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Group Report

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**Partial Fractions
and
Error-Correcting Codes**

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PARTIAL FRACTIONS AND ERROR-CORRECTING CODES

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Group 66

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Abstract

In this note we show how partial fractions may be used to derive the properties of linear recursive sequences and, in particular, of Bose-Chaudhuri codes. One of the novel features of this method is a new and transparent proof of the basic result of Mattson-Solomon.

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Partial Fractions and Error-Correcting Codes

There have appeared several expositions of the theory of Bose-Chaudhuri codes—see, for example, references [2], [3], [5] and [6]. Perhaps the most interesting version, in that it leads to the deepest results, is due to Mattson and Solomon [4]. The distinctive feature of their approach arises from the representation of each code vector as the set of values taken on by a certain polynomial at certain roots of unity; in this way the weight of a vector is related to the number of roots of a polynomial.

In this note we show how partial fractions may be used to derive the properties of linear recursive sequences and, in particular, of Bose-Chaudhuri codes. One of the novel features of this method is a new and transparent proof of the basic result of Mattson-Solomon.

We shall work over the two-element field $F = \{0, 1\}$. Essentially, all our remarks will carry over to the case of an arbitrary finite field, but the details of the carry-over will be left to the reader. If x is an indeterminate over F , then $F[x]$ denotes the ring of all polynomials $f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_nx^n$ with coefficients in F . We let $F\langle x \rangle$ denote the ring of formal power series with coefficients in F . In other words, an element of $F\langle x \rangle$ is of form

$$a(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n + \cdots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i \quad a_i \in F \quad (1)$$

and if, in addition, $b(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i x^i \in F\langle x \rangle$ then

$$a(x) + b(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (a_i + b_i) x^i \quad (2)$$

and the n^{th} term of the product $a(x)b(x)$ is

$$(a(x)b(x))_n = \left(\sum_{j=0}^n a_j b_{n-j} \right) x^n \quad (3)$$

We shall also identify $F\langle x \rangle$ with $V_{\infty}(F)$, the set of all infinite sequences from

F under the obvious correspondence

$$a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots \longleftrightarrow (a_0, a_1, a_2, \cdots) \quad (4)$$

In particular, the vector space $V_{\infty}(F)$ thus has the structure of a ring.

Suppose that $f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \cdots + c_nx^n \in F[x]$ has $c_0 = c_n = 1$ and

that $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i \in F\langle x \rangle$. We say that $a(x)$ is linear recursive for f when

the following relation holds:

$$a_i = c_1 a_{i-1} + c_2 a_{i-2} + \dots + c_n a_{i-n} \quad \text{for all } i \geq n \quad (5)$$

These conditions may also be rewritten as

$$c_0 a_i + c_1 a_{i-1} + \dots + c_n a_{i-n} = 0 \quad \text{for all } i \geq n \quad (6)$$

The set of all elements of $F\langle x \rangle$ which are linearly recursive for f is denoted by $G(f)$.

Our first observation provides a simple characterization of $G(f)$, namely,

Proposition 1: $G(f) = \left\{ \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \mid g(x) \in F[x], \deg g < \deg f \right\}$

Proof: Consider $a(x) \in F\langle x \rangle$. Since the coefficient of x^i in $a(x)f(x)$ for

$i \geq n$ is $\sum_{j=0}^n c_j a_{i-j}$, it follows from (6) that

$$a(x) \in G(f) \iff a(x)f(x) \text{ is a polynomial of degree } < n = \deg f(x)$$

$$\iff a(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)}, \quad g(x) \in F[x], \deg g < \deg f.$$

Corollary 1: $G(f)$ is a vector space of dimension $n = \deg f$ over F .

Corollary 2: If $f_1 \mid f_2$ then $G(f_1) \subset G(f_2)$; moreover equality holds if and only if $f_1 = f_2$.

Corollary 3: If f_1 and f_2 are relatively prime then

$$G(f_1 f_2) = G(f_1) + G(f_2)$$

Proof: In virtue of Corollary 2,

$$G(f_1) + G(f_2) \subset G(f_1 f_2)$$

Suppose then that $a \in G(f_1 f_2)$, and put $n_i = \deg f_i$, $i = 1, 2$. Thus we have $a = g/f_1 f_2$ with $\deg g < n_1 + n_2$. We assert that

$$\frac{g}{f_1 f_2} = \frac{g_1}{f_1} + \frac{g_2}{f_2} \quad \text{with } \deg g_i < n_i \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (7)$$

