



Coding Theory

CO 331



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Preface

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Pre

Example: Replication code

source msgs		codewords
0	→	0
1	→	1

of errors/codeword that be detected: 0
 # errors/codeword that can be corrected: 0
 Rate: 1

source msgs		codewords
0	→	00
1	→	11

of errors/codeword that be detected: 1
 # errors/codeword that can be corrected: 0
 Rate: 1/2

source msgs		codewords
0	→	000
1	→	111

of errors/codeword that be detected: 2
 # errors/codeword that can be corrected: 1 (nearest neighbour decoding)
 Rate: 1/3

source msgs		codewords
0	→	00000
1	→	11111

of errors/codeword that be detected: 4
 # errors/codeword that can be corrected: 2 (nearest neighbour decoding)
 Rate: 1/5

Goal of Coding Theory Design codes so that:

1. High information rate
2. High error-correcting capability
3. Efficient encoding & decoding algorithms



The big picture In its broadest sense, coding deals with the reliable, efficient, secure transmission of data over channels that are subject to inadvertent noise and malicious intrusion.



Introduction & Fundamentals

alphabet, word, length...

An *alphabet* A is a finite set of $q \geq 2$ symbols. E.g. $A = \{0, 1\}$.

A *word* is a finite sequence of symbols from A . (tuples or vectors)

The *length* of a word is the number of symbols in it.

A *code* C over A is a finite set of words over A (of size ≥ 2).

A *codeword* is a word in C .

A *block code* is a code where all codewords have the same length.

A block code C of length n containing M codewords over A is a subset $C \subseteq A^n$, with $|C| = M$. This is denoted by $[n, M]$.

Example:

$A = \{0, 1\}$. $C = \{00000, 11100, 00111, 10101\}$ is a $[5, 4]$ -code over $\{0, 1\}$.

Messages		Codewords
00	→	00000
10	→	11100
01	→	00111
11	→	10101

Encoding 1-1 map

The channel encoder transmits only codewords. But, what's received by the channel decoder might not be codeword.

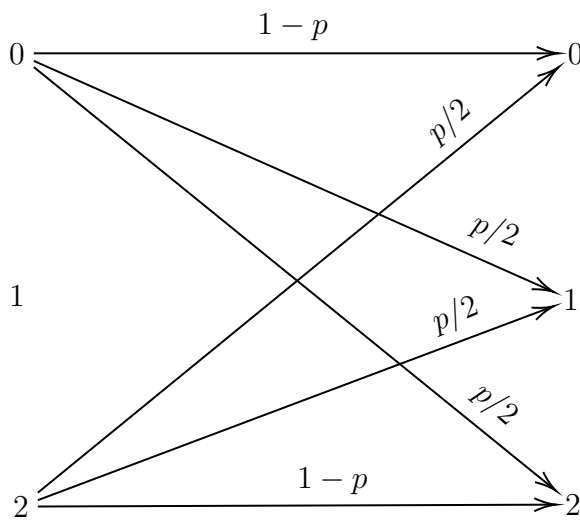
Example:

Suppose the channel decoder receives $r = 11001$. What should it do?

Example: $q = 2$ (Binary symmetric channel, BSC)



Example: $q = 3$



Assumptions about the communications channel

- 1) The channel only transmits symbols from A .
- 2) No symbols are deleted, added, or transposed.
- 3) (Errors are “random”) Suppose the symbol transmitted are X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots . Suppose the symbols received are Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \dots . Then for all $i \geq 1$, and all $i \leq j, k \leq q$,

$$Pr(Y_i = a_j | X_i = a_k) = \begin{cases} 1 - p, & \text{if } j = k \\ \frac{p}{q-1}, & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}$$

where p = symbol error prob.

Notes about BSC

- (i) If $p = 0$, the channel is perfect.
- (ii) If $p = \frac{1}{2}$, the channel is useless.
- (iii) If $1 \geq p > \frac{1}{2}$, then simply flip all bits that are received.

- (iv) WLOG, we will assume that $0 < p < \frac{1}{2}$.
- (v) Analogously, for a q -ary channel, we can assume that $0 < p < \frac{q-1}{q}$. (Optional exercise)

Hamming distance

If $x, y \in A^n$, the *Hamming distance* $d(x, y)$ is the # of coordinate positions in which x & y differ.

The *distance of a code* C is

$$d(C) = \min\{d(x, y) \in C, x \neq y\}$$

Example:

$$d(10111, 01010) = 4$$

Theorem 1.1

d is a metric. For all $x, y, z \in A^n$

- (i) $d(x, y) \geq 0$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$.
- (ii) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
- (iii) \triangle inequality $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

rate

The *rate* of an $[n, M]$ -code C over A with $|A| = q$ is

$$R = \frac{\log_q M}{n}.$$

If the source messages are all k -tuples over A ,

$$R = \frac{\log_q(q^k)}{n} = \frac{k}{n}.$$

Example:

$$C = \{00000, 11100, 00111, 10101\} \quad A = \{0, 1\}$$

Here $R = \frac{2}{5}$ and $d(C) = 2$.

1.1 Decoding Strategy

Let C be an $[n, M]$ -code over A of distance d . Suppose some codeword is transmitted, and $r \in A^n$ is received. The channel decoder has to decide the following:

- (i) no errors have occurred, accept r .
- (ii) errors have occurred, and (decode) correct r to some codeword.
- (iii) errors has occurred, correction is not possible.

1.1.1 Nearest Neighbour Decoding

Incomplete Maximum Likelihood Decoding (IMLD). Correct r to the unique codeword c for which $d(r, c)$ is smallest. If c is not unique, reject r . Complete MLD (CMLD). Same as IMLD, except ties are broken arbitrarily.

Question Is IMLD a reasonable strategy?

Theorem 1.2

IMLD selects the codeword c that maximizes $P(r|c)$ prob. that r is received given that c was sent.

Proof:

Suppose $c_1, c_2 \in C$ with $d(c_1, r) = d_1$ and $d(c_2, r) = d_2$. Suppose $d_1 > d_2$.

Now

$$P(r|c_1) = (1-p)^{n-d_1} \left(\frac{p}{q-1} \right)^{d_1}$$

and

$$P(r|c_2) = (1-p)^{n-d_2} \left(\frac{p}{q-1} \right)^{d_2}$$

So,

$$\frac{P(r|c_1)}{P(r|c_2)} = (1-p)^{d_2-d_1} \left(\frac{p}{q-1} \right)^{d_1-d_2} = \left(\frac{p}{(1-p)(q-1)} \right)^{d_1-d_2}$$

Recall

$$\begin{aligned} p < \frac{q-1}{q} &\implies pq < q-1 \implies 0 < q-pq-1 \\ \implies p < p+q-pq-1 &\implies p < (1-p)(q-1) \implies \frac{p}{(1-p)(q-1)} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\frac{P(r|c_1)}{P(r|c_2)} < 1$$

and so

$$P(r|c_1) < P(r|c_2)$$

□

The ideal strategy is to correct r to $c \in C$ that minimizes $P(c|r)$. This is Minimum

error decoding (MED).

Example: (IMD is not the same as MED)

Let $C = \{\underbrace{000}_{c_1}, \underbrace{111}_{c_2}\}$. (corresponding to 0, 1).

Suppose $P(c_1) = 0.1, P(c_2) = 0.9$. Suppose $p = 1/4$ and $r = 100$.

IMLD $r \rightarrow 000$

MED

$$\begin{aligned} P(c_1|r) &= \frac{P(r|c_1) \cdot P(c_1)}{P(r)} \\ &= p(1-p)^2 \times 0.1 / P(r) \\ &= \frac{9}{640 \cdot P(r)} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} P(c_2|r) &= \frac{P(r|c_2) \cdot P(c_2)}{P(r)} \\ &= p(1-p)^2 \times 0.9 / P(r) \\ &= \frac{27}{640 \cdot P(r)} \end{aligned}$$

So MED: $r \rightarrow 111$

Note

1. IMLD: Select c . s.t. $P(r|c)$ is maximum
MED: Select c . s.t. $P(c|r)$ is maximum
2. MED has the drawback that it requires knowledge of $P(c_i)$, $1 \leq i \leq M$
3. Suppose source messages are equally likely, so $P(c_i) = \frac{1}{M}$, for each $1 \leq i \leq M$. Then

$$P(r|c_i) = P(c_i|r) \cdot P(c_i) / P(r) = P(c_i|r) \cdot \underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{M \cdot P(r)} \right]}_{\text{does not depend on } i}$$

So IMLD is the same as MED.

4. In the remainder of the course, we will use IMLD/CMLD.

1.2 Error Correcting & Detecting Capabilities of a Code

- If C is used for error correction, the strategy is IMLD/CMLD.
- If C is used for error detection (only), the strategy is:

If $r \notin C$, then reject r ; otherwise accept r .

e-error correcting code

A code C is called an *e-error correcting code* if the decoding always makes the correct decision if at most e errors per codeword are introduced. (Similarly: *e-error detecting code*)

Example:

$C = \{0000, 1111\}$ is 1-error correcting code, but not a 2-error correcting code.

