On Optimal Binary One-Error-Correcting Codes of Lengths $2^m - 4$ and $2^m - 3$

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Abstract—Best and Brouwer [Discrete Math. 17 (1977), 235–245] proved that triply-shortened and doubly-shortened binary Hamming codes (which have length $2^n - 4$ and $2^m - 3$, respectively) are optimal. Properties of such codes are here studied, determining among other things parameters of certain subcodes. A utilization of these properties makes a computer-aided classification of the optimal binary one-error-correcting codes of lengths 12 and 13 possible; there are 237610 and 117823 such codes, respectively (with 27375 and 17513 inequivalent extensions). This completes the classification of optimal binary one-error-correcting codes for all lengths up to 15. Some properties of the classified codes are further investigated. Finally, it is proved that for any $m \geq 4$, there are optimal binary one-error-correcting codes of length $2^m - 4$ and $2^m - 3$ that cannot be lengthened to perfect codes of length $2^m - 1$.

Index Terms—automorphism group, classification, clique, error-correcting code, MacWilliams transform

I. INTRODUCTION

A binary code of length $n$ is a set $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_2^n$, where $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ is the field of order 2. The (Hamming) distance between elements $c, c' \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, called words (or codewords when they belong to a code), is the number of coordinates in which they differ and is denoted by $d(c, c')$. The minimum distance of a code is the smallest pairwise distance among distinct codewords:

$$d(C) = \min \{d(c, c') : c, c' \in C, \ c \neq c'\}.$$  

The (Hamming) weight $w_t(c)$ of a word $c \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ is the number of nonzero coordinates.

A binary code of length $n$, size $M$, and minimum distance $d$ is said to be an $(n, M, d)$ code. Since a code with minimum distance $d$ is able to correct up to $\lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$ errors, such a code is said to be $\lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$-error-correcting. If every word in the ambient space is at distance at most $\lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$ from some codeword of a $\lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$-error-correcting code, then the code is called perfect.

The maximum size of a binary code of length $n$ and minimum distance $d$ is denoted by $A(n, d)$; the corresponding codes are said to be optimal. For binary codes there is a direct connection between optimal error-correcting codes with odd and even minimum distance:

$$A(n + 1, 2d) = A(n, 2d - 1).$$  

One gets from the odd case to the even case by extending the code with a parity bit, and from the even case to the odd case by removing an arbitrary coordinate, called puncturing. Other transformations of codes include shortening, where a coordinate is deleted and all codewords but those with a given value in the deleted coordinate are removed, and lengthening which is the reverse operation of shortening. See [1] for the basic theory of error-correcting codes.

When studying optimal error-correcting codes—or suboptimal for that sake—it is reasonable to restrict the study to codes that are essentially different in the following sense. Two binary codes are said to be equivalent if the codewords of one of the codes can be mapped onto those of the other by the addition of a vector followed by a permutation of the coordinates. Such a mapping from a code onto itself is an automorphism of the code; the set of all automorphisms of a code $C$ forms the automorphism group of $C$, denoted by $\text{Aut}(C)$.

A code with only even-weight codewords is said to be even. Codes equivalent to even codes are of central importance in the current work; these codes have only even-weight codewords or only odd-weight codewords, and they are characterized by the fact that the distance between any two codewords is even. We therefore call such codes even-distance codes (not to be confused with codes that have even minimum distance).

Hamming codes are perfect (and thereby optimal) one-error-correcting codes:

$$A(2^m - 1, 3) = 2^{2^m - m - 1}.$$  

Best and Brouwer [2] showed that by shortening Hamming codes one, two, or three times, one still gets optimal codes:

$$A(2^m - 1 - i, 3) = 2^{2^m - m - 1 - i}, \quad 0 \leq i \leq 3.$$  

For all but the very smallest parameters, there are many inequivalent codes with the parameters in [2]. In general, a complete characterization or classification of such codes does not seem feasible, but the classification problem can be
addressed for small parameters and general properties of these codes can be studied. For example, the issue whether codes with these parameters can be lengthened to perfect codes has attracted some interest in the literature [3], [4], [5], [6]. For \(i = 1\), every code \([2]\) can be lengthened to a perfect code and this can be done in a unique way up to equivalence \([3]\). Consequently, codes with such parameters are in a direct relationship to the perfect codes, so our main interest is in the codes with \(i = 2\) and \(i = 3\).

One aim of the current work is to study properties of codes with the parameters of doubly-shortened and triply-shortened perfect binary one-error-correcting codes. This study is started in Section II by considering certain properties of subcodes, which can be utilized in a computer-aided classification of optimal binary one-error-correcting codes of length 12 and 13, considered in Section III. It turns out that the number of equivalence classes of (12, 256, 3) and (13, 512, 3) codes is 237610 and 117823, respectively. Some central properties of the classified codes are analyzed in Section IV. Finally, infinite families of optimal one-error-correcting codes of length \(2^n - 4\) and \(2^n - 3\) that cannot be lengthened to perfect one-error-correcting codes of length \(2^n - 1\) are presented in Section V. A preliminary version of some of the results in this work can be found in [6].

As only binary codes are considered in the current work, the word binary is omitted in the sequel.

