# Two-dimensional generalized discrete Fourier transform and related quasi-cyclic Reed-Solomon codes 

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#### Abstract

Using the concept of the partial Hasse derivative, we introduce a generalization of the classical 2-dimensional discrete Fourier transform, which will be called 2D-GDFT. Begining with the basic properties of 2D-GDFT, we proceed to study its computational aspects as well as the inverse transform, which necessitate the development of a faster way to calculate the 2D-GDFT. As an application, we will employ 2D-GDFT to construct a new family of quasi-cyclic linear codes that can be assumed to be a generalization of Reed-Solomon codes.


Key words: Discrete Fourier transform, partial Hasse derivative, Reed-Solomon codes

## 1. Introduction

The relationship between one- and two-dimensional Fourier transforms is similar in the discrete domain. Let $\omega$ be an $n$th root of unity in the Galois field $F_{q}$, where $q$ is a prime power $p^{a}$. Recall that the discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of an $n$-bit vector $\mathbf{v}=\left(v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n-1}\right) \in F_{q}^{n}, n$ coprime with $p$, is defined as follows:

$$
\mathcal{F}\left\{\left(v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n-1}\right)\right\}=\left(V_{0}, V_{1}, \cdots, V_{n-1}\right)
$$

where $V_{j}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{i} \omega^{i j}, j=0, \cdots, n-1$. The vector $\mathbf{v}$ is related to its spectrum $\mathbf{V}=\mathcal{F}\{\mathbf{v}\}$ by

$$
v_{i}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} V_{j} \omega^{-i j}, i=0, \cdots, n-1
$$

where $n$ is interpreted as an integer of the field.
Two-dimensional Fourier transform of an $M \times N$-matrix $A=\left[a_{i j}\right] \in\left(F_{q}\right)^{M \times N}, M$ and $N$ relatively prime to $p$, is similarly defined as an $M \times N$-matrix $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$ by

$$
B_{k l}=\sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} A_{i j} \alpha^{i k} \beta^{j l}, \quad k=0, \cdots, M-1, \quad l=0, \cdots, N-1
$$

where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are respectively an $M$ th root of unity and an $N$ th root of unity in some (sufficiently large)

[^0]extension of $F_{q}$. In this case, the inverse transform is given by
$$
A_{i j}=\frac{1}{M N} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} B_{k l} \alpha^{-i k} \beta^{-j l}
$$

The importance of two-dimensional DFT arises when we deal with the problem of evaluating the onedimensional DFT of a vector $\mathbf{v}$ having a large number of elements, on the hypothesis that the working memory of the available processor is not sufficient to handle the vector as a whole. Such a situation can arise in several applications $[1,4,5,12]$, such as Fourier transform spectroscopy or musical sound analysis. In this case it is convenient to fold $\mathbf{v}$ into a matrix $A$ and apply the two-dimensional DFT on the corresponding matrix $A$.

Some generalizations of the concept of (one and two-dimensional) DFT were given by earlier authors. In [3], (one and two-dimensional) generalized DFT (GFT) was introduced and some basic properties were derived. In particular, it was shown that a given one-dimensional GFT on a vector $\mathbf{v}$ can be performed by means of an infinite number of two-dimensional GFTs on a matrix $A$ whose elements are the elements of $\mathbf{v}$ properly ordered. In [6], multidimensional generalized DFT was introduced and its characteristics were investigated while some general results were derived that included as particular cases the properties previously given in [3].

Here, the key point is that previously introduced two-dimensional GFTs have an inverse only if the characteristic of the field structuring the alphabet was zero or coprime with both $M$ and $N$, where $M$ and $N$ denote the number of rows and columns of input matrices, respectively. To relax that condition, we shall introduce a new kind of two-dimensional DFT, called the two-dimensional generalized DFT (2D-GDFT), which in turn relies on the concept of the partial Hasse derivative of two-variable polynomials. We will show that the 2D-GDFT enjoys all basic properties of DFT analogously. As an application, using the 2D-GDFT, we will construct a family of linear codes, called quasi-cyclic Reed-Solomon codes.

