CS 6815: Pseudorandomness and Combinatorial Constructions Fall 2022

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In today's lecture, we continue our study of error-correcting codes.

## 1 The Singleton Bound

We establish a simple trade-off between dimension and distance that any linear code satisfies.

**Theorem 1.1.** Any  $[n, k, d]_q$  code must satisfy

$$k+d \le n+1 \tag{1}$$

*Proof:* Let C be an  $[n, k, d]_q$  code. Let code  $C_1$  be almost the same as C except with the first symbol removed from each codeword. The block size will now be of size n - 1. The Hamming distance will now be at least d - 1. This is because we are only removing one bit (one less possible differing bit) from the codewords produced by C.

$$C^1 \to [n-1,k, \ge d-1]_q \tag{2}$$

We can now remove the first *i* symbols to produce code  $C^i$ 

$$C^i \to [n-i, k, \le d-i] \tag{3}$$

Choose i = d - 1

$$C^{d-1} \to [n - (d-1), k, 1]$$
 (4)

The block size must be greater than or equal to the dimension of the code which gives us the singleton bound.

$$n - (d - 1) \ge k$$
  

$$k + d \le n + 1$$
(5)

This makes sense conceptually because as the number of messages increases, the more codewords you need to pack into  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , and thus the distance must decrease.

## 2 Welch-Berlekamp Algorithm

Recall the Reed Solomon code: given a message  $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{F}^k$ , we view it as the polynomial  $P_{\vec{a}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i x^i$ . Fix  $S = \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n\}$ , and the codeword is produced as follows

$$a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{k-1}) \to (P_a(\varphi_1), P_a(\varphi_2), \dots, P_a(\varphi_n)) = c \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

$$\tag{6}$$

The codeword is now sent through a noisy channel that makes e errors (i.e., changes at most e symbols).

$$c \xrightarrow{noisy \ channel} c' \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

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We can represent c' as a function f that evaluates to the corresponding symbols in c' on all the points in S

$$f: \mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F} \quad \forall i \in [n], \ f(\varphi_i) = c'_i$$

A key definition towards developing the algorithm for error-correcting RS codes is the following:

**Definition 2.1.** An Error-Locator Polynomial is a polynomial E is such that

$$E(x) = 0 \iff f(x) \neq P_{\vec{a}}(x)$$

In other words, E has a root whenever f and  $P_{\vec{a}}$  differ.

**Observation 2.2.** There exists a polynomial E of degree equal to e (the number of errors).

*Proof:* Let  $\{\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_e\}$  be the locations of the errors (all x where  $f(x) \neq P_{\vec{a}}(x)$ )

$$E(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{e} (x - \beta_i)$$

The following is a simple but key identity.

**Observation 2.3.**  $\forall x \in S, f(x)E(x) = P_{\vec{a}}(x)E(x)$ 

When f(x) and  $P_{\vec{a}}(x)$  differ, E(x) = 0 so the equality holds. When f(x) and  $P_{\vec{a}}(x)$  agree, the equality also clearly holds.

Now that we have proven the existence of E let

$$E(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{e} \gamma_i x^i$$
$$P_{\vec{a}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i x^i$$

We can now construct a system of equations by plugging in the values in S.

$$\forall x \in S, \quad f(x)E(x) = P_{\vec{a}}E(x) \tag{7}$$

Notice that this is a quadratic system of equations, and in general this is NP-hard. There is a clever way to avoid this that will result in an efficient algorithm.

The Welch-Berlekamp Algorithm On input c' or f, let  $N(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{e+k-1} n_i x_i$ .

Let 
$$E(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{e} \gamma_i x_i$$
.

Solve for  $\{n_i, \gamma_i\}$  in the following system of equations

$$\forall x \in S, \quad f(x)E(x) = N(x) \tag{8}$$

Output p = N/E.

*Proof:* We start off by observing that by choosing  $E^* = \prod_{i=1}^{e} (x - \beta_i)$  and  $N^* = P_{\vec{a}}(x)E(x)$ ,

indeed  $N^*, E^*$  satisfy  $\forall x \in S$ ,  $f(x)E^*(x) = N^*(x)$ .

Thus, if we can show that for any  $(N_1, E_1)$  and  $(N_2, E_2)$  that satisfy

$$f(x)E(x) = N(x) \tag{9}$$

then  $N_1/E_1 = N_2/E_2$ , the correctness of the algorithm will follow.

Let  $Q \equiv N_1(x)E_2(x) - N_2(x)E_1(x)$ .

$$\forall y \in S, \quad N_1(y)E_2(y) = f(y)E_1(y)E_2(y) = E_1(y)f(y)E_2(y) = E_1(y)N_2(y) \tag{10}$$

All  $x \in S$  are roots of Q (recall |S| = n). Additionally, we note that  $\deg(Q) \leq 2e + k - 1$ .

Recall that the Reed Solomon code has distance d = n - (k - 1), and thus combinatorially we can only correct codes up with e less than  $\frac{d}{2}$ . So  $e < \frac{n - (k - 1)}{2}$ , or 2e + k - 1 < n.

$$\deg(Q) \le 2e + k - 1 < n \tag{11}$$

Q has n roots but has degree less than n so Q must be the zero polynomial. This means  $N_1/E_1 = N_2/E_2$ , which finishes the proof of correctness.

## 3 Reed-Muller Codes

We now introduce a multivariate version of the Reed Solomon code.

**Definition 3.1.** The Reed-Muller code with m variables and degree r,  $RS(m,r)_2$  is constructed using a multivariate polynomial of at degree at most r.

$$P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_m) = \sum_{I \subseteq [m], |I| \le r} a_I x^I,$$
where  $x^I = \prod_{i \in I} x_i$ 
and  $a_I \in \mathbb{F}_2$ 

$$(12)$$

The number of coefficients is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{m}{i} = \binom{m}{\leq r}$$

The message is the vector of coefficients. To encode a message, we evaluate P at all points of  $\mathbb{F}_2^m$ . Thus, the block length of the code is  $2^m$ . Note that the Reed-Muller code is linear.

The Reed-Muller code is a  $[2^m, \binom{m}{\leq r}, d]$  code, where we will see later that  $d = 2^{m-r}$ .

**Definition 3.2.** The Hadamard Code is a special case of a Reed Muller Code, where we set r = 1.

Thus, the Hadamard Code is a  $[2^m, m, 2^{m-1}]$  code. It is not hard to see that our construction of a pairwise independent distribution (from an earlier class) is simply to output a random codeword of the Hadamard code.