II. Properties of Subcodes

Some properties related to subcodes of the codes under study are conveniently investigated in the framework of orthogonal arrays. An OA\(_\lambda(t, k, q)\) orthogonal array of index \(\lambda\), strength \(t\), degree \(k\), and order \(q\) is a \(k \times N\) array with entries from \(\{0, 1, \ldots, q-1\}\) and the property that every \(t \times 1\) column vector appears exactly \(\lambda\) times in every \(t \times N\) subarray; necessarily \(N = \lambda q^t\).

The distance distribution \((A_0, A_1, \ldots A_n)\) of an \((n, M, d)\) code \(C\) is defined by

\[
A_i = \frac{1}{M} |\{(c, c'): c, c' \in C, d(c, c') = i\}|.
\]

We will need the following theorem by Delsarte [7]; for more information about the MacWilliams transform, see also [11] Chapter 5.

**Theorem 1.** An array is an orthogonal array of strength \(t\) if and only if the MacWilliams transform of the distance distribution of the code formed by the columns of the array has entries \(A_0' = 1, A_1' = A_2' = \cdots = A_r' = 0\).

We are now ready to prove a central result, essentially following the arguments of [2] Theorem 6.1] (where, however, the case \(d = 3\) rather than \(d = 4\) is considered).

**Theorem 2.** Every \((2^m - 3, 2^{2m-m-4}, 4)\) code is an even-distance code and forms an OA\(_\lambda(t, n, 2)\) with \(t = 2^m-1 - 4\), \(n = 2^m - 3\), and \(\lambda = 2^{2m-m-4}\).

**Proof:** We first show that an even-distance \((n = 2^m - 3, M = 2^{2m-m-4}, 4)\) code \(C\) forms an orthogonal array with the given parameters. Let \(A_i\) be the distance distribution of \(C\), and let \(A_i'\) be the MacWilliams transform of \(A_i\), that is,

\[
MA_i' = \sum_{i=0}^{n} A_i K_k(i),
\]

\[
2^n A_k = M \sum_{i=0}^{n} A_i' K_k(i),
\]

where

\[
K_k(i) = \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^j \binom{i}{j} \binom{n-i}{k-j}
\]

is a Krawtchouk polynomial. It is well known that \(A'_0 = 1\) and \(A'_i \geq 0\) for \(1 \leq i \leq n\) [2].

As \(C\) is an even-distance code, \(A_i = 0\) for odd \(i\), and, since \(K_{n-k}(i) = (-1)^i K_k(i)\), we have

\[
A'_i = A'_{n-k}.
\]

Let \(\alpha(i) = (n - 3)K_0(i) + 2K_2(i) + 2K_{n-1}(i)\). Direct calculations now show that

\[
\alpha(i) = (n - 2i - 2 + (-1)^i)(n - 2i + 2 + (-1)^i).
\]

From (5) and \(n = 2^m - 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}\) we derive

\[
\alpha((n - 3)/2) = \alpha((n - 1)/2) = \alpha((n + 3)/2) = 0,
\]

and \(\alpha(i) > 0\) for any other integer \(i\). We have \(A_0 = 1, A_{n-1} = 1\), and, since \(C\) has minimum distance 4, \(A_2 = 0\). Utilizing [4], we then get

\[
2\alpha(0) A'_0 = \alpha(0) A'_0 + \alpha(n) A'_n \leq \sum_i \alpha(i) A'_i
\]

\[
= \frac{2^n((n-3)A_0 + 2A_2 + 2A_{n-1})}{M}
\]

\[
= \frac{2^n(n-3 + 2A_{n-1})}{M} \leq \frac{2^n(n-1)}{M}
\]

and thereby

\[
M \leq \frac{2^n(n-1)}{2\alpha(0) A'_0} = \frac{2^n(n-1)}{2(n-1)(n+3)} = \frac{2^{n-1}}{n+3}
\]

We know that in fact \(M = 2^{n-1}/(n+3)\), so we have equalities in (7). This implies that \(\alpha(0) A'_0 + \alpha(n) A'_n \leq \sum_i \alpha(i) A'_i\), that is, \(\alpha(i) A'_i \geq 0\) for \(1 \leq i \leq n-1\). By (6) and the comment thereafter, it follows that \(A'_i = 0\) for \(1 \leq i \leq (n-5)/2\) (and \((n+5)/2 \leq i \leq n-1\)). Application of Theorem II shows that we have an orthogonal array with the given parameters.

To show that any \((2^m - 3, 2^{2m-m-4}, 4)\) code is indeed an even-distance code, we assume that there is a code \(C\) which is not, to later arrive at a contradiction. The code \(C\) can be partitioned into sets of even-weight and odd-weight codewords, denoted by \(C_{\text{even}}\) and \(C_{\text{odd}}\), respectively. That is, \(C = C_{\text{even}} \cup C_{\text{odd}}\), with \(|C_{\text{even}}| \geq 1\) and \(|C_{\text{odd}}| \geq 1\). For any codewords, \(c \in C_{\text{even}}, c' \in C_{\text{odd}}\), we have \(d(c, c') \geq 5\) (as the distance is odd and greater than 4). Let

\[
C_i = C_{\text{even}} \cup (C_{\text{odd}} + e_i),
\]
where \(e_i\) is the weight-one vector with the 1 in coordinate \(i\). We now know that \(C_i\) is an even-distance \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-3}, 4)\) code for any \(1 \leq i \leq n\).

