

# An Algorithm for Computing $m$ -Tight Error Linear Complexity of Sequences over $GF(p^m)$ with Period $p^m$

Jianqin Zhou<sup>1,2</sup> and Wei Xiong<sup>1</sup>

(Corresponding author: Jianqin Zhou)

Telecommunication School, Hangzhou Dianzi University, Hangzhou, 310018 China<sup>1</sup>  
 Computer Science School, Anhui University of Technology, Maanshan, 243002 China<sup>2</sup>  
 (Email: zhou9@yahoo.com)

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## Abstract

The linear complexity (LC) of a sequence has been used as a convenient measure of the randomness of a sequence. Based on the theories of linear complexity,  $k$ -error linear complexity, the minimum error and the  $k$ -error linear complexity profile, the notion of  $m$ -tight error linear complexity is presented. An efficient algorithm for computing  $m$ -tight error linear complexity is derived from the algorithm for computing  $k$ -error linear complexity of sequences over  $GF(p^m)$  with period  $p^n$ , where  $p$  is a prime. The validity of the algorithm is shown. The algorithm is also realized with C language, and an example is presented to illustrate the algorithm.

*Keywords:*  $k$ -error linear complexity, period sequence, linear complexity, tight error linear complexity

## 1 Introduction

Among the measures commonly used to measure the complexity of a sequence(S) is its linear complexity  $LC(S)$ , defined as the length of the shortest linear feedback shift register that generates sequence(S). According to the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm [1, 7], if the linear complexity of sequence(S) is  $LC(S)$ , and  $2LC(S)$  consecutive elements of the sequence are known, then we can find the homogeneous linear recurrence relation of the sequence by solving linear equations or B-M algorithm, then the whole sequence is determined. So the linear complexity of key sequence must be large enough to oppugn known plain text attack.

However, a high linear complexity can not necessarily guarantee the sequence is safe. For example, the first period of a binary sequence with period  $n$  is  $S = \overbrace{0, 0, \dots, 0, 1}^n$ , its linear complexity is  $n$ , but the linear complexity declines to 0 when change the last element to 0. The linear complexity of these sequences are unstable, and

these sequences used as key stream are unsafe. Therefore, the linear complexity stability of period sequence is closely related to the unpredictability of the sequence. Not only the linear complexity of period sequence should be large enough, but also the linear complexity stability should be high.

Ding, Xiao and Shan [2] first noted this phenomenon and presented the weight complexity and sphere complexity. Similarly, Stamp and Martin [9] introduced  $k$ -error linear complexity, which is defined to be the smallest linear complexity that can be obtained when any  $k$  or fewer of the symbols of the sequence are changed within one period, and presented the concept of  $k$ -error linear complexity profile. It is known that the sphere complexity defined by Ding, Xiao, and Shan in [2] is earlier than the  $k$ -LC and they are essentially the same (but not completely the same).

The  $k$ -error linear complexity of any sequence can be also calculated by using B-M algorithm repeatedly. But in order to compute the  $k$ -error linear complexity of binary sequences with period  $N$ , this algorithm must be used  $\sum_{j=0}^k \binom{N}{j}$  times. For binary sequences with period  $N$ , although we had some algorithms for determining linear complexity of particular period sequences, if we do not have an effective algorithm to compute the  $k$ -error linear complexity, fast algorithm also should be used  $\sum_{j=0}^k \binom{N}{j}$  times. Even  $N$  and  $k$  is not large enough, the computation is still considerable.

Based on Games-Chan algorithm [3], Stamp and Martin [9] presented a fast algorithm for determining  $k$ -error linear complexity of binary sequence with period  $2^n$ . By using the modified cost different from that used in the Stamp-Martin algorithm for sequences over  $GF(2)$  with period  $2^n$ , Kaida, Uehara and Imamura [4] presented a fast algorithm for determining the  $k$ -error linear complexity of sequences with period  $p^n$  over  $GF(p^m)$ ,  $p$  a prime.

The reason why people study the stability of linear complexity is that a small number of changes may lead to a sharp decline of linear complexity. How many elements have to be changed to reduce the linear complexity? Kurosawa et al. [5] introduced the concept of  $\text{minerror}(S)$  to deal with the problem, and defined it as the least number  $k$  for which the  $k$ -error linear complexity is strictly less than the linear complexity, which is corresponding to the  $k$ -value of the first jump point of  $k$ -error linear complexity profile.

