## 6. Decoding Generalized Reed-Solomon Codes

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- We consider $\mathcal{C}_{\text {GRS }}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ with PCM

$$
H_{\mathrm{GRS}}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & \ldots & 1 \\
\alpha_{1} & \alpha_{2} & \cdots & \alpha_{n} \\
\alpha_{1}^{2} & \alpha_{2}^{2} & \cdots & \alpha_{n}^{2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\alpha_{1}^{\ell} & \alpha_{2}^{\ell} & \cdots & \alpha_{n}^{\ell} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\alpha_{1}^{r-1} & \alpha_{2}^{r-1} & \ldots & \alpha_{n}^{r-1}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{llll}
v_{1} & & & \\
& v_{2} & & 0 \\
0 & & \ddots & \\
& & & v_{n}
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{*}$ distinct, and $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{*}$ (recall that $r=n-k=d-1$ ).

- Codeword $\mathbf{c}$ transmitted, word $\mathbf{y}$ received, with error vector

$$
\mathbf{e}=\left(e_{1} e_{2} \ldots e_{n}\right)=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}
$$

- $J=\left\{\kappa: e_{\kappa} \neq 0\right\}$ set of error locations.
- We describe an algorithm that correctly decodes y to $\mathbf{c}$, under the assumption $|J| \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$.


## Syndrome Computation

- First step of the decoding algorithm: syndrome computation

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{S} & =\left(\begin{array}{c}
S_{0} \\
S_{1} \\
\vdots \\
S_{r-1}
\end{array}\right)=H_{\mathrm{GRS}} \mathbf{y}^{T}=H_{\mathrm{GRS}} \mathbf{e}^{T} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\ell \text { th row of } H_{\mathrm{GRS}}: \\
{\left[v_{1} \alpha_{1}^{\ell}, v_{2} \alpha_{2}^{\ell}, \ldots, v_{n} \alpha_{n}^{\ell}\right]}
\end{array} \\
S_{\ell} & =\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} v_{j} \alpha_{j}^{\ell}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} e_{j} v_{j} \alpha_{j}^{\ell}=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \alpha_{j}^{\ell}, \quad \ell=0,1, \ldots, r-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: For conventional RS codes, we have $\alpha_{j}=\alpha^{j-1}$ and $v_{j}=\alpha^{b(j-1)}$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{\ell}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} \alpha^{(j-1)(b+\ell)}=y\left(\alpha^{b+\ell}\right), \quad \ell=0,1, \ldots, r-1 \\
\quad\left(\text { recall } \mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{RS}} \Leftrightarrow c\left(\alpha^{b+\ell}\right)=0, \ell=0,1, \ldots r-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Syndrome polynomial:

$$
S(x)=\sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1} S_{\ell} x^{\ell}=\sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1} x^{\ell} \sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \alpha_{j}^{\ell}=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1}\left(\alpha_{j} x\right)^{\ell}
$$

## A Congruence for the Syndrome Polynomial

$$
S(x)=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1}\left(\alpha_{j} x\right)^{\ell}
$$

- We have

$$
\sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1} z^{\ell}=\frac{1-z^{r}}{1-z}
$$

$$
\left(1-\alpha_{j} x\right) \sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1}\left(\alpha_{j} x\right)^{\ell}=1-\left(\alpha_{j} x\right)^{r} \equiv 1\left(\bmod x^{r}\right)
$$

any field

Therefore, we can write

$$
\sum_{\ell=0}^{r-1}\left(\alpha_{j} x\right)^{\ell} \equiv \frac{1}{1-\alpha_{j} x}\left(\bmod x^{r}\right)
$$

$$
\Longrightarrow \quad S(x) \equiv \sum_{j \in J} \frac{e_{j} v_{j}}{1-\alpha_{j} x} \quad\left(\bmod x^{r}\right)
$$

$$
\left(\sum_{\text {empty }} \square \triangleq 0\right)
$$

## More Auxiliary Polynomials

- Error locator polynomial (ELP)

$$
\Lambda(x)=\prod_{j \in J}\left(1-\alpha_{j} x\right) \quad\left(\prod_{\text {empty }} \square \triangleq 1\right)
$$

- Error evaluator polynomial (EEP)

$$
\Gamma(x)=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{j\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} x\right)
$$

- $\Lambda\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right)=0 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \kappa \in J \quad$ roots of EEP point to error locations
- $\Gamma\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right)=e_{\kappa} v_{\kappa} \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{\kappa\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} \alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right) \neq 0$

$$
\Longrightarrow \quad \operatorname{gcd}(\Lambda(x), \Gamma(x))=1
$$

- The degrees of ELP and EEP satisfy

$$
\operatorname{deg} \Lambda=|J| \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{deg} \Gamma<|J|
$$

