Advanced code-based cryptography

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=  $\{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}.$ 

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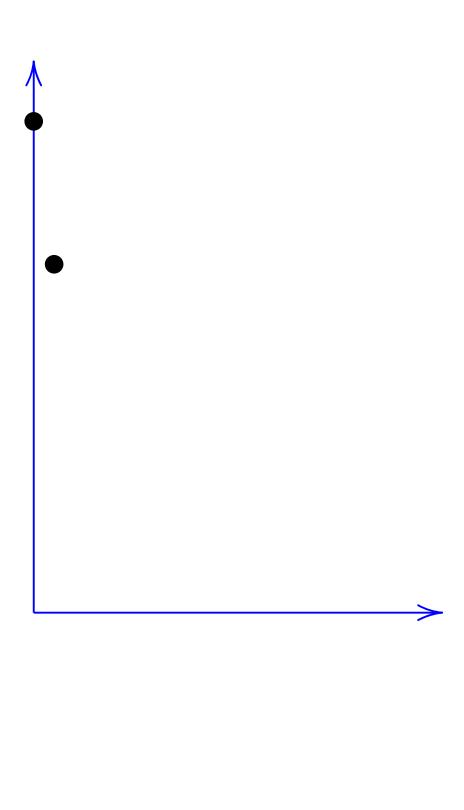
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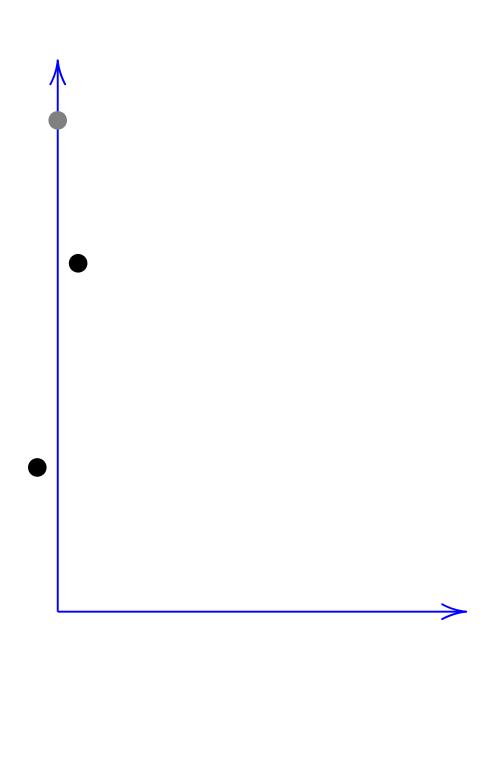
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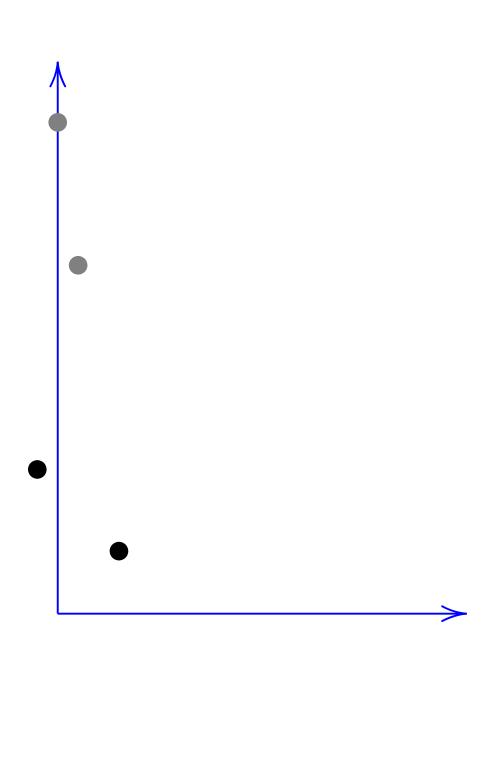
What is the shortest nonzero vector in *L*?

