### Recap: Singleton bound

**Theorem:** For every  $(n, k, d)_q$  code,  $n \ge (k + d - 1)$ 

Another way to look at this:  $d \le (n - k + 1)$ 

Codes that meet Singleton bound with equality are called Maximum Distance Separable (MDS)

# Recap: Maximum Distance Separable (MDS)

Only two binary MDS codes!

Q: What are they?

- 1. Repetition codes (k = 1)
- 2. Single-parity check codes (n-k = 1)

## Need to go beyond the binary alphabet. Finite fields!

### Reed-Solmon (RS) codes

#### One of the most widely codes

- Storage systems, communication systems
- Bar codes (2-dimensional Reed-Solomon bar codes)



**PDF-417** 



QR code

DataMatrix code

### RS code: Polynomials viewpoint

**Message**:  $[a_0, a_1, ..., a_{k-1}]$  where  $a_i \in GF(q)$ Consider the polynomial of degree k-1 C-eff 8 = mrg symbols  $P(x) = a_{k-1}(x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0)$ done in RF(9) RS code: Codeword:  $(P(\alpha_1), P(\alpha_2), ..., P(\alpha_p))$ (distinct  $\alpha_i$ 's)

To make the  $\alpha_i$ 's in  $P(\alpha_i)$  distinct, need field size  $q \ge n$ 

That is, need sufficiently large field size for desired codeword length.

#### Minimum distance of an (n, k) RS code

**Theorem:** RS codes have minimum distance d = (n - k + 1)

**Proof:** Any ideas?

Hint: Is it a linear code?

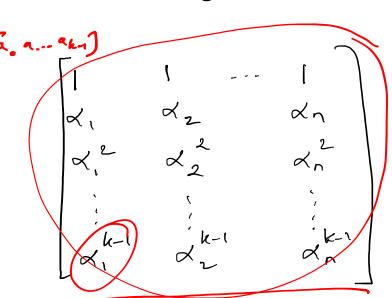
- 1. RS is a linear code: if we add two codewords corresponding to P(x) and Q(x), we get a codeword corresponding to the polynomial P(x) + Q(x). Similarly any linear combination..
- 2. So look at the least weight codeword. It is the evaluation of a polynomial of degree k-1 at some n points. So it can be zero on only k-1 points. Hence non-zero on at most (n-(k-1)) points. This means distance at least n-k+1

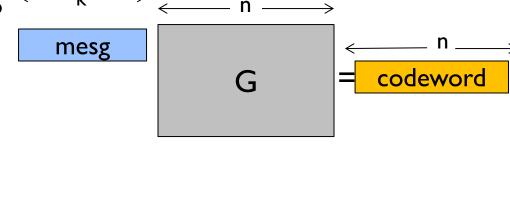
Apply Singleton bound

Meets Singleton bound: RS codes are MDS

#### Generator matrix of RS code

What is the generator matrix?





#### "Vandermonde matrix"

Special property of Vandermonde matrices: Full rank (columns linearly independent)

Very useful in constructing codes.

### Polynomials and their degrees

Fundamental theorem of Algebra: Any non-zero polynomial of degree m has at most m roots (over any field).

**Corollary 1:** If two degree polynomials P, Q agree on m+1 locations (i.e., if  $P(x_i) = Q(x_i)$  for  $x_0, x_1, ..., x_m$ ), then P = Q.

**Corollary 2:** Given any m+1 points  $(x_i, y_i)$ , there is at most one degree-m polynomial that has  $P(x_i) = \underline{y_i}$  for all these i.

**Theorem:** Given any m+1 points  $(x_i, y_i)$ , there is exactly one degree-m polynomial that has  $P(x_i) = y_i$  for all these i. Proof: e.g., use Lagrange interpolation.

