On Coding over Sliced Information

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Abstract

Data storage in synthetic DNA molecules suggests unprecedented advances in density and durability. The interest in DNA storage has increased dramatically in recent years, following a few successful prototype implementations [2, 7, 4, 16]. However, due to biochemical restrictions in synthesis (i.e., writing) and sequencing (i.e., reading), the underlying channel model of DNA storage systems is fundamentally different from its digital-media counterpart.

Typically, the data in a DNA storage system is stored as a pool of short strings that are dissolved inside a solution, and consequently, these strings are obtained at the decoder in an unordered fashion. Furthermore, current technology does not allow the decoder to count the exact number of appearances of each string in the solution, but merely to estimate relative concentrations. These restrictions have re-ignited the interest in coding over sets, a model that also finds applications in transmission over asynchronous networks (see Section III).

In this model, the data to be stored is encoded as a set of $M$ strings of length $L$ over a certain alphabet, for some integers $M$ and $L$ such that $M < 2^L$; typical values for $M$ and $L$ are currently within the order of magnitude of $10^7$ and $10^2$, respectively [16]. Each individual strings is subject to various types of errors, such as deletions (i.e., omissions of symbols, which result in a shorter string), insertions (which result in a longer string), and substitutions (i.e., replacements of one symbol by another). In the context of DNA storage, after encoding the data as a set of strings over a four-symbol alphabet, the corresponding DNA molecules are synthesized and dissolved inside a solution. Then, a chemical process called Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is applied, which drastically amplifies the number of copies of each string. In the reading process, strings whose length is either shorter or longer than $L$ are discarded, and the remaining ones are clustered according to their respective edit-distance\(^1\). Then, a majority vote is held within each cluster in order to come up with the most likely origin of the reads in that cluster, and all majority winners are included in the output set of the decoding algorithm (Figure 1).

One of the caveats of this approach is that errors in synthesis might cause the PCR process to amplify a string that was written erroneously, and hence the decoder might include this erroneous string in the output set. In this context, deletions and insertions are easier to handle since they result in a string of length different from\(^2\) $L$. Substitution errors, however, are more challenging to combat, and are discussed next.

A substitution error that occurs prior to amplification by PCR can induce either one of two possible error patterns. In one, the newly created string already exists in the set of strings, and hence, the decoder will output a set of $M - 1$ strings. In the other, which is undetectable by counting the size of the output set, the substitution generates a string which is not equal to any other string in the set. In this case the output set has the same size as the error free one. These error patterns, which are referred to simply as substitutions, are the main focus of this paper.

Following a formal definition of the channel model in Section II, previous work is discussed in Section III. Upper and lower bounds on the amount of redundant bits that are required to combat substitutions are given in Section IV. In Section V we provide a construction of a code that can correct a single substitution. This construction is shown to be optimal up to some constant, which is later improved in Appendix C. In Section VI the construction for a single substitution is generalized to any number of substitutions, and is shown to be asymptotically optimal whenever the number of substitutions is a constant. Finally, open problems for future research are discussed in Section VII.

Remark 1. The channel which is discussed in this paper can essentially be seen as taking a string of a certain length $N$ as input. Then, during transmission, the string is sliced into substrings of equal length, and each substring is subject to substitution errors in the usual sense. Moreover, the order between the slices is lost during transmission, and they arrive as an unordered set.

It follows from the sphere-packing bound [18, Sec. 4.2] that without the slicing operation, one must introduce at least $K \log(N)$ redundant bits at the encoder in order to combat $K$ substitutions. The surprising result of this paper, is that the slicing operation

\(^1\)The edit distance between two strings is the minimum number of deletions, insertions, and substitutions that turn one to another.

\(^2\)As long as the number of insertions is not equal to the number of deletions, an event that occurs in negligible probability.
does not incur a substantial increase in the amount of redundant bits that are required to correct these K substitutions. In the case of a single substitution, our codes attain an amount of redundancy that is asymptotically equivalent to the ordinary (i.e., unsliced) channel, whereas for a larger number of substitutions we come close to that, but prove that a comparable amount of redundancy is achievable.

II. PRELIMINARIES

To discuss the problem in its most general form, we restrict our attention to binary strings. For integers M and L such that $3 \leq M \leq 2^L$, we denote by $\binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$ the family of all subsets of size M of $\{0,1\}^L$. In our channel model, a word is an element $W \in \binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$, and a code $C \subseteq \binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$ is a set of words (for clarity, we refer to words in a given code as codewords).

To prevent ambiguity with classical coding theoretic terms, the elements in a word $W = \{x_1, \ldots, x_M\}$ are referred to as strings. We emphasize that the indexing in $W$ is merely a notational convenience, e.g., by the lexicographic order of the strings, and this information is not available at the decoder.

For $K \leq ML/2$, a K-substitution error (K-substitution, in short), is an operation that changes the values of K different positions in a word. Notice that the result of a K-substitution is not necessarily an element of $\binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$, and might be an element of $\binom{[0,1]^L_M}{ML-K}$ for some $M - K \leq T \leq M$. This gives rise to the following definition.

**Definition 1.** For a word $W \in \binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$, a ball $\mathcal{B}_K(W) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=M-K}^M \binom{[0,1]^L_M}{j}$ centered at W is the collection of all subsets of $\{0,1\}^L$ that can be obtained by a K-substitution in $W$.

**Example 1.** For $M = 2$, $L = 3$, $K = 1$, and $W = \{001, 011\}$, we have that

$$\mathcal{B}_K(W) = \{\{010, 011\}, \{011\}, \{000, 011\}, \{001, 111\}, \{001\}, \{001, 010\}\}.$$

In this paper, we discuss bounds and constructions of codes in $\binom{[0,1]^L_M}{T}$ that can correct $K$ substitutions ($K$-substitution codes, for short), for various values of $K$. The size of a code, which is denoted by $|C|$, is the number of codewords (that is, sets) in it. The redundancy of the code, a quantity that corresponds to the number of redundant bits that are to be added to the data to guarantee successful decoding, is defined as $r(C) \triangleq \log(2^M) - \log(|C|)$, where the logarithms are in base 2.

A code $C$ is used in our channel as follows. First, the data to be stored (or transmitted) is mapped by a bijective encoding function to a codeword $C \in C$. This codeword passes through a channel that might introduce up to $K$ substitutions, and as we occasionally also assume that $M \leq 2^L$ for some $0 < c < 1$. This is in accordance with typical values of $M$ and $L$ in contemporary DNA storage prototypes (see Section I).
a result a word $W \in B_K(C)$ is obtained at the decoder. In turn, the decoder applies some decoding function to extract the original data. The code $C$ is called a $K$-substitution code if the decoding process always recovers the original data successfully. Having settled the channel model, we are now in a position to formally state our contribution.

**Theorem 1.** (Main) For any integers $M$, $L$, and $K$ such that $M \leq 2^{L/(4K+2)}$, there exists an explicit code construction with redundancy $O(K^2 \log(ML))$ (Section VI). For $K = 1$, the redundancy of this construction is at most six times larger than the optimal one (Section V). Furthermore, an improved construction for $K = 1$ achieves redundancy which is at most three times the optimal one (Appendix C).

