Complementary Dual Codes for Counter-measures to Side-Channel Attacks

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Abstract. We recall why linear codes with complementary duals (LCD codes) play a role in counter-measures to passive and active side-channel analyses on embedded cryptosystems. The rate and the minimum distance of such LCD codes must be as large as possible. We investigate primary constructions of such codes, in particular with cyclic codes, specifically with generalized residue codes, and we study their idempotents. We study those secondary constructions which preserve the LCD property, and we characterize conditions under which codes obtained by puncturing, shortening or extending codes, or obtained by the Plotkin sum, can be LCD.

1 Introduction

Codes play a central role in digital communication. Recently, it has been shown that codes can also help improve the security of the information processed by sensitive devices, especially against so-called side-channel attacks (SCA) and fault non-invasive attacks. This paper recalls that linear codes with complementary duals (called LCD), which are linear codes whose intersection with their dual is trivial, play an important role in armoring implementations against these two kinds of non-invasive attacks.

LCD codes, introduced by Massey [15], provide an optimum linear coding solution for the two-user binary adder channel. Some constructions are known: [24,9,8]. Some of them are within cyclic codes and in particular quadratic residue (QR) codes. As another example, maximum rank distance (MRD) codes generated by the trace-orthogonal-generator matrices are LCD codes [12]. Asymptotically good LCD codes exist [19].

However, SCA sheds a new light on LCD codes and poses more accurately the question of their effective construction achieving good minimum distance, especially in the context of large rate.

QR codes are not well adapted to this context and we explore generalized residue codes (GRC), candidates for being LCD and for which theoretical results exist regarding their minimum distance [6]. However, in practically relevant cases, the results about minimum distances are void. Therefore, we complement the state-of-the-art of GRC, with the viewpoint of their construction and of the need for a lower bound on their minimum distance. Finally, we study secondary constructions of LCD codes, which help reaching the exact parameters needed in our framework.

2 Motivation

Implementations of cryptographic algorithms are prone to SCA and fault attacks that aim at extracting the secret key when the algorithm is running over some device. Non-invasive attacks observe some leakage (such as electromagnetic emanations) or perturb internal data (for example with electromagnetic impulses), without damaging the system. They are a special concern insofar as they leave no evidence that they have been perpetrated. Those attacks can be classified into two categories:

- Side-channel attacks (SCA), which consist in passively recording some leakage, that is the source of information to retrieve the key;
- Fault injection attacks (FIA), which consist in actively perturbing the computation so as to obtain exploitable differences at the output.

Few generic protections, demonstrably provable against both threats, have been proposed. The best understood and most studied protection against SCA is achieved with masking. Every sensitive data x, say a binary vector, employed in the cryptographic algorithm is exclusived-or with one uniformly distributed random vector of the same length, called mask. We are interested in this article in a *homomorphic* computation. This means that the computations are carried out on the masked data itself. Therefore, it must be possible, from a masked sensitive variable, denoted by z, to recover x (e.g., for the final demasking at the end of the computation). This is possible if the sensitive data and the masks belong to two supplementary subspaces of a larger space vector. Indeed, by definition of supplementary subspaces, any element of the large space vector decomposes itself in a unique way as the sum of two elements (in Boolean vector spaces, the sum is the exclusive-or, denoted by "+" in the sequel). It is thus decided to interpret those two elements as the sensitive data and the mask. This method is called *Orthogonal Direct Sum Masking* (ODSM), see [5].

We call n the dimension of this large vector space, which practically is $\mathbb{F}_2^n$. Now, we call C and D the two supplementary vector spaces:

$$\mathbb{F}_2^n = C \oplus D \ . \tag{1}$$

The masks are the codewords of code D. By the rank-nullity theorem, if the dimension of C is k, then the dimension of D is $n - k$. Let us consider generator matrices G and G' of C and D, respectively. Then every vector $z \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ can be written in a unique way as $z = xG + yG'$, $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^k, y \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k}$. If C and D are furthermore orthogonal with respect to the usual inner product, i.e., $D = C^\perp$, then C is said complementary dual[1].

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[1] "supplementary" would seem a more appropriate term than "complementary", but the terminology being more than ten year old, we must keep it as is.

Definition 1. *A* linear *code C is called* complementary dual *(LCD) if C and $C^\perp$ are supplementary, that is (given their dimensions), $C \cap C^\perp = \{0\}$.*

Remark 1. Let C be a linear code. The space vector $C \cap C^\perp$ is called the hull *of C. So, C is LCD if and only if its hull has a zero dimension.*

Note that $D = C^\perp$ if and only if G' is a parity-check matrix of C, that is, $GG'^{\mathsf{T}} = 0$, where G'^{T} is the transposed matrix of matrix G'; we denote then G' by H. We can use an orthogonal projection to recover x and y from z: the relation $z = xG + yH$ implies $zH^{\mathsf{T}} = yHH^{\mathsf{T}}$ and $zG^{\mathsf{T}} = xGG^{\mathsf{T}}$. The next characterization is due to Massey [15]:

Proposition 1. *Let C be a linear code. Let G be a generator matrix of C and H a parity-check matrix. Then the three following properties are equivalent:*

1. *C is LCD,*
2. *the matrix HH^{T} is invertible,*
3. *the matrix GG^{T} is invertible.*

We deduce from $zH^{\mathsf{T}} = yHH^{\mathsf{T}}$ and $zG^{\mathsf{T}} = xGG^{\mathsf{T}}$, and from Proposition 1 that if C is LCD, the matrices of the two projections $z = xG + yH \mapsto x$ and $z \mapsto y$ are respectively (see also [15, Proposition 1]):

$$G^{\mathsf{T}}(GG^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \text{ so that } x = zG^{\mathsf{T}}(GG^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \ , \tag{2}$$

$$H^{\mathsf{T}}(HH^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \text{ so that } y = zH^{\mathsf{T}}(HH^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \ . \tag{3}$$

Note that, $G^{\mathsf{T}}(GG^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1}$ is also known as the pseudo-inverse (or Moore-Penrose inverse [1]) G^+ of G.

The quality of the masking is an important factor. Let $\phi : \mathbb{F}_2^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a leakage function, that describes how z is leaked outside of device. The masked word z conceals the information x at *first degree* if for all pseudo-Boolean function $\phi : \mathbb{F}_2^n \to \mathbb{R}$ of unitary numerical degree [7, Sec. 2.1], all the averages of $\phi(z)$ over the masks $d \in D$ for a given x are equal irrespective of x. Indeed, first-degree attacks consist in correlating the measured leakage with a leakage model, the latter being precisely independent of x, since equal to the expectation of $\phi(z)$ knowing x [18]. This means that $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}_2^k, \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}^{n-k}} \phi(xG + yH)$ are the same, i.e., equal to $\sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}^{n-k}} \phi(yH)$ (for $x = 0$). Now, this notion can be generalized (see [2, Def. 2]). A zero-offset masking countermeasure is of *degree at least d* if $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}_2^k, \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}^{n-k}} \phi(xG + yH) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}^{n-k}} \phi(yH)$ for all ϕ of numerical degree at most d. The greater the degree of the countermeasure, the harder to pass a successful SCA. Actually, it is known from [5] that the countermeasure is $(d-1)$-th degree secure if D has dual distance d, i.e., if C has minimum distance d. This result has been independently validated in [10] for $d \in \{1, 2\}$.

Let us now consider a fault injection attack (FIA). The state z is modified into $z + \varepsilon$, for some random $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$. By supplementarity of C and D, there exists a unique ordered pair $(e, f) \in \mathbb{F}_2^k \times \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k}$ such that $\varepsilon = eG + fH$. A detection strategy could consist in decoding z into (x, y), and checking that we recover the genuine values unchanged. However, x is sensitive: the purpose of the protection is exactly to avoid representing x by replacing it by z. The random variable y, from its side, does not convey any (statistically) exploitable information. So, checking whether or not the mask has been altered, i.e., $zH^{\mathsf{T}}(HH^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \overset{?}{=} y$, is a harmless detection strategy.

This happens if and only if $f = 0$, i.e., $\varepsilon \in C$. As $\varepsilon = 0$ is pointless (since without observable effect), harmful faults only happen if $\varepsilon \in C \setminus \{0\}$. In particular, the Hamming weight of ε must be greater or equal to the minimum distance d of code C for the fault not to be detected. Now, given that the minimum distance d of C is a design parameter, it is set as high as possible.