What is the linear complexity after decline? That is, what is the value of  $k$ -error linear complexity when  $k = \text{minerror}(S)$ ? Aiming at these problems, the relation between the linear complexity and  $k$ -error linear complexity of binary sequences with period  $2^n$  is studied in [5], the  $\text{minerror}(S)$  denoted by the Hamming weight of linear complexity is given, and the upper bound of  $k$ -error linear complexity for  $k = \text{minerror}(S)$  is also given. Meidl [8] studied the stability of linear complexity of binary sequence with period  $p^n$ , and proved the upper and lower bound of  $\text{minerror}(S)$ .

The error linear complexity spectrum of a periodic sequence is introduced by Lauder and Paterson [6] to indicate how linear complexity decreases as the number  $k$  of bits allowed to be modified per period increases, the same as  $k$ -error linear complexity profile defined in [9]. Moreover, Lauder and Paterson [6] generalized the algorithm in [9] to compute the entire error linear complexity spectrum of such sequences.

In this paper, based on linear complexity,  $k$ -error linear complexity,  $k$ -error linear complexity profile and  $\text{minerror}(S)$ , the  $m$ -tight error linear complexity is presented to study the stability of the linear complexity of periodic sequences. The  $m$ -tight error linear complexity is defined as a two tuple  $(k_m, C_m)$ , which is the  $m$ th jump point of the  $k$ -error linear complexity profile of a sequence.

A fast algorithm is proposed for determining the  $m$ -tight error linear complexity of sequences over  $\text{GF}(p^n)$  with period  $p^n$ , where  $p$  is a prime. The algorithm is derived from the algorithm for the  $k$ -error linear complexity of sequences over  $\text{GF}(p^n)$  with period  $p^n$ , where  $p$  is a prime [4]. The proposed algorithm is realized with C language, and an example is presented to illustrate the algorithm.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces  $k$ -error linear complexity algorithm presented by Kaida, Uehara and Imamura [4], whereas Section 3 focuses on the algorithm for determining the  $m$ -tight error linear complexity of sequences. Concluding remarks are given in Section 4.

## 2 $k$ -error Linear Complexity Algorithm

In this paper we will consider sequences over  $\text{GF}(q)$  with period  $p^n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , where  $q = p^m$  and  $p$  is a prime. In the following algorithms,  $\vec{X}$  denotes a vector.

Algorithm 1 is got by generalizing Games-Chan algorithm [2, 4]. Let  $\{a_i\} = \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  be a sequence with period  $N = p^n$  over  $\text{GF}(q)$ , where  $q = p^m$ ,  $p$  is a prime number. Let  $\vec{a}^{(N)} = (a_0^{(N)}, a_1^{(N)}, \dots, a_{N-1}^{(N)})$  be the first period of the sequence. It is divided into  $p$  parts and denoted as  $\vec{a}^{(N)} = (a(0)^{(N)}, \dots, a(p-1)^{(N)})$ , where  $\vec{a}(j)^{(N)} = (a_{jM}^{(N)}, \dots, a_{(j+1)M-1}^{(N)})$ .

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### Algorithm 1 Generalized Games-Chan algorithm

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1: //Initial values:  $N = pM, LC = 0, q = p^m$ ,
2:  $\vec{a}^{(N)} = (a_0^{(N)}, a_1^{(N)}, \dots, a_{N-1}^{(N)})$ 
3: while  $M > 1$  do
4:    $\vec{a}^{(pM)} = (a(0)^{(pM)}, \dots, a(p-1)^{(pM)})$ 
5:   for  $u = 0, \dots, p-1$  do
6:
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$$\begin{aligned}
 & \vec{b}(u)^{(M)} \\
 &= F_u(\vec{a}(0)^{(pM)}, \dots, \vec{a}(p-1)^{(pM)}) \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^{p-u-1} c_{u,j} \vec{a}(j)^{(pM)} \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^{p-u-1} \binom{p-j-1}{u} \vec{a}(j)^{(pM)}
 \end{aligned}$$