A few auxiliary notions are used throughout the paper, and are introduced herein. For two strings $s$, $t \in \{0, 1\}^L$, the **Hamming distance** $d_H(s, t)$ is the number of entries in which they differ. To prevent confusion with common terms, a subset of $\{0, 1\}^L$ is called a **vector-code**, and the set $B_D^H(s)$ of all strings within Hamming distance $D$ or less of a given string $s$ is called the **Hamming ball** of radius $D$ centered at $s$. A **linear** vector code is called an $[n, k]_q$ code if the strings in it form a subspace of dimension $k$ in $\mathbb{F}_q^n$, where $\mathbb{F}_q$ is the finite field with $q$ elements.

Several well-known vector-codes are used in the sequel, such as Reed-Solomon codes or Hamming codes. For an integer $t$, the Hamming code is an $[2^t-1, 2^t-t-1]_2$ code (i.e., there are $t$ redundant bits in every codeword), and its minimum Hamming distance is $3$. Reed-Solomon (RS) codes over $\mathbb{F}_q$ exist for every length $n$ and dimension $k$, as long as $q \geq n-1$ [18, Sec. 5], and require $n-k$ redundant symbols in $\mathbb{F}_q$. Whenever $q$ is a power of two, RS codes can be made binary by representing each element of $\mathbb{F}_q$ as a binary string of length $\log_2(q)$. In the sequel we use this form of RS code, which requires $\log(n)(n-k)$ redundant bits.

Finally, our encoding algorithms make use of **combinatorial numbering maps** [10], that are functions that map a number to an element in some structured set. Specifically, $F_{\text{com}} : \{1, \ldots, \binom{M}{K}\} \rightarrow \{S : S \subset \{1, \ldots, N\}, |S| = M\}$ maps a number to a set of distinct elements, and $F_{\text{perm}} : \{1, \ldots, N!\} \rightarrow S_N$ maps a number to a permutation in the symmetric group $S_N$. Using $F_{\text{com}}$ and $F_{\text{perm}}$ together, we define a map $F : \{1, \ldots, \binom{N}{M}!\} \rightarrow \{S : S \subset \{1, \ldots, N\}, |S| = M\} \times S_N$ that maps a number into an unordered set of size $M$ together with a permutation. Generally, we denote scalars by lower-case letters $x, y, \ldots$, vectors by bold symbols $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \ldots$, integers by capital letters $K, L, \ldots$, and $|K| \triangleq \{1, 2, \ldots, K\}$.

### III. PREVIOUS WORK

The idea of manipulating atomic particles for engineering applications dates back to the 1950’s, with R. Feynman’s famous citation “there’s plenty of room at the bottom” [5]. The specific idea of manipulating DNA molecules for data storage as been circulating the scientific community for a few decades, and yet it was not until 2012-2013 where two prototypes have been implemented [2], [7]. These prototypes have ignited the imagination of practitioners and theoreticians alike, and many works followed suit with various implementations and channel models [1], [6], [8], [9], [17], [21].

By and large, all practical implementations to this day follows the aforementioned channel model, in which multiple short strings are stored inside a solution. Normally, deletions and insertions are also taken into account, but substitutions were found to be the most common form of errors [16, Fig. 3.b], and strings that were subject to insertions and deletions are scarcer, and can be easily discarded.

The channel model which is studied in this work has been studied by several authors in the past. The work of [8] addressed this channel model under the restriction that individual strings are read in an error free manner, and some strings might get lost as a result of random sampling of the DNA pool. In their techniques, the strings in a codeword are appended with an error, regardless of how many substitutions, insertions, or deletions it contains. As a result, the specific structure of $\{0, 1\}^L$ is immaterial, and the problem reduces to decoding histograms over an alphabet of a certain size.

The specialized reader might suggest the use of fountain codes, such as the LT [15] codes or Raptor [19] codes. However, we stress that these solutions rely on randomness at much higher redundancy rates, whereas this work aims for a deterministic and rigorous solution at redundancy which is close to optimal.

Finally, we also mention the permutation channel [12], [13], [20], which is similar to our setting, and yet it is farther away in spirit than the aforementioned works. In that channel, a vector over a certain alphabet is transmitted, and its symbols are received at the decoder under a certain permutation. If no restriction is applied over the possible permutations, than this channel reduces to multiset decoding, as in [11]. This channel is applicable in networks in which different packets are routed along different paths of varying lengths, and are obtained in an unordered and possibly erroneous form at the decoder. Yet, this line...
of works is less relevant to ours, and to DNA storage in general, since the specific error pattern in each ‘symbol’ (which corresponds to a string in \( \{0,1\}^L \) in our case) is not addressed, and perfect knowledge of the number of appearances of each ‘symbol’ is assumed.

IV. Bounds

In this section we use sphere packing arguments in order to establish an existence result of codes with low redundancy, and a lower bound on the redundancy for any single substitution code. The latter bound demonstrates the asymptotic optimality of the construction in Section V for \( K = 1 \). Both of these bounds rely on upper and lower bounds on the size of the ball \( B_K \) (Definition 1), which are given below.

Lemma 1. For every word \( W = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^M \in \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \) and every positive integer \( K \leq ML \), we have that \( |B_K(W)| \leq \sum_{\ell=0}^{K} \binom{ML}{\ell} \).

Proof. Every word in \( B_K(W) \) is obtained by flipping the bits in \( x_i \) that are indexed by some \( J_i \subseteq [L] \), for every \( i \in [M] \), where \( \sum_{i=1}^{M} |J_i| \leq K \). Clearly, there are at most \( \sum_{\ell=0}^{K} \binom{ML}{\ell} \) ways to choose the index sets \( \{J_i\}_{i=1}^{M} \).

Corollary 1. For every \( K \), \( M \), and \( L \) such that \( M < 2^L \) and \( K \leq ML/2 \), there exists a code \( C \subseteq \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \) whose redundancy is at most \( 2K \log(ML) \).

Proof. Choose \( C \) by the following iterative process. Maintain a list \( P \subseteq \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \) of possible words, which is initialized as \( P = \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \). Then, choose a codeword \( C \in P \) to be put into \( C \), remove the ball \( B_{2K}(C) \) from \( P \), and iterate until \( P = \emptyset \). According to Lemma 1, we have that

\[
|C| \geq \frac{2^L}{\sum_{\ell=0}^{2K} \binom{ML}{\ell}},
\]

and clearly, \( B_K(C_1) \cap B(C_2) \) for every \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) in \( C \), which implies that \( C \) can correct \( K \) substitutions. Hence, we have that

\[
|C| \geq \frac{2^L}{\sum_{\ell=0}^{2K} \binom{ML}{\ell}} \leq \log \left( 2K \cdot \binom{ML}{2K} \right) + \log(2K) \leq 2K \log(ML).
\]

Notice that the bound in Lemma 1 is tight, e.g., in cases where \( d_H(x_i, x_j) \geq 2K + 1 \) for all distinct \( i, j \in [M] \). This might occur only if \( M \) is less than the maximum size of a \( K \)-substitution correcting vector-code, i.e., when \( M \leq 2^L / \left( \sum_{i=0}^{K} \binom{L}{i} \right) \) [18, Sec. 4.2]. When the minimum Hamming distance between the strings in a codeword is not large enough, different substitution errors might result in identical words, and the size of the ball is smaller than the given upper bound.

