# Non-binary LDPC decoding using truncated messages in the Walsh-Hadamard domain 

Jossy Sayir<br>University of Cambridge


#### Abstract

The Extended Min-Sum (EMS) algorithm for nonbinary low-density parity-check (LDPC) defined over an alphabet of size $q$ operates on truncated messages of length $q^{\prime}$ to achieve a complexity of the order $q^{\prime 2}$. In contrast, Walsh-Hadamard (WH) transform based iterative decoders achieve a complexity of the order $q \log q$, which is much larger for $q^{\prime} \ll q$. In this paper, we demonstrate that considerable savings can be achieved by letting WH based decoders operate on truncated messages as well. We concentrate on the direct WH transform and compute the number of operations required if only $q^{\prime}$ of the $q$ inputs are non-zero. Our paper does not cover the inverse WH transform and hence further research is needed to construct WH based decoders that can compete with the EMS algorithm on complexity terms.


## I. Introduction

Extended Min-Sum (EMS) type decoders [1] for non-binary LDPC codes achieve a considerable complexity reduction with respect to the full Sum-Product (SP) decoder. EMS decoders work with truncated messages in the logarithmic domain, while SP decoders typically work with full messages of length $q$ in the probability domain, where $q$ is the alphabet size. A rough side by side comparison gives

- a variable nodes of degree $d_{v}$ in the logarithmic domain performs an addition of $d_{v}+1$ terms followed by $d_{v}$ substractions to compute extrinsic messages;
- the same variable node in the probability domain performs a multiplication of $d_{v}+1$ factors followed by $d_{v}$ divisions;
- a check node of degree $d_{c}$ must perform $d_{c}$ cyclic convolutions of $d_{c}-1$ input vectors;
- a cyclic convolution of two vectors of length $q$ computed directly requires $q^{2}$ multiplications followed by $q$ sums of $q$ terms;
- in the probability domain, if the alphabet size is a power of 2 , i.e., $q=2^{m}$, the cyclic convolution can be achieved by taking a Walsh Hadamard (WH) transform, then performing extrinsic products as in a variable node, and then applying the inverse WH transform. This reduces the complexity of the cyclic convolution from an order of $q^{2}$ to an order of $q \log q$.
Fitting these elements together, we see that if the EMS works with truncated messages of length $q^{\prime}<q$, then it will achieve a lower complexity order only if $q^{\prime 2}<q \log q$.

Funded in part by the European Research Council under ERC grant agreement 259663 and by the FP7 Network of Excellence NEWCOM\# under grant agreement 318306.

Complexity order is only relevant in the asymptotic regime. For non-binary LDPC decoding, the asymptotic complexity for large $q$ and $q^{\prime}$ is irrelevant. The cases of interest for all practical purposes are for $q$ between 4 and 256. Therefore, in order to assess the benefits of EMS decoders, it is crucial to get an exact comparison between the number of operations for specific values of interest for $q$ and $q^{\prime}$.

In the literature on EMS decoders [1], [2], [3], it is naturally assumed that the WH based decoders in the probability domain can only be applied to full non-truncated messages and therefore there can be no reduction from the complexity order of $q \log q$. In this contribution, we show that this is not exactly true and that, while the WH transform must be applied to a full length message, some complexity savings can be achieved if the full length message has been converted from a truncated message. We proceed to define a framework for counting the exact number of additions and minus operations that are required by a WH transform in a decoder working with truncated messages. This paves the way for a fair complexity comparison of the EMS with essentially equivalent WH-based approaches.

## II. Truncated messages, logarithms, and PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

If we work with truncated messages, it is necessary to specify which symbols in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$ the message entries correspond to. This is not necessary for full-length messages because the natural ordering of message entries to symbols can be assumed. Reduced complexity approaches based on the cyclic convolution of truncated messages need to carry the assignment of message entries to symbols through the operations, performing sums in $\mathrm{GF}(q)$ in parallel to the message value calculations in order to work out the assignment of message entries to symbols in the resulting message. Note that when applying a cyclic convolution to two truncated messages of length $q^{\prime}<q$, the result is likely to have more than $q^{\prime}$ entries. Therefore, selecting which of the $q^{\prime}$ entries to retain in the resulting truncated message is a non-trivial operation that is part of the design process for reduced complexity algorithms.

