

Methods of information systems synthesis

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CONSTRUCTION OF LDPC CODES GENERATING MATRIX

Abstract. This paper presents a detailed analysis of the problem of constructing encoders for linear block codes, with a special emphasis on low-density parity-check (LDPC) codes. **The aim of this paper** is to provide a comprehensive description of the mathematical methods for the transition from the verification matrix to the efficient coding process. Both classical linear algebra approaches and specialized methods for sparse matrices. **Results.** The fundamental algebraic constructions underlying the duality between the generating and checking matrices over Galois fields, in particular $GF(2)$, are considered. The classical Gaussian elimination method for systematic coding is analyzed in detail and its shortcomings in the context of LDPC codes, related to the fill-in phenomenon and loss of sparsity, are revealed. The central place in the study is occupied by the Approximate Lower Triangulation method proposed by Richardson and Urbanke, which allows achieving linear coding complexity. The article contains a detailed description of matrix preprocessing algorithms, mathematical derivation of formulas for calculating parity bits, as well as an analysis of quasicyclic constructions used in modern telecommunications standards (5G, Wi-Fi). Full numerical examples of transformations for low-dimensional codes and a detailed analysis of the LDPC encoder architecture are given. **Conclusion.** The solution was to abandon the explicit use of the generating matrix in favor of approximate triangulation methods of the check matrix and the use of quasicyclic structures, which has become standard in 5G and Wi-Fi. The integration of algebraic-geometric methods opens up new prospects for creating codes with specified properties.

Keywords: low-density parity-check codes; generator matrix; parity-check matrix; approximate lower triangulation; quasi-cyclic LDPC; Gaussian elimination; linear encoding complexity.

Introduction

In the modern era of digital communications, data transmission reliability is a critical requirement. From fiber optic backbones to fifth-generation (5G) wireless networks and satellite communications, channel coding techniques are used everywhere to correct errors caused by noise, interference, and signal attenuation. Among the variety of error-correcting codes (ECC), Low-Density Parity-Check (LDPC) codes occupy a special place [1, 2].

Proposed by Robert Gallager in his doctoral dissertation in 1960, LDPC codes remained "forgotten" for a long time due to the lack of computing power required for their decoding. Their "renaissance" in the 1990s, following the discovery of turbo codes, revolutionized information theory, as it was proven that LDPC codes allow approaching the Shannon limit - the theoretical maximum channel capacity - when using iterative decoding algorithms (Belief Propagation) [3, 4].

However, despite the decoding efficiency, the problem of encoding LDPC codes has long remained non-trivial [5]. Classical linear block codes are defined by a generating matrix G , multiplication by which transforms the information vector u into a codeword c . For LDPC codes, which are primarily defined by their check matrix H (which describes the constraints, not the method of generation), constructing the matrix G is a mathematical challenge [6, 7]. Direct transformation of a sparse matrix H into G usually results in a dense matrix G , which has a quadratic coding complexity of $O(n^2)$ with respect to the block length n . Given that modern standards (e.g. DVB-S2) use blocks of length $n \approx 64800$

bits, the quadratic complexity is unacceptable for high-speed systems [8, 9].

The aim of this paper is to provide a comprehensive description of the mathematical methods for the transition from the verification matrix to the efficient coding process. Both classical linear algebra approaches and specialized methods for sparse matrices, in particular the Richardson-Urbanke method, which is the de facto standard in LDPC engineering, are considered.

1. Theoretical foundations of linear block codes over $GF(2)$

For a deep understanding of the mechanisms of matrix construction, it is necessary to turn to the foundations of linear algebra over finite fields [10].

1.1. Vector spaces and subspaces

Binary linear block code $C(n, k)$ is defined as k -measure linear subspace of a vector space $V_n = \{0,1\}^n$ over the Galois field $GF(2)$. The code parameters have the following interpretation [11]:

- n – codeword length (number of bits transmitted in the channel);
- k – code dimension (number of information bits);
- $r = n - k$ – number of check characters (redundancy).

In the field $GF(2)$ all arithmetic operations are performed modulo 2. Addition is equivalent to the logical operation "exclusive OR" (XOR), and multiplication is equivalent to the logical "AND". An important property is that addition and subtraction in $GF(2)$ are identical operations: $x + y = x - y$ [12].

