

# LDPC (BITSYNC) PROJECT

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NITHIN | AAYUSH | SAIRAM



# INTRODUCTION TO LDPC CODES

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- LDPC: Low-Density Parity-Check Codes
- Invented by Robert Gallager in the 1960s
- Inspired by limitations in Hamming Codes
- Sparse parity-check matrix allows scalable error correction
- Initially impractical due to decoding complexity; revived with modern computing

# WHY LDPC?

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- Why LDPC?
- Efficient error correction near Shannon limit
- Sparse matrices reduce computational load
- Applicable to large-scale data (e.g., satellite, 5G, storage)
- Better performance than traditional block codes

# WHAT IS LDPC?

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- The density of a source of random bits is the expected fraction of bits
- A source is sparse if its density is less than 0.5
- The overlap between 2 codechunks is the number of 1's common between them.

# MATH BEHIND LDPC CODES – PART 2

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- Low density parity check (LDPC) codes are codes specified by a parity check matrix  $H$  containing mostly 0's and only small number of 1's.
- Valid codewords satisfy:  $H \times x^t = 0$  (MA2101)
- A regular LDPC is code of blocklength  $n$  with a  $m \times n$  parity check matrix where each column contains a small fixed number,  $w_c \geq 3$  and the row contains  $w_r \geq 1$ .
- $w_c \geq 3$  ensures error detectability and propagation

# MATH BEHIND LDPC CODES – PART 3

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- Each parity check constraint involves  $w_r$  codebits and each codebit has  $w_c$  constraints.
- Low density implies that  $w_c \ll m$  and  $w_r \ll n$
- Always take care of H.  $w_c \cdot n = w_r \cdot m$
- $m \geq n - k$ ,  $R = 1 - (m/n)$ .  $w_r > w_c$ .



# TANNER GRAPH

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- Bipartite graph : Can divided into 2 classes with no edge connecting the nodes of the same class.
- One of the class is the variable nodes and the other is the check nodes.
- A edge connects the variable node only if that bit is included in the parity check equation

# GIRTHS AND CYCLES

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- Cycle = closed path in Tanner graph
- Girth = length of smallest cycle
- Short cycles (e.g., 4) reduce decoding performance
- Design goals: maximize girth



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- Let  $n$  be the transmitted block length of an info seq of length  $k$  and  $m$  is the number of parity check eqns.
  - Construct  $m \times n$  matrix with  $w_c$  1's per col and  $w_r$  1's per row.
  - Divide the matrix into  $w_c$  ( $m/w_c \times n$ ) matrices each containing single 1 in each col
  - Now permute the cols.

# BLOCK CODES

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|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

|   |   |
|---|---|
| 3 | 3 |
|---|---|

## Schematic Illustration of Regular Gallager Codes

*Notation: An integer represents a number of permutation matrices superposed on the surrounding square.*

| Column Weight | Fraction of columns | Row weight | Fraction |
|---------------|---------------------|------------|----------|
| 3             | 1                   | 6          | 1        |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

Example of a regular low density code matrix;  $n = 20$ ,  $w_c = 3$ ,  
 $w_r = 4$

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- For an **irregular** low-density parity-check code the degrees of each set of nodes are chosen according to some distribution.
  - A degree distribution  $\gamma(x) = \sum_i \gamma_i x^{i-1}$  is simply a polynomial with nonnegative real coefficients satisfying  $\gamma(1) = 1$ .
  - An irregular low-density code is a code of block-length  $N$  with a sparse parity check matrix where column distribution  $\lambda(x)$  and row distribution  $\rho(x)$  is respectively given by

