

The Nested Subset Differential Attack

A Practical Direct Attack Against LUOV which Forges a Signature within 210 Minutes

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Abstract. In 2017, Ward Beullens *et al.* submitted Lifted Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar [3], which is a modification to the Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar Scheme by Patarin. Previously, Ding *et al.* proposed the Subfield Differential Attack [10] which prompted a change of parameters by the authors of LUOV for the second round of the NIST post quantum standardization competition [2].

In this paper we propose a modification to the Subfield Differential Attack called the Nested Subset Differential Attack which fully breaks half of the parameter sets put forward. We also show by experimentation that this attack is practically possible to do in under 210 minutes for the level I security parameters and not just a theoretical attack. The Nested Subset Differential attack is a large improvement of the Subfield differential attack which can be used in real world circumstances. Moreover, we will only use what is called the "lifted" structure of LUOV, and our attack can be thought as a development of solving "lifted" quadratic systems.

1 Introduction

1.1 Signature Schemes and the NIST Post Quantum Standardization

Signature schemes allow one to digitally sign a document. These were first theoretically proposed by Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman using public key cryptography in [23]. The first and still most commonly used scheme is that of RSA made by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman [20]. As technology and long distance communication become increasingly more a part of everyone's life, it becomes vital that one can verify who sent them a message and sign off on any message they intend to send. However, Shor's algorithm and the potential advent of real quantum computer threaten the security of the RSA scheme and many others now in use [22]. Thus, NIST put out a call for proposals in 2016 for post-quantum cryptosystems for standardization. These cryptosystems, though using classical computing in their operations, would resist quantum attacks [16]. We are currently in the second round of the "competition," with many different types of schemes being proposed. One of these is multivariate cryptography.

1.2 Multivariate Cryptography

Signature schemes rely on a trapdoor function, one which is very difficult to invert except if one has special knowledge about the specific function. Multivariate cryptography bases its trapdoors on the difficulty of solving a random system of m polynomials in n variables over a finite field. For efficiency these polynomials are generally of degree 2. This has been proven to be NP hard [12], and thus is a good candidate for a public key cryptosystem. Moreover, working over these finite fields is often more efficient than older, number theory based methods like RSA. The difficulty lies in the fact that, as these systems must be invertible for the user and thus require a trapdoor, they are not truly random and must have a specific form which undermines the supposed NP hardness of solving them. Generally their special form is hidden by composition by invertible affine maps.

The first real breakthrough for multivariate cryptography was the MI or C^* cryptosystem proposed by Matsumoto and Imai in 1988 [15]. Their insight was to use the correspondence ψ between a n dimensional vector space k^n over a finite field k and a n degree extension K over k . They constructed their univariate trapdoor function $\mathcal{F} : K \rightarrow K$ over the large field which they were able to solve due to its special shape, and then composed it with two invertible affine maps $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T} : k^n \rightarrow k^n$ hiding its structure. Their public key is then $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{S} \circ \psi \circ \mathcal{F} \circ \psi^{-1} \circ \mathcal{T}$. Though broken today, the MI cryptosystem is the inspiration for all "big field" schemes which have their trapdoor over a larger field. But the attack against MI is the inspiration for what are called oil and vinegar schemes, which LUOV is an extension of. The Linearization Equation Attack was developed by Patarin [17]. To be brief, Patarin discovered that plain-text/cipher-text pairs (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) will satisfy equations (called the linearization equations) of the form

$$\sum \alpha_{ij} x_i y_j + \sum \beta_i x_i + \sum \gamma_i y_i + \delta = 0$$

Collecting enough such pairs and plugging them into the above equation produces linear equations in the α_{ij} 's, β_i 's, γ_i 's, and δ which then can be solved for. Then for any cipher-text \mathbf{y} , its corresponding plain-text \mathbf{x} will satisfy the linear equations found by plugging in \mathbf{y} into the linearization equations. This will either solve for the \mathbf{x} directly if enough linear equations were found or at least massively increase the efficiency of other direct attacks of solving for \mathbf{x} . So a quadratic problem becomes linear and thus easy to solve.

