# A Branch-and-Cut Algorithm for a Bipartite Graph Construction Problem in Digital Communication Systems

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We study a bipartite graph (BG) construction problem that arises in digital communication systems. In a digital communication system, information is sent from one place to another over a noisy communication channel using binary symbols (bits). The original information is encoded by adding redundant bits, which are then used to detect and correct errors that may have been introduced during transmission. Harmful structures, such as small cycles, severely deteriorate the error correction capability of a BG. We introduce an integer programming formulation to generate a BG for a given smallest cycle length. We propose a branch-and-cut algorithm for its solution and investigate the structural properties of the problem to derive valid inequalities and variable fixing rules. We also introduce heuristics to obtain feasible solutions for the problem. The computational experiments show that our algorithm can generate BGs without small cycles in an acceptable amount of time for practically relevant dimensions.

**Keywords:** Telecommunications, bipartite graphs, integer programming, branchand-cut algorithm.

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## 1 Introduction and Literature Review

Telecommunication is the transmission of messages from a transmitter to a receiver over a potentially unreliable communication environment. In a digital communication system, any information is represented by binary code symbols (*bits*). In parallel to rapid developments in technology, digital communication systems have several application areas such as messaging via digital cellular phones, fiber optic Internet, TV broadcasting, and agricultural monitoring through digital satellites. Information is often transmitted across noisy environments such as air or space, which may introduce transmission errors. In digital communications, the original information is encoded by adding redundant bits to enable error recovery. When the receiver obtains the information, the decoder estimates the original information by detecting and correcting errors in the received vector using the redundant bits.

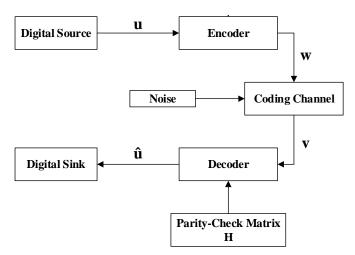


Figure 1: Digital communication system diagram

Figure 1 shows the information flow in a digital communication system using low-density parity-check (LDPC) codes. Let the original information be a binary vector  $\mathbf{u}$  of k-bits. The encoder adds redundant parity-check bits to vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , generating codeword  $\mathbf{w}$  of n-bits, where  $n \geq k$ . After the transmission of codeword  $\mathbf{w}$  through a noisy channel, the receiver receives vector  $\mathbf{v}$  of n-bits. The decoder detects whether the received vector  $\mathbf{v}$  includes errors or not by checking whether the expression  $\mathbf{vH}^{\mathrm{T}}$  is equal to vector  $\mathbf{0}$  in (mod 2), where  $\mathbf{H}$  is a binary matrix known as parity-check matrix (see Figure 2). In case where  $\mathbf{v}$  contains errors, the decoder attempts to determine the error locations and tries to fix them [11]. As a result, the information  $\mathbf{u}$  sent from the source is estimated as  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  at the sink.

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 2: A parity-check matrix from (3, 6)-regular LDPC code family

An LDPC code is identified by its **H** matrix, and said to be *regular* if there is a constant number of ones at each column and row of the **H** matrix. The **H** matrix given in Figure 2 represents a (3,6)-regular code since there are 3 ones at each column and 6 ones at each row. The code can alternatively be represented as a bipartite graph (BG) corresponding to the **H** matrix [28]. On one part of the BG, there is a variable node j ( $v_j$ ),  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , for each bit of the received vector **v**. Each row of the **H** matrix corresponds to a check node i( $c_i$ ),  $i \in \{1, ..., n - k\}$ , on the other part of the BG. The *degree* of  $v_j$  ( $c_i$ ) is the number of adjacent check nodes (variable nodes) on the BG. Hence, the **H** matrix is the bi-adjacency matrix of the BG. A check node  $c_i$  is *satisfied* if the sum of the adjacent bits is zero in (mod 2). Figure 3 shows the BG representation of the **H** matrix given in Figure 2.

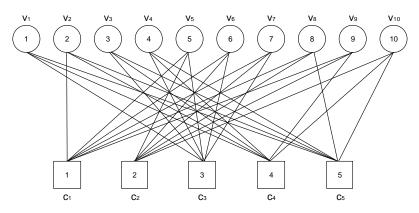


Figure 3: BG representation of the parity-check matrix given in Figure 2

The sparsity property of LDPC codes facilitates the usage of iterative decoding algorithms (such as Gallager A) with low complexity [10, 33]. We demonstrate the Gallager A algorithm under a binary symmetric channel (BSC) in Figure 4. In case of an error BSC flips the value of a bit from 0 to 1, and vice versa. Assuming that the decoder has received codeword  $\mathbf{w} = (1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0)$  as vector  $\mathbf{v} = (0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1)$ , Gallager A sends these bits to the check nodes to evaluate the parity-check equations (Figure 4a). We observe that  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  are satisfied whereas  $c_1$  is not. Then, each check node conveys the information of whether it is satisfied (S) or unsatisfied (U) to the adjacent variable nodes.

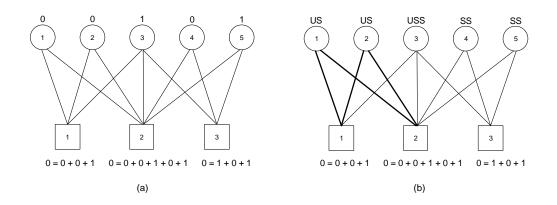


Figure 4: An iteration of Gallager A algorithm

Among the variable nodes that have more unsatisfied adjacent check nodes than satisfied nodes, Gallager A flips the value of the node  $v_j$  having the highest number of unsatisfied adjacent check nodes. The message passing between the variable and check nodes continues until all check nodes are satisfied (a codeword is found), or a termination criterion (such as iteration limit or no candidate bit to flip) is met. In Figure 4b, notice that all of the adjacent check nodes of erroneously received bits  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are in the length-4 cycle ( $v_1$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $c_2$ ). Gallager A fails to recover the bits  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , since the number of satisfied check nodes equals the number of unsatisfied nodes. Hence, Gallager A terminates with the vector  $\mathbf{v} = (0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1)$ due to the nonpresence of a candidate bit to flip. The resulting vector is not a codeword as  $c_1$ is not satisfied.

As we illustrate in Figure 4, the error correction capability of iterative decoding algorithms (such as Gallager A) deteriorates due to cycles in the BG. If there is no iteration limit, an iterative decoding algorithm may loop indefinitely among vectors in the presence of small cycles [24]. The length of a smallest cycle in a graph is known as *girth* [13]. In this study, we focus on designing regular LDPC codes whose BGs do not contain small cycles. In particular, we aim to construct a BG having girth no smaller than a given target girth value g.

In practice, an LDPC code is printed on the board of an electronical device to carry out digital communication. Regular LDPC codes have the advantage of easy hardware implementation compared to irregular ones. As given in Figure 4, the information is decoded in packets of length n, and the complexity of an iterative decoding algorithm depends on the degrees J and K. In order to minimize the decoding latency, LDPC codes having small (m, n) dimensions and small (J, K) values are preferable. Hence, determining the minimum (m, n) dimensions when girth g and (J, K) degrees are given is one of the focal points of this work. The literature includes studies on the girth of a graph and constructing high girth graphs. [32] investigates the theoretical properties of graphs with large girth. The linear time algorithm of [9] computes the girth of a planar graph. [25] develops an approximation algorithm for the minimum weight cycle in a weighted undirected graph. This algorithm is used to approximate the girth of a graph. Some families of small regular graphs of girth 5 are described in [1]. Small regular BGs of girth 6 can be constructed with the method given in [3]. [16] focuses on the r-regular graphs with large girth and provides upper and lower bounds on the size of maximum independent sets, maximum dominating sets, and minimum connected sets.

[8] describes a high girth graph construction algorithm that starts from the empty graph. The bit-filling heuristic starts with a large girth target and decreases its target as it inserts edges to BG one-by-one [7]. The heuristic terminates when a prescribed girth is met. The Progressive Edge Growth (PEG) heuristic is based on adding edges to the BG iteratively without constructing small cycles [18]. In [21] certain edges are exchanged within the BG to eliminate small cycles without creating any others. In the edge deletion algorithm an edge that commonly appears in the maximum number of cycles is selected [4]. In [15] the selection criteria of the PEG algorithm to locate an edge in a BG is modified in order to have a better girth value than PEG. There are other constructive heuristics in the literature that avoid small cycles [5, 19]. A genetic algorithm to design a BG with a small number of nodes is given in [6]. In [26] a modified shortest-path algorithm is used to construct a BG.

These methods are heuristic approaches and they change the degree distribution of the nodes in the BG. Furthermore, they may fail to generate a BG for a given dimension with a target girth value. In this study, we investigate the BG construction problem from an optimization point of view. Our main contributions to the literature can be listed as follows:

- We propose an integer programming (IP) formulation to generate BGs with a given girth value and develop a branch-and-cut (B&C) algorithm for its solution. To the best of our knowledge, our paper is the first work that implements optimization algorithms on an IP model for the BG (or LDPC code) design problem.
- We propose methods that are capable of finding a BG for a given girth value, or proving that there cannot be such a BG.
- We investigate the structural properties of the problem for (J, K)-regular BGs to improve our algorithm by applying a variable fixing scheme, adding valid inequalities and uti-

lizing initial solution generation heuristics. The computational results indicate that our proposed methods significantly improve the solvability of the problem.

• We discuss how our method can be used to find the smallest dimension n that one can generate a (J, K)-regular BG.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: we formally define the problem, and introduce the mathematical formulation and the proposed B&C algorithm in the next section. We propose a number of techniques to improve the performance of the B&C algorithm in Section 3. We test the efficacy of our methods via computational experiments in Section 4. Finally, some concluding remarks and comments on future work appear in Section 5.

