Post-Quantum Cryptography Code-Based Cryptography

Tanja Lange with some slides by Tung Chou and Christiane Peters

Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

ASCrypto Summer School: 18 September 2017

Error correction

- Digital media is exposed to memory corruption.
- Many systems check whether data was corrupted in transit:
 - ▶ ISBN numbers have check digit to detect corruption.
 - ECC RAM detects up to two errors and can correct one error. 64 bits are stored as 72 bits: extra 8 bits for checks and recovery.
- In general, k bits of data get stored in n bits, adding some redundancy.
- ▶ If no error occurred, these n bits satisfy n k parity check equations; else can correct errors from the error pattern.
- ▶ Good codes can correct many errors without blowing up storage too much; offer guarantee to correct t errors (often can correct or at least detect more).
- ▶ To represent these check equations we need a matrix.

Hamming code

Parity check matrix (n = 7, k = 4):

$$H = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An error-free string of 7 bits $\mathbf{b} = (b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, b_6)$ satisfies these three equations:

$$b_0$$
 $+b_1$ $+b_3$ $+b_4$ $=$ 0
 b_0 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_5$ $=$ 0
 b_1 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_6$ $=$ 0

If one error occurred at least one of these equations will not hold. Failure pattern uniquely identifies the error location, e.g., 1,0,1 means

Hamming code

Parity check matrix (n = 7, k = 4):

$$H = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An error-free string of 7 bits $\mathbf{b} = (b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, b_6)$ satisfies these three equations:

$$b_0$$
 $+b_1$ $+b_3$ $+b_4$ $=$ 0
 b_0 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_5$ $=$ 0
 b_1 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_6$ $=$ 0

If one error occurred at least one of these equations will not hold. Failure pattern uniquely identifies the error location, e.g., 1,0,1 means b_1 flipped.

Hamming code

Parity check matrix (n = 7, k = 4):

$$H = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An error-free string of 7 bits $\mathbf{b} = (b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, b_6)$ satisfies these three equations:

$$b_0$$
 $+b_1$ $+b_3$ $+b_4$ $=$ 0
 b_0 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_5$ $=$ 0
 b_1 $+b_2$ $+b_3$ $+b_6$ $=$ 0

If one error occurred at least one of these equations will not hold. Failure pattern uniquely identifies the error location, e.g., 1,0,1 means b_1 flipped.

In math notation, the failure pattern is $H \cdot \mathbf{b}$.

Coding theory

- ▶ Names: code word \mathbf{c} , error vector \mathbf{e} , received word $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{e}$.
- Very common to transform the matrix so that the right part has just 1 on the diagonal (no need to store that).

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Many special constructions discovered in 65 years of coding theory:
 - ▶ Large matrix *H*.
 - ▶ Fast decoding algorithm to find **e** given $\mathbf{s} = H \cdot (\mathbf{c} + \mathbf{e})$, whenever **e** does not have too many bits set.
- Given large H, usually very hard to find fast decoding algorithm.
- ▶ Use this difference in complexities for encryption.

Code-based encryption

- ▶ 1971 Goppa: Fast decoders for many matrices *H*.
- ▶ 1978 McEliece: Use Goppa codes for public-key cryptography.
 - Original parameters designed for 2⁶⁴ security.
 - ▶ 2008 Bernstein–Lange–Peters: broken in \approx 2⁶⁰ cycles.
 - Easily scale up for higher security.
- ▶ 1986 Niederreiter: Simplified and smaller version of McEliece.
 - ▶ Public key: *H* with 1's on the diagonal on RHS.
 - Secret key: the fast Goppa decoder.
 - ► Encryption: Randomly generate e with t bits set. Send H · e.
 - ▶ Use hash of **e** to encrypt message with symmetric crypto (with 256 bits key).