1.3 Oil and Vinegar Schemes

Inspired by the Linearization Equation Attack, Patarin introduced the Oil and Vinegar scheme [18]. The key idea is to reduce the problem of solving a quadratic system of equations into solving a linear system by separating the variables into two types, the vinegar which can be guessed for and the oil which will be solved for. Let \mathbb{F} be a (generally small) finite field, m and v be two integers, and $n = m + v$. The central map $\mathcal{F} : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$ is a quadratic map whose components f_1, \dots, f_m are in the form

$$f_k(X) = \sum_{i=1}^v \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_{i,k} x_i + \gamma_k$$

where each coefficient is in \mathbb{F} . Here the set of variables $V = \{x_1, \dots, x_\nu\}$ are called the vinegar variables, and the set $O = \{x_{\nu+1}, \dots, x_n\}$ are the oil variables. While the vinegar variables are allowed to be multiplied to any other variables, there are no oil times oil terms. Hence, if we guess for the vinegar variables we are left with a system of m linear equations in m variables. This has a high probability of being invertible (and one can always guess again for the vinegar variables if it is not). By composing with an affine transformation $\mathcal{T} : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$ one gets the trapdoor function $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{T}$. This is indeed a trapdoor as by composing with \mathcal{T} , the oil and vinegar shape of the polynomials is lost and they appear just to be random. Thus for a oil and vinegar system the public key is \mathcal{P} and the private key is $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{T})$. To sign a document Y , one first computes $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(Y) = Z$ by guessing the vinegar variables until \mathcal{F} is an invertible linear system. Then one computes $\mathcal{T}^{-1}(Z) = W$. One verifies that W is a signature for Y by noting that $\mathcal{P}(W) = Y$.

Patarin originally proposed that the number of oil variables would equal the number of vinegar variables. Hence the original scheme is now called Balanced Oil and Vinegar. However, Balanced Oil Vinegar was broken by Kipnis and Shamir using the method of invariant subspaces [13]. This attack, however, is thwarted by making the number of vinegar variables sufficiently greater than the number of oil variables. Generally this is between 2 and 4 times as many vinegar variables to oil variables. Thus modern oil and vinegar schemes are called Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar (UOV). The other major attack using the structure of UOV is the Oil and Vinegar Reconciliation attack proposed by Ding *et al.* However, with appropriate parameters this attack can be avoided as well [8]. UOV remains unbroken to this day, and offers competitive signing and verifying times compared to other signatures schemes. Its main flaw is its rather large key size. Thus there have been many modifications to UOV designed to reduce the key size. One, due to Petzoldt, is to use a pseudo-random number generator to generate large portions of the key from a smaller seed which is easier to store [19]. Other schemes use the basic mathematical structure of UOV, but modify it in a way to increase efficiency. However, any changes can generate weakness for the system as can be seen from the first round contender of the NIST competition HIMQ-3 [21] which was broken by the Singularity Attack from Ding *et al.* [9]. Two of the nine signature schemes left in the second round of the competition are also based on UOV. Rainbow, originally proposed in 2005, gains efficiency by forming multiple UOV layers where the oil variables in the previous layers are the vinegar variables in the latter layers [8]. The other scheme first proposed in [3] is Lifted Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar (LUOV) whose core idea is to reduce its key size by selecting all the coefficients of its polynomials from $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$. However, LUOV signs its messages in some extension field \mathbb{F}_{2^r} . LUOV was attacked by Ding *et al.* using the Subfield Differential Attack (SDA) in [10]. SDA uses the lifted form of the polynomials to always work in a smaller field and thus increase efficiency of direct attacks (those which try to solve the quadratic system outright) against LUOV. The authors of LUOV have amended their parameters in order to prevent SDA. However, in this paper we will show that LUOV is still vulnerable to a modified form of SDA which we will call the Nested Subset Differential Attack (NSDA).

