

consider factorization of the polynomials  $X^n - 1$  over  $F_p$  as a product of irreducible polynomials over  $F_p$ .

#### Definition 4.6

Let  $K$  be a field,  $F$  a subfield of  $K$  and  $\alpha \in K$ . By  $F(\alpha)$  we denote the smallest subfield of  $K$  which contains both  $F$  and  $\alpha$ . We also call  $F(\alpha)$  a **simple extension** of  $F$ .

Recall that if  $\alpha$  is algebraic over  $F$  and the degree of the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $F$  is  $n$  then an arbitrary element of  $F(\alpha)$  is of the form

$$a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_m\alpha^m$$

where  $a_i \in F$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq m$  and  $m \leq n - 1$ . If, on the other hand,  $\alpha$  is transcendental over  $F$ , then an arbitrary element of  $F(\alpha)$  is of the form  $f(\alpha)/g(\alpha)$ , where  $f(X), g(X) \in F[X]$  and  $g(\alpha) \neq 0$ .

Again, if  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m$  are elements of the extension  $K$  of  $F$ , we write  $F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m)$  for  $F(\alpha_1)(\alpha_2)\dots(\alpha_m)$ .

#### Definition 4.7

Let  $F$  be a field and  $f(X) \in F[X]$ . An extension field  $K$  of  $F$  is called a **splitting field** of  $f(X)$  if

- (i)  $f(X)$  factors as a product of linear factors over  $K$ ; and
- (ii) if  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m$  are the roots of  $f(X)$  then  $K = F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m)$ .

The procedure adopted in Examples 4.1–3 for the construction of finite fields also yields the following result which besides being of independent interest is needed for the construction of a splitting field of a given polynomial.

#### Proposition 4.6

Let  $f(X)$  be an irreducible polynomial over a field  $F$ . Then there exists an extension  $K$  of  $F$  in which  $f(X)$  has a root.

#### Proof

The polynomial  $f(X)$  being irreducible,  $K = F[X]/\langle f(X) \rangle$  is a field (Theorem 4.2). The element  $\alpha = X + \langle f(X) \rangle$  of  $K$  is then a root of  $f(X)$ . The map

$$a \rightarrow a + \langle f(X) \rangle \quad a \in F$$

is a homomorphism:  $F \rightarrow K$  which is clearly a monomorphism. Identifying the element  $a$  of  $F$  with the corresponding element  $a + \langle f(X) \rangle$  of  $K$  we can regard  $K$  as an extension of  $F$ .

#### Corollary

Given any non-constant polynomial  $f(X)$  over a field  $F$ , there exists an extension  $K$  of  $F$  in which  $f(X)$  has a root.

**Proof**

Let  $g(X) \in F[X]$  be an irreducible factor of  $f(X)$ . Then there exists an extension  $K$  of  $F$  in which  $g(X)$  has a root  $\alpha$  (say). But then  $\alpha$  is also a root of  $f(X)$ .

Observe that the field  $K$  constructed in Proposition 4.6 is the smallest extension of  $F$  in which  $f(X)$  has a root.

**Examples 4.4****Case (i)**

Consider the polynomial  $X^2 + 1$  over the field  $Q$  of rational numbers. This is an irreducible polynomial over  $Q$  and so

$$K = Q[X]/\langle X^2 + 1 \rangle$$

is a field. Let  $\alpha$  denote the element  $X + \langle X^2 + 1 \rangle$  of  $K$ . Then  $\alpha^2 = -1$  and an arbitrary element of  $K$  is of the form  $a + b\alpha$ ,  $a, b \in Q$ . In the usual terminology of complex numbers,  $\alpha$  is the complex number  $i (= \sqrt{-1})$  and so

$$K = \{a + bi/a, b \in Q\} = Q(i)$$

is a subfield of the field  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers.

**Case (ii)**

As another example, consider the polynomial  $X^2 - X + 1$  over  $Q$ . This is irreducible over  $Q$  and so  $\langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle$  is a maximal ideal in  $Q[X]$ . Hence

$$K = Q[X]/\langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle$$

is a field. Let

$$\alpha = X + \langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle$$

Since any element of  $K$  is of the form

$$aX + b + \langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle$$

where  $a, b \in Q$ , and uniquely so, arbitrary element of  $K$  can be written as  $a\alpha + b$ ,  $a, b \in Q$ . Also clearly  $\alpha$  is a root of the polynomial  $X^2 - X + 1$ . The map

$$a \rightarrow a + \langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle \quad a \in Q$$

is a ring monomorphism from  $Q$  into  $K$  and, therefore, its image in  $K$  is a subfield of  $K$  isomorphic to  $Q$ . We may identify  $a \in Q$  with the corresponding element

$$a + \langle X^2 - X + 1 \rangle$$

of  $K$  and so  $Q$  may be regarded as a subfield of  $K$ .