Therefore, have C be LCD of greatest possible minimum distance simultaneously improves the resistance against SCA and FIA.

There are two kinds of designs that can benefit from the described protection. The first one is the implementation of hardware accelerators for block ciphers, such as the AES. In this case, the data to protect are typically bytes, with $k = 8$ (see for instance this case study [5]). The second kind is a general-purpose processor executing software cryptography (see for instance [3], where a tiny processor is protected). Its registers can be protected individually (hence $k = 8, 16, 32$). For an improved security, it can be advantageous to mask all the registers seen as one unique resource, made up of a few hundreds to a few thousands bits. Therefore, we are interested in codes of various dimensions, ranging from $k = 8$ to $k \approx 4096$.

Side-channel analysis starts to be difficult even at low degrees (e.g., d is equal to a few units, such as $d = 2, 3, 4$). The same applies to perturbation attacks: if all faults on $d = 1, 2, 3, 4$ bits are detected, then the success of FIA is compromised. Now, *hardware trojan horses* (HTHs) make up a special threat. HTHs are gates added by an adversary (e.g., a silicon foundry) into the design at fabrication time. Those gates allow to deliver a malicious payload on a crafted activation condition. The activation results from a triggering, decided based on the value of some bits of the circuit. Thus, in a circuit protected by a LCD code C of minimum distance d, the HTH must connect to at least d bits to receive enough bits for a partial demasking of the state. Symmetrically, the payload is delivered by altering some bits of the circuit. Consequently, the HTH must modify at least d bits to bypass an integrity check. Therefore, in order to preventively refrain the insertion of HTH trigger logic and in order to proactively detect the effect of the HTH payload, the minimum distance d of LCD codes must be set has high as possible (refer to [3] for more details). Now, it is known that for too large a value of d (e.g., $d > 16$), then the added gates making up the HTH will be so numerous that the HTH will be trivially disclosed, e.g., by some visual inspection [4].

The problem is thus the following: for a given dimension k (architecture parameter) and minimum distance d (security parameter), find a LCD code of length n as small as possible (and therefore, of *rate k/n as large as possible*).

Remark 2 (More general formalization). Let us consider two codes C and D which are supplementary in $\mathbb{F}_2^n$, but not necessarily dual. We denote by d the minimum distance of C and by d' the dual distance of D. Then the researched compromise is between $\min(d, d')$ and the dimension of code C. Indeed, if C is a subcode of C_1 and D is a supercode of D_1, then $d \geq d_1$ and $d' \geq d'_1$ (since $D^\perp$ is a subcode of $D_1^\perp$), which implies that $\min(d, d') \geq \min(d_1, d'_1)$.

An application of remark 2 can be found in [17]. The context is that of an asymmetrical defense against HTH: the HTH must connect to at least d' bits to be able to trigger itself, and must modify at least d bits to be able to deliver its payload.

In the sequel, we will consider only LCD codes, for which $C = D^\perp$ hence $d = d'$.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows.

- Sec. 3 gives several constructions of codes, which make up the bulk of the countermeasures.
- Sec. 4 gives constructions from other codes, thereby allowing for optimizations. Especially, puncturing, shortening and extending allows to fine-tine a code that has the almost expected security level. Typically, it can be beneficial to start from a code whose dimension is little larger than the target dimension, in which case it can be shortened. This is beneficial as both the dimension and the length are decremented, which allows to reduce the cost of the implementation while at the same time have a code that better fits the intended dimension.

3 Constructions

In this section we study, with a practical viewpoint, how the known primary constructions[2] can allow to obtain effective LCD binary codes with large minimum distance and large rate. An important selection criterion is the existence of a bound on the minimum distance, that otherwise cannot be computed by testing all the possible Hamming weights of nonzero codewords since our codes can have lengths of the order of one or several thousands.

LCD cyclic codes, which have a minoration on their minimum distance via the BCH bound, have been characterized in [24]. The condition for being LCD is rather simple and not difficult to achieve. Moreover, a potentially stronger lower bound on the minimum distance exists for the sub-class of quadratic-residue (QR) codes, which can also be LCD. A QR code has for length a prime number n and has a minimum distance d at least $\sqrt{n}$. A binary QR code has length congruent with ± 1 modulo 8 and is LCD if the length is congruent with 1 modulo 8 [14]. Asymptotically, $\sqrt{n}$ is a rather low value compared with the Gilbert Varshamov bound, but such value is not far from what we need in our framework. The main drawback of QR codes is that their dimension equals $\frac{n\pm 1}{2}$ (namely $\frac{n+1}{2}$ if we exclude 1 as possible zero of QR codes, and $\frac{n-1}{2}$ otherwise), while we need larger dimensions. Indeed, given the dimension k (which can be of the order of one or several thousands) and some number δ (say, at most 64), we look for a LCD code of length n as small as possible such that $d \geq \delta$. This leads us to consider (in Sec. 3.3) a generalization of QR codes whose lengths are not prime.

We first recall in Sec. 3.1 the definition and some properties of cyclic codes in general, and of LCD cyclic codes in particular. We then prove in Sec. 3.2 that there exist LCD Reed-Solomon codes of any dimension over $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$; but their length can hardly be controlled. Thus, we define in Sec. 3.3 the generalized residue codes[3] and study LCD codes within them.

3.1 LCD cyclic codes

In all this paper, q is a power of 2.

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[2] By that, we mean constructions from scratch. We shall deal with secondary constructions, which deduce LCD codes from other codes, in the next section.

[3] Earlier works, such as [22,23] generalized QR codes to *prime power* (instead of *prime*) lengths and to *t-th order residues* (instead of *quadratic*). Our work goes beyond insofar as we consider any length co-prime with the field characteristic q (for our application, $q = 2$).

Definition 2 (Cyclic code). *A linear code C of length n over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_q$ is cyclic if it is stable by any circular rotation.*

We shall always consider n co-prime with q. The codewords can also be represented as polynomials in the algebra $A = \mathbb{F}_q[X]/(X^n - 1)$. In this representation, a code is cyclic if and only if it is an ideal of A. A cyclic code $C \neq \{0\}$ is generated by the (unique) normalized nonzero polynomial $g(X)$ of the smallest degree in C, which is always a divisor of $X^n - 1$ (conversely, any divisor of $X^n - 1$ is the generator polynomial of a cyclic code of length n). The zeros of $g(X)$ in the extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ equal to $\mathbb{F}_{q^m}$ where m is the multiplicative order of q modulo n (i.e., the smallest positive integer such that n divides $q^m - 1$) are then n-th roots of unity. They are called the zeros of the code. The other n-th roots of unity are called the non-zeros of C. Since n is co-prime with q, the zeros of $X^n - 1$ and then of $g(X)$ are simple. This is because the derivative nX^{n-1} of $X^n - 1$ has 0 for unique zero. The dimension of the code equals the number of its non-zeros because every codeword is in fact a multiple of degree at most $n - 1$ of $g(X)$ in $\mathbb{F}_q[X]$. The set of zeros is stable under the Frobenius automorphism $\gamma \mapsto \gamma^q$. Conversely, any set of n-th roots of unity stable under the Frobenius automorphism is the set of zeros of a cyclic code over $\mathbb{F}_q$. Let β be a primitive n-th root of unity. Let C be a cyclic code of zeros $\{\beta^j, \ j \in J \subseteq \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\}$. The BCH bound states that the minimum distance of C is bounded below by the length of any string of consecutive elements in J, plus 1. The dual $C^\perp$ of a cyclic code is a cyclic code and its zeros are the inverses of the non-zeros of C. The intersection of two cyclic codes is a cyclic code and its set of zeros equals the union of the zeros of each code. This intersection equals $\{0\}$ if and only if this union equals the set of all n-th roots of unity. Hence, as observed in [24]:

Proposition 2. *A cyclic code is LCD if and only if its set of zeros is stable by the multiplicative inverse, i.e., if and only if its generator polynomial $g(X)$ is self-reciprocal.*

Indeed, according to the properties recalled above, the necessary and sufficient condition is that the zeros of C and the inverses of the non-zeros of C are in two complementary sets, which is equivalent to saying that the set of zeros (or equivalently: non-zeros) is stable under inverse.

