# Finite fields: An introduction. Part II. 

Vlad Gheorghiu

Department of Physics
Carnegie Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213, U.S.A.

## August 7, 2008

(1) Brief review of Part I (Jul 2, 2008)
(2) Construction of finite fields

- Polynomials over finite fields
- Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{n}$.
- Examples
(3) Classical coding theory
- Decoding methods
- The Coset-Leader Algorithm
- Examples


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Examples


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Examples
- The structure of finite fields


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Examples
- The structure of finite fields
(2) Classical codes over finite fields
- Linear codes: basic properties


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Examples
- The structure of finite fields
(2) Classical codes over finite fields
- Linear codes: basic properties
- Encoding methods


## Brief review of Part I

(1) Finite fields

- Definitions
- Examples
- The structure of finite fields
(2) Classical codes over finite fields
- Linear codes: basic properties
- Encoding methods
- Hamming distance as a metric
- Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field. A polynomial over $\mathbb{F}$ is an expression of the form

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n} x^{n}
$$

where $n=\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is a nonnegative integer called the degree of $f(x)$, $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ and $x$ is a symbol not belonging to $\mathbb{F}$, called an indeterminate over $\mathbb{F}$.

## Polynomials over finite fields

- Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field. A polynomial over $\mathbb{F}$ is an expression of the form

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n} x^{n}
$$

where $n=\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is a nonnegative integer called the degree of $f(x)$, $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ and $x$ is a symbol not belonging to $\mathbb{F}$, called an indeterminate over $\mathbb{F}$.

- We can define the sum and product of two polynomials using the usual rules of addition and multiplication over $\mathbb{F}$.


## Polynomials over finite fields

- Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field. A polynomial over $\mathbb{F}$ is an expression of the form

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n} x^{n}
$$

where $n=\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is a nonnegative integer called the degree of $f(x)$, $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ and $x$ is a symbol not belonging to $\mathbb{F}$, called an indeterminate over $\mathbb{F}$.

- We can define the sum and product of two polynomials using the usual rules of addition and multiplication over $\mathbb{F}$.
- Example: let $f(x)=x^{2}+2 x+1$ and $g(x)=2 x+1$ be two polynomials over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$. Then

$$
f(x)+g(x)=x^{2}+x+2 \text { and } f(x) g(x)=2 x^{3}+2 x^{2}+x+1
$$

## Polynomials over finite fields

- Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a finite field. A polynomial over $\mathbb{F}$ is an expression of the form

$$
f(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+a_{n} x^{n}
$$

where $n=\operatorname{deg}(f)$ is a nonnegative integer called the degree of $f(x)$, $a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}$ for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ and $x$ is a symbol not belonging to $\mathbb{F}$, called an indeterminate over $\mathbb{F}$.

- We can define the sum and product of two polynomials using the usual rules of addition and multiplication over $\mathbb{F}$.
- Example: let $f(x)=x^{2}+2 x+1$ and $g(x)=2 x+1$ be two polynomials over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$. Then

$$
f(x)+g(x)=x^{2}+x+2 \text { and } f(x) g(x)=2 x^{3}+2 x^{2}+x+1
$$

- The polynomials over a finite field $\mathbb{F}$ form an integral domain and are denoted by $\mathbb{F}[x]$.


## Theorem 1: Division Algorithm

Let $g \neq 0$ be a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. Then for any $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ there exist polynomials $q, r \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$
f=q g+r, \text { where } \operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(g)
$$

## Theorem 1: Division Algorithm

Let $g \neq 0$ be a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. Then for any $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ there exist polynomials $q, r \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$
f=q g+r, \text { where } \operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(g)
$$

- Example: Consider $f(x)=2 x^{5}+x^{4}+4 x+3 \in \mathbb{F}_{5}[x]$, $g(x)=3 x^{2}+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{5}[x]$. Then $q(x)=4 x^{3}+2 x^{2}+2 x+1$ and $r(x)=2 x+2$, with $\operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(g)$.


## Theorem 1: Division Algorithm

Let $g \neq 0$ be a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. Then for any $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ there exist polynomials $q, r \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$
f=q g+r, \text { where } \operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(g)
$$

- Example: Consider $f(x)=2 x^{5}+x^{4}+4 x+3 \in \mathbb{F}_{5}[x]$, $g(x)=3 x^{2}+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{5}[x]$. Then $q(x)=4 x^{3}+2 x^{2}+2 x+1$ and $r(x)=2 x+2$, with $\operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(g)$.
- A polynomial with the leading term $a_{n}=1$ is called a monic polynomial. A polynomial of degree zero is called a constant polynomial.


