# CYCLIC AND BCH CODES WHOSE MINIMUM DISTANCE EQUALS THEIR MAXIMUM BCH BOUND 

José Joaquín Bernal and Juan Jacobo Simón<br>Departamento de Matemáticas, Universidad de Murcia, Spain<br>Diana H. Bueno-Carreño<br>Departamento de Ciencias Naturales y Matemáticas, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana-Cali, Colombia

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#### Abstract

In this paper we study the family of cyclic codes such that its minimum distance reaches the maximum of its BCH bounds. We also show a way to construct cyclic codes with that property by means of computations of some divisors of a polynomial of the form $x^{n}-1$. We apply our results to the study of those BCH codes $C$, with designed distance $\delta$, that have minimum distance $d(C)=\delta$. Finally, we present some examples of new binary BCH codes satisfying that condition. To do this, we make use of two related tools: the discrete Fourier transform and the notion of apparent distance of a code, originally defined for multivariate abelian codes.


## 1. Introduction

The computation of the minimum distance of a cyclic code, or a lower bound for it, is one of the main problems on abelian codes (see, for example, $[3,6,7]$ ). The oldest lower bound for the minimum distance of a cyclic code is the BCH bound [5, p. 151]. The study of this bound and its generalizations is a classical topic which includes the study of the very well-known family of BCH codes. In particular, an interesting problem is to determine when the maximum of the BCH bounds of a given cyclic code equals its minimum distance (see $[2,6]$ ). This is our interest.

In this paper we deal with three problems related to the study of the BCH bound. The first one is how to give necessary and sufficient conditions for a cyclic code to insure that the maximum of its BCH bounds equals its minimum distance. The second problem is how to construct such cyclic codes. Our third problem is related to construction techniques of BCH codes for which its designed distance, its maximum BCH bound and its minimum distance coincide.

To solve our first problem, we make use of two related tools: the discrete Fourier transform and the notion of apparent distance of a code, originally defined for multivariate abelian codes in [1]. These tools and the notation needed are given in

[^0]Section 2. In Section 3, we characterize those cyclic codes for which its minimum distance reaches the maximum of its BCH bounds (problem 1). Then we study how to construct cyclic codes with that property by means of computations of divisors of a polynomial of the form $x^{n}-1$ (problem 2). Section 4 is devoted to solve our third problem. We apply our results to the study of those BCH codes $C$, with designed distance $\delta$, that have minimum distance $d(C)=\delta$ (see [6, Section 9.2]). In this paper, some examples of construction techniques and examples of new binary BCH codes whose minimum distance equals its designed distance are presented. We point out that all computations were done by using the GAP4r7 program [4] with the cooperation of Alexander Konovalov. The authors are indebted to him.

## 2. Notation and preliminaries

We will use standard terminology from coding theory (see for example [6, Chapter 7] or $\left[2\right.$, Section 2]). We denote by $q$ a power of the prime number $p$ and by $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ the field of $q$ elements. Let $n$ be a positive integer which is coprime to $q$. We denote by $R_{n}$ the set of $n$-th roots of unity and by $U_{n}$ the set of primitive $n$-th roots of unity.

We denote by $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ the ring of polynomials with coefficients in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. For any $g=g(x) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ we denote by $\operatorname{deg}(g)$ its degree, by $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ its support and by $\omega(g)=|\operatorname{supp}(g)|$ its weight. For any positive integer $n$, we consider the quotient ring $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x] /\left(x^{n}-1\right)$ which will be denoted by $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. As usual, we identify the elements $g \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ with polynomials; so we may take $g \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and then write $g \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ (where $\operatorname{deg}(g)<n$ ). For any $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$ we denote by $\bar{f}$ its image under the canonical projection onto $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$.

As in $[7]$, a cyclic code $C$ of length $n$ in the alphabet $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ will be identified with the corresponding ideal in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ (up to permutation equivalence). Then, by a cyclic code we mean an ideal of $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. It is well known that if $\operatorname{gcd}(n, q)=1$ then the quotient ring $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ is semisimple and then every cyclic code has a unique monic generator polynomial [6, Theorem 7.1] and a unique idempotent generator [6, Theorem 8.1]. We always assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(n, q)=1$.

We denote by $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ the integers modulo $n$ and we identify any class in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ with its canonical representative. It is well-known that every cyclic code $C$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ is totally determined by its set of zeros (or its root set), which is defined as $Z(C)=\left\{\alpha \in R_{n} \mid c(\alpha)=0\right.$, for all $\left.c \in C\right\}$; thus, for any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$, we have that $f \in C$ if and only if $f(\alpha)=0$ for all $\alpha \in Z(C)$. Fixed $\alpha \in U_{n}$, we denote the defining set of $C$ with respect to $\alpha$ as $D_{\alpha}(C)=\left\{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{n} \mid \alpha^{i} \in Z(C)\right\}$ (see [6, p. 199]). It is well-known that, when $\operatorname{gcd}(n, q)=1$, defining sets are partitioned in $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$ [6, p. 104], which are defined as follows: given any element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, the $q$-cyclotomic coset of $a$ modulo $n$ is the set $C_{q}(a)=\left\{a, q a, \ldots, q^{n_{a}-1} a\right\}(\bmod n)$, where $n_{a}$ is the smallest positive integer such that $q^{n_{a}} a \equiv a \bmod n$. We recall that the notions of set of zeros and defining set are also applied to polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ in the obvious way.

For any code $C$, we denote its minimum distance by $d(C)$. The BCH bound states that for any cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ that has a string of $\delta-1$ consecutive powers of some $\alpha \in U_{n}$ as zeros, the minimum distance of the code is at least $\delta[6$, Theorem 7.8]. In terms of defining sets, if there is a string of $\delta-1$ consecutive integers modulo $n$ in $D_{\alpha}(C)$, for some $\alpha \in U_{n}$, then $d(C) \geq \delta$. Note that different roots of unity may yield different defining sets and consequently different lower bounds. For any cyclic code $C$ the maximum of its BCH bounds will be denoted by $\Delta(C)$. Sometimes it is called the BCH (lower) bound of the code (see [1, p. 22] and [2, p. 984]).

The following Remark shows that in order to compute the maximum $\Delta(C)$ we do not need to consider all the elements in $U_{n}$. This fact will be used later.

Remark 1. Let $C_{q}\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, C_{q}\left(a_{h}\right)$ be the $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$ and fix a complete set of representatives $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{h}\right\}$. Suppose we have chosen $\alpha \in U_{n}$ to get a defining set $D_{\alpha}(C)$. We want to identify the elements $\beta \in U_{n}$ satisfying $D_{\beta}(C) \neq$ $D_{\alpha}(C)$. Then, $\beta$ must satisfy the equality $\beta^{a_{i} q^{j}}=\alpha$ for some representative $a_{i}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, a_{i}\right)=1$ and $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case $D_{\beta}(C)=a_{i} \cdot D_{\alpha}(C)$, where the multiplication has the obvious meaning. We define

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(n)=\left\{a_{i} \mid \operatorname{gcd}\left(a_{i}, n\right)=1\right\} \tag{F.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to see that $O_{n}(q)=\left|C_{q}\left(a_{i}\right)\right|$ for any $a_{i} \in A(n)$. In addition, since $D_{\beta^{a_{i}}}(C)=D_{\beta^{a_{i} q^{j}}}(C)=D_{\beta^{a_{i} q^{j}}}(C)\left(j, j^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}\right)$, we conclude that we have to consider at most $\frac{\phi(n)}{O_{n}(q)}$ distinct defining sets or elements in $U_{n}$ to get $\Delta(C)$.

