

Efficient evaluations of polynomials over finite fields

Davide Schipani
 Mathematics Institute
 University of Zürich
 CH-8057 Zürich
 Switzerland
 davide.schipani@math.uzh.ch

Michele Elia
 Dipartimento di Elettronica
 Politecnico di Torino
 Corso Duca degli Abruzzi 24,
 Torino 10129, Italy
 elia@polito.it

Joachim Rosenthal
 Mathematics Institute
 University of Zürich
 CH-8057 Zürich
 Switzerland
<http://www.math.uzh.ch/aa>

Abstract—A method is described which allows to evaluate efficiently a polynomial in a (possibly trivial) extension of the finite field of its coefficients. Its complexity is shown to be lower than that of standard techniques when the degree of the polynomial is large with respect to the base field. Applications to the syndrome computation in the decoding of cyclic codes, Reed-Solomon codes in particular, are highlighted.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Standard algorithms for decoding Reed-Solomon and BCH codes such as the Peterson-Gorenstein-Zierler algorithm involve the evaluation of polynomials at several steps. In particular instances the complexity of the algorithms are even dominated by that task [3]. In this paper we propose a new method to perform the evaluation efficiently.

The standard technique to evaluate polynomials over a field is Horner's rule (e.g. [5, p.467]), which computes the value $P(\alpha)$ for a polynomial $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ in an iterative way as suggested by the following description

$$((\dots((a_n \alpha + a_{n-1}) \alpha + a_{n-2}) \alpha + \dots) \alpha + a_1) \alpha + a_0 .$$

This method requires n multiplications and n additions. In the following we describe another method to evaluate polynomials with coefficients over a finite field $GF(p^m)$ and we estimate its complexity. For that we consider, as is customary, just the number of multiplications, as in $GF(2^m)$ to multiply is more expensive than to add: the cost of an addition is $O(m)$ in space and 1 clock

in time, while the cost of a multiplication is $O(m^2)$ in space and $O(\log_2 m)$ in time [2]. We keep track of the number of additions, too, to be sure that a reduction in the number of multiplications does not come together with an exorbitant increase in the number of additions.

Our approach exploits the Frobenius automorphism and its group properties, therefore we call it polynomial automorphic evaluation.

II. POLYNOMIAL AUTOMORPHIC EVALUATION

Consider a finite field $GF(q)$ of cardinality $q = p^m$, p a prime, a polynomial $P(x)$ of degree n , and let α denote an element of $GF(q)$. We write $P(x)$ as

$$P_0(x^p) + xP_1(x^p) + \dots + x^{p-1}P_{p-1}(x^p) ,$$

where $P_0(x^p)$ collects the powers of x with exponent a multiple of p and in general $x^i P_i(x^p)$ collects the powers of the form x^{ap+i} , with $a \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \leq i \leq p-1$ (see some examples in the following remarks).

If σ is the Frobenius automorphism of $GF(p^m)$ mapping a to a^p , we can write the expression above as

$$P_0^{-1}(x)^p + xP_1^{-1}(x)^p + \dots + x^{p-1}P_{p-1}^{-1}(x)^p ,$$

where $P_i^{-k}(x)$ stands for the polynomial obtained from $P_i(x)$ by substituting its coefficients with their transforms through σ^{-k} , for any k in the set $\{1, \dots, m\}$. Notice that the polynomials $P_i^{-1}(x)$ have degree at most $\frac{n-i}{p}$. We can take the exponent out of the brackets as the field has characteristic p .

$P(\alpha)$ for a particular value α can be then obtained from $\{P_i^{-1}(\alpha)\}$ by making p p -th powers, $p-1$ multiplications and $p-1$ sums.

The procedure can be iterated until the polynomials we obtain have small degree: at each step the number of polynomials is multiplied by p and their degree is divided roughly by p . For each step we have to compute N p -th powers, where N is the number of polynomials at

that step, while additions and multiplications are slightly less, as computed below.

If we perform L steps, we have p^L polynomials of degree nearly $\frac{n}{p^L}$ and the total cost of evaluating $P(\alpha)$ comprehends the following:

- Evaluation of p^L polynomials of degree $\frac{n}{p^L}$ in α
- Computation of $p + p^2 + \cdots + p^L = \frac{p^{L+1} - p}{p - 1}$ p -th powers.
- Computation of $p - 1 + (p^2 - p) + \cdots + p^L - p^{L-1} = p^L - 1$ multiplications by powers of α .
- Computation of $p - 1 + (p^2 - p) + \cdots + p^L - p^{L-1} = p^L - 1$ additions.
- Computation of the coefficients of the p^L polynomials through σ^{-L} ; the number of coefficients is the same as the number of coefficients of $P(x)$, that is at most $n+1$, which would possibly imply too many multiplications. However, we can spare a lot, if we do the following: we evaluate the p^L polynomials in $\sigma^L(\alpha)$ and then we apply σ^{-L} to the outputs. So we need to apply powers of σ a number of times not greater than $p^L + 1$. Notice also that what matters in σ^L is L modulo m because σ^m is the identity automorphism.