## Theorem 2: Greatest Common Divisor

Let $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ not all of which are 0 . Then there exists a uniquely determined monic polynomial $d \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ with the following properties: (i) $d$ divides each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$; (ii) any polynomial $c \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ dividing each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$, divides $d$. Moreover, $d$ can be expressed in the form

$$
d=b_{1} f_{1}+b_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+b_{n} f_{n}, \text { with } b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{F}[x] .
$$

## Theorem 2: Greatest Common Divisor

Let $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ not all of which are 0 . Then there exists a uniquely determined monic polynomial $d \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ with the following properties: (i) $d$ divides each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$; (ii) any polynomial $c \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ dividing each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$, divides $d$. Moreover, $d$ can be expressed in the form

$$
d=b_{1} f_{1}+b_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+b_{n} f_{n}, \text { with } b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{F}[x] .
$$

- A polynomial $p \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ is said to be irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$ (or prime in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ ) if $p$ has positive degree and $p=b c$ with $b, c \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ implies that either $b$ or $c$ is a constant polynomial.


## Theorem 2: Greatest Common Divisor

Let $f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ not all of which are 0 . Then there exists a uniquely determined monic polynomial $d \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ with the following properties: (i) $d$ divides each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$; (ii) any polynomial $c \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ dividing each $f_{j}, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$, divides $d$. Moreover, $d$ can be expressed in the form

$$
d=b_{1} f_{1}+b_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+b_{n} f_{n}, \text { with } b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{F}[x] .
$$

- A polynomial $p \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ is said to be irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$ (or prime in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ ) if $p$ has positive degree and $p=b c$ with $b, c \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ implies that either $b$ or $c$ is a constant polynomial.
- Example: $x^{2}-2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is irreducible over the field $\mathbb{Q}$ of rational numbers, but $x^{2}-2=(x+\sqrt{2})(x-\sqrt{2})$ is reducible over the field $\mathbb{R}$ of real numbers.


## Theorem 3: Unique Factorization in $\mathbb{F}[x]$

Any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ of positive degree can be written in the form

$$
f=a p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{2_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}},
$$

where $a \in \mathbb{F}, p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct monic irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, and $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{k}$ are positive integers. Moreover, this factorization is unique apart from the order in which the factors occur.

## Theorem 3: Unique Factorization in $\mathbb{F}[x]$

Any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ of positive degree can be written in the form

$$
f=a p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{2_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}},
$$

where $a \in \mathbb{F}, p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct monic irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, and $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{k}$ are positive integers. Moreover, this factorization is unique apart from the order in which the factors occur.

- The above equation is called the canonical factorization of the polynomial $f$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.


## Theorem 3: Unique Factorization in $\mathbb{F}[x]$

Any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ of positive degree can be written in the form

$$
f=a p_{1}^{e_{1}} p_{2}^{2_{2}} \cdots p_{k}^{e_{k}},
$$

where $a \in \mathbb{F}, p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are distinct monic irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, and $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{k}$ are positive integers. Moreover, this factorization is unique apart from the order in which the factors occur.

- The above equation is called the canonical factorization of the polynomial $f$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.
- Central question about polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ : decide if it is reducible or not. Not a trivial problem.
- An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is called a root (or a zero) of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if $f(b)=0$.
- An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is called a root (or a zero) of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if $f(b)=0$.


## Theorem 4

An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is a root of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if and only if $x-b$ divides $f(x)$.

- An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is called a root (or a zero) of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if $f(b)=0$.


## Theorem 4

An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is a root of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if and only if $x-b$ divides $f(x)$.

- If $f$ is an irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree $\geqslant 2$, then Theorem 4 shows that $f$ has no root in $\mathbb{F}$. The converse holds for polynomials of degree 2 or 3 , but not necessarily for polynomials of higher degree.
- An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is called a root (or a zero) of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if $f(b)=0$.


## Theorem 4

An element $b \in \mathbb{F}$ is a root of the polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ if and only if $x-b$ divides $f(x)$.

- If $f$ is an irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree $\geqslant 2$, then Theorem 4 shows that $f$ has no root in $\mathbb{F}$. The converse holds for polynomials of degree 2 or 3 , but not necessarily for polynomials of higher degree.