Security analysis

```
Some papers studying algorithms for attackers:
  1962 Prange; 1981 Omura; 1988 Lee-Brickell; 1988 Leon;
  1989 Krouk; 1989 Stern; 1989 Dumer; 1990 Coffey-Goodman;
  1990 van Tilburg; 1991 Dumer; 1991 Coffey-Goodman-Farrell;
  1993 Chabanne-Courteau; 1993 Chabaud; 1994 van Tilburg;
  1994 Canteaut-Chabanne; 1998 Canteaut-Chabaud;
  1998 Canteaut-Sendrier; 2008 Bernstein-Lange-Peters;
  2009 Bernstein-Lange-Peters-van Tilborg;
  2009 Bernstein (post-quantum); 2009 Finiasz-Sendrier;
  2010 Bernstein-Lange-Peters; 2011 May-Meurer-Thomae;
  2011 Becker-Coron-Joux; 2012 Becker-Joux-May-Meurer;
  2013 Bernstein-Jeffery-Lange-Meurer (post-quantum);
  2015 May-Ozerov;
  2017 Kachigar–Tillich (post-quantum).
```

Security analysis

- Some papers studying algorithms for attackers: 1962 Prange; 1981 Omura; 1988 Lee-Brickell; 1988 Leon; 1989 Krouk; 1989 Stern; 1989 Dumer; 1990 Coffey-Goodman; 1990 van Tilburg; 1991 Dumer; 1991 Coffey-Goodman-Farrell; 1993 Chabanne-Courteau; 1993 Chabaud; 1994 van Tilburg; 1994 Canteaut-Chabanne; 1998 Canteaut-Chabaud; 1998 Canteaut-Sendrier; 2008 Bernstein-Lange-Peters; 2009 Bernstein-Lange-Peters-van Tilborg; 2009 Bernstein (post-quantum); 2009 Finiasz-Sendrier; 2010 Bernstein-Lange-Peters; 2011 May-Meurer-Thomae; 2011 Becker-Coron-Joux; 2012 Becker-Joux-May-Meurer; 2013 Bernstein-Jeffery-Lange-Meurer (post-quantum); 2015 May-Ozerov; 2017 Kachigar–Tillich (post-quantum).
- ▶ 256 KB public key for 2¹⁴⁶ pre-quantum security.
- ▶ 512 KB public key for 2¹⁸⁷ pre-quantum security.
- ▶ 1024 KB public key for 2²⁶³ pre-quantum security.

Security analysis

- Some papers studying algorithms for attackers: 1962 Prange; 1981 Omura; 1988 Lee-Brickell; 1988 Leon; 1989 Krouk; 1989 Stern; 1989 Dumer; 1990 Coffey-Goodman; 1990 van Tilburg; 1991 Dumer; 1991 Coffey-Goodman-Farrell; 1993 Chabanne-Courteau; 1993 Chabaud; 1994 van Tilburg; 1994 Canteaut-Chabanne; 1998 Canteaut-Chabaud; 1998 Canteaut-Sendrier; 2008 Bernstein-Lange-Peters; 2009 Bernstein-Lange-Peters-van Tilborg; 2009 Bernstein (post-quantum); 2009 Finiasz-Sendrier; 2010 Bernstein-Lange-Peters; 2011 May-Meurer-Thomae; 2011 Becker-Coron-Joux; 2012 Becker-Joux-May-Meurer; 2013 Bernstein-Jeffery-Lange-Meurer (post-quantum); 2015 May-Ozerov; 2017 Kachigar–Tillich (post-quantum).
- ▶ 256 KB public key for 2¹⁴⁶ pre-quantum security.
- ▶ 512 KB public key for 2¹⁸⁷ pre-quantum security.
- ▶ 1024 KB public key for 2²⁶³ pre-quantum security.
- ▶ Post-quantum (Grover): below 2²⁶³, above 2¹³¹.

Linear Codes

A binary linear code C of length n and dimension k is a k-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{F}_2^n .