Example 2. For \( L = 4 \) and \( M = 2 \), consider the word \( W = \{0110, 0111\} \). By flipping either the two underlined symbols, or the two bold symbols, the word \( W' = \{0110, 1011\} \) is obtained. Hence, different substitution operation might result in identical words.

However, in some cases it is possible to bound the size of \( B_K \) from below by using tools from Fourier analysis of Boolean functions. In the following it is assumed that \( M \leq 2^{(1-\epsilon)L} \) for some \( 0 < \epsilon < 1 \), and that \( K = 1 \). A word \( W \in \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \) corresponds to a Boolean function \( f_W : \{\pm 1\}^L \rightarrow \{\pm 1\} \) in a natural way. For \( x \in \{0,1\}^L \) let \( \mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^K \) be the vector which is obtained from \( x \) by replacing every 0 by 1 and every 1 by \(-1\). Then, we define \( f_W(\mathbf{x}) = -1 \) if \( x \in W \), and 1 otherwise. Considering the set \( \{\pm 1\}^L \) as the hypercube graph\(^4\), the boundary of \( f_W \) is the set of all edges \( \{x_1, x_2\} \in \binom{\{\pm 1\}^L}{2} \) in this graph such that \( f_W(x_1) \neq f_W(x_2) \).

Lemma 2. The size of \( B_1(W) \) is at least as the size of the boundary of \( f_W \).

Proof. Every edge \( e \) on the boundary of \( f_W \) corresponds to a substitution operation that results in a word \( W_e \in B_1(W) \cap \binom{\{0,1\}^L}{M} \). To show that every edge on the boundary corresponds to a unique word in \( B_1(W) \), assume for contradiction that \( W_e = W_{e'} \) for two distinct edges \( e = \{x_1, x_2\} \) and \( e' = \{y_1, y_2\} \), where \( x_1, y_1 \in W \) and \( x_2, y_2 \notin W \). Since both \( W_e \) and \( W_{e'} \) contain precisely one element which is not in \( W \) and are missing one element which is in \( W \), it follows that \( x_1 = y_1 \) and \( x_2 = y_2 \), a contradiction. Therefore, there exists an injective mapping between the boundary of \( f_W \) and \( B_1(W) \), and the claim follows.

\(^4\)The nodes of the hypercube graph of dimension \( L \) are identified by \( \{\pm 1\}^L \), and every two nodes are connected if and only if the Hamming distance between them is 1.
Notice that the bound in Lemma 2 is tight, e.g., in cases where the minimum Hamming distance between the strings of $W$ is at least 2. This implies the tightness of the bound which is given below in these cases. Having established the connection between $B_i(W)$ and the boundary of $f_W$, the following Fourier analytic claims will aid in proving a lower bound. Let the \textit{total influence} of $f_W$ be $I(f_W) \triangleq \sum_{t=1}^{L} \text{Pr}_y(f_W(y) \neq f_W(y^{\oplus t}))$, where $y^{\oplus t}$ is obtained from $y$ by changing the sign of the $i$-th entry, and $y \in \{\pm 1\}^L$ is chosen uniformly at random.

\textbf{Lemma 3.}

1) \cite[Fact 2.14, Def. 2.27]{3} The total influence of $f_W$ equals the fraction of hypercube edges that lie on its boundary.

2) \cite[Theorem 2.39]{3} (The Poincaré Inequality) For every function $f : \{\pm 1\}^L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we have that $I(f) \geq \text{Var}(f)$, where $\text{Var}(f) \triangleq \mathbb{E}(f^2) - \mathbb{E}(f)^2$ is the variance of $f$.

\textbf{Lemma 4.} For every word $W \in \left(\frac{0,1}{M}\right)^L$ we have that $|B_i(W)| \geq ML \cdot (2 - 2^{1-\epsilon L})$.

\textbf{Proof.} Since an $L$-dimensional hypercube graph has $L \cdot 2^{L-1}$ edges, Lemma 2 and Lemma 3 imply that $|B_i(W)| \geq L \cdot 2^{L-1} \cdot I(f_W)$. It is readily verified that $\text{Var}(f_W) = 1 - \mathbb{E}(f_W)^2 = M/2^{L-2} - M^2/2^{2L-2}$; therefore, Lemma 3(2) and the fact that $M \leq 2^{(1-\epsilon)L}$ imply that

$$|B_i(W)| \geq L \cdot 2^{L-1}(M/2^{L-2} - M^2/2^{2L-2}) \geq ML \cdot (2 - 2^{1-\epsilon L}).$$

\textbf{Corollary 2.} The asymptotic redundancy of a family of codes $\{C_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$, where $K = 1$ and $L \rightarrow \infty$, is at least $\log(ML) + O(1)$.

\textbf{Proof.} According to Lemma 4, every codeword of every $C_i$ excludes at least $ML \cdot (2 - 2^{1-\epsilon L})$ other words from belonging to $C_i$. Hence, we have that

$$|C| \leq \frac{2^L}{ML \cdot (2 - 2^{1-\epsilon L})},$$

and by the definition of redundancy, it follows that

$$r(C) = \log \left(\frac{2^L}{M}\right) - \log(|C|) \geq \log(ML \cdot (2 - 2^{1-\epsilon L})) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow \infty} \log(ML) + O(1).$$

\section{V. Codes for a Single Substitution}

In this section we present a $1$-substitution code construction that applies whenever $M \leq 2^{L/6}$, whose redundancy is at most $3 \log ML + 3 \log M + O(1)$. For simplicity of illustration, we restrict our attention to values of $M$ and $L$ such that $\log ML + \log M \leq M$. In the remaining values, a similar construction of comparable redundancy exists.

\textbf{Theorem 2.} For $D = \{1, \ldots, \binom{L/3 - 1}{M}\} \cdot (M!)^2 \cdot 2^{M-3 \log ML - 3 \log M - 6}$, there exist an encoding function $E : D \rightarrow \left(\frac{0,1}{M}\right)^L$ whose image is a single substitution correcting code.

The idea behind Theorem 2 is to concatenate the strings in a codeword $C = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^M$ in a certain order, so that classic 1-substitution error correction techniques can be applied over the concatenated string. Since a substitution error may affect any particular order of the $x_i$’s, we consider the lexicographic orders of several different parts of the $x_i$’s, instead of the lexicographic order of the whole strings. Specifically, we partition the $x_i$’s to three parts, and place distinct strings in each of them. Since a substitution operation can scramble the order in at most one part, the correct order will be inferred by a majority vote, so that classic substitution error correction can be applied.

