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### 16.36 Communication Systems Engineering

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# 16.36: Communication Systems Engineering <br> Lectures 13/14: Channel Capacity and Coding 

Eytan Modiano

## Channel Coding

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

Example: Binary Symmetric Channel (BSC)

$\mathrm{Pe}=$ Probability of error

- 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 | $000 \ldots \ldots . .0$ |
| 1 | $11 \ldots \ldots . .1$ |

Decoder:

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\text { error } \mid 1 \text { sent }) & =P(\text { error } \mid 0 \text { sent }) \\
& =P[\text { more than } n / 2 \text { bit errors occur }]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=\sum_{i=[n / 27}^{n}\binom{n}{i} P_{e}^{i}\left(1-P_{e}\right)^{n-i}
$$

## Repetition code, cont.

- For $P_{e}<1 / 2, P($ error ) is decreasing in $n$
- $\quad \Rightarrow$ for any $\varepsilon, \exists n$ large enough so that $P$ (error) $<\varepsilon$

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 ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}$ ) code uses n channel bits to transmit k data bits
- Code rate $\mathbf{R = k} / \mathbf{n}$
- Goal: for a desired error probability, $\varepsilon$, find the highest rate code that can achieve $p$ (error) $<\varepsilon$


## Channel Capacity (Discrete Memoryless Channel)

- The capacity of a discrete memoryless channel is given by,

$$
-\quad C=\max _{p(x)} I(X ; Y)
$$



Example: Binary Symmetric Channel (BSC)
$I(X ; Y)=H(Y)-H(Y \mid X)=H(X)-H(X \mid Y)$

$\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{Y} \mid \mathrm{X})=\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{b}}\left(\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{e}}\right)$ (why?)
$H(Y) \leq 1$ (why?)
$H(Y)=1$ when $p_{0}=1 / 2$
$\Rightarrow \mathrm{C}=1-\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{b}}\left(\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{e}}\right)$
Try to compute the capacity starting with $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{X})-\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{X} \mid \mathrm{Y})$.

## Capacity of BSC

$$
\mathrm{C}=1-\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{b}}\left(\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{e}}\right)
$$



$$
C=0 \text { when } P_{e}=1 / 2 \text { and } C=1 \text { when } P_{e}=0 \text { or } P_{e}=1
$$

## Capacity of AWGN channel

- Additive White Gaussian Noise channel
- $\quad \mathbf{r}=\mathbf{S}+\mathrm{N}$
- $N$ is AWGN with power spectral density $\mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{o}} / \mathbf{2}$
- Transmission over band-limited channel of bandwidth W
- Average input (transmit) power = $\mathbf{P}$
- Band-limited equivalent noise power $=W_{0}$
- Notes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{C}=\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1+\frac{\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{WN}_{0}}\right) \text { bits per transmission } \\
& \mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{s}} \leq 2 \mathrm{~W} \Rightarrow \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{W} \log \left(1+\frac{\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{WN}_{0}}\right) \text { bits per sec ond }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Rs $\leq 2 \mathrm{~W}$ is implied by sampling theorem (see notes on sampling theorem)
- Capacity is a function of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR = P/WN ${ }_{0}$ )

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

$$
\operatorname{Limit}_{\mathrm{w} \rightarrow \infty} \mathrm{~W} \log \left(1+\frac{\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{WN}_{0}}\right)=\frac{\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{~N}_{0}} \log (\mathrm{e}) \approx 1.44 \frac{\mathrm{P}}{\mathrm{~N}_{0}}
$$

## Capacity of AWGN channel (example)

- The capacity of a cooper telephone channel
- $\quad W=3000 \mathrm{~Hz}$
- $\quad$ SNR = 39dB = 7943
$-\quad C=W \log (1+S N R)=3000 \log (1+7943)=38,867$ bits $/$ sec
- Modern modems achieve a higher data rate of $56,000 \mathrm{bps}$ 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 $\mathrm{R}<\mathrm{C}$ and $\varepsilon>0$; there exists a code of rate R whose error probability $<\varepsilon$

- $\quad \varepsilon$ can be arbitrarily small
- Proof uses large block size n
as $\mathbf{n} \rightarrow \infty$ 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 $R>C, \exists \varepsilon_{0}>0$, such that the probability of error is always greater than $\varepsilon_{0}$

