# Improved Cryptanalysis of HFEv- via Projection 

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#### Abstract

The HFEv- signature scheme is one of the most studied multivariate schemes and one of the major candidates for the upcoming standardization of post-quantum digital signature schemes. In this paper, we propose three new attack strategies against HFEv-, each of them using the idea of projection. Especially our third attack is very effective and is, for some parameter sets, the most efficient known attack against HFEv-. Furthermore, our attack requires much less memory than direct and rank attacks. By our work, we therefore give new insights in the security of the HFEv- signature scheme and restrictions for the parameter choice of a possible future standardized HFE instance.


Key words: Multivariate Cryptography, HFEv-, MinRank, Gröbner basis, Projection

## 1 Introduction

Multivariate Cryptography is one of the main candidates for establishing cryptosystems which resist attacks with quantum computers (so called Post-Quantum Cryptosystems). Especially in the area of digital signature scheme, there exists a large number of practical multivariate schemes such as UOV [13] and Rainbow [7].
Another well known multivariate signature scheme is the HFEv- signature scheme, which was first proposed by Patarin, Courtois and Goubin in [17]. Most notably about this scheme are its very short signatures, which are currently the shortest signatures of all existing schemes (both classical and post-quantum).
In this paper we propose three new attacks against the HFEv- signature scheme, each of them using the idea of projection. This means that each of our attacks reduces the number of variables in the system by guessing, either before or after the attack itself.
The most interesting results hereby are provided by a distinguishing attack,
which is related to the hybrid aproach of the direct attack [1]. The attack is very effective and outperforms, for selected parameter sets, all other attacks against HFEv-. Furthermore, the memory requirements of our attack are far less than those of direct and MinRank attacks.
The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we give a short overview of multivariate cryptography and introduce the HFEv- cryptosystem, while Section 3 reviews the previous cryptanalysis of this scheme. Section 4 describes our first two attacks, which combine the MinRank attack with the idea of projection. In Section 5, we present then our distinguishing attack, whose complexity is analyzed in Section 6. Finally, Section 7 presents an idea to improve the complexity of our attack, and Section 8 concludes the paper.

## 2 Hidden Field Equations

### 2.1 Multivariate cryptography

The basic objects of multivariate cryptography are systems of multivariate quadratic polynomials over a finite field $\mathbb{F}$. The security of multivariate schemes is based on the $M Q$ Problem of solving such a system. The MQ Problem is proven to be NP-Hard even for quadratic polynomials over the field GF(2) [12] and believed to be hard on average (both for classical and quantum computers).

To build a multivariate public key cryptosystem (MPKC), one starts with an easily invertible quadratic map $\mathcal{F}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$ (central map). To hide the structure of $\mathcal{F}$ in the public key, we compose it with two invertible affine (or linear) maps $\mathcal{T}: \mathbb{F}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$ and $\mathcal{U}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$. The public key of the scheme is therefore given by $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{T} \circ \mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{U}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{m}$. The relation between the easily invertible central map $\mathcal{F}$ and the public key $\mathcal{P}$ is referred to as a morphism of polynomials.

Definition 1 Two systems of multivariate polynomials $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ are said to be related by a morphism iff there exist two affine maps $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{U}$ such that $\mathcal{G}=\mathcal{T} \circ \mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{U}$.

The private key consists of the three maps $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{U}$ and therefore allows to invert the public key.

To generate a signature for a document (hash value) $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$, one computes recursively $\mathbf{x}=\mathcal{T}^{-1}(\mathbf{h}) \in \mathbb{F}^{m}, \mathbf{y}=\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ and $\mathbf{z}=\mathcal{U}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$.
To check the authenticity of a signature $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$, one simply computes $\mathbf{h}^{\prime}=$ $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{z}) \in \mathbb{F}^{m}$. If the result is equal to $\mathbf{h}$, the signature is accepted, otherwise rejected.

This process is illustrated in Figure 1.

Signature Generation


Signature Verification
Fig. 1. Signature Generation and Verification for Multivariate Signature Schemes

### 2.2 HFE Variants

The HFE encryption scheme was proposed by J. Patarin in [16]. The scheme belongs to the BigField family of multivariate schemes, which means that it uses a degree $n$ extension field $\mathbb{E}$ of $\mathbb{F}$ as well as an isomorphism $\phi: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$. The central map is a univariate polynomial map over $\mathbb{E}$ of the form

$$
\mathcal{F}(X)=\sum_{0 \leq i, j}^{q^{i}+q^{j} \leq D} \alpha_{i j} X^{q^{i}+q^{j}}+\sum_{i=0}^{q^{i} \leq D} \beta_{i} X^{q^{i}}+\gamma
$$

Due to the special form of $\mathcal{F}$, the map $\overline{\mathcal{F}}=\phi^{-1} \circ \mathcal{F} \circ \phi$ is a quadratic map over the vector space $\mathbb{F}^{n}$. In order to hide the structure of $\mathcal{F}$ in the public key, $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$ is composed with two affine maps $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{U}$, i.e. $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{T} \circ \overline{\mathcal{F}} \circ \mathcal{U}$.
After the basic scheme was broken by direct [11] and rank attacks [14], several versions of HFE for digital signatures have been proposed. Basically, these schemes use two different techniques: the minus and the vinegar modification. For the HFEv- signature scheme [17], the central map $\mathcal{F}$ has the form

$$
\mathcal{F}\left(X, \bar{x}_{V}\right)=\sum_{0 \leq i, j}^{q^{i}+q^{j} \leq D} \alpha_{i j} X^{q^{i}+q^{j}}+\sum_{i=0}^{q^{i} \leq D} \beta_{i}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{v}\right) X^{q^{i}}+\gamma\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{v}\right)
$$

where $\beta_{i}$ and $\gamma$ are linear and quadratic maps in the vinegar variables $\bar{x}_{V}=$ $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{v}\right)$ respectively. Defining $\psi: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$ by $\psi=\phi \times i d_{v}$, the public key has the form

$$
\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{T} \circ \phi^{-1} \circ \mathcal{F} \circ \psi \circ \mathcal{U}: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n-a}
$$

with two affine maps $\mathcal{T}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n-a}$ and $\mathcal{U}: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n+v}$, and is a multivariate quadratic map with coefficients and variables over $\mathbb{F}$.

