21-238, Math Studies Algebra 2. Department of Mathematical Sciences, Carnegie Mellon University Spring 2012: Monday, Wednesday, Friday, 10:30 am, Doherty Hall 1211.

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**Remark 26.1**: For defining BCH codes, one considers  $F_q$  the field of size  $q = p^k$  (unique up to an isomorphism), and then one considers  $F_{q^m}$  as a field extension of  $F_q$  of degree m, and one observes that if  $\alpha \in F_{q^m}$ , then  $\alpha, \alpha^q, \alpha^{q^2}, \ldots$  have the same minimal polynomial. BCH codes are then defined as follows.

For  $q = p^k$ , let c, d, n be positive integers such that  $2 \le d \le n$ , with n relatively prime with q (i.e. not a multiple of p). Let m be the least positive integer such that  $q^m = 1 \pmod{n}$  (i.e. m is the order of q in the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  of units in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , so that m divides  $\varphi(n)$  by Euler's theorem), so that n divides

Let  $\xi \in F_{q^m}$  be a primitive nth root of unity in  $F_{q^m}$ , which exists because n divides  $q^m - 1$ , and let  $P_i \in F_q[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\xi^i$ , so that  $P_i$  divides  $x^n - 1$  for each i. Let g be the product of distinct polynomials among  $P_i$  for  $i=c,c+1,\ldots,c+d-2$ , i.e.  $g=lcm\{P_i\mid i=c,c+1,\ldots,c+d-2\}$ , and since  $P_i$  divides  $x^n - 1$  for each i, one deduces that g divides  $x^n - 1$ . Let C be the cyclic code with generator polynomial g in the ring  $F_q[x]_n$ : C is called a BCH code of length n over  $F_q$  with designed distance d.

If  $n = q^m - 1$ , then the BCH code C is called *primitive*. If c = 1, then C is called a narrow sense BCH code.

**Remark 26.2**: It means that  $C = \{Q \in F_q[x]_n \mid Q(\xi^i) = 0 \text{ for } i = c, c+1, \ldots, c+d-2\}$ , i.e. C is the null

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \xi^c & \xi^{2c} & \dots & \xi^{(n-1)c} \\ 1 & \xi^{c+1} & \xi^{2(c+1)} & \dots & \xi^{(n-1)(c+1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \xi^{c+d-2} & \xi^{2(c+d-2)} & \dots & \xi^{(n-1)(c+d-2)} \end{bmatrix},$$

whose rows are not necessarily linearly independent, so that H is not exactly a parity check matrix, but one may use it as a quasi parity check matrix. Since H is a  $(d-1) \times n$  matrix over  $F_{q^m}$ , it can be considered as a  $m(d-1) \times n$  matrix over  $F_q$ , whose rank is then  $\leq m(d-1)$ , so that the length of the code is  $\geq n-m(d-1)$ .

Since the minimum distance d(C) of the code C is the minimal number of linearly dependent columns in a parity check matrix, one can show that it is > d by checking that the above matrix H has rank > d-1, i.e. any  $(d-1) \times (d-1)$  matrix extracted from H has a non-zero determinant, and it is the case since it is a Vandermonde determinant.<sup>3</sup>

**Remark 26.3**: The binary Hamming code Ham(r, 2) is a BCH code: one takes q = 2 and  $n = 2^r - 1$ , which gives m=r, so that  $F_{q^m}=F_{2^r}$ . Let  $\xi$  be a primitive nth root of unity in  $F_{2^r}$ , so that  $\xi$  generates  $F_{2^r}^*$ , and let g be the minimal polynomial of  $\xi$ , which has then degree r. Since  $\xi$  and  $\xi^2$  have the same minimal polynomial, one has  $g = lcm\{P_i \mid i = 1, 2\}$ , so that C is a narrow sense primitive BCH code of designed distance 3, but since it is equivalent to the binary Hamming code Ham(r,2), one has d(C)=3.

**Remark 26.4**: The binary Golay code is a BCH code: one takes q=2 and n=23, so that m=11 and  $F_{q^m} = F_{2^{11}}$  (i.e.  $F_{2048}$ ).<sup>4</sup> Let  $\xi$  be a primitive 23rd root of unity in  $F_{2^{11}}$ , and g be the minimal polynomial of  $\xi$ , which is also the minimal polynomial of  $\xi^2, \xi^4, \xi^8, \ldots$  and one checks that one power of 2 is  $= 3 \pmod{23}$ , namely  $2^8 = 256 = 3 \pmod{23}$ , so that  $g = lcm\{P_i \mid i = 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , and the cyclic code C is then a narrow sense BCH code of designed distance 5 over  $F_2$ . g divides  $x^{23}-1$  and its degree is 11 (since  $1,\xi,\ldots,\xi^{10}$  is a

From  $\left(\sum_{i} a_i x^i\right)^p = \sum_{i} a_i^p x^p^i$  one deduces that  $\left(\sum_{i} a_i x^i\right)^q = \sum_{i} a_i^q x^{qi}$  and  $\left(\sum_{i} a_i x^i\right)^{q^m} = \sum_{i} a_i^q x^{q^mi}$ ,

and then one uses the fact that every  $\beta \in F_{q^\ell}$  satisfies  $\beta^{q^\ell} = \beta$ .