## 2. Preliminaries

### 2.1. Linear codes

Linear codes are widely studied because of their algebraic structure, which makes them easier to describe than nonlinear codes.

Let $q=p^{a}$ be a prime power and let $F_{q}$ denote the finite field of order $q$. A linear code $C$ of length $n$ over $F_{q}$ is an $F_{q}$-vector subspace of $F_{q}^{n}$. The (Hamming) weight of a vector $\mathbf{c} \in\left(F_{q}\right)^{n}$ is the number $w(\mathbf{c})$ of its nonzero coordinates. For a linear code $C$, the distance $d(C)$ is defined as the minimum weight of nonzero words. The distance of a code $C$ is important to determine the error correction capability of $C$ (that is, the number of errors that the code can correct) and its error detection capability (that is, the number of errors that the code can detect).

We denote by $T$ the standard shift operator on $F_{q}^{n}$. A (linear) code is said to be quasi-cyclic of index $l$ or $l$-quasi-cyclic if and only if it is invariant under $T^{l}$.

## 2.2. (Partial) Hasse derivatives

Recall that the $u$ th Hasse derivative $(u=0,1, \cdots)$ of a polynomial $f(x)=\sum_{i} a_{i} x^{i} \in F_{q}[x]$ is defined as the polynomial $f^{[u]}(x)=\sum_{i}\binom{i}{u} a_{i} x^{i-u}$. Analogously, for a bivariate polynomial $f(x, y)=\sum_{i, j} a_{i j} x^{i} y^{j} \in F_{q}[x, y]$,
the $(u, v)$ th partial Hasse (partial mixed) derivative of $f$, denoted by $f^{[u, v]}(x, y)$, is defined by

$$
f^{[u, v]}(x, y)=\sum_{i, j}\binom{i}{u}\binom{j}{v} a_{i j} x^{i-u} y^{j-v}
$$

Here we use a standard convention for binomial cofficients: $\binom{k}{l}=0$ for all $l>k$, which guarantees that the $(u, v)$ th Hasse derivative is again a polynomial over $F_{q}$.

## 3. Two-dimensional generalized discrete Fourier transform

Let $n=p^{a} m$, where $(m, p)=1$. When $a \geq 1, n$ is no longer relatively prime to $p$, so the classical theory of discrete Fourier transform does not apply to $F_{q}[x] /\left\langle x^{n}-1\right\rangle$. However, Massey and Serconek [9] introduced a generalized discrete Fourier transform (GDFT) as follows.

Let $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i} x^{i} \in F_{q}[x]$, and let $\zeta$ be an $m$ th root of unity in some (sufficiently large) extension of $F_{q}$.
For each $0 \leq g \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq h \leq m-1$, let

$$
\hat{c}_{g, h}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g} c_{i} \zeta^{h(i-g)} .
$$

Note that $\hat{c}_{g, h}=\mathbf{c}^{[g]}\left(\zeta^{h}\right)$.
Then the GDFT of $\mathbf{c}$ can be described in terms of a matrix:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{c}}=\left[\hat{c}_{g, h}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\hat{c}_{0,0} & \hat{c}_{0,1} & \cdots & \hat{c}_{0, m-1} \\
\hat{c}_{1,0} & \hat{c}_{1,1} & \cdots & \hat{c}_{1, m-1} \\
\vdots & & & \\
\hat{c}_{p^{a}-1,0} & \hat{c}_{p^{a}-1,1} & \cdots & \hat{c}_{p^{a}-1, m-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Motivated by the above definition, we give the following generalization of two-dimensional DFT.

