Failure Analysis of Two-Bit Flipping Decoding Algorithms

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Abstract—We consider a class of bit flipping algorithms for low-density parity-check codes over the binary symmetric channel in which one additional bit at a variable and check nodes is employed. For these two-bit flipping algorithms, we give and illustrate through examples a recursive procedure for finding all uncorrectable error patterns and corresponding induced subgraphs, referred as a trapping set profile. This procedure is used to select a small collection of good algorithms that in a decoding diversity approach, run in parallel or serial, outperform Gallager A/B, min-sum and sum product algorithm in the error floor region.

Index Terms—Bit flipping algorithms, low-density parity-check codes, error floor, trapping set.

I. INTRODUCTION

In many applications such as flash memory, fiber and free-space optical communications, due to high data transmission speed, a decoder can utilize only hard decisions from the channel. In addition, power consumption constraints may dictate using simple decoding algorithms. The simplest and fastest algorithms for decoding low-density parity-check (LDPC) codes on the binary symmetric channel (BSC), are bit flipping algorithms. While bit flipping is shown to be able to correct a number of errors linear in code length on several LDPC code ensembles, [1]–[3], it does not perform well on short and medium length codes. An extreme case are column-weight-three codes for which the guaranteed error correction capability is upper-bounded by \( g/4 - 1 \), where \( g \) is the girth of a code [4], resulting in the fact for \( g = 6 \) or \( g = 8 \) not even all weight-two error patterns can be corrected. It was believed that bit flipping is inferior to Gallager A/B algorithm, until Nguyen and Vasic have introduced a class of bit flipping algorithms [5] capable of surpassing Gallager A/B and even the sum-product algorithm (SPA). Unlike other recently proposed bit-flipping algorithms (for a comprehensive list of references the reader is referred to a journal version of this paper [5]) our algorithm does not use any soft information from the channel. It uses two bits to represent the state of variable and check nodes. Hence the name - two-bit flipping (TBF) algorithm. In [5] we gave a systematic procedure for selecting a set of TBF algorithms which can collectively correct more error patterns than any single TBF algorithm, and gave a framework for determining unrecognizable error patterns. In this paper we provide the detailed analysis of decoding failures of the TBF algorithms on column weight three LDPC codes.

As any other sub-optimal decoder operating on a Tanner graph of a code, the TBF also fails to converge due to the presence of certain small subgraphs in the Tanner graph, referred to as “trapping sets.” We define a trapping set for a given algorithm so that it provides sufficient conditions for decoding convergence. The set of all possible trapping sets of a given decoding algorithm is referred to as trapping set profile of a decoder. We analyze the recursive procedure, to determine a trapping set profile of any TBF algorithm.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II we introduce the TBF update rules, provide theorems establishing sufficient conditions for a decoding failure and introduce a notion of a trapping set profile of a given TBF. In Section III we present two recursive algorithms RA1 and RA2 used to enumerate graphs in a trapping set profile. We also give a detailed example elucidating intuition behind these algorithms. Section IV concludes the paper.

II. TWO-BIT FLIPPING ALGORITHMS

In this paper, we consider \((d_v, d_c)\)-regular LDPC codes given by the parity check matrix \(H\). The length of the shortest cycle in the Tanner graph \(G\) is called the girth \(g\) of \(G\). Denote by \(x\) the transmitted codeword. Consider an iterative decoder and let \(\hat{x}^l = (\hat{x}^l_1, \hat{x}^l_2, \ldots, \hat{x}^l_n)\) be the decision vector after the \(l\)th iteration, where \(l\) is a positive integer. At the end of the \(l\)th iteration, a variable node is said to be corrupt if \(\hat{x}^l_v \neq x_v\), otherwise it is correct. Let \(s^l = (s^l_1, s^l_2, \ldots, s^l_m)\) denote the syndrome vector of the decision vector after the \(l\)th iteration, i.e., \(s^l = \hat{x}^l H^T\). Also let \(s^l = y H^T\) be the syndrome vector of the channel output vector \(y\). A check node \(c\) is said to be satisfied at the beginning of the \(l\)th iteration if \(s^l_{c-1} = 0\), otherwise it is unsatisfied.

