

15-853: Algorithms in the Real World

ECC I (Overview, Hamming Codes, Linear Codes)

ECC II (Reed-Solomon Codes)

ECC III (LDPC/Expander Codes)



Error Correcting Codes III

– Reed-Solomon Decoding

– Overview of basic Number Theory

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Decoding RS codes in polynomial time

REED-SOLOMON DECODING

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Reed-Solomon Codes



Irving S. Reed and Gustave Solomon

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PDF-417



QR code



Aztec code



DataMatrix code

All 2-dimensional Reed-Solomon bar codes

images: wikipedia

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Viewing Messages as Polynomials

A $(n, k, n-k+1)$ code:

Consider the polynomial of degree $k-1$

$$p(x) = a_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

Message: $(a_{k-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0)$

Codeword: $(p(1), p(2), \dots, p(n))$

To keep the $p(i)$ fixed size, we use $a_i \in$ finite field of size q^r

To make the i distinct, $n \leq q^r$

For simplicity, imagine that $n = q^r$. So we have a $(n, k, n-k+1)_n$ code.

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Encoding/Decoding Time

Can choose any n “interpolation points”

E.g., choose n roots of unity

Can then use FFT for encoding, take $O(n \log n)$ time.

If there are no errors,

can use FFT to decode the codeword, also $O(n \log n)$.

If s errors, not clear what to do.

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Naïve Algorithm

Naïve algo: (say s errors)

1. “guess” the $n-s$ uncorrupted locations,
2. find degree- $(k-1)$ poly $Q(x)$ that has $P(i) = Q(i)$ for these $n-s$ locations i .
(if any exist)

Know; if the number of errors $s \leq (n-k)/2$

- a) we will output the correct polynomial $P(x)$
- b) we will never output any incorrect polynomial.

But “guess” = “enumerate”, so time is $(n \text{ choose } s) \sim n^s$.

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The Berlekamp Welch Algorithm

Say we sent $c_i = P(i)$ for $i = 1..n$

Received c'_i where $c_i = c'_i$ for all but s locations.

Let S be the set of these s error locations.

Suppose we magically know error polynomial $E(x)$
such that $E(x) = 0$ for all x in S .

And $E(x)$ has degree s .

Does such a thing exist?

Sure. $E(x) = \prod_{a \in S} (x - a)$

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The Berlekamp Welch Algorithm

Say we sent $c_i = P(i)$ for $i = 1..n$
 Received c'_i where $c_i = c'_i$ for all but s locations.
 Let S be the set of these s error locations.

Suppose we magically know error polynomial $E(x)$
 such that $E(x) = 0$ for all x in S .
 And $E(x)$ has degree s .

Then we know that

$$P(i) \cdot E(i) = c'_i \cdot E(i) \quad \text{for all } i \text{ in } 1..n$$

The Berlekamp Welch Algorithm

Know that

$$P(i) \cdot E(i) = c'_i \cdot E(i) \quad \text{for all } i \text{ in } 1..n$$

 Want to solve for polys $P(x)$ (of deg $k - 1$), $E(x)$ of deg s .

How? First, rewrite as:

$$R(i) = c'_i \cdot E(i) \quad \text{for all } i \text{ in } 1..n$$

 for polynomials R of degree $(k+s-1)$, E of degree s .

R has $k+s$ "degrees of freedom". E has $s+1$.
 Have n equalities.
 So perhaps can get solution if $(k + s) + (s + 1) \geq n$.

Return $\frac{R(x)}{E(x)}$.

The current situation

We know that

$$R(i) = c'_i \cdot E(i) \quad \text{for all } i \text{ in } 1..n$$

Suppose $R(x) = \sum_{j=1..k+s-1} r_j x^j$
 $k + s$ unknowns (the r_i values)

And $E(x) = \sum_{j=0..s} e_j x^j$
 $s + 1$ unknowns (the e_i values)

How to solve for $R(x), E(x)$?