In the usual terminology of complex numbers we may take  $\alpha$  to be

$$\frac{1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

If we take

$$\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

then

$$\frac{1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2} = 1 - \alpha \in Q(\alpha)$$

and  $K = Q(\alpha)$ .

Given an irreducible polynomial  $f(X) \in F[X]$ , there can exist distinct but isomorphic field extensions of  $F$  in which  $f(X)$  has a root.

#### Example 4.5

Consider the polynomial  $X^4 - 2 \in Q[X]$ . The Eisenstein's irreducibility criterion shows that  $X^4 - 2$  is irreducible over  $Q$ . The roots of this polynomial are  $\alpha, -\alpha, \alpha i, -\alpha i$ , where  $\alpha$  is the real positive fourth root of 2 and  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . The polynomial  $X^4 - 2$  is the minimal polynomial of both  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha i$ . Therefore, every element of  $Q(\alpha)$  can be uniquely written as

$$a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3$$

where  $a, b, c, d \in Q$  and every element of  $Q(\alpha i)$  can be uniquely written as

$$a + b\alpha i - c\alpha^2 - d\alpha^3 i$$

where  $a, b, c, d \in Q$ . The map

$$\theta: Q(\alpha) \rightarrow Q(\alpha i)$$

defined by

$$\theta(a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3) = a + b\alpha i - c\alpha^2 - d\alpha^3 i \quad a, b, c, d \in Q$$

is an isomorphism of the two vector spaces. Also

$$\begin{aligned} & \theta((a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3)(a' + b'\alpha + c'\alpha^2 + d'\alpha^3)) \\ &= \theta(aa' + (ab' + a'b)\alpha + (ac' + bb' + ca')\alpha^2 + (ad' + bc' + cb' + da')\alpha^3 \\ & \quad + (bd' + cc' + db')2 + (cd' + dc')2\alpha + dd'2\alpha^2) \\ &= \theta(aa' + 2(bd' + cc' + db') + (ab' + a'b + 2(cd' + dc'))\alpha \\ & \quad + (ac' + bb' + ca' + 2dd')\alpha^2 + (ad' + bc' + cb' + da')\alpha^3) \\ &= aa' + 2(bd' + cc' + db') + (ab' + a'b + 2(cd' + dc'))\alpha i \\ & \quad - (ac' + bb' + ca' + 2dd')\alpha^2 - (ad' + bc' + cb' + da')\alpha^3 i \\ &= (a + b\alpha i - c\alpha^2 - d\alpha^3 i)(a' + b'\alpha i - c'\alpha^2 - d'\alpha^3 i) \\ &= \theta(a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3)\theta(a' + b'\alpha + c'\alpha^2 + d'\alpha^3) \end{aligned}$$

for  $a, a', b, b', c, c', d, d' \in Q$ .

Thus  $\theta$  is an isomorphism of fields. Also  $Q(\alpha)$  contains the root  $\alpha$  of  $X^4 - 2$  and  $Q(\alpha i)$  contains the root  $\alpha i$  of  $X^4 - 2$ . Clearly  $Q(\alpha)$  is a subfield of  $\mathbb{R}$ , the field of real numbers while  $Q(\alpha i)$  is not contained in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

#### **Theorem 4.4**

Let  $F$  be a field and  $f(X) \in F[X]$ . Then there exists a splitting field of  $f(X)$  over  $F$ .

#### **Proof**

We prove the theorem by induction on the degree of  $f(X)$ . If  $\deg f(X) = 1$ , then it is clear that  $F$  itself is a splitting field of  $f(X)$ . Suppose that  $\deg f(X) = n \geq 2$ . By Proposition 4.6 there exists an extension of  $F$  in which  $f(X)$  has a root  $\alpha_1$  (say). Let

$$F_1 = F(\alpha_1)$$

Then

$$f(X) = (X - \alpha_1)g(X)$$

where  $g(X) \in F_1[X]$  and  $\deg g(X) = n - 1$ . By induction hypothesis  $g(X)$  has a splitting field  $K$  over  $F_1$ , i.e.  $g(X)$  factors as a product of linear factors over  $K$  and

$$K = F_1(\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

where  $\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  are the roots of  $g(X)$ . But then  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  are the roots of  $f(X)$ ,  $K = F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$  and  $f(X)$  factors as a product of linear factors over  $K$ . Hence  $K$  is a splitting field of  $f(X)$ .