Of course, we don't know $\Lambda(x), \Gamma(x)$ : our goal is to find them

## Key Equation of GRS Decoding

Since $|J| \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$, from $\operatorname{deg} \Lambda=|J|, \operatorname{deg} \Gamma<|J|$ we get
(1) $\operatorname{deg} \Lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$
and
(2) $\operatorname{deg} \Gamma<\frac{1}{2}(d-1)$

The ELP and the EEP are related by

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Gamma(x)=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{j\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} x\right)=\sum_{j \in J} e_{j} v_{j} \frac{\Lambda(x)}{1-\alpha_{j} x}=\Lambda\left(x \sum_{j \in J} \frac{e_{j} v_{j}}{1-\alpha_{j} x}\right) \\
\Longrightarrow(3) \quad \Lambda(x) S(x) \equiv \Gamma(x) \quad\left(\bmod x^{d-1}\right) \\
(1)+(2)+(3): \text { key equation of GRS decoding }
\end{gathered}
$$

We have $S(x)$, and we know $d$. We want to solve for $\Lambda(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)$ satisfying (1) $+(2)+(3)$.

## Key Equation of GRS Decoding (cont.)

(1)
$\operatorname{deg} \Lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$
(2) $\operatorname{deg} \Gamma<\frac{1}{2}(d-1)$
$\Gamma(x)\left(\bmod x^{d-1}\right)$

The coefficients of $\Lambda(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)$ satisfy the following (with $\tau \triangleq\left\lfloor\frac{d-1}{2}\right\rfloor$ ):


- a set of $r=d-1$ linear equations in the coefficients of $\Lambda$ and $\Gamma$
- the last $\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2}(d-1)\right\rfloor$ equations depend only on $\Lambda$
- we can solve for $\Lambda$, find its root set $J$, then solve linear equations for $e_{j}$
- straightforward solution leads to $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ algorithm — we'll present an $O\left(d^{2}\right)$ one


## The Extended Euclidean Algorithm for polynomials

Given $a(x), b(x)$ over a field $\mathbb{F}$, with $a(x) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{deg} a>\operatorname{deg} b$, the algorithm computes sequences of
remainders $r_{i}(x)$, quotients $q_{i}(x)$, and auxiliary polynomials $s_{i}(x), t_{i}(x)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{-1}(x) \leftarrow a(x) ; r_{0}(x) \leftarrow b(x) ; \\
& s_{-1}(x) \leftarrow 1 ; s_{0}(x) \leftarrow 0 ; \\
& t_{-1}(x) \leftarrow 0 ; t_{0}(x) \leftarrow 1 ; \\
& \text { for }\left(i \leftarrow 1 ; r_{i-1}(x) \neq 0 ; i++\right)\{ \\
& \quad q_{i}(x) \leftarrow r_{i-2}(x) \operatorname{div} r_{i-1}(x) ; \\
& \quad r_{i}(x) \leftarrow r_{i-2}(x)-q_{i}(x) r_{i-1}(x) ; \\
& \quad s_{i}(x) \leftarrow s_{i-2}(x)-q_{i}(x) s_{i-1}(x) ; \\
& \quad t_{i}(x) \leftarrow t_{i-2}(x)-q_{i}(x) t_{i-1}(x) ; \\
& \}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Let $\nu=$ largest $i$ such that $r_{i} \neq 0$. Then, $r_{\nu}(x)=\operatorname{gcd}(a(x), b(x))$.
- We also know that $s_{\nu}(x) a(x)+t_{\nu}(x) b(x)=\operatorname{gcd}(a(x), b(x))$ (often used to compute modular inverses).


## Properties of the Euclidean Algorithm Sequences

## Proposition (E1)

The following relations hold:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (i) For } i=-1,0, \ldots, \nu+1: \quad s_{i}(x) a(x)+t_{i}(x) b(x)=r_{i}(x) \\
& \text { (ii) For } i=0,1, \ldots, \nu+1: \quad \operatorname{deg} t_{i}+\operatorname{deg} r_{i-1}=\operatorname{deg} a
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. By induction on $i . \square$

## Proposition (E2)

Suppose that $t(x), r(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x] \backslash\{0\}$ satisfy the following conditions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (C1) } \operatorname{gcd}(t(x), r(x))=1 \\
& \text { (C2) } \operatorname{deg} t+\operatorname{deg} r<\operatorname{deg} a \\
& \text { (C3) } t(x) b(x) \equiv r(x)(\bmod a(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, for some $h \in\{0,1, \ldots, \nu+1\}$ and a constant $c \in \mathbb{F}$, we have

$$
t(x)=c \cdot t_{h}(x) \quad \text { and } \quad r(x)=c \cdot r_{h}(x) .
$$

Proof. Standard polynomial manipulations, Proposition (E1), and recalling that the sequence $\operatorname{deg} r_{i}$ is strictly decreasing.

