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On Binary 1-Perfect Additive Codes: Some Structural Properties

Kevin T. Phelps and Josep Rifà, *Member, IEEE*

Abstract—The rank and kernel of 1-perfect additive codes is determined. Additive codes could be seen as translation-invariant propelinear codes and, in this correspondence, a characterization of propelinear codes as codes having a regular subgroup of the full group of isometries of the code is established. A characterization of the automorphism group of a 1-perfect additive code is given and also the cardinality of this group is computed. Finally, an efficiently computable characterization of the Steiner triple systems associated with a 1-perfect binary additive code is also established.

Index Terms—Additive codes, automorphism group, kernel, 1-perfect codes, rank.

I. INTRODUCTION

The (*Hamming*) weight $W(v)$ of a vector $v \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is the number of nonzero coordinates of v . We define the (*Hamming*) distance between two vectors $v, u \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ as $d(v, u) = W(v + u)$.

A (*binary*) code of length n is a subset of \mathbb{Z}_2^n . If this subset is a linear subspace, then the code is *linear*. If C is a code, then its elements are called *codewords*.

A *perfect single error-correcting code* C of length $n \geq 3$ is a subset of \mathbb{Z}_2^n such that all the vectors in \mathbb{Z}_2^n are within distance 1 from a codeword and the distance between two codewords is at least 3. A perfect single error-correcting code is said to be a *1-perfect code*. For any $n = 2^t - 1$ ($t > 1$), there exists exactly one 1-perfect linear code of length n , up to isomorphism, which is the well-known *Hamming code*.

Define C^\perp as the dual of the span of C and the kernel of code C as $K = \{a \in C \mid a + C = C\}$.

The Gray map between $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ and \mathbb{Z}_4 transforms $(0, 0)$ into 0, $(1, 0)$ into 1, $(1, 1)$ into 2, and $(0, 1)$ into 3, so using this map we can see the elements in \mathbb{Z}_2^n as elements in $\mathbb{Z}_2^\alpha \times \mathbb{Z}_4^\beta$, where $n = \alpha + 2\beta$. Throughout this correspondence, we will distinguish between \mathbb{Z}_2^n , n copies of \mathbb{Z}_2 , which gives us the elementary Abelian group and \mathbb{F}^n , which is also n copies of \mathbb{Z}_2 but with the Abelian structure given by $\mathbb{Z}_2^\alpha \times \mathbb{Z}_4^\beta$, where $n = \alpha + 2\beta$ and using the Gray map to convert the elements in \mathbb{Z}_4 to elements in $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Additive codes (see [5]) can be seen as a generalization of the classical linear codes over a field. In the binary case, they are Abelian subgroups of $\mathbb{F}^n = \mathbb{Z}_2^\alpha \times \mathbb{Z}_4^\beta$ ($n = \alpha + 2\beta$). It is well known (see [3]) that any 1-perfect binary additive code is equivalent to a 1-perfect translation invariant propelinear code, so throughout this correspondence we will use both concepts interchangeably.

An *isometry* of a binary code is a distance preserving 1–1 mapping $\phi: C \rightarrow C$. An isometry ϕ of \mathbb{Z}_2^n can always be represented by a translation plus a coordinate permutation, i.e., $\phi(y) = x + \pi(y)$. The isometries of a code form a group, $\text{Iso}(C)$, which has sometimes been called the automorphism group of the code. In this correspondence, will

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K. T. Phelps is with the Department of Discrete and Statistical Sciences, Auburn University, Auburn, AL 36849-5307 USA (e-mail: phelpkt@dms.auburn.edu).

J. Rifà is with the Computer Sciences Department, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, 08193-Bellaterra, Spain (e-mail: josep.rifa@uab.es).

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refer to the group of coordinate permutations $\pi: C \rightarrow C$ as $\text{Aut}(C)$, the automorphism group of the code.

The correspondence is organized as follows. In Section II, we give some basic properties about the automorphism in a binary code. In Section III, we give two characterizations of propelinear codes by using the automorphism group of the code and also by using the minimum-distance graph associated to it. In Section IV, we introduce the automorphism group $\text{Aut}_P(C)$ of a 1-perfect additive code taking into account the automorphisms which are also group morphisms for the propelinear operation and we compute both the cardinality of $\text{Aut}_P(C)$ and of $\text{Aut}(C)$. In Section V, we compute the kernel and rank for all the binary 1-perfect additive codes and, finally, in Section VI, we characterize in an efficiently computable way the Steiner triple system associated with a binary 1-perfect additive code.

II. PRELIMINARIES

Let C be a binary, not necessarily linear code of length n . We will assume that the vector with all the coordinates zeros is in C . Let S_n denote the symmetric group of permutations of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Let $\pi \in S_n$. Then for any vector $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, we write $\pi(v)$ to denote the vector $(v_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \dots, v_{\pi^{-1}(n)})$.

Lemma II.1: If $\phi(y) = x + \pi(y)$ is an isometry of C then π is an automorphism of C^\perp .

