

Analysis of QUAD

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QUAD(q, n, r), a Family of Stream Ciphers

State: n -tuple $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in K^n$, $K = \text{GF}(q)$

Update: $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow (Q_1(\mathbf{x}), Q_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, Q_n(\mathbf{x}))$. Here each Q_j is a randomly chosen, public quadratic polynomial

Output: r -tuple $(P_1(\mathbf{x}), P_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, P_r(\mathbf{x}))$ before updating (again, each P_j is a random, public quadratic polynomial)

At Eurocrypt 2006, Berbain-Gilbert-Patarin reported speeds for QUAD(2, 160, 160), QUAD(16, 40, 40), and QUAD(256, 20, 20).

A graphical Depiction

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \mathbf{x}_0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}_0) & \longrightarrow & \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}_1) & \longrightarrow & \mathbf{x}_3 = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}_2) \longrightarrow \cdots \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}_0) & & \mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}_1) & & \mathbf{y}_2 = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}_2) & & \mathbf{y}_3 = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}_3) \cdots \end{array}$$

Typically q is a power of 2, allowing each output vector $\mathbf{y}_i \in \text{GF}(q)^r$ to encrypt the next $r \lg q$ bits of plaintext in a straightforward way.

QUAD, “Provably Secure”?

- Security Theorem: Breaking QUAD implies the capability to solve $n + r$ random quadratic equations in n variables.
- Generic \mathcal{MQ} (Multivariate Quadratics) is an NP-hard problem.
- All known algorithms to solve such a generic quadratic polynomial system have average time complexity $2^{an+o(n)}$ when $r/n = \text{constant}$; most also require exponential space.

Difficult Generically, *But* . . .

Following the position paper of Kobitz-Menezes (“Another look at Provable Security” J. of Crypto.) we would like to discuss the implications of the security proof.

- How tight is the security reduction?
- How difficult is the underlying problem?
- What is the best attack known today?
- Is the security reduction complete?

Instances and Provability

We would like to proposed the following classification of instances of families of cryptosystems covered by security reductions:

Broken: We can attack and break the instance.

Unprovable: We can solve the underlying hard problem.

Unproven: A putative feasible attack on the instance need not lead to an improvement on the solution of the underlying hard problem due to the looseness factor in the security reduction.

Proved: Security proof works as advertised **for this instance.**

Today's System-Solving

State-of-the-art algorithms to solve m generic polynomial equations in n $\mathbf{GF}(q)$ -variables are all related in some way to Buchberger's algorithm for computing Gröbner Bases.

- XL, first proposed by Lazard and rediscovered by Courtois *et al.*
Essence: an elimination on a Macaulay Matrix. Also the adjuncts
 - FXL ('F' for "fix") introduces guessing variables.
 - XL2, running the elimination on the highest monomials only and then repeatedly multiply by variables to raise degrees.
- \mathbf{F}_4 (now in MAGMA) and \mathbf{F}_5 , of which XL2 is an inferior form.

Facts of Life for XL

$$\# \text{ monomials: } T = [t^D] \left((1 - t^q)^n (1 - t)^{-(n+1)} \right); \quad (1)$$

$$\# \text{ free monoms: } T - I \geq [t^D] \left(\frac{(1 - t^q)^n}{(1 - t)^{n+1}} \prod_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{1 - t^{d_i}}{1 - t^{qd_i}} \right) \right). \quad (2)$$

Here $\deg p_i := d_i$, $[u]s :=$ coefficient of u in expansion of s . We expect a solution at $D_{XL} = \min\{D : \text{RHS of Eq. 2} \leq 0\}$. If the (p_i) is q -semi-regular (true almost always), Eq. 2 is $=$ as long as its RHS remains positive.

$$T = \binom{n+D}{D}, \quad T - I = [t^D] \left((1 - t)^{m-n-1} (1 + t)^m \right)$$

is the reduced case for large fields ($q > D$). $C_{XL} \approx 3kT^2(c_0 + c_1 \lg T)$ using a modified Wiedemann algorithm (k is average number of terms per equation).