## Solving the Key Equation

- Apply the Euclidean algorithm with $a(x)=x^{d-1}$ and $b(x)=S(x)$.
- Let $\Lambda(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)$ play the roles of $t(x)$ and $r(x)$, respectively, in Proposition (E2). The definitions of $\Lambda$ and $\Gamma$, and the key equation, guarantee that conditions (C1)-(C3) are satisfied.
(C1) $\operatorname{gcd}(t(x), r(x))=\operatorname{gcd}(\Lambda(x), \Gamma(x))=1$
(C2) $\operatorname{deg} t+\operatorname{deg} r=\operatorname{deg} \Lambda+\operatorname{deg} \Gamma<\operatorname{deg} a=d-1$
(C3) $t(x) b(x) \equiv r(x) \bmod a(x) \Leftrightarrow \Lambda(x) S(x) \equiv \Gamma(x) \bmod x^{d-1}$
- By Proposition (E2), we have $\Lambda(x)=c \cdot t_{h}(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)=c \cdot r_{h}(x)$ for some index $h$ and scalar constant $c$.

How do we find index $h$ ?

## Theorem

The solution to the key equation is unique up to a scalar constant, and it is obtained with the Euclidean algorithm by stopping at the unique index $h$ such that

$$
\operatorname{deg} r_{h}<\frac{1}{2}(d-1) \leq \operatorname{deg} r_{h-1}
$$

Proof. Such an $h$ exists because $r_{i}$ is strictly decreasing. The degree properties (1), (2) follow from the definition of $h$, and Prop. (E1). $\square$

## Finding the Error Values

- Formal derivatives in finite fields: $\left[\sum_{i=0}^{s} a_{i} x^{i}\right]^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{s} i a_{i} x^{i-1}$ $(a(x) b(x))^{\prime}=a^{\prime}(x) b(x)+a(x) b^{\prime}(x) \quad$ (not surprising)
- For the ELP, we have

$$
\Lambda(x)=\prod_{j \in J}\left(1-\alpha_{j} x\right) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \Lambda^{\prime}(x)=\sum_{j \in J}\left(-\alpha_{j}\right) \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{j\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} x\right)
$$

and, for $\kappa \in J$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Lambda^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right) & =-\alpha_{\kappa} \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{\kappa\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} \alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right), \\
\Gamma\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right) & =e_{\kappa} v_{\kappa} \prod_{m \in J \backslash\{\kappa\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} \alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Therefore, for all error locations $\kappa \in J$, we obtain

$$
e_{\kappa}=-\frac{\alpha_{\kappa}}{v_{\kappa}} \cdot \frac{\Gamma\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right)}{\Lambda^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{\kappa}^{-1}\right)}
$$

Forney's algorithm for error values

## Summary of GRS Decoding

Input: received word $\left(y_{1} y_{2} \ldots y_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.
Output: error vector $\left(e_{1} e_{2} \ldots e_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.
(1) Syndrome computation: Compute the polynomial $S(x)=\sum_{\ell=0}^{d-2} S_{\ell} x^{\ell}$ by

$$
S_{\ell}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} v_{j} \alpha_{j}^{\ell}, \quad \ell=0,1, \ldots, d-2
$$

(2) Solving the key equation: Apply Euclid's algorithm to $a(x) \leftarrow x^{d-1}$ and $b(x) \leftarrow S(x)$ to produce $\Lambda(x) \leftarrow t_{h}(x)$ and $\Gamma(x) \leftarrow r_{h}(x)$, where $h$ is the smallest index $i$ for which $\operatorname{deg} r_{i}<\frac{1}{2}(d-1)$.
(3) Forney's algorithm: Compute the error locations and values by

$$
e_{j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
-\frac{\alpha_{j}}{v_{j}} \cdot \frac{\Gamma\left(\alpha_{j}^{-1}\right)}{\Lambda^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{j}^{-1}\right)} & \text { if } \Lambda\left(\alpha_{j}^{-1}\right)=0 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} \quad, \quad j=1,2, \ldots, n\right.
$$