Proof: Given any isometry $\phi(\cdot) = x + \pi(\cdot)$, we have $x \in C$ since $0 \in C$ and for all $v \in C$ and $w \in C^\perp$ we have

$$0 = \phi(v) \cdot w = x \cdot w + \pi(v) \cdot w = 0 + v \cdot \pi(w)$$

so $\pi^{-1}(w) \in C^\perp$ and π^{-1} is an automorphism of C^\perp . Since $\text{Aut}(C^\perp)$ is a group, it follows that $\pi \in \text{Aut}(C^\perp)$ as well. \square

Lemma II.2: If $\phi(y) = x + \pi(y)$ is an isometry of C then π is an automorphism of K , the kernel of C .

Proof: Let $A \subseteq C$ be any linear subcode of C . Following [2], if C is the union of cosets of A then $A \subseteq K$, the kernel of C . Since

$$x + \pi(C) = \bigcup_y \pi(K) + \pi(y) + x = C$$

we have $\pi(K) \subseteq K$ and the result follows. \square

These two lemmas are helpful but we should remark that the converse of these lemmas are not true in general.

Lemma II.3: Let K be the kernel of a binary code C and assume for all $x \in C$ there exists a coordinate permutation π_x such that $\phi_x(\cdot) = x + \pi_x(\cdot) \in \text{Iso}(C)$. We have $K = \{a \in C \mid \pi_a \in \text{Aut}(C)\}$.

Proof: Let $a \in K$ and let $c \in C$. Now $a + C = C$ and $\phi_a(a) = a + \pi_a(c) \in C$, so $\pi_a(c) \in a + C = C$ and $\pi_a \in \text{Aut}(C)$.

Reciprocally, if $\pi_a \in \text{Aut}(C)$ then $\pi_a(C) = C$. We know $\phi_a(C) = C$, so $a + \pi_a(C) = C$ and $a + C = C$. Hence $a \in K$. \square

Lemma II.4: Let K be the kernel of a binary code C then $\text{Aut}(C) \subseteq \text{Aut}(K)$.

Proof: Let $\pi \in \text{Aut}(C)$ so $\pi \in \text{Iso}(C)$. Hence, by Lemma II.2, $\pi \in \text{Aut}(K)$. \square

III. PROPELINEAR CODES

A code C of length n is said to be *propelinear* if for any codeword $x \in C$ there exists $\pi_x \in S_n$ satisfying the following conditions:

- 1) for all $x, y \in C$, $x + \pi_x(y) \in C$ (or, equivalently, $\forall x \in C$, $\phi(\cdot) = x + \pi_x(\cdot) \in \text{Iso}(C)$);
- 2) $\pi_x \circ \pi_y = \pi_z \quad \forall y \in C$, where $z = x + \pi_x(y)$.

For all $x \in C$ and for all $y \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, denote by $*$ the binary operation such that $x * y = x + \pi_x(y)$. Then, $(C, *)$ is a group, which is not

Abelian in general. The vector $\mathbf{0}$ is always a codeword and π_0 is the identity permutation. Hence, $\mathbf{0}$ is the identity element in C and $x^{-1} = \pi_x^{-1}(x)$, for all $x \in C$ (see [8]). Note that $\Pi = \{\pi_x \mid x \in C\}$ is a subgroup of S_n with the usual composition of permutations as the multiplication.

Clearly, the propelinear code class is more general than the linear code class.

Proposition III.1: Let $(C, *) \subset \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ be a group. C is a propelinear code if and only if the group $\text{Iso}(C)$ contains a regular subgroup acting transitively on C .

Proof: Assume C is a propelinear code and take $\phi_x: C \rightarrow C$ defined by $\phi_x(v) = x * v = x + \pi_x(v)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_x \phi_y(z) &= \phi_x(y + \pi_y(z)) = x + \pi_x(y + \pi_y(z)) \\ &= x * y + \pi_x \pi_y(z) = x * y + \pi_{x * y}(z) = \phi_{x * y}(z). \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} d(\phi_x(v), \phi_x(w)) &= d(x + \pi_x(v), x + \pi_x(w)) \\ &= W(\pi_x(v) + \pi_x(w)) = W(\pi_x(v + w)) \\ &= W(v + w) = d(v, w). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $G = \{\phi_x \mid x \in C\} < \text{Iso}(C)$, and $|G| = |C|$. Given $v, w \in C$, it is easy to find $x \in C$ such that $\phi_x(v) = w$, so G acts transitively on C . In fact, given $v, w \in C$ take $x = w * v^{-1}$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_x(v) &= x + \pi_x(v) = x + \pi_w \pi_{v^{-1}}(v) = x + \pi_w(v^{-1}) \\ &= w + \pi_w(v^{-1}) + \pi_w(v^{-1}) = w. \end{aligned}$$

Conversely, assume $\text{Iso}(C)$ contains a regular subgroup G acting transitively on C then $|C| = |G|$.

For all $\phi \in G$ call $\phi_x = \phi$, where $x = \phi(\mathbf{0})$. Now $\phi_x \rightarrow x$ is a bijection $G \rightarrow C$ due to the fact that G acts transitively on C and is regular.

For $x \in C$, define $\pi_x(v) = x + \phi_x(v)$. It is easy to see that π_x is a coordinate permutation because ϕ_x is an isometry on C . For $x \in C$ define $x * v = x + \pi_x(v) = \phi_x(v)$. With this operation, we claim that C has a propelinear structure.