Definition 3.1 Let $m=p^{a} m^{\prime}$ and $n=p^{b} n^{\prime}, m^{\prime}$ and $n^{\prime}$ relatively prime to $p$, and assume that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are the $m^{\prime}$ th root of unity and $n^{\prime}$ th root of unity in some (sufficiently large) extension of $F_{q}$, respectively. Let $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \in F_{q}[x, y]$. The two-dimensional generalized discrete Fourier transform (2D-GDFT, for short) of the bivariate $\mathbf{c}(x, y)$ is a $p^{a+b} \times m^{\prime} n^{\prime}$-matrix $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ whose the rows are indexed by all pairs $(g, h)$, $0 \leq g \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq h \leq p^{b}-1$, the columns are indexed by all pairs $(u, v), 0 \leq u \leq m^{\prime}-1$ and $0 \leq v \leq n^{\prime}-1$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)} & =\mathbf{c}^{[g, h]}\left(\alpha^{u}, \beta^{v}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## MAZROOEI et al./Turk J Math

To be convenient, we assume that the rows and the columns of the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ are ordered lexicographically. Just as the DFT, the 2D-GDFT enjoys the modulation and translation properties as well as some other nice relations.

Proposition 3.2 If $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{c}}=\left[\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)}\right]$ is a 2D-GDFT pair, then the following are 2DGDFT pairs:
(1) $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \alpha^{i l} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\alpha^{g l} \hat{c}_{(g, h),(l+u, v)}\right]$,
(2) $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta^{j k} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\beta^{h k} \hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, k+v)}\right]$,
(3) $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j-l} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \beta^{v(l-k)} \hat{c}_{(g, h-k),(u, v)}\right]$,
(4) $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i-l, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \alpha^{u(l-k)} \hat{c}_{(g-k, h),(u, v)}\right]$,
(5) $\quad \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{l-i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\sum_{k=0}^{l} \sum_{r=0}^{g-k-1}(-1)^{g-k}\binom{l}{k}\binom{g-k-1}{r} \alpha^{u(-2 g+l+k)+r} \hat{c}_{(g-k-r, h),(-u, v)}\right]$,
where $k, l \geq 0$ are integers and all indices are calculated modulo appropriate $t \in\left\{m, n, p^{a}, p^{b}\right\}$.
Proof Let $\mathbf{c}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \alpha^{i l} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\hat{c^{\prime}}}_{(g, h),(u, v)} & =\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} \alpha^{i l} c_{i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\alpha^{g l} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{i, j} \alpha^{(u+l)(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\alpha^{g l} \hat{c}_{(g, h),(u+l, v)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof of the second equality is similar to (1). To prove (3) (and similarly (4)), let $\mathbf{s}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j-l} x^{i} y^{j}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{s}_{(g, h),(u, v)} & =\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{i, j-l} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k}\binom{j-l}{h-k}\right) c_{i, j-l} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{r=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{r}{h-k} c_{i, r} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(r+l-h)}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{r=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{r}{h-k} c_{i, r} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(r-(h-k))}\right) \beta^{v(l-k)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \beta^{v(l-k)} \hat{c}_{(g, h-k),(u, v)}
\end{aligned}
$$