## 2 Solution Methods

In this section, we introduce our integer programming formulation and propose a B&C algorithm for the solution of the problem. We investigate additional methods to improve the performance of our B&C algorithm. We summarize the symbols used in this paper in Table 1.

	Table 1: List of the symbols
	Parameters
н	parity-check matrix
k	length of the original information
n	length of the encoded information, number of columns in ${\bf H}$
m	n-k, number of rows in <b>H</b>
g	target girth
$v_{j}$	variable node $j$
$c_i$	check node $i$
$d(v_j)$	target degree of $v_j$
$d(c_i)$	target degree of $c_i$
$\rho(i,j)$	local girth of edge $\{c_i, v_j\}$
	Decision Variables
$x_{ij}$	(i,j) entry of the <b>H</b> matrix
$s_j$	slack for degree of $v_j$
$t_i$	slack for degree of $c_i$

Table 1: List of the symbols

#### 2.1 Mathematical Formulation

In our Minimum Degree Deviation (MDD) model, our aim is to generate an **H** matrix (a BG) of dimensions (m, n), where m = n - k, having girth no smaller than a given value g. In the MDD model,  $x_{ij}$  represents the (i, j) entry of the **H** matrix. We are given the target degree distributions  $d(v_i)$  and  $d(c_i)$  in the BG for the nodes  $v_j$  and  $c_i$ , respectively. The degree

deviation  $s_j$  of the node  $v_j$  from the target  $d(v_j)$  is modeled with the constraints (2). Similarly, the constraints (3) introduce the deviation  $t_i$  of the node  $c_i$  from the target  $d(c_i)$ . In the constraints (4),  $K_{m,n}$  represents a complete bipartite graph with bipartitions  $C = \{c_1, ..., c_m\}$ and  $V = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ . These constraints eliminate the cycles with length less than the target girth g from the solution space. The objective function (1) minimizes the total weighted degree deviations from the given degree distributions.

#### Minimum Degree Deviation (MDD) Model:

$$\min \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{s_j}{d(v_j)} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{t_i}{d(c_i)} \tag{1}$$

s.t.: 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{ij} + s_j = d(v_j), \ j = 1, ..., n$$
(2)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij} + t_i = d(c_i), \ i = 1, ..., m$$
(3)

$$\sum_{(i,j):\{c_i,v_j\}\in S} x_{ij} \le |S| - 1, \text{ for each cycle } S \subseteq E(K_{m,n}): |S| < g$$

$$\tag{4}$$

$$x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}, \ i = 1, ..., m, \ j = 1, ..., n.$$
 (5)

$$s_j, t_i \ge 0, \ i = 1, ..., m, \ j = 1, ..., n.$$
 (6)

As we discussed in Section 1, an iterative decoder (such as Gallager A) decides on the value of a bit using the messages among the check and variable nodes. The decoder's decision is more reliable if it collects messages from as many nodes as possible. In other words, the degree deviation of a node having a smaller target degree is more important in terms of the error correction capability of a code. Hence, the weight of a degree deviation  $(s_j \text{ or } t_i)$  is inversely proportional to the target degree  $(d(v_j) \text{ or } d(c_i))$  in the objective function (1) of our MDD model.

Note that if all deviations  $s_j$  and  $t_i$  are zero in MDD, i.e., the value of the objective function is zero, one obtains a BG with the target degree distributions and the girth is no smaller than g. As a special case, one can generate a (J, K)-regular **H** matrix by picking  $d(v_j) = J$  for all j, and  $d(c_i) = K$  for all i. Since there can be an exponential number of cycles in a BG, we can have exponential number of the constraints (4) in the MDD model. In order to obtain a solution in an acceptable amount of time, we can add the constraints (4) in a cutting-plane fashion to MDD. This is the main idea behind our B&C algorithm explained in the next section.

#### 2.2 Branch-and-Cut (B&C) Algorithm

In our B&C algorithm, we are given a target girth value g, and the dimensions (m, n) of **H** matrix. We initialize our algorithm by relaxing the constraints (4) from MDD, to obtain the relaxed model MDD<sup>r</sup>. We can find either an integral or a fractional solution after solving MDD<sup>r</sup>. We test the feasibility of an integral solution x of MDD<sup>r</sup> with respect to the relaxed constraints (4) by our integral solution separation (IntSep) algorithm. Let  $G_x = (V \cup C, E_x)$  be the induced BG by the nonzero  $x_{ij}$  values. IntSep first constructs the graph  $G_x$  of an integral solution x, and implements a depth-first-search (DFS) up to depth (g-2) to detect all cycles smaller than g. The complexity of the IntSep algorithm is determined by the number of nodes in the DFS tree, and can be given as  $\mathcal{O}(\bar{J}[(\bar{J}-1)(\bar{K}-1)]^{g/2})$ , where  $\bar{J} = \max_{v_j \in V} \{d(v_j)\}$  and  $\bar{K} = \max_{c_i \in C} \{d(c_i)\}$ .

We can strengthen the linear relaxation of MDD by separating a fractional solution x of  $MDD^r$  that violates the constraints (4). We can detect all cycles that violate the constraints (4) by implementing DFS up to depth (g - 2) in the induced graph  $G_x$  by the nonzero  $x_{ij}$  values as in *IntSep*. However, the number of nonzero  $x_{ij}$  values can be mn for a fractional x, whereas it is at most  $\bar{J}\bar{K}$  in *IntSep*. Hence, determining all violating cycles for a fractional solution has complexity  $\mathcal{O}(m[(m-1)(n-1)]^{g/2})$ . Instead, our *FracSep* algorithm finds the maximum mean cost cycle on  $G_x$  to find some of the cycles that violate the constraints (4) with lower complexity.

The minimum mean cost cycle problem, which is a special case of the minimum cost-to-time ratio cycle problem, is a well known network problem in the literature and there is a polynomial time solution algorithm that solves it in directed graphs [2, 12, 22]. The problem aims to find a directed cycle S having the smallest mean cost  $\sum_{(c_i, v_j) \in S} x_{ij}/|S|$  in a directed graph. However, we cannot implement this algorithm directly since we seek an undirected BG. Instead, we update the best known mean cost by utilizing a negative cycle detection algorithm repeatedly. Recall that the Bellman-Ford algorithm can detect negative cycles while searching for one-tomany shortest paths in directed graphs. The Bellman-Ford algorithm is also applicable for the undirected induced  $G_x$  in  $\mathcal{O}((m+n)|E_x|)$  time if for an edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  the algorithm updates the distance label of node  $v_j$  when it is not the predecessor of node  $c_i$  [2]. If the algorithm detects a negative cycle, we can track the predecessor list to identify the cycle. In our *FracSep* algorithm we use the undirected Bellman-Ford algorithm to detect negative cycles within a mean cost update method. We first set edge costs as  $-x_{ij}$  to convert our maximization problem to a minimization problem. Let  $\mu$  represent an estimation on the minimum mean cost and  $\mu^*$  denote the (unknown) optimal value of  $\mu$ . Then, given a  $\mu$  value, we update the edge costs to  $(-x_{ij} - \mu)$  and check for the existence of a negative cycle. If we start with a  $\mu$  that is an upper bound for  $\mu^*$ , we can encounter one of the following cases for  $\mu^*$ .

**Case 1:** G has a negative cycle S. In this case,  $\sum_{\{c_i, v_i\} \in S} (-x_{ij} - \mu) < 0$ . Therefore,

$$\mu > -\frac{\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S} x_{ij}}{|S|} > \mu^*.$$
(7)

Hence,  $\mu$  is a strict upper bound on  $\mu^*$ . We can update  $\mu$  as  $\mu = -\frac{\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S} x_{ij}}{|S|}$  in the next iteration.

**Case 2:** G has a zero-cost cycle S<sup>\*</sup>. In this case,  $\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S^*} (-x_{ij} - \mu) = 0$ . This implies,

$$\mu = -\frac{\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S^*} x_{ij}}{|S^*|} = \mu^*.$$
(8)

Hence,  $\mu = \mu^*$ , and  $S^*$  is a minimum mean cost cycle. *FracSep* concludes that  $\mu = \mu^*$  if  $|\mu - \mu^*| < \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a given very small positive real number.

<b>Input:</b> A solution of $MDD^r$ with fractional $x_{ij}$ values, $g$ target girth										
1. Let $\mu = 0$ , set cost of the edge $\{c_i, v_j\}$ as $(-x_{ij} - \mu)$ .										
2. While we can detect a negative cycle $S$ with the undirected Bellman-Ford,										
3. If $ S  < g$ and S violates (4), Then add the corresponding cut (4).										
4. Update $\mu \leftarrow -\frac{\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S} x_{ij}}{ S }$										
5. End While										
<b>Output:</b> Cuts added to $MDD^r$ model										

Figure 5: Fractional solution separation (*FracSep*) algorithm

FracSep in Figure 5 summarizes our fractional solution separation algorithm. We initially set  $\mu = 0$ , since it is an upper bound on  $\mu^*$ . If we can find a violating negative cycle with length |S| < g, we can add a cut to MDD<sup>r</sup>. This means that S is a cycle with  $\sum_{\{c_i, v_j\} \in S} x_{ij} > |S| - 1$ . We continue updating  $\mu$  values until we find a minimum mean cycle. The time complexity of FracSep is  $\mathcal{O}(\log(1/\epsilon)(m+n)|E_x|)$ .

## **3** Modeling and Algorithmic Improvements

In this section, we propose some improvements to the B&C algorithm given in the previous section. We first observe that the solution space of MDD includes symmetric solutions. Hence, we consider a variable fixing approach to decrease the adverse effect of symmetry. Secondly, we introduce some valid inequalities to improve the linear relaxation of MDD. Finally, we develop heuristic approaches to provide an initial feasible solution to the B&C algorithm.

