# On a kind of two-weight code ${ }^{\star}$ 

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#### Abstract

A special type of two-weight code is defined by using subcodes. The generalized Hamming weight and the chain property of this kind of two-weight code are determined. The higher-weight enumerators and an application of this kind of two-weight code are given.


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## 1. Introduction

Two-weight codes, i.e., nonzero codewords that have only two different weights, are interesting in the area of coding theory (e.g., uniformly packed codes) and have been studied intensively [5].

Two-weight codes are also closely related to objects in different areas of mathematics such as strongly regular graphs, partial geometries, and projective point-sets. Delsarte [6] was the first to study the connections between two-weight codes, strongly regular graphs, and projective point-sets. A survey of this relationship was given later by Calderbank and Kantor [3]. Two-weight codes can also be used to construct secret sharing schemes, which is an interesting subject of cryptography; see [13].

In this paper, motivated by the research work in [8], a special kind of two-weight code is defined. Some properties and an application of this kind of two-weight code are given.

### 1.1. Notations and definitions

For any subcode $D$ of a code $C$, the support $\chi(D)$ of $D$ is defined as the set of positions where not all the codewords of $D$ have zero coordinates. In particular, the support of any nonzero codeword consists of its nonzero coordinate positions.

Definition 1. For any subcode $D$ of $C, w(D):=|\chi(D)|$ is called the support weight or effective length of $D$. In particular, $w(C)$ is called the effective length of $C$.

Let $C$ be a linear $[n, k$ ] code, that is, a $k$-dimensional code over the finite field $G F(q)$ with effective length $n$, and let $C_{1}$ be a $k_{1}$-dimensional subcode of $C$. Define $C \backslash C_{1}=\left\{c \mid c \in C\right.$ and $\left.c \notin C_{1}\right\}$.

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Definition 2. If both $C_{1}$ and $C \backslash C_{1}$ are constant-weight codes, then $C$ is called a relative two-weight (RTW) code with respect to $C_{1}$.

Let $C$ be an $[n, k]$ RTW code with respect to $C_{1}$, and assume that the weight of the nonzero codewords in $C_{1}$ is $d$, and that the weight of codewords in $C \backslash C_{1}$ is $d^{*}$; then we briefly use $\left(C, C_{1}\right)\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$ or $C\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$ (when $C_{1}$ is clear) to denote the RTW code $C$.

Definition 3 ([12]). The generalized Hamming weight of an $[n, k]$ code $C$ is a sequence $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{k}\right)$, where

$$
d_{r}=\min \{w(D) \mid D \text { is an } r \text {-dimensional subcode of } C\}, \quad 1 \leq r \leq k
$$

Note that $d_{1}$ is exactly the traditional minimum Hamming weight of $C$, and that $d_{k}=n$ is exactly the effective length of $C$. $C$ is said to satisfy the chain condition if there exist subcodes $D_{i}(1 \leq i \leq k)$ such that $\{0\} \subset D_{1} \subset D_{2} \subset \cdots \subset D_{k}=C, \operatorname{dim}\left(D_{i}\right)=i$, and $w\left(D_{i}\right)=d_{i}$, for each $i$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$.

The value function (also called value assignment) and finite projective geometry methods are effective tools to study the support weights of subcodes [4,11]. In particular, the value function was first introduced in [4] to study the generalized Hamming weight of a linear code.

Definition 4. A value function is a correspondence $m(\cdot): P G(k-1, q) \rightarrow Z$, where $Z$ represents the integers and $P G(k-1, q)$ represents a $(k-1)$-dimensional projective space over the finite field $G F(q)$. For any point $p \in P G(k-1, q)$, call $m(p)$ the value of $p$.

Define the value of $S \subset P G(k-1, q)$ by $m(S)=\sum_{p \in S} m(p)$.

### 1.2. The value function and linear codes

To use the value function to study the generalized Hamming weight, we consider the columns of $G$, a generator matrix of a $k$-dimensional $q$-ary linear code $C$, as projective points in $P G(k-1, q)$. For a point $p \in P G(k-1, q)$, let $m(p)$ mean the number of the times the point $p$ occurs in the columns of $\mathbf{G}$. We thus obtain a value function $m(\cdot): P G(k-1, q) \rightarrow Z$ such that $m(\cdot) \geq 0$. Obviously, such a value function defines a generator matrix and a code (up to equivalence).