Clearly, $\phi_x(v) \in C$ if and only if $v \in C$ so we just need to prove that $\pi_x \pi_y = \pi_{x * y}$. G acts transitively on C , so $\phi_x \phi_y = \phi_{x * y}$ if and only if they have the same values on $\mathbf{0} \in C$.

First, $\phi_x \phi_y(\mathbf{0}) = \phi_x(y) = x * y$ and, also, $\phi_{x * y}(\mathbf{0}) = x * y$.

Moreover, $\phi_{x * y}(z) = x * y + \pi_{x * y}(z)$ and, also

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_x \phi_y(z) &= \phi_x(y + \pi_y(z)) = x + \pi_x(y) + \pi_x \pi_y(z) = x * y + \pi_x \pi_y(z) \\ \text{hence } \pi_x \pi_y &= \pi_{x * y}. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

The next proposition characterizes propelinear codes looking at the structure of minimum distance graph associated to a given code C .

To make the correspondence self-contained, we will introduce the graph of minimum distances associated to a given binary 1-perfect code C such that $(C, *) \subset \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is a group. This graph $\Gamma(C)$ has as vertices the elements in C and two vertices are connected by an edge if they are at distance 3. Also recall that a group acting transitively on a set is said to act regularly if only the identity fixes any point (see [6, p. 8]).

Let H be the set of weight 3 codewords in C and observe that $H = H^{-1} = \{s^{-1} \mid s \in H\}$, so we can define the Cayley graph $\Gamma_{C, H} = \Gamma((C, *); H)$ as the graph with vertices the elements of $(C, *)$ and edges from $g \in (C, *)$ to $g * s \in (C, *)$, for all $s \in H$.

Lemma III.2 (See [9]): Given a graph $\Gamma(C)$, a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a group $(C, *)$ and a subset H of $(C, *)$, such that $\Gamma(C) \cong \Gamma_{C, H}$, is that $\text{Aut}(\Gamma(C))$ contains a regular subgroup. In that case, $(C, *)$ is this regular subgroup.

Proposition III.3: Let C be a binary 1-perfect code, such that $(C, *) \subset \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is a group. C is a propelinear code if and only if the minimum distance graph of C is a Cayley graph.

Proof: From Proposition III.1, C is a propelinear code if and only if the group $\text{Iso}(C)$ contains a regular subgroup.

Let $\Gamma(C)$ be the minimum-distance graph associated to C . For a binary code, always $\text{Iso}(C) \subset \text{Aut}(\Gamma(C))$, but when C is a binary 1-perfect code it is well known (see [1]) that $\text{Iso}(C) = \text{Aut}(\Gamma(C))$, so we can conclude that C is a propelinear code if and only if the group $\text{Aut}(\Gamma(C))$ contains a regular subgroup. But now, from Lemma III.2, this happens if and only if $\Gamma(C)$ is the Cayley graph of C acting on the set H of the weight 3 codewords. \square

In a more specific way we can write this last proposition in this other form.

Corollary III.4: Let C be a binary 1-perfect code, such that $(C, \star) \subset \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ is a group. C is a propelinear code if and only if for all $a, b \in C$ such that $d(a, b) = 3$, then there exists a vector $v \in C$ of weight 3 such that $b = a \star v$.

Again we assume that C is a propelinear code.

Let A_π be the set $\{a \in C \mid \pi_a = \pi\}$. Let $\text{Id}(x) = x$ denotes the identity permutation.

Proposition III.5: A_{Id} is a normal subgroup and each A_π is a coset $A_\pi = A_{\text{Id}} + x$, where $\pi_x = \pi$.

Proof: Define $\phi: C \rightarrow \Pi$ as $\phi(x) = \pi_x$.

Clearly, ϕ is an epjective group homomorphism and $\text{Ker}(\phi) = A_{\text{Id}}$.

Also, every A_π is a coset $A_\pi = A_{\text{Id}} \star x$, but $A_{\text{Id}} \star x = A_{\text{Id}} + x$. \square

Proposition III.6: C^\perp is a subgroup in K and C .

Proof: For $c \in C$ and $a, b \in C^\perp$, we know (see [7]) that $a, b \in C^\perp \subset K$

$$\begin{aligned} (a \star b^{-1}) \cdot c &= (a + \pi_a(b^{-1})) \cdot c = (a + \pi_a \pi_b^{-1}(b)) \cdot c \\ &= (\pi_a \pi_b^{-1}(b)) \cdot c = 0 \end{aligned}$$

since $\pi_a, \pi_b \in \text{Aut}(C)$. \square

If we have a 1-perfect code of length $n = 2^t - 1$ and rank $r_C = n - t + s$ then in [7] it is proved that the kernel has dimension at least 2^{t-s} for $s > 1$. From [4] and [12] and also by using the arguments in [7] it is possible to say more; the dual code C^\perp induces a partition of the coordinates into one set of $2^s - 1$ coordinates which correspond to the coordinates that are zero in every codeword in C^\perp , and $2^{t-s} - 1$ disjoint sets of coordinates of size 2^s which are always equal in C^\perp . If a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m are the codewords having these sets as their support, then they are always in the kernel of C . In addition, we have the following proposition.