In [5] we have introduced a class of bit flipping algorithms in which both variable and check nodes have four different states and thus require two bits to represent them. A variable node \(v\) in addition to its value zero or one, can be also either strong or weak. We use \(0_v, 1_v, 0_w, 1_w\) to denote these states. The set of possible states of a variable node is thus \(\mathcal{A}_v\), i.e., \(\mathcal{A}_v = \{0_v, 1_v, 0_w, 1_w\}\).
We call a satisfied check previously satisfied if it was satisfied in the previous iteration, otherwise it is called newly satisfied. We define previously unsatisfied and newly unsatisfied similarly, and use \( v_0, v_n, 1_p \) and \( 1_u \) to denote these states. The set of possible states of a check node is thus \( A_v \), i.e., \( A_v = \{0, 1, 0_p, 0_u, 1_p, 1_u\} \).

The class \( F \) of TBF algorithms is given in Algorithm 1, where the vector \( z' = (z'_1, z'_2, \ldots, z'_n) \) gives the states of the check nodes at the beginning of the \( l \)-th iteration, while the vector \( w' = (w'_1, w'_2, \ldots, w'_n) \) gives the states of the variable nodes at the end of the \( l \)-th iteration.

The state \( w'_v \) of a variable node \( v \) is initialized to \( \Delta^0_v \) if \( y_v = 0 \) and to \( \Delta^1_v \) if \( y_v = 1 \). The state \( z'_v \) of a check node \( c \) is initialized to \( \Delta^0_v \) if \( s^0_c = 0 \) and to \( \Delta^1_v \) otherwise. \( \Delta_v = (\Delta^0_v, \Delta^1_v) \) and \( \Delta_c = (\Delta^0_c, \Delta^1_c) \) take their values from the sets \( \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \) and \( \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \), respectively.

A TBF algorithm \( F = (f, L, \Delta_v, \Delta_c) \) iteratively updates \( z'_l \) and \( w'_l \) until all check nodes are satisfied or until a maximum number of iteration \( L \) is reached. The check node update function \( \Phi : \{0, 1\}^2 \to A_v \) is defined as follows: \( \Phi(0,0) = 0_p, \Phi(0,1) = 1_n, \Phi(1,0) = 0_u \) and \( \Phi(1,1) = 1_p \). The variable node update is specified by a function \( \phi : A_v \times \Xi^w \to A_v \), where \( \Xi^w \) is the set of all ordered 4-tuples \( \xi = (\xi_1, 1^2, \xi_3, \xi_4) \) such that \( \xi_i \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \sum \xi_i = d_v \). In Algorithm 1, \( \chi^0_v(v), \chi^1_v(v), \chi^1_4(v) \) and \( \chi^1_3(v) \) give the number of check nodes with states \( \Delta^0_v = 0_p, 0_u, 1_p \) and \( 1_u \), respectively, that are connected to \( v \). The function \( f : A_v \times \Xi^w \to A_v \) defines the transition of a variable node from one state to another, must satisfy the conditions of symmetry and irreducibility defined in [5]. An example of \( f \) is given in Eq. 1, where \( f_1 : A_v \times \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \to A_v \) is the function defined in Table I, where \( d_v \) denote the number of unsatisfied check nodes that are connected to the variable node \( v \) at the beginning of the \( l \)-th iteration.

Algorithm 1 TBF Algorithm

\[
\forall v : w'_v \leftarrow \Delta^0_v, \forall c : z'_v \leftarrow \Delta^0_c, l \leftarrow 1
\]

\[\textbf{while } s'_c \neq 0 \textbf{ and } l < L \textbf{ do} \]

\[\forall v : w'_v \leftarrow f(w'_{v-1}, \chi^0_v(v), \chi^1_v(v), \chi^1_4(v), \chi^1_3(v)); \]

\[\forall c : s'_{c+1} \leftarrow \Phi(s'_c, z'_v); \]

\[l \leftarrow l + 1; \]

\[\textbf{end while} \]

TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( f_1 : A_v \times {0, 1, 2, 3} \to A_v )</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( w'_v )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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<tr>
<td>0</td>
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A. Good TBF Algorithms

Not all update rules lead to good decoding algorithms. We consider a subset of TBF algorithms satisfying certain constraints on on the images of the variable node update functions \( f \). \( \mathcal{F} \) denotes the set of these TBF algorithms.

The above mentioned constraints are given in Table II, which gives all possible values of \( f(0, \xi), f(0, \xi) \) for all \( \xi \). To conserve space, we sort the tuples \( \xi \) in \( \mathbb{Z}_3 \) in lexicographic order with the “<” relation and index these tuples from \( i = 1 \) to \( |Z_3| = 20 \). Then, an ordered tuple \( \xi_i = (\chi^0_0(v), \chi^0_1(v), \chi^1_1(v), \chi^1_2(v)) \) can be conveniently represented by its lexicographic index \( i \).

TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( i )</th>
<th>( f(0_s, \xi) )</th>
<th>( f(0_w, \xi) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1, 3</td>
<td>( (0_w, 1_w), (0_w, 1_u), (1_w, 1_w), (1_w, 1_u), (1_w, 1_u) )</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 4</td>
<td>( (1_w, 1_u), (1_u, 1_u) )</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5, 7, 11</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_w), (0_v, 1_w), (0_v, 1_u), (1_v, 1_w) )</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( (0_u, 0_v), (0_u, 1_u), (0_w, 0_v), (0_w, 1_w), (1_w, 1_w) )</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>( (0_v, 1_u), (1_u, 0_v), (0_v, 1_u) )</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v) )</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10, 16, 20</td>
<td>( (0_v, 1_u), (0_u, 1_v), (0_v, 1_u), (0_v, 1_u) )</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>( (0_v, 1_u), (0_u, 1_v), (1_w, 1_u), (1_w, 1_u) )</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v), (1_u, 1_v), (1_v, 1_u) )</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v), (0_u, 1_v), (0_v, 1_u) )</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15, 18</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v), (0_u, 1_v), (0_v, 0_v), (0_v, 1_u) )</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v), (0_u, 0_v) )</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>( (0_v, 0_v), (0_u, 0_v) )</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that the total number of algorithms in consideration is \( |\mathcal{F}| = \prod_i |\{ (f(0_s, \xi), f(0_w, \xi)) \}| = 41,472,000 \). For each \( i \), we index the elements in \( \{ (f(0_s, \xi), f(0_w, \xi)) \} \) from 1 to \( |\{ (f(0_s, \xi), f(0_w, \xi)) \}| \) according to their orders in Table II. Then, an algorithm \( F \in \mathcal{F} \) can be represented by an ordered tuple \( (o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_{20}) \), where \( o_i \) is the index of \( (f(0_s, \xi_i), f(0_w, \xi_i)) \). We sort these tuples in lexicographic ordering and assign to each an index from 1 to 41,472,000. Consequently, each algorithm in \( \mathcal{F} \) now corresponds to a number between 1 and 41,472,000.

To select a good algorithm from this huge number of possibly good algorithms, it is necessary to establish uncorrectable error patterns for different choices of the variable node update functions \( f \).

III. FAILURE ANALYSIS OF TBF ALGORITHMS

The main components of the failure analysis include the notion of trapping sets and trapping set profiles, and the procedure for finding a trapping set profile. We begin by defining trapping sets and decoding failures.

Definition 1 ([6]): For the channel output vector \( y \), let \( F(y) \) denote the set of variable nodes that are not eventually correct. For transmission over the BSC, \( y' \) is a fixed point of the decoding algorithm if and only if there exists a positive integer \( l_i \) such that \( \text{supp}(y') = \text{supp}(y^l) \) for all \( l \geq l_i \). If \( F(y) \neq \emptyset \) and \( y' \) is a fixed point, then \( F(y) = \text{supp}(y') \) is called a fixed set.

Theorem 1 ([4]): Let \( C \) be an LDPC code with \( d_i \)-left-regular Tanner graph \( G \). Let \( T \) be a set consisting of variable nodes with induced subgraph \( J \). Let the check nodes in \( J \) be partitioned into two disjoint subsets; \( C_{\text{odd}}(J) \) consisting of check nodes with odd-degree and \( C_{\text{even}}(J) \) consisting of check nodes with even-degree. Then \( T \) is a fixed set for the bit
flipping algorithms (serial or parallel) iff: (a) Every variable node in $V(J)$ has at least $\lceil \frac{d_v}{2} \rceil$ neighbors in $C_{\text{even}}(J)$ and (b) No collection of $\lceil \frac{d_v}{2} \rceil + 1$ check nodes of $C_{\text{odd}}(J)$ share a neighbor outside $J$.

We define a failure of a TBF algorithm as follows.

Definition 2 ([5]): Consider a Tanner graph $G$ and a TBF algorithm $F$. Let $V_{\text{c}}$ denote the set of variable nodes that are initially corrupt and let $J$ denote the induced subgraph on $V_{\text{c}}$. If the algorithm $F$ does not converge on $G$ after $t$ iterations, then we say that $F$ fails on the subgraph $J$ of $G$.