For example, set $n=41$ and $q=2$. The 2-cyclotomic cosets are $C_{2}(0), C_{2}(1)$ and $C_{2}(3)$. So $A(41)=\{1,3\}$. For a fixed $\alpha \in U_{41}$, let $C$ be the cyclic code with defining set $D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(1)$. Some BCH bounds for $C$ with respect to $\alpha$ are $\delta_{1}=3$ by considering $\{1,2\} \subset D_{\alpha}(C)$, and $\delta_{2}=4$ by considering $\{8,9,10\} \subset D_{\alpha}(C)$. Now we also have to consider $D_{\beta}(C)=3 \cdot D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(3)$ and compute the corresponding BCH bounds. We find $\delta_{3}=6$ by considering $\{11,12,13,14,15\} \subset D_{\beta}(C)$. In this case, $\Delta(C)=6$. It is worth to mention that in the binary and ternary cases for $n \leq 70$ we have that $\frac{\phi(n)}{O_{n}(q)} \leq 6$ and for $n \leq 90$ we have that $\frac{\phi(n)}{O_{n}(q)} \leq 8$.

A cyclic code $C$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$, with generator polynomial $g(x)$, is a BCH code of designed distance $\delta$ if there exists $\alpha \in U_{n}$ and $b \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $g(x)$ is the polynomial with the lowest degree over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ such that $\left\{\alpha^{b+j} \mid j=0, \ldots, \delta-2\right\} \subseteq$ $Z(C)$ (see [6, p. 202]). Equivalently, $C$ is a BCH code if for any cyclotomic coset $Q \subseteq D_{\alpha}(C)$ we have that $Q \cap\{b+j \mid j=0, \ldots, \delta-2\} \neq \emptyset$. As it is known, this implies that $C$ is the cyclic code with highest dimension such that its set of zeros satisfies the inclusion of the subset of zeroes mentioned above. We denote such a code by $B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)$. The Bose distance of a BCH code $C=B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)$ is defined as the largest $\delta^{\prime}$ such that $C=B_{q}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$, for some $b^{\prime} \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and some $\alpha^{\prime} \in U_{n}$. We note that for a BCH code it may happen that its Bose distance is less than $\Delta\left(B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)\right)$, as we shall see in the next example.

Let $\mathbb{L} \mid \mathbb{F}_{q}$ be an extension field. For any element $a \in \mathbb{L}$ we denote by $\min _{q}(a)$ the minimal polynomial of $a$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}[x]$. In the case $q=2$ we only write $\min (a)$.
Example 1. Set $q=2$, $n=21$ and fix $\alpha \in U_{21}$ such that $\min (\alpha)=x^{6}+x^{5}+x^{4}+x^{2}+$ 1. Let $C=B_{2}(\alpha, 4,6)$ be the BCH code generated by $\operatorname{lcm}\left\{\min (\alpha), \min \left(\alpha^{3}\right), \min \left(\alpha^{7}\right)\right\}$. Consider the 2-cyclotomic cosets modulo 21, $C_{2}(0)=\{0\}, C_{2}(1)=\{1,2,4,8,11,16\}$, $C_{2}(3)=\{3,6,12\}, C_{2}(5)=\{5,10,13,17,19,20\}, C_{2}(7)=\{7,14\}$ and $C_{2}(9)=$ $\{9,15,18\}$. One may check that the defining set of the code $C$ with respect to $\alpha$ is $D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)=C_{2}(6) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(8)$. In this case $A(21)=\{1,5\}$ so we also have to consider the element $\beta \in U_{21}$ such that $\beta^{5}=\alpha$. Then $D_{\beta}(C)=5 \cdot D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(9)$. One may see that the Bose distance is $\delta=4$, given by considering $\{6,7,8\} \subset D_{\alpha}(C)$ and $\{13,14,15\} \subset D_{\beta}(C)$. However $\Delta(C)=5$, because $\{1,2,3,4\} \subset D_{\alpha}(C)$ and $\{17,18,19,20\} \subset D_{\beta}(C)$. But $\{1,2,3,4\} \subset C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3)$ and $\{17,18,19,20\} \subset C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(9)$, so that $C$ cannot be a BCH code of designed distance $\delta=5$. Hence the Bose distance is less than the maximum of all possible BCH bounds (or simply the BCH bound, $\Delta(C)$ ).

Let $\mathbb{L} \mid \mathbb{F}_{q}$ be an extension field such that $U_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$ and fix $\alpha \in U_{n}$. The (discrete) Fourier transform of a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ with respect to $\alpha$ (also called the Mattson-Solomon polynomial), that we denote by $\varphi_{\alpha, f}$ is defined as

$$
\varphi_{\alpha, f}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f\left(\alpha^{j}\right) x^{j} .
$$

Clearly, $\varphi_{\alpha, f} \in \mathbb{L}(n)$; moreover, the function Fourier transform may be viewed as an isomorphism of algebras $\varphi_{\alpha}: \mathbb{L}(n) \longrightarrow\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$, where the multiplication " $\star$ " in $\mathbb{L}^{n}$ is defined coordinatewise (see [1, Section 2.2] or [6, § 8.6]). Then we may see $\varphi_{\alpha, f}$ as a vector in $\mathbb{L}^{n}$ or as a polynomial in $\mathbb{L}(n)$. The inverse of the Fourier transform is given by $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1}(x)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} g\left(\alpha^{-i}\right) x^{i}$, where $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ (see for example [1, 2, 6]). For any $i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ we denote $\varphi_{\alpha, f}[i]=f\left(\alpha^{i}\right)$, the coefficient (or coordinate) corresponding to $x^{i}$.

Remark 2. For any $\alpha \in U_{n}, f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ we have that:

1. $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)=\left\{i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\} \mid f\left(\alpha^{i}\right) \neq 0\right\}$ and hence $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash \operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)=$ $D_{\alpha}(f)$, the defining set of $f$.
2. Since $f=\varphi_{\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha, f}}^{-1}(x)$ then $\operatorname{supp}(f)=\left\{i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\} \mid \varphi_{\alpha, f}\left(\alpha^{-i}\right) \neq 0\right\}$, so that $|\operatorname{supp}(f)|=n-\left|Z\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)\right|$.
3. $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ if and only if $\left(g\left(\alpha^{j}\right)\right)^{q}=g\left(\alpha^{j}\right)$ for any $j \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.
4. $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ if and only if $\varphi_{\beta, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ for all $\beta \in U_{n}$.

The first two assertions come directly from the definition of the discrete Fourier transform together with the fact that it is an isomorphism. The third one comes directly from the well-known property that an element $a \in \mathbb{L}$ satisfies that $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ if and only if $a^{q}=a$. Finally to see the last assertion observe that if we take another primitive root of unity $\beta \neq \alpha$ the coefficients of $\varphi_{\beta, g}^{-1}$ are obtained by permuting those of $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1}$.

The following lemma, related with the discrete Fourier transform, will play an important role later. We recall from Section 2 that the notions of set of zeros and defining set are also applied to polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and that their defining sets are also partitioned in $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$.

Lemma 1. Let $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$. If $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ for any $\alpha \in U_{n}$ then $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ is a union of cyclotomic cosets. If $g$ is an idempotent in $\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$ the converse holds; that is, if $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ is union of $q$-cyclotomic cosets then $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$.

Proof. First, suppose that $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. Observe that for any $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$, $\varphi_{\beta, f}^{q}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\left(f\left(\beta^{j}\right)\right)^{q} x^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\left(f\left(\beta^{q}\right)\right)^{j} x^{j}=\varphi_{\beta^{q}, f}(x)$. So the defining set of $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1}$ is a union of cyclotomic cosets. Since $\operatorname{supp}(g)=\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash D_{\alpha}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1}\right)$ we are done.

We first note that any idempotent in $\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$ verifies that its coordinates (or coefficients) are only 1 or 0 . Now, suppose that $g \in\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$ is an idempotent and $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ is a union of $q$-cyclotomic cosets. Then there exists an idempotent $e \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ such that $D_{\alpha}(e)=\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash \operatorname{supp}(g)$; in fact, $e$ is the idempotent generator of the code over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ with defining set $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash \operatorname{supp}(g)$ with respect to $\alpha$. Since $e$ is an idempotent in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ we have that $\varphi_{\alpha, e}$ is an idempotent in $\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$ and also $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=\operatorname{supp}(g)$. Then $\varphi_{\alpha, e}=g$ and hence $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$.