Proposition III.7 [7], [12]: Let C be a propelinear code, so for $x \in C$, $\pi_x(a_0) = a_0$, and $\pi_x(a_i) = a_j$ for $i \neq 0$. Moreover, the dual code C^\perp determines a lattice of 1-perfect subcodes (and sub-STs (Steiner triple system)) in C that is equivalent to the lattice of 1-perfect subcodes in the Hamming code of length $m = 2^{t-s} - 1$.

IV. 1-PERFECT BINARY ADDITIVE CODES: THE AUTOMORPHISM GROUP $\text{Aut}_P(C)$ AND $\text{Aut}(C)$

A 1-perfect additive code C of type $(\alpha = 2^r - 1, \beta = 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$ can be seen as an Abelian subgroup $(C, \star) \subset \mathbb{F}^n$. The operation \star is the usual addition in \mathbb{Z}_2 and \mathbb{Z}_4 . In [3], it is proved that (C, \star) is also the kernel of a groups homomorphism

$$\vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow G$$

where G is the group $\mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r}$.

The homomorphism ϑ will have a 1-perfect additive code, as its kernel only when $\vartheta(e_i) = \vartheta(e_j)$ if and only if $e_i = e_j$ and $\vartheta(e_i \star e_j) = 0$

if and only if $e_i \star e_j = 0$, where $e_i, e_j \in \mathbb{F}^n$ are two different unit vectors of length n . Notice that $e_i \star e_i$ could be nonzero because e_i could be the unit element in some \mathbb{Z}_4 .

If $C = \text{Ker}(\vartheta)$, these properties mean that in each coset in \mathbb{F}^n / C there is one and only one binary vector of length n and weight 1.

In the quoted paper [3], the 1-perfect additive codes were studied and classified. For each value r and t such that $2 \leq r \leq t \leq 2r$ there is exactly one 1-perfect additive code of type $(\alpha = 2^r - 1, \beta = 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$. The unicity means that if ϑ' is another homomorphism of \mathbb{F}^n onto G such that $C' = \text{Ker}(\vartheta')$ then there exists a permutation $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_n$ such that $\tau(C) = C'$ and $\vartheta' = \vartheta\tau$.

This kind of automorphism of C , like the previous τ , is not only a permutation in \mathcal{S}_n , and so a linear mapping on \mathbb{Z}_2^n , but also a propelinear mapping, that is a homomorphism on \mathbb{F}^n . This leads to the consideration of $\text{Aut}_P(C)$, the automorphism group of C made up of the permutations on \mathcal{S}_n that fix the code C and that are also group homomorphisms on \mathbb{F}^n .

Example: In length 15 there are three nonisomorphic 1-perfect additive codes. They exist for $(r = 2, t = 4)$, $(r = 3, t = 4)$ and $(r = 4, t = 4)$.

For the case $(r = 3, t = 4)$, we can see the additive code as the kernel of a group homomorphism $\vartheta: \mathbb{F}^{15} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ which, moreover, for all pairs of different unit vectors $e_i, e_j \in \mathbb{F}^{15}$ satisfies $\vartheta(e_i \star e_j) = 0$ if and only if $e_i \star e_j = 0$.

Hence, the kernel of the homomorphism given by the matrix H is the additive code C of type $(\alpha = 7, \beta = 4)$. The first α coordinates are the binary ones and the last 2β , taken in pairs, are those which correspond to the \mathbb{Z}_4 part

$$H = \left(\begin{array}{cccccc|cccccc} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right).$$

Proposition IV.1: The automorphism group $\text{Aut}_P(C)$ of a binary 1-perfect additive code coincides with the automorphism group of the group $G = \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r}$.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{F}^n & \xrightarrow{\vartheta} & G \\ \tau \downarrow & & \downarrow \phi \\ \mathbb{F}^n & \xrightarrow{\vartheta} & G \end{array}$$

Let C be the kernel of $\vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow G$ and let $\tau \in \text{Aut}_P(C)$, then τ is a permutation $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_n$, which is also a homomorphism of \mathbb{F}^n , such that $\tau(C) = C$. This means that τ acts on the quotient group $\mathbb{F}^n / C \cong G$ and, so, $\phi = \vartheta\tau\vartheta^{-1}$ is well defined and also is an automorphism of G . On the other hand, if ϕ is an automorphism of G , then we could take $\phi\vartheta$ which defines a quotient group \mathbb{F}^n / C and, so, a partition in \mathbb{F}^n . For each unit vector e_i , representative in a coset, take $\tau(e_i)$ such that $\phi\vartheta(e_i) = \vartheta\tau(e_i)$. Hence τ is a coordinate permutation $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_n$ which fixes code C . We can extend τ to all \mathbb{F}^n and $\tau \in \text{Aut}_P(C)$. \square

This last proposition allows us to compute the cardinality of the automorphism group of an additive code. For instance, in the linear case we have for the Hamming code H_t of length $n = 2^t - 1$

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Aut}(H_t)| &= \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} ((2^t - 1) - (2^i - 1)) \\ &= 2^{\binom{t}{2}} \prod_{i=0}^{t-1} (2^{t-i} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

In the more general case, when C is a 1-perfect additive code of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$, the automorphism group $\text{Aut}_P(C)$ coincides

with the automorphism group of the group $G = \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r}$ and so (taking $\alpha = 2r - t$ and $\beta = t - r$)

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Aut}_P(C)| &= 2^{(\alpha+\beta)\beta} \left| \text{Aut} \left(\mathbb{Z}_2^\alpha \times \mathbb{Z}_2^\beta \right) \right| \\ &= 2^{(\alpha+\beta)\beta} 2^{\binom{\alpha+\beta}{2}} \prod_{i=0}^{\alpha+\beta-1} (2^{\alpha+\beta-i} - 1) \\ &= 2^{r(2t-r-1)} \prod_{i=0}^{r-1} (2^{r-i} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

The usual group $\text{Aut}(C)$ contains the coordinate permutations which fix code C . Look at the additive propelinear codes of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$ as the kernel of the homomorphism

$$\vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \longrightarrow G$$

where G is the group $\mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r}$ and (C, \star) is a subgroup of \mathbb{F}^n .