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7: end for
8: if  $\vec{b}(0)^{(M)} = \dots = \vec{b}(p-1)^{(M)} = \vec{0}$  then
9:    $w = 1$ 
10: end if
11: for  $w_1 = 2, \dots, p-1$  do
12:   if  $\vec{b}(0)^{(M)} = \dots = \vec{b}(p-w_1-1)^{(M)} = \vec{0}$ 
13:     and  $\vec{b}(p-w_1)^{(M)} \neq \vec{0}$  then
14:      $w = w_1$ 
15:   end if
16: end for
17: if  $\vec{b}(0)^{(M)} \neq \vec{0}$  then
18:    $w = p$ 
19: end if
20:  $\vec{a}^{(M)} = F_{p-w}(\vec{a}(0)^{(pM)}, \dots, \vec{a}(p-1)^{(pM)})$ 
21:  $LC = LC + (w-1)M$ 
22:  $M = M/p$ 
23: end while
24:  $\vec{a}^{(1)} = (a_0^{(1)})$ 
25: if  $a_0^{(1)} \neq 0$  then
26:    $LC = LC + 1$ 
27: end if
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Using Games-Chan algorithm, Stamp-Martin algorithm [9] computes the  $k$ -LC of sequences over  $\text{GF}(2)$  with period  $2^n$ . Algorithm 2 is got by using generalized Games-Chan algorithm [4].

The cost of  $\vec{a}^{(M)}$  is  $AC(M)$ , which is a  $q \times M$  matrix. Further define the matrix as  $AC(M) = [A(h, i)_M]$ , where  $A(h, i)_M$  is the minimum number of changes required in the original sequence  $\vec{a}^{(N)}$  to change the current element  $\alpha_i^{(M)}$  to  $\alpha_i^{(M)} + \partial_h$ . The cost of  $\vec{b}(u)^{(M)}$  is  $BC(M)$ , which is a  $(p-1) \times M$  matrix. Further define the matrix

as  $BC(M) = [B(u, i)_M]$ , where  $B(u, i)_M$  is the minimum number of changes required in the original sequence  $\vec{a}^{(N)}$  to force  $b_{0,i}^{(M)} = \dots = b_{u,i}^{(M)} = 0$ .

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**Algorithm 2** Kaida-Uehara-Imamura algorithm

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1: //Initial values:
2:  $N = pM = p^n, k-LC = 0,$ 
3:  $\vec{a}^{(N)} = (\vec{a}_0^{(N)}, \vec{a}_1^{(N)}, \dots, \vec{a}_{N-1}^{(N)}), q = p^m$ 
4: for  $h = 0, 1, \dots, q - 1, i = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$  do
5:    $AC(N) = [A(h, i)_N] = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } h = 0, \\ 1, & \text{if } h \neq 0. \end{cases}$ 
6: end for
7: while  $M > 1$  do
8:   for  $u = 0, 1, \dots, p - 2, i = 0, 1, \dots, M - 1$  do
9:      $B(u, i)_M = \min\{\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} A(e_j, i + jM)pM | \vec{e} \in D(u, i)_M\}$ 
10:    where  $\vec{e} = (e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) \in [GF(q)]^p$  and
11:     $D(u, i)_M = \{\vec{e} | F_j(e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) + b_{j,i}^{(M)} = 0 (0 \leq j \leq u)\}$ 
12:     $TB(u)_M = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} B(u, i)_M$ 
13:  end for
14:  if  $TB(p - 2)_M \leq k$  then
15:     $w = 1$ 
16:  end if
17:  for  $w_1 = 2, \dots, p - 1$  do
18:    if  $TB(p - w_1 - 1)_M \leq k < TB(p - w_1)_M$  then
19:       $w = w_1$ 
20:    end if
21:  end for
22:  if  $k < TB(0)_M$  then
23:     $w = p$ 
24:  end if
25:   $\vec{a} = F_{p-w}(\vec{a}^{(0)}(pM), \dots, \vec{a}^{(p-1)}(pM))$ 
26:   $k-LC = k-LC + (w - 1)M$ 
27:  for  $h = 0, 1, \dots, q - 1, i = 0, 1, \dots, M - 1$  do
28:     $A(h, i)_M = \min\{\sum_{j=0}^{p-1} A(e_j, i + jM)pM | \vec{e} \in \hat{D}(u, i)_M^w\}$ 
29:    where
30:     $\hat{D}(h, i)_M^w = \left\{ \vec{e} \mid \begin{array}{l} F_j(e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) + b_{j,i}^M = 0 (0 \leq j \leq p - 2), \\ e_0 - \partial_h = 0, \end{array} \right\}$ 
31:  end for
32:  for  $w = 1$  do
33:     $\hat{D}(h, i)_M^w = \left\{ \vec{e} \mid \begin{array}{l} F_j(e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) + b_{j,i}^M = 0 (0 \leq j \leq p - w - 1), \\ F_{p-w}(e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) - \partial_h = 0, \end{array} \right\}$ 
34:  end for
35:  for  $2 \leq w \leq p - 1$  do
36:     $\hat{D}(h, i)_M^w = \{\vec{e} | F_0(e_0, \dots, e_{p-1}) - \partial_h = 0\},$ 
37:  end for
38:  for  $w = p$  do
39:
40:  end for
41:   $M = M/p$ 
42: end while
43:  $\vec{a}^{(1)} = (a_0^{(1)}), AC(1) = [A(h, 0)_1]$ 
44: if  $A(-a_0^{(1)}, 0)_1 > k$  then
45:    $k-LC = k-LC + 1$ 
46: end if