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, $n=6, k=3, R=1 / 2$

| $000 \rightarrow 000000$ | $100 \rightarrow 100101$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $001 \rightarrow 001011$ | $101 \rightarrow 101110$ |
| $010 \rightarrow 010111$ | $110 \rightarrow 110010$ |
| $011 \rightarrow 011100$ | $111 \rightarrow 111001$ |

- An ( $n, k$ ) binary block code is a collection of $2^{k}$ binary $n$-tuples ( $n>k$ )
- $n=$ block length
- $\quad k=$ number of data bits
- n-k = number of checked bits
- $\quad R=k / n=$ 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 Hamming Weight of $X$ is the number of 1 's in $X$
- Given $X, Y$ in $\{0,1\}^{n}$, the Hamming Distance between $X \& Y$ is the number of places in which they differ,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{H}(X, Y)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \oplus Y_{i}=\operatorname{Weight}(X+Y) \\
& X+Y=\left[x_{1} \oplus y_{1}, x_{2} \oplus y_{2}, \ldots, x_{n} \oplus y_{n}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

- The minimum distance of a code is the Hamming Distance between the two closest codewords:

$$
\begin{gathered}
d_{\min }=\min \left\{d_{H}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)\right\} \\
C_{1}, C_{2} \in C
\end{gathered}
$$

## 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|C 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., $\min d_{H}(r, C)$ )
$\Rightarrow$ 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

$$
C=\left\{C_{1} \ldots C_{m}\right\}
$$

- $A(n, k)$ LBC is a K-dimensional subspace of $\{0,1\}^{n}$
- ( $0 . . .0$ ) is always a codeword
- If $\mathrm{C}_{1}, \mathrm{C}_{2} \in \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C}_{1}+\mathrm{C}_{2} \in \mathrm{C}$
- Theorem: For a LBC the minimum distance is equal to the min weight $\left(\mathrm{W}_{\text {min }}\right)$ of the code

$$
\mathrm{W}_{\min }=\min _{(\text {over all ci) }} \text { Weight }\left(\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)
$$

Proof: Suppose $d_{\text {min }}=d_{H}\left(C_{i}, C_{j}\right)$, where $C_{1}, C_{2} \in C$
$d_{H}\left(C_{i}, C_{j}\right)=$ Weight $\left(C_{i}+C_{j}\right)$,
but since $C$ is a LBC then $C_{i}+C_{j}$ is also a codeword

## Systematic codes

Theorem: Any ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}$ ) LBC can be represented in Systematic form where: data $=x_{1} . . x_{k}$, codeword $=x_{1} . . x_{k} c_{k+1} \ldots x_{n}$

- 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 sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1}=(1,0, . .0) \\
& e_{2}=(0,1,0 . .0) \\
& e_{k}=(0,0, . ., 1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Codeword

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{1}=\left(1,0, . ., 0, g_{(1, k+1)} \ldots g_{(1, n)}\right) \\
& g_{2}=\left(0,1, . ., 0, g_{(2, k+1)} \cdots g_{(2, n)}\right) \\
& g_{k}=\left(0,0, . ., k, g_{(k, k+1)} \ldots g_{(k, n)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- $\quad g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{k}$ form a basis for the code


## The Generator Matrix

$$
G=\left[\begin{array}{c}
g_{1} \\
g_{2} \\
: \\
g_{k}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
g_{11} & g_{12} & \ldots & g_{1 n} \\
g_{21} & & & g_{2 n} \\
: & & & \\
g_{k 1} & & & g_{k n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- For input sequence $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right): C_{x}=x G$
- 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 ( $\mathrm{e}_{1}, \mathrm{e}_{2}, \ldots, \mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{k}}$ ), every corresponding codeword can be represented as a linear combination of the corresponding rows of $G$
- Note: $\mathrm{x}_{1} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{2}=\mathrm{x}_{1}+\mathrm{x}_{2} \longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{1}+\mathrm{C}_{2}$


