#### Code-Based Cryptography

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#### 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:

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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 **c**, error vector **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 s = H · (c + 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 2<sup>64</sup> security.
  - ▶ 2008 Bernstein–Lange–Peters: broken in  $\approx 2^{60}$  cycles.
  - Easily scale up for higher security.
- ▶ 1986 Niederreiter: Simplified and smaller version of McEliece.
  - Public key: *H* with 1's on the diagonal.
  - 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.

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- 256 KB public key for 2<sup>146</sup> pre-quantum security.
- ▶ 512 KB public key for  $2^{187}$  pre-quantum security.
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- 1024 KB public key for 2<sup>263</sup> pre-quantum security.
- ▶ Post-quantum (Grover): below 2<sup>263</sup>, above 2<sup>131</sup>.

# Next slide: Initial recommendations of long-term secure post-quantum systems

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> Work done as part of https://pqcrypto.eu.org PQCRYPTO EU project

#### Initial recommendations

**Symmetric encryption** Thoroughly analyzed, 256-bit keys:

- AES-256
- Salsa20 with a 256-bit key

Evaluating: Serpent-256, ...

**Symmetric authentication** Information-theoretic MACs:

- GCM using a 96-bit nonce and a 128-bit authenticator
- Poly1305
- Public-key encryption McEliece with binary Goppa codes:
  - ▶ length n = 6960, dimension k = 5413, t = 119 errors

Evaluating: QC-MDPC, Stehlé-Steinfeld NTRU, ....

- **Public-key signatures** Hash-based (minimal assumptions):
  - XMSS with any of the parameters specified in CFRG draft
  - SPHINCS-256

Evaluating: HFEv-, ...

#### 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  $\mathsf{T}$  from now on.

Example:

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{c} = (111)G = (10011) \text{ is a codeword.}$$

# Systematic form, Hamming weight and distance

- ► A systematic generator matrix is a generator matrix of the form (*I<sub>k</sub>*|*Q*) where *I<sub>k</sub>* is the *k* × *k* identity matrix and *Q* is a *k* × (*n* − *k*) matrix (redundant part).
- ► Easy to get parity-check matrix from systematic generator matrix, use H = (-Q<sup>T</sup>|I<sub>n-k</sub>).
- The Hamming weight of a word is the number of nonzero coordinates.

$$wt(1, 0, 0, 1, 1) = 3$$

► The Hamming distance between two words in IF<sup>n</sup><sub>2</sub> is the number of coordinates in which they differ.

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

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

#### Decoding problem

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

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

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**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 × n permutation matrix P and n − k × 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

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

- 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

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

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

KEM/DEM version: pick random e of weight t, use hash(e) as secret key to encrypt and authenticate.

# 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<sup>128</sup> pre-quantum security: (n; t) = (4096; 41) uses 60493 lvy Bridge cycles.
- Decoding speed at 2<sup>263</sup> 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 2<sup>128</sup> post-quantum security.
- More at https://binary.cr.yp.to/mcbits.html.

#### Binary Goppa code

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

- ▶ a list L = (a<sub>1</sub>,..., a<sub>n</sub>) of n distinct elements in 𝔽<sub>q</sub>, called the support.
- a square-free polynomial g(x) ∈ 𝔽<sub>q</sub>[x] of degree t such that g(a) ≠ 0 for all a ∈ 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

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

- ► 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

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

via XGCD. All this over  $\mathbb{F}_q = \mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ . In this form,  $S(\mathbf{c}) \equiv 0 \mod g(x)$  means

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

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

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

- ► These are t conditions over 𝔽<sub>q</sub>, so tm conditions over 𝔽<sub>2</sub>. Giving an (n - tm) × n parity check matrix over 𝔽<sub>2</sub>.
- Some rows might be linearly dependent, so  $k \ge n tm$ .

#### Nice parity check matrix

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

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

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

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

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

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

- ►  $g(a_i) \neq 0$  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 c ≠ 0 have small weight wt(c) = w ≤ t = det(g). For all i with c<sub>i</sub> = 0, x − a<sub>i</sub> appears in every summand.

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   For all i with c<sub>i</sub> = 0, x − a<sub>i</sub> appears in every summand.
   Cancel out those x − a<sub>i</sub> with c<sub>i</sub> = 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 c ≠ 0, so wt(c) = w ≥ t + 1.

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

- Let  $\mathbf{c} \neq 0$  have small weight  $wt(\mathbf{c}) = w$ .
- Put  $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x a_i)^{c_i}$  with  $c_i \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- Then the derivative  $f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x a_i)^{c_i}$ .
- 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 IF<sub>2</sub><sup>m</sup>:

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

thus f'(x) contains only terms of even degree and deg(f') ≤ w - 1. Assume w odd, thus deg(f') = w - 1.
Note that over 𝔽<sub>2</sub><sup>m</sup>: (x + 1)<sup>2</sup> = x<sup>2</sup> + 1

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Note that over 𝔽<sub>2<sup>m</sup></sub>: (x + 1)<sup>2</sup> = x<sup>2</sup> + 1 and in general

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

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  $\sigma(x) = \prod_{i,e_i \neq 0} (x a_i)$ . Same as f(x) before.
- σ(x) is called error locator polynomial. Given σ(x) can factor it to retrieve error positions, σ(a<sub>i</sub>) = 0 ⇔ 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

w

$$b^{2}(x) \equiv \sigma(x)s(x) \equiv (a^{2}(x) + xb^{2}(x))s(x) \mod g(x)$$
$$b^{2}(x)(x+1/s(x)) \equiv a^{2}(x) \mod g(x)$$

,

- ▶ 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 $(b) \leq \lfloor (t-1)/2 \rfloor$ .

# 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***p**. (**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 wt(Xp) ~ k/2.



- Idea: Introduce early abort by checking only ℓ positions (selected by set Z, green lines in the picture). This forms ℓ × k matrix X<sub>Z</sub>, length-ℓ vector s<sub>Z</sub>.
- Inner loop becomes:
  - 1. Pick **p** with  $wt(\mathbf{p}) = p$ .
  - 2. Compute  $X_Z \mathbf{p}$ .
  - 3. If  $\mathbf{s}_Z + X_Z \mathbf{p} \neq 0$  goto 1.
  - 4. Else compute Xp.
    - 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 s<sub>Z</sub> + X<sub>Z</sub>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 p with X<sub>Z</sub>p = 0:



- Split left part of K' into two disjoint subsets X and Y.
- Let  $A = \{ \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{k/2} | \operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{a}) = p \}$ ,  $B = \{ \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{k/2} | \operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{b}) = p \}$ .
- 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(s + Xa + Yb) = 2p is found for some X, Y, Z.
- Select p,  $\ell$ , and the subset of A to minimize overall work.
- Quantum targets: inner or outer loop.

#### 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 s<sub>Z</sub> + X<sub>Z</sub>a and next value for 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 (2<sup>58</sup> 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

Methods differ in where the errors are allowed to be.



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.

# 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. (See talk by Ludovic Perret.)
- 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). Check out PQCrypto-2016 Maurich-Heberle-Güneysu (tomorrow morning) and Tung Chou's talk in the hot topics session.
- Hermitian codes, general algebraic geometry codes.
- Please help us update https://pqcrypto.org/code.html.