

Information Theory and Coding (66.24)

Cyclic Codes

A linear code is said to be cyclic if the i th cyclic rotation is also a codeword of the same code. Recalling groups, a group is said to be cyclic if it can be generated by successive powers of a given element.

A cyclic code can be represented as polynomials defined over a Galois field $GF(2^n)$. A codeword $\mathbf{c} = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ is in the form:

$$c(X) = c_0 + c_1X + \dots + c_{n-1}X^{n-1} \quad c_i \in GF(2)$$

Polynomials over $GF(2)$ can be added (subtracted), multiplied, and divided in the usual way using binary field arithmetic.

A given polynomial $f(X)$ over $GF(2)$ having an even number of terms, is divisible by $X + 1$. Why?

Definition 1 A polynomial $f(X)$ over $GF(2)$ of degree m is said to be *irreducible* if it is not divisible by any polynomial over $GF(2)$ of degree less than m but greater than zero.

Example: $X^3 + X + 1$ does not have either 0 or 1 as a root and so is not divisible by X or $X + 1$. Since it is not divisible by any polynomial of degree 1, then it is not divisible by a polynomial of degree 2. Why?

Theorem 1 Any irreducible polynomial over $GF(2)$ of degree m divides $X^{2^m-1} + 1$.

Definition 2 An irreducible polynomial $f(X)$ of degree m is said to be *primitive* if the smallest positive integer n for which $f(X)$ divides $X^n + 1$ is $n = 2^m - 1$. Recall the definition of primitive elements in $GF(q)$.

Construction of Galois Fields $GF(2^n)$

Given a primitive polynomial of degree m over $GF(2)$ $p(X)$, let α be a new element such that $p(\alpha) = 0$. Since $p(X)$ divides $X^{2^m-1} + 1$, then,

$$X^{2^m-1} + 1 = q(X)p(X)$$

Replacing:

$$\alpha^{2^n-1} + 1 = q(\alpha) p(\alpha) = 0 \rightarrow \alpha^{2^n-1} = 1$$

Then, α is a primitive element of $\text{GF}(2^n)$

Example

Let choose $p(X) = 1 + X + X^4$ as the primitive polynomial, we can construct $\text{GF}(2^4)$ as powers of α , where α is a root of $p(X)$ as follows:

$1 + \alpha + \alpha^4 = 0$, then $\alpha^4 = 1 + \alpha$. This relation can be used in order to generate all the elements.

Table 1: Elements in $\text{GF}(2^4)$

Power	Polynomial	4-Tuple
0	0	0000
1	1	1000
α	α	0100
α^2	α^2	0010
α^3	α^3	0001
α^4	$1 + \alpha$	1100
α^5	$\alpha + \alpha^2$	0110
α^6	$\alpha^2 + \alpha^3$	0011
α^7	$1 + \alpha + \alpha^3$	1101
α^8	$1 + \alpha^2$	1010
α^9	$\alpha + \alpha^3$	0101
α^{10}	$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2$	0010
α^{11}	$\alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3$	0111
α^{12}	$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3$	1111
α^{13}	$1 + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3$	1011
α^{14}	$1 + \alpha^3$	1001

It can be shown (see [2] Chap. 2) that the set $F^* = \{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{2^n-2}\}$ is a commutative group under an addition operation "+" and the non zero elements of F^* form a commutative group under a multiplication operation ".". Then there is an *isomorphism* between the set F^* and the set of polynomials of degree $n - 1$.

Theorem 2 The $2^n - 1$ non zero elements of $\text{GF}(2^n)$ form all the roots of $X^{2^n-1} + 1$.

Shifting of codewords can be easily managed in polynomial representation, being $c(X) = c_0 + c_1 X + \dots + c_{n-1} X^{n-1}$ a given polynomial, let's

write $c(X)$ in another way:

$$c(X) = \sum_{l=1}^n c_{n-l} X^{n-l}$$

then, the shifted polynomial is (check it out):

$$c^{(i)}(X) = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} c_{n-i+l} X^l$$

multiplying $c(X)$ by X^i , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} X^i \sum_{l=1}^n c_{n-l} X^{n-l} &= \sum_{l=1}^n c_{n-l} X^{n-l+i} \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^i (c_{n-l} X^{i-l} (X^n + 1) + c_{n-l} X^{i-l}) + \\ &+ \sum_{l=i+1}^n c_{n-l} X^{n-l+i} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Then (verify):

$$X^i c(X) = q(X) (X^n + 1) + c^{(i)}(X)$$

the shifted codeword can be obtained as:

$$c^{(i)}(X) = X^i c(X) \text{ mod}(X^n + 1)$$

Being a cyclic code a linear code, the corresponding G matrix is given by:

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & g_{n-k} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & g_0 & g_1 & \cdots & g_{n-k} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & g_0 & g_1 & g_2 & \cdots & g_{n-k} \end{pmatrix}$$

Cyclic Redundant Codes

1. In cyclic codes, any codeword is represented by a polynomial, e.g. 1101 is represented as $X^3 + X^2 + 1$. It is used the algebra of polynomials mod $(X^n + 1)$.
2. Every divisor $g(X)$ of $(X^n + 1)$ generates an (n, k) cyclic code, where $r = n - k$ is the degree of $g(X)$.
3. Primitive polynomials can be used as generator polynomials.
4. Every codeword polynomial is a multiple of $g(X)$.

Being $d(X)$ a given message word, the product $d(X) g(X)$ generates codewords that are usually nonsystematic. To generate systematic CRC codewords, $d(X) X^r$ is divided by $g(X)$, the remainder $r(X)$ is then added to the data part, i.e. $c(X) = d(X) X^r + r(X)$. $d(X) X^r$ means to append r 0's to the right of $d(X)$.

Decoding: The syndrome $s(X) = c(X) + e(X)$ is obtained by dividing the received codeword by $g(X)$. All error patterns that do not have $g(X)$ as a factor can be detected.

1. If $e(X) = X^i$, then, any $g(X)$ having 2 or more terms will detect it (Prove).
2. If $e(X) = X^i + X^j = X^i (1 + X^{j-i})$, then, it is sufficient to detect if $(1 + X^{j-i})$ can not be divided by $g(X)$, e.g. $X^{15} + X^{14} + 1$ will not divide $1 + X^k$ for k up to 32768.
3. If $X + 1$ is a factor of $g(X)$, all odd number of bits errors can be detected (Prove).
4. r check bits detect all bursty errors of length $\leq r$. Proof: See below.

Let $e(X) = X^{j+k-1} + \dots + X^j$, $0 < k \leq r$ be k bursty errors at the j th position. Then $e(X) = X^j (X^{k-1} + \dots + 1)$, if $g_0 = 1$, X^j is not a factor of $g(X)$. Recalling r is the degree of $g(X)$, if $k \leq r$, $(X^{k-1} + \dots + 1)$ is never divisible by $g(X)$.

Examples of $g(X)$:

$$\text{CRC-12} = X^{12} + X^{11} + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$$

$$\text{CRC-16} = X^{16} + X^{15} + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$$

$$\text{CRC-CCITT} = X^{16} + X^{12} + X^5 + 1$$

$$\text{CRC Ethernet, see [3]} = X^{32} + X^{26} + X^{23} + X^{22} + X^{16} + X^{12} + X^{11} + X^{10} + X^8 + X^7 + X^5 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1$$

Special classes of cyclic codes

Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH)

For any positive integer $m \geq 3$ and $t < 2^{m-1}$, there exists a binary BCH code $C_{BCH}(n, k)$ with the following properties:

Block length:	$n = 2^m - 1$
Number of message bits:	$k \geq n - mt$
Minimum distance:	$d_{min} \geq 2t + 1$
Error-correction capability:	t errors in a code vector

Reed-Solomon (RS)

Reed-Solomon codes are also called non binary since coefficients of polynomials are elements in $GF(2^m)$. These coefficients can be represented as powers of a primitive element α . Recalling table (1), the following message

1100 0000 0001 0000 0101

given in non systematic form in a Reed-Solomon Code $C_{RS}(15, k)$ results ($k \geq 5$):

$$m(X) = \alpha^4 + \alpha^3 X^2 + \alpha^9 X^4$$

Block length:	$n = 2^m - 1$
Parity-Check size:	$n - k = 2t$
Minimum distance:	$d_{min} \geq 2t + 1$
Error-correction capability:	t errors in a code vector

Further reading: [1], [3].

References

- [1] Simon Haykin. *Communications Systems*. John Wiley & Sons Inc., 2001.
- [2] Shu Lin and Daniel J. Costello Jr. *Error Control Coding: Fundamentals and Applications*. Prentice-Hall, 1983.
- [3] Jorge Castiñeira Moreira and Patrick Guy Farrel. *Essentials of Error-Control Coding*. John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 2006.