



# *Coding Theory*

CO 331



Alfred Menezes

# Preface

---

**Disclaimer** Much of the information on this set of notes is transcribed directly/indirectly from the lectures of CO 331 during Winter 2021 as well as other related resources. I do not make any warranties about the completeness, reliability and accuracy of this set of notes. Use at your own risk.

For any questions, send me an email via <https://notes.sibeliusp.com/contact>.

You can find my notes for other courses on <https://notes.sibeliusp.com/>.

---

*Sibelius Peng*

# Contents

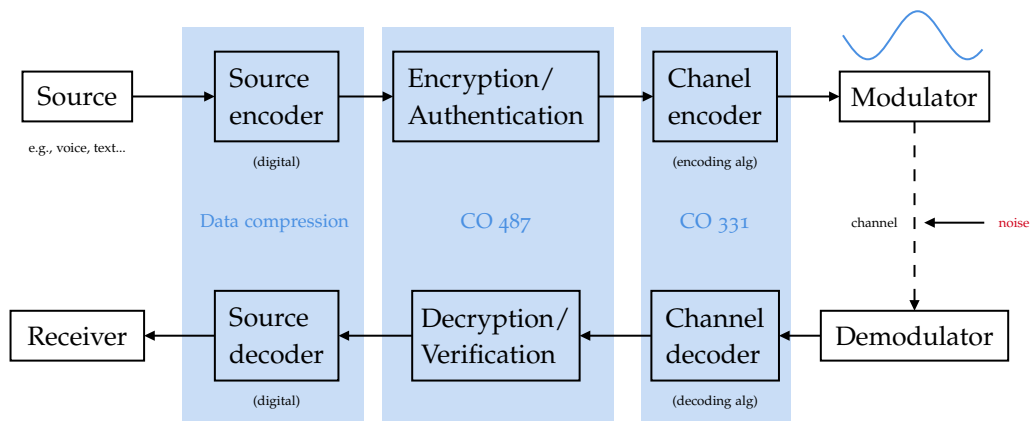
---

<b>Preface</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Introduction</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1 Fundamentals</b>	<b>5</b>
1.1 Basic Definitions and Concepts . . . . .	5
1.2 Decoding Strategy . . . . .	7
1.3 Error Correcting & Detecting Capabilities of a Code . . . . .	9
<b>2 Introduction to Finite Fields</b>	<b>12</b>
2.1 Definitions . . . . .	12
2.2 Finite fields: Non-existence . . . . .	14
2.3 Existence of finite fields . . . . .	15
2.4 Properties of finite fields . . . . .	18
<b>3 Linear codes</b>	<b>21</b>
3.1 Definition . . . . .	21
3.2 Properties of Linear Codes . . . . .	21
3.3 The Dual Code . . . . .	24
3.4 Parity-Check Matrix . . . . .	25

# Introduction

Coding theory is about clever ways of adding redundancy to messages to allow (efficient) error detection and error correction.

Here is our communication model:



## Example: Parity Code

**Encoding algorithm** Add a 0 bit to the (binary) msg  $m$  if the number of 1's in  $m$  is even; else add a 1 bit.

**Decoding algorithm** If the number of 1's in a received msg  $r$  is even, then accept  $r$ ; else declare that an error has occurred.

## Example: Replication Code

Source msgs	Codeword	# err/codeword (always) detected	# err/codeword (always) corrected *	Information rate
0	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
0	00	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
1	11	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
0	000	2	1	$\frac{1}{3}$
1	111	2	1	$\frac{1}{3}$
0	0000	3	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
1	1111	3	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
0	00000	4	2	$\frac{1}{5}$
1	11111	4	2	$\frac{1}{5}$

encoding algorithm  
→

\*: using "nearest neighbour decoding"

## Goal of Coding Theory

Design codes so that:

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

## Course Overview

This course deals with *algebraic methods* for designing good (block) codes. The focus is on error correction (not on error detection). These codes are used in wireless communications, space probes, CD/DVD players, storage, QR codes, etc.

Some modern stuff are not covered: Turbo codes, LDPC codes, Raptor codes, ... Their math theories are not so elegant as algebraic codes.

## The big picture

Coding theory in its broadest sense deals with techniques for the *efficient*, *secure* and *reliable* transmission of data over communication channels that may be subject to *non-malicious errors* (noise) and *adversarial intrusion*. The latter includes passive intrusion (eavesdropping) and active intrusion (injection/deletion/modification).

# Fundamentals

---

## 1.1 Basic Definitions and Concepts

### alphabet

An **alphabet**  $A$  is a finite set of  $q \geq 2$  symbols.

### word

A **word** is a finite sequence of symbols from  $A$  (also: vector, tuple).

### length

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

### code

A **code**  $C$  over  $A$  is a set of words (of size  $\geq 2$ ).

### codeword

A **codeword** is a word in the code  $C$ .

### block code

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

A **block code of length  $n$  containing  $M$  codewords over  $A$**  is a subset  $C \subseteq A^n$  with  $|C| = M$ .  $C$  is called an  $[n, M]$ -code over  $A$ .

**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 of messages (1-1 map)

**Assumptions about the communications channel**

- (1) The channel only transmits symbols from  $A$  (“hard decision decoding”).
- (2) No symbols are deleted, added, interchanged or transposed during transmission.
- (3) The channel is a  $q$ -symmetric channel:

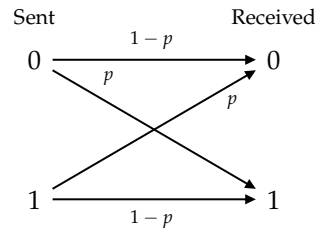
Let  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_q\}$ . Let  $X_i$  = the  $i^{\text{th}}$  symbol sent. Let  $Y_i$  = the  $i^{\text{th}}$  symbol received. Then for all  $i \geq 1$ , and all  $i \leq j, k \leq q$ ,

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

$p$  is called the **symbol error probability** of the channel ( $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ).