### 3.1 Symmetry in the MDD Solution Space

In combinatorial optimization problems, such as scheduling, symmetry among the solutions is an important issue, which directly affects the performance of the applied solution methods [14, 27]. We observe that the feasible region of MDD contains symmetric solutions. That is, there can be isomorphic representations of a BG obtained by permuting the variable and check nodes. As an example, the variable nodes are in the sequence  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$  in Figure 6a, and the names of  $v_2$  and  $v_4$  are swapped in Figure 6b.

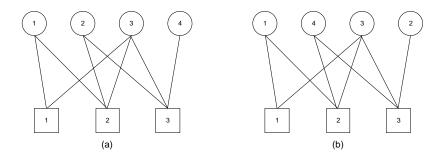


Figure 6: Symmetry in the MDD solution space

In Figure 7,  $\mathbf{H_1}$  and  $\mathbf{H_2}$  are the parity-check matrices for the BGs in Figures 6a and 6b, respectively. We see that although the BGs are isomorphic, their **H** matrix representations are not identical. In the MDD solution space,  $\mathbf{H_1}$  and  $\mathbf{H_2}$  are considered as two different solutions, which increases the complexity of the solution algorithm.

$$\mathbf{H_1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{H_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 7: Parity-check matrices for the BGs in Figure 6

We can calculate the number of symmetric solutions for a BG as (n!)(m!), since we can permute *n* variable nodes as (n!) and *m* check nodes in (m!) different ways.

#### 3.2 Symmetry Breaking with Variable Fixing

In the literature ordering the decision variables, adding symmetry-breaking cuts to the formulation, and reformulating the problem are some of the suggested techniques to eliminate symmetric solutions from the feasible region [27, 20]. In our case, we propose a variable fixing scheme (given as *VarFix* in Figure 8) for the nonzero  $x_{ij}$  entries of a (J, K)-regular **H** matrix, which breaks symmetry and does not affect the girth g of the BG.

<b>Input:</b> $(m, n)$ dimensions, $(J, K)$ values
0. Let $r_{cr} = \lfloor (n-1)/(K-1) \rfloor$ , and $c_{cr} = \lfloor (m-1)/(J-1) \rfloor$ .
For $i = 1,, r_{cr}, j = 1,, n$ , set $x_{ij} = 0$ .
For $i = r_{cr} + 1,, m, j = 1,, c_{cr}$ , set $x_{ij} = 0$ .
Set $x_{11} = 1$ .
1. For $i = 1,, r_{cr} + 1, j = 1,, K - 1$ ,
2. If $1 + (i-1)(K-1) + j \le n$ , Then set $x_{i,1+(i-1)(K-1)+j} = 1$ .
3. End For
4. For $i = 1,, J - 1, j = 1,, c_{cr} + 1$ ,
5. If $1 + (j-1)(J-1) + i \le m$ , Then set $x_{1+(j-1)(J-1)+i,j} = 1$ .
6. End For
<b>Output:</b> Some $x_{ij}$ values are fixed

Figure 8: Variable fixing (VarFix) algorithm

VarFix algorithm starts with a matrix whose entries are initially zero. In the first iteration, VarFix constructs the  $\mathbf{H}^1$  matrix by fixing the first K entries in the first row and the first Jentries in the first column to 1. The remaining entries in the first row and column are set to 0, since the constraints (2) for j = 1, and the constraints (3) for i = 1 are satisfied without deviation, i.e.,  $s_1 = t_1 = 0$ . For a nonzero entry (i, j) of an  $\mathbf{H}$  matrix, the local girth  $\rho(i, j)$  is the size of the smallest cycle including the edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  in the BG [18]. In the second iteration, we temporarily assume that  $x_{ij} = 1$  for each unfixed (i, j) entry, and determine  $\rho(i, j)$  by carrying out a breadth-first-search (BFS) on  $\mathbf{H}^1$  starting from node  $v_j$  (see Figure 12 in Section 3.3 for  $\rho(i, j)$  values when J = 3 and K = 6). We obtain  $\mathbf{H}^2$  by permanently fixing the first (K-1) entries in the second row, and the first (J-1) entires in the second column that have  $\rho(i, j) = \infty$  (no cycle is formed) to 1. VarFix generates  $\mathbf{H}^{\gamma}$  in the  $\gamma th$  iteration, and alternates between the rows and columns as allowed by the dimensions (m, n).

We illustrate VarFix in Figure 9 for a (3,6)-regular BG of dimensions (20,40). In Figure 9, the labels on the rows and columns show the sum of the values in that row and column, respectively. We observe that for  $r_{cr} = \lfloor (n-1)/(K-1) \rfloor$  many rows, the sum is equal to 6, and  $c_{cr} = \lfloor (m-1)/(J-1) \rfloor$  many columns, the sum is equal to 3. Hence, for  $c_{cr}$ -columns the

		$c_{cr}$
		33333333321111111111111111111111111111
	6	r1111110000000000000000000000000000000
	6	100000111110000000000000000000000000000
	6	100000000011111000000000000000000000000
	6	010000000000001111100000000000000000000
	6	010000000000000000011111000000000000000
	6	001000000000000000000000011111000000000
$r_{cr}$	6	001000000000000000000000000000000000000
	5	000100000
	1	000100000
	1	000010000
	1	000010000
	1	000001000
	1	000001000
	1	000000100
	1	000000100
	1	000000010
	1	00000010
	1	000000001
	1	000000001
	1	0000000001

Figure 9: VarFix on a (3, 6)-regular **H** matrix of dimensions (20, 40)

constraints (2), and for  $r_{cr}$ -rows the constraints (3) are satisfied without deviation. We are left with a reduced rectangle of size  $(m - r_{cr}) \times (n - c_{cr})$ , which includes the unfixed  $x_{ij}$  variables shown as dots. VarFix in Figure 8 runs in  $\mathcal{O}(nc_{cr})$  time. VarFix also helps to improve the error correction capability of a decoder since there is at least one neighboring check node for each variable node to control the correctness of the bit.

**Proposition 1.** For given (m, n) dimensions, let F be the set of nonzero entries fixed by VarFix. As in Figure 10, let R be the reduced rectangle of size  $(m - r_{cr}) \times (n - c_{cr})$  and  $R \bigcup Q$  be the region between the entries in F. Let  $\rho(i, j)$  be the local girth of the entry (i, j) when  $x_{ij} = 1$ , and  $\tau = \max_{(i,j)\in Q} \{\rho(i,j)\}$ . Then, for any (J,K)-regular  $\mathbf{H}$  of dimensions (m,n) with girth  $g > \tau$ , the rows and columns can be reordered such that all nonzero entries are in F and R (see Appendix for the proof).

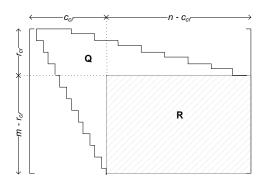


Figure 10: Reordered (J, K)-regular **H** matrix with girth  $g > \tau$ 

In Proposition 1, we show that any (J, K)-regular **H** matrix of dimensions (m, n) that has sufficiently large girth g can be expressed as in Figure 10 by reordering its rows and columns. Hence, fixing the entries with *VarFix* does not eliminate any regular codes from the solution space.

Some characteristics of the cycles in a BG can be visualized by considering the BG given in Figure 6a and the corresponding matrix  $\mathbf{H}_1$  in Figure 7. It can be seen that  $S_1 = (v_1, c_1, v_3, c_2)$ and  $S_2 = (c_1, v_1, c_2, v_2, c_3, v_3)$  are two cycles in the BG in Figure 6a. Figures 11a and 11b visualize cycles  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  on  $\mathbf{H}_1$ , respectively.

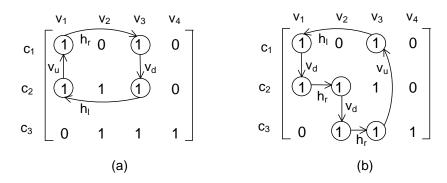


Figure 11: Cycles  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  on  $\mathbf{H_1}$ 

We observe that a cycle is an alternating sequence of horizontal and vertical movements between cells having value 1. In particular, cycle  $S_1$  is a sequence of horizontal right  $(h_r)$ , vertical down  $(v_d)$ , horizontal left  $(h_l)$ , and vertical up  $(v_u)$  movements. Similarly, cycle  $S_2$  can be expressed with the sequence  $(v_d, h_r, v_d, h_r, v_u, h_l)$ . Moreover, we deduce that a cycle should include at least one from each of the  $h_u$ ,  $h_d$ ,  $v_u$ , and  $v_d$  movements.

**Proposition 2.** VarFix on **H** matrix does not form any cycles in the BG (see Appendix for the proof).

We can use the partial solution obtained with VarFix in Figure 8 to generate a feasible solution of MDD. Since the partial solution does not include any cycles (see Proposition 2), setting the nonfixed entries to zero yields a feasible solution (an upper bound). We implement VarFix at the beginning of our B&C algorithm. VarFix shrinks the problem size by  $\frac{(m-r_{cr})\times(n-c_{cr})}{m\times n}\times 100\%$ and provides an initial upper bound to the B&C algorithm.

#### 3.3 Valid Inequalities for Cycle Regions

After applying VarFix, MDD problem reduces to locating ones in the reduced rectangle R of size  $(m - r_{cr}) \times (n - c_{cr})$  in Figure 10. In this section, we introduce valid inequalities for (J, K)-regular codes to further improve the performance of our B&C algorithm.

First we divide the region  $R \bigcup Q$  in Figure 10 into *subblocks* having (J-1)(K-1) rows and (K-1) columns as shown in Figure 12. For each entry (i, j) in a subblock, we investigate the local girth  $\rho(i, j)$  by temporarily assuming  $x_{ij} = 1$ . For example, in Figure 12, we observe that  $\rho(i, j)$  is common for all (i, j) entries in a subblock except the subblocks at the boundaries of the fixed 1s. We define a *cycle-\alpha region*, which has a repeating pattern due to (J, K)-regularity, as the collection of (i, j) entries that have  $\rho(i, j) = \alpha$ .

