# POLYNOMIAL DIVISIBILITY IN FINITE FIELDS, AND RECURRING SEQUENCES 

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## 1. INTRODUCTION AND PRELIMINARIES

The theory of polynomials the coefficients of which belong to finite fields (e.g., see [4]) is a valid mathematical tool to face various problems arising in telecommunication engineering. For example, it plays a crucial role in the design of scramblers and descramblers, multilevel codecoders, linear shift-registers, etc., and in the analysis of their performances (e.g., see [1], [5]). It is sometimes necessary to fix our attention on special classes of these polynomials, such as irreducible and primitive polynomials [4], [5]. For example, for the sequence generated by a linear feedback shift register to be of maximal length, the characteristic polynomial of the register must be primitive [1], [2].

To seek irreducible polynomials or to factor reducible ones, it is useful to have at disposal criteria for the divisibility over the finite field $\mathrm{GF}(q)$ ( $q$ a prime or a power of a prime) of a polynomial $f(x)$ by a polynomial $g(x)$ of degree less than that of $f(x)$. Some criteria for the divisibility over $\mathrm{GF}(2)$ are well known. As a minor instance, we have that: (i) if the coefficient of the zero-degree term of $f(x)$ vanishes, then this polynomial is divisible by its term of lower degree; (ii) if the number of the nonzero coefficients is even, then $f(x)$ is divisible by $x+1$.

Following the notation of Lidl [4], let $f(x) \in \mathrm{GF}(q)[x]$ and $g(x) \in \mathrm{GF}(q)[x]$ be two polynomials of arbitrary degree $n$ and $m(m<n)$, respectively,

$$
\begin{gather*}
f(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k} x^{k}, a_{k} \in \mathrm{GF}(q), a_{n} \not \equiv 0(\bmod q),  \tag{1.1}\\
g(x)=x^{m}-\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} b_{k} x^{k}, m<n, b_{k} \operatorname{GF}(q) . \tag{1.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

The polynomial $f(x)$ is divisible in $\operatorname{GF}(q)$ by $g(x)$ if the remainder of $f(x): g(x)$ is congruent to zero modulo $q$. In Section 2, criteria for this divisibility are established which involve the use of certain $m^{\text {th }}$-order recurring sequences. The ubiquitous Fibonacci numbers make their appearance in the case $m=q=2$. In Section 3, three special cases are analyzed, the last of which turns out to be a useful tool for ascertaining the irreducibility or the primitivity of certain classes of polynomials.

Throughout this paper, all relations and algebraic manipulations are meant to be performed modulo $q$. This fact will be indicated explicitly only in the final results.

## 2. THE MAIN RESULT

The (provisional) remainder $f_{i}(x)$ obtained at the $i^{\text {th }}$ step $(0 \leq i \leq n-m+1)$ of the long division $f(x): g(x)$ has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{i}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-i} r_{j}^{(i)} x^{n-i-j}, r_{j}^{(i)} \in \mathrm{GF}(q) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Obviously, the actual remainder of this division is $f_{n-m+1}(x)$. Moreover, we assume that $f_{0}(x)=$ $f(x)$, which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{j}^{(0)}=a_{n-j}(j=0,1, \ldots, n) . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the term of $(n-i-m)^{\text {th }}$-degree of the quotient is given by $r_{0}^{(i)} x^{n-i-m}$, using the long division algorithm gives the $(i+1)^{\text {th }}$ provisional remainder

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{i+1}(x)=f_{i}(x)-r_{0}^{(i)} x^{n-i-m} g(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-i-1}\left(r_{j+1}^{(i)}+b_{m-j-1} r_{0}^{(i)}\right) x^{n-i-j-1} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

whereas, by definition (2.1), we can write

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{i+1}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-i-1} r_{j}^{(i+1)} x^{n-i-j-1} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

By identifying the terms of the same degree in (2.3) and (2.4), the following system of $n-i$ difference equations can be written

$$
r_{j}^{(i+1)}= \begin{cases}r_{j+1}^{(i)}+b_{m-j-1} r_{0}^{(i)} & (0 \leq j \leq m-1),  \tag{2.5}\\ r_{j+1}^{(i)} & (m \leq j \leq n-i-1),\end{cases}
$$

the initial conditions of which are given by (2.2).
By (2.2), the second equation of (2.5) produces

$$
\begin{align*}
& r_{j}^{(1)}=r_{j+1}^{(0)}=a_{n-j-1}, \\
& r_{j}^{(2)}=r_{j+1}^{(1)}=r_{j+2}^{(0)}=a_{n-j-2}, \\
& r_{j}^{(3)}=r_{j+1}^{(2)}=r_{j+2}^{(1)}=r_{j+3}^{(0)}=a_{n-j-3},  \tag{2.6}\\
& \cdots \\
& r_{j}^{(i)}=r_{j+1}^{(i-1)}=\cdots=a_{n-j-i}(m \leq j \leq n-i-1),
\end{align*}
$$

