# On perfect codes in Cartesian product of graphs 

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#### Abstract

Assuming the existence of a partition in perfect codes of the vertex set of a finite or infinite bipartite graph $G$ we give the construction of a perfect code in the Cartesian product $G \square G \square P_{2}$. Such a partition is easily obtained in the case of perfect codes in Abelian Cayley graphs and we give some example of applications of this result and its generalizations.


Keywords: Graph, Perfect code, Cartesian product.

## 1 Introduction

Hamming and Golay $[9,13]$ constructed perfect binary single-error correcting codes of length $n$ where $n=2^{p}-1$ for some integer $p$. Perfect codes played a central role in the fast growing of error-correcting codes theory.

Later Biggs [3] and Kratochvíl [18] proposed the study of the existence of perfect codes in graphs. From this point of view Hamming codes are perfect codes in the hypercube $Q_{n}$.

Infinite classes of graphs with perfect codes have been constructed by Cameron, Thas and Payne [4], Thas [22], Hammond [14] and others. The existence of perfect codes have also been proved in Towers of Hanoi graphs [6] and Sierpinski graph [16].

Dejter and Serra [7] give a construction tool to produce various infinite families of graphs with perfect codes. All graphs constructed this way are, for some chosen $n$, Cayley graphs of degree $n$ on the symmetric group $S_{n+1}$ thus are of order $(n+1)$ !. These families include star graphs, for which the existence of perfect codes was already proved by Arumugam and Kala [2] and pancake graphs.

Perfect codes have also been studied in infinite graphs. For example Golomb and Welsh $[10,11]$ considered the multi dimensional rectangular grid $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$. More

[^0]recently Dorbec and Mollard [8] studied the existence of perfect codes in $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \square Q_{k}$ thus a common generalization of the hypercube $Q_{k}$ and the grid $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$.

Recently many authors investigated also perfect codes in direct [17, 24], strong [1] and lexicographic [21] product of graphs.

We will focus on the Cartesian product.
Hamming codes are classically constructed using linear algebra. Vasiliev [23] and later many authors $[15,5]$ constructed other families of perfect codes in $Q_{n}$. Most of these constructions start from a more geometrical point of view, the fact that Hamming codes can also be constructed recursively in multiple ways. Assuming that there exists a perfect code in $Q_{n}$ they deduce the existence of perfect codes in $Q_{2 n+1}$. We will generalize to regular graphs one of these constructions, the so called doubling construction independently found by Soloveva [20] and Phelps[19].

## 2 Notations and code-coloring

For $G_{1}=\left(V_{1}, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V_{2}, E_{2}\right)$ two graphs, the Cartesian product $G_{1} \square G_{2}$ is the graph with vertex set $V_{1} \times V_{2}$ and $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \in E\left(G_{1} \square G_{2}\right)$ if and only if $x_{1} y_{1} \in E_{1}$ and $x_{2}=y_{2}$ or $x_{2} y_{2} \in E_{2}$ and $x_{1}=y_{1}$. We will use the notation $G^{n}$ for the graph $G \square G \square \ldots \square G$ ( $n$ times).

The hypercube of dimension $n$ is the graph $Q_{n}$ whose vertices are the words of length $n$ over the alphabet $\{0,1\}$, and where two vertices are adjacent if they differ in exactly one place. Notice that $Q_{1}$ is $P_{2}$ the path with 2 vertices and that $Q_{n+1}=Q_{n} \square P_{2}$.

The infinite grid $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ is the graph whose vertices are the words of length $n$ over the alphabet $\mathbb{Z}$ and where two vertices are adjacent if and only if they differ by 1 in exactly one place. Notice that if we denote by $P_{\infty}$ the two way infinite path, we have also $\mathbb{Z}^{1}=P_{\infty}$ and $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}=\mathbb{Z}^{n} \square P_{\infty}$.

For two vertices $x$ and $y$, we will denote by $d(x, y)$ the classical distance on graphs.

The set of neighbors of any vertex $x$ in $G$ is $N_{G}(x)=\{y \in V(G) / x y \in E(G)\}$.
For an integer $r$ and vertex $u$, we call ball of radius $r$ centered on $u$ the set of vertices $v$ such that $d(u, v) \leq r$.

In this paper, we will only consider balls of radius 1 and thus call them simply balls.

