## 0.1 Definition

Cyclic codes form an important type of codes for several theoritical as well as practical reasons. From theoritical perspective, they can be expressed as a rich algebraic structure, while practically they can be efficiently implemented. Furthermore, various important codes such as binary Hamming codes and BCH codes, are equivalent to cyclic codes.

**Definition 0.1.** A code C is **cyclic** if(i) C is a linear code; and (ii) any cyclic shift of a codeword is also a codeword, i.e. whenever  $a_0a_1 \cdots a_{n-1}$  is in C, then so is  $a_{n-1}a_0a_1 \cdots a_{n-2}$ .

#### Example:

The linear code {0000, 1001, 0110, 1111} is not cyclic, but it is *equivalent* to a cyclic code; interchanging the third and fourth coordinates gives the cyclic code {0000, 1010, 0101, 1111}.

When considering cyclic codes we number the coordinate positions  $0, 1, \ldots, n-1$ . This is because then a vector  $a_0a_1\cdots a_{n-1}$  in V(n,q) correspond to the polynomial  $a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ .

# 0.2 Polynomials over finite fields

We denote by F[x] the set of polynomials in x with coefficients in  $F_q$  (or simply F with q understood).

Degree of a polynomial in F[x] is defined as usual. These polynomials can be added, subtracted and multiplied in the usual way, thus forming the algebraic structure, ring, not a field as they do not have multiplicative inverses.

Division algorithm states the same as in with the polynomials over  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e. for every pair of polynomials a(x) and  $b(x) \neq 0$  in F[x], there exists a unique polynomials g(x), and f(x), such that

$$a(x) = q(x)b(x) + r(x),$$

where deg r(x) < deg b(x).

Now we will establish similarites between the ring F[x] of polynomials and the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  of integers. Just as the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  is obtained after modulo m, we can consider polynomials in F[x] modulo some f(x). It is natural to define g(x) and h(x) as congruent modulo f(x), symbolized by

$$g(x) \equiv h(x) \pmod{f(x)}$$

if g(x) - h(x) is divisible by f(x).

We denote by F[x]/f(x) the set of polynomials in F[x] of degree less than deg f(x), with addition defined as normal addition as adding two polynomials in F[x]/f(x) will not increase the degree; while multiplication is defined congruent modulo f(x), i.e for any two polynomials in F[x]/f(x), a unique polynomial of degree less than deg f(x).

Finally, the set F[x]/f(x) is called a ring of polynomials (over F) modulo f(x) and it is quite obvious that

$$|F_q[x]/f(x)| = q^n$$
.

Now the next logical step is to find out when this ring forms a field, i.e. when each of the polynomials in F[x]/f(x) have a multiplicative inverse.

For that we will first define *reducibility* of polynomials.

**Definition 0.2.** A polynomial f(x) is called **reducible** if f(x) = a(x)b(x), where  $a(x), b(x) \in F[x]$  and deg a(x), deg b(x) are both smaller than deg f(x). If f(x) is not reducible, it is called **irreducible**.

**Theorem 0.3.** The ring F[x]/f(x) is a field if and only if f(x) is irreducible in F[x].

*Proof.* The proof follows the same line as followed by the proof of Theorem ??, with prime m being replaced by f(x).

## 0.3 Cyclic codes expressed as polynomials

From now on, we will fix  $f(x) = x^n - 1$ , as the ring  $F[x]/(x^n - 1)$  of the polynomials modulo  $x^n - 1$  is the natural one to consider in the context of cyclic codes. We will now denote  $F[x]/(x^n - 1)$  as  $R_n$ , where the field  $F = F_q$  will be understood.

Since  $x^n \equiv 1 \pmod{x^n - 1}$ , we can reduce any polynomial modulo  $x^n - 1$  simply by replacing  $x^k$  by  $x^{k \pmod{n}}$ , without any long division.

We will now denote a vector  $a_0a_1\cdots a_{n-1}$  in V(n,q) with the polynomial

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a^{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

in  $R_n$ , that is, now a code C is subset of both V(n,q) and  $R_n$ . Note that addition of vectors and multiplication of a vector by a scalar in  $R_n$  corresponds exactly to those operations in V(n,q). Now, it must be clear that multiplying by  $x^m$  to a(x) corresponds to a cyclic shift through m positions. We can model cyclic codes in a way, given by the following theorem.

**Theorem 0.4.** A code C in  $R_n$  is a cyclic code if and only if C satisfies the following two conditions:

- (i)  $a(x), b(x) \in C \implies a(x) + b(x) \in C$ ,
- (ii)  $a(x) \in C$  and  $r(x) \in R_n \implies r(x)a(x) \in C$ .

*Proof.* Suppose C is a cyclic code in  $R_n$ . Then C is linear and so (i) holds. Now suppose  $a(x) \in C$  and  $r(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + \cdots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1} \in R_n$ . Since,  $x^m a(x) \in C \forall m$  (cyclic shifts). Hence,

$$r(x)a(x) = r_0a(x) + r_1xa(x) + \dots + r_{n-1}x^{n-1}a(x)$$

is also in C since each summand is in C. Thus, (ii) also holds.

Now suppose (i) and (ii) hold. Taking r(x) as a scalar, the conditions imply that C is linear. Taking r(x) = x in (ii) shows that C is cyclic.

Now we have a easy way of constructing cyclic codes. Let f(x) be any polynomial in  $R_n$ , then we define

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \{ r(x)f(x) | r(x) \in R_n \}$$

 $\langle f(x) \rangle$  is a cyclic code for all f(x) in  $R_n$ , as it satisfies the conditions of Theorem 0.4.

