

Vector Representation of Descendant Sets and Binary Fingerprinting Codes

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Abstract

Let S be a finite set of q symbols and $C \subseteq S^n$. $C(i)$ is the set of S consisting of the elements appear in the i -th coordinate of C , $C(i) = \{c_i \mid (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n) \in C\}$. The decedent set of C , $desc(C)$, is the set of all possible n -tuples of S^n such that the elements at the i -th coordinate of $desc(C)$ are from $C(i)$.

$$desc(C) = C(1) \times C(2) \times \dots \times C(n)$$

The n -tuples of C are called *parents*. There are several codes defined by using descendant sets. Here we consider a code called *t-separable code*. It is a set of n -tuples $\mathcal{C} \subset S^n$ satisfying $desc(C) \neq desc(D)$ for any $C, D \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ such that $C \neq D$ and $|C|, |D| \leq t$. In the case $|S| = 2$ and $t = 2$, we discuss a way to represent descendant sets, basic properties of descendant sets and constructions of t -separable codes, etc.

1 Introduction

Let S be a finite set of q symbols and $C \subset S^n$. $C(i)$ is the set of S consisting of the elements appear in the i -th coordinate of C .

$$C(i) = \{c_i \mid (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n) \in C\}$$

The decedent set of C denoted by $desc(C)$ is the set of all possible n -tuples of S^n such that the elements at the i -th coordinate of $desc(C)$ are from $C(i)$.

$$desc(C) = C(1) \times C(2) \times \dots \times C(n)$$

The n -tuples of C are called *parents*.

Example 1.1 Let $S = \{0, 1\}$, $C = \{(1, 0, 1, 0), (1, 1, 0, 0)\}$, then $desc(C) = \{1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0\} = \{(1, 0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 1, 0), (1, 1, 0, 0), (1, 1, 1, 0)\}$.

There are several codes defined by descendant sets which are used in digital fingerprinting. t-Frameproof code and t-secure frameproof code were defined by D. Boneh and J. Shaw (1998) [2], t-identifying parent property code by H. D. L. Hollmann, J. H. van Lint, J-P. Linnartz and L. M. G. M. Tolhuizen (1998) [12], t-traceability code by B. Chor, A. Fiat and M. Noor [7], t-expanded separable code by M. Cheng et. al., etc. We call these generally *fingerprinting codes*. The underlying problems of the fingerprinting code can be seen in [2], [8], [11], [16]. Combinatorial approaches to analysis and construction of fingerprinting codes are seen in [1], [15].

Here we consider a code called *t-separable code*. It is a set of n -tuples $\mathcal{C} \subset S^n$ satisfying $\text{desc}(C) \neq \text{desc}(D)$ for any $C, D \subset \mathcal{C}$ such that $C \neq D$ and $|C|, |D| \leq t$. We denote it $t-SC(n, M, |S|)$, where $M = |\mathcal{C}|$ is the number of code words.

The code is defined by M. Cheng and Y. Miao (2012) [5], and it is the most basic code because every other codes mentioned above have to satisfy the condition of t-separable code[13], which means these fingerprinting codes are all subsets of t-separable codes.

M. Cheng and Y. Miao [5] have shown an upper bound on the size of 2-separable codes: If there exists a 2- $SC(n, M, q)$ then

$$M \leq q^{n-1} + q(q-1)/2.$$

Note that F. Gao and G. Ge [10] recently made better bound:

$$M \leq \frac{3}{2}q^{2\lceil \frac{n}{3} \rceil} - \frac{1}{2}q^{\lceil \frac{n}{3} \rceil}.$$

We discuss here the simplest case of t-separable codes, that is, the case of $|S| = 2$ and $t = 2$.

2 Descendant Vector

Constructions of the codes defined by descendant sets are very difficult problems. The main reason of the difficulty is caused by a set theoretical definition of descendant sets. Here we represent a descendant set by a vector over an algebra.

Let $S = \{0, 1\}$. The set of n -tuples of S deals with the set of n -dimensional vectors over the finite field of order 2, F_2^n .

Definition 2.1 For any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in F_2^n$,

$$dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{x} * \mathbf{y} + \alpha f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}),$$

where $*$, $+$ are multiplication and addition over F_2 , respectively. $\alpha f(0) = 0, \alpha f(1) = \alpha$ and α is an indeterminate. Apply the operations for each coordinate of F_2^n .