**Binary Symmetric Channel (BSC)**

A 2-symmetric channel is called a binary symmetric channel.



For a BSC:

1. If  $p = 0$ , the channel is *perfect*.
2. If  $p = 1/2$ , the channel is *useless*.
3. If  $1/2 < p \leq 1$ , then flipping all received bits converts the channel to a BSC with  $0 \leq p < 1/2$ .
4. Henceforth, we will assume that  $0 < p < 1/2$  for a BSC.

**Exercise:**

For a  $q$ -symmetric channel, show that one can take  $0 < p < \frac{q-1}{q}$  WLOG.

One can first consider the case  $q = 3$ .

**information rate**

The **information rate** (or rate)  $R$  of an  $[n, M]$ -code  $C$  over  $A$  is  $R = \frac{\log_q M}{n}$ .

If  $C$  encodes messages that are  $k$ -tuples over  $A$  (so  $M = |A^k| = q^k$ ), then  $R = \frac{k}{n}$ .

**Note:**

$0 \leq R \leq 1$ . Ideally,  $R$  should be close to 1.

**Example:**

The rate of the binary code  $C = \{00000, 11100, 00111, 10101\}$  is  $R = \frac{2}{5}$ .

**Hamming distance**

The **Hamming distance** (or distance) between two  $n$ -tuples over  $A$  is the number of coordinate positions in which they differ.

The Hamming distance (or distance) of an  $[n, M]$ -code  $C$  is  $d(C) = \min\{d(x, y) : x, y \in C, x \neq y\}$ .

**Example:**

The distance of  $C = \{00000, 11100, 00111, 10101\}$  is  $d(C) = 2$ .

**Theorem 1.1: properties of Hamming distance**

For all  $x, y, z \in A^n$ ,

1.  $d(x, y) \geq 0$ , with  $d(x, y) = 0$  iff  $x = y$ .
2.  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ .
3.  $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$  ( $\triangle$  inequality).

## 1.2 Decoding Strategy

**Example:**

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

**Error Detection** If  $C$  is used for error detection only, the strategy is the following: A received word  $r \in A^n$  is accepted if and only if  $r \in C$ .

**Error Correction** Let  $C$  be an  $[n, M]$ -code over  $A$  with distance  $d$ . Suppose  $c \in C$  is transmitted, and  $r \in A^n$  is received. The (channel) decoder must decide one of the following:

- (i) No errors have occurred; *accept*  $r$ .
- (ii) Errors have occurred; *correct*<sup>1</sup> (decode)  $r$  to a codeword  $c \in C$ ?
- (iii) Errors have occurred; *no correction is possible*.

### Nearest Neighbour Decoding

- (i) Incomplete Maximum Likelihood Decoding (IMLD):

If there is a unique codeword  $c \in C$  such that  $d(r, c)$  is minimum, then correct  $r$  to  $c$ . If no such  $c$  exists, then report that errors have occurred, but correction is not possible (ask for retransmission, or disregard information).

- (ii) Complete Maximum Likelihood Decoding (CMLD):

<sup>1</sup>Error correction does not guarantee that the channel decoder always makes the correct decision. For example, 00000  $\xrightarrow{\text{transmit}}$  11100 which is accepted.



Same as IMLD, except that if there are two or more  $c \in C$  for which  $d(r, c)$  is minimum, correct  $r$  to an arbitrary one of these.

Is IMLD a reasonable strategy?

### Theorem 1.2

IMLD chooses the codeword  $c$  for which the conditional probability

$$P(r|c) = P(r \text{ is received} | c \text{ is sent})$$

is largest.

**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

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

and the result follows.  $\square$

## Minimum Error Probability Decoding (MED)

An *ideal strategy* would be to correct  $r$  to a codeword  $c \in C$  for which  $P(c|r) = P(r \text{ is received} | c \text{ is sent})$  is largest. This is MED.

**Example: (IMLD/CMLD) is not the same as MED**

Consider  $C = \{000, 111\}$ . Suppose  $P(c_1) = 0.1$  and  $P(c_2) = 0.9$ . Suppose  $p = \frac{1}{4}$  (for a BSC).

$\begin{matrix} \uparrow & \uparrow \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{matrix}$

Suppose  $r = 100$  is the received word. Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(c_1|r) &= \frac{P(r|c_1) \cdot P(c_1)}{P(r)} = \frac{p(1-p)^2 \times 0.1}{P(r)} = \frac{9}{640} \cdot \frac{1}{P(r)} \\ P(c_2|r) &= \frac{P(r|c_2) \cdot P(c_2)}{P(r)} = \frac{(1-p)p^2 \times 0.9}{P(r)} = \frac{27}{640} \cdot \frac{1}{P(r)} \end{aligned}$$

So, MED decodes  $r$  to  $c_2$ . But IMLD decodes  $r$  to  $c_1$ .

## IMLD vs. MED

- IMLD maximizes  $P(r|c)$ . MED maximizes  $P(c|r)$ .
- (i) MED has the drawback that the decoding algorithm depends on the probability distribution of source messages.
- (ii) If all source messages are equally likely, then CMLD and MED are equivalent:

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

- (iii) In practice IMLD (or CMLD) is used.
- In this course, we will use IMLD/CMLD.

## 1.3 Error Correcting & Detecting Capabilities of a Code

### Detection Only

*Strategy:* If  $r$  is received, then accept  $r$  if and only if  $r \in C$ .

#### e-error detecting code

A code  $C$  is an  **$e$ -error detecting code** if the decoder always makes the correct decision if  $e$  or fewer errors per codeword are introduced by the channel.

