MIMO NOMA System Performance with OSTBC and BCH Code

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Abstract

Multiple-Input Multiple-Output (MIMO) and Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (NOMA) are essential components of next-generation wireless communication systems, enhancing spectral efficiency and user connectivity. This paper explores the integration of Orthogonal Space-Time Block Codes (OSTBC) with MIMO-NOMA to improve system reliability and performance. It also utilizes Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH) coding to bolster error correction capabilities. The study presents an analytical framework along with simulation results that highlight the advantages of combining these techniques in a wireless communication context. The proposed approach aims to mitigate channel impacts to ensure reliable data transmission by encoding the signal at the transmitter and employing error detection and correction algorithms at the receiver to recover the transmitted data. To evaluate this performance, the bit error rate will be measured, showing improvements in error reduction across different signal-to-noise ratio values.

الملخص— تعد تقنية المدخلات المتعددة والمخرجات المتعددة ((MIMOوالوصول المتعدد غير المتعامد ((NOMAمن المكونات الأساسية لأنظمة الاتصالات اللاسلكية من الجيل التالي، حيث تعمل على تعزيز الكفاءة الطيفية وإمكانية الاتصال بين المستخدمين. تستكشف هذه الورقة دمج رموز الكتلة المكانية الزمنية المتعامدة ((OSTBCمع تقنية الوصول المتعدد غير المتعامد ((NOMAلتحسين موثوقية النظام وأدائه. كما تستخدم أيضًا تشفير Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH) لتعزيز قدرات تصحيح الأخطاء. تقدم الدراسة إطارًا تحليليًا إلى جانب نتائج المحاكاة التي تسلط الضوء على مزايا الجمع بين هذه التقنيات في سياق الاتصالات اللاسلكية. يهدف النهج المقترح إلى التخفيف من تأثيرات القناة لضمان نقل البيانات بشكل موثوق من خلال تشفير الإشارة عند المرسل واستخدام خوارزميات اكتشاف الأخطاء وتصحيحها عند المستقبل لاستعادة

البيانات المرسلة. لتقييم هذا الأداء، سيتم قياس معدل خطأ البت، مما يُظهر تحسينات في تقليل الأخطاء عبر قيم مختلفة لنسبة الإشارة إلى الضوضاء.

Keywords— Non-orthogonal multiple access (NOMA), Orthogonal Space Time Block code (OSTBC), Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH) codes, Multiple Input Multiple Output (MIMO), Alamouti Scheme, Rayleigh Fading Channel, AWGN Channel, Channel Coding, Bit Error Rate (BER)

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid expansion of mobile technology, with data traffic projected to increase by 1000 times in the 2020s, has led to complex requirements for fifth-generation (5G) wireless communication systems [1]. In orthogonal multiple access (OMA), different users are assigned distinct orthogonal resources in either the frequency or time domain. In contrast, Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (NOMA) enables multiple users to simultaneously share the entire available frequency and time resources, resulting in greater spectral efficiency compared to OMA techniques [2]. NOMA has been proposed as a viable communication technology for 5G cellular systems, and NOMA systems can be categorized into several types, primarily including power-domain multiplexing and code-domain multiplexing [3].

Power-domain NOMA is powerful technology for 5G wireless communication systems, allowing multiple users to share the same time-frequency resources through superposition coding at the transmitter and successive interference cancellation (SIC) at the receiver. This method provides greater spectral efficiency compared to traditional orthogonal multiple access (OMA) schemes. Numerous studies have shown that NOMA achieves a higher sum rate than OMA, both theoretically and practically, especially in cellular downlink scenarios with randomly distributed users. Additionally, NOMA enhances spectral efficiency (SE) [4].

In NOMA systems, the superposition-coded signal can be effectively decoded and demodulated at the receiver using SIC [5].

Multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) communications with multiple users represent a promising strategy for optimizing overall system throughput. This optimization is based on the number of base station (BS) transmit antennas and the total number of receive antennas at the user end, where each user can be allocated one or more beams in downlink multiuser MIMO [6].

As wireless communication systems advance, the need for higher data rates, reliability, and spectral efficiency becomes critical. MIMO technology significantly boosts data throughput and link reliability, while NOMA facilitates multiple users sharing the same frequency and time resources by leveraging variations in channel conditions. However, MIMO-NOMA systems face challenges related to inter-user interference and reliability, which require advanced signal processing and error correction techniques [7].

Space-Time Codes are employed to enhance the reliability of data transmission in wireless communication systems that utilize multiple transmit antennas. The space-time encoder selects a constellation point from each input symbol and transmits it simultaneously from different antennas at various time slots, providing coding and diversity gains [8]

Space-time block coding is a technique used in wireless communications to send multiple copies of a data stream across several antennas, taking advantage of the various received versions to improve data transfer reliability. Given that the transmitted signal must navigate a challenging environment characterized by scattering, reflection, and refraction some received copies will likely be of higher quality than others. This redundancy increases the likelihood of successfully decoding the received signal from these copies. Thus, space-time coding optimally combines all received signal copies to maximize the extracted information [9].

Channel coding is a technique that enhances the performance of mobile communication links by incorporating redundant data bits into the transmitted message. In this process, the baseband section of the transmitter uses a channel coder to transform a digital message sequence into a new sequence that consists of more bits than the original. The coded message is then modulated for transmission over the wireless channel. At the receiver, channel coding is utilized to detect or correct some or all of the errors introduced during transmission [10].

Error correction coding is vital in modern digital communication and storage systems to maintain data integrity. Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH) codes, developed by Bose and Ray-Chaudhuri in 1959 and independently by Hocquenghem the same year, are widely recognized for their effectiveness in correcting multiple random errors. These codes are commonly employed in wireless communication systems, digital storage devices, and deep-space communications due to their efficient error detection and correction capabilities, making them suitable for channels affected by noise and interference. This paper discusses the principles of BCH codes, detailing their encoding and decoding algorithms as well as their applications in contemporary wireless systems. Simulation results illustrate the performance of BCH codes under various noise conditions, highlighting their effectiveness compared to traditional error correction methods [11].