1.4 Lifted Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar (LUOV)

The LUOV, proposed in [3], is a UOV scheme with three main modifications. Let \mathbb{F}_{2^r} be an extension of \mathbb{F}_2 , m and v be positive integers, and $n = m + v$. The central maps $\mathcal{F} : \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$ is a system of quadratic maps $\mathcal{F}(X) = (F^{(1)}(X), \dots, F^{(m)}(X))$ whose components are in oil and vinegar form

$$F^{(k)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^v \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,k} x_i + \gamma_k.$$

The first modification is that each $F^{(k)}$ is "lifted," meaning that the coefficients are taken from the prime field \mathbb{F}_2 . Messages are still taken over the extension field, hence the name Lifted Unbalanced Oil Vinegar. The second modification is that the affine map \mathcal{T} has the easier to store and computationally faster to sign form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}_v & \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1}_o \end{bmatrix}.$$

This was first proposed by Czyppek [7]. This does not affect security as for any given UOV private key $(\mathcal{F}', \mathcal{T}')$ there is highly likely an equivalent private key $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{T})$ where \mathcal{T} is of the form above [25]. The third modification is that LUOV uses Petzdolt's method of generating the keys from a PRNG instead of storing them directly [19].

1.5 Our Contributions

In this paper we will first present the original SDA and then NSDA which is a modified version of the SDA attack which will defeat fully half of the new parameter sets used by LUOV. These parameters will fall well short of their targeted NIST security levels. We will also document an attack against one of these parameters sets which we were able to perform in under 210 minutes. Our attack does not rely on the oil and vinegar structure of LUOV, and can be seen as a way to solve "lifted" polynomial equations in general.

2 A Lemma on Random Maps

For both the Subfield Differential Attack and the Nested Subset Differential Attack we will require a short lemma on random maps which, under the assumption that quadratic systems of polynomials act like random maps, will allow us to say when it is possible to forge signatures.

Lemma 1. *Let A and B be two finite sets and $\mathcal{Q} : A \rightarrow B$ be a random map. For each $b \in B$, the probability that $\mathcal{Q}^{-1}(b)$ is non-empty is approximately $1 - e^{-|A|/|B|}$.*

Proof. As the output of each element of A is independent, it is elementary that the probability for there to be at least one $a \in A$ such that $\mathcal{Q}(a) = b$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 - \Pr(\mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq b, \forall \alpha \in A) &= 1 - \prod_{\alpha \in A} \Pr(\mathcal{Q}(\alpha) \neq b) \\
 &= 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{|B|}\right)^{|A|} = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{|B|}\right)^{|B| \frac{|A|}{|B|}}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Using $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e^{-1}$, we achieve the desired result.

3 The Subfield Differential Attack

3.1 Transforming the Public Key into Better Form

In this section we recall the Subfield Differential Attack proposed in [10]. Let $\mathcal{P} : \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$ be a LUOV public key. Let $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^n$ be an indeterminate point. Then

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \begin{cases} P^{(1)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,1} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,1} x_i + \gamma_1 \\ P^{(2)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,2} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,2} x_i + \gamma_2 \\ \vdots \\ P^{(m)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,m} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,m} x_i + \gamma_m \end{cases}$$

where for each i, j, k we have $\alpha_{i,j,k}, \beta_{i,k}, \gamma_k \in \mathbb{F}_2$. Due to this special structure we are able to transform \mathcal{P} to be over a subfield of \mathbb{F}_{2^r} which, depending on the parameters, will allow us to forge signatures.

First we recall for every positive integer d which divides r we may represent \mathbb{F}_{2^r} as a quotient ring

$$\mathbb{F}_{2^r} \cong \mathbb{F}_{2^d}[t] / \langle g(t) \rangle$$

where $g(t)$ is a irreducible degree $s = r/d$ polynomial. For details see [14]. Let $\bar{X} = (\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^d}^n$ be an indeterminate point and $X' = (x'_1, \dots, x'_n) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^n$ be a random fixed point. So $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}(\bar{X}) := \mathcal{P}(\bar{X} + X') : \mathbb{F}_{2^d}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$. Further this map is of a special form. Examining the k th component of $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}(\bar{X})$

$$\tilde{P}^{(k)}(\bar{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} (\bar{x}_i + x'_i)(\bar{x}_j + x'_j) + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,k} (\bar{x}_i + x'_i) + \gamma_k.$$

Expanding the above and separating the quadratic terms leads to

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{P}^{(k)}(\bar{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} (x'_i \bar{x}_i + x'_j \bar{x}_j + x'_i x'_j) \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,k} (\bar{x}_i + x'_i) + \gamma_k + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} \bar{x}_i \bar{x}_j.
 \end{aligned}$$