## 4.2 SOME EXAMPLES OF PRIMITIVE POLYNOMIALS

### **Examples 4.6**

Let  $F = F_3$  – the field of 3 elements. Then

$$aX^2 + bX + 1 \quad a, b \in F$$

are the only possible irreducible polynomials of degree 2 over  $F$ . But then we must also have

$$a + b + 1 \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad a - b + 1 \neq 0$$

Therefore the possible values of  $a$  and  $b$  are:  $a = 1, b = 0$  or  $a = -1, b = 1$  or  $a = -1 = b$ . Thus all the irreducible polynomials over  $F$  of degree 2 are:

$$X^2 + 1 \quad X^2 - X - 1 \quad X^2 + X - 1$$

The polynomial  $X^2 + 1$  divides  $X^4 - 1$  over  $F$  and so is not primitive. Again

$$X^3 + 1 = (X + 1)(X^2 - X + 1) = (X + 1)(X + 1)^2 = (X + 1)^3$$

and neither of  $X^2 - X - 1$  and  $X^2 + X - 1$  is a divisor of  $X^3 + 1$ . It is also clear that neither of these two polynomials is a divisor of

$$X^4 - 1 = (X - 1)(X + 1)(X^2 + 1)$$

Also

$$X^6 - 1 = (X^3 - 1)(X^3 + 1) = (X - 1)^3(X + 1)^3$$

and so neither of the two polynomials is a divisor of  $X^6 - 1$ . Suppose that

$$X^2 + X - 1 \mid X^5 - 1$$

Then  $X^2 + X - 1$  must divide  $X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$ . Then

$$X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 = (X^2 + X - 1)(X^2 + aX - 1)$$

and  $1 = a + 1$  and  $-a - 1 = 1$ . This gives a contradiction. Similarly

$$X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 = (X^2 - X - 1)(X^2 + aX - 1)$$

gives  $-1 + a = 1$  and  $-a - 1 = 1$  which again lead to a contradiction. Thus, neither of the two polynomials under consideration divides  $X^5 - 1$  over  $F$ . If

$$X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 = (X^2 + X - 1)(X^4 + aX^3 + bX^2 + cX - 1)$$

then comparing coefficients of powers of  $X$  gives  $1 + a = 1$ ,  $a + b - 1 = 1$ ,  $-a + b + c = 1$ ,  $-b + c - 1 = 1$ ,  $-c - 1 = 1$  in  $F$  which lead to a contradiction. Also

$$X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 = (X^2 - X - 1)(X^4 + aX^3 + bX^2 + cX - 1)$$

gives  $-1 + a = 1$ ,  $-1 - a + b = 1$ ,  $-a - b + c = 1$ ,  $-b - c - 1 = 1$ ,  $-c + 1 = 1$  which again lead to a contradiction.

Thus, both the polynomials  $X^2 + X - 1$  and  $X^2 - X - 1$  are primitive over  $F$ . We have thus proved that  $X^2 + X - 1$  and  $X^2 - X - 1$  are the only primitive polynomials of degree 2 over  $F_3 = F$ .

#### Examples 4.7

Here we consider some primitive polynomials over  $\mathbb{B}$ .

##### Case (i)

The polynomial  $X + 1$  over  $\mathbb{B}$  is trivially the only primitive polynomial of degree 1.

##### Case (ii)

Neither 0 nor 1 is a root of the polynomial  $X^2 + X + 1$  over  $\mathbb{B}$  and so it is an irreducible polynomial. It is trivially a primitive polynomial.

##### Case (iii)

We have already proved in Example 4.3 Case (i) that  $X^3 + X + 1$  is a primitive polynomial of degree 3 because the element  $X + \langle X^3 + X + 1 \rangle$  of the field  $\mathbb{B}[X]/\langle X^3 + X + 1 \rangle$  is primitive.

Observe that if  $f(X)$  is any irreducible polynomial over  $\mathbb{B}$  of degree 3, then the field

$$K = \mathbb{B}[X]/\langle f(X) \rangle$$

is of order 8 and the multiplicative group  $K^*$  of  $K$  being of prime order, every non-zero, non-identity element of  $K$  is a primitive element. In particular so is the element  $X + \langle f(X) \rangle$ . This proves that  $f(X)$  is a primitive polynomial.

Clearly  $X^3 + X^2 + 1$  and  $X^3 + X + 1$  are the only cubic polynomials over  $\mathbb{B}$  which are irreducible. Thus  $X^3 + X + 1$  and  $X^3 + X^2 + 1$  are the only cubic primitive polynomials over  $\mathbb{B}$ .

