High-Throughput Random Access via Codes on Graphs

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Abstract—Recently, contention resolution diversity slotted ALOHA (CRDSA) has been introduced as a simple but effective improvement to slotted ALOHA. It relies on MAC burst repetitions and on interference cancellation to increase the normalized throughput of a classic slotted ALOHA access scheme. CRDSA allows achieving a larger throughput than slotted ALOHA, at the price of an increased average transmitted power. A way to trade-off the increment of the average transmitted power and the improvement of the throughput is presented in this paper. Specifically, it is proposed to divide each MAC burst in \( k \) sub-bursts, and to encode them via a \((n, k)\) erasure correcting code. The \( n \) encoded sub-bursts are transmitted over the MAC channel, according to specific time/frequency-hopping patterns. Whenever \( n - e \geq k \) sub-bursts (of the same burst) are received without collisions, erasure decoding allows recovering the remaining \( e \) sub-bursts (which were lost due to collisions). An interference cancellation process can then take place, removing in \( e \) slots the interference caused by the \( e \) recovered sub-bursts, possibly allowing the correct decoding of sub-bursts related to other bursts. The process is thus iterated as for the CRDSA case.

Index Terms—Contenion resolution diversity slotted ALOHA, interference cancellation, low-density parity-check codes, iterative decoding.

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the adoption of demand assignment multiple access (DAMA) medium access control (MAC) protocols guarantee an efficient usage of the available bandwidth, random access schemes remain an appealing solution for wireless networks. Among them, slotted ALOHA (SA) \(^1\), \(^2\) is currently adopted as initial access scheme in both cellular terrestrial and satellite communication networks. In \(^3\) an improvement to SA was proposed, which is named diversity slotted Aloha (DSA). DSA introduces a burst repetition which, at low normalized loads, provides a slight throughput enhancement respect to SA. A more efficient use of the burst repetition is provided by contention resolution diversity slotted Aloha (CRDSA) \(^4\).

The idea behind CRDSA is the adoption of interference cancellation (IC) for resolving collisions. More specifically, with respect to DSA, the twin replicas of a burst (transmitted within a MAC frame) \(^1\) possess a pointer to the slot position where the respective copy was sent. Whenever a clean burst is detected and successfully decoded, the pointer is extracted and the interference contribution caused by the burst copy on the corresponding slot is removed. This procedure is iterated, possibly permitting the recovery of the whole set of bursts transmitted within the same MAC frame. This results in a remarkably improved normalized throughput \( T_\text{CRDSA} \) which may reach \( T \approx 0.55 \), whereas the peak throughput for pure SA is \( T = 1/e \approx 0.37 \). Further improvements may be achieved by exploiting the capture effect \(^2\). \(^5\).

In \(^6\) irregular repetition slotted Aloha was introduced as an improvement to CRDSA, which permits to achieve \( T \approx 0.8 \). IRSA allows a variable repetition rate for each burst. It is furthermore proved that, under the assumption of ideal channel estimation and a sufficiently large signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), the iterative burst recovery process can be represented via a bipartite graph. It turns out that such a representation shares several commonalities with the graph representation of the erasure recovery process of low-density parity-check (LDPC) codes \(^7\), \(^8\). Since CRDSA is a specific instance of the IRSA approach, we will refer in general to IRSA.

The performance improvement achieved by CRDSA/IRSA has nevertheless a counterpart in the increment of the average transmitted power. Focusing on CRDSA, each burst is replicated on the channels two times. By assuming the same peak transmission power of the SA scheme, the average power used for the transmission is doubled.