We see that, due to $\alpha_{i,j,k} \in \mathbb{F}_2$, the coefficients of the quadratic terms $\bar{x}_i \bar{x}_j$ are all in the prime field. However, as the x'_i are random elements from \mathbb{F}_{2^r} , the coefficients of the linear \bar{x}_i terms will contain all the powers of t up to $s-1$. This means that, by grouping by the various powers of t , we may rewrite $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}(\bar{X})$ as

$$\tilde{\mathcal{P}}(\bar{X}) = \begin{cases} \tilde{P}^{(1)}(\bar{X}) = Q_1(\bar{X}) + \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} L_{i,1}(\bar{X}) t^i \\ \tilde{P}^{(2)}(\bar{X}) = Q_2(\bar{X}) + \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} L_{i,2}(\bar{X}) t^i \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{P}^{(m)}(\bar{X}) = Q_m(\bar{X}) + \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} L_{i,m}(\bar{X}) t^i \end{cases}$$

3.2 Forging a Signature

Now suppose we wanted to forge a signature for a message Y . First decompose Y into the sum of vectors

$$Y = Y_0 + Y_1 t + \cdots + Y_{s-1} t^{s-1}$$

where for each i , $Y_i = (y_{i,1}, \dots, y_{i,m}) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^d}^m$.

First one finds the solution space S for the system of linear equations

$$A = \{L_{i,j}(\bar{X}) = y_{i,j} : 1 \leq i \leq s-1, 1 \leq j \leq m\}.$$

As A is essentially a random system of linear equations, it will have a high probability to be full rank $(s-1)m$ (or n if $(s-1)m \geq n$). So the dimension of S will be

$$\dim(S) = \max\{n - (s-1)m, 0\}.$$

Next, one tries to solve the system of m quadratic equations

$$B = \{Q_i(S) = y_{0,i} : 1 \leq i \leq m\}.$$

If S is of large enough dimension, which depends on the choice of d , n , and m , The solution \bar{X} to B yields $\tilde{P}(\bar{X}) = Y$ which implies that $\mathcal{P}(\bar{X} + X') = Y$. Hence $\bar{X} + X'$ is the signature we seek. As the most costly step is solving the m quadratic equations of B over \mathbb{F}_{2^d} , we always choose d to be as small as possible for the S to likely have a solution according to Lemma 1.

4 Nested Subset Differential Attack

4.1 The Change of Parameters for LUOV

In response to the Subfield Differential Attack, the authors of LUOV proposed the size of the extension r should be made prime so that the only subfield will be the prime

Table 1. The New Parameter Sets for LUOV

Name	Security Level (r, m, v, n)	
LUOV-7-57-197	I	(7, 57, 197, 254)
LUOV-7-83-283	III	(7, 83, 283, 366)
LUOV-7-110-374	V	(7, 110, 374, 484)
LUOV-47-42-182	I	(47, 42, 182, 224)
LUOV-61-60-261	III	(61, 60, 261, 321)
LUOV-79-76-341	V	(79, 76, 341, 417)

field \mathbb{F}_2 [2]. They claim that given their new parameters, \mathbb{F}_2^n will be far too small for a signature to exist for any given differential with any probability. The new parameters are in Table 1. We note that they are for different NIST security levels than before.

Indeed, by Lemma 1 the Subfield Differential Attack will not work without modification, but it is the claim of this paper that such a modification, which we will call the Nested Subset Differential Attack (NSDA), is indeed possible for the three cases for which $r = 7$. In fact for the level I security level the complexity will be brought into the range where the attack is not theoretical but possible in practice in under 210 minutes as we will later show. This is due to the special construction of lifted polynomials given by the following lemma.

4.2 A Lemma on Lifted Polynomials

Lemma 2. *Let*

$$\tilde{f}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_i + \gamma$$

be a lifted polynomial and $A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{\ell-1} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ with

$$A_i = (a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,n}).$$

Set $\mathbf{A} = A_0 + A_1 t + A_2 t^2 + \dots + A_{\ell-1} t^{\ell-1}$. We have that for $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{A} + X t^\ell)$ all the quadratic terms are coefficients of $t^{2\ell}$, the linear terms are coefficients of $t^\ell, t^{\ell+1}, \dots, t^{2\ell-1}$, and the coefficients of t^h depends only on $\alpha_{i,j}, \beta_i$, and A_k for $k \leq h$ and X for $h \geq \ell$.

