Serdica Journal of Computing 18(2), 2024, pp. 97-124, 10.55630/sjc.2024.18.97-124 Published by Institute of Mathematics and Informatics, Bulgarian Academy of Sciences

Divisible Minimal Codes

Vladimir Chubenko¹, Sascha Kurz²

¹Independent Researcher, Ukraine chubenko.vl@gmail.com

²Mathematisches Institut, Universität Bayreuth, Germany sascha.kurz@uni-bayreuth.de

Abstract

Minimal codes are linear codes where all non-zero codewords are minimal, i.e., whose support is not properly contained in the support of another codeword. The minimum possible length of such a k-dimensional linear code over \mathbb{F}_q is denoted by m(k,q). Here we determine m(7,2), m(8,2), and m(9,2), as well as full classifications of all codes attaining m(k,2) for $k \leq 7$ and those attaining m(9,2). We give improved upper bounds for m(k,2) for all $10 \leq k \leq 17$. It turns out that in many cases the attaining extremal codes have the property that the weights of all codewords are divisible by some constant $\Delta > 1$. So, here we study the minimum lengths of minimal codes where we additionally assume that the weights of the codewords are divisible by Δ . As a byproduct we also give a few binary linear codes improving the best known lower bound for the minimum distance.

Keywords: minimal codes, divisible codes, optimal codes, quasi-cyclic codes, acute sets

ACM Computing Classification System 2012: Mathematics of computing \rightarrow Information theory \rightarrow Coding theory, Mathematics of computing \rightarrow Discrete mathematics

Mathematics Subject Classification 2020: 94B05, 51E23

Received: May 9, 2025, Accepted: June 2, 2025, Published: June 25, 2025

Citation: Vladimir Chubenko, Sascha Kurz, Divisible Minimal Codes, Serdica Journal of Computing 18(2), 2024, pp. 97-124, https://doi.org/10.55630/sjc.2024.18.97-124

1 Introduction

Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field of cardinality q and $C \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q^n$ be a linear code. If C has cardinality q^k , then we speak of an $[n,k]_q$ -code. A non-zero codeword $c \in C$ is called *minimal* if the support $\operatorname{supp}(c) := \{i \mid c_i \neq 0\}$ of c is minimal with respect to inclusion in the set $\{\operatorname{supp}(u) \mid u \in C \setminus \mathbf{0}\}$. The code C is a *minimal code* if all of its non-zero codewords are minimal. One of the many applications of minimal codes is secret sharing, see e.g. [1]. An important line of research is the determination of the minimum possible length n of a minimal $[n,k]_q$ -code, which we denote by m(k,q). In e.g. [2, Theorem 2.14] the lower bound $m(k,q) \geq (q+1)(k-1)$ was shown. Here we determine m(7,2), m(8,2), and m(9,2), as well as full classifications of all codes attaining m(k,2) for $k \leq 7$ and those attaining m(9,2). For m(k,2) we give improved upper bounds when $10 \leq k \leq 17$.

A linear $[n, k]_q$ -code is called Δ -divisible if all of its weights are divisible by Δ . For some background we refer e.g. to the recent survey [3]. Minimal codes constructed by concatenation with simplex codes, see e.g. [4,5], naturally come with a non-trivial divisibility constant $\Delta > 1$. The unique example attaining m(2,q) = q, which geometrically corresponds to the points of a line, is q-divisible. For $k' \leq 3$ all minimal binary codes of length m(2k', 2) are 2-divisible and for dimension k = 8 there are minimal binary codes of length m(8, 2) = 24 that are 2-divisible while not all examples are of this type.

In [6] it was shown that the unique minimal code attaining m(5,3) = 19 is 3-divisible. So, at least for the small parameters we have considered here there exist q-divisible examples of minimum possible size m(k,q) whenever the lower bound (q-1)(k-1)+1 on the minimum distance, see Theorem 2(b), is divisible by q.¹

We remark that also some constructions for minimal codes are based on fewweight codes, which often have a non-trivial divisibility constant, see e.g. [7–9]. Due to the mentioned possible relations between minimal and divisible codes we introduce the minimum possible length $n = m(k, q; \Delta)$ of a Δ -divisible minimal $[n, k]_q$ -code. Here we initiate the study of $m(k, q; \Delta)$ and give bounds and exact values, both computationally and theoretically.

The remaining part of this paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we state the necessary preliminaries before we study bounds and exact values for $m(k,q;\Delta)$ in Section 3. For the special case of binary minimal codes with trivial divisibility $\Delta = 1$ we study the minimum possible length m(k,2;1) = m(k,2) in Section 4. We use both coding theoretic and geometric methods.

¹The second case where this condition is met, after the first k = 2, is at dimension k = q + 2.

2 Preliminaries

First we consider the well-known correspondence between (non-degenerated) $[n, k]_q$ -codes and multisets of points in the projective space $\operatorname{PG}(k-1, q)$ of cardinality n, i.e., the columns of a generator matrix each generate a point, see e.g. [10]. We represent each multiset of points in $\operatorname{PG}(v-1,q)$ by a mapping $M: \mathcal{P} \to \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ from the set of points \mathcal{P} in $\operatorname{PG}(v-1,q)$ to the non-negative integers, i.e., to each point P we assign a multiplicity M(P). We extend this notion to arbitrary subspaces S by defining M(S) as the sum over all point multiplicities M(P) for all points P in S. The cardinality of M, i.e., the sum of the multiplicities of all points, is denoted by #M. We say that a multiset M of points is spanning if the points with positive multiplicity span the entire ambient space.

Definition 1. A multiset M of points in a projective space is called a strong blocking multiset if for every hyperplane H, we have $\langle S \cap H \rangle = H$.

If M is the multiset of points associated to a linear code C, then C is minimal iff M is a strong blocking multiset, see e.g. [11, 12]. Directly from the definition of a strong blocking multiset we can read off that a multiset of points in PG(1, q) is a strong blocking multiset iff it contains every point of the entire projective space. Clearly adding points to a multiset does not destroy the property of being a strong blocking multiset, so that we consider *minimal strong blocking sets* in the following, i.e., set of points that are a strong blocking multiset but such that every proper subset is not a strong blocking multiset. So, in PG(1, q) the unique minimal strong blocking set is a line, so that

$$m(2,q) = q. \tag{1}$$

Since each linear code associated to the point set of a k-dimensional subspace over \mathbb{F}_q is q-divisible, see e.g. [13, Lemma 2.a], we have

$$m(2,q;q) = q \tag{2}$$

for each positive integer Δ . For dimension k = 1 we clearly have m(1,q) = 1 and $m(1,q;\Delta) = \Delta$ for all $\Delta \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$.