Signature Generation: To generate a signature $\mathbf{z}$ for a document $d$, one uses a hash function $\mathcal{H}:\{0,1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n-a}$ to compute a hash value $\mathbf{h}=\mathcal{H}(d) \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ and performs the following four steps

1. Compute a preimage $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ of $\mathbf{h}$ under the affine map $\mathcal{T}$ and set $X=$ $\phi(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{E}$.
2. Choose random values for the vinegar variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{v}$ and substitute them into the central map to obtain the parametrized map $\mathcal{F}_{V}$.
3. Solve the equation $\mathcal{F}_{V}(Y)=X$ over the extension field $\mathbb{E}$ by Berlekamp's algorithm.
4. Compute $\mathbf{y}=\phi^{-1}(Y)$ and the signature $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}^{n+v}$ by $\mathbf{z}=\mathcal{U}^{-1}\left(\mathbf{y}\left\|x_{1}\right\| \ldots \| x_{v}\right)$.

Signature Verification: To check the authenticity of a signature $\mathbf{z}$, the verifier computes $\mathbf{h}=\mathcal{H}(d)$ and $\mathbf{h}^{\prime}=\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{z})$. If $\mathbf{h}^{\prime}=\mathbf{h}$ holds, the signature is accepted, otherwise rejected.

## 3 Previous Cryptanalysis

### 3.1 Direct Algebraic Attack

The direct algebraic attack is the most straightforward way to attack a multivariate cryptosystem such as $\mathrm{HFE}(\mathrm{v}-)$. In this attack, one considers the public equation $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{h}$ as an instance of the MQ-Problem. In the case of HFEv-, the public system is slightly underdetermined. In order to make the solution space zero dimensional, one therefore fixes some of the variables in order to get a determined system before applying an algorithm like XL [4] or a Gröbner basis method such as $F_{4}$ or $F_{5}[9,10]$. In some cases one gets better results by guessing additional variables, even if this requires to run the Gröbner basis algorithm several times (hybrid approach [1]).

Experiments have shown that the public systems of HFE and its variants can be solved significantly faster than random system $[11,15]$. This phenomenon was studied by Ding et al. in a series of papers [5, 6,8$]$. In [8] it was shown that the degree of regularity of solving an HFEv- system is upper bounded by

$$
d_{\mathrm{reg}, \mathrm{HFEv}-} \leq \begin{cases}\frac{(q-1) \cdot(r+a+v-1)}{2}+2 & q \text { even and } r+a \text { odd }  \tag{1}\\ \frac{(q-1) \cdot(r+a+v)}{2}+2 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

### 3.2 MinRank

The historically most effective attack on the HFE family of cryptosystems is the MinRank attack which exploits the algebraic consequence of a low degree bound $D$. This low degree bound leads to the fact that the central map has a low Q-rank.

Definition 2 The Q-rank of a multivariate quadratic map $f: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ over the finite field $\mathbb{F}$ with $q$ elements is the rank of the quadratic form $\mathcal{Q}$ on $\mathbb{E}\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right]$ defined by $Q\left(X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right)=\phi \circ f \circ \phi^{-1}(X)$, under the identification $X_{0}=$ $X, X_{1}=X^{q}, \ldots, X_{n-1}=X^{q^{n-1}}$.

As an example, consider an odd characteristic instance of HFE. We may write the homogeneous quadratic part of $F$ as

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lll}
X & X^{q} \cdots X^{q^{n-1}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\alpha_{0,0} & \alpha_{0,1}^{\prime} & \cdots & \alpha_{0, d-1}^{\prime} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\alpha_{0,1}^{\prime} & \alpha_{1,1} & \cdots & \alpha_{1, d-1}^{\prime} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\alpha_{0, d-1}^{\prime} & \alpha_{1, d-1}^{\prime} & \cdots & \alpha_{d-1, d-1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
X \\
X^{q} \\
\vdots \\
X^{q^{n-1}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $\alpha_{i, j}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} \alpha_{i, j}$ and $d=\left\lceil\log _{q}(D)\right\rceil$. Clearly, this quadratic form on the ring $\mathbb{E}\left[X_{0}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right]$ has rank $d$, and thus the HFE central map has Q-rank $d$.

The first iteration of the MinRank attack is the Kipnis-Shamir (KS) attack of [14]. One can via polynomial interpolation express the public key as a quadratic polynomial $G$ over the degree $n$ extension field $\mathbb{E}$. By construction there is an $\mathbb{F}$-linear map $T^{-1}$ such that $T^{-1} \circ G$ has rank $d$, thus there is a rank $d$ matrix that is an $\mathbb{E}$-linear combination of the Frobenius powers of $G$. This turns recovery of the transformation $T$ into the solution of a MinRank problem over $\mathbb{E}$.

A significant improvement to this method for HFE is the key recovery attack of [2]. The first significant observation made was that an $\mathbb{E}$-linear combination of the public polynomials has low rank as a quadratic form over $\mathbb{E}$. By constructing a formal linear combination of the public polynomials with variable coefficients, one can collect the polynomials representing $(d+1) \times(d+1)$ minors of this linear combination, which must be zero by the Q-rank bound. The advantage this technique offers is that the coefficients of the polynomial are in $\mathbb{F}$; thus, the Gröbner basis calculation can be performed over $\mathbb{F}$, while the variety is computed over $\mathbb{E}$. This minors modeling method is significantly more efficient than the KS-attack when the number of equations is similar to the number of variables. (In contrast, for schemes such as ZHFE, see [20], it seems that the KS modeling is more efficient, probably due to the large number of variables in the Gröbner basis calculation, see [3].) The complexity of the KS-attack with minors modeling is asymptotically $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{\left(\left\lceil\log _{q}(D)\right\rceil+1\right) \omega}\right)$, where $2 \leq \omega \leq 3$ is the linear algebra constant.

The MinRank approach can also be effective in attacking HFE-. The key observation in [21] is that not only does the removal of an equation increase the Q-rank by merely one, there is also a basis in which it only increases the degree by a factor of $q$. Thus HFE- schemes with large base fields are vulnerable to the minors modeling method of [2], even when multiple equations are removed. The complexity of the KS-attack with minors modeling for HFE- is asymptoticaly $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{\left(\left\lceil\log _{q}(D)\right\rceil+a+1\right) \omega}\right)$, where $a$ is the number of equations removed and $2 \leq \omega \leq 3$ is the linear algebra constant.