Proof. This follows from the following calculation and the fact that for each $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $\alpha_{i,j}, \beta_i \in \mathbb{F}_2$.

$$\begin{aligned}
f(\mathbf{A} + X t^\ell) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} a_{k,i} t^k + x_i t^\ell \right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} a_{k,j} t^k + x_j t^\ell \right) \\
&\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} a_{k,i} t^k + x_i t^\ell \right) + \gamma \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j} \left(x_i x_j t^{2\ell} + x_i \sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} a_{k,j} t^{k+\ell} + x_j \sum_{k=0}^{\ell-1} a_{k,i} t^{k+\ell} \right) \\
&\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_i t^\ell + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j} \sum_{h=0}^{2\ell-2} \left(\sum_{\substack{0 \leq k, k' \leq \ell \\ k+k'=h}} a_{k,i} a_{k',j} t^h \right) \\
&\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\ell} a_{k,i} t^k \right) + \gamma.
\end{aligned}$$

4.3 s-Truncation

It will also be convenient later to define the concept of s -truncation for an element of the extension field. For $0 \leq s \leq r-1$, we define the s -truncation of a element

$$a = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} a_i t^i \quad \text{to be} \quad \bar{a}^s = \sum_{i=0}^s a_i t^i.$$

Similarly for a polynomial

$$f(\bar{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n a_{i,j} \bar{x}_i \bar{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \bar{x}_i + c$$

we define the s -truncation to be term by term

$$\bar{f}^s(\bar{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \bar{a}_{i,j}^s \bar{x}_i \bar{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{b}_i^s \bar{x}_i + \bar{c}^s.$$

Finally, for a system of polynomials

$$\mathcal{G}(\bar{X}) = \left(g_1(\bar{X}), g_2(\bar{X}), \dots, g_m(\bar{X}) \right)$$

we define the s -truncation to by truncating each polynomial individually

$$\bar{\mathcal{G}}^s(\bar{X}) = \left(\bar{g}_1^s(\bar{X}), \bar{g}_2^s(\bar{X}), \dots, \bar{g}_m^s(\bar{X}) \right).$$

4.4 The Attack

Let $P : \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$ be a LUOV public key with $r = 7$ and suppose we want to forge a signature for a message $Y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$. We will denote by $\bar{X} = (\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n)$ an indeterminate in \mathbb{F}_2^n and decompose the message Y into the sum of vectors

$$Y = Y_0 + Y_1 t + \dots + Y_{r-1} t^{r-1}$$

where for each i , $Y_i = (y_{i,1}, \dots, y_{i,m}) \in \mathbb{F}_2^m$.

Consider the set of polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[t]/\langle g(t) \rangle$ which are truncated to the third power

$$E := \{\bar{a}^3 : a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}\}.$$

Table 2 calculates the probability that there will exist a signature for Y in E^n for the relevant parameters using Lemma 1.

Table 2. Probability that a Signature Exists in E^n

Name	Probability
LUOV-7-57-197	$1 - \exp(-2^{617})$
LUOV-7-83-283	$1 - \exp(-2^{883})$
LUOV-7-110-374	$1 - \exp(-2^{2366})$

We thus see that it is very likely that we need to only consider \bar{a} signatures from E^n when we attempt to forge. Similar to SDA's usage of the differential X' to transform the direct attack into solving equations over a subfield, we do not need to look over all of E^n at once but can instead construct a signature piece by piece using differentials. However, instead of choosing the differentials randomly, we will instead solve for them in such a manner that will eventually construct a signature. For our attack to be efficient, we will want to always solve no more than m quadratic equations over \mathbb{F}_2 with at least as many variables as equations. This can be done in four steps using Lemma 2.