The representation of a linear code C by a multiset of points M is pretty useful. If we multiply the multiplicity M(P) of every point P by some positive integer t, the cardinality as well as the divisibility is increased by a factor of t. So, we have

$$m(k,q) \le m(k,q;\Delta) \le \Delta \cdot m(k,q) \tag{3}$$

for all $\Delta \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$. Our examples for dimensions 1 and 2 show that both bounds can be attained with equality. Similarly, we have

$$m(k,q;\Delta) \le m(k,q;t\cdot\Delta) \le t\cdot m(k,q;\Delta) \tag{4}$$

for all $\Delta, t \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$. If t is coprime to q, then a t-divisible linear code over \mathbb{F}_q is a t-fold repetition of a smaller code, see e.g. [14, Theorem 1]. So, we have

$$m(k,q;t\cdot\Delta) = t\cdot m(k,q;\Delta) \tag{5}$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$ with gcd(q, t) = 1. For binary codes we can consider extension by a parity bit to conclude

$$m(k,2;2) \le m(k,2;1) + 1.$$
 (6)

Given a linear code C the weight wt(c) of a codeword $c \in C$ is the number of non-zero entries. With this, the minimum Hamming distance d of C is the minimum weight over all non-zero codewords of C. If an $[n, k]_q$ -code has minimum Hamming distance d then we also speak of an $[n, k, d]_q$ -code. The polynomial $\sum_{c \in C} x^{\text{wt}(c)}$ is called the weight enumerator of C. We summarize the current knowledge on general bounds for the length n, the minimum (non-zero) weight w_{\min} , and the maximum (non-zero) weight w_{\max} of a minimal linear code as follows:

Theorem 2. For each minimal $[n, k]_q$ -code we have

(a) $n \ge (q+1)(k-1);$ (b) $d = w_{\min} \ge (k-1)(q-1) + 1;$ and (c) $w_{\max} \le n-k+1.$

Proof. For (a) see e.g. [2, Theorem 2.14], for (b) see e.g. [15, Theorem 23] or [2, Theorem 2.8], and for (c) see [2, Proposition 1.5]. \Box

A linear code C is called *quasi-cyclic of index* l if the shift of l positions to the right of every codeword is also a codeword, see e.g. [16]. The case l = 1 corresponds to *cyclic* codes. A *circulant matrix* is a square matrix of the form

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & g_1 & \dots & g_{k-1} \\ g_{k-1} & g_0 & \dots & g_{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and its associated polynomial is given by $g(x) = g_0 + g_1 x + \dots + g_{k-1} x^{k-1}$, see e.g. [17]. A circulant matrix G generates a [k, k'] code, where $1 \le k' \le k$. For circulant matrices G_1, \ldots, G_l the matrix $(G_1 \ldots G_l)$ generates a quasi-cyclic code of index l, length lk, and dimension at most k. Reordering the matrices G_i results in equivalent codes and every quasi-cyclic code admits such a representation. If e.g. G_1 has full rank, then there exist circulant matrices G'_2, \ldots, G'_l such that $(I \ G'_2 \ \ldots \ G'_l)$ is a generator matrix of the same code. Heuristically, the assumption that at least one of the circulant matrices has full rank does not seem to exclude codes with good parameters, see e.g. [18]. For l = 2 one also speaks of a double circulant code, see e.g. [19, Chapter 16]. Here we want to have a little bit more flexibility.

Definition 3. Let $g \in \mathbb{F}_q^s$ and u, v be positive integers that are divisible by s. A $u \times v$ circulant matrix with generator g is a matrix $G \in \mathbb{F}_q^{u \times v}$ whose first row consists of v/s copies of g and every other row is obtained by a cyclic right shift of the row directly above it.

As an example, a 4×6 circulant matrix over \mathbb{F}_2 with generator $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is given by

where we have visualized the 2×2 submatrices which a circulant with generator g. I.e. those submatrices are copied v/s times to the right and u/s times to the bottom.

Definition 4. A generalized circulant matrix of type (α, β, t) is a matrix of the form

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} G_{11} & G_{12} & \dots & G_{1b} \\ G_{21} & G_{22} & \dots & G_{2b} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ G_{a1} & G_{a2} & \dots & G_{ab} \end{pmatrix},$$

where the G_{ij} are $(u_{ij} \times v_{ij})$ circulant matrices with generator $g_{ij} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{s_{ij}}$ such that

- all u_{ij} 's, v_{ij} 's, s_{ij} 's are divisors of t and $s_{ij} = t$ occurs at least once;
- the number of rows u_{ij} of G_{ij} is the same for all j;
- the number of columns v_{ij} of G_{ij} is the same for all i;

- $\alpha = 1^{\alpha_1} \dots t^{\alpha_t}$ and $u_{i1} = l$ occurs α_l times for all $1 \le l \le t$; and
- $\beta = 1^{\beta_1} \dots t^{\beta_t}$ and $v_{1j} = l$ occurs β_l times for all $1 \le l \le t$.

Moreover, we call G systematic if it starts with a full unit matrix.

As an example we consider

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 00000 & 00000 & \frac{1}{2} & 00000 & \frac{1}{2} & 11111 & \frac{1}{2}11111 \\ 0 & 100000 & 000000 & \frac{1}{2} & 001011 & 000101 & 001011 \\ 0 & 010000 & 000000 & 1 & 100101 & 100001 & 100101 \\ 0 & 001000 & 000000 & 1 & 011001 & 101000 & 011001 \\ 0 & 000010 & 000000 & 1 & 010100 & 101100 & 010100 & 000001 & 000000 & 1 & 001010 & 010110 \\ 0 & 000001 & 000000 & 1 & 000111 & 001011 & 111011 \\ 0 & 000000 & 010000 & 0 & 000111 & 001011 & 111011 \\ 0 & 000000 & 001000 & 0 & 110001 & 110010 & 111110 \\ 0 & 000000 & 000100 & 0 & 110001 & 110010 & 11111 \\ 0 & 000000 & 000010 & 0 & 011100 & 101101 & 110111 \\ 0 & 000000 & 000010 & 0 & 001110 & 101101 & 110111 \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

where the generators are underlined, $\alpha = 1^{1}6^{2}$, $\beta = 1^{2}6^{5}$, t = 5, and G is systematic. G generates a $[32, 13, 10]_{2}$ -code with weight enumerator $1 + 346x^{10} + 860x^{12} + 1636x^{14} + 2405x^{16} + 1840x^{18} + 796x^{20} + 268x^{22} + 34x^{24} + 6x^{26}$ that is indeed optimal. We remark that a $[32, 13, 10]_{2}$ -code was first found by Shearer using a computer search, see [20]. Using the Magma command BestKnownLinearCode a corresponding generator matrix can be retrieved that generates a $[32, 13, 10]_{2}$ -code with weight enumerator $1 + 348x^{10} + 853x^{12} + 1641x^{14} + 2418x^{16} + 1805x^{18} + 839x^{20} + 235x^{22} + 49x^{24} + 3x^{26}$ and a trivial automorphism group.

We neither claim that the notion of generalized circulant matrices is new nor that the chosen name is optimal. There is a vast literature on quasi-cyclic codes and different shapes with several circulant matrices have been studied, see e.g. [21]. For generalized quasi-cyclic codes we refer to e.g. [22,23] and the references therein. Our notion of a generalized circulant matrix in Definition 4 allows us to describe many of our newly discovered codes. On the other hand more restricted classes allow computational non-existence results. E.g. there does not exist a double circulant even $[40, 20, 10]_2$ -code [24].