Additionally, for each subset $L \subset\{1,2, \ldots, k\}$ and $p=\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{k}\right) \in \operatorname{PG}(k-1, q)$, let $P_{L}(p)=$ $\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right)$, where $v_{i}=u_{i}$ if $i \in L$, and $v_{i}=0$ if $i \notin L$. Define $P_{L}(S)=\left\{P_{L}(p) \mid p \in S\right\}$ for a subset $S \subset P G(k-1, q)$. Obviously, if $S$ is a projective subspace, so is $P_{L}(S)$.

Lemma 1 ([8]). If $C$ is an $[n, k]$ code and $C_{1}$ is a $k_{1}$-dimensional subcode, then there is a $1-1$ correspondence between the $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=\theta$ and the $(k-r-1)$-dimensional projective subspaces $P$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim} P_{L}(P)=k_{1}-\theta-1$, such that, if $D$ corresponds to $P$, we will have $n-w(D)=m(P)$, where $L=\left\{1,2, \ldots, k_{1}\right\}$. In particular, when $C_{1}=\{0\}$, i.e., $k_{1}=0$, the conclusion is that there is a 1-1 correspondence between the r-dimensional subcodes D and the ( $k-r-1$ )-dimensional projective subspaces $P$ such that, if $D$ corresponds to $P$, we will have

$$
\begin{equation*}
n-w(D)=m(P) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the following text, let $P_{\xi}^{\eta}$ denote a $\xi$-dimensional projective subspace $P$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim} P_{L}(P)=\eta$, and let Lalways denote the set $\left\{1,2, \ldots, k_{1}\right\}$. For example, $P_{0}^{-1}$ stands for a point whose first $k_{1}$ coordinate positions are all 0 , and all such points constitute a projective subspace $P_{k-k_{1}-1}^{-1}$.

## 2. The generalized Hamming weight of an RTW code

Lemma 2. Assume that $C$ is an RTW code with respect to a $k_{1}$-dimensional subcode $C_{1}$, and that $m(\cdot)$ is a value function of $C$; then $m(\cdot)$ has only two different values. Furthermore, the points patisfying $P_{L}(p)=$ 0 share one of the values with each other, whereas the points $p$ satisfying $P_{L}(p) \neq 0$ share the other, where $L=\left\{1,2, \ldots, k_{1}\right\}$.
Proof. Since each nonzero codeword of $C_{1}$ spans a one-dimensional subcode $D$ such that $\operatorname{dim}(D \cap$ $\left.C_{1}\right)=\operatorname{dim}(D)=1$ and $C$ is an RTW code, we get by Definition 2 that all the one-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=1$ have the same support weight, and that all the codewords in $C \backslash C_{1}$
have the same weight. So the assumptions in [8, Theorem 3] are satisfied, and then, using the proof of [ 8 , Theorem 3 (Case 2)], we get the result.

The importance of Lemma 2 is in that it gives a convenient way to construct an RTW code. See the following.

Example 1. Consider the four-dimensional binary linear code $C$ generated by the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

and let $C_{1}$ be the two-dimensional subcode generated by the first two rows of the matrix. Then, $m(p)=0$ for the point $p$ satisfying $P_{L}(p)=0$, whereas $m(p)=1$ for the point $p$ satisfying $P_{L}(p) \neq 0$, where $L=\{1,2\}$. So, $C$ is an RTW code according to Lemma 2 . More concretely, since $d=8$ and $d^{*}=6, C$ is a $(12,8,6)$ RTW code.

According to Lemma 2 , we may get different RTW codes by simply changing the values $m(\cdot)$ takes on the points $p$ such that $P_{L}(p)=0$ and $P_{L}(p) \neq 0$. For instance, we may modify $m(\cdot)$ above as follows:

$$
m(p)= \begin{cases}1, & P_{L}(p) \neq 0 \\ 2, & P_{L}(p)=0\end{cases}
$$

To satisfy the value function, we give a generator matrix of another RTW code:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

It can be checked that the code generated by the above matrix is a $(18,8,10)$ RTW code. If we modify $m(\cdot)$ as follows,

$$
m(p)= \begin{cases}2, & P_{L}(p) \neq 0, \\ 1, & P_{L}(p)=0,\end{cases}
$$

then we may obtain a $(27,16,14)$ RTW code generated by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
111111111111111100000000000 \\
000000001111111111111111000 \\
000011110000111100001111101 \\
001100110011001100110011011
\end{array}\right) .
$$

The generalized Hamming weight of an RTW code can be determined by using Lemmas 1 and 2 . We first give the following.