C is usually specified as

▶ the row space of a generating matrix $G \in \mathbb{F}_2^{k \times n}$

$$C = \{\mathbf{m}G | \mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{F}_2^k\}$$

▶ the kernel space of a parity-check matrix $H \in \mathbb{F}_2^{(n-k) \times n}$

$$C = \{\mathbf{c}|H\mathbf{c}^{\mathsf{T}} = 0, \ \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n\}$$

Leaving out the ^T from now on.

Example:

$$G = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c = (111)G = (10011)$$
 is a codeword.

Systematic form, Hamming weight and distance

- ▶ A systematic generator matrix is a generator matrix of the form $(I_k|Q)$ where I_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix and Q is a $k \times (n-k)$ matrix (redundant part).
- ► Easy to get parity-check matrix from systematic generator matrix, use $H = (-Q^{\mathsf{T}}|I_{n-k})$.
- ► The Hamming weight of a word is the number of nonzero coordinates.

$$\operatorname{wt}(1,0,0,1,1) = 3$$

▶ The Hamming distance between two words in \mathbb{F}_2^n is the number of coordinates in which they differ.

$$d((1,1,0,1,1),(1,0,0,1,1)) = \\$$

Systematic form, Hamming weight and distance

- ▶ A systematic generator matrix is a generator matrix of the form $(I_k|Q)$ where I_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix and Q is a $k \times (n-k)$ matrix (redundant part).
- ► Easy to get parity-check matrix from systematic generator matrix, use $H = (-Q^{\mathsf{T}}|I_{n-k})$.
- The Hamming weight of a word is the number of nonzero coordinates.

$$\operatorname{wt}(1,0,0,1,1) = 3$$

▶ The Hamming distance between two words in \mathbb{F}_2^n is the number of coordinates in which they differ.

$$d((1,1,0,1,1),(1,0,0,1,1))=1$$

Systematic form, Hamming weight and distance

- A systematic generator matrix is a generator matrix of the form $(I_k|Q)$ where I_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix and Q is a $k \times (n-k)$ matrix (redundant part).
- ► Easy to get parity-check matrix from systematic generator matrix, use $H = (-Q^{\mathsf{T}}|I_{n-k})$.
- The Hamming weight of a word is the number of nonzero coordinates.

$$\operatorname{wt}(1,0,0,1,1) = 3$$

▶ The Hamming distance between two words in \mathbb{F}_2^n is the number of coordinates in which they differ.

$$d((1,1,0,1,1),(1,0,0,1,1)) = 1$$

The Hamming distance between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} equals the Hamming weight of $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$:

$$d((1,1,0,1,1),(1,0,0,1,1)) = wt(0,1,0,0,0).$$

Decoding problem

► The minimum distance of a linear code *C* is the smallest Hamming weight of a nonzero codeword in *C*.

$$d = \min_{0 \neq \mathbf{c} \in C} \{ \operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) \} = \min_{\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{c} \in C} \{ d(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) \}$$

▶ In code with minimum distance d = 2t + 1, any vector $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{e}$ with $\mathrm{wt}(\mathbf{e}) \le t$ is uniquely decodable to \mathbf{c} ; there is no closer code word.

Decoding problem

► The minimum distance of a linear code *C* is the smallest Hamming weight of a nonzero codeword in *C*.

$$d = \min_{0 \neq \mathbf{c} \in C} \{ \operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) \} = \min_{\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{c} \in C} \{ d(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) \}$$

▶ In code with minimum distance d = 2t + 1, any vector $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{e}$ with $\mathrm{wt}(\mathbf{e}) \le t$ is uniquely decodable to \mathbf{c} ; there is no closer code word.

Decoding problem: find the closest codeword $\mathbf{c} \in C$ to a given $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, assuming that there is a unique closest codeword. Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{e}$. Note that finding \mathbf{e} is an equivalent problem.