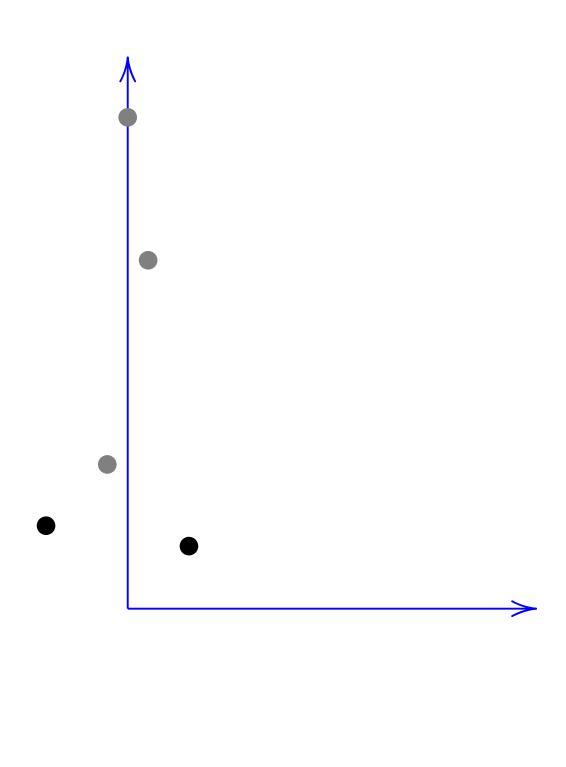
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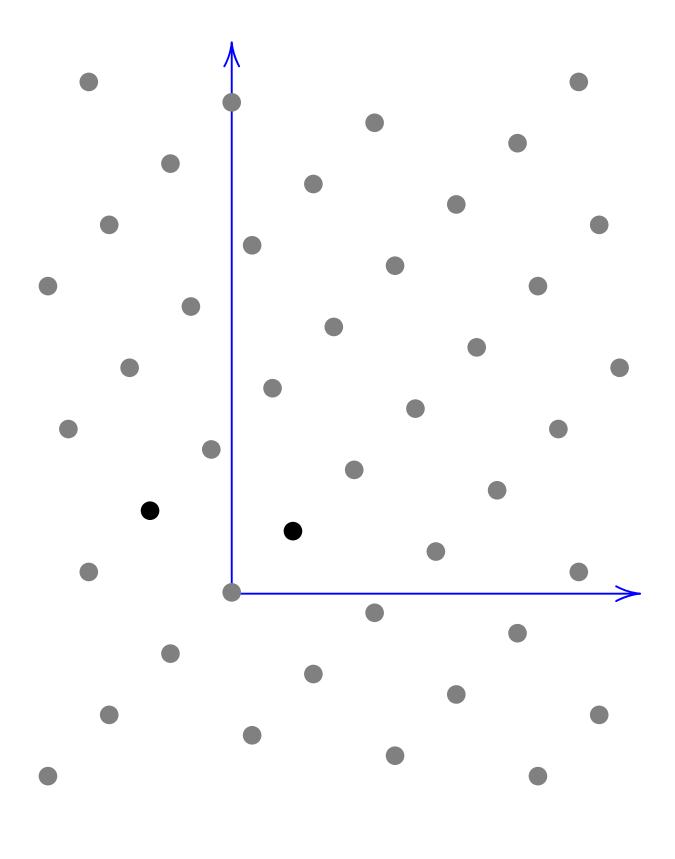
(-4, 4), (3, 3) are orthogonal. Shortest vectors in L are (0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3).











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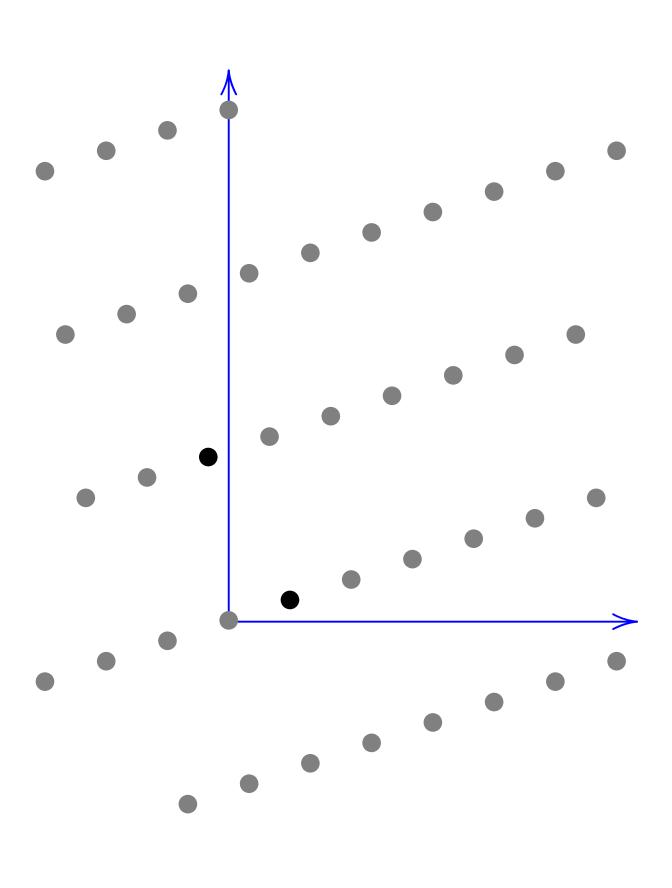
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Nearly orthogonal. Shortest vectors in L are (0,0), (3,1), (-3,-1).