showing that the translation property holds.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Finally, let } \mathbf{w}= & \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{l-i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \text {. Then } \\
\hat{w}_{(g, h),(u, v)} & =\sum_{i, j}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{l-i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{i, j}\binom{j}{h}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k}\binom{i-l}{g-k}\right) c_{l-i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \sum_{i, j}\binom{i-l}{g-k}\binom{j}{h} c_{l-i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \sum_{s, j}\binom{-s}{g-k}\binom{j}{h} c_{s, j} \alpha^{u(l-s-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}\binom{l}{k} \sum_{s, j}(-1)^{g-k}\binom{s+g-k-1}{g-k}\binom{j}{h} c_{s, j} \alpha^{u(l-s-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}(-1)^{g-k}\binom{l}{k} \sum_{t, j}\binom{t}{g-k}\binom{j}{h} c_{t-g+k+1, j} \alpha^{u(l-t-k-1)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{l}(-1)^{g-k}\binom{l}{k} \alpha^{u(l-g-1)} \sum_{t, j}\binom{t}{g-k}\binom{j}{h} c_{t-g+k+1, j} \alpha^{-u(t-g+k)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
& \left.=\sum_{k=0}^{l}(-1)^{g-k}\left(\begin{array}{l}
l \\
k-k-1 \\
k
\end{array}\right) \alpha^{u(l-g-1)} \sum_{r=0}^{g-k-1} \begin{array}{l}
g \\
r=1 \\
r
\end{array}\right) \alpha^{-u(g-k-1-r)} \hat{c}_{(g-k-r, h),(-u, v)}^{g-k}\binom{l}{k}\binom{g-k-1}{r} \alpha^{u(-2 g+l+k)+r} \hat{c}_{(g-k-r, h),(-u, v)}, \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves (5).
Corollary 3.3 If $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{c}}=\left[\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)}\right]$ is a 2D-GDFT pair, then, for any $l, k \geq 0$, the following is a 2D-GDFT pair:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i-l, j-k} x^{i} y^{j} \leftrightarrow\left[\sum_{r=0}^{l} \sum_{s=0}^{k}\binom{l}{r}\binom{k}{s} \alpha^{u(l-r)} \beta^{v(k-s)} \hat{c}_{(g-r, h-s),(u, v)}\right]
$$

Let $A=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $B=\left[b_{i j}\right]$ be $m \times n$-matrices over $F_{q}$. The convolution product $A \star B$ is defined as an $m \times n$-matrix $C$ whose

$$
C_{i, j}=\sum_{l=0}^{m-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A_{i-l, j-k} B_{l k}
$$

where the indices are calculated modulo appropriate $t \in\{m, n\}$. The following theorem describes what the 2D-GDFT will do with the convolution product.

Theorem 3.4 If $\mathbf{c} \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{c}}$ and $\mathbf{d} \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{d}}$ are 2D-GDFT pairs, then $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{c} \star \mathbf{d} \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ is a $2 D$-GDFT pair, where for each $0 \leq g \leq p^{a}-1,0 \leq h \leq p^{b}-1,0 \leq u \leq m^{\prime}-1$, and $0 \leq v \leq n^{\prime}-1$,

$$
\hat{e}_{(g, h),(u, v)}=\sum_{r=0}^{g} \sum_{s=0}^{h} \hat{c}_{(g-r, h-s),(u, v)} \hat{d}_{(r, s),(u, v)}
$$

Proof By definition, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{e}_{(g, h),(u, v)}= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} e_{i, j} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h}\left(\sum_{l=0}^{m-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_{i-l, j-k} d_{l, k}\right) \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{l=0}^{m-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{i-l, j-k} d_{l, k} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
&= \sum_{i, j, l, k}\left(\sum_{r=0}^{g}\binom{l}{r}\binom{i-l}{g-r}\right)\left(\sum_{s=0}^{h}\binom{k}{s}\binom{j-k}{h-s}\right) c_{i-l, j-k} d_{l, k} \alpha^{u(i-g)} \beta^{v(j-h)} \\
&=\sum_{l, k} \sum_{r, s}\binom{l}{r}\binom{k}{s}\left(\sum_{i, j}\binom{i-l}{g-r}\binom{j-k}{h-s} c_{i-l, j-k} \alpha^{u(i-l-g+r)} \beta^{v(j-k+s-h)}\right) d_{l, k} \alpha^{u(l-r)} \beta^{v(k-s)} \\
&=\sum_{l=0}^{m-1} \sum_{r=0}^{g} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{s=0}^{h}\binom{l}{r}\binom{k}{s} \hat{c}_{(g-r, h-s),(u, v)} d_{l, k} \alpha^{u(l-r)} \beta^{v(k-s)} \\
&=\sum_{r=0}^{g} \sum_{s=0}^{h} \hat{c}_{(g-r, h-s),(u, v)} \hat{d}_{(r, s),(u, v)}
\end{aligned}
$$

as we claimed.