Complexity: 1. $O(d n)$
2. $O((|J|+1) d)$
3. $O((|J|+1) n)$

## Schematic for GRS Decoder



## Decoding Failures and Decoding Errors

- The GRS decoding algorithm assumes several properties of the objects it constructs, derived from the initial assumption that $|J| \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$.
- If the initial assumption is not true, then some of the derived properties may not hold. When this is detected, we say there is a decoding failure: we know errors have occurred, but we cannot correct them.
- Properties to check (assuming $\mathbf{S} \neq 0$ ):
- $\operatorname{deg} \Gamma<\operatorname{deg} \Lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)$.
- The number of distinct roots of $\Lambda$ in the set $\left\{\alpha_{i}^{-1}: 1 \leq i \leq n\right\}$ is equal to its degree.
- If $\Lambda\left(\alpha_{i}^{-1}\right)=0$, then $\Gamma\left(\alpha_{i}^{-1}\right) \neq 0$ (error values are nonzero).
- The ultimate test for decoding correctness is to check the syndrome of the corrected "codeword" $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{e}: H_{\mathrm{GRS}} \tilde{\mathbf{c}}^{T}=\mathbf{0}$ (after also verifying that $\left.w t(\mathbf{e}) \leq \frac{1}{2}(d-1)\right)$. This has a (possibly significant) complexity cost.
- There will be cases where $|J|>\frac{1}{2}(d-1)$ but all the other assumptions hold. In those cases, the decoder will proceed normally, and will output the wrong codeword. This situation is referred to as a decoding error. Decoding failures can (and should) be detected. Decoding errors cannot.


## Decoding Errors and Erasures

- Assume a codeword $\mathbf{c}=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)$ is sent through an errors/erasures channel, and $\mathbf{y}=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ is received, $y_{i} \in \mathbb{F} \cup\{?\}$.
- Define the set of erasure locations as $K=\left\{j: y_{j}=\right.$ ? $\}$, and the set of error locations as $J=\left\{j: j \notin K, y_{j} \neq c_{j}\right\}$.
The set $K$ is known to the decoder. As before, the set $J$ is not.
- Recall: an error/erasures pattern is correctable iff $2|J|+|K| \leq d-1$.
- We modify the GRS decoding algorithm to handle errors and erasures.
- Syndrome computation: for $j \in K$, set $y_{j}=0$ (no ? in the computation).
- The syndrome polynomial $S(x)$ and error locator polynomial $\Lambda(x)$ are defined as before. We also define the erasure locator polynomial

$$
M(x)=\prod_{j \in K}\left(1-\alpha_{j} x\right)
$$

- The definition of the error evaluator polynomial is modified as

$$
\Gamma(x)=\sum_{j \in K \cup J} e_{j} v_{j} \prod_{m \in(K \cup J) \backslash\{j\}}\left(1-\alpha_{m} x\right) .
$$

$S(x)$ and $M(x)$ are known to the decoder.

## Decoding Errors and Erasures

With $S(x)$ and $M(x)$ at hand, the algorithm proceeds as follows:
(1) Let $\rho=|K|$. If $\rho>d-1$, stop. The error pattern is uncorrectable.
(2) Compute a modified syndrome polynomial

$$
\tilde{S}(x)=M(x) S(x) \bmod x^{d-1} .
$$

(3) Run the extended Euclidean algorithm starting with $a(x)=x^{d-1}$ and $b(x)=\tilde{S}(x)$, keeping track of the polynomial sequences $r_{h}, t_{h}$.
(4) Stop at the unique index $h$ such that

$$
\operatorname{deg} r_{h}<\frac{1}{2}(d+\rho-1) \leq \operatorname{deg} r_{h-1} .
$$

Then, $\Lambda(x)=c \cdot t_{h}(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)=c \cdot r_{h}(x)$.
(5) Compute the errors and erasures locator polynomial

$$
\tilde{\Lambda}(x)=M(x) \Lambda(x) .
$$

We use $\tilde{\Lambda}(x)$ in lieu of $\Lambda(x)$ for the rest of the computation.
© Run the Chien search with $\tilde{\Lambda}(x)$, and use Forney's formula with $\tilde{\Lambda}(x)$ and $\Gamma(x)$ to find the error and erasure locations and values. Notice that for erased locations, it is possible to get an "error value" of zero, as the erased location might have had an original value of zero.

## Other Decoding Algorithms

Many decoding algorithms and variants have been developed over the years. We mention a few of the most important ones.

- Berlekamp algorithm [1967] (also referred to as Berlekamp-Massey due to a clearer description and improvements by Massey [1969]): first efficient solution of the key equation, using Newton's identities and solving for shortest recurrence that generates the syndrome sequence. Complexity comparable to the Euclidean algorithm.
- Welch-Berlekamp [1986]: Solves key equation starting from remainder syndrome $y(x)(\bmod g(x))$, without computing power sums. Akin to continued fractions and Padé approximations.
- List decoding: Decodes beyond $\tau=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2}(d-1)\right\rfloor$ errors, producing a list of candidate decoded codewords. Very often, the coset leader is unique even beyond $\tau$. Dates back to the '50s, but has gotten recent focus due to elegant and efficient algorithms by Sudan ['97], Guruswami-Sudan ['99] and others.
- Soft decoding: Information on the reliability of the symbols is available. Can lead to significant gains in decoding performance.