We next prove that \(\overline{C_{\text{odd}}}\) is an orthogonal array with the same strength \(t\) (see the early part of the proof) as the \(n\) different even-distance codes \(C_i\). The proof that the same holds for \(\overline{C_{\text{even}}}\) is analogous. W.l.o.g., it suffices to consider the last \(t\) coordinates and two \(t\)-tuples \((t_1, t_2)\) that differ only in one (we choose the last) coordinate—induction then shows that this holds for any pairs—and that these two \(t\)-tuples occur in equally many codewords of \(\overline{C_{\text{odd}}}\).

We denote the set of words in a code \(C\) that have value \(d\) in the last \(t\) coordinates by \(C(d)\). Then
\[
|C_{\text{odd}}(t_1)| = |(C_{\text{odd}} + e_i)(t_1)| = |C_1(t_1)| - |C_{\text{even}}(t_1)|, \\
|C_{\text{odd}}(t_2)| = |(C_{\text{odd}} + e_n)(t_1)| = |C_n(t_1)| - |C_{\text{even}}(t_1)|.
\]

Since \(C_1\) and \(C_n\) both form orthogonal arrays with strength \(t\), \(|C_1(t_1)| = |C_n(t_1)|\), and it follows that \(|C_{\text{odd}}(t_1)| = |C_{\text{odd}}(t_2)|\).

As \(\overline{C_{\text{odd}}}\) is an even-distance code that forms an orthogonal array with strength \(t = 2^m - 1 - 4\), we can now reuse the calculations in the beginning of this proof to determine a lower bound on the size of \(\overline{C_{\text{odd}}}\). Namely, we now have \(\alpha(i)A_i' = 0\) except for \(i = 0\) and \(i = n\), and can carry out calculations closely related to (7):
\[
2\alpha(0)A_0' = \alpha(0)A_0' + \alpha(n)A_n' = \sum_{i=0}^{t} \alpha(i)A_i' = \frac{2^n((n-3)A_0 + 2A_2 + 2A_{n-1})}{|C_{\text{odd}}|} \\
gives \frac{2^n(n-3)A_0}{\alpha(0)A_0'} = \frac{2^{n-1}(n-3)}{(n-1)(n+3)} = \frac{C_{\text{rec}} - 3}{n-1}.
\]

But similarly one gets \(|C_{\text{even}}| \geq |C|(n-3)/(n-1)\), and thereby \(|C| = |C_{\text{even}}| + |C_{\text{odd}}| = |C_{\text{rec}}|/(n-1) > |C|\) when \(n > 5\), a contradiction.

**Corollary 1.** A \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-4}, 4)\) code has a unique distance distribution.

**Proof:** It suffices to prove that the MacWilliams transform of the distance distribution is unique. By the proof of Theorem 3 for a \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-4}, 4)\) code we have \(A_i' = 0\) for every \(k\) except for \(A_0' = A_n' = 1\) and the unknown values \(A_{(n-1)/2}' = A_{(n+1)/2}'\) and \(A_{(n+3)/2}' = A_{(n-3)/2}'\). Equation (3) with \(k = 0.2\) gives a pair of equations which determines the unknown values.

Consequently, the remark at the end of Corollary 2 about the distance distribution of certain codes not being unique applies only to triply-shortened perfect codes and not to triply-shortened extended perfect codes.

**Corollary 2.** Every \((2^m - i, 2^{m-i-1}, 4)\) code with \(0 \leq i \leq 3\) is an even-distance code.

**Proof:** From a code with the given parameters that is not an even-distance code, one can get a subcode for which the same holds. This can be done by shortening in a coordinate where two codewords that are at odd mutual distance have the same value. This is not possible by Theorem 3.

The distance-\(k\) graph of a code is a graph with one vertex for each codeword and edges between vertices whose corresponding codewords are at mutual distance \(k\).

**Corollary 3.** Every \((2^m - 1 - i, 2^{m-1-i}, 3)\) code with \(0 \leq i \leq 3\) has a connected distance-3 graph.

**Proof:** If the distance-3 graph of an \((n, M, 3)\) code is not connected, then there are more than one way of extending the code to an \((n + 1, M, 4)\) code; cf. [8] p. 230. In particular, it can then be extended to a code that is not an even-distance code. This is not possible by Corollary 2.

**Corollary 4.** Shortening a \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-4}, 4)\) code \(t\) times with \(t \leq 2^m - 1 - 4\) gives a \((2^m - 3 - t, 2^{m-4-t}, 4)\) code that is an even-distance code.

In particular, with \(m = 4\) and \(t = 4\), we always get a \((9, 16, 4)\) subcode after shortening a \((13, 256, 4)\) code four times.

However, not all \((2^m - 3 - t, 2^{m-4-t}, 4)\) codes with \(t \leq 2^m - 1 - 4\) are subcodes of some \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-4}, 4)\) code. We shall now strengthen the necessary condition in Corollary 3 for a code to be a subcode of a \((2^m - 3, 2^{m-4}, 4)\) code.

Since the result is of interest specifically for the classification in Section III for clarity it is presented only for subcodes of \((13, 256, 4)\) codes. For the general case, similar conditions can alternatively be obtained using results by Vasil’eva [9] and connections between \((2^m - 4, 2^{m-4}, 3)\) codes and 1-perfect codes of length \(2^m - 1\) [10 Corollary 4].
This completes the proof. We also define the code $C$ times. It follows that one codeword of weight $t$ after any shortening. In the latter case, on the other hand, the codewords of weight $t$ of them are lost when shortening $t$ times. This proves the first part of the theorem.

