

# The Berlekamp-Massey Algorithm. A Sight from Theory of Pade Approximants and Orthogonal Polynomials

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**Abstract** In this paper we interpret the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm (BMA) for synthesis of linear feedback shift register (LFSR) as an algorithm computing Pade approximants for Laurent series over arbitrary field. This interpretation of the BMA is based on a iterated procedure for computing of the sequence of polynomials orthogonal to some sequence of polynomial spaces with scalar product depending on the given Laurent series. It is shown that the BMA is equivalent to the Euclidean algorithm of a conversion of Laurent series in continued fractions.

## 1 Introduction

Let  $f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}, \dots$  be a sequence of elements from arbitrary given field  $F$ . The given sequence is generated by the given LFSR iff this sequence satisfies the linear recurrence relation of order  $m$ ,  $\sum_{i=0}^m f_{i+k} q_i = 0, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  with the initial values  $f_0, \dots, f_{m-1}$ , where  $Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m q_i x^i, q_m = 1$  is the characteristic polynomial of the given LFSR. (see [1].) The reciprocal characteristic polynomial  $Q^*(x) = x^m Q(1/x)$  is called the feedback polynomial of the given LFSR. Denote by  $L_n(f)$  the least degree of the polynomial  $A_n$  generating the sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}$ . The number  $L_n(f)$  is called *the linear complexity* of the sequences  $f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}$ . ([1].) The sequence  $L_1(f), \dots, L_n(f)$  is called *the linear complexity profile* of the sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}$ . J. L. Massey [2] interpreted the Berlekamp algorithm [3] as the algorithm computing of the linear complexity profile for the given sequence and generating the corresponding sequence of the characteristic polynomials. ( see [1].) Berlekamp's variant of the BMA is equivalent to the variant of the Euclidean algorithm (EA) given for BCH codes decoding ([4].) In [5], [6] was investigated connections between the BMA and continued fractions.

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In [7] was given the matrix generalization of the BMA. This generalization was used in [8] in the proof of the equivalence the BMA and the EA for decoding of BCH codes. We interpret the BMA from the point of view of theory of Pade approximants and orthogonal polynomials.

## 2 Pade Approximants for Laurent Series, Continued Fractions, Linear Complexity, and BMA

Any expression  $z^n(c_0 + c_1/z + c_2/z^2 + \dots)$ ,  $c_0 \neq 0$ , with any integer  $n$  and coefficients  $c_i \in F$  is called a *formal Laurent series*. The set  $F((1/z))$  of all Laurent series forms the field with respect to the sum and product operation (see [9]). Any series  $f(z)$  with null integral part may be expanded in continued fraction

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{a_1(z) + \frac{1}{a_2(z) + \frac{1}{a_3(z) + \dots}}}.$$

The proper fraction formed the first  $n$  levels of a given continued fraction, is called a  $n$ -th convergent to a given continued fraction and is denoted by  $\tau_n$ . The numerator  $P_n$  and the denominator  $Q_n$  of the  $\tau_n$  are calculated by the recurrent formulas  $Q_n = a_n Q_{n-1} + Q_{n-2}$ ,  $Q_1 = 1$ ,  $Q_0 = 0$ ,  $P_n = a_n P_{n-1} + P_{n-2}$ ,  $P_1 = a_1$ ,  $P_0 = 1$ . (see [9].) The polynomials  $Q_n$  and  $P_n$  have degrees  $s_n - 1$  and  $s_n$ , where  $s_n = d_1 + \dots + d_n$ ,  $s_0 = 0$ ,  $d_n = \deg a_n$ . We consider only Laurent series  $f(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i z^{-i-1}$  with null integral part. It is known

**Theorem 1.** *The following statements are equivalent:*

- (i) *the LFSR with the characteristic polynomial  $Q(z)$  generates the sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_{L-1}$ ;*
- (ii) *there exist the polynomials  $P, Q$  such that*

$$f(z)Q(z) = P(z) + \frac{c}{z^{L-\deg Q+1}} + \dots, c \in F,$$

where  $\deg P(z) < \deg Q(z)$ ;

- (iii) *there exist the polynomials  $P, Q$  such that*

$$f(z) - \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{b}{z^{L+1}} + \dots, b \in F, \deg P < \deg Q.$$

For any  $n$  there exists a unique uncanceled proper fraction  $P_n/G_n$ ,  $\deg G_n \leq n$  such that  $f(z)Q_n(z) = P_n(z) + \frac{c}{z^{n+1}} + \dots$ ,  $c \in F$ . (see [9]). This fraction is called  $n$ -th (diagonal) *Pade approximants*  $\pi_n$  of a number  $f$ . It a numerator  $P_n$  Suppose  $\pi_n = P_n/G_n$  and  $Q = G_n$  is the polynomial of minimal degree  $m \leq n$  such that  $f(z)Q(z) = P(z) + \frac{c_{n+1}}{z^{n+1}} + \dots$ ; then the sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_{n+m-1}$  satisfies the recurrence relation  $\sum_{i=0}^m f_{i+k} q_i = 0$ ,  $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ . Denote by  $\Pi_n$  degree of the fraction  $\pi_n$ .