So all together we would like to minimize the following number of multiplications:

$$G(L) = 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor \frac{p^{L+1} - p}{p - 1} + p^L - 1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor (m - 1)(p^L + 1) + \frac{n}{p^L}(p^m - 1) ,$$

where $2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor$ refers to a p -th power made by successive squaring (this upper bound is substituted by 1 when p is 2), the automorphism σ^L counts like a power with exponent p^L , with $L \leq m - 1$, and $\frac{n}{p^L}$ are the powers of α we need to compute, while $p^m - 1$ are all their possible nonzero coefficients. Once we have the powers of α multiplied by the possible coefficients, we actually need also to compute at most n additions to get the value of the polynomials.

Since $G(L)$ is a sum of two positive functions, the first monotonically decreasing and the second increasing with L , the minimum of $G(L)$, considered as a continuous function of L , is unique. A very good estimation of the minimum is then obtained by computing the derivative of $G(L)$ with respect to L , so that the optimum L is roughly

$$\log_p \left(\frac{\sqrt{n(p^m - 1)}}{\sqrt{1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor(m - 1 + \frac{p}{p-1})}} \right) . \quad (1)$$

The corresponding minimum can be written as

$$2\sqrt{n(p^m - 1)} \sqrt{1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor(m - 1 + \frac{p}{p-1})} + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor(m - 1 - 1 - \frac{2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor p}{p-1}) . \quad (2)$$

This brings a total cost less than n (Horner's cost) whenever p^m is not too big with respect to n .

a) *Remark 1.:* If the coefficients are known to belong to $GF(p)$, then the total cost is at most

$$2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor \frac{p^{L+1} - p}{p - 1} + p^L - 1 + \frac{n}{p^L}(p - 1) ,$$

since σ does not change the coefficients in this case. Then the best value for L is approximately

$$\log_p \left(\frac{\sqrt{n(p - 1)}}{\sqrt{1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor \frac{p}{p-1}}} \right) ,$$

and the total cost becomes even more appealing, in particular when $p = 2$ it is less than $2\sqrt{3n}$.

In this case every step is very straightforward: the decomposition of a polynomial $P(x)$ as a sum of two polynomials by collecting odd and even powers of x is

$$P(x) = P_0(x^2) + xP_1(x^2) = P_0(x)^2 + xP_1(x)^2 .$$

Actually this case happens often in coding theory [6], in particular in the computation of syndromes for a binary code. In this situation we can have as additional advantage the possibility of precomputing the powers of α , since what is usually needed is to evaluate a polynomial in several powers of a particular value α .

b) *Remark 2.:* Similarly, if the coefficients belong to $GF(p^d)$ for a divisor d of m , then the total cost is at most

$$2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor \frac{p^{L+1} - p}{p - 1} + p^L - 1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor(d - 1)(p^L + 1) + \frac{n}{p^L}(p^d - 1) .$$

And the best value for L is

$$\log_p \left(\frac{\sqrt{n(p^d - 1)}}{\sqrt{1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor(d - 1 + \frac{p}{p-1})}} \right) .$$

c) *Remark 3.:* If $p^m \approx n$, i.e. $m \approx \frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 p}$, which is the case of the Reed-Solomon codes, the proposed method does not seem to give any advantage as the complexity is approximately $2n\sqrt{2\log_2 n} > n$ by Equation (1). However, if m is not prime, then a gain is still possible, by using the previous remarks. Let us show an example below. Suppose m is even. Then the elements of the field $GF(p^m)$ can be represented in the form $a + b\beta$, where $a, b \in GF(p^{m/2})$ and β is a root of a quadratic

polynomial irreducible over $GF(p^{m/2})$. Therefore, the polynomial $p(x)$ with coefficients in $GF(p^m)$ can be written as a sum $p_1(x) + \beta p_2(x)$ where both $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ have coefficients in $GF(p^{m/2})$: if we evaluate these two polynomials using the proposed algorithm, the cost for each evaluation is

$$2\sqrt{np^{m/2}} \sqrt{1 + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor (m/2 - 1 + \frac{p}{p-1})} + 2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor (m/2 - 1) - 1 - \frac{2\lfloor \log_2 p \rfloor p}{p-1},$$

and to get the total cost we multiply by 2. For example, if $p = 2$ and $2^m \approx n$, the total cost is approximately $2\sqrt{2}\sqrt[4]{n^3}\sqrt{\log_2 n}$, a figure significantly less than n when $m > 12$.

d) *Remark 4.*: Given the importance of cyclic codes over $GF(2^m)$, for instance the Reed-Solomon codes that are used in any CD rom, or the famous Reed-Solomon code [255, 223, 33] over $GF(2^8)$ used by NASA ([7]), an efficient evaluation of polynomials over $GF(2^m)$ in points of the same field is of the greatest interest.

In the previous remarks, we have shown that non-trivial gains are possible, however, in particular scenarios an additional gain can be obtained by choosing L as a factor of m which is close to the value obtained in equation (1), together with some arrangements as explained below.