Lemma 3. For the $R T W$ code $C\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$, we have

$$
n=\frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-1\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} .
$$

Remark 1. It can be easily deduced from the result of Lemma 3 that the length of $C$ in Example 1 should be equal to 12, that the length of the second RTW code in Example 1 should be equal to 18, and that the length of the third RTW code in Example 1 should be equal to 27 .

Proof of Lemma 3. From Definition 2 for an RTW code, we get that both $C_{1}$ and $C \backslash C_{1}$ are constantweight codes. Since each nonzero codeword of $C_{1}$ spans a one-dimensional subcode $D$ such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=1$ and each codeword in $C \backslash C_{1}$ spans a one-dimensional subcode $D$ such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)$ $=0$, we get by using (1) in Lemma 1 that the value of each $P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-2}$ is equal to $n-d$ and that the value
of each $P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-1}$ is equal to $n-d^{*}$. So $m(\cdot)$ should satisfy the following system of equations:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m\left(P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-2}\right)=n-d  \tag{2}\\
m\left(P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-1}\right)=n-d^{*} \\
m(P G(k-1, q))=n .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Define $S_{1} \subset P G(k-1, q)$ and $S_{2} \subset P G(k-1, q)$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{1}=\left\{p \mid P_{L}(p)=0\right\}, \\
& S_{2}=\left\{p \mid P_{L}(p) \neq 0\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, $P G(k-1, q)=S_{1} \cup S_{2},\left|S_{1}\right|=\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}}{q-1}$, and $\left|S_{2}\right|=\frac{q^{k}-1}{q-1}-\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}}{q-1}=\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right)}{q-1}$. One can also check that each $P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-2}$ contains $\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}-1}{q-1}$ points of $S_{1}$ and $\frac{q^{k-1}-1}{q-1}-\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}}{q-1}=\frac{q^{k-k_{1}\left(q^{k_{1}-1}-1\right)}}{q-1}$ points of $S_{2}$, and that each $P_{k-2}^{k_{1}-1}$ contains $\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}-1}{q-1}$ points of $S_{1}$ and $\frac{q^{k-1}-1}{q-1}-\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}-1}{q-1}=\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}\left(q^{k} 1-1\right)}{q-1}$ points of $S_{2}$. Note that by Lemma 2 all the points of $S_{1}$ have the same value and that all the points of $S_{2}$ have the same value. Consequently, (2) can be rewritten as

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}-1}{q-1}\right) m\left(p_{1}\right)+\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}\left(q^{k_{1}-1}-1\right)}{q-1} m\left(p_{2}\right)=n-d  \tag{3}\\
\left(\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}-1}{q-1}\right) m\left(p_{1}\right)+\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-1}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right)}{q-1} m\left(p_{2}\right)=n-d^{*} \\
\left(\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}-1}{q-1}\right) m\left(p_{1}\right)+\frac{q^{k-k_{1}}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right)}{q-1} m\left(p_{2}\right)=n,
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $p_{1} \in S_{1}$ and $p_{2} \in S_{2}$.
It is not difficult to check that (3) has a unique solution:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m\left(p_{1}\right)=\frac{q^{k_{1}} d^{*}-\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{q^{k-1}}  \tag{4}\\
m\left(p_{2}\right)=\frac{d}{q^{k-1}} \\
n=\frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-1\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}}
\end{array}\right.
$$

from which we get the result.
Theorem 1. Any RTW code $C\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$ satisfies the chain condition. As regards the generalized Hamming weight, the result is as follows:
(I) $d>d^{*} \quad d_{r}= \begin{cases}\frac{q^{k-r}\left(q^{r}-1\right)}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} d^{*}, & 1 \leq r \leq k-k_{1}-1 \\ \frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-1\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k_{1}}-q^{k-r}\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}}, & k-k_{1} \leq r \leq k-1 .\end{cases}$
(II) $d<d^{*} \quad d_{r}= \begin{cases}\frac{q^{k}-q^{k-r}}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} d, & 1 \leq r \leq k_{1}-1 \\ \frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-q^{k-r}\right) d^{*}+q^{k-r}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}}, & k_{1} \leq r \leq k-1 .\end{cases}$