Consider $\theta: \mathbb{Z}_4 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$ defined by $\theta(x) = x \pmod{2}$ which is a group homomorphism. We can extend this mapping to $\theta: \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{t-r}$ and we can consider

$$\theta \cdot \vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^{t-r} = \mathbb{Z}_2^r.$$

Now $\theta \cdot \vartheta$ is a group homomorphism from \mathbb{F}^n to \mathbb{Z}_2^r .

Proposition IV.2:

$$\theta \cdot \vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^{t-r} = \mathbb{Z}_2^r$$

is a linear mapping.

Proof: Let π be any involution involving the two coordinates in some \mathbb{Z}_4 . Let these coordinates be e_i and e_{i+1} . Take $v \in \mathbb{F}^n$ and note that $\pi(v) = v$ or $\pi(v) = v \star e_i \star e_{i+1}$.

Then in both cases $\theta \cdot \vartheta(\pi(v)) = \theta \cdot \vartheta(v)$.

We can generalize this result by taking any permutation π_w associated to vector w . We know permutation π_w is a composition of permutations like π , so $\theta \cdot \vartheta(\pi_w(v)) = \theta \cdot \vartheta(v)$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \theta \cdot \vartheta(w + v) &= \theta \cdot \vartheta(w \star \pi_w(v)) = \theta \cdot \vartheta(w) + \theta \cdot \vartheta(\pi_w(v)) \\ &= \theta \cdot \vartheta(w) + \theta \cdot \vartheta(v). \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

We will prove in Theorem V.8 that the kernel of $\theta \cdot \vartheta$ is the linear span $\langle C \rangle$ of code C .

Now, given $\tau \in \text{Aut}(C) = \text{Aut}(\langle C \rangle)$, we have that $\tau: \mathbb{Z}_2^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ acts on the quotient $\mathbb{Z}_2^n / \langle C \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^r$. So, given an automorphism $\tau \in \text{Aut}(C)$ we get an automorphism of \mathbb{Z}_2^r .

On the other hand, if ϕ is an automorphism of the linear space \mathbb{Z}_2^r we get an automorphism in $\mathbb{Z}_2^n / \langle C \rangle$ and from this we can construct an automorphism τ in \mathbb{Z}_2^n which leaves code C invariant. To do this, we need to define $\tau(e_i)$ for all the unit vectors e_i in \mathbb{Z}_2^n . So, for each e_i define $\tau(e_i)$ as e_j , such that $\phi([e_i]) = ([e_j])$, where $[e_i]$ and $[e_j]$ are cosets in $\mathbb{Z}_2^n / \langle C \rangle$.

Each one of the 2^r cosets in $\mathbb{Z}_2^n / \langle C \rangle$ has the same number of unit vectors 2^{t-r} , except for the coset $\langle C \rangle$ which has $2^{t-r} - 1$.

After choosing $\tau(e_i)$ for all the unit vectors we can extend τ to the whole \mathbb{Z}_2^n by linearity. Given two cosets $[e_i]$ and $[e_j] = \phi[e_i]$, we have $(2^{t-r})!$ different ways to choose the value of τ for the unit vectors in $[e_i]$. So, in short

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Aut}(C)| &= ((2^{t-r})!)^{2^r-1} ((2^{t-r} - 1)!) |\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_2^r)| \\ &= ((2^{t-r})!)^{2^r-1} ((2^{t-r} - 1)!) 2^{\binom{r-1}{2}} \prod_{i=0}^{r-1} (2^{r-i} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

V. 1-PERFECT BINARY ADDITIVE CODES: KERNEL AND RANK

Lemma V.1: Let C be a propelinear code. If C is an additive code then $A_{Id} = \{a | \pi_x(a) = a \text{ for all } x \in C\}$.

Proof: We can see the elements in A_{Id} as $a = x + y$, where x, y are in the same coset, $x, y \in A_\pi$. Since for every $x \in C$ the permutation π_x has order 2, and $x \star y = y \star x$ we have for $x, y \in A_\pi$, $x + \pi(y) = y + \pi(x)$ or $x + y = \pi(x + y) = a \in A_{Id}$. \square

Lemma V.2: Let $\sigma \in S_n$ be the permutation $\sigma = (a_1 a'_1) \cdots (a_\beta a'_\beta)$ which is the product of all involutions involving the two coordinates in every \mathbb{Z}_4 code. Then $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(C)$.

Proof: Since σ is the product of all involutions, for each $c \in C$ we have $\sigma(c) = \pi_c(c)$. Since $c + \pi_c(c) = x \in A_{Id}$, we have that $\sigma(c) = c + x \in C$. \square

Lemma V.3: If C is a 1-perfect binary additive code with kernel K , then $A_\sigma \subset K$.