Let us recall some definitions in [1, Chapter 3] related to the computation of the BCH bound. The context of these definitions is the study of multivariate polynomials. We only need the univariate polynomials version.
Definition 1. Let $\mathbb{L}$ be a field. For any element $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ we define the apparent distance of $g$, that we denote by $d^{*}(g)$, as follows

1. If $g=0$ then $d^{*}(0)=0$.
2. If $g \neq 0$ then

$$
d^{*}(g)=\max \left\{n-\operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} g}\right) \mid 0 \leq h \leq n-1\right\}
$$

It is easy to see that one may compute the apparent distance of a polynomial $0 \neq g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ as follows. Suppose that $g=\sum a_{i} x^{i}$. If we associate to the polynomial its coefficient vector $M(g)=\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right)$ then the apparent distance $d^{*}(g)$ is the length of the biggest chain of consecutive zeros (modulo $n$ ) in $M(g)$ plus 1 .
Example 2. Let $f=1+x+x^{4} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(5)$. Compute $\overline{x^{0} f}=1+x+x^{4}, \overline{x f}=$ $1+x+x^{2} ; \overline{x^{2} f}=x+x^{2}+x^{3} ; \overline{x^{3} f}=x^{2}+x^{3}+x^{4} ; \overline{x^{4} f}=1+x^{3}+x^{4}$. Then $d^{*}(f)=5-\operatorname{deg}(\overline{x f})=3$.

If we take $M(f)=\left(\begin{array}{llll}1 & 1 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ then $d^{*}(f)=2+1=3$.
Let $f \in \mathbb{L}(n)$. It is clear that the polynomials $f$ and $\overline{x^{h} f}$ have the same set of zeros (or root set). Hence, $\operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right) \geq\left|D_{\alpha}(f)\right|$, for any $\alpha \in U_{n}$, where $D_{\alpha}(f)$ denotes the defining set of $f$. Therefore $d^{*}(f) \leq n-\left|D_{\alpha}(f)\right|$ for any $\alpha \in U_{n}$.

Now, by the definition of the inverse Fourier transform (see Remark 2), we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega(f)=n-\left|D_{\alpha}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)\right| \tag{F.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence,
(F. 3) $\quad d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right) \leq n-\left|D_{\alpha}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)\right|=\omega(f), \quad$ for all $\quad f \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n) \quad$ and $\quad \alpha \in U_{n}$.

This implies that the minimum of the apparent distances of the images of the nonzero codewords of a cyclic code is a lower bound for its minimum distance. Camion's definition of apparent distance of an abelian code comes from these ideas. In our case, we present that definition as follows.

Definition 2. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and consider $\alpha \in U_{n}$. The apparent distance of $C$ with respect to $\alpha$ is $d_{\alpha}^{*}(C)=\min _{c \in C, c \neq 0}\left\{d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right)\right\}$ and the apparent distance of $C$ is

$$
d^{*}(C)=\max _{\alpha \in U_{n}}\left\{d_{\alpha}^{*}(C)\right\}
$$

We also define the set of optimal roots of $C$ as

$$
\mathcal{R}(C)=\left\{\beta \in U_{n} \mid d_{\beta}^{*}(C)=d^{*}(C)\right\} .
$$

From the paragraph prior Definition 2 we have that $d^{*}(C) \leq d(C)$ for any cyclic code $C$. In [1, p. 22] Camion shows that for any cyclic code $C$ the equality $d^{*}(C)=$ $\Delta(C)$ holds.

Note that the value $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right)$ depends on the support of $\varphi_{\alpha, c}$; that is, it depends on the distribution of the zeros of $c$ with respect to $\alpha$; so, the minimum $d_{\alpha}^{*}(C)$ depends on the distribution of $D_{\alpha}(C)$. Hence, in order to compute the maximum $d^{*}(C)$ we need to look at the different defining sets of $C$, for each $\alpha \in U_{n}$. As we have seen in Remark 1, if we fix $\alpha \in U_{n}$ and $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{h}\right\}$, a complete set of representatives
of the $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$, to consider the different defining sets of $C$ we only need to consider the roots $\beta \in U_{n}$ such that $\beta^{a_{i}}=\alpha$ for some $a_{i}$ coprime with $n$. Then, for any $\alpha \in U_{n}$ we define the set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{R}_{\alpha}=\left\{\beta \in U_{n} \mid \beta^{a}=\alpha, a \in A(n)\right\} . \tag{F.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A(n)$ was defined in (F. 1).
Therefore, in practice, to compute the apparent distance of a cyclic code $C$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ it is enough to fix $\alpha \in U_{n}$ and compute $d^{*}(C)=\max \left\{d_{\beta}^{*}(C) \mid \beta \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha}\right\}$.

Let $e, g \in C$ be the idempotent generator and the generator polynomial of $C$, respectively. If $f, h \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ then $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\beta, f h}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\beta, f}\right)$ because $\varphi_{\beta, f h}=$ $\varphi_{\beta, f} \star \varphi_{\beta, h}$, and then, for any $c \in C$, and any $\beta \in U_{n}$, we have that $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\beta, c}\right) \subseteq$ $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\beta, g}\right)=\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right)$; so that, $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, g}\right)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right) \leq d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, c}\right)$. Hence, $d_{\beta}^{*}(C)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right)$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(C)=d^{*}(C)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, g}\right) \leq d(C), \quad \forall \beta \in \mathcal{R}(C) \tag{F.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see [1, p. 22]).
Example 3. Set $q=2, n=17$ and take $a_{1}=0, a_{2}=1, a_{3}=3$ as representatives of the 2 -cyclotomic cosets in $\mathbb{Z}_{17}$. Then $A(17)=\{1,3\}$. Let $C$ be the cyclic code with defining set $D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(1)=\{1,2,4,8,9,13,15,16\}$ with respect to $\alpha \in U_{17}$, such that $\min (\alpha)=x^{8}+x^{7}+x^{6}+x^{4}+x^{2}+x+1$. The reader may check that $e=x^{16}+x^{15}+x^{13}+x^{9}+x^{8}+x^{4}+x^{2}+x+1$ is the idempotent generator of $C$, and $M\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=(10010111001110100)$. Then $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=3$. Taking $\beta$ such that $\beta^{3}=\alpha$, one may check that $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right)=4$. Hence $\Delta(C)=d^{*}(C)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, e}\right)=4$.

As an immediate consequence of (F. 5) we have the following corollary.
Corollary 1. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and let $e, g \in C$ be the idempotent generator and the generator polynomial of $C$, respectively. For $f \in\{e, g\}$ we have that if $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)=\omega(f)$ for some $\alpha \in U_{n}$ then $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$.

Proof. By hypothesis, $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)=\omega(f) \geq d(C)$. Now, if $\beta \in \mathcal{R}(C)$ then $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right) \leq$ $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\beta, f}\right)$ and so (F.5) gets us the result.

