

# Simultaneous Partial Inverses and Decoding Interleaved Reed–Solomon Codes

Jiun-Hung Yu<sup>1</sup>, *Member, IEEE*, and Hans-Andrea Loeliger<sup>2</sup>, *Fellow, IEEE*

**Abstract**—This paper introduces the simultaneous partial-inverse problem (SPI) for polynomials and develops its application to decoding interleaved Reed–Solomon codes beyond half the minimum distance. While closely related both to standard key equations and to well-known Padé approximation problems, the SPI problem stands out in several respects. First, the SPI problem has a unique solution (up to a scale factor), which satisfies a natural degree bound. Second, the SPI problem can be transformed (monomialized) into an equivalent SPI problem where all moduli are monomials. Third, the SPI problem can be solved by an efficient algorithm of the Berlekamp–Massey type. Fourth, decoding interleaved Reed–Solomon codes (or subfield-evaluation codes) beyond half the minimum distance can be analyzed in terms of a partial-inverse condition for the error pattern: if that condition is satisfied, then the (true) error locator polynomial is the unique solution of a standard key equation and can be computed in many different ways, including the well-known multi-sequence Berlekamp–Massey algorithm and the SPI algorithm of this paper. Two of the best performance bounds from the literature (the Schmidt–Sidorenko–Bossert bound and the Roth–Vontobel bound) are generalized to hold for the partial-inverse condition and thus to apply to several different decoding algorithms.

**Index Terms**—Interleaved Reed–Solomon codes, subfield-evaluation codes, simultaneous partial-inverse problem, Euclidean algorithm, multi-sequence Berlekamp–Massey algorithm, performance bounds.

## I. INTRODUCTION

THIS paper revolves around the following problem and develops its application to decoding interleaved Reed–Solomon codes beyond half the minimum distance.

**Simultaneous Partial-Inverse (SPI) Problem:** For  $i = 1, \dots, L$ , let  $b^{(i)}(x)$  and  $m^{(i)}(x)$  be polynomials over some field  $F$  with  $\deg m^{(i)}(x) \geq 1$  and  $\deg b^{(i)}(x) < \deg m^{(i)}(x)$ . For fixed  $\tau^{(i)} \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 \leq \tau^{(i)} \leq \deg m^{(i)}(x)$ , find a nonzero polynomial  $\Lambda(x) \in F[x]$  of the smallest degree such that

$$\deg \left( b^{(i)}(x) \Lambda(x) \bmod m^{(i)}(x) \right) < \tau^{(i)} \quad (1)$$

for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ .  $\square$

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J.-H. Yu is with the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan (e-mail: yuji@nctu.edu.tw).

H.-A. Loeliger is with the Department of Information Technology and Electrical Engineering, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zürich, Switzerland (email: loeliger@isi.ee.ethz.ch).

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We will see that this problem has always a unique solution (up to a scale factor) and the solution satisfies

$$\deg \Lambda(x) \leq \sum_{i=1}^L \left( \deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)} \right). \quad (2)$$

Moreover, we will see that the SPI problem for general moduli  $m^{(i)}(x)$  can efficiently be transformed (“monomialized”) into an equivalent SPI problem with monomial moduli  $m^{(i)}(x) = x^{v_i}$ .

The special case<sup>1</sup>  $L = 1$  was extensively discussed in [3]. In this paper, we address the generalization from  $L = 1$  to  $L > 1$ , which is not obvious.

For  $L > 1$ , the SPI problem appears to be new, but it is closely related to a number of well-researched problems in coding and computer science including “key equations” for interleaved Reed–Solomon codes [4], [5], the multi-sequence linear-feedback shift-register (MLFSR) problem of [6]–[8], and generalizations of Padé approximation problems [9]–[11]. However, none of these related problems shares all the mentioned properties (unique solution, degree bound, monomialization) of the SPI problem.

By developing the decoding of interleaved Reed–Solomon codes around the SPI problem, we generalize and harmonize a number of key ideas from the literature, as will be detailed below.