whence, as a special case,

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{m}^{(i)}=a_{n-m-i} . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first equation of (2.5) produces the equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{j}^{(i)}=r_{j+1}^{(i-1)}+b_{m-j-1} r_{0}^{(i-1)}, \\
& r_{j+1}^{(i-1)}=r_{j+2}^{(i-2)}+b_{m-j-2} r_{0}^{(i-2)} \\
& \cdots \\
& r_{m-1}^{(i-m+j+1)}=r_{m}^{(i-m+j)}+b_{0} r_{0}^{(i-m+j)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Summing both sides of these equations and using (2.6) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{j}^{(i)}=r_{m}^{(i-m+j)}+\sum_{\ell=1}^{m-j} b_{m-j-\ell} r_{0}^{(i-\ell)}=a_{n-i-j}+\sum_{\ell=1}^{m-j} b_{m-j-\ell} r_{0}^{(i-\ell)}(0 \leq j \leq m-1) . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $j=0$; (2.7) reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{0}^{(i)}=a_{n-i}+\sum_{\ell=1}^{m} b_{m-\ell} r_{0}^{(i-\ell)}, \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r_{0}^{(i-\ell)}=0$ if $i<\ell$, and (2.2) applies.
Proposition 1:

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{0}^{(i)}=\sum_{h=0}^{i} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h+1}, \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the integers $Z_{h}$ obey the recurrence

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{h}=b_{m-1} Z_{h-1}+b_{m-2} Z_{h-2}+\cdots+b_{0} Z_{h-m} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is of $m^{\text {th }}$-order if $b_{0} \not \equiv 0(\bmod q)$, and has initial conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{h}=0(\text { for }-m+2 \leq h \leq 0) \text { and } Z_{1}=1 \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
Z_{1}=1,  \tag{2.11}\\
Z_{2}=b_{m-1} Z_{1}, \\
Z_{3}=b_{m-1} Z_{2}+b_{m-2} Z_{1}, \\
\cdots \\
Z_{m}=b_{m-1} Z_{m-1}+b_{m-2} Z_{m-2}+\cdots+b_{1} Z_{1} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof: We shall prove that replacing the right-hand side of (2.9) in (2.8) yields an identity. In fact, this replacement gives the equation

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{h=0}^{i} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h+1}= & a_{n-i}+b_{m-1} \sum_{h=0}^{i-1} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h}  \tag{2.12}\\
& +b_{m-2} \sum_{h=0}^{i-2} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h-1}+\cdots+b_{0} \sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h-m+1} .
\end{align*}
$$

By reducing all summations in (2.12) to the same upper range indicator (namely, $i-m$ ), we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{n-i} Z_{1}+a_{n-i+1} Z_{2}+\cdots+a_{n-i+m-1} Z_{m}+\sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h+1} \\
& =a_{n-i}+b_{m-1}\left(a_{n-i+1} Z_{1}+a_{n-i+2} Z_{2}+\cdots+a_{n-i+m-1} Z_{m-1}\right)+b_{m-1} \sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h} \\
& +b_{m-2}\left(a_{n-i+2} Z_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-i+m-1} Z_{m-2}\right)+b_{m-2} \sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h-1}+\cdots \\
& +b_{1}\left(a_{n-i+m-1} Z_{1}\right)+b_{1} \sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h-m+2}+b_{0} \sum_{h=0}^{1-m} a_{n-h} Z_{i-h-m+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The above equation can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{array}{r}
a_{n-i}\left(Z_{1}-1\right)+a_{n-i+1}\left(Z_{2}-b_{m-1} Z_{1}\right)+\cdots+a_{n-i+m-1}\left(Z_{m}-b_{m-1} Z_{m-1}-\cdots-b_{1} Z_{1}\right) \\
+\sum_{h=0}^{i-m} a_{n-h}\left(Z_{i-h+1}-b_{m-1} Z_{i-h}-b_{m-2} Z_{i-h-1}-\cdots-b_{0} Z_{i-m-h+1}\right)=0,
\end{array}
$$

which, by (2.10) and (2.11) is identically satisfied. Q.E.D.
Recalling that the quantities $r_{j}^{(n-m+1)}(j=0,1, \ldots, m-1)$ are the coefficients of the remainder of $f(x): g(x)$, it becomes patent that $f(x)$ is divisible by $g(x)$ iff $r_{j}^{(n-m+1)} \equiv 0(\bmod q)$ for all admissible values of $j$. By (2.9), after some simple manipulations, one can see that the condition $r_{0}^{(n-m+1)} \equiv 0(\bmod q)$ is satisfied if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=m-1}^{n} a_{h} Z_{h-m+2} \equiv 0(\bmod q) \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