First we see that

$$\bar{\mathcal{P}}^0(\bar{X}) = \begin{cases} Q_{0,1}(\bar{X}) \\ Q_{0,2}(\bar{X}) \\ \vdots \\ Q_{0,m}(\bar{X}) \end{cases}$$

where each $Q_{0,i}(\bar{X})$ is a quadratic polynomial over \mathbb{F}_2 . So we may solve the system of m equations in n variables $\bar{\mathcal{P}}^0(\bar{X}) = Y_0$ using a direct attack method like exhaustive search [4], a variant of XL (eXtended Linerization) [6], or a Groebner Basis method like F4 [11]. We will forestall discussion of which algorithm to use until section 4.6. Let us call the solution we found A_0 .

For the second step, let us examine $\bar{\mathcal{P}}^1(A_0 + \bar{X}t)$. By the definition of s -truncation, this will be a system of polynomials of degree at most 1 in t . Following from Lemma 2, the coefficients of the t^1 terms will be linear in the variables \bar{X} . Furthermore, the coefficients of the t^0 terms will depend only on A_0 . As $\bar{\mathcal{P}}^0(A_0) = Y_0$, we see that

$$\overline{\mathcal{P}}^1(A_0 + \overline{X}t) = \begin{cases} y_{0,1} + L_{1,1}(\overline{X})t \\ y_{0,2} + L_{1,2}(\overline{X})t \\ \vdots \\ y_{0,m} + L_{1,m}(\overline{X})t \end{cases}$$

where each $L_{1,i}(\overline{X})$ is a linear polynomial over \mathbb{F}_2 in the variables \overline{X} . Now find a solution A_1 to the system of linear equations

$$\{L_{1,i}(\overline{X}) = y_{1,i} : 1 \leq i \leq m\}.$$

Then we have $\overline{\mathcal{P}}^1(A_0 + A_1 t) = Y_0 + Y_1 t$.

For the third step, examine $\overline{\mathcal{P}}^2(A_0 + A_1 t + \overline{X}t^2)$. Again the s -truncation will make this a system of polynomials of degree 2 in t . Lemma 2 states that the coefficients of the t^2 terms will be linear in the variables \overline{X} . The coefficients of the t^0 terms will depend only on A_0 , and the coefficients of the t^1 will depend only on A_0 and A_1 . But by construction of A_0 and A_1 we see that

$$\overline{\mathcal{P}}^2(A_0 + A_1 t + \overline{X}t^2) = \begin{cases} y_{0,1} + y_{1,1}t + L_{2,1}(\overline{X})t^2 \\ y_{0,2} + y_{1,2}t + L_{2,2}(\overline{X})t^2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{0,m} + y_{1,m}t + L_{2,m}(\overline{X})t^2 \end{cases}$$

where each $L_{2,i}(\overline{X})$ is a linear polynomial over \mathbb{F}_2 in the variables \overline{X} . Again find a solution A_2 to the system of linear equations

$$\{L_{2,i}(\overline{X}) = y_{2,i} : 1 \leq i \leq m\}.$$

Then we have $\overline{\mathcal{P}}^2(A_0 + A_1 t + A_2 t^2) = Y_0 + Y_1 t + Y_2 t^2$.

As a final step, we drop the need for s -truncation and look at $\mathcal{P}(A_0 + A_1 t + A_2 t^2 + \overline{X}t^3)$. We note that this will be a system of polynomials of degree 6 in t , the highest degree for polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[t]/\langle g(t) \rangle$ as $r = 7$. Further, by Lemma 2, only the coefficients of the t^6 terms will be quadratic in \overline{X} . The coefficients of the t^3, t^4 and t^5 terms will be linear in \overline{X} . Finally, the coefficients of the t^0, t^1, t^2 terms depend only on A_0, A_0 and A_1 , and A_0, A_1 and A_2 respectively. Let $\mathbf{A} = A_0 + A_1 t + A_2 t^2$. By construction of A_0, A_1 , and A_2 we see that

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{A} + \bar{X}t^3) = \begin{cases} y_{0,1} + y_{1,1}t + y_{2,1}t^2 + L_{3,1}(\bar{X})t^3 + L_{4,1}(\bar{X})t^4 \\ \quad + L_{5,1}(\bar{X})t^5 + Q_{6,1}(\bar{X})t^6 \\ y_{0,2} + y_{1,2}t + y_{2,2}t^2 + L_{3,2}(\bar{X})t^3 + L_{4,2}(\bar{X})t^4 \\ \quad + L_{5,2}(\bar{X})t^5 + Q_{6,2}(\bar{X})t^6 \\ \vdots \\ y_{0,m} + y_{1,m}t + y_{2,m}t^2 + L_{3,m}(\bar{X})t^3 + L_{4,m}(\bar{X})t^4 \\ \quad + L_{5,m}(\bar{X})t^5 + Q_{6,m}(\bar{X})t^6 \end{cases}$$

