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LINEAR CODE THROUGH POLYNOMIAL MODULO Zⁿ

MAKARIM ABDULWAHIDE

DEPT. OF INFORMATION SYSTEMS -COLLEGE OF COMPUTERS -UNIVESITY OF AL-ANBAR

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ABSTRACT

A polynomial $p(x)=a^0+a^1 x + ...+a^d x^d$ is said to be a permutation polynomial over a finite ring R If P permute the elements of R. where R is the ring $(\mathbb{Z}^n, +, \bullet)$.

It is known that mutually orthogonal Latin of order n,where n is the element in Z^n generate A $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ – error correcting code with n² code words. And we found no a pair of polynomial defining a pair of orthogonal Latin square modulo Z^n where n = 2^w generate a linear code.

Introduction :-

A polynomial $p(x)=a^0+a^1 x + ...+a^d x^d$ with integral coefficient is a permutation polynomial modulo n if and only if a^1 is odd and $(a^2 + a^4 + a^6 +$...) is even and $(a^3 + a^5 + a^7 + ...)$ is even . and this

condition satisfies where $n = 2^{w}$, $w \ge 2$ and this condition depend only on the parity of the coefficient. it

is easy to state necessary and sufficient condition for polynomial to represent a Latin square of order $n = 2^{w}$

Latin square are dealt with extensively in Denes and Keed well [1974]. Two n \times n Latin squares A=a^{*ij*} and B= b^{*ij*} are orthogonal if Latin square:

 $\{(a^{ij}, b^{ij}): i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}\} = n^2$

As set of t > 0 Latin squares are pairwise mutually orthogonal if every pair of Latin squares in the set are orthogonal . A code C is Linear if the addition of any two code words is another codeword . A n \times n

matrix $L = L^{ij}$ is a Latin square that generate

a linear code modulo n iff L is of the form $L^{ij} =$ (i β + j α) mod n for some integer α , β satisfying: 1-0 < α , $\beta_{< n}$ 2- gcd (α , n) = gcd (β , n) =1

This condition characterize every Latin square that generate a linear code modulo n , and if n is even or a power of 2 are not very useful in terms of generating linear codes modulo n .

characterizing permutation polynomial:

Theorem (1) : Let $p(x) = a^0 + a^1 x + ... + a^d x^d$ be a polynomial with integral coefficient and its a permutation polynomial modulo z^n where $n = 2^w$ where w > 0, and let $m = 2^{w-1} = \frac{n/2}{2}$. Then p(x) is permutation polynomial modulo m.

proof :Clearly, $p(x + m) = p(x) \pmod{m}$ for any x.

Assume that p(x) is permutation polynomial modulo n. if p is not a permutation polynomial modulo m, such that $p(x) = p(x^{\prime}) = y \pmod{m}$, for some y.



^{*} Corresponding author at: DEPT. OF INFORMATION SYSTEMS -COLLEGE OF COMPUTERS -UNIVESITY OF AL-ANBAR, Iraq.E-mail address: <u>mak_alturky@yahoo.com</u>

This collision means there are four values { x, x + m, x', x' + m } modulo n that p maps to a value congruent to y modulo m. But there can only be two such values if p is a permutation polynomial , since there are only

two values in \mathbb{Z}^n congruent to y modulo m .

Lemma^{*} :

Let $p(x)=a^0+a^1 x + ...+a^d x^d$ be polynomial with integral coefficient, and let n=2m, if p(x) is a permutation polynomial modulo n, then p(x + m) =

 $p(x) + m \pmod{n}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$.

proof :

This follows directly from theorem (1), since the only two values modulo n that are congruent modulo m to p(x) are x and p(x) + m.

Example : the following are permutation polynomial modulo z^n where

 $n=2^{\overset{\scriptscriptstyle W}{}} w>1$:

 \bullet x(a+ bx) where a is odd and b is even.

• $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^2 + \mathbf{x}^4$.

•
$$1 + x + x^{2} + ... + x^{d}$$
, where d= 1 (mod 4)

Theorem (2): A polynomial

 $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^{i} y^{j}$ represents a latin square modulo n = 2^w where w ≥ 2 , iff the four polynomial p(x,0), p(x,1), p(0,y) and p1,y), and are all permutation polynomial modulo n.