- ▶ If **c** is *t* errors away from **x**, i.e., the Hamming weight of **e** is *t*, this is called a *t*-error correcting problem.
- ► There are lots of code families with fast decoding algorithms, e.g., Reed–Solomon codes, Goppa codes/alternant codes, etc.
- However, the general decoding problem is hard: Information-set decoding (see later) takes exponential time.

The Niederreiter cryptosystem I

Developed in 1986 by Harald Niederreiter as a variant of the McEliece cryptosystem. This is the schoolbook version.

- ▶ Use $n \times n$ permutation matrix P and $n k \times n k$ invertible matrix S.
- ▶ Public Key: a scrambled parity-check matrix $K = SHP \in \mathbb{F}_2^{(n-k)\times n}$.
- ▶ Encryption: The plaintext **e** is an *n*-bit vector of weight *t*. The ciphertext **s** is the (n k)-bit vector

$$s = Ke$$
.

- Decryption: Find a n-bit vector e with wt(e) = t such that s = Ke.
- ▶ The passive attacker is facing a *t*-error correcting problem for the public key, which seems to be random.

The Niederreiter cryptosystem II

- ▶ Public Key: a scrambled parity-check matrix K = SHP.
- ▶ Encryption: The plaintext **e** is an *n*-bit vector of weight *t*. The ciphertext **s** is the (n k)-bit vector

$$\mathbf{s} = K\mathbf{e}$$
.

Decryption using secret key: Compute

$$S^{-1}$$
s = S^{-1} K**e** = S^{-1} (SHP)**e**
= H (P**e**)

and observe that $\operatorname{wt}(P\mathbf{e})=1$, because P permutes. Use efficient decoder for H to find $\mathbf{e}'=P\mathbf{e}$ and thus $\mathbf{e}=P^{-1}\mathbf{e}'$.

▶ Berson's attack: If there is no integrity check on the message and decryption works for weight ≤ t of e:

► Berson's attack:

If there is no integrity check on the message and decryption works for weight $\leq t$ of \mathbf{e} :

Send $\mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{s} + K_i$, where K_i is the *i*-th column of K; observe decryption failure or not.

- Berson's attack:
 - If there is no integrity check on the message and decryption works for weight $\leq t$ of \mathbf{e} :
 - Send $\mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{s} + K_i$, where K_i is the *i*-th column of K; observe decryption failure or not.
 - If \mathbf{s}_i does not show failure, bit i was set in \mathbf{e} .
- More involved but doable if decryption requires exactly t errors.
- Very easy attack in CCA setting: just ask for decryption of s₁, flip first bit.

- ▶ Berson's attack:
 - If there is no integrity check on the message and decryption works for weight $\leq t$ of \mathbf{e} :
 - Send $\mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{s} + K_i$, where K_i is the *i*-th column of K; observe decryption failure or not.
 - If \mathbf{s}_i does not show failure, bit i was set in \mathbf{e} .
- More involved but doable if decryption requires exactly t errors.
- Very easy attack in CCA setting: just ask for decryption of s₁, flip first bit.
- ► Fix by using CCA2 transformation (e.g. Fujisaki-Okamoto transorm) or (easier) KEM/DEM version: pick random e of weight t, use hash(e) as secret key to encrypt and authenticate.

Binary Goppa code

Let $q = 2^m$. A binary Goppa code is often defined by

- ▶ a list $L = (a_1, ..., a_n)$ of n distinct elements in \mathbb{F}_q , called the support.
- ▶ a square-free polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ of degree t such that $g(a) \neq 0$ for all $a \in L$. g(x) is called the Goppa polynomial.
- ▶ E.g. choose g(x) irreducible over \mathbb{F}_q .

The corresponding binary Goppa code $\Gamma(L,g)$ is

$$\left\{\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \left| S(\mathbf{c}) = \frac{c_1}{x - a_1} + \frac{c_2}{x - a_2} + \dots + \frac{c_n}{x - a_n} \equiv 0 \bmod g(x) \right\} \right.$$

- ▶ This code is linear $S(\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = S(\mathbf{b}) + S(\mathbf{c})$ and has length n.
- ▶ What can we say about the dimension and minimum distance?