Proof: We know that σ is in $\text{Aut}(C)$, so we need only proof there exists a vector $c \in C$ such that $\pi_c = \sigma$.

Note that the all-ones vector and the vectors $u = (1 \cdots 1 | 0 \cdots 0)$ and $u' = (0 \cdots 0 | 1 \cdots 1)$ are in A_{Id} . Take a vector with zeros in all the coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_2 part and $(1, 0)$ or $(0, 1)$ in the projection to each \mathbb{Z}_4 . This vector could be out of C , so let this vector be $c + e$ where $c \in C$ is the vector in C closest to it and $W(e) \leq 1$. We have that $c + \sigma(c) + u'$ is a vector in C of weight 2 unless e is zero in the \mathbb{Z}_4 coordinates. In this last case, we conclude that $\pi_c = \sigma$ and $c \in C$. \square

Proposition V.4: If C is a nonlinear 1-perfect additive code then the dimension of A_{Id} is $2^{t-1} + 2^{r-1} - r - 1$.

Proof: The Hamming code H_r of length $2^r - 1$ and dimension $2^r - r - 1$ is contained in A_{Id} . For each involution (a_i, a'_i) in the \mathbb{Z}_4 coordinates there is a word of weight 3 in A_{Id} having those coordinates and a \mathbb{Z}_2 coordinate as its support. There are $b = 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1}$ such triples which we denote by T_b . Thus, the dimension of A_{Id} is at least $(2^r - r - 1) + b = 2^{t-1} + 2^{r-1} - r - 1$. For any word in $(x|y) \in A_{Id}$ there is a word $(e|y) \in \langle T_b \rangle$ and hence $(x + e|0) \in H_r$. Thus, these words span A_{Id} . \square

Proposition V.5: If C is a 1-perfect binary additive code with kernel K , then either $K = A_{Id} = C$ when C is linear or $K = A_{Id} \cup A_\sigma$ when C is not linear. In the first case, $\dim(K) = \dim(A_{Id})$ and in the second case $\dim(K) = \dim(A_{Id}) + 1$.

Proof: If C is linear then the kernel K coincides with A_{Id} and C .

If C is not linear then from the previous lemmas we know that $A_{Id} \cup A_\sigma \subseteq K$ and to prove the proposition we need only see that for all the elements $v \in K$ we have $\pi_v = Id$ or $\pi_v = \sigma$.

Let v be a vector in $K \setminus A_{Id}$. The permutation π_v associated to vector v is a product of involutions each of which involves the two coordinates in \mathbb{Z}_4 in which the projection of v is $(1, 0)$ or $(0, 1)$. In other words, π_v is the product of a subset of the involutions which make up σ . Let (bb') be an involution in σ which is not in π_v and let (aa') be an involution involved in both. Both π_v and σ are automorphisms of the code. Consider the word t of weight 3 in C whose support is $\{a, b, c\}$ and consider $\sigma(t)$, $\pi_v(t) \in C$. If σ fixes coordinate c then so does π_v but then $d(t, \pi_v(t)) = 2$. Otherwise, $d(\sigma(t), \pi_v(t)) = 2$. In either case we get a contradiction. Therefore, $\pi_v = \sigma$. \square

Lemma V.6: If C is a 1-perfect binary additive code of length $n > 7$, then $C^\perp \subset A_{Id}$.

Proof: Suppose $C^\perp \not\subseteq A_{Id}$, then there exists $x \in C^\perp$ such that $\pi_x = \sigma$ since $C^\perp \subset K$ and $K = A_{Id} \cup A_\sigma$. The vector $x \star x$ belongs to C^\perp (see Proposition III.6) and so has a support of size $\frac{n+1}{2}$ which is in the \mathbb{Z}_4 . Hence, vector x has $\frac{n+1}{4}$ nonzero coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_4

TABLE I
 PARAMETERS, RANK, AND DIMENSION OF THE KERNEL FOR 1-PERFECT ADDITIVE CODES

t	r	type: $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$	$\dim(K)$	r_C
2	2	(1, 1, 0), (3, 0, 0)	3, 3	3, 3
3	2, 3	(3, 2, 0), (7, 0, 0)	4, 4	4, 4
4	2, 3, 4	(3, 6, 0), (7, 4, 0), (15, 0, 0)	8, 9, 11	13, 12, 11
5	3, 4, 5	(7, 12, 0), (15, 8, 0), (31, 0, 0)	17, 20, 26	28, 27, 26
6	3, 4, 5, 6	(7, 28, 0), (15, 24, 0), (31, 16, 0), (63, 0, 0)	33, 36, 43, 57	60, 59, 58, 57
...

part (let $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{\frac{n+1}{4}}$ be these coordinates) and also $\frac{n+1}{4}$ nonzero coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_2 part.