**Example:**

Consider  $C = \{000, 111\}$ .

$C$  is a 2-error detecting code.

$C$  is not a 3-error detecting code.

#### Theorem 1.3

A code  $C$  of distance  $d$  is a  $(d-1)$ -error detecting code (but is not a  $d$ -error detecting code).

**Proof:**

Suppose  $c \in C$  is sent.

If no errors occur, then  $c$  is received (and is accepted).

Suppose that # of errors is  $\geq 1$  and  $\leq d-1$ ; let  $r$  be the received word. Then  $1 \leq d(r, c) \leq d-1$ , so  $r \notin C$ . Thus  $r$  is rejected. This proves that it is  $(d-1)$ -error detecting code.

Since  $d(C) = d$ , there exist  $c_1, c_2 \in C$  with  $d(c_1, c_2) = d$ . If  $c_1$  is sent and  $c_2$  is received, then  $c_2$  is accepted; the  $d$  errors go undetected.  $\square$

### Correction

*Strategy:* IMLD/CMLD

**e-error correcting code**

A code  $C$  is an  **$e$ -error correcting code** if the decoder always makes the correct decision if  $e$  or fewer errors per codeword are introduced by the channel.

**Example:**

Consider  $C = \{000, 111\}$ .

$C$  is a 1-error correcting code.

$C$  is not a 2-error correcting code.

**Theorem 1.4**

A code  $C$  of distance  $d$  is an  $e$ -error correcting code, where  $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ .

**Proof:**

Suppose that  $c \in C$  is sent, at most  $\frac{d-1}{2}$  errors are introduced, and  $r$  is received. Then  $d(r, c) \leq \frac{d-1}{2}$ .

On the other hand, if  $c_1$  is any other codeword, then

$$\begin{aligned} d(r, c_1) &\geq d(c, c_1) - d(r, c) && \triangle \text{ ineq} \\ &\geq d - \frac{d-1}{2} && \text{since } d(C) = d \\ &= \frac{d+1}{2} \\ &> \frac{d-1}{2} \geq d(r, c) \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $c$  is the unique codeword at minimum distance from  $r$ , so the decoder correctly concludes that  $c$  was sent.  $\square$

**Exercise:**

Suppose  $d(C) = d$ , and let  $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ . Show that  $C$  is *not* an  $(e+1)$ -error correcting code.

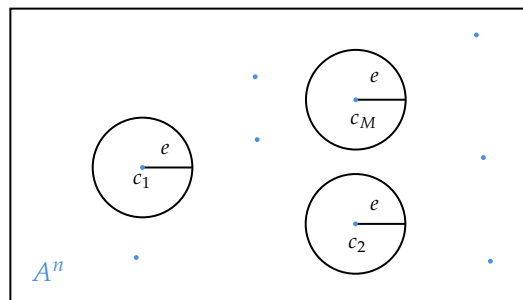
A natural question to ask is: given  $A, n, M, d$ , does there exist an  $[n, M]$ -code  $C$  over  $A$  of distance  $\geq d$ . This can be phrased as an equivalent sphere packing problem:

**Sphere packing**

Can we place  $M$  spheres of radius  $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$  in  $A^n$  so that no two spheres overlap?

$C = \{c_1, \dots, c_M\}$ ,  $e = \lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \rfloor$ ,  $S_c =$  sphere of radius  $e$  centered at  $c$  = all words within distance  $e$  of  $c$ .

We proved: if  $c_1, c_2 \in C$ ,  $c_1 \neq c_2$ , then  $S_{c_1} \cap S_{c_2} = \emptyset$ .



Let  $n = 128, q = 2, M = 2^{64}$ . Does there exist a binary  $[n, M]$ -code with  $d \geq 22$ ? If so, can encoding and decoding be done efficiently?

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. We will construct such a code at the end of the course. The main tools used will be linear algebra (over finite fields) and abstract algebra (rings and fields).

# Introduction to Finite Fields

## 2.1 Definitions

### ring

A **(commutative) ring**  $(R, +, \cdot)$  consists of a set  $R$  and two operations  $+: R \times R \rightarrow R$  and  $\cdot: R \times R \rightarrow R$ , such that

1.  $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c \quad \forall a, b, c \in R.$
2.  $a + b = b + a, \quad \forall a, b \in R.$
3.  $\exists 0 \in R$  such that  $a + 0 = a, \forall a \in R.$
4.  $\forall a \in R, \exists -a \in R$  such that  $a + (-a) = 0.$
5.  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c, \quad \forall a, b, c \in R.$
6.  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a, \quad \forall a, b \in R.$
7.  $\exists 1 \in R, 1 \neq 0$ , such that  $a \cdot 1 = a, \quad \forall a \in R.$
8.  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c, \quad \forall a, b, c \in R.$

**Notation** We will denote  $(R, +, \cdot)$  by  $R$ .

**Example:**

$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}$  are commutative rings.

### field

A **field**  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a commutative ring with the additional property:

9.  $\forall a \in F, a \neq 0, \exists a^{-1} \in F$  such that  $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1.$

**Example:**

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

**infinite/finite field**

A field  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a **finite field** if  $F$  is a finite set; otherwise it is an **infinite field**. If  $F$  is a finite field, its **order** is  $|F|$ .

**Example:**

$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$  are infinite fields.

For which integers  $n \geq 2$  does there *exist* a finite field of order  $n$ ? How does one *construct* such a field, i.e., what are the field elements, and how are the field operations performed?

**The Integers Modulo  $n$** 

Let  $n \geq 2$ . Recall that  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  consists of the set of equivalence classes of integers modulo  $n$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], [2], \dots, [n-1]\}$ , with addition and multiplication:  $[a] + [b] = [a + b]$ ,  $[a] \cdot [b] = [a \cdot b]$ .