By using the first equation of (2.5), we can get analogous conditions pertaining to $r_{j}^{(n-m+1)}$ for $1 \leq j \leq m-1$. For example, letting $j=0$ in (2.5) yields

$$
r_{1}^{(n-m+1)}=r_{0}^{(n-m+2)}-b_{m-1} r_{0}^{(n-m+1)} \equiv r_{0}^{(n-m+2)}(\bmod q) \quad[\operatorname{by}(2.13)],
$$

whence, by (2.9), the condition $r_{1}^{(n-m+1)} \equiv r_{0}^{(n-m+2)} \equiv 0(\bmod q)$ is satisfied if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=m-2}^{n} a_{h} Z_{h-m+3} \equiv 0(\bmod q) \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Iterating this procedure for all values of $j$ allows us to state our main result.
Proposition 2 (main result): The polynomial $f(x)$ is divisible by the polynomial $g(x)$ iff

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=m-j-1}^{n} a_{h} Z_{h-m+j+2} \equiv 0(\bmod q) \text { for } j=0,1, \ldots, m-1 . \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 3. SPECIAL CASES

For small values of $m$, or for special polynomials $f(x)$, the divisibility conditions (2.15) simplify remarkably. In this section, three special cases are discussed in detail.

## Case 1: $m=1$

If $m=1$, Proposition 2 tells us that $f(x)$ is divisible by $x-b_{0}\left[b_{0} \not \equiv 0(\bmod q)\right]$ iff

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=0}^{n} a_{h} Z_{h+1} \equiv \sum_{h=0}^{n} a_{h} b_{0}^{h} \equiv 0(\bmod q), \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $Z_{h}=b_{0} Z_{h-1}$ with $Z_{1}=1$ [see (2.10)-(2.11)] implies $Z_{h}=b_{0}^{h-1}$. The condition (3.1) agrees with the well-known fact (e.g., see [4], Theorem 1.64) that, if $f\left(b_{0}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod q)$, then $f(x)$ is divisible by $x-b_{0}$ [cf. point (ii) in Section 1].

Case 2: $m=2$
If $m=2$, Proposition 2 tells us that $f(x)$ is divisible by $x^{2}-b_{1} x-b_{0}\left[b_{0} \neq 0(\bmod q)\right]$ iff

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=1-j}^{n} a_{h} Z_{h+j} \equiv 0(\bmod q)(j=0,1) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the numbers $Z_{h}$ are the generalized Fibonacci numbers $W_{h}$ [more precisely, the numbers $W_{h}\left(b_{1},-b_{0} ; 0,1\right)$ ] which have been studied extensively over the past years (e.g., see [3] for background material). In particular, if $q=2, f(x)$ is divisible by $x^{2}-x-1$ iff

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{h=1-j}^{n} a_{h} F_{h+j} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)(j=0,1), \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{h}$ denotes the $h^{\text {th }}$ Fibonacci number. Taking into account that $F_{h}$ is even iff $h \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, conditions (3.2) can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{h=1 \\ h \neq 0(\bmod 3)}}^{n} a_{h} \equiv \sum_{\substack{h=1 \\ h \neq 2(\bmod 3)}}^{n} a_{h} \equiv 0(\bmod 2) . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case 3: $f(x)=x^{n}-1$
If $f(x)=x^{n}-1$, then Proposition 2 tells us that $f(x)$ is divisible by $g(x)$ iff

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
Z_{n-m+j+2} \equiv 0(\bmod q) \quad(j=0,1, \ldots, m-2),  \tag{3.5}\\
Z_{n+1} \equiv Z_{1} \equiv 1(\bmod q) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

When $n=q^{m}-1$ and $m$ is a prime not less than $q$, the fulfillment of (3.5) implies that $g(x)\left[b_{0} \not \equiv 0\right.$ $(\bmod q)$ ] is irreducible (see [4], Theorem 3.20). Moreover, if $q=2$ and $n$ is a Mersenne prime, then $g(x)$, beyond being irreducible, is primitive (see [4], Corollary 3.4).

The fulfillment of (3.5) can be checked out rapidly by means of the software implementation of an $m$-cell linear feedback shift register [2] having $g(x)$ as its characteristic polynomial, and initial state $[1,0,0, \ldots, 0]$. Once this is made, one simply has to ascertain that the $m$ terms $Z_{n-m+2}, Z_{n-m+3}, \ldots, Z_{n+1}$ of the sequence $\left\{Z_{h}\right\}$ generated by this device satisfy (3.5).

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