Working in the logarithmic domain with full messages is fully equivalent to the probability domain. If we denote messages in the probability domain as $m_{p}=\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{q}\right)$ then the equivalent message in the logarithmic domain $m_{l}=$ $\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{q}\right)$ is defined as

$$
\lambda_{i}=\log p_{i}+\lambda_{0} \text { for } i=1 \ldots q
$$

where $\lambda_{0}$ is an arbitrary constant, typically $\lambda_{0}=-\log p_{1}$ or $\lambda_{0}=-\min _{i} \log p_{i}$, where the latter ensures that all message entries are positive. Even if the constant $\lambda_{0}$ is unknown, the probability vector can be recovered from the vector of logarithms by normalizing so that its entries sum to 1 .

For truncated messages, working in the logarithmic domain adds a dimension of subtelty. In the probability domain, the values of the truncated message contain an implicit statement about the values of the probabilities in the part of the message that is missing. Since the probabilities over the complete symbol alphabet must sum to 1 , we know that the sum of the probabilities in the missing part is the difference between the sum of message values and 1 , i.e., if $T$ is the set of symbols corresponding to entries in the truncated message,

$$
\sum_{i \notin T} p_{i+1}=1-\sum_{i \in T} p_{i+1}
$$

It is common to assume that the probabilities in the missing part of the message are uniformly distributed, i.e., for $j \notin T$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{j+1}=-\frac{1}{q^{\prime}}\left(1-\sum_{i \in T_{i}} p_{i+1}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $q^{\prime}=q-|T|$. When working in the logarithmic domain, there is now an extra degree of freedom, as the sum of probabilities in the message is not expected to be 1 , and therefore the $\lambda_{0}$ cannot be recovered from the message. If the $\lambda_{0}$ used in the conversion is unspecified, the logarithmic message becomes disconnected from any specific probability vector. In practice, reduced complexity methods operating cyclic convolutions on truncated messages do not bother to specify $\lambda_{0}$ and appear not to suffer from the resulting disconnection.

Reduced complexity methods operating on truncated messages aim to retain the symbols with highest probabilities within their truncated message, assuming all others to be uniformly distributed. Since the transformation into the logarithmic domain is monotone irrespective of $\lambda_{0}$, retaining the symbols with maximal $\lambda_{i}$ is equivalent to maximizing the corresponding probabilities.

## III. Reduced Complexity Walsh-Hadamard TRANSFORM

We have seen that conceptually, methods operating on truncated messages are assuming probability distributions with uniform tails on the complete symbol alphabet, where the uniform tail contains the symbols that are missing in the truncated message. If we now consider the Walsh-Hadamard approach to the cyclic convolution, we are constrained by the fact that the WH transform cannot be applied to a truncated message. This is because the rule that multiplication in the WH domain is equivalent to a convolution in the time domain only applies if the WH transform is taken over the full symbol alphabet size. We can however replace a true complete probability distribution by a distribution with a uniform tail, following the same concept as truncated message decoders. Indeed, we can transmit truncated messages along the edges of our decoder graph, and add a uniform tail before the
message enters the WH transform. Similarly, we can truncate the message coming out of the WH transform before the check node outputs it to an edge in the graph.

Therefore, any complexity reduction for WH-based decoders operating on messages with uniform tails must answer the following questions:

- Can the complexity of the WH transform be reduced below $O(q \log q)$ when the input vector has a uniform tail?
- Can the complexity of the inverse WH transform be reduced below $O(q \log q)$ if we are ultimately only interested in the largest $q^{\prime}$ outputs of the transform?
We will address these questions in the following subsections.