In the following table we list non trivial cyclic codes of length at most 31, satifying the conditions of the corollary above; that is, $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}\right)=\omega(f)$ for some $\alpha \in U_{n}$. Here, $\overline{D(C)}=\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash D(C)$. Computations were done by using GAP4r7.

| Length | $\overline{D(C)}$ | $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}}(C)$ | $d(C)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | $C_{2}(3)$ | 3 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(1)$ | 3 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 4 | 3 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1)$ | 4 | 3 |
| 9 | $C_{2}(3)$ | 2 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 3 | 3 |
|  | $C_{2}(1)$ | 6 | 2 |


| Lenght | $\overline{D(C)}$ | $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}}(C)$ | $d(C)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 15 | $C_{2}(5)$ | 2 | 10 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(5)$ | 3 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(1)$ | 4 | 8 |
|  | $C_{2}(7)$ | 4 | 8 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 5 | 3 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 5 | 7 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1)$ | 5 | 7 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5)$ | 6 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 7 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 8 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 8 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 8 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 10 | 2 |
| 21 | $C_{2}(7)$ | 2 | 14 |
|  | $C_{2}(3)$ | 3 | 12 |
|  | $C_{2}(9)$ | 3 | 12 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 3 | 7 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 4 | 9 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 4 | 9 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 5 | 10 |
|  | $C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 5 | 10 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 7 | 3 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 8 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 8 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 9 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5)$ | 9 | 4 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 10 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3)$ | 10 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 11 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 12 | 3 |
| 25 | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5)$ | 5 | 5 |
| 27 | $C_{2}(9)$ | 2 | 18 |
|  | $C_{2}(3)$ | 5 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(1)$ | 18 | 2 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(9)$ | 3 | 9 |
| 31 | $C_{2}(1)$ | 5 | 16 |
|  | $C_{2}(5)$ | 5 | 16 |
|  | $C_{2}(15)$ | 5 | 16 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1)$ | 6 | 15 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 6 | 15 |
|  | $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 10 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(11)$ | 10 | 10 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 15 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(11)$ | 15 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 15 | 6 |


| Lenght | $\overline{D(C)}$ | $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}}(C)$ | $d(C)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 31 (cont.) | $C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(9) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 15 | 6 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$ | 16 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(11) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 16 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(15)$ | 16 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(11)$ | 16 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(7) \cup C_{2}(11)$ | 16 | 5 |
|  | $C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(11)$ | 16 | 5 |

Let us comment how these results allow us to construct cyclic codes and to compute their apparent distance (or the BCH bound). First, let us observe that for any cyclic code $C$ generated by $e=e^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ one has that $\varphi_{\alpha, e}$ is an idempotent in $\left(\mathbb{L}^{n}, \star\right)$. So, $\varphi_{\alpha, e}[i]=e\left(\alpha^{i}\right)=0$ if $i \in D_{\alpha}(C)$ and 1 otherwise.

Now, let $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{h}\right\}$ be a complete set of representatives of the $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$. For each choice $D=\cup_{j=1}^{t} C_{q}\left(a_{i_{j}}\right)$, with $i_{j} \in\{1, \ldots, h\}$ and $1 \leq t \leq h$, we denote by $F_{D} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$ the vector such that $F_{D}[i]=0$ if $i \in D$ and 1 otherwise. Then $F_{D}$ may be viewed as the image under the Fourier transform of the idempotent generator of a cyclic code $C$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ such that $D=D_{\alpha}(C)$ with respect to some $\alpha \in U_{n}$. That is, if $C$ is the cyclic code with defining set $D_{\alpha}(C)=D$, with respecct to $\alpha \in U_{n}$, and $e^{2}=e$ is its idempotent generator then we have that $F_{D}=\varphi_{\alpha, e} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{n}$. To compute the apparent distance $d^{*}(C)$ we first consider the set $A(n)=\left\{a_{i_{1}}, \ldots, a_{i_{k}}\right\} \subseteq\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{h}\right\}$. Then, for every $j=1, \ldots, k$, let $\beta_{j} \in U_{n}$ be such that $\beta_{j}^{a_{i_{j}}}=\alpha$; recall that this implies $D_{\beta_{j}}(C)=a_{i_{j}} \cdot D_{\alpha}(C)$. The apparent distance of $\varphi_{\beta_{j}, e}$ is the length of the biggest chain of consecutive zeros (modulo $n$ ) in $F_{D_{\beta_{j}}(C)}$ plus 1. So, $d^{*}(C)=\max _{j=1, \ldots, k} d^{*}\left(F_{D_{\beta_{j}}(C)}\right)$.

Example 4. Set $n=21, q=2$ and $A(21)=\{1,5\}$. Consider the 2 -cyclotomic cosets: $C_{2}(0), C_{2}(1), C_{2}(3), C_{2}(5), C_{2}(7), C_{2}(9)$ listed in Example 1. Choose $D=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(7)$. Then

$$
F_{D}=(100001000110010101111)
$$

Let $C=\langle e\rangle$ be the cyclic code such that $D_{\alpha}(C)=D$ for some $\alpha \in U_{21}$. Then $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=5$. We only need to consider $\beta \in U_{21}$ such that $\beta^{5}=\alpha$. In that case, $D_{\beta}(C)=5 \cdot D_{\alpha}(C)=C_{2}(5) \cup C_{2}(9) \cup C_{2}(7)$. Then

$$
F_{D_{\beta}(C)}=(111110101001100010000)
$$

So $d^{*}\left(F_{D_{\beta}(C)}\right)=5$ too. Hence $d^{*}(C)=5$ and $\mathcal{R}(C)=\left\{\beta, \beta^{5}\right\}$. The reader may check that $C$ has four BCH bounds, $\delta=2,3,4,5$.

## 3. The minimum distance and the BCH bound

For an arbitrary element $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$, which we may view as a polynomial with $\operatorname{deg}(g) \leq n-1$, it is easy to see that the equality $\operatorname{gcd}\left(g, x^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(x^{h} g, x^{n}-1\right)$ holds for any $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ as $x^{h}$ and $x^{n}-1$ are relatively prime polynomials; so, we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{g}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(x^{h} g, x^{n}-1\right) \tag{F.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $m_{g}$ does not depend on $h$. For any $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ we also write

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{h} g=\left(x^{n}-1\right) f_{g, h}+\overline{x^{h} g} \tag{F.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $0 \leq \operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} g}\right)<n$. Note that if $g \neq 0$ then $\overline{x^{h} g} \neq 0$ because $\operatorname{deg}(g)<n$. By using results in [1] and [3] (see also [6, Theorem 8.6.31]) we obtain the following result.

Lemma 2. Consider $g \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ and let $m_{g}$ be as above. Then

1. $d^{*}(g) \leq n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{g}\right)$.
2. If $g \mid x^{n}-1$ then $d^{*}(g)=n-\operatorname{deg}(g)$.

Proof. (1) It comes from the fact that $m_{g} \mid \overline{x^{h} g}$ for any $0 \leq h \leq n-1$, and from Definition 1. (2) By the definition of $d^{*}(g)$ we have that $d^{*}(g) \geq n-\operatorname{deg}(g)$. To get the converse inequality note that $g=s m_{g}$, for some $s \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$, and apply (1).

Now let $C$ be a cylic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and let $c \in C$ be any codeword. By (F. 3) we have that $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right) \leq \omega(c)$. We wonder if the equality may occur. The next result will be helpful to find an answer (see [1, Theorem 4.1] and [3, Theorem 2]).
Lemma 3. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ and $c \in C$. Then $n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{\varphi_{\alpha, c}}\right)=\omega(c)$, for all $\alpha \in U_{n}$.

Proof. We have that $n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{\varphi_{\alpha, c}}\right)=\left|\left\{\alpha^{j} \mid \quad \varphi_{\alpha, c}\left(\alpha^{j}\right) \neq 0\right\}\right|$. By Remark 2 and (F. 2) we are done.

Note that by Lemma 2 we have that the apparent distance of any $f \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ is less than or equal to the number of nonzeros of $m_{f}$. The following result shows us when the equality holds.

Proposition 1. Consider $f \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ and let $m_{f}$ be as in (F. 6). Then $d^{*}(f)=$ $n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{f}\right)$ if and only if there exists $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $\overline{x^{h} f} \mid x^{n}-1$ (equivalently, $\overline{x^{h} f}$ and $m_{f}$ are associated polynomials in $\mathbb{L}[x]$ ).

Proof. Suppose first that the equality holds. By definition of apparent distance we know that there exists $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $d^{*}(f)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right)$. Hence $\operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{f}\right)$. By (F. 6) and (F. 7) we have that $m_{f}$ and $\overline{x^{h} f}$ have exactly the same set of zeros and hence they are associated polynomials, or equivalently, $\overline{x^{h} f} \mid x^{n}-1$.