More simply, we write  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ , and perform addition and multiplication modulo  $n$ .

**Example:**

$\mathbb{Z}_9 = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 8\}$ . In  $\mathbb{Z}_9$ ,  $3 + 7 = 1$  and  $3 \cdot 7 = 3$ .

More precisely,  $3 + 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{9}$  and  $3 \cdot 7 \equiv 3 \pmod{9}$ .

$\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a commutative ring (i.e., axioms 1-8 in the definition are satisfied).

When is  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  a field?

**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,  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ . Hence  $\exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $as + nt = 1$ . Reducing both sides modulo  $n$  gives  $as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Hence  $a^{-1} = s$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a field.

$\Rightarrow$  Suppose  $n$  is composite, say  $n = ab$  where  $2 \leq a, b \leq n-1$ .

Now, if  $a^{-1}$  exists, say  $ac \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then  $abc \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , so  $nc \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . Thus  $b \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ , so  $n \mid b$  which is absurd since  $2 \leq b \leq n-1$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is not a field.

□

We have established the existence of finite fields of order  $n$ , for each prime  $n$ . What about finite fields of order  $n$ , where  $n$  is composite? In particular, is there a field of order 4? Order 6?

**characteristic**

Let  $F$  be a field. The **characteristic** of  $F$ , denoted  $\text{char}(F)$ , is the smallest positive integer  $m$  such that  $\underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_m = 0$ . If no such  $m$  exists, then  $\text{char}(F) = 0$ .

**Example:**

$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$  have characteristic 0.  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  ( $p$  prime) has characteristic  $p$ .

**Theorem 2.2**

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

**Proof:**

The elements  $1, 1+1, 1+1+1, \dots$  are distinct, because if  $\underbrace{1+\dots+1}_a = \underbrace{1+\dots+1}_b$  where  $a < b$ , then  $(\underbrace{1+\dots+1}_b) - (\underbrace{1+\dots+1}_a) = 1+\dots+1_{b-a} = 0$ , contradicting  $\text{char}(F) = 0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.3**

Let  $F$  be a field with  $\text{char}(F) = m \neq 0$ . Then  $m$  is prime.

**Proof:**

Suppose  $m$  is composite, say  $m = ab$  where  $2 \leq a, b \leq m-1$ . Let  $s = \underbrace{1+\dots+1}_a$  and  $t = \underbrace{1+\dots+1}_b$ ; note that  $s, t \neq 0$ . Then  $s \cdot t = (\underbrace{1+\dots+1}_a) \cdot (\underbrace{1+\dots+1}_b) = \underbrace{1+\dots+1}_{ab=m} = 0$ . Thus

$$s \cdot t \cdot t^{-1} = s \cdot 1 = s = 0,$$

a contradiction. We then conclude that  $m$  is prime.  $\square$

Let  $F$  be a finite field of characteristic  $p$ . Consider the subset of elements of  $F$ :

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

The elements of  $E$  are distinct. One can verify that  $E$  is a field, using the same operations as  $F$ .  $E$  is a **subfield** of  $F$ . If we identify the elements of  $E$  with the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  in the natural way, then  $E$  is essentially the same field as  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . We have proven:

**Theorem 2.4**

Let  $F$  be a finite field of char  $p$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a subfield of  $F$ .

## Finite fields as vector spaces

Let  $F$  be a finite field of characteristic  $p$ . Identify:

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

Then  $F$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  (i.e., the axioms of what it means to be a vector space are satisfied).

## 2.2 Finite fields: Non-existence

**Theorem 2.5**

Let  $F$  be a finite field of characteristic  $p$ . Then the order of  $F$  is  $p^n$ , for some positive integer  $n$ .

**Proof:**

Let the dimension of  $F$  as a vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  be  $n$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  be a basis for  $F$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Then each element  $\beta \in F$  can be written uniquely in the form  $\beta = c_1\alpha_1 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n$ , where  $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Thus  $F = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n c_i\alpha_i : c_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p \right\}$ , so  $|F| = p^n$ .  $\square$

For example, there do not exist finite fields of order 6, 10, 12, 14, 15, ...

Do finite fields of orders 4, 8, 9, 16, 25, 27, ... exist?

## 2.3 Existence of finite fields

**Polynomial rings** Let  $F$  be a field.  $F[x]$  denotes the set of all polynomials in  $x$  with coefficients from  $F$ . Addition and multiplication of polynomials in  $F[x]$  is done in the usual way, with coefficient arithmetic done in  $F$ .

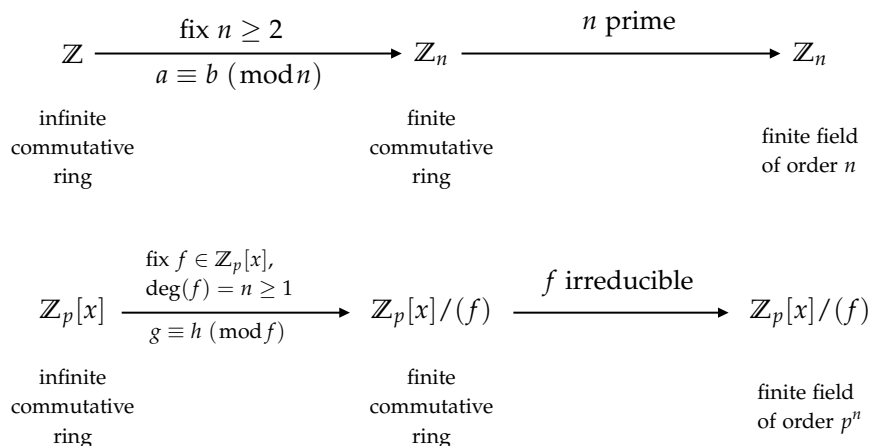
**Example:**

In  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (3x^4 + 2x^3 + x + 4) + (x^5 + 2x^4 + x^2 + 2x + 3) &= x^5 + 2x^3 + x^2 + 3x + 2 \\ (3x^2 + 4x + 1) \cdot (2x^2 + x + 2) &= (x^4 + x^3 + 2x^2 + 4x + 2). \end{aligned}$$

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

### Construction of finite fields: main idea



### Polynomial division

Let  $f, g \in F[x]$ , with  $g \neq 0$ . Then there exist unique polynomials  $r, s \in F[x]$  such that  $f = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{quotient}}}{s}g + \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{remainder}}}{r}$ ,  $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$ . By convention,  $\deg(0) = -\infty$ .