Example 2.2 $\mathbf{x} = (1, 0, 1, 0), \mathbf{y} = (1, 1, 0, 0),$

$$\text{desc}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \{1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0\},$$

$$dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (1, \alpha, \alpha, 0)$$

If the set of symbols of S which appears in the i -th coordinate $C(i)$ is $\{0, 1\}$, then the i -th position of descendant vector turns out α . For the descendant vector of parents $C \subseteq F_2^n$ such that $|C| \geq 3$, we need to define an algebra over the set $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha + 1\}$.

Definition 2.3

$$1 * \alpha = \alpha * 1 = 1 \text{ and } \alpha * \alpha = \alpha$$

From the definition, we have the following multiplication table:

*	0	1	α	$\alpha + 1$
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
α	0	1	α	$\alpha + 1$
$\alpha + 1$	0	0	$\alpha + 1$	$\alpha + 1$

The addition on \mathcal{A} is naturally computed as polynomials over F_2 . In deed, the algebra with the multiplication and addition on \mathcal{A} is isomorphic to the ring $F_2 \times F_2$ with the correspondence $0 = (0, 0), 1 = (0, 1), \alpha = (1, 1), \alpha + 1 = (1, 0)$.

Now we define the descendant vector for parents of general size.

Definition 2.4 Suppose $dv(C)$ is defined for a subset C of F_2^n . Let $\mathbf{x} \in F_2^n \setminus C$,

$$dv(C \cup \{\mathbf{x}\}) := dv(C) * \mathbf{x} + \text{alf}(dv(C) + \mathbf{x}),$$

where

$$\text{alf}(z) = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{if } z = 1 \\ z & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for any $z \in \mathcal{A}$

Lemma 2.5 For any $d \in \{0, 1, \alpha\}$ and $x \in \{0, 1\}$, $d * x + \text{alf}(d + x) \in \{0, 1, \alpha\}$.

Proof When $d = 0$ or 1 , it is obvious. We consider the case $d = \alpha$ and $x \in \{0, 1\}$. If $d = \alpha$ and $x = 0$, then $\alpha * 0 + \text{alf}(\alpha + 0) = 0 + \alpha = \alpha$. If $d = \alpha$ and $x = 1$, then $\alpha * 1 + \text{alf}(\alpha + 1) = 1 + (\alpha + 1) = \alpha$ \square

From this lemma, descendant vector does not contain $\alpha + 1$, that is $dv(C) \in \{0, 1, \alpha\}^n$ for any $C \subseteq F_2^n$.

Lemma 2.6

$$dv(\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\} \cup \{\mathbf{z}\}) = dv(\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}\} \cup \{\mathbf{y}\})$$

Consider possible combinations of i -th coordinate of $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$. The possible combinations of 0, 1 are only 8. It is not difficult check all 8 cases. The lemma implies the definition of descendant vector is well-defined.

Example 2.7

$$\begin{aligned} dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= (1, \alpha, \alpha, 0) \\ \mathbf{z} &= (0, 1, 0, 0) \\ dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) * \mathbf{z} &= (0, 1, 0, 0) \\ alf(dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z}) &= (\alpha, \alpha + 1, \alpha, 0) \\ dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) &= (\alpha, \alpha, \alpha, 0) \end{aligned}$$

$C(i)$ is the set of symbols which appear in i -th coordinate of each $\mathbf{x} \in C$, for any $C \subseteq F_2^n$. $C(i)$ is $\{0\}, \{1\}$, or $\{0, 1\}$. Each coordinate of a descendant vector has an element 0, 1 or α which corresponds to $\{0\}, \{1\}$, or $\{0, 1\}$ of $C(i)$, respectively. Therefore, we have the following theorem:

Theorem 2.8 For any subsets $C, D \subseteq F_2^n$, $desc(C) = desc(D)$ if and only if $dv(C) = dv(D)$.

3 Basic Properties

The theorem 2.8 means that any descendant set is represented by a vector on the algebra A . Therefore, the set theoretical operations on descendant sets can be replaced by algebraic operations on A . We see basic properties of the correspondences. Those may be useful for constructions of fingerprinting codes.

Lemma 3.1 For any $C, D \subseteq F_2^n$, $desc(C) \cap desc(D) = \phi$ if and only if there exists an element 1 of S as a coordinate in the vector $dv(C) + dv(D)$.

The proof is seen in [9].

Example 3.2

$$\begin{aligned} dv(C) &= (1, 0, \alpha, \alpha, \alpha, 0) \\ dv(D) &= (1, 0, 1, 0, \alpha, 1) \\ dv(C) + dv(D) &= (0, 0, \alpha + 1, \alpha, 0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 3.3 For any $\mathbf{x} \in F_2^n$ and $C \subset F_2^n$, the followings are equivalent:

1. $\mathbf{x} \in \text{desc}(C)$,
2. there exists no element 1 in $dv(C) + \mathbf{x}$,
3. $dv(C) = dv(C \cup \{\mathbf{x}\})$.