The linear system

Linear equalities

$$r_0 + r_1 \cdot 1 + r_2 \cdot 1^2 + \dots + r_{k+s-1} 1^{k+s-1} = c'_1 \cdot (e_0 + e_1 \cdot 1 + \dots + e_s 1^s)$$

$$r_0 + r_1 \cdot 2 + r_2 \cdot 2^2 + \dots + r_{k+s-1} 2^{k+s-1} = c'_1 \cdot (e_0 + e_1 \cdot 2 + \dots + e_s 2^s)$$

...

$$r_0 + r_1 \cdot i + r_2 \cdot i^2 + \dots + r_{k+s-1} i^{k+s-1} = c'_i \cdot (e_0 + e_1 \cdot i + \dots + e_s i^s)$$

...

$$r_0 + r_1 \cdot n + r_2 \cdot n^2 + \dots + r_{k+s-1} n^{k+s-1} = c'_1 \cdot (e_0 + e_1 \cdot n + \dots + e_s n^s)$$

Linearly independent equalities. (Vandermonde matrix.)
 Under-constrained: n equations, $(k+s)+(s+1) = n+1$ variables.
 But that's OK, since scaling E, R by same constant also is a solution.

Math for both coding theory and cryptography

A NUMBER THEORY PRIMER

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Number Theory Outline

Groups

- Definitions, Examples, Properties
- Multiplicative group modulo n
- The Euler-phi function

Fields

- Definition, Examples
- Polynomials
- Galois Fields

Number theory is crucial for arithmetic over finite sets.

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Groups

A **Group** $(G, *, I)$ is a set G with operator $*$ such that:

1. **Closure.** For all $a, b \in G$, $a * b \in G$
2. **Associativity.** For all $a, b, c \in G$, $a*(b*c) = (a*b)*c$
3. **Identity.** There exists $I \in G$, such that for all $a \in G$, $a*I=I*a=a$
4. **Inverse.** For every $a \in G$, there exist a unique element $b \in G$, such that $a*b=b*a=I$

An **Abelian or Commutative Group** is a Group with the additional condition

5. **Commutativity.** For all $a, b \in G$, $a*b=b*a$

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Examples of groups

- Integers, Reals or Rationals with Addition
- The nonzero Reals or Rationals with Multiplication
- Non-singular $n \times n$ real matrices with Matrix Multiplication
- Permutations over n elements with composition
 $[0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 0] \circ [0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 0, 2 \rightarrow 2] = [0 \rightarrow 0, 1 \rightarrow 2, 2 \rightarrow 1]$

Often we will be concerned with **finite groups**, i.e., ones with a finite number of elements.

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Key properties of finite groups

Notation: $a^j \equiv a * a * a * \dots * a$ j times

Theorem (Fermat's little): for any finite group $(G, *, I)$ and $g \in G$, $g^{|G|} = I$

Definition: the **order** of $g \in G$ is the smallest positive integer m such that $g^m = I$

Definition: a group G is **cyclic** if there is a $g \in G$ such that $\text{order}(g) = |G|$

Definition: an element $g \in G$ of order $|G|$ is called a **generator** or **primitive element** of G .

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Groups based on modular arithmetic

The group of positive integers modulo a prime p

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* \equiv \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$$

$*_p \equiv$ multiplication modulo p

Denoted as: $(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, *_p)$

Required properties

1. Closure. Yes.
2. Associativity. Yes.
3. Identity. 1.
4. Inverse. Yes.

Example: $\mathbb{Z}_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$$1^{-1} = 1, 2^{-1} = 4, 3^{-1} = 5, 6^{-1} = 6$$

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Other properties

$$|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = (p-1)$$

By Fermat's little theorem: $a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Example of \mathbb{Z}_7^*

	x	x ²	x ³	x ⁴	x ⁵	x ⁶
	1	1	1	1	1	1
	2	4	1	2	4	1
Generators	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>
	4	2	1	4	2	1
	<u>5</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>
	6	1	6	1	6	1

For all p the group is cyclic.

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What if n is not a prime?

The group of positive integers modulo a non-prime n

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \equiv \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1\}, n \text{ not prime}$$

$*_p \equiv$ multiplication modulo n

Required properties?

1. Closure. ?
2. Associativity. ?
3. Identity. ?
4. Inverse. ?

How do we fix this?

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Groups based on modular arithmetic

The **multiplicative group modulo n**

$$Z_n^* \equiv \{m : 1 \leq m < n, \gcd(n,m) = 1\}$$

* \equiv multiplication modulo n

Denoted as $(Z_n^*, *_n)$

Required properties:

- Closure. Yes.
- Associativity. Yes.
- Identity. 1.
- Inverse. Yes.