In a graph, a single error correcting code (or code for shorter) is a subset $C$ of the set of vertices $V(G)$ such that any two vertices of $C$ are at distance at least 3 . This is equivalent to say that the balls centered on these vertices are disjoint sets.

We say that a vertex $u$ dominates a vertex $v$ if $v$ belongs to the ball centered on u. A subset $S$ of $V(G)$ is called a dominating set if every vertex of $G$ is dominated by at least one vertex of $S$.

A code is said to be perfect if it also a dominating set. It equivalently means that the balls centered on code vertices form a partition of the vertex set.

We will call code-coloring of a regular graph of degree $n$ a labeling $c$ of the vertices with $\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$ such that the neighbors of any vertex $u$ are colored with all distinct colors from $\{0,1, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{c(u)\}$.

Proposition 1 For all $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$ the set of vertices colored $i$ in a codecoloring of a regular graph is a perfect code.

Proof : By definition vertices of the same color cannot be at distance 1 or 2 . Furthermore if a vertex is not colored $i$ then one of its neighbors is labeled with this color. Thus for every $i$, the set $C_{i}$ of vertices colored $i$ is both a code and a dominating set.

It is clear that conversely from a partition of the vertex set of a graph in perfect codes we obtain a code-coloring of this graph.

We will call extended code-coloring of a regular graph of degree $n$ a labeling $c$ of the vertices with $\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$ such that:

- The neighbors of any vertex $u$ colored 0 are colored with all distinct colors $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.
- The neighbors of any vertex $u$ colored with a color in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ are colored 0 .

Proposition 2 Let $G$ be a regular graph of degree $n$ and $c$ be an extended codecoloring of $G$. Then $G$ is bipartite and for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ the set of vertices colored $i$ is a code.

Proof : By definition of $c$ the set of vertices colored 0 and the set of vertices colored with a color in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ define a bipartition of G . Let $u$ and $v$ be two vertices colored with colors in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then $u$ and $v$ cannot be adjacent or at distance 3. Assume $u$ and $v$ are at distance 2 and let $w$ be a common neighbor of them. The vertex $w$ must be colored 0 thus $c(u) \neq c(v)$. Therefore if $c(u)=c(v)$ the vertices $u$ and $v$ are at distance at least 4 .

Proposition 3 Assume that there exists a code-coloring in a bipartite regular graph $G$ then there exists an extended code-coloring in $G \square P_{2}$.

Proof : It will be convenient to see the vertices of $P_{2}$ as the elements of the set $\{0,1\}$. Let $c: V(G) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n\}$ be a code-coloring of $G$ and $P: V(G) \mapsto\{0,1\}$ be a proper 2-coloring of the graph $G$. Let $c^{\prime}: V\left(G \square P_{2}\right) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n+1\}$ be the labeling defined by:

- If $P(x)=0$ then $c^{\prime}((x, 0))=c(x)+1$ and $c^{\prime}((x, 1))=0$.
- If $P(x)=1$ then $c^{\prime}((x, 0))=0$ and $c^{\prime}((x, 1))=c(x)+1$.

We claim that $c^{\prime}$ is an extended code-coloring of $G \square P_{2}$.
Indeed if a vertex $(x, 0)$ is labeled 0 then we have $P(x)=1$. The neighbors of $(x, 0)$ are $(x, 1)$ (labeled $c(x)+1)$ and the $(y, 0)$ with $y \in N_{G}(x)$. For all these vertices $P(y)=0$ thus $c^{\prime}((y, 0))=c(y)+1$. Therefore the $(y, 0)$ are labeled with all distinct colors from $\{1, \ldots, n+1\} \backslash\{c(x)+1\}$.

If a vertex $(x, 0)$ is labeled with a color in $\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ then $P(x)=0$. The neighbors of $(x, 0)$ are $(x, 1)$ (labeled 0$)$ and the $(y, 0)$ with $y \in N_{G}(x)$. For all these vertices $P(y)=1$ thus $c^{\prime}((y, 0))=0$.

The two remaining cases corresponding to vertices of type $(x, 1)$ are similar to the two first ones and left to the reader.

In error-correcting codes theory, extended perfect codes are codes of $Q_{n+1}$ formed from a perfect code $C$ of $Q_{n}$ by adding to every word of $C$ an overall parity check bit. In her doubling construction Soloveva [20] uses partitions of the vertex set of $Q_{n}$ and $Q_{n+1}$ by perfect codes and extended perfect codes, respectively. Our definition of extended code-coloring generalizes, in some sense, to regular graphs the notion of partition of the set of even vertices of $Q_{n+1}$ by extended perfect codes.