Proof. Let $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ be defined as in Lemma 3. Assume that $d>d^{*}$; then $m\left(p_{1}\right)<m\left(p_{2}\right)$ by (4), where $p_{1} \in S_{1}$ and $p_{2} \in S_{2}$. By Lemma 1 (see (1)), determining $d_{r}(1 \leq r \leq k)$ is equivalent to determining the maximum value of the projective subspaces with dimension $k-r-1$. So, to prove that $C\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$ satisfies the chain condition, it is necessary to find a series of projective subspaces $P_{i}(0 \leq i \leq k-1)$ such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{i}\right)=i, P_{i}$ has the maximum value among the $i$-dimensional subspaces, and $P_{0} \subset P_{1} \subset \cdots \subset P_{k-1}$. Since $m\left(p_{1}\right)<m\left(p_{2}\right)$, we obtain by Lemma 2 that the subspaces $P_{\xi}^{\xi}\left(0 \leq \xi \leq k_{1}-1\right)$ and the subspaces $P_{\xi}^{k_{1}-1}\left(k_{1} \leq \xi \leq k-1\right)$ are exactly the maximum value subspaces. In addition, we also obtain by Lemma 2 that all the subspaces $P_{\xi}^{\xi}$ have the same value for each fixed $\xi$, and so do the subspaces $P_{\xi}^{k_{1}-1}$. Thus, one can manage to choose such subspaces satisfying

$$
P_{0}^{0} \subset P_{1}^{1} \subset \cdots \subset P_{k_{1}-1}^{k_{1}-1} \subset P_{k_{1}}^{k_{1}-1} \subset \cdots \subset P_{k-1}^{k_{1}-1}=P G(k-1, q) .
$$

So $C\left(n, d, d^{*}\right)$ satisfies the chain condition. To determine the generalized Hamming weight, it is necessary to compute the values of the subspaces in the above chain. Applying Lemmas $1-3$, we have, for $k-k_{1} \leq r \leq k-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{r} & =n-m\left(P_{k-r-1}^{k-r-1}\right) \\
& =n-\frac{q^{k-r}-1}{q-1} m\left(p_{2}\right), \quad\left(\text { where } p_{2} \in S_{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-1\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}}-\frac{q^{k-r}-1}{q-1} \frac{d}{q^{k-1}}, \quad(\text { by (4)) } \\
& =\frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-1\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k_{1}}-q^{k-r}\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $1 \leq r \leq k-k_{1}-1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{r} & =n-m\left(P_{k-r-1}^{k_{1}-1}\right) \\
& =n-\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-r}-1}{q-1} m\left(p_{1}\right)-\left(\frac{q^{k-r}-1}{q-1}-\frac{q^{k-k_{1}-r}-1}{q-1}\right) m\left(p_{2}\right) \quad\left(p_{1} \in S_{1}, p_{2} \in S_{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{q^{k-r}\left(q^{r}-1\right)}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} d^{*} \quad(\text { by }(4)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

An almost similar computation gives the result for the case $d<d^{*}$, and the only difference is the subspaces chain. Since $d<d^{*}$ means that $m\left(p_{1}\right)>m\left(p_{2}\right)$ by (4), the maximum value subspaces chain can be chosen as

$$
P_{0}^{-1} \subset P_{1}^{-1} \subset \cdots \subset P_{k-k_{1}-1}^{-1} \subset P_{k-k_{1}}^{0} \subset P_{k-k_{1}+1}^{1} \subset \cdots \subset P_{k-1}^{k_{1}-1}=P G(k-1, q) .
$$

So, the generalized Hamming weight is computed according to whether $1 \leq r \leq k_{1}-1$ or $k_{1} \leq r \leq$ $k-1$. For $1 \leq r \leq k_{1}-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{r} & =n-m\left(P_{k-r-1}^{k_{1}-r-1}\right) \\
& =\frac{q^{k}-q^{k-r}}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} d,
\end{aligned}
$$

and for $k_{1} \leq r \leq k-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{r} & =n-m\left(P_{k-r-1}^{-1}\right) \\
& =\frac{q^{k_{1}}\left(q^{k-k_{1}}-q^{k-r}\right) d^{*}+q^{k-r}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3. The higher-weight enumerators

The higher-weight enumerators (also called support weight enumerators) were first introduced in [7], where a proof was presented to MacWilliams-type identities relating the support weight distributions of a linear code and its dual. For a linear code, the higher-weight enumerators are defined as the set of integers indicating the number of subcodes of the same dimension and the same effective length. Many researchers have investigated the higher-weight enumerators for various classes of linear code [2]. For the RTW code defined in the present paper, the higher-weight enumerators can be completely determined. Let $C$ and $C_{1}$ be given as before. Since the subspaces $P_{k-r-1}^{t-1}$ have the same value for an RTW code by Lemma 2, all the $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$ have the same support weight by Lemma 1 ; furthermore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
w(D) & =n-m\left(P_{k-r-1}^{t-1}\right) \\
& =\frac{\left(q^{k}-q^{k+k_{1}-r-t}\right) d^{*}+\left(q^{k+k_{1}-r-t}-q^{k-r}\right) d}{(q-1) q^{k-1}} \quad(\mathrm{by}(4)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So, to determine the higher-weight enumerators, it is necessary to determine the number of $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$.