Example : second – degree polynomial representing a

Latin square modulo $n=2^{w}$

2xy+x+y=x. (2y+1)+y=y. (2x+1)+x.

A method of constructing an - error - correcting code of distance t+1 with n² code words of length t+2 when given t mutually orthogonal Latin square :

Given t mutually orthogonal Latin square L^{1} , L^{-2} ,

 \dots , L^t, the code is the set of all code words of the

form (i,j, 1¹, 1², ... 1^t) where 1¹ is the I, j-th entry of L¹, 1² is the I, j- th entry of L² and 1^k is the I, j-entry of L^k where $1 \le k \le t$.

The following example using two orthogonal Latin square of order 3 , with our notation the two Latin square are :

0	1	2		0	1	2]	
1	2	0	,	2	0	1	
2	0	1		1	2	0	

The code constructed using these two is

{(0,0,0,0), (0,1,1,1), (0,2,2,2), (1,0,1,2)

 $(1,1,2,0), (1,2,0,1), (2,0,2,1), (2,2,1,0) \}$

A noteworthy feature of this code is that it is also a linear code when addition and multiplication are defined modulo n .

If C is a linear code we say that these Latin square generate a linear code modulo n, where n is the order of Latin squares

The following theorem provides necessary and sufficient conditions for two Latin square that generate linear codes modulo n by themselves to be orthogonal. two such orthogonal Latin square when taken together generate another linear code modulo n.

Theorem (3):

let A =(a^{ij} , α_1 , β_1) and

assume

B=(b^{*ij*}, α_2 , β_2). then A and B are orthogonal iff gcd (($\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} - \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}$), n) = 1

Proof:

gcd

that

 $((\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}), n) = 1$ now assume that two corresponding entries of A and B are equal : (g,h) = (

 a^{i1j1} , b^{i1j1}) = (a^{i2j2} , b^{i2j2})

Then, by (let A = (a^{ij} , α , β) and let g be some integer in the range $0 \le g < n$. then g occurs in the i-th row of A at the position $a^{i,g\alpha^{-1}-i\beta\alpha^{-1}}$)....(*), we have

$$j^{1} = g \beta_{1}^{-1} \cdot i^{1} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} = h \alpha_{2}^{-1} \cdot i^{1} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1} = j^{1} \dots (1)$$

$$j^{2} = g \alpha_{1}^{-1} \cdot i^{2} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} = h \alpha_{2}^{-1} \cdot i^{2} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1} = j^{2} \dots (2)$$
subtracting (1) from (2) yields
$$i^{1} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \cdot i^{2} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} = i^{1} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1} \cdot i^{2} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow i^{1} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \cdot i^{2} \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} - i^{1} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1} + i^{2} \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow i^{1} (\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \cdot \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1}) \cdot i^{2} (\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} - \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (i^{1} - i^{2}) (\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} - \beta_{2} \alpha_{2}^{-1}) = 0$$

We have that i $1 = i^2$, since

gcd $(\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}),n) = 1$, comparing (1) and (2)

We see that $j^1 = j^2$.

Now, assume

gcd (($\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} - \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1})$, n) > 1 , then for some integer k , 0 < k < n

We have that $k(\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} - \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}) = 0$, from (*), 0 occurs in the k-th row in A at $-k\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1}$, and in B at $-k\beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}$, but $k(\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1} - \beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}) =$ $0 \Rightarrow k\beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1} = k\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1}$ $\Rightarrow -k\beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1} = -k\beta_1 \alpha_1^{-1}$

This means that the pair (0, 0) occurs twice among corresponding entries from A and B are not orthogonal .

Lemma^{**} : Let A= (a^{ij},
$$\alpha_1$$
, β_1) and B = (b^{ij}, α_2 , β_2) then

(1) if $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$ then A and B are orthogonal only if $\alpha_2 \neq \beta_2$.

(2) if $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$ then A and B are orthogonal iff gcd $(\alpha_2, \beta_2, n) = 1$.

(3) if $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$ then A and B are orthogonal iff gcd $(\beta_2, \beta_1, n) = 1$.