For the second part of the theorem, we use induction and let $C$ be a code obtained by shortening an even (13, 256, 4) code $t - 1$ times. Moreover, let $C = C_0 \cup 1C_1$, so $C_0$ and $C_1$ are obtained after shortening the (13, 256, 4) code $t$ times; $C_0$ is obviously even and $C_1$ has only odd-weight codewords. We also define the code $C' = 1C_0 \cup 0C_1$ (which is obviously equivalent to $C$).

The weight distributions of the codes $C$, $C'$, $C_0$, and $C_1$ are denoted by $N_w$, $N'_w$, $N'_w^0$, and $N'_w^1$, respectively, so $N_w = N'_w + N'_w^1$. From

$$N'_w = N'_w^{t+1} - N'_w^{t-1} + N'_w^t.$$   

we obtain

$$5 - (t - 1))N'_w + N'_w^3 \leq ((t - 1)^2 - 11(t - 1) + 44)/2,$$

and

$$(5 - t + 1))N'_w + N'_w^3 \leq ((t - 1)^2 - 11(t - 1) + 44)/2.$$

This completes the proof.

It could be possible to sharpen Theorem 11 but, as we shall later see, it fulfills our needs in the current study.

### III. Classification of One-Error-Correcting Codes

Before describing the classification approach used in the current work, we give a short review of some old related classification results.

### A. Survey of Old Results

A survey of classification results for optimal error-correcting codes can be found in [11] Section 7.1.4, where catalogues of optimal codes can also be obtained in electronic form. In the current study, we consider optimal codes with $d = 3$—that is, optimal one-error-correcting codes—and $d = 4$. Zaremba proved that the code attaining $A(7, 3) = 16$ is unique (up to equivalence) and so is therefore its extension; it is not difficult to show that all optimal codes with shorter lengths are also unique. Baicheva and Kolev proved that there are 5 equivalence classes of codes attaining $A(8, 3) = 20$, and these have 3 extensions. Litsyn and Vardy proved uniqueness of the code attaining $A(9, 3) = 40$ and its extension. The second author of this paper together with Baicheva and Kolev classified the codes attaining $A(10, 3) = 72$ and $A(11, 3) = 144$; there are 562 equivalence classes (with 96 extensions) and 7398 equivalences classes (with 1041 extensions) of such codes, respectively.

Knowing the sizes of the optimal one-error-correcting codes up to length 11, one in fact knows the sizes of such codes up to length 15 by [2].

The perfect codes attaining $A(15, 3) = 2048$ were classified by the second and the third author [2]; the number of equivalence classes of such codes is 5983, with 2165 extensions. Using a result by Blackmore, this classification can be used to get the number of equivalence classes of codes attaining $A(14, 3) = 1024$, which is 38408; these have 5983 extensions. All these results still leave the classification problem open for lengths 12 and 13. It is known that not all such codes can be obtained by shortening codes of length 14 or 15.

### B. Classification Approach

The general idea underlying the current work is to classify codes in an iterative manner by utilizing the fact that an $(n, M, d)$ code has an $(n-1, M', d)$ subcode with $M' \geq M/2$. This idea—with various variations—has been used earlier in [15] and elsewhere. However, it is easy to argue why it is not feasible to classify the $(12, 256, 3)$ and $(13, 512, 3)$ codes directly in such a manner.

A classification of the $(12, 256, 3)$ and $(13, 512, 3)$ codes via a classification of the $(11, M', 3)$ codes with $M' \geq 128$ would lead to a prohibitive number of codes of length 11. To see this, it suffices to obtain a rough bound on the number of equivalence classes of $(11, 128, 3)$ codes. Every $(11, 144, 3)$ optimal code has 144 different subsets of 128 codewords, and any such set of words can be equivalent to at most $2^{11!}$ sets in total. Therefore, there are at least $\frac{144}{2^{11!}} \approx 8.4 \cdot 10^9$ equivalence classes of $(11, 128, 3)$ codes. Similar (rough) bounds can be obtained for the number of $(11, M, 3)$ codes with $129 \leq M \leq 144$.

So far in this section, we have considered the case $d = 3$. Of course, by [11], we might as well consider the case $d = 4$. In fact, we shall do so in the sequel, to get a smaller number of equivalence classes of subcodes in each stage.
To make the classification feasible, we shall make use of Corollary 4 which shows that not only do all $(12, M, 4)$ subcodes of the $(13, 256, 4)$ and $(14, 512, 4)$ codes have $M = 128$, but we have the much stronger result that all $(9, M, 4)$ subcodes of the $(13, 256, 4)$ and $(14, 512, 4)$ codes have size $M = 16$ and are even-distance codes. Moreover, the number of subcodes to be considered can be reduced considerably by Theorem 3.

All in all, by Corollary 4 the $(13, 256, 4)$ and $(14, 512, 4)$ codes can be obtained as follows:

$$(9, 16, 4) \to (10, 32, 4) \to (11, 64, 4) \to (12, 128, 4) \to (13, 256, 4) \to (14, 512, 4).$$

The even-distance $(9, 16, 4)$ codes are classified iteratively from smaller codes, without any assumptions on the sizes of subcodes.

As described in [8, Section 7.1.1], lengthening is carried out by using a clique algorithm. For each set of parameters in the sequence [8], the number of codes is further reduced by isomorph rejection and by discarding codes that do not fulfill Corollary 4 and Theorem 3. Details regarding the implementation of some of these parts will be discussed next.

