## CYCLIC CODES

### **Example of a Simple Cyclic Code** Consider the binary code

$$C = \{000, 110, 011, 101\}.$$

One easily checks that this is a linear code since the sum of any two codewords in C is again a codeword in C. Let us denote a codeword in C by  $c = (c_1, c_2, c_3)$  where  $c_i$  is either 0 or 1 for i = 1, 2, 3.

The key property that makes this a cyclic code is that for any codeword  $c = (c_1, c_2, c_3) \in C$ we have  $(c_3, c_1, c_2)$  is again a codeword in C.

**Definition (Cyclic Code)** A binary code is cyclic if it is a linear [n, k] code and if for every codeword  $(c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n) \in C$  we also have that  $(c_n, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1})$  is again a codeword in C.

**Remark:** The shift  $(c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n) \longrightarrow (c_n, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1})$  is called a right cyclic shift.

Question: Is {000, 100, 010, 001} a cyclic code?

**Answer:** The answer is NO because this code is not linear.

### REALIZING CYCLIC CODES WITH POLYNOMIALS OVER $\mathbb{F}_2$

In the following we let  $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$  denote the set of all poynomials

$$a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_m x^m$$

with  $a_i \in \mathbb{F}_2$  for  $i = 0, 1, \ldots, m$ . We note that these polynomials form an additive group.

**Definition (Code Polynomial associated to a Cyclic Codeword)** Let  $a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$ be a codeword in a cyclic [n, k] code C. We define the polynomial associated to  $a \in C$  to be

$$a(x) := a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} \in \mathbb{F}_2[x].$$

Notice that

$$x \cdot a(x) = a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^n.$$

This is almost a right cyclic shift of the polynomial which would have the representation

$$a_{n-1} + a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1}.$$

But notice the following identity!

$$x \cdot a(x) \equiv a_{n-1} + a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1} \left( \mod (x^n - 1) \right).$$
(1)

Furthermore, it immediately follows that we also have:

$$x^{2} \cdot a(x) \equiv a_{n-2} + a_{n-1}x + a_{0}x^{2} + a_{1}x^{3} + \dots + a_{n-3}x^{n-1} \pmod{(x^{n} - 1)}$$

$$x^{3} \cdot a(x) \equiv a_{n-3} + a_{n-2}x + a_{n-1}x^{2} + a_{0}x^{3} + \dots + a_{n-4}x^{n-1} \pmod{(x^{n} - 1)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x^{\ell} \cdot a(x) \equiv a_{n-\ell} + a_{n-\ell+1}x + a_{n-\ell+2}x^{2} + \dots + a_{0}x^{\ell} + \dots + a_{n-\ell-1}x^{n-1} \pmod{(x^{n} - 1)}.$$

**Remark:** The numbering  $a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1})$  starting with  $a_0$  instead of  $a_1$  is used because it simplifies the statement of the modular relation (1).

# CONSTRUCTING CYCLIC CODES WITH POLYNOMIALS OVER $\mathbb{F}_2$

**CLAIM:** Fix an integer n > 1. Let  $g(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$  divide the polynomial  $x^n - 1$ . Assume the degree of g(x) is n - k for some  $0 \le k \le n$ . Consider the set of polynomials

$$\mathcal{P}_g := \left\{ g(x) \cdot \alpha(x) \; \big( \bmod (x^n - 1) \big) \; \middle| \; \alpha(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x] \; with \; \deg(\alpha(x)) \le k \right\}$$

Every polynomial  $f(x) \in \mathcal{P}_g$  can be written in the form

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}.$$

Then the set of all distinct  $\{a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}\}$  coming from  $f(x) \in \mathcal{P}_g$  form a cyclic [n, k] code.