In this paper, we introduce a further generalization of IRSA (and hence of CRDSA). The generalization is named coded slotted Aloha (CSA) and works as follows. Each burst (of duration \( T_{\text{CSA}} \)) is divided in \( k \) sub-bursts. The \( k \) sub-bursts 

\[^1\] According to \(^1\), in this paper we consider a random access scheme where the slots are grouped in MAC frames. We further restrict to the case where each user proceeds with only one transmission attempt (either related to a new packet or to a retransmission) within a MAC frame.

\[^2\] \( T \) is defined as probability of successful packet transmission per time slot.
collided with those sent by another user are marked as lost. However, under the MDS code hypothesis, if the overall number of lost sub-bursts of a specific burst are less than or equal to \( n - k \), the complete set of \( n \) sub-bursts can be recovered. Assuming that each sub-burst contains a pointer to the position of the other sub-bursts related to the same burst, it is possible to apply the IC process as for IRSA. Note that, apart from the application of IC, a similar approach was already proposed in [9], which will be referred to as time-hopping multiple access (THMA).

Throughout the paper, we will illustrate how CRDSA and IRSA actually represent particular cases of CSA. We will also explain how the bipartite graph description still holds, but can no longer be related to the simple bipartite graph of an LDPC code. A more general type of bipartite graph description is required, which is actually equivalent to that of double-generalized (DG) LDPC codes [10].

II. SYSTEM OVERVIEW

We will consider MAC frames of duration \( T_F \). When SA or IRSA are used, each MAC frame is composed of \( N_{SA} = N_{IRSA} \) slots of duration \( T_{SA} = T_{IRSA} = T_F / N_{SA} \). The transmission of a packet (or burst) is enforced within one slot. We will assume that in each MAC frame a finite number (\( M \)) of users attempt a packet transmission. Without loss of generality, each of the \( M \) users performs a single transmission attempt within the MAC frame, either related to a new packet or to a retransmission of a previously collided one. Furthermore, retransmissions shall not take place within the same MAC frame where the collision happened. Hence, among the \( M \) users, some may be backlogged. The normalized offered traffic (or channel traffic) \( G \) is given by \( G = M / N_{SA} \), and represents the average number of packet transmissions per SA slot. Pictorial representations of the SA and of the IRSA techniques are depicted in Fig. 1(a) and in Fig. 1(b). Considering IRSA (Fig. 1(b)), note that each burst is replicated within the MAC frame. Within each burst, pointers to its replicas are provided so that, once a burst is recovered in a collision-free slot, it is possible to extract the pointers to its replicas. If the replicas collided in their slots, one could subtract from the received signal their contribution, possibly allowing the recovery of other bursts. In the example of Fig. 1(b), a replica of the burst transmitted by user 3 is received in the third slot. The contribution of the other replica can be thus removed from the 7th slot, permitting to recover the burst sent by the 1st user. The procedure can be iterated, recovering the bursts of the other users.

When CSA is used, each burst is divided in \( k \) sub-packets (called units in the following). The \( k \) units are thus encoded by a \( (n, k) \) packet-level linear block code, resulting in \( n > k \) units. The MAC frame is consequently organized in \( N_{CSA} = k N_{SA} \) slots, each of duration \( T_{CSA} = T_{SA} / k \). The \( n \) units related to each burst are then sent in \( n \) different slots (within a MAC frame) according to a time-hopping pattern. At the receiver side, units which collided are declared as lost. Considering a specific user, if \( e \) units have been lost and \( e \leq n - k \), the packet-level decoder recover them. This approach, which is discussed in [9], allows achieving a throughput higher than that of SA when the offered traffic is moderate-low. In this paper, we show how further improvements can be obtained by performing an IC as it is done in IRSA. Note that, in principle, each user can make use of a different code. More specifically, the generic user \( i \) can adopt any \( (n_i, k) \) linear block code, provided that all the users bursts are fragmented into the same number (\( k \)) of units. In the case of Fig. 1(c), \( k = 2 \). The 1st, the 3rd and the \( M \)th users encode the 2 units by a \((3, 2)\) code, while the 2nd one uses a \((4, 2)\) code. Note that user 2 experiences 2 collisions (in the 5th and in the 7th slots). Nevertheless,
assuming the (4, 2) code to be MDS, the lost units can be recovered, and their contribution can be removed from the corresponding slots. At this stage, the unit sent from user 3 in the 5th slot can be decoded, allowing (together with the unit received in the 1st slot) reconstructing the third unit (in slot 13). The IC process can be iterated, and further units (thus bursts) can be recovered. Although the adoption of a different code for each user provides a degree of freedom that could be beneficial for the system performance, we will here consider only the case where the users encode their units with the same (n, k) code. We will further assume for our analysis that the code is MDS, i.e., the lost units (related to the same burst) can be recovered whenever at least k of them are received. Note that the offered traffic is still given by $G = M/N_{SA} = kM/N_{SA}$. It is easy to verify that IRSA is a particular case of CSA with $k = 1$, i.e., where the unit is encoded by (n, 1) repetition codes.