## Theorem 5

The polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree 2 or 3 is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ if and only if $f$ has no root in $\mathbb{F}$.

## Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$

## Theorem 6

For $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, the residue class ring $\mathbb{F}[x] / f$ is a field if and only if $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$.

## Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$

## Theorem 6

For $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, the residue class ring $\mathbb{F}[x] / f$ is a field if and only if $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$.

In other words, to construct the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{n}$,

## Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$

## Theorem 6

For $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, the residue class ring $\mathbb{F}[x] / f$ is a field if and only if $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$.

In other words, to construct the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{n}$,
(1) Select a monic irreducible polynomial $f(x)$ of degree $n$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$ (it always exists).

## Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$

## Theorem 6

For $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, the residue class ring $\mathbb{F}[x] / f$ is a field if and only if $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$.

In other words, to construct the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{n}$,
(1) Select a monic irreducible polynomial $f(x)$ of degree $n$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$ (it always exists).
(2) The distinct residue classes comprising $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x] / f$ are described explicitly as $r+(f)$, where $r$ runs through all polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with $\operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(f)$. Two residue classes $g+(f)$ and $h+(f)$ are identical precisely if $g \equiv h \bmod f$, that is, $g-h$ is divisible by $f$. There are $p^{n}$ polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$, of degree smaller than $n$.

## Explicit construction of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$

## Theorem 6

For $f \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, the residue class ring $\mathbb{F}[x] / f$ is a field if and only if $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$.

In other words, to construct the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{n}$,
(1) Select a monic irreducible polynomial $f(x)$ of degree $n$ in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$ (it always exists).
(2) The distinct residue classes comprising $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x] / f$ are described explicitly as $r+(f)$, where $r$ runs through all polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with $\operatorname{deg}(r)<\operatorname{deg}(f)$. Two residue classes $g+(f)$ and $h+(f)$ are identical precisely if $g \equiv h \bmod f$, that is, $g-h$ is divisible by $f$. There are $p^{n}$ polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[x]$, of degree smaller than $n$.
(3) Identify each element of $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ by an equivalence class. Construct the field table by computing sums and product of polynomials modulo $f$.

## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+x+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$.


## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+x+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[x],[x+1]\}$.


## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+x+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[x],[x+1]\}$. The addition and multiplication tables are:


## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+x+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[x],[x+1]\}$. The addition and multiplication tables are:

| + | $[0]$ | $[1]$ | $[x]$ | $[x+1]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[0]$ | $[0]$ | $[1]$ | $[x]$ | $[x+1]$ |
| $[1]$ | $[1]$ | $[0]$ | $[x+1]$ | $[x]$ |
| $[x]$ | $[x]$ | $[x+1]$ | $[0]$ | $[1]$ |
| $[x+1]$ | $[x+1]$ | $[x]$ | $[1]$ | $[0]$ |

and

## Examples

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{4}$ (also called $G F(4)$ ).

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+x+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[x],[x+1]\}$. The addition and multiplication tables are:

| + | [0] | [1] | [ $x$ ] | [ $x+1$ ] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [0] | [0] | [1] | [ $x$ ] | [ $x+1$ ] |
| [1] | [1] | [0] | [ $x+1$ ] | 1] [x] |
| [ $x$ ] | [ $x$ ] | [ $x+1$ ] | 1] [0] | [1] |
| $[x+1]$ | [ $x+1$ ] | 1] [x] | [1] | [0] |
| and |  |  |  |  |
| * | [0] | [1] | [x] [x | $[x+1]$ |
| [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] | [0] |
| [1] | [0] | [1] | [x] [x | $[x+1]$ |
| [ $x$ ] | [0] | [x] [x | [ $x+1$ ] | [1] |
| [ $x+1$ ] | [0] [ $x$ | $[x+1]$ | [1] | [ $\times$ ] |

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{9}$.

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{9}$.

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{3}[x]$.

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{9}$.

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{3}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{3}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[2],[x],[x+1],[x+2],[2 x],[2 x+1],[2 x+2]\}$.

The finite field $\mathbb{F}_{9}$.

- Choose $f(x)=x^{2}+1 \in \mathbb{F}_{3}[x]$.
- The residue classes of $\mathbb{F}_{3}[x] / f$ are $\{[0],[1],[2],[x],[x+1],[x+2],[2 x],[2 x+1],[2 x+2]\}$.
- Construct the addition and multiplication table. Too much EATEXcode to be put in a single slide...