The proof is seen in [9].

Lemma 3.4 For any $\mathbf{x} \in F_2^n$ and $C \subset F_2^n$, if $\mathbf{x} \in \text{desc}(C)$ then $dv(C) * \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$.

The proof is seen in [9]. I

Lemma 3.5 For any $C, D \subset F_2^n$, $C \neq D$, $\text{desc}(C) \subset \text{desc}(D)$ if and only if the following conditions are satisfied:

- $dv(C) * dv(D) = dv(C)$ and
- $dv(C) + dv(D)$ contains no element 1.

The proof is seen in [9].

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a (0,1)-vector. The function $\text{supp}(\mathbf{x})$ is often used as the following definition:

$$\text{supp}(\mathbf{x}) = \{i \mid x_i = 1, 1 \leq i \leq n\}.$$

Then, $\mathbf{x} * \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$ implies $\text{supp}(\mathbf{x}) \subseteq \text{supp}(\mathbf{y})$. Here we denote the relation $\mathbf{x} \preceq \mathbf{y}$ if $\mathbf{x} * \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$ for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{A}^n$

Lemma 3.6 For any $C, D \subset F_2^n$, when $C \cap D \neq \phi$, then the following holds:

$$dv(C \cap D) \preceq dv(C) * dv(D).$$

The proof is seen in [9]. **Proof**

Example 3.7

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \{(1, 0, 1, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0, 1, 0)\} \\ D &= \{(1, 0, 1, 0, 0), (1, 0, 1, 1, 1)\} \\ dv(C) &= (1, 0, \alpha, \alpha, 0) \\ dv(D) &= (1, 0, 1, \alpha, \alpha) \\ dv(C) * dv(D) &= (1, 0, 1, \alpha, 0) \\ dv(C \cap D) &= (1, 0, 1, 0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 3.8 Let $C \subseteq F_2^n$ and $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in F_2^n$.

$$\begin{aligned} dv(C \cup \{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\}) &= dv(C) * dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \text{alf}(dv(C) + dv(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) \\ &= dv(C \cup \{\mathbf{x}\}) * dv(\mathbf{y}) + \text{alf}(dv(C \cup \{\mathbf{x}\}) + dv(\mathbf{y})) \end{aligned}$$

The proof of the lemma can be done by verifying all possible case. Let x_i and y_i be i -th coordinates of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , respectively. The all possible elements are $C(i) = \{0\}, \{1\}$ or $\{0, 1\}$ and $x_i = 0$ or 1 , $y_i = 0$ or 1 . Totally only 12 cases.

Lemma 3.9 For any $C, D \subset F_2^n$,

$$dv(C \cup D) = dv(C) * dv(D) + \text{alf}(dv(C) + dv(D))$$

The proof is seen in [9].

4 Geometrical Constructions of 2-separable codes

Consider that each vector of F_2^n except the zero vector is a point of finite projective geometry $PG(n-1, 2)$. Then for any distinct points $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in F_2^n \setminus \{0\}$, the set of three points $\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\}$ is a line of $PG(n-1, 2)$.

Lemma 4.1 For any four distinct points of $PG(n-1, 2)$, $C_0 = \{\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0\}, C_1 = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1\}$, $dv(C_0) = dv(C_1)$ if and only if $\mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_1 * \mathbf{y}_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1$.

The proof is seen in [9].

Theorem 4.2 For any four points $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1$ of $PG(n-1, 2)$ such that $\{\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0\} \neq \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1\}$, $dv(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = dv(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$ if and only if the followings are satisfied:

- (i) $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{h}$ (which implies $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{d}$) and
- (ii) $\mathbf{d} * \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{d}$ (i.e. $\mathbf{d} \preceq \mathbf{h}$)

Proof If $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 \neq \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1$, clearly $dv(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) \neq dv(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$. Therefore, we consider the case $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1$. Then, from Lemma 4.1,

$$\mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_1 * \mathbf{y}_1 \text{ if and only if } dv(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = dv(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$$

Since $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{d}$ and $\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_1 * \mathbf{y}_1 &= (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{d}) * (\mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d}) \\ &= \mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{d} + \mathbf{y}_0 * \mathbf{d} + \mathbf{d} \\ &= \mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d} * (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d}'), \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{d}' is a vector such that $\mathbf{d} * \mathbf{d}' = \mathbf{d}$. From the equation, $\mathbf{x}_1 * \mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{x}_0 * \mathbf{y}_0$ if and only if $\mathbf{d} * (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d}') = 0$.