**Remark:** The polynomial g is called a generator polynomial for the cyclic [n, k] code described in the above theorem.

**Example (1):** Let n = 3. Then g(x) := x - 1 divides  $x^3 - 1$ . Note that since we are over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  we see that g(x) is also equal to 1 + x. We now list all possible

$$g(x) \cdot \alpha(x) \pmod{(x^3-1)}$$

with deg( $\alpha(x)$ )  $\leq 2$ . The only possible  $\alpha(x)$  are  $0, 1, x, 1 + x, x^2, 1 + x^2, x + x^2, 1 + x + x^2$ . Furthermore

$$x^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{x^3 - 1}.$$

It follows that for this example

(1

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} (1+x)\cdot 0 \ \equiv \ 0 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 000, \\ (1+x)\cdot 1 \ \equiv \ 1+x \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 110, \\ (1+x)\cdot x \ \equiv \ x+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 011, \\ (1+x)\cdot (1+x) \ \equiv \ 1+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 001, \\ (1+x)\cdot x^2 \ \equiv \ 1+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 101, \\ (1+x)\cdot (1+x^2) \ \equiv \ x+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 101, \\ (1+x)\cdot (1+x^2) \ \equiv \ x+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 011, \\ (1+x)\cdot (x+x^2) \ \equiv \ 1+x \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 110, \\ (1+x)\cdot (1+x+x^2) \ \equiv \ 0 \pmod{x^3-1} & \longrightarrow 000, \end{array}$$

In the above we have taken a polynomial such as  $x + x^2$  and rewritten it as the codeword  $\rightarrow 011$ .

We see that we get the codewords  $\{000, 101, 110, 011\}$  which is a cyclic code. So the above CLAIM holds for this example.

**Remark:** Note that in the above calculation we obtained each codeword in  $\{000, 101, 110, 011\}$  exactly twice. This suggests that it is enough to consider polynomials  $\alpha(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$  with  $\deg(\alpha(x)) < k$ .

## Explanation of why each code word is repeated twice:

We have  $(1+x) \cdot (1+x+x^2) = x^3 - 1$ . Hence  $(1+x) \cdot x^2 \equiv (1+x)^2 \equiv 1+x^2 \pmod{x^3-1}$ . This means that  $(1+x) \cdot x^2$  is in the list of the first four code polynomials. It follows that  $(1+x) \cdot (1+x^2)$  and  $(1+x) \cdot (x+x^2)$  and  $(1+x) \cdot (1+x+x^2) \equiv 0$  must also be in the list of the first four code polynomials. **Example (2):** Let's take n = 3 and  $g(x) := 1 + x + x^2$  which also divides  $1 + x^3$  since  $1 + x^3 = (1 + x) \cdot (1 + x + x^2)$ . Note that we defined k so that  $\deg(g(x)) = n - k$ . It follows that since g(x) has degree 2 that k = 1. In this case there are only four possible polynomials  $\alpha(x)$  of degree  $\leq k = 1$ . These are  $\{0, 1, x, 1 + x\}$ . It follows that

We see that the code generated is the [3,1] repetition code which is just  $\{000, 111\}$ . The codewords are repeated exactly twice.

We will now prove the following theorem.

**Theorem (1):** Fix an integer n > 1. Let  $g(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$  divide the polynomial  $x^n - 1$ . Assume the degree of g(x) is n - k for some  $0 \le k \le n$ . Consider the set of polynomials

$$\mathcal{P}_g := \left\{ g(x) \cdot \alpha(x) \; \big( \bmod (x^n - 1) \big) \; \middle| \; \alpha(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x] \; \underline{with \; \deg(\alpha(x)) < k} \right\}.$$

Every code polynomial  $f(x) \in \mathcal{P}_q$  can be written in the form

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

Then the set of all  $\{a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}\}$  coming from  $f(x) \in \mathcal{P}_g$  form a cyclic [n, k] code.

**Remark** Note that the difference between Theorem (1) and the CLAIM on the previous page is that we only need polynomials  $\alpha(x)$  with  $\deg(\alpha(x)) < k$ . In the CLAIM we had  $\deg(\alpha(x)) \leq k$ .

