BOUNDS ON CODING THEORY FROM ALGEBRAIC GEOMETRY

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1. Coding theory

WRITE INTRODUCTION WITH ALICE AND BOB.

Definition 1.1 (Code). A code C over an alphabet A is a subset of $A^n = A \times \cdots \times A$. We define n as the length of C. A code C over a field A is a linear code if C is a vector subspace of A^n . An element of a code C is called a code word.

In this paper, A is a finite field unless otherwise stated.

Definition 1.2 (Hamming distance). We define *Hamming distance* between $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in A^n$ as $(1.1) \qquad \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \# (x_i \neq y_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}),$

in other words, the number of positions \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} differ.

Proposition 1.3. Hamming distance is a metric over A^n , i.e., the following holds for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in A^n$:

- $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0 \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y};$
- $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y});$
- $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + \operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y}).$

Definition 1.4 (Parameters of a code). If C is a linear code over A, we define dimension of C as $k = \dim_A(C)$ and minimum distance of C as $d = \min \{ \operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in C \}$. (If C is a nonlinear code over an alphabet with size q, we can coherently define $k = \log_q |C|$.) The length n, dimension k and minimum distance d are the parameters of C.

Suppose Alice wants to send a message to Bob through a noisy channel. They previously agree on a choice of code $C \subset A^n$, with parameters n, k, d. Alice will choose one of the $|A|^k$ code words and send it to Bob. Since the channel is not a perfect medium, some positions of the code may change; however, if less than $\frac{d}{2}$ of such changes occur, Bob can take the closest code word to the receiving message using Hamming distance and restore the original message.

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Thus, a good code has two properties: it has large d with respect to n, in order to correct as many errors as possible; but also has large k with respect to n, so that Alice has a wider variety of possible messages to send and send more information.

Definition 1.5. If C is a code, its code rate is R = k/n and its relative minimum distance is $\delta = d/n$. Note that $R, \delta \in [0, 1]$.

Therefore, a good code is one with large R — not much redundancy — and large δ — corrects many errors.

2. Singleton bound and a promising example

Theorem 2.1 (Singleton Bound). If C is a code with parameters n, k, d, then

$$(2.1) k+d \le n+1,$$

or equivalently,

$$(2.2) R + \delta \le 1 + 1/n.$$

Proof. We will provide the proof for Theorem 2.1 when C is a linear code. WRITE PROOF.

Definition 2.2 (Reed–Solomon Codes). Let q be a power of a prime, and $\mathbb{F}_q = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_q\}$ the field with q elements. Let k be an integer, and L_k the set of all polynomials over \mathbb{F}_q with degree smaller than k. Let $k \leq n \leq q$ be an integer. The Reed–Solomon code $RS_q(n, k)$ over \mathbb{F}_q is

(2.3)
$$RS_q(n,k) = \{ (f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_2), \dots, f(\alpha_n)) \mid f \in L_k \}.$$

Proposition 2.3. The Reed-Solomon code $R_q(n,k)$ is a linear code with length n, dimension k and minimum distance n-k+1. Thus, any Reed-Solomon code meets the inequality of the Singleton Bound.

Proof. $R_q(n,k)$ is a subset of \mathbb{F}_q^n , thus it has length n. Note that L_k is a vector space over \mathbb{F}_q . Note that $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{k-1}\}$ is a choice of basis for this vector space, thus it has dimension k. Consider the map $\phi: L_k \to \mathbb{F}_q^n$ given by

$$(2.4) f \mapsto (f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_2), \dots, f(\alpha_n)).$$

Note that the map ϕ is a linear transformation. Thus, its image Im $\phi = RS_q(n,k)$ is also a vector space. Additionally, if $\phi(f) = \phi(g)$, then f-g has at least n roots, but has degree less than n; thus f-g is the zero polynomial, which implies f=g. Therefore, ϕ is also injective. This implies that the dimension of the domain L_k is the same as the dimension of the image $RS_q(n,k)$, i.e., $\dim RS_q(n,k) = k$.