However notice that there exist extended code-colorings for graphs non decomposable as some $G \square P_{2}$. For example there exists an extended code-coloring in the bipartite complete graph $K_{n, n}$. However for a bipartite graph $G$ the existence of an extended code-coloring in $G \square P_{2}$ is equivalent to the existence of a code-coloring in $G$.

Proposition 4 Let $G$ be a regular graph of degree $n$. Assume that there exists an extended code-coloring in $G \square P_{2}$ then $G$ is bipartite and there exists a code-coloring in $G$.

Proof : Let $c: V\left(G \square P_{2}\right) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n+1\}$ be an extended code-coloring of $G \square P_{2}$. Notice that for all $x \in V(G)$ we have $c((x, 0))=0$ if and only if $c((x, 1)) \neq 0$.

It is immediate to verify that the sets $\{x \in V(G) / c((x, 0))=0\}$ and $\{x \in$ $V(G) / c((x, 0)) \neq 0\}$ define a bipartition of $G$.

Let $c^{\prime}: V(G) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n\}$ be the labeling defined by:

- $c^{\prime}(x)=c((x, 0))-1$ if $c((x, 0)) \neq 0$
- $c^{\prime}(x)=c((x, 1))-1$ if $c((x, 0))=0$
$c^{\prime}$ is a code-coloring of $G$.
Indeed let $x \in V(G)$. Without loose of generality we can assume $c((x, 0)) \neq 0 ;$ we will deduce the case $c((x, 1)) \neq 0$ by symmetry.

We have then $c((x, 1))=0$ and $\left\{c\left(\left(x^{\prime}, 1\right)\right) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{1, \ldots, n+1\} \backslash\{c((x, 0))\}$.
If $x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)$ we have $c\left(\left(x^{\prime}, 0\right)\right)=0$ thus from the definition of $c^{\prime}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ we obtain $\left\{c^{\prime}\left(x^{\prime}\right) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{c((x, 0))-1\}=\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\left\{c^{\prime}(x)\right\}$.

Let $G$ be a regular graph and let $c$ be an extended code-coloring of $G \square P_{2}$. The dual coloring $\tilde{c}$ is defined for any vertex $(x, \epsilon)$ with $x \in V(G)$ and $\epsilon \in\{0,1\}$ by $\tilde{c}((x, \epsilon))=c((x, 1-\epsilon))$.

Proposition 5 Let $G$ be a regular graph. The dual coloring $\tilde{c}$ of an extended codecoloring $c$ of $G \square P_{2}$ is also an extended code-coloring.

Proof : Consider the bijection from $V\left(G \square P_{2}\right)$ to itself defined for any vertex $(x, \epsilon)$, with $x \in V(G)$, by $\theta(x, \epsilon)=(x, 1-\epsilon)$. Then $\theta$ is the graph automorphism of $G \square P_{2}$ corresponding to the exchange of two G-layers. The proposition follows by the fact that $\tilde{c}$ is the composition of $\theta$ and $c$.

## 3 Main results and applications

Theorem 6 Let $G$ and $H$ be two finite or infinite regular graphs of degree respectively $n$ and $n+1$. If there exist a code-coloring in $G$ and an extended code-coloring in $H$ then there exists a perfect code in $G \square H$.

Proof : Let $c: V(G) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n\}$ be a code-coloring of $G$ and $c^{\prime}: V(H) \mapsto$ $\{0, \ldots, n+1\}$ be an extended code-coloring of $H$. Consider the set $D$ of vertices of $G \square H$ defined by $D=\left\{(x, y) / x \in V(G), y \in V(H), c^{\prime}(y)=c(x)+1\right\}$. Notice that if $c^{\prime}(y)=0$ there is no vertex $x$ of $G$ such that $(x, y) \in D$.

We will prove first that for any distinct vertices $(x, y)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ of $D$ we have $d\left((x, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right)>2$.