## 4 Variants of MinRank with Projection

As first explicitly noted in [8], the Q-rank of the central map is increased by $v$ with the introduction of $v$ vinegar variables and therefore the min-Q-rank of HFEv- is $\left\lceil\log _{q}(D)\right\rceil+a+v$. We now discuss techniques for turning this observation into key recovery. From this point on, let $r$ denote $\left\lceil\log _{q}(D)\right\rceil$, that is, the Q-rank of the HFE component of the central map.

### 4.1 MinRank then Projection

The simplest way to attempt an attack utilizing the low Q-rank of the central map of HFEv- is to directly apply a MinRank attack and then attempt to discover the vinegar subspace. To this end, consider the representation $\Phi$ : $\mathbb{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ defined by $\Phi(X)=\left(X, X^{q}, \ldots, X^{q^{n-1}}\right)$. We may map directly from an $n$-dimensional vector space to $\mathbb{A}$ via right multiplication by the matrix

$$
\mathbf{M}_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
\theta & \theta^{q} & \cdots & \theta^{q^{n-1}} \\
\theta^{2} & \theta^{2 q} & \cdots & \theta^{2 q^{n-1}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\theta^{n-1} & \theta^{(n-1) q} & \cdots & \theta^{(n-1) q^{n-1}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

with the choice of a primitive element $\mathbb{E}=\mathbb{F}(\theta)$. Right multiplication by $\mathbf{M}_{n}$ corresponds to the linear map $\Phi \circ \phi$.
We may incorporate the vinegar variables into the picture by simply appending them to $\mathbb{A}$. Specifically, define the map $\widetilde{M}_{n}: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow \mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$ by right multiplication by the matrix

$$
\widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\mathbf{M}_{n} & \mathbf{0}_{n \times v} \\
\mathbf{0}_{v \times n} & I_{v}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $I_{v}$ is the identity matrix. We may then represent any HFEv- map as a single $(n+v) \times(n+v)$ matrix with coefficients in $\mathbb{E}$. Note specifically that any function bilinear with respect to the vinegar variable $x_{n}$ and the HFE variables $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ can be encoded in row and/or column $n$ of the quadratic form

$$
\bar{x} \mathbf{Q} \bar{x}^{\top}=\bar{x} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \mathbf{R} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \bar{x}^{\top}
$$

where $\mathbf{R} \in \mathcal{M}_{(n+v) \times(n+v)}(\mathbb{E})$.
Let $\mathbf{F}$ be defined by $\bar{x} \mathbf{F} \bar{x}^{\top}=f(x)$ where $f$ is the central map of HFEv-. We will say that $\mathbf{F}$ is the matrix representation of $f$ over $\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$. Let $\mathbf{F}^{* i}$ be the matrix representation of the $i$ th Frobenius power of $f$ over $\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}_{v}$. Then we have, for
example the following shape for $\mathbf{F}^{* 0}$ :

Here we see that $\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{F}^{* 0}\right)=r+v$. The structure of $\mathbf{F}^{* 1}$ is similar with the upper left HFE block consisting of $\alpha_{i, j}$ shifted down and to the right and raised to the power of $q$, and the symmetric blocks of mixing monomials shifted down and to the right with a more complicated function applied to the $\beta_{i, j}$ coefficients to respect the Frobenius map.
Now let $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{i}$ be the matrix representations of the affine isomorphisms $U$ and $T$ and the public quadratic forms $P_{i}$, respectively. Then we derive the relation

$$
\left(\mathbf{P}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{P}_{n}\right) \mathbf{T}^{-1} \mathbf{M}_{n}=\left(\mathbf{U} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \mathbf{F}^{* 0} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{\top}, \ldots, \mathbf{U} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \mathbf{F}^{*(n-1)} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{\top}\right)
$$

Thus $\mathbf{U} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \mathbf{F}^{* 0} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{\top}$ is an $\mathbb{E}$-linear combination of the public quadratic forms. Since $\mathbf{U} \widetilde{M}_{n}$ is invertible, the rank of this linear combination is the rank of $\mathbf{F}^{* 0}$, which is $r+v$.
Following the analysis of [21, Theorem 2], we see that the effect of the minus modifier on the matrix representation of $f$ over $\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$ is to add to it constant multiples of itself with a cyclic shift of the rows and columns down and to the right within the HFE block. Thus for HFEv-, $\mathbf{F}^{* 0}$ has the shape given in Figure 2. The rank of this quadratic form is $r+a+v$.
The solution of the MinRank instance provides an equivalent transformation $T^{\prime}$ to the output transformation (up to the choice of extension to full rank) and a matrix $\mathbf{L}$ representing the low Q-rank quadratic form $\mathbf{U}^{\prime} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{* 0} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{\prime \top}$ over $\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$, where $P=T^{\prime} \circ \phi^{-1} \circ \widehat{f} \circ \phi \circ U^{\prime}$ is an equivalent private key. Now that the correct output transformation is recovered, it remains to recover the vinegar subspace of $\mathbf{L}=\mathbf{U}^{\prime} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n} \widehat{\mathbf{F}}^{* 0} \widetilde{\mathbf{M}}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{\prime \top}$.
First, note that the kernel $K$ of $\mathbf{L}$ is orthogonal to the vinegar subspace, so we may simplify the analysis by projecting to $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ which acts on the orthogonal complement of a codimension one subspace of the kernel. The strategy now is to compose codimension one projection mappings $\pi$ with $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ to filter out the vinegar variables. It suffices to choose projections whose kernels are orthogonal to $\operatorname{ker}(\widehat{\mathbf{L}})$.
If there is a nontrivial intersection between the kernel of $\pi$ and the vinegar subspace, the rank of $\boldsymbol{\Pi} \widehat{\mathbf{L}} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}$ will be reduced. In contrast, if this intersection is