$C = \{\underbrace{0 \dots 0}_m, \underbrace{1 \dots 1}_m\}$ is a $\lfloor \frac{m-1}{2} \rfloor$ -error correcting code.

$C = \{0000, 1111\}$ is a 3-error detecting code.

Theorem 1.3

Suppose $d(C) = d$. Then C is a $(d - 1)$ -error detecting code.

Proof:

Suppose $c \in C$ is transmitted and r is received.

- If no error occur, then $r = c \in C$ and the decoder accepts r .
- If ≥ 1 and $\leq (d - 1)$ errors occur, then $1 \leq d(r, c) \leq d - 1$. So, $r \notin C$, and hence the decoder rejects r .

□

Theorem 1.4

If $d(C) = d$, then C is not a d -error detecting code.

Proof:

Since $d(C) = d$, there exist $c_1, c_2 \in C$ with $d(c_1, c_2) = d$. If c_1 is sent, it is possible that d errors occur and c_2 is received. In this case, the decoder accepts c_2 . □

Theorem 1.5

If $d(C) = d$, then C is a $\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ -error correcting code.

Proof:

Suppose $c \in C$ is transmitted, at most $\frac{d-1}{2}$ errors are introduced, and r is received. Let $c_1 \in C, c_1 \neq c$.

By \triangle ineq, $d(c, c_1) \leq d(c, r) + d(r, c_1)$. So

$$d(r, c_1) \geq d(c, c_1) - d(c, r) \geq d - \frac{d-1}{2} = \frac{d+1}{2} \geq \frac{d-1}{2}$$

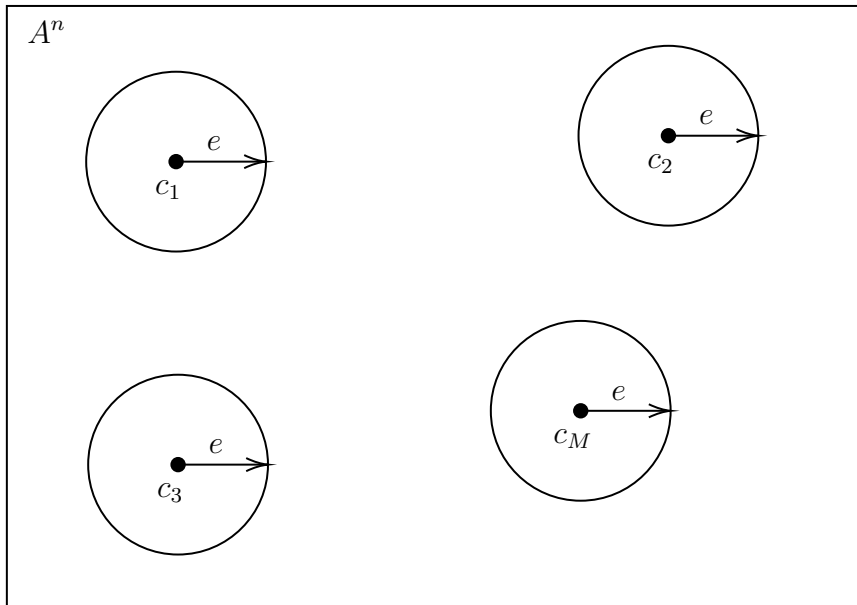
So c is the unique codeword closest to r .

So IMLD/CMLD will decode r to c . □

Theorem 1.6

If $d(C) = d$, then C is not a $(\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor + 1)$ -error correcting code.

Question Given q, n, M, d , does there exist an $[n, M]$ -code C over A (with $|A| = q$), with $d(C) = d$?



$C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_M\}$. Let $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$. For $c \in C$, let S_c = sphere of radius e centered at $c = \{r \in A^n : d(r, c) \leq e\}$. We proved: If $c_1, c_2 \in C, c_1 \neq c_2$, then $S_{c_1} \cap S_{c_2} = \emptyset$. The question can be viewed as a *sphere packing problem*: Can we place M spheres of radius e in A^n (such that no 2 spheres overlap)? This is purely combinatorial problem.

Example:

Take $q = 2, n = 128, M = 2^{64}, d \geq 22$. Does a code with these parameters exist?

Answer YES.

Question What are the codewords?

Question How do we encode and decode efficiently?

Preview We'll view $\{0, 1\}^{128}$ as a vector space of dimension 128 over \mathbb{Z}_2 . We'll choose C to be a 64-dimensional subspace of this vector space.

Introduction to Finite Fields

field

A *field* $(F, +, \cdot)$ consists of a set F and two operations

$$+ : F \times F \rightarrow F$$

and

$$\cdot : F \times F \rightarrow F,$$

such that

- (i) $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c \quad \forall a, b, c \in F.$
- (ii) $a + b = b + a, \quad \forall a, b \in F.$
- (iii) $\exists 0 \in F$ such that $a + 0 = a, \forall a \in F.$
- (iv) $\forall a \in F, \exists -a \in F$ such that $a + (-a) = 0.$
- (v) $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c, \quad \forall a, b, c \in F.$
- (vi) $a \cdot b = b \cdot a, \quad \forall a, b \in F.$
- (vii) $\exists 1 \in F, 1 \neq 0$, such that $a \cdot 1 = a \quad \forall a \in F.$
- (viii) $\forall a \in F, a \neq 0, \exists a^{-1} \in F$ such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1.$
- (ix) $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c, \quad \forall a, b, c \in F.$

infinite, finite, order

A field F is *infinite* if $|F|$ is infinite. F is *finite* if $|F|$ is finite, in which case $|F|$ is the *order* of F .

Example:

$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are infinite fields. \mathbb{Z} is *not* a field.

Q For what integers $n \geq 2$ do there exist finite fields of order n ? if a field of order n exists, how do we “construct”?

Recall Let $n \geq 2$, the integers modulo n , \mathbb{Z}_n , is the set of all equivalent classes mod n ,

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], [2], \dots, [n-1]\}$$

where $[a] + [b] = [a + b]$, $[a] \cdot [b] = [a \cdot b]$.

More simply $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ with addition & multiplication performed mod n .

Example:

$\mathbb{Z}_9 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$.

In \mathbb{Z}_9 , $5 + 7 = 3$, $5 \cdot 7 = 8$.

Fact \mathbb{Z}_n is a *commutative ring*. (i.e. field axioms (i)-(ix) are satisfied, except possibly (viii)).

Theorem 2.1

\mathbb{Z}_n is a field if and only if n is prime.

Proof:

(\Leftarrow) Suppose n is prime. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n, a \neq 0$ (so $1 \leq a \leq n-1$). Since n is prime, $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, so $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $as + nt = 1$. Reducing both sides (mod n), gives

$$as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

So $a^{-1} = s$. So (viii) is satisfied, so \mathbb{Z}_n is a field (of order n).

(\Rightarrow) Suppose n is composite, say $n = a \cdot b$, where $2 \leq a, b \leq n-1$. Suppose a^{-1} exists, $a^{-1} = s$. Then $as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. So

$$abs \equiv b \pmod{n},$$

so

$$ns \equiv b \pmod{n},$$

so $0 \equiv b \pmod{n}$, so $n|b$ which is impossible.

$\therefore a^{-1}$ does not exist, so \mathbb{Z}_n is not a field.

□

Q Do there exist finite fields of orders 4 and 6?

characteristic

The *characteristic* of a field denoted $\text{char}(F)$, is the smallest positive integer m such that

$$\underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_m = 0.$$

If no such m exists, then $\text{char}(F) = 0$.

Example:

$\text{char}(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$, $\text{char}(\mathbb{R}) = 0$, $\text{char}(\mathbb{C}) = 0$.

$\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_p) = p$ (p is prime)

Theorem 2.2

If $\text{char}(F) = 0$, then F is infinite.

Proof:

Consider $1, 1+1, 1+1+1, 1+1+1+1, \dots$

Then no 2 elements in this list are equal, because if

$$\underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_a = \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_b \quad \text{where } a < b$$

then $0 = \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{b-a}$ which contradicts $\text{char}(F) = 0$.

So F is infinite. □

Theorem 2.3

If F is a finite field, then $\text{char}(F)$ is prime.

Proof:

Suppose $\text{char}(F) = m$, which is composite. Say, $m = a \cdot b$, where $2 \leq a, b \leq m-1$.

Now $\underbrace{(1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1)}_a \cdot \underbrace{(1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1)}_b = \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_m = 0$ since $\text{char}(F) = m$.

Let $\underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_a = s$ and $\underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_b = t$, so $s \cdot t = 0$.

But $s \neq 0$, and so s^{-1} exists, thus $s^{-1} \cdot s \cdot t = 0$, therefore $t = 0$, which contradicts $\text{char}(F) = m$. □

Next class Let F be a finite field of order n . Then $\text{char}(F) = p$ (prime). Then \mathbb{Z}_p is a “subfield” of F . And F is a vector space over \mathbb{Z}_p say of dimension k . Then order of F is p^k .