## A. Direct WH Transform

Let $T$ be the set of $q^{\prime}$ symbol indices in a truncated message received from the graph. We complete the message as a fulllength message $m=\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{q}\right)$ such that $p_{i}$ is the entry in the truncated message for $i \in T$, and $p_{i}=p_{0}$ where $p_{0}$ is defined as in (1). Let us now re-write the message as a sum

$$
m=m^{(1)}+m^{(2)}
$$

where $m^{(1)}$ is a uniform message of length $q$ with entries

$$
m_{i}^{(1)}=p_{0} \text { for } i=1,2, \ldots, q
$$

and $m^{(2)}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{cases}m_{i}^{(2)}=p_{i}-p_{0} & \text { for } i \in T \\ m_{i}^{(2)}=0 & \text { for } i \notin T\end{cases}
$$

Since the WH transform is linear, the transform of $m$ is equal to the sum of the transforms of $m^{(1)}$ and $m^{(2)}$. The WH transform of the uniform vector $m^{(1)}$ has a nonzero component $q p_{0}$ in position 1 and all zeros elsewhere. Our problem then is to estimate the complexity of the WH transform applied to a vector $m^{(2)}$ of length $q$ with only $q^{\prime}<q$ non-zero entries.


Fig. 1. WH transform for an input vector of length 8 with only 2 non-zero elements at positions 2 and 6

An example of this is illustrated in Figure 1, where the WH transform is applied to a vector of length 8 with only 2 non-zero elements. The bold lines in the graph correspond to edges transporting non-zero elements, while the gray edges transport only zeros. Instead of the usual $3 \times 8$ additions and
$3 \times 4$ minus operations required by the WH transform, we see that only 8 additions and 10 minus operations are performed in this case. A WH butterfly processing two zeros does not need to be activated at all. A WH butterfly processing one non-zero element and a zero requires only a copy and possibly a minus operation but no addition. Only WH butterflies receiving two non-zero elements perform two additions and one minus each. The number of additions and minus operations can vary, as illustrated in Figure 2, where only 2 additions and 1 minus operation are required for a different configuration of 2 nonzero elements in a length 8 input vector.


Fig. 2. WH transform for an input vector of length 8 with only 2 non-zero elements at positions 1 and 2

As these figures demonstrate, the number of operations is a random variable that depends on the position of the non-zero elements in the input vector. Let us denote as $Z=Z_{1} Z_{2} \ldots Z_{q}$ a vector of indicator random variables that are 1 if the corresponding entry is non-zero and 0 if the corresponding entry is 0 . The number of non-zero elements $q^{\prime}$ in an input vector is the Hamming weight $w(Z)$ of the corresponding vector of indicator variables. We will assume that all patterns of nonzero input elements are equally probable, e.g., $P_{Z}(z)=2^{-q}$ for any $z$. The number of additions $A$ and the number of minus operations $M$ depend only on the vector of indicator random variables, i.e., $A=f_{A}(Z)$ and $M=f_{M}(Z)$. We are interested in evaluating the expectated number of operations $\mathrm{E}\left[A \mid w(Z)=q^{\prime}\right]$ and $E\left[M \mid w(Z)=q^{\prime}\right]$ in the WH transform.

We follow two approaches, one approximate and the other exact. The approximate approach assumes that $Z$ is the output of a Bernoulli process with parameter $p=q^{\prime} / q$. This means that the number of non-zero entries is now a random variable rather than being fixed, but its expected value is equal to $q^{\prime}$, and all sequences of weight $q^{\prime}$ remain equi-probable, even though we are assuming the wrong sequence probabilities. If we consider the first layer of butteflies in the WH transform, we note that both outputs of a butterfly will be non-zero if any or both of its inputs are non-zero ${ }^{1}$. Therefore, we can write a recursive formula for the probability of a non-zero entry at