Fig. 2. The shape of the matrix representation of the central map of HFEv - over $\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$. The shaded areas represent possibly nonzero entries.
empty the rank of $\boldsymbol{\Pi} \widehat{\mathbf{L}} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}$ should remain the same. To see this, note that by an argument symmetric to that of [21, Lemma 1] we may equivalently define $\widehat{L} \circ \pi$ by

$$
\widehat{L} \circ \pi=U^{-1} \circ\left[\left(\phi \circ \pi_{1} \circ \phi^{-1} \circ S_{1}\right) \times \pi_{2}\right] \circ S_{2}
$$

where $S_{1}: \mathbb{F}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n}$ is nonsingular, $S_{2}: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}^{v}$ is an isomorphism, $\pi_{1}: \mathbb{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$ has degree at most $q^{n-r-a}$ (since the intersection of the image of $\widehat{L} \circ \pi$ and the HFE subspace is at least $(r+a)$-dimensional) and $\pi_{2}: \mathbb{F}^{v} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^{v}$ is linear. Since the degree bound of the central HFE quadratic form is $q^{r+a}$, the highest monomial degree in the composition of $\pi_{2}$ with this map is bounded by $q^{n-1}$, thus the polynomials $\pi_{1}, \pi_{1}^{q}, \ldots, \pi_{1}^{q^{r+a}}$ are linearly independent. The probability that the linear form defining $\operatorname{ker}(\pi)$ which is orthogonal to the kernel of $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ lies in the vinegar subspace is $q^{-(r+a+1)}$. Once such a vector is recovered, this step is repeated on the orthogonal complement of the discovered vectors until a basis for the vinegar subspace is found. Thus the complexity of this method is

$$
\operatorname{Comp}_{M P}=\mathcal{O}\left(\binom{n+r+v+1}{r+a+v+1}^{\omega}+(r+a+v+1)^{\omega} q^{r+a+1}\right)
$$

where $2 \leq \omega \leq 3$ is the linear algebra constant.

### 4.2 Projection then MinRank

Another approach using MinRank is a "project-then-MinRank" approach. In this strategy, one randomly projects the plaintext space onto a codimension $k$ subspace and then applies the MinRank attack. Since the projection $\pi$ cannot increase the Q-rank of the central map, the Q-rank is at most $r+a+v$.
We may choose $k=n-r-a-v$, and expect that the rank of $P \circ \pi$ is still $r+a+v$, due to the fact that the HFE component is still of full rank, as noted in the previous section. If, however, there is a nontrivial intersection between the kernel of $\pi$ and the vinegar subspace, the rank of this quadratic form will be
less than $r+a+v$. The probability this occurs is $q^{k-n}=q^{-(r+a+v)}$. Generalizing, we may project further in an attempt to eliminate possibly more vinegar variables and reduce the rank further. As long as the image of $\pi$ is of dimension at least the sum of $\sqrt{n-a}$ and the target rank, the minors system is still fully determined. Therefore, consider eliminating $c$ vinegar variables. This requires $k$ to be at least $n-a-r+c-\sqrt{n-a}$. The probability that there is a $c$-dimensional intersection between the kernel of $\pi$ and the vinegar subspace is then $q^{c(k-n)-\binom{c}{2}} \geq q^{\binom{c+1}{2}-c r-c a-c \sqrt{n-a}}$.
Once at least one vinegar variable is found, the new basis can be utilized to filter out the remaining vinegar variables as in the previous method. The complexity of the this method is

$$
\operatorname{Comp}_{P M}=\mathcal{O}\left(q^{c(r+a+\sqrt{n-a})-\binom{c+1}{2}}\binom{n+r+v-c+1}{r+a+v-c+1}^{\omega}\right)
$$

## 5 The Distinguishing attack

In this section we present our distinguishing attack against the HFEv- signature scheme. The idea of the attack is closely related to the direct attacks with projection (also known as the hybrid approach). We define

$$
\mathcal{V}=\operatorname{span}\left(\mathcal{U}_{n+1}, \mathcal{U}_{n+2}, \ldots, \mathcal{U}_{n+v}\right)
$$

where $\mathcal{U}_{i}$ denotes the $i$-th component of the affine transformation $\mathcal{U}: \mathbb{F}^{n+v} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{F}^{n+v}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{V}$ is the space spanned by the affine representations of the vinegar variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{v}$

Our attack is based on the following two observations.

- Consider the two HFEv- public keys $\mathcal{P}_{1}=\operatorname{HFEv}-\left(n, D, a, v_{1}\right)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}=$ $\operatorname{HFEv}-\left(n, D, a, v_{2}\right)$. As shown in Table 1 and Figure 3, direct attacks against $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ behave differently. In particular, we can distinguish between the two systems $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ by looking at the step degrees of the $F_{4}$ algorithm. This remains possible, even when adding (not too many) linear equations to the systems $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ (thus reducing the number of variables) before applying a Gröbner basis method (hybrid approach).
- Let us consider the special case where $v_{2}=v_{1}-1$ holds. By adding one linear equation $\ell \in \mathcal{V}$ to $\mathcal{P}_{1}$ we remove the influence of one of the vinegar variables form the system $\mathcal{P}_{1}$. A direct attack against the so obtained system $\mathcal{P}_{1}^{\prime}$ should therefore behave in exactly the same way as a direct attack against the system $\mathcal{P}_{2}^{\prime}$, obtained by adding an affine equation $\ell^{\prime} \notin \mathcal{V}$ to the system $\mathcal{P}_{2}$ (see Table ??).