Example 1. The binary cyclic code of length 17 whose zeros are

$$\{\beta^j, \ j = 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, 13, 15, 16\}$$

is LCD and has parameters $[17, 8, 6]$, and its generator polynomial is $X^9 + X^6 + X^5 + X^4 + X^3 + 1$. Note that the set of zeros is stable under the Frobenius $\gamma \mapsto \gamma^2$, which makes the code binary, and that the string $15, 16, 0, 1, 2$ in $\mathbb{Z}/17\mathbb{Z}$ has length 5; the BCH bound is then tight for this code.

3.2 Expansion of LCD Reed-Solomon codes over $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$

It is possible to map a code C on $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ onto a code C' on $\mathbb{F}_2$. We shall refer to C' as the *expanded* code C. There are many ways to do so. Let us consider that $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ is an extension of $\mathbb{F}_2$ using polynomial P over $\mathbb{F}_2$. We can thus denote each element $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ as $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i \mod P(X)$, and we write $a = (a_0, \ldots, a_{m-1})$. One example

consists in replacing each element $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ in the generator matrix of C by the $m \times m$ matrix of elements in $\mathbb{F}_2$ defined as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ aX \\ aX^2 \\ \vdots \\ aX^{m-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Under the computer algebra system Magma, P is $\texttt{DefiningPolynomial}(\mathbb{F}_{2^m})$ and C' is $\texttt{SubfieldRepresentationCode}(C)$. If C has parameters $[n, k, d]_{2^m}$, then C' has parameters $[mn, mk, d']_2$, where $d' \geq d$. Indeed, let us consider two codewords of C' with Hamming distance smaller than d. Then, a maximum of d symbols (elements of $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$) differ in the two codewords, seen as elements of C. Therefore, they are identical.

Proposition 3. *If a code over $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ is LCD, then the corresponding expanded code is also LCD.*

Proof. According to [16, Theorem 5.1.18 page 103], there exists a self-dual basis of $\mathbb{F}_{q^m}$ over $\mathbb{F}_q$ if and only if either q is even or both q and m are odd. Let $q = 2^m$. We thus consider a self-orthogonal basis $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ of $\mathbb{F}_q$ over $\mathbb{F}_2$. It is such that $\text{tr}(\alpha_i \alpha_j) = 1$ if $i = j$ or 0 otherwise, where "tr" is the trace function of $\mathbb{F}_q$ on $\mathbb{F}_2$ $(\text{tr}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i)$. Then the vector $\bar{x}$ of the coordinates of x in this basis is $(\text{tr}(\alpha_1 x, \ldots, \alpha_m x)$. Thus, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_q$, we have $\text{tr}(xy) = \text{tr}((\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \text{tr}(\alpha_i x))(\sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j \text{tr}(\alpha_j y))) = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{tr}(\alpha_i x)\text{tr}(\alpha_i y) = \bar{x} \cdot \bar{y}$. Thus, if for a given n, $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n), y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$ are two orthogonal vectors of $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$, we have by definition that $\sum_{r=1}^n x_r y_r = 0$ which implies that $\text{tr}(\sum_{r=1}^n x_r y_r) = 0$, i.e., $\sum_{r=1}^n \bar{x}_r \cdot \bar{y}_r = 0$. This means that the expanded version of x (the concatenated word made up of $\bar{x}_r$) and the expanded version of y are also orthogonal. Thus, for all linear code C on $\mathbb{F}_q$, the expanded code C' of C satisfies $C^{\perp'} \subseteq C'^{\perp}$, and as both codes have the same cardinal $2^{(n-k)m}$, where k is the dimension of C, there is equality. $\square$

We consider a Reed-Solomon code over the alphabet $\mathbb{F}_q$, of length $n = q - 1$, and dimension k. By design, this code has a minimal distance $d = n - k + 1$, i.e., it is a maximum distance separable (MDS) code. Let β a primitive element of $\mathbb{F}_q$ and b an integer. Then, the code generated by the polynomial $g_b(X) = \prod_{j=0}^{n-k-1}(X - \beta^{j+b})$ is a Reed-Solomon code of parameters $[n = q - 1, k, d = n - k + 1]_q$. We have the following lemma:

Lemma 1. *For all alphabet size $q = 2^m$ power of 2 and dimension $0 < k < q$, there exists a LCD Reed-Solomon code.*

Proof. When $\mathbb{F}_q$ is of characteristic two, the code length n is odd. If $n - k$ is even, then both n and k are odd. The polynomial $g_{(k+1)/2}(X)$ is self-reciprocal, because its set of (simple) zeros, $\{\beta^j, (k+1)/2 \leq j \leq n - (k+1)/2\}$, is stable by inversion. If $n - k$ is odd, then $n - k - 1$ is even, and $g_{-(n-k-1)/2}(X)$ is self-reciprocal, because its set of (simple) zeros, $\{\beta^j, |j| \leq (n-k-1)/2\}$, contains 1 and is stable by inversion. So, irrespective of the parity of the codimension $n - k$, there exists a Reed-Solomon code generated by a self-reciprocal polynomial. Thus, by Proposition 2, this code is LCD. This existence proves Lemma 1. $\square$

One advantage of Reed-Solomon codes is that one can master their minimum distance. However, one of their renown shortcoming is that their length is only manageable in a coarse way. In the sequel, we shall consider the representation of the code in $\mathbb{F}_2$: after representation change from $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ to $\mathbb{F}_2$, the parameters of a code are turned from $[2^m - 1, k, 2^m - k]_{2^m}$ to $[(2^m - 1)m, km, \geq 2^m - k]_2$. The length $(2^m - 1)m$ quickly explodes (it is respectively equal to 1, 6, 21, 60, 155, 378, 889, 2040, 4599, 10230 for $1 \leq m \leq 10$).

Example 2 (Application of Lemma 1). By choosing $m = 10$ and $k = 644$, we can build the LCD Reed-Solomon code of generating polynomial $g_{-(n-k-1)/2}(X) = \prod_{j=-189}^{+189}(X - \beta^j)$, where β is a primitive element of $\mathbb{F}_{1024}$. Its parameters are $[1023, 644, 380]_{1024}$. Its *expanded* code (i.e., its representation in $\mathbb{F}_2$) is also a cyclic LCD code (by Proposition 3), and has parameters $[10230, 6440, \geq 380]_2$.

3.3 LCD generalized residue codes

Let n be any integer co-prime with q and let t be any positive integer. Let Q be the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$:

$$ Q = \{i^t, \, i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \ . $$

Then Q is stable under multiplication in the sense that, for any $s \in Q$, the mapping $r \in Q \mapsto sr$ is valued in Q (but, since n is not assumed to be a prime, the image set of this mapping may be strictly included in Q, since there exist divisors of zero[4] in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$): for every $i^t, j^t \in Q$, we have indeed $i^t j^t = (ij)^t$. Note that, since n is not assumed to be a prime, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus Q$ may not be stable under this same mapping. Assume that q belongs to Q. Then Q is stable under multiplication by q, in the strong sense that the mapping $r \in Q \mapsto qr$ has image set Q, since q being co-prime with n, the multiplication by q is a permutation of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Note that, for the same reason, $Q^* = Q \setminus \{0\}$ is also stable under multiplication by q. Let C be the cyclic code of length n over $\mathbb{F}_{q^m}$ whose zeros are β^i, $i \in Q$ (resp. $i \in Q^*$, $i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus Q$, $i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus Q^*$). Then C is a code over $\mathbb{F}_q$ since its set of zeros is stable under the Frobenius automorphism. And if additionally $-1 \in Q$ (that is, $n - 1 \in Q$; note that $n - 1$ is also co-prime with n), then Q is stable under multiplication by -1 in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and C is LCD. We deduce, since we are looking for binary codes:

Proposition 4. *Let n be an odd positive integer and t be any positive integer. Let Q be the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Assume that 2 and -1 both belong to Q. Then the cyclic code of length n whose zeros are β^i, $i \in Q$ (resp. $i \in Q^*$, $i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus Q$, $i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus Q^*$) where β is a primitive n-th root of unity in an extension field of $\mathbb{F}_q$, is a binary cyclic LCD code.*

Note that, given t, it is easy to find integers n such that 2 and -1 are in Q: it is enough to take n as a common divisor of an integer of the form $r^t - 2$ and of an integer of the form $s^t + 1$. Since n is not assumed to be a prime, the size of Q may be strictly smaller than $1 + \frac{n-1}{\gcd(t, n-1)}$ (that is, $\frac{n+1}{2}$ if $t = 2$ and n is odd) and the

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[4] For the same reason, we do not exclude $i = 0$ in the definition of Q above, contrary to the definition of Q when n is a prime, since even if $i \neq 0$ is imposed in this definition, 0 may belong to Q.

dimension $k = n - \mathsf{card}(Q)$ of the code may be larger than $(n-1)(1 - \frac{1}{\gcd(t,n-1)})$ (that is, $\frac{n-1}{2}$ if $t = 2$ and n is odd).