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### 3 $m$ -tight Error Linear Complexity Algorithm

The  $m$ -tight error linear complexity of sequence  $S$  is defined to be a two tuple  $(k_m, C_m)$ , which is the  $m$ th jump point of the  $k$ -error linear complexity profile of sequence  $S$ . Obviously, 0-tight error linear complexity is  $(0, C_0)$ ,  $C_0$  is the linear complexity. In the case of 1-tight error linear complexity  $(k_1, C_1)$ ,  $k_1$  is the least number to force linear complexity decline, which is the minerror(S) defined by Kurosawa et al., and  $C_1$  is  $k_1$ -error linear complexity.

Based on Algorithm 2, it is easy to compute  $m$ -tight error linear complexity of sequences over  $GF(p^m)$  with period  $p^n$ . Firstly, algorithm 2 is changed as follows:

Before while loop add  
 $T_{min} = N;$   
 Before  $k-LC = k-LC + (w - 1)M$ , add  
 if  $TB[p - 2]_M > k$  and  $TB[p - w]_M < T_{min}$  then  
 $T_{min} = TB[p - w]_M;$   
 Before  $k-LC = k-LC + 1$ , add  
 if  $A(-a_0^{(1)}, 0)_1 < T_{min}$  then  $T_{min} = A(-a_0^{(1)}, 0)_1.$

The modified algorithm is denoted as **Algorithm 3**. First call Algorithm 3 with  $k = 0$ , we get 0-error linear complexity  $c_0$  of original sequence, so 0-tight error linear complexity is  $(0, c_0)$ . Meanwhile we get  $T_{min}$ , denoted as  $k_1$ . Call Algorithm 3 with  $k = k_1$ , we get  $k_1$ -error linear complexity  $(k_1, c_1)$  of original sequence, meanwhile we obtain  $T_{min}$ , denoted as  $k_2$ . Call Algorithm 3 with  $k = k_2$ , we get  $k_2$ -error linear complexity of original sequence, that is 2-tight error linear complexity is  $(k_2, c_2)$ . Meanwhile we obtain  $T_{min}$ , denoted as  $k_3$ . Call Algorithm 3 recursively, we can obtain  $m$ -tight error linear complexity  $(k_m, c_m)$  of original sequence.

Algorithm 3 starts the recursive process from 0-error linear complexity. While compute  $k$ -error linear complexity, we also compute the minimum number  $T_{min}$  of changes required in the original sequence to force  $k$ -error linear complexity to decline.

In [4],  $TB(u)_M$  is defined as the minimum number of changes in  $a^{(N)}$  necessary and sufficient for making  $b(0)^{(M)} = \dots = b(u)^{(M)} = 0, 0 \leq u \leq p - 2$ .

In the process of computing  $k$ -error linear complexity, we must try to force  $TB(p - w)_M \leq k, w \geq 2$  or  $A(-a_0^{(1)}, 0)_1 \leq k$ . Thus, the minimum number  $T_{min}$  of changes required in the original sequence to force  $k$ -error linear complexity to decline is the smallest of those  $TB(p - w)_M, w \geq 2$  or  $A(-a_0^{(1)}, 0)_1$ .

