

Coding Theory on Non-Standard Alphabets Codes over finite rings

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Two miraculous non-linear families

Kerdock and Preparata codes

- 1967: Nordstrom and Robinson find an optimal binary code with parameters (16, 2⁸, 6); the best linear example of same length and distance has 2⁷ words.
- ▶ 1968: For even m ∈ N Preparata constructs a family of optimal binary codes with parameters (2^m, 2^{2^m-2m}, 6).
- ▶ 1972: Again, for even m ∈ N Kerdock discovers a family of low rate codes with parameters (2^m, 2^{2m}, 2^{m-1} 2^{m-2}/₂).

Note: The discovered families appear to be dual in terms of their weight (or better distance) enumerators.



A brief sketch: From Assmus & Mattson to Nechaev

- 1963: Assmus and Mattson mention rings as possible alphabets in their article <u>Error-Correcting Codes: an</u> Axiomatic Approach.
- 1972: Blake presents linear codes first over semi-simple, later for primary integer residue rings.

- 1987: Klemm considers linear codes over integer residue rings and proves MacWilliams' weight enumerator theorem.
- ▶ **1989:** Nechaev discovers that all Kerdock codes become cyclic when considered as codes over Z₄.



\mathbb{Z}_4 -linear representation of binary codes The Gray isometry

• The Lee weight on \mathbb{Z}_4 is defined as

$$w_{\text{Lee}} : \mathbb{Z}_4 \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}, \quad x \mapsto \min\{|x|, |4-x|\}.$$

It turns out that (Z₄, w_{Lee}) is isometric to (Z₂², w_H) via the so-called Gray isometry:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbb{Z}_4 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{Z}_2^2, \\ a+2b & \mapsto & a(0,1)+b(1,1). \end{array}$$

Componentwise extension of this mapping to Zⁿ₄ yields a Z₄-linear representation of the Kerdock, Preparata and other Codes.



Three important results

- 1994 Hammons et al: All Kerdock, Preparata, Goethals and Goethals-Delsarte Codes are binary images of Z₄-linear codes.
- ► 1995 Bonnecaze and Solé: How to obtain the Leech lattice by construction A from a Z₄-version of the binary Golay code.
- ► 1997 Calderbank and McGuire: Discovery of binary codes with parameters (64, 2³⁷, 12) and (64, 2³², 14). These are binary images of Z₄-linear codes with parameters [32, 16 + ⁵/₂, 12] and [32, 16, 14].



Finite rings and modules

Note: Rings R are associative and possess an identity 1.

Useful Facts:

- ► The <u>Jacobson radical</u> J(R) of R is the intersection of all maximal (left) ideals of R. It is a two-sided ideal.
- If *R* is finite, then J(R) is a <u>nilpotent</u> ideal.
- ► If *R* is finite then *R*/*J*(*R*) is a direct product of full matrix rings over finite fields.
- The left socle soc(RR) is the sum of all minimal left ideals of R. It is two-sided, but might not coincide with the right socle.
- The polynomial ring R[x] is anything but a unique factori- zation domain. Is it a mess? Well...



Finite rings and modules

Note: Modules $_{R}M$ will be unital, i.e. 1m = m for all $m \in M$.

Further Useful Facts:

- Projective modules $_{R}P$ are those where every epimorphism onto $_{R}P$ has a kernel that is a direct summand.
- Projective modules are characterized as direct summands of free modules.
- Injective modules occur as direct summands wherever they are embedded.
- (Left) <u>Self-injective</u> rings *R* are those where the module _RR is injective.
- If R is finite, then self-injectivity is left-right symmetric; these rings are then called <u>quasi-Frobenius</u> rings.



Finite Frobenius rings

Recall: For a finite Ring *R* we have

• $\hat{R} := \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R, \mathbb{C}^{\times})$, the character module of R.

• \hat{R} becomes an *R*-*R*-bimodule, by the definition:

•
$$r\chi(\mathbf{x}) := \chi(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{r})$$
, and

for all $r, x \in R$ and $\chi \in \hat{R}$.

Definition: *R* is called a <u>Frobenius ring</u>, if any of the following equivalent (left-right symmetric) conditions hold:

$$\blacktriangleright_R R \cong {}_R \hat{R},$$

•
$$soc(_RR)$$
 is left principal.