Finally, consider distinct $f, g \in L_k$ and define $d = \operatorname{dist}(\phi(f), \phi(g)), f - g$ has at least n - d roots. Furthermore, f - g is a non-zero polynomial with

degree less than k, thus has at most k-1 roots. Then, $k-1 \ge \#$ roots $\ge n-d$. If we choose f, g such that d is the minimal distance, we get $k+d_{\min} \ge n+1$, which together with Singleton Bound implies

$$(2.5) k + d_{\min} = n + 1.$$

The Reed–Solomon codes are very good codes in the sense that key have the largest possible sum k+d for their length n. However, Reed–Solomon codes are limited because their length is at most the alphabet size. So, a question naturally arises: Given fixed \mathbb{F}_q , are there codes over \mathbb{F}_q with arbitrarily large n and $R+\delta=1+1/n$? If not, how large can R and δ be when n gets larger? The Gilbert–Varshamov bound shows that there are codes with

$$(2.6) 1 - R \approx q(\delta), \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$

in which

(2.7)
$$q(x) = x \log_q(q-1) - x \log_q(x) - (1-x) \log_q(x).$$

Are there any better codes?

3. RATIONAL FUNCTIONS AND DIVISORS

Definition 3.1 (Rational Function). A rational function f is a function which is the ratio g/h of two polynomials. It is homogeneous if g,h are homogeneous. After cancelling common roots of g,h, the roots of g are called zeros of f and the roots of h are called the poles of f.

We say f has order n in P if P is a zero of muliplicity n; order -n if P is a pole with multiplicity n; order 0, otherwise.

Definition 3.2 (Divisor). Let F be the algebraic closure of \mathbb{F}_q . Let X be an irreducible nonsingular projective curve in N-dimensional projective space over F. A divisor on X is a formal finite sum of the form $D = \sum a_P P$, where P are points of X, a_P are integers and $a_P = 0$ for all but finitely many points P. The degree of D is $\sum n_P$. The support Supp D is the set $\{P \in X : a_P \neq 0\}$

If $D = \sum n_p P$, then define the vector space $\mathcal{L}(D)$ as the set of all homogeneous rational functions f such that the order of f at each point P of X is greater or equal to n_P . For our study, an important theorem is the following:

Theorem 3.3 (Riemman–Roch Theorem, [3]). Let X be a nonsingular projective curve of genus^a g defined over the field \mathbb{F}_q and let D be a divisor on X. Then

(3.1)
$$\dim \mathcal{L}(D) \ge \deg D + 1 - g,$$

with equality holding if $\deg D > 2g - 2$.

^aFor the reader that is not familiar with genus, it is enough to know that it is an integer that can be calculated for any given curve.

4. Generalized Reed-Solomon codes

Let $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ denote the projective line over \mathbb{F} . We will write (a:b) to denote the projective point corresponding to the 1-dimensional vector space through (a,b). The points on $\mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ are the points

$$(4.1) P_i = (\alpha_i : 1), 1 \le i \le q,$$

and

$$(4.2) P_{\infty} = (1:0).$$

Following [1], let \mathcal{L}_k be the set of two-variable homogeneous rational functions which have a pole of order less than k in the point Q.

Proposition 4.1. The sets \mathcal{L}_k and L_k are mapped with a bijection $\phi : f(x) \mapsto f(x/y)$.

Then, we can rewrite the Reed–Solomon code from 2.2 as

$$(4.3) RS_q(n,k) = \{ f(P_1), f(P_2), \dots, f(P_n) \mid f \in \mathcal{L}_k \}.$$

We shall redefine the Reed–Solomon codes using language related to a projective line. There is a way to replace the "projective line" with a "projective plane curve" and create other codes, called *Generalized Reed–Solomon codes* or simply algebraic geometric codes. We want large R and δ , and these codes yield

$$(4.4) R + \delta \ge 1 + 1/n - g/n,$$

where n is the number of rational points of a curve X, with genus g.

5. Final thoughts

On equation (4.4), we observe that good algebraic geometric codes are generated by curves with a large ratio between n and g. On [2], the authors present a sequence of such curves, with n/g large enough to create a better bound than the Gilbert–Varshamov one.

References

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