### Decoding: Recovering Erasures

#### Recovering from at most (d-1) erasures:

d=n-k+1

# erasner = n-k

#### Received codeword:

```
[P(\alpha_1), *, P(\alpha_2), ...,*, P(\alpha_n)]: at most (d-1) symbols erased (where * = erased)
```

#### Ideas?

- 1. At most n-k symbols erased
- 2. So have  $P(\alpha_i)$  for at least k evaluations
- 3. Interpolation to recover the polynomial

Matrix viewpoint: Solving system of linear equations

#### Decoding: Correcting Errors

**Correcting s errors**: (d ≥ 2s+1)

4-17,25



#### Naïve algo:

- Find k+s symbols that agree on a degree (k-1) poly P(x).
  - There must exist one: since originally k + 2s symbols agreed and at most s are in error (i.e., "guess" the n-s uncorrupted locations)
- Can we go wrong?
   Are there k+s symbols that agree on the wrong degree (k-1) polynomial P'(x)? No.
  - Any subset of k symbols will define P'(x)
  - Since at most s out of the k+s symbols are in error,
     P'(x) = p(x)

### **Decoding: Correcting Errors**

**Correcting s errors**: (d ≥ 2s+1)

#### Naïve algo:

- Find k+s symbols that agree on a degree (k-1) poly P(x).
  - There must exist one: since originally k + 2s symbols agreed and at most s are in error (i.e., "guess" the n-s uncorrupted locations)

This suggests a brute-force approach, very inefficient. "guess" = "enumerate", so time is (n choose s) ~ n^s.

More efficient algorithms exist:

"The Berlekamp Welch Algorithm" (results in solving a system of n linear equations)

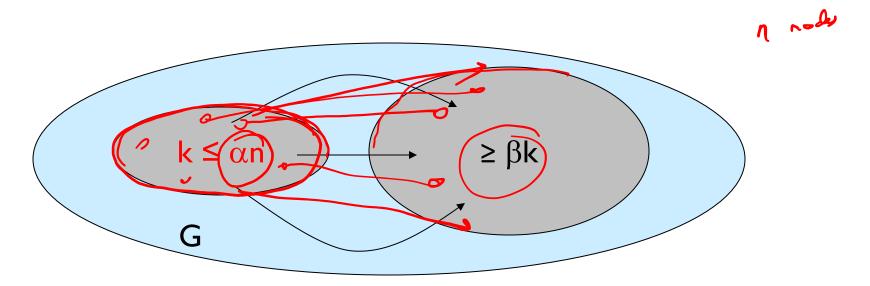
#### Codes based on graphs

Optimized for fast (de)coding

LOPC

- Based on graphical constructions
- Constructions based on properties of expander graphs

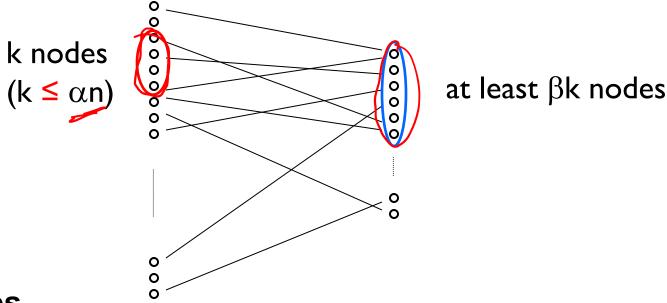
### (α, β) Expander Graphs (non-bipartite)



#### **Properties**

- Expansion: every small subset (k ≤ αn) has many
   (≥ βk) neighbors
- Low degree not technically part of the definition, but typically assumed

### $(\alpha, \beta)$ Expander Graphs (bipartite)



#### **Properties**

- Expansion: every small subset (k ≤ αn) on left has many (≥ βk) neighbors on right
- Low degree not technically part of the definition, but typically assumed

### d-regular graphs

An undirected graph is <u>d-regular</u> if every vertex has d neighbors.

A **bipartite** graph is **d-left-regular** if every vertex on the left has d neighbors on the right.

We consider only d-left-regular constructions. (And call it d-regular with abuse of notation.)