2.1 Non-existence of finite fields

Let F be a finite field of characteristic p . Consider

$$E = \{0, 1, 1+1, 1+1+1, \dots, \underbrace{1+1+1+\dots+1}_{p-1}\} \subseteq F$$

Check: E is a field w.r.t the field operations of F . Also, E has order p . If we label the elements of E in a natural way

$$1+1 \leftrightarrow 2, 1+1+1 \leftrightarrow \dots, \underbrace{1+1+1+\dots+1}_{p-1} \leftrightarrow p-1,$$

then E is really just \mathbb{Z}_p . (E is *isomorphic* to \mathbb{Z}_p).

Theorem 2.4

If F be a finite field of order n , then $\text{char}(F) = p$ (prime). Then \mathbb{Z}_p is a “subfield” of F .

So let's identify:

elements of $F \leftrightarrow$ vectors
 elements of $\mathbb{Z}_p \leftrightarrow$ scalars
 addition in $F \leftrightarrow$ vector addition
 multiplication in $F \leftrightarrow$ scalar multiplication

Theorem 2.5

If F is a finite char P , then F is a vector space over \mathbb{Z}_p .

Proof:

Read Appendix A (of the textbook). □

Theorem 2.6

If F is a finite field of char P , then order of F is p^n for some $n \geq 1$.

Proof:

Let n be the dimension of (the vector space) F over \mathbb{Z}_p . Let $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ be a basis. Then every element in F can be written uniquely as

$$c_1\alpha_1 + c_2\alpha_2 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n, \tag{*}$$

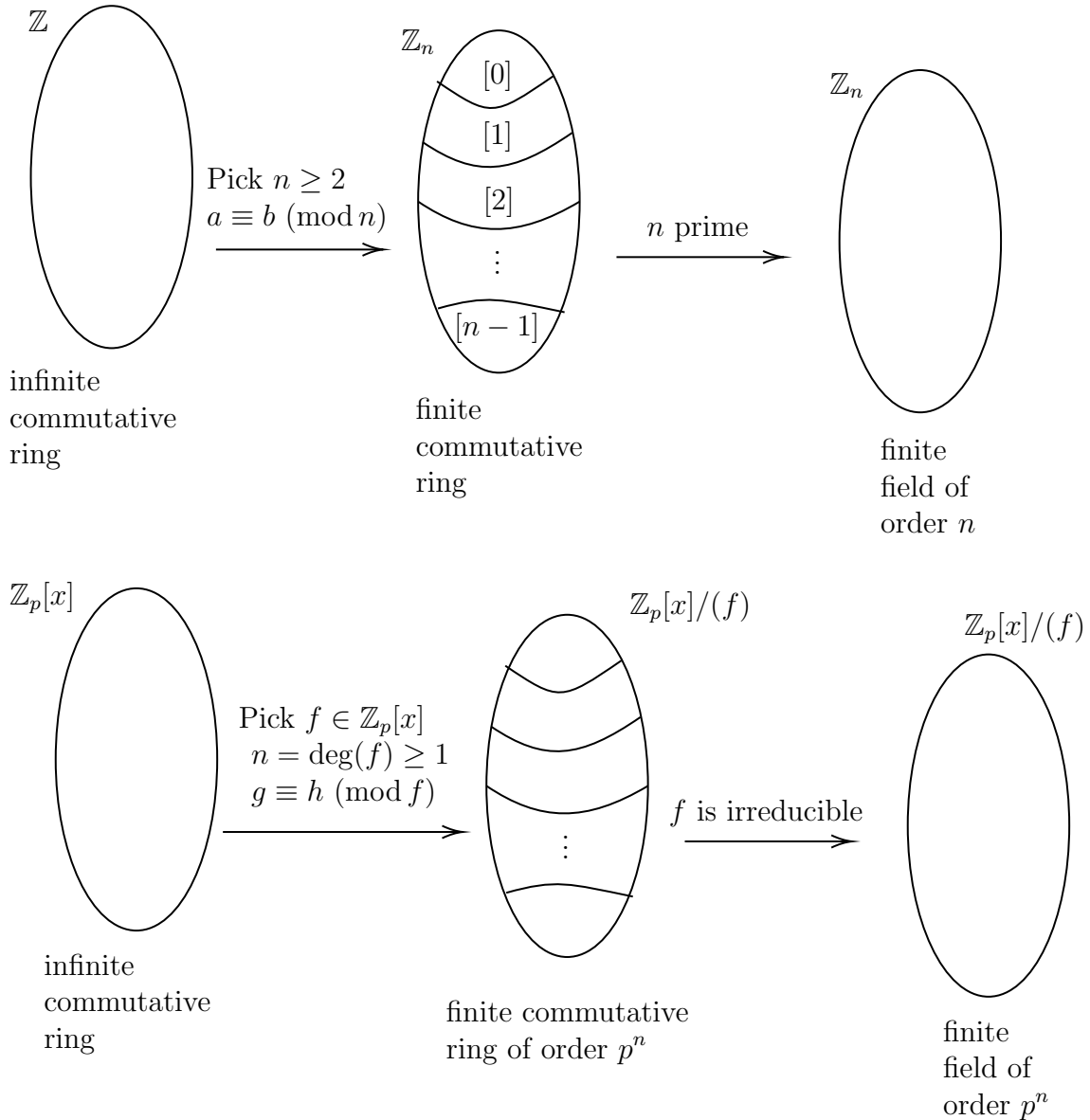
where $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$.

Also every element $(*)$ is in F . Hence $\text{ord}(F) = p^n$. □

Example:

There is no field of order 6.

Q Is there a finite field of order 4? 8? 9? Yes.



$F[x]$

If F is a field, then $F[x]$ is the set of all polynomials in x with coefficients from F .

Addition and multiplication is done in the usual way, with coefficient arithmetic in F .

Example:

In $\mathbb{Z}_{11}[x]$, $(2 + 5x + 6x^2) + (3 + 9x + 5x^2) = 5 + 3x$.

Theorem 2.7

$F[x]$ is an infinite commutative ring.

Some notations

Let $f \in F[x]$, $\deg(f) \geq 1$.

If $g, h \in F[x]$, we write $g \equiv h \pmod{f}$.

If $g - h = \ell f$ for some $\ell \in F[x]$, we write $(f|g - h)$.

Facts

1. \equiv is an equivalence relation.

2. The equivalence class containing $g \in F[x]$ is

$$[g] = \{h \equiv g \pmod{f} : h \in F[x]\}$$

3. We define $[g_1] + [g_2] = [g_1 + g_2]$ $[g_1] \cdot [g_2] = [g_1 \cdot g_2]$

4. The set of all equivalence classes, denoted $F[x]/(f)$ (where $f \in F[x]$, $\deg(f) \geq 1$) is a commutative ring.

5. The polynomials in $F[x]$ of degree $< \deg(f)$ are a system of distinct representatives of the equivalence classes in $F[x]/(f)$.

Justification Let $g \in F[x]$. By division algorithm for polynomials, we can write $g = \ell f + r$ where $\deg(r) < \deg(f)$. [Convention: $\deg(0) = -\infty$]

Then $g - r = \ell f$. So $g \equiv r \pmod{f}$. So $[g] = [r]$.

Also if $r_1, r_2 \in F[x]$, $r_1 \neq r_2$ and $\deg(r_1), \deg(r_2) < \deg(f)$, then $f \nmid r_1 - r_2$, so $r_1 \not\equiv r_2 \pmod{f}$. Hence $[r_1] \neq [r_2]$.

2.2 Constructing finite fields

We proved A system of distinct representatives for $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)$ is $[r(x)] : r \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x], \deg(r) < \deg(f)$. Therefore, $|\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)| = p^n$.

irreducible

Let F be a field and $f(x) \in F[x]$ of degree $n \geq 1$. Then f is *irreducible (over F)* if f cannot be written as $f = gh$, where $g, h \in F[x]$ and $\deg(g), \deg(h) \geq 1$.

Example:

$x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{R} .

$x^2 + 1$ is reducible over \mathbb{C} , since $(x^2 + 1) = (x + i)(x - i)$.

$x^2 + 1$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 , since $x^2 + 1 = (x + 1)^2$.

$x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_3 .

Theorem 2.8

Let F be a field, and $f \in F[x]$ of degree $n \geq 1$. Then $F[x]/(f)$ is a field if and only if f is irreducible over F .

Proof:

$F[x]/(f)$ is a commutative ring.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $g \in F[x]/(f)$, $g \neq 0$, (and $\deg(g) < \deg(f)$). Then $\gcd(g, f) = 1$, and by the EEA for polynomials, there exist $s, t \in F[x]$ such that $gs + ft = 1$. Reducing both sides mod f gives $gs \equiv 1 \pmod{f}$. So $g^{-1} = s$. Hence $F[x]/(f)$ is a field.

(\Rightarrow) Exercise.

