

# Lecture 11: Locally Decodable Codes

Error-Correcting Codes (Spring 2016)  
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## 1 Definition of a Locally Decodable Code

Let  $C \subseteq \Sigma^n$  be a code with encoding map  $E : \Sigma^k \rightarrow C$ . Then  $C$  is called a  $q, \epsilon$ -locally decodable code if there exists an algorithm  $A$  such that for all messages  $x \in \Sigma^k$  and all  $r \in \Sigma^n$  such that  $\Delta(r, E(x)) < \epsilon$ , we have

$$\Pr(A(i, r) \neq x_i) < 0.01,$$

for all  $i \in [k]$ , and moreover,  $A$  accesses only  $q$  coordinates of  $r$ .

It is important here that the probability is only over the internal randomness of the algorithm  $A$ . There is no randomness over  $i \in [k]$ : the algorithm needs to work for all  $i$ .

In general, we will be interested in achieving local decodability with query complexity  $q = o(k)$ . In this lecture we will see subexponential

## 2 Recap: Reed-Muller Locally Decodable Codes

Reed-Muller codes turn out to be locally decodable with interesting parameters. This is the first time we see Reed-Muller codes achieve something that we could not achieve with simply Reed-Solomon codes.

Consider the Reed-Muller code of degree- $d$   $m$ -variate polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ . The choice of encoding map turns out to be important here. Choose a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q^m$  which is an *interpolating set* for degree- $d$   $m$ -variate polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ . This means that for any assignment  $u : S \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ , there is a unique degree- $d$  polynomial  $P(X_1, \dots, X_m)$  such that  $P|_S = u$  (in particular we have that  $|S| = \binom{d+m}{m}$ ).

We will use  $S$  to specify the encoding map: given a message  $u \in \mathbb{F}_q^{\binom{d+m}{m}}$ , we view it as a function  $u : S \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ ; The encoding of  $u$  is then the unique polynomial extension  $P$ .

Suppose we are given  $r : \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ , with the promise that  $r$  is close to some polynomial  $P : \mathbb{F}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$  of degree less than or equal to  $d$ . The problem of local decoding is now the problem of recovering  $P(x)$  for a given  $x \in S$  (we will even be able to recover  $P(x)$  for arbitrary  $x \in \mathbb{F}_q^m$ ).

The main observation is that restricting a low-degree multivariate polynomial to a line gives a low-degree univariate polynomial. This motivates the following algorithm.

- Pick a random line  $\ell$  through  $x$ .

- Query  $r$  on  $\ell \setminus \{x\}$ .
- We should see a univariate polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $d$ .
- Use this to deduce  $p(x)$ .

## 2.1 Parameters: Constant Query

With  $t$  queries, Reed-Muller codes have length:

$$k \rightarrow n^{O\left(k^{\frac{1}{t-\Sigma}}\right)}.$$

There are known lower bounds:

- For  $t = 2$ , we must have  $n = 2^{\Omega(k)}$ .
- For  $t > 2$ , we must have  $n \geq k^{1+O(1/t)}$ .

It is an open question whether it is possible to have  $t = O(\log k)$  and  $n = O(k)$ .

## 2.2 Parameters: Constant rate

For  $m$ -variable Reed-Muller codes, we have:

$$k \rightarrow m! \cdot 2^{O(m)} \cdot k,$$

with rate  $R = \frac{1}{m!} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{O(m)}}$ , and  $t = k^{1/m}$  queries. (We'll see another code that gives a better constant rate later...)

## 2.3 State of the art

The best known constructions give:

- For fixed  $t$ , we can have  $n = 2^{2^{\tilde{O}((\log k)^{1/\log t})}}$ .
- For fixed rate  $R$ , we can have  $t = 2^{\sqrt{\log k}}$ .

In this lecture, we will see the first of these constructions. To motivate it, we will begin with a new construction of a 2-query locally-decodable code.

### 3 Another Hadamard-like Locally Decodable Code

We will write  $\mathbb{F}_3 = \{0, 1, -1\}$ . Given a message  $c \in \mathbb{F}_3^k$ , consider

$$f : \mathbb{Z}_2^k \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_3$$

$$f : x \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \cdot (-1)^{\langle x, e_i \rangle},$$

where  $e_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  standard basis vector.