C. Implementation and Results

Before presenting the results of the computations, we shall consider some details regarding the implementation of various parts of the algorithm.

The method of lengthening codes by finding cliques in a certain compatibility graph—consisting of one vertex for each (even) word that can be added and with edges between vertices whose corresponding words are at mutual distance at least $d$—is well known, cf. [8, Section 7.1.1]. However, we are here facing the challenge of finding rather large cliques—up to size 256, in the last step of [8]. This clique search can be sped up as follows in the last three steps of [8], again relying on the theoretical results.

Consider the step of lengthening an $(n, 2^n-5, 4)$ code with $11 \leq n \leq 13$, by including a coordinate with 0s for these codewords and adding codewords of length $n + 1$ with 1s in the new (say, first) coordinate. The candidates for the new codewords can be partitioned into $2^n-10$ sets $S_i$ depending on the values in the first $n - 9$ coordinates (recall that the value in the first coordinate is 1 for all of these). Let $G_i$ be the subgraph of the original compatibility graph induced by the vertices corresponding to the codewords in $S_i$. We now construct a new graph $G$ with one vertex for all cliques of size 32 in $G_i$ for any $i$, and with edges between vertices whenever the corresponding codes pairwise fulfill the minimum distance criterion. The cliques of size $2^n-10$ in $G$ give the desired codes. The program Cliquer [16] was used in this work to solve clique instances.

Isomorph rejection, that is, detecting and removing copies of equivalent codes, is carried out via a transformation into a graph [15] and using the graph isomorphism program nauty [17]. The graph considered has two vertices for each coordinate, one for each value of the coordinate. The program nauty can be asked to give a canonical labeling of the vertices; we use the idea of canonical augmentation [18] and require that the vertex corresponding to the new coordinate and the value given to the old codewords have the smallest label. (See [19] for an analogous approach for constant weight codes.)

Codes that pass this test must still be compared with the other codes obtained from the same subcode.

For the first few sets of parameters in [8], nauty processes the graphs in a sufficiently fast manner. However, the larger the codes, the greater is the need for enhancing such a direct approach, cf. [14]. In the current work, an invariant was used that is based on sets of four codewords with the same value in all but six coordinates, where they form the structure $\{000000, 111100, 110011, 001111\}$ [14], [20].

The search starts from the 343566 equivalence classes of even-distance $(9, 16, 4)$ codes, which in turn were classified iteratively from smaller codes. In Table I the number of equivalence classes of codes after each lengthening and application of the necessary conditions is shown.

| $(n, M, d)$ | # |
|------------|---|
| $(9,16,4)$ | 25170 |
| $(10,32,4)$ | 24819 |
| $(11,64,4)$ | 31899 |
| $(12,128,4)$ | 37667 |
| $(13,256,4)$ | 27375 |
| $(14,512,4)$ | 17513 |

Table I shows that there are 27375 equivalence classes of $(13, 256, 4)$ codes as well as 17513 equivalence classes of $(14, 512, 4)$ codes. Puncturing the codes in all possible ways and carrying out further isomorph rejection reveals that there are 237610 equivalence classes of $(12, 256, 3)$ codes and 117823 equivalence classes of $(13, 512, 3)$ codes. A total of less than one month of CPU-time using one core of a 2.8-GHz personal computer was needed for the whole search.

Before presenting the main properties of the classified codes, we shall briefly discuss validation of these computer-aided results.

D. Validation of Classification

Data from the classification steps can be used to validate the results by using a double-counting argument. More specifically, the total number of even-distance $(n, 2^n-5, 4)$ codes (that is, labeled codes disregarding equivalence) with $10 \leq n \leq 14$ can be counted in two ways. This is a well-known technique, see [8, Chapter 10] and [19].

The orbit-stabilizer theorem gives the number of labeled even-distance $(n, 2^n-5, 4)$ codes as

$$\sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \frac{2^n n!}{|\text{Aut}(C)|},$$

where $\mathcal{C}$ is a set with one code from each equivalence class of such codes.

Let $C'$ be a set of representatives from all equivalence classes of even-distance $(n - 1, 2^n-6, 4)$ codes and $N_C$ the number of final codes (before isomorph rejection) that are obtained in the computer search starting from the code $C$. 
Then the total number of labeled codes can also be obtained as
\[ \sum_{C \in C'} 2^{n-1}(n-1)!N_{C,C'}, \]
and it can be checked whether \( 9 = 10 \).

For the classification leading up to \((9, 16, 4)\) codes, a modified scheme analogous to the that in [19] was utilized. The utilization of Corollary 4 and Theorem 3 in the three steps from \((9, 16, 4)\) to \((12, 128, 4)\) implies that not all even-distance \((n, 2^{n-5}, 4)\) codes are classified for \(10 \leq n \leq 12\). A more extensive modification of the counting argument, apparently requiring a modification of the classification scheme as well, would be necessary to handle these instances; this was not considered in the current work. In any case, the double-counting argument gave the desired result for the final two steps, the classification of \((13, 256, 4)\) and \((14, 512, 4)\) codes.