Now we proceed largely in the same manner as the last step in the SDA attack. Find the solution space S for the system of linear equations

$$A = \{L_{i,j}(\bar{X}) = y_{i,j} : 3 \leq i \leq 5, 1 \leq j \leq m\}.$$

As A will most likely be full rank $3m$, the dimension of S will have high probability of being $n - 3m$. Thus, the system of m quadratic equations

$$B = \{Q_{6,j}(S) = y_{6,j} : 1 \leq j \leq m\}$$

has a high probability of having a solution given the parameter sets of LUOV which we record in Table 3.

Table 3. Probability of Success for NSDA

Name	Probability
LUOV-7-57-197	$1 - \exp(-2^{26})$
LUOV-7-83-283	$1 - \exp(-2^{34})$
LUOV-7-110-374	$1 - \exp(-2^{344})$

Find a solution A_3 to B . Then we see that

$$\mathcal{P}(A_0 + A_1t + A_2t^2 + A_3t^3) = Y$$

and thus $\sigma = A_0 + A_1t + A_2t^2 + A_3t^3$ is a forged signature for Y .

4.5 Hiding the Signature

It might be argued that signatures that come from E^n are in a very special shape and thus can be rejected as obviously forged. However, it is possible to hide the shape of the signatures generated from the NSDA attack. Due to the special shape of the lifted polynomials, it is possible to know about preimages of a more generic form which are connected to the preimages we can find. Let \mathcal{P} be a LUOV public key so that

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \begin{cases} P^{(1)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,1} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,1} x_i + \gamma_1 \\ P^{(2)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,2} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,2} x_i + \gamma_2 \\ \vdots \\ P^{(m)}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,m} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,m} x_i + \gamma_m \end{cases}$$

Suppose we wanted to forge a signature for a message $Y = (y_1, \dots, y_m) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}^m$. As we are in a finite field of characteristic 2, we may take square roots of any element. Define a vector $Z = (z_1, \dots, z_m) = \sqrt{Y}$ by which we mean that $z_i = \sqrt{y_i}$ for each i . Now let $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in E^n$ be a signature for Z so that $\mathcal{P}(X) = Z$. Define $X^2 = (x_1^2, \dots, x_n^2)$. Then examining the k th component of $\mathcal{P}(X^2)$ we see that due to the freshman's lemma and the fact that the coefficient of \mathcal{P} are in \mathbb{F}_2

$$\begin{aligned} P^{(k)}(X^2) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} x_i^2 x_j^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,k} x_i^2 + \gamma_k \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \alpha_{i,j,k} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_{i,k} x_i + \gamma_k \right)^2 \\ &= z_k^2 = y_k. \end{aligned}$$

As the elements of X are degree three polynomials in $\mathbb{F}_2[t]/\langle g(t) \rangle$, X^2 's elements will appear to be generic degree six polynomials.

4.6 Complexity

The complexity of our attack is determined by solving the two quadratic systems of m equations over \mathbb{F}_2 . The best method in this case given the small field size and the limited number of variables we will eventually have is exhaustive search [4]. The overhead from solving the linear systems we may ignore. We first use the method of Thomae and Wolf to reduce the number of equations.

Theorem 1 (Thomae and Wolf). *By a linear change of variables, the complexity of solving an under-determined quadratic system of m equations and $n = \omega m$ variables can be reduced to solving a determined quadratic system of $m - \lfloor \omega \rfloor + 1$ equations. Furthermore, provided $\lfloor \omega \rfloor | m$ the complexity can be further reduced to the complexity of solving a determined quadratic system of $m - \lfloor \omega \rfloor$ equations [24].*

As we only want a single solution in each case on the first attempt, after reducing to m' equations we will guess all but $m' + 2$ variables to ensure that a solution will exist by Lemma 1. Hence we have to solve quadratic systems of $m' + 2$ variables in m' equations. The complexity of this is approximately $2^{m'+2}$. In Table 4 we compute the complexity for solving these quadratic systems.