### **Expander Graphs: Constructions**

Important parameters: size (n), degree (d), expansion ( $\beta$ )

#### Randomized constructions

- A random d-regular graph is an expander with a high probability
- Time consuming and cannot be stored compactly

#### **Explicit** constructions

- Cayley graphs, Ramanujan graphs etc
- Typical technique start with a small expander, apply operations to increase its size

### **Expander Graphs: Constructions**

**Theorem:** For every constant 0 < c < 1, can construct bipartite graphs with

```
n nodes on left,
cn on right,
d-regular (left),
```

that are  $(\alpha, 3d/4)$  expanders, for constants  $\alpha$  and d that are functions of c alone.

"Any set containing at most alpha fraction of the left has (3d/4) times as many neighbors on the right"

### **TORNADO CODES**

Luby Mitzenmacher Shokrollahi Spielman 2001

#### Tornado codes

Goal: low (linear-time) complexity encoding and decoding

We will focus on **erasure** recovery

- Each bit either reaches intact, or is lost.
- We know the positions of the lost bits.

#### The random erasure model

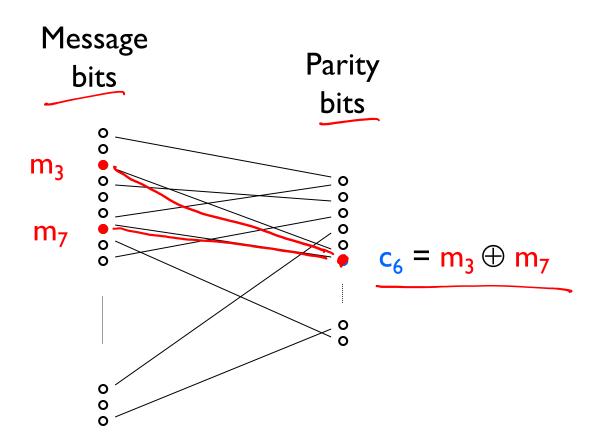
#### Random erasure model:

- Each bit is erased with some probability p (say ½ here)
- Known: a random linear code with rate < 1-p works (why?)

For simplicity.

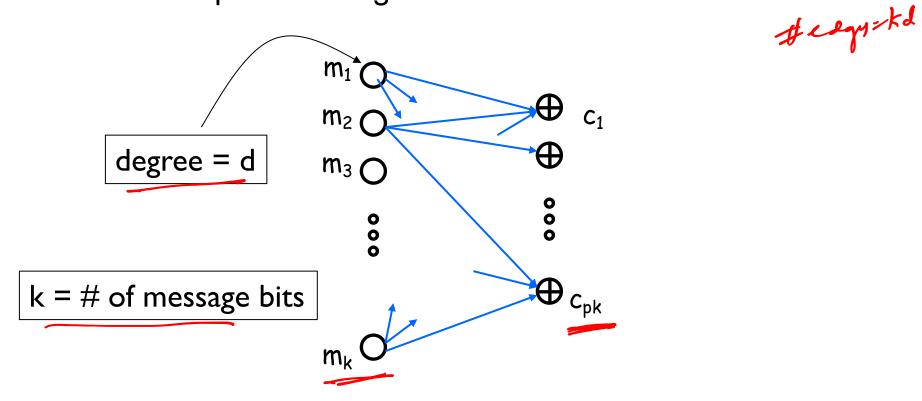
Can be extended to worst-case error, and bit corruption with extra effort.

[e.g., Spielman I 996]



#### Tornado codes

 Have d-left-regular bipartite graphs with k nodes on the left and pk on the right.

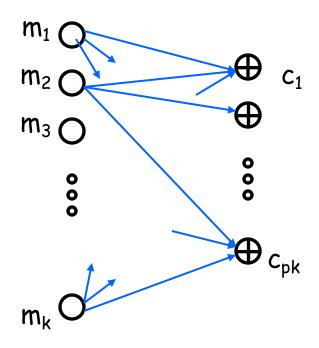


Let's again assume 3d/4-expansion.