The necessary and sufficient condition for $\mathbf{d} * (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d}') = 0$ is $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{d}'$ or $\mathbf{d} * (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0) = \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{d}$ (including the case $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0$).

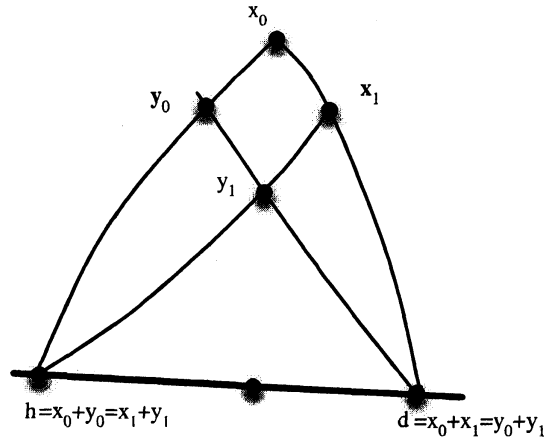


Figure 1:

In the case $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0$:

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{y}_0$$

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0$$

This contradicts $\{\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0\} \neq \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1\}$.

In the case $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{d}'$:

$$\mathbf{d} * (\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}_0) = \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{d}' = \mathbf{d}.$$

Therefore, (i) and (ii) are the necessary and sufficient conditions for $dv(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = dv(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$ \square

A set of four points on a plane, no three of which are collinear, is called a *quadrangle*. Let Q be a quadrangle in a plane of order 2. Then there is exactly one line in the plane which is not incident with any point of Q . The line is called an *external line* to Q . Theorem 4.2 says that if $Q = \{\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1\}$ is a quadrangle and the external line to Q contains two points \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{h} such that $\mathbf{d} \preceq \mathbf{h}$, then the four points Q can not be contained in a $2\text{-SC}(n, M, 2)$.

The lines in $\text{PG}(n-1, 2)$ contains two points \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{h} such that $\mathbf{d} \preceq \mathbf{h}$ play an important role for construction of $2\text{-SC}(n, M, 2)$. We call here such a line an *i-line*. When a line containing the points \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{h} is an *i-line* (i.e. $\mathbf{d} \preceq \mathbf{h}$), the third point $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{d} + \mathbf{h}$ on the line and \mathbf{d} has the relation $\mathbf{p} * \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{0}$, which means $\text{supp}(\mathbf{p}) \cap \text{supp}(\mathbf{d}) = \emptyset$.

Lemma 4.3 Let $\mathcal{C} \subset F_2^n$ be a $2\text{-SC}(n, M, 2)$ not including the zero vector $\mathbf{0}$. $\mathcal{C} \cup \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is a $2\text{-SC}(n, M+1, 2)$ if and only if \mathcal{C} contains no three points on any *i-line*.

The proof is seen in [9].

In the case of $n = 3$, the vectors of F_2^3 except $\mathbf{0}$ correspond to the points of $PG(2,2)$ called Fano plane. In the Fano plane, the line $l = \{(0, 1, 1), (1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1)\}$ is only the non i -line. All the others are i -lines. $D = \{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1), (1, 1, 1)\}$ is the unique quadrangle not meet the line l . Therefore, $D \cup \{\mathbf{0}\}$ or $D \cup \mathbf{p}$, where \mathbf{p} is a point on the line l , are 2-SC(3,5,2), which contain the maximal number of code words.

Consider $PG(n-1,2)$, $n \geq 4$. From Theorem 4.2, we have the following theorem:

Theorem 4.4 *Let \mathcal{C} be a set of points in $PG(n-1,2)$. \mathcal{C} is a 2-separable code if and only if, for each plane \mathcal{P} in $PG(n-1,2)$, the points of $\mathcal{C} \cap \mathcal{P}$ contains*

- no quadrangle or
- a quadrangle Q but the external line to Q is a non i -line.

Corollary 4.5 *Let l, m be lines of $PG(3,2)$ which are not concurrent. Then the 6 points, \mathcal{C} , on the lines are 2-SC(4,6,2). If those two lines are non i -lines then $\mathcal{C} \cup \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is 2-SC(4,7,2).*

Let \mathcal{F} be a set of points in $PG(n-1,2)$. For any two points of \mathcal{F} , if the line passing through the two points is contained in \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{F} is called a *flat*. A d -flat is a flat generated from $d + 1$ independent vectors. If a d -flat contains no i -line, then it is said to be *i -line free d -flat*.