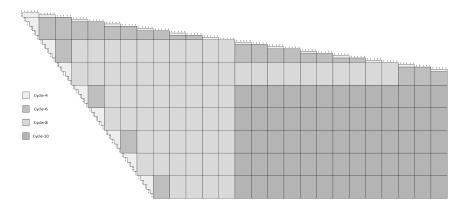


Figure 12: Subblocks and cycle regions with J = 3 and K = 6

In particular, when there is a 1 in a cycle-4 region (dotted area), we have a cycle of length 4 (see cycles  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  in Figure 13). We note that cycle-4 regions repeat both horizontally and vertically.

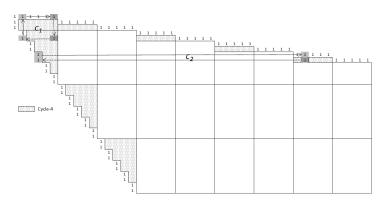


Figure 13: Cycle-4 region with J = 3 and K = 6

Similar horizontal and vertical repeating patterns can be seen for cycle-6 and cycle-8 regions

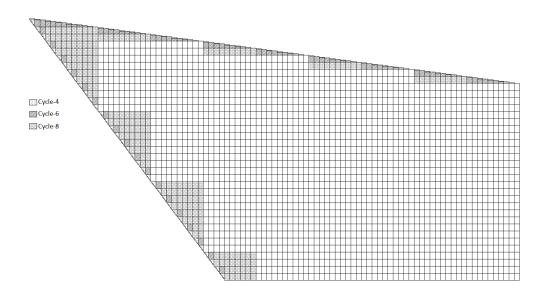


Figure 14: Cycle-4, cycle-6, and cycle-8 regions with J = 3 and K = 6

in Figure 14. Making use of these patterns, one can express  $\rho(i, j)$  of an entry (i, j) as a function. We introduce valid inequalities for MDD based on  $\rho(i, j)$  of the entries in the rectangle R.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $(i, j) \in R$ , *i.e.*,  $i \in \{m - r_{cr}, ..., m\}$  and  $j \in \{n - c_{cr}, ..., n\}$ , and let  $\rho(i, j)$  represent the local girth of the entry. Let  $\sigma$  denote the number of subblocks that intersect with R, and let  $B_s$ ,  $s \in \{1, ..., \sigma\}$  represent the set of (i, j) entries in the subblock s.

(1) If  $\rho(i, j) < g$ , then the constraint

$$x_{ij} = 0 \tag{9}$$

is valid.

(2) If  $g \ge 8$  and  $(i, j) \in B_s$  with  $\rho(i, j) = 8$  or 10, then the constraints

$$\sum_{i=1}^{J-1} \sum_{((k-1)(J-1)+i,j)\in B_s} x_{(k-1)(J-1)+i,j} \le 1, \quad k \in \{1, ..., K-1\}$$
(10)

are valid.

(3) If  $g \ge 10$  and  $(i, j) \in B_s$  with  $\rho(i, j) \ge 10$ , then the constraint

$$\sum_{(i,j)\in B_s} x_{ij} \le 1 \tag{11}$$

is valid.

*Proof.* Let us consider each claim separately.

- (1) There cannot be cycles of length smaller than the girth g. If  $x_{ij} = 1$ , then we have a cycle of length  $\rho(i, j) < g$ , which is not desired. Hence,  $x_{ij} = 0$  in this case.
- (2) If g ≥ 8, then there should not be any cycles of length 6. Let us consider a subblock with cycle region 8 or 10, which is subdivided into (K − 1) equal subpress each having (J − 1) rows. In Figure 15, we give an example for a cycle-8 subblock with J = 3 and K = 6 where we have (K − 1) = 5 subpress each having (J − 1) = 2 rows. As seen in Figure 15, a cycle of length 6 forms when there is more than one nonzero entry in a subpress.

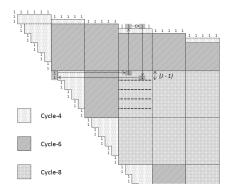


Figure 15: A cycle of length 6 on cycle-8 region with J = 3 and K = 6

A similar case appears for cycle-10 subblocks. Hence, the constraints (10) are valid, since they ensure the existence of at most one nonzero entry in each subplece when the cycle region of the subblock is either 8 or 10.

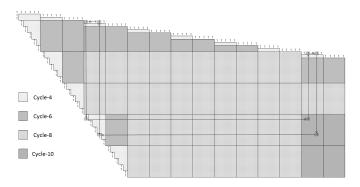


Figure 16: A cycle of length 8 on cycle-10 region with J = 3 and K = 6

(3) A cycle of length 8 is not allowed when g ≥ 10. However, when there is more than one nonzero entry in a subblock with a cycle region of at least 10, there is a cycle of length 8 as given in Figure 16. The constraint (11) is valid, since it bounds the number of nonzero entries from above by 1. □

**Proposition 4.** Let  $z^*$  be the optimal objective value of MDD and  $z_f^*$  be the optimal objective value of MDD when VarFix is applied. Let  $\tau$  be defined as in Proposition 1. Assume that there exists a (J, K)-regular code with dimensions (m, n), then

(1) 
$$0 = z^* = z_f^*$$
 if  $g > \tau$ 

(2)  $0 = z^* \le z_f^*$  if  $g \le \tau$  (see Appendix for the proof).

Since the number of valid inequalities (9), (10), and (11) is polynomial in dimensions (m, n), i.e.,  $\mathcal{O}(c_{cr}m + r_{cr}n)$ , we add them at the beginning of the B&C in order to obtain a tight lower bound at the root node.

#### 3.4 Feasible Solution Generation Heuristics

In this section, we provide our heuristic approaches to generate feasible solutions of MDD. In particular, we adapt a heuristic from the telecommunications literature in Section 3.4.1, and describe how to polish given feasible solutions in Section 3.4.2.

#### 3.4.1 Modified Progressive Edge Growth Algorithm

The last improvement to our B&C algorithm is to introduce a starting solution that will provide an initial upper bound. For this purpose, we adapt an existing algorithm from the literature known as Progressive Edge Growth (PEG) algorithm [17]. We modify this algorithm for our problem by starting PEG from a partial initial solution generated by our *VarFix* in Figure 8, and ensuring that the generated solution has girth at least g.

In our modified PEG (*mPEG*) (see Figure 17), **dv** and **dc** are the target degree vectors for the variable and check nodes, respectively. Let the deviation from the target degrees for the variable and check nodes be given by the slack vectors **s** and **t**, and the current degrees of the variable nodes be listed in the vector **d**. Moreover, let  $\mathcal{N}_j^l$  represent the set of all check nodes that can be reached from  $v_j$  with a tree of depth l. Hence, the set  $\mathcal{N}_j^l \setminus \mathcal{N}_j^{l-1}$  consists of the check nodes that are reached at the lth step from  $v_j$  for the first time. We can represent the check nodes in the set  $\mathcal{N}_j^l$  with an incidence vector  $\mathcal{I}$  as  $\mathcal{I}_{c_i} = 1$  if  $c_i \in \mathcal{N}_j^l$ , and zero otherwise.

Starting from the solution provided by VarFix (Step 1), mPEG inserts edges to the BG for each variable node  $v_j$  with positive slack  $s_j$  (Steps 2 and 3). An edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  is a candidate if the slacks  $t_i$  and  $s_j$  are positive, and adding the edge does not form a cycle smaller than g. If there are some check nodes that the BFS tree cannot reach, i.e.,  $|\mathcal{N}_j^l| \leq m$ , then we can add the **Input:** (m, n) dimensions, **dv** and **dc** vectors, g target girth

0. Initialize  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{d} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \mathbf{dv}$ , and  $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \mathbf{dc}$ ,  $\mathcal{I} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ . 1. Apply VarFix (Figure 8), and update slacks  $s_j \leftarrow s_j - \sum_i x_{ij}$  for all j and  $t_i \leftarrow t_i - \sum_j x_{ij}$  for all i, and current degrees  $d_j \leftarrow \sum_i x_{ij}$  for all j. 2. For  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , set  $\mathcal{I} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$ 3. For  $k \in \{0, ..., d_j\}$  with  $d_j < d(v_j)$ 4. If k = 0, Then set  $x_{i'i} = 1$  for  $i' = \operatorname{argmax}_i \{t_i\}$ . **Else** apply BFS from  $v_j$  to reach check nodes, let the search tree have depth l. 5.If  $2l \ge g$  or  $|\mathcal{N}_i^l| \le m$ , let  $\mathcal{I}$  be incidence vector for  $\mathcal{N}_i^l$ . 6. If  $\exists i' = \operatorname{argmax}_i \{ (1 - \mathcal{I}_{c_i}) t_i \}$ , Then set  $x_{i'j} = 1$ . Else break. 7. End If 8. Update  $d_j$ ,  $s_j$ ,  $t_i$  as in Step 1. 9. End For 10. End For Output: An initial solution for MDD

Figure 17: Modified PEG (mPEG) algorithm

edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  without forming any cycles. Otherwise, if there are check nodes that cannot be reached by a tree with depth of  $l \ge g/2$ , then the corresponding edge will form a cycle of length  $2l \ge g$ . Among the candidate check nodes, we pick the one with the maximum slack  $t_i$  in order to fit the target degree  $d(c_i)$  (Steps 5 and 6). The generated solution is feasible for MDD, since it has girth at least g. Moreover, it yields an initial upper bound for our B&C algorithm. The time complexity of mPEG is  $\mathcal{O}((m+n)|E_x| + |E_x|^2)$ , where  $G_x = (V \cup C, E_x)$  is the induced graph by the nonzero  $x_{ij}$  values after VarFix.

#### 3.4.2 Solution Polishing Algorithms

In this section we introduce our *Polish* heuristic to improve the given feasible solutions of MDD. *Polish* consists of three subheuristics, i.e., *CombineCodes*, *DeleteEdge*, and *AddEdge*.