### Tornado codes: Encoding

Why is it linear time?

(Hint: Look at the number of edges)



Computes the sum modulo 2 of its neighbors

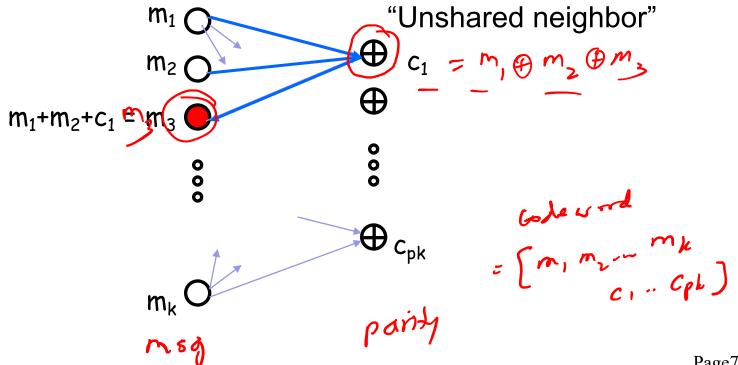
Number of edges = kd

### Tornado codes: Decoding

First, assume that all the parity bits are intact

Find a parity bit such that only one of its neighbors is erased (an unshared neighbor)

Fix the erased bit, and repeat.



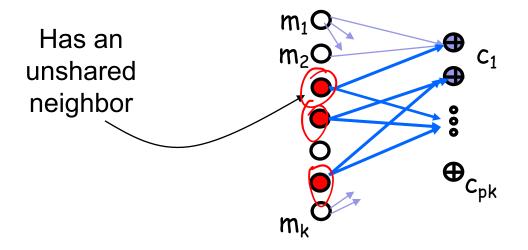
### Tornado codes: Decoding

#### Intuition:

Want to always find such a parity bit with "Unshared neighbor" property.

Consider the set of corrupted message bit and their neighbors. (Suppose this set is small.)

=> at least one message bit has an unshared neighbor.



### Tornado codes: Decoding

Can we always find unshared neighbors?

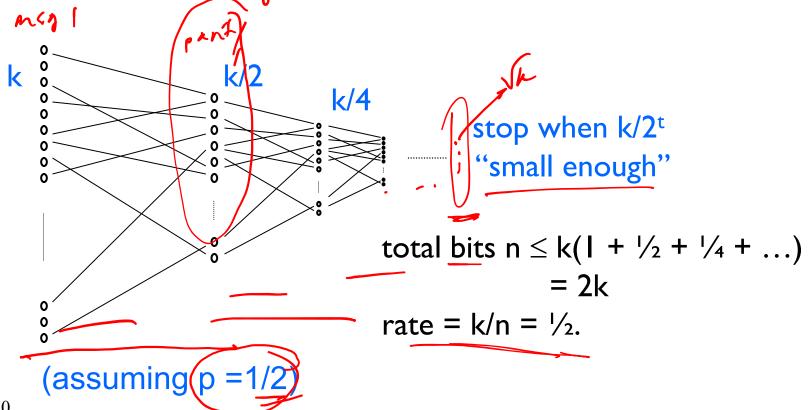
Expander graphs give us this property if expansion > d/2 (similar argument to one above)

Also, [Luby et al] show that if we construct the graph from a specific kind of degree distribution, then we can always find unshared neighbors.

#### What if parity bits are lost?

#### Cascading

- Use another bipartite graph to construct another level of parity bits for the parity bits
- Final level is grouped using RS or some other code



#### Tornado codes enc/dec complexity

#### Encoding time?

- for the first t stages :  $|E| = d \times |V| = O(k)$
- for the last stage: poly(last size) = O(k) by design.

#### Decoding time?

- start from the last stage and move left
- Last stage is O(k) by design
- Rest proportional to |E| = O(k)

So get very fast (linear-time) coding and decoding. 100s-10,000 times faster than RS