**Example:**

Consider  $f = 3x^4 + 2x^2 + x + 1, g = 2x^2 + 3x + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ .

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{2x^2 + 3x + 4} \quad \quad \quad 4x^2 \quad +3 \\
 2x^2 + 3x + 4 \ ) \quad 3x^4 \quad +2x^3 \quad +2x^2 \quad +x \quad +1 \\
 \underline{\phantom{2x^2 + 3x + 4} \quad 3x^4 \quad +2x^3 \quad +x^2} \phantom{+1} \\
 \phantom{2x^2 + 3x + 4} \phantom{3x^4 + 2x^3} \quad \quad \quad x^2 \quad +x \quad +1 \\
 \phantom{2x^2 + 3x + 4} \phantom{3x^4 + 2x^3} \phantom{x^2 + x} \quad \quad \quad \underline{x^2 \quad +4x \quad +2} \\
 \phantom{2x^2 + 3x + 4} \phantom{3x^4 + 2x^3} \phantom{x^2 + x} \phantom{x^2 + 4x} \quad \quad \quad 2x \quad +4
 \end{array}$$

So,  $f = (4x^2 + 3)g + (2x + 4)$ .

**The ring  $F[x]/(f)$** 

$$g \equiv h \pmod{f}$$

Let  $f \in F[x]$  with  $\deg(f) \geq 1$ . Let  $g, h \in F[x]$ . Then  $g$  is congruent to  $h$  modulo  $f$ , written  $g \equiv h \pmod{f}$ , if  $g - h = \ell f$  for some  $\ell \in F[x]$  (equivalently,  $f \mid (g - h)$ , or  $g, h$  leave the same remainder upon division by  $f$ ).

The relation  $\equiv \pmod{f}$  is an equivalence relation, and partitions  $F[x]$  into equivalence classes:

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

Addition & multiplication:  $[g] + [h] = [g + h], [g] \cdot [h] = [g \cdot h]$ .

$$F[x]/(f)$$

The set of equivalence classes is denoted  $F[x]/(f)$ .

**Theorem 2.6**

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

Suppose now that  $\deg(f) = n$ . Let  $g \in F[x]$ . Then we can write  $g = sf + r$ , where  $s, r \in F[x]$ , and  $\deg(r) < n$ . Thus  $g \equiv r \pmod{f}$ , so  $[g] = [r]$ .

If  $r_1, r_2 \in F[x], r_1 \neq r_2, \deg(r_1), \deg(r_2) < n$ , then  $f \nmid (r_1 - r_2)$ , so  $r_1 \not\equiv r_2 \pmod{f}$ . Thus  $[r_1] \neq [r_2]$ .

Thus the polynomials in  $F[x]$  of degree  $< n$  are a complete set of representatives of the equivalence classes of  $F[x]/(f)$ .

Now, let  $F = \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f) = \{[r] : r \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x], \deg(r) < n\}$ . Thus  $|\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)| = p^n$ , so  $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)$  is a commutative ring of order  $p^n$ .

When is  $F[x]/(f)$  a field?

**irreducible over  $F$** 

Let  $f \in F[x]$ , with  $\deg(f) \geq 1$ . Then **irreducible over  $F$**  if  $f$  cannot be written as  $f = g \cdot h$ ,  $g, h \in F[x], \deg(g) \geq 1, \deg(h) \geq 1$ .

**Example:**

$x^2 + 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{R}$ , since it has no roots in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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

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

$x^2 + 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ , since it has no roots in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ .

### Theorem 2.7

$F[x]/(f)$  is a field if and only if  $f$  is irreducible over  $F$ .

**Proof:**

Analogous to the proof of the theorem:  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a field if and only if  $n$  is prime. □

Now let's construct finite fields.

### Theorem 2.8

Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$  be an irreducible polynomial of degree  $n \geq 1$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]/(f)$  is a finite field of order  $p^n$  and characteristic  $p$ . The elements are the polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$  of degree  $< n$ .

**Example: finite field of order  $4 = 2^2$**

Here  $p = 2$  and  $n = 2$ . Let  $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$ ,  $f(1) = 1$ , so  $f$  has no roots in  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ . Thus  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

So,  $F = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$  is a finite field of order  $2^2 = 4$ . The elements are  $\{0, 1, x, x + 1\}$  where  $[\ ]$  is omitted.

Example of addition:  $x + (x + 1) = 1$

Example of multiplication:  $x \cdot (x + 1) = x^2 + x = 1$

**Example: finite field of order  $2^3 = 8$**

Here,  $p = 2$  and  $n = 3$ . We need an irreducible polynomial. We need an irreducible polynomial of degree 3 over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

**Candidates:**  $x^3, x^3 + 1, x^3 + x, x^3 + x + 1, x^3 + x^2, x^3 + x^2 + 1, x^3 + x^2 + x, x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$

- Try  $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1$ .

Since  $f(0) = f(1) = 1$ ,  $f$  has no roots in  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ , and thus no linear factors in  $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ . Thus  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ , and  $F_1 = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$  is a finite field of order  $2^3 = 8$ .