Dimension of $\Gamma(L,g)$

▶ $g(a_i) \neq 0$ implies $gcd(x - a_i, g(x)) = 1$, thus get polynomials

$$(x-a_i)^{-1} \equiv f_i(x) \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} f_{i,j} x^j \mod g(x)$$

via XGCD. All this is over $\mathbb{F}_q = \mathbb{F}_{2^m}$.

▶ In this form, $S(\mathbf{c}) \equiv 0 \mod g(x)$ means

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \left(\sum_{j=0}^{t-1} f_{i,j} x^j \right) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i f_{i,j} \right) x^j = 0,$$

meaning that for each $0 \le j \le t - 1$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i f_{i,j} = 0.$$

- These are t conditions over \mathbb{F}_q , so tm conditions over \mathbb{F}_2 . Giving an $tm \times n$ parity check matrix over \mathbb{F}_2 .
- ▶ Some rows might be linearly dependent, so $k \ge n tm$.

Nice parity check matrix

Assume $g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{t} g_i x^i$ monic, i.e., $g_t = 1$.

$$H \ = \ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ g_{t-1} & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ g_{t-2} & g_{t-1} & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_1 & g_2 & g_3 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ a_1^2 & a_2^2 & a_3^2 & \dots & a_n^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_1^{t-1} & a_2^{t-1} & a_3^{t-1} & \dots & a_n^{t-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{g(a_1)} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{g(a_2)} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{g(a_3)} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{g(a_n)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Minimum distance of $\Gamma(L,g)$. Put $s(x) = S(\mathbf{c})$

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i/(x-a_i)$$

Minimum distance of $\Gamma(L,g)$. Put $s(x) = S(\mathbf{c})$

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x - a_j) \right) / \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x - a_i) \equiv 0 \mod g(x).$$

- ▶ $g(a_i) \neq 0$ implies $gcd(x a_i, g(x)) = 1$, so g(x) divides $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x a_j)$.
- Let $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$ have small weight $\operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) = w \leq t = \deg(g)$. For all i with $c_i = 0$, $x - a_i$ appears in every summand.

Minimum distance of $\Gamma(L,g)$. Put $s(x) = S(\mathbf{c})$

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x - a_j) \right) / \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x - a_i) \equiv 0 \mod g(x).$$

- ▶ $g(a_i) \neq 0$ implies $gcd(x a_i, g(x)) = 1$, so g(x) divides $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \prod_{i \neq i} (x a_i)$.
- ▶ Let $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$ have small weight $\operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) = w \leq t = \deg(g)$. For all i with $c_i = 0$, $x - a_i$ appears in every summand. Cancel out those $x - a_i$ with $c_i = 0$.
- ▶ The denominator is now $\prod_{i,c_i\neq 0}(x-a_i)$, of degree w.
- ▶ The numerator now has degree w-1 and $\deg(g)>w-1$ implies that the numerator is =0 (without reduction mod g), which is a contradiction to $\mathbf{c}\neq 0$, so $\mathrm{wt}(\mathbf{c})=w\geq t+1$.

Better minimum distance for $\Gamma(L,g)$

- ▶ Let $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$ have small weight $\operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) = w$.
- ▶ Put $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x a_i)^{c_i}$ with $c_i \in \{0, 1\}$.
- ▶ Then the derivative $f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \prod_{i \neq i} (x a_i)^{c_i}$.
- ► Thus $s(x) = f'(x)/f(x) \equiv 0 \mod g(x)$.
- ▶ As before this implies g(x) divides the numerator f'(x).
- ▶ Note that over IF₂^m:

$$(f_{2i+1}x^{2i+1})' = f_{2i+1}x^{2i}, (f_{2i}x^{2i})' = 0 \cdot f_{2i}x^{2i-1} = 0,$$

thus f'(x) contains only terms of even degree and $deg(f') \le w - 1$. Assume w odd, thus deg(f') = w - 1.