□

So, to construct a finite field of order p^n ($n \geq 2$), we need an irreducible polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ of degree n . Then $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)$ is a finite field of order p^n .

Fact For any prime p , integer $n \geq 2$, there exists an irreducible polynomial degree n in $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$.

Theorem 2.9

There exists a finite field of order q iff q is a prime power.

Example: Construct a finite field of order 4.

Take $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$, which is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 . So, the field is $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2 + x + 1) = \{0, 1, x, x + 1\}$.

- $x + (x + 1) = 1$.
- $x \cdot (x + 1) = x^2 + x = 1$.
- So, $x^{-1} = x + 1$.
- $1^{-1} = 1$
- $x^{-1} = x + 1$
- $(x + 1)^{-1} = x$

Example: Field of order $8 = 2^3$

We need an irreducible polynomial of degree 3 over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Take $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1$ which is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Then a field of order 8 is

$$F_1 = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1) = \{0, 1, x, x + 1, x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x, x^2 + x + 1\}$$

- $x^2 + (x^2 + x + 1) = x + 1$
- $x^2 \cdot (x^2 + x + 1) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 = 1$.

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) \begin{array}{r} x^4 + x^3 + x^2 \\ - x^4 - x^2 - x \\ \hline x^3 - x \\ - x^3 - x - 1 \\ \hline - 2x - 1 \end{array}} \end{array}$$

- $(x^2)^{-1} = x^2 + x + 1$
- $x^{-1} = x^2 + 1$

Example: Finite field of order 8

Take $f_2(x) = f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$. Then $F_2 = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$ is a finite field of order 8. Its elements are $F_2 = \{0, 1, x, x + 1, x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x, x^2 + x + 1\}$.

- $x^{-1} = x^2 + x$.

Note

F_1 and F_2 are two different field of order 8. In fact, they are “essentially the same”, i.e., they are *isomorphic*, i.e., there is a bijection $\alpha : F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ such that $\alpha(a + b) = \alpha(a) + \alpha(b)$ and $\alpha(a \cdot b) = \alpha(a) \cdot \alpha(b)$, $\forall a, b \in F$.

Fact Any two fields of order q are isomorphic.

GF(q)

We will denote *the* finite field of order q by $\text{GF}(q)$.

We saw two different representations of $\text{GF}(2^3)$.

Recall A finite field of order q exists iff $q = p^n$ for some prime p and $n \geq 1$. ($p = \text{characteristic}$)

- Also $\text{GF}(q) = \mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)$, where $f \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is irreducible and has degree n .

Example: Construct $\text{GF}(16)$

Take $f(x) = x^4 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$.

f has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_2 , and hence no linear factors.

Long division shows that $x^2 + x + 1 \nmid x^4 + x + 1$, so f has no irreducible quadratic factor.

$\therefore f$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 . So $\text{GF}(16) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$.

2.3 Properties of finite fields

Theorem 2.10: Frosh's Dream

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \text{GF}(q)$, where $\text{char}(\text{GF}(q)) = p$. Then $(\alpha + \beta)^p = \alpha^p + \beta^p$.

Proof:

$$(\alpha + \beta)^p = \alpha^p + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} \alpha^i \beta^{p-i} + \beta^p$$

$$\text{Now, } \binom{p}{i} = \frac{p(p-1) \cdots (p-i+1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdots i} \in \mathbb{N}.$$

If $1 \leq i \leq p-1$, then $p \mid$ numerator; but $p \nmid$ denominator. $\therefore p \nmid \binom{p}{i}$. So,

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{p}{i} \alpha^i \beta^{p-i} &= \underbrace{\alpha^i \beta^{p-i} + \cdots + \alpha^i \beta^{p-i}}_{\binom{p}{i}} \\ &= \alpha^i \beta^{p-i} \underbrace{(1 + 1 + 1 + \cdots + 1)}_{\binom{p}{i}} \\ &= \alpha^i \beta^{p-i} \cdot 0 \quad \text{since char} = p \text{ and } p \mid \binom{p}{i} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Note

More generally,

$$(\alpha + \beta)^{p^m} = \alpha^{p^m} + \beta^{p^m}$$

for all $m \geq 1$.

Theorem 2.11

Let $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)$. Then $\alpha^q = \alpha$.

Proof:

- If $\alpha = 0$, then of course $\alpha^q = \alpha$.
- Suppose $\alpha \neq 0$. Let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{q-1}$ be the nonzero elements in $\text{GF}(q)$. Consider $\alpha\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha\alpha_{q-1}$. The elements in this list are pairwise distinct because

if $\alpha\alpha_i = \alpha\alpha_j$ ($i \neq j$), then $\alpha^{-1}\alpha\alpha_i = \alpha^{-1}\alpha\alpha_j$, so $\alpha_i = \alpha_j$. Also

$$\alpha\alpha_i \neq 0, \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq q-1.$$

Hence

$$\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{q-1}\} = \{\alpha\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha\alpha_{q-1}\}$$

$$\therefore \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_{q-1} = (\alpha\alpha_1) \dots (\alpha\alpha_{q-1})$$

$$\therefore \alpha^{q-1} = 1$$

$$\therefore \alpha^q = \alpha$$

□

$\text{GF}(q)^*$

Let $\text{GF}(q)^* = \text{GF}(q) \setminus \{0\}$.

$\text{ord}(\alpha)$

Let $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$. The order of α , denoted $\text{ord}(\alpha)$, is the smallest, positive integer t such that $\alpha^t = 1$.

Example:

How many elements of order 1 are there in $\text{GF}(q)$?

$$\alpha = 1$$

Example:

Find $\text{ord}(x)$ in $\text{GF}(16) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$.

$$x^1 = 1, x^2 = x^2, x^3 = x^3, x^4 = x + 1, x^5 = x^2 + x, \dots, x^{15} = 1.$$

Since $\text{ord}(x) \neq 1, 3, 5$, $\text{ord}(x) | 15$, we have $\text{ord}(x) = 15$.

Lemma 2.12

Let $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$, $\text{ord}(\alpha) = t$, $s \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\alpha^s = 1 \iff t | s$.

Proof:

Let $s \in \mathbb{Z}$. Long division g gives $s = \ell t + r$, where $0 \leq r \leq t-1$.

$$\text{Then } \alpha^s = \alpha^{\ell t + r} = (\alpha^t)^\ell \alpha^r = \alpha^r.$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^s = 1 &\iff \alpha^r = 1 \\ &\iff r = 0 \quad \text{since } 0 \leq r \leq t-1 \\ &\iff t | s \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2.13

If $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$, then $\text{ord}(\alpha) | q - 1$.

Proof:

We know that $\alpha^{q-1} = 1$. So $\text{ord}(\alpha) | q - 1$ by previous lemma. \square

generator

An element $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)$ is a *generator of $\text{GF}(q)^*$* (primitive element in $\text{GF}(q)$).
If $\text{ord}(\alpha) = q - 1$.

Lemma 2.14

If α is a generator of $\text{GF}(q)^*$ then $\{\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{q-2}\} = \text{GF}(q)^*$.

Lemma 2.15

If $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$ has order t , then $\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \dots, \alpha^{t-1}$ are pairwise distinct.

Proof:

Suppose $\alpha^i = \alpha^j$, where $0 \leq i < j \leq t - 1$. Then $\alpha^{j-i} = 1$ which contradicts $\text{ord}(\alpha) = t$ since $1 \leq j - i \leq t - 1$. \square

So, if α is a generator of $\text{GF}(q)^*$ then $\{\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{q-2}\} = \text{GF}(q)^*$.

Theorem 2.16

$\text{GF}(q)^*$ has at least one generator.

Proof:

See LEARN (optional). \square

Example:

Find a generator of $\text{GF}(8) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$.

x is a generator.

Linear Codes

Let $F = \text{GF}(q)$.

Let $V_n(F) = F \times F \times \dots \times F = F^n$

Then $V_n(F)$ is an n -dimensional vector space over F .

We have $|V_n(F)| = q^n$.

linear (n, k) -code over F

A *linear (n, k) -code over F* is a k -dimensional subspace of $V_n(F)$.

subspace

A subspace of a vector space V over F is a subset $S \subseteq V$ such that

- (i) $S \neq \emptyset$.
- (ii) $v_1 + v_2 \in S \quad \forall v_1, v_2 \in S$.
- (iii) $\lambda v \in S, \quad \forall v \in S, \lambda \in F$.

Note

S is also a vector space over F .

$0 \in S$.

3.1 Properties of Linear Codes

Let C be an (n, k) -code over F . Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k be an ordered basis for C .

- 1) The codewords in C are precisely:

$$mv_1 + m_2v_2 + \dots + m_kv_k,$$

where $m_i \in F$.

So $|C| = M = q^k$.

- 2) The rate of C is $R = \frac{\log_q M}{n} = \frac{k}{n}$,

- 3) Distance

weight

The (Hamming) *weight* of $v \in V_n(F)$, $\omega(v)$, is the number of nonzero coordinate positions in v .