BCH codes are a specific class of cyclic error-correcting codes that are crucial in digital communications and storage. This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of BCH codes, covering their mathematical foundations, encoding and decoding processes, error correction capabilities, and real-world applications [12].

This paper examines the integration of Orthogonal Space-Time Block Coding (OSTBC), which offers diversity gain without compromising bandwidth, into MIMO-NOMA systems. BCH codes are also employed to reduce error propagation within the system. This proposed method improves both the spectral efficiency and reliability of wireless communication systems.

II. Literature Review

Multiple access (MA) techniques have long been vital enablers of wireless communication, evolving significantly through different generations of networks. Over the past three to four decades, there have been substantial advancements in MA technologies and standardization. In the first generation (1G), FDMA was utilized alongside analog frequency modulation, although digital control channel signaling was introduced. The second-generation (2G) GSM network implemented TDMA, while the third-generation (3G) networks primarily adopted CDMA, initially developed by Qualcomm. OFDMA became the dominant MA technique for 4G networks. MA techniques can be broadly categorized based on whether multiple users can share the same time or frequency resources. Orthogonal Multiple Access (OMA) methods, such as FDMA, TDMA, and OFDMA, permit only one user per time/frequency resource block (RB). In contrast, CDMA allows multiple users to share an RB by using distinct, user-specific spreading sequences. The rapid increase in internet-enabled smart devices and innovative applications has spurred the development of 5G, necessitating new MA techniques [13].

Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (NOMA) is divided into two main types: code-domain NOMA and power-domain NOMA. Notable code-domain NOMA techniques include trellis-coded multiple access (TCMA), interleave-division multiple access (IDMA), low-density signature (LDS) CDMA, as well as newer methods like multi-user shared access (MUSA), pattern division multiple access (PDMA), and sparse code multiple access (SCMA) [14].

Power-domain NOMA, recently introduced for 3GPP LTE, offers a larger capacity region than OMA. Its core principle is to allow multiple users to share the same time/frequency RB using superposition coding (SC) at the transmitter and successive interference cancellation (SIC) at the receiver. This fundamentally differs from traditional OMA techniques and code-domain NOMA. The motivation for power-domain NOMA is to optimize resource utilization by taking advantage of varying channel conditions among users. This allows the simultaneous servicing of multiple users with different quality-of-service (QoS) requirements within the same RB. Additionally, NOMA has the potential to integrate with existing MA paradigms by introducing power-domain differentiation [15].

NOMA has emerged as a crucial technology for next-generation wireless communication systems, especially for 5G and beyond. Unlike OMA techniques such as FDMA, TDMA, and OFDMA, NOMA enables multiple users to share the same frequency and time resources by leveraging different power or code allocations. This enhances spectral efficiency and supports massive connectivity, making it particularly suitable for applications like the Internet of Things (IoT) and ultra-reliable low-latency communications (URLLC) [16].

NOMA can be primarily categorized into Power-Domain NOMA (PD-NOMA) and Code-Domain NOMA (CD-NOMA). Power-Domain NOMA differentiates users by assigning them varying power levels. Key principles include superposition coding at the transmitter and successive interference cancellation at the receiver. This method allows stronger users to decode and eliminate weaker users' signals before decoding their own, resulting in improved spectral efficiency. PD-NOMA has been integrated into 3GPP LTE and is considered a candidate for 6G networks [17].

Code-Domain NOMA techniques assign unique spreading sequences to users, enabling multiple users to share the same resource block. Examples include Sparse Code Multiple Access (SCMA), which employs multi-dimensional sparse codes for efficient user separation; Pattern Division Multiple Access (PDMA), which allocates unique resource patterns based on quality-of-service; and Multi-User Shared Access (MUSA), which offers low-complexity detection for managing multiple user signals [18].

NOMA significantly enhances spectral efficiency compared to OMA by allowing multiple users to share the same frequency and time resources. Its capacity to accommodate a diverse range of users makes NOMA particularly well-suited for IoT applications and massive Machine Type Communication (mMTC). Furthermore, NOMA supports users with varying QoS requirements, enabling weaker users to achieve reliable communication without being overshadowed by stronger users. [19].

III. NON-ORTHOGONAL MULTIPLE ACCESS

The fundamental concept of Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (NOMA) differs significantly from traditional Orthogonal Multiple Access (OMA) schemes. NOMA enables multiple users to communicate simultaneously using the same code and frequency but at varying power levels. As mentioned earlier, power allocation in NOMA is based on channel conditions, meaning that users with better channel gains receive less power. Each user can extract their own data using Successive Interference Cancellation (SIC). NOMA is further divided into cooperative and non-cooperative schemes [20].

Cooperative NOMA: In cooperative NOMA, the existing information in the NOMA system is fully utilized. The cooperative NOMA relay scheme performs better in environments with slow fading on the source-to-relay link compared to non-cooperative methods. In this scenario, base stations (BS) collaborate for downlink transmission.

NOMA Relay Channel: Research has demonstrated that integrating relays in a wireless network effectively mitigates the impacts of shadowing and fading on transmitted data. Users with favorable channel conditions act as relays to enhance data transmission for users with weaker connections.

NOMA Multiple Relay Channel: NOMA with multiple relay channels is regarded as a multi-terminal network consisting of independent users accessing a destination through separate relays. The achievable outage rate for this setup is derived according to a joint network-channel coding concept, where intermediate nodes can function as both senders and receivers.

Non-Cooperative NOMA: In contrast to cooperative NOMA, non-cooperative NOMA lacks prior information about the wireless network before transmission. It is extensively studied as one of the most common schemes [21].

The cooperative and non-cooperative NOMA are described as shown in FIGURE 1.