### 5.1 The Distinguisher

Based on the two above observations, we can now construct a distinguisher as follows.

| v | HFEv- $(26,17,1, v)$ | HFEv- $(33,9,3, v)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $2,3,4,3,4$ | $2,3,4,4,4$ |
| 1 | $2,3,4,4,4$ | $2,3,4,5,4$ |
| 2 | $2,3,4,5,4$ | $2,3,4,5,5$ |
| 3 | $2,3,4,5,5$ | $2,3,4,5,5,5,5,5,6$ |
| 4 | $2,3,4,5,5,5,5,5$ | $2,3,4,5,6,6$ |
| 5 | $2,3,4,5,6$ |  |
| random system | $2,3,4,5,6$ | $2,3,4,5,6,6$ |

Table 1. Step degrees of the $F_{4}$ algorithm against determined HFEv- systems for different values of $v$

We start with an HFEv- public key $\mathcal{P}=\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v) . \mathcal{P}$ consists of $n-a$ quadratic equations in $n+v$ variables over the field GF(2). After adding the field equations $\left\{x_{i}^{2}-x_{i}: i=1, \ldots, n+v\right\}$, we append $k$ randomly chosen linear equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ to the system. Therefore, our new system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ consists of

- the $n-a$ quadratic HFEv- equations from $\mathcal{P}$
$-n+v$ field equations $x_{i}^{2}-x_{i}=0(i=1, \ldots, n+v)$
- the $k$ linear equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$

Altogether, the system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ consists of $2 n-a+v+k$ equations in $n+v$ variables. After having constructed the system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$, we solve it via a Gröbner basis algorithm. Due to observation 2, the behaviour of this algorithm should depend on the fact whether one of the linear equations $\ell_{i}$ added to the system (or a linear combination of the $\ell_{i}$ ) is an element of the vinegar space $\mathcal{V}$. In fact, we can observe a difference in the step degrees of the algorithm (see Example 1 below). Formally written, we can use our technique to distinguish between the two cases

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V}=\emptyset \text { and } \\
& \operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V} \neq \emptyset \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

However, in most cases that $\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V} \neq \emptyset$, the intersection contains only a single equation $\tilde{\ell}$.

Remark: We have to note here that the number $k$ of linear equations added to the system $\mathcal{P}$ is upper bounded by a value $\bar{k}(n, D, a, v)$. When adding more than $\bar{k}$ linear equations to the system, a distinction between the two cases of (2) is no longer possible.

Example 1: We consider HFEv- systems with $(n, D, a)=(33,9,3)$ and varying values of $v \in\{0, \ldots, 4\}$. The resulting HFEv- public keys are systems of $n-a=$ 30 quadratic equations in $n+v$ variables. After appending the field equations $x_{i}^{2}-x_{i}=0$ to the systems, we added randomly chosen linear equations to
reduce the effective number of variables in our systems. Figure 3 shows the degree of regularity of a direct attack using $F_{4}$ against the (projected) systems. For comparison, the figure also contains data for a random system of the same size.


Fig. 3. Direct attack against (projected) HFEv- systems with $(n, D, a)=(33,9,3)$ and varying values of $v$

As Figure 3 shows, there exists, for every parameter set $(n, D, a, v)$ a number $\bar{k}$ such that

1) When adding less than $\bar{k}$ linear equations to the system, the degree of regularity of a direct attack against the projected system is the same as that of a direct attack against the unprojected system.
2) When adding $k \geq \bar{k}$ linear equations, the system behaves exactly like a random system of the same size.

Let us now look at our distinguisher. For this, we skip the parameter set $(n, D, a, v)=$ $(33,9,3,0)$ since, in this case, $\mathcal{V}=\emptyset$ holds. However, as Table 2 shows, we can, for each of the values $v \in\{1, \ldots, 4\}$, disitnguish between the two cases of (2). For abbreviation, we use in the table $\mathcal{L}:=\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{\bar{k}}\right)$. Note that the evolution of the step degrees for $\operatorname{HFEv-}(33,9,3,4)$ is the same as for a random system of the same size.

### 5.2 The Attack

Based on the distinguisher presented in the previous section, we can construct an attack against HFEv- as follows.
By performing the distinguishing experiment with a large number of systems $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ (containing different linear equations), we can find a set of $k$ linear equations

|  |  |  | step degrees of $F_{4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $v$ | $\bar{k}$ | $n-\bar{k}$ | for $\mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{V}=\emptyset$ | for $\mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{V}=\{\tilde{\ell}\}$ |
| 4 | 3 | 27 | $1,2,3,4,5,6$ | $1,2,3,4,5,5,5,5$ |
| 3 | 4 | 26 | $1,2,3,4,5,5,5$ | $1,2,3,4,5,5$ |
| 2 | 4 | 26 | $1,2,3,4,5,5$ | $1,2,3,4,5,4$ |
| 1 | 9 | 21 | $1,2,3,4,5$ | $1,2,3,4,4,4$ |

Table 2. Distinguisher Experiments on $\operatorname{HFEv}(33,9,3, v)$ systems for different values of $v$
$\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ such that $\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V}=\left\{\tilde{\ell}_{1}\right\}$. Using this, we can determine the exact form of $\tilde{\ell}_{1}$ as follows. Note that there exist coefficients $\alpha_{i} \in\{0,1\}$ $(i=1, \ldots k)$ such that

$$
\tilde{\ell}_{1}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} \cdot \ell_{i}
$$