The weight of C is $\omega(C) = \min\{\omega(c) : c \in C, c \neq 0\}$.

Theorem 3.1

If C is a linear code, then $d(C) = \omega(C)$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} d(C) &= \min\{d(x, y) : x, y \in C, x \neq y\} \\ &= \min\{\omega(x - y) : x, y \in C, x \neq y\} \\ &= \min\{\omega(c) : c \in C, c \neq 0\} \\ &= \omega(C) \end{aligned}$$

□

- 4) Encoding.

Since $M = q^k$, there are q^k source messages. We'll assume that the source messages are elements of $V_k(F)$. A natural encoding rule is: Given $(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k) \in V_k(F)$. We will encode it as $c = m_1v_1 + m_2v_2 + \dots + m_kv_k$.

Note

The encoding rule depends on the basis chosen for C .

- 5) Note if $m = (m_1, \dots, m_k)$, then the encoding rule can be written as follows.

$$c = (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k) \begin{bmatrix} - & v_1 & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & v_k & - \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n}$$

$$c = mG$$

generator matrix

Let C be an (n, k) code. A *generator matrix* G for C is a $k \times n$ matrix whose rows form a basis for C .

Note

An encoding rule for C w.r.t. G is $c = mG$.

Note

Performing elementary row operations on G gives a different matrix for the same code C .

Example: Consider a binary $(5, 3)$ -code C

where binary means “over $F = \text{GF}(2) = \mathbb{Z}_2$. 5 is n , length of code. 3 is k , dimension.

Then $M = q^k = 2^3$ and $R = \frac{k}{n} = \frac{3}{5}$. and

$$C = \langle \underbrace{10010}_{v_1}, \underbrace{01011}_{v_2}, \underbrace{00101}_{v_3} \rangle$$

$$G = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 5}$$

indeed has rank 3 so G is a GM for C .

Encoding rule is $c = mG$.

m source msgs	\rightarrow	c codewords
000	\rightarrow	00000
001	\rightarrow	00101
010	\rightarrow	01011
011	\rightarrow	01110
100	\rightarrow	10010
101	\rightarrow	10111
110	\rightarrow	11001
111	\rightarrow	11100

$$d(C) = 2, e = 0$$

Note

Any matrix row equivalent to G is also a GM for C , but yields a different encoding rule.

systematic, standard form

Let matrix $[I_k | A]_{k \times n}$ is a GM for an (n, k) -code C . If an (n, k) -code has a GM of this form, then C is *systematic*, and the GM is in *standard form*.

Example:

$C = \langle 100011, 101010, 100110 \rangle$ is a non-systematic $(6, 3)$ -code. A GM for C is

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another GM for C is

$$G_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another GM for C :

$$G_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

C is not systematic.

However, if every codeword is permuted by moving the second bit to a new fourth bit, then we get a new code C' that is linear, and has the same n, k, d as C .

equivalent

Let C be an (n, k) -code. If π is a permutation on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, Then $\pi(C)$ ^a is an (n, k) -code and is said to be *equivalent* to C .

^ai.e. apply π to each codeword

Fact

1. If C, C' are equivalent codes, then $d(C) = d(C')$.
2. Every linear code is equivalent to a systematic code.

Proof:

Let C be an (n, k) -code. Let G be a GM for C in row reduced form. Then one can permute to columns of G to get a matrix $G' = [I_k | A]$ in standard form.

Then G' is a GM for a code C' that is equivalent to C . □

3.2 Dual Codes

inner product

Let $x, y \in V_n(F)$. The *inner product* of x and y is

$$x \cdot y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \in F$$

Properties For all $x, y, z \in V_n(F)$ and all $\lambda \in F$

1. $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$
2. $x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$
3. $(\lambda x) \cdot y = \lambda(x \cdot y)$
4. $x \cdot x = 0$ does **not** imply that $x = 0$.

Example:

Consider $V_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$

Then $(1, 1) \cdot (1, 1) = 0$.

dual code

Let C be an (n, k) -code over F . The *dual code* of C is

$$C^\perp = \{x \in V_n(F) : x \cdot c = 0, \quad \forall c \in C\}$$

orthogonal

If $x, y \in V_n(F)$ and $x \cdot y = 0$, then x, y are *orthogonal*.

Theorem 3.2

If C is an (n, k) -code over F , then C^\perp is an $(n, n - k)$ -code over F .

Proof:

Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k be a basis for C .

Claim Let $x \in V_n(F)$. Then $x \in C^\perp$ iff $v_1 \cdot x = v_2 \cdot x = \dots = v_k \cdot x = 0$.

(\implies) If $x \in C^\perp$, then $x \cdot c = 0 \ \forall c \in C$. In particular, $x \cdot v_1 = 0, \dots, x \cdot v_k = 0$.

(\impliedby) Suppose $x \cdot v_1 = x \cdot v_2 = \dots = x \cdot v_k = 0$. Let $c \in C$. We can write

$$c = \lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_k v_k, \quad v_i \in F$$

Then $x \cdot c = \lambda_1(x \cdot v_1) + \dots + \lambda_k(x \cdot v_k) = 0$. Hence $x \in C^\perp$.

Consider

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_k \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n}$$

Then $x \in C^\perp$ iff $Gx^T = 0$. So C^\perp is the nullspace of G . Hence C^\perp is an $(n - k)$ -dimensional subspace of $V_n(F)$. \square

Theorem 3.3

If C is a linear code, then $(C^\perp)^\perp = C$.

Proof:

Let C be an (n, k) -code, then C^\perp is an $(n, n - k)$ -code. So $(C^\perp)^\perp$ is an (n, k) -code. But $C \subseteq (C^\perp)^\perp$ by definition of C^\perp .

Suppose C is a code over $F = \text{GF}(q)$. Then $|C| = q^k$ and $|(C^\perp)^\perp| = q^k$.

$\therefore C = (C^\perp)^\perp$. \square

Theorem 3.4: Constructing a GM for C^\perp

Let C be an (n, k) -code with GM $G = [I_k | A_{k \times (n-k)}]_{k \times n}$. Then a GM for C^\perp is

$$H = [-A^T | I_{n-k}]_{(n-k) \times n}$$

Proof:

$\text{rank}(H) = n - k$, so H is indeed a GM for some $(n, n - k)$ -code \overline{C} .

Now,

$$GH^T = [I_k | A] \begin{bmatrix} -A \\ I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix} = -A + A = 0$$

Since $GH^T = 0$, every row of H is orthogonal to every row of G . So, every vector in the row space of H is orthogonal to every vector in the row space of G . Hence $\overline{C} \subseteq C^\perp$. Since $\dim(\overline{C}) = \dim(C^\perp)$, we have $\overline{C} = C^\perp$. \square

parity-check matrix

A GM for C^\perp is called a *parity-check matrix* (PCM) for C .

Example:

Consider a $(5, 2)$ -code C over \mathbb{Z}_3 with GM

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 5}$$

For C : $q = 3, n = 5, k = 2, M = 3^2 = 9$.

$$C = \{ \underset{c_1}{00000}, \underset{2c_1}{20210}, \underset{c_2}{10120}, \underset{2c_2}{11001}, \underset{2c_2}{22002}, \\ \underset{c_1+c_2}{01211}, \underset{c_1+2c_2}{12212}, \underset{2c_1+c_2}{21121}, \underset{2c_1+2c_2}{02122} \}$$

Now find a GM for C^\perp

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{row reductions}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

So,

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

is a GM for C^\perp which is an $(5, 3)$ -code over \mathbb{Z}_3 .

Note

Let C be an (n, k) -code over F with GM G :

1. C^\perp is the nullspace of G .
2. C^\perp is an $(n, n - k)$ -code over F .
3. $(C^\perp)^\perp = C$
4. Let H be a GM for C^\perp , then H is a PCM for C (by definition).
5. G is a PCM for C^\perp .
6. $GH^T = 0$.
7. For $x \in V_n(F)$, $x \in C$ iff $Hx^T = 0$.

[C is the nullspace of H .]

Theorem 3.5

Let C be an (n, k) -code over F , and let H be a PCM for C . Then $d(C) \geq s$ iff every $s - 1$ cols of H are linearly independent over F .

Proof:

Let h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n be the cols of H .

\Leftarrow) Suppose $d(C) \leq s - 1$, so $\omega(C) \leq s - 1$. Let $c \in C$, with $1 \leq \omega(C) \leq s - 1$. WLOG, suppose $c_j = 0, \forall s \leq j \leq n$. Since $c \in C$, we have $Hc^T = 0$.

$$\therefore c_1 h_1 + c_2 h_2 + \dots + c_{s-1} h_{s-1} = 0$$

Since $\omega(C) \geq 1$, this is a non-trivial linear combinations of h_1, \dots, h_{s-1} that equal 0. So h_1, \dots, h_{s-1} are linear dependent over F .