IV. Properties of the Classified Codes

In Tables II to V, the orders of the automorphism groups of the classified codes are shown.

| Table II |
| --- |
| AUTOMORPHISMS OF \((12, 256, 3)\) CODES |
| [Aut(C)] | # | [Aut(C)] | # |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | 14179 | 64 | 8511 | 2048 | 39 |
| 2 | 45276 | 96 | 90 | 3072 | 3 |
| 3 | 41 | 128 | 3114 | 4096 | 9 |
| 4 | 66449 | 192 | 55 | 6144 | 4 |
| 6 | 137 | 256 | 1247 | 8192 | 1 |
| 8 | 44529 | 384 | 39 | 12288 | 4 |
| 12 | 159 | 512 | 403 | 16384 | 1 |
| 16 | 32193 | 768 | 35 | 24576 | 1 |
| 24 | 89 | 1024 | 82 | 73728 | 1 |
| 32 | 28013 | 1152 | 1 | 147456 | 1 |
| 48 | 98 | 1536 | 15 |

| Table III |
| --- |
| AUTOMORPHISMS OF \((13, 256, 4)\) CODES |
| [Aut(C)] | # | [Aut(C)] | # |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | 841 | 64 | 204 | 3072 | 4 |
| 2 | 2781 | 96 | 37 | 4096 | 7 |
| 3 | 24 | 128 | 818 | 4608 | 1 |
| 4 | 5507 | 192 | 37 | 6144 | 2 |
| 6 | 35 | 256 | 395 | 8192 | 1 |
| 8 | 5034 | 384 | 19 | 12288 | 2 |
| 12 | 39 | 512 | 161 | 16384 | 1 |
| 16 | 5352 | 768 | 18 | 24576 | 1 |
| 24 | 52 | 1024 | 38 | 73728 | 1 |
| 32 | 4043 | 1536 | 17 | 147456 | 1 |
| 48 | 50 | 2048 | 15 |

It is known [5] that not all \((12, 256, 3)\) and \((13, 512, 3)\) codes can be lengthened to \((15, 2048, 3)\) codes (and analogously for the extended codes with \(d = 4\)). In [5] two equivalence classes of \((13, 512, 3)\) codes that cannot be lengthened were found, in addition to the 117819 equivalence classes that can be lengthened. Our results show that the two exceptional codes found in [5] are the only ones with this property. Moreover, they have equivalent extensions, so there is a unique \((14, 512, 4)\) code that cannot be lengthened to a \((16, 2048, 4)\) code; the automorphism group of this code has order 768. There are 10 equivalence classes of \((12, 256, 3)\) codes that cannot be lengthened to \((15, 2048, 3)\) codes, and these have 3 inequivalent extensions. Codes from 7 of the 10 equivalence classes can be lengthened to \((13, 512, 3)\) codes, which must then be equivalent to the codes discovered in [5]. The three equivalence classes of \((12, 256, 3)\) codes that cannot be lengthened to \((13, 512, 3)\) codes have equivalent extensions.

The distance distributions of the \((12, 256, 3)\) codes are of the form
\[ (1, 0, 0, 16 + \mu, 39 - \mu, 48 - 4\mu, 48 + 4\mu, 48 + 6\mu, 39 - 6\mu, 16 - 4\mu, 4\mu, 1 - \mu), \]
where \(0 \leq \mu \leq 1\) (the distance distribution is unique for the other tabulated parameters). The distribution of the value of \(\mu\) amongst these codes is shown in Table VI.

| Table VI |
| --- |
| DISTANCE DISTRIBUTIONS OF \((12, 256, 3)\) CODES |
| 256µ | # | 256µ | # | 256µ | # |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 0 | 127 | 128 | 3719 | 172 | 184 | 216 | 7787 |
| 32 | 132 | 132 | 15 | 176 | 2703 | 220 | 2298 |
| 60 | 4 | 136 | 269 | 180 | 142 | 224 | 2319 |
| 64 | 720 | 140 | 3 | 184 | 1424 | 228 | 2091 |
| 84 | 6 | 144 | 403 | 188 | 313 | 232 | 9405 |
| 88 | 37 | 148 | 35 | 192 | 17343 | 236 | 2253 |
| 96 | 1055 | 152 | 105 | 196 | 1003 | 240 | 11324 |
| 108 | 18 | 156 | 133 | 200 | 2445 | 244 | 1746 |
| 112 | 181 | 160 | 5149 | 204 | 1112 | 248 | 3779 |
| 116 | 24 | 164 | 47 | 208 | 11370 | 252 | 602 |
| 124 | 6 | 168 | 209 | 212 | 1578 | 256 | 120992 |
the unique (13, 256, 4) code that cannot be lengthened to a (14, 512, 4) code has an automorphism group of order 384.

It turns out that one detail in [5] is incorrect: shortening the (two) (13, 512, 3) codes that cannot be lengthened to (15, 2048, 3) codes always leads to (12, 256, 3) codes that cannot be lengthened to (15, 2048, 3) codes.

Switching is a method for obtaining new codes from old ones. See [21] for some general results on switching perfect codes and [22] for specific results regarding (15, 2048, 3) perfect codes.

In [5] it is shown that there are at least 21 switching classes of (13, 512, 3) codes. As no new (13, 512, 3) codes were discovered in the current classification, 21 is the exact number of switching classes. The number of codes in the switching classes is 115973, 1240, 561, 6 (2 classes), 4, 3 (6 classes), 2 (6 classes), and 1 (3 classes). The (12, 256, 3) codes are partitioned into 10 switching classes of the following sizes: 234749, 2509, 331, and 3 (7 classes).