▶ Note that over \mathbb{F}_{2^m} : $(x+1)^2 = x^2 + 1$

Better minimum distance for $\Gamma(L,g)$

- Let $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$ have small weight $\operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{c}) = w$.
- ▶ Put $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x a_i)^{c_i}$ with $c_i \in \{0, 1\}$.
- ▶ Then the derivative $f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \prod_{i \neq i} (x a_i)^{c_i}$.
- ▶ Thus $s(x) = f'(x)/f(x) \equiv 0 \mod g(x)$.
- As before this implies g(x) divides the numerator f'(x).
- ▶ Note that over IF2m:

$$(f_{2i+1}x^{2i+1})' = f_{2i+1}x^{2i}, (f_{2i}x^{2i})' = 0 \cdot f_{2i}x^{2i-1} = 0,$$

thus f'(x) contains only terms of even degree and $deg(f') \le w - 1$. Assume w odd, thus deg(f') = w - 1.

▶ Note that over \mathbb{F}_{2^m} : $(x+1)^2 = x^2 + 1$ and in general

$$f'(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{(w-1)/2} f_{2i+1} x^{2i} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{(w-1)/2} \sqrt{f_{2i+1}} x^i\right)^2 = F^2(x).$$

▶ Since g(x) is square-free, g(x) divides F(x), thus $w \ge 2t + 1$.

Decoding of in $\Gamma(L,g)$

- Decoding works with polynomial arithmetic.
- ▶ Fix **e**. Let $\sigma(x) = \prod_{i.e:\neq 0} (x a_i)$. Same as f(x) before.
- ▶ $\sigma(x)$ is called error locator polynomial. Given $\sigma(x)$ can factor it to retrieve error positions, $\sigma(a_i) = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ error in i.
- ▶ Split into odd and even terms: $\sigma(x) = A^2(x) + xB^2(x)$.
- Note as before $s(x) = \sigma'(x)/\sigma(x)$ and $\sigma'(x) = B^2(x)$.
- ► Thus

$$B^{2}(x) \equiv \sigma(x)s(x) \equiv (A^{2}(x) + xB^{2}(x))s(x) \mod g(x)$$

$$B^{2}(x)(x+1/s(x)) \equiv A^{2}(x) \mod g(x)$$

- ▶ Put $v(x) \equiv \sqrt{x + 1/s(x)} \mod g(x)$, then $A(x) \equiv B(x)v(x) \mod g(x)$.
- ▶ Can compute v(x) from s(x).
- ▶ Use XGCD on v and g, stop part-way when

$$A(x) = B(x)v(x) + h(x)g(x),$$

with $deg(A) \leq \lfloor t/2 \rfloor, deg(B) \leq \lfloor (t-1)/2 \rfloor$.

How to hide nice code?

- ▶ Do not reveal matrix *H* related to nice-to-decode code.
- ▶ Pick a random invertible $(n k) \times (n k)$ matrix S and random $n \times n$ permutation matrix P. Put

$$K = SHP$$
.

- K is the public key and S and P together with a decoding algorithm for H form the private key.
- ▶ For suitable codes K looks like random matrix.
- ▶ How to decode syndrome $\mathbf{s} = K\mathbf{e}$?

How to hide nice code?

- ▶ Do not reveal matrix *H* related to nice-to-decode code.
- ▶ Pick a random invertible $(n k) \times (n k)$ matrix S and random $n \times n$ permutation matrix P. Put

$$K = SHP$$
.