**Proof of Theorem (1):** Let *C* denote the code generated in the above theorem. First of all every codeword in *C* is associated to a code polynomial of the form  $g(x) \cdot \alpha(x)$  where  $\alpha(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{k-1}x^{k-1} \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$  is a polynomial of degree < k. It follows that the sum of any two codewords is again a codeword since the sum of any two polynomials of degree < k must again be a polynomial of degree < k.

It remains to prove that the code C is cyclic. Let  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} \in \mathcal{P}_g$ . Then we may write

$$x \cdot f(x) = a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^n$$
  
=  $a_{n-1} + a_0 x + a_1 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} (x^n + 1)$   
=  $h(x) + a_{n-1} (x^n + 1).$ 

Since both  $x \cdot f(x)$  and  $x^n + 1$  are divisible by g(x) it follows that h(x) must also be divisible by g(x). Hence h(x) (which represents the cyclic right shift of f(x)) must also be a code polynomial in  $\mathcal{P}_g$ , and the code generated by g(x) is a cyclic code. We shall next prove that every cyclic code can be constructed (as in Theorem (1)) from a generating polynomial g(x) which divides  $x^n - 1$ .

**Theorem (2):** Let C be a cyclic code. Then there exists a uniquely determined code polynomial g(x) of minimal degree in C which has the following properties.

- (i) g(x) is unique.
- (ii) g(x) divides  $x^n 1$ .
- (iii) The code C can be constructed using g(x) as in Theorem (1).

The polynomial g(x) is called the generator polynomial for the code C.

### Proof of Theorem (2):

(i) Assume there are two distinct code polynomials  $g_1(x), g_2(x)$  of minimal degree in C. Then  $g_1(x) - g_2(x)$  will have a smaller degree than  $g_1(x)$  or  $g_2(x)$ . This is a contradiction so the polynomial g(x) of minimal degree must be unique.

(ii) Next, assume g(x) does not divide  $x^n - 1$ . Then

$$x^n - 1 = g(x)\beta(x) + r(x), \qquad \Big(\beta(x), r(x) \in \mathcal{F}_2[x]\Big),$$

where r(x) is the remainder polynomial which must have degree smaller than g(x). This implies r(x) is also a code polynomial of smaller degree than g(x) which is a contradiction.

(iii) Once we have found g(x) it follows from (i), (ii), that we may construct the code C as in Theorem (1).

# HOW TO FIND ALL [7,k] CYCLIC CODES

We first factor  $x^7 - 1 = (x - 1) \cdot (x^3 + x + 1) \cdot (x^2 + x^2 + 1)$ . Since we are only considering binary codes (where +1 is the same as -1), we can rewrite the factorization as  $1 + x^7 = (1 + x) \cdot (1 + x + x^3) \cdot (1 + x^2 + x^3)$ . As there are 3 irrededucible factors there are 8 cyclic codes (including 0 and  $\mathbb{F}_2^7$ ) with the following generator polynomials:

(1) 
$$g(x) = 1$$
,  $C = \mathbb{F}_2^7 = [7,7]$  code  
(2)  $g(x) = 1 + x$ ,  $C = [7,6]$  code  
(3)  $g(x) = 1 + x + x^3$ ,  $C = [7,4]$  code  
(4)  $g(x) = 1 + x^2 + x^3$ ,  $C = [7,4]$  code  
(5)  $g(x) = (1 + x)(1 + x + x^3) = 1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4$ ,  $C = [7,3]$  code  
(6)  $g(x) = (1 + x)(1 + x^2 + x^3) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^4$ ,  $C = [7,3]$  code  
(7)  $g(x) = (1 + x + x^3)(1 + x^2 + x^3) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6$ ,  $C = [7,1]$  code  
(8)  $g(x) = x^7 + 1$ ,  $C = \{0000000\} = [7,0]$  code.