In order to determine the exact form of this linear combination, we remove one of the linear equations (say $\ell_{1}$ ) from the system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ and add another randomly chosen linear equation. If we still can observe a difference in the behaviour of a direct attack compared to a random choice of linear equations, we know that the coefficient $\alpha_{1}$ must be 0 . Otherwise, the coefficient $\alpha_{1}$ must be 1 , and we have to add $\ell_{1}$ back to the system.
We repeat this step for $i=2, \ldots, k$ to determine the values of all the coefficients $\alpha_{i}(i=1, \ldots, k)$. This will give us the exact form of the linear equation $\tilde{\ell}_{1} \in \mathcal{V}$. Having found $\tilde{\ell}$, we add it to the original $\operatorname{HFEv}(n, D, a, v)$ system. The resulting system will behave exactly like an $\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v-1)$ system, and we can again use our distinguisher and repeat the above procedure to find a second linear equation $\tilde{\ell}_{2} \in \mathcal{V}$. Note that this will be much easier than finding $\tilde{\ell}_{1}$ (see next section).
After having found $v$ linear independent equations $\tilde{\ell}_{1}, \ldots \tilde{\ell}_{v} \in \mathcal{V}$ and adding them to the HFEv- system, the resulting system will behave exactly like an HFE-(n,D,a) system (i.e. we have no vinegar variables any more). We can then use any attack against HFEv- (e.g. [21]) to break the scheme.
We analyze the complexity of our distinguisher and our attack in the next section.
Let us shortly return to Example 1. When we start with the system $\mathcal{P}=$ HFEv(33,9,3,4), we can use our distinguisher to find a set $\left\{\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right\}$ of linear equations such that $\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V}=\left\{\tilde{\ell}_{1}\right\}$. After having recovered the exact form of $\tilde{\ell}$, we can append it to the system $\mathcal{P}$, which will then behave exactly like an $\operatorname{HFEv}-(33,9,3,3)$ system (with one projected variable). Let us denote this new system by $\mathcal{P}^{(1)}$. We can then use the distinguisher on $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ to obtain a second linear equation $\tilde{\ell}_{2} \in \mathcal{V}$. Adding $\tilde{\ell}_{2}$ to the system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ leads to a system $\mathcal{P}^{(2)}$ behaving exactly like a HFEv-( $33,9,3,2$ ) system. By continuing this process, we obtain the system $\mathcal{P}^{(4)}$ corresponding to an HFEv- $(33,9,3,0)$ system. We can then break this scheme by using any attack on HFE-.

```
Algorithm 1 Our Distinguishing Attack
Input: \(\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v)\) public key \(\mathcal{P}_{v}\)
Output: equivalent \(\operatorname{HFE}-(n, D, a)\) public key
    1: Append \(\bar{k}\) randomly chosen linear equations \(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{\bar{k}}\) in the variables \(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+v}\)
    (as well as the field equations \(x_{i}^{2}-x_{i}=0\) ) to the HFEv public key.
    2: Solve the resulting quadratic system by \(F_{4}\). If the step degrees of the \(F_{4}\) algorithm
        differ from the standard case, we know that \(\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V} \neq \emptyset\). Denote the
        only element of this intersection by \(\tilde{\ell}\).
    3: Repeat step 1 and 2 until having found a set of linear equations \(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\) such
    thatl \(\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V} \neq \emptyset\)
    4: Determine the exact form of \(\tilde{\ell}\) by sequentially removing linear equations (try and
    error).
    5: Append the linear equation \(\tilde{\ell}\) to the system \(\mathcal{P}\). The resulting system \(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\) will behave
    exactly like an HFEv-(n,D,a,v-1) public key.
6: Repeat the above steps until having found \(v\) linear independent equations
    \(\tilde{\ell}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\ell}_{k} \in \mathcal{V}\).
```


## 6 Complexity Analysis

In this section we analyze the complexity of our distinguishing attack against HFEv-.

In the first step of our attack, we have to find one linear equation $\tilde{\ell} \in \mathcal{V}$ by using our distinguisher and a following application of the remove-and-add strategy.
Therefore, the complexity of this first step of our attack is determined by three factors:

1. The number of times we have to run the distinguisher in order to find a set of linear equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ such that $\operatorname{span}\left(\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}\right) \cap \mathcal{V}=\tilde{\ell}$
2. The cost of one run of the distinguisher
3. The cost of recovering $\tilde{\ell}$

The first number is determined by

- The probability that a randomly chosen linear equation in $n+v$ variables is contained in the space $\mathcal{V}$ spanned by the linear representation of the vinegar variables $\mathcal{U}_{n+1}, \ldots, \mathcal{U}_{n+v}$ A randomly chosen linear equation $\bar{\ell}$ in $n+v$ variables can be seen as a linear combination of the components of $\mathcal{U}$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\ell}=\sum_{i=1}^{n+v} \lambda_{i} \cdot \mathcal{U}_{i} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The reason for this is that $\mathcal{U}$ is an invertible map from $\mathbb{F}^{n+v}$ to itself, which means that the components of $\mathcal{U}$ form a basis of this space. There are $2^{n+v}$ choices for the parameters $\lambda_{i}(i=1, \ldots, n+v)$. On the other hand, every
element $\tilde{\lambda}$ of the space $\mathcal{V}$ spanned by the linear transformations of the vinegar variables $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{v}$ can be written in the form

$$
\tilde{\ell}=\sum_{i=n+1}^{n+v} \lambda_{i} \cdot \mathcal{U}_{i}
$$

The probability that a randomly chosen linear $\bar{\ell}$ equation lies in $\mathcal{V}$ is therefore given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{prob}(\bar{\ell} \in \mathcal{V})=2^{-n} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The reason for this is that all the coefficients $\lambda_{i}(i=1, \ldots, n)$ in the representation (3) of $\bar{\ell}$ must be zero.

- The number of linear equations (and linear combinations thereof) added to the public key
When adding $k$ linear equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ to the public key, we do not have to consider the $k$ equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ itself, but also all linear combinations of the form

$$
\ell=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \ell_{k}
$$

The total number of linear equations we have to consider is therefore not $k$, but $2^{k}$.

Therefore, when adding $k$ linear equations $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$ to the public key, the probability of finding one linear equation $\tilde{\ell} \in \mathcal{V}$, is given by

$$
\operatorname{prob}=1-\left(1-2^{-n}\right)^{2^{k}} \approx 2^{k-n}
$$

In order to find one linear equation $\tilde{\ell} \in \mathcal{V}$, we therefore have to run our distinguisher about $2^{n-k}$ times.

A single run of our distinguisher corresponds to one run of the $F_{4}$ algorithm. The cost of this can be estimated as

$$
3 \cdot\binom{n^{\prime}}{d_{\mathrm{reg}}}^{2} \cdot\binom{n^{\prime}}{2}
$$

where $n^{\prime}$ is the number of variables in the quadratic system and $d_{\text {reg }}$ is the so called degree of regularity.
With regard to the number $n^{\prime}$ of variables we find that the linear equations added to the public key are "absorbed" at a very early step of the $F_{4}$ algorithm, i.e. they are used to reduce the number of variables in the system. This fact is illustrated in Table 3. In the table, we consider two random systems, both containing 25 quadratic equations. However, while the equations of system A are polynomials in 25 variables, the polynomials of system B contain 35 variables. On the other hand, system B additionally contains 10 linear equations.
As the table shows, both systems behave very similarly. Starting at step 2 (de-

|  | 25 equations, 25 variables |  |  | 25 quadr. +10 lin. equations, 35 variables |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| step | degree | matrix size | time | degree | matrix size | time |
|  |  |  |  | 1 | $10 \times 36$ | 0.0 |
|  |  |  |  | 1 | $20 \times 36$ | 0.0 |
| 1 | 2 | $25 \times 326$ | 0.0 | 2 | $330 \times 631$ | 0.0 |
| 2 | 3 | $652 \times 2626$ | 0.02 | 3 | $650 \times 2626$ | 0.02 |
| 3 | 4 | $7,894 \times 14,498$ | 1.27 | 4 | $7864 \times 15568$ | 1.34 |
| 4 | 5 | $52,488 \times 52,956$ | 79.86 | 5 | $52197 \times 52665$ | 80.26 |
| 5 | 6 | $248,705 \times 245,506$ | 179.34 | 6 | $248,273 \times 108,524$ | 182.24 |