We use the following method to locally decode  $c_j$ . Given  $r : \mathbb{Z}_2^k \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_3$ , pick  $x$  uniformly in  $\mathbb{Z}_2^k$ . Then query  $r(x) \approx f(x)$  and  $r(x + e_j) \approx f(x + e_j)$ , where by  $a \approx b$ , we mean  $a$  and  $b$  are “supposed to be equal.” Consider

$$\begin{aligned} r(x + e_j) - r(x) &\approx f(x + e_j) - f(x) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \left[ (-1)^{\langle x+e_j, e_i \rangle} - (-1)^{\langle x, e_i \rangle} \right] \\ &= c_j (-1)^{\langle x, e_j \rangle} \left( (-1)^{\langle e_j, e_j \rangle} - 1 \right) \\ &= c_j (-1)^{x_j}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we output  $(-1)^{x_j} (r(x + e_j) - r(x))$ .

### 4 Matching Vector Codes

These amazing codes were constructed by Efremenko, based on an important breakthrough of Yekhanin (see also the paper of Raghavendra, and the follow-up papers of Dvir-Gopalan-Yekhanin and BenAroya-Efremenko-TaShma).

Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_m$ . Then we say a collection of vectors  $u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2, \dots, u_k, v_k$  is  $S$ -matching if

$$\begin{aligned} \langle u_i, v_j \rangle &= 0 \quad \text{for } i = j \\ \langle u_i, v_j \rangle &\in S \quad \text{for } i \neq j. \end{aligned}$$

As an aside, if  $S = \mathbb{Z}_m \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $m=2$ , how large can an  $S$ -matching collection be? One example is with  $u_i = (1, e_i) = v_i$ , where we have  $k = h - 1$ . Note that if we do a similar adjoining to a  $S$ -matching collection, we get a set of orthogonal vectors, so this limits  $k \leq h$  when  $m = 2$ .

Now, let  $u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2, \dots, u_k, v_k$  be a matching vector family in  $\mathbb{Z}_m^k$ . Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be some finite field with  $m \mid (|\mathbb{F}| - 1)$ , and let  $\omega \in \mathbb{F}^*$  be a primitive  $m^{\text{th}}$  root of unity in  $\mathbb{F}$ . Define

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_i &: \mathbb{Z}_m^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \\ \chi_i &: x \mapsto \omega^{\langle x, u_i \rangle}. \end{aligned}$$

For a message  $c \in \mathbb{F}^k$ , define the codeword  $f : \mathbb{Z}_m^k \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  by

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \chi_i.$$

To locally decode (and recover  $c_j$ ), we first pick  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_m^n$  uniformly at random. Then we query  $r(x), r(x+v_j), r(x+2v_j), \dots, r(x+(m-1)v_j)$ , which “should be equal to”  $f(x), f(x+v_j), \dots, f(x+(m-1)v_j)$ . (Note that if  $m$  is a constant, then this is a constant query decoder.) Now,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + \lambda v_j) &= \sum_{i=1}^h c_i \chi_i(x + \lambda v_j) \\ &= c_j \chi_j(x + \lambda v_j) + \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \chi_i(x + \lambda v_j) \end{aligned}$$

The first term is equal to  $c_j \omega^{\langle x, u_j \rangle}$ , by the definition of  $\chi_j$  and because  $\langle u_j, v_j \rangle = 0$ . Then the second term

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \chi_i(x + \lambda v_j) &= \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \omega^{\langle x + \lambda v_j, u_i \rangle} \\ &= \sum_{i \neq j} c_i \omega^{\langle x, u_i \rangle} \omega^{\lambda \langle v_j, u_i \rangle} \\ &= \sum_{\alpha \in S} \left( \sum_{\langle v_j, u_i \rangle = \alpha} c_i \omega^{\langle x, u_i \rangle} \right) \omega^{\lambda \alpha} \\ &= \sum_{\alpha \in S} B_\alpha \omega^{\lambda \alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $B_\alpha$  is defined to be the inner sum for each  $\alpha$ .

Thus, as a function of  $\lambda$ ,

$$f(x + \lambda v_j) = c_j \omega^{\langle x, u_j \rangle} + \sum_{\alpha \in S} B_\alpha \omega^{\lambda \alpha}.$$

In other words, to decode we just need to find the constant term. The procedure is then to recover the coefficients  $B_0, \{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in S}$  such that

$$f(x + \lambda y) = B_0 + \sum_{\alpha \in S} B_\alpha \omega^{\alpha \lambda},$$

which is solving an interpolation problem, where we need only query  $|S| + 1$  values of  $\lambda$ . Then output  $B_0 \cdot \omega^{-\langle x, u_j \rangle}$ .

