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# The existence of perfect codes in a family of generalized Fibonacci cubes 

Michel Mollard*


#### Abstract

The Fibonacci cube of dimension $n$, denoted as $\Gamma_{n}$, is the subgraph of the $n$-cube $Q_{n}$ induced by vertices with no consecutive 1's. In an article of 2016 Ashrafi and his co-authors proved the non-existence of perfect codes in $\Gamma_{n}$ for $n \geq 4$. As an open problem the authors suggest to consider the existence of perfect codes in generalization of Fibonacci cubes. The most direct generalization is the family $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ of subgraphs induced by strings without $1^{s}$ as a substring where $s \geq 2$ is a given integer. We prove the existence of a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ for $n=2^{p}-1$ and $s \geq 3.2^{p-2}$ for any integer $p \geq 2$.


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## 1 Introduction and notations

Let $G$ be a connected graph. The open neighbourhood of a vertex $u$ is $N(u)$ the set of vertices adjacent to $u$. The closed neighbourhood of $u$ is $N[u]=N(u) \cup\{u\}$. The distance between two vertices noted $d_{G}(x, y)$, or $d(x, y)$ when the graph is unambiguous, is the length of the shortest path between $x$ and $y$. We have thus $N[u]=\{v \in$ $V(G) ; d(u, v) \leq 1\}$.

A dominating set $D$ of $G$ is a set of vertices such that every vertex of $G$ belongs to the closed neighbourhood of at least one vertex of $D$. In [2], Biggs initiated the study of perfect codes in graphs a generalization of classical 1-error perfect correcting codes. A code $C$ in $G$ is a set of vertices $C$ such that for all pair of distinct vertices $c, c^{\prime}$ of $C$ we have $N[c] \cap N\left[c^{\prime}\right]=\emptyset$ or equivalently such that $d_{G}\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \geq 3$.

A perfect code of a graph $G$ is both a dominating set and a code. It is thus a set of vertices $C$ such that every vertex of $G$ belongs to the closed neighbourhood of exactly one vertex of $C$. A perfect code is some time called an efficient dominating set. The existence or non-existence of perfect codes have been considered for many graphs. See the introduction of [1] for some references.

[^0]The vertex set of the $n$-cube $Q_{n}$ is the set $\mathbb{B}_{n}$ of binary strings of length $n$, two vertices being adjacent if they differ in precisely one position. Classical 1-error correcting codes and perfect codes are codes and perfect codes in the graph $Q_{n}$. The concatenation of strings $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}$ is noted $\boldsymbol{x} \| \boldsymbol{y}$ or just $\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}$ when there is no ambiguity. A string $\boldsymbol{f}$ is a substring of a string $\boldsymbol{s}$ if there exist strings $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}$, may be empty, such that $s=\boldsymbol{x f} \boldsymbol{y}$.

A Fibonacci string of length $n$ is a binary string $\boldsymbol{b}=b_{1} \ldots b_{n}$ with $b_{i} \cdot b_{i+1}=0$ for $1 \leq i<n$. In other words a Fibonacci string is a binary string without 11 as substring. The Fibonacci cube $\Gamma_{n}(n \geq 1)$ is the subgraph of $Q_{n}$ induced by the Fibonacci strings of length $n$. Fibonacci cubes were introduced as a model for interconnection networks [3] and received a lot of attention afterwards. These graphs also found an application in theoretical chemistry. See the survey [4] for more results and applications about Fibonacci cubes.

The sets $\{00\}$ and $\{010,101\}$ are perfect codes in respectively $\Gamma_{2}$ and $\Gamma_{3}$. In a recent paper [1] Ashrafi and his co-authors proved the non-existence of perfect codes in $\Gamma_{n}$ for $n \geq 4$. As an open problem the authors suggest to consider the existence of perfect codes in generalization of Fibonacci cubes. The most complete generalization proposed in [5] is, for a given string $\boldsymbol{f}$, to consider $\Gamma_{n}(\boldsymbol{f})$ the subgraph of $Q_{n}$ induced by strings that do not contain $f$ as substring. Since Fibonacci cubes are $\Gamma_{n}(11)$ the most immediate generalization $[6,7]$ is to consider $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ for a given integer $s$. We will prove the existence of perfect codes in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ for an infinite family of parameters $(n, s)$.

It will be convenient to consider the binary strings of length $n$ as vectors of $\mathbb{F}^{n}$ the vector space of dimension $n$ over the field $F=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ thus to associate to a string $x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}$ the vector $\theta\left(x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right)=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$. The Hamming distance between two vectors $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{F}^{n}, d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is the number of coordinates in which they differ. The parity function is the function from $\mathbb{F}^{n}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ defined by $\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=\pi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=$ $x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{n}$. By the correspondence $\theta$ we can define the sum $\boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{y}$, the Hamming distance $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ and the parity $\pi(\boldsymbol{x})$ of strings in $\mathbb{B}_{n}$. Note that Hamming distance is the usual graph distance in $Q_{n}$. The complement of a string $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{B}_{n}$ is the string $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}=\boldsymbol{x}+1^{n}$.