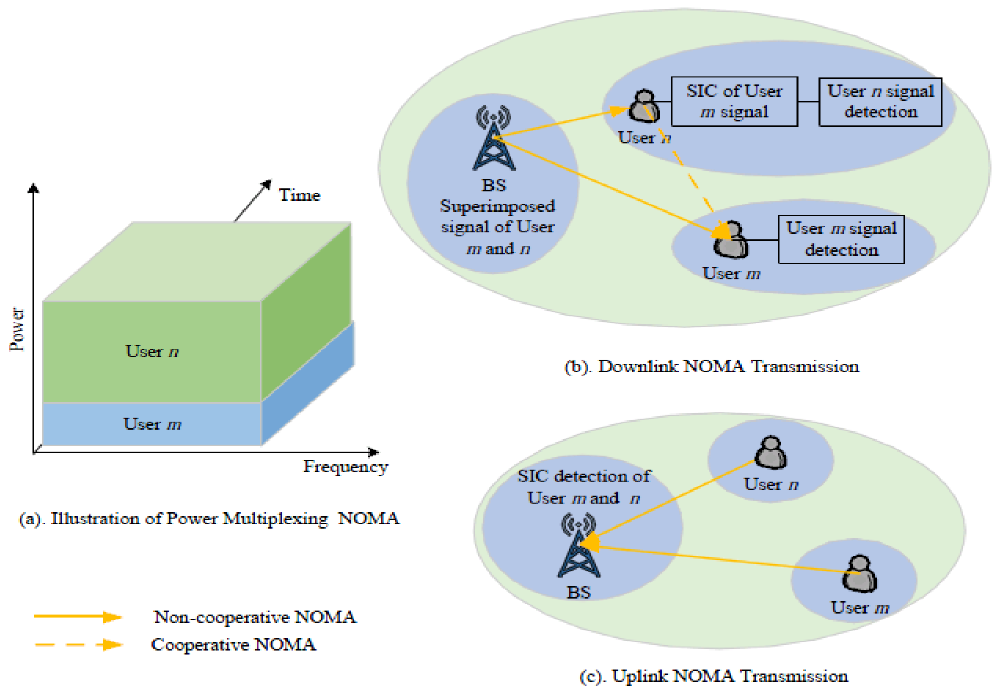

FIGURE 1: Illustration of NOMA transmission.

Power Domain Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (PD-NOMA): The core principle of PD-NOMA is multiplexing through power diversity. Three key terms frequently associated with PD-NOMA are: the channel differences between users, power splitting, and Successive Interference Cancellation (SIC). PD-NOMA allocates different power levels to multiple users based on their channel conditions, transmitting a superimposed signal that users decode using SIC. This process involves decoding and subtracting the message of the user with a better channel condition, allowing the user to retrieve their own message with reduced interference from the superimposed signal. For effective de-multiplexing at the receiver, the difference in allocated power must be sufficiently large, which also necessitates a significant disparity in channel conditions among the users.

The approach to power allocation in NOMA contrasts with power control, although the algorithms follow similar procedures. Unlike conventional power splitting techniques that assign more power to users with better channel conditions, PD-NOMA allocates power inversely proportional to the user's channel condition. This means that weaker users—those with poorer channel conditions—are given more power. This strategy balances the trade-off between system throughput and user fairness, which is paramount in wireless communication systems. While traditional power splitting techniques may offer better overall system performance, they often do so at the expense of throughput for weaker users. [22]. The concept of PD-NOMA is illustrated in FIGURE 2.

A. Key Technologies of NOMA

The fundamental enabling technologies for Non-Orthogonal Multiple Access (NOMA) are based on two key principles: Superposition Coding (SC) and Successive Interference Cancellation (SIC). These technologies are not new; their foundations can be traced back to existing literature. As SC and SIC continue to advance in both theoretical and practical domains, NOMA can be effectively implemented in next-generation networks without significant implementation concerns.

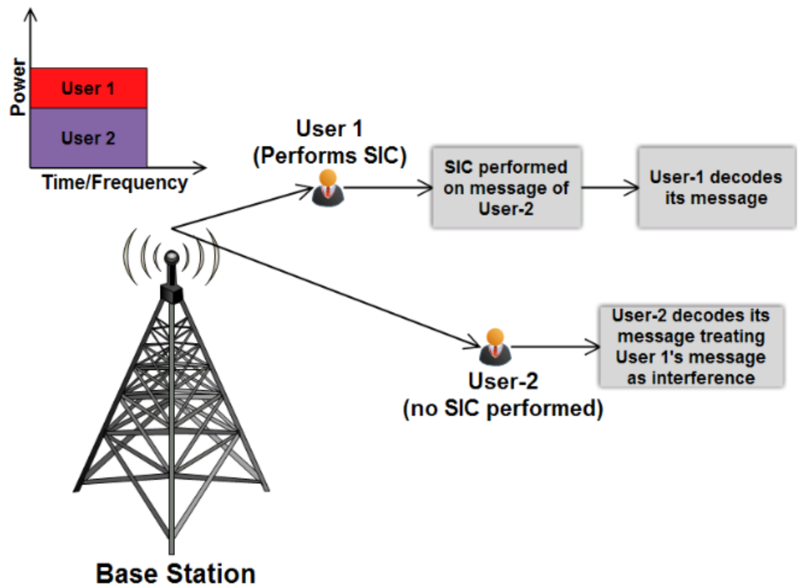

FIGURE 2. Basic Concept of PD-NOMA

By employing the SC technique, the base station (BS) transmits a combination of superposition coded signals that represent all users' messages. For simplicity, the channel gains of users can be arranged in a specific order (e.g., increasing or decreasing). In traditional OMA schemes, such as OFDMA, a common power allocation strategy is the water-filling approach. However, in NOMA, users with poorer channel conditions are allocated more power. This allocation ensures that these users can decode their messages by treating the signals from other users as noise. For users with better channel conditions, SIC technology can be utilized to subtract the interference caused by users with poorer conditions. NOMA has emerged as a strong candidate among multiple access techniques due to its ability to address the challenges faced by OMA and meet the demands of future mobile communication systems. The advantages of NOMA over OMA can be summarized as follows:

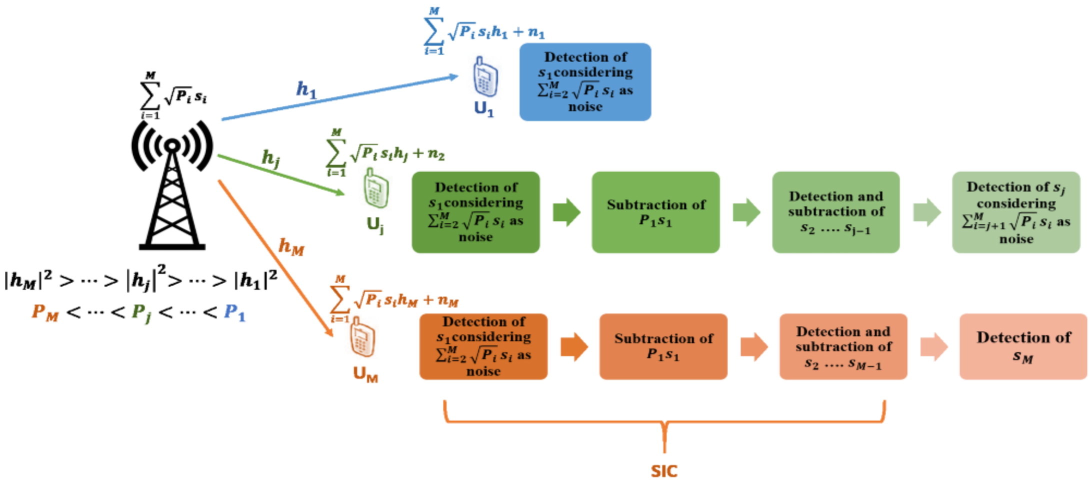

FIGURE. 3. Typical NOMA communication scenario.

Spectral Efficiency and Throughput: In OMA, such as OFDMA, each user is assigned a specific frequency resource regardless of their channel condition, leading to lower overall spectral efficiency and throughput. In contrast, NOMA allows multiple users, regardless of their channel conditions, to share the same frequency resource simultaneously. This means that the resource allocated to weaker users is also utilized by stronger users, with interference mitigated through SIC at the receivers.

User Fairness, Low Latency, and Massive Connectivity: In OMA, particularly in OFDMA with scheduling, users with good channel conditions are prioritized, causing users with poor conditions to wait, which creates fairness issues and increases latency. This approach is not conducive to supporting massive connectivity.

Compatibility: NOMA is compatible with both current and future communication systems, as it does not require significant changes to existing architectures. For instance, NOMA has been incorporated into the 3rd Generation Partnership Project Long Term Evolution Advanced (3GPP LTE Release 13). [23]

B. The Performance Methodology

In NOMA downlink, a standard single-cell cellular system is considered which consists of one BS equipped with multiple antennas at transmitter, Receive and serving n users, as shown in FIGURE. 3.

In the MIMO-NOMA scheme, Superposition Coding (SC) is utilized on the transmitter side. This means that the transmitted signals share the same frequency and time resources but differ in power levels. Therefore, the signals sent from the base station (BS) can be represented as:

$$\boldsymbol{x} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{P_t}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{\alpha_i}}\ \boldsymbol{x_i}$$

Where:

- $\boldsymbol{P_t}$ **:** Total power transmitter.
- $\boldsymbol{\alpha_i}$**:** Power allocation coefficient for UE-*i*.
- $\boldsymbol{x_i}$**:** Signal transmitted for UE-*i*.
- $\boldsymbol{n}$ **:** Number of UE.

The base station (BS) consistently transmits data to all users at once, while complying with the total power constraint. $\boldsymbol{P_t}$, it is assumed that the wireless links experience independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) block Rayleigh fading and additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN). The channels are sorted as $0 < |H_1|^2 < |H_2|^2 < \dots \dots < |H_i|^2 < \cdots < |H_n|^2$ which indicates that user UE-*i.* always holds ith the weakest instantaneous channel. The NOMA scheme enables all users to be served simultaneously by utilizing the entire system bandwidth (BW) for data transmission, facilitated by Superposition Coding (SC) at the base station and Successive Interference Cancellation (SIC) decoding techniques at the users. In this approach, user multiplexing occurs in the power domain. The base station sends a linear superposition of data from **n** users. by allocating a fraction $\boldsymbol{\alpha_i}$ of the total power to each UE-*i*, i.e., the power allocated for the user is $\boldsymbol{P_i = P_t \alpha_i}$. where power allocation factor can be obtained as:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha_i = \frac{d_i^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} d_k^2}}$$

Where d_i is thr distance between i[th] user and BS.

On the receiving end, each user decodes the signals of the weaker users UE-*i*, i.e., can decode the signals for each UE-*m* with $m < i$. The signals for weaker users are then subtracted from the received signal to decode the signal of user UE-*i*, it self-treating the signals of the stronger users UE-*m*, with $m > i$, as interference. The received signal at user UE-*i* can be represented as

$$\boldsymbol{y_i = H_i x + w_i}$$

where $H_i = \sum_{m=0}^{M} \sum_{n=0}^{N} \widehat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{mn}$ which is M × N Rayleigh flat-fading matrix channel between UE-*i* and the BS. Also, is the w_i AWGN of user UE-*i* with zero mean and variance σ_n^2. If signal superposition at the BS, and SIC at UE-*i*, are carried out perfectly [24].

C. Bit Error Rate Performance

The bit error rate is evaluated by measuring the ratio of bit difference between the received and original signals to the total number of bits with varying signal-to-noise ratio levels. In MIMO systems the estimated received signals to the related users from the antennas is obtained using SIC techniques. Considering that, the transmitter sends a NOMA signal superimposed by messages to *n* users as explained.