- If $x=x^{\prime}$ then $c^{\prime}(y)=c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)=c(x)+1$. But $c^{\prime}(y)=c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)$ is in $\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ thus by proposition $2 d\left(y, y^{\prime}\right) \geq 3$.
- If $d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=1$ then $c(x) \neq c\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ thus $c^{\prime}(y) \neq c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)$ and $y \neq y^{\prime}$. But $c^{\prime}(y)$ and $c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)$ are in $\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ thus $d\left(y, y^{\prime}\right) \geq 2$.
- If $d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=2$ then again $c(x) \neq c\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ thus $y \neq y^{\prime}$.
- If $d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \geq 3$ we are done.

Thus $D$ is a code and if $G$ and $H$ are finite graphs, by cardinality arguments, we can prove that $D$ is a perfect code. However we consider also infinite graphs, therefore we will prove directly that $D$ is a dominating set. Let $(x, y)$ be a vertex of $G \square H$ not in $D$.

- if $c^{\prime}(y)=0$. There exists a vertex $y^{\prime}$ of $N_{H}(y)$ with color $c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)=c(x)+1$. The vertex $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ is in $D$ and dominates $(x, y)$.
- if $c^{\prime}(y) \in\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ then $c(x) \neq c^{\prime}(y)-1$ and thus there exists a vertex $x^{\prime}$ of $N_{G}(x)$ with color $c\left(x^{\prime}\right)=c^{\prime}(y)-1$. The vertex $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ is in $D$ and dominates $(x, y)$.

Let $G$ and $H$ be two finite or infinite regular graphs of the same degree $n$. Assume that $H$ is bipartite and that there exists a code-coloring in $G$ and $H$ then, using the previous theorem and proposition 3, there exists a perfect code in the graph $G \square H \square P_{2}$. In fact we can prove directly the following stronger result.

Theorem $\mathbf{7}$ Let $G$ and $H$ be two finite or infinite regular graphs of the same degree n. Assume that $H$ is bipartite and that there exists a code-coloring in $G$ and $H$ then there exists a code-coloring, thus a partition in perfect codes, in the graph $G \square H \square P_{2}$.

Proof : Let $c: V(G) \mapsto\{0, \ldots, n\}$ be a code-coloring of $G$ and $c^{\prime}: V\left(H \square P_{2}\right) \mapsto$ $\{0, \ldots, n+1\}$ be the extended code-coloring of $H \square P_{2}$ deduced from the code-coloring of $H$. Consider $\tilde{c}^{\prime}$ the dual of $c^{\prime}$.

Let $(x, y)$ with $x \in G, y \in H \square P_{2}$, be a vertex of $G \square H \square P_{2}$. Let us define the color $e(x, y)$ by

- If $c^{\prime}(y) \neq 0$ then $e(x, y)=c(x)-c^{\prime}(y) \bmod (n+1)$
- If $c^{\prime}(y)=0$ then $e(x, y)=\tilde{e}(x, y)+n+1$ where $\tilde{e}(x, y)=c(x)-\tilde{c}^{\prime}(y) \bmod (n+1)$.

Notice that in the first (respectively in the second) case $e(x, y)$ belongs to $\{0, \ldots, n\}$ (respectively to $\{n+1, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$ ). Furthermore the degree of $G \square H \square P_{2}$ is $2 n+1$. Let us verify that $e$ is a code-coloring.

- If $e(x, y)$ belongs to $\{0, \ldots, n\}$ then $c^{\prime}(y) \neq 0$. Consider the possible neighbors of $(x, y)$.
We have $\left\{e\left(x^{\prime}, y\right) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=\left\{c\left(x^{\prime}\right)-c^{\prime}(y) \bmod (n+1) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}$. But $\left\{c\left(x^{\prime}\right) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{c(x)\}$ thus $\left\{c\left(x^{\prime}\right)-c^{\prime}(y) \bmod (n+1) / x^{\prime} \in\right.$ $\left.N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{e(x, y)\}$.
Consider now a vertex $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ such that $y^{\prime} \in N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)$. We have $c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right)=0$. But $\left\{\tilde{c}^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right) / y^{\prime} \in N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)\right\}=\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ thus $\left\{\tilde{e}\left(x, y^{\prime}\right) / y^{\prime} \in N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)\right\}=$ $\{0, \ldots, n\}$ and $\left\{e\left(x, y^{\prime}\right) / y^{\prime} \in N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)\right\}=\{n+1, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$.
- If $e(x, y)$ belongs to $\{n+1, \ldots, 2 n+1\}$ then $c^{\prime}(y)=0$. From $\left\{c\left(x^{\prime}\right) / x^{\prime} \in\right.$ $\left.N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{c(x)\}$ we deduce $\left\{c\left(x^{\prime}\right)-\tilde{c}^{\prime}(y) \bmod (n+1) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=$ $\{0, \ldots, n\} \backslash\left\{c(x)-\tilde{c}^{\prime}(y)\right\}$ and thus $\left\{e\left(x^{\prime}, y\right) / x^{\prime} \in N_{G}(x)\right\}=\{n+1, \ldots, 2 n+$ $1\} \backslash\{e(x, y)\}$.
We have also $\left\{c^{\prime}\left(y^{\prime}\right) / y^{\prime} \in N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)\right\}=\{1, \ldots, n+1\}$ thus $\left\{e\left(x, y^{\prime}\right) / y^{\prime} \in\right.$ $\left.N_{H \square P_{2}}(y)\right\}=\{0, \ldots, n\}$.