Examples of finite Frobenius rings

How the Frobenius property inherits

Examples:

- Every finite field is Frobenius.
- Every Galois ring is Frobenius.
- If *R* and *S* are Frobenius, then so will be $R \times S$.
- If *R* is Frobenius, then so will be $M_n(R)$.
- ▶ If *R* is Frobenius and *G* is a finite group, then *R*[*G*] is Frobenius.

Note: The class of finite Frobenius rings is large. As a non-Frobenius example consider $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x^2, y^2, xy)$.



The discrete Fourier transform

Definition: Let *R* be a finite Frobenius ring, and let χ be a generating character, i.e. \hat{R} is generated by χ .

For a complex valued function *f* on *R* define its Fourier transform *f̂* : *R* → ℂ by

$$\hat{f}(s) := \sum_{r \in R} f(r) \chi(-rs), \text{ for } s \in R.$$

The inverse transform is given by

$$\widetilde{f}(s) := rac{1}{|R|} \sum_{r \in R} f(r) \chi(sr), ext{ for } s \in R,$$

meaning, we have
$$\tilde{f} = f = \hat{f}$$
.



Homogeneous weights

History: Homogeneous weights were introduced by Heise et al. [1995] for \mathbb{Z}_m to generalise the Hamming weight.

Definition: Let *R* be a finite ring. A map $w : R \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is called homogeneous weight if w(0) = 0 and there is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that for all $x, y \in R$:

(i)
$$Rx = Ry$$
 implies $w(x) = w(y)$,
(ii) $\frac{1}{|Rx|} \sum_{y \in Rx} w(y) = \gamma$, provided $x \neq 0$.

Remark: Indeed, property (ii) is a length 1 version of a well-known fact in finite-field coding theory:

$$\frac{1}{|C|}\sum_{c\in C}w_H(c) = \frac{q-1}{q}|\operatorname{supp}(C)|.$$



Homogeneous weights on Frobenius rings

- Homogeneous weights do exist on any finite ring and module.
- They enjoy a description involving the Möbius function on the poset of principal left ideals of the underlying ring.
- Theorem: Homogeneous weights on a finite Frobenius ring R are of the form

$$w: R \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}, \quad x \mapsto \gamma \Big[1 - \frac{1}{|R^{\times}|} \sum_{u \in R^{\times}} \chi(xu) \Big],$$

where again, χ is a generating character of *R*.



Examples of homogeneous weights

- w_H on \mathbb{F}_q is homogeneous with $\gamma = \frac{q-1}{q}$; the Lee weight w_{Lee} on \mathbb{Z}_4 is homogeneous with $\gamma = 1$.
- If R is a chain ring with q-element residue field then homogeneous weights have the form

$$R \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}, \ r \mapsto \gamma \begin{cases} q-1 : r \notin \operatorname{soc}(_RR), \\ q : 0 \neq r \in \operatorname{soc}(_RR), \\ 0 : r = 0. \end{cases}$$

► Homogeneous weights on M₂(Z₂) are given by

$$M_2(\mathbb{Z}_2) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}, \ A \mapsto \gamma \begin{cases} 1 : \mathsf{rk}(A) = 2, \\ 2 : \mathsf{rk}(A) = 1, \\ 0 : A = 0. \end{cases}$$



Cyclic codes

- Definition: An *R*-linear code is called <u>cyclic</u>, if it is invariant under cyclic coordinate shifts.
- ► Cyclic codes of length *n* can be identified with ideals in the residue ring *R*[*x*]/(*xⁿ* − 1).
- ▶ Known Fact: If $C \le \mathbb{F}_q^n$ is a cyclic code then there exists a unique monic divisor g of $x^n 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$ such that

$$C = \mathbb{F}_q[x]g/(x^n-1).$$

- ► The proof of this fact is quite elementary, however vastly relies on the euclidean property of F_q[x].
- **Question:** What remains true in the ring-linear case?

Cyclic codes

- **Definition:** Let *R* be a finite ring. We call an *R*-linear code $C \le {}_{R}R^{n}$ a splitting code, if it is a direct summand of ${}_{R}R^{n}$.
- **G. 1997:** For a linear code $C \leq {}_{R}R^{n}$ the following are equivalent:
 - *C* is a cyclic splitting code.
 - There exists a polynomial g dividing $x^n 1$, such that

$$C = R[x]g/(x^n-1).$$

The proof of this fact is less elementary; it relies on all the facts that we mentioned in the preliminaries on finite rings and modules.