We give in Table 1 the values of $n \leq 10,000$ such that 2 and -1 are quadratic residues ($t = 2$) and Q has size strictly smaller than $\frac{n+1}{2}$. They are not numerous but they exist. We observe that $\mathsf{card}(Q)$ either is near $\frac{n}{2}$ or is near $\frac{n}{4}$ (which is of course more interesting for us since it gives a larger dimension). Note that the only way we know of bounding below the minimum distance is then by using the BCH bound.

Remark 3. For classical QR codes, n is a prime number (and $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is then a field) and $t = 2$. Given a nonzero codeword $f(X)$ of minimum weight d in the code C of zeros β^i, $i \in Q^*$, and j a non-residue, the polynomial $f(X^j)$ is a nonzero codeword in the code of zeros β^i, $i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \backslash Q$, and $f(X)f(X^j)$ belongs then to the intersection of these two codes and is a multiple of $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X^i$ which has weight n. Then $d^2 \geq n$ (but since the size of Q^* equals $\frac{n-1}{2}$, the dimension of the code is $\frac{n\pm1}{2}$, which is too small for our purpose).

Now if we take for t any value such that 2 and -1 are t-th powers and keep n prime, then let $e = \gcd(n-1, t)$ and let α be a primitive element of the field $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$; we have $Q^* = \{\alpha^{je}, j \in \mathbb{Z}/(n-1)\mathbb{Z}\}$ and $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{e-1} \alpha^i Q^*$. Then, since $f(X^{\alpha^{-i}}) = 0$ if and only if $X^{\alpha^{-i}} \in \{\beta^j, j \in Q^*\}$, that is, $X \in \{\beta^{\alpha^i j}, j \in Q^*\}$, the polynomial $\prod_{i=0}^{e-1} f(X^{\alpha^{-i}})$ has any element β^j, $j \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ for zero and is then a multiple of $\prod_{j=1}^{n-1}(X - \beta^j) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X^i$ which has weight n. Then $d^e \geq n$. Note that the rate of this code equals $\frac{n - \frac{n-1}{e}}{n}$.

Proposition 5. *Let n be an odd prime number and t be any integer. Let $e = \gcd(n-1, t)$ and Q be the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Assume that 2 and -1 both belong to Q. Then the binary LCD code of Proposition 4 has rate $\frac{e-1+\frac{1}{n}}{e}$ and minimum distance d satisfying $d^e \geq n$.*

We have then a trade-off between minimum distance and rate.

Remark 4. The article [6] also introduces generalized residue codes. Moreover, this article provides an upper bound on the minimum distance of such codes.

However, in our context of LCD codes, this bound is not exploitable. For instance, the first entry in Table 1 of rate close to 3/4 (and not only 1/2) has length $n = 697$. For this length, we have the decomposition $X^{697} - 1 = (X-1)P(X)\Phi_n(X)$, where (using notations borrowed from [6]):

- *$\Phi_n(X)$ is a product of 16 irreducible polynomial of degree 40, and*
- *$P(X)$ is polynomial of degree 56, which decomposes into 2 irreducible polynomials of degree 8 and 2 irreducible polynomials of degree 20.*

Thus, the upper bound on d, the minimum distance of the code, is: $56d^{16} \geq 697$, which does not give any information on d because this inequation is true for all $d > 1$.

Remark 5. The paper [13] also introduces a bound for minimal distances on generalized residue codes. However, for meaningful examples, it degenerates to $d^t \geq n' = 1$, which does not learn anything on d (at least for the examples given in [13]).

3.4 Generating the codes by the use of idempotents

The generator polynomial of a cyclic code C of length n may be complex to calculate, because this needs to calculate in the Galois extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ containing a primitive n-th root of unity β. An alternative way is to use an idempotent as generator of the code (this method is well-known and specially simple for classical quadratic residue codes, see [14]). Let $g(X)$ be the generator polynomial of a cyclic code C. We have $X^n - 1 = g(X)h(X)$ where $h(X)$ is co-prime with $g(X)$ since n is odd (all zeros of $X^n - 1$ being then simple). Bezout's theorem implies then the existence of two polynomials $u(X), v(X)$ such that $g(X)u(X) + h(X)v(X) = 1$, which implies $(g(X)u(X))^2 = g(X)u(X) \ [\mathrm{mod}\ X^n - 1]$. Then $E(X) = g(X)u(X)$ is an idempotent in $\mathbb{F}_q[X]/(X^n - 1)$. Moreover, $g(X) = (E(X) + h(X)v(X))g(X) = E(X)g(X)$ $[\mathrm{mod}\ X^n - 1]$ implies that $E(X)$ is also a generator of C. Using that $E(X)$ is an idempotent, we have that $f(X) \in C$ if and only if $f(X)E(X) = f(X)$. This implies that $E(X)$ is unique, since if another idempotent $F(X)$ exists in C, we have $F(X)E(X) = F(X) = E(X)$. Note that E applied to n-th roots of unity takes values in $\mathbb{F}_2$ (this is in fact a necessary and sufficient condition for $E(X) \in C$ to be an idempotent [14]). The idempotent of $C^\perp$ equals the reciprocal of $1 + E(X)$, since $1 + E(X)$ is an idempotent whose common zeros with $X^n - 1$ equal the non-zeros of the code. The characterization of cyclic LCD codes in Proposition 2 gives then:

Proposition 6. *Let C be a cyclic code over $\mathbb{F}_q$. Let $E(X)$ be the idempotent of C. Then C is LCD if and only if $E(X)$ is self-reciprocal, that is, if and only if the idempotent associated to $C^\perp$ is $1 + E(X)$.*

The condition is indeed sufficient because the zeros of the code are the common zeros of $E(X)$ and $X^n - 1$, and it is necessary since if $g(X)$ is self-reciprocal then $E(X)$ (which is obtained from $g(X)$ and $h(X)$ by the extended Euclidean algorithm) is self-reciprocal as well.

We consider now again the case of generalized residue codes. If $q = 2 \in Q$, where Q is the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, then the polynomial $P(X) = \sum_{j \in Q} X^j$ satisfies $P^2(X) = \sum_{j \in Q} X^{2j} \equiv P(X) \ [\mathrm{mod}\ X^n - 1]$ and is then an idempotent. For every t-th power residue r, we have $P(\beta^r) = \sum_{j \in Q} \beta^{rj}$, and if r is co-prime with n then we deduce that $P(\beta^r) = \sum_{j \in Q} \beta^j = P(\beta) \in \mathbb{F}_2$. Hence:

Proposition 7. *Let n be an odd positive integer and t be any positive integer. Let Q be the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Assume that 2 belongs to Q. Let C be the binary cyclic code of length n over $\mathbb{F}_q$ whose zeros are β^i, $i \in Q^*$ where β is a primitive n-th root of unity in an extension field of $\mathbb{F}_q$. Let $P(X) = \sum_{j \in Q} X^j$. If every nonzero element in Q is co-prime with n, then the idempotent of code C is $P(X)$ or $1 + P(X)$.*

Note that adding $\beta^0 = 1$ to the zeros of the code (resp. withdrawing β^0 if it was a zero) corresponds to multiplying (resp. dividing) the generator polynomial by $(X + 1)$. The idempotent becomes $E(X) + \frac{X^n + 1}{X + 1}$ since the idempotent element $\frac{X^n + 1}{X + 1}$ of the algebra A takes value 1 at 1 and value 0 at any other n-th root of unity.