Table 3. Experiments with random systems
gree 3), there is no significant difference between the matrix sizes or the running times of the single steps between the two systems.
We can therefore conclude that the quadratic systems we consider in our distinguishing attack ( $n-a$ quadratic equations $+k$ linear equations in $n+v$ variables) behave just like systems of $n-a$ quadratic equations in $n+v-k$ variables.

Compared to this, the cost of recovering $\tilde{\ell}$ is negligible. Remember that $\tilde{\ell}$ can be written as a linear combination of $\ell_{1}, \ldots, \ell_{k}$, i.e.

$$
\tilde{\ell}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \ell_{i}
$$

As described in the previous section, we remove for this one linear equation $\ell_{i}$ from the system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$. By adding a randomly chosen linear equation, we obtain a system $\mathcal{P}^{\prime \prime}$ of the same dimensions. We apply the $F_{4}$ algorithm against the two systems $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{P}^{\prime \prime}$. If we observe a difference in the behaviorof the algorithm, we know that the coefficient $\lambda_{i}$ in the above linear combination is 1 . Otherwise we have $\lambda_{i}=0$. By running this test for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, we can determine all the coefficients $\lambda_{i}$ and therefore recover $\tilde{\ell}$. In order to recover $\tilde{\ell}$, we therefore need $2 \cdot k$ runs of the $F_{4}$ algorithm, which is far less than the $2^{n-k} F_{4}$-runs above. Therefore, we do not have to consider this step in our complexity analysis.

Altogether, we can estimate the complexity of this first step of the attack by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Complexity }=2^{n-k} \cdot 3 \cdot\binom{n+v-k}{d_{\mathrm{reg}}}^{2} \cdot\binom{n+v-k}{2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the presence of quantum computers, we can speed up the searching step of this attack using Grover's algorithm. Such we get

$$
\text { Complexity }_{\text {Distinguisher; quantum }}=2^{(n-k) / 2} \cdot 3 \cdot\binom{n+v-k}{d_{\mathrm{reg}}}^{2} \cdot\binom{n+v-k}{2}
$$

As equation (5) shows, the complexity decreases when we increase the number $k$ of linear equations added to the public key. However, as already mentioned in
the previous section, our distinguisher fails when $k$ is too large. We denote the maximal value of $k$ for which our distinguisher works by $\bar{k}(n, D, a, v)$.

In order to remove all the vinegar variables from the system $\mathcal{P}$, we have to repeat this process $v$ times. However, with decreasing $v$ we find (see Table 2)

1) the number $\bar{k}$ of linear equtions that we can add to the public system increases
2) the degree of regularity of the systems generated by our distinguisher decreases

Therefore, the following steps of our attack will be much faster than the first step. This means, that we can estimated the complexity of the whole attack as in (5).

However, in order to estimate the complexity of our attack against an HFEvscheme in practice, we still have to answer the following two questions.

- What is the maximal number $\bar{k}$ of linear equations we can add to the public key such that our distinguisher works?
- What is the degree of regularty of the systems generated by our distinguisher?
In order to answer these questions, we once more consider Example 1 (see previous section).
First, let us consider the second question. As a comparison of Table 2 and Figure 3 shows, the degree of regularity of solving the systems generated by our distinguisher corresponds exactly to the degree of regularity of an unprojected HFEv- system with parameters $(n, D, a, v)$. As stated in [18], we can estimate this value as

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{\mathrm{reg}}=\left\lfloor\frac{r+a+v+7}{3}\right\rfloor, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r=\left\lfloor\log _{q}(D-1)\right\rfloor+1$.
To answer the second question, let us take a closer look on the behavior of the hybrid approach against random systems (see Figure hybrid). We start with a random system of 30 quadratic equations in 30 variables over GF(2). After appending the field equations $x_{i}^{2}-x_{i}=0(i=1, \ldots, 30)$, we add $k \in\{0, \ldots, 20\}$ linear equations to the system. Table 4 shows, for which values of $k$ we reach given values of regularity. Let us define $\hat{k}(d)$ to be the maximal number of linear equations we can add to the random system, such that the degree of regularity of a direct attack against the system is greater or equal to $d$, i.e $\hat{k}(6)=3, \hat{k}(5)=9$ and $\hat{k}(4)=15$.
By comparing these numbers with the values of $\bar{k}$ listed in Table 2, we find

$$
\hat{k}\left(d^{\star}\right) \leq \bar{k} \leq \hat{k}\left(d^{\star}\right)+1
$$

where $d^{\star}$ is the degree of regularity of a direct attack against an $\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v)$ scheme (see equation (4)).

| $d_{\text {reg }}$ | $\# k$ of added linear equations |
| :---: | :---: |
| 3 | for $k \geq 16$ |
| 4 | for $10 \leq k \leq 15$ |
| 5 | for $4 \leq k \leq 9$ |
| 6 | for $k \leq 3$ |

Table 4. Degree of regularity of projected random systems with 30 equations

In order to estimate the complexity of our attack against an $\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v)$ scheme, we therefore proceed as follows.

1. We compute the degree of regularity of the unprojected $\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v)$ system (see equation (4)). Denote the result by $d^{\star}$.
2. We estimate the maximal number $\bar{k}$ of linear equations we can add to the public HFEv- system by $\hat{k}\left(d^{\star}\right)$. This value can be obtained as follows.
The degree of regularity of a random system of $m=n-a$ quadratic equations in $n^{\prime}$ variables over $\operatorname{GF}(2)$ can be estimated as the smallest index $d$ for which the coefficient of $X^{d}$ in

$$
\frac{1}{1-X} \cdot\left(\frac{1-X^{2}}{1-X}\right)^{n^{\prime}} \cdot\left(\frac{1-X^{2}}{1-X^{4}}\right)^{m}
$$

is non-positive [22].
We can use this equation to determine the values of $\hat{k}\left(d^{\star}\right)$.
By substituting the so obtained values of $\bar{k}$ and $d^{\star}$ into formula (5), we therefore get a close estimation of the complexity of our distinguishing attack against an $\operatorname{HFEv}-(n, D, a, v)$ system.