XL with Homogenous Wiedemann

1. **Create the extended Macaulay matrix of the system to a certain degree D_{XL} :** Multiply each equation of degree d_i by all monomials up to degree $D_{XL} - d_i$ and take the matrix of coefficients.
2. **Randomly delete some rows then add some columns to form a square system, $A\mathbf{x} = 0$ where $\dim A = \beta T + (1 - \beta)R$. Usually $\beta = 1$ works. Keep the same density of terms.**
3. **Apply the homogeneous version of Wiedemann's method to solve for \mathbf{x} :**
 - (a) Set $k = 0$ and $g_0(z) = 1$, and take a random \mathbf{b} .
 - (b) Choose a random \mathbf{u}_{k+1} [usually the $(k + 1)$ -st unit vector].
 - (c) Find the sequence $\mathbf{u}_{k+1}A^i\mathbf{b}$ starting from $i = 0$ and going up to $2N - 1$.
 - (d) Apply g_k as a difference operator to this sequence, and **run the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm over $\text{GF}(q)$ on the result** to find the minimal polynomial f_{k+1} .
 - (e) Set $g_{k+1} := f_{k+1}g_k$ and $k := k + 1$. If $\deg(g_k) < N$ and $k < n$, go to (b).
4. **Compute the solution \mathbf{x} using the minpoly $f(z) = g_k(z) = c_m z^m + c_{m-1} z^{m-1} + \dots + c_\ell z^\ell$:** Take another random \mathbf{b} . Start from $\mathbf{x} = (c_m A^{m-\ell} + c_{m-1} A^{m-\ell-1} + \dots + c_\ell 1)\mathbf{b}$, continuing to multiply by A until we find a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = 0$.
5. If the nullity $\ell > 1$ repeat the check below at every point of an affine subspace (q points if $\ell = 2$).
6. Obtain the solution from the last few elements of \mathbf{x} and check its correctness.

QUAD(256, 20, 20) Unprovable from \mathcal{MQ}

- Is 20 $\text{GF}(256)$ variables in 40 equations hard to solve?
- We say no! Generic XL solves this in 2^{45} cycles, only a few hours on a decent computer.
- The technical details are: cycles per multiplication on a P4 ≈ 12 (3 L1 cache loads); $D_{XL} = 5$ and $T = 53130$. Max number of terms per equation is $k \lesssim 231$, so $C_{XL} \approx 9 \times 10^{12} \lesssim 2^{45}$.
- Hence no security is provable [nor claimed by orig. QUAD paper] from \mathcal{MQ} (20 vars, 40 eqs) over $\text{GF}(256)$.

Direct Attack

- Can $\text{QUAD}(256, 20, 20)$ be a cipher that is acceptably secure without being provable? We say no, and estimate 2^{63} cycles for a direct attack that breaks $\text{QUAD}(256, 20, 20)$.
- Often we can acquire some cipher stream via known plaintext. This attack only uses **two blocks (2^9 bits)** of output.
- Let the instance be $\mathbf{x}_{j+1} = Q(\mathbf{x}_j)$, $\mathbf{y}_j = P(\mathbf{x}_j)$ with $P, Q : \text{GF}(q)^n \rightarrow \text{GF}(q)^n$. With (WLOG) \mathbf{y}_0 and \mathbf{y}_1 , we solve for \mathbf{x}_0 via

$$P(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}_0, P(Q(\mathbf{x}_0)) = \mathbf{y}_1.$$

20 quadratics, 20 quartics over GF(256)

- 2^{63} mults upper bound, real value should be more like $\lesssim 2^{60}$.
- Significant parameters are:
 - degree $D_{XL} = 10$,
 - #monomials $T = \binom{30}{10} = 30045015$,
 - #initial equations is $R = 20 \times \binom{28}{8} + 20 \times \binom{26}{6} = 66766700$,
 - total # terms in those equations is
 $\tau := kR = 20 \binom{28}{8} \binom{22}{2} + 20 \binom{26}{6} \binom{24}{4} = 63287924700$.