Conversely, suppose that there exists $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $\overline{x^{h} f} \mid x^{n}-$ 1. Again by (F. 7) and (F. 6), $\overline{x^{h} f}$ and $m_{f}$ must be associated polynomials. By definition of apparent distance we have that $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right)$ and by Lemma 2(2), $d^{*}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{x^{h} f}\right)$. The result follows immediately.

Now we deal with our first problem. We are going to present some results that give theoretical characterizations for a given cyclic code to satisfy the equality $d(C)=\Delta(C)$.
Theorem 1. Let $n$ be a positive integer, $p$ a prime number and $q$ a power of $p$. Assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(n, q)=1$. Consider the field $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ and an extension $\mathbb{L} \mid \mathbb{F}_{q}$ such that $U_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. Then $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ if and only if there exists a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{L}(n)$, such that

1. $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}(C)$.
2. $d^{*}(f)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{f}\right)$.
3. $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in C$, for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$.

Moreover, in this case, there exists $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $\overline{x^{h} f} \mid x^{n}-1$.
Proof. First, suppose that $d(C)=\Delta(C)$. Then we have that $d(C)=d^{*}(C)$. Let $c \in C$ such that $\omega(c)=d(C)$, consider $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$ and set, as in (F. 6), $m_{\varphi_{\alpha, c}}=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}, x^{n}-1\right)$. By definition of apparent distance and by applying results above, we have that

$$
\omega(c) \geq d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right) \geq d_{\alpha}^{*}(C)=d^{*}(C)=d(C)=\omega(c)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{\varphi_{\alpha, c}}\right)
$$

Hence $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right)=d^{*}(C)$, since $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, c}\right)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{\varphi_{\alpha, c}}\right)$. So, $f=\varphi_{\alpha, c}$ satisfies all required conditions.

Conversely, suppose there exists $f \in \mathbb{L}(n)$ satisfying conditions (1-3) of the statement. By Lemma 3 and the definition of minimum distance, we have that $d^{*}(f)=\omega\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1}\right) \geq d(C)$. Then by Condition (1), $d^{*}(C) \geq d(C)$, and hence by (F. 5), $\Delta(C)=d(C)$.

The final assertion follows directly from Proposition 1.
So, to check if a code satisfies the conditions in the theorem above, Proposition 1 shows us that we have to focus on properties of some divisors of $x^{n}-1$. After Corollary 3 we will make some comments about complexity in order to consider those divisors.

Corollary 2. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. Then $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ if and only if there exist $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and a divisor $g \mid x^{n}-1$, in $\mathbb{L}[x]$, such that setting $f=\overline{x^{k} g}$, the following conditions hold

1. $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}(C)$.
2. $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in C$, for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$.

Proof. Set $h=n-k$. Then $g=\overline{x^{h} f}$ and the result follows from Proposition 1 and the theorem above.

We note that, in the setting of the previous corollary, it may happen that there exist $\alpha, \beta \in U_{n}$ such that $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in C$ but $\varphi_{\beta, f}^{-1} \notin C$.

We may rewrite the condition (3) in Theorem 1 or (2) in Corollary 2, as follows.
Corollary 3. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. Then $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ if and only if there exist $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and a divisor $g \mid x^{n}-1$, in $\mathbb{L}[x]$, such that the following conditions hold.

1. $d^{*}(g)=d^{*}(C)$, and setting $f=\overline{x^{k} g}$,
2. $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash D_{\alpha}(C)$, for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$,
3. $\left(f\left(\alpha^{j}\right)\right)^{q}=f\left(\alpha^{j}\right)$, for any $j \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Proof. From Remark 2, it comes immediately that condition (2) in Corollary 2 holds if and only if conditions (2)+(3) of this corollary hold.

Given a linear code $C$ of length $n$, we wonder about how difficult is it to check the equality $\Delta(C)=d(C)$; in other words, using our previous results, how difficult is it to find a polynomial satisfying the required conditions?

To apply any of the corollaries above we have to compute the divisors $g \mid x^{n}-1$ in $\mathbb{L}[x]$ with $\operatorname{deg}(g)=n-\Delta(C)$. This means that we have to check at most $h \cdot\binom{n}{n-\Delta(C)}$ polynomials, where $h=|A(n)|$. Clearly, if $\Delta(C)$ is not a "big" number we may check all divisors in $\mathbb{L}[x]$. In case that $\Delta(C)$ was a "big" number, we could reduce it by taking an intermediate field, $\mathbb{F}_{q} \subset \mathbb{K} \subset \mathbb{L}$, where the number of divisors
of $x^{n}-1$ (in $\left.\mathbb{K}[x]\right)$ is smaller. However, in that case, our searching of codes would not be exhaustive.

For example, consider the binary cyclic code $C$ of length 45 with $D_{\alpha}(C)=$ $C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(5)$, for some $\alpha \in U_{45}$. One may see that $\Delta(C)=3$ and $\operatorname{dim}(C)=35$. Consider $A(45)=\{1,7\}$. To check any of our corollaries above we have to consider $2\binom{45}{42}$-polynomials (note that $2^{14}<2\binom{45}{42}<2^{15}$ ) so our method works. On the other hand, for codes with apparent distance greater than 5 , we might choose to consider the factors of $x^{45}-1$ in an intermediate ring. For example, in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{4}}[x]$ there are 15 factors of degree 1 and 10 factors of degree 3 . No more than 50 computations. Essentially the same happens in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{6}}[x]$.

Now we give another sufficient condition to characterize cyclic codes whose apparent distance reaches its minimum distance.
Corollary 4. Let $C$ be a cyclic code in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ with generator idempotent $e \in C$. If there exist $h \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $\alpha \in U_{n}$ such that $\overline{x^{h} \varphi_{\alpha, e}} \mid x^{n}-1$ then $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}(C)$.
Proof. From Proposition 1 and Lemma 3 we may deduce that $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=n-$ $\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{\varphi_{\alpha, e}}\right)=\omega(e)$. So, the result follows directly from Corollary 1.

The previous results give us conditions for a cyclic code $C$ to satisfy the equality $d(C)=\Delta(C)$. Now we deal with our second problem, that is, the construction of such kind of codes.

Corollary 5. Consider an intermediate field $\mathbb{F}_{q} \subseteq \mathbb{K} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$, let $g \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ be a divisor of $x^{n}-1$ and $\beta \in U_{n}$. If $\varphi_{\beta, \overline{x^{k} g}}^{-1}$ belongs to $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$, for some $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, then the family of permutation equivalent cyclic codes $\left\{C_{\alpha}=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{k} g}}^{-1}\right) \mid \alpha \in U_{n}\right\}$ satisfies $\Delta\left(C_{\alpha}\right)=d\left(C_{\alpha}\right)$ for all $\alpha \in U_{n}$. Moreover, in this case, $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}_{q}}\left(C_{\alpha}\right)=|\operatorname{supp}(g)|$, for all $\alpha \in U_{n}$.

Proof. Fix $\alpha \in U_{n}$. Set $f=\overline{x^{k} g}$ and let $e \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ be the idempotent generator of the ideal $C=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ (see Remark 2(4)). It is easy to check that $\operatorname{supp}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=\operatorname{supp}(f)=\mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash D_{\alpha}(C)$ and hence, $d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right)=d^{*}(f)$. On the one hand, by Proposition 1 and Lemma 3 one has that $d^{*}(f)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{f}\right)=\omega\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1}\right) \geq$ $d(C)$. On the other hand, by (F. 5), $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, e}\right) \leq d_{\alpha}^{*}(C) \leq d^{*}(C) \leq d(C)$. So we are done.

Then, in order to construct codes with the desired property we need to find a divisor $g$ of $x^{n}-1$ satisfying the condition (2) in Corollary 2. However, in the case $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{2}$, it is clear that $g \in\left(\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, \star\right)$ is always an idempotent, and so, we only have to check that $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ is union of 2 -cyclotomic cosets (see Lemma 1 ).