## 4. 2D-GDFT is invertible

In this section, we are going to describe the inverse 2D-GDFT clearly. For each $0 \leq i \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq g \leq p^{b}-1$, let

$$
\mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}(x, y)=\sum_{r=0}^{m^{\prime}-1} \sum_{s=0}^{n^{\prime}-1} c_{i+r p^{a}, g+s p^{b}} X^{r} Y^{s}
$$

Let $\lambda=\alpha^{p^{a}}$ and $\mu=\beta^{p^{b}}$, so that $\lambda$ and $\mu$ are again $m^{\prime}$ th and $n^{\prime}$ th roots of unity, respectively. By the classical two-dimensional DFT (with $\lambda$ and $\mu$ as the chosen $m^{\prime}$ th and $n^{\prime}$ th roots of unity), we have

$$
c_{i+r p^{a}, g+s p^{b}}=\frac{1}{m^{\prime} n^{\prime}} \sum_{u=0}^{m^{\prime}-1} \sum_{v=0}^{n^{\prime}-1} \mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right)\left(\lambda^{-r}\right)^{u}\left(\mu^{-s}\right)^{v}
$$

Definition 4.1 The partial Hasse matrix $H(X, Y)$ is the $p^{a+b} \times p^{a+b}$-matrix whose rows and columns are indexed (and ordered lexicographically) by all pairs $(r, s), 0 \leq r \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq s \leq p^{b}-1$, and the $(i, g),(j, h)$ th entry is $\binom{j}{i}\binom{h}{g} X^{j-i} Y^{h-g}$ (this is the $(i, g)$ th partial Hasse derivative of the monomial $X^{j} Y^{h}$ in $\left.F_{q}[X, Y]\right)$.

By definition, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(H(X, Y) H(-X,-Y))_{(i, g),(j, h)}=\sum_{k=0}^{p^{a}-1} \sum_{l=0}^{p^{b}-1}\binom{k}{i}\binom{l}{g} X^{k-i} Y^{l-g}\binom{j}{k}\binom{h}{l}(-X)^{j-k}(-Y)^{h-l} \\
&=X^{j-i} Y^{h-g}\left(\sum_{k}\binom{k}{i}\binom{j}{k}(-1)^{j-k}\right)\left(\sum_{l}\binom{l}{g}\binom{h}{l}(-1)^{h-l}\right) \\
&=\binom{j}{i}\binom{h}{g} X^{j-i} Y^{h-g}\left(\sum_{k}(-1)^{j-k}\binom{j-i}{j-k}\right)\left(\sum_{l}(-1)^{h-l}\binom{h-g}{h-l}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, from the binomial expansion

$$
(1-1)^{w}=\sum_{u \leq v}\binom{w}{u}(-1)^{u}=0
$$

applied to the off-diagonal terms in the product $H(X, Y) H(-X,-Y)$, we see that the inverse of the partial Hasse matrix $H(X, Y)$ is $H(-X,-Y)$.

Before going on, we need the following simple lemma.
Lemma 4.2 Let $q=p^{m}$ be a prime power and $F_{q}$ be a field of order $q$. For each $i, a, b, c \geq 0$ we have

$$
\binom{a}{i}=\binom{a+b p^{c}}{i}
$$

where $\binom{a}{i}$ and $\binom{a+b p^{c}}{i}$ are interpreted as integers of the field $F_{q}$.

Proof Just note that the field $F_{q}$ has characteristics $p$. Hence, $a+b p^{c}$ equals $a$ when all the quantities involved are integers. Thus, the result is obvious.