The received signal at the i^{th} user becomes

$$y_i = H_i \sqrt{\boldsymbol{P_t}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{\alpha_i}}\ \boldsymbol{x_i} + w_i$$

The i^{th} user treat messages for other users starting from *(i +1)* and the environmental noise as the equivalent noise to decode the message for itself.

The mechanism of SIC is First, decoding the strongest signals. Then the user signal is recovered and subtracted from the combined signal, the next strongest signal is decoded from the result of subtraction. Then this operation will be iterative according to the number of users. As illustrated in Fig.3.4, UE_1 has to decode from UE_k to UE_2, as well as UE_2 has to decode from UE_k to UE_3 [25].

An illustrative example, considering a wireless network consisting of three NOMA users, numbered U_1 and U_2, where d_1 and d_2 denote their respective distances from the base station (BS) such that, $d_1>d_2$. Based on their distances, U_1 is the weakest and farthest user and U2 is the strongest and nearest user to the BS.

In Channel Rayleigh fading coefficients are h_1 and h_2 such that, and α_1 and α_2 denote their respective power allocation coefficients. Based on NOMA principles, the user with the weakest signal should receive the highest power allocation, while the strongest user should receive the lowest. So, the power allocation coefficients should be arranged as $\alpha_1>\alpha_2$. Assuming x_1 and x_2 denote the QPSK modulated messages that the BS needs to send to U_1 and U_2 respectively.

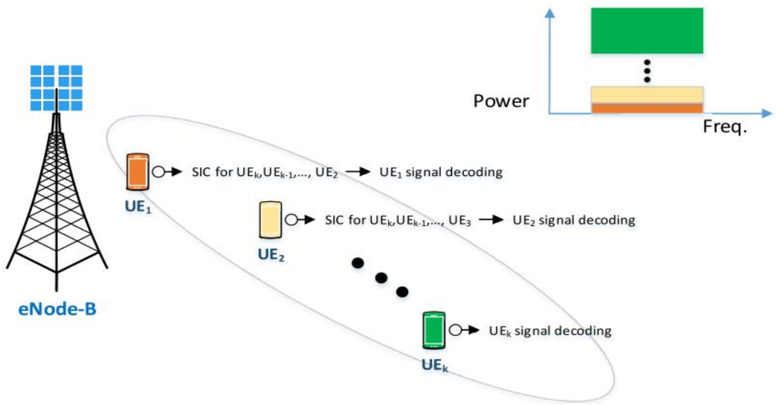

FIGURE. 4. SIC in the downlink of basic NOMA scheme.

Then, the superposition coded signal transmitted by the BS is given by,

$$x = \sqrt{P}(\sqrt{\alpha_1}x_1 + \sqrt{\alpha_2}x_2)$$

The signal received at the i^{th} user is given by,

$$y_i = h_i x + n_i$$

where n_i denotes AWGN at receiver of Ui.

received signal equation for all the three users

$$y_1 = \sqrt{p_t}x.h_1 + n_1$$

$$y_2 = \sqrt{p_t}x.h_2 + n_2$$

Performing equalization by dividing each received signal with the respective user's fading coefficient

$$eq_1 = y_1/h_1$$

$$eq_2 = y_2/h_2$$

The processing at the receiver side of U1 is directly demodulated eq1 to get x1.

Moving on to U2. First, directly x1 is decoded from eq2.

$$dec_1 = demod(\text{eq1})$$

$$dec_{12} = demod(\text{eq2})$$

Before subtracting the resulting decoded signal from eq2, it is re-modulated it to convert it to the same form as in eq2.

$$dec_{12}remod = mod(dec_{12})$$

Now SIC removes the estimate of U1 data from eq2, the remaining signal contains U2 and U3's data. Direct QPSK demodulation is applied on this remaining signal to get U2's data.

$$rem_2 = eq2 - \sqrt{\alpha_1 p_t}.dec_{12}remod$$

$$dec_2 = demod(rem_2)$$

Finally, for BER calculation is obtained by comparing the received signals (dec_1, dec_2) and the original signals (x_1, x_2).

There are three cases according to number of users: 2-user, 3-user, and 4-user then performance of these cases is estimated by measuring BER vs SNR. Also the effect of varying modulation scheme is evaluated in 2-user system by calculating BER [26].

IV. ORTHOGONAL SPACE-TIME BLOCK CODE

The generalized schemes are known as space-time block codes (STBCs). However, when using more than two transmit antennas, there are no complex-valued STBCs that offer both full diversity and full data rate. As a result, various code design methods have been developed that provide either full diversity or full data rate. The primary aim of STBCs is to achieve full diversity with low complexity. These codes are designed to maximize the diversity order based on the number of transmit and receive antennas, while ensuring the decoding algorithm remains simple and linear. This feature has made space-time block codes highly popular and widely adopted.

A sequence of *P* symbols $s_1, s_2, .., s_p$, that are elements of a specific constellation set such as phase shift keying (PSK) or quadrature amplitude modulation (QAM), are mapped into a $T \times N_t$ transmitted matrix X entries of which are the linear combinations of signal This mapping operation is referred to as space-time block encoding. Where T is number channel uses or block length. The symbol rate *R* is defined as *P/T* number of symbols per channel use If R equals one, the code defined a full-rate or rate-one code.[27]

The STBC mapping of symbols $[s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots \dots \dots, s_N]$ is arranging these symbols in a matrix $\boldsymbol{S}$ of dimension $nt \times N$:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} s_1^1 & s_2^1 & \dots & s_N^1 \\ s_1^2 & s_2^2 & \dots & s_N^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots \\ s_1^{n_t} & s_2^{n_t} & \dots & s_N^{n_t} \end{bmatrix}$$

The i^{th} row $[s_1^i, s_2^i, s_3^i, \dots \dots \dots, s_N^i]$ is the data sequence transmitted form the i^{th} transmit antenna and the j^{th} column $[s_j^1, s_j^2, s_j^3, \dots \dots \dots, s_j^{n_t}]$is the space-time symbol transmitted at time j, $1 \leq j \leq N$.