The elements of  $F_1$  are  $\{0, 1, x, x + 1, x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x, x^2 + x + 1\}$ .

Example of addition:  $(x^2 + x) + (x^2 + x + 1) = 1$ .

Example of multiplication:  $(x^2 + x) \cdot (x^2 + x + 1) = x^4 + x = x^2$ .

Example of inversion:  $x^{-1} = x^2 + 1$ , since  $x \cdot (x^2 + 1) = 1$ .

- $x^3 + x^2 + 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ , so  $F_2 = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$  is a finite field of order 8. The elements of  $F_2$  are  $\{0, 1, x, x + 1, x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x, x^2 + x + 1\}$ .

Note that  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are not the same field. For example, in  $F_1$ ,  $x \cdot x^2 = x + 1$ , whereas in  $F_2$ ,  $x \cdot x^2 = x^2 + 1$ . However,  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are isomorphic (essentially the same). Formally, there is a bijection  $\phi : F_1 \rightarrow F_2$  such that  $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$  and  $\phi(a \cdot b) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b) \forall a, b \in F_1$ .

## Existence and uniqueness of finite fields

Let  $p$  be prime and  $n \geq 1$ . Then there exists an irreducible polynomial of degree  $n$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

### Theorem 2.9

There exists a finite field of order  $q$  if and only if  $q = p^n$  for some prime  $p$  and  $n \geq 1$ .

Actually, any two finite fields of the same order are isomorphic.

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

In the previous example, we saw two ways of representing the finite field  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ .

## 2.4 Properties of finite fields

### Theorem 2.10: Frosh’s dream

Let  $F$  be a finite field of characteristic  $p$ , and let  $\alpha, \beta \in F$ . Then  $(\alpha + \beta)^{p^m} = \alpha^{p^m} + \beta^{p^m} \forall m \geq 1$ .

**Proof ( $m = 1$ ):**

By the Binomial Theorem,

$$(\alpha + \beta)^p = \binom{p}{0}\alpha^p + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i}\alpha^i\beta^{p-i} + \binom{p}{p}\beta^p.$$

Now for  $1 \leq i \leq p-1$ ,

$$\binom{p}{i} = \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)\cdots(p-i+1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

since  $p$  divides the numerator but not the denominator, and since  $\binom{p}{i}$  is an integer. Thus

$$\binom{p}{i}\alpha^i\beta^{p-i} = \underbrace{\alpha^i\beta^{p-i} + \cdots + \alpha^i\beta^{p-i}}_{\binom{p}{i}} = (1 + \cdots + 1)\alpha^i\beta^{p-i} = 0.$$

Hence  $(\alpha + \beta)^p = \alpha^p + \beta^p$ . The statement for  $m \geq 1$  can be proven by induction. □

## The multiplicative group $\text{GF}(q)^*$

### multiplicative group of $\text{GF}(q)$

The **multiplicative group** of  $\text{GF}(q)$  is  $\text{GF}(q)^* = \text{GF}(q) \setminus \{0\}$ .

### Theorem 2.11

Let  $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$ . Then  $\alpha^{q-1} = 1$ .

Note that if  $\text{GF}(q) = \mathbb{Z}_p$ , this is Fermat’s Little Theorem.

**Proof:**

Let the (distinct) elements of  $\text{GF}(q)^*$  be  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{q-1}$ . Consider the (nonzero) elements  $\alpha\alpha_1, \alpha\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha\alpha_{q-1}$ . These elements are distinct because if  $\alpha\alpha_i = \alpha\alpha_j$  for some  $i \neq j$ , then  $\alpha^{-1}(\alpha\alpha_i) = \alpha^{-1}(\alpha\alpha_j)$ , so  $\alpha_i = \alpha_j$ , a contradiction. Hence  $\{\alpha\alpha_1, \alpha\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha\alpha_{q-1}\} = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{q-1}\}$ , so

$$(\alpha\alpha_1)(\alpha\alpha_2) \cdots (\alpha\alpha_{q-1}) = \alpha_1\alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_{q-1}.$$

Cancelling gives  $\alpha^{q-1} = 1$ . □

**Corollary 2.12**

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

**Order of finite elements****order of  $\alpha$** 

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

**Theorem 2.13**

Let  $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$ ,  $\text{ord}(\alpha) = t$ . Then  $\alpha^s = 1$  if and only if  $t \mid s$ .

**Proof:**

Let  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then long division of  $s$  by  $t$  yields

$$s = \ell t + r, \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r < t.$$

Now,  $\alpha^s = \alpha^{\ell t + r} = (\alpha^t)^\ell \cdot \alpha^r = \alpha^r$ . Hence  $\alpha^s = 1 \iff \alpha^r = 1 \iff r = 0 \iff t \mid s$ . □

**Corollary 2.14**

Let  $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$ . Then  $\text{ord}(\alpha) \mid (q-1)$ .

**Example:**

There is only one element in  $\text{GF}(q)$  of order 1, namely the element 1.

**Example:**

Consider  $\text{GF}(2^3) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$ . The order of  $\alpha = x^2 + 1$  is 7.

**Example:**

Consider  $\text{GF}(2^4) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$ .

$f(x) = x^4 + x + 1$  has no roots in  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ , thus no linear factors. Also,  $f(x)$  has no irreducible quadratic factors, since  $(x^2 + x + 1) \nmid f(x)$ . Note here  $x^2, x^2 + 1, x^2 + x$  are reducible quadratic polynomials. Thus  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

Find  $\text{ord}(x)$  in  $\text{GF}(2^4)$ .