[^0]the output of a layer of butterflies given its input probability
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{i+1}=1-\left(1-p_{i}\right)^{2} \text { for } i=1,2, \ldots \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where we note $p_{1}=p$ for the input probability of the first layer. Of course the outputs of a layer are not Bernoulli, since non-zero outputs always come in pairs. We will make a further approximation in assuming that the interleavers between layers of butterflies are random, resulting in Bernoulli inputs to each layer, so that we can safely apply (2) to all layers in the WH transform. A butterfly with two non-zero entries will perform two additions and one minus operation; a butterfly with one non-zero entry will perform no additions and possibly one minus; and a butterfly with zero entries performs no operations at all. Therefore, we can express the expected number of additions for a layer as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{E}\left[A_{i}\right] \approx \frac{q}{2}\left(2 p_{i}^{2}\right)=q p_{i}^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $2 p_{i}^{2}$ is the expected number of additions per butterfly and $q / 2$ is the number of butterflies per layer. Similarly, we can express the expected number of minus operations for a layer as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{E}\left[M_{i}\right] \approx \frac{q}{2}\left[p_{i}^{2}+p_{i}\left(1-p_{i}\right)\right]=q p_{i} / 2 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

By applying (2) recursively and (3) and (4) to each layer, we can calculate a simple approximation to the number of additions and minus operations required by the length $q \mathrm{WH}$ transform with $p q$ non-zero entries. These figures will not be exact because they rely on two approximations, namely replacing the exact number of non-zero entries by an expectation, and assuming that the interleavers between layers in the WH transform are random. Table II at the end of this section shows the results obtained with the approximate method versus the exact values for $q=64$. The approximations appear to be slightly lower than the exact values. The approximate approach has the advantage that it is much easier to evaluate and does not require to evaluate any factorials.
To compute the exact number of operations, we will make use of the following two lemmas:
Lemma 1: Let $\mathrm{WH}_{i}(X)$ denote the $i$-th element of the Walsh-Hadmard transform of the vector $X$. Let $X_{i}^{j}$ denote the portion of $X$ starting at index $i$ and ending at index $j$. We have

$$
\mathrm{WH}_{i}(X)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{WH}_{i}\left(X_{1}^{q / 2}\right)+\mathrm{WH}_{i}\left(X_{q / 2+1}^{q}\right)  \tag{5}\\
\text { if } i=1 \ldots q / 2 \\
\mathrm{WH}_{i-q / 2}\left(X_{1}^{q / 2}\right)-\mathrm{WH}_{i-q / 2}\left(X_{q / 2}^{q}\right) \\
\text { if } i=q / 2+1 \ldots q
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof: this follows directly from he definition of the WH matrix as a successive Kronecker product of the matrix

$$
W_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

with itself. Decomposing the WH transform of length $q$ as the Kronecker product of $W_{2}$ with the WH transform of length $q / 2$ gives the expression in (5).

TABLE I
EXCACT NUMBERS OF OPERATIONS FOR $q^{\prime}$ NON-ZERO INPUTS IN A LENGTH $q=2$ WH TRANSFORM, AND EXACT NUMBER OF ADDITIONS AND MINUS OPERATIONS IN A LENGTH $q=4$ WH TRANSFORM

| $q^{\prime}$ | $\mathrm{E}[A]$ | $\mathrm{E}[M]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | $1 / 2$ |
| 2 | 2 | 1 |


| $q^{\prime}$ | $q_{L}^{\prime}$ | $q_{R}^{\prime}$ | $\frac{P\left(q_{L}, q_{R}\right)}{P\left(q^{\prime}\right)}$ | $\mathrm{E}\left[A_{L}\right]$ | $\mathrm{E}\left[A_{R}\right]$ | $+q ?$ | $E[A]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
|  | 0 | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 2 | 0 | $1 / 6$ | 2 | 0 | 0 |  |
|  | 1 | 1 | $2 / 3$ | 0 | 0 | 4 |  |
|  | 0 | 2 | $1 / 6$ | 0 | 2 | 0 | $10 / 3$ |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 2 | 0 | 4 |  |
|  | 1 | 2 | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 8 |