- ▶ *K* is the public key and *S* and *P* together with a decoding algorithm for *H* form the private key.
- ▶ For suitable codes K looks like random matrix.
- ▶ How to decode syndrome $\mathbf{s} = K\mathbf{e}$?
- ► Computes S^{-1} **s** = $S^{-1}(SHP)$ **e** = H(Pe).
- ▶ P permutes, thus Pe has same weight as e.
- ▶ Decode to recover Pe, then multiply by P^{-1} .

How to hide nice code?

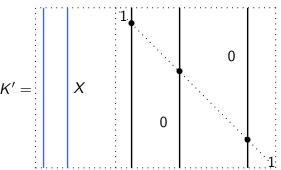
- ▶ For Goppa code use secret polynomial g(x).
- ▶ Use secret permutation of the a_i , this corresponds to secret permutation of the n positions; this replaces P.
- ▶ Use systematic form K = (K'|I) for key;
 - ► This implicitly applies *S*.
 - ▶ No need to remember *S* because decoding does not use *H*.
 - ▶ Key size decreased to $(n k) \times k$.

McBits (Bernstein, Chou, Schwabe, CHES 2013)

- ► Encryption is super fast anyways (just a vector-matrix multiplication).
- ► Main step in decryption is decoding of Goppa code. The McBits software achieves this in constant time.
- Decoding speed at 2^{128} pre-quantum security: (n; t) = (4096; 41) uses 60493 lvy Bridge cycles.
- ▶ Decoding speed at 2^{263} pre-quantum security: (n; t) = (6960; 119) uses 306102 lvy Bridge cycles.
- ► Grover speedup is less than halving the security level, so the latter parameters offer at least 2¹²⁸ post-quantum security.
- ► More at https://binary.cr.yp.to/mcbits.html.

Generic attack: Information-set decoding

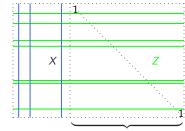
1988 Lee, Brickell. Reminder $\mathbf{s} = K\mathbf{e}$.



- 1. Permute K and bring to systematic form $K' = (X|I_{n-k})$. (If this fails, repeat with other permutation).
- 2. For small p, pick p of the k columns on the left, compute their sum $X\mathbf{p}$. (\mathbf{p} is the vector of weight p).
- 3. If $wt(\mathbf{s} + X\mathbf{p}) = t p$ then put $\mathbf{e}' = \mathbf{p}||(\mathbf{s} + X\mathbf{p})$. Output unpermuted version of \mathbf{e}' .
- 4. Else return to 2 or return to 1 to rerandomize.

Leon's attack

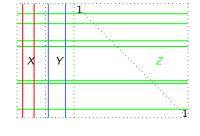
- Setup similar to Lee-Brickell's attack.
- ▶ Random combinations of p vectors will be dense, so have $\operatorname{wt}(X\mathbf{p}) \sim k/2$.



- ▶ Idea: Introduce early abort by checking $(n-k)\times(n-k)$ identity matrix only ℓ positions (selected by set Z, green lines in the picture). This forms $\ell \times k$ matrix X_Z , length- ℓ vector \mathbf{s}_Z .
- Inner loop becomes:
 - 1. Pick **p** with $wt(\mathbf{p}) = p$.
 - 2. Compute X_Z **p**.
 - 3. If $\mathbf{s}_{7} + X_{7}\mathbf{p} \neq 0$ goto 1.
 - 4. Else compute $X\mathbf{p}$.
 - 4.1 If $wt(\mathbf{s} + X\mathbf{p}) = t p$ then put $\mathbf{e}' = \mathbf{p}||(\mathbf{s} + X\mathbf{p})|$. Output unpermuted version of \mathbf{e}' .
 - 4.2 Else return to 1 or rerandomize K.
- Note that $\mathbf{s}_Z + X_Z \mathbf{p} = 0$ means that there are no ones in the positions specified by Z. Small loss in success, big speedup.