Combine Codes combines two (J, K)-regular codes with dimensions  $(m_1, n_1)$  and  $(m_2, n_2)$  with  $m_1+m_2 \ge m$  and the girth of at least g for given (m, n), (J, K), and girth g values. We augment the two codes diagonally and remove the last  $m_1 + m_2 - m$  rows and  $n_1 + n_2 - n$  columns to fit the dimensions.

DeleteEdge picks the codes with the girth smaller than g, and deletes edges until we end up with a BG with girth g. Deleting an edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  from a BG increases the slacks  $t_i$  and  $s_j$ , and the objective function value. Hence, we choose an edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$ , which is in a small cycle, i.e., small  $\rho(i, j) < g$ , has small degree deviations  $t_i$  and  $s_j$ , and small objective function coefficients  $\frac{1}{d(c_i)}$  and  $\frac{1}{d(v_j)}$ . This means, we choose the entry  $(i^*, j^*)$  to delete, i.e., set  $x_{i^*j^*} = 0$ , using Equation (12).

$$(i^*, j^*) = \operatorname{argmin}_{(i,j)} \left\{ \rho(i,j) \left( \frac{t_i}{d(c_i)} + \frac{s_j}{d(v_j)} \right) \right\}$$
(12)

AddEdge inserts edges to a BG with girth of larger or equal to g without forming cycles smaller than g. Adding an edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$  to a BG improves the objective function value by decreasing the slacks  $t_i$  and  $s_j$ . We prefer to add an edge  $\{c_i, v_j\}$ , which forms a large cycle, i.e., large  $\rho(i, j) \ge g$ , has large degree deviations  $t_i$  and  $s_j$ , and large objective function coefficients  $\frac{1}{d(c_i)}$  and  $\frac{1}{d(v_j)}$ . Hence, we choose the entry  $(i^*, j^*)$  to add, i.e., set  $x_{i^*j^*} = 1$ , using Equation (13).

$$(i^*, j^*) = \operatorname{argmax}_{(i,j)} \left\{ \rho(i,j) \left( \frac{t_i}{d(c_i)} + \frac{s_j}{d(v_j)} \right) \right\}$$
(13)

*Polish* runs at the beginning of our B&C method by implementing the heuristics in the order of *CombineCodes*, *DeleteEdge*, and *AddEdge* to obtain a tight upper bound for MDD.

## 4 Computational Results

We carry out the computations on a computer with a 2.0 GHz Intel Xeon E5-2620 processor and 46 GB of RAM working under a Windows Server 2012 R2 operating system. In the computational experiments, we used CPLEX 12.8.0 to test the performance of the B&C algorithm and to evaluate how various improvement strategies given in Section 3 affect the results. We implemented all algorithms in C++ programming language. We summarize the solution methods in Table 2.

Method IntSep Valid Cuts FracSep VarFix mPEGPolish  $BC_0$  $\sqrt{}$  $\sqrt{}$  $BC_1$  $\sqrt{}$  $\sqrt{}$  $BC_2$  $\sqrt{}$  $\sqrt{}$  $\sqrt{}$  $BC_3$ 

Table 2: Summary of the solution methods

In BC<sub>0</sub>, we apply our B&C algorithm with *IntSep* and *FracSep* to separate integral and fractional solutions, respectively (see Section 2.2). In CPLEX, we implement *IntSep* and *FracSep* with a *Callback* routine, and utilize default branching settings. In the BC<sub>1</sub> method, *VarFix* fixes some of the entries of the **H** matrix at the beginning of the B&C (see Section 3.2). In the BC<sub>2</sub> method, we apply *VarFix* and add the valid inequalities at the root node of the B&C (see

Т	able 3: List of the computational parameters
	Parameters
(J,K)	(3,6) and $(5,10)$ -regular BGs
(m,n)	(10, 20), (15, 30), (20, 40), (30, 60),
	(40, 80), (100, 200), (150, 300), (250, 500), (500, 1000)
g	6, 8, 10
Time Limit	10800 secs

Section 3.3). Finally in the BC<sub>3</sub> method, in addition to utilizing *VarFix* and the valid cuts, the B&C starts from the best feasible solution provided by mPEG and *Polish* (see Section 3.4).

We list the parameters used in the computational experiments in Table 3. In practical applications small n values are desired since the information is received in packets of length n. In IEEE 802.11 WLAN 2007 standards, the codes have length  $n \in (500, 2300)$ , J/K = 1/2, and the girth at least 6 [31]. Recent works propose codes of length  $n \in (250, 500)$  in order to receive data in smaller packet sizes [23]. In our experiments, we consider (3, 6) and (5, 10)-regular **H** matrices with girth values g = 6, 8, or 10. We test nine different (m, n) dimensions from n = 20to 1000. Since (5, 10)-regular codes are denser, we try larger n values, i.e.,  $n \ge 200$ . We report the results that CPLEX found in a time limit of 10800 seconds.

						CPU	Gap		#C	uts	#	Calls	CPU	「(%)	Actual
g	J	n	$z_l$	z	$z_u^i$	(secs)	(%)	Nodes	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	g
6	3	20	0	6.5	30	time	100	255556	7970	0	872	495073	0.03	53.06	6
		30	0	3	45	60.39	100	2927	9725	0	1189	4338	8.64	83.48	6
		40	0	0	60	0.27	0	3	125	0	17	2	33.46	13.24	6
		60	0	0	90	0.95	0	10	172	0	31	11	28.75	45.03	6
		80	0	0	120	1.11	0	5	182	0	27	8	28.21	48.07	6
		200	0	0	300	0.96	0	0	117	0	6	1	26.54	40.75	6
		300	0	0	450	3.53	0	1	170	0	7	2	16.11	50.44	6
		500	0	0	750	6.18	0	0	153	0	6	1	23.40	40.14	6
		1000	0	0	1500	153.81	0	7	166	0	10	6	29.15	52.39	6
	5	200	0	291.3	300	time	100	7545	523558	0	4849	10078	4.80	14.30	10
		300	0	411.6	450	time	100	5152	598856	0	9059	3618	18.47	11.90	10
		500	0	0	750	146.64	0	50	13301	0	324	24	70.81	11.85	6
		1000	0	0	1500	341.37	0	30	1613	0	28	32	29.47	46.72	6
8	3	20	0	7.5	30	time	100	131931	68109	15103	2002	253443	0.06	11.48	10
		30	0	10	45	time	100	31627	167270	7397	2367	57591	0.13	3.22	8
		40	0	16	60	time	100	23712	213134	5308	2454	42933	0.20	3.57	8
		60	0	14.5	90	time	100	8609	294480	1685	1928	14287	0.31	2.31	8
		80	0	24	120	time	100	9671	421986	1866	2780	15210	0.74	4.07	8
		200	0	171	300	time	100	8602	468624	701	4039	11967	3.78	13.74	8
		300	0	213	450	time	100	7339	469399	357	5102	8663	8.49	19.09	8
		500	0	308	750	time	100	5223	371370	97	5856	4285	31.64	30.16	8
		1000	0	0	1500	511.96	0	59	1657	0	49	68	32.10	56.46	8
	5	300	0	352.8	450	time	100	1090	23642	110	17	2167	0.06	8.81	8
		500	0	672.9	750	time	100	195	30778	13	4	392	0.14	5.05	10
		1000	0	1253.4	1500	time	100	1	21743	0	3	3	0.94	0.15	10
10	3	20	0	6.5	30	time	100	67218	190343	73472	453	118026	0.06	5.89	10
		30	0	13.5	45	time	100	11916	516532	10526	1077	18449	0.25	1.93	10
		40	0	25	60	time	100	10161	582038	7162	1135	16002	0.32	2.15	10
		60	0	37.5	90	time	100	7783	812030	4514	1008	11785	0.57	3.16	10
		80	0	27.5	120	time	100	5701	549745	2691	684	9508	0.49	3.20	10
		200	0	122	300	time	100	2013	216090	610	305	3681	0.53	3.65	10
		300	0	184	450	time	100	761	33023	25	61	1517	0.16	4.13	10
		500	0	515	750	time	100	782	113682	136	149	1444	1.89	10.81	10
		1000	0	1218	1500	time	100	780	152898	103	179	1441	14.20	68.34	10
	5	300	0	450	450	time	100	0	255378	0	1	0	1.50	0	10
		500	0	750	750	time	100	0	265866	0	1	0	2.61	0	10
		1000	0	1500	1500	time	100	0	271433	0	1	0	12.52	0	10

Table 4: Computational results for  $BC_0$ 

From Table 4 to 7, the column "z" is the best upper bound of MDD at termination and the column " $z_l$ " is the best known lower bound found by CPLEX within the time limit. For each of the methods, we have an initial feasible solution (an upper bound) with the objective value  $z_u^i$ . In the BC<sub>0</sub> method,  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{0}$  is a trivial solution providing an initial upper bound. In the methods BC<sub>1</sub>, BC<sub>2</sub> and BC<sub>3</sub>, initial feasible solutions are obtained from *VarFix* (see Section 3.2), *mPEG* or *Polish* heuristics (see Section 3.4), respectively. The computational time in seconds is given in the column "CPU (secs)" and the percentage difference among  $z_l$ and z is presented in the column "Gap (%)." *VarFix*, adding the valid cuts, *mPEG*, and *Polish* methods take negligible time, and are not reported in the tables. The "Nodes" column gives the number of nodes processed by the B&C algorithm. The "#Cuts" column summarizes the number of *IntSep* and *FracSep* cuts generated while "#Calls" shows the number of times that our *Callback* routine is called by CPLEX for finding these cuts. We report the percentage of time within the total time "CPU (secs)" consumed for the *IntSep* and *FracSep* algorithms in the column "CPU (%)." The column "Actual g" shows the girth of the generated BG within the time limit.