Using the previous lemma, we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j, h}\binom{j}{i}\binom{h}{g} \alpha^{u(j-i)} \beta^{v(h-g)} \mathbf{c}_{(j, h)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) & =\sum_{j, h} \sum_{r, s}\binom{j}{i}\binom{h}{g} c_{j+r p^{a}, h+s p^{b}} \alpha^{u\left(j+r p^{a}-i\right)} \beta^{v\left(h+s p^{b}-g\right)} \\
& =\sum_{h, s}\left(\sum_{j, r}\binom{j+r p^{a}}{i} c_{j+r p^{a}, h+s p^{b}} \alpha^{u\left(j+r p^{a}-i\right)}\right)\binom{h}{g} \beta^{v\left(h+s p^{b}-g\right)} \\
& =\sum_{h, s}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{m-1}\binom{k}{i} c_{k, h+s p^{b}} \alpha^{u(k-i)}\right)\binom{h}{g} \beta^{v\left(h+s p^{b}-g\right)} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{m-1}\binom{k}{i} \alpha^{u(k-i)}\left(\sum_{h, s}\binom{h+s p^{b}}{g} c_{k, h+s p^{b}} \beta^{v\left(h+s p^{b}-g\right)}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{m-1}\binom{k}{i} \alpha^{u(k-i)}\left(\sum_{l=0}^{n-1}\binom{l}{g} c_{k, l} \beta^{v(l-g)}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1}\binom{k}{i}\binom{l}{g} c_{k, l} \alpha^{u(k-i)} \beta^{v(l-g)} \\
& =\hat{c}_{(i, g),(u, v)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we have

$$
H\left(\alpha^{u}, \beta^{v}\right)\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{c}_{(0,0)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(0,1)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(0, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(1,0)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(1,1)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(1, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,0\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\hat{c}_{(0,0),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{(0,1),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(0, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{(1,0),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(1, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,0\right),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,1\right),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since the partial Hasse matrix is invertible, the above equality can be rewritten as

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{c}_{(0,0)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(0,1)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(0, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(1,0)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{(1,1)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(1, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,0\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1, p^{b}-1\right)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right)
\end{array}\right]=H\left(-\alpha^{u},-\beta^{v}\right)\left[\begin{array}{l}
\hat{c}_{(0,0),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{(0,1),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(0, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{(1,0),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{\left(1, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,0\right),(u, v)} \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1,1\right),(u, v)} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{c}_{\left(p^{a}-1, p^{b}-1\right),(u, v)}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Consequently,

$$
c_{i+r p^{a}, g+s p^{b}}=\frac{1}{m^{\prime} n^{\prime}} \sum_{u=0}^{m^{\prime}-1} \sum_{v=0}^{n^{\prime}-1}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{p^{a}-1} \sum_{h=0}^{p^{b}-1}\binom{j}{i}\binom{h}{g}\left(-\alpha^{u}\right)^{j-i}\left(-\beta^{v}\right)^{h-g} \hat{c}_{(j, h),(u, v)}\right)\left(\lambda^{-r}\right)^{u}\left(\mu^{-s}\right)^{v} .
$$

Therefore, the 2D-GDFT is invertible.

## 5. A family of quasi-cyclic codes

Reed-Solomon codes (RS codes) are a class of error-correcting cyclic codes proposed by Reed and Solomon in their original paper [10]. RS codes have optimal parameters and can be efficiently decoded $[7,11,13]$.

Considering a vector space of polynomials $f$ such that $f(m)=0$ for all $m$ in the set $B=\left\{\alpha^{r_{0}}, \alpha^{r_{0}+1}, \cdots\right.$, $\left.\alpha^{r_{0}+n-k-1}\right\}$, we can define an RS code of length $n$ and dimension $k$ over the finite field $F_{q}$. Here $\alpha$ can be any element in $F_{q}$ of multiplicative order at least $n$ where $n$ is a divisor of $q-1$. The key point here is that we can construct the RS codes from another fruitful method, the DFT approach ([2], Section 6), which enables us to introduce our generalization of such codes.