There is a another point of view how generalized circulant matrices can be described. For given field size q, dimension k, and length n let $1 \le t \le k$ be an integer and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_t$ be non-negative integers such that $\sum_{i:i|t} \alpha_i = k$ and

 $\alpha_t \geq 1$. With this let π be a permutation of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$ with α_i cycles of length i. Similarly, let β_i be non-negative integers such that $\sum_{i:i|t} \beta_i = n, \beta_t \geq 1$, and φ be a permutation of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with β_i cycles of length i. As an example we consider $q = 2, k = 13, n = 32, t = 6, \alpha_1 = 1$, and $\alpha_6 = 2$, so that we can choose $\pi = (1)(2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)(8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13)$. The action of π on the elements of \mathbb{F}_q^k can also be described by the multiplication with a matrix $M_{\pi} \in \mathbb{F}_q^{k \times k}$. In our example we have

$$M_{\pi} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \ 000000 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 010000 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 001000 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 000010 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 000001 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000000\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 010000\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000100\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000010\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000001\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000001\\ 0 \ 000000 \ 000000 \end{pmatrix}$$

Using the geometric interpretation of a linear code C as a multiset of point M in PG(k-1,q), the action of M_{π} partitions the set of points, as well as the set of hyperplanes, of PG(k-1,q) into orbits, whose lengths are divisors of t. Assuming the prescribed automorphism M_{π} it is sufficient to state a representant of each chosen point orbit, which corresponds to a column for each block of the generator matrix G. The underlined generators in G are just another parameterization. Note that $\langle M_{\pi} \rangle$ is a cyclic group and it is a common approach to search linear codes with good parameters by prescribing some group as a subgroup of the automorphism group as solutions of an integer linear problem, since both the number of variables and constraints is reduced, see e.g. [25]. If we loop over suitable candidates for the generators in a generalized circulant matrix we can use the group action to partition the possible generators into orbits and also to restrict the minimum distance computations to codeword orbits. The condition $\beta_t \geq 1$ ensures that the corresponding codes have a cyclic automorphism of order t. In our example we have $\varphi = (1)(234567)(8...13)(14)(15...20)(21...26)(27...32)$. For more details on codes with a given automorphism and the relation to generalized quasi-cyclic codes we refer to [26].

In Section 4 we will use the structure of generalized circulant matrices to find

improved upper bounds for m(k, 2). As a spin-off of the underlying computer searches we also find a few codes improving upon the best known linear codes, see e.g. [27]. The following three matrices are generator matrices of $[50, 20, 13]_{2}$ -, $[52, 21, 13]_{2}$ -, and [56, 24, 13]-codes. respectively.



These three codes imply the further improvements $[49, 19, 13]_2$, $[50, 19, 14]_2$, $[51, 20, 14]_2$, $[53, 21, 14]_2$, and $[57, 24, 14]_2$. For other recently improved linear codes based on circulant matrices we refer e.g. to [28].

Remark 5. As point out by Markus Grassl [27], there are more compact description of the three stated improved binary linear codes. The $[50, 20, 13]_2$ and the $[56, 24, 13]_2$ codes are quasi-cyclic codes while the $[52, 21, 13]_2$ code can be obtained by applying Construction XX [29] to quasi-cyclic codes. More precisely, the $[50, 20, 13]_2$ code is a quasi-cyclic code of length 50 stacked to height 2 with generating polynomials 1, 0, $x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x$, $x^9 + x^3 + x^2 + x$, $x^9 + x^6 + x^3$, 0, 1, $x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x + 1$, $x^6 + x^5 + x^3 + x$, $x^9 + x^8 + x^3$ and the $[56, 24, 13]_2$ code is a quasi-cyclic code of length 56 stacked to height 3 with generating polynomials 1, 0, 0, $x^3 + x^2 + x$, $x^4 + x^2 + x$, $x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x$, $0, 1, 0, x^6 + x + 1, x^5 + x^4 + 1, x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2$, $x^6 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2$, $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$, $x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + x + 1, x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$.

3 Minimum lengths of divisible minimal codes

In this section we consider the determination of the smallest possible length $n = m(k,q;\Delta)$ of a minimal Δ -divisible $[n,k]_q$ -code. For dimensions $k \leq 2$ the results are stated easily using the geometric reformulation of linear codes as multisets of points. Clearly, we have $m(1,q;\Delta) = \Delta$ attained by a Δ -fold point. For dimension k = 2 each point has multiplicity at least 1 since the code has to be minimal. From Δ -divisibility we conclude that the point multiplicities are pairwise congruent modulo Δ , so that the minimum possible length is attained if all point multiplicities are equal. Thus, we have $m(2,q;\Delta) = \frac{(q+1)\Delta}{q}$ if Δ is divisible by q (attained by a Δ/q -fold line) and $m(2,q;\Delta) = (q+1)\Delta$ (attained by a Δ -fold line). Due to Equation (5) it suffices to consider the cases where Δ does not contain a non-trivial factor t that is coprime to the field size q.

If the divisibility constant is large enough, when considering power of the characteristic only, we can give a precise answer:

Proposition 6. For $r \ge k-1$ we have $m(k,q;q^r) = q^{r-k+1} \cdot \frac{q^k-1}{q-1}$.

Proof. Since the code is q^r -divisible we have $d \ge q^r$, so that we can apply the Griesmer bound for the lower bound. An attaining example is given by the q^{r-k+1} -fold full k-space.

Proposition 7. For $k \ge 2$ we have $m(k, 2; 2^{k-2}) = 2^k - 1$.

Proof. Since the k-dimensional simplex code is 2^{k-1} -divisible and minimal, we have $m(k, 2; 2^{k-2}) \leq 2^k - 1$, so that we assume $n \leq 2^k - 1$ for the length of an attaining code C. Note that the possible non-zero weights of C are given by $i \cdot 2^{k-2}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$.

If $c \in C$ is a codeword of weight $3 \cdot 2^{k-2}$, then the corresponding residual code C_c has length at most $2^{k-2} - 1$ and dimension k - 1 (since C is minimal). Thus, we have $k \geq 3$ and C_c is 2^{k-3} -divisible with 2^{k-3} as the unique non-zero weight. Since one-weight codes are repetitions of simplex codes, see e.g. [30], C_c can have dimension of at most k - 2 — contradiction.

So, let a_1 be the number of codewords of weight 2^{k-2} and a_2 be the number of codewords of weight 2^{k-1} . From the first two MacWilliams equations we compute $a_1 + a_2 = 2^k - 1$ and $2n = a_1 + 2a_2$, so that $a_1 = 2^{k+1} - 2 - 2n$, i.e., a_1 is even. Since the code is minimal, the sum of any two different codewords of weight 2^{k-2} has again weight 2^{k-2} , i.e. the codewords of the smallest weight form subcode and we have $a_1 = 2^t - 1$ for some integer t.² Thus, we have t = 0 and $a_1 = 0$, i.e., we have $d \ge 2^{k-1}$ for the minimum distance and can apply the Griesmer bound for the lower bound $n \ge 2^k - 1$.

For parameters not covered by these two propositions and dimension $k \geq 3$ we have applied the software LinCode for the enumeration of linear codes [32] using the bounds for the minimum and maximum possible weight in Theorem 2 and also using the weight restrictions implied by the divisibility constant Δ . For field sizes q = 2 and q = 3 we summarize our numerical results in Table 1. With this, $m(k, q; \Delta)$ is completely determined for $k \leq 9$ if q = 2 and for $k \leq 5$ if q = 3.

Lemma 8. For each integer $t \ge 2$ we have $m(2t, 2; 2^{t-1}) \le 3 \cdot (2^t - 1)$.