Let us show by an example how the combination of Corollary 3 and Corollay 5 works.

Example 5. Set $q=2, n=45$. In this case $A(45)=\{1,7\}$. Take $g=x^{40}+x^{39}+$ $x^{38}+x^{36}+x^{35}+x^{32}+x^{30}+x^{25}+x^{24}+x^{23}+x^{21}+x^{20}+x^{17}+x^{15}+x^{10}+x^{9}+$ $x^{8}+x^{6}+x^{5}+x^{2}+1$. One may check that $g \mid x^{45}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$ (so that $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{2}$ ). To find the parameter $k$ mentioned in the corollary above, we may analize the vector $M(g)$ or we may fix $\beta \in U_{45}$ (as instance, such that $\min (\beta)=x^{12}+x^{3}+1$ ) and compute $g(1)$ and $g\left(\beta^{3}\right)$, because $D_{\beta}(g)=\mathbb{Z}_{45} \backslash\left(C_{2}(0) \cup C_{2}(3)\right)$. Let us choose the last alternative. Since $g(1)=1$ and $g\left(\beta^{3}\right)=\beta^{30}$ then $k=5$ will work because
setting $f=x^{5} g$ we have that $f(1)=1, f\left(\beta^{3}\right)=\left(\beta^{3}\right)^{5} \beta^{30}=\beta^{45}=1$ and then $f\left(\beta^{6}\right)=f\left(\beta^{12}\right)=f\left(\beta^{24}\right)=1$, as $C_{2}(3)=\{3,6,12,24\}$. So, $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(45)$, for all $\alpha \in U_{45}$. Now set $C=\left(\varphi_{\beta, f}^{-1}\right)$. Then $D_{\beta}(C)=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(9) \cup C_{2}(21)=$ $\mathbb{Z}_{45} \backslash \operatorname{supp}(M(f))$ and, by analizing $M(g)$ or $M(f)=F_{D_{\beta}(C)}$ as in Example 4, we have that $5=d(C)=\Delta(C)$ and $\operatorname{dim}(C)=21$.

As $\operatorname{supp}\left(x^{5} g\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{45} \backslash D_{\beta}(C)$, one may see that there are three subsets that determines $d^{*}(C)$; to wit, $\{1,2,3,4\},\{16,17,18,19\}$ and $\{31,32,33,34\}$. We choose $\{1,2,3,4\} \subset D_{\beta}(C)$ and construct the code $C^{\prime}$ such that $D_{\beta}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=D_{\beta}(C) \backslash C_{2}(21)$. Note that $C$ is a subcode of $C^{\prime}$, because $D_{\beta}\left(C^{\prime}\right) \subset D_{\beta}(C)$. Now one has that $C^{\prime}$ satisfies the conditions in Corollary 2, because $d^{*}(C)=5=d^{*}(f)$ and $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in C \subset$ $C^{\prime}$, so that $5=d\left(C^{\prime}\right)=\Delta\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ and $\operatorname{dim}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=25$, that is, $C^{\prime}$ has better parameters than $C$.

In the next section (see, as instance, Example 8) we will refine this type of construction to obtain BCH codes $C$ such that $\Delta(C)=d(C)$. Now we continue with the construction of codes $C$ satisfying that $\Delta(C)=d(C)$.

Corollary 6. Consider an intermediate field $\mathbb{F}_{q} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q^{\prime}} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$, let $h$ be an irreducible factor of $x^{n}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{\prime}}[x]$ with defining set $D_{\alpha}(h)$ for some $\alpha \in U_{n}$. Set $g=\left(x^{n}-\right.$ $1) / h$. If there are positive integers $j, t$ such that $g\left(\alpha^{j}\right)=\alpha^{t}$ and $\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(j, \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)}\right) \right\rvert\,$ $t$ then there exists a q-ary code of length $n$ whose BCH bound equals its minimum distance.

Proof. By hypothesis, the congruence (in $X$ ),

$$
\frac{q-1}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)} j X \equiv-\frac{q-1}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)} t \quad \bmod \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)}
$$

has a solution $X=k$, with $0 \leq k \leq \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)}$. Then $(q-1)(j k+t) \equiv 0 \bmod n$, which means that $q(j k+t) \equiv j k+t \bmod n$, and hence $\overline{x^{k} g}\left(\alpha^{j}\right)=\alpha^{j k+t} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$. Clearly, for any $j q^{\prime a} \in D_{\alpha}(h)$ we have $j q^{\prime a} k+t q^{\prime a} \equiv q^{\prime a}(j k+t) \equiv j k+t \bmod n$, so that $\overline{x^{k} g}\left(\alpha^{j q^{\prime a}}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$. As $\overline{x^{k} g}\left(\alpha^{i}\right)=0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash D_{\alpha}(h)$, we may apply Corollary 5 to get the desired result. More precisely, the code $C=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{k} g}}^{-1}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ satisfies the required conditions.

Corollary 7. Let $n=2^{m}-1$, for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. There exist at least $\frac{\phi(n)}{m}$ binary codes of length $n$ whose BCH bound equals its minimum distance.

Proof. We are going to apply the corollary above with $2=q=q^{\prime}$. Take $\mathbb{L}=\mathbb{F}_{2^{m}}$. For each $0<j<n$, coprime with $n$, we consider the 2 -cyclotomic coset $C_{2}(j)$, which has exactly $m$ elements. Consider $\alpha \in U_{n}$. Let $h \mid x^{n}-1$ be the polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$, such that $D_{\alpha}(h)=C_{2}(j)$ and $g_{j}=\left(x^{n}-1\right) / h$. By hypothesis, $\alpha$ is a primitive element for $\mathbb{L}$, so that $g_{j}\left(\alpha^{j}\right)=\alpha^{k}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. The condition $\operatorname{gcd}(j, n) \mid k$ holds obviously. So, there exists a binary code of length $n$ whose BCH bound equals its minimum distance. Moreover, by Corollary 5 the family of codes $\left\{C_{j}=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, x^{k} g_{j}}^{-1}\right) \mid \operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1\right\}$ satisfies $d\left(C_{j}\right)=\Delta\left(C_{j}\right)$ for any $j$. To compute the number of different codes in that family we consider the set $B=$ $\left\{C_{2}(j) \mid j \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}, \operatorname{gcd}(j, n)=1\right\}$. One may check that $|B|=\frac{\phi(n)}{m}$. Let $C_{q}(j) \neq$ $C_{q}\left(j^{\prime}\right) \in B$. If $\alpha \in U_{n}$ and $h, h^{\prime}$ are the divisors of $x^{n}-1$ with $D_{\alpha}(h)=C_{q}(j)$ and $D_{\alpha}\left(h^{\prime}\right)=C_{q}\left(j^{\prime}\right)$ then $g_{j}=\left(x^{n}-1\right) / h$ and $g_{j^{\prime}}=\left(x^{n}-1\right) / h^{\prime}$ have the same
degree, and hence $\operatorname{supp}\left(g_{j}\right) \neq \operatorname{supp}\left(g_{j^{\prime}}\right)$ because they are binary polynomials. Since $D\left(C_{j}\right)=\operatorname{supp}\left(\overline{x^{k} g_{j}}\right)$ the result comes immediately.

Example 6. Set $q=2, n=15$. Then $A(15)=\{1,7\}$. By Corollary 7 there exist at least two codes such that its BCH bound equals its minimum distance (they will be determined by the polynomials $g_{3}$ and $g_{4}$ defined below). Denote the irreducible factors of $x^{15}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$, by $h_{1}=\Phi_{2}, h_{2}=\Phi_{3}, h_{3}=x^{4}+x+1, h_{4}=x^{4}+x^{3}+1$ and $h_{5}=\Phi_{5}$, where $\Phi_{j}$ denotes the $j$-th cyclotomic polynomial. Setting $g_{i}=\frac{x^{n}-1}{h_{i}}$, $i=1, \ldots, 5$, we apply the corollaries above (with $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{2}$ ) as follows.