**Theorem 2.**  $L_{\Pi_n+n} = \Pi_n$ .

If the degree of denominator of  $n$ -th Pade fraction is equal  $n$ , then the index  $n$  is called *normal*. If  $n_0 < n_1$  there are adjacent normal indexes, then ([9]) for any  $k, n_1 > k \geq n_0$ ,  $f(z)G_{n_0}(z) - P_{n_0}(z) = G_{n_0}(z)(cz^{-n_0-n_1} + \dots) = ez^{-n_1} + \dots = bz^{-k-1} + \dots$ ,  $c, e, b \in F$  and  $G_k = G_{n_0}, n_0 = \Pi_{n_0} = \Pi_k = L_{k+\Pi_k} = L_{k+n_0}$ . The sequence of normal indexes coincides with the sequence  $s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots$  and Pade approximants  $\pi_{s_n} = \tau_n = P_n/Q_n$ . ([9].) Therefore, for any  $k, s_n \leq k < s_{n+1}$ , is valid  $\pi_k = \pi_{s_n} = \tau_n, G_k = G_{s_n} = Q_n$  and for any sequence  $\{f_0, \dots, f_{s_n+k}\}, k = s_n - 1, \dots, s_{n+1} - 2$  the minimal LFSR has the characteristic polynomial  $Q_n$ .

**Theorem 3.**  $L_{k+s_n} = s_n, s_{n-1} \leq k < s_n$ .

From theorem 3 easy follows well known

**Theorem 4.** If the LFSR of the complexity  $L_k(f)$  generates the sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_k$  then  $L_{k+1}(f) = L_k(f)$ , else  $L_{k+1}(f) = \max\{L_k(f), k+1 - L_k(f)\}$ .

### 3 The Interpretation of the BMA in Terms of Orthogonal Polynomials

The following part of the paper *does not assume any knowledge about the BMA* and can be used for a *alternative description* of this algorithm.

Let  $Pol(n)$  be the space of polynomials of degree less than  $n$  over a field  $F$ . For the given sequence  $\{f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}\}$  over a field  $F$  we consider the linear functional  $l_f(P) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f_i p_i, P(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p_i z^i$ . over the space  $Pol(n)$ . On the space  $Pol(n)$  may be defined the scalar product  $(P, Q) = (P, Q)_f$  of polynomials  $P, Q$  by equality  $(P, Q) = l_f(PQ)$ . Obviously is valid the identity  $(P, Q) = (PQ, 1)$ . Following [9], we rewrite the equalities  $\sum_{i=0}^m f_{i+k} q_i = 0, k = 0, \dots, s-1$ , where  $Q(z) = \sum_{i=0}^m q_i z^i, q_m = 1$ , as the equalities  $(Q(z), z^k) = 0, k = 0, \dots, s-1$ , where  $(P, Q)$  is the scalar product of polynomials  $P, Q$ . Orthogonality of vectors is denoted by the symbol  $\perp$ . Therefore, the system of equalities  $(Q_n(z), z^k) = 0, k = 0, \dots, s_n - 1$  is equivalent to the relation  $Q_n(z) \perp Pol_{s_n}$ . Hence  $Q_n \perp Q_{n-1}$  and the sequence of polynomials  $Q_n(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{s_n} q_{n,i} z^i$ , is uniquely determined by the mentioned above condition of the orthogonality.