Fixing x_1 consider the triples v_i containing x_1 and each of the others coordinates x_i . All these triples v_i have the third coordinate in the \mathbb{Z}_2 part and it is not in the support of x . Now compute

$$x \star v_2 \star v_3 \star \dots \star v_{\frac{n+1}{4}}$$

which give us the all-ones vector, except perhaps for the two coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_4 the support of which contains x_1 . Finally, we get a contradiction except for the cases where these two coordinates are ones. This is the case of four coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_4 part or, in general, $4 + 8\lambda$ coordinates in the \mathbb{Z}_4 part, so $2(4 + 8\lambda) = 2^t$. This equation has solution only for $t = 3$ (which corresponds to a code of length 7). \square

As a corollary of Propositions V.4 and V.5 it is easy to compute the dimension of the kernel for all the 1-perfect additive codes and we can state the following theorem.

Theorem V.7: Let C be a binary 1-perfect additive code of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$, then the kernel K of C has dimension

$$\dim(K) = \begin{cases} 2^r - r - 1, & \text{if } t = r \\ 2^{r-1} + 2^{t-1} - r, & \text{if } t \neq r. \end{cases}$$

In summary, Table I gives us the allowable parameters and dimension of the kernels for 1-perfect additive codes.

Theorem V.8: Let (C, \star) be a binary 1-perfect additive code of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$ of length $n = 2^t - 1$, where $t \geq 4$, then the rank r_C of C is

$$r_C = n - r = 2^t - r - 1.$$

Proof: As in Proposition IV.2, look at the additive propelinear codes of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$ as the kernel of the homomorphism $\vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow G$ and consider

$$\theta \cdot \vartheta: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2^r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_4^{t-r} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^{2^r-t} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^{t-r} = \mathbb{Z}_2^r.$$

Let H be the linear kernel of $\theta \cdot \vartheta$. It is a linear code which contains C , so $\langle C \rangle \subset H$.

Now we are going to see that $H \subset \langle C \rangle$. For this take $v \in H$ and compute $c \cdot v$ for all $c \in C^\perp$.

If $v \in H$ then $\theta \vartheta(v) = 0$ and $\vartheta(v) = \vartheta(e_j) + \vartheta(e_j)$ for some unit vector e_j . Since $\vartheta(v) + \vartheta(e_j) + \vartheta(e_j) = 0$, we can write

$$v \star e_j \star e_j \in C.$$

Thus,

$$0 = c \cdot (v \star e_j \star e_j) = c \cdot v + c \cdot \pi_v(e_j \star e_j) = c \cdot v + c \cdot (e_j \star e_j)$$

but $C^\perp \subset A_{Id}$, so $c \cdot (e_j \star e_j) = 0$ and, finally, $c \cdot v = 0$.

The conclusion is that $H = \langle C \rangle$ and $r_C = \dim(H) = n - r$. \square

We can sum up and give the results in Table I.

VI. BINARY ADDITIVE CODES AND STS

Let C be a binary additive code of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1}, 0)$, where $2 \leq r \leq t \leq 2r$. The parameters uniquely determine the code and the associated Steiner triple system to within isomorphism when $t \geq 4$. The Hamming code (of length $2^t - 1$) and its associated triple system $PG(t-1, 2)$ can be easily recognized and the code is easily generated from the triple system. We will show that, similarly, the Steiner triple system associated with a 1-perfect additive binary code can be easily recognized and can generate the corresponding code as well.

Proposition VI.1: Let C be a binary 1-perfect additive code of type $(2^r - 1, 2^{t-1} - 2^{r-1})$, of length $n = 2^t - 1$, where $t \geq 4$, then the $STS(n)$ associated with it is unique and can be easily recognized and used to construct the code.

Proof: Let C be as in the proposition having dual code C^\perp of dimension $r = t - s$. Let $S = \{i | c_i = 0 \text{ for all } c \in C^\perp\}$, and assume the \mathbb{Z}_2 coordinates are $R = \{1, 2, \dots, 2^r - 1\}$. We know that $|S| = 2^s - 1$. Let σ be the fundamental involutory automorphism of the code which is a product of involutions (aa') with R as the set of fixed points. Consider the triples corresponding to the supports for the words of weight 3 in C .

- For each involution (aa') , the third point $i \in R$ of the triple containing that pair is in S . From previous arguments, we know that each of these fixed triples $t_a = \{i, a, a'\}$ are in A_{Id} and, in fact, form part of a basis for it. Since $C^\perp \subseteq A_{Id}$ we have $c \cdot (a, a') = 0$ and thus $c \cdot e_i = 0$ for all $c \in C^\perp$.

- Each point $i \in S$ which is in at least one fixed triple must be in at least 2^{r-1} such fixed triples. If $t_a = \{i, a, a'\}$ is one fixed triple then for each other $j \in R$ there is a triple $t_j = \{j, a, b\}$ but

$$t_a + t_j + \sigma(t_j) = t_b = \{i, b, b'\} \in A_0.$$

There are $2^r - 2$ points $j \in R$ generating $(2^r - 2)/2$ other fixed triples containing i .

- The remaining triples through a are contained in the \mathbb{Z}_4 coordinates.

If $t = \{a, u, v\}$ is such a triple and t_a, t_u, t_v are the corresponding fixed triples containing the involutions $(aa'), (uu'), (vv')$, respectively, then $t + \sigma(t) \in A_0$ and $t_a + t_u + t_v + t + \sigma(t)$ must be a word of weight 3 in the Hamming subcode H_r and thus each point is in exactly 2^{r-1} fixed triples and there must be $2^{t-r} - 1 = |S|$ such points. Thus, on S we have an Hamming subcode $H_s \subseteq H_r$.