It is easy to prove that there is no perfect code in $K_{3} \square K_{3} \square P_{2}$. Thus we cannot drop the condition that $H$ is bipartite in theorem 7 .

We will often use this theorem in the particular case $G=H$. Using our construction recursively we obtain

Corollary 8 Let $G$ be a bipartite graph. If there exists a code-coloring in $G$ then for all integer $k$ there exists a code-coloring, thus a partition in perfect codes, in the graph $G^{2^{k}} \square P_{2}^{2^{k}-1}=G^{2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{k}-1}$.

Let $\Gamma$ be a group, $S$ a finite set of elements of $\Gamma$ such that $1 \notin S$ and $S^{-1}=$ $\left\{s^{-1} / s \in S\right\}=S$. The undirected Cayley graph $G=\operatorname{Cay}(\Gamma, S)$ over $\Gamma$ with connection set $S$ has vertex set $V(G)=\Gamma$ and edge set $E(G)=\left\{\{a, b\}: a^{-1} b \in S\right\}$. This graph is regular of degree $|S|$. When the group $\Gamma$ is commutative $\operatorname{Cay}(\Gamma, S)$ is called an Abelian Cayley graph. Notice that the Cartesian product of two Cayley graphs is a Cayley graph over the direct product of the two groups thus is Abelian if the factors are Abelian. From a perfect code it is easy to construct a code-coloring in the particular case of Abelian Cayley graph.

Lemma 9 Let $G$ be an Abelian Cayley graph then if there exists a perfect code in $G$ there exists a code-coloring of $G$.

## Proof :

Let $C$ be a perfect code in $G=\operatorname{Cay}(\Gamma, S)$ and $s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{n}$ be the elements of $S$. Consider the coloring $c$ of $V(G)$ define by

- If $x \in C$ then $c(x)=0$.
- If $x \notin C$ then let $u$ be the unique element of $C$ which dominates $x$. Then $u^{-1} x=s_{i}$ for some unique $i$ in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Let $c(x)=i$.

The coloring $c$ is a code-coloring.

- Assume first that $c(x)=0$. Then the neighbors of $x$ in $G$ are the $x_{i}, i \in$ $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and are all dominated by $x$ thus are of color $i$.
- Assume now that $c(x)=j$ for some $j \neq 0$ and let $u$ be the vertex of $C$ which dominates $x$. We have thus $x=u s_{j}$. Let $k$ be such that $s_{k}=s_{j}^{-1}$ and let $K=\{1, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{k\}$. The neighbors of $x$ are $u$ and the $\left\{x s_{i} / i \in K\right\}$.
Consider one of these vertices $x^{\prime}=x s_{i}$. The color of $x^{\prime}$ cannot be 0 because $x^{\prime}$ is not in $C$. It is not $j$ because this would imply the existence of $v$ in $C$ with $x^{\prime}=v s_{j}$ and using $x^{\prime}=x s_{i}, x=u s_{j}$ this gives $v=u s_{i}$ thus $d(u, v)=1$.
Assume now that two neighbors of $x$ say $x^{\prime}=x s_{i}$ and $x^{\prime \prime}=x s_{h}$ for some $i, h \in K$ are of the same color $d$. This would imply the existence of two distinct vertices $v$ and $w$ in $C$ with $s_{d}=v^{-1} x^{\prime}=w^{-1} x^{\prime \prime}$. Then using $x^{\prime}=x s_{i}$ and $x^{\prime \prime}=x s_{h}$ this would imply $v^{-1} s_{i}=w^{-1} s_{h}$ thus the existence of a vertex at distance 1 of both $v$ and $w$ and this is not possible because $C$ is a code. Thus the neighbors of $x$ are colored with all distinct colors from $\{0,1, \ldots, n\} \backslash\{j\}$.

