# Finite fields: An introduction 

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(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Further definitions
- Examples
- The structure of finite fields
(2) Classical codes over finite fields
- Introduction
- Linear codes: basic properties
- Encoding methods
- Hamming distance as a metric
- A field $(\mathrm{F},+, \cdot)$ is a set $F$, together with two binary operations on $F \times F$ denoted by + (addition) and $\cdot$ (multiplication) such that:
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3) The multiplication operation is distributive over the addition.

## Observation

A field does not contain any divizors of zero, that is, for any $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$, $a b=0$ implies either $a=0$ or $b=0$. This property is extremely important in solving systems of linear equations.

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## Observation

If $\mathbb{K}$ is a subfield of a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{p}, p$ prime, then $\mathbb{K}$ must contain the elements 0 and 1 , and so all other elements of $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ by the closure of $\mathbb{K}$ under addition. Then $\mathbb{F}$ does not contain any proper subfield. We are led to the following concept.

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- The intersection of any nonempty collection of subfields of a given field $\mathbb{F}$ is again a subfield. The intersection of all subfields of $\mathbb{F}$ is called the prime subfield of $\mathbb{F}$.
- The characteristic of a field $\mathbb{F}$ is the smallest integer $n$ such that $1+1+\cdots+1(n$ times $)=0$.


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- The set $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ of integers modulo $p$, where $p$ is prime. This is a finite field with $p$ elements, usually denoted by $\mathbb{F}_{p}$.
- Taking $p=2$, we obtain the smallest field, $\mathbb{F}_{2}$, which has only two elements: 0 and 1 . This field has important uses in computer science, especially in cryptography and coding theory.


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- It follows that either $\left(n_{1} \cdot 1\right) a=n_{1} a=0$ or $\left(n_{2} \cdot 1\right) a=n_{2} a=0$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}$, in contradiction to the definition of the characteristic $n$, hence the characteristic is zero or prime.


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Observation: The field of rational numbers, real numbers and complex numbers all have characteristic zero.

## Lemma 2

Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field containing a subfield $\mathbb{K}$ with $q$ elements. Then $\mathbb{F}$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$ and $|\mathbb{F}|=q^{m}$, where $m$ is the dimension of $\mathbb{F}$ viwed as a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$.

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- Every $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ can be written uniquely as $\alpha=a_{1} \beta_{1}+\cdots+a_{m} \beta_{m}$, where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{K}$ and the sequence $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}$ is uniquely determined by $\alpha$.


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- There are $|\mathbb{K}|^{m}=q^{m}$ distinct sequences of coefficients, because there are $|\mathbb{K}|=q$ choices for each $a_{i}$.


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The $m$ occuring in Lemma 2, which is the dimension of $\mathbb{F}$ as a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$, is called the degree of $\mathbb{F}$ over $\mathbb{K}$.

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## Proof. (of Theorem 2).

Since $\mathbb{F}$ is finite, its characteristic is prime (according to Lemma 1). Therefore the prime subfield $\mathbb{K}$ of $\mathbb{F}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, by Theorem 1 . By Lemma 2, the cardinality of $\mathbb{F}$ is just $|K|^{m}=p^{m}$.

## Theorem 3 (Existence of finite fields)

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- The previous theorem shows that a finite field of a given order is unique up to field isomorphism.
- Thus one speaks of "the" finite field of a particular order $q$. It is usually denoted by $G F(q)$, where $G$ stands for Galois (Evariste Galois, 1811-1832) and $F$ for field.


## Theorem 4 (Subfield structure)

Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field with $p^{n}$ elements. Every subfield of $\mathbb{F}$ has $p^{m}$ elements for some integer $m$ dividing $n$. Conversely, for any integer $m$ dividing $n$ there is a unique subfield of $\mathbb{F}$ of order $p^{m}$.

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## Theorem 5 (Multiplicative group structure)

For every finite field $\mathbb{F}$, the multiplicative group $(F \backslash\{0\}, \cdot)$ is cyclic.

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- One of the main problems in algebraic coding theory is to make the errors, which occur for instance because of noisy channels, extremely improbable.
- A basic idea is to transmit redundant information together with the original message one wants to communicate.
- In common applications, a message is considered to be a fixed finite word on a fixed finite alphabet.
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- One requires a code to be injective so that one can decode the sequence that is receive.
- Main goal: detect and correct the errors.
- Usually the detection of errors is accomplished by noticing that the received sequence is not a codeword.
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- Error-correcting codes are often called algebraic codes because they are usually constructed using some algebraic system, very often a finite field.


## Linear codes: basic properties

## Definition

Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ denote the set of all $n$-tuples over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ :

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- The codewords are assumed to be elements of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ for some $n \geqslant k$.
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## Definition

A linear code $C$ is a subspace of the vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$. Such a code is called a $q$-ary code; the code is binary if $q=2$ and ternary if $q=3$. The number $n$ is the length of the code.

- Since a linear code $C$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, it will contain $q^{k}$ distinct codewords for some $k$ with $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n$. The integer $k$ is called the dimension of the linear code $C$.
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- One can also regard $k$ as the length of each uncoded message, for our messages will be elements from the set $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{k}$. We denote such a code $C$ as an $[\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}]$ linear code.
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- Example 1: the $q$-ary repetition code which acts by repeating the message $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ that is to be encoded a total of $n$ times: $a \rightarrow a \ldots a$. This is an $[n, 1]$ linear code.
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- Example 2: The binary parity - check code over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ : $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}\right)$. This is an $[n, n-1]$ linear code, but with no error-correcting ability.


## Encoding methods

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## Generator matrix

Let $G$ be a $k \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. The set $C=\left\{\mathbf{a} G \mid \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{k}\right\}$ is a linear code, of dimension $k$ equal to the rank of $G$.

## Hamming distance as a metric

## Definition

The Hamming distance $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ between two vectors $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ is defined as the number of coordinates where the vectors differ. The Hamming weight $w t(\mathbf{x})$ of a vector $\mathbf{x}$ is the number of coordinates where the vector is nonzero.

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## Proposition

The Hamming distance function is a metric. That is, for all vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ :
(1) $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \geqslant 0$.

## Hamming distance as a metric

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The Hamming distance $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ between two vectors $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ is defined as the number of coordinates where the vectors differ. The Hamming weight $w t(\mathbf{x})$ of a vector $\mathbf{x}$ is the number of coordinates where the vector is nonzero.

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The Hamming distance function is a metric. That is, for all vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ :
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If $C$ is a linear code, then the minimum distance $d_{C}$ of $C$ is defined as

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