Table 4. Complexity in Terms of Number of Bit Operations

Name	\log_2 NSDA's Complexity (NIST Requirement)
LUOV-7-57-197	56 (143)
LUOV-7-83-283	82 (207)
LUOV-7-110-374	106 (272)

As the classical \log_2 classical gate operations for NIST security level I is 143, III is 207, and V is 272 [16], we see that LUOV falls short in every category for these parameters. Moreover, the actual complexity for NSDA is possible in practice as we show with experimental results in Section 4.7.

Before we continue, we will mention that if the subfield over which we solved had been larger, or if the number of variables to guess for had been too great, then exhaustive search would not be the optimal choice for the solver for the quadratic systems. Generally, after applying the method of Thomae and Wolf, either XL [6] with the Block Wiedemann Algorithm [5] or the F4 algorithm by Faugere [11] is the preferred choice for such systems using a hybrid method [1] (meaning guessing a certain number of variables before applying the mentioned algorithms). The complexity of both algorithms relies on solving/reducing very large, sparse Macaulay matrices. Roughly, the highest degree found in XL is denoted by D_0 (called the operating degree), and the highest degree in F4 is D_{reg} (called the degree of regularity). Yeh *et al.* [26] has shown that for the resulting overdetermined systems after using the hybrid method, $0 \leq D_0 - D_{reg} \leq 1$ and often $D_0 = D_{reg}$. So the matrices are roughly the same size, but XL is sparser and is thus the preferred method to use. Please see [26] for full details.

4.7 Experimental Results

We have performed practical experiments on the LUOV parameter set LUOV-7-57-197.

For the hardware, we used a field-programmable gates array cluster from Sci-engines, a "Rivyera S6-LX150" with 64 Xilinx Spartan 6 LX150 FPGAs chips. The LX150 were so named because each contains nearly "150,000 gate equivalent units". They were driven on 8 PCI express cards in a chassis containing a Supermicro motherboard, an Intel Xeon(R) CPU (E3-1230 V2). When new in 2012, the machine cost 55,000 EUR. Although not directly comparable, a machine with current FPGAs costing the same 55,000 EUR today will probably have at least $2\times$ as much computing power and cost less in electricity.

We use a variant of the "forcepq_fpga" algorithm from the paper [4], using the input format of the Fukuoka MQ Challenge. We processed the early parts of our LUOV attack using the computer algebra system Magma and output the resulting system in this format, which is basically binary quadratic systems with zero-one coefficients lined up in graded reverse lexicographic order.

The "forcemp_fpga" implementation allows us to test 2^{10} input vectors per cycle (at 200MHz) per FPGA chip. In general this lets us solve a 48×48 MQ system in a maximum of slightly less than 23 minutes using one single chip, or find a solution to $n \times m$ quadratic equations, where $n \geq m$, in $2^{m-48} \times 23$ minutes. We could accelerate this somewhat if we can implement a variation of the Joux-Vitse algorithm.

For a 55-equation system, using all 64 FPGAs, the maximum is 46 minutes. In general it is a little shorter. The expectation is half of that or 23 minutes. For a 57-equation system, it is 4 times that, hence about 3 hours, expectation is about half of that or 92 minutes. When we solved the 59-variable, 57-equation system in practice, the run ended after 105 minutes. This, like all our runs in this experiment, happened to be slightly unlucky.

As there are two quadratic systems to solve, we can forge a signature in under 210 minutes.

5 Conclusion

We have proposed a modified version of the Subfield Differential Attack called Nested Subset Differential Attack which fully breaks half the parameters set forward by the round 2 version of Lifted Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar. We reduced attacking these parameters sets to the problem of solving quadratic equations over the prime field \mathbb{F}_2 . This makes our attack effective enough to be performed practically. As our attack did not use the Unbalanced Oil and Vinegar Structure of LUOV, it can be seen as a method of solving lifted quadratic systems in general. We feel that more research into solving these type of quadratic systems using the NSDA attack is needed. We also performed experimental attacks on actual LUOV parameters and were able to forge a signature in under 210 minutes.

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