Instanton analysis of Low-Density-Parity-Check codes in the error-floor regime

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Abstract—In this paper we develop instanton method introduced in [1], [2], [3] to analyze quantitatively performance of Low-Density-Parity-Check (LDPC) codes decoded iteratively in the so-called error-floor regime. We discuss statistical properties of the numerical instanton-amoeba scheme focusing on detailed analysis and comparison of two regular LDPC codes: Tanner’s (155, 64, 20) and Margulis’ (672, 336, 16) codes. In the regime of moderate values of the signal-to-noise ratio we critically compare results of the instanton-amoeba evaluations against the standard Monte-Carlo calculations of the Frame-Error-Rate.

I. INTRODUCTION

Low-Density-Parity-Check (LDPC) codes [4], [5] are special, not only because they can approach virtually error-free transmission limit, but mainly because a computationally efficient iterative decoding scheme is readily available. The approximate scheme is however incapable of matching performance of the Maximum-Likelihood (ML) decoding beyond the so-called error-floor threshold [6] found at higher Signal-to-Noise-Ratios (SNR), s. Moreover, to estimate the error-floor asymptotic in modern high-quality systems is an important but notoriously difficult task [6], [7]. The major problem here is due to the standard direct numerical methods, of the Monte-Carlo (MC) type, inability to determine BER below 10^{-9}. Recently, we (in collaboration with V. Chernyak and B. Vasic) have proposed a physics inspired approach that is capable of a computationally tractable analysis of the error floor phenomenon [1], [2], [3]. We proposed an efficient numerical scheme (coined instanton-amoeba), which is ab initio by construction, i.e. the optimization scheme required no additional assumptions. The scheme is also generic, in that there are no restrictions related to the type of decoding or channel. The instanton-amoeba scheme was first tested for loop-less models [1], then applied to realistic codes with loops in the Additive-White-Gaussian-Noise (AWGN) channel [2], and also to analysis of the Laplacian channel [3].

In this paper we continue the approach and analyze two popular codes by means of the instanton-amoeba technique. Our aim is first of all to quantify utility of the instanton-amoeba scheme for different codes. We characterize performance of the scheme discussing statistical distribution of the instanton’s length found in the result of multiple attempts of the instanton-amoeba. We also focus on testing and explaining performance of the method at moderate values of SNR. We discuss convergence of the Monte-Carlo results to the instanton asymptotics observed for different codes and different number of iterations.

We find that the large SNR behaviors shown by the two codes are qualitatively different. One important difference is coming from the fact that the instanton with the lowest effective distance (that is the single most damaging configuration of the noise) corresponds to a pseudo-codeword in the case of the (155, 64, 20) code, while the instanton is a valid codeword in the case of the (672, 336, 16) code. We observe that for both codes there are many other (than minimal) instanton solutions with distance higher than of the minimal instanton. However, characterizing the spectra of these “excited” instantons with the distance higher than minimal we find that while in the case of the (155, 64, 20) code there are many “excited” instantons with distances very close to the minimal one, the “excited” instantons of the (672, 336, 16) code are separated by a large gap from the minimal one. Moreover, the phase volume in the phase (noise) space associated with the minimal instanton (correspondent to a codeword) in the case of the (672, 336, 16) code is relatively small, so that one needs to make special (biasing) efforts to force the instanton-amoeba to find the minimal instanton. This suggests that the actual performance of the (672, 336, 16) code at moderate SNR is essentially better than one would anticipate based on the Hamming distance of the code (equal to 16) as the asymptote is mainly defined by the pseudo codewords above the gap. Contribution of the “excited” instantons dominates FER at some moderate values of SNR while the codeword contribution eventually takes over at higher values of SNR. These conclusions follow from the instanton-amoeba analysis complemented and contrasted against the standard MC analysis.

We also perform analysis of the FER dependence on the number of decoding iterations for the two codes. The analysis reveals the same basic phenomenon: the largest SNR asymptotic is controlled by the minimal length instanton, however a nontrivial interplay between different instantons may affect an intermediate SNR asymptotic. The major effect at the transient,
intermediate SNR, state can be related to competition between the contribution to FER from the minimal distance instanton and some higher distance instantons occupying a larger volume of the noise space.

