

Advanced

code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

Advanced

code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$

Advanced  
code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \end{aligned}$$

Advanced

code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \end{aligned}$$

Advanced

code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

Advanced

code-based cryptography

Daniel J. Bernstein

University of Illinois at Chicago &  
Technische Universiteit Eindhoven

Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .

ed  
sed cryptography

. Bernstein

ty of Illinois at Chicago &  
che Universiteit Eindhoven

## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .

graphy

n

is at Chicago &  
siteit Eindhoven

## Lattice-basis reduction

$$\text{Define } L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ = \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}.$$

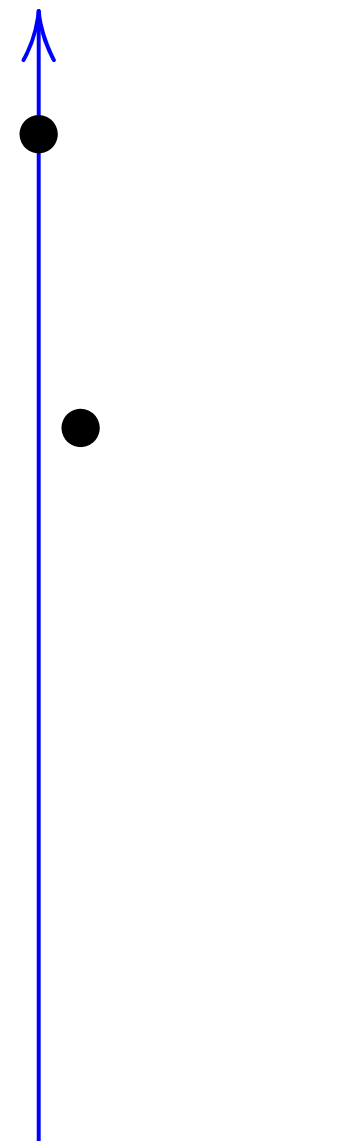
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3).$$





## Lattice-basis reduction

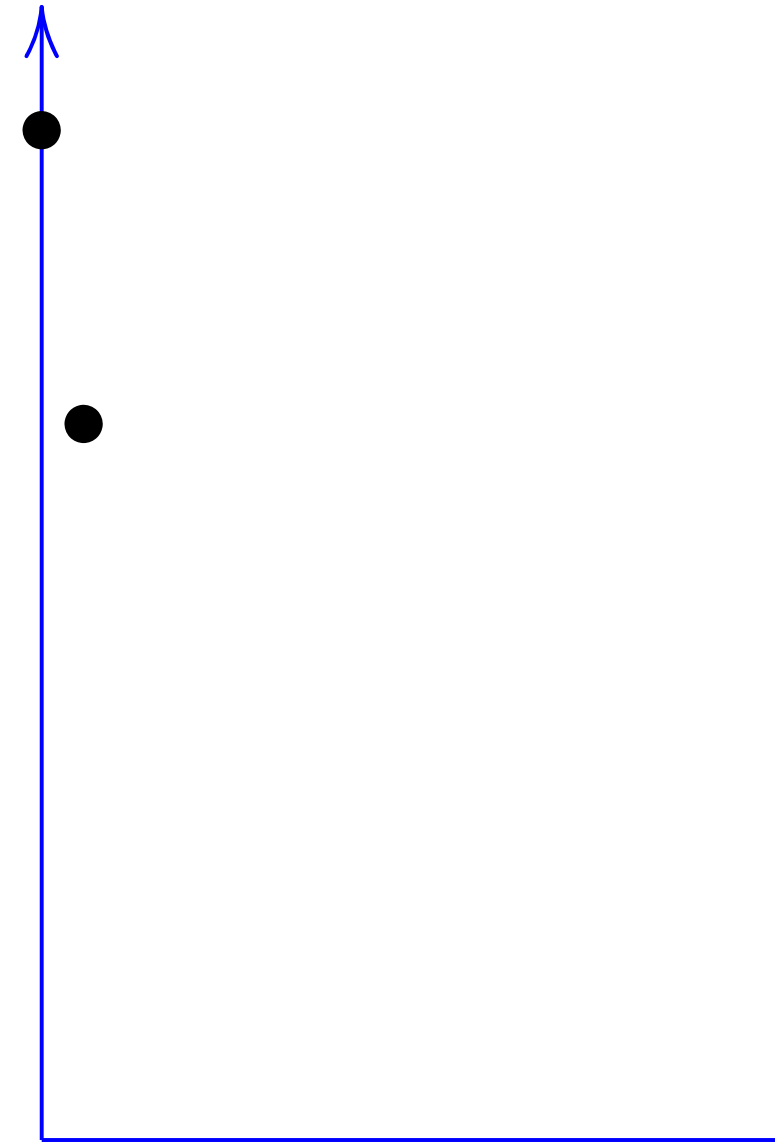
Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
 nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