3.5 Bound on the minimum distance when the length n is a prime power

We have now a simple way to practically generate LCD generalized residue codes. But we need to check that the conditions "$2 \in Q$", "$-1 \in Q$" and "every nonzero

element in Q is co-prime with n" can be satisfied simultaneously. Of course if n is a prime, the last condition is satisfied. If $t = 2$ (which, as we saw above, can give good rates for some values of n which are not primes) and n is the square of a prime, we have:

Proposition 8. *Let p be any prime number and $n = p^r$ for some $r \geq 1$. Let $Q = \{i^t, i \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\}$ where $t \geq r$. Then every nonzero element in Q is co-prime with n.*

Indeed, let $0 < i = kp + l < n$, with $l < p$. Then $i^t \equiv l^t \; [\mathrm{mod}\ p]$ and if $i^t \neq 0$ in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ then $l \neq 0$ and i^t is then co-prime with p and then with n.

We give in Table 2 the first values of p and $n = p^2$ such that 2 and -1 are quadratic residues (note that all these values of p are congruent with 1 mod 8 since if 2 and -1 are quadratic residues mod p^2 they are also quadratic residues mod p and we know from [14] that p is then congruent with 1 mod 8) and the corresponding values of the size of Q. We observe that this size is smaller than $\frac{n+1}{2}$ which is easily proved in general since two elements $i = kp + l$ and $i' = k'p + l'$ of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ have the same square if and only if $p | (l'^2 - l^2)$, that is, $l = l'$ or $l' = p - l$, and in the case $l = l'$, then $k = k'$ (since $p | k' - k$), and in the case $l' = p - l$, then $k' = k - \frac{p+1}{2}$.

We can now generalize Proposition 5 to the case where n is not prime, but a power of a prime (see also [13,21]).

Proposition 9. *Let n be a prime power $n = p^r$, for p prime and $r \geq 1$, and let t be any integer such that $t \geq r$. Let $e = \gcd(p^{r-1}(p-1), t)$ and Q be the set of t-th powers in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Assume that 2 and -1 both belong to Q. Then the binary LCD code of Proposition 4 (with zeros in Q^*) has rate $\frac{e - 1 + \frac{1}{p}}{e}$ and minimum distance d satisfying $d^e \geq p$.*

Proof. When $n = p^r$, the non invertible elements of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ are the multiples of p, and the group of inversible elements (the unities) is cyclic. A generator of this group is the product of $p + 1$ (which has order p^{r-1} since $(p+1)^{p^k} = p^{k+1}q_k + 1$ with q_k coprime with p) and an element of order $p - 1$ denoted by a. Let us denote $g = a(p+1)$. If we take $t \geq r$, then the t-th power of any non-invertible element is equal to 0 (which reduces the size of Q and thus goes in the same direction as our goal to increase the rate) and Q^* is the cyclic group des unities generated by g^t. Let us denote $e = \gcd(p^{r-1}(p-1), t)$. The group Q^* has order $\frac{p^{r-1}(p-1)}{e}$, and the group of unities of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is equal to the union of $g^i Q^*$ for i varying from 0 to $e-1$. Let $f(X)$ a codeword from the cyclic code having $\beta^j, j \in Q^*$ as zeroes. The product of the $f(X^{g^{-i}})$ for i in $\{0, \ldots, e - 1\}$ is equal to $\frac{X^n + 1}{P(X)}$ where $P(X) = \prod_{j=0}^{p^{r-1}-1}(X + \beta^{pj})$. The β^{pj} are thus the (n/p)-th roots of the unity in the suitable extension field of the base field $\mathbb{F}_q$. So $P(X) = X^{n/p} + 1$. Hence $\frac{X^n + 1}{P(X)}$ has weight p and we have $d^e \geq p$. Finally, the rate is $\frac{p^r - \frac{p^{r-1}(p-1)}{e}}{p^r} = \frac{e - 1 + \frac{1}{p}}{e}$. $\qquad\square$

Remark 6. The bound on d given in Proposition 5 is interesting in some contexts, such as the codes given in Table 2, where it is the best known bound (as mentioned in Remarks 4 and 5, we recall that other state-of-the-art bounds do not apply).

Remark 7. In some very particular cases (when their length is comparable with competing codes), expanded LCD Reed-Solomon codes (covered in Sec. 3.2) can be interesting substitutes to LCD generalized residue codes. For exemple, there is in Table 2

a code of dimension 6440, length $113^2 = 12769$, and minimal distance ≥ 11. The expanded LCD Reed-Solomon code of Example 2 has the same dimension, but a smaller length (only 10230) and a minimal distance equal or greater than 380.

4 Constructing LCD codes from other codes

The constructions investigated in the previous section do not always allow to reach the precise parameters (length, dimension, minimum distance) needed in our framework. We must then study those secondary constructions which allow modifying the parameters of codes and to obtain LCD codes from other codes (which can be LCD or not). As far as we know, these secondary constructions have not yet been studied in the literature.

The LCD property is invariant under permutation of the codeword coordinates. The only two other transformations that we know which preserve the LCD property are the direct sum and the direct product. They are detailed in Sec. 4.1. These preservations do not allow to construct LCD codes with large rate. But transformations of codes which do not preserve the LCD property can allow more constructions of LCD codes. Let ϕ be one of them. Then, we can express by means of a code C the fact that $\phi(C)$ is LCD, or by means of $\phi(C)$ the fact that C is LCD. This allows to have constraints different from $C \cap C^\perp = \{0\}$, that could possibly be satisfied by other classes of codes. The operations allowing to turn codes into LCD are studied in Sec. 4.2, which discusses puncturing, shortening, extending and the $(u, u + v)$ construct. These operations allow to fine-tune a code, with a view to obtain LCD codes with adjusted parameters. Finally, Sec. 4.3 explains how to turn an arbitrary code into a LCD code by applying a linear automorphism.

4.1 Transformations of LCD codes into other LCD codes

Constructing LCD codes using the direct sum

Proposition 10. *If C_1 and C_2 are LCD codes of parameters $[n_1, k_1, d_1]$ and $[n_2, k_2, d_2]$, respectively, then their* direct sum *(i.e. their Cartesian product), defined as $C_1 \oplus C_2 = \{(c_1, c_2), c_1 \in C_1, c_2 \in C_2\}$, is LCD of parameters $[n_1 + n_2, k_1 + k_2, \min(d_1, d_2)]$.*

Proof. Indeed, $(C_1 \oplus C_2)^\perp = C_1^\perp \oplus C_2^\perp$ and then $(C_1 \oplus C_2) \cap (C_1 \oplus C_2)^\perp = (C_1 \cap C_1^\perp) \oplus (C_2 \cap C_2^\perp)$. The name of *direct sum* comes from the fact that the indices of the codewords of C_1 and of those of C_2 being distinct, the sum of $C_1 \times \{0\}$ and $\{0\} \times C_2$ as vector-spaces is direct. □

Constructing LCD codes using the direct product

Definition 3 (Direct Product). *Let C_1 and C_2 be two codes of parameters respectively $[n_1, k_1]$ and $[n_2, k_2]$. The direct product $C_1 \otimes C_2$ between C_1 and C_2 is a code of parameters $[n_1 n_2, k_1 k_2]$, whose codewords are equal to:*

$$(c_1[j_1] c_2[j_2])_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1, 0 \leq j_2 < n_2} \quad , \tag{4}$$

for all $c_1 \in C_1$ and $c_2 \in C_2$. Notice that the square brackets operator represents the coordinate selection of a codeword.

Remark 8. The codewords of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ can have their coordinates permuted such that they write:

- *either as $(c_1[j_1]c_2)_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1}$,*
- *or as $(c_2[j_2]c_1)_{0 \leq j_2 < n_2}$,*

where words such as $c_1[j_1]c_2$, where $c_1[j_1] \in \mathbb{F}_2$ and $c_2 \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2}$, belong to $\mathbb{F}_2^{n_2}$.