We will consider codes as follows. Let  $F = F_q$  be a finite field with  $q$  elements. The codewords are  $L \times n$  arrays over  $F$  such that every row is a codeword in some Reed–Solomon code over  $F$ . We will only consider column errors, and we will not distinguish between columns with a single error and columns with many errors. The Reed–Solomon codes (for each row) consist of the codewords

$$\left\{ (a(\beta_0), \dots, a(\beta_{n-1})) : a(x) \in F[x] \text{ with } \deg a(x) < k \right\}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{n-1}$  are  $n$  different elements of  $F$ . Note that punctured Reed–Solomon codes are included and  $\beta_\ell = 0$  (for a single index  $\ell$ ) is allowed. The dimension  $k$  will be allowed to depend on the row. However, for the further discussion in this section, we will assume that all row codes have the same dimension  $k$ .

Such interleaved Reed–Solomon codes can equivalently be viewed as punctured Reed–Solomon codes over  $F_{q^L}$  simply by replacing  $F[x] = F_q[x]$  in (3) by  $F_{q^L}[x]$  while the evaluation points  $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{n-1}$  remain in  $F_q$  [4], [12], [13]. Note that

<sup>1</sup>Except that  $b(x) = 0$  was excluded in [3].

symbol errors in  $F_{q^L}$  correspond to column errors in the array code.

Decoding such array codes (or subfield-evaluation codes) beyond the Guruswami-Sudan decoding radius [14] was studied in [4], [12], [13], and [15]–[20]. Following [14], some of these papers use list-decoding algorithms [13], [16] while others use unique-decoding algorithms that return at most one codeword [4], [12], [15], [17]–[20]. The best unique-decoding algorithms can now correct  $t$  errors (column errors or  $F_{q^L}$ -symbol errors) up to

$$t \leq \frac{L}{L+1}(n-k) \quad (4)$$

with high probability if  $q$  is large [4], [12], [15]. For  $L \geq n-k-1$ , the bound (4) becomes

$$t < n-k, \quad (5)$$

which cannot be improved. (For small  $L$ , however, improvements over (4) have been demonstrated, cf. [11] and the references therein.)

Specifically, for  $t$  errors with random error values (uniformly distributed over all nonzero columns), the best bound on the probability  $P_f$  of a decoding failure (due to Schmidt *et al.* [4]) is

$$P_f \leq \gamma \frac{q^{-L(n-k)+(L+1)t}}{q-1} \quad (6)$$

with

$$\gamma \triangleq \left( \frac{q^L - q^{-1}}{q^L - 1} \right)^t. \quad (7)$$

(Note that  $\gamma > 1$ , but  $\gamma \approx 1$  for any  $t$  of interest.) The bound (6) implies that the decoding algorithm of [4] decodes up to (4) errors with high probability if  $q$  is large.

Another type of bound, not relying on randomness, uses the rank of the error matrix  $E \in F^{L \times n}$  that corrupts the transmitted (array-) codeword [20]. The decoding algorithm by Roth and Vontobel [20] corrects any  $t$  (column) errors provided that

$$t \leq \frac{n-k + \text{rank}(E) - 1}{2}, \quad (8)$$

which beats the guarantee in [4] by a margin of  $\text{rank}(E)/2$ .

Note that [4] and [20] use different decoding algorithms, and the decoding algorithm of [4] assumes cyclic Reed–Solomon codes (as row codes) where  $m(x) = x^n - 1$ .

The bound (8) can also be used with random error values. For  $t \leq L$ ,  $\text{rank}(E)$  is then likely to equal  $t$ , in which case (8) reduces to (5); for  $t = n-k-1 \leq L$ , (8) (by (117)) yields the same bound as (6) with  $\gamma = 1$ , which agrees with the bounds in [17] and [19], where different decoding algorithms are used.

In this paper, we define a partial-inverse condition (Definition 2) for the error pattern, which is always satisfied up to half the minimum distance and almost always satisfied almost up to the full minimum distance. If that condition is satisfied, then the (true) error locator polynomial is the unique

solution of a standard key equation and can thus be computed in several different ways.