The sets of codewords affected when switching are called i-components. Various information regarding i-components of the (15, 2048, 3) codes is provided in [22]. For the (12, 256, 3) and (13, 512, 3) codes, the possible sizes of minimal i-components are 16, 32, 64, 96, 112, and 128; and 32, 64, 128, 192, 224, and 256, respectively.

Last but not least, the classification approach developed here provides an alternative—and faster, starting from scratch—way for classifying the (15, 1024, 4) and (16, 2048, 4) codes, which was first done in [14].

V. LENGTHENING \(2^m-4\) AND \(2^m-3\) CODES

The examples of (12, 256, 3) and (13, 512, 3) codes that cannot be lengthened to (15, 2048, 3) codes lead to the obvious question whether there—for some or all \(m \geq 5\)—are optimal codes of length \(2^m-4\) and \(2^m-3\) that cannot be lengthened to perfect codes of length \(2^m-1\). We shall now show that such codes indeed exist for all such \(m\). Before the construction, we consider a necessary condition for a code to be a triply-shortened perfect code; this question is studied in greater depth in [6, 10].

The neighbors of a word is the set of words at Hamming distance 1. The complement of a binary word is obtained by adding the all-one vector to the word. Similarly, the complement of a code \(C\), denoted by \(\overline{C}\), consists of the complements of its codewords.

**Lemma 1.** Let \(C\) be an even \((n = 2^m-3, M = 2^{2m-m-4}, 4)\) code, and let \(E = \{ x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : d(x, \overline{C}) \geq 3, \; \text{wt}(x) \text{ even}\}\), \(\overline{E} = \{ x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : d(x, C) \geq 3, \; \text{wt}(x) \text{ odd}\}\). A word of \(\overline{E}\) has on average one neighbor in \(E\).

**Proof:** By Corollary [1] \(C\) has a unique distance distribution \(A_1\), especially \(A_{n-1} = 1\) and \(A_{n-3} = (n-1)(n-5)/6\).

Since \(A_{n-1} = 1\) and there cannot be more than one codeword at distance \(n-1\) from some codeword, it follows that each codeword of \(C\) has exactly one neighbor in \(\overline{C}\). We define

\[ D = \{ x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : d(x, \overline{C}) = 1 \} \setminus C. \]

Note that \(|D| = (n-1)M\).

Let \(E\) be the set of even words in \(\mathbb{F}_2^n\) that do not belong to \(C \cup D\). The size of the set \(E\) is \(2^{n-1} - |C| - |D| = (2^{n-1} - 1)(2^{m-4} - 1)\). Similarly the odd-weight words of \(\mathbb{F}_2^n\) are divided into \(\overline{C}, D,\) and \(\overline{E}\).

We now define

\[ p(A, B) = \frac{1}{|A|} |\{ (a, b) : a \in A, b \in B, d(a, b) = 1 \}|, \]

which gives the average number of neighbors in \(B\) for a word in \(A\).

Let us first count \(p(D, \overline{E})\). For every pair \(d \in D, d' \in \overline{E}\) with \(d(d, d') = 1\), there are unique \(c' \in C, c \in C\) at distance 1 from \(d\) and \(d'\), respectively; moreover, \(d(c, c')\) is 1 or 3. For the case \(d(c, c') = 1\), there are \(M_{A_{n-1}}\) possibilities to choose \(c\) and \(c'\), each corresponding to \(n-1\) pairs \((d, d')\). For the case \(d(c, c') = 3\), there are \(M_{A_{n-3}}\) possibilities to choose \(c\) and \(c'\), each corresponding to \(6\) pairs \((d, d')\). The total number of pairs \((d, d')\) is then \((n-1)M_{A_{n-1}} + 6M_{A_{n-3}}\), so

\[ p(D, \overline{E}) = \frac{P}{|D|} = \frac{(n-1)M_{A_{n-1}} + 6M_{A_{n-3}}}{|D|} = \frac{n-1}{n-1} = n-4. \]

Since \(p(D, \overline{C}) = 1\) by the definition of \(D\), we get that \(p(D, \overline{E}) = n - p(D, \overline{C}) - p(D, \overline{D}) = 3, p(\overline{E}, D) = p(D, \overline{E})/|\overline{E}| = n-1,\) and \(p(\overline{E}, E) = n - p(\overline{E}, D) = 1.\)

We define the conflict graph of a code \(C\) with minimum distance \(d\) as the graph with one vertex for each word that is at distance at least \(d-1\) from \(C\) and with edges between vertices whose corresponding words are at mutual distance less than \(d\) (this is essentially the complement of a compatibility graph; see Section [11]). When we are specifically considering even-distance codes, we modify this definition and only consider words that are at odd distance from \(C\).

**Theorem 4.** An \((n = 2^m-3, M = 2^{2m-m-4}, 4)\) code \(C\) is a triply-shortened extended perfect code if and only if its conflict graph is tripartite, that is, is 3-colorable.

**Proof:** W.l.o.g., \(C\) is an even code. By the proof of Lemma [1] the conflict graph of \(C\) has order \(3M\).

Assume that \(C\) is a triply-shortened extended perfect code. As the extended perfect code is self-complementary, it has the form

\[ C000 \cup D001 \cup E010 \cup F100 \cup \overline{C111} \cup \overline{D110} \cup \overline{E101} \cup \overline{F011}, \]

for some \((n, M, 4)\) codes \(D, E,\) and \(F\) with odd weights. Furthermore, \(D, E,\) and \(F\) must be independent sets in the conflict graph of \(C\), so the conflict graph is tripartite.