Definition 4. *We denote:*

- *by $\sigma_1 : \{0, \ldots, n_1 \times n_2 - 1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n_1 \times n_2 - 1\}$ the permutation of coordinates that leads to codewords of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ been written as $(c_1[j_1]c_2)_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1}$,*
- *by $\sigma_2 : \{0, \ldots, n_1 \times n_2 - 1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n_1 \times n_2 - 1\}$ the permutation of coordinates that leads to codewords of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ been written as $(c_2[j_2]c_1)_{0 \leq j_2 < n_2}$.*

More precisely, let $d = (c_1[j_1]c_2[j_2])_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1, 0 \leq j_2 < n_2}$ a codeword of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ (see Eqn. (4)). We denote: $d[j] = c_1[j/n_2]c_2[j \mod n_2]$, for all $0 \leq j < n_1 n_2$. Then:

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1(j) & = j \ , \\ \sigma_2(j) & = n_2(j \mod n_1) + (j/n_1) \ . \end{cases}$$

Proposition 11 (Corollary IV.2 p. 106 of [20]). *Let C_1 and C_2 be two codes of minimum distance d_1 and d_2. Then, the minimal distance of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ is $d_1 d_2$.*

We will need this property on the dual of a direct product:

Lemma 2 (Proposition IV.3 at page 106 of [20]). *The dual of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ is $(C_1^\perp \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2}) + (\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2^\perp)$.*

In fact it is easily shown that the dual of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ also equals $(C_1^\perp \otimes C_2) + (\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2^\perp)$ (this is between the lines of the proof of Proposition 12 below) when C_1 and C_2 are LCD. Actually, the sum in Lemma 2 is not direct, but the sum $(C_1^\perp \otimes C_2) + (\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2^\perp)$ or $(\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2) + (C_1 \otimes C_2^\perp)$ (both equal to the dual of $C_1 \otimes C_2$) is indeed direct.

Proposition 12. *If C_1 and C_2 are LCD, then $C_1 \otimes C_2$ is also LCD.*

Proof. We know that a linear code C of length n is LCD if and only if $C + C^\perp = \mathbb{F}_2^n$, since the dimension of $C^\perp$ equals the co-dimension of C. The code $(C_1 \otimes C_2) + (C_1^\perp \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2})$ includes $(C_1 + C_1^\perp) \otimes C_2 = \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2$, since any word $((c_1[j_1]+c_1'[j_1])c_2)_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1}$ of $(C_1 + C_1^\perp) \otimes C_2$ can be decomposed into the sum of $(c_1[j_1]c_2)_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1} \in C_1 \otimes C_2$ and of $(c_1'[j_1]c_2)_{0 \leq j_1 < n_1} \in C_1^\perp \otimes C_2 \subseteq C_1^\perp \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2}$. Hence $(C_1 \otimes C_2) + (C_1^\perp \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2}) + (\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2^\perp)$ includes $\mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2 + \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes C_2^\perp = \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1} \otimes \mathbb{F}_2^{n_2} = \mathbb{F}_2^{n_1 n_2}$. $\square$

Proposition 13 (Proposition IV.4 p. 108 of [20]). *Let C_1 and C_2 be two linear codes of dual distance $d_1^\perp$ and $d_2^\perp$. Then, the dual distance of $C_1 \otimes C_2$ is $\min(d_1^\perp, d_2^\perp)$.*

Example 3. Let $n = 15$ and $k = 8$. The best known linear code in the Magma database has parameters $[15, 8, 4]$. But this code is not LCD. However, let C_1 the cyclic linear code of parameters $[5, 4, 2]$ of generating matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1\,0\,0\,0\,1 \\ 0\,1\,0\,0\,1 \\ 0\,0\,1\,0\,1 \\ 0\,0\,0\,1\,1 \end{pmatrix}$, and C_2 the cyclic linear code of parameters $[3, 2, 2]$ of generating matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1\,0\,1 \\ 0\,1\,1 \end{pmatrix}$. As C_1 and C_2 are LCD, then, by Proposition 12, $C_1 \otimes C_2$ is also LCD, and has parameters $[5 \times 3, 4 \times 2, 2 \times 2] = [15, 8, 4]$.

The $(u, u + v)$ construction The $(u, u + v)$ construction (also known as the Plotkin sum) provides an interesting construction of LCD codes.

Proposition 14. *If C and C' are linear codes of parameters $[n, k, d]$ and $[n, k', d']$, respectively, and if $C' \cap C^\perp$ is LCD (that is, $C + C'^\perp$ is LCD) and $C \cap C'^\perp = \{0\}$, then the code $C'' = \{(u, u + v), u \in C, v \in C'\}$ is LCD of parameters $[2n, k + k', min(2d, d')]$.*

Proof. We have $C''^\perp = \{(a, b), a + b \in C^\perp, b \in C'^\perp\}$ and then $C'' \cap C''^\perp = \{(a, b), a + b \in C' \cap C^\perp, a \in C, b \in C'^\perp\}$. For any such (a, b), the double condition $a \in C, b \in C'^\perp$ implies $a + b \in C + C'^\perp$. Hence, $a + b \in (C + C'^\perp) \cap (C + C'^\perp)^\perp$ and $a = b$ since $C + C'^\perp$ is assumed LCD. Then $a = b \in C \cap C'^\perp$ is null. □

Note that the double condition "$C' \cap C^\perp$ is LCD and $C \cap C'^\perp = \{0\}$" is satisfied when C and $C'^\perp$ are supplementary in $\mathbb{F}_2^n$ since we have then $C' \cap C^\perp = C \cap C'^\perp = \{0\}$, but this double condition is much more general. In fact, the building blocks for this construction are a LCD code $\mathcal{C}$, two subcodes C_1 and C_2 of $\mathcal{C}$ which are supplementary in $\mathcal{C}$; we take then $C = C_1$ and $C' = C_2^\perp$. Note that the rate of $\mathcal{C}$ is $\frac{k+n-k'}{2n}$, the rate of its dual is $\frac{k'+n-k}{2n}$, while that of the $(u, u+v)$-constructed code is $\frac{k+k'}{2n}$. Hence, this construction allows increasing the rate in some cases.

4.2 Constructing LCD codes by puncturing, shortening and extending codes

Puncturing and shortening codes Let C be a binary linear code of length n and let $T \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Let C^T be the *punctured* code obtained by deleting every coordinate c_i such that $i \in T$ in every codeword c of C and C_T be the *shortened* code obtained by deleting every such coordinate in every codeword c of C such that $c_i = 0$ for every $i \in T$. Then (see [11]):

$$(C^T)^\perp = (C^\perp)_T.$$

This can be easily checked: $(C^\perp)_T \subseteq (C^T)^\perp$ is clear and every element of $(C^T)^\perp$ can be extended to an element of $C^\perp$ by adding zeroes, which proves that $(C^T)^\perp \subseteq (C^\perp)_T$. By applying this property to $C^\perp$, we have also:

$$C_T{}^\perp = (C^\perp)^T.$$

Puncturing and shortening allow constructing LCD codes but the conditions on the original code C and on its dual are not straightforward to check.

Proposition 15. *Let C be a linear $[n, k, d]$ code and T a subset of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then:*

1. *The shortened code C_T is LCD if and only if every $c \in C$, whose support is disjoint from T and for which there exists $c' \in C^\perp$ coinciding with c outside T, is null. Code C_T has parameters $[n - |T|, k - |T| \leq k' \leq k, d' \geq d]$.*
2. *The punctured code C^T is LCD if and only if $(C^\perp)_T$ is LCD, that is, every $c' \in C^\perp$, whose support is disjoint from T and such that there exists $c \in C$ coinciding with c' outside T, is null. Code C^T has parameters $[n - |T|, k, d' \geq d - |T|]$, if $d > |T|$.*

Proof. We have $C_T{}^\perp = (C^\perp)^T$ and $C_T \cap (C^\perp)^T$ contains a nonzero vector if and only if there exists $c \in C$ nonzero whose support is disjoint from T and $c' \in C^\perp$ which coincides with c outside T. This proves 1 (the parameters of C_T and C^T are well known, see e.g. [11]).

The fact that C^T is LCD if and only if $(C^\perp)_T$ is LCD is a direct consequence of $C_T{}^\perp = (C^\perp)^T$. Applying the characterization of the LCD property of C_T to $C^\perp$ gives 2. □

We investigate now hypotheses under which the conditions of Proposition 15 are satisfied.

Corollary 1. *Let C be a linear code of length n and let T be a subset of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ whose size is strictly smaller than the minimum distance of $C + C^\perp$ and such that every nonzero codeword of $C \cap C^\perp$ has a nonzero coordinate at one (at least) of the positions in T. Then C_T and C^T are LCD codes.*

Indeed, the vector $c + c'$ in 1 or 2 of Proposition 15 has support included in T and has then Hamming weight strictly smaller than the minimum distance of $C + C^\perp$ and is then null. Hence $c = c'$ has all its coordinates at positions in T null, and is then null, according to the hypothesis on T.