1.2. Dual definition of code: Image and Core

A linear code can be specified in two complementary ways, each of which relies on a matrix representation.

Generator Matrix. Code C can be considered as the image of a linear mapping given by the matrix G of dimension $k \times n$. The rows of this matrix form the basis of the code subspace. The process of encoding an information vector $u \in \{0,1\}^k$ is described by vector-matrix multiplication:

$$c = u \cdot G,$$

where $c \in C$ – obtained codeword.

Since G has full rank k , this mapping is injective, which guarantees the uniqueness of the codeword for each message.

Parity-Check Matrix. Alternatively, the code C can be defined as the kernel of a linear mapping given by the matrix H of dimension $r \times n$. This matrix describes the system r linear equations that each vector in the space must satisfy in order to be considered a valid codeword. Membership condition of a vector c to code C is written as:

$$c \cdot H^T = 0.$$

Matrix H rows form the basis of the dual space C^\perp , which is the orthogonal complement of C .

1.3. Orthogonality condition

The fundamental connection between G and H follows from the definition of the code. Since each row of the matrix G is a valid codeword, it must satisfy the parity checks specified by the matrix H . This means that the dot product of any string G on any line H (transposed column H^T) is equal to zero. In matrix form, this condition is written as:

$$G \cdot H^T = 0_{k \times r},$$

where $0_{k \times r}$ – zero matrix of the corresponding dimension. This equation is the key to the algorithmic construction of one matrix based on another.

2. Methods for constructing the generator matrix

2.1. Algorithm for constructing the generating matrix: Classical approach

In the general case, when we are dealing with an arbitrary linear code (for example, a Hamming code or a short-length BCH code), the transition from H to G is carried out by reducing the matrix to a systematic form. This process is based on the Gaussian elimination method [13].

Systematic code form. A code is called systematic if, in each codeword, the information bits are located at fixed positions (usually at the beginning) and the check bits follow them (or vice versa). For the verification matrix H a systematic form is the representation:

$$H_{sys} = [P \mid I_{n-k}],$$

where P – submatrix of dimension $r \times k$; I_{n-k} (or I_r) – unit matrix of dimension $r \times r$.

If the original matrix H does not have this form, it can be reduced to it using elementary row operations and column permutations.

Mathematical derivation of G from H_{sys} . Consider the parity check equation for a systematic code. Let the codeword be c divided into an informational part u (of length k) and the verification part p (of length r):

$$c = [u \mid p].$$

Equation $H \cdot c^T = 0$ takes the form:

$$[P \mid I_r] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u^T \\ p^T \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

Performing block multiplication, we get:

$$P \cdot u^T + I_r \cdot p^T = 0.$$

In the field $GF(2)$ addition is equal to subtraction, so we can carry the addition:

$$p^T = P \cdot u^T.$$

Transpose both sides of the equation to express the row vector p :

$$p = (P \cdot u^T)^T = u \cdot P^T.$$

Now we can write down the complete codeword c through the information vector u :

$$c = [u \mid p] = [u \mid u \cdot P^T] = u \cdot [I_k \mid P^T].$$

Since by definition $c = u \cdot G$, we obtain an explicit expression for the systematic generating matrix:

$$G_{sys} = [I_k \mid P^T].$$

So, the construction algorithm consists in selecting the submatrix P from a systematic form H and transposing it to form the right-hand side G .

Example of construction for code above a field $GF(2)$ in dimension 3. Let's consider the construction of matrices for a specific example according to the query ("code over field 2 in 3"). We interpret this as a length code $n = 3$ over $GF(2)$ with parameters $(3,2)$.

Step 1: Defining the verification matrix H .

For the code $(3,2)$ we have $n = 3, k = 2, r = 1$. Parity check equation (sum of all bits is 0):

$$c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = 0.$$

Matrix H has dimension of 1×3 :

$$H = [1 \quad 1 \quad 1].$$

Step 2: Reduction to a systematic view.

Matrix H already looks like $[P \mid I_1]$, where $I_1 = [1]$. Submatrix $P = [1 \quad 1]$.

Step 3: Construction of G .

We use the formula $G = [I_k \mid P^T]$. Here $k = 2$, then $I_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Transposed matrix $P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let's combine them: $G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Verification:

$$G \cdot H^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+1 \\ 1+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The orthogonality condition is satisfied.