- For each $i \in S$, let σ_i be the product of involutions (aa') such that $t_a = \{i, a, a'\} \in C$ and let R_i be the corresponding set of coordinates. Then for each $i \in S$ there is a 1-perfect additive subcode of length $2^{r+1} - 1$ on the coordinates $R \cup R_i$ having parameters $(2^r - 1, 2^{r-1})$.

For the converse, given an STS $(2^t - 1)$, B , we can compute its rank (and dual B^\perp). If the dimension of the dual is r and $2 \leq r \leq t \leq 2r$

then we can find the $2^{t-r} - 1$ zero coordinates S in the dual. We can also find the subsystem R of length $2^r - 1$ isomorphic to $\text{PG}(r-1, 2)$. From the structure imposed by the dual, we have at most $\binom{t-s}{t-r}$ sets to consider. The rest of the coordinates can be partitioned into $2^{t-r} - 1$ sets R_i of order 2^r which form sub-STs ($2^{r+1} - 1$) on the sets $R \cup R_i$. These sub-STs must all have rank $2^{r+1} - 1 - r$ (or codimension r , except in the case when $t = 4, r = 2$). By considering the dual of the subsystem (as a code of length $2^{r+1} - 1$), we can find the unique coordinate i , that is zero in all words in this dual and hence compute the fundamental involutory automorphism σ_i of this subsystem by considering the triples through i . Each of these subsystems have a different unique point in S . This induces a mapping of the sets $R_i \rightarrow i \in S$ which must map the triples traversing these R_i onto the triples in the $\text{PG}(s-1, 2)$ subsystem on S . Finally, σ is the product of the σ_i . It is now straightforward to construct the additive code (see [3]).

We note that when $t = 4, r = 2$ then we have three STS(7) intersecting in a sub-STs(3). The STS(7) are $\text{PG}(2, 2)$ and have rank 4 (not 5) but they also have propelinear representations and fundamental involutory automorphisms which fix the sub-STs(3). One can still compute the automorphisms σ_i and σ (in several equivalent ways) and hence the code. \square

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$\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ -Linear Codes

San Ling and Jason Thomas Blackford

Abstract—We characterize codes over \mathbb{Z}_p which are the Gray images of $(1 - p^k)$ -cyclic codes or cyclic codes over $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ ($k \geq 1$). A necessary and sufficient condition for the Gray image of a \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} -linear $(1 - p)$ -cyclic code to be linear is given. In many cases, this yields an explicit description of the Gray image of a linear $(1 - p)$ -cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} , of length relatively prime to p . Linear cyclic codes over \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} whose Gray images are linear cyclic codes over \mathbb{Z}_p have been characterized. Some generalizations of these results to the case of $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$, where $k \geq 2$, are also obtained.

Index Terms—Constacyclic code, cyclic code, Gray map, linear code, quasi-cyclic code.

I. INTRODUCTION

There has been much interest and research in codes over finite rings, especially the ring \mathbb{Z}_4 , in recent years. Codes over \mathbb{Z}_4 are linked to binary codes via the Gray map. Analogs of the Gray map have also been defined for codes over other finite chain rings [3], linking these codes to codes over finite fields. It is well known that the nonlinear binary Kerdock code is the Gray image of an extended linear cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_4 [4], [9].

In [11], Wolfmann showed that the Gray image of a linear negacyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_4 of length n is a distance-invariant, but not necessarily linear, binary cyclic code. He also showed that, for n odd, the Gray image of a linear cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_4 of length n is equivalent to a (not necessarily linear) binary cyclic code. These results were later generalized to the setting of codes over \mathbb{Z}_{2^k} by Tapia-Recillas *et al.* in [10]. Wolfmann also determined in a later paper [12] all linear cyclic codes over \mathbb{Z}_4 of odd length whose Gray images are linear binary codes and showed that they are those whose Nechaev-Gray images are linear cyclic codes.

In this correspondence, we generalize most of the results of [11], [12], and [10] to the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ of integers modulo p^{k+1} , where p is any prime and $k \geq 1$ is an integer.

The organization of the correspondence is as follows. In Section II, we introduce the Gray map and show that a code over $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ is a $(1 - p^k)$ -cyclic code if and only if its Gray image is a quasi-cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_p of index p^{k-1} and of length $p^k n$. In particular, the Gray image of a linear $(1 - p^k)$ -cyclic code over $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ is a distance-invariant quasi-cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_p . In Section III, we show that the Gray image of a linear cyclic code over $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k+1}}$ is equivalent to a (not necessarily linear) quasi-cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_p . In Section IV, a necessary and sufficient condition is given for the Gray image of a linear $(1 - p)$ -cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} to be linear and the Gray image of a linear $(1 - p)$ -cyclic code over \mathbb{Z}_{p^2} , of length relatively prime to p , is determined in many cases. Examples of some of the best ternary cyclic codes of length ≤ 50 obtained as the Gray images of constacyclic codes over

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S. Ling is with the Department of Mathematics, National University of Singapore, Singapore 117543, Republic of Singapore (e-mail: lings@math.nus.edu.sg).

J. T. Blackford is with the Department of Mathematical Sciences, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, NY 12180 USA (e-mail: blackj@rpi.edu).

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