As discussed in Section 2.1, we have a (J, K)-regular code if  $z_l = z = 0$ . We can conclude that it is not possible to have a (J, K)-regular code with given (m, n) and the girth g when we have  $z \ge z_l > 0$ . In Table 4, BC<sub>0</sub> finds (J, K)-regular code for 10 instances (z = 0). For the instances that cannot be solved to optimality (Gap > 0), the number of nodes processed decreases as ngets larger. On average, *FracSep* algorithm is called more frequently (see #Calls) and takes more time than *IntSep* (see CPU(%)) whereas the number of the *IntSep* cuts are more than the *FracSep* cuts (see #Cuts). Hence, *IntSep* is more effective than *FracSep* in generating the constraints (4). As g gets larger, we observe that the CPU(%) values of *IntSep* and *FracSep* decrease since CPLEX consumes the majority of the total time.

						CPU	Gap		# Cı	ıts	#	Calls	CPU	Actual	
g	J	n	$z_l$	z	$z_u^i$	(secs)	(%)	Nodes	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	g
6	3	20	3.25	6.5	15.5	time	50	5299967	250	0	51	10221752	0.01	90.44	6
		30	0.25	2	23	time	87.5	2407393	2496	0	668	4671452	0.01	88.31	6
		40	0	0	30.5	0.14	0	1	152	0	14	1	10.71	0	6
		60	0	0	45.5	0.19	0	0	130	0	13	2	17.02	17.02	6
		80	0	0	60.5	0.25	0	3	120	0	18	3	31.60	6.40	6
		200	0	0	150.5	0.58	0	0	130	0	12	1	40.31	10.90	6
		300	0	0	225.5	1.23	0	0	153	0	6	2	26.58	22.77	6
		500	0	0	375.5	3.56	0	0	209	0	6	2	30.26	24.12	6
		1000	0	0	750.5	31.77	0	0	139	0	5	2	47.96	24.99	6
	5	200	0	189	210.3	time	100	13883	337710	0	4763	22414	4.17	29.78	6
		300	0	0	315.3	4108.08	0	3814	327121	0	7641	2710	30.48	19.13	6
		500	0	0	525.3	48.54	0	20	3989	0	112	16	61.53	22.18	6
		1000	0	0	1050.3	194.30	0	13	1724	0	25	14	45.96	34.45	6
8	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	0.06	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		30	21.5	21.5	21.5	1.39	0	666	268	0	29	918	0	80.88	8
		40	13	21.5	30.5	time	39.5	1051701	2341	10	147	2048148	0	85.91	8
		60	3	16	45.5	time	81.3	185607	42013	0	1952	362494	0.14	35.52	8
		80	0	16.5	60.5	time	100	64513	112803	0	3159	126280	0.44	23.49	8
		200	0	133	150.5	time	100	14284	347040	0	4686	22792	3.02	23.10	8
		300	0	183.5	225.5	time	100	11541	397646	0	7290	15148	11.73	35.24	8
		500	0	0	375.5	556.28	0	602	49313	0	1082	374	54.73	33.63	8
		1000	0	0	750.5	2600.96	0	330	1097	0	42	606	4.83	89.27	8
	5	300	21	311.1	315.3	time	93.2	2251	393396	0	111	4492	1.46	13.48	8
		500	0	520.5	525.3	time	100	572	38731	0	43	981	0.33	10.16	8
		1000	0	1050.3	1050.3	time	100	92	21719	0	9	169	1.20	10.77	10
10	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	0.08	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		30	23	23	23	0.08	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		40	30.5	30.5	30.5	0.11	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		60	45.5	45.5	45.5	0.11	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		80	59	59	60.5	696.07	0	38404	3138	19	498	42661	0.43	90.26	10
		200	16.5	148	150.5	time	88.9	6729	357143	12	659	12886	0.98	13.35	10
		300	0	219	225.5	time	100	5364	555047	0	663	10116	3.13	24.77	10
		500	0	375.5	375.5	time	100	4447	764122	0	762	8142	9.36	55.67	10
		1000	0	750.5	750.5	time	100	1058	209274	0	230	1884	17.02	77.73	10
	5	300	315.3	315.3	315.3	0.13	0	0	0	0	1	0	37.60	0	10
		500	369.3	525.3	525.3	time	29.7	748	1645923	93	76	1255	6.75	11.99	10
		1000	294.3	1050.3	1050.3	time	72	297	639635	3	17	575	29.26	30.11	10

Table 5: Computational results for  $\mathrm{BC}_1$ 

BC<sub>1</sub> solves 20 instances to optimality as given in Table 5. We note that for 16 instances there is no (J, K)-regular code since  $z_l > 0$ . Compared with BC<sub>0</sub>, we have tighter  $z_u^i$  values provided by *VarFix*, and we improve the best known upper bound z for 26 instances. Moreover, we process more nodes by adding fewer *IntSep* and *FracSep* cuts, and improve the computation time by 32% on average.

						CPU	Gap		# C	uts	#	Calls	CPU	Actual	
g	J	n	$z_l$	z	$z_u^i$	(secs)	(%)	Nodes	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	g
6	3	20	3.25	6.5	15.5	time	50	4835210	246	0	48	9361686	0.01	89.44	6
		30	0.25	2	23	time	87.5	2344931	2506	0	669	4501860	0.01	87.48	6
		40	0	0	30.5	0.14	0	1	152	0	14	1	33.33	0	6
		60	0	0	45.5	0.16	0	0	130	0	13	2	9.62	10.26	6
		80	0	0	60.5	0.27	0	3	120	0	18	3	35.71	5.64	6
		200	0	0	150.5	0.63	0	0	130	0	12	1	42.24	10.08	6
		300	0	0	225.5	1.27	0	0	153	0	6	2	28.36	24.72	6
		500	0	0	375.5	5.27	0	0	209	0	6	2	40.67	23.16	6
		1000	0	0	750.5	43.05	0	0	139	0	5	2	52.13	25.80	6
	5	200	0	184.8	210.3	time	100	13952	338378	0	4863	22468	4.48	30.61	6
		300	0	0	315.3	3368.63	0	3335	305752	0	6891	2202	35.15	19.32	6
		500	0	0	525.3	51.89	0	21	4519	0	115	14	66.64	17.73	6
		1000	0	0	1050.3	190.10	0	12	1727	0	21	10	52.28	31.48	6
8	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	0.11	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		30	21.5	21.5	23	0.14	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		40	21.5	21.5	30.5	24.74	0	5892	441	0	68	6348	0.25	87.70	8
		60	7	14	45.5	time	50	136315	61461	0	2001	264944	0.24	39.63	8
		80	1.5	16.5	60.5	time	90.9	44405	111784	0	2080	85627	0.34	17.83	8
		200	0	99.5	150.5	time	100	16276	298919	0	5063	25810	5.70	35.76	8
		300	0	175	225.5	time	100	10182	328829	0	6456	12884	10.52	30.01	8
		500	0	0	375.5	1316.96	0	1075	79070	0	2144	486	67.86	23.36	8
		1000	0	0	750.5	257.44	0	27	1149	0	35	20	54.27	37.72	8
	5	300	83.4	310.5	315.3	time	73.2	1797	307602	0	137	3246	1.01	8.54	8
		500	1.5	452.4	525.3	time	99.7	346	18107	0	36	610	0.21	6.54	8
		1000	0	1050.3	1050.3	time	100	31	10716	0	2	61	0.54	5.09	10
10	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	0.13	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		30	23	23	23	0.17	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		40	30.5	30.5	30.5	0.16	0	0	0	0	1	0	9.55	0	10
		60	45.5	45.5	45.5	0.16	0	0	0	0	1	0	10.26	0	10
		80	59	59	60.5	0.17	0	0	1	0	2	0	8.72	0	10
		200	65	99.5	150.5	time	34.7	31037	174760	10	2258	58528	2.95	83.81	10
		300	26	205.5	225.5	time	87.4	5471	539611	0	845	9556	3.48	23.64	10
		500	0	354.5	375.5	time	100	2102	277233	0	308	3750	4.25	33.01	10
		1000	0	750.5	750.5	time	100	567	91086	0	94	1046	10.70	68.23	10
	5	300	315.3	315.3	315.3	0.15	0	0	0	0	1	0	31.97	0	10
		500	516.3	516.3	525.3	104.95	0	63	1813	0	401	30	73.49	11.30	10
		1000	861.3	1050.3	1050.3	time	18	1640	86147	9	26	2067	4.25	91.96	10

Table 6: Computational results for  $BC_2$ 

BC<sub>2</sub> utilizes the valid cuts (1), (2), and (3) given in Proposition 3 (see Section 3.3). Note that the cuts (1) fix some of the  $x_{ij}$  variables to zero. The cuts (2) are valid for  $g \ge 8$ , whereas the cuts (3) are applicable for  $g \ge 10$ . In Table 6, we report the results when we add the valid cuts (1), (2), and (3) wherever they are applicable. Compared with BC<sub>1</sub>, BC<sub>2</sub> improves  $z_l$  for 9 instances, z for 10 instances, and the CPU time decreases by 13% on average. Furthermore, the number of processed nodes decreases by 18%, whereas the number of *IntSep* cuts is reduced by 51%, and the *FracSep* cuts decreases by 86% on average. BC<sub>2</sub> solves 22 instances to optimality and concludes that there cannot be a (J, K)-regular code with the given dimensions for 19 instances  $(z_l > 0)$ .

We also investigate the contributions of each valid cut family on  $z_l$ , z, and time figures by gradually including them to BC<sub>2</sub>. As we report in Table 9, we first use only the valid cuts (1), then (1) and (2), and finally (1), (2) and (3) together (see Appendix). Compared with BC<sub>1</sub>, using only the valid cuts (1) improves  $z_l$  for one instance, and z for 3 instances. Adding the valid cuts (2), we further improve  $z_l$  for 5 instances and tighten z for 6 instances while saving time and separation cuts. We observe an improvement on  $z_l$  for 4 instances and z for 3 instances when we also utilize the valid cuts (3). The number of valid cuts (1), (2), and (3) used in BC<sub>2</sub> are given in the last three columns of Table 9.