$$\lambda(x) = \sum_{i \geq 1} \lambda_i x^{i-1}$$

$$\rho(x) = \sum_{i \geq 1} \rho_i x^{i-1}$$

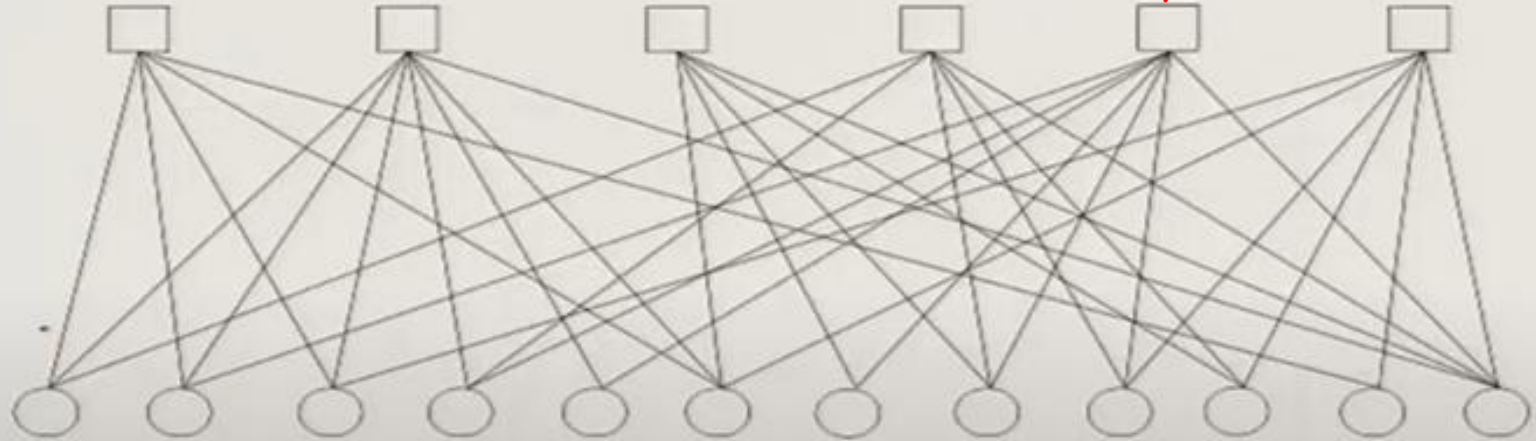


3    ~~||||~~ ||

2    |||

4    |

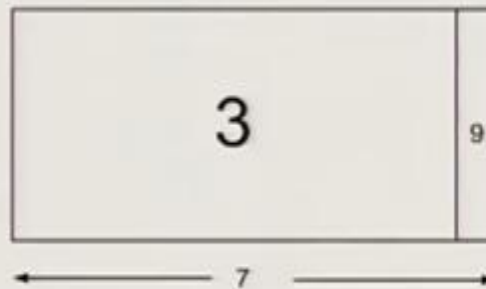
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$$\lambda(x) = \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{7}{12}x^2 + \frac{1}{12}x^3 + \frac{1}{12}x^4$$

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^4 + \frac{1}{3}x^5 + \frac{1}{3}x^6$$

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- Now generate the asked thing....



*Notation: integers "3" and "9" represent the column weights.*

| Column Weight | Fraction of columns | Row weight | Fraction |
|---------------|---------------------|------------|----------|
| 3             | 11/12               | 7          | 1        |
| 9             | 1/12                |            |          |



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|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |

*Notation: An integer represents a number of permutation matrices superposed on the surrounding square. Horizontal and vertical lines indicate the boundaries of the permutation blocks.*

| Column Weight | Fraction of columns | Row weight | Fraction |
|---------------|---------------------|------------|----------|
| 3             | 11/12               | 7          | 1        |
| 9             | 1/12                |            |          |

# DECODING METHODS

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- Decoding Methods
- Hard Decision: Bit-Flip decoding
- Soft Decision: Belief Propagation (BP)
- Choice depends on application complexity and error rate

# BIT FLIP METHOD

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- Bit Flip Method
- Simple iterative algorithm
- Flip bit if involved in more unsatisfied than satisfied checks
- Fast but less accurate than BP

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- The set of bits contained in a parity-check equation constitutes a **parity check set**.
  - **Parity check set tree** is a representation of parity check set in a tree structure.
    - An arbitrary bit  $d$  is represented by the node of the base of the tree.
    - Each line rising from this node represents one of the parity-check sets containing  $d$ .
    - The other nodes bits in these parity-check sets are represented by the nodes on the first tier of the tree.





Example 1: Single transmission error case

Transmitted bits= {0,0,0,0,0,0,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0}

Received bits={1,0,0,0,0,0,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0}

- The first bit is received in error.



# BELIEF PROPAGATION METHOD

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- Belief Propagation Method
- Iterative probabilistic message passing
- Uses soft information (log-likelihood ratios)
- Converges to most likely codeword under noise

# BELIEF UPDATE AND DECISION MAKING

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- Belief Update and Decision Making
- $\text{Update} = \text{Channel LLR} + \text{Sum of incoming check messages}$
- If  $\text{belief} > 0 \rightarrow \text{decide } 0$ ; if  $< 0 \rightarrow \text{decide } 1$
- Iterations continue until syndrome = 0 or max loops reached

# MATH BEHIND BELIEF PROPAGATION

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- Math Behind Belief Propagation
- Messages use the Box-Plus operator for combining LLRs
- $m(V \rightarrow C) = \text{LLR} + \text{sum of other incoming check messages}$
- Sums and products done over log-domain to maintain numerical stability

# SYNDROME CHECK AND DECODE COMPLETION

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- Syndrome Check and Decode Completion
- Check if  $H \times x^t = 0$  after each iteration
- If satisfied  $\rightarrow$  decoding success
- Else  $\rightarrow$  continue or declare decoding failure

# MACKAY'S IRREGULAR GALLAGER METHOD

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- MacKay's Irregular Gallager Method
- Allows variable and check node degrees to vary
- Improves convergence and decoding success rates
- Adapted to optimize performance for specific channels

# ADVANTAGES

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- Math Behind Irregular Advantages – Part I
- Irregular graphs have better error-floor properties
- High-degree nodes provide strong influence early in decoding
- Performance studied via density evolution



# ADVANTAGES

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- Math Behind Irregular Advantages – Part 2
- EXIT charts visualize iterative decoding thresholds
- Optimization of degree distribution using linear programming
- Better approximation to Shannon capacity

# APPLICATIONS OF LDPC

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- Applications of LDPC
- Wi-Fi (802.11n/ac/ax)
- 5G NR (physical layer)
- Satellite communication (DVB-S2)
- Solid-state drives (error correction)
- Deep-space telemetry (NASA missions)

# CONCLUSION

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- Conclusion
- LDPC codes are powerful, capacity-approaching error correction tools
- Belief Propagation leverages graphical structure for decoding
- Irregular structures enhance flexibility and performance
- Key technology in modern digital communication