Consider a message $d \in D$ as a tuple $d = (d_1, \ldots, d_6)$, where $d_1 \in \{1, \ldots, \binom{L/3 - 1}{M}\}$, $d_3, d_5 \in \{1, \ldots, \binom{L/3 - 1}{M}\}M$, and $d_2, d_4, d_6 \in \{1, \ldots, 2^{M-\log ML - \log M^2 - 2}\}$. Apply the functions $F_{\text{com}}$, $F_{\text{perm}}$, and $F$ (see Section II) to obtain

$$F_{\text{com}}(d_1) = \{a_1, \ldots, a_M\},$$

$$F(d_3) = \text{(b}_1, \ldots, \text{b}_M, \sigma),$$

$$F(d_5) = \text{(c}_1, \ldots, \text{c}_M, \pi).$$

where $a_i, b_i, c_i \in \{0,1\}^{L/3 - 1}$ for every $i \in [M]$, the permutations $\sigma$ and $\pi$ are in $S_M$, and the indexing of $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^M$, $\{b_i\}_{i=1}^M$, and $\{c_i\}_{i=1}^M$ is lexicographic. Further, let $d_2, d_4$, and $d_6$ be the binary strings that correspond to $d_2$, $d_4$, and $d_6$, respectively, and let

$$s_1 = (a_1, \ldots, a_M), \quad s_2 = (a_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\sigma^{-1}(M)}, b_1, \ldots, b_M), \quad s_3 = (a_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\pi^{-1}(M)}, c_1, \ldots, c_M),$$

$$s_4 = (a_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\sigma^{-1}(M)}, b_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, b_{\sigma^{-1}(M)}), \quad s_5 = (a_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\pi^{-1}(M)}, c_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, c_{\pi^{-1}(M)}).$$

(2)
Without loss of generality, assume that there exists an integer \( t \) for which
\[
|s_i| = (L - 3)M = 2^t - t - 1 \quad \text{for all } i \in [3].
\]
Then, each \( s_i \) can be encoded by using a \textit{systematic} \([2^t - 1, 2^t - t - 1, 3]\) Hamming code, by introducing \( t \) redundant bits. That is, the encoding function is of the form \( s_i \mapsto (s_i, E_H(s_i)) \), where \( E_H(s_i) \) are the \( t \) redundant bits, and \( t \leq \log(ML) + 1 \).
Similarly, we assume that there exists an integer \( h \) for which
\[
|d_i| = 2^h - h - 1 \quad \text{for } i \in \{2, 4, 6\},
\]
and let \( E_H(d_i) \) be the corresponding \( h \) bits of redundancy, that result from encoding \( d_i \) by using a \([2^t - 1, 2^h - h - 1, 3]\) Hamming code. By the properties of a Hamming code, and by the definition of \( h \), we have that \( h \leq \log(ML) + 1 \).

The data \( d \in D \) is mapped to a codeword \( C = \{x_1, \ldots, x_M\} \) as follows, and the reader is encouraged to refer to Figure 2 for clarifications. First, we place \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M \), \( \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M \), and \( \{c_i\}_{i=1}^M \) in the different thirds of the \( x_i \)'s, sorted by \( \sigma \) and \( \pi \). That is, denoting \( x_i = (x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,L}) \), we define
\[
(x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,L/3-1}) = a_i,
\]
\[
(x_{i,L/3+1}, \ldots, x_{i,2L/3-1}) = b_{\sigma(i)},
\]
\[
(x_{i,2L/3+1}, \ldots, x_{i,L-1}) = c_{\pi(i)}.
\]
The remaining bits \( \{x_{i,L/3+1}\}_{i=1}^M \), \( \{x_{i,2L/3+1}\}_{i=1}^M \), and \( \{x_{i,L-1}\}_{i=1}^M \) are used to accommodate the information bits of \( d_2, d_4, d_6 \), and
\[\text{ Every string can be padded with zeros to extend its length to } 2^t - t - 1 \text{ for some } t. \text{ It is readily verified that this operation extends the string by at most a factor of two, and by the properties of the Hamming code, this will increase the number of redundant bits by at most 1.}\]
the redundancy bits \( \{E_H(s_i)\}_{i=1}^{3} \) and \( \{E_H(d_i)\}_{i \in \{2,4,6\}} \), in the following manner.

\[
x_{i,L/3} = \begin{cases} 
  d_{2,i}, & \text{if } i \leq M - \log ML - \log M - 2 \\
  E_H(d_2)_{i-(M-\log ML-\log M-2)}, & \text{if } M - \log ML - \log M - 1 \leq i \leq M - \log ML - 1, \\
  E_H(s_1)_{i-(M-\log ML-1)}, & \text{if } M - \log ML \leq i \leq M,
\end{cases}
\]

\[
x_{i,2L/3} = \begin{cases} 
  d_{3,i}, & \text{if } \sigma^{-1}(i) \leq M - \log ML - \log M - 2 \\
  E_H(d_3)_{i-(M-\log ML-\log M-2)}, & \text{if } M - \log ML - \log M - 1 \leq \sigma^{-1}(i) \leq M - \log ML - 1, \\
  E_H(s_2)_{i-(M-\log ML-1)}, & \text{if } M - \log ML \leq \sigma^{-1}(i) \leq M,
\end{cases}
\]

\[
x_{i,L} = \begin{cases} 
  d_0, & \text{if } \pi^{-1}(i) \leq M - \log ML - \log M - 2 \\
  E_H(d_0)_{i-(M-\log ML-\log M-2)}, & \text{if } M - \log ML - \log M - 1 \leq \pi^{-1}(i) \leq M - \log ML - 1. \quad (4)
\end{cases}
\]

That is, if the strings \( \{x_{i,L/3}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) are sorted according to the content of the bits \( (x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,L/3-1}) = a_i \), then the top \( M - \log ML \log M - 2 \) bits of the \((L/3)\)th column contain \( d_2 \), the middle \( \log M + 1 \) bits contain \( E_H(d_2) \), and the bottom \( \log ML + 1 \) bits contain \( E_H(s_1) \). Similarly, if the strings are sorted according to \( (x_{i,1,L/3+1}, \ldots, x_{i,2L/3-1}) = b_i \), then the top \( M - \log ML \log M - 2 \) bits of the \((2L/3)\)th column contain \( d_3 \), the middle \( \log M + 1 \) bits contain \( E_H(d_3) \), and the bottom \( \log ML + 1 \) bits contain \( E_H(s_2) \), and so on. This concludes the encoding function \( E \) of Theorem 2. It can be readily verified that \( E \) is injective since different messages result in either different \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{c_i\}_{i=1}^M \) or the same \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{c_i\}_{i=1}^M \) with different \( d_2, d_3, d_0 \). In either case, the resulting codewords \( \{x_{i,L}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) of the two messages are different.

To verify that the image of \( E \) is a 1-substitution code, observe first that since \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{c_i\}_{i=1}^M \) are sets, it follows that any two strings in the same set are distinct. Hence, according to (3), it follows that \( d_H(x_i, x_j) \geq 3 \) for every distinct \( i \) and \( j \). Therefore, no 1-substitution error can cause one \( x_i \) to be equal to another, and consequently, the result of a 1-substitution error is always in \( \{(0,1)^L\}^M \). In what follows a decoding algorithm is presented, whose input is a codeword that was distorted by at most a single substitution, and its output is \( d \).