					$z_i^i$		CPU	Gap		#	Cuts	#	Calls	CPU	J (%)	Actual
g	J	n	$z_l$	z	mPEG	Polish	(secs)	(%)	Nodes	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	Int	Frac	g
6	3	20	3.25	4	6.5	$4^a$	time	18.75	2980922	167	1048962	37	5566509	0	88.25	6
		30	0.25	2	2	-	time	87.5	1302865	721	3347818	213	2066319	0	77.04	6
		40	0	0	0.5	$0^a$	0.08	0	0	0	0	1	0	2.47	0	6
		60	0	0	0.5	$0^{c}$	0.29	0	0	0	0	1	0	17.01	0	6
		80	0	0	0.5	$0^c$	0.22	0	0	0	0	1	0	29.41	0	6
		200	0	0	1	$0^a$	0.21	0	0	0	0	1	0	14.08	0	6
		300	0	0	0.5	$0^a$	0.35	0	0	0	0	1	0	20.06	0	6
		500	0	0	0.5	$0^c$	3.29	0	0	0	0	1	0	46.46	0	6
		1000	0	0	1	$0^c$	27.05	0	0	0	0	1	0	57.19	0	6
	5	200	0	0.9	2.4	$0.9^{a}$	time	100	12773	232692	871827	3581	11594	2.75	12.98	6
		300	0	0	2.1	$0^a$	0.67	0	0	0	0	1	0	44.94	0	6
		500	0	0	2.7	$0^a$	1.81	0	0	0	0	1	0	41.39	0	6
		1000	0	0	1.5	$0^c$	1.66	0	0	0	0	1	0	17.56	0	6
8	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	-	0.07	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		30	21.5	21.5	21.5	-	0.07	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	8
		40	21.5	21.5	21.5	-	0.91	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.77	0	8
		60	7	9.5	16.5	$9.5^{a}$	time	26.31	0	1869	102172	24	1494	0.01	2.99	8
		80	1.63	9.5	9.5	-	time	82.89	0	891	127852	11	1060	0.01	4.98	8
		200	0	0	4	$0^a$	0.41	0	0	0	0	1	0	21.48	0	8
		300	0	0	2.5	$0^a$	0.31	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.00	0	8
		500	0	0	2.5	$0^c$	0.84	0	0	0	0	1	0	27.87	0	8
		1000	0	0	3	$0^{c}$	0.87	0	0	0	0	1	0	40.23	0	8
	5	300	83.4	136.8	136.8	-	time	39.03	0	23821	180035	11	48	0.07	10.24	8
		500	1.5	150.9	150.9	-	time	99.01	0	7148	53622	3	7	0.07	5.71	8
		1000	0	106.2	106.2	-	time	100	0	6833	43110	1	5	0.31	3.57	8
10	3	20	15.5	15.5	15.5	-	0.06	0	0	0	0	1	0	1.59	0	10
		30	23	23	23	-	0.07	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		40	30.5	30.5	30.5	-	0.07	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	10
		60	45.5	45.5	45.5	-	0.06	0	0	0	0	1	0	1.56	0	10
		80	59	59	59	-	0.08	0	0	0	0	1	0	6.25	0	10
		200	65	76	78.5	$76^a$	time	14.47	0	13288	247672	66	867	0.03	4.78	10
		300	26	68.5	68.5	-	time	62.04	0	9736	643235	24	567	0.05	11.67	10
		500	0	43.5	43.5	-	time	100	0	3261	335890	4	180	0.04	17.98	10
		1000	0	15	15	-	time	100	0	2918	191128	2	112	0.27	22.14	10
	5	300	315.3	315.3	315.3	-	0.14	0	0	0	0	1	0	33.33	0	10
		500	516.3	516.3	516.3	-	0.76	0	0	0	0	1	0	44.69	0	10
		1000	861.3	875.4	875.4	-	time	1.61	0	70712	150362	668	1186	27.03	49.45	10

Table 7: Computational results for  $BC_3$ 

The BC<sub>3</sub> method first implements mPEG and then *Polish* heuristics to start with a tight upper bound (see Section 3.4). We populate the feasible solutions that we have obtained from BC<sub>0</sub> to BC<sub>2</sub> in a solution pool for the *Polish* heuristic. In Table 7, the " $z_u^i$ " column gives the initial upper bounds of mPEG and *Polish*. The symbol "–" indicates that the upper bound of *Polish* is the same as mPEG, the label "a" shows that the best solution is obtained from *AddEdges*, and the label "c" means that *CombineCodes* generates the best upper bound. *Polish* can find better feasible solutions than mPEG for 18 instances.

Compared with BC<sub>2</sub>, BC<sub>3</sub> improves  $z_l$  for one instance, z for 14 instances, and the time decreases by 16% on average. The percentages of the time consumed by *IntSep* and *FracSep* decrease by 28% and 68% on average, respectively. Better initial upper bounds allow us to generate the constraints (4) by fewer calls to the separation algorithms.

Among the methods from  $BC_0$  to  $BC_3$ , we can see that  $BC_3$  solves the highest number of instances to optimality (24 instances out of 37 instances) in the shortest time. Furthermore,  $BC_3$ 

provides a computational evidence that there cannot be a (J, K)-regular code (when  $z_l > 0$ ) for 19 instances within the given time limit. BC<sub>3</sub> can determine the smallest n of a (J, K)-regular code with girth g by starting from a small n and gradually increasing it while  $z_l > 0$ .

Taking into account that the code design problem is an offline problem, one can implement the BC<sub>3</sub> method to construct a (J, K)-regular code providing sufficiently large time. Furthermore, BC<sub>3</sub> can generate alternative (J, K)-regular codes with given (m, n) dimensions and girth g. For example, let **H** be a code generated by BC<sub>3</sub>. We can randomly pick an entry (i, j) with  $H_{ij} = 1$ , and resolve the MDD model after adding the constraint  $x_{ij} = 0$  via the *Callback* routine of CPLEX to obtain another code.

In Table 8, we compare the performance of BC<sub>3</sub> with some commonly used methods from the literature. The (J, K)-regular codes in [29] and [30] are generated by carrying out complete enumeration, which is the common method for code generation in the telecommunications literature, for the mentioned (m, n) dimensions in Table 8. There are several criteria to pick the best LDPC code: small (m, n) dimensions and regular degree distributions (easier hardware implementation), small (J, K) values (faster decoding with a sparse code), and high girth g (better error correction). Since the code design is an offline problem, usually months are reserved to choose an LDPC code and the algorithm run time is not reported in the literature.

		Existing	Code	es			$BC_3$	
(J, K)	(m, n)	Reference	z	g	z	$z_u^i$	CPU (secs)	g
(2, 3)	(14, 21)	[29]	0	12	0	35	0.77	12
(3, 4)	(78, 104)	[29]	0	6	0	1.8	4.95	8
(3, 5)	(93, 155)	[29]	0	8	0	2.1	569.41	8
(3, 4)	(27, 36)	[30]	0	8	0	39.1	2352.01	8
(3, 5)	(39, 65)	[30]	0	8	0	66.7	18638.64	8
(3, 6)	(54, 108)	[30]	0	8	0	6.5	26302.15	8
(4, 5)	(92, 115)	[30]	0	8	0	9.9	31649.13	8
(4, 6)	(96, 144)	[30]	0	8	0	23.3	51432.21	8
(4, 7)	(120, 210)	[30]	0	8	0	33.8	78594.53	8
(4, 8)	(156, 312)	[30]	0	8	0	43.1	112643.57	8
(5, 6)	(165, 210)	[30]	0	8	0	43.9	19455.85	8
(5, 7)	(265, 371)	[30]	0	8	0	48.7	287421.15	8

Table 8: Comparison of the  $BC_3$  method with the existing methods in [29] and [30]

In Table 8, we consider the (J, K), (m, n), and g parameters used in [29] and [30], and implement our BC<sub>3</sub> method to solve the instances to optimality without any time limitations. We do not utilize *Polish* heuristic, since there is no solution pool. The  $z_u^i$  column is the initial upper bound obtained from mPEG. BC<sub>3</sub> needs 3.3 days, which is the longest time among the instances, to find a (5,7)-regular code of dimensions (265, 371). Hence, we can say that our BC<sub>3</sub> method is a strong candidate to generate LDPC codes for the practical applications. Besides, it has the capability to detect the smallest (m, n) dimensions that one can obtain a (J, K)-regular code with the girth of at least g.

## 5 Conclusions

In this work, we investigate the LDPC code design problem and provide an IP formulation for the design of a bipartite graph (BG) with a given degree distribution. For the solution of the problem, we propose a branch-and-cut (B&C) algorithm. We analyze structural properties of the problem and improve our B&C algorithm by using techniques such as variable fixing, adding valid inequalities, and providing an initial solution using a heuristic. The computational experiments indicate that each of these techniques improves the B&C one step further. Among all, the method that combines all of these strategies, i.e., the BC<sub>3</sub> method, can solve the largest number of instances to optimality and gives the smallest gap values on average in an acceptable amount of time. One important gain of the method is that it can provide evidence as to whether a (J, K)-regular code with the given dimensions exists or not.

In this study, our focus has been on (J, K)-regular BGs. In telecommunication applications, irregular LDPC codes are also utilized. Hence, extending these techniques to irregular BGs can be a direction of future research. Spatially-coupled (SC) LDPC codes are another code family, which have become popular due to their channel capacity approaching error correction capability. The design of SC LDPC codes without small cycles will be a valuable contribution to future communication standards. Furthermore, a graph algorithm can perform better on higher girth graph instances as described in [16]. Hence, the BG instances generated with our methods can be used for the problems defined on BGs to have better results.