Theorem 4.6 *Let \mathcal{F} be an i -line free d -flat of $PG(n-1,2)$, and \mathcal{W} be a $(d+1)$ -flat including \mathcal{F} . Then the the set of points of $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{W} \setminus \mathcal{F}$ is a 2-SC($n, 2^{d+1}, 2$). Further, $\mathcal{A} \cup \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is a 2-SC($n, 2^{d+1} + 1, 2$).*

The proof is seen in [9].

5 i -line free flats

Theorem 4.6 says if there is a large i -line free d -flat, there exists a 2-separable code with a large number of code words. So it is important to find an i -line free d -flat, and d as large as possible.

In order to find an i -line free d -flats, let's count the number of i -lines.

Lemma 5.1 *Let P be a point of $PG(n-1,2)$. The number of i -lines incident with P is*

$$2^{n-w} + 2^{w-1} - 2,$$

where w is Hamming weight of P .

The proof is seen in [9].

Lemma 5.2 *The number of i -lines in $PG(n-1,2)$ is*

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{3} \sum_{w=1}^n \binom{n}{w} (2^{n-w} + 2^{w-1} - 2) \\ & = (3^n - 2^{n+1} + 1)/2. \end{aligned}$$

The proof is seen in [9].

The number of lines in $PG(n-1,2)$ is $(2^n - 1)(2^{n-1} - 1)/3$. The ratio of i -lines to the all lines in $PG(n-1,2)$ is

$$\frac{3^{n+1} - 3(2^{n+1}) + 3}{(2^n - 2)(2^n - 1)}$$

This reduces exponentially. The ratios are, for examples, 0.85 when $n=3$, 0.58 when $n=5$, 0.16 when $n=10$ and 0.0095 when $n=20$. The trend of ratios suggests there may exist large i -line free flat. We are interested in how large the flats in $PG(n-1,2)$ are.

Here is the i -line free 1-flat in $PG(2,2)$ which is the largest:

$$(1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1)$$

An i -line free 2-flat is the following, which appears in $PG(5,2)$.

$$\begin{aligned} & (1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1) \\ & (0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1) \\ & (1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0) \\ & (1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0) \\ & (0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0) \\ & (1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1) \\ & (0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

From my experiments, there is no i -line free plane in $PG(3,2)$, $PG(4,2)$.

If there exist an i -line free hyperplane in $PG(n-1,2)$, then we can have a 2-SC($n, 2^{n-1} + 1, 2$) which attains the Cheng-Miao Bound. Unfortunately, we have the following result:

Lemma 5.3 (A. Munemasa [14]) *There is no i -line free hyperplane of $PG(n-1, 2)$ for $n \geq 4$.*

The proof is seen in [9].

Lemma 5.4 *Let \mathcal{F} be a linear subspace in F_2^n excluding $\mathbf{0}$. If, for any two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{F}$, $|\text{supp}(\mathbf{x}) \cap \text{supp}(\mathbf{y})| \geq 1$, then \mathcal{F} is i -line free.*

The proof is seen in [9].

Let V be a finite set with v element and \mathcal{B} a collection of k -subsets of V . If $v = 4d - 1, k = 2d$ and $|B \cap B'| = d$ for any $B, B' \in \mathcal{B}$, then the pair (V, \mathcal{B}) is called an *Hadamard design*.

Lemma 5.5 *The incidence matrix of an Hadamard design which is linear on F_2^n is an i -line flat.*

A simplex code is the dual code of the Hamming code of length $2^m - 1, m \geq 2$. It is well known that a simplex code excluding $\mathbf{0}$ is an Hadamard design with the parameters $v = 2^m - 1, k = 2^{m-1}, d = 2^{m-2}$ and it is a d -flat in the $PG(2^m - 2, 2)$.

Example 5.6 *An simplex code (i -line free 2-flat in $PG(6, 2)$)*

$$\begin{aligned} &(0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1) \\ &(0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1) \\ &(0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0) \\ &(1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0) \\ &(1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0) \\ &(1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1) \\ &(1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 5.7 *There exists i -line free (2^{m-2}) -flat in $PG(2^m - 2, 2)$ for any integer $m \geq 2$.*

Let H be an incidence matrix of a Hadamard design with the parameters $v = 2^m - 1, k = 2^{m-1}, d = 2^{m-2}$. An array H' obtained by punctuating at most $d - 1$ coordinates of H is also i -line free flat.

Conjecture 5.8 (A. Munemasa [14]) *If \mathcal{F} is an i -line free flat, then \mathcal{F} is obtained from either of*

- (1) *an simplex code or its subspace,*
- (2) *punctuating some coordinates from (1).*

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