Definition 5.1 Let $d \geq 2, m=p^{a} m^{\prime}$, and $n=p^{b} n^{\prime}$, where $a, b \geq 0$ are integers and $m^{\prime}, n^{\prime}$ are relatively prime to $p$. Consider the subspace $C^{\star}$ consisting of all matrices $\mathbf{c} \in\left(F_{q}\right)^{m \times n}$ whose $\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)}=0$ for all pairs $(g, h)$ and $(u, v)$ in which $0 \leq v \leq n^{\prime}-2$. A generalized $R S$ code $C$ of block length mn over $F_{q}$, denoted $G R S_{m, n, d}$, will be defined as the set of all words $\mathbf{c} \in C^{\star}$ whose $\hat{c}_{(g, h),\left(u, n^{\prime}-1\right)}=0$ for all pairs $(g, h)$ and all pairs $\left(u, n^{\prime}-1\right)$ in which $u$ belongs to a specified block of $d-1$ consecutive integers, denoted $\left\{z_{0}, z_{0}+1, \ldots, z_{0}+d-2\right\}$, i.e. $0 \leq z_{0} \leq u \leq z_{0}+d-2 \leq m^{\prime}-1$.

Note that, by definition, we obtain a code whose elements are matrices, which can be viewed as vectors of length $m n$, by reading them column by column. It is easy to verify that $\operatorname{GRS}_{m, n, d}$ is an $\left[m n, p^{a+b}\left(m^{\prime}-d+1\right)\right]-$ linear code.

In the following, $\mathfrak{B}_{z_{0}, d}$ stands for the set

$$
\left\{\left(u, n^{\prime}-1\right) \mid z_{0} \leq u \leq z_{0}+d-2\right\} \cup\left\{(u, v) \mid 0 \leq u \leq m^{\prime}-1,0 \leq v \leq n^{\prime}-2\right\}
$$

and will be called the defining set of the code $\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}$.

## MAZROOEI et al./Turk J Math

Proposition 5.2 The code $G R S_{m, n, d}$ is a quasi-cyclic code of index $m$.
Proof Suppose that $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j}$ is a word of $\operatorname{GRS}_{m, n, d}$. Hence, $\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)}=0$ for all pairs $(g, h)$ and for each pair $(u, v) \in \mathfrak{B}_{d}$. Thus,

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\binom{n-1}{k} \beta^{v(n-1-k)} \hat{c}_{(g, h-k),(u, v)}=0
$$

for all pairs $(g, h)$ and for each pair $(u, v) \in \mathfrak{B}_{d}$. Therefore, by proposition 3.2(3), the 2D-GDFT of the word $\mathbf{c}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j-1} x^{i} y^{j}$ is equal to zero in those columns $(u, v)$ in which $(u, v) \in \mathfrak{B}_{d}$, proving that $\mathbf{c}^{\prime}$ is a word of $\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}$, as desired.

Next, the minimum distance of the code $\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}$ is going to be discussed.
Proposition 5.3 The minimum distance of the code $G R S_{m, n, d}$ satisfies

$$
n^{\prime} d \leq d_{\min }\left(\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}\right) \leq p^{a+b}\left(m^{\prime} n^{\prime}-m^{\prime}+d-1\right)+1
$$

Proof Without loss of generality, we can suppose $z_{0}=m^{\prime}-d+1$. Otherwise, use proposition 3.2(1) to translate the defining set $\mathfrak{B}_{z_{0}, d}$ to $\mathfrak{B}_{m^{\prime}-d+1, d}$, thereby multiplying each codeword component by a power of $\alpha$, which does not change the weight of a codeword because components that were nonzero remain nonzero. Suppose that $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j}$ is a nonzero word of GRS $m, n, d$. For any $0 \leq i \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq g \leq p^{b}-1$, let

$$
C_{(i, g)}(x)=\sum_{u=0}^{m^{\prime}-1} \mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{n^{\prime}-1}\right) x^{u}
$$

where $\mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}, \lambda$, and $\mu$ are defined as in Section 4. Recall that

$$
\mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{p^{a}-1} \sum_{l=0}^{p^{b}-1}\binom{k}{i}\binom{l}{g}\left(-\alpha^{u}\right)^{k-i}\left(-\beta^{v}\right)^{l-g} \hat{c}_{(k, l),(u, v)}
$$