Theorem 2. The number of $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$ is

$$
\prod_{i=0}^{i=t-1} \frac{q^{k_{1}}-q^{i}}{q^{t}-q^{i}} \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{i=r-t-1} \frac{q^{k}-q^{k_{1}+i}}{q^{r}-q^{t+i}} .
$$

Proof. The number of $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$ is equal to the one obtained from enumerating choices of the basis elements of $D$ divided by a factor enumerating different choices of basis elements that give rise to the same subcode $D$. Note that $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$ means that there are $t$ basis elements of $D$ that come from the $k_{1}$-dimensional subcode $C_{1}$; so, the number of ways of choosing the first basis element should be $q^{k_{1}}-1$, and the number of ways of choosing the second basis element should be $q^{k_{1}}-q, \ldots$, and the number of ways of choosing the $t$-th basis element should be $q^{k_{1}}-q^{t-1}$. The $(t+1)$-th basis element should be from the set $C \backslash C_{1}$, due to the fact $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$, so the number of ways of choosing the $(t+1)$-th basis element is $q^{k}-q^{k_{1}}$. The $(t+2)$-th basis element, on the one hand, is not a linear combination of the former $t+1$ basis elements, and is also, on the other hand, in the set $C \backslash C_{1}$ due to the fact $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$, so the $(t+2)$-th basis element is not a linear combination of the elements of $C_{1}$ and the $(t+1)$-th basis element, so the number of ways of choosing the $(t+2)$-th element is $q^{k}-q^{k_{1}+1}$. Similarly, the number of ways of choosing the $(t+3)$-th basis element is $q^{k}-q^{k_{1}+2}, \ldots$, and the number of ways of choosing the last basis element (the $r$-th basis element) is $q^{k}-q^{k_{1}+r-t-1}$. So, the total number of all the choices of the basis elements of the $r$-dimensional subcodes $D$ satisfying $\operatorname{dim}\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)=t$ is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{i=0}^{i=t-1}\left(q^{k_{1}}-q^{i}\right) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{i=r-t-1}\left(q^{k}-q^{k_{1}+i}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In such a manner, the different choices of basis elements that give rise to the same subcode $D$ are as follows: the number of ways of choosing the first basis element is $q^{t}-1$, the number of ways of choosing the second basis element is $q^{t}-q, \ldots$, and the number of ways of choosing the $t$-th basis element is $q^{t}-q^{t-1}$. The $(t+1)$-th basis element should be in the set $D \backslash\left(D \cap C_{1}\right)$, so the number of ways of choosing the $(t+1)$-th basis element is $q^{r}-q^{t}$. The $(t+2)$-th basis element is not a linear combination of the former $t+1$ basis elements, so the number of ways of choosing the $(t+2)$-th basis element is $q^{r}-q^{t+1}$. Similarly, the number of ways of choosing the $(t+3)$-th basis element is $q^{r}-q^{t+2}, \ldots$, and the number of ways of choosing the last basis element is $q^{r}-q^{r-1}$. So, the number of different choices of basis elements that give rise to the same subcode $D$ is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{i=0}^{i=t-1}\left(q^{t}-q^{i}\right) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{i=r-t-1}\left(q^{r}-q^{t+i}\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (5) and (6), we get the result.

## 4. An application

An application of an RTW code is for the construction of secret sharing schemes first introduced in [10]. There are several approaches to the construction of secret sharing schemes, and one of them is based on the use of linear codes. Massey [9] found that the construction of secret sharing schemes was closely related to the complete characterization of the minimal codewords of the underlying linear code.

A codeword covers another one if the support of the codeword contains that of the other. A nonzero codeword is called a minimal codeword if it covers only its scalar multiples, but no other nonzero codewords.