The STBC encoded streams are sent to the channel through the transmit antennas complex number h which is called the fade co-efficient arranged channel H matrix [28]:

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_{1,1} & h_{1,2} & \dots & h_{1,n_t} \\ h_{2,1} & h_{2,2} & \dots & h_{1,n_t} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots \\ h_{n_r,1} & h_{n_r,2} & \dots & h_{n_r,n_t} \end{bmatrix}$$

. Assuming *r* is the received signals matrix therefore it can be written matrix form:

$$r = S.H + n$$

Where *n* is the additive Gaussian noise signals matrix at the receiver antenna. Assuming fade coefficients h_{ij} ($0 < i <= N_r$) and ($0 < j <= N_t$) and for each corresponding path between transmitter j and receiver i, we have noise at each receiver $N_1, \dots, N_r$. Then the equation of i^{th} receiver signal as:

$$r_i = s_{i1}h_{i1} + s_{i2}h_{i2} + \dots + s_{iNt}hi_{Nt} + n_i$$

The orthogonal space-time block code for any number of transmits antennas *nt* at *N* transmission period, is described by a $nt \times N$ transmission matrix *S*, The code matrix *S in OSTBC should satisfies the orthonormality property* :

$$S^H S = \sum_{n=1}^{N} |s_n|^2 I$$

S^H represents the Hermitian (conjugate) transpose of , and *I* identity matrix [29].

he Alamouti scheme serves as the foundation for the Space-Time Coding technique, offering full diversity at full data rate. This scheme employs two transmit antennas and *M* receive antennas, resulting in a diversity order of 2*M*. In every two time intervals, two symbols are transmitted. These symbols are generated from the digital modulation of data source bits. The Alamouti space-time encoder takes the two modulated symbols to create an encoding matrix *S*, where symbols s_1 and s_2 are allocated to the two transmit antennas across two transmission time slots. The encoding matrix is expressed as follows: [30]:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 & s_2 \\ -s_2^* & s_1^* \end{bmatrix}$$

Assuming at the receiver 2 receive antennas receives r_1 and r_2 denoting the two received signals over the two consecutive symbol periods for time t and t+T. The scheme then follows the same pattern for all subsequent symbols, so that received signal can be represented by the equations

$$r_1(t) = h_{11}s_1 + h_{21}s_2 + n_1(t)$$
$$r_1(t+T) = -h_{11}s_2^* + h_{21}s_1^* + n_1(t+T)$$
$$r_2(t) = h_{12}s_1 + h_{22}s_2 + n_2(t)$$
$$r_2(t+T) = -h_{12}s_1^* + h_{22}s_1^* + n_2(t+T)$$

The TABLE 1 describes the sending structure of these samples:

TABLE 1. Signals encoding by Alamouti's Scheme

	Antenna 1	**Antenna 2**
Time t	s_1	s_2
Time t+T	$-s_2^*$	s_1^*

The decoder builds the following two signals that are sent to maximum likelihood detector:

$$\tilde{s_1} = h_1^* r_1 + h_2^* r_2$$
$$\tilde{s_2} = h_2^* r_1 - h_1^* r_2$$

At the receiver, the Alamouti decoder retrieves the transmitted data by estimating the channel coefficients and combining the received signals. FIGURE 5 illustrates a block diagram of a MIMO 2x2 system utilizing Alamouti's scheme [31].

MIMO-NOMA operates by superimposing signals from users and using successive interference cancellation (SIC) at the receiver. In a downlink scenario, a base station (BS) with multiple antennas serves multiple users. The signal received by each user can be expressed as:

$$Y = HX + N$$

where is the H channel matrix, X is the transmitted signal, and N is the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN).

OSTBC is employed to exploit spatial diversity in MIMO systems. The transmitted symbols are arranged into a space-time block matrix, ensuring full diversity gain without increasing bandwidth consumption. A commonly used OSTBC scheme, the Alamouti code for two transmit antennas, is given by:

$$S = \begin{matrix} s_1 & -s_2^* \\ s_2 & s_1^* \end{matrix}$$

V. OVERVIEW OF BCH CODES

BCH codes offer a robust method for error correction in digital communication systems. The encoding process involves constructing a generator polynomial and multiplying it with the message polynomial, while the decoding process utilizes syndrome calculations and error locator polynomials to identify and correct errors. Their flexibility and effectiveness make them a popular choice in various applications, such as in storage devices and communication protocols [32].

BCH codes are a class of cyclic error-correcting codes that can correct multiple random errors in a codeword. They are defined over finite fields, specifically $GF(2^m)$, where mmm is a positive integer. The parameters of a BCH code include:

- $n = 2^m - 1$: Codeword length
- *k*: Number of information bits
- *t*: Error-correcting capability (number of correctable errors)

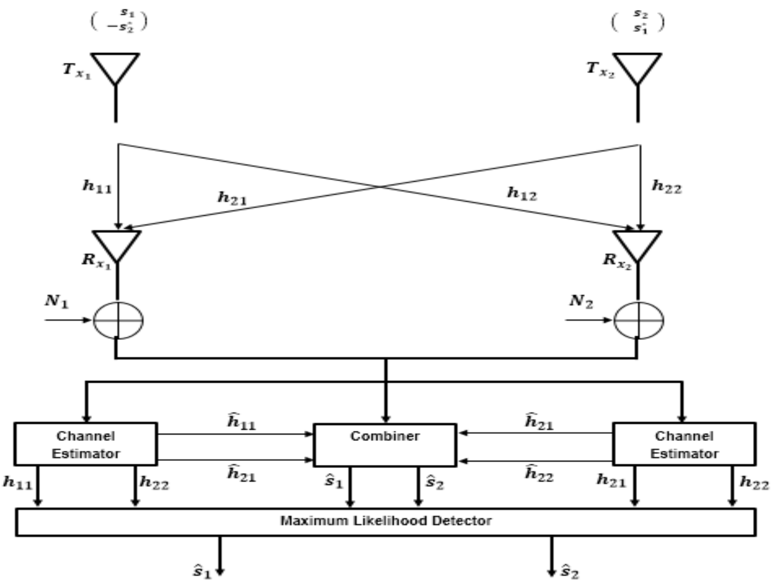

FIGURE. 5. MIMO 2x2 System using Alamouti's Scheme

A. Key Properties

- **Cyclic Code**: BCH codes are cyclic, meaning that any cyclic shift of a codeword is also a codeword.
- **Error Correction**: A BCH code can correct up to ttt errors in a codeword, where ttt is determined by the design of the code.