We will first recall some basic results about perfect codes in $Q_{n}$. Since $Q_{n}$ is a regular graph of degree $n$ the existence of a perfect code of cardinality $|C|$ implies $|C|(n+1)=2^{n}$ thus a necessary condition of existence is that $n+1$ is a power of 2 thus that $n=2^{p}-1$ for some integer $p$.

For any integer $p$ Hamming [8] constructed, a linear subspace of $\mathbb{F}^{2^{p}-1}$ which is a perfect code. It is easy to prove that all linear perfect codes are Hamming codes.
In 1961 Vasilev [9], and later many authors, see [10, 11] for a survey, constructed perfect codes which are not linear codes. Let us recall Vasilev's construction of perfect codes.

Theorem 1.1 [9] Let $C_{r}$ be a perfect code of $Q_{r}$. Let $f$ be a function from $C_{r}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $\pi$ be the parity function. Then the set $C_{2 r+1}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}\|\pi(\boldsymbol{x})+f(\boldsymbol{c})\| \boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{c} ; \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{B}_{r}, \boldsymbol{c} \in C_{r}\right\}$
is a perfect code of $Q_{2 r+1}$
We recall also the proof of Theorem 1.1 in such a way our article will be self contained.
Proof. Fist notice that $\left|C_{2 r+1}\right|=2^{r}\left|C_{r}\right|=2^{r} \frac{2^{r}}{r+1}=\frac{2^{2 r+1}}{2 r+2}$. Thus if is sufficient to prove that the distance between to different elements of $C_{2 r+1}$ is at least 3 .
Consider $d\left(\boldsymbol{x}\|\pi(\boldsymbol{x})+f(\boldsymbol{c})\| \boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\left\|\pi\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)+f\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right\| \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}+\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=d_{1}+d_{2}+d_{3}$ where $d_{1}=d\left(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right), d_{2}=d\left(\pi(\boldsymbol{x})+f(\boldsymbol{c}), \pi\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)+f\left(\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ and $d_{3}=d\left(\boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}+\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)$. If $d_{1}=0$ then $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$ thus $d_{3}=d\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \geq 3$.
If $d_{1}=1$ and $\boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$ then $d_{2}=d_{3}=1$
If $d_{1}=1$ and $\boldsymbol{c} \neq \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$ then $d_{3} \geq 2$ otherwise $d\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right) \leq 2$
If $d_{1}=2$ then $d_{3} \neq 0$ otherwise $d\left(\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}\right)=2$
Thus $d=d_{1}+d_{2}+d_{3} \geq 3$.
If $f(\boldsymbol{c})=0$ for any $\boldsymbol{c} \in C_{r}$ we obtain the classical inductive construction of Hamming codes with $C_{1}=\{0\}$ as basis.

In the next section we will use this construction starting from the Hamming code in $Q_{r}$ as $C_{r}$ and a function $f$ chosen in such way that the strings of the constructed code $C_{2 r+1}$ has not a too big number of consecutive 1's.

## 2 Main Result

Lemma 2.1 Let $m$ be an integer. Let $A_{0}$ be the set of strings $A_{0}=\left\{0^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y} ; \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m}\right\}$. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ let $A_{i}=\left\{\boldsymbol{z} 10^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y} ; \boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{B}_{i-1}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m-i}\right\}$. Then the sets $A_{i}$ are disjoint and any string of $B_{2 m+1}$ containing $0^{m+1}$ as substring belongs to a $A_{i}$.

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{x}$ be a string of $B_{2 m+1}$ containing $0^{m+1}$ as substring and $i$ be the minimum integer such that $x_{i+1} x_{i+2} \ldots x_{i+m+1}=0^{m+1}$. Then $i=0$, and $\boldsymbol{x}$ belongs to $A_{0}$, or $m \geq i \geq 1$. In this case $x_{i}=1$ thus $\boldsymbol{x} \in A_{i}$. Assume $\boldsymbol{x} \in A_{i} \cap A_{j}$ with $m \geq j>i \geq 0$ then $x_{j}=1$ thus $j \geq i+m+2>m$ a contradiction.

Theorem 2.2 Let $n=2^{p}-1$ where $p \geq 2$ and let $s=3.2^{p-2}$. There exists a perfect code $C$ in $Q_{n}$ such that no elements of $C$ contains $1^{s}$ as substring.

Proof. Let $m=2^{p-2}-1$ thus $2 m+1=2^{p-1}-1$ and $s=3 m+3$. Let $C_{2 m+1}$ be a perfect code in $Q_{2 m+1}$. Let $f$ be the function from $\mathbb{B}_{2 m+1}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ defined by

- $f\left(0^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}\right)=1$ for $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m}$
- $f\left(10^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}\right)=0$ for $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m-1}$
- $f\left(\boldsymbol{z} 10^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}\right)=\pi(\boldsymbol{z})$ for $\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{B}_{i-1}$ and $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m-i}$ for $i=2$ to $m$.
- $f=0$ otherwise.