III. GRAPH REPRESENTATION OF THE IC PROCESS

It is now convenient to introduce a graph representation of the IC process. We keep on considering a MAC frame composed of $N_{CSA} = kN_{SA}$ slots, in which $M$ users attempt a transmission. The MAC frame status can be described by a bipartite graph, $G = (B, S, E)$, consisting of a set $B$ of $M$ burst nodes (one for each burst that is transmitted within the MAC frame), a set $S$ of $N_{CSA}$ sum nodes (one for each slot), and a set $E$ of edges. An edge connects a burst node (BN) $b_i \in B$ to a sum nodes (SN) $s_j \in S$ if and only if a unit among the $n$ of the $i$-th burst is transmitted in the $j$-th slot. Loosely speaking, BNs correspond to bursts and SNs correspond to slots. Similarly, each edge corresponds to a unit. Therefore, a burst is represented by a BN with $n$ neighbors (i.e., a BN from which $n$ edges emanate). A slot where $d$ replicas collide will correspond to a SN with $d$ connections. The number of edges connected to a node is referred as the node degree.

As an example, the bipartite graph representing a MAC frame with $N_{CSA} = 7$ slots where $M = 3$ transmission attempts take place is depicted in Fig. 2(a), where squares denote sum nodes and circles burst nodes. Each burst is divided in $k = 2$ units and encoded by a $(3, 2)$ single parity-check code.

In our analysis, we will rely on two assumptions. 1) Sufficiently high signal-to-noise ratio. This assumption allows to claim that, whenever a burst is received in a clean slot, the decoding error probability is negligible. 2) Ideal channel estimation. This assumption is required to perform ideal IC, allowing (together with the first one) the recovery of collided bursts with a probability that is essentially one.

Under these assumptions, the IC process can be represented through a message-passing along the edges of the graph. Following the example presented above, in Fig. 2(b), the iterative IC process starts by decoding the first and the third bursts (in both cases 2 units out of 3 are received). The units that have been recovered were colliding in slots 2 and 3. Their contribution can be then removed, allowing the recovery of the 2nd burst (Fig. 2(c)).

It is worth noting to introduce some further notation, namely the concept of node-perspective degree distribution. The sum node degree distribution is defined by $\{\Psi_d\}$, where $\Psi_d$ is the probability that a sum node possesses $d$ connections. A polynomial representation of the node-perspective degree distribution is given by $\Psi(x) = \sum_d \Psi_d x^d$. It will be shown that the SN degree distribution is fully defined by the system load $G$ and by the $(n, k)$ code parameters. The average number of collisions per burst is defined as $\sum_d d \Psi_d = \Psi'(1)$. It is easy to verify that $G = M/N_{SA} = \Psi'(1)k/n$.

Degree distributions can be defined also from an edge perspective. We define $\rho_d$ as the probability that an edge is connected to a sum node of degree $d$. It follows from the definitions that

$$\rho_d = \frac{\Psi_d d}{\sum_d \Psi_d d^d}.$$

The polynomial representation of $\{\rho_d\}$ is given by $\rho(x) = \sum_d \rho_d x^{d-1}$. The relation $\rho(x) = \Psi'(x)/\Psi'(1)$ directly follow from the definitions above.