Specifically, we will show that (8) guarantees the partial-inverse condition to be satisfied. For random error values (as above), the probability for this condition not to hold will be shown to be bounded by (6), with the minor improvement that (7) is replaced by  $\gamma = 1$ . In this way, the scope of both (6) and (8) is widened.

The primary decoding algorithms for interleaved Reed–Solomon codes are based on the MLFSR algorithm by Feng and Tzeng [7] with corrections by Schmidt *et al.* [4] and Schmidt and Sidorenko [8] (but see also [21]). The complexity of this algorithm is  $O(L(n-k)^2)$  additions and/or multiplications in  $F$ . (Asymptotically faster algorithms have been proposed [22] and will be discussed below.) However, the MLFSR algorithm is restricted to monomial moduli, which arise naturally from cyclic Reed–Solomon codes.

Beyond cyclic codes, for  $L = 1$ , it is a classical result that decoding general Reed–Solomon codes can be reduced to a key equation with monomial modulus [28], which is amenable to the MLFSR algorithm. (However, standard accounts of that method do not allow an evaluation point  $\beta_\ell$  to equal zero.) For  $L > 1$ , such a transformation was used in [20]. In this paper, the same effect (without any constraints) is achieved by the monomialization of SPI problems, with the additional benefit that the partial-inverse condition is preserved. This transformation can be carried out, either by the Euclidean algorithm or by the partial-inverse algorithm of [3], with complexity  $O(L(n-k)^2)$ .

Finally, we propose algorithms to solve the SPI problem. The basic SPI algorithm is of the Berlekamp–Massey type. In the special case where  $m^{(i)}(x) = x^{v_i}$ , it looks very much like, and has the same complexity as, the MLFSR algorithm [7], [8]. However, the two algorithms are different: for  $L = 1$ , the MLFSR algorithm of [7] and [8] reduces to the Berlekamp–Massey algorithm [23] while the proposed SPI algorithm (Algorithm 3 of this paper) reduces to the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm of [3].

As shown in [3], the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm is easily translated into two other algorithms, one of them being a variation of the Euclidean algorithm by Sugiyama *et al.* [24]. The (reverse) Berlekamp–Massey algorithm and the Euclidean algorithm may thus be viewed as two versions of the same algorithm. In this paper, we extend this to  $L > 1$ : by easy translations of Algorithm 3, we obtain two other algorithms (Algorithms 10 and 11), one of which is of the Euclidean type and reminiscent of [6] rather than of [7]. (Yet another, quite different, “Euclidean” algorithm was proposed in [25].) For  $L > 1$ , no such connection between the (different) approaches of [6] and [7] has been described in the literature. However, the (reverse) Berlekamp–Massey version for monomial (or monomialized) SPI problems stands out by having the lowest complexity.

As mentioned, asymptotically faster algorithms for the MLFSR problem have been presented in [22] for cyclic row codes and in [5] for general row codes, both achieving  $O(L^3(n-k) \log^2(n-k) \log(n-k))$ . (Note that the























has a unique solution (up to a scale factor), which can be computed by a (new) multi-sequence reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm.

The SPI problem with general moduli can always (and efficiently) be reduced to an SPI problem with monomial moduli. For monomial moduli, the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm looks very much like (and has the same complexity as) the multi-sequence Berlekamp–Massey algorithm of [7] and [8].

The SPI problem can be used to analyze syndrome-based decoding of interleaved Reed–Solomon codes. Specifically, we pointed out a natural partial-inverse condition for the error pattern, which is always satisfied up to half the minimum distance and very likely to be satisfied almost up to the full minimum distance. If that condition is satisfied, the (true) error locator polynomial is the unique solution of a standard key equation and can be computed in many different ways, including the algorithm of [7] and [8] and the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm of this paper. Two of the best performance bounds (for two different decoding algorithms) from the literature were rederived and generalized so that they apply to the partial-inverse condition, and thus simultaneously to many different decoding algorithms.