Consider the factor $g_{2}$. Then one may check that in this case $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{2}}}^{-1}=x^{10}+$ $x^{5} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(15)$, for all $\alpha \in U_{15}$. The cyclic code $C$ generated by $x^{10}+x^{5}$ satisfies $\operatorname{dim}(C)=10$ and $\Delta(C)=2=d(C)$. Now let us fix $\alpha \in U_{15}$ such that $h_{3}=\min (\alpha)$ and $h_{4}=\min \left(\alpha^{13}\right)$, where $\min \left(\alpha^{t}\right)$ denotes the minimal polynomial of $\alpha^{t}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$. Then $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{3}}}^{-1}=x^{14}+x^{13}+x^{11}+x^{7} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(15)$ and $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{3} g_{4}}}^{-1}=x^{8}+x^{4}+x^{2}+x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(15)$. This gives us the table

| Generator | Dimension | $\Delta=d$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{2}}}^{-1}$ | 10 | 2 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha}^{-1} \overline{x g_{3}}$ | 8 | 4 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, x^{3} g_{4}}^{-1}$ | 8 | 4 |

The polynomial $g_{1}$ gets an improper code. In the case of $g_{5}$, as $D_{\alpha}\left(g_{5}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{15} \backslash$ $C_{2}(3)$, it happens that, $g_{5}\left(\alpha^{3}\right)=\alpha^{14}$, so the conditions of Corollary 6 are not satisfied.

After inspecting the divisors of $x^{15}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$ we find more interesting codes. For instance, one may check that the polynomial $h_{2} h_{3} h_{5}$ satisfies the conditions of Corollary 5 , with $k=0$, and hence it yields a code, say $C^{\prime}$, such that $\Delta\left(C^{\prime}\right)=$ $d\left(C^{\prime}\right)=5$ and $\operatorname{dim}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=7$.

Example 7. Set $q=2$ and $n=21$. Denote the irreducible factors of $x^{21}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}[x]$ by $h_{1}=\Phi_{2}, h_{2}=\Phi_{3}, h_{3}=x^{3}+x+1, h_{4}=x^{3}+x^{2}+1, h_{5}=x^{6}+x^{4}+x^{2}+x+1$ and $h_{6}=x^{6}+x^{5}+x^{4}+x^{2}+1$.

Set $g_{i}=\frac{x^{n}-1}{h_{i}}, i=1, \ldots, 6$, and fix $\alpha \in U_{21}$ such that $\min (\alpha)=h_{6}$. We apply Corollary 6 as above (with $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{2}$ ) to get the following table of binary codes of length 21 whose BCH bound equals its minimum distance. We complete with another one satisfying the conditions of Corollary 5 .

| Generator | Dimension | $\Delta=d$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{2}}}^{-1}$ | 14 | 2 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, g_{3}}^{-1}$ | 12 | 3 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{3} g_{4}}}^{-1}$ | 12 | 3 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{5}}}^{-1}$ | 8 | 6 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{5} g_{6}}}^{-1}$ | 8 | 6 |
| $\varphi_{\alpha, h_{1} h_{3} h_{5} h_{6}}^{-1}$ | 10 | 5 |

## 4. Applications: Constructing BCH codes whose minimum distance EQUALS THEIR APPARENT DISTANCE

The following result allows us to construct BCH codes $B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)$ for which $d\left(B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)\right)=\Delta\left(B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)\right)=\delta$. We recall that the ideal generated by a polynomial $g \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ is denoted by $(g)$.

Theorem 2. Let $n$ be a positive integer, $p$ a prime number, $q$ a power of $p$ and $U_{n}$ the set of primitive $n$-th roots of unity. Assume that $\operatorname{gcd}(n, q)=1$. Consider the fields $\mathbb{F}_{q} \subseteq \mathbb{K} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$ such that $U_{n} \subset \mathbb{L}$. Let $g \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ be a divisor of $x^{n}-1$. If there exist $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $\beta \in U_{n}$ such that $\varphi_{\beta, x^{k} g}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ then there exists a family of permutation equivalent $B C H$ codes $\left\{C_{\alpha}=B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b) \mid \alpha \in U_{n}\right\}$ with $\delta=n-\operatorname{deg}(g)$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, such that $\delta=\Delta\left(C_{\alpha}\right)=d\left(C_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{k} g}}^{-1} \in C_{\alpha}$.

Proof. Set $g=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_{i} x^{i}$ and suppose that there there exist $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $\beta \in U_{n}$ such that $\varphi_{\beta, \overline{x^{k} g}}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. Let $f=\overline{x^{k} g}$ and consider $\alpha \in U_{n}$. By Lemma 2 , $d^{*}(g)=n-\operatorname{deg}(g)$. Clearly $m_{f}=g$ and $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}(g)$. We collect $T=\bigcup_{j=\operatorname{deg}(g)+k+1}^{n+k-1} C_{q}(\bar{j})$, where $\bar{j}$ is the canonical representative of $j$ module $n$, and $\varepsilon=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_{i} x^{i}$ such that $r_{i}=0$ if $i \in T$ and 1 , otherwise.

We claim that $d^{*}(g)=d^{*}(\varepsilon)$. From the definition of $\epsilon$ one has that $d^{*}(g) \leq d^{*}(\varepsilon)$. We are going to see the reverse inequality. By Remark $2(3)$, as $\varphi_{\beta, f}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ we have $\operatorname{supp}(f)$ is union of $q$-cyclotomic cosets modulo $n$. So, for any $j \in\{\operatorname{deg}(g)+$ $k+1, \ldots, n+k-1\}$ we have that $C_{q}(\bar{j}) \cap \operatorname{supp}(f)=\emptyset$ and hence $T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash \operatorname{supp}(f)$, which means that $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(\varepsilon)$ and hence $d^{*}(g)=d^{*}(f) \geq d^{*}(\varepsilon)$.

By construction, $\operatorname{supp}(\varepsilon)$ is union of $q$-cyclotomic cosets, so $\varphi_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$ (see Lemma 1). We set $C=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(n)$. We are going to see that $C$ satisfies the conditions (1) and (2) of Corollary 2.
(1) We have already seen that $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}(g)=d^{*}(\varepsilon)$. Now, by Proposition 1 and Lemma 3 one has $d^{*}(f)=n-\operatorname{deg}\left(m_{f}\right)=\omega\left(\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1}\right) \geq d(C)$. On the other hand, by (F. 5), $d^{*}(f)=d^{*}(\epsilon)=d^{*}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha, \epsilon}^{-1}}\right) \leq d_{\alpha}^{*}(C) \leq d^{*}(C) \leq d(C)$. Therefore $d^{*}(C)=d^{*}(f)$.
(2) Since $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(\varepsilon)$, we have that $f \star \varepsilon=f$, and then $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \cdot \varphi_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1}=$ $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1}$, which means $\varphi_{\alpha, f}^{-1} \in\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1}\right)=C$ (see also Remark 2(4)). So, conditions of Corollary 2 are satisfied, and hence $d(C)=\Delta(C)$.

Finally, to see that $C$ is a BCH code with designed distance $\delta=\Delta(C)$, we note that, any $q$-cyclotomic coset $Q \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(\varepsilon)=D_{\alpha}(C)$ satisfies $Q \cap\{\operatorname{deg}(g)+k+$ $1, \ldots, n+k-1\} \neq \emptyset$. So, as we mentioned in Section 2, this means that $C$ is a BCH code with $b=\operatorname{deg}(g)+k+1$ and designed distance $\delta=\Delta(C)=n-\operatorname{deg}(g)$.