*Details on the implementation of the IC mechanism and on the performance of CRDSA with actual channel estimation can be found in [2].
IV. Iterative IC Convergence Analysis

Consider now a burst node encoded via a \((n, k)\) code. Denote by \(q\) the probability that an edge is unknown, given that each of the other \(n - 1\) edges has been revealed with probability \(1 - p\) during the previous iteration step. The edge will be revealed whenever at least \(k\) of the other edges have been revealed. Hence,

\[
q_i = \sum_{e=n-k}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{e} p_i^{e-1}(1-p_{i-1})^{n-1-e},
\]

where the subscript of \(p, q\) denotes the iteration index. In a similar manner, consider a sum node with degree \(d\). According to the notation introduced so far, \(p\) denotes the probability that an edge is unknown, given that all the other \(d - 1\) edges have been revealed with probability \(1 - q\) in the previous iteration step. The edge will be revealed whenever all the other edges have been revealed. Hence, \(1 - p = (1-q)^{d-1}\) or equivalently \(p = 1 - (1-q)^{d-1}\). According to the tree analysis argument of [7], by averaging the expression over the edge distribution, one can derive the evolution of the average erasure probabilities during the \(i\)-th iteration for the sum nodes as

\[
p_i = \sum_d p_d \left(1 - (1-q_i)^{d-1}\right) = 1 - \rho(1-q_i).
\]

For sake of simplicity, the iteration index will be omitted in the rest of the paper. By iterating these equations for a given amount of times (limited to \(I_{\text{max}}\)), it is possible to analyze the iterative convergence of the IC process. The initial condition has to be set as \(q_0 = p_0 = 1\), i.e., there are no revealed edges at the beginning of the process. According to [2], at the first iteration \(p\) will take the value given by the probability that an edge is not connected to a degree-1 sum node. It is important to remark that the recursions in (1) and (2) hold if the messages exchanged along the edges of the graph are statistically independent. Thus, the accuracy of (1, 2) is subject to the absence of loops in the bipartite graph (recall that loops introduce correlation in the evolution of the erasure probabilities). This assumption implies very large frame sizes (\(M \to \infty\) and consequently \(N_{\text{CSA}} \to \infty\) for fixed \(G\)), and the analysis presented next will refer to this asymptotic setting. This hypothesis is nevertheless needed just for deriving a distribution design criterion. It will be shown that distributions designed for the asymptotic setting are effective also when considering realistic MAC frame sizes.

By fixing the \((n, k)\) code, for each value of the offered traffic \(G\) the distribution \(\rho(x)\) can be determined. For values of \(G\) below a certain threshold \(G^*\), the iterative IC will succeed with probability close to 1 (almost all the bursts will be recovered). Above the threshold \(G^*\), the procedure will fail with a probability bounded away from 0. We will look thus for codes leading to an high threshold \(G^*\), thus allowing (in the asymptotic setting) error-free transmission for any offered traffic up to \(G^*\).

To complete the analysis, it is nevertheless required to know the distribution \(\rho(x)\) in (2). The probability that a sum node is of degree \(d\) is given by

\[
\Psi_d = \left(\frac{M}{d}\right) \left(\frac{\Psi(1)}{M}\right)^d \left(1 - \frac{\Psi(1)}{M}\right)^{M-d}.
\]

The node-perspective sum nodes degree distribution results in

\[
\Psi(x) = \sum_d \left(\frac{M}{d}\right) \left(\frac{\Psi(1)}{M}\right)^d \left(1 - \frac{\Psi(1)}{M}\right)^{M-d} x^d = \left(1 - \frac{\Psi(1)}{M}(1-x)\right)^M,
\]