Define 
$$P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$$
,  
 $r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P$ ,  
 $r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P$ ,  
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(111, 1): shortest nonzero vector. (10, 1110): shortest independent vector.

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Can use other metrics, or equivalently rescale L.

e.g. Define  $L \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2[\sqrt{x}] \times \mathbf{F}_2[\sqrt{x}]$  as  $(0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P$ .

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Successive generators for *L*:  $(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.  $(1, 10011\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.  $(10, 1110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.5.  $(111, 1\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.

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Successive generators for L:  $(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.  $(1, 10111\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.  $(10, 110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.5.  $(1101, 11\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.

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Lattice view: Have  $(0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P = (q_i, r_i\sqrt{x})P + (q_{i+1}, r_{i+1}\sqrt{x})P.$ 

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Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ . gcd $\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

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Say j is minimal with  $\deg r_j \sqrt{x} \le (\deg r_0)/2$ . Then  $\deg q_j \le (\deg r_0)/2$  so  $\deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \le (\deg r_0)/2$ . Shortest nonzero vector.

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 $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$  has degree  $\deg r_0\sqrt{x} - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$  for some  $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ . Shortest independent vector.

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$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$$
  
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If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$   $< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$ then  $\deg v < 0$  so v = 0; i.e., any vector in lattice shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$ is a multiple of  $(q_i, r_i\sqrt{x})$ .

#### Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ; integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ; integer  $t \geq 0$ ; distinct  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ; monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree twith  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

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Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$  as set of  $(c_1, \ldots, c_n)$  with  $\sum_i c_i/(x-a_i)=0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Then  $\#\Gamma \geq 2^{n-mt}$ .

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Lift  $\sum_i v_i/(x-a_i)$  from  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  to  $s \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with deg s < t.

Find shortest nonzero

$$(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$$
 in the lattice  $L = (0, g\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2m}[x] + (1, s\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2m}[x].$ 

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Define  $E, F \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  by

$$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$$
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Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

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$$e_i = 0$$
 if  $F(a_i) \neq 0$ .

$$e_i = E(a_i)/F'(a_i)$$
 if  $F(a_i) = 0$ .

This decoder "corrects |t/2| errors for  $\Gamma$ ".

Why does this work?

$$\sum_{i} e_{i}/(x-a_{i}) = E/F$$
 and  $\sum_{i} c_{i}/(x-a_{i}) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2}m[x]/g$  so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2}m[x]/g$  so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

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 $(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:  $\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$  $< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$  This decoder "corrects |t/2| errors for  $\Gamma$ ".

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Recall proof of "shortest":  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$  so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

$$\Gamma(g)$$
 contains  $\Gamma(g^2)$ :

$$\sum_{i} c_{i}/(x-a_{i}) = 0$$
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(Not covered in this talk: correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors. See, e.g., "jet list decoding".)

Proof: Assume

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$$F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$$
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Then  $F'/F = \sum_{i:c_i \neq 0} 1/(x - a_i)$   
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$$F'$$
 is a square:

if 
$$F = \sum_{j} F_{j}x^{j}$$
 then
$$F' = \sum_{j} jF_{j}x^{j-1}$$

$$= \sum_{j \in 1+2\mathbf{Z}} jF_{j}x^{j-1}$$

$$= (\sum_{j \in 1+2\mathbf{Z}} \sqrt{jF_{j}}x^{(j-1)/2})^{2}.$$

Standardize integers  $n \ge 0$ ;

$$t \ge 2$$
;  $m \ge 1$  with  $2^m \ge n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

$$n = 1024$$
,  $m = 10$ ,  $t = 50$ .

This is too small:

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 pre-quantum security.

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$$n = 6960$$
,  $m = 13$ ,  $t = 119$ :

$$pprox 2^{263}$$
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Alice's public key:  $mt \times n$  matrix K over  $\mathbf{F}_2$ such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

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Alice receives Ke, finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with Kv = Ke, decodes v to find v - e.