Upon receiving a word \( C' = \{x_{1}^M, \ldots, x_{M}^M\} \in B_1(C) \) for some codeword \( C \) (once again, the indexing of the elements of \( C' \) is lexicographic), we define

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{a}_i &= (x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,3}) \\
\hat{b}_i &= (x_{i-1,1,L/3+1}, \ldots, x_{i-1,2L/3-1}) \\
\hat{c}_i &= (x_{x-1,1,2L/3+1}, \ldots, x_{x-1,2L/3-1}),
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \tau \) is the permutation by which \( \{x_{i,L/3}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) are sorted according to their \( L/3+1, \ldots, 2L/3-1 \) entries, and \( \rho \) is the permutation by which they are sorted according to their \( 2L/3+1, \ldots, L-1 \) entries (we emphasize that \( \tau \) and \( \rho \) are unrelated to the original \( \pi \) and \( \sigma \), and those will be decoded later). Further, when ordering \( \{x_{i,L}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) by either the lexicographic ordering, by \( \tau \), or by \( \rho \), we obtain candidates for each one of \( d_2, d_3, d_4, E_H(d_2), E_H(d_4), E_H(d_4), E_H(s_1), E_H(s_2), \) and \( E_H(s_3) \), that we similarly denote with an additional apostrophe\(^6\). For example, if we order \( \{x_{i,L}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) according to \( \tau \), then the bottom \( \log ML + 1 \) bits of the \((2L/3)\)th column are \( E_H(s_2)' \), the middle \( \log M + 1 \) bits are \( E_H(d_3)' \), and the top \( M - \log ML - \log M - 2 \) bits are \( d_4' \) (see Eq. (4)). Now, let

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{s}_1' &= (\hat{a}_1, \ldots, \hat{a}_M, \hat{b}_1, \ldots, \hat{b}_M, \hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_M), \\
\hat{s}_2' &= (\hat{a}_{\tau^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, \hat{a}_{\tau^{-1}(M)}, \hat{b}_1, \ldots, \hat{b}_M, \hat{c}_{\tau^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, \hat{c}_{\tau^{-1}(M)}), \\
\hat{s}_3' &= (\hat{a}_{\rho^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, \hat{a}_{\rho^{-1}(M)}, \hat{b}_{\rho^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, \hat{b}_{\rho^{-1}(M)}, \hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_M).
\end{align*}
\]

The following lemma shows that at least two of the above \( s_i' \) are close in Hamming distance to their encoded counterpart \( (s_i, E_H(s_i)) \).

**Lemma 5.** There exist distinct integers \( k, \ell \in \{3\} \) such that

\[
\begin{align*}
d_H((s_k', E_H(s_k)'), (s_k, E_H(s_k))) &\leq 1, \text{ and } \\
d_H((s_\ell', E_H(s_\ell)'), (s_\ell, E_H(s_\ell))) &\leq 1.
\end{align*}
\]

\(^6\)Sorting the strings \( \{x_{i,L}^M\}_{i=1}^M \) by any ordering method provides a matrix in a natural way, and can consider columns in this matrix.

\(^7\)That is, each one of \( d_2', d_4', \) etc., is obtained from \( d_2, d_4, \) etc., by at most a single substitution.
Proof. If the substitution did not occur at either of index sets \{1, \ldots, L/3 - 1\}, \{L/3 + 1, \ldots, 2L/3 - 1\}, or \{2L/3 + 1, \ldots, L - 1\} (which correspond to the values of the \(a_i\)’s, \(b_i\)’s, and \(c_i\)’s, respectively), then the order among the \(a_i\)’s, \(b_i\)’s and \(c_i\)’s is maintained. That is, we have that

\[
\begin{align*}
 s'_1 &= (a_1, \ldots, a_M, b_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, b_{\sigma(M)}, c_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, c_{\pi(M)}), \\
 s'_2 &= (a_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\sigma^{-1}(M)}, b_1, \ldots, b_M, c_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, c_{\sigma^{-1}(M)}), \\
 s'_3 &= (a_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\pi^{-1}(M)}, b_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, b_{\pi^{-1}(M)}, c_1, \ldots, c_M),
\end{align*}
\]

and in this case, the claim is clear. It remains to show the other cases, and due to symmetry, assume without loss of generality that the substitution occurred in one of the \(a_i\)’s, i.e., in an entry which is indexed by an integer in \{1, \ldots, L/3 - 1\}.

Let \(A \in \{0,1\}^{M \times L}\) be a matrix whose rows are the \(x_i\)’s, in any order. Let \(A_{\text{left}}\) be the result of ordering the rows of \(A\) according to the lexicographic order of their 1, \ldots, L/3 - 1 entries. Similarly, let \(A_{\text{mid}}\) and \(A_{\text{right}}\) be the result of ordering the rows of \(A\) by their L/3 + 1, \ldots, 2L/3 - 1 and 2L/3 + 1, \ldots, L - 1 entries, respectively, and let \(A_{\text{left}}, A_{\text{med}}, A_{\text{right}}\) be defined analogously with \([x'_i]_{i=1}^M\) instead of \([x_i]_{i=1}^M\).

It is readily verified that there exist permutation matrices \(P_1\) and \(P_2\) such that \(A_{\text{mid}} = P_1 A_{\text{left}}\) and \(A_{\text{right}} = P_2 A_{\text{left}}\). Moreover, since \([b_i]_{i=1}^M = [b_i]_{i=1}^M\) and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M = [c_i]_{i=1}^M\), it follows that \(A_{\text{mid}} = P_1 (A_{\text{left}} + R)\) and \(A_{\text{right}} = P_2 (A_{\text{left}} + R)\), where \(R \in \{0,1\}^{M \times L}\) is a matrix of Hamming weight 1; this clearly implies that \(A_{\text{mid}} = A_{\text{mid}} + P_1 R\) and \(A_{\text{right}} = A_{\text{right}} + P_2 R\). Now, notice that \(s_2\) result from vectorizing some submatrix \(M_2\) of \(A_{\text{mid}}\), and \(s'_2\) result from vectorizing some submatrix \(M'_2\) of \(A_{\text{med}}\). Moreover, the matrices \(M_2\) and \(M'_2\) are taken from their mother matrix by omitting the same rows and columns, and both vectorizing operations consider the entries of \(M_2\) and \(M'_2\) in the same order. In addition, the redundancies \(E_{H}(s_2)\) and \(E_{H}(s'_2)\) can be identified similarly, and have at most a single substitution with respect to the corresponding entries in the noiseless codeword. Therefore, it follows from \(A_{\text{mid}} = A_{\text{mid}} + P_1 R\) that \(d_H(s_2, (s_2, E_{H}(s'_2))) \leq 1\). The claim for \(s_3\) is similar.

By applying a Hamming decoder on either one of the \(s'_i\)’s, the decoder obtains possible candidates for \([a_i]_{i=1}^M\), \([b_i]_{i=1}^M\), and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M\), and by Lemma 5, it follows that these sets of candidates will coincide in at least two cases. Therefore, the decoder can apply a majority vote of the candidates from the decoding of each \(s'_i\), and the winning values are \([a_i]_{i=1}^M\), \([b_i]_{i=1}^M\), and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M\). Having these correct values, the decoder can sort \([x'_i]_{i=1}^M\) according to their \(a_i\) columns, and deduce the values of \(\sigma\) and \(\pi\) by observing the resulting permutation in the \(b_i\) and \(c_i\) columns, with respect to their lexicographic ordering. This concludes the decoding of the values \(d_1, d_2, d_3\), of the data \(d\).