**Solution:** We have  $x^1 = x, x^2 = x^2, x^3 = x^3, x^4 = x + 1, x^5 = x^2 + x \neq 1$ . Thus  $\text{ord}(x) \neq 1, 3, 5$ . Since  $\text{ord}(x) \mid 15$ , we must have  $\text{ord}(x) = 15$ .

Let  $\alpha \in \text{GF}(q)^*$  with  $\text{ord}(\alpha) = t$ . Then the elements  $\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{t-1}$  are distinct. In particular, if

$\text{ord}(\alpha) = q - 1$ , then  $\text{GF}(q)^* = \{\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{q-2}\}$ .

#### generator

A **generator** of  $\text{GF}(q)^*$  is an element of order  $q - 1$ .

#### Example:

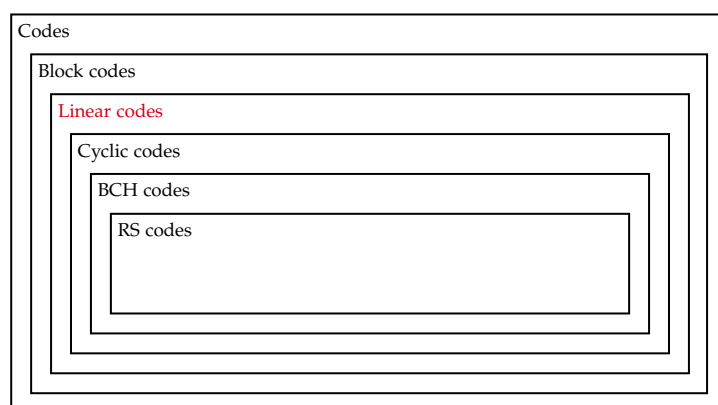
$\alpha = x$  is a generator of  $\text{GF}(2^4) = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$  since  $\text{ord}(x) = 15$ . Let's verify the above fact:

$$\begin{array}{llll} x^0 = 1, & x^1 = x, & x^2 = x^2, & x^3 = x^3, \\ x^4 = x + 1, & x^5 = x^2 + x, & x^6 = x^3 + x^2, & x^7 = x^3 + x + 1, \\ x^8 = x^2 + 1, & x^9 = x^3 + x, & x^{10} = x^2 + x + 1, & x^{11} = x^3 + x^2 + x, \\ x^{12} = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1, & x^{13} = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1, & x^{14} = x^3 + 1, & x^{15} = 1. \end{array}$$

#### Theorem 2.15

Every finite field  $\text{GF}(q)$  has a generator.

# Linear codes



## 3.1 Definition

Let  $F = \text{GF}(q)$ . Let  $V_n(F) = \underbrace{F \times \cdots \times F}_n$ .  $V_n(F)$  is an  $n$ -dimensional space over  $F$ .  $|V_n(F)| = q^n$ .

**linear  $(n, k)$ -code over  $F$**

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

Recall a *subspace*  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  over  $F$  is non-empty subset  $S \subseteq V$  such that:

$$(i) a, b \in S \implies a + b \in S, (ii) a \in S, \lambda \in F \implies \lambda a \in S.$$

If  $S$  is a subspace of  $V$ , then  $S$  is itself a vector space over  $F$ ; also  $0 \in S$ . A *basis* of  $S$  is a linearly independent, spanning subset of  $S$ . All bases of  $S$  have the same cardinality, called the *dimension* of  $S$ .

## 3.2 Properties of Linear Codes

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

### 1. Number of codewords

The elements of  $C$  are precisely

$$c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k, \quad c_i \in F.$$

Thus,  $|C| = M = q^k$ .

### 2. Rate

The rate of  $C$  is  $R = \frac{\log_q M}{n} = \frac{\log_q q^k}{n} = \frac{k}{n}$ .

### 3. Weight

#### Hamming weight

The **Hamming weight**  $w(v)$  of a vector  $v \in V_n(F)$  is the number of nonzero coordinates in  $v$ . The **Hamming weight** of a linear code  $C$  is  $w(C) = \min\{w(c) : c \in C, c \neq 0\}$ .

#### Theorem 3.1

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

**Proof:**

We have

$$\begin{aligned} d(C) &= \min\{d(x, y) : x, y \in C, x \neq y\} \\ &= \min\{w(x - y) : x, y \in C, x \neq y\} && \text{since } d(x, y) = w(x - y) \\ &= \min\{w(c) : c \in C, c \neq 0\} && \text{since } C \text{ is linear, } x - y \in C \\ &= w(C). \end{aligned}$$

### 4. Encoding

Since there are  $q^k$  codewords, there are also  $q^k$  source messages. We shall assume that source messages are the elements of  $F^k$ . Then a convenient and natural bijection (i.e., *encoding rule*) between  $F^k$  and  $C$  is defined by:

$$m = (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k) \mapsto c = m_1v_1 + m_2v_2 + \cdots + m_kv_k.$$

Note that different ordered bases for  $C$  yield different encoding rules.

### 5. Generator matrix

A convenient way to represent  $C$ .

#### generator matrix

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

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

Note that the encoding rule is  $c = mG$ .

**Example: linear code**

Consider the  $(5,3)$ -binary code:

$$C = \langle \underset{c_1}{10011}, \underset{c_2}{01001}, \underset{c_3}{00110} \rangle$$

and  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are linearly independent over  $\text{GF}(2)$ .

A generator matrix for  $C$  is  $G = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|cc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]_{3 \times 5}$

The encoding rule (with respect to the ordered basis  $\{c_1, c_2, c_3\}$ ) is  $c = mG$ .

$$\begin{array}{lll} 000 \rightarrow 00000 & 100 \rightarrow 10011 \\ 001 \rightarrow 00110 & 101 \rightarrow 10101 \\ 010 \rightarrow 01001 & 110 \rightarrow 11010 \\ 011 \rightarrow 01111 & 111 \rightarrow 11100 \end{array}$$

Other properties:  $M = |C| = 2^3 = 8$ ,  $R = 3/5$ ,  $d(C) = w(C) = 2$ .