It can be seen that the decoding failure of $F$ is defined with the knowledge of the induced subgraph $J$ on the set of initially corrupt variable nodes, thus we need to enumerate all induced subgraphs $J$. While this is difficult in general, for practically important cases of small numbers of initial errors (less than 8) and small column-weight codes ($d_v = 3$ or 4), the enumeration of such induced subgraphs is tractable. To illustrate this, Table III gives the number of non-isomorphic, column-weight $d_v = 3, 4$, girth $g = 6, 8, \infty$ Tanner graphs with a small number of variable nodes.

| $|V|$ | $d_v = 3$ | $d_v = 4$ |
|-----|----------|----------|
|     | $g = 6$  | $g = 8$  | $g = \infty$ |
| 2   | 0        | 0        | 2          |
| 3   | 1        | 0        | 4          |
| 4   | 6        | 1        | 9          |
| 5   | 32       | 4        | 20         |
| 6   | 209      | 22       | 50         |
| 7   | 1619     | 113      | 133        |
|     | 6589     | 145      | 146        |

To determine the unconnectable $t$-error patterns, we start with $I$, the set of all $d_v$-variable-regular Tanner graphs with $t$ variable nodes. Induced subgraph on the set of any $t$-set of initially corrupt variable nodes is isomorphic to some graph in $I$. Let $I$ be a Tanner graph in $I$ and let $\delta_I(F)$ denote the set of Tanner graphs containing a subgraph $J$ isomorphic to $I$ such that $F$ fails on $J$. Then, if $C$ has its Tanner graph $G \in \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{I}} \delta_I(F)$, then there exist some unconnectable weight-$t$ error patterns and if $G \notin \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{I}} \delta_I(F)$, then algorithm $F$ can correct any weight-$t$ error patterns. Let us assume that we are only interested in trapping sets with at most $n_{\text{max}}$ variable nodes. Consider the decoding of $F$ on a Tanner graph $I$ with $V(I)$ being the set of initially corrupt variable nodes. Let $n_I = |V(I)|$. We focus on a subset $\delta_I'(F)$ of $\delta_I(F)$, which is formulated as follows.

Definition 3 ([5]): Consider a Tanner graph $S_1 \in \delta_I(F)$ such that $F$ fails on the subgraph $J_1$ of $S_1$. Then, $S_1 \in \delta_I'(F)$ if there does not exist $S_2 \in \delta_I(F)$ such that:

1) $F$ fails on the subgraph $J_2$ of $S_2$, and
2) there is an isomorphism between $S_2$ and a proper subgraph of $S_1$ under which the variable node set $V(J_2)$ is mapped into the variable node set $V(J_1)$.

The graphs in $\delta_I'(F)$ are referred to as trapping sets of the TBF algorithm $F$.

Definition 4 ([5]): If $S \in \delta_I'(F)$ then $S$ is a trapping set of $F$. $I$ is called an inducing set of $S$, $\delta_I'(F)$ is called the trapping set profile with inducing set $I$ of $F$.

What enables the recursive procedure to determine a trapping set profile, is the two following propositions proven in [5].

Proposition 1: Let $S$ be a trapping set of $F$ with inducing set $I$. Then, there exists at least one induced subgraph $J$ of $S$ which satisfies the following properties: (1) $J$ is isomorphic to $I$, and (2) $F$ fails on $J$ of $S$, and (3) Consider the decoding of $F$ on $S$ with $V(J)$ being the set of initially corrupt variable nodes. Then, for any variable node $v \in V(S)$, there exist an integer $l$ such that $0 \leq l \leq l_{\text{max}}$ and $w^l_v \in \{1, w_1\}$. Let $S \in \delta_I'(F)$ then $S$ is a trapping set of $F$. $I$ is called an inducing set of $S$, $\delta_I'(F)$ is called the trapping set profile with inducing set $I$ of $F$.

The recursive procedure for constructing a trapping set profile $\delta_I'(F)$ with at most $n_{\text{max}}$ variable nodes can be now defined as follows.