Example 2: Consider an HFEv- system over GF(2) with $(n, D, a, v)=(91,5,3,2)$. We obtain $r=\left\lfloor\log _{2}(D-1)\right\rfloor+1=3$. The degree of regularity of a direct attack against the HFEv- system (with field equations) is given by

$$
d_{\mathrm{reg}}=\left\lfloor\frac{3+3+2+7}{3}\right\rfloor=5 .
$$

Therefore, we get

$$
\text { Complexity }_{\text {direct }}=3 \cdot\binom{88}{5}^{2} \cdot\binom{88}{2} \approx 2^{63.9}
$$

After adding $k=68$ randomly chosen linear equations to the system, the step degrees of the $F 4$ algorithm look like $1 ; 1,2,3,4$. When one of the linear equation
was chosen from the vinegar space $\mathcal{V}$, we obtain $1 ; 1,2,3,3$.
Therefore, we can estimate the complexity of our distinguisher by

$$
\text { Complexity }_{\text {Distinguisher }}=2^{23} \cdot\binom{25}{4}^{2} \cdot\binom{25}{2} \approx 2^{60.1}
$$

which is nearly 16 times faster than a direct attack.
The complexity of a MinRank attack (MinorsModeling against the scheme can be estimated by

$$
\text { Complexity }_{\text {MinRank }}=\binom{n+r+a+v}{r+a+v}^{2.3} \approx 2^{85}
$$

the complexity of classical brute force attacks $2^{96}$. Therefore, for the above parameter set, our attack is the most efficient classical attack against HFEv-. With regard to the memory consumption, we get

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Memory }_{\text {direct }}=\binom{88}{5}^{2} \approx 2^{50.4} \\
\text { Memory }_{\text {MinRank }}=\binom{n+r+a+v}{r+a+v}^{2} \approx 2^{74.3} \\
\text { Memory }_{\text {distinguisher }}=\binom{25}{4}^{2} \approx 2^{27.3}
\end{gathered}
$$

As these data show, our attack requires much less memory than the direct and the MinRank attack. Since attacks against large instances of multivariate schemes often fail due to memory restrictions, the small memory consumption is a huge benefit of our attack.

## 7 Improvements to the Direct Attack

It is possible that the average cost of the distinguishing step can be reduced by selecting the projection in a slightly nonrandom fashion. In particular, we may consider simultaneously testing a set of corank $k$ projections $\pi$ whose kernels are contained within the kernel of a single corank $k+1$ projection, $\pi_{1}$. In such a case, we can treat the image of $\pi_{1}$ in the plaintext space as being generated by the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+v-k-1}$, and the image of $\pi$ as being generated by the same variables plus one additional variable $x_{n+v-k}$, which defines a 1-dimensional subspace of the kernel of $\pi_{1}$, which will vary depending on the choice of $\pi$.

To see how this might be of some advantage, note that typical Gröbner basis techniques work by finding polynomials $p_{i}$ of degree $d-2$ that can be multiplied by the public polynomials $f_{i}$ such that $\sum p_{i} f_{i}=q$, where $q$ is a polynomial of degree at most $d-1$. In our case we will be looking for polynomials $p_{i}$ over the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+v-k}$ such that $\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)=q$.

Our strategy will be to first solve for all $p_{i}$ over the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+v-k-1}$, such that

$$
\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)=q\left(\bmod x_{n+v-k}\right)
$$

As the above equation is equivalent to $\sum p_{i} f_{i}\left(\pi_{1}\right)=q$, this computation can be reused for multiple different choices of $\pi$. Note also, that any solution to $\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)=q$ is also a solution to $\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)=q\left(\bmod x_{n+v-k}\right)$, although $p$ may contain monomials involving $x_{n+v-k}$ that would be removed by modular reduction. We can therefore generate solutions to $\sum p_{i} f_{i}=q$ from linear combinations of:

1. polynomials of the form $\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)$, where $p_{i}$ is a solution over the variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+v-k-1}$ of $\sum p_{i} f_{i}(\pi)=q\left(\bmod x_{n+v-k}\right)$; and,
2. polynomials of the form $\sum x_{n+v-k} p_{i}^{\prime} f_{i}(\pi)$, where $p_{i}^{\prime}$ has degree at most $d-3$.

As both types of polynomial are divisible by $x_{n+v-k}$ in their degree-d terms, finding a linear combination of these polynomials with degree $d-1$ only requires finding cancellations among as many distinct monomials as would be required when solving a system with degree of regularity $d-1$.

It should be noted that a projection of degree $k+1$ is approximately $q$ times more likely to have a nontrivial intersection between its kernel and the vinegar subspace as is a projection of degree $k$, and conditional on $\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ having such a nontrivial intersection, the probability that $\operatorname{ker}(\pi)$ also having a nontrivial intersection is approximately 1 in $q$. It is therefore optimal to choose $q$ different $\pi \mathrm{s}$ for each $\pi_{1}$. It should further be noted that the above strategy can be applied recursively with sets of $q \pi_{1}$ s having their $k+1$ dimensional kernels contained within the kernel of a corank $k+2$ projection $\pi_{2}$. While it is clear that a large savings is possible when projections that eliminate a vinegar variable can already be distinguished at first degree fall, the analysis is somewhat more difficult when multiple step increases are required to see a difference in behavior. We therefore do not analyze this possible improvement in our complexity analysis.

## 8 Conclusion

In this paper we proposed three new attacks against the HFEv- signature scheme, each of them using the idea of projection. Especially our distinguishing attack is very effective and, for some parameter sets, the most efficient existing attack against HFEv-. Furthermore, the memory requirements of our attack are much less than that of direct and rank attacks. Future work includes in particular a thorough investigation of our ideas to impove the attack (see Section 7).

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