Corollary 2. *Let C be a LCD code of length n and let T be a subset of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ whose size is strictly smaller than the dual distance of C (the minimum distance of $C^\perp$). Let π be the linear projection over C parallel to $C^\perp$ (for every $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, $\pi(x)$ is the unique element of C such that $x \in \pi(x) + C^\perp$). Let E_T be the vector space $\{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \, ; \, supp(x) \subseteq T\}$ where $supp(x)$ is the support $\{i \, ; \, x_i \neq 0\}$ of x, and let π_T be the linear function from E_T to $\mathbb{F}_2^T$ such that $\pi_T(x)$ is the restriction of the vector $\pi(x)$ to the positions in T. Then C_T is LCD if and only if π_T is bijective.*

Proof. We first show that the condition of bijectivity of π_T is sufficient. Let $c \in C$ be nonzero and have support disjoint from T, and let $c' \in C^\perp$ be such that c and c' coincide outside T. Let $x = c + c'$. Then x belongs to E_T and is nonzero since C and $C^\perp$ are supplementary. Then $\pi_T(x)$ is nonzero, that is, $supp(\pi(x)) \cap T \neq \emptyset$, but by definition $\pi(x) = c$, a contradiction. We deduce according to Proposition 15 that C is LCD.

Let us prove now that the condition is necessary. Let $x \in E_T$ be nonzero and let $c \in C$ and $c' \in C^\perp$ be the unique elements such that $x = c + c'$. Then c is nonzero since if $c = 0$ then $x \in C^\perp$, a contradiction since x has Hamming weight strictly smaller than the minimum distance of $C^\perp$. Moreover, c and c' coincide outside T. Then, according to Proposition 15, c has nonzero coordinates among the positions in T and $\pi_T(x) \neq 0$. Hence π_T is injective and therefore bijective since the vector spaces E_T and $\mathbb{F}_2^T$ have the same dimension $|T|$. □

The next corollary deals with cyclic codes. We index then the coordinates of the codewords by $0, \ldots, n - 1$ instead of $1, \ldots, n$.

Corollary 3. *Let C be a LCD cyclic code of length n over $\mathbb{F}_q$. Let $E(X)$ be the idempotent of C. Let $T = \{n - t, n - t + 1, \ldots, n - 1\}$ where $1 \leq t \leq n - 1$. Then the shortened code C_T is LCD if and only if, for every nonzero polynomial $f(X) = f_{n-t} X^{n-t} + \cdots + f_{n-1} X^{n-1} \in \mathbb{F}_q[X]$, the polynomial $f(X)E(X)$ [mod $X^n - 1$] has degree at least $n - t$. In particular, if $t = 1$ then C_T is LCD if and only if the constant coefficient of $E(X)$ is nonzero (i.e. equals 1 if $q = 2$).*

Proof. Given a vector $(f_0, \ldots, f_{n-1})$ represented by the polynomial $f(X) = f_0 + f_1 X + \cdots + f_{n-1} X^{n-1}$, the projection of $f(X)$ on C parallel to $C^\perp$ is represented by the product $f(X)E(X)$ computed in $\mathbb{F}_q[X]/(X^n - 1)$ (indeed, the idempotent of $C^\perp$ is $E(X) + 1$ and we have $f(X) = f(X)E(X) + f(X)(E(X) + 1)$). According to Corollary 2, C_T is then LCD if and only if, for every nonzero polynomial $f(X) = f_{n-t} X^{n-t} + \cdots + f_{n-1} X^{n-1}$, the polynomial $f(X)E(X) \pmod{X^n - 1}$ has degree at least $n - t$. If $t = 1$ this condition is equivalent to the fact that the constant coefficient of $E(X)$ is nonzero. $\qquad\square$

Example 4. Let C be the QR code of length $n = 89$; this cyclic code is LCD because $n \mod 8 = +1$. It can be checked with Magma that the code C_T is LCD for $T = \{n-1\}, \{n-2, n-1\}, \{n-3, n-2, n-1\}$. A computer search allows to check Corollary 3 for those values of T. However, $C_{\{n-4, n-3, n-2, n-1\}}$ is not LCD. This complies with Corollary 3, since, for instance, for $f(X) = X^{85} + X^{88}$ (i.e., $f_{n-4} = 1$, $f_{n-3} = 0$, $f_{n-2} = 0$, $f_{n-1} = 1$), we have $f(X)E(X) = X^3 + X^5 + X^6 + X^8 + X^9 + X^{10} + X^{12} + X^{13} + X^{14} + X^{15} + X^{18} + X^{19} + X^{20} + X^{24} + X^{28} + X^{30} + X^{31} + X^{32} + X^{33} + X^{36} + X^{39} + X^{40} + X^{44} + X^{45} + X^{48} + X^{51} + X^{52} + X^{53} + X^{54} + X^{56} + X^{60} + X^{64} + X^{65} + X^{66} + X^{69} + X^{70} + X^{71} + X^{72} + X^{74} + X^{75} + X^{76} + X^{78} + X^{79} + X^{81}$, which has degree $81 < n - 4$.

In the framework of Corollary 3, let $E(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} e_j X^j$, then C_T is LCD if and only if the polynomials $\sum_{j=n-t-i}^{n-1-i} e_j X^{i+j}$, where i ranges from $n - t$ to $n - 1$, are linearly independent. Note that the matrix G whose i-th row is the list of the coefficients of the polynomial $X^i E(X) \pmod{X^n - 1}$, where i ranges over an interval of length k (the dimension of C), say where $i \in \{n - k, \ldots, n - 1\}$, is a generator matrix of C. According to Corollary 3, C_T is LCD if and only if the submatrix of the last t rows and the last t columns of G is non-degenerate, that is, the set $\{n - t, \ldots, n - 1\}$ is an information set of the subcode of C generated by the last t rows of G.

Example 5. Let C be the QR (cyclic) $[17, 9, 5]$-code whose zeroes are β^i, $i = 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, 13, 15, 16$ where β is a primitive n-th root of unity. The generator polynomial of C is $X^8 + X^7 + X^6 + X^4 + X^2 + X + 1$. The shortened $C_{\{17\}}$ code is LCD, of parameters $[16, 8, 5]$. This code is indicated as having optimal parameters in the Grassl table and is an example of LCD code given in [5]. Notice that this $[16, 8, 5]$ code is equivalent to the code of Example 1 punctured at $\{17\}$.

We obtain similar corollaries for characterizing the fact that C^T is LCD when C is LCD, by exchanging the roles of C and $C^\perp$.

Extending codes Let C be a binary linear code of length n, ℓ a linear form on C and $\widehat{C} = \{(x, \ell(x)), x \in C\}$ the extended code of C by ℓ. We assume that there exists $a \in C$ such that $\ell(a) = 1$ so that this extension of the code is not just adding a zero. We have $(\widehat{C})^\perp = \{(x, \epsilon) \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \times \mathbb{F}_2 \,;\, \forall c \in C, <c, x> = \epsilon\,\ell(c)\} = \{(x, \epsilon) \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \times \mathbb{F}_2 \,;\, \forall c \in C \cap \ker(\ell), <c, x> = 0 \text{ and } <a, x> = \epsilon\}$. Hence:

$$(\widehat{C})^\perp = \{(x, <a, x>), x \in (C \cap \ker(\ell))^\perp\}.$$

Then:

Proposition 16. *Let C be a linear code and $\widehat{C} = \{(x, \ell(x)), \, x \in C\}$, where ℓ is a nonzero linear form on C. Let $a \in C$ be such that $\ell(a) = 1$ and let us denote $<a, x>$ by $\ell'(x)$. Then $\widehat{C}$ is LCD if and only if :*

$$C \cap (C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp} \cap \ker(\ell + \ell') = \{0\}.$$

Note that if C has dimension k then $(C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ has dimension $n - k + 1$ and $C \cap (C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ has then dimension at least 1.

The particular case where this dimension equals 1 is of course particularly interesting. Note that $(C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ is the union of $C^{\perp}$ and of one of its cosets, then if C is LCD, $C \cap (C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ has dimension 1.

The condition becomes then that the unique nonzero element of $C \cap (C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ does not belong to $\ker(\ell + \ell')$.

Example 6. Let C as in Example 5. The generator matrix G of C is:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
$$

that can be extended thanks to $\ell : x \in \mathbb{F}_2^{17} \mapsto x(1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)^{\mathsf{T}}$, giving

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{pmatrix} \; .
$$

This matrix generates a LCD code of parameters $[18, 9, 5]$.