## Decoding methods

Theorem 7
A code $C$ with minimum distance $d_{C}$ can correct up to $t$ errors if $d_{C} \geqslant 2 t+1$.

## Decoding methods

## Theorem 7

A code $C$ with minimum distance $d_{C}$ can correct up to $t$ errors if $d_{C} \geqslant 2 t+1$.

## Proof.

A ball $B_{t}(\mathbf{x})$ of radius $t$ and center $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ consists of all vectors $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ such that $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leqslant t$. The nearest neighbor decoding rule ensures that each received word with $t$ or fewer errors must be in a ball of radius $t$ and center the transmitted code word. To correct $t$ errors, the balls with code words $\mathbf{x}$ as centers must not overlap. If $\mathbf{u} \in B_{t}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathbf{u} \in B_{t}(\mathbf{y})$, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in C, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$, then

$$
d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leqslant d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})+d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}) \leqslant 2 t
$$

a contradiction to $d_{C} \geqslant 2 t+1$.

The following lemma is useful for determining the minimum distance of a code

The following lemma is useful for determining the minimum distance of a code

Lemma 8
A linear code $C$ with parity-check matrix $H$ has minimum distance $D_{C} \geqslant s+1$ if and only if any $s$ columns of $H$ are linearly independent.

The following lemma is useful for determining the minimum distance of a code

## Lemma 8

A linear code $C$ with parity-check matrix $H$ has minimum distance $D_{C} \geqslant s+1$ if and only if any $s$ columns of $H$ are linearly independent.

## Proof.

Assume there are s linearly dependent columns of $H$, then $\mathrm{Hc}^{\top}=\mathbf{0}$ and $w t(\mathbf{c}) \leqslant s$ for suitable $\mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{c} \neq 0$, hence $d_{C} \leqslant s$. Similarly, if any $s$ columns of $H$ are linearly independent, then there is no $\mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{c} \neq 0$, of weight $\leqslant s$, hence $d_{C} \geqslant s+1$.

- Let $C$ be a $(n, k)$ linear code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.


## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

- Let $C$ be a $(n, k)$ linear code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.
- The vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n} / C$ consists of all cosets

$$
\mathbf{a}+C=\{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{c}: \mathbf{c} \in C\}
$$

with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.

## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

- Let $C$ be a $(n, k)$ linear code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.
- The vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n} / C$ consists of all cosets

$$
\mathbf{a}+C=\{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{c}: \mathbf{c} \in C\}
$$

with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.

- Each coset contains $q^{k}$ vectors and $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ can be regarded as being partitioned into cosets of $C$, namely


## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

- Let $C$ be a $(n, k)$ linear code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.
- The vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n} / C$ consists of all cosets

$$
\mathbf{a}+C=\{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{c}: \mathbf{c} \in C\}
$$

with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.

- Each coset contains $q^{k}$ vectors and $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ can be regarded as being partitioned into cosets of $C$, namely

$$
\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}=\left(\mathbf{a}^{(0)}+C\right) \cup\left(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}+C\right) \cup \cdots\left(\mathbf{a}^{(s)}+C\right)
$$

where $\mathbf{a}^{(0)}=\mathbf{0}$ and $s=q^{n-k}-1$.

## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

- Let $C$ be a $(n, k)$ linear code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.
- The vector space $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n} / C$ consists of all cosets

$$
\mathbf{a}+C=\{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{c}: \mathbf{c} \in C\}
$$

with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$.

- Each coset contains $q^{k}$ vectors and $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ can be regarded as being partitioned into cosets of $C$, namely

$$
\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}=\left(\mathbf{a}^{(0)}+C\right) \cup\left(\mathbf{a}^{(1)}+C\right) \cup \cdots\left(\mathbf{a}^{(s)}+C\right)
$$

where $\mathbf{a}^{(0)}=\mathbf{0}$ and $s=q^{n-k}-1$.