| $q^{\prime}$ | $q_{L}^{\prime}$ | $q_{R}^{\prime}$ | $\frac{P\left(q_{L}, q_{R}\right)}{P\left(q^{\prime}\right)}$ | $\mathrm{E}\left[M_{L}\right]$ | $\mathrm{E}\left[M_{R}\right]$ | $+q / 2 ?$ | $E[M]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 0 |  |
|  | 0 | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 0 | $1 / 2$ | 2 | $3 / 2$ |
| 2 | 2 | 0 | $1 / 6$ | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
|  | 1 | 1 | $2 / 3$ | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 2 |  |
|  | 0 | 2 | $1 / 6$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 2 |  |
|  | 1 | 2 | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 2 | $7 / 2$ |
| 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 |

Lemma 1 essentially provides the basis for the "fast Hadamard transform" (FHT) that gives us a complexity of $q \log q$ for what would otherwise be a matrix multiplication with a Hadamard matrix, which has a complexity of $q^{2}$.

Lemma 2: Let the random variable $A$ be the number of additions required in a FHT, $M$ the number of minus operations, $Q$ the length of the transform and $Q^{\prime}$ the number of non-zero elements, then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q=q, Q^{\prime}=q^{\prime}\right]=  \tag{6}\\
& \sum_{\substack{q_{L}=\max \left\{0, q^{\prime}-q / 2\right\} \\
q_{R}=q^{\prime}-q_{L}}}^{\min \left\{q^{\prime}, q / 2\right\}} \frac{\binom{q / 2}{q_{L}}\binom{q / 2}{q_{R}}}{\binom{q}{q^{\prime}}}\left(\mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q=q / 2, Q^{\prime}=q_{L}\right]\right. \\
& \left.\quad+\mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q=q / 2, Q^{\prime}=q_{R}\right]+q\left(1-\delta\left(q_{L} q_{R}\right)\right)\right) \\
& E\left[M \mid Q=q, Q^{\prime}=q^{\prime}\right]=  \tag{7}\\
& \sum_{\substack{q_{L} \\
q_{L}=\min \left\{q^{\prime}, q / 2\right\} \\
q_{R}=q^{\prime}-q_{L}}}^{\sum_{\substack{q / 2 \\
q_{2} \\
q_{L} \\
q_{2} \\
q_{2} \\
q / 2 \\
q_{R} \\
\hline}}^{\left(\begin{array}{c}
q
\end{array}\right)}\left(\mathrm{E}\left[M \mid Q=q / 2, Q^{\prime}=q_{L}\right]\right.} \\
& \left.\quad+\mathrm{E}\left[M \mid Q=q / 2, Q^{\prime}=q_{R}\right]+\frac{q}{2}\left(1-\delta\left(q_{L}\right)\right)\right)
\end{align*}
$$

where $\delta($.$) denotes the Kronecker delta function whose value$ is 1 when its input is 0 and 0 otherwise.
Proof: Let us split the variable $Q^{\prime}$ into two random variables, $Q_{L}$ for the number of non-zero elements in the left half of the input vector and $Q_{R}$ for the number of non-zero elements in the right half of the input vector. Obviously, $Q^{\prime}=Q_{L}+Q_{R}$.