\Rightarrow) Suppose there are $s - 1$ cols of H that are linear dependent over F , say h_1, \dots, h_{s-1} . So we can write $c_1 h_1 + c_2 h_2 + \dots + c_{s-1} h_{s-1}$ where $c_j \in F$, not all zero.

$$\text{Let } c = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{s-1}, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{n-s+1}) \in V_n(F).$$

Then $Hc^T = 0$. So $c \in C$. And $1 \leq \omega(C) \leq s - 1$, so $d(C) \leq s - 1$.

□

Corollary 3.6

Let C be an (n, k) -code over F with PCM H . Then $d(C)$ is the smallest number of cols of H that are linearly dependent over F .

Example:

Recall we found a PCM

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

for a $(5, 2)$ -code C over \mathbb{Z}_3 .

Find $d(C)$

- No 0 col in $H \Rightarrow d(C) \geq 2$
- No two linearly dependent cols in H (since no repeated cols, and no col is 2 times another cols $\Rightarrow d(C) \geq 2$)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

so columns 1, 3, 4 are linearly dependent over \mathbb{Z}_3 . Then $d(C) \not\geq 4$, so $d(C) = 3$.

Example:

C be a binary code, with PCM H

- $d(C) = 1$ iff H has a 0 column.
- $d(C) = 2$ iff the cols of H are non-zero and two are the same.
- $d(C) = 3$ iff the cols of H are non-zero, distinct, and one column is the sum of two other (distinct) columns.

Example: Construct a $(\underset{n}{7}, \underset{k}{4}, \underset{d}{3})$ -binary code C

Consider a PCM for C :

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 7}$$

This is a *Hamming Code* of order 3 over \mathbb{Z}_2 .

3.3 Perfect Code

perfect code

Let C be an $[n, M]$ -code C over A of distance d . Then

$$M \sum_{i=0}^e \binom{n}{i} (q-i)^i \leq q^n$$

where $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$. [Sphere packing bound]

Then C is *perfect* if

$$M \sum_{i=0}^e \binom{n}{i} (q-i)^i = q^n$$

Note

If C is perfect, then $\text{IMLD} = \text{CMLD}$.

For fixed n, q, d , a perfect code maximized $R = \frac{\log_q M}{n}$.

Example:

$C = \text{GF}(q)^n$ is a (trivial) perfect code with $d = 1$.

Example:

$C = \{\underbrace{0 \dots 0}_n, \underbrace{1 \dots 1}_n\}$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 is a perfect code if n is odd. (distance = n).

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \left(\sum_{i=0}^e \binom{n}{i} \right) &= 2 \left(\binom{n}{0} + \dots + \binom{n}{e} \right) \\ &= \binom{n}{0} + \dots + \binom{n}{e} + \binom{n}{e+1} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \\ &= 2^n \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise

Prove that every perfect code must have odd distance.

Theorem 3.7: Tietäräinen, 1973

The only perfect codes are

- (i) $V_n(\text{GF}(q))$
- (ii) The binary replication code of odd length.
- (iii) The (23, 12, 7)-binary Golay code and all codes equivalent to it.
- (iv) The (11, 6, 5)-ternary^a Golay and all codes equivalent to it.

A GM is

$$G = \left[\begin{array}{c|ccccc} & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]_{6 \times 11}$$

- (v) The Hamming codes and all codes of the same $[n, M, d]$ parameters as them. ($d = 3$).

^aover \mathbb{Z}^3

Hamming code of order r over $\text{GF}(q)$

A Hamming code of order r over $\text{GF}(q)$ is a linear code over $\text{GF}(q)$ with $n = \frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1}$, $k = n - r$ and PCM a $r \times n$ matrix whose columns are nonzero & no two are scalar multiples of each other.

Example: A Hamming code of order $r = 3$ over $\text{GF}(2)$

is a (7, 4, 3)-binary code with PCM

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 7}$$

Example: A Hamming code of order $r = 3$ over $\text{GF}(3)$

is a $(13, 10, 3)$ -code over $\text{GF}(3)$ with PCM

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc|ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 13}$$

Observations

1. For every nonzero vector $v \in V_r(\text{GF}(q))$, exactly one scalar of v must be a column of a PCM (for the Hamming code of order r over $\text{GF}(q)$) $n = \frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1}$
2. The dimension of the code is indeed k , since $\text{rank}(P(M)) = r = n - k$. Since $\lambda_i e_i$ ($e_i = i^{\text{th}}$ unit vector, λ_i 's are non-zero scalars) are cols of PCM.
3. The Hamming codes have distance 3. (since $\lambda_1 e_1, \lambda_2 e_2$ and $\lambda_3(e_1 + e_2)$ are cols of H for some scalar multiples $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$)
4. The Hamming codes are perfect:

$$\begin{aligned} M \sum_{i=0}^e \binom{n}{i} (q-1)^i &= q^{n-r} (1 + n(q-1)) \\ &= q^{n-r} \left(1 + \frac{q-1}{q-1} (q-1) \right) \\ &= q^n \end{aligned}$$

3.4 Error Correction (for Hamming Codes)

error vector

Suppose $c \in C$ is transmitted. Suppose $r \in V_n(F)$ is received. The *error vector* is $e = r - c$. ($c + e = r$)

Example:

Over \mathbb{Z}_3 , if $c = (120212)$ is sent and $r = (122102)$ is received, then $e = (00220)$.

Decoding algorithm for single-error correcting codes (e.g. Hamming codes)

Let H be a PCM for an (n, k) -code C over $\text{GF}(q)$ with $d \geq 3$.

Recall $c \in C$ is sent, $r \in V_n(\text{GF}(q))$ is received, the *error vector* is $e = r - c$.

Main idea $Hr^T = H(c + e)^T = Hc^T + He^T = He^T$

syndrome

If $r \in V_n(\text{GF}(q))$, $s = Hr^T$ is called the *syndrome* of r .

Note

- 1) r and e have the same syndrome.
- 2) If $e = 0$, then $He^T = 0$
- 3) If $\omega(e) = 1$, say $e = (0, \dots, \underbrace{\alpha}_{i^{\text{th}} \text{ position}}, \dots, 0)$ where $\alpha \neq 0$.

Then $He^T = \alpha h_i$ (nonzero), where $h_i = i^{\text{th}}$ col of H .

- 4) Note: The converses of 2) and 3) are false.

Algorithm 1: Decoding algorithm (for single error-correcting codes)

Given : H, r

- 1 Compute $s = Hr^T$
 - 2 If $\omega(s) = 0$, then accept r . **(STOP)**
 - 3 Compare s with the columns of H . If $s = \alpha h_i$ (where $\alpha \neq 0$), then $e = (0, \dots, \underbrace{\alpha}_{i^{\text{th}}}, \dots, 0)$, and correct r to $c = r - e$. **(STOP)**
 - 4 Reject.] NOT NEEDED if H is a Hamming code (because it is perfect)
-

Claim If $\omega(e) \leq 1$, then the decoding algorithm always makes the correct decision.

Note

If H is a Hamming code & $\omega(e) \geq 2$, then this decoding algorithm always makes the wrong decision.

Example:

Consider the $(7, 4, 3)$ -binary Hamming code with PCM

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 7}$$

Decode $r = (0111110)$.

1. Compute $s = Hr^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, which is the 6^{th} col of H .
2. So, $e = (0000010)$
3. Decode r to $c = (0111100)$. [Check $Hc^T = 0$]

3.5 General Decoding Problem for binary linear codes

Instance

- An $(n - k) \times n$ matrix H over $\text{GF}(2)$ with $\text{rank}(H) = n - k$.
- $r \in V_n(\text{GF}(2))$

Find Find a vector $e \in V_n(\text{GF}(2))$ of minimum weight with $Hr^T = He^T$.

Fact This problem is **NP-hard**¹.

Decoding Linear Codes

Let C be an (n, k) -code over $F = \text{GF}(q)$ with PCM H .

$\equiv (\text{mod } C)$

We write $x \equiv y (\text{mod } C)$, where $x, y \in V_n(F)$ if $x - y \in C$.

Note

- 1) $\equiv (\text{mod } C)$ is an equivalence relation. (Reflexive, Symmetric, Transitive)
- 2) So, the set of equivalence classes partitions $V_n(F)$.
- 3) The equivalence class containing $x \in V_n(F)$ is called a *coset* of $V_n(F)$.
This class is $\{y \in V_n(F) : y \equiv x (\text{mod } C)\} = \{x + c : c \in C\} = C + x$.
We call $C = x$ the coset of C represented by x . (See the example below)
- 4) $C + 0 = C$
- 5) If $y \in C + x$, then $C + y = C + x$
- 6) Every coset has size q^k

¹These ideas could be found in CS 341/466/666 ...

- P = problems solvable in “polynomial time” (i.e. efficiently)
- NP = a “certain” class of problems including many problems of strong practical interest which do not know to solve efficiently.
- NP-hard: If any single problem in this class of problems can be solved efficiently, then so can all problems in NP (in which, $P=NP$)

7) # of cosets is $q^n/q^k = q^{n-k}$.