Proof. Consider the linear code C corresponding to three pairwise disjoint t-dimensional subspaces of PG(2t - 1, 2). With this, C is an $[3 \cdot (2^t - 1), 2t]_2$ -code with non-zero weighs $2 \cdot 2^{t-1}$ and $3 \cdot 2^{t-1}$, which is minimal due to the Ashikhmin-Barg condition [1].

We remark that the constructed projective two-weight code contains to the family SU2 in [33]. While equality is attained in Lemma 8 for $t \in \{2, 4, 5\}$, we have m(6, 2; 4) = 18 < 21.

²We remark that Δ -divisible linear codes spanned by codewords of weight Δ have been completely classified in [31]. Note that there exists a 2^{k-2} -divisible linear code of length 2^{k-1} and dimension k satisfying $a_1 = 2^k - 2$, $a_2 = 1$. However, this code, corresponding to an affine subspace, is not minimal.

k	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	7	7
q	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
$\overline{\Delta}$	1	2	1	2	4	1	2	4	8	1	2
$m(k,q;\Delta)$	9	9	13	14	17	15	15	18	36	20	21
k	7	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	9
q	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Δ	4	8	16	1	2	4	8	16	32	1	2
$m(k,q;\Delta)$	26	42	84	24	24	29	45	90	174	26	27
k	9	9	9	9	9	10	10	10	10	10	3
q	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
Δ	4	8	16	32	64	4	8	16	32	64	1
$m(k,q;\Delta)$	30	58	96	192	384	31	60	93	186	366	9
k	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5			
q	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
Δ	3	1	3	9	1	3	9	27			
$m(k,q;\Delta)$	12	14	15	38	19	19	48	116			

Table 1: Exact values of $m(k,q;\Delta)$ for small parameters where $q \in \{2,3\}$.

The interesting codes, i.e. those that cannot be obtained by repetitions of smaller codes, are given by

1	111111111111010000
	00000111111101000
	00111000111100100
	01011011001100010
	11100001011100001

attaining m(5,2;4) = 17 with weight enumerator $1 + 25x^8 + 6x^{12}$ and an automorphism group of order 720, as well as

1	111111111110100000	
1	000001111111010000	١
	001110001111001000	l
	010110110011000100	I
1	111000010111000010	1
Ι	011011100101000001 /	

attaining m(6,2;4) = 18 with weight enumerator $1 + 45x^8 + 18x^{12}$ and an automorphism group of order 2160, see [34]. For the first code we remark that the automorphism group is isomorphic to the symmetric group S_6 and has point orbits in PG(4,2) of sizes 1, 15 and 15. The unique point has multiplicity 2 in the attaining construction and the points in one of the other classes have multiplicity 1. The unique code attaining m(7,2;8) = 42 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 45x^{16} + 82x^{24}$ and an automorphism group of order 138240. Considered as a multiset of points in PG(6, 2) the automorphism group forms three point orbits of sizes 1, 36, and 90 with point multiplicities 6, 1, and 0, respectively. There are 62 non-isomorphic doubly-even minimal [29,8]₂-codes. One example is given by

1.	111111111111111100000010000000 \
1 (00000001111111111100001000000
	00011110000111100011100100000
(00100110111001100101100010000
	010110110010101011110000001000
	11001001010011110010100000100
1 (01110010010011111001000000010
(00111000100101011101100000001 /

with weight enumerator $1 + 114x^{12} + 119x^{16} + 22x^{20}$ and an automorphism group of order 3.

There are two non-isomorphic 8-divisible minimal $[45, 8]_2$ -codes. Both have weight enumerator $1 + 45x^{16} + 210x^{24}$ and are projective two-weight codes, see [33] for more details. One example is given by the construction in Lemma 8. The orders of the automorphism groups are 3628800 and 120960. The unique code attaining m(8, 2; 32) = 174 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 69x^{64} + 186x^{96}$ and an automorphism group of order 61931520. One of the five codes attaining m(9,2;2) = 27 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 90x^{10} + 164x^{12} + 84x^{14} + 123x^{16} + 50x^{18}$ and an automorphism group of order 48. There are 9 non-isomorphic codes attaining m(9,2;4) = 30. All of them have weight enumerator $1 + 190x^{12} + 255x^{16} + 66x^{20}$. An example with an automorphism group of order 10 is given by



There are 3 non-isomorphic codes attaining m(9,2;8) = 58. All of them have minimum distance d = 24. An example with weight enumerator $1 + 194x^{24} + 311x^{32} + 6x^{40}$ and an automorphism group of order 384 is given by



The unique code attaining m(9,2;16) = 96 is given by

with weight enumerator $1 + 18x^{32} + 472x^{48} + 21x^{64}$ and an automorphism group of order 41472. There are two codes attaining m(10, 2; 4) = 31. Both have weight enumerator $1 + 310x^{12} + 527x^{16} + 186x^{20}$, an automorphism group of order 155, and are distance-optimal. Corresponding generator matrices are given by



[19, Chapter 8] contains a construction of an infinite family of $(2^m - 1, 2m)$ cyclic codes with three different nonzero weights is given for odd m. As observed in [35, Example 6], choosing m = 5 yields a 4-divisible minimal [31, 10, 12]₂ three-weight code. For m(10, 2; 2) we have verified that length 28 cannot be attained.

There are three codes attaining m(10, 2; 8) = 60, all with weight enumerator $1 + 270x^{24} + 735x^{32} + 18x^{40}$. The example with an automorphism group of order 69120 is given by



The unique code attaining m(10, 2; 16) = 93 is given by the construction in Lemma 8. It has weight enumerator $1 + 93x^{32} + 930x^{48}$ and an automorphism group of order 59996160.

The unique code attaining m(10, 2; 64) = 366 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 141x^{128} + 882x^{192}$ and an automorphism group of order 27745320960.

The unique code attaining m(3,3;3) = 12 is given by

 $\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 111111110100\\000011221010\\011200022001 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$

with weight enumerator $1 + 6x^6 + 20x^9$ and an automorphism group of order 48. For m(4,3;3) = 15 there are two attaining non-isomorphic codes. They are two-weight codes with weight enumerator $1 + 50x^9 + 30x^{12}$ and belong to the families FE1 and FE4 in [33]. The unique code attaining m(4,3;9) = 38 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 12x^{18} + 68x^{27}$ and an automorphism group of order 384. The unique code attaining m(5,3;9) = 48 is given by

(111111111111111111111111111111111111	
	00000000111111120000111120111122220001222200100	
	00000001011111210111001202012211121222000200010	1
Ι	000000000000012220201222221221201210022012200001	Ϊ

with weight enumerator $1 + 6x^{18} + 92x^{27} + 144x^{36}$ and an automorphism group of order 96. The unique code attaining m(5,3;27) = 116 is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 30x^{54} + 212x^{81}$ and an automorphism group of order 89856.

For q = 4 also fractional powers of the field size need to be considered. For small parameters we have obtained m(3,4;1) = 12, m(3,4;2) = 14, m(3,4;4) = 15, m(3,4;8) = 21, m(4,4;1) = 18, m(4,4;2) = 19, m(4,4;4) = 20, m(4,4;8) = 40, m(4,4;16) = 62, and m(4,4;32) = 85. As the number suggest, we have a similar result as Proposition 7 for q = 4:

Proposition 9. For $k \ge 2$ we have $m(k, 4; 2^{2k-3}) = \frac{4^k - 1}{3}$.