II. NOTATIONS

Sending a codeword $\sigma = \{\sigma_i = \pm 1; i = 1, \cdots, N\}$ into a noisy channel results with the probability $P(x|\sigma)$ in corruption of the original signal, $x \neq \sigma$. The decoding goal is to infer the original message from the received output, $x$. Assuming that coding and decoding are fixed one studies Frame-Error-Rate (FER) to characterize performance of the scheme, $\text{FER} = \int dx \chi_{\text{error}}(x)P(x|1)$, where $\chi_{\text{error}} = 1$ if an error is detected and $\chi_{\text{error}} = 0$ otherwise. In symmetric channel FER is invariant with respect to the original codeword, thus all-($+1$) codeword can be assumed for the input. When SNR is large FER as an integral over output configurations is approximated by,

$$\text{FER} \sim \sum_{\text{inst}} V_{\text{inst}} \times P(x_{\text{inst}}|1), \quad (1)$$

where $x_{\text{inst}}$ are the special instanton configurations of the output maximizing $P(x|1)$ under the $\chi_{\text{error}} = 1$ condition, and $V_{\text{inst}}$ combines combinatorial and phase-volume factors. See Fig. 1 for illustration. Generically, there are many instanton configurations that are all local maxima of $P(x|1)$ in the noise space. Individual contributions into FER decrease significantly with SNR increase. At large SNR only instanton with the highest $P(x_{\text{inst}}|1)$ is relevant.

AWGN channel is defined by,

$$P(x|\sigma') = \prod_i p(x_i|\sigma'_i), \quad p(x|\sigma) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\sigma)^2 s^2}{2}\right). \quad (2)$$

If the detected signal at a bit is $x$, the respective log-likelihood at the bit is $h = \ln(p(x|1)/p(x|-1))/2s^2 = x$, where minimum decoding is assumed and one chooses to measure it in the units of SNR squared, $s^2$. For the AWGN channel finding the instanton means minimizing $l^2 = \sum_i (1-x_i)^2$, with respect to the noise vector $1-x$ in the $N$-dimensional space, under the condition that the decoding terminates with an error. Instanton estimation for FER at the highest SNR, $s \gg 1$, is $\exp(-l_{\text{inst}}^2, s^2/2)$, while at moderate values of SNR many terms from the right-hand-side of Eq. (1) can contribute to FER comparably.

III. NUMERICAL SCHEME. DETAILS AND VALIDATION

In our numerical scheme the length $l_{\text{inst}}$ was found by a downhill simplex method [8], also called “amoeba”, with accurately tailored (for better convergence) annealing. We repeat the instanton-amoeba evaluation many times, always starting from a new set for initial simplex chosen randomly. $l$, as a function of noise configuration inside the area of unsuccessful decoding, has multiple minima each corresponding to an instanton. Multiple attempts of the instanton-amoeba evaluations gives us not only the instanton with the minimal $l_{\text{inst}}$ but also the whole spectra of higher valued $l_{\text{inst}}$.

We develop two different versions of “amoeba”, “soft” and “hard”. In “soft amoeba” the minimization function decreases with noise probability density in erroneous area of the noise, while in area of successful decoding the function is made artificially big (to guarantee that the actual minimum is achieved inside the erroneous domain). In the “hard amoeba” case minimization is performed only over all orientations of the noise vector, while the length of the vector corresponds exactly to respective point at the error surface, that is the surface separating domains of errors from the domain of correct decoding. (See Fig. 1 for illustration.) This special point at the error surface is found numerically by bisection method.

In [2], [3] the “hard amoeba” was used. Preparing material for this paper we found that even though the “hard amoeba” outperforms the “soft amoeba” for relatively short codes, the latter one has clear advantage in the computational efficiency for mid-size and long codes. Thus, the results presented in the paper were derived primarily by means of the “softamoeba”.

Once found numerically the validity of the instanton solution could be checked against a theoretical evaluation. This theoretical approach, introduced in [2], [3], is based on the notion of the computational tree (CT) of Wiberg [9] built by unwrapping the Tanner graph of a given code into a tree from a bit for which one determines the probability of error. The concept of CT is useful because the result of iterative decodings at a bit of an LDPC code and at the tree center of the respective CT are equal by construction [9]. The initial messages at any bit of the tree are log-likelihoods and, therefore, the result obtained in the tree center is a linear combination of the log-likelihoods with integer coefficients, so the error surface condition becomes $\sum_i n_i h_i = 0$ with integer $n_i$ that depend on CT structure. For AWGN channel the instanton length is equal to $l_{\text{inst}}^2 = (\sum_i n_i^2)/\bigg((\sum_i n_i^2) [9]$. The definition of $n_i$ was generalized in [2]. In spite of its clear
utility the CT approach becomes impractical for larger number of iterations. Thus, in this paper discussing (among other issues) dependence of FER on the number of iterations, we use the CT approach only to verify validity of the instanton-amoeba results for relatively small number of iterations.