**Case (iv)**

The argument in Case (iii) above can also be used to prove that every irreducible polynomial of degree 5 over  $\mathbb{B}$  is primitive. Observe that

$$(X^2 + X + 1)(X^3 + X + 1) = X^5 + X^4 + 1$$

and

$$(X^2 + X + 1)(X^3 + X^2 + 1) = X^5 + X + 1$$

Also neither 0 nor 1 is a root of the polynomial  $X^5 + X^2 + 1$  or  $X^5 + X^3 + 1$ . Hence  $X^5 + X^2 + 1$  and  $X^5 + X^3 + 1$  are two primitive polynomials.

Similarly  $X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1$ ,  $X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X + 1$ ,  $X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1$  and  $X^5 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$  are all the other irreducible polynomials of degree 5 over  $\mathbb{B}$ . Hence all the primitive polynomials of degree 5 over  $\mathbb{B}$  are

$$\begin{array}{lll} X^5 + X^2 + 1 & X^5 + X^3 + 1 & X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1 \\ X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X + 1 & X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1 & X^5 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 \end{array}$$

**Case (v)**

Since the multiplicative group of a field  $K$  of order  $2^7$  is of order 127 (a prime), every non-zero, non-identity element of  $K$  is primitive and, therefore, every irreducible polynomial of degree 7 over  $\mathbb{B}$  is primitive. By direct computation we find that

$$\begin{aligned} (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^2 + 1) &= X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X + 1 \\ (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^3 + 1) &= X^7 + X^6 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 \\ (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1) &= X^7 + X^5 + X^4 + X + 1 \\ (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X + 1) &= X^7 + X^5 + 1 \\ (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1) &= X^7 + X^2 + 1 \\ (X^2 + X + 1)(X^5 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1) &= X^7 + X^6 + X^3 + X^2 + 1 \\ (X^3 + X + 1)(X^4 + X^3 + 1) &= X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X + 1 \\ (X^3 + X + 1)(X^4 + X + 1) &= X^7 + X^5 + X^3 + X^2 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$(X^3 + X + 1)(X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1) = X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + 1$$

$$(X^3 + X^2 + 1)(X^4 + X^3 + 1) = X^7 + X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + 1$$

$$(X^3 + X^2 + 1)(X^4 + X + 1) = X^7 + X^6 + X^2 + X + 1$$

$$(X^3 + X^2 + 1)(X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1) = X^7 + X^4 + X^3 + X + 1$$

From these computations, we can read off all irreducible and hence primitive polynomials of degree 7 over  $\mathbb{B}$ . These are

$X^7 + X^6 + 1$	$X^7 + X^6 + X^3 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X^4 + 1$	$X^7 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + 1$
$X^7 + X^3 + 1$	$X^7 + X^5 + X^3 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X + 1$	$X^7 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^2 + 1$	$X^7 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^3 + 1$	$X^7 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + 1$	$X^7 + X^5 + X^2 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^4 + X + 1$	$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^4 + X^2 + 1$	$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1$
$X^7 + X^6 + X^4 + X^3 + 1$	$X^7 + X^6 + X^5 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$

#### 4.3 BOSE–CHAUDHURI–HOCQUENGHEM CODES

Hocquenghem (1959) and Bose and Ray-Chaudhuri (1960) independently proved a remarkable theorem which enables us to systematically construct one of the most powerful multiple error-correcting codes for random independent errors. These are polynomial codes and are now called Bose–Chaudhuri–Hocquenghem codes (BCH codes for short!). Recall that a polynomial code is determined as soon as the generator polynomial is determined. Procedure for constructing a BCH code is as follows.

Suppose that a BCH code with code word length  $n$ , minimum distance  $d$  and with symbols in  $F = \text{GF}(q)$ , a field of order  $q$  (= a power of a prime  $p$ ) is required. We choose the least positive integer  $r$  which satisfies  $q^r \geq n + 1$ . Let  $K$  be an extension of  $F$  of degree  $r$  and let  $\alpha$  be a primitive element of  $K$ . Let  $m_i(X)$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha^i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq d - 1$  and set

$$g(X) = \text{LCM}(m_1(X), \dots, m_{d-1}(X))$$

##### Theorem 4.5

The polynomial code with symbols in  $F$  and encoding polynomial  $g(X)$  has minimum distance at least  $d$ .

##### Proof

Let  $h(X)$  be any polynomial over  $F$  which has  $\alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{d-1}$  among its roots. Then

$$m_i(X) | h(X) \forall i, 1 \leq i \leq d - 1$$