Unfortunately, determining the minimal codewords is extremely hard for general linear codes. Several authors have investigated the minimal codewords and the corresponding secret sharing schemes for certain codes [13,14,1]. In [1], a useful judging rule for determining the minimal codewords was given as follows: in any linear code, let $\omega_{\min }$ and $\omega_{\max }$ be the minimum and maximum nonzero weights, respectively. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\omega_{\min }}{\omega_{\max }}>\frac{q-1}{q}, \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

then all nonzero codewords of the code are minimal.
By using (7), the minimal codewords can be completely determined for certain RTW codes constructed in the present paper.

From (4), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d^{*}}{d} & =\frac{d-\left(m\left(p_{2}\right)-m\left(p_{1}\right)\right) q^{k-k_{1}-1}}{d} \\
& =\frac{m\left(p_{2}\right) q^{k-1}-\left(m\left(p_{2}\right)-m\left(p_{1}\right)\right) q^{k-k_{1}-1}}{m\left(p_{2}\right) q^{k-1}} \quad(\text { see (4)) } \\
& =1-\frac{m\left(p_{2}\right)-m\left(p_{1}\right)}{m\left(p_{2}\right)} q^{-k_{1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the above equation, we can manage to preserve $m\left(p_{2}\right)-m\left(p_{1}\right)$ to be any positive constant, e.g., $m\left(p_{2}\right)-m\left(p_{1}\right)=1$, and then let $m\left(p_{2}\right)$ be properly large. Then

$$
\frac{d^{*}}{d}>\frac{q-1}{q}
$$

can always hold, and then by (7) we get that all the nonzero codewords in the RTW code are minimal codewords. In such a manner, we can construct many RTW codes all of whose nonzero codewords are minimal codewords.

Example 2. Consider the four-dimensional linear code C over $G F(3)$ with a generator matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
111111111111111111111111111000000000 \\
000000000111111111222222222111111111 \\
000111222000111222000111222000111222 \\
012012012012012012012012012012012012
\end{array}\right),
$$

and let $C_{1}$ be the two-dimensional subcode generated by the first two rows of the matrix. Then all the nonzero codewords of $C_{1}$ have the same weight, $d=27$, and all the codewords of $C \backslash C_{1}$ have the same weight, $d^{*}=24$. So $C$ is a $(36,27,24)$ RTW code. Since

$$
\frac{d^{*}}{d}=\frac{24}{27}>\frac{q-1}{q}=\frac{2}{3},
$$

all the nonzero codewords of $C$ are minimal codewords by (7).

Remark 2. More generally, taking $m\left(p_{2}\right)=1, m\left(p_{1}\right)=0, d=q^{k-1}, d^{*}=q^{k-1}-q^{k-k_{1}-1}$, and $k_{1} \geq 2$, we get an RTW $\operatorname{code} C\left(\frac{k^{k-k_{1}}\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right)}{q-1}, q^{k-1}, q^{k-1}-q^{k-k_{1}-1}\right)$ such that

$$
\frac{d^{*}}{d}=\frac{q^{k_{1}}-1}{q^{k_{1}}}>\frac{q-1}{q} .
$$

So, any RTW code $C\left(\frac{q^{k-k_{1}\left(q^{k} 1-1\right)}}{q-1}, q^{k-1}, q^{k-1}-q^{k-k_{1}-1}\right)$ for $k_{1} \geq 2$, has all the nonzero codewords as the minimal codewords by (7).

Remark 3. An RTW code is a special type of two-weight code. In particular, all the codewords with one of weights in an RTW code must constitute a linear constant-weight subcode according to Definition 2. Thus, the statement that every two-weight linear code is an RTW one is not true. An example is as follows.

Example 3. Consider the four-dimensional binary linear code $C$ generated by the matrix

$$
\boldsymbol{G}=\left(\begin{array}{llllllllllllll}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

It can be checked that $C$ is a two-weight linear code with weights 8 and 6 . However, all the codewords with weight 8 cannot form a linear subcode. To see this, we choose codewords $c_{1}=x \boldsymbol{G}$ and $c_{2}=y \boldsymbol{G}$, where $x=(0001)$ and $y=(0011)$. Then $c_{1}=(01010101010111)$ and $c_{2}=(01100110011011)$ are both codewords with weight 8 . Since $c_{1}-c_{2}$ is the codeword ( 00110011001100 ) with weight 6 , all the codewords with weight 8 fail to constitute a subcode. Similarly, we are able to show that all the codewords with weight 6 also fail to constitute a subcode by choosing two codewords with weight 6 , say $c_{1}=x \boldsymbol{G}$ and $c_{2}=y \mathbf{G}$, where $x=(0010)$ and $y=(0110)$. This shows that $C$ is not an RTW code.

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