Example: $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$

$$1^{-1} = 1, 2^{-1} = 8, 4^{-1} = 4, 7^{-1} = 13, 11^{-1} = 11, 14^{-1} = 14$$

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The Euler Phi Function

$$\phi(n) = |Z_n^*| = n \prod_{p|n} (1 - 1/p)$$

If n is a product of two primes p and q, then

$$\phi(n) = pq(1 - 1/p)(1 - 1/q) = (p-1)(q-1)$$

Note that by Fermat's Little Theorem:

$$a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod{n} \text{ for } a \in Z_n^*$$

Or for $n = pq$

$$a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{n} \text{ for } a \in Z_{pq}^*$$

This will be very important in RSA!

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Generators

Example of $Z_{10}^* = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$

Generators \rightarrow

x	x^2	x^3	x^4
1	1	1	1
<u>3</u>	9	7	1
<u>7</u>	9	3	1
9	1	9	1

For $n = (2, 4, p^s, 2p^s)$, p an odd prime, Z_n^* is cyclic

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Operations we will need

Multiplication: $a*b \pmod{n}$

- Can be done in $O(\log^2 n)$ bit operations, or better

Power: $a^k \pmod{n}$

- The power method $O(\log n)$ steps, $O(\log^3 n)$ bit ops

```

fun pow(a, k) =
  if (k = 0) then 1
  else if (k mod 2 = 1)
  then a * (pow(a, k/2))2
  else (pow(a, k/2))2

```

Inverse: $a^{-1} \pmod{n}$

- Extended Euclid's algorithm
 - $O(\log n)$ steps, $O(\log^3 n)$ bit ops

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Euclid's Algorithm

Euclid's Algorithm:

$$\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$$

$$\gcd(a,0) = a$$

“Extended” Euclid's algorithm:

- Find x and y such that $ax + by = \gcd(a,b)$
- Can be calculated as a side-effect of Euclid's algorithm.
- Note that x and y can be zero or negative.

This allows us to find $a^{-1} \bmod n$, for $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

In particular return x in $ax + ny = 1$.

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Euclid's Algorithm

```
fun euclid(a,b) =  
  if (b = 0) then a  
  else euclid(b, a mod b)  
  
fun ext_euclid(a,b) =  
  if (b = 0) then (a, 1, 0)  
  else  
    let (d, x, y) = ext_euclid(b, a mod b)  
    in (d, y, x - (a/b) y)  
    end
```

The code is in the form of an inductive proof.

Exercise: prove the inductive step

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Discrete Logarithms

If g is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_n^* , then for all y there is a unique $x \pmod{\phi(n)}$ such that

$$y = g^x \bmod n$$

This is called the **discrete logarithm** of y and we use the notation

$$x = \log_g(y)$$

In general finding the discrete logarithm is conjectured to be hard...as hard as factoring.

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Fields

A **Field** is a set of elements F with binary operators $*$ and $+$ such that

1. $(F, +)$ is an **abelian group**
2. $(F \setminus \{0\}, *)$ is an **abelian group** the “multiplicative group”
3. **Distribution:** $a*(b+c) = a*b + a*c$
4. **Cancellation:** $a*1_+ = 1_+$

The **order** of a field is the number of elements.

A field of finite order is a **finite field**.

The reals and rationals with $+$ and $*$ are fields.

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Finite Fields

\mathbb{Z}_p (p prime) with $+$ and $*$ mod p , is a **finite** field.

1. $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +)$ is an **abelian group** (0 is identity)
2. $(\mathbb{Z}_p \setminus 0, \times)$ is an **abelian group** (1 is identity)
3. **Distribution:** $a*(b+c) = a*b + a*c$
4. **Cancellation:** $a*0 = 0$

We denote this by \mathbb{F}_p or $GF(p)$

Are there other finite fields?

What about ones that fit nicely into bits, bytes and words
(i.e with 2^k elements)?

Polynomials over \mathbb{F}_p

$\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ = polynomials on x with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p .

- Example of $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$: $f(x) = 3x^4 + 1x^3 + 4x^2 + 3$
- $\deg(f(x)) = 4$ (the **degree** of the polynomial)

Operations: (examples over $\mathbb{F}_5[x]$)

- Addition: $(x^3 + 4x^2 + 3) + (3x^2 + 1) = (x^3 + 2x^2 + 4)$
- Multiplication: $(x^3 + 3) * (3x^2 + 1) = 3x^5 + x^3 + 4x^2 + 3$
- $1_+ = 0, 1_* = 1$
- $+$ and $*$ are associative and commutative
- Multiplication distributes and 0 cancels

Do these polynomials form a field?