Should be doable on a machine or cluster with 384GB of memory.

Testing Attack vs. QUAD(256, n , n)

n	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
D	7	7	7	8	8	8	8
C_{XL}	$2.29 \cdot 10^2$	$7.55 \cdot 10^2$	$2.30 \cdot 10^3$	$5.12 \cdot 10^4$	$1.54 \cdot 10^5$	$4.39 \cdot 10^5$	$1.17 \cdot 10^6$
$\lg C_{XL}$	7.84	9.56	$1.12 \cdot 10$	$1.56 \cdot 10$	$1.72 \cdot 10$	$1.87 \cdot 10$	$2.02 \cdot 10$
T	$1.14 \cdot 10^4$	$1.94 \cdot 10^4$	$3.28 \cdot 10^4$	$1.26 \cdot 10^5$	$2.03 \cdot 10^5$	$3.20 \cdot 10^5$	$4.90 \cdot 10^5$
aTm	120	147	177	245	288	335	385
clks	14.6	13.6	12.1	13.1	12.9	12.8	12.7

MS C++ 7; P-D 3.0GHz, 2GB DDR2-533, T: #monomials, aTm: average terms in a row, clks: number of clocks per multiplication.

- Serial Code on *i386* requires three dependent L1 accesses per multiplication (3 cycles K8/Core, 4 cycles P4) plus change.
- Unrolling loops for x86-64 saves 20%–25% cycles a multiplication.
- 256-semi-regularity assumption fits empirical data up to $n = 15$.

QUAD(16, 40, 40) Unprovable, but not Broken

- 80 eqs. in 40 GF(16) vars. estimated to $< 2^{72}$ cycles in XL.
- Technical data: $D_{XL} = 8$, $T = 377348994$, and $k \lesssim 861$.
- So QUAD(16, 40, 40) can *never* be “provably secure” from \mathcal{MQ} (40,80). But we don’t know how to break it in 2^{80} .
- Direct solution takes $\lesssim 2^{95}$ mults (guesstimated at 2^{100} cycles) via XL-Wiedemann ($D_{XL} = 14$, $T = 3245372870670$).
- Data complexity is 10000 TB (only $\sim 2^{56}$ bits) for the matrix.

Why Only 2 Blocks?

- Practical answer: we test with degree-8 equations; doesn't help.
- Theoretical answer: the XL operating degree is

$$D_{XL} = \min \left\{ D : [t^D] \frac{((1-t^2)(1-t^4))^n}{(1-t)^{n+1}} < 0 \right\},$$

Hence $w := D_{XL}/n \approx$ the smallest positive zero of $f_n(w) :=$

$$\oint \frac{(1-z^2)^n(1-z^4)^n}{(1-z)^{n+1}z^{wn+1}} dz = \oint \frac{dz}{z(1-z)} \left(\frac{(1+z)(1-z^4)}{z^w} \right)^n$$

Diminishing Returns (for large q)

In asymptotic analysis, $f_n(w) = \oint \frac{dz}{z(1-z)} \left(\frac{(1+z)(1-z^4)}{z^w} \right)^n$ can only vanish if the saddle point equation of the integral, letting the derivative of the expression between the paren be zero:

$$(w - 5)z^4 + z^3 - z^2 + z - w = 0$$

has double roots (a “monkey saddle”), which happens when w is very close to **0.2** (actually ≈ 0.200157957).

Similar computations including degree-8 equations only make it $w \approx 0.1998$. Clearly not worth our time.

QUAD(2, 160, 160): An Unproven Case

- QUAD(2, 160, 160) takes $\approx 2^{180}$ multiplications to attack directly: just solve 160 equations in 160 variables using XL.
- For $n < 200$, the effect of using quartic and degree-8 equations (2nd, 3rd output blocks and beyond) is not discernible.
- Similar asymptotics as above shows that for large n they (eventually) make a big difference.
- The underlying \mathcal{MQ} problem of 160 vars and 320 equations takes 2^{140} multiplications, which seems high enough, but . . .