and we give a constructive proof of this fact. Since $(f_1, f_2) = 1$ there exist polynomials k_1, k_2 such that $k_1 f_1 + k_2 f_2 = 1$. Therefore, $g k_1 f_1 + g k_2 f_2 = g$, and by the Euclidean algorithm we may write

$$g k_1 = t f_2 + g_2 \quad \deg g_2 < n_2 = \deg f_2.$$

In other words,

$$g = g_2 f_1 + (g k_2 + t f_1) f_2$$

Since g and $g_2 f_1$ have degree $< n_1 + n_2$, it follows that $g_1 = g k_2 + t f_1$, has degree $< n_1$. These are the desired g_1 and g_2 . Thus, $a \in G(f_1) + G(f_2)$, and the proof is complete.

Corollary 4: For arbitrary f_1 and f_2 of degrees n_1 and n_2 respectively, let $d = \gcd(f_1, f_2)$ and $m = \text{lcm}(f_1, f_2)$; then $G(f_1) \cap G(f_2) = G(d)$ and $G(f_1) + G(f_2) = G(m)$.

Proof: Choose polynomials k_1, k_2 such that $k_1 f_1 + k_2 f_2 = d$. Then

$$G(f_1) \cap G(f_2) \subset G(k_1 f_1) \cap G(k_2 f_2) \subset G(d) \subset G(f_1) \cap G(f_2) \quad (8)$$

where the non-trivial inclusion may be proved as follows. Suppose

$$a \in G(f_1 f_1) \cap G(k_2 f_2) - \text{so } a = \frac{g_1}{k_1 f_1} = \frac{g_2}{k_2 f_2} \quad \text{with } \deg g_i < \deg k_i f_i, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

Therefore,

$$a = \frac{g_1 + g_2}{k_1 f_1 + k_2 f_2} = \frac{g_1 + g_2}{d}$$

and it remains to show that $\deg(g_1 + g_2) < \deg d$. But

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(g_1 + g_2) &= \deg(g_1 k_2 f_2 + g_2 k_2 f_2) - \deg k_2 f_2 \\ &= \deg(g_2 k_1 f_1 + g_2 k_2 f_2) - \deg k_2 f_2 \\ &= \deg(k_1 f_1 + k_2 f_2) - \deg k_2 f_2 + \deg g_2 \\ &= \deg d - (\deg k_2 f_2 - \deg d) \\ &< \deg d . \end{aligned}$$

Since $G(f_1) + G(f_2) \subset G(m)$, it suffices to prove that these vector spaces have the same dimension, and in view of the above this follows from

$$\dim(G(f_1) + G(f_2)) + \dim(G(f_1) \cap G(f_2)) = \dim G(f_1) + \dim G(f_2) .$$

This completes the proof.

Corollary 5: $G(f_1) \cap G(f_2) \subset G(f_1 + f_2)$

Proof: Trivial, since $d \mid (f_1 + f_2)$. Of course, $f_1 + f_2$ has no constant term, so $G(f_1 + f_2)$ should be defined by dividing $f_1 + f_2$ by the power of x which will yield a constant term equal to 1.

Corollary 6: If f_1 and f_2 are relatively prime then

$$G(f_1 f_2) = G(f_1) \oplus G(f_2) \quad \text{direct sum}$$

Let us define a linear transformation, called translation, of $F\langle x \rangle$.

$$\text{For } a = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i \in F\langle x \rangle, \text{ put } aT = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_{i+1} x^i.$$

Proposition 2: $G(f)$ is translation invariant; in other words, if $a \in G(f)$ then $aT \in G(f)$.

Proof: If $a = g/f$ and we let g_0 denote the constant term of g then (since $g_0 = a_0$)

$$aT = \frac{\frac{g}{f} - g_0}{x} = \frac{\frac{(g - fg_0)}{f}}{x}, \quad \deg \frac{(g - fg_0)}{x} < \deg f. \quad (9)$$

Let Ω denote a fixed algebraic closure of F , so that $f(x)$ has n roots $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n$ in Ω . For convenience and because this is the most interesting situation, we shall assume henceforth that $f(x)$ has distinct roots. Since every element of Ω is a root of unity, there exists a smallest integer m with the property that $(\beta_i)^m = 1$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. In other words, m is the unique smallest integer such that $f(x) \mid (x^m + 1)$. Note that m is odd—for if $m = 2k$ $f(x) \mid (x^{2k} + 1) = (x^k + 1)^2 \implies f(x) \mid (x^k + 1)$. If we put

$$f^*(x) = \frac{x^m + 1}{f(x)} \quad (10)$$

then $a(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \in G(f) \subset G(x^m + 1)$ can be written in the form

$$a(x) = \frac{g(x) f^*(x)}{x^m + 1} \quad \deg(gf^*) < m \quad (11)$$

Now, for an element $a(x) \in F\langle x \rangle$ it follows from

$$\frac{1}{1+x^m} = 1 + x^m + x^{2m} + x^{3m} + \dots \quad (12)$$

that $a(x)$ has m as a period $\iff a(x)(1+x^m)$ is a polynomial of degree $< m \iff a(x) \in G(x^m + 1)$. We have therefore:

Proposition 3: Let m be the smallest integer such that $f(x) \mid (x^m + 1)$; then every element of $G(f)$ has m as a period and, in fact, m is the smallest common period of the elements of $G(f)$.

It is of interest, though not in the main stream of the present discussion, to take a slightly different viewpoint. With the notation as before, for $a(x) \in G(f)$ we may refer to

$$a(x)(1+x^m) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{m-1}x^{m-1}$$

as its periodic part and this determines an element in the residue class ring $R = F[x]/(x^m + 1)$. More precisely the map

$$a(x) \longrightarrow a(x)(x^m + 1) \quad (13)$$

is an isomorphism of $G(f)$ into R . Thus, we may view $G(f)$ as contained in R , and when this view is taken we have:

Proposition 4: $G(f)$ is the ideal Rf^* of R

Proof: In R $G(f) = \{gf^* \mid \deg g < \deg f\} \subset Rf^*$. On the other hand, any polynomial g can be written as $g = kf + r$ with $\deg r < \deg f$. Since $ff^* = 0$

in R , it follows that $gf^* = rf^*$ —so $Rf^* = G(f)$.

Let us return to an arbitrary element of $G(f)$; it is of form $a(x) = g(x)/f(x)$. Since $\deg g < \deg f$ and $f(x) = (x + \beta_1) \cdots (x + \beta_n)$ we have a partial fraction decomposition (see [1])

$$a(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{\alpha_1}{x + \beta_1} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha_n}{x + \beta_n} \quad (14)$$

The coefficients α_i are unique and come from the splitting field K of $f(x)$ over F . Now, expansion of (14) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\alpha_i}{x + \beta_i} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\alpha_i}{\beta_i} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \frac{x}{\beta_i}} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \frac{\alpha_i}{\beta_i} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{\beta_i} \right)^j \right] \right\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i \beta_i^{-(j+1)} x^j \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Thus, the coefficients of $a(x)$ are given in terms of elements from K by

$$a_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \beta_i^{-(j+1)} \quad j=0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (16)$$

Fix a primitive m^{th} root of unity ξ , where m is as in Proposition 3.

Thus, there exist distinct integers r_j for $j = 1, \dots, n$ such that

$$\beta_j^{-1} = \zeta^{r_j} \quad 0 \leq r_j \leq m-1 \quad (17)$$

Upon reversal of notation in (16), we get

$$a_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \beta_j^{-(i+1)} = \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j \zeta^{r_j}) (\zeta^i)^{r_j} \quad (18)$$

If we then put

$$P_a(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j \zeta^{r_j}) x^{r_j} \quad (19)$$

then clearly

$$P_a(\zeta^i) = a_i \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (20)$$

We have proved (see [4])

Proposition 5: For each $a \in G(f)$ there exists a polynomial $P_a(x) \in K[x]$ with $\deg P_a(x) \leq \max \{r_j\}$ and such that $a_i = P_a(\zeta^i)$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

If we had written $\beta_j = \zeta^{r_j}$ (with different r_j) instead of $\beta_j^{-1} = \zeta^{r_j}$, formula (18) would become

$$a_i = \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j \zeta^{-r_j}) (\zeta^{-i})^{r_j} \quad (21)$$

and the polynomial $\overline{P}_a(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j \zeta^{-r_j}) x^{r_j} \in K[x]$ would satisfy

$\overline{P}_a(\zeta^{-i}) = a_i$, $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. All this amounts solely to the use of the primitive m^{th} root of unity ζ^{-1} instead of ζ . The use of any other primitive m^{th} root of unity would give an analogous result, but with different values for r_j . When it is necessary to emphasize the dependence of r_j on ζ , we shall write them as $r_j(\zeta)$.

It may be noted that for any $a(x) \in F\langle x \rangle$ with odd period, m say, we may write $a(x) = g(x)/x^m + 1$, and according to Proposition 5 there exists a polynomial whose value at ζ^i is a_i for all $i \geq 0$.