Let $I$ be induced by initially corrupt variable nodes, and let $O_I$ be a set of graphs obtained by adding a single, initially corrupt, variable node, to the graph $I$. If for some graph in $O_I$, the decoder either fails, it is a potential trapping set. If, on the other hand, the decoder succeeds, we put it to $E_I(1)$ indicates the first iteration), a set of subgraphs we know are not trapping sets. $E_I(1)$ is formed by repeating the above check for all other graphs in $O_I$. Determining the trapping set profile involves maintaining the list of $E_I(1), 1 \leq i \leq n_{\text{max}} - n_I$. The algorithm proceeds by expanding graphs in $E_I = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}} - n_I - 1} E_I(i)$. For all Tanner graphs in $E_I = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}} - n_I - 1} E_I(i)$, denoted by $K$, the expansion of $K$ is repeated resulting in $O_K$, the set of all Tanner graphs obtained by adding a single initially corrupt to the graph $K$ induced by all initially corrupt variable nodes, so that the added variable nodes remain corrupt at the end of second iteration but not a corrupt variable node at the end of the first iteration. By recursively adding variable nodes, all graphs in $E_{K}$ are enumerated.

We note that the algorithm proceeds by a double recursion: The algorithm $\text{RA1}$ enumerates graphs in $E_K$ by recursively
adding variable nodes. The algorithm RA2 recursively calls RA1 in order to enumerate graphs in $E_K$ for each graph $K$ in $E_l$. The trapping set profile is obtained after $L$ recursions of the second algorithm. The pseudocodes of the two algorithms, which we call the RA1 and the RA2, are given in Algorithms 2 and 3, where let $E_l^0 = \{I\}$.

**Algorithm 2 RA1**

**Input:** A Tanner graph $K$ which contains the induced subgraph $I$, the current decoding iteration $l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$

**Output:** $E_K = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}}-n_l-1} E^i_K$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$

**Execute:**

\[
E_K = \emptyset
\]

if $F$ fails on $I$ of $K$ then

if $K$ is a trapping set then

$\delta_l^I(F) \leftarrow \delta_l^I(F) \cup \{K\}$

end if

else

$E_K \leftarrow E_K \cup \{K\}$

Add one variable node to $K$ in different ways to obtain the set of Tanner graphs $O_K$. For each graph $U \in O_K$, the newly added variable node $v$ has states $w_0^v, w_1^v, \ldots, w_{n_v}^v \in \{0_v, 1_v\}$ and $w_i^v \in \{1_w, 1_s\}$

for all $U \in O_K$ do

Call the RA1 with $U, l$ as the inputs to obtain $E_U$

$E_K \leftarrow E_K \cup E_U$

end for

end if

**Algorithm 3 RA2**

**Input:** A set of Tanner graphs $E_l = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}}-n_l-1} E^i_l$, the current decoding iteration $l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$

**Output:** $\delta_l^I(F)$

**Execute:**

for all $K \in \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}}-n_l-1} E^i_l$ do

Perform one decoding iteration on $K$

\[
l \leftarrow l + 1
\]

if $l < L$ then

Call the RA1 with $K, l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$ as the inputs to obtain $E_K = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n_{\text{max}}-n_l-1} E^i_K$

Call the RA2 with $E_K, l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$ as the inputs

else

Call the RA1 with $K, l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$ as the inputs

end if

end for

The following example demonstrates the operations of these recursive algorithms.

**Example 1:**

We use $\square$, $\square$, $\square$, and $\circ$ to represent a previously satisfied check node, a newly satisfied check node, a previously unsatisfied check node and a newly unsatisfied check node at the beginning of the $l$th iteration, respectively.

Let $I$ be the Tanner graph which is depicted in Fig. 1(a). Assume the use of the TBFA2 called the “Algorithm 2” in [5]. Also assume that we are only interested in trapping sets with at most 8 variable nodes, i.e., $n_{\text{max}} = 8$, in a regular column-weight-three code with girth $g = 8$. The construction of the trapping set profile $\delta_l^I(F)$ starts with the initializations $\delta_1^I(F) = \emptyset$, $l = 0$, and $w_0^v = 1_v$ for all $v \in V(I)$. Then, the RA2 is called with $\{I\}$, $l$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$ as the inputs.

The RA2 first performs one decoding iteration on $I$. Fig. 1(b) shows the states of variable nodes in $I$ at the end of the first iteration and the states of the check nodes at the beginning of the second iteration. The RA2 then calls the RA1, passing $I$, $l = 1$ and $\delta_l^I(F)$ as the inputs.

The RA1 initializes $E_l = \emptyset$, then checks to see if $F$ fails on $I$ of $I$. Since $F$ does not fail on $I$ of $I$, $E_l$ is replace by $E_l \cup \{J\}$. The RA1 now tries to add one variable node $v_5$ to $I$ such that $w_2^v = 0_v, 1_w$. Since $w_2^v = 0_v, v_5$ would have to connect to three unsatisfied check nodes. However, since the set of unsatisfied check nodes at the beginning of the first iteration is $\{c_1, c_2, c_4, c_6, c_8, c_9\}$, connecting $v_5$ to any combination of three unsatisfied check nodes would violate the girth condition. Consequently, no variable node can be added to $I$ and $E_l = \{I\}$ is returned to the RA2.

