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Lecture Notes 22

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1 Error-Correcting Codes

- Goal: encode data so that it can be recovered even after much of it has been corrupted.
 - Useful for storage (hard disks, DVDs), communication (cell phone, satellite).
- **Def:** An code is an injective mapping Enc : $\Sigma^k \to \Sigma^n$ for some finite alphabet Σ , message length k and block length n.
- **Def:** For two strings $x, y \in \Sigma^n$, we define their Hamming distance to be

$$D(x, y) = \#\{i \in [n] : x_i \neq y_i\}/n.$$

- **Def:** A code Enc is *t*-error-correcting if there is a decoding function $\text{Dec} : \Sigma^n \to \Sigma^k$ such that for every message $m \in \Sigma^k$ and every received word $r \in \Sigma^n$ such that $D(r, \text{Enc}(m)) \leq \delta$, we have Dec(r) = m.
- Example: repetition code $n = k \cdot \ell$, $Enc(m) = (m, m, m, \dots, m)$ is t-error-correcting if $\ell \ge 2t + 1$.
- **Proposition:** A code Enc is *t*-error-correcting if and only if its minimum distance $\min_{m \neq m'} D(\operatorname{Enc}(m), \operatorname{Enc}(m'))$ is greater than 2t.

Proof:

Note: the minimum distance only depends on the set of codewords $C = \{Enc(m) : m \in \Sigma^k\} \subseteq \Sigma^n$ and not on how we map elements of Σ^k to Σ^n . Thus people often use the word *error-correcting code* to refer to the set C rather than the function Enc.

- Goals: Construct error-correcting codes for arbitrarily large message lengths k and:
 - 1. Maximize the relative decoding distance $\delta = t/n$, or equivalently the relative minimum distance. Ideally, these should be constants independent of k, e.g. $\delta = .1$).
 - 2. Maximize the rate $\rho = k/n$ (ideally constant independent of k, e.g. $\rho = .1$).

- 3. Minimize the alphabet size $|\Sigma|$ (ideally constant independent of k, e.g. $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$).
- 4. Have efficient (e.g. polynomial time or even linear time) encoding and decoding algorithms. (Note that decoding algorithm in proposition above is *not* efficient in general may require enumerating all strings at distance at most t from r.)

2 Reed–Solomon Codes

- Reed-Solomon Code: The q-ary Reed-Solomon code of message length k and blocklength n is a code RS : $\mathbb{F}_q^k \to \mathbb{F}_q^n$ with alphabet $\Sigma = \mathbb{F}_q$. We view the message $m = (m_0, \ldots, m_{k-1}) \in \mathbb{F}_q^k$ as coefficients of a polynomial $p_m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} m_i x^i$ of degree at most d = k-1. The encoding is $\mathrm{RS}(m) = (p_m(\alpha_1), \ldots, p_m(\alpha_n))$ where $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are fixed distinct elements of \mathbb{F}_q . (Thus we need $q \ge n$.)
- Proposition: The minimum distance of the Reed-Solomon code is n k + 1, and thus it is t-error-correcting for t = (n k)/2.
 Proof:
- Thus, taking e.g. n = 2k, we have constant rate ($\rho = 1/2$) and constant relative decoding distance ($\delta = t/n = 1/4$). The only downside is the nonconstant alphabet size ($q \ge n$), but this can be improved by combining Reed–Solomon codes with other codes (see PS10).
- Efficiency of RS Codes: The encoding algorithm for Reed-Solomon codes is efficient. It just requires evaluating a degree d polynomial at n points, which can be done with O(nd) operations in \mathbb{F}_q using the naive algorithm, and $O(n \log n)$ operations using Fast Fourier Transforms over \mathbb{F}_q . Decoding is nontrivial. Given a received word $r \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$, we want to find a message $m \in \mathbb{F}_q^k$ such that $\mathrm{RS}(m) = (p_m(\alpha_1), \ldots, p_m(\alpha_n))$ has distance at most t from $r = (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$. This amounts to solving the following problem.
- Noisy Polynomial Interpolation: Given n pairs $(\alpha_1, \beta_1), \ldots, (\alpha_n, \beta_n) \in \mathbb{F}_q \times \mathbb{F}_q$ with $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ distinct, we want to find all polynomials p of degree at most d = k 1 such that $p(\alpha_i) = \beta_i$ for at least s = n t values of i.
- Thm: The Noisy Polynomial Interpolation problem can be solved in polynomial time if $s > 2\sqrt{dn}$.

In particular, if n = 9k > 9d, we can efficiently decode from $t = n - 2\sqrt{kn} = n/3$ errors and still have constant relative rate (namely $\rho = 1/9$). On PS10, you will show how to improve this and decode up to t = (n - k)/2 errors, the same as guaranteed (inefficiently) by the minimum distance.

Proof:

Step 1: Find a nonzero *bivariate* polynomial Q(x, y) such that (a) $Q(\alpha_i, \beta_i) = 0$ for all *i*, and (b) the degree of Q in x is at most \sqrt{dn} and the degree of Q in y is at most $\sqrt{n/d}$.

You're showing how to do this on Problem Set 9.

- **Step 2:** Factor Q into irreducible polynomials, look for any factors of the form y p(x), and output all such p that appear.
 - Observe that if p(x) is a polynomial of degree d such that $p(\alpha_i) = \beta_i$ for at least s values of i, then the univariate polynomial S(x) = Q(x, p(x)) has at least s roots (namely the values of α_i such that $p(\alpha_i) = \beta_i$). The degree of S(x) is at most $\sqrt{dn} + d \cdot \sqrt{n/d} = 2\sqrt{dn}$. Since $s > 2\sqrt{dn}$, S(x) must be the zero polynomial.
 - The fact that Q(x, p(x)) = 0 means that p(x) is a root of Q, considering Q as polynomial in y with coefficients that are polynomials in y. That is, we consider Q(x, y) as an element of the polynomial ring R[y], where $R = \mathbb{F}_q[x]$. We know that for any integral domain R, if $g(y) \in R[y]$ has a root $\alpha \in R$, then $y - \alpha$ divides g(y) in R[y]. Taking $\alpha = p(x)$, we get that y - p(x) divides Q(x, y). Thus it will appear when we factor Q(x, y). (Multivariate polynomial rings F[x, y] have unique factorization, and this factorization can be done in polynomial time for most common fields, including finite fields.)
- Reed–Solomon Codes and versions of the above decoding algorithm are widely used in practice, e.g. on CDs and in satellite communications.