Stern's attack

- Setup similar to Leon's and Lee-Brickell's attacks.
- ▶ Use the early abort trick, so specify set Z.
- Improve chances of finding \mathbf{p} with $X_Z \mathbf{p} = 0$:



- ightharpoonup Split left part of K' into two disjoint subsets X and Y.
- ▶ Let $A = \{ \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{k/2} | \text{wt}(\mathbf{a}) = p \}$, $B = \{ \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{k/2} | \text{wt}(\mathbf{b}) = p \}$.
- Search for words having exactly p ones in X and p ones in Y and exactly w-2p ones in the remaining columns.
- ▶ Do the latter part as a collision search: Compute $\mathbf{s}_Z + X_Z \mathbf{a}$ for all (many) $\mathbf{a} \in A$, sort. Then compute $Y_Z \mathbf{b}$ for $\mathbf{b} \in B$ and look for collisions.
- ▶ Iterate until word with $wt(\mathbf{s} + X\mathbf{a} + Y\mathbf{b}) = 2p$ is found for some X, Y, Z.
- ▶ Select p, ℓ , and the subset of A to minimize overall work.

Running time in practice

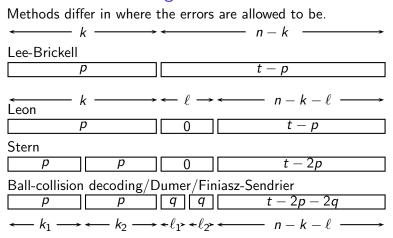
2008 Bernstein, Lange, Peters.

- ▶ Wrote attack software against original McEliece parameters, decoding 50 errors in a [1024, 524] code.
- Lots of optimizations, e.g. cheap updates between $\mathbf{s}_Z + X_Z \mathbf{a}$ and next value for \mathbf{a} ; optimized frequency of K randomization.
- Attack on a single computer with a 2.4GHz Intel Core 2 Quad Q6600 CPU would need, on average, 1400 days (2⁵⁸ CPU cycles) to complete the attack.
- ▶ About 200 computers involved, with about 300 cores.
- ▶ Most of the cores put in far fewer than 90 days of work; some of which were considerably slower than a Core 2.
- Computation used about 8000 core-days.
- Error vector found by Walton cluster at SFI/HEA Irish Centre of High-End Computing (ICHEC).

Information-set decoding

Running time is exponential for Goppa parameters n, k, d.

Information-set decoding



2011 May-Meurer-Thomae and 2012 Becker-Joux-May-Meurer refine multi-level collision search. Running time still exponential for Goppa parameters n, k, d; exponent is minimally smaller compared to Stern.

Improvements

- ▶ Increase *n*: The most obvious way to defend McEliece's cryptosystem is to increase the code length *n*.
- ▶ Allow values of *n* between powers of 2: Get considerably better optimization of (e.g.) the McEliece public-key size.
- ▶ Use list decoding to increase *t*: Unique decoding is ensured by CCA2-secure variants.
- ▶ Decrease key size by using fields other than \mathbb{F}_2 (wild McEliece).
- ▶ Decrease key size & be faster by using other codes. Needs security analysis: some codes have too much structure.

More exciting codes

- Niederreiter actually proposed to use generalized Reed-Solomon codes, this was broken in 1992 by Sidelnikov and Shestakov.
- ▶ In general we distinguish between generic attacks (such as information-set decoding) and structural attacks (that use the structure of the code).
- Gröbner basis computation is a generally powerful tool for structural attacks.
- Cyclic codes need to store only top row of matrix, rest follows by shifts. Quasi-cyclic: multiple cyclic blocks.
- ▶ QC Goppa: too exciting, too much structure.
- ▶ Interesting candidate: Quasi-cyclic Moderate-Density Parity-Check (QC-MDPC) codes, due to Misoczki, Tillich, Sendrier, and Barreto (2012).
 - Very efficient but practical problem if the key is reused (Asiacrypt 2016).
- Hermitian codes, general algebraic geometry codes.
- ► Please help us update https://pqcrypto.org/code.html.