The multiplicative group  $F_{q^m}^*$  is cyclic, so that it has a generator  $\alpha$ , and then if  $q^m = n \, n'$  one deduces that  $\xi = \alpha^{n'}$  is a primitive *n*th root of unity in  $F_{q^m}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ålexandre-Théophile Vandermonde, French mathematician, 1735–1796. <sup>4</sup> Since  $5^2 = 2 \pmod{23}$ , 2 is a quadratic residue modulo 23, so that  $2^{11} = 1 \pmod{23}$ , hence the order of 2 divides 11, i.e. it is 11.

power basis of  $F_{2^{11}}$  over  $F_2$ ), hence C is the binary [23, 12, 7] Golay code, which has d(C) = 7, a case where d(C) > d.

Remark 26.5: The ternary Golay code is a BCH code: one takes q=3 and n=11, so that m=5 and  $F_{q^m}=F_{3^5}$  (i.e.  $F_{243}$ ). Let  $\xi$  be a primitive 11rd root of unity in  $F_{3^5}$ , and g be the minimal polynomial of  $\xi$ , which is also the minimal polynomial of  $\xi^3, \xi^9, \xi^{27}, \xi^{81}, \ldots$  and since  $81=4\pmod{11}$  and  $27=5\pmod{11}$ , one has  $g=lcm\{P_i\mid i=3,4,5\}$ , and the cyclic code C is then a BCH code of designed distance 4 over  $F_3$ . g divides  $x^{11}-1$  and its degree is 5 (since  $1,\xi,\ldots,\xi^4$  is a power basis of  $F_{3^5}$  over  $F_3$ ), hence C is the ternary [11,6,5] Golay code, which has d(C)=5, another case where d(C)>d.

Remark 26.6: Another example of a BCH code is a Reed-Solomon code. It corresponds to n=q-1, so that m=1. If  $\xi$  is a primitive element in  $F_q^*$ , its minimal polynomial of  $\xi$  over  $F_q$  is  $x-\xi$ . One takes c=1 and  $2 \le d \le n$ , and the Reed-Solomon code is the cyclic code with generator polynomial  $g=(x-\xi)(x-\xi^2)\cdots(x-\xi^{d-1})$ , which is then a primitive narrow sense BCH code of designed distance d. Since g has degree d-1, this code C has dimension k=n-d+1, and since  $d(C) \le n-k+1=d$ , it has d(C)=d, hence it is a [q-1,q-d,d] code.

Remark 26.7: For constructing BCH codes of a given length n and designed distance d, one needs to know a primitive element  $\xi \in F_{q^m}$ , i.e. whose powers  $\{1, \xi, \dots, \xi^{m-1}\}$  form a (power) basis of  $F_{q^m}^*$  over  $F_q$ , and know its associated monic irreducible polynomial ( $\in F_q[x]$ ), which is then called a *primitive polynomial* over  $F_q$ , and has degree m.

For example, taking q=2 (i.e. the basic field is  $F_2\simeq \mathbb{Z}_2$ ), the case m=2 corresponds to  $(x-\xi)$   $(x-\xi^2)=x^2+x+1$  (i.e. the quotient of  $x^3-1$  by x-1). The case m=3 corresponds  $\xi^7=1$ , and if  $P=(x-\xi)\,(x-\xi^2)\,(x-\xi^4)$ , and  $Q=(x-\xi^3)\,(x-\xi^6)\,(x-\xi^{12})$ , whose roots are  $\xi^3,\xi^5,\xi^7$ , i.e. the inverses of  $\xi^4,\xi^2,\xi$ , so that  $Q(x)=x^3P\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ , one deduces that  $P=x^3+a\,x^2+b\,x+1$  and  $Q=x^3+b\,x^2+a\,x+1$ , and one has  $P\,Q=x^6+x^5+x^4+x^3+x^2+x+1$  (i.e. the quotient of  $x^7-1$  by x-1). Since the coefficient of  $x^5$  in  $P\,Q$  gives a+b=1, there are two primitive polynomials of degree 3, namely  $x^3+x+1$  and  $x^3+x^2+1$ .