Proof. Since the k-dimensional simplex code is 4^{k-1} -divisible and minimal, we have $m(k, 4; 2^{2k-3}) \leq \frac{4^k-1}{3}$. The possible non-zero weights of an attaining code C are given by $i \cdot 2^{2k-3}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 2$. By $3a_i$ we denote the corresponding number of codewords, so that the first two MacWilliams equations yield $a_1 + a_2 = \frac{4^k-1}{3}$ and $2n = a_1 + 2a_2$. With this, $a_1 = 2 \cdot \frac{4^k-1}{3} - 2n$ is even. However, the assumption that C is minimal implies that the sum of any two different codewords with weight $\Delta := 2^{2k-3}$ also has weight Δ . Thus, the codewords of weight Δ form a subcode

implying that $a_1 = \frac{4^t - 1}{3}$ for some integer t.³ With this we conclude t = 0 and $a_1 = 0$, i.e., we have $d \ge 4^{k-1}$ for the minimum distance and can apply the Griesmer bound for the lower bound $n \ge \frac{4^k - 1}{3}$.

4 Minimum lengths of binary minimal codes

As introduced before, we denote by m(k,q) the minimum possible length n of a minimal $[n,k]_q$ -code. In this section we will consider binary minimal codes only. The values m(1,2) = 1, m(2,2) = 3, m(3,2) = 6, m(4,2) = 9, m(5,2) = 13, and m(6,2) = 15 are known since a while, see [36]; c.f. also [37, Table 1] and [11]. The bounds $19 \le m(7,2) \le 21$, $m(8,2) \le 25$, $m(9,2) \le 29$ were reported in [36].⁴ For $m(10,2) \le 30$ we refer to [39, Section II.A]. Constructions from [5] yield $m(12,2) \le 42$, $m(15,2) \le 54$, $m(16,2) \le 63$, and [36] states $m(11,2) \le 41$, $m(13,2) \le 51$, $m(17,2) \le 63$.

As rigorously analyzed in [40], the lower bound $m(k,q) \ge (q+1)(k-1)$ (see Theorem 2(a)) cannot be attained if k is sufficiently large since the minimum distance $d \ge (k-1)(q-1) + 1 = k$ (see Theorem 2(b)) cannot be attained with equality for n = (q+1)(k-1); c.f. [36, Theorem 4].

Indeed, the data at www.codetables.de on possible minimum distances of $[n,k]_2$ -codes implies $m(9,2) \ge 26$, $m(10,2) \ge 28$, $m(11,2) \ge 31$, $m(12,2) \ge 34$, $m(13,2) \ge 39$, $m(14,2) \ge 41$, $m(15,2) \ge 45$, $m(16,2) \ge 47$, and $m(17,2) \ge 51$. We remark that [40] also contains theoretical proofs for m(k,2) > 3(k-1) for $k \in \{5,7,8,9,11,13\}$.

k	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
m(k,2)	1	3	6	9	13	15	20	24	26
k	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
m(k,2)	28 - 29	31 - 35	34 - 38	39 - 43	41 - 48	45 - 52	47 - 56	51 - 62	

Table 2: Bounds for m(k, 2) = m(k, 2; 1) for $k \leq 17$.

Here we determine m(7,2) = 20, m(8,2) = 24, and m(9,2) = 26, as well as full classifications of all codes attaining m(k,2) for $k \leq 7$ and those attaining

³We remark that Δ -divisible linear codes spanned by codewords of weight Δ have been completely classified in [31].

⁴The authors of [38] have determined m(7,2) = 20 and $m(8,2) \le 24$ via ILP computations – personal communication.

m(9,2). For $10 \le m \le 17$ we give constructions improving the upper bounds for m(k,2), see Table 2.

For $k \leq 4$ the attaining examples are unique up to equivalence and have nice geometric descriptions, i.e., the corresponding strong blocking sets are given by a point, a line, a plane minus a point, and a hyperbolic quadric. Theoretical uniqueness proofs are pretty simple for $k \leq 3$ and for k = 4 we refer to [41]. Alternatively we can describe the example for k = 4 as the union of three disjoint lines.⁵ The next value m(5,2) = 13 is attained by exactly two non-equivalent codes given e.g. by generator matrices

The corresponding weight enumerators and orders of the automorphism groups are given by $1 + 8x^5 + 8x^6 + 4x^7 + 7x^8 + 4x^9$, $1 + 6x^5 + 12x^6 + 4x^7 + 3x^8 + 6x^9$ and 8, 48, respectively. For m(6, 2) = 15 there is again a unique example given e.g. by the generator matrix

($\begin{array}{c} 111111100100000\\ 000111110010000\\ 01100110$	
	$\begin{array}{c} 10001110100100\\ 100011101000100\\ 001110101000010\\ 011010110000010\\ \end{array}$	J

of a BCH code, see [35]. This code has weight enumerator $1 + 30x^6 + 15x^8 + 18x^{10}$ and an automorphism group of order 360. For a description of this code as the concatenation of two codes we refer to [5].

We remark that all above extremal codes meet the bounds for the minimum weight $w_{\min} \ge (k-1)(q-1) + 1 = k$ (see Theorem 2(b)) and the maximum weight $w_{\max} \le n - k + 1$ (see Theorem 2(c)). Using these bounds we have applied the software LinCode for the enumeration of linear codes [32] to determine m(7,2) = 20 and m(8,2) = 24. For k = 7 there are 33 non-equivalent extremal codes (all with $w_{\min} = 7$ and $w_{\max} = 14$). Generator matrices for those with

⁵A sketch of a direct uniqueness proof is given as follows. The standard equations for a projective $[n, 4]_2$ code with minimum weight 4 and maximum weight n - 3 yield $n \ge 9$ and weight enumerator $1 + 9x^4 + 6x^6$ for n = 9. Thus, the complement is a 2-divisible projective code of length 6 and dimension k, which has to be the union of two disjoint lines, see e.g. [42, Proposition 17].



/111111110000100000 / /11111

more than eight automorphisms are given by

We remark that there are 88010 minimal $[22, 7, 8]_2$ -codes. None of them can be extended to a minimal $[23, 8, 8]_2$ -code. There are e.g. 2778120 minimal $[22, 6, 8]_2$ -codes. Due to the large number of subcodes we have not enumerated all extensions. So far we have enumerated 2459606 minimal $[23, 7, 8]_2$ and 31994 minimal $[24, 8, 8]_2$ non-isomorphic codes. One example is given by the generator matrix



with weight enumerator $1 + 18x^8 + 30x^9 + 30x^{10} + 30x^{11} + 22x^{12} + 42x^{13} + 42x^{14} + 26x^{15} + 15x^{16}$ and an automorphism group of order 6. (There is also one example with an automorphism group of order 18.) We remark that most of the examples satisfy $w_{\min} = 8$, $w_{\max} = 17$, and all intermediate weights occur. Another example, that is 2-divisible, is given by the generator matrix

/	1111111111110001000000 \
	000000011111111101000000
	000111100011101100100000
	001011100101110100010000
	011101100110110000001000
	001110111101011100000100
	001001101100001100000010
١	10110001110010000000001 /

and has weight enumerator $1 + 28x^8 + 60x^{10} + 72x^{12} + 68x^{14} + 27x^{16}$. So far, we found 258 such non-isomorphic examples.