2.2. Specificity of LDPC codes: Density problem

LDPC codes are defined by the fact that their check matrix H is sparse [14, 15]. This is a key property for the efficiency of iterative decoding.

However, using the Gaussian method to obtain H_{sys} leads to a *fill-in* effect. As a result, the submatrix P (and therefore G) becomes dense.

Implications for the coder:

- *Quadratic complexity*: Multiplication by a dense matrix G requires $O(n^2)$ operations. For $n \approx 64800$ (DVB-S2) that's billions of operations per word.
- *Memory requirements*: Dense matrix storage G requires significant resources.

Therefore, modern LDPC systems use coding methods directly through a sparse matrix H [16].

2.3. Richardson-Urbanke Method: Linear LDPC Coding

The Approximate Lower Triangulation (ALT) method allows to minimize the complexity of coding [17, 18].

Structure H_{ALT} . The goal is to bring H by permutations to the form:

$$H_{ALT} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B & T \\ C & D & E \end{pmatrix},$$

where the matrix T – sparse lower triangular matrix.

Algebraic derivation. Code word vector:

$$x = [s^T, p_1, p_2].$$

The system of equations breaks down into:

1. $As^T + Bp_1^T + Tp_2^T = 0$;
2. $Cs^T + Dp_1^T + Ep_2^T = 0$.

Parity finding algorithm:

1. Calculate p_1 from the equation

$$\varphi p_1^T = z,$$

where $\varphi = D - ET^{-1}B$ – gap matrix of size $g \times g$; $z = ET^{-1}As^T - Cs^T$.

2. Calculate p_2 by the method of inverse substitution through a triangular matrix T :

$$Tp_2^T = -A(s^T + Bp_1^T).$$

With a small gap size g coding complexity approaches linear $O(n)$.

2.4. Quasicyclic (QC-LDPC) codes: The modern standard

The 5G NR, Wi-Fi 6 (802.11ax) and DVB-S2 standards use a special subclass of LDPC codes – Quasi-Cyclic (QC) [5]. Check matrix H is built from an array of circulants (cyclically shifted identity matrices). This allows hardware-level encoding to be implemented using linear feedback shift registers (LFSRs) with high efficiency and minimal memory overhead.

Construction of a binary LDPC matrix. Let the verification matrix H be given of size 6×12 over the field $GF(2)$.

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{cccccc|cccccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

Pay attention to the right side of the matrix (last 6 columns). It has a characteristic "bidiagonal" structure:

$$H_p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This matrix corresponds to the block T in the Richardson-Urbanke method (with $g = 0$).

Suppose we want to find parity p for vector $s = [1,0,1,0,1,0]$.

1. Calculate the syndrome $y = H_s \cdot s^T$:

$$y = [0,0,1,1,0,0]^T.$$

2. Let's solve the system $H_p \cdot p = y$ (back substitution):

$$p_1 = 0, p_1 + p_2 = 0 \Rightarrow p_2 = 0, p_2 + p_3 = 1 \Rightarrow p_3 = 1, \\ p_3 + p_4 = 1 \Rightarrow p_4 = 0, \dots$$

Result: $p = [0,0,1,0,0,0]$. Full codeword

$$c = [s \mid p].$$

Construction of a non-binary LDPC code based on algebraic geometry (HEC). In addition to classical binary codes, consider constructing a check matrix for a non-binary code over the field $GF(4)$, using the Jacobian points of the hyperelliptic curve (HEC).

Construction parameters:

The code is built on a Galois field $GF(2^2)$, elements of which $\{0,1,\alpha,\alpha^2\}$ generated by a primitive polynomial $p(x) = x^2 + x + 1$.

Field properties: $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1, \alpha^{-1} = \alpha^2$.

Curve and matrix: Curve used:

$$y^2 + (x^2 + \alpha x + 1)y = x^5 + x^3 + x + 1.$$

Verification matrix H_{NB} (Non-Binary) formed from points on a curve:

$$H_{NB} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \alpha & \alpha \\ 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 & 0 & \alpha & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

ALT encoding for $GF(4)$: System of equations for parity p over $GF(4)$ requires the use of inverse elements in the back substitution. Example of a solution fragment: If $\alpha^2 \cdot p_2 = S_2$, then $p_2 = S_2 \cdot (\alpha^2)^{-1} = S_2 \cdot \alpha$. This demonstrates that the Richardson-Urbanke method is successfully adapted for non-binary codes, providing higher error correction efficiency.