In Appendix B, we also give two easy variations of the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm, one of which is a Euclidean algorithm. However, for  $L > 1$ , these variations have higher complexity than the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm with monomial moduli.

#### APPENDIX A

##### PROOF OF THE SPI ALGORITHM

In this appendix, we prove Theorems 6 and 7.

##### A. Assertions (Properties of the Algorithm)

To prove the correctness of Algorithm 3, we augment it with some extra variables and some assertions as shown in Algorithm 9. We will prove these assertions one by one, except that the proof of Assertion (A.1) is deferred to the end of this section.

Assertion (A.2) is obvious both from the initialization and from (A.11). Assertion (A.3) is the result of the **repeat** loop, as discussed at the beginning of Section V-A.

Assertion (A.4) is obvious. Assertions (A.5)–(A.8) follow from (A.2)–(A.4), followed by the swap in lines 21–23.

As for (A.9), when  $b^{(i)}(x)$  is visited for the very first time (i.e., the first execution of line 26 for some index  $i$ ), we have  $d = \deg m^{(i)}(x)$  and  $\text{rd}^{(i)}(\Lambda) < d$  is obvious. For all later executions of line 26, we have  $d = \text{rd}^{(i)}(\Lambda)$  and  $d^{(i)} = \text{rd}^{(i)}(\Lambda^{(i)})$  before line 26, and  $\text{rd}^{(i)}(\Lambda) < d$  after line 26 follows from Lemma 4.

To prove (A.10) and (A.11), we note that Line 26 changes the degree of  $\Lambda(x)$  only in iterations where lines 21–24 are executed, see (176) below; every later executions of Line 26 for the fixed  $i$  does not change  $\deg \Lambda(x)$  because of Lemma 4 and that  $\Lambda^{(i)}(x)$  and  $d^{(i)}$  remain the same during the inner repeat loop.

##### Algorithm 9: Annotated SPI Algorithm

```

1   for  $i = 1, \dots, L$  begin
2      $\Lambda^{(i)}(x) := 0$ 
3      $d^{(i)} := \deg m^{(i)}(x)$ 
4      $\kappa^{(i)} := \text{lcf } m^{(i)}(x)$ 
5   end
6    $\Lambda(x) := 1$ 
7    $\delta := \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, L\}} (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)})$ 
8    $i := 1$ 
9   loop begin
10    Extra:
11     $k := 0$  (E.1)
12    Assertions:
13     $\deg \Lambda(x) = \sum_{i=1}^L (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - d^{(i)})$  (A.1)
14     $\deg \Lambda(x) > \deg \Lambda^{(i)}(x), i = 1, \dots, L$  (A.2)
15    repeat
16      if  $i > 1$  begin  $i := i - 1$  end
17      else begin
18        if  $\delta \leq 0$  return  $\Lambda(x)$ 
19         $i := L$ 
20         $\delta := \delta - 1$ 
21      end
22       $d := \delta + \tau^{(i)}$ 
23       $\kappa := \text{coefficient of } x^d \text{ in}$ 
24         $b^{(i)}(x)\Lambda(x) \bmod m^{(i)}(x)$ 
25      until  $\kappa \neq 0$ 
26      Assertion:
27       $i = i_{\max}(\Lambda), \delta = \delta_{\max}(\Lambda) \geq 0$  (A.3)
28      if  $d < d^{(i)}$  begin
29        Assertion:
30         $d^{(i)} > d = \delta + \tau^{(i)} \geq \tau^{(i)}$  (A.4)
31        Extras:
32         $k := k + 1, i_k \triangleq i, \Lambda_k(x) \triangleq \Lambda(x),$ 
33         $\Delta_k \triangleq d^{(i)} - d, d_k \triangleq d^{(i)}$  (E.2)
34        swap  $(\Lambda(x), \Lambda^{(i)}(x))$ 
35        swap  $(d, d^{(i)})$ 
36        swap  $(\kappa, \kappa^{(i)})$ 
37         $\delta := d - \tau^{(i)}$ 
38        Assertions:
39         $d > d^{(i)} \geq \tau^{(i)}$  (A.5)
40         $\deg \Lambda^{(i)}(x) > \deg \Lambda(x)$  (A.6)
41         $\deg \Lambda^{(i)}(x) > \deg \Lambda^{(j)}(x)$  for  $j \neq i$  (A.7)
42         $i_{\max}(\Lambda^{(i)}) = i, \delta_{\max}(\Lambda^{(i)}) \geq 0$  (A.8)
43      end
44       $\Lambda(x) := \kappa^{(i)}\Lambda(x) - \kappa x^{d-d^{(i)}}\Lambda^{(i)}(x)$ 
45      Assertion:
46       $\text{rd}^{(i)}(\Lambda) < d = \delta + \tau^{(i)}$  (A.9)
47       $\deg \Lambda(x) = \Delta_k + \deg \Lambda_k(x)$  (A.10)
48       $> \deg \Lambda^{(i)}(x), i = 1, \dots, L$  (A.11)
49    end