We are left to extract \(d_2, d_4, d_5\). To this end, observe that since the correct values of \([a_i]_{i=1}^M\), \([b_i]_{i=1}^M\), and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M\) are known at this point, the decoder can extract the true positions of \(d_2, d_4, d_5\) as well as their respective redundancy bits \(E_{H}(d_2), E_{H}(d_4), E_{H}(d_5)\). Hence, the decoding algorithm is complete by applying a Hamming decoder.

We now turn to compute the redundancy of the above code \(C\). Note that there are two sources of redundancy—the Hamming code redundancy, which is at most \(3(\log ML + \log M + 2)\) and the fact that the sets \([a_i]_{i=1}^M\), \([b_i]_{i=1}^M\), and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M\) contain distinct strings. By a straightforward computation, for \(4 \leq M \leq 2L/6\) we have

\[
r(C) = \log \frac{2L}{M} - \log \left( \frac{2L/3 - 1}{M} \cdot (M!)^2 \cdot 2^{3M - \log ML - \log M - 2} \right) \\
= \log \prod_{i=0}^{M-1} \left( \frac{2L - i}{2L/3 - 2i} \right)^3 + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6 \\
\leq 3M \log \frac{\sigma L/3}{2L/3 - 2M} + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6 \\
\leq 12 \log e + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6
\]

(7) where inequality (a) is derived in Appendix B.

For the case when \(M < \log ML + \log M\), we generate \([a_i]_{i=1}^M\), \([b_i]_{i=1}^M\), and \([c_i]_{i=1}^M\) with length \(L/3 - \lceil \log ML + \log M \rceil\). As a result, we have \([\log ML + \log M] / M\) bits \(x_{i,j}\) \(i \in \{1, \ldots, M\}, j \in \{L/3 - \lceil \log ML + \log M \rceil + 1, \ldots, L/3\} \cup \{2L/3 - \lceil \log ML + \log M \rceil + 1, \ldots, L/3\} \cup \{L - \lceil \log ML + \log M \rceil + 1, \ldots, L\}\) to accommodate the information bits \(d_2, d_4, d_5\) and the redundancy bits \([E_{H}(s_i)]_{i=1}^{3}\) and \([E_{H}(d_i)]_{i=2,4,6}\) in each part.

Remark 2. The above construction is valid whenever \(M \leq 2L/3 - 1\). However, asymptotically optimal amount of redundancy is achieved for \(M \leq 2L/6\).
Remark 3. In this construction, the separate storage of the Hamming code redundancies \( E_H(d_2), E_H(d_4), \) and \( E_H(d_6) \) is not necessary. Instead, storing \( E_H(d_2, d_4, d_6) \) is sufficient, since the true position of those can be inferred after \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M, \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M, \) and \( \{c_i\}_{i=1}^M \) were successfully decoded. This approach results in redundancy of \( 3 \log ML + \log 3M + O(1) \), and a similar approach can be utilized in the next section as well.

VI. CODES FOR MULTIPLE SUBSTITUTIONS

In this section we extend the 1-substitution correcting code from Section V to multiple substitutions. In particular, we obtain the following result.

Theorem 3. For integers \( M, L, \) and \( K \) such that \( M \leq 2^{\frac{2K+1}{2}} \) there exists a \( K \)-substitution code with redundancy

\[
2K(2K+1)\log ML + 2K(2K+1)\log M + O(K).
\]

We restrict our attention to values of \( M, L, \) and \( K \) for which \( 2K \log ML + 2K \log M \leq M \). For the remaining values, i.e., when \( 2K \log ML + 2K \log M > M \), a similar code can be constructed. The construction of a \( K \)-substitution correcting code is similar in spirit to the single substitution case, except that we partition the strings to \( 2K + 1 \) parts instead of 3. In addition, we use a Reed-Solomon code in its binary representation (see Section II) to combat \( K \)-substitutions in the classic sense. The motivation behind considering \( 2K + 1 \) parts is that \( K \) substitutions can affect at most \( K \) of them. As a result, at least \( K + 1 \) parts retain their original order; and that enables a classic RS decoding algorithm to succeed. In turn, the true values of the parts are decided by a majority vote, which is applied over a set of \( 2K + 1 \) values, \( K + 1 \) of whom are guaranteed to be correct.

For parameters \( M, L, \) and \( K \) as above, let

\[
D = \left\{ 1, \ldots, \left(\frac{2^{L/(2K+1)}-1}{M}\right)^{2K+1} \right\} \cdot (M!)^{2K} \cdot 2^{(2K+1)(M-2K \log ML-2K \log M)}
\]

be the information set. We split a message \( d \in D \) into \( d = (d_1, \ldots, d_{4K+2}) \), where \( d_1 \in \left\{ 1, \ldots, \left(\frac{2^{L/(2K+1)}-1}{M}\right) \right\} \), \( d_j \in \left\{ 1, \ldots, \left(\frac{2^{L/(2K+1)}-1}{M}\right)^{M!} \right\} \) for \( j \in \{2, \ldots, 2K+1\}, \) and \( d_j \in \left\{ 1, \ldots, \left(\frac{2^{L/(2K+1)}-1}{M}\right)^{M!} \right\} \) for \( j \in \{2K+2, \ldots, 4K+2\} \). As in (1), we apply \( F_{\text{com}} \) and \( F \) to obtain

\[
F_{\text{com}}(d_1) = (a_1, \ldots, a_{M_1}), \quad \text{where } a_i \in \{0,1\}^{L/(2K+1)-1} \text{ for all } i,
\]

and

\[
F(d_j) = ((a_{i,j}, \ldots, a_{M,j}), \pi_j) \text{ for all } j \in \{2, \ldots, 2K+1\}, \quad \text{where } a_{i,j} \in \{0,1\}^{L/(2K+1)-1} \text{ and } \pi_j \in S_M.
\]

As usual, the sets \( \{a_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^M \) are indexed lexicographically according to \( i \), i.e., \( a_{i,j} < \ldots < a_{M,j} \) for all \( j \). Similar to (3), let

\[
(x_{i,(j-1)L/(2K+1)+1}, \ldots, x_{i,jL/(2K+1)-1}) = a_{\pi_j(i),j}, \quad i \in [M], \; j \in [2K+1].
\]

In addition, define the equivalents of (2) as

\[
s_1 = (a_{1,1}, \ldots, a_{M,1}, a_{2,11}, \ldots, a_{2,1M}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1M}),
\]

\[
s_2 = (a_{2,11}, \ldots, a_{2,1M}, a_{1,21}, \ldots, a_{1,2M}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,21}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,2M}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1M}),
\]

\[
\vdots
\]

\[
s_{2K+1} = (a_{2K+1,11}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1M}, a_{2K+1,21}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,2M}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1}, \ldots, a_{2K+1,1M}).
\]

Namely, for every \( i \in [2K+1] \), the elements \( \{a_{i,j}\}_{j=1}^M \) appear in \( s_i \) by their lexicographic order, and the remaining ones are sorted accordingly.