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



## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

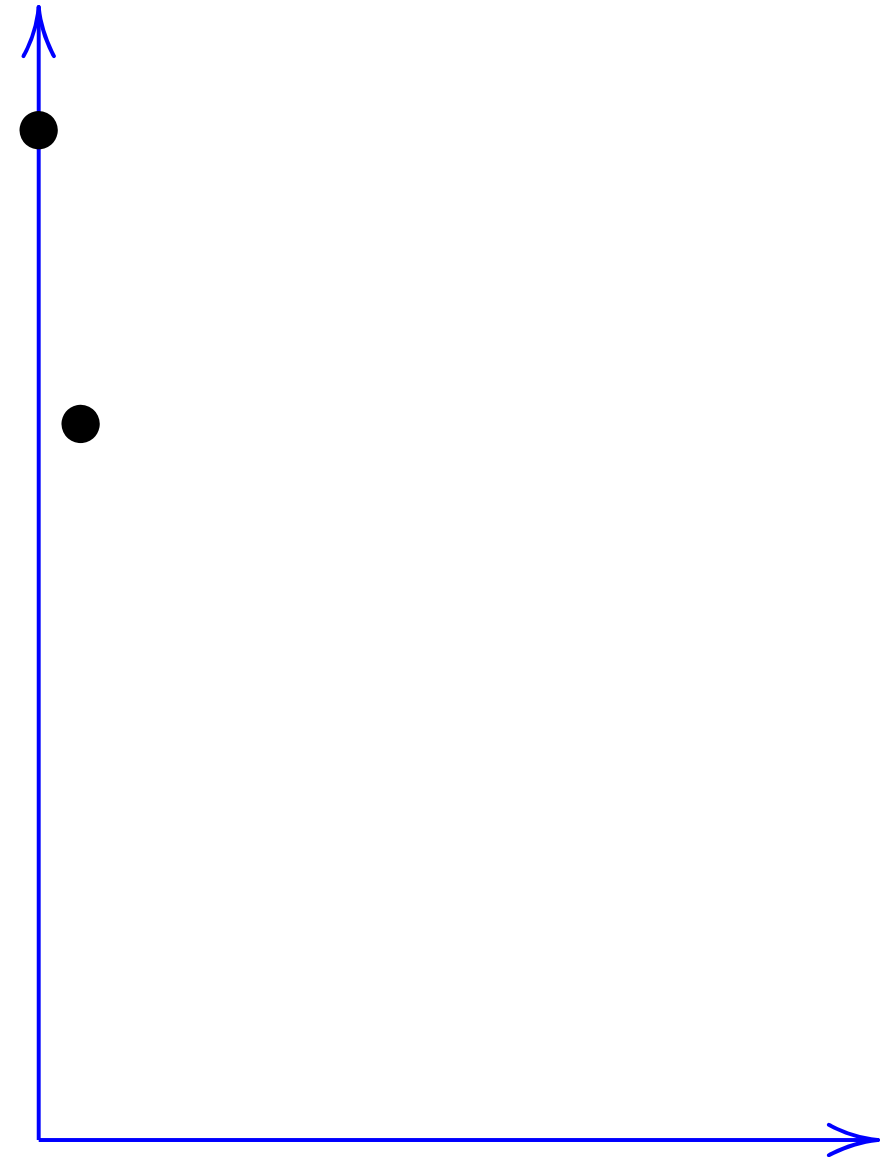
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .



## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

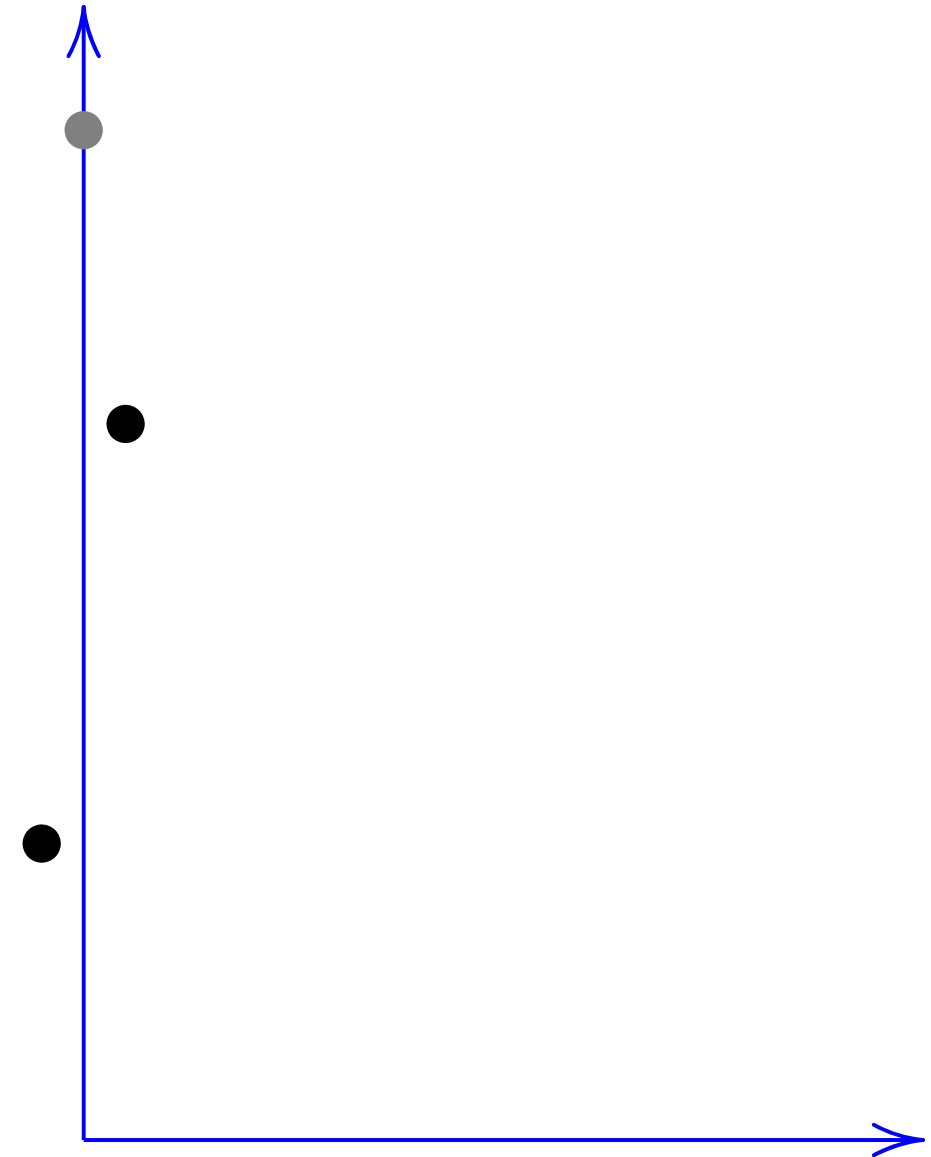
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .



## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

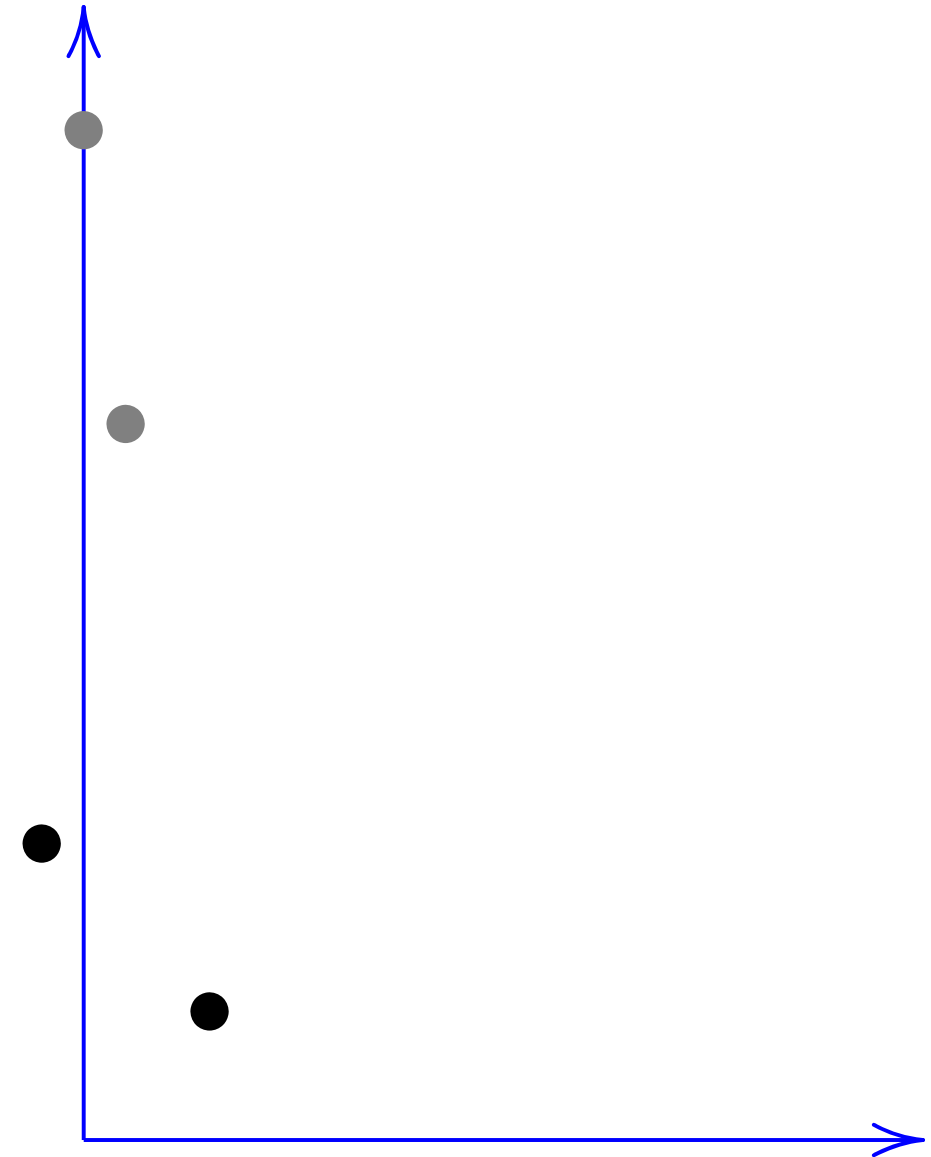
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .



## Lattice-basis reduction

Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

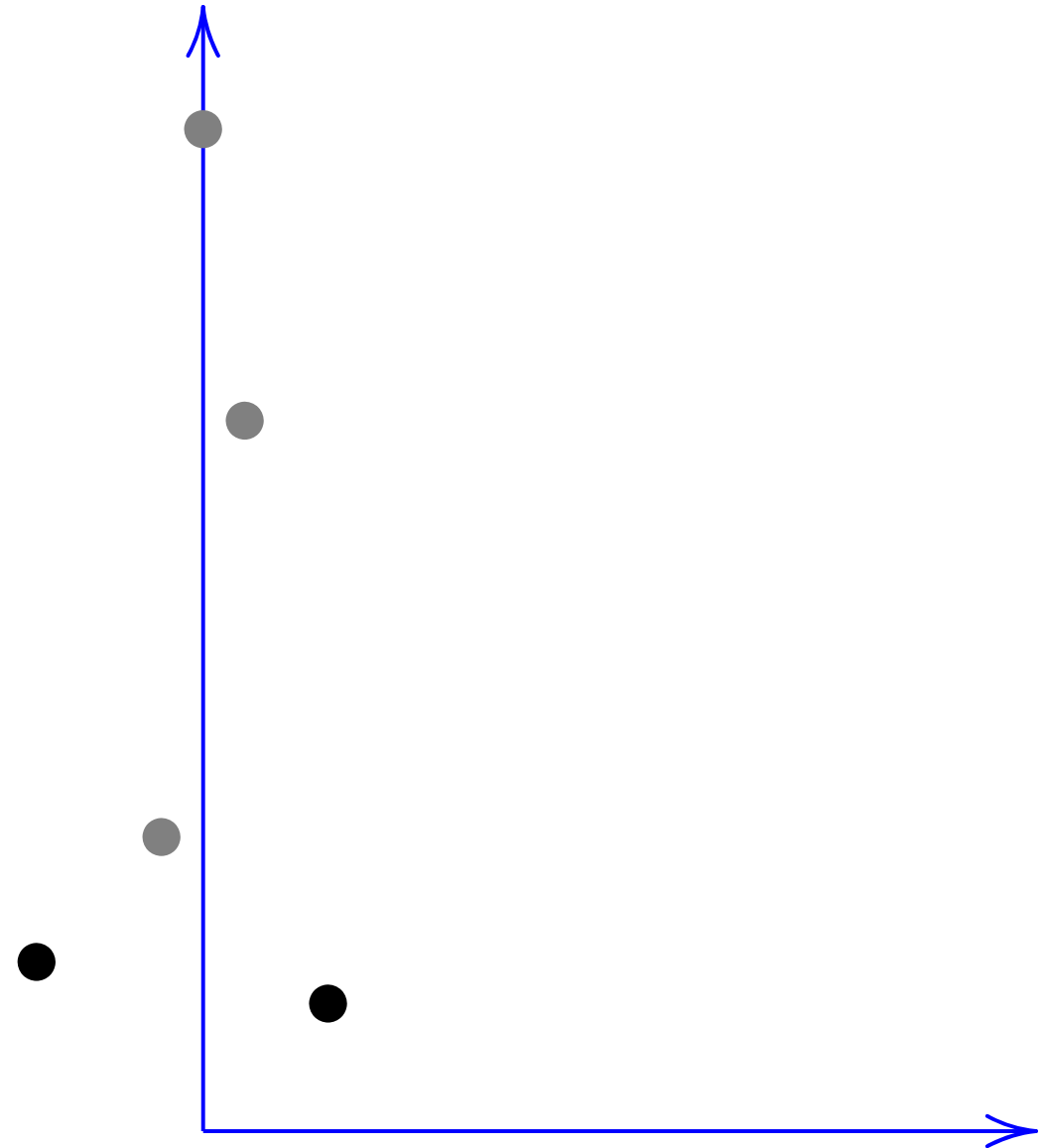
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

Shortest vectors in  $L$  are

$(0, 0), (3, 3), (-3, -3)$ .