(4) if $\alpha_1 = \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$ then A and B are orthogonal iff gcd $(\beta_2, \alpha_1, n) = 1$.

It is of interest to know how many mutually orthogonal Latin square of some n exist that together generate a linear cods modulo n.

The following theorem gives an upper bound for this number .

Theorem (4) : suppose that the prime factorization of

n is
$$n = p^1 p^2 \dots p^h$$
, such that $p^1 \leq p^2 \leq \dots \leq p^h$

and $p^1 p^2 \dots p^h$ are prime . then there are at most $p^1 - 1$ mutually orthogonal Latin square of order n that generate a linear cods modulo n .

proof : suppose that there exist a set of more than $p^1 - 1$ mutually orthogonal Latin square of order n that generate a linear code modulo n .

Fix one of the Latin square in S, say

$$A = (a^{ij}, \alpha_{1}, \beta_{1})$$

consider the set of difference :
$$D = \{ (\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1}, \beta_{m} \alpha_{m}^{-1}) :$$
$$(1^{m_{ij}}, \alpha_{m}, \beta_{m}, \beta_{m}) \in (S - \{A\}) \} (\text{mod } p^{1})$$

Suppose that there exist two Latin square $B = (b^{ij})$,

$$\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2} \text{ andC} = (C^{ij}, \alpha_{3}, \beta_{3})$$

In S - {A} such that $\beta_{1}\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}\alpha_{2}^{-1} \equiv \beta_{1}\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{3}\alpha_{3}^{-1} \pmod{p^{1}}$

This implies that $\beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1} \beta_3 \alpha_3^{-1} \equiv 0$ (mod pl.), however by theorem (2)

mod p^1) . however by theorem (3)

We have B and C are not orthogonal because gcd $(\beta_2 \alpha_2^{-1}, \beta_3 \alpha_3^{-1}, n) \neq 1$, A contradiction. thus, we have that each Latin square in S – {A} contribute a distinct element to D.

This means that there are exactly $p^1 - 1$ elements in S - {A} and that D={1,2, $p^1 - 1$ }

There for $\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \mod p_{1} \in D$. So for some Latin square $K = (1_{ij}, \alpha_{k}, \beta_{k})$ we have that $\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{k} \alpha_{k}^{-1} \equiv \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \pmod{p^{1}}$.

However, this implies that $\beta \land \alpha \land \beta^{-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^1}$, which is a contradiction because by (if $n \times n$

Latin square $L = 1^{ij}$ generate a linear code modulo n then $1^{00} = 0$)

K is not a Latin square .

Theorem (5) : suppose that the prime factorization of

n is $n = p^1 p^2 \dots p^h$, such that $p^1 \leq p^2 \leq \dots \leq p^h$

and $p^1 p^2 \dots p^h$ are prime . then there exists such that

 p^1 - 1 mutually orthogonal Latin square of order n that generate a linear code modulo n .

proof : let α be an integer in the range

 $0 < \alpha < n$ that is relatively prime to n.

then the p^1 - 1 Latin square of the of the form rm L

 $L^{k} = (1^{ij} : , \alpha , \beta)$ as k ranges from 1 to $p^{1} - 1$ mutually orthogonal by

(Lemma^{***} above part 3).

so by (theorem 4) this is a maximal set of mutually orthogonal Latin square of order n that generate a linear code modulo $n \, . \, \blacksquare$

Example : we give an example of a linear code generate from 4 mutually orthogonal Latin square of order 5 . we use the method described in the proof of theorem (5) with

 $\alpha = 4:$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} , \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} ,$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} , \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The code C generate by these Latin square is C = (0,0,0,0,0,0), (0,1,4,4,4,4),

(0,2,3,3,3,3),(0,3,2,2,2,2),(0,4,1,1,1,1),

(1,0,1,2,3,4),(1,1,0,1,2,3),(1,2,4,0,1,2),

(1,3,3,4,0,1),(1,4,2,3,4,0),(2,0,2,4,1,3),(2,1,1,3,0,2),(2,2,0,2,4,1),(2,3,4,1,3,0),