The RA2 then calls itself, with $E_l$, $l = 2$, and $\delta_1^I(F) = \emptyset$ as the inputs. The 2nd level RA2 picks one graph in $E_l$. There is only one such graph. It then performs one decoding iteration on $I$. Fig. 1(c) shows the states of variable nodes and check nodes of $I$ at the end of the second iteration and at the beginning of the third iteration, respectively. The RA2 then call the RA1, passing $I$, $l = 2$ and $\delta_1^I(F)$ as the inputs.

Since $F$ does not fail on $I$ of $I$, $E_l$ is replace with $E_l \cup \{J\}$, hence $E_l = \{I\}$. The RA1 now tries to add one variable node $v_5$ to $I$ such that $w_2^v = 0_v, 1_w$. Due to the girth restriction, $v_5$ can connect to at most two check nodes in $\{c_1, c_2, c_4, c_6, c_8, c_9\}$. It is easy to see that $v_5$ must connect to exactly two check nodes in $\{c_1, c_2, c_4, c_6, c_8, c_9\}$, which is the set of unsatisfied check nodes. Fig. 1(d) and 1(e) show two different graphs obtained by two different ways of adding $v_5$. These two graphs form the set of Tanner graphs $O_I$.

The RA1 will now call itself $|O_I|$ times, with the inputs for each time include a graph in $O_I$. Consider the instance in which the graph shown in Fig. 1(e) is an input. Let $U$ denotes this graph. By adding one variable node to $U$ in different ways, the RA1 obtains three graphs, which are shown in Fig. 1(d), (f) and (g). These graphs form the set $O_{I'}$.

Now, let us consider the instance in which the graph shown in Fig. 1(g), denoted by $K'$, is an input to the RA1. Since $F$ fails on $I$ of $K$, the RA1 determines whether or not $K$ is a trapping set. It is easy to check that $K$ is indeed a trapping set and hence the RA1 stops expanding $K'$.

Finally, let us consider the graph shown in Fig. 1(f), denoted by $K'$. $K'$ is obtained by adding one variable node to the graph shown in Fig. 1(f). One can see that $F$ fails on $I$ of $K'$. However, $K'$ is not a trapping set, since $K'$ contains $K$. This is because the graph obtained by deleting $v_5$ from $K'$ is isomorphic to $K$. Therefore, the RA1 will discard $K'$.

When expanding a graph by adding variable nodes, it is critical that the RA1 results in distinct graphs to ensure a
manageable complexity. In other words, although there can be many possible ways to add a new variable node, some result in equivalent graphs. In the operation of the RA1, two Tanner graphs are equivalent if there exists an isomorphism between them such that under this isomorphism, the variable node set \( V(I) \) is mapped into \( V(J) \). In the enumeration of a trapping set profile, it is sufficient to consider only one graph in a set of equivalent graphs. Consider a Tanner graph \( K \) which contains the subgraph \( I \). Then, two subsets of check nodes of \( K \) are equivalent if the two graphs obtained by adding a variable node connecting to check nodes in each subset are equivalent. In the enumeration of graphs in \( O_K \), the RA1 should only add a new variable node that connects to check nodes in only one among all equivalent subsets of check nodes of \( K \).

The determination of equivalent check node subsets is facilitated with the following definitions as well as Proposition 3, which we state without proof.

**Proposition 3:** In the operation of the RA1, two subsets \( C_1, C_2 \) of check nodes of \( K \) are equivalent if there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of variable nodes that connect to at least one check node in \( C_1 \) and the set of variable nodes that connect to at least one check node in \( C_2 \), under which a variable node is equivalent to its image.

**IV. Conclusions**

We gave a systematic procedure for the analysis and selection of algorithms that can together correct a fixed number of errors with high probability. Using this procedure, we were able to construct TBF algorithms for column-weight-three codes with girth \( g = 8 \) outperforming the Gallager A/B algorithm, the min-sum algorithm and the SPA for different code rates and lengths. We have constructed all trapping set profiles with inducing sets containing four, five and six variable nodes for each algorithm in \( \mathcal{F} \), and designed a set of TBF algorithms that can collectively correct error patterns of weight 4 and 5 with high probability.

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