To state the equivalent of (4), for a binary string \( t \) let \( E_{RS}(t) \) be the redundancy bits that result from RS encoding of \( t \), in its binary representation. In particular, we employ an RS code which corrects \( K \) substitutions, and incurs \( 2K \log M(|t|) \) bits of redundancy. Then, the remaining bits \( \{x_{i,M+1}, \ldots, x_{i,L}\}_{i=1}^M \) are defined as follows. In this expression, notice that \( |s_i| = (M(L-2K-1)) \) for every \( i \) and \( |d_j| \leq M \) for every \( j \). As a result, it follows that \( |E_{RS}(d_j)| \leq 2K \log M \) for every \( j \in \{2K+2, \ldots, 4K+2\} \), and \( |E_{RS}(s_i)| \leq 2K \log ML \) for every \( i \in [2K+1] \).

\[
x_{i, M+1, L} = \begin{cases} d_j, & \text{if } \pi_j^{-1}(i) \leq M - 2K \log M - 2K \log ML \leq d_j + 2K \log M + 2K \log ML, \\
E_{RS}(d_j) + M + 2K \log ML, & \text{if } M - 2K \log M - 2K \log ML + 1 \leq \pi_j^{-1}(i) \leq M - 2K \log ML. \\
E_{RS}(s_j) + M + 2K \log ML, & \text{if } M - 2K \log ML + 1 \leq \pi_j^{-1}(i) \leq M - 2K \log ML. 
\end{cases}
\]

8To avoid uninteresting technical details, it is assumed henceforth that RS encoding in its binary form is possible, i.e., that \( \log(|t|) \) is an integer that divides \( t \); this can always be attained by padding with zeros. Furthermore, the existence of an RS code is guaranteed, since \( q = 2^{\log(|t|)} \) is larger than the length of the code, which is \( |t|/\log(|t|) \).
To verify that the above construction provides a $K$-substitution code, observe first that $\{a_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^{M}$ is a set of distinct integers for all $i \in [2K+1]$, and hence $d_L(x_i, x_j) \geq 2K+1$ for all distinct $i$ and $j$ in $[M]$. Thus, a $K$-substitution error cannot turn one $x_i$ into another, and the result is always in $\{0,1\}^M$.

The decoding procedure also resembles the one in Section V. Upon receiving a word $C' = \{x'_1, \ldots, x'_M\} \in B_K(C)$ for some codeword $C$, we define

$$\hat{a}_{i,j} = (x'_{\tau_j-i+1})_{\tau_j \in [2K+1]}, \ldots, x'_{\tau_j-i-1}), \frac{L}{2K+1}, \ldots$$

where $\tau_j$ is the permutation by which $\{x'_i\}_{i=1}^M$ are sorted according to their $d_L(x'_i, \hat{x}_i)$, for $j \in [2K+1]$, and $i \in [M]$.

Lemma 6. There exist $K+1$ distinct integers $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_{K+1}$ such that $d_H((s'_j, E_{RS}(s'_j)), (s'_j, E_{RS}(s'_j))) \leq K$ for every $j \in [K+1]$.

Proof. Analogous to the proof of Lemma 5. See Appendix A for additional details.

By applying an RS decoding algorithm on each of $\{s'_j\}_{i=1}^{K+1}$ we obtain candidates for the true values of $\{a_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^{M}$ for every $i \in [2K+1]$. According to Lemma 6, at least $K+1$ of these candidate coincide, and hence the true value of $\{a_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^{M}$ can be deduced by a majority vote. Once these true values are known, the decoder can sort $\{x'_i\}_{i=1}^M$ by its $a_{i,j}$ entries (i.e., the entries indexed by $1, \ldots, \frac{L}{2K+1} - 1$), and deduce the values of each $\pi_t$, $t \in \{2, \ldots, 2K+1\}$ according to the resulting permutation of $\{a_{i,t}\}_{i=1}^M$ in comparison to their lexicographic one. Having all the permutations $\{\pi_t\}_{j=2}^{2K+1}$, the decoder can extract the true positions of $\{d_j\}_{j=2}^{2K+1}$ and $\{E_{RS}(d_j)\}_{j=2}^{2K+1}$, and apply an RS decoder to correct any substitutions that might have occurred.

Remark 4. Notice that the above $RS$ code in its binary representation consists of binary substrings that represent elements in a larger field. As a result, this code is capable of correcting any set of substitutions that are confined to at most $K$ of these substrings. Therefore, our code can correct more than $K$ substitutions in many cases.

For $4 \leq M \leq 2^{L/(2K+1)}$, the total redundancy of the above construction $C$ is given by

$$r(C) = \log \left( \frac{2L}{M} \right) - \log \left( \frac{2^{L/(2K+1)} - 1}{M} \right) \left( 2^{K+1} \right)^{2K+1} \left( M - 2K \log ML - 2K \log M \right) \leq (2K+1) \log e + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M.$$ 

where the proof of inequality (b) is given in Appendix B.

Remark 5. As in Remark 3, storing $E_H(d_j)$ separately in each part $j \in \{2K+2, \ldots, 4K+2\}$ is not necessary. Instead, we can store $E_H(d_j)$ in a single part $j = 2K+1$, since the position of the binary strings $d_j$ for $j \in \{2K+2, \ldots, 4K+2\}$ and the redundancy $E_H(d_j)$ can be identified once $\{a_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^{M} \leq M, j \leq 2K+1$ are determined. The redundancy of the resulting code is $2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K \log (2K+1) M$.

For the case when $M < 2K \log ML + 2K \log M$, we generate sequences $a_{i,j}$, $i \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$, $j \in \{1, \ldots, 2K+1\}$ with length $L/(2K+1) - \left( \frac{2K \log ML + 2K \log M}{M} \right)$. Then, the $\left( \frac{2K \log ML + 2K \log M}{M} \right)$ bits $x_{i,j}$, $i \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$, $j \in \{1, \ldots, 2K+1\}$ to accommodate the information bits $\{d_j\}_{j=2}^{2K+1}$ and the redundancy bits $\{E_H(d_i)\}_{j=2}^{2K+1}$ in each part.
VII. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Motivated by novel applications in coding for DNA storage, this paper presented a channel model in which the data is sent as a set of unordered strings, that are distorted by substitutions. Respective sphere packing arguments were applied in order to establish an existence result of codes with low redundancy for this channel, and a corresponding lower bound on the redundancy for $K = 1$ was given by using Fourier analysis. For $K = 1$, a code construction was given which asymptotically achieves the lower bound. For larger values of $K$, a code construction whose redundancy is asymptotically $K$ times the aforementioned upper bound was given; closing this gap is an interesting open problem. Furthermore, it is intriguing to find a lower bound on the redundancy for larger values of $K$ as well.

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APPENDIX A

PROOF OF LEMMA 6

Proof. (of Lemma 6) Similarly to the proof of Lemma 5, we consider a matrix $A \in \{0, 1\}^{M \times L}$ whose rows are the $x_i$’s, in any order. Let $A_j$ be the result of ordering the rows of $A$ according to the lexicographic order of their $(j - 1)L/(2K + 1) + 1, \ldots, jL/(2K + 1) - 1$ bits for $j \in [2K + 1]$. The matrices $A_j'$ for $j \in [2K + 1]$ can be defined analogously with $\{x_i'\}_{i=1}^M$ instead of $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^M$.