B. Encoding BCH Codes

1. **Define the Finite Field**:

   Choose a finite field $GF(2^m)$ and a primitive element α.

2. **Generator Polynomial**:

   Construct the generator polynomial $g(x)$ for the BCH code. The generator polynomial is given by:

   $g(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{t}(x - \alpha^i)$

   This polynomial has roots at the powers of the primitive element, corresponding to the error locations.

3. **Message Polynomial**:

   Represent the message as a polynomial $m(x)$ of degree less than k:

   $$m(x) = m_0 + m_1 x + m_2 x^2 + \ldots + m_{k-1} x^{k-1}$$

   Codeword Generation:

   Multiply the message polynomial $m(x)$ by the generator polynomial $g(x)$ to produce the codeword $c(x)$:

   $$c(x) = m(x). g(x)$$

   The final codeword is constructed by appending the appropriate number of zeros to $m(x)$.

C. Decoding BCH Codes

1. **Syndrome Calculation**:

Calculate the syndrome S_i for $i = 1,2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{t}$:

$$S_i = r(\alpha^i)$$

where $r(x)$ is the received polynomial. The syndrome indicates the presence of errors.

2. **Error Locator Polynomial**:

If any syndrome is non-zero, construct the error locator polynomial $E(x)$ using the syndromes. The Berlekamp-Massey algorithm can be applied here to find the error locator polynomial.

3. **Find Error Locations**:

   Determine the roots of the error locator polynomial to locate the positions of errors in the received codeword.

4. **Error Correction**:

Correct the errors in the received codeword based on the identified error locations.

For a NOMA system using BCH codes:

- **User Encoding**: Each user's data is encoded using BCH codes. This results in a codeword that is resilient to errors during transmission.
- **Power Allocation**: Users with worse channel conditions are allocated more power, and their encoded signals are superimposed.

At the receiver:

- **Received Signal**: The receiver gets the combined signal from all users.
- **SIC (Successive Interference Cancellation)**: The receiver applies SIC to separate the users' signals. Decoding starts with the user who has the strongest signal (allocated the most power), using BCH decoding techniques to correct any errors in the received codeword.
- **Improved Performance**: The use of BCH codes can significantly enhance the error-correcting capability of the NOMA system, especially in high-interference environments.
- **Flexibility**: BCH codes can be tailored to meet the specific requirements of different users based on their channel conditions.

Research is ongoing to explore the optimal design of BCH codes for NOMA, including:

- **Performance Analysis**: Evaluating how different BCH code parameters affect the overall system performance.
- **Hybrid Schemes**: Combining BCH with other coding techniques (e.g., LDPC or Turbo codes) to further improve error correction.

BCH codes are used to enhance the reliability of data transmission in NOMA systems. They can correct multiple random bit errors, which is crucial when signals from different users interfere with each other [33].

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In This study NOMA downlink technology is implemented using MATLAB program with both sides transmitting and receiving for two users. The transmitted signal by the BS can be generated, the two users signals data are encoded using BCH codes then the user signals are multiplexed then applying the modulation to the multiplexed signal, this signal is encoded using OSTBC encoder After transmit the superimposed signal through the channel. The multipath Rayleigh fading effect is considered to apply the MIMO channel on the NOMA system. In MIMO channel, two antennas for transmission and two antennas for receiving are used the received signal is combined by multiplying the channel fading coefficients by the user's signal and adding the gaussian noise.

The signal received at each user and be decoded using OSTBC decoder. With varying values of SNR the received signal will be decoded and the user signals are extracted using SIC. User 1 gets its original signal without implement SIC as, where, denotes signal detection including demodulation and channel decoding. User 2 gets its original signal after apply SIC to cancel the user1 signal. Then applying re-encoding and re-modulation for resulting signal to implement the SIC process. user2 these two recovered signals are decoded using BCH. FIGURE. 6. shows the block diagram of the system model.

A. Performance Analysis

Given number of samples =10^5, QPSK modulation system with M=4. The message signal for each user is assumed as random signal with same number of samples. Assuming $user_1$ is the farthest to the base station (BS) at a distance of 800 m, $user_2$ is at distance 400m from BS.

Then the power allocation values for each used is obtained according to its distance and calculated by dividing its distance squared by the sum of squares of the all users distance.