## Lattice-basis reduction

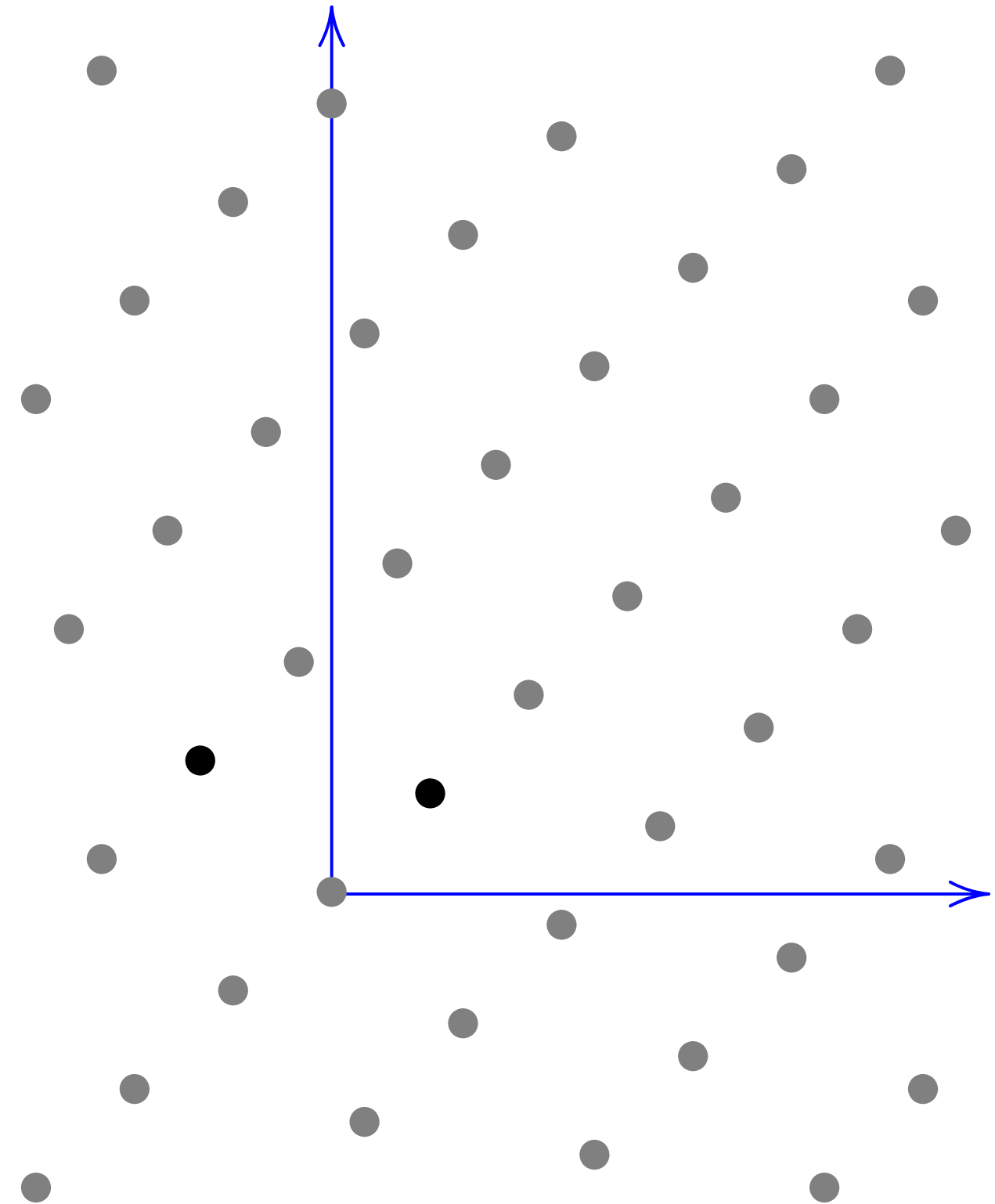
Define  $L = (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$   
 $= \{(b, 24a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

$(-4, 4), (3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

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



## basis reduction

$$L = \{(0, 24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ (4a + 17b) : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}.$$

the shortest  
vector in  $L$ ?

$$(24)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

$$(1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