Example:

Consider the $(5, 2)$ -binary code C with GM

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The cosets of C are:

$$\begin{aligned} C + 00000 &= \{00000, 10111, 01110, 11001\} \\ &= C + 10111 = \{10111, 00000, 11001, 01110\} \\ &= C + 01110 = \dots \\ &= C + 11001 = \dots \end{aligned}$$

and

$$C + 10000 = \{10000, 00111, 11110, 01001\} = C + 00111$$

which is disjoint from the previous equivalent class. And brand new cosets:

$$\begin{aligned} C + 01000 &= \{01000, 11111, 00110, 10001\} \\ C + 00100 &= \{00100, 10011, 01010, 11101\} \\ C + 00010 &= \{00010, 10101, 01100, 11011\} \\ C + 00001 &= \{00001, 10110, 01111, 11000\} \\ C + 00011 &= \{00011, 10100, 01101, 11010\} \\ C + 11100 &= \{11100, 01011, 10010, 00101\} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3.8

Let $x, y \in V_n(F)$. Then $x \equiv y \pmod{C}$ iff $Hx^T = Hy^T$.

Proof:

$$x \equiv y \pmod{C} \iff H(x - y)^T = 0 \iff Hx^T = Hy^T$$

□

So, cosets are characterized by their syndromes.

Decoding $c \in C$ is send, $r \in V_n(F)$ is received. $e = r - c \in V_n(F)$. $Hr^T = He^T$.

So, r and e belong to the same coset of C .

CMLD Given r , find a vector e of smallest weight in $C + r$, or, equivalently, find a vector e of smallest weight with the same syndrome as r . Then decode r to $c = r - e$.

IMLD Find the unique vector e of smallest weight having the same syndrome as r . If no such e exists, then reject r . Otherwise, decode r to $c = r - e$.

coset leader

A vector of smallest weight in a coset of C is distinguished and called a *coset leader* (of that coset).

3.5.1 Syndrome Decoding

Algorithm 2: Syndrome Decoding Algorithm

Given : A PCM H for an (n, k) -code C over $F = \text{GF}(q)$

- 0 Create a table of coset leaders and their syndromes. Given r , do
- 1 Compute $s = Hr^T$
- 2 Look up the coset leader corresponding to s , say ℓ .
- 3 Decode r to $c = r - \ell$.

Example:

$$G = \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]_{2 \times 5}$$

$$H = \left[\begin{array}{cc|ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 5}$$

$$n = 5, k = 2, q = 2$$

Coset Leaders		Syndromes
00000	—	000
10000	—	111
01000	—	110
00100	—	100
00010	—	010
00001	—	001
00011	—	011
10010	—	101

Suppose $r = 10111$.

$$\text{Compute } s = Hr^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Coset leader is $\ell = 00000$.

So $c = r - \ell = 10111$.

Recall There is a 1-1 correspondence between cosets of C and syndromes. Also, $s = Hr^T = He^T$.

For a binary (n, k) -code C , the syndrome table has size $2^{n-k} \times n$, which is exponen-

tially large.

Goal Design decoding algorithm which require very little space.

Example:

Use only the PCH, H , which is $(n - k)n$ bits.

The binary Golay code

4.1 The (binary) Golay code C_{23} (1949)

Let

$$\hat{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & & & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{12 \times 11} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

All rows below the second are left cyclic shifts of second row.

Let $\hat{G} = [I_{12} | \hat{B}]_{12 \times 23}$

Then \hat{G} is a GM for a $(23, 12)$ -binary code called C_{23}

Facts

(i) $d(C_{23}) = 7$ (proof later) So $e = 3$

(ii) C_{23} is perfect:

$$2^{12} \left(\binom{23}{0} + \binom{23}{1} + \binom{23}{2} + \binom{23}{3} \right) = 2^{23}$$

4.2 The Extended Golay Code C_{24}

Let

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \\ 1 & \end{array} \right]_{12 \times 12} \hat{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $G = [I_{12}|B]_{12 \times 24}$

Note

- (i) C_{24} is a $(24, 12, 8)$ -binary code (so $e = 3$)
- (ii) $G^T G = 0$ (Check this)
- (iii) Hence $C_{24} \subseteq C_{24}^\perp$ (C_{24} is a self orthogonal code)
- (iv) $\dim(C_{24}) = 12$ and $d(C_{24}^\perp) = 12$, so $C_{24} = C_{24}^\perp$ (C_{24} is a self dual code)
- (v) B is symmetric (check this).
- (vi) A PCM for C_{24} is $H = [-B^T|I_{12}] = [B|I_{12}]$
- (vii) Since $C_{24} = C_{24}^\perp$, H is also a GM for C_{24}
- (viii) G is also a PCM for C_{24}^\perp .

4.2.1 Decoding Algorithm for C_{24}

$s = Hr^T$ syndrome table has size $2^{12} \times 24 \approx 96,000$ bits.

Recall C_{24} is a $(24, 12, 8)$ -binary codes with PCMs $[B|I_{12}]$ and $[I_{12}|B]$.

Decoding strategy (IMLD) Compute a syndrome of r . Find a vector e of weight ≤ 3 that has the same syndrome as r .

If no such vector e exists, then reject r ; else decode r to $c = r - e$.

Let $r = (x, y)$, $e = (e_1, e_2)$. [all are 12 bits in length]¹

There are cases 5 cases (not mutually exclusive) in the event $\omega(e) \leq 3$.

- (A) $w(e_1) = 0, w(e_2) = 0$ ²
- (B) $1 \leq w(e_1) \leq 3, w(e_2) = 0$
- (C) $w(e_1) = 1 \text{ or } 2, w(e_2) = 1$
- (D) $w(e_1) = 0, 1 \leq w(e_2) \leq 3$
- (E) $w(e_1) = 1, w(e_2) = 1 \text{ or } 2$

Theorem 4.1

Let C be an (n, k, d) -code over $\text{GF}(q)$. Let $x \in V_n(\text{GF}(q))$ have weight $\leq \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$. Then x is the unique vector of min weight in the coset of C containing x (so must be a coset leader).

Proof:

Let y be a vector in the same coset of C as x , with $y \neq x$ and

$$w(y) \leq w(x) \leq \left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor$$

Then $y - x \neq 0$, and $x \equiv y \pmod{C}$, and $x - y \in C$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} w(x - y) &= w(x + (-y)) \\ &\leq w(x) + w(-y) \\ &= w(x) + w(y) \\ &\leq \left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor \\ &\leq d-1 \end{aligned}$$

contradicting $d(C) = d$. □

Recall $[I_{12}|B]$ and $[B|I_{12}]$ are both PCMs for C_{24} .

Note

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= [I_{12}|B]r^T \\ &= [I_{12}|B]e^T \\ &= [I_{12}|B] \begin{bmatrix} e_1^T \\ e_2^T \end{bmatrix} \\ &= e_1^T + Be_2^T \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $s_2 = [B|I_{12}]r^T = Be_1^T + e_2^T$

¹Different presentation from textbook

²Note that I use w to represent weight from now on...

Algorithm 3: Decoding Algorithm for C_{24} **Suppose:** $r = (x, y)$ is received

- 1 Compute $s_1 = [I_{12}|B]r^T$. If $s_1 = 0$, then accept r ; STOP.
- 2 If $1 \leq w(s_1) \leq 3$, then correct x in the positions corresponding to is in s_1 ; STOP.
- 3 Compare s_1 to the columns (or rows) of B . If ant column, say col i , differs in one position (say j) or differs in two position (j and k) from s_1 , then correct r as follows:
 - Correct x in the position k or position j and k
 - Correct y in position i .
 STOP.
- 4 Compute $s_2 = [B|I_{12}]r^T$. If $w(s_2) \leq 3$, then correct y in position corresponding to the pos in s_2 . STOP.
- 5 Compute s_2 to the cols (or rows) of B . If any col, say col i , differs in one pos (say j) or 2 pos (j and k), then
 - Correct y in pos j , or pos j and k
 - Correct x in pos i .
 STOP.
- 6 Reject (since $w(e) \geq 4$).

See examples in handouts on LEARN.