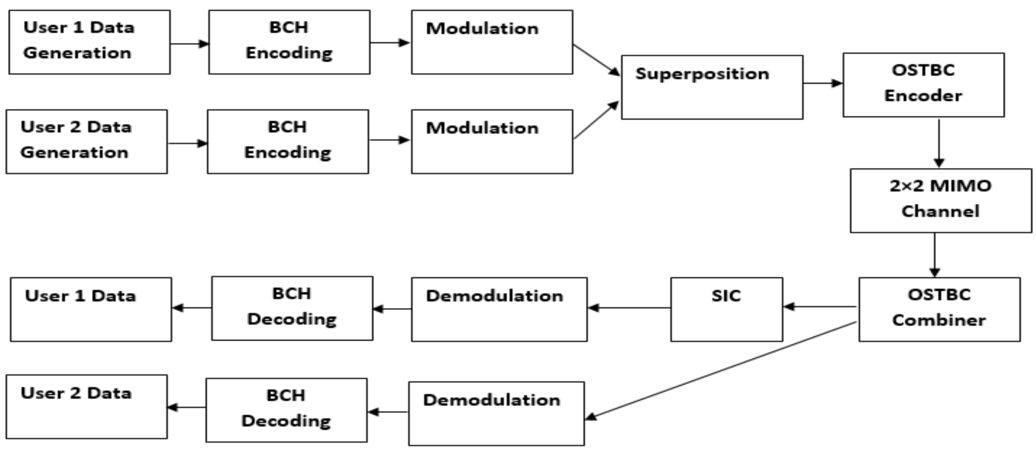

FIGURE. 6. Block diagram of the system model.

To evaluate the SIC performance the recovered signal is compared with the original signal for each user then the bit error rate is calculated for each SNR, the BCH code effect is also evaluated by comparing the result with the similar simulation but without applying BCH codes value and plotted as shown in FIGURE. 7.

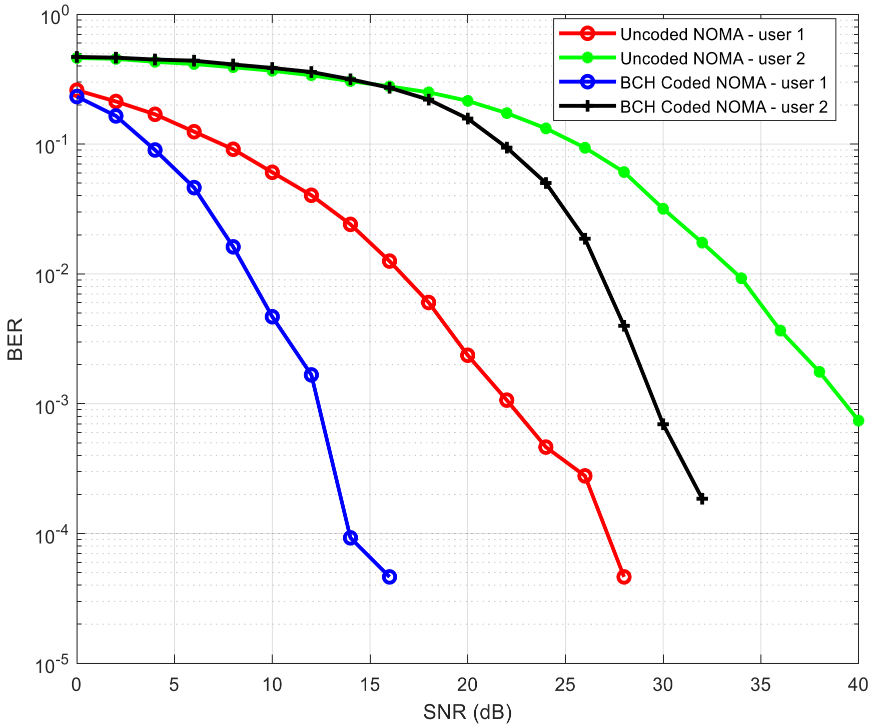

FIGURE. 7 BER performance of MIMO NOMA with BCH

From this figure it is clearly noticed that the bit error rate is decreased as SNR increased until reaches to zero.

FIGURE. 7, explains that the BER performance BCH coded MIMO is significantly better than uncoded MIMO NOMA for both users. The results show that the proposed MIMO NOMA system with OSTBC and BCH coding outperforms conventional systems in terms of both BER and spectral efficiency. The use of OSTBC provides diversity gain, while BCH codes ensure error correction capabilities.

B. Comparisons with Related Methods and Analysis

In this section, we compare the BER performance that achieved from the proposed method with the following state-of-the-art methods:

Superposition Coding and Successive Interference Cancellation (SIC (Ding, Z., Liu, Y., Chih-Lin, I. 2017): Simulations indicate that NOMA systems using superposition coding can achieve a BER reduction of approximately 30% compared to traditional orthogonal methods when optimal power allocation is applied.

Advanced SIC techniques have shown significant improvements in BER performance. For instance, in simulations with multiple users, systems employing partial SIC demonstrated a BER reduction of about 2-4 dB at a target BER of 10^{-3} compared to conventional SIC methods [34].

Hybrid Coding Techniques (Hao,Y. ,Zhang, J, 2019): Research comparing hybrid coding methods, such as combining Low-Density Parity-Check (LDPC) codes with polar codes, revealed substantial improvements in BER performance. Simulations indicated reductions of around 50% in BER at lower signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) [35].

Machine Learning Applications (Li, Y., Zhang, Y. 2020): Simulations utilizing machine learning algorithms for adaptive coding strategies have shown a reduction in BER of approximately 25% compared to static coding schemes. This adaptability allows for better performance under varying channel conditions [36].

Space-Time Coding (Khan, M. A., & Alouini, M. S. 2021): Newly designed space-time block codes tailored for NOMA have demonstrated improvements in BER performance, with simulations showing reductions of up to 3 dB in environments characterized by significant multipath fading [37].

In the proposed method the BER rate of NOMA system is significantly improved and the values reach to about 2×10^{-5} with SNR values higher than 15 dB.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a novel approach to enhancing MIMO NOMA systems through the integration of OSTBC and BCH codes. The findings indicate that this combination significantly improves the performance of wireless communication systems, addressing the challenges posed by increasing user demands and channel impairments. Integrating BCH codes in NOMA systems enhances the robustness of data transmission against errors caused by user interference.

VIII. FUTURE WORK

This study can be extended with different techniques in NOMA systems such as:

• Relay selection (RS) on the performance of cooperative NOMA

• Simultaneous wireless information and power transfer (SWIPT) in order to enhance energy consumption

• NOMA schemes based on polar codes in order to enhance the bit error rate.

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