It is readily verified that there exist $2K + 1$ permutation matrices $P_j$ such that $A_j = P_j A$ (Here $P_1$ is the identity matrix). Moreover, since $K$ substitution spoils at most $K$ parts, there exist at least $j_l \in [2K + 1], l \in [K + 1]$ such that $\{x_{j_l}\}_{l=1}^M = \{x_{j_l'}\}_{l=1}^M$ for $l \in [K + 1]$, it follows that $A_{j_l}' = P_{j_l} (A + R)$ for $l \in [K + 1]$, where $R \in \{0, 1\}^{M \times L}$ is a matrix of Hamming weight at most $K$; this clearly implies that $A_{j_l}' = A_j + P_{j_l} R$ for $l \in [K + 1]$. Since $s_{j_l}$ results from vectorizing some submatrix $M_l$ of $A_j$, and $s_{j_l}'$ results from vectorizing some submatrix $M_l'$ of $A_j'$, Moreover, the matrices $M_l$ and $M_l'$ are taken from their mother matrix by omitting the same rows and columns, and both vectorizing operations consider the entries of $M_l$ and $M_l'$ in the same order. In addition, the redundancies $E_H(s_{j_l})$ for $l \in [K + 1]$ can be identified similarly, and have at most $K$ substitution with respect to the corresponding entries in the noiseless codeword. Therefore, it follows from $A_{j_l} = A_{j_l}' + P_{j_l} R$ that $d_H((s_{j_l}, E_H(s_{j_l})), (s_{j_l}', E_H(s_{j_l}))) \leq K$. 


APPENDIX B
PROOF OF REDUNDANCY BOUNDS

Proof of (a) in (7):
\[
 r(C) \leq 3 \log(1 + \frac{2M}{2M - 2M})^{M} + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6
\]
\[
 \leq 3 \log(1 + \frac{4}{M})^{M} + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6
\]
\[
 = 12 \log((1 + \frac{4}{M})^{M/4}) + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6
\]
\[
 \leq 12 \log e + 3 \log ML + 3 \log M + 6.
\]

Proof of (b) in (9):
\[
 r(C) = \log \prod_{i=0}^{M-1} (2^L - i) - \log \prod_{i=0}^{M-1} (2^{L/(2K+1)-1} - i)^{2K+1} - \log 2^{(2K+1)M} + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M
\]
\[
 = \log \prod_{i=0}^{M-1} \frac{(2^L - i)}{(2^{L/(2K+1)-1} - i)^{2K+1}} + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M
\]
\[
 \leq (2K+1)M \log \frac{2^L/(2K+1)}{2^{L/(2K+1)-1} - 2M}^{M} + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M
\]
\[
 \leq (2K+1) \log(1 + \frac{4}{M})^{M} + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M
\]
\[
 = (2K+1) \log e + 2K(2K+1) \log ML + 2K(2K+1) \log M.
\]

APPENDIX C
IMPROVED CODES FOR A SINGLE SUBSTITUTION

We briefly present an improved construction of a single substitution code, which achieves \(2 \log ML + \log 2M + O(1)\) redundancy.

Theorem 4. Let \(M, L, K\) be numbers that satisfy \(M \leq 2^{L/4}\). Then there exists a single substitution correcting code with redundancy \(2 \log ML + \log 2M + O(1)\).

The construction is based on the single substitution code as shown in Section V. The difference is that instead of using three parts and the majority rule, it suffices to use two parts (two halves) and an extra bit to indicate which part has the correct order. To compute this bit, let
\[
 x_{\oplus} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{M} x_i
\]
be the bitwise XOR of all strings \(x_i\) and \(e \in \{0,1\}^L\) be a vector of \(L/2\) zeros followed by \(L/2\) ones. We use the bit \(b_e = e \cdot x_{\oplus} \mod 2\) to indicate in which part the substitution error occurs. If a substitution error happens at the first half \((x_{1\oplus}, \ldots, x_{L/2\oplus})\), the bit \(b_e\) does not change. Otherwise the bit \(b_e\) is flipped. Moreover, as mentioned in Remark 3, we store the redundancy of all the binary strings in a single part, instead of storing the redundancy separately for each binary string in each part. The data to encode is regarded as \(d = (d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4)\), where \(d_1 \in \{1, \ldots, \binom{2^{L/2}}{M}\}\), \(d_2 \in \{1, \ldots, \binom{2^{L/2-1}}{M}\}\), \(d_3 \in \{1, \ldots, 2^{M - \log ML - 1}\}\), and \(d_4 \in \{1, \ldots, 2^{M - \log ML - \log 2M - 2}\}\). That is, \(d_1\) represents a set of \(M\) strings of length \(L/2 - 1\), \(d_2\) represents a set of \(M\) strings of length \(L/2 - 1\) and a permutation \(\pi\). Let \(d_3 \in \{0, 1\}^{M - \log ML - 1}\), \(d_4 \in \{0, 1\}^{M - \log ML - \log 2M - 2}\) be the binary strings corresponds to \(d_3\) and \(d_4\) respectively.

We now address the problem of inserting the bit \(b_e\) into the codeword. We consider the four bits \(x_{i_1, L/2}, x_{i_2, L/2}, x_{i_3, L},\) and \(x_{i_4, L}\), where \(i_1\) and \(i_2\) are the indices of the two largest strings among \(\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{M}\) in lexicographic order, and \(i_3\) and \(i_4\) are the indices of the two largest strings among \(\{b_i\}_{i=1}^{M}\) in lexicographic order. Then, we compute \(b_e\) and set
\[
x_{i_1, L/2} = x_{i_2, L/2} = x_{i_3, L} = x_{i_4, L} = b_e.
\]
Note that after a single substitution, at most one of \(i_1, i_2, i_3,\) and \(i_4\) will not be among the indices of the largest two strings in their corresponding part. Hence, upon receiving a word \(C' = \{x_1', \ldots, x_M'\} \in B_{\oplus}(C)\) for some codeword \(C\), we find the
two largest strings among \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M \) and the two largest strings among \( \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M \), and use majority to determine the bit \( b_e \). The rest of the encoding and decoding procedures are similar to the corresponding ones in Section V. We define \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) to the two possible concatenations of \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^M \) and \( \{b_i\}_{i=1}^M \),

\[
\begin{align*}
s_1 &= (a_1, \ldots, a_M, b_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, b_{\pi(M)}) \\
s_2 &= (a_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, a_{\pi^{-1}(M)}, b_1, \ldots, b_M)
\end{align*}
\]

We compute their Hamming redundancies and place them in columns \( L/2 \) and \( L \), alongside the strings \( d_3, d_4 \) and their Hamming redundancy \( E_H(d_3, d_4) \) in column \( L \), similar to (4).

In order to decode, we compute the value of \( b_e \) by a majority vote, which locates the substitution, and consequently, we find \( \pi \) by ordering \( \{x'_i\}_{i=1}^M \) according to the error-free part. Knowing \( \pi \), we extract the \( d_i \)'s and their redundancy \( E_H(d_3, d_4) \), and complete the decoding procedure by applying a Hamming decoder. The resulting redundancy is \( 2 \log ML + \log 2M + 3 \).