Note that from the previous lemma the function is well defined. Let $C$ be the perfect code obtained from Vasilev's construction from $C_{2 m+1}$ and $f$. Assume there exists a string $\boldsymbol{d}$ in $C$ with $1^{3 m+3}$ as substring. Therefore $\boldsymbol{d}$ is obtained from $\boldsymbol{x}=d_{1} d_{2} \ldots d_{2 m+1}$ and $\boldsymbol{c} \in C_{2 m+1}$. Since $n=4 m+3$ note first that $d_{m+1} d_{m+2} \ldots d_{3 m+3}=1^{2 m+2}$. Let $i$ be the minimum integer such that $d_{i} d_{i+1} \ldots d_{3 m+i+2}=1^{3 m+3}$. We consider 3 cases

- $i=1$ then $x=d_{1} d_{2} \ldots d_{2 m+1}=1^{2 m+1}$ and $d_{2 m+2} d_{2 m+3} \ldots d_{3 m+3}=1^{m+2}$. Since $\boldsymbol{c}+\boldsymbol{x}=1^{m+1} d_{3 m+4} d_{3 m+5} \ldots d_{4 m+3}$ we have $\boldsymbol{c}=0^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}$ for some $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m}$. Thus $f(\boldsymbol{c})=1$ and since $\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=1$ we obtain $d_{2 m+2}=f(\boldsymbol{c})+\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=0$ a contradiction.
- $i=2$ then $\boldsymbol{x}=01^{2 m}$ and $d_{2 m+2} d_{2 m+3} \ldots d_{3 m+4}=1^{m+3}$. Since $\boldsymbol{c}+\boldsymbol{x}=$ $1^{m+2} d_{3 m+5} d_{3 m+6} \ldots d_{4 m+3}$ we have $\boldsymbol{c}=10^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}$ for some $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m-1}$. Thus $f(\boldsymbol{c})=0$ and since $\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=0$ we obtain $d_{2 m+2}=f(\boldsymbol{c})+\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=0$ a contradiction.
- $i \geq 3$ then $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{z} 01^{2 m-i+2}$ for $\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{B}_{i-2}$ and $d_{2 m+2} d_{2 m+3} \ldots d_{3 m+2+i}=1^{m+i+1}$. Since $\boldsymbol{c}+\boldsymbol{x}=1^{m+i} d_{3 m+i+3} d_{3 m+i+4} \ldots d_{4 m+3}$ we have $\boldsymbol{c}=\overline{\boldsymbol{z}} 10^{m+1} \boldsymbol{y}$ for some $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{B}_{m-i+1}$. Thus $f(\boldsymbol{c})=\pi(\overline{\boldsymbol{z}})$. Since $\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=\pi(\boldsymbol{z})+\pi\left(1^{2 m-i+2}\right)$ and $\pi(\overline{\boldsymbol{z}})+$ $\pi(\boldsymbol{z})=\pi\left(1^{i-2}\right)$ we obtain $d_{2 m+2}=f(\boldsymbol{c})+\pi(\boldsymbol{x})=\pi\left(1^{2 m}\right)=0$ a contradiction.

Therefore there exists no string $d$ in $C$ with $1^{3 m+3}$ as substring.

Corollary 2.3 Let $n=2^{p}-1$ where $p \geq 2$ and let $s \geq 3.2^{p-2}$. There exists a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$.

Proof. Indeed let $C$ be a perfect code in $Q_{n}$ such that no element of $C$ contains $1^{3.2^{p-2}}$ as substring. The strings of $C$ are in $V\left(\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)\right)$. Let $x$ be a vertex of $V\left(\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)\right)$. If $x \notin C$ then $x$ is adjacent in $Q_{n}$ to a vertex $c$ in $C$. Note that $x$ and $c$ are also adjacent in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ thus $C$ is a dominating set of $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$. If $c$ and $c^{\prime}$ are two strings of $C$ then $d_{\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)}\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \geq d_{Q_{n}}\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \geq 3$. Therefore $C$ is a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$.

## 3 Concluding remark and open problems

Whenever $n=2^{p}-1$ it will be interesting to determine the minimum $s$ such that there exists a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$.

Corollary 2.3 is not always the best result possible. For example for $n=7$ the code $C_{7}$ obtained in Vasilev's construction starting from $C_{3}=\{000,111\}$ with $f(000)=$ $f(111)=1$ is a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{5}\right)$. Indeed

- $11111 a b$ or 0011111 cannot be in $C_{7}$ since the $P(111)+1=P(001)+1=0$
- $011111 a$ cannot be in $C_{7}$ since the possible codewords begining with 011 are 0111011 and 0111100.

Note that that all strings of this code are obtained from strings in the Hamming code of length 7 by a translation of 0001000 . This simple idea can be generalized but is less efficient than our result in the general case.

We propose also the following conjecture:
Conjecture 3.1 For $n \geq 3$ and $s \geq 1$ if $C$ is a perfect code in $\Gamma_{n}\left(1^{s}\right)$ then $n=2^{p}-1$ for some integer $p$ and furthermore $C$ is a perfect code in $Q_{n}$.

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