Furthermore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q=q, Q^{\prime}=q^{\prime}\right]= \\
& \sum_{q_{L}} \sum_{q_{R}} \mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q, Q_{L}, Q_{R}, Q^{\prime}=q, q_{L}, q_{R}, q^{\prime}\right] P\left(q_{L}, q_{R} \mid q, q^{\prime}\right) \\
& \quad=\sum_{\substack{q_{L} \\
q_{R}=q^{\prime}-q_{L}}} \mathrm{E}\left[A \mid Q=q, Q_{L}=q_{L}, Q_{R}=q_{R}\right] P\left(q_{L} \mid q, q^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us consider the probabilities $P\left(q_{L} \mid q, q^{\prime}\right)$. They can only be non-zero for consistent values of $q_{L}$ with respect to $q$ and $q^{\prime}: q_{L}$ can be at most equal to $q^{\prime}$ since the left half of the input vector cannot have more non-zero elements than the whole vector. It can also be at most $q / 2$ since it cannot have more non-zero elements than the left half has positions. Furthermore, if $q^{\prime}>q / 2, q_{L}$ must be at least equal to $q^{\prime}-q / 2$ in order for $q_{R}$ to remain below $q / 2$. This justifies the upper and lower bound in the summation in Lemma 2. We can now write

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(q_{L} \mid q, q^{\prime}\right) & =\frac{P\left(q_{L}, q^{\prime} \mid q\right)}{P\left(q^{\prime} \mid q\right)} \\
& =\frac{P\left(Q_{L}=q_{L}, Q_{R}=q^{\prime}-q_{L} \mid q\right)}{P\left(q^{\prime} \mid q\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since all configurations of non-zero elements are assumed to be equally likely, i.e., equal to $2^{-q}$, the probabilities in the last expression can be obtained by counting the sequences fulfilling the conditions on $Q_{L}, Q_{R}$ and $Q^{\prime}$, so

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
P\left(Q_{L}=q_{L}, Q_{R}=q_{R} \mid q\right)=\binom{q / 2}{q_{L}}\binom{q / 2}{q_{R}} 2^{-q} \\
P\left(Q^{\prime}=q^{\prime} \mid q\right)=\binom{q}{q^{\prime}} 2^{-q}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Now let us consider the expected value $E\left[A \mid Q=q, Q_{L}=\right.$ $\left.q_{L}, Q_{R}=q_{R}\right]$. Lemma 1 shows that every element in the WH transform can be obtained as a sum of an element in the WH transform of the left half with an element in the WH transform of the right half. Therefore, the number of additions required is the number of additions in the WH transforms of the left and right half plus the extra addition required to sum them. If $Q_{L} \neq 0$ and $Q_{R} \neq 0$, then all values in the WH transform of the halves will be non-zero (see Footnote 1) and we will need $q$ extra additions. Otherwise, i.e. if $Q_{L}=0$ or $Q_{R}=0$, we will need no extra additions as one of the terms in the sum will always be zero.

The proof of the expression for the number of minus operations follows the same arguments, except that the number of extra minus operations required to put the two half transforms together is $q / 2$ and is always necessary when $Q_{R} \neq 0$, even if $Q_{L}=0$, in which case there are no sums but minus operations are still necessary to compute $W H_{i}(X)$ for $i=q / 2+1, \ldots, q$.

Lemma 2 enables us to count operations in a recursive manner by building up the table of operations required for a length $q$ WH transform based on a pre-computed number of operations required for a length $q / 2 \mathrm{WH}$ transform. Table I illustrates this process for the WH transform of length 4, using


Fig. 3. Approximate relative expected number of additions for alphabet sizes varying from 16 to $2^{16}$ and 12 non-zero inputs, i.e., $q^{\prime}=12$
the number of operations for the length 2 WH transform. This procedure can be extended to any length $q$ for which we are able to compute binomial coefficients accurately, and can be implemented as a recursive computer program if required. For larger values of $q$, we can use the approximation described previously.

