decoding

Hamming Codes

Linear block code capable of correcting single errors

-
$$n = 2^m - 1$$
, $k = 2^m - 1$ -m
(e.g., (3,1), (7,4), (15,11)...)

- $R = 1 m/(2^m 1) => very high rate$
- d_{min} = 3 => single error correction
- Construction of Hamming codes
 - Parity check matrix (H) consists of all non-zero binary m-tuples

Example: (7,4) hamming code (m=3)

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$