3. Discussion of the results of applying the proposed approaches to LDPC code construction

The development of modern 6G technologies requires further improvement not only in ensuring the appropriate level of information transmission speed, but also in ensuring security services [20–22]. For the first time, this applies to security services - confidentiality, integrity and authenticity [23–25].

Tables 1 and 2 show a comparison of the characteristics of 5G and 6G technologies, as well as a comparative analysis of the effectiveness of LDPC codes.

The analysis of Tables 1 and 2 showed that the use of LDPC codes is a promising area of research.

Table 1 – Comparison of 5G and 6G characteristics

№	Parameter	5G	6G
1	Data transfer rate	From 0.1 Gbps to 20 Gbps	From 1 Gbit/s to 1 Tbit/s
2	Reliability	Probability of error $< 10^{-5}$	Probability of error $< 10^{-9}$
3	Delay	Less than 5 ms	Less than 100 ns
4	Localization accuracy	Less than 10 cm in two dimensions	Less than 1 cm in three dimensions
5	Cryptography support	TLS/SSL	TLS/SSL + new encryption models
6	Coding mechanisms	Turbo, LDPC	LDPC, Polar, Post-Quantum Coding
7	AI support	Limited	Built-in (AI-native)

Table 2 – Comparative analysis of the LDPC codes` efficiency

Code type	Decoding difficulty	Corrective ability	Transmissi on speed	Resistance to attacks	Suitability for 6G
Hamming	Low	Medium (up to 1–2 bits/block)	High	Low	Limited
Reed-Solomon (RS)	High	High for block errors	Medium	Medium	Used in narrow channels
Turbo-codes	High	Very high	Medium	High	Used in 4G/5G
LDPC- codes	Medium	Very high (up to Shannon limit)	High	Very high (up to 40% BER reduction during channel attacks)	Optimal for 6G
Polar- codes	Medium	High at low SNR	High	High	Used in 5G, promising for 6G in combination with LDPC

In addition, works [26–28] proposed asymmetric cryptosystems that provide the necessary level of security in the post-quantum period (level 5–6 according to the requirements of the NIST Competition for post-quantum algorithms), and also integrated error control.

Work [29, 30] considered the issue of building crypto-code constructions based on LDPC codes.

Table 3 presents a comparative analysis of the characteristics of LT and LDPC codes.

The use of LDPC codes provides the possibility of creating post-quantum cryptosystems that can be used in

smart technologies and mobile technologies, as well as 5–6G technologies [31, 32]

Table 4 shows the comparative characteristics of wireless and mobile Internet technologies.

Thus, to ensure security in SCFS, it is proposed to use post-quantum algorithms – crypto-code constructions, which, unlike modern mechanisms of security services (standards KNX, IEEE802.11h, IEEE802.16e – use symmetric encryption algorithms) allow to provide the required level of crypto-resistance.

Table 3 – Comparative analysis of the LT and LDPC codes characteristics

Characteristic	LT codes	LDPC codes
Encoding type	Stochastic, fountain codes	Linear block codes
Code rate	Dynamic, without fixed speed (adaptive)	Predefined, fixed structure
The need for a return channel	No need	Used to achieve optimal performance
Computational complexity	Encoding: low; decoding: moderate	Encoding: complex; decoding: multi-step, iterative
Broadcast support	Complete, high efficiency	Limited implementation possibilities
High loss resilience	High – preserve data recoverability	Average – depends on the parity check matrix parameters
Application in 6G systems	High suitability (scalability, flexibility)	High efficiency under stable channel conditions
Decoding method	Iterative	Iterative
Code redundancy	Adjusts dynamically depending on channel quality	Fixed for a given code structure
Computational complexity	$O(K \log K)$	From $O(n)$ to $O(n^2)$, depending on the matrix density

Table 4 – Comparative characteristics of wireless and mobile Internet technologies