## Standard form GM

### standard form generator matrix

Let  $C$  be an  $(n, k)$ -code over  $F$ . A GM  $G$  for  $C$  of the form  $G = [I_k | A]_{k \times n}$  is said to be in **standard form**.

### systematic code

If  $C$  has a GM in standard form, then  $C$  is a **systematic code**.

**Example: systematic/non-systematic code**

$C = \langle 100011, 001001, 000110 \rangle$  is a *non-systematic*  $(6,3)$ -binary code.

But  $C' = \langle 10011, 001001, 010010 \rangle$  is *systematic*. A GM for  $C'$  is

$$G = \left[ \begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

### equivalent codes

Two codes  $C, C'$  over  $F$  are **equivalent** if  $C'$  can be obtained from  $C$  by choosing a permutation of the coordinate positions  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , and then consistently rearranging every codeword of  $C$  according to this permutation.

Below are some facts of equivalent codes:

1. If  $C$  is linear, and  $C'$  is equivalent to  $C$ , then  $C'$  is linear.
2. Equivalent codes have the same length, dimension, distance.
3. Every linear code is equivalent to a systematic code.



### 3.3 The Dual Code

#### inner product

Let  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in V_n(F)$ . The **inner product** of  $x$  and  $y$  is

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

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

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.  $x \cdot x$  does *not* imply that  $x = 0$ .

#### Example:

Consider  $x = 111100 \in V_6(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ . Then  $x \cdot x = 0$ , but  $x \neq 0$ . More generally, if  $x \in V_n(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ , then  $x \cdot x = 0$  if and only if  $w(x)$  is even.

#### orthogonal vectors

Two vectors  $x, y$  are **orthogonal** if  $x \cdot y = 0$ .

#### dual code

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

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

#### 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  $G$  be a GM for  $C$ , and let the rows of  $G$  be  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ .

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

Let's prove the claim.

$(\Rightarrow)$  is clear since  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \in C$ .

$(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose  $v \in C$ . Then we can write  $v = \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_k v_k$ , where  $\lambda_i \in F$ . Then

$$v \cdot x = (\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_k v_k) \cdot x = \lambda_1 (v_1 \cdot x) + \dots + \lambda_k (v_k \cdot x) = 0.$$

Thus,  $C^\perp = \{x \in V_n(F) : Gx^T = 0\} = \text{null space of } G$ . Since  $G$  has rank  $k$ ,  $C^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V_n(F)$  of dimension  $n - k$ .  $\square$

### 3.4 Parity-Check Matrix

Let  $G$  be a GM for a linear code  $C$ . Then  $C^\perp = \text{null space of } G$ .

#### 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.

Furthermore,  $(C^\perp)^\perp$  is an  $(n, k)$ -code, and  $C \subseteq (C^\perp)^\perp$ .

Since  $\dim(C) = \dim((C^\perp)^\perp)$ , it follows that  $C = (C^\perp)^\perp$ . □

#### parity-check matrix

If  $C$  is a linear code, then a generator matrix  $H$  for  $C^\perp$  is called a **parity-check matrix** (PCM) for  $C$ .

#### Note:

$H$  is an  $(n - k) \times n$  matrix.

$C$  has many PCMs.

### Constructing a GM for $C^\perp$

#### Theorem 3.4

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

Note that  $A$  is  $k \times (n - k)$  matrix.

#### Proof:

Since  $\text{rank}(H) = n - k$ ,  $H$  is a GM for an  $(n, n - k)$ -code  $\bar{C}$ . Also,

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

Thus  $\bar{C} \subseteq C^\perp$ . Since  $\dim(\bar{C}) = \dim(C^\perp)$ , we have  $\bar{C} = C^\perp$ . Hence  $H$  is a GM for  $C^\perp$ . □

#### Example:

Consider the  $(5, 2)$ -code  $C$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  with GM  $G = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find a PCM for  $C$ .

**Solution** Find a GM for  $C$  in standard form:

$$G \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftarrow 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So,

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a PCM for  $C$ .

We have

$$C = \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} 00000, & 20210, & 10120, \\ 11001, & 22002, & 01211, \\ 02122, & 21121, & 12212 \end{array} \right\}$$

Thus  $d(C) = w(C) = 3, R = 2/5$ .

### Notes on PCMs

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

1. An  $(n - k) \times n$  matrix  $H$  over  $F$  is a PCM for  $C$  iff  $GH^T = 0$  and  $\text{rank}(H) = n - k$ .

# Index

---

## A

alphabet ..... 5

## B

block code ..... 5

## C

characteristic ..... 13  
code ..... 5  
codeword ..... 5

## D

dual code ..... 24

## E

e-error correcting code ..... 10  
e-error detecting code ..... 9  
equivalent codes ..... 23

## F

field ..... 12  
finite field ..... 13

## G

generator ..... 20  
generator matrix ..... 22

## H

Hamming distance ..... 7  
Hamming weight ..... 22

## I

infinite field ..... 13  
information rate ..... 6  
inner product ..... 24  
irreducible over  $F$  ..... 16

## L

length ..... 5  
linear  $(n, k)$ -code over  $F$  ..... 21

## M

multiplicative group of  $\text{GF}(q)$  ..... 18

## O

order of  $\alpha$  ..... 19  
order of a field ..... 13  
orthogonal code ..... 24  
orthogonal vectors ..... 24

## P

parity-check matrix ..... 25

## R

ring ..... 12

**S**

standard form generator matrix ..... 23  
subfield ..... 14  
symbol error probability ..... 6

systematic code ..... 23

**W**

word ..... 5