For dimension k = 9 we have slightly changed our algorithmic approach. Using the fact that adding a parity bit to a binary code yields a 2-divisible (also called even) code, we have enumerated all 2-divisible minimal $[n,9]_2$ -codes with $n \leq 27$. It turns out that there are exactly 5 such non-isomorphic codes with length n = 27 and none with a strictly smaller length. If C is a minimal $[n,9]_2$ -code that is not even, that adding a parity bit yields an even minimal $[n+1,9]_2$ -code. Inverting this operation, we have deleted a column of the above five codes in all possible ways and obtained 34 non-isomorphic $[26, 9, 9]_2$ -codes of which exactly 4 are minimal, i.e., we have m(9, 2) = 26. One example is given by



with weight enumerator $1 + 32x^9 + 62x^{10} + 64x^{11} + 84x^{12} + 64x^{13} + 44x^{14} + 64x^{15} + 43x^{16} + 32x^{17} + 22x^{18}$ and an automorphism group of order 16.

For dimension k = 10 we remark that [39, Section II.A] reports an example verifying $m(10,2) \leq 30$. The idea was to puncture a 4-divisible (cyclic) minimal [31, 10, 12]₂ code. In Section 3 we have determined all 4-divisible minimal [31, 10, 12]₂ codes. There are exactly two such non-isomorphic codes and also two non-isomorphic puncturings with generator matrices



The codes both have an automorphism group of order five and weight enumerator $1 + 120x^{11} + 190x^{12} + 272x^{15} + 255x^{16} + 120x^{19} + 66x^{20}$.

In order to construct small minimal codes in dimensions 11 and 12 we consider a geometric construction. If M is a multiset of points and Q is a point in PG(v - 1q), where $v \ge 2$, then we can construct a multiset M_Q by projection trough Q, that is the multiset image under the map $P \mapsto \langle P, Q \rangle / Q$ setting $M_Q(L/Q) = M(L) - M(Q)$ for every line $L \ge P$ in PG(v - 1, q). We directly verify the following properties:

Lemma 10. Let M be a strong blocking multiset PG(k-1,q), where $k \ge 2$, and let M_Q arise from M by projection through a point Q. Then we have $\#M_Q = \#M - M(Q)$, the span of M_Q has dimension k-1, and M_Q is a strong blocking multiset.

By M' we denote the set of points that have positive multiplicity in M_Q , so that also M' is a strong blocking (multi-)set in $PG(k-1,q)/Q \cong PG(k-2,q)$, i.e., we can reduce points with multiplicity larger than one to multiplicity one. So, starting from a minimal $[n, k]_q$ -code C we consider the corresponding multiset

of points M, apply projection through a point Q, reduce point multiplicities to obtain M', and then consider the corresponding minimal $[\#M', k]_q$ -code C'.

As an example we consider the binary code

/	1111110010000	١
	0001111101000	١
	1110010100100	
	0010101100010	
Ι	0101010100001	Ϊ

attaining m(5,2) = 13. Choosing Q as the first column of the generator matrix gives the code C' with generator matrix

$$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 001111101\\001100110\\010101100\\101010100\end{smallmatrix}\right)$$

which is a representation of the unique code attaining m(4, 2) = 9, i.e., the union of three disjoint lines. In our examples the lines through column 1 that contain at least three points (which is the maximum for q = 2 and projective codes) are given by the triples of column indices (1, 2, 13), (1, 3, 12), and (1, 9, 11). Also choosing the point Q as the second column yields a minimal $[9, 4]_2$ -code, while all other columns yield (minimal) codes of larger lengths. For projective binary codes or point sets M in PG(k-1, 2) the geometric description of the cardinality of M' equals #M - 1 minus the number of full lines through Q. I.e., if Q equals the first or the second column, then there are exactly three full lines through Q, which is the maximum since $m(4, 2) \ge 9$. If Q equals the last column then there is unique full line through Q and there are exactly two full lines through Q in all other cases.

Applying projection to the second non-isomorphic code attaining m(5, 2) = 13yields minimal $[10, 4]_2$ - and a minimal $[12, 4]_2$ -code. Applying projection to the unique minimal $[9, 4]_2$ -code yields the unique minimal $[6, 3]_2$ -code in all cases. This continues for dimension three and two, as can be easily seen from the geometric description of the extremal point sets. Applying projection to the unique minimal $[15, 6]_2$ -code yields minimal $[13, 5]_2$ -codes in all cases (which all have automorphism groups of order 48, i.e. are equivalent to second non-isomorphic $[13, 5]_2$ -code). We remark that in [36, Table I] the example for a minimal $[13, 5]_2$ code was described as "omit coordinates 1,6 from" the (unique) minimal $[15, 6]_2$ code. In the same vein a minimal $[29, 9]_2$ -code was constructed from a minimal $[31, 10]_2$ -code. We remark that applying projection to the minimal $[26, 9]_2$ -code



gives minimal $[n, 8]_2$ -codes for $n \in \{24, 25\}$. This phenomenon also occurs for field sizes larger than 2.

The inversion of the projection transformation gives rise to an integer linear programming formulation to search for minimal codes of small length. Starting with the first minimal $[30, 10]_2$ code let us find the following minimal $[35, 11]_2$ code with generator matrix



weight enumerator $1+19x^{11}+83x^{12}+142x^{13}+118x^{14}+125x^{15}+194x^{16}+296x^{17}+356x^{18}+237x^{19}+141x^{20}+134x^{21}+102x^{22}+67x^{23}+29x^{24}+4x^{25}$ and a trivial automorphism group. Applying the approach again yields the following minimal $[40, 12]_2$ code with generator matrix



weight enumerator $1 + 21x^{12} + 70x^{13} + 120x^{14} + 173x^{15} + 183x^{16} + 261x^{17} + 408x^{18} + 493x^{19} + 560x^{20} + 521x^{21} + 408x^{22} + 319x^{23} + 240x^{24} + 167x^{25} + 88x^{26} + 39x^{27} + 19x^{28} + 5x^{29}$ and a trivial automorphism group. We remark that both ILP computations were aborted before finishing.

For larger dimensions the most successful approaches are based on our notion of generalized circulant matrices and corresponding computer searches. We state the obtained examples in the remaining part of this section. The generator matrices of a 2-divisible minimal $[29, 10]_2$ and a minimal $[35, 11]_2$ -code are given by



The latter code arises from a generalized circulant matrix of a non-minimal $[35, 12]_2$ -code by removing the first row. A minimal $[39, 12]_2$ -code can be obtained from the following generalized circulant matrix of type $(3^3, 3^{13}, 3)$:

A minimal $[43, 13]_2$ -code can be obtained from the following generalized circulant matrix of type $(1^{1}6^{2}, 1^{1}6^{7}, 6)$:

/	100000	000000	0 101000	101000	111010	111000	100000	
ſ	010000	000000	0 010100	010100	011101	011100	010000	Í.
	000100	000000	0 000101	000101	010111	000111	000100	
	000010	000000	0 100010	100010	101011	100011	000010	l
	000001	000000	0 010001	010001	110101	110001	000001	l
	000000	100000	0 110101	000001	010110	100000	111100	L
	000000	010000	0 111010	100000	001011	010000	011110	L
	000000	001000	0 1011101	010000	1100101	001000	1001111	L
	000000	000010	0 010111	000100	011001	000010	110011	l
l	000000	000001	0 101011	000010	101100	000001	111001	
1	000000	000000	1 000000	111111	111111	000000	111111/	