Technology	Providing security services					Degree of information confidentiality (β_i)				
	A_i^C	A_i^I	A_i^A	A_i^{Au}	A_i^{Inv}	1,0	0,75	0,5	0,25	0,01
LTE (4G), LTE (5G)	–	–	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	–	–
IEEE 802.11 ac (WiFi 5)	–	–	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	–	–
IEEE 802.11ax, Wi-Fi 6+KNX	–/+	–/+	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	+	+
IEEE 802.16+KNX	–/+	–/+	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	+	+
IEEE802.16m (WiMAX2)	–/+	–/+	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	+	+
IEEE 802.15.1 Bluetooth 5+KNX	–/+	–/+	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	+	+
IEEE 802.15.4+KNX	–/+	–/+	+	–/+	–/+	–	–	–	+	+
Mobile technologies + CCC на EC (MEC)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mobile technologies + HCCC на EC (MEC)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mobile technologies + CCC на LDPC-кодax	+	+	+	+	+	–	–	+	+	+

$A_i^C, A_i^I, A_i^A, A_i^{Au}, A_i^{Inv}$ – security services (A_i^C – confidentiality, A_i^I – integrity, A_i^A – accessibility, A_i^{Au} – authenticity, A_i^{Inv} – involvement); β_i – metric of the time and degree of information secrecy ratio (critical – 1,0; high – 0,75; medium – 0,5; low – 0,25; very low – 0,01).

In addition, crypto-code constructions on the proposed LDPC, algebraic and/or algebro-geometric codes allow to provide an integrated increase in the level of reliability (due to their error correction properties), efficiency (in terms of crypto-transformation speed, they are compatible with symmetric cryptography algorithms) and the required level of energy consumption, the results of comparative studies are given in the works [33–35].

Conclusions

The construction of the generating matrix G from the check matrix H is a fundamental problem in coding theory. For classical codes, this is a trivial linear algebra problem. However, for LDPC codes, the classical approach is unacceptable due to the loss of sparsity. The solution was to abandon the explicit use of G in favor

of approximate triangulation (ALT) methods of the H matrix and the use of quasicyclic structures (QC-LDPC), which has become standard in 5G and Wi-Fi. The integration of algebraic-geometric methods (HEC) opens up new prospects for creating codes with specified properties.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest in relation to the current study, including financial, personal, authorship, or any other, that could affect the study, as well as the results reported in this paper.

Use of artificial intelligence

The authors confirm that they did not use artificial intelligence technologies when creating the current work.

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Побудова породжуючої матриці LDPC-кодів

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Анотація. У цій статті подано детальний аналіз задачі побудови кодерів для лінійних блокових кодів із особливим акцентом на коди з низькою щільністю перевірок парності (LDPC). Метою роботи є надання всебічного опису математичних методів переходу від перевіркової матриці до ефективного процесу кодування. Розглядаються як класичні підходи лінійної алгебри, так і спеціалізовані методи для розріджених матриць. **Результати.** Розглянуто фундаментальні алгебраїчні конструкції, що лежать в основі дуальності між породжувальною та перевірковою матрицями над Galois fields, зокрема GF(2). Детально проаналізовано класичний метод гаусового виключення для систематичного кодування та виявлено його недоліки в контексті LDPC-кодів, пов’язані з явищем «заповнення» (fill-in) і втратою розрідженості. Центральне місце в дослідженні займає метод наближеної нижньої триангуляції, запропонований Tom Richardson та Rüdiger Urbanke, який дозволяє досягти лінійної складності кодування. Стаття містить детальний опис алгоритмів попередньої обробки матриць, математичне виведення формул для обчислення бітів парності, а також аналіз квазіциклічних конструкцій, що використовуються в сучасних телекомунікаційних стандартах, таких як 5G та Wi-Fi. Наведено повні числові приклади перетворень для кодів малої розмірності та детальний аналіз архітектури LDPC-кодера. **Висновки.** Рішенням стало відмовлення від явного використання породжувальної матриці на користь методів наближеної триангуляції перевіркової матриці та застосування квазіциклічних структур, що стало стандартом у 5G і Wi-Fi. Інтеграція алгебро-геометричних методів відкриває нові перспективи для створення кодів із заданими властивостями.

Ключові слова: коди з низькою щільністю перевірок парності; породжувальна матриця; перевірна матриця; наближена нижня триангуляція; квазіциклічні LDPC; гаусове виключення; лінійна складність кодування.