On the other hand, $\hat{c}_{(k, l),(u, v)}=0$ for all $0 \leq k \leq p^{a}-1,0 \leq l \leq p^{b}-1$, and $(u, v) \in \mathfrak{B}_{m^{\prime}-d+1, d}$, showing that $\mathbf{c}_{(i, g)}\left(\lambda^{u}, \mu^{v}\right)=0$ for each pair $(u, v) \in \mathfrak{B}_{m^{\prime}-d+1, d}$. Therefore, the polynomial $C_{(i, g)}(x)$ is either zero or has degree at most $m^{\prime}-d$. Since $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$, we can find a nonzero polynomial $C_{(i, g)}(x)$ for some $0 \leq i \leq p^{a}-1$ and $0 \leq g \leq p^{b}-1$. Some of the components of the codeword $\mathbf{c}$ are $c_{i+r p^{a}, g+s p^{b}}=\frac{\left(\mu^{-s}\right)^{n^{\prime}-1}}{m^{\prime} n^{\prime}} C_{(i, g)}\left(\lambda^{-r}\right)$, $r=0, \cdots, m^{\prime}-1$, and $s=0, \cdots, n^{\prime}-1$. Since $C_{(i, g)}(x)$ is a polynomial of degree at most $m^{\prime}-d$, it can have at most $m^{\prime}-d$ zeros. Hence, for any $0 \leq s \leq n^{\prime}-1$, there will be at least $d$ index $r$ such that $c_{i+r p^{a}, g+s p^{b}} \neq 0$. Consequently, $w(\mathbf{c}) \geq t d$ where $t$ is the number of those pairs $(i, g)$ whose $C_{(i, g)}(x) \neq 0$. Thus, $d_{\min }\left(\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}\right) \geq m^{\prime} n^{\prime}-\left(m^{\prime}-d\right) n^{\prime}=n^{\prime} d$. The right side of the inequality will be obtained from the Singleton bound for linear codes. This completes the proof.

Example 5.4 Let $q=4, m=6$, and $n=5$. Choosing $\alpha^{5}$ and $\alpha^{3}$ as the fifth and third roots of unity in the Galois field $F_{4}=\left\{a_{0}+a_{1} \alpha+a_{2} \alpha^{2}+a_{3} \alpha^{3} \mid a_{i} \in F_{2}, \alpha^{4}=\alpha+1\right\}$, the 2D-GDFT of a bivariate polynomial $\mathbf{c}=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} c_{i, j} x^{i} y^{j}$ is given by the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ whose

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{c}_{(g, h),(u, v)} & =\mathbf{c}^{[g, h]}\left(\alpha^{5 u}, \alpha^{3 v}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{5} \sum_{j=0}^{4}\binom{i}{g}\binom{j}{h} c_{i, j} 5^{5 u(i-g)+3 v(j-h)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, let $d=1$. Then the code $G R S_{6,5,1}$ is a linear [30,9]-quasi-cyclic code of minimum distance 16 (http://www.codetables.de). This shows that good quasi-cyclic codes can be constructed via our algebraic approach, as in [9], where such codes have been constructed using integer linear programming and a heuristic combinatorial optimization algorithm based on a greedy local search.

## 6. Conclusion

We generalized and studied the 2D-GDFT, which enables us to apply the powerful concept of 2D-DFT on data matrices for which the number of rows or columns is not necessarily coprime with the field characteristic. Our generalized 2D-DFT enjoys the basic properties of the original one. As an application, we introduced a family of quasi-cyclic linear codes, denoted by $\mathrm{GRS}_{m, n, d}$, which are a natural generalization of the classical Reed-Solomon codes, and the code parameters were described.

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