The blocks of width or length 1 might also be described by generalizing the notion of a bordered circulant matrix, see e.g. [19, Chapter 16]. A minimal [56, 16]₂-code can be obtained from the following generalized circulant matrix of type $(8^2, 8^7, 8)$:

1	10000000	00000000	01100000	01011000	01001000	01100011	01000111	
	01000000	00000000	00110000	00101100	00100100	10110001	10100011	
	00100000	00000000	00011000	00010110	00010010	11011000	11010001	
	00010000	00000000	00001100	00001011	00001001	01101100	11101000	
	00001000	00000000	00000110	10000101	10000100	00110110	01110100	
	00000100	00000000	00000011	11000010	01000010	00011011	00111010	
	00000010	00000000	10000001	01100001	00100001	10001101	00011101	
	00000001	00000000	11000000	10110000	10010000	11000110	10001110	
	00000000	10000000	01110010	11111101	11110010	01101010	11100101	
	00000000	01000000	00111001	111111110	01111001	00110101	11110010	
	00000000	00100000	10011100	01111111	10111100	10011010	01111001	
	00000000	00010000	01001110	10111111	01011110	01001101	10111100	
	00000000	00001000	00100111	11011111	00101111	10100110	01011110	
	00000000	00000100	10010011	11101111	10010111	01010011	00101111	
	00000000	00000010	11001001	11110111	11001011	10101001	10010111	
١	00000000	00000001	11100100	11111011	11100101	11010100	11001011/	

For minimal $[38, 12]_{2}$ -, $[48, 14]_{2}$ -, $[52, 15]_{2}$ -, and $[62, 17]_{2}$ -codes we obtained the generator matrices

1	10000000000011	1110 111110	110000 10	0000 10	
	01000000000 011	1111 011111	$011000 \ 01$	$0000\ 01$	
	00100000000 101	1111 101111	001100 00	1000 10	
	000100000000 110	0111 110111	000110 00	0100 01	
	000010000000 111	1011 111011	000011 00	0010 10	
	000001000000 111	1101 111101	100001 00	0001 01	
	000000100000 100	0001 111110	010101 11	0100 01	,
	00000010000 110	0000 011111	101010 01	1010 10	
	000000001000 011	1000 101111	010101 00	1101 01	
	000000000100 001	1100 110111	101010 10	0110 10	
	00000000010 000)110 111011	010101 01	0011 01	
١	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	$0011 \ 111101$	101010 10	1001 10	



respectively. Here we did not decompose the preceding unit matrix into blocks and only the submatrix without the last block of columns is obtained as a generalized circulant matrix. The columns from the last blocks are carefully chosen step by step in order to turn the linear code into a minimal one. To this end we present some measure of distance to a minimal linear code in the subsequent subsection.

Further examples of minimal $[35, 11]_2$ - and $[48, 14]_2$ -codes are given by

and

/	1000000000000000000000000000000000000	1111111	111111	111111	111111	000000	0011 \
	01000000000000	1111110	111010	110100	111000	101000	0101
	00100000000000	0111111 (011101	011010	011100	010100	0101
	0001000000000	101111	101110	001101	001110	001010	0101
	00001000000000	110111 (010111	100110	000111	000101	0101
	00000100000000	111011	101011	010011	100011	100010	0101
	000001000000	111101	110101	101001	110001	010001	0101
	0000001000000	000111	100110	000010	101000	110111	1010
	0000000100000	100011 (010011	000001	010100	111011	1010
	00000000010000	110001	101001	100000	001010	111101	1010
	00000000001000	111000	110100	010000	000101	111110	1010
	0000000000100	011100 (011010	001000	100010	011111	1010
	00000000000010	001110 (001101	000100	010001	101111	1010
ſ	00000000000001	1111111	111111	000000	000000	1111111	0111/

4.1 Acute sets

Around 1950 Paul Erdős conjectured that given more than 2^d points in \mathbb{R}^d there are three of them determining an obtuse angle, i.e. an angle strictly greater than $\pi/2$. This conjecture is indeed true, see [43], [44, Chapter 17], and an example is given by a *d*-dimensional hypercube which contains many angles of degree $\pi/2$. A set of points in \mathbb{R}^d is acute, if any three points from this set form an acute angle, i.e. strictly less than $\pi/2$. Such so-called *acute sets* can have exponential size [45] and the maximum possible sizes of acute sets in $\{0, 1\}^d$ up to dimension d = 10 are stated in A089676 of the "The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences" (OEIS). We say that a set $S \subseteq \{0, 1\}^d$ is linear if it is linearly closed when interpreted over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Lemma 11. (Cf. [46]) Let C be an $[n, k]_2$ -code. The codewords of C form an acute set iff C is minimal.

Proof. We associate C with the set $S \subseteq \{0,1\}^k \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ of codewords of C and only use C in the following. Since the points are are subset of the k-dimensional unit cube the angle between any triple of points z, b, c is at most $\pi/2$. W.l.o.g. we assume that z is the zero vector. So, the angle between b, z, c at z = 0 is $\pi/2$ iff the scalar product vanishes, i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i c_i = 0$.

Now consider $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ with $\operatorname{supp}(b) \subset \operatorname{supp}(a)$ and set c = a + b, so that $\operatorname{supp}(b) \cap \operatorname{supp}(c) = \emptyset$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i c_i = 0$. So, if C is acute it is also minimal. For the other direction we observe that $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i c_i = 0$ implies $\operatorname{supp}(b) \cap \operatorname{supp}(c) = \emptyset$.

Up to dimension d = 4 the maximum size of an acute set in $\{0, 1\}^d$ is indeed attained by a binary linear code. Up to isomorphism there are exactly five acute sets in $\{0, 1\}^9$ with maximum cardinality 16 – only one of them is linear. In $\{0, 1\}^{10}$ the number of non-isomorphic acute sets of maximum possible cardinality 17 is 655, clearly none of them linear. For dimension 11 we performed a partial search finding 17 non-isomorphic acute sets of size 23 and two of size 24.

Additionally we have checked that all acute sets in $\{0, 1\}^9$ with cardinality at least 10 have extensions to 11-dimensional acute sets with cardinality at most 20 and all acute sets in $\{0, 1\}^{10}$ with cardinality 17 have extensions to 11-dimensional acute sets with cardinality at most 19. There are more than 60 000 acute sets with cardinality 16 in $\{0, 1\}^{10}$. Using an integer linear programming formulation we have checked that the cardinality of all 11-dimensional extensions of acute sets in $\{0, 1\}^9$ with cardinality 8 or 9 is upper bounded by 28. Thus, the maximum cardinality of an acute set in $\{0, 1\}^{11}$ is upper bounded by 28.

If we build up a linear code column by column or by adding full column blocks of circulant matrices, then our intermediate codes are not minimal and we need some kind of measurement for the distance to a minimal code in our heuristic searches. To this end we use the number of angles with value $\pi/2$.

For additional relations of minimal codes to other structures we refer to [47].

Acknowledgments

The first author would like to thank independent programmer Olga Briginets for her help in writing computer programs. The second author thanks Gianira Alfarano, Anurag Bishnoi, Jozefien D'haeseleer, Dion Gijswijt, Alessandro Neri, Sven Polak, and Martin Scotti for many helpful remarks on an earlier version of this paper, which originally started to investigate the so-called trifferent codes, see [6].