We will now give some examples of use of our construction.
Consider for $p \geq 3$ the $p$-crown graph $\tilde{K}_{p, p}$ obtained from the bipartite complete graph $K_{p, p}$ after deletion of the edges of a perfect matching. This graph is an Abelian Cayley graph $G=\operatorname{Cay}(\Gamma, S)$ with $\Gamma=\mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $S=\{(1,1),(2,1), \ldots,(p-1,1)\}$. By construction each pair of vertices of the removed matching is a perfect code.

The graph $\tilde{K}_{4,4}$ is $Q_{3}$ and we obtain the construction of Hamming codes in hypercubes.

The graph $\tilde{K}_{3,3}$ is $C_{6}$ and we obtain a construction of perfect codes in $C_{6}^{2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{k}-1}$. On $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \square Q_{k}$, we will say that a code is $i$-periodical $(i \in\{1, \ldots, n\})$ if there exists a positive integer $p_{i}$ (called the $i$-period) such that for any vertex $x=x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n} v$ $\left(\forall i, x_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, v \in V\left(Q_{k}\right)\right)$, the vertex $x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{i-1}\left(x_{i}+p_{i}\right) x_{i+1} \ldots x_{n} v$ is in the code if and only if $x$ is in the code. We thus obtain a perfect code on $\mathbb{Z}^{2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{k}-1}$ of $i$-period 6 for all $i \in\left\{1, \ldots, 2^{k}\right\}$.

Other values of $p \geq 5$ give infinite families of graphs with perfect codes.
Golomb and Welsh [10, 11] proved the existence of perfect codes in the grid $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$. This is again a bipartite Abelian Cayley graph. Thus for all integer $k$ there exists a perfect code in $\mathbb{Z}^{n 2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{k}-1}$. More precisely the codes of Golomb and Welsh are of $i$-period $2 n+1$ thus they induce a code-coloring in the bipartite graph $C_{4 n+2}^{n}$. Therefore there exists in $\mathbb{Z}^{n 2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{k}-1}$ a perfect code of $i$-period $4 n+2$ for all $i \in\left\{1, \ldots, n 2^{k}\right\}$.

Our work [8] about the possible parameters values for the existence of perfect codes in $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \square Q_{k}$ can be completed by the following direct consequence of theorem 7.

Corollary 10 Let $a, b, c$ be integers such that $b \geq 2 c$. Then if there exist perfect codes in $\mathbb{Z}^{a} \square Q_{b}$ and in $\mathbb{Z}^{a+c} \square Q_{b-2 c}$ then there exists a perfect code in $\mathbb{Z}^{2 a+c} \square Q_{2 b-2 c+1}$.

For any integer $p \geq 1$ consider the bipartite complete graph $K_{p, p}$. Label 0 the $p$ vertices of one of the independent sets, and $\{1, \ldots, p\}$ the $p$ other vertices. We
obtain an extended code-coloring of $K_{p, p}$. Assume that $p=2^{q}$ for some integer $q \geq 0$. Then by theorem 6 there exists a perfect code in $K_{2^{q}, 2^{q}} \square Q_{2^{q}-1}$. But this is a bipartite Abelian Cayley Graph thus by lemma 9 there exits a code-coloring of $K_{2^{q}, 2^{q}} \square Q_{2^{q}-1}$. Using again corollary 8 we obtain the following result.

Corollary 11 For any integers $q, k \geq 0$ there exists a perfect code in $K_{2^{q}, 2^{q}}^{2^{k}} \square Q_{2^{q+k}-1}$.
There exists a trivial code-coloring of the complete graph $K_{n}$. Thus by theorem 6 there exists a perfect code in $K_{n, n} \square K_{n}$. But this is also an Abelian Cayley Graph thus we obtain a code-coloring of $K_{n, n} \square K_{n}$. Using the same idea with $\tilde{K}_{n, n}$ and $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ we obtain

Corollary 12 For any integer $n \geq 1$ there exist code-colorings of $K_{n, n} \square K_{n}, K_{n, n} \square \tilde{K}_{n, n}$ and $K_{2 n+1,2 n+1} \square \mathbb{Z}^{n}$.

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