Suppose that we have computed the polynomial  $Q_n$  by the given sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_{2s_n-1}$ . It is valid  $A_{2s_n} = Q_n$ . Computing  $(Q_n(z), z^k) = \sum_{i=0}^m f_{i+k} q_{n,i}, m = s_n, k = m, m+1, \dots$  we find minimal  $k$  such that  $(Q_n(z), z^k) \neq 0$ . Hence, we can find  $s_{n+1}$ , because  $k = s_{n+1} - 1$ . Since the polynomial  $Q_n(z)$  satisfies the condition  $\sum_{i=0}^{s_n} f_{i+k} q_{n,i} = 0, k = 0, \dots, s_{n+1} - 2$ , then the LFSR with the characteristic polynomial  $Q_n$  generates any sequence  $f_0, \dots, f_k$ , where  $k = 2s_n, \dots, s_n + s_{n+1} - 2$ . Therefore, we have  $A_k = Q_n, k = 2s_n, \dots, s_n + s_{n+1} - 1$ . Further, we find  $d_{n+1} = s_{n+1} - s_n$ . Let's look for the polynomial  $Q_{n+1}$  in the form  $a_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z) + Q_{n-1}(z)$ , where  $\deg a_{n+1} = d_{n+1}$ . The polynomial  $Q_{n+1}$  is uniquely determined (with an exactitude up to a constant factor) by the condition  $Q_{n+1} \perp Pol_{s_{n+1}}$ . By the

induction hypothesis  $Q_n \perp \text{Pol}_{s_{n+1}-1}$ , but the polynomial  $Q_n$  is not orthogonal to the space  $\text{Pol}_{s_{n+1}}$ . Hence,  $(Q_n(z), z^{s_{n+1}-1}) = \Delta_{s_n+s_{n+1}-1} \neq 0$ . Since  $a_{n+1}(z)z^k \in \text{Pol}_{s_{n+1}-1}$ ,  $z^k \in \text{Pol}_{s_n-1}$ , we see that for any polynomial  $a_{n+1}$  of degree  $d_{n+1}$   $a_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z) + Q_{n-1}(z) \perp \text{Pol}_{s_n-1}$ . To choose the polynomial  $a_{n+1}$  such that the polynomial  $a_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z) + Q_{n-1}(z)$  is orthogonal to the space generated by the monomials  $z^{s_n-1}, \dots, z^{s_{n+1}-1}$ , we need next condition. The projections of the polynomials  $a_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z)$  and  $Q_{n-1}(z)$  on this space are opposite, i.e.  $(a_{n+1}(z)Q_n(z), z^k) = -(Q_{n-1}(z), z^k)$ ,  $k = s_n - 1, \dots, s_{n+1} - 1$ . These equalities concerning coefficients of the polynomial  $a_{n+1}$  determine the system of linear equations with a triangular matrix. This system may be solved by the following iterated algorithm.

**A step with any number.** At  $i$ -th step we correct the polynomial  $Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)}$  iff  $\Delta_{s_n+s_{n+1}+i-2} = (Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)}, z^{s_n+i-2}) \neq 0$ . Then we look for the  $Q_{n+1}^{(i)} = Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)} + cQ_n z^{d_{n+1}-i+1}$  such that  $Q_{n+1}^{(i)} \perp z^{s_n+i-2}$ . For this goal we search a constant  $c$  such that the projections  $Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)}, cQ_n z^{d_{n+1}-i+1}$  on the monomial  $z^{s_n+i-2}$  are opposite. Hence,  $c = -\Delta_{s_n+s_{n+1}+i-2}/\Delta_{s_n+s_{n+1}-1}$ . Since  $Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)} \perp \text{Pol}_{s_n+i-2}$  by the induction hypothesis, we have  $Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)} \perp z^{s_n+k}$  for any  $k$ ,  $-1 \leq k \leq i-3$ . Therefore,  $(Q_{n+1}^{(i)}, z^{s_n+k}) = (Q_{n+1}^{(i-1)}, z^{s_n+k}) + (cQ_n z^{d_{n+1}-i+1}, z^{s_n+k}) = c(Q_n, z^{s_{n+1}+k+1-i}) = 0$ . Since  $Q_{n+1}^{(i)} \perp \text{Pol}_{s_n+i-1}$ , we see that  $\Delta_{s_n+s_{n+1}+i-2} = Q_{n+1}^{(i)}$ . **Last step.** Finally, at  $d_{n+1} + 1$ -th step we get the polynomial  $Q_{n+1}^{(d_{n+1}+1)} = Q_n a_{n+1} + Q_{n-1}$ ,  $\deg Q_{n+1}^{(d_{n+1}+1)} = s_{n+1}$ , such that  $Q_{n+1}^{(d_{n+1}+1)} \perp \text{Pol}_{s_n+d_{n+1}} = \text{Pol}_{s_{n+1}}$ . This polynomial coincides with the polynomial  $Q_{n+1}$ . Hence  $\Delta_{2s_{n+1}} = Q_{n+1}$ .

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