**Theorem 0.5.** Let C be a non-zero cyclic code in  $R_n$ . Then

- (i) there exists a unique monic (coefficient of highest degree term 1) polynomial g(x) of smallest degree in C,
- (ii)  $C = \langle q(x) \rangle$ ,
- (iii) g(x) is a factor of  $x^n 1$ .

*Proof.* (i) Suppose g(x) and h(x) are both monic polynomials in C of the smallest degree. Then  $g(x) - h(x) \in C$  and has smaller degree. This gives a contradiction if  $g(x) \neq h(x)$ , for then a suitable scalar multiple of g(x) - h(x) is monic.

(ii) Suppose  $a(x) \in C$ . By the division algorithm for F[x], a(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x), where deg  $r(x) < \deg g(x)$ . But r(x), belongs to C, as C is linear. By minimality of deg g(x), we must have r(x) = 0 and so  $a(x) \in \langle g(x) \rangle$ .

(iii) Again by division algorithm,  $x^n - 1 = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$  where deg r(x) < g(x). But then  $r(x) \equiv -q(x)g(x) \pmod{x^n - 1}$ , and so  $r(x) \in \langle g(x) \rangle$ . By minimality again, r(x) = 0, which implies g(x) is a factor of  $x^n - 1$ .

**Definition 0.6.** In a non-zero cyclic code C the monic polynomial of least degree, given by theorem 0.5, is called the *generator polynomial* of C.

The third part of Theorem 0.5 gives us method of finding all the cyclic codes of length n. All we need are the factors of  $x^n - 1$ .

### Example:

Finding all the binary cyclic codes of length 3. We have  $x^3 - 1 = (x+1)(x^2 + x + 1)$ , where x + 1 and  $x^2 + x + 1$  are irreducible over GF(2). So the codes are

Generator ploynomial	Code in $R_3$	Corresponding code in $V(3,2)$
1	all of $R_3$	all of $V(3,2)$
x+1	$\{0, 1+x, x+x^2, 1+x^2\}$	$\{000, 110, 011, 101\}$
$x^2 + x + 1$	$\{0, 1 + x + x^2\}$	{000, 111}
$x^3 - 1 = 0$	{0}	{000}

**Lemma 0.7.** Let  $g(x) = g_0 + g_1 x + \cdots + g_r x^r$  be the generator polynomial of a cyclic code, then  $g_0$  is non-zero.

*Proof.* Suppose  $g_0 = 0$ . Then  $x^{n-1}g(x) = x^{-1}g(x)$  is a codeword of C of degree r-1, contradicting the minimality of deg g(x).

Now, we are going to define generator matrix (thus, dimensions of C) directly from generator polynomial.

**Theorem 0.8.** Suppose C is a cyclic code with generator polynomial

$$g(x) = g_0 + g_1 x + \dots + g_r x^r$$

of degree r. Then dim (C) = n - r and a generator matrix C is

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & & g_r & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & & g_r & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & & g_r & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & & g_r \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* The n-r rows of the above matrix G are certainly linearly independent due echelon of non-zero  $g_0$ s. The n-r rows represent the cyclic permutations of codeword g(x). The proof of Theorem 0.5(ii) shows that if a(x) is a codeword of C, then

$$a(x) = q(x)q(x)$$

for some polynomial q(x), and that this is an equality of polynomials within F[x], i.e. without any modulo. Since deg a(x) < n, it follows that deg q(x) < n - r. Hence,

$$q(x)g(x) = (q_0 + q_1x + \dots + q_{n-r-1}x^{n-r-1})g(x)$$
  
=  $q_0q(x) + q_1xq(x) + \dots + q_{n-r-1}x^{n-r-1}q(x)$ ,

which shows that every codeword can be written as a linear combination of those n-r rows.

**Definition 0.9.** Let C be a cyclic [n, k]-code with generator polynomial g(x). By Theorem 0.5 g(x) is a factor of  $x^n - 1$  and so

$$x^n - 1 = g(x)h(x),$$

for some polynomial h(x). h(x) is of degree k, and is called the **check-polynomial** of C.

**Theorem 0.10.** Suppose C is a cyclic code in  $R_n$  with generator polynomial g(x) and check polynomial h(x). Then  $c(x) \in R_n$  is a codeword in C if and only if c(x)h(x) = 0.

*Proof.* The forward implication is trivial as g(x)h(x) = 0. On the other hand, suppose c(x) satisfies c(x)h(x) = 0. If r(x) is the remainder of c(x) with g(x) then  $r(x)h(x) = 0 \pmod{x^n - 1}$ . But deg (r(x)h(x)) < n - k + k = n, so r(x) = 0, then  $c(x) = q(x)g(x) \in C$ .

**Theorem 0.11.** Suppose C is a cyclic [n, k]-code with check polynomial

$$h(x) = h_0 + h_1 x + \dots + h_k x^k$$

Then a parity check matrix for C is

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_k & h_{k-1} & \cdots & h_0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & h_k & h_{k-1} & \cdots & h_0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & \ddots & & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & h_k & h_{k-1} & \cdots & & h_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* By Theorem 0.10,  $c(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + \cdots + c_{n-1} x^{n-1}$  is codeword if and only if c(x)h(x) = 0. Thus any codeword  $c_0c_1\cdots c_{n-1}$  of C is orthogonal to the vector  $h_kh_{k-1}\cdots h_0\cdots 0$  and to its cyclic shifts (this results from equating coefficients of  $x^k, x^{k+1}, \ldots, x^{n-1}$  must all be zero in c(x)h(x)). Thus all the n-k rows are orthogonal to all the codewords and are linearly independent (because echelon of  $h_k = 1$  in H), and the dimension of  $C^{\perp}$  is also n-k. Hence, H is a generator matrix of  $C^{\perp}$ .  $\square$