Therefore the validity of our algorithm is shown.

We now compute the tight error linear complexity of sequence  $S$  by Algorithm 3. Let  $S$  be a sequence with period  $N = p^n$ , the first period of  $S$  is  $S^{27} = 0, 2, 0, 2, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 2, 2, 0, 2, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0$ .

Apply Algorithm 3, we get the following results:

The first step,  $k = 0$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 3, k-LC = 18$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 1, w = 3, k-LC = 24$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 1, w = 3, k-LC = 26$ ;  
 $k-LC = 27, T_{min} = 1$ .

The second step,  $k = 1$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 2, k-LC = 9$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 4, w = 2, k-LC = 12$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 4, TB[1] = 4, w = 3, k-LC = 14$ ;  
 $k-LC = 15, T_{min} = 3$ .

The third step,  $k = 3$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 3, k-LC = 6$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 3, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 6$ ;  
 $k-LC = 7, T_{min} = 9$ .

The fourth step,  $k = 9$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 2, k-LC = 3$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 10, TB[1] = 10, w = 3, k-LC = 5$ ;  
 $k-LC = 6, T_{min} = 10$ .

The fifth step,  $k = 10$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 2, k-LC = 3$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 10, TB[1] = 10, w = 1, k-LC = 3$ ;  
 $k-LC = 4, T_{min} = 11$ .

The sixth step,  $k = 11$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 12, TB[1] = 16, w = 3, k-LC = 2$ ;  
 $k-LC = 3, T_{min} = 12$ .

The seventh step,  $k = 12$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 12, TB[1] = 16, w = 2, k-LC = 1$ ;  
 $k-LC = 2, T_{min} = 16$ .

The eighth step,  $k = 16$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 12, TB[1] = 16, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $k-LC = 1, T_{min} = 17$ .

The ninth step,  $k = 17$ :

$M = 9 : TB[0] = 1, TB[1] = 3, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 3 : TB[0] = 9, TB[1] = 11, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $M = 1 : TB[0] = 12, TB[1] = 16, w = 1, k-LC = 0$ ;  
 $k-LC = 0$ .

By calling Algorithm 3, the tight error linear complexity is obtained successively: (0,27), (1,15), (3,7), (9,6), (10,4), (11,3), (12,2), (16,1), (17,0).

## 4 Conclusion

Lauder and Paterson [6] presented an algorithm to compute the error linear complexity spectrum of a binary sequence of period  $2^n$ . However, our algorithm is more suitable to compute minerror(S) or  $m$ -tight error linear complexity for small  $m$ .

Based on relevant theoretical basis of  $k$ -error linear complexity, we proposed  $m$ -tight error linear complexity to study the stability of stream cipher. Based on Kaida-Uehara-Imamura algorithm, we presented a fast algorithm for determining the  $m$ -tight error linear complexity of sequences over  $\text{GF}(p^m)$  with period  $p^n$ , where  $p$  is a prime number. The concept of  $m$ -tight error linear complexity integrates all linear complexity,  $k$ -error linear complexity,  $k$ -error linear complexity profile and the concept of minerror(S). So the fast algorithm for determining  $m$ -tight error linear complexity has important theoretical significance and application value.

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**Jianqin Zhou** received his B.Sc. degree in mathematics from East China Normal University, China, in 1983, and M.Sc. degree in probability and statistics from Fudan University, China, in 1989. From 1989 to 1999 he was with the Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, Qufu Normal University, China. From 2000 to 2002, he worked for a number of IT companies in Japan. From 2003 to 2007 he was with the Department of Computer Science, Anhui University of Technology, China. From Sep. 2006 to Feb 2007, he was a visiting scholar with the Department of Information and Computer Science, Keio University, Japan. Since 2008 he has been with the Telecommunication School, Hangzhou Dianzi University, China.

He published more than 70 papers, and proved a conjecture posed by famous mathematician Paul Erdős et al. His research interests include cryptography, coding theory and combinatorics.

**Wei Xiong** received her B.Eng. degree in Electronic Information Engineering from Xianyang Normal College, China, in 2008, and M.Eng. degree in Signal and Information Processing from Hangzhou Dianzi University, China, in 2011. Her research interests include cryptography and digital watermark.