(2,4,3,0,2,4),(3,0,31,4,2),(3,1,2,0,3,1),

(3,2,1,4,2,0),(3,3,0,3,1,4),(3,4,4,2,0,3),

 $(4,\!0,\!4,\!3,\!2,\!1),\!(4,\!1,\!3,\!2,\!1,\!0),\!(4,\!2,\!2,\!1,\!0,\!4),\,(4,\!3,\!1,\!0,\!4,\!3),\,(\,4,\!4,\!0,\!4,\!3,\!2)\,.$

This code is linear and one example of this is as follows :

(1,2,4,0,1,2)+(3,4,4,2,0,3)+(2,1,1,3,0,2)+ $(3,3,0,3,1,4) = (4,0,4,3,2,1) \in \mathbb{C}$.

We can easily develop for computing pairs of orthogonal Latin square that generate a linear code modulo n, for any odd n using (lemma^{**}) above

 $L^{1} = l^{ij}$ defined by $l^{ij} = (2^{k} i + j) \mod n$

And $L^2 = 1^{ij}$ defined by $1^{ij} = (2^{k-1}i + j) \mod n$ This works whenever $2^k < n$ because

$$L^{1} = (1^{ij}, 1, 2^{k})$$
 and $L^{2} = (1^{ij}, 1, 2^{k-1})$

However by(lemma part (3)) these are orthogonal because,

gcd $(2^{k} - 2^{k-1}, n) = gcd (2^{k-1}, n) = 1$, since n is odd.

When $n = 2^{w}$, the following theorem show that there are no pair of mutually orthogonal Latin square of even order.

Theorem (6) : there are no two polynomial $P_1(x, y)$,

 $P_2(x, y)$ modulo 2^w for $w \ge 1$ that form a pair of orthogonal Latin squares .

proof: (Lemma^{*}) implies that $P(x + m, y + m) = P(x) + m \pmod{m}$ for any permutation polynomial modulo n = 2m.

thus $P_i(x + m, y + m) = P_i(x + m, y) + m \pmod{n} =$

 $P_i(x, y) + 2m \pmod{n}$

 $= P_i(x, y) \pmod{n}$

Therefore $(P_1 (x, y), P_2 (x, y))$

= (P₁ (x + m, y + m), P₂ (x + m, y + m)) and the Pair (P₁, P₂) fails at being a pair of orthogonal Latin squares .

Theorem (7) : If n is an even positive integer , then there is no pair of n \times n mutually orthogonal Latin squares that generate a linear code modulo n.

Proof : Let $A=a^{ij}$ and $B=b^{ij}$ be two $n \times n$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares that generate a linear code with n=2k, for some positive integer k.

Then by (if n \times n Latin square L = 1 ij generate a

linear code modulo n then $1^{00} = 0$), 2(0, k, a^{0k} , b^{0k})

$$= (0, 2k, 2a^{0k}, 2b^{0k})$$
$$= (0,0, 2a^{0k}, 2b^{0k}) = (0,0,0,0).$$

This means that 2 $a^{0k} = 0$ and 2 $b^{0k} = 0$. we have

that $a^{0k} \neq 0$ and $b^{0k} \neq 0$ because 0 already occurs in the first rows of A and B. thus, we clearly have that $a^{0k} = b^{0k} = k$,

However, we also have $2(k,0, a^{k0}, b^{k0}) = (0, 0, 2)$

 a^{k0} , 2 b^{k0}) hence $a^{k0} = b^{k0} = k$

Therefore $(a^{0k}, b^{0k}) = (a^{k0}, b^{k0}) = (k, k)$

And we have that A and B are not orthogonal , a contradiction .

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الرمز الخطى لمتعددة حدود مقياس n

مكارم عبد الواحد عبد الجبار

قسم نظم المعلومات- كلية الحاسوب-جامعة الانبار Email: <u>mak alturky@yahoo.com</u>

الخلاصة:

متعددة الحدود ${}^{b}{}^{2}{}^{d}$ متعددة حدود تبادلية على الحقل النهائي Rإذا كان P تسمى متعددة حدود تبادلية على الحقل النهائي Rإذا كان P تبادل متعددة الحدود ${}^{b}{}^{2}{}^{d}$ من ${}^{a}{}^{d}{$