Division and Modulus

Long division on polynomials ($\mathbb{F}_5[x]$):

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \boxed{1x+4} \\
 x^2+1 \overline{) x^3+4x^2+0x+3} \\
 \underline{x^3+0x^2+1x+0} \\
 4x^2+4x+3 \\
 \underline{4x^2+0x+4} \\
 \boxed{4x+4}
 \end{array}$$

$$(x^3 + 4x^2 + 3)/(x^2 + 1) = (x + 4)$$

$$(x^3 + 4x^2 + 3) \bmod (x^2 + 1) = (4x + 4)$$

$$(x^2 + 1)(x + 4) + (4x + 4) = (x^3 + 4x^2 + 3)$$

Polynomials modulo Polynomials

How about making a field of polynomials modulo another polynomial? This is analogous to \mathbb{F}_p (i.e., integers modulo another integer).

e.g. $\mathbb{F}_5[x] \bmod (x^2 + 2x + 1)$

Does this work? E.g., does $(x + 1)$ have an inverse?

Definition: An **irreducible polynomial** is one that is not a product of two other polynomials both of degree greater than 0.

e.g. $(x^2 + 2)$ for $\mathbb{F}_5[x]$

Analogous to a prime number.

Galois Fields

The polynomials

$$\mathbb{F}_p[x] \bmod p(x)$$

where $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$, $p(x)$ is irreducible,

and $\deg(p(x)) = n$ (i.e. $n+1$ coefficients)

form a finite field. Such a field has p^n elements.

These fields are called **Galois Fields** or **GF(p^n)** or \mathbb{F}_{p^n}

The special case $n = 1$ reduces to the fields \mathbb{F}_p .

The special case $p = 2$ is especially useful for us.

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GF(2^n)

\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = set of polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ modulo

irreducible polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ of degree n .

Elements are all polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ of degree $\leq n - 1$.

Has 2^n elements.

Natural correspondence with bits in $\{0,1\}^n$.

E.g., $x^6 + x^4 + x + 1 = 01010011$

Elements of \mathbb{F}_{2^8} can be represented as a **byte**, one bit for each term.

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GF(2^n)

\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = set of polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ modulo

irreducible polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ of degree n .

Elements are all polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ of degree $\leq n - 1$.

Has 2^n elements.

Natural correspondence with bits in $\{0,1\}^n$.

Addition over \mathbb{F}_2 corresponds to xor.

- Just take the xor of the bit-strings (bytes or words in practice). This is dirt cheap

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Multiplication over GF(2^n)

If n is small enough can use a table of all combinations.

The size will be $2^n \times 2^n$ (e.g. 64K for \mathbb{F}_{2^8})

Otherwise, use standard shift and add (xor)

Note: dividing through by the irreducible polynomial on an overflow by 1 term is simply a test and an xor.

e.g. $0111 / 1001 = 0111$

$$1011 / 1001 = 1011 \text{ xor } 1001 = 0010$$

^ just look at this bit for \mathbb{F}_{2^3}

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Multiplication over GF(2ⁿ)

```
typedef unsigned char uc;

uc mult(uc a, uc b) {
    int p = a;
    uc r = 0;
    while(b) {
        if (b & 1) r = r ^ p;
        b = b >> 1;
        p = p << 1;
        if (p & 0x100) p = p ^ 0x11B;
    }
    return r;
}
```

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Finding inverses over GF(2ⁿ)

Again, if n is small just store in a table.

- Table size is just 2ⁿ.

For larger n, use Euclid's algorithm.

- This is again easy to do with shift and xors.

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Polynomials with coefficients in GF(pⁿ)

Recall that \mathbb{F}_{p^n} was defined in terms of coefficients that were themselves fields (i.e., \mathbb{F}_p).

We can apply this **recursively** and define:

$\mathbb{F}_{p^n}[x]$ = polynomials on x with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_{p^n} .

- Example of $\mathbb{F}_{2^3}[x]$:
 - $f(x) = 001x^2 + 101x + 010$
Where 101 is shorthand for x^2+1 .

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Polynomials with coefficients in GF(pⁿ)

We can make a finite field by using an irreducible polynomial $M(x)$ selected from $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}[x]$.

For an order m polynomial and by abuse of notation we write:

GF(GF(pⁿ)^m), which has p^{nm} elements.

Note: all finite fields are isomorphic to $\text{GF}(p^n)$ for some p,n so $\text{GF}(\text{GF}(2^8)^4)$ is just another representation of $\text{GF}(2^{32})$.

This representation, however, has practical advantages.

The operations are more modular, easier to implement.

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