#### 4.1 Parameters of the Locally Decodable Code in terms of Parameters of the Matching Vector Family

We have  $n = m^h$ ,  $k = k$ , and the number of queries is  $|S| + 1 \leq m$

We are happy if  $S$  (or  $m$ ) is constant, with  $k$  as large as possible; then we can handle  $\frac{1}{100|S|}$  errors. This begs the question: how large a matching vector family can you construct with these parameters?

## 4.2 Constructing a Matching Vector Family

We will first consider the case where  $m$  is prime, then later we will take  $m$  composite. For now, consider the case where  $m$  is prime,  $S = \{1\}$ , and our vectors are in  $\mathbb{Z}_m^\ell$ . Take each  $\tilde{u}_i$  to be a vector with 1's in exactly  $m - 1$  places, and 0's elsewhere, and  $\tilde{v}_i$  to be the vector (with  $\ell - (m - 1)$  1's) such that  $\tilde{u}_i + \tilde{v}_i$  is the vector with 1's in every place. These vectors have the property that:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_i \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_j \rangle &\in \{1, \dots, m - 1\} \quad \text{for } i \neq j\end{aligned}$$

Before continuing, let's review the definition of the tensor product. Given  $a \in \mathbb{F}^k, b \in \mathbb{F}^\ell, a \otimes b \in \mathbb{F}^{k\ell}$  is the vector  $(\dots, a_i b_j, \dots)$ , which is to say the vector with  $a_i b_j$  in the  $(i, j)^{\text{th}}$  place. It follows from the definition that  $\langle a \otimes b, c \otimes d \rangle = \langle a, c \rangle \langle b, d \rangle$ .

We now define  $u_i = (\tilde{u}_i)^{\otimes(m-1)}$  and  $v_i = (\tilde{v}_i)^{\otimes(m-1)}$ . The above property implies that

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u_i, v_i \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle u_i, v_j \rangle &= 1 \quad \text{for } i \neq j.\end{aligned}$$

This construction gives us  $k = \binom{\ell}{m-1}$  and  $h = \ell^{m-1}$ .

Now take  $m$  to be the product of two distinct primes:  $m = pq$ . Take  $\tilde{u}_i$  and  $\tilde{v}_i$  as above, and let

$$\begin{aligned}u_i &= \left( A(\tilde{u}_i)^{\otimes(p-1)}, B(\tilde{u}_i)^{\otimes(q-1)} \right) \\ v_i &= \left( (\tilde{v}_i)^{\otimes(p-1)}, (\tilde{v}_i)^{\otimes(q-1)} \right).\end{aligned}$$

Then,  $\langle u_i, v_j \rangle = A \langle u_i, v_j \rangle^{p-1} + B \langle u_i, v_j \rangle^{q-1}$ . Now choose  $A$  and  $B$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}A &\equiv 0 \pmod{q}, & A &\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \\ B &\equiv 1 \pmod{q}, & B &\equiv 0 \pmod{p}\end{aligned},$$

which is possible by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u_i, v_j \rangle \pmod{p} &= \begin{cases} 0 & \langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_j \rangle \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \langle u_i, v_j \rangle \pmod{q} &= \begin{cases} 0 & \langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_j \rangle \equiv 0 \pmod{q} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\langle u_i, v_j \rangle$  takes one of four values mod  $n$ . However,  $\langle u_i, v_j \rangle = 0 \pmod{m}$  is equivalent to  $\langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_j \rangle = 0 \pmod{p}$  and  $\pmod{q}$ , which in turn is equivalent to  $\langle \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_j \rangle = 0 \pmod{m}$ , which means  $i = j$ .

Finally, take  $p, q \approx \sqrt{m}$ . Then, we get parameters  $|S| = 3$ ,  $h = \ell^{\sqrt{m}}$ , and  $k = \binom{\ell}{m}$ . We may also write  $h = 2^{\sqrt{\log k \log \ell}}$ .

Generalizing to  $m$  being a product of more primes, we get locally decodable codes with larger constant query complexity and reduced codeword length (as a function of the message length).