The theorem above gives us a method to transform a given cyclic code $C=(g)$, with $d(C)=\Delta(C)$ into another code with higher dimension; in fact, we can get a new BCH code. The key idea is to consider as generator $\varepsilon$ instead of $g$ via the definition of $T$. This definition may be done in different ways that can drive us to different BCH codes. All these ideas are shown in the next example.

Example 8. We continue with the code $C$ showed in Example 5. Recall that $q=2$, $n=45$ and $C$ is the cyclic code with $D_{\beta}(C)=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3) \cup C_{2}(9) \cup C_{2}(21)$, where $\beta \in U_{45}$ is such that $\min (\beta)=x^{12}+x^{3}+1$. Following the proof of the previous
theorem we have that $T=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3)$ and set $\varepsilon=\sum_{i \notin T} x^{i}$. Then $C^{\prime \prime}=\left(\varphi_{\beta, \varepsilon}^{-1}\right)$ has $D_{\beta}\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right)=C_{2}(1) \cup C_{2}(3)$; so that it is the BCH code $B_{2}(\beta, 5,1)$ of dimension 29 such that $d\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right)=\Delta\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right)=5$. This code has even better parameters than $C^{\prime}$ (see Example 5).

It is also possible to obtain, from the code $C^{\prime}$, the BCH code $B_{2}(\beta, 5,16)$ with $d\left(B_{2}(\beta, 5,16)\right)=\Delta\left(B_{2}(\beta, 5,16)\right)=5$ and dimension 29, by taking $T^{\prime}=C_{2}(1) \cup$ $C_{2}(9)$.

The following theorem is a classical result on the theory of BCH codes.
Theorem 3 ([6]). Let $h, m \in \mathbb{N}$. A BCH code $C$ of length $n=q^{m}-1$ and designed distance $\delta=q^{h}-1$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ satisfies $d(C)=\Delta(C)$.

Now let us show some examples of construction of new BCH codes.
Example 9. Set $q=2$ and $n=15$. Consider the polynomial $g=g_{3}$ in Example 6; that is $g=x^{11}+x^{8}+x^{7}+x^{5}+x^{3}+x^{2}+x+1$. Then, its coefficient vector is

$$
M(g)=(1,1,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,0,0)
$$

and we may check that $d^{*}(g)=4$. We know that $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1} \notin \mathbb{F}_{2}(n)$ for all $\alpha \in U_{15}$, because $C_{2}(7)$ is not contained in $\operatorname{supp}(g)$ (see Lemma 1). However, the polynomial $\overline{x g}$ with coefficient vector

$$
M(\overline{x g})=(0,1,1,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,0)
$$

satisfies $\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g}}^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}(n)$ for all $\alpha \in U_{15}$. Let us fix $\alpha \in U_{15}$. Then $C=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g}}^{-1}\right)$ is a binary code with $d(C)=d^{*}(C)=4$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}_{2}}(C)=8$ (see Corollary 5). But, $C$ is not a BCH code. Following the ideas in Theorem 2 we may replace 0 's by 1's in the suitable places to get the vector

$$
M(\varepsilon)=(0,1,1,1,1,1,1,0,1,1,1,0,1,0,0)
$$

such that $C^{\prime}=\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1}\right)$ is a BCH code in $\mathbb{F}_{2}(n)$, with $d\left(C^{\prime}\right)=d^{*}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=\delta=4$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{F}_{2}}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=10$. Clearly, this code cannot be considered in Theorem 3.

We finish by extending Corollary 6 to BCH codes.
Corollary 8. Consider an intermediate field $\mathbb{F}_{q} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q^{\prime}} \subseteq \mathbb{L}$, let $h$ be an irreducible factor of $x^{n}-1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{\prime}}[x]$ with defining set $D_{\alpha}(h)$ for some $\alpha \in U_{n}$ and $g=\left(x^{n}-1\right) / h$. If there are positive integers $j, t$ such that $g\left(\alpha^{j}\right)=\alpha^{t}$ and $\left.\operatorname{gcd}\left(j, \frac{n}{\operatorname{gcd}(q-1, n)}\right) \right\rvert\, t$ then there exists a $B C H$ code of designed distance $\delta, C=B_{q}(\alpha, \delta, b)$, such that $\delta=\Delta(C)=d(C)=\operatorname{deg}(h)$, for certain $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
Proof. Comes immediately from Corollary 6 together with Theorem 2.
Example 10. We continue with the codes determined by the polynomials $g_{2}, g_{3}$ and $g_{4}$ in Example 6. Recall that in this case $\alpha \in U_{15}$ satisfies $\min (\alpha)=h_{3}$. By applying the ideas contained in the proof of Theorem 2, one may obtain the following BCH codes whose minimum distance equals the maximum of their BCH bounds.

It is possible to modify the defining set, w.r.t. $\alpha$, of a cyclic code in order to obtain a defining set for a new code with higher dimension. In this case we will say that the original one was dimensional-extended to the new one. For example, $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{2}}}^{-1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(15)$ has dimension 10 and it can be dimensional-extended to the codes $B_{2}(\alpha, 2,0)$ of dimension 14 and $B_{2}(\alpha, 2,3 t)$ of dimension 11 , for $t=1,2,3$.

The cyclic code determined by $g_{3}$, that is $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{3}}}^{-1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}(15)$, has dimension 8 and it may be dimensional-extended to $B_{2}(\alpha, 4,13)$ of dimension 10. Finally, from $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{3} g_{4}}}^{-1}\right)$, with dimension 8 , we get $B_{2}(\alpha, 4,0)$ of dimension 10 .

Note that the dimensional-extended BCH codes associated to $g_{2}, g_{3}$ and $g_{4}$ are not considered in the classical result 3. There is another interesting code which has not been considered: the code $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3} h_{5}}}^{-1}\right)$, where $h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}, h_{5}$ were defined in Example 6, is the code $B_{2}(\alpha, 5,11)$ of dimension 10.
Example 11. We also show how to extend the dimension of the codes in Example 7. We recall that $q=2, n=21$ and $\alpha$ satisfies $\min (\alpha)=h_{6}$. In this case, we have the following BCH codes whose minimum distance and apparent distance coincide.

It is possible to modify the set $D_{\alpha}\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{2}}}^{-1}\right)$ in three different ways. The biggest dimensional-extended code that we can obtain is $B_{2}(\alpha, 2,0)$ of dimension 20. In the case of $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, g_{3}}^{-1}\right)$, it determines two BCH codes. The first one is $B_{2}(\alpha, 3,19)$ of dimension 15 and the second one is $B_{2}(\alpha, 3,12)$ of dimension 12. The code $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{3} g_{4}}}^{-1}\right)$ may be dimensional-extended to $B_{2}(\alpha, 3,15)$ of dimension 12 , and $B_{2}(\alpha, 3,1)$ of dimension 15. The code $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x g_{5}}}^{-1}\right)$ may be dimensional-extended to $B_{2}(\alpha, 6,17)$ of dimension 11. In the case of $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{x^{5} g_{6}}}^{-1}\right)$, we obtain $B_{2}(\alpha, 6,0)$ of dimension 11. Finally, $\left(\varphi_{\alpha, \overline{h_{1} h_{3} h_{5} h_{6}}}^{-1}\right)$ is the BCH code $B_{2}(\alpha, 10,17)$ of dimension 10.

We finish with an example of a binary BCH code of length 33 whose minimum distance equals the maximum of their BCH bounds. We have not found in the literature any binary BCH code satisfying that condition and having this length and dimension.

Example 12. Set $q=2, n=33$ and $\alpha \in U_{33}$ such that $\min (\alpha)=x^{10}+x^{7}+$ $x^{5}+x^{3}+1$ and $g=\min (\alpha) \min \left(\alpha^{3}\right) \min \left(\alpha^{5}\right)$. One may check that $g$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 2 with $k=0$ and $T=C_{2}(1)$; in fact $\varphi_{\alpha, g}^{-1}=x^{22}+x^{11}+1$. Hence, it determines $B_{2}(\alpha, 3,31)$ of dimension 23.

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