Now, let us look somewhat more carefully at formula (14); we shall also change notation in the process. Let σ denote the automorphism of Ω/F such that $\sigma(\xi) = \xi^2$ for all $\xi \in \Omega$; then for any finite extension E/F , σ is a generator of the Galois group of E/F . $f(x)$ is a polynomial of degree m with distinct roots which divides $x^m + 1$, m odd. The irreducible factorization of $x^m + 1$ is of form

$$x^m + 1 = (x + 1) f_1(x) f_2(x) \cdots f_s(x) \quad (22)$$

where each $f_i(x) \in F[x]$ is irreducible, and they are all distinct. The f_i may have different degrees, but it may be observed that when m is an odd prime they all have the same degree $\frac{m-1}{s}$.

Since $f(x) \mid (x^m + 1)$, it is of form (with re-ordering, if necessary)

$$f(x) = (x + 1)^\delta f_1(x) \cdots f_t(x) \quad \delta = 0 \text{ or } 1, t \leq s \quad (23)$$

Denoting the degree of f_i by n_i , we may index the roots of f_i by

$\{ \xi_1, \sigma \xi_1, \sigma^2 \xi_1, \dots, \sigma^{n_1-1} \xi_1 \}$ $i = 1, \dots, t$. In particular, the field $E_i = F(\xi_i)$ is the splitting field of $f_i(x)$ over F and its degree is n_i ; K is the composite of all the E_i . Any element $a(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \in G(f)$ may be written uniquely (as in Corollary 3) in the form

$$a(x) = \frac{g_0(x)}{x+1} + \frac{g_1(x)}{f_1(x)} + \dots + \frac{g_t(x)}{f_t(x)} \quad g_i \in F[x], \deg g_i < n_i \quad (24)$$

where, of course, $g_0(x)$ is a constant and is 0 when $x+1$ is not a factor of $f(x)$. By decomposing each term on the right we get a unique expression

$$a(x) = \frac{\eta_0}{x-1} + \frac{\eta_1}{x-\xi_1} + \frac{\eta_1^{(1)}}{x-\sigma \xi_1} + \dots + \frac{\eta_1^{(n_1-1)}}{x-\sigma^{n_1-1} \xi_1} + \dots + \frac{\eta_t}{x-\xi_t} + \dots + \frac{\eta_t^{(n_t-1)}}{x-\sigma^{n_t-1} \xi_t} \quad (25)$$

where $\eta_0 = 0$ or 1 and $\eta_i, \eta_i^{(j)} \in E_i$. Now, extend σ to an automorphism of $\Omega\langle x \rangle$ by putting $\sigma x = x$; thus, for example, $\sigma\left(\frac{\eta}{x-\xi}\right) = \frac{\sigma \eta}{x-\sigma \xi}$. Apply, this extended σ to both sides of (25). The left side is unchanged (since $a(x) \in F\langle x \rangle$), hence so is the right side. By uniqueness, we have then $\sigma \eta_i = \eta_i^{(1)}$, $i = 1, \dots, t$. Repeating the process, yields $\sigma^j \eta_i = \eta_i^{(j)}$. If we let S_i denote the trace function from E_i to F (so that S_i is the operator $\sigma + \sigma^2 + \sigma^3 + \dots + \sigma^{n_i}$) then:

$$a(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{\eta_0}{x+1} + S_1\left(\frac{\eta_1}{x-\xi_1}\right) + \dots + S_t\left(\frac{\eta_t}{x-\xi_t}\right) \quad (26)$$

Since

$$\frac{\eta_i}{x-\xi_i} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\eta_i \xi_i^{-(j+1)} \right) x^j$$

we may write

$$\frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \eta_0 x^j + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} S_1(\eta_1 \xi_1^{-(j+1)}) x^j + \dots + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} S_t(\beta_t \xi_t^{-(j+1)}) x^j$$

The conclusion is then:

Proposition 6: Suppose that $f(x)$ has distinct roots, and let $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_t$ be representatives of the different conjugate classes of its roots (i. e. the ξ_i are roots of the distinct irreducible factors f_i of f) and put $\xi_0 = \eta_0 = 1$, $E_0 = F$, or $\xi_0 = \eta_0 = 0$, $E_0 = (0)$ according as 1 is or is not a root of $f(x)$. Then given $a(x) \in G(f)$ there exist unique $\eta_i \in E_i = F(\xi_i)$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, t$ such that

$$a_j = \eta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t S_i \left(\eta_i \xi_i^{-(j+1)} \right) \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (27)$$

By examining the proof of Proposition 6, we have the following immediate consequence.