The vector a can be chosen as the first line of G, that is:

$$a = (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0) \;\; ,$$

thus the form ℓ' is defined as $\ell'(x) = <a, x>$. The code $C \cap (C \cap \ker(\ell))^{\perp}$ is generated by $M_1 = (1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0)$, $\ker(\ell + \ell')$ is generated by $M_2 = (0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0)^{\mathsf{T}}$, and indeed, $M_1 M_2 = (1)$.

We notice that the best linear code of length 18 and dimension 9 has parameters $[18, 9, 6]$. However, the code example given by Magma is not LCD.

4.3 LCD codes obtained by applying a linear automorphism to a given code

Let C be a linear code of length n and L a linear automorphism of $\mathbb{F}_2^n$. We consider the code $L(C) = \{L(c), \, c \in C\}$. Note that every linear code of length n and dimension k can be obtained from one such code by applying all linear automorphisms. If

L^* is the adjoint operator of L (characterized by the fact that, denoting by $<,>$ the usual inner product in $\mathbb{F}_2^n$, for every $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, we have $< x, L(y) >=< L^*(x), y >$, and whose matrix is the transpose of that of L), the dual of $L(C)$ equals $L^{*-1}(C^\perp)$ since for every $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ and every $c \in C$, we have that $< L(c), x >= 0$ for every $c \in C$ if and only if $L^*(x) \in C^\perp$. Given C of dimension k, finding all linear automorphisms L such that : $C^\perp \cap (L^* \circ L(C)) = \{0\}$ allows constructing all LCD codes of dimension k. The applications $L^* \circ L$ are all the self-adjoint automorphisms A (whose matrices are invertible and symmetric).

Proposition 17. *Let C be any linear code of length n and dimension k. Let $\mathcal{L}$ be the space of linear automorphisms of $\mathbb{F}_2^n$. The set of LCD codes of length n and dimension k equals $\{L(C); L \in \mathcal{L}, C^\perp \cap (L^* \circ L(C)) = \{0\}\}$.*

Using this proposition for constructing a LCD code corresponds to (1) determining an auto-adjoint automorphism $A \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $C^\perp \cap A(C) = \{0\}$ and (2) finding $L \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $A = L^* \circ L$.

Example 7. The best known linear code of length 7 and dimension 4 has minimum distance 3. However, we have checked by computer search that no LCD code of parameters $[7, 4, 3]$ exists. LCD codes of parameters $[7, 4, 2]$ exist, and can be obtained by Proposition 17, starting from the Hamming code for C.

If C is already LCD, for instance $C = F_2^k \times \{0\}$, denoting by A_i the i-th coordinate function of A, the condition $C^\perp \cap (A(C)) = \{0\}$ is that $(A(x) \in C^\perp$ and $x \in C)$ implies $x = 0$, that is, $A_1(x) = ... = A_k(x) = x_{k+1} = ... = x_n = 0$ implies $x = 0$, that is the mapping $x \mapsto (A_1(x), ..., A_k(x), x_{k+1}, ..., x_n)$ is bijective, that is, the mapping $x \mapsto (L^*{}_1(x), ..., L^*{}_k(x), L_{k+1}^{-1}(x), ..., L_n^{-1}(x))$ is bijective.

5 Conclusion and perspectives

Complementary dual codes have applications in information protection. An example is that of a cryptographic implementation, be it hardware or software, which must be simultaneously protected against information leakage and information corruption, since both threats enable successful attacks. We construct cyclic LCD codes, which can be used for that and need then to have large minimum distance and large rate, and find suitable codes within Reed-Solomon codes and the class of generalized residue codes. In addition to these codes, we detail some secondary constructions, using direct sum, direct product, puncturing, shortening, extension, $(u, u + v)$ construction, and the application of a suitable linear automorphism.

As a perspective, we aim at defining bounds for the minimum distance of LCD codes, and at finding codes that approach those bounds. Besides, LCD codes of *sparse* generator matrices would help reduce the implementation complexity.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix: Tables

In both tables 1 and 2, the binary linear codes are quadratic residues ($t = 2$), and have parameters $[n, k, d]$, where $k = n - \mathsf{card}(Q)$ and the minimum distance d is greater or equal to the BCH bound.

The cells in gray in Table 1 correspond to composite length, i.e., the length n is not a prime power, as opposed to the cells in white. The cells in gray correspond to codes of rate near $1/4$. They all correspond to duals of QR codes direct products (recall Sec. 4.1). For instance, the code of length $n = 697$ and dimension $k = 697 - 189$ is the dual of the direct product of QR codes C_1 and C_2 of parameters $[17, 9]$ and $[41, 21]$ (notice that $697 = 17 \times 41$ and $189 = 9 \times 21$). Therefore, the minimum distance of this code is small, namely 6. Indeed, we can apply Proposition 13, where the dual distance $d_1^\perp$ of C_1 is equal to 6, and the dual distance $d_2^\perp$ of C_2 is equal to 10.

In Tab. 2, the minimum distance are given as:

1. the BCH lower bound,
2. the QR lower bound (see Proposition 9),
3. the (exact) value calculated by Magma; we fix a timeout of 1 hour.

The cells in gray highlight the best value or bound for the minimum distance. Starting from $p \geq 113$, it seems that the bound of Proposition 9 (i.e., $d \geq \lceil \sqrt{p} \rceil$) is the most efficient.

Table 1. Values of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (with its factorization) such that $2, -1 \in Q$, for $t = 2$, and Q has size strictly smaller than $\frac{n+1}{2}$

n		card(Q)	BCH bound
289	$= 17^2$	137	6
697	$= 17 \times 41$	189	6
1241	$= 17 \times 73$	333	6
1513	$= 17 \times 89$	405	6
1649	$= 17 \times 97$	441	6
1681	$= 41^2$	821	6
1921	$= 17 \times 113$	513	6
2329	$= 17 \times 137$	621	6
2993	$= 41 \times 73$	777	6
3281	$= 17 \times 193$	873	6
3649	$= 41 \times 89$	945	6
3961	$= 17 \times 233$	1053	6
3977	$= 41 \times 97$	1029	6
4097	$= 17 \times 241$	1089	6
4369	$= 17 \times 257$	1161	6
4633	$= 41 \times 113$	1197	6
4777	$= 17 \times 281$	1269	6
4913	$= 17^3$	2321	6
5321	$= 17 \times 313$	1413	6
5329	$= 73^2$	2629	10
5617	$= 41 \times 137$	1449	6
5729	$= 17 \times 337$	1521	6
6001	$= 17 \times 353$	1593	6
6497	$= 73 \times 89$	1665	6
6817	$= 17 \times 401$	1809	6
6953	$= 17 \times 409$	1845	6
7081	$= 73 \times 97$	1813	10
7361	$= 17 \times 433$	1953	6
7633	$= 17 \times 449$	2025	6
7769	$= 17 \times 457$	2061	6
7913	$= 41 \times 193$	2037	6
7921	$= 89^2$	3917	6
8249	$= 73 \times 113$	2109	6
8633	$= 89 \times 97$	2205	6
8857	$= 17 \times 521$	2349	6
9409	$= 97^2$	4657	10
9553	$= 41 \times 233$	2457	6
9673	$= 17 \times 569$	2565	6
9809	$= 17 \times 577$	2601	6
9881	$= 41 \times 241$	2541	6

Table 2. Values of p (prime number) and $n = p^2$ such that $2, -1 \in Q$, for $t = 2$, the size of Q and BCH bound

p	n	$\mathsf{card}(Q)$	Minimum distance d		
			d_{BCH}	$\lceil \sqrt{p} \rceil$	d_{Magma}
17	289	137	≥ 6	≥ 5	$= 6$
41	1681	821	≥ 6	≥ 7	$= 9$
73	5329	2629	≥ 10	≥ 9	?
89	7921	3917	≥ 6	≥ 10	?
97	9409	4657	≥ 10	≥ 10	?
113	12769	6329	≥ 6	≥ 11	?
137	18769	9317	≥ 7	≥ 12	?
193	37249	18529	≥ 10	≥ 14	?
233	54289	27029	≥ 7	≥ 16	?
241	58081	28921	≥ 14	≥ 16	?
257	66049	32897	≥ 7	≥ 17	?
281	78961	39341	≥ 7	≥ 17	?