Let us also mention difficulties we encountered extending the instanton-amoeba scheme for large number of iterations. First of all, increase of $N_{\text{it}}$ simply means longer computations. The other more important effect is associated with enhancement of irregular, stochastic component in decoding observed with $N_{\text{it}}$ increase. One finds that already a slight variation in the noise can drastically change results. Sensitivity of the instanton-amoeba scheme and dynamical decoding to small variations of the noise will be discussed in details elsewhere [10].

Finally, we also use standard MC approach for comparison with the instanton-amoeba analysis in the regime of moderate SNR values, where on one side FER can still be accessed by MC, but on the other side the instanton asymptotic already applies. This allows us to study convergence of the Monte-Carlo data to the instanton asymptotics, and thus to explore possible effect of other higher distance instantons and also effect of their phase space (volume) factors.

IV. INSTANTON-AMOEBA ANALYSIS OF THE TANNER (155, 64, 20) AND MARGULIS (672, 336, 16) CODES: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.

We consider two regular LDPC codes: (155, 64, 20) code of Tanner [11] and (672, 336, 16) code of Margulis [12], [13] with the prime number $p = 7$. The minimal Hamming distance of the codes is $d_{\text{min}} = 20$ and $d_{\text{min}} = 16$ respectively. This translates into the following largest SNR expectation for FER if the decoding is ML: $\sim \exp(-d_{\text{min}} \cdot s^2/2)$. The decay of FER with SNR at the largest SNR is not that steep if an approximate
iterative scheme is used, \( \sim \exp(-l_{\text{inst}}^2 \cdot s^2/2) \) where thus \( l_{\text{inst}}^2 \leq d_{\text{min}} \).

The results of the MC simulations for the two selected codes are shown in Fig. 2, 3 where \( \log(\text{FER}) \) and SNR\(^2 \) variables are used for plotting in Fig. 4. Notice that the variables used in Fig. 2 are standard for error-correction literature, while the variables used in Fig. 3 are more appropriate for purposes of the asymptotic analysis as the instanton asymptotic, \( \text{FER} \sim \exp(-l_{\text{inst}}^2 \cdot s^2/2) \), becomes a straight line in these later variables.

Our analysis suggests that the leading \( s \to \infty \) asymptotic for FER is governed by the instanton with the lowest length found, i.e. \( \text{FER} \sim \exp(-l_{\text{inst}}^2 \cdot s^2/2) \). We have checked this prediction against direct MC simulations and found that the instanton asymptotic either sets already in the range accessible to the MC simulations, \( \text{FER} < 10^{-9} \), or otherwise one observes a tendency for the MC curve to change its slope towards the instanton asymptotic. The former case is clearly seen on example of the \((155, 64, 20)\) code with 4 iterations (the respective asymptotic is shown in Fig. 4 as the dashed line). In this (and some other cases) the instanton approximation starts to work well already at moderate values of SNR. Explanation for this effect is given in [3].

Describing Fig. 3 for both codes we observe that the rate of FER decrease with SNR at its moderate values (correspondent to \( \text{FER} \sim 10^{6-8} \)) increases with the number of iterations. On the other side one also finds that the effective slope of the FER dependence on SNR at this moderate values is essentially larger than the one correspondent to the minimal instanton which controls the largest SNR asymptotic. We interpret this as effect of the volume factor in Eq. 1. Indeed, higher effective distance instantons have larger volume factors. (This observation is indirectly confirmed by Fig. 4 showing that the instatons with higher effective distance are more probable.) Thus, at moderate SNR effect of the volume factor becomes essential shifting the transient asymptotic towards higher effective distance. This asymptotic could be even steeper than the one corresponding to the Hamming distance of the code. However, and in spite of the large volume factor that is not changing much with SNR, these large phase volume but high effective distance contributions to the right hand side of Eq. 1 will become less and less important with SNR decrease. Such behavior will always be seen if the lowest instantons or codewords have small phase volume, as observed for Margulis’ \((672, 336, 16)\) code (see Fig. 3(b)). Interesting consequence of this volume factor effect is that in this regime of moderate SNR the \((672, 336, 16)\) code performs better than one would expect knowing a relatively low value of its Hamming distance \( d_{\text{min}} = 16 \). Looking at Fig. 4 describing statistics of multiple random attempts of the instanton-amoeba scheme for the \((672, 336, 16)\) code one also finds no instantons with the effective weight lower than 19 (for 8 iterations). These low distance instantons can still be found if initial configuration for instanton-amoeba is carefully pre-selected. The special initial configuration can be either a codeword with the Hamming distance 16 or configuration found by the LP-loop method described in [14].