References

- A. Ashikhmin, A. Barg, Minimal vectors in linear codes, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 44:2010–2017, 1998.
- [2] G. N. Alfarano, M. Borello, A. Neri, A. Ravagnani, Three combinatorial perspectives on minimal codes, SIAM Journal on Discrete Mathematics, 36:461–489, 2022.
- [3] S. Kurz, Divisible codes, arXiv preprint 2112.11763, 2021.
- [4] G. N. Alfarano, M. Borello, A. Neri, Outer strong blocking sets, The Electronic Journal of Combinatorics, 31:1–28, 2024.
- [5] D. Bartoli, M. Borello, Small strong blocking sets by concatenation, SIAM Journal on Discrete Mathematics, 37:65–82, 2023.

- [6] S. Kurz, Trifferent codes with small lengths, *Examples and Counterexamples*, 5:100139, 2024.
- [7] S. Mesnager, A. Sınak, Several classes of minimal linear codes with few weights from weakly regular plateaued functions, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 66:2296–2310, 2019.
- [8] Z. Shi, F.-W. Fu, Several families of q-ary minimal linear codes with $w_{\min}/w_{\max} \le (q-1)/q$, Discrete Mathematics, 343:111840, 2020.
- [9] M. Shi, X. Li, Two classes of optimal p-ary few-weight codes from down-sets, Discrete Applied Mathematics, 290:60–67, 2021.
- [10] S. Dodunekov, J. Simonis, Codes and projective multisets, *The Electronic Journal of Combinatorics*, 5:1–23, 1998.
- [11] G. N. Alfarano, M. Borello, A. Neri, A geometric characterization of minimal codes and their asymptotic performance, Advances in Mathematics of Communications, 16:115–133, 2022.
- [12] C. Tang, Y. Qiu, Q. Liao, Z. Zhou, Full characterization of minimal linear codes as cutting blocking sets, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 67:3690–3700, 2021.
- [13] M. Kiermaier, S. Kurz, On the lengths of divisible codes, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 66:4051–4060, 2020.
- [14] H. N. Ward, Divisible codes, Archiv der Mathematik, 36:485–494, 1981.
- [15] T. Héger, Z. L. Nagy, Short minimal codes and covering codes via strong blocking sets in projective spaces, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 68:881–890, 2021.
- [16] S. Ling, P. Solé, On the algebraic structure of quasi-cyclic codes. I. Finite fields, IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, 47:2751–2760, 2001.
- [17] I. Kra, S. R. Simanca, On circulant matrices, Notices of the AMS, 59:368–377, 2012.
- [18] P. Heijnen, H. Van Tilborg, T. Verhoeff, Some new binary, quasi-cyclic codes, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 44:1994–1996, 1998.
- [19] F. J. MacWilliams, N. J. A. Sloane, The theory of error-correcting codes, Volume 16. Elsevier, 1977.
- [20] A. E. Brouwer, T. Verhoeff, An updated table of minimum-distance bounds for binary linear codes, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 39:662–677, 1993.

- [21] M. Esmaeili, S. Yari, Generalized quasi-cyclic codes: structural properties and code construction, Applicable Algebra in Engineering, Communication and Computing, 20:159–173, 2009.
- [22] C. Güneri, F. Ozbudak, B. Ozkaya, E. Saçıkara, Z. Sepasdar, P. Sole, Structure and performance of generalized quasi-cyclic codes, *Finite Fields and Their Applications*, 47:183–202, 2017.
- [23] I. Muchtadi-Alamsyah, Irwansyah, A. Barra, Generalized quasi-cyclic codes with arbitrary block lengths, Bulletin of the Malaysian Mathematical Sciences Society, 45(3):1383–1407, 2022.
- [24] T. A. Gulliver, M. Harada, Classification of extremal double circulant formally selfdual even codes, *Designs, Codes and Cryptography*, 11:25–35, 1997.
- [25] M. Braun, A. Kohnert, A. Wassermann, Optimal linear codes from matrix groups, IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, 51(12):4247–4251, 2005.
- [26] S. Bouyuklieva, On the structure of the linear codes with a given automorphism, Advances in Mathematics of Communications, 18:535–548, 2024.
- [27] M. Grassl, Bounds on the minimum distance of linear codes and quantum codes, Online available at http://www.codetables.de, 2007, [20-Jun-2025].
- [28] C. Yu, S. Zhu, Construction of new linear codes with good parameters from group rings and skew group rings, *Discrete Mathematics*, 348:114349, 2025.
- [29] W. O. Alltop, A method for extending binary linear codes (corresp.), IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, 30:871–872, 1984.
- [30] A. Bonisoli, Every equidistant linear code is a sequence of dual Hamming codes, Ars Combinatoria, 18:181–186, 1984.
- [31] M. Kiermaier, S. Kurz, Classification of Δ-divisible linear codes spanned by codewords of weight Δ, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 69:3544–3551, 2023.
- [32] I. Bouyukliev, S. Bouyuklieva, S. Kurz, Computer classification of linear codes, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 67:7807–7814, 2021.
- [33] R. Calderbank, W. M. Kantor, The geometry of two-weight codes, Bulletin of the London Mathematical Society, 18:97–122, 1986.
- [34] J. Bierbrauer, Y. Edel, A family of 2-weight codes related to BCH-codes, Journal of Combinatorial Designs, 5:391–396, 1997.
- [35] G. D. Cohen, A. Lempel, Linear intersecting codes, *Discrete Mathematics*, 56:35–43, 1985.

- [36] N. J. Sloane, Covering arrays and intersecting codes, Journal of Combinatorial Designs, 1:51–63, 1993.
- [37] R. dela Cruz, S. Kurz, On the maximum number of minimal codewords, *Discrete Mathematics*, 344:112510, 2021.
- [38] A. Bishnoi, J. D'haeseleer, D. Gijswijt, A. Potukuchi, Blocking sets, minimal codes and trifferent codes, *Journal of the London Mathematical Society*, 109:e12938, 2024.
- [39] G. D. Cohen, G. Zémor, Intersecting codes and independent families, *IEEE Trans*actions on Information Theory, 40:1872–1881, 1994.
- [40] M. Scotti, On the lower bound for the length of minimal codes, Discrete Mathematics, 347:113676, 2024.
- [41] V. Smaldore, All minimal [9,4]₂-codes are hyperbolic quadrics, *Examples and Counterexamples*, 3:100097, 2023.
- [42] T. Körner, S. Kurz, Lengths of divisible codes with restricted column multiplicities, Advances in Mathematics of Communications, 18:505–534, 2024.
- [43] L. Danzer, B. Grünbaum, Uber zwei Probleme bezüglich konvexer Körper von P. Erdös und von V. L. Klee, *Mathematische Zeitschrift*, 79:95–99, 1962.
- [44] M. Aigner, G. M. Ziegler, *Proofs from THE BOOK*, Springer, 6th edition, 2018.
- [45] B. Gerencsér, V. Harangi, Acute sets of exponentially optimal size, Discrete & Computational Geometry, 62:775–780, 2019.
- [46] H. Randriambololona, On metric convexity, the discrete Hahn-Banach theorem, separating systems and sets of points forming only acute angles, *International Journal* of Information and Coding Theory, 4:159–169, 2017.
- [47] M. Scotti, Recent advances on minimal codes, arXiv preprint 2411.11882, 2024.