Tightness of Reduction

- QUAD attack implies an \mathcal{MQ} attack *with a loss of efficiency*.
- Specifically, if λr bits of output from $\text{QUAD}(2, n, r)$ can be distinguished from uniform with advantage ϵ in time T , then a random \mathcal{MQ} system of $n + r$ equations in n variables over $\text{GF}(2)$ can be solved with probability $2^{-3}\epsilon/\lambda$ in time

$$T' \leq \frac{2^7 n^2 \lambda^2}{\epsilon^2} \left(T + (\lambda + 2)T_S + \log \left(\frac{2^7 n \lambda^2}{\epsilon^2} \right) + 2 \right) + \frac{2^7 n \lambda^2}{\epsilon^2} T_S$$

where $T_S :=$ time to run one block of $\text{QUAD}(2, n, r)$.

Proven and Unproven Cases for $q = 2$

The looseness factor is about $2^{10}n^2\lambda^3/\epsilon^3$. If $\epsilon = 0.01$, $n = r$, and $L = \lambda n = 2^{40}$, this factor is then $2^{150}/n$. The theorem cannot conclude $T \geq 2^{80}$ without assuming that $T' \geq 2^{230}/n$.

- $n = 160$ is hence Unproven (original QUAD paper states this).
- $n = 256$: *Proven* for $L = 2^{22}$, $\epsilon = 0.01$, $T' \approx 2^{205}$ (multiplications). In fact we only need $T' \geq 2^{168}$.
- $n = 350$: *Proven* for $L = 2^{40}$, $\epsilon = 0.01$, $T' \approx 2^{263}$ (multiplications). We only needed $T' \geq 2^{221}$.

A Note on $T^{2.376}$

- Often $T^{2.376}$ is used as the cost of eliminations.
- This discounts the huge constant that is expected from the Coppersmith-Winograd paper.
- We improve $T^{2.376}$ to T^2 , using a sparse matrix algorithm, but there are still factors in front of T^2 .
- This explains the gap in the analysis for QUAD(2, 350, 350).

Conclusions and TODOs

- Generically \mathcal{MQ} is believed to be exponential in n . Complexity of breaking QUAD would then also be of the form $2^{an+o(n)}$. But the coefficient a ($= a(q, r/n)$) can be surprisingly small.
- QUAD is clearly a worthwhile attempt and worth optimizing further.
- We need tighter reductions. At the moment, we are reducing from what seems to be a more difficult problem to an easier problem.
- Comparisons between ciphers w. provably secure parameters?
- Taking into account storage access delays and parallelism?

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QUESTIONS??

Why Wiedemann and not Lanczos

The two should be more or less equivalent in modern forms. We chose Wiedemann over Lanczos because in the “naive” forms

- Because it is easier to program well. Lanczos requires multiplying by a sparse matrix in opposite directions.
- We don't need to use a random diagonal vector.
- We just had the code ready to use.

Why XL and not \mathbf{F}_5

- Theoretical: Working on the top degree monomials, for large fields $\mathbf{F}_4/\mathbf{F}_5$ play with one fewer variable. This may not offset dense vs. sparse matrix equation solving difference if $\omega > 2$.
- Practical: If the matrices of $\mathbf{F}_4/\mathbf{F}_5$ will eventually become moderately dense, we will run out of memory before time.

$m - n$	D_{XL}	D_{reg}	$n = 9$	$n = 10$	$n = 11$	$n = 12$	$n = 13$
0	2^m	m	6.090	46.770	350.530	3322.630	sigmem
1	m	$\lceil \frac{m+1}{2} \rceil$	1.240	8.970	53.730	413.780	2538.870
2	$\lceil \frac{m+1}{2} \rceil$	$\lceil \frac{m+2-\sqrt{m+2}}{2} \rceil$	0.320	2.230	12.450	88.180	436.600

Test results given on P4-3.2G, 2GB RAM, MAGMA-2.12 with \mathbf{F}_4 .

- Pragmatic: we don't have a copy of \mathbf{F}_5 to play with.

Basic XL at Degree D

Let $\mathcal{T}^{(D)} := \{\text{deg} \leq D \text{ monomials}\}$, $T := |\mathcal{T}^{(D)}|$.