TABLE II
NUMBER OF OPERATIONS IN THE WH TRANSFORM FOR $q=64$ AND VARIOUS NUMBERS $q^{\prime}$ OF NON-ZERO ENTRIES

|  | Approximations |  | Exact numbers |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $q^{\prime}$ | $\mathrm{E}[A]$ | $\mathrm{E}[M]$ | $\mathrm{E}[A]$ | $\mathrm{E}[M]$ |
| 1 | 14.4 | 27.0 | 0.0 | 31.5 |
| 2 | 40.6 | 47.1 | 43.3 | 52.7 |
| 3 | 67.0 | 62.5 | 74.6 | 67.8 |
| 4 | 90.2 | 74.6 | 98.5 | 79.2 |
| 5 | 110.2 | 84.4 | 117.7 | 88.4 |
| 6 | 127.3 | 92.6 | 133.8 | 95.9 |
| 7 | 142.1 | 99.5 | 147.7 | 102.4 |
| 8 | 155.1 | 105.5 | 160.0 | 108.0 |
| 9 | 166.6 | 110.8 | 170.9 | 113.0 |
| 10 | 177.1 | 115.5 | 180.9 | 117.4 |
| 11 | 186.6 | 119.8 | 190.0 | 121.5 |
| 12 | 195.3 | 123.7 | 198.4 | 125.2 |
| 13 | 203.4 | 127.2 | 206.2 | 128.6 |
| 14 | 211.0 | 130.5 | 213.5 | 131.8 |
| 15 | 218.0 | 133.5 | 220.4 | 134.7 |
| 16 | 224.7 | 136.3 | 226.8 | 137.4 |
| 17 | 231.0 | 139.0 | 233.0 | 140.0 |
| 18 | 236.0 | 141.5 | 238.8 | 142.4 |
| 19 | 242.7 | 143.8 | 244.4 | 144.7 |
| 20 | 248.1 | 146.0 | 249.7 | 146.8 |
| 21 | 253.3 | 148.15 | 254.8 | 148.9 |
| 22 | 258.3 | 150.1 | 259.7 | 150.8 |
| 23 | 263.1 | 152.0 | 264.4 | 152.7 |
| 24 | 267.7 | 153.9 | 268.9 | 154.5 |
| 32 | 299.7 | 165.9 | 300.5 | 166.5 |
| 64 | 384 | 192 | 384 | 192 |

The results in Table II show that substantial savings can be achieved for $q=64$ when $q^{\prime}$ is smaller than about 16 ,
with a ballpoint figure of approximately $50 \%$ savings for additions from $q \log q$ for $q^{\prime}=11$. The last line for $q^{\prime}=64$ corresponds to full-length messages with no non-zero entries, with exactly $q \log q$ additions and $q \log q / 2$ minus operations. Figure 3 shows the number of additions relative to $q \log q$ for a fixed truncated size $q^{\prime}=12$, demonstrating that the savings improve as the alphabet size grows.

## B. Inverse WH Transform

A similar approach could be adopted to count the number of operations in an inverse WH transform when only a portion of the output message needs to be computed. However, this approach assumes that we know which of the output symbols will be in the truncated message and which symbols will be left out and assigned to the uniform tail. The obvious way to select symbols for the truncated message is to retain the $q^{\prime}$ symbols with the largest probability. However, this requires to compute all $q$ values in order to decide which $q^{\prime}$ values are the largest. Hence, reducing the complexity of the inverse WH transform is a harder problem, that lies outside the scope of this paper. It may be possible to reduce the complexity based on novel techniques proposed in [4].

## IV. Conclusion

We have presented evidence to the fact that using truncated messages in WH-based iterative decoders for non-binary codes can achieve gains with respect to full WH decoders. At this point, we are unable to conclude whether WH based decoders operating on truncated messages may compete with EMS decoders, because constraint nodes need to take an inverse WH transform for every outgoing message. We have as of yet no conclusive evidence that the complexity of the inverse WH transform can be reduced if the target is a truncated message. Hence, currently there is no doubt that the EMS and its many variants is the most efficient known algorithm for decoding non-binary LDPC codes. We believe however that WH based decoders should be investigated further as there may be a way to achieve comparable complexity with methods operating in the WH domain if reduced complexity inverse WH transforms can be devised.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Throughout this section, we neglect the possibility that two inputs to an adder would be non-zero and equal with opposite signs, in which case one of the outputs of the butterfly could in theory be zero. Since these are real numbers we will assume that the probability of this event is zero.