```



moreover, every execution of the swap in lines 21–23 strictly reduces  $\delta^{(i)}$ . Finally, let  $\delta$  be as in the algorithm, which is initialized to

$$\delta := \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, L\}} (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)}) \quad (198)$$

(see line 7). It is obvious that the number  $N_{\text{it}}$  of executions of line 18 of Algorithm 3 (i.e., Algorithm 9) is equal to the total number of iterations of lines 10–19. These executions of line 18 (with the help of line 26) are made to make  $\Lambda(x)$  satisfy (1) for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, L\}$  (which holds when  $\delta \leq 0$ ) accompanied by the reduction of  $\delta^{(i)}$  from  $\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)}$  to  $\tilde{d}^{(i)} - \tau^{(i)}$  for every  $i$ . We therefore have

$$N_{\text{it}} = \hat{D} + \sum_{i=1}^L n_{\text{it}}^{(i)}, \quad (199)$$

where  $\hat{D}$  is defined in (170) and where  $n_{\text{it}}^{(i)}$  denotes the number of executions of line 18 needed for decreasing  $\delta^{(i)}$  from  $\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)}$  to  $\tilde{d}^{(i)} - \tau^{(i)}$ . The quantity  $n_{\text{it}}^{(i)}$  for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, L\}$  is

$$n_{\text{it}}^{(i)} = L \cdot (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)} - (\tilde{d}^{(i)} - \tau^{(i)})) \quad (200)$$

$$= L \cdot (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tilde{d}^{(i)}) \quad (201)$$

and thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^L n_{\text{it}}^{(i)} = L \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tilde{d}^{(i)}). \quad (202)$$

We therefore obtain

$$N_{\text{it}} = \hat{D} + L \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tilde{d}^{(i)}). \quad (203)$$

But  $\sum_{i=1}^L (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tilde{d}^{(i)}) = \deg \Lambda(x)$  from (A.1) with  $d^{(i)} = \tilde{d}^{(i)}$ .

## APPENDIX B QUOTIENT SAVING ALGORITHM AND REMAINDER SAVING ALGORITHM

For  $L = 1$ , the reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm is easily translated into two other algorithms, one of which is a Euclidean algorithm [3]. In fact, it is a main point of [3] that these algorithms may be viewed as different versions of a single algorithm. We now demonstrate that this works also for  $L > 1$ .

However, for  $L > 1$ , these other algorithms are less attractive than the monomial–SPI reverse Berlekamp–Massey algorithm (Algorithm 4) as will be detailed below. However, before discounting these other algorithms from future research, it may be remembered that the complexity of the asymptotically fast MLFSR algorithms of [5] and [22] is cubic in  $L$  while the complexity of the algorithms below is only quadratic in  $L$ .

### Algorithm 10: Quotient Saving SPI Algorithm

Input:  $b^{(i)}(x), m^{(i)}(x), \tau^{(i)}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, L$ .