- EXTEND: first multiply each p_i of degree d_i by every monomial $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}} := x_1^{b_1} \cdots x_n^{b_n} \in \mathcal{T}^{(D-d_i)}$ to get equations $\mathcal{R}^{(D)}$.
- LINEARIZE: then reduce $\mathcal{R}^{(D)}$ as a linear system in all the $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{b}} \in \mathcal{T}^{(D)}$. We may be able to solve the system or to reduce down to a univariate equation (say in x_1).

$R := |\mathcal{R}^{(D)}|$ and I counts resp. equations and independent equations among $\mathcal{R}^{(D)}$.

Toy XL example over GF(7)

$$\begin{array}{l}
 p_1 : \quad x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 + 5xy + 2xz + 6yz + 5x + 3y + 5z + 1 = 0 \\
 p_2 : \quad 3x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 + 4xy + 6xz + 2yz + 6x + 4y + 3z + 2 = 0 \\
 p_3 : \quad 2x^2 + 3y^2 + 2z^2 + 5xy + + 2yz + 4x + y + z + 4 = 0 \\
 p_4 : \quad 6x^2 + 3y^2 + 3z^2 + + 5xz + yz + + 5y + 2z + 2 = 0
 \end{array}$$

Here $n = 3$, $m = 4$, we will use $D = 3$, and multiply every equation by $1, x, y, z$ to get $\binom{4}{3} = 20$ monomials (including 1) and $4 \times 4 = 16$ equations.

The Extended Macaulay Matrix

x^2	xz	y^2	xyz	zx	yz	zy	xy	xz	yz	x^3	x^2	x	y^3	y^2	y	z^3	z^2	z	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	6	0	1	5	0	4	3	0	1	5	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	2	0	3	6	0	2	4	0	3	3	2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	2	0	2	4	0	3	1	0	2	1	4
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	6	0	0	3	5	0	3	2	2
5	2	4	6	1	0	0	3	5	0	1	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	5	2	0	6	1	5	0	5	0	0	0	4	3	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	5	2	4	6	0	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	0
4	6	2	2	3	0	0	4	3	0	3	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	4	6	0	2	3	6	0	3	0	0	0	2	4	2	0	0	0	0
0	3	0	4	6	2	2	0	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	0
5	0	3	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	2	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	5	0	0	2	2	4	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	0	0	0
0	2	0	5	0	3	2	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	4	0
0	5	3	1	3	0	0	5	2	0	6	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	5	0	1	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	5	2	0	0	0	0
0	6	0	0	5	3	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	2	0

The Result of Elimination

x^2y	x^2z	y^2x	xyz	z^2x	y^2z	z^2y	xy	xz	yz	x^3	x^2	x	y^3	y^2	y	z^3	z^2	z	1
5	2	4	6	1	0	0	3	5	0	1	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	5	4	6	1	3	6	5	4	6	4	4	3	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	3	6	0	3	4	1	2	6	0	5	6	2	5	4	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0	2	3	4	5	3	0	2	1	2	4	2	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	5	5	5	4	6	5	3	1	3	3	4	6	1	5	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	5	3	2	4	0	0	1	4	1	2	1	0	2	6	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	2	0	5	1	5	6	5	6	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	2	0	2	4	0	3	1	0	2	1	4
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	6	0	0	3	5	0	3	2	2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	2	4	2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	6	3	1	0	4	1	6	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	4	3	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	4	2	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	6	0	0	1	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	3	6	1	5	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	1	6

Operative Condition and Cost of XL

- XL solves a system if $T - I \leq \min(D, q - 1)$.
- Other situations where XL also succeeds are called “pathological terminations”. [Our example above is one.]
- Let $E(N, M) :=$ the time complexity of elimination on N variables and M equations, then XL takes time $C_{\text{XL}} \approx E(T, R)$.
- Asymptotically $\lg E(T, R) \sim \omega \lg T$, where ω is “the order of matrix multiplication”. An often-cited number is **2.376**.