Note

1. If $w(e) \leq 3$, then the algorithm makes the correct decision.
2. No storage is needed:

$$s_1 = [I_{12}|B] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x + By$$

3. Algorithm is very simple and efficient (good for hardware)

4.2.2 Reliability of C_{24}

- p = symbol error prob. (BSC)
- $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_M\}$
- w_i = prob. that decoding algorithm makes an incorrect decision if c_i is sent.
- Error prob of C is $P_C = \frac{1}{M} \sum w_i$
- $1 - P_C$ = Reliability of C

p	(1) $(1-p)^{12}$	(2) $1-P_{C_{24}}$	(3) $1-P_T$	(4) $1-P_H$
0.1	0.282429	0.7857377	0.7112056	0.5490430
0.01	0.8863848	0.99990946	0.9964298	0.9903702
0.001	0.9880657	0.999999895	0.99996402	0.998959
Rate	1	1/2	1/3	11/15 \approx 0.73

(1) If no source is used, then the reliability for 12-bit messages is $(1-p)^{12}$.

$$(2) \quad w_i = 1 - [(1-p)^{24} + \binom{24}{1}p(1-p)^{23} + \binom{24}{2}p^2(1-p)^{22} + \binom{24}{3}p^3(1-p)^{21}]$$

$$P_{C_{24}} = \frac{1}{2^{12}} \sum_{i=1}^{2^{12}} w_i = w_i$$

(3) T = Triplication code

$$\underbrace{10110 \dots 0}_{12} \rightarrow \underbrace{111 \ 000 \ 111 \ 111 \ 000 \dots 111}_{36}$$

$$1 - P_T = [(1-p)^3 + 3p(1-p)^2]^{12}$$

(4) (15, 11)-binary Hamming code

$$1 - P_H = (1-p)^{15} + 15p(1-p)^{14}$$

Cyclic Codes

cyclic subspace

A *cyclic subspace* S of $V_n(F)$ is a subspace such that $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}) \in S \implies (a_{n-1}, a_0, \dots, a_{n-2}) \in S$.

cyclic code

A *cyclic code* is a cyclic subspace of $V_n(F)$.

Let $R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$

Associate

$$(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}) \underset{\in V_n(F)}{\leftrightarrow} a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \underset{\in R}{}$$

Addition is preserved

$$a + b \leftrightarrow a(x) + b(x)$$

Scalar multiplication is preserved

$$\lambda a \leftrightarrow \lambda a(x)$$

Why choose $x^n - 1$?

Let $a = (a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) \in V_n(F)$. Let $a(x)$ be its associated polynomial in R . Then

$$\begin{aligned} x \cdot a(x) &= a_0x + a_1x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2}x^{n-1} + a_{n-1}x^n \\ &\equiv a_{n-1} + a_0x + a_1x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2}x^{n-1} \pmod{x^n - 1} \\ &\leftrightarrow (a_{n-1}, a_0, \dots, a_{n-2}) \end{aligned}$$

So multiplying a polynomial in R by x corresponds to a (right) cyclic shift of the associated vector.

We'll define $\cdot : V_n(F) \times V_n(F) \rightarrow V_n(F) : a \cdot b \leftrightarrow a(x) \cdot b(x) \pmod{x^n - 1}$

Cyclic subspaces of $V_n(F) \leftrightarrow$ Ideals in $R \leftrightarrow$ monic divisors of $x^n - 1$

ideal

Let R be a commutative finite ring. A non-empty subset I of R is an *ideal* of R if

- (1) For all $a, b \in I$, $a + b \in I$.
- (2) For all $a \in I, b \in R$, $a \cdot b \in I$.

Example:

$\{0\}$ and R are (trivial) ideal of R .

Theorem 5.1

Let $S \subseteq V_n(F)$, non-empty. Let I be the associated polynomials.

Then S is a cyclic subspace of $V_n(F)$ iff I is an ideal of $R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$.

Proof:

\Rightarrow) Suppose S is a cyclic subspace of $V_n(F)$.

Since S is closed under addition, so is I . Let $a(x) \in I$, $b(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1} \in R$. Then $xa(x) \in I$ since S is a cyclic subspace.

So, $x^i a(x) \in I$, for all $0 \leq i \leq n-1$.

Also, $b_i x^i a(x) \in I$, since S is closed under scalar multiplication.

Finally, $a(x) \cdot b(x) = a(x)(b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1})$ which is in I , since I is closed under addition.

$\therefore I$ is an ideal.

\Leftarrow) Suppose I is an ideal of R . Since I is closed under addition, so is S . Since I is closed under multiplication by constant polynomials, S is closed under scalar multiplication. Since I is closed under multiplication by x , S is closed under (right) cyclic shifts.

$\therefore S$ is a cyclic subspace.

□

Remark:

So, we have a 1-1 correspondence between cyclic subspaces of $V_n(F)$ and ideals of $R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$.

ideal generated by $g(x)$

Let $g(x) \in R$. Then $\langle g(x) \rangle = \{g(x) \cdot a(x) : a(x) \in R\}$. Then $\langle g(x) \rangle$ is an ideal of R . Called the *ideal generated by $g(x)$* .

principal ideal & principal ideal ring

If I is an ideal of R , then I is *principal ideal* if $\exists g(x) \in I$ such that $I = \langle g(x) \rangle$.
 R is called a *principal ideal ring* if every ideal of R is principal.

Theorem 5.2

$R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$ is a principal ideal ring.

Proof:

Let I be an ideal of R .

Suppose first that $I = \{0\}$. Then $I = \langle 0 \rangle$ is principle.

Suppose $I \neq \{0\}$. Let $g(x)$ be a polynomial of smallest degree in I . Let $a(x) \in I$.

Long division gives

$$a(x) = \ell(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

where $\ell, r \in F[x]$, and $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$.

But $\ell(x)g(x) \in I$. (since I is closed under multiplication by R).

And $a(x) - \ell(x)g(x) \in I$.

$\therefore r(x) \in I$. Since $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$, we must have $r(x) = 0$. Hence $a(x) = \ell(x)g(x)$.

$\therefore I = \langle g(x) \rangle$

$\therefore R$ is a principal ideal ring. □

Note

We can take $g(x)$ to be *monic* (i.e. $g(x) = x^\ell + g_{\ell-1}x^{\ell-1} + \dots + g_0$)

If $g(x)$ were not monic, say $g_\ell x^\ell + \dots + g_0$ where $g_\ell \neq 0, 1$, then

$$g_\ell^{-1}g(x) = x^\ell + \dots + g_\ell^{-1}g_0$$

is monic and is also in I . We will call this process “making $g(x)$ monic”.

the generator polynomial of I

Let I be an ideal in $R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$. If $I = \{0\}$, then *the generator polynomial* of I is $x^n - 1$ (since $x^n - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{x^n - 1}$).

If $I \neq \{0\}$, the monic polynomial of least degree in I is called *the generator polynomial* of I .

Theorem 5.3

Let I be a nonzero ideal in $R = F[x]/(x^n - 1)$.

- (i) There is *unique* monic polynomial $g(x)$ of smallest degree in I .
- (ii) $g(x) | x^n - 1$.

Proof:

- (i) Suppose $g(x), h(x)$ are two monic polynomials of (the same) smallest degree in I . Then $g(x) - h(x) \in I$ and $\deg(g - h) < \deg(g)$. Hence we must have $g - h = 0$, so $g(x) = h(x)$.
- (ii) We can write $x^n - 1 = \ell(x)g(x) + r(x)$ where $\ell, r \in F[x]$, and $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$. So

$$0 \equiv \ell(x)g(x) + r(x) \pmod{x^n - 1},$$

so

$$r(x) \equiv -\ell(x)g(x) \pmod{x^n - 1}.$$

Since $\langle g(x) \rangle = I$, we have $r(x) \in I$. Hence $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$, we have $r(x) = 0$.

$$\therefore g(x) | x^n - 1.$$

□

Theorem 5.4

Let $h(x)$ be a monic divisor of $x^n - 1$ in $F[x]$. Then the generator polynomial of $\langle h(x) \rangle$ is $h(x)$.

Proof:

If $h(x) = x^n - 1$, then $I = \{0\}$ and, by defn, its generator polynomial is $x^n - 1$.

If $\deg(h) < n$, so $I \neq \{0\}$, then let $g(x)$ be the monic polynomial of smallest degree in I . Since $g(x)$ is a generator of I , we can write $h(x) \equiv a(x)g(x) \pmod{x^n - 1}$.

So, $g(x) = a(x)h(x) + \ell(x)(x^n - 1)$ for some $\ell(x) \in F[x]$.

Since $h | x^n - 1$ and $h | ah$, we have $h(x) | g(x)$.

So, $\deg(h) \leq \deg(g)$. Since g is the monic polynomial of smallest degree in I , we have $\deg(g) \leq \deg(h)$, so $\deg(g) = \deg(h)$. Since g, h are both monic, we have $g(x) = h(x)$. \square

Corollary 5.5

There is 1-1 correspondence between monic divisors of $x^n - 1$ in $F[x]$ and ideals in R . There is a 1-1 correspondence between monic divisors of $x^n - 1$ in $F[x]$ and cyclic subspaces of $V_n(F)$.

Example:

Find all cyclic subspaces of $V_3(\mathbb{Z}_2)$. ($n = 3$)

The complete factorization of $x^3 - 1$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 is:

$$x^3 - 1 = (1 + x)(1 + x + x^2) \quad R = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 - 1)$$

Monic divisor of $x^3 - 1$	$\langle g_i(x) \rangle^a$	$\dim \langle g_i(x) \rangle$
$g_1(x) = 1$	$\{000, 001, \dots, 111\}$	3
$g_2(x) = 1 + x$	$\{000, 110, 011, 101\}$	2
$g_3(x) = 1 + x + x^2$	$\{000, 111\}$	1
$g_4(x) = 1 + x^4$	$\{0\}$	0

^aCyclic subspace generated by $g_i(x)$

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