Corollary 7: Let the hypotheses be as in Proposition 6; then there is an additive isomorphism between $G(f)$ and the additive groups of the formal direct sum $E_0 \oplus E_1 \oplus \dots \oplus E_t$ —it is given by

$$\frac{g(x)}{f(x)} \longleftrightarrow (\eta_0, \eta_1, \dots, \eta_t)$$

We have been fussing with the distinction between the cases where 1 is or is not a root of $f(x)$. In terms of knowledge of the codes $G(f)$ and their

distance properties this distinction is inessential. To see this, suppose that 1 is not a root of $f(x)$ and that the mesh of $G(f)$ (meaning the minimum distance between elements of $G(f)$, or what is the same, the minimum weight of a non-zero element of $G(f)$) is $\geq d$, while the diameter of $G(f)$ (meaning the maximum distance between two elements of $G(f)$) is $\leq D$. Since $\dim G((x-1)f) = \dim G(f) + 1$, it follows that $(1, 1, \dots, 1) \notin G(f)$. Let

$$\overline{G(f)} = \{ a + (1, 1, 1, \dots, 1) \mid a \in G(f) \} \quad (28)$$

so that

$$G((x-1)f) = G(f) \cup \overline{G(f)} \quad \text{disjoint} \quad (29)$$

Of course, this is just the coset decomposition of $G((x-1)f)$ with respect to the subgroup $G(f)$. We see then that

$$\text{mesh } G((x-1)f) \geq \min \{ d, m - D \} \quad (30)$$

where m is the period (i. e. the smallest integer such that $f(x) \mid x^m - 1$) or to be more precise

$$\text{mesh } G((x-1)f) = \min \{ \text{mesh } G(f), m - \text{diam } G(f) \} \quad (31)$$

Therefore, it will be necessary only to consider the situation where 1 is not a root of $f(x)$ —since (31) relates the error-correcting properties of $(x-1)f(x)$ with those of $f(x)$. This assumption that 1 is not a root of $f(x)$ means that in formula (27) we have $\eta_0 = 0$.

Now, in order to make use of (27) it is advisable to assume that $t = 1$ —in other words, that $f(x)$ is irreducible. Then, according to Corollary 7, $G(f)$ is additively isomorphic to $E_1 = F(\xi_1)$, and an element $\eta_1 \in E_1$ corresponds to the sequence with

$$a_j = S_1(\eta_1 \xi_1^{-(j+1)}) \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (32)$$

Since the trace is a homomorphism of E_1 onto F , it follows immediately that:

Corollary 8: Suppose that $f(x)$ is irreducible. For each j the j^{th} coordinates of the elements of $G(f)$ are half zeros and half ones.

Needless to say, this result can be derived in other ways also.

Another standard fact which is an immediate consequence of (32) is:

Corollary 9: Suppose that $f(x)$ is a primitive polynomial of degree n , then every element of $G(f)$ (except the zero vector) has 2^{n-1} ones and $2^{n-1} - 1$ zeros.

Proof: ξ_1 is a primitive $2^n - 1^{\text{th}}$ root of unity, so $\{\eta_1 \xi_1^{-(j+1)}\}$ runs over all non-zero elements of the field E_1 (for $\eta_1 \neq 0$).

From our discussion, it is clear that (20) and (27) are equivalent as far as the properties of $a(x)$ in $G(f)$ are concerned. However, (20) is often more useful, since it gives an immediate bound for the weight of $a(x)$. More precisely, with ξ as in (17) let $\mathcal{Z}(\xi) = \{1, \xi, \dots, \xi^{m-1}\}$ be the multiplicative group generated by ξ . Then the polynomial $P_a(x)$ of (19) provides a function from $\mathcal{Z}(\xi) \rightarrow F$. Now the weight of $a(x)$ can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}
||a(x)|| &= \#\{ \xi \in \mathcal{Z}(\xi) \mid P_a(\xi) = 1 \} \\
&= m - \# \{ \mathcal{Z}(\xi) \cap \ker P_a(x) \}
\end{aligned}$$

Now $\deg P_a(x) \leq \max_j r_j$ so that $\ker P_a(x)$ has $\leq \max_j r_j$ elements, and

$$||a(x)|| \geq m - \max_j r_j$$

Of course, $P_a(x)$ has a very special form (essentially, it too can be expressed in terms of traces) and we hope to discuss such matters in a future note.

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