The idea will be illustrated considering the decoding of the above mentioned Reed-Solomon code. We will only show how to obtain the 32 syndromes; the decoding is done from that point on using the standard Berlekamp-Massey algorithm, the Chien search to locate the errors, and the Forney algorithm to compute the error magnitudes [1].

Let $r(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{254} r_i x^i$, $r_i \in GF(2^8)$, be a received code word of a Reed Solomon code [255, 223, 33] generated by the polynomial $g(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{32} (x - \alpha^i)$, with α a primitive element of $GF(2^8)$, i.e. a root of $x^8 + x^5 + x^3 + x + 1$. Our aim is to evaluate the syndromes $S_j = r(\alpha^j)$, $j = 1, \dots, 32$.

We can argue in the following way. The power $\beta = \alpha^{17}$ is a primitive element of the subfield $GF(2^4)$, it is a root of the polynomial $x^4 + x^3 + 1$, and has trace 1 in $GF(2^4)$. Therefore, a root γ of $z^2 + z + \beta$ is not in $GF(2^4)$ (see [4, Corollary 3.79, p.118]), but it is an element of $GF(2^8)$, and every element of $GF(2^8)$ can be written as $a + b\gamma$ with $a, b \in GF(2^4)$. Consequently, we can write $r(x) = r_1(x) + \gamma r_2(x)$ as a sum of two polynomials over $GF(2^4)$, evaluate each $r_i(x)$ in the roots α^j of $g(x)$, and obtain each syndrome $S_j = r(\alpha^j) = r_1(\alpha^j) + \gamma r_2(\alpha^j)$ with 1 multiplication and 1 sum.

Now, following our proposed scheme, if $p(x)$ is either

$r_1(x)$ or $r_2(x)$, in order to evaluate $p(\alpha^j)$ we consider the decomposition

$$p(x) = (p_0 + p_2 x + \dots + p_{254} x^{127})^2 + x(p_1 + p_3 x + \dots + p_{253} x^{126})^2,$$

where we have not changed the coefficients computing σ^{-1} for each of them, as a convenient Frobenius automorphism will come into play later. Now, each of the two parts can be decomposed again into the sum of two polynomials of degree at most 63, for instance

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 + p_2 x + \dots + p_{254} x^{127} \\ = (p_0 + p_4 x + \dots + p_{252} x^{63})^2 \\ + x(p_2 + p_6 x + \dots + p_{254} x^{63})^2 \end{aligned}$$

and at this stage we have four polynomials to be evaluated. The next two steps double the number of polynomials and half their degrees; we write just one polynomial per each stage as an example

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 + p_4 x + \dots + p_{252} x^{63} \\ = (p_0 + p_8 x + \dots + p_{248} x^{31})^2 \\ + x(p_4 + p_{12} x + \dots + p_{252} x^{31})^2 \\ \\ p_0 + p_8 x + \dots + p_{248} x^{31} \\ = (p_0 + p_{16} x + \dots + p_{240} x^{15})^2 \\ + x(p_8 + p_{24} x + \dots + p_{248} x^{15})^2 \end{aligned}$$

Since we choose to stop the decomposition at this stage, we have to evaluate 16 polynomials of degree at most 15 with coefficients in $GF(16)$, but before doing this computation we should perform the inverse Frobenius automorphism σ^{-4} on the coefficients, however $\sigma^{-4}(p_i) = p_i$ because the coefficients are in $GF(16)$ and any element β in this field satisfies the condition $\beta^{2^4} = \beta$.

Now, let K be the number of code words to be decoded. It is convenient to compute only once the following field elements:

- α^i , $i = 2, \dots, 254$ and this requires 253 multiplications;
- $\alpha^i \cdot \beta^j$ for $i = 0, \dots, 254$ and $j = 1, \dots, 14$, which requires $255 \cdot 14 = 3570$ multiplications.

Then only sums (that can be performed in parallel) are required to evaluate 16 polynomials of degree 15 for each α^j , $j = 1, \dots, 32$. Once we have the values of these polynomials, in order to reconstruct each of $r_1(\alpha^j)$ and $r_2(\alpha^j)$, we need

- $16 + 8 + 4 + 2$ squares
- $8 + 4 + 2 + 1$ multiplications (and the same number of sums).

Summing up, every $r(\alpha^j) = r_1(\alpha^j) + \gamma r_2(\alpha^j)$ is obtained with $2 \cdot 45 + 1 = 91$ multiplications. Then the total cost of the computation of 32 syndromes drops down from $31 + 32 \cdot 254 = 8159$ with Horner's rule to $32 \cdot 91 + 3570 + 253 = 6735$. Since we have K code words the total cost drops from $31 + 8128 \cdot K$ to $3823 + 2912 \cdot K$, with two further advantages:

- many operations can be parallelized, so that the speed is further increased;

- the multiplications can be performed in $GF(2^4)$ instead of $GF(2^8)$, if we write $\alpha^j = a_j + \gamma b_j$; the number of multiplications could increase but their speed would be much faster.

Clearly, these decoding schemes can be generalized for cyclic codes over any $GF(p^m)$ with m not prime.

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