By letting \(M \to \infty\) (asymptotic setting), (3) becomes

\[
\Psi(x) = e^{-\Psi(1)(1-x)} = e^{-G(1-x)n/k}.
\]

The edge-perspective sum nodes degree distribution is therefore given by

\[
\rho(x) = \frac{\Psi'(x)}{\Psi(1)} = e^{-G(1-x)n/k}.
\]

Some thresholds for different \((n, k)\) codes are provided in Fig. 3 as functions of the average power increment w.r.t. \(\text{SA}\) (referred as average power penalty), which is given by \(\Delta P = 10 \log_{10}(n/k)\). Considering codes with rate \(k/n = 1/2\), thus leading to a penalty of 3 dB, we note that the best threshold is obtained by CSA based on a \((4, 2)\) code, for which \(G^* = 0.692\). A repetition-2 CRDSA would provide a much lower threshold \((G^* = 0.5)\). Note also that the same threshold \(G^* = 0.5\) can be obtained by using CSA with a \((6, 4)\) code, thus saving more than 1.2 dB of average power.

A remark is deserved for the case where each user adopts a \((n, k)\) single parity-check code (i.e., \(n = k + 1\)). In this case, (1) can be simplified as \(q = 1 - (1-p)^k\). Let’s define \(f(p) = 1 - (1-p)^k\) and let \(g(p)\) be the inverse of (2), i.e. \(g(p) = -[k/(G(k+1))]\ln(1-p)\). One can then derive a simple upper bound to \(G^*\) by imposing \(df(p)/dp \leq dq(p)/dp\) for \(p \to 0\) and \(G = G^*\) that follows

\[
G^* \leq \frac{1}{k+1}.
\]

It is possible to check from Fig. 3 that in all the cases where \(n = k + 1\) such bound is tightly approached.

V. Numerical Results

We focus next on the case where a \((7, 4)\) code is used. For this specific case, results of simulations and of IC analysis are summarized in Fig. 4. In both cases, we assumed a maximum amount of iterations \(I_{\text{max}} = 20\). The simulation results are provided for \(N_{\text{SA}} = 100\) and \(N_{\text{SA}} = 400\), while the analytical curves are relevant to the asymptotic setting \(N_{\text{SA}} \to \infty\). The performance of both THMA and of CSA are provided. Some remarks follow.

1. The match between the simulation results and the proposed analytical approach is good. For sufficiently large MAC frames, the simulated performance approaches the asymptotic curve, providing an evidence of the validity of the proposed analysis.
2. The gain due to the iteration of IC over THMA is evident. While THMA achieves a peak throughput of about 0.2, CSA approaches $T \simeq 0.55$ for $N_{SA} = 400$.

3. When $G > G^* = 0.6$, the performance of CSA drops quickly below the SA performance, and converges for larger $G$ to the performance of THMA. This is due to the fact that, when $G > G^*$, the IC process gets stuck in an early stage, leaving most of the collisions unresolved, and thus it does not improve much the performance of THMA.

4. The region where $T \simeq G$ goes up to $G \simeq 0.5$ for CSA with $N_{SA} = 400$, meaning that up to such values the offered traffic turns into useful throughput (i.e., the burst loss probability is very small). For THMA, this holds just for $G < 0.1$, while for SA it holds for very small values of $G$.

VI. Conclusions

In this paper, a generalization of the CRDSA/IRSA approach for MAC has been introduced, namely, CSA. The generalization consists of dividing each burst into sub-bursts and encoding them through a linear packet erasure correcting code, which has been assumed to be MDS. Iterative IC is then performed on the sub-bursts and combined with the local erasure correction capability of each packet erasure code. It has been highlighted how iterative IC in the context of CSA is analogous to the iterative decoding over the erasure channel of DG-LDPC codes based on sparse bipartite graphs. Numerical results have been provided, confirming the effectiveness of the proposed approach.

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