To prove implication in the opposite direction, we assume that the conflict graph of the (even) code \(C\) is tripartite with parts \(D, E,\) and \(F\). Now construct the code

\[ C00 \cup D001 \cup E010 \cup \overline{F111}, \]

which is an even code. Each of the four parts of this code has minimum distance at least 4. Moreover, from the definition of a conflict graph and the fact that \(D \cap E = \emptyset, C00 \cup D001 \cup E10\) has minimum distance at least 4. For every word \(c \in C,\) there is a word \(c' \in C\) such that \(d(c, c') = n-1,\) so \(E \not\subseteq F\) (otherwise we would have \(d(C, F) = 1\) which is not possible).
and thereby $\overline{C} \cap F = \emptyset$, which further implies that $C00 \cup F11$ has minimum distance at least 4.

Since $D$, $E$, and $F$ have minimum distance at least 4 and $|D| + |E| + |F| = 3M$, where $M = 2^{m-m-4}$, it follows that $|D| = |E| = |F| = M$, and all of these codes are optimal $(n = 2^m - 3, M = 2^{m-m-4}, 4)$ code. Hence every word in $F$ is at distance $n-1$ from exactly one other word in $F$, whereby every word in $F$ has exactly one neighbor in $F$. Using this result and the fact, by Lemma 1, that every word in $F$ has on average one neighbor in $D \cup E \cup F$, we get that a word in $F$ has no neighbors in $D \cup E$ and thereby $D$ and $E$ have minimum distance at least 4.

Now we have lengthened $C$ to a $(2^m - 1, 2^{m-m-2}, 4)$ code, which has a (unique) lengthening to an extended perfect code $E$.

**Corollary 5.** An $(n = 2^m - 4, M = 2^{m-m-4}, 3)$ code is a triply-shortened perfect code if and only if its conflict graph is tripartite, that is, is 3-colorable.

**Proof:** Extend the code (to get even weights only) and the words in the conflict graph (to get odd weights only), and use Theorem 4.

Now we proceed to the construction of codes that cannot be lengthened to perfect codes. We start with a lemma, which is followed by the main result of this section.

**Lemma 2.** The space $F_2^{13}$ (resp. $F_2^{12}$) can be partitioned into 16 copies of $(13, 512, 3)$ codes (resp. $(12, 256, 3)$ codes), where at least one of the codes cannot be lengthened to a $(15, 2048, 3)$ code.

**Proof:** We construct a partition of $F_2^{13}$, where one of the codes is a $(13, 512, 3)$ code $C$ with a $(12, 256, 3)$ subcode, neither of which can be extended to a $(15, 2048, 3)$ code; such codes exist by 5 and Section IV. With the desired partition for $F_2^{13}$, shortening then provides a partition for $F_2^{12}$.

We know 5 that $C$ can be obtained by switching a code $C'$ that can be lengthened to some $(15, 2048, 3)$ code $D$. Assume that $C'$ is obtained by shortening with respect to the 0s in the first two coordinates of $D$ and that the switch with which $C$ is obtained from $C'$ makes changes to the first coordinate of $C'$.

Via $D, D + e_1, D + e_2, \ldots$, we get a partition of $F_2^{15}$ into 16 $(15, 2048, 3)$ codes. By repeated shortening of these codes, one gets partitions of $F_2^{16}$ into $(n, 2^{n-4}, 3)$ codes. If shortening is carried out with respect to the 0s in the first two coordinates, then $C'$ is one of the 16 codes $(13, 512, 3)$ codes that partition $F_2^{13}$, and so is the (equivalent) code $C'' = C' + e_1$.

The fact that $C$ can be obtained from $C'$ by changing only some values in the first coordinate of $C'$ together with the observation that $C' \cup C'' = C \cup (C + e_1)$ shows that $C'$ and $C''$ can be replaced in the partition of $F_2^{13}$ by two codes neither of which can be lengthened to a $(15, 2048, 3)$ code.

**Theorem 5.** For $m \geq 4$, there are $(2^m - 4, 2^{m-m-4}, 3)$ codes and $(2^m - 3, 2^{m-m-3}, 3)$ codes that cannot be lengthened to a perfect code of length $2^m - 1$.

**Proof:** We consider the case of length $2^m - 4$. Let $P$ be a perfect one-error-correcting code of length $s = 2^{m-4} - 1$, and let $D_0, \ldots, D_{15}$ be the partition of $F_2^{12}$ from Lemma 2 where $D_0$ can be lengthened to any optimal code of length 13 but not to a perfect code of length 15. Furthermore, let $A_0', \ldots, A_{15}'$ be a partition of the even-weight words of $F_2^{16}$ into extended perfect codes (for example, take cosets of the extended Hamming code), and let $A_1', \ldots, A_{15}'$ be such a partition of the odd-weight words of $F_2^{16}$.

Now consider the code

$$C = \bigcup_{1 \leq j \leq 4} A_{12}^{s_1} \times \cdots \times A_2^{s_2} \times D_{1+1}$$

where $s_j = 0 (mod 16)$ and $P = (x_1, \ldots, x_s) \in P$.

**Corollary 6.** For $m \geq 4$, there are $(2^m - 3, 2^{m-m-4}, 4)$ codes and $(2^m - 2, 2^{m-m-3}, 4)$ codes that cannot be lengthened to an extended perfect code of length $2^m$.

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