- A received vector $\mathbf{y}$ must be in one of the cosets, say $\mathbf{a}^{(i)}+C$. If the codeword $\mathbf{c}$ was transmitted, then the error is given by $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}=\mathbf{a}^{(i)}+\mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{a}^{(i)}+C$ for suitable $\mathbf{z} \in C$.
- All possible error vectors $\mathbf{e}$ of a received vector $\mathbf{y}$ are the vectors in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- All possible error vectors $\mathbf{e}$ of a received vector $\mathbf{y}$ are the vectors in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- The most likely error vector is the vector $\mathbf{e}$ with minimum weight in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- All possible error vectors $\mathbf{e}$ of a received vector $\mathbf{y}$ are the vectors in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- The most likely error vector is the vector $\mathbf{e}$ with minimum weight in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- Thus we decode $\mathbf{y}$ as $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{y}$ - $\mathbf{e}$.
- All possible error vectors $\mathbf{e}$ of a received vector $\mathbf{y}$ are the vectors in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- The most likely error vector is the vector $\mathbf{e}$ with minimum weight in the coset of $\mathbf{y}$.
- Thus we decode $\mathbf{y}$ as $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{y}$ - $\mathbf{e}$.


## Definition

Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ be a linear $(n, k)$ code and let $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{n} / C$ be the factor space. An element of minimum weight in a coset $\mathbf{a}+C$ is called coset leader of $\mathbf{a}+C$. If several vectors in $\mathbf{a}+C$ have minimum weight, we choose one of them as coset leader.

## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{\top}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{T}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Theorem 9

For $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ we have:

## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{T}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Theorem 9

For $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ we have:
(1) $S(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{y} \in C$

## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{T}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Theorem 9

For $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ we have:
(1) $S(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{y} \in C$
(2) $S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{z})$ if and only if $\mathbf{y}+C=\mathbf{z}+C$

## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{\top}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Theorem 9

For $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ we have:
(1) $S(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{y} \in C$
(2) $S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{z})$ if and only if $\mathbf{y}+C=\mathbf{z}+C$

## Proof.

- 1) follows immediately from the definition of $C$ in terms of $H$.


## Definition

Let $H$ be the parity-check matrix of a linear $(n, k)$ code $C$. Then the vector $S(\mathbf{y})=H \mathbf{y}^{\top}$ of length $n-k$ is called the syndrome of $\mathbf{y}$.

## Theorem 9

For $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ we have:
(1) $S(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{y} \in C$
(2) $S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{z})$ if and only if $\mathbf{y}+C=\mathbf{z}+C$

## Proof.

- 1) follows immediately from the definition of $C$ in terms of $H$.
- For 2) note that $S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{z})$ if and only if $\mathrm{Hy}^{\top}=H \mathbf{z}^{\top}$ if and only if $H(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z})^{T}=\mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z} \in C$ if and only if $\mathbf{y}+C=\mathbf{z}+C$.
- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then
- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then

$$
S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{c})+S(\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{e})
$$

- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then

$$
S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{c})+S(\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{e})
$$

and $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{e}$ are in the same coset. The coset leader of that coset also has the same syndrome. We have the following decoding algorithm.

- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then

$$
S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{c})+S(\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{e})
$$

and $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{e}$ are in the same coset. The coset leader of that coset also has the same syndrome. We have the following decoding algorithm.

## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

(1) Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ be a linear $(n, k)$ code and let $\mathbf{y}$ be the received vector.

- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then

$$
S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{c})+S(\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{e})
$$

and $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{e}$ are in the same coset. The coset leader of that coset also has the same syndrome. We have the following decoding algorithm.

## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

(1) Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ be a linear $(n, k)$ code and let $\mathbf{y}$ be the received vector.
(2) To correct errors in $\mathbf{y}$, calculate $S(\mathbf{y})$ and find the coset leader, say $\mathbf{e}$, with syndrome equal to $S(\mathbf{y}$.

- If $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c} \in C, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$, then

$$
S(\mathbf{y})=S(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{c})+S(\mathbf{e})=S(\mathbf{e})
$$

and $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{e}$ are in the same coset. The coset leader of that coset also has the same syndrome. We have the following decoding algorithm.

## The Coset-Leader Algorithm

(1) Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ be a linear $(n, k)$ code and let $\mathbf{y}$ be the received vector.
(2) To correct errors in $\mathbf{y}$, calculate $S(\mathbf{y})$ and find the coset leader, say $\mathbf{e}$, with syndrome equal to $S(\mathbf{y}$.
(3) Then decode $\mathbf{y}$ as $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{e}$. Here $\mathbf{x}$ is the code word with minimum distance to $\mathbf{y}$.

## Coset-Leader example

Discuss it on the board.