The case m=4 corresponds  $\xi^{15}=1$ , and if  $P=(x-\xi)$   $(x-\xi^2)$   $(x-\xi^4)$   $(x-\xi^8)$ , and  $Q=(x-\xi^7)$   $(x-\xi^{14})$   $(x-\xi^{28})$   $(x-\xi^{56})$ , whose roots are  $\xi^7, \xi^{11}, \xi^{13}, \xi^{14}$ , i.e. the inverses of  $\xi^8, \xi^4, \xi^2, \xi$ , so that  $Q(x)=x^4P\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ , one deduces that  $P=x^4+a\,x^3+b\,x^2+c\,x+1$  and  $Q=x^4+c\,x^3+b\,x^2+a\,x+1$ , but one must find what  $P\,Q$  is. One has  $R=(x-\xi^3)$   $(x-\xi^6)$   $(x-\xi^{12})$   $(x-\xi^{24})=x^4+x^3+x^2+x+1$  (i.e. the quotient of  $x^5-1$  by x-1), because its roots are  $\xi^3, \xi^6, \xi^9, \xi^{12}$ , which are the fifth roots of unity different from 1. One has  $S=(x-\xi^5)$   $(x-\xi^{10})=x^2+x+1$  (i.e. the quotient of  $x^3-1$  by x-1), because its roots are  $\xi^5, \xi^{10}$ , which are the cube roots of unity different from 1. From  $(x-1)\,P\,Q\,R\,S=x^{15}-1$  and  $(x-1)\,R=x^5-1$ , one deduces that  $P\,Q\,S=x^{10}+x^5+1$  (i.e. the quotient of  $x^{15}-1$  by  $x^5-1$ ), so that  $P\,Q$  is the quotient of  $x^{10}+x^5+1$  by  $x^2+x+1$ , and the Euclidean division algorithm gives  $P\,Q=x^8+x^7+x^5+x^4+x^3+x+1$ . Since the coefficient of  $x^7$  in  $P\,Q$  gives a+c=1, and the coefficient of  $x^4$  then gives  $b^2=0$ , there are two primitive polynomials of degree 4, namely  $x^4+x+1$  and  $x^4+x^3+1$ .

Remark 26.8: Still with q=2, the case m=5 for a primitive root  $\xi$  satisfying  $\xi^{31}=1$  leads to define the polynomials  $P_j=(x-\xi^j)(x-\xi^{2j})(x-\xi^{4j})(x-\xi^{8j})(x-\xi^{8j})(x-\xi^{16j})$ , because if a has monic irreducible polynomial P then it is the same for  $a^2, a^4, \ldots$  Because 31 is prime, one has  $\varphi(31)=30$ , and there are 6 such polynomials:  $P_1$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 1, 2, 4, 8, 16),  $P_3$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 3, 6, 12, 17, 24),  $P_5$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 5, 9, 10, 18, 20),  $P_7$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 7, 14, 19, 25, 28),  $P_{11}$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 11, 13, 21, 22, 26),  $P_{15}$  (powers of  $\xi$  being 15, 23, 27, 29, 30). One has  $P_{15}(x)=x^5P_1\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ ,  $P_7(x)=x^5P_3\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ , and  $P_{11}(x)=x^5P_5\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ . I do not know how one identifies these primitive polynomials,  $P_7(x)=x^5P_3\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$  as one

I do not know how one identifies these primitive polynomials, but a book lists  $x^3 + x^2 + 1$  as one such primitive polynomial for degree 5,  $x^6 + x + 1$  as one for degree 6,  $x^7 + x + 1$  as one for degree 7, and  $x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$  as one for degree 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Since  $6^2 = 3 \pmod{11}$ , 3 is a quadratic residue modulo 11, so that  $3^5 = 1 \pmod{11}$ , hence the order of 3 divides 5, i.e. it is 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> One may proceed as in Remark 26.9, and check that the following polynomials are indeed primitive by writing the decompositions of all powers of  $\xi$  on the power basis: for example, in order to check that  $x^5 + x^2 + 1$  is a primitive polynomial for the case m = 5, one uses  $\xi^5 = 1 + \xi^2$  and one then writes all the powers of  $\xi$  up to  $\xi^{31}$  as linear combinations of  $1, \xi, \xi^2, \xi^3, \xi^4$  with coefficients 0 or 1, and one observes that the 32 powers of  $\xi$  have different components on the basis.

Remark 26.9: In order to construct binary codes of length 15 with various designed distances, one chooses the primitive polynomial  $P = x^4 + x + 1$  obtained at Remark 26.7, one lets  $\xi$  be any of its four roots, and one uses the (power) basis  $1, \xi, \xi^2, \xi^3$  for  $F_{16}$  over  $F_2$ , and since  $\xi^4 = 1 + \xi$  one constructs easily by induction the formula expressing  $\xi^j$ :

$$\begin{array}{lll} \xi^4 = 1 + \xi & \xi^8 = 1 + \xi^2 & \xi^{12} = 1 + \xi + \xi^2 + \xi^3 \\ \xi^5 = \xi + \xi^2 & \xi^9 = \xi + \xi^3 & \xi^{13} = 1 + \xi^2 + \xi^3 \\ \xi^6 = \xi^2 + \xi^3 & \xi^{10} = 1 + \xi + \xi^2 & \xi^{14} = 1 + \xi^3 \\ \xi^7 = 1 + \xi + \xi^3 & \xi^{11} = \xi + \xi^2 + \xi^3 & \xi^{15} = 1 \end{array}.$$