Output:  $\Lambda(x)$  as in the problem statement.

```

1   for  $i = 1, \dots, L$  begin
2      $\Lambda^{(i)}(x) := 0$ 
3      $d^{(i)} := \deg m^{(i)}(x)$ 
4      $\kappa^{(i)} := \text{lcf } m^{(i)}(x)$ 
5     for  $j = 1, \dots, L$  begin
6        $Q^{(i,j)}(x) := 0$ 
7       if  $i = j$  begin  $Q^{(i,j)}(x) := -1$  end
8     end
9   end
10   $\Lambda(x) := 1$ 
11  for  $i = 1, \dots, L$  begin  $Q^{(i)}(x) := 0$  end
12   $\delta := \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, L\}} (\deg m^{(i)}(x) - \tau^{(i)})$ 
13   $i := 1$ 
14  loop begin
15    repeat
16      if  $i > 1$  begin  $i := i - 1$  end
17      else begin
18        if  $\delta \leq 0$  return  $\Lambda(x)$ 
19         $i := L$ 
20         $\delta := \delta - 1$ 
21      end
22       $d := \delta + \tau^{(i)}$ 
23       $\kappa := \sum_{\ell} b_{d-\ell}^{(i)} \Lambda_{\ell} - \sum_{\ell} m_{d-\ell}^{(i)} Q_{\ell}^{(i)}$ 
24    until  $\kappa \neq 0$ 
25    if  $d < d^{(i)}$  begin
26      swap ( $\Lambda(x), \Lambda^{(i)}(x)$ )
27      swap ( $d, d^{(i)}$ )
28      swap ( $\kappa, \kappa^{(i)}$ )
29      for  $j = 1, \dots, L$  swap ( $Q^{(j)}(x), Q^{(i,j)}(x)$ )
30       $\delta := d - \tau^{(i)}$ 
31    end
32     $\Lambda(x) := \kappa^{(i)} \Lambda(x) - \kappa x^{d-d^{(i)}} \Lambda^{(i)}(x)$ 
33    for  $j = 1, \dots, L$  begin
34       $Q^{(j)}(x) := \kappa^{(i)} Q^{(j)}(x) - \kappa x^{d-d^{(i)}} Q^{(i,j)}(x)$ 
35    end
36  end

```

#### A. Quotient Saving Algorithm

Algorithm 10 (see box) is a variation of Algorithm 3 that achieves a generalization of Algorithm 4 to general  $m^{(i)}(x)$ . To this end, we store and update the quotients  $Q^{(i)}(x)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, L$ , defined by

$$b^{(i)}(x)\Lambda(x) = Q^{(i)}(x)m^{(i)}(x) + r^{(i)}(x) \quad (204)$$

with  $r^{(i)}(x) \triangleq b^{(i)}(x)\Lambda(x) \bmod m^{(i)}(x)$ . The coefficient of  $x^d$  of  $r^{(i)}(x)$  in line 18 of Algorithm 3 can then be computed as in line 23 of Algorithm 10.



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**Jiun-Hung Yu** (S'10–M'14) was born in Nantou, Taiwan, in 1979. He received the M.S. degree in communication engineering from National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 2003, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from ETH Zurich, in 2014. From 2003 to 2008, he was with Realtek Semiconductor Cooperation, Hsinchu, Taiwan. From 2008 to 2017, he was with the Signal and Information Processing Laboratory of ETH Zurich. Since 2017, he has been with National Chiao Tung University. He is currently an Assistant Professor. His research interests include communication theory, error-correcting codes, and statistical signal processing.

**Hans-Andrea Loeliger** (S'85–M'92–SM'03–F'04) received the Diploma in electrical engineering and the Ph.D. degree in 1992 from ETH Zurich, Switzerland. From 1992 to 1995, he was with Linköping University, Linköping Sweden. From 1995 to 2000, he was a technical consultant and coowner of a consulting company. Since 2000, he has been a Professor with the Department of Information Technology and Electrical Engineering of ETH Zurich, Switzerland. His research interests include the broad areas of signal processing, machine learning, information theory, error correcting codes, communications, and electronic circuits.