## Example

- Consider the $(6,3)$ code from earlier:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 100 \rightarrow \mathbf{1 0 0 1 0 1 ;} \mathbf{0 1 0} \rightarrow \mathbf{0 1 0 1 1 1 ; ~} \mathbf{0 0 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{0 0 1 0 1 1} \\
& \left.G=\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right.\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G=\left\lfloor I_{K} P_{K x(n-K)}\right\rfloor \\
& \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{K}}=\mathrm{KxK} \text { identity matrix }
\end{aligned}
$$

## The parity check matrix

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H=\left\lfloor P^{T} \quad \begin{array}{l}
\quad \\
\\
\\
\\
\\
\\
(n-K) \\
\end{array}\right. \\
& \mathrm{I}_{(\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{K})}=(n-\mathrm{K}) \mathrm{x}(\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{K}) \text { identity matrix }
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: $\quad H=\left\lfloor\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right\rfloor$
Now, if $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}}$ is a codework of C then, $\quad c_{i} H^{T}=\dot{0}$

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


## Decoding

- $\mathrm{v}=$ transmitted codeword $=\mathrm{v}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{n}}$
- $r=$ received codeword $=r_{1} \ldots r_{n}$
- $e=$ error pattern $=e_{1} \ldots e_{n}$
- $\mathbf{r}=\mathbf{V}+\mathbf{e}$
- $S=\mathbf{r H}^{\boldsymbol{T}}=$ Syndrome of $\mathbf{r}$

$$
=(v+e) H^{\top}=v H^{\top}+e H^{\top}=e H^{\top}
$$

- $S$ is equal to ' 0 ' if and only if $e \in C$
- I.e., error pattern is a codeword
- $\mathbf{S} \neq 0=>$ error detected
- $S=0=>$ no errors detected (they may have occurred and not detected)
- Suppose $S \neq 0$, how can we know what was the actual transmitted codeword?


## Syndrome decoding

- Many error patterns may have created the same syndrome

For error pattern $\mathrm{e}_{0}=>\mathrm{S}_{0}=\mathrm{e}_{0} \mathbf{H}^{\top}$
Consider error pattern $\mathrm{e}_{0}+\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}}\left(\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}} \in \mathrm{C}\right)$

$$
S_{0}^{\prime}=\left(e_{0}+c_{i}\right) H^{\top}=e_{0} H^{\top}+c_{i} H^{\top}=e_{0} H^{\top}=S_{0}
$$

- So, for a given error pattern, $\mathrm{e}_{0}$, 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 $\left(e_{\text {min }}\right)$ that gives this syndrome and decode: $r^{\prime}=r+e_{\text {min }}$


## Standard Array

$\mathbf{M}=2^{\mathrm{K}} \quad \begin{array}{cccc}e_{1} & e_{1}+C_{2} & e_{1}+C_{M} & S_{1} \\ : & e_{2}+C_{2} & e_{2}+C_{M} & S_{2} \\ e_{2^{(n-k)}-1} & & & S_{2^{(n-k)-1}}\end{array}$

- Row 1 consists of all M codewords
- Row $2 e_{1}=$ min weight $n$-tuple not in the array
- l.e., the minimum weight error pattern
- Row $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{i}}=$ 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 $S=\mathrm{rH}^{\top}=$ 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)

- Simple (4,2) code

$$
G=\left\lfloor\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right\rfloor
$$

| Data |  | codeword |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00 |  | 0000 |
| 01 |  | 0101 |
| 10 |  | 1010 |
| 11 |  | 1111 |

$$
H=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \quad H^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

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, $\mathrm{S}=10$, co-set leader = 1000

$$
\text { Decode: } \quad C=0111+1000=1111
$$

## 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, $\mathbf{S} \neq 0$ => 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 $<\mathrm{d}_{\text {min }} / \mathbf{2}$ will be correctly decoded
- This is why it is important to design codes with large minimum distance ( $\mathrm{d}_{\text {min }}$ )
- The larger the minimum distance the smaller the probability of incorrect decoding


## Hamming Codes

- Linear block code capable of correcting single errors
- $\quad n=2^{m}-1, k=2^{m}-1-m$
(e.g., $(3,1),(7,4),(15,11) \ldots)$
- $\quad R=1-m /\left(2^{m}-1\right)=>$ very high rate
- $d_{\text {min }}=3$ => single error correction
- Construction of Hamming codes
- Parity check matrix (H) consists of all non-zero binary m-tuples

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

$$
H=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right], \quad G=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