## Acknowledgments

This research has been supported by the Turkish Scientific and Technological Research Council with grant no 113M499, and partially supported by Boğaziçi University Research Fund with grant no 14451P.

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## Appendix

**Proof of Proposition 1:** We first prove that for a (J, K)-regular code of dimensions (m, n),  $r_{cr} \leq c_{cr}$  where  $r_{cr} = \lfloor (n-1)/(K-1) \rfloor$  and  $c_{cr} = \lfloor (m-1)/(J-1) \rfloor$ .

In practice, J < K < n relationship is valid. Let  $\frac{J}{K} = a \in (0,1)$ , then  $mK = nJ \implies m = na$ . We can write,  $\frac{m-1}{J-1} = \frac{na-1}{Ka-1} = \frac{a(n-1)+a-1}{a(K-1)+a-1} > \frac{n-1}{K-1}$ , since a < 1. From here we obtain  $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{K-1} \rfloor \leq \lfloor \frac{m-1}{J-1} \rfloor \implies r_{cr} \leq c_{cr}$ .

Let **H** be (J, K)-regular matrix of dimensions (m, n) with girth  $g > \tau$ . Let us apply the following reordering algorithm with time complexity  $\mathcal{O}(c_{cr})$  on the **H**.

At step 1 of *Reordering* in Figure 18, J ones are located in the first column. For the second row, i.e., s = 2, first available (K-1) columns to locate ones are the columns (K+1, ..., 2K-1), since otherwise a cycle with length of less than g exists. Similarly for the second column, i.e., s = 2, first available (J - 1) rows are the rows (J + 1, ..., 2J - 1) without creating a cycle. The algorithm continues in this fashion for  $r_{cr}$  rows and columns. Since we have  $r_{cr} \leq c_{cr}$ , we continue to locate ones for the remaining  $(c_{cr} - r_{cr})$  many columns.  $\Box$ 

Input	: <b>H</b> , $(m, n)$ dimensions, $(J, K)$ values, g target girth
1. Picl	k row 1, reorder columns such that all ones are in first $K$ columns.
Pic	k column 1, reorder rows such that all ones are in first $J$ rows.
2. <b>For</b>	$r s \in \{2, \dots, r_{cr}\}$
3.	Pick row s, reorder columns such that $(K - 1)$ ones are in first available columns
	Pick column s, reorder rows such that $(J-1)$ ones are in first available rows.
4. <b>En</b>	d For
5. <b>For</b>	$r s \in \{r_{cr}+1,,c_{cr}\}$
6.	Pick column s, reorder rows such that $(J-1)$ ones are in first available rows.
7. Ene	d For
Outpu	ut: Reordered H matrix

Figure 18: Reordering algorithm

**Proof of Proposition 2:** Assume we applied *VarFix* and consider cells whose  $x_{ij}$  values have been fixed to 1. There are four cases to have an alternating sequence among variable and check nodes as given in Figures 19 and 20.

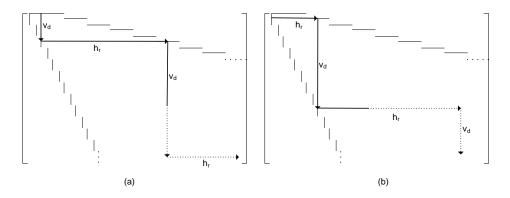


Figure 19: Alternating variable and check nodes, cases 1 and 2

In Figure 19a, the sequence of case 1 is  $(v_d, h_r, v_d, h_r, ...)$  and in Figure 19b for case 2, we have the sequence  $(h_r, v_d, h_r, v_d, ...)$ . Both of the sequences do not include  $v_u$  and  $h_l$  movements. Hence, there cannot be any cycles in these cases.

In Figure 20a (case 3), we have two options to start, i.e.,  $h_r$  or  $h_l$  movements. Then the sequence will be  $(h_r \text{ or } h_l, v_d, h_r, v_d, h_r, ...)$ , which does not include  $v_u$  movement. In Figure 20b (case 4),  $v_d$  or  $v_u$  are candidates to begin the sequence. In this case, the sequence will be  $(v_d \text{ or } v_u, h_r, v_d, h_r, v_d, ...)$ , which does not include  $h_l$  movement. Hence, there are no cycles in these cases either.  $\Box$ 

**Proof of Proposition 4:** For any dimensions (m, n), we have  $z^* \leq z_f^*$ , since VarFix fixes some  $x_{ij}$  variables. If there exists a (J, K)-regular code, then there is an optimal solution with

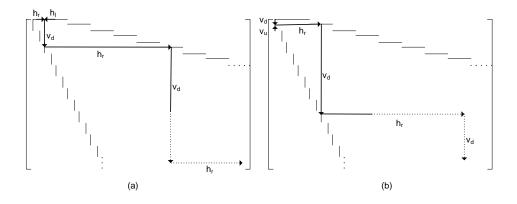


Figure 20: Alternating variable and check nodes, cases 3 and 4

objective value  $z^* = 0$ . We know from Proposition 1 when  $g > \tau$ , a (J, K)-regular BG can be expressed as in Figure 10. Hence, we have  $z_f^* = z^* = 0$ .

In MDD, if  $\rho(i, j) \ge g$ , then  $x_{ij}$  can be nonzero without harming the girth g. When  $g \le \tau$ , there are  $(i, j) \in Q$  in Figure 10 with  $\rho(i, j) \ge g$  and they are fixed to zero, since VarFix fixes all entries in the region Q to zero. Then, we have  $0 = z^* \le z_f^*$  in this case.  $\Box$ 

					Valid	Cuts (1)					Valid Cu	ts (1), (2)				V	alid Cuts	(1), (2), (3)	)				
					CPU		# Cu	ts			CPU		# Cu	ts			CPU		# Cı	ıts		# Cuts	
g	J	n	$z_l$	z	(secs)	Nodes	Int	Frac	$z_l$	z	(secs)	Nodes	$\operatorname{Int}$	Frac	$z_l$	z	(secs)	Nodes	Int	Frac	(1)	(2)	(3)
6	3	20	3.25	6.5	time	4835210	246	0													81		
		30	0.25	2	time	2344931	2506	0													164		
		40	0	0	0.14	1	152	0													282		
		60	0	0	0.16	0	130	0													613		
		80	0	0	0.27	3	120	0													1074		
		200	0	0	0.63	0	130	0													6570		
		300	0	0	1.27	0	153	0													14725		
		500	0	0	5.27	0	209	0													40785		
		1000	0	0	43.05	0	139	0													162810		
	5	200	0	184.8	time	13952	338378	0	-												4029		
		300	0	0	3368.63	3335	305752	0													8577		
		500	0	0	51.89	21	4519	0													23003		
		1000	0	0	190.10	12	1727	0													89370		
8	3	20	15.5	15.5	0.05	0	0	0	15.5	15.5	0.11	0	0	0	-						171	0	
		30	21.5	21.5	1.72	676	268	0	21.5	21.5	0.14	0	0	0							378	3	
		40	13.5	21.5	time	1758125	2309	78	21.5	21.5	24.74	5892	441	0							573	15	
		60	3	16	time	170375	38275	0	7	14	time	136315	61461	0							963	72	
		80	0	16.5	time	61678	108441	0	1.5	16.5	time	44405	111784	0							1563	138	
		200	0	124	time	14507	349094	0	0	99.5	time	16276	298919	0							7693	910	
		300	0	183.5	time	11397	391908	0	0	175	time	10182	328829	0							16363	1832	
		500	0	0	1400.91	1112	89264	0	0	0	1316.96	1075	79070	0							43473	1792	
		1000	0	0	498.32	47	1345	0	0	0	257.44	27	1149	0	_						168133	1451	
	5	300	21	311.1	time	2078	349105	0	83.4	310.5	time	1797	307602	0							16865	783	
		500	0	520.5	time	758	25183	0	1.5	452.4	time	346	18107	0							36385	2277	
		1000	0	1050.3	time	108	21751	0	0	1050.3	time	31	10716	0							112779	9384	
10	3	20	15.5	15.5	0.06	0	0	0	15.5	15.5	0.08	0	0	0	15.5	15.5	0.13	0	0	0	171	0	0
		30	23	23	0.08	0	0	0	23	23	0.06	0	0	0	23	23	0.17	0	0	0	406	3	0
		40	30.5	30.5	0.05	0	0	0	30.5	30.5	0.06	0	0	0	30.5	30.5	0.16	0	0	0	741	15	0
		60	45.5	45.5	0.05	0	0	0	45.5	45.5	0.13	0	0	0	45.5	45.5	0.16	0	0	0	1711	72	0
		80	59	59	729.42	37892	3173	8	59	59	732.06	37892	3173	8	59	59	0.17	0	1	0	2983	129	3
		200	16.5	146.5	time	6135	332259	3	16.5	146.5	time	6418	338386	3	65	99.5	time	31037	174760	10	11403	149	175
		300	0	219	time	4783	453199	0	0	217.5	time	5186	482806	0	26	205.5	time	5471	539611	0	21383	99	428
		500	0	354.5	time	3625	644638	0	0	354.5	time	4404	751600	0	0	354.5	time	2102	277233	0	51493	99	1184
		1000	0	750.5	time	820	159362	0	0	750.5	time	964	187364	0	0	750.5	time	567	91086	0	183843	161	4639
	5	300	315.3	315.3	0.14	0	0	0	315.3	315.3	0.15	0	0	0	315.3	315.3	0.15	0	0	0	44551	783	0
		500	369.3	525.3	time	895	1581125	66	369.3	525.3	time	893	1581027	66	516.3	516.3	104.95	63	1813	0	115801	2037	30
		1000	294.3	1050.3	time	326	831424	2	294.3	1050.3	time	322	831058	2	861.3	1050.3	time	1640	86147	9	300051	3924	630

Table 9: The impact of the valid cuts (1), (2), and (3) in Proposition 3 on BC<sub>2</sub>