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1986 Niederreiter improvements:

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K is smaller than G whenever mt < n - mt.

Compress K to mt(n - mt) bits by requiring systematic form.

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### Better throughput than ECC

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Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

**26544** Ivy Bridge cycles for  $(n, t) = (2048, 32); \approx 2^{87}$ .

**79715** Ivy Bridge cycles for  $(n, t) = (3408, 67); \approx 2^{146}$ .

**306102** Ivy Bridge cycles for  $(n, t) = (6960, 119); \approx 2^{263}$ .

### The additive FFT

Fix 
$$n = 4096 = 2^{12}$$
,  $t = 41$ .

Big final decoding step is to find all roots in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$  of  $F = F_{41}x^{41} + \cdots + F_0x^0$ .

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Our cost: 6.01 adds, 2.09 mults.

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Wait a minute. Didn't we learn in school that FFT evaluates an n-coeff polynomial at n points using  $n^{1+o(1)}$  operations? Isn't this better than  $n^2/\lg n$ ?

#### Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$
  
at all the *n*th roots of 1.

Write 
$$F$$
 as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .  
Observe big overlap between  $F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2)$ ,  $F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2)$ .

 $F_0$  has n/2 coeffs; evaluate at (n/2)nd roots of 1 by same idea recursively. Similarly  $F_1$ . Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ . Standard workarounds are painful. FFT considered impractical.

1988 Wang–Zhu, independently 1989 Cantor: "additive FFT" in char 2. Still quite expensive.

1996 von zur Gathen-Gerhard: some improvements.

2010 Gao-Mateer: much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer, plus some new improvements.

Gao and Mateer evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1 x + \cdots + F_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

on a size-n  $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Main idea: Write F as

$$F_0(x^2 + x) + xF_1(x^2 + x)$$
.

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$ 

$$F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$$

and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$ 

$$F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + (\alpha + 1)F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha).$$

"Twist" to ensure  $1 \in \text{space}$ .

Then  $\{\alpha^2 + \alpha\}$  is a

size-(n/2) **F**<sub>2</sub>-linear space.

Apply same idea recursively.

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1 x + \cdots + F_t x^t$$
  
for any  $t < n$ .

⇒ several optimizations, not all of which are automated by simply tracking zeros.

For 
$$t = 0$$
: copy  $F_0$ .

For  $t \in \{1, 2\}$ :

 $F_1$  is a constant.

Instead of multiplying this constant by each  $\alpha$ , multiply only by generators and compute subset sums.

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n,$$
  
 $s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \dots + r_n\alpha_n,$   
 $s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \dots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$   
 $\vdots,$   
 $s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \dots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$ 

 $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n$  are received bits scaled by Goppa constants.

Typically precompute matrix mapping bits to syndrome.

Not as slow as Chien search but still  $n^{2+o(1)}$  and huge secret key.

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

$$F(lpha_1) = F_0 + F_1lpha_1 + \cdots + F_tlpha_1^t,$$
 $F(lpha_2) = F_0 + F_1lpha_2 + \cdots + F_tlpha_2^t,$ 
 $\vdots$ 
 $F(lpha_n) = F_0 + F_1lpha_n + \cdots + F_tlpha_n^t.$ 

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

$$F(\alpha_1) = F_0 + F_1 \alpha_1 + \cdots + F_t \alpha_1^t, \ F(\alpha_2) = F_0 + F_1 \alpha_2 + \cdots + F_t \alpha_2^t, \ \vdots,$$

$$F(\alpha_n) = F_0 + F_1 \alpha_n + \cdots + F_t \alpha_n^t$$

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$$F(\alpha_n) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_n + \cdots + F_t\alpha_n^t$$

Matrix for syndrome computation is transpose of matrix for multipoint evaluation.

Amazing consequence: syndrome computation is as few ops as multipoint evaluation. Eliminate precomputed matrix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix Mthen reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of M.

1956 Bordewijk; independently 1957 Lupanov for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis: preserves number of mults; preserves number of adds plus number of nontrivial outputs.

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Built new interpreter, allowing some code compression. Still big; still some overhead.

Better solution: stared at additive FFT, wrote down transposition with same loops etc.

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT translate easily to transposed algorithm.

Further savings: merged first stage with scaling by Goppa constants.

### Results

60493 Ivy Bridge cycles:

8622 for permutation.

20846 for syndrome.

7714 for BM.

14794 for roots.

8520 for permutation.

Code will be public domain.

We're still speeding it up.

More information:

cr.yp.to/papers.html#mcbits