One also notes, continuing to discuss Fig. 4 that amoeba frequently finds the optimal instanton for \((155, 64, 20)\) code. The situation however is drastically different for \((672, 336, 16)\) code when amoeba explores mainly instantons with relatively high effective distance \( l_{\text{inst}}^2 > 16 \). Another interesting observation one can draw from Fig. 4 concerns the step-like dependence of the probability on \( l_{\text{inst}}^2 \). These steps correspond to the instatons with large volume factors.

Finally we show in Fig. 5 an instanton configuration for the \((155, 64, 20)\) code that survives 400 iterations. This instanton was found through special biasing efforts. One identifies 12 (of the total number of 155) bits, associated with the lowest distance instanton found by standard procedure for 4 iterations, and restricts amoeba to varying noise value at the 12 bits only while imposing exact zero for the noise at the other bits. The result of this restricted minimization was later used as a starting point for the full amoeba. This way we show that even for this very large number of iterations the instanton distance does not exceed the value of 12.45. Slope correspondent to this number is shown as a dot-dashed line in Fig. 5 for the Tanner code. One finds a good agreement between this single instanton asymptotic and the MC results.
for large number of iterations. This approach, of restricting the instanton-amoea to variations only in small subset of bits, applied to the (672, 336, 16) code also gives an impressive result. One finds instanton of the distance \( \approx 14.48 \) (i.e. of the distance smaller than the Hamming distance of the code) that survives 100 iterations. For this instanton noise is non-zero only on 16 bits (correspondent to the Hamming distance codeword). Detailed analysis and dynamical description of this special configurations surviving anomalously large number of iterations will be given in [10].

V. OTHER CODES

The instanton-amoea approach is generic in the sense of its potential utility for variety of codes, decoding schemes and channel models. The two codes discussed in this text got most of our attention, however we also analyzed (and are actually continuing doing so) other interesting codes. The analysis of these other codes is not as complete and detailed as of the two selected codes. Thus, in what follows, we make few not really coherent remarks about the current stage of the other codes exploration.

One interesting long code is of Margulis type [12], [13] with \( p = 11 \). This code consists of 2640 bits and 1320 checks and is the largest code we tested with the instanton-amoea so far. Hamming distance of the code is not known, while a bound of 220 is cited in [13]. The lowest length instanton configuration we found (in not very exhausting search) by the instanton-amoea for 8 decoding iterations gives \( l^2 \approx 80.879 \). We expect existence of significantly lower length instantons, as the lowest distance configuration of the noise we found by LP-loop procedure of [14] (looking for instanton configuration for the Linear Programming decoding) has \( l^2 \approx 56.587 \).

Another example is of the (273, 191, 18) projective geometry code. The connectivity degree for bits is 17 thus instanton configuration for one decoding step is 18. With the number of iterations increase the instanton length can not decrease, thus it can not be less than 18. On the other hand Hamming distance of the code is exactly 18. Therefore, the minimal instanton, corresponding to median between two closest code words, has the length of 18.

VI. FUTURE EXPLORATIONS

Instead of standard Conclusions we briefly describe here further directions for this research as we see it. The instanton-amoea technique is first of all a practical tool we plan to perfect for analysis of existed practical codes. Thus, it is important to extend the list of long codes analyzed by this tool over various channel models. Second, the instanton-amoea, as a tool, will perform most successfully if combined with other existed and emerging approaches to the codes’ analysis. An example of the complementary approach which is capable of enhancing performance of the instanton-amoea is the LP-loop approach described in [14]. Third, instanton-amoea can help us to understand fundamental features of the iterative decoding. In this context dynamical analysis of the iterative decoding is another topic we are working on [10]. Finally, the ultimate goal is to improve decoding and code design. Improved and perfected instanton-amoea is promised to be invaluable and practical tool to achieve this big goal.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are grateful to V. Chernyak, R. Koetter, O. Milenkovich, T. Richardson, and B. Vasic for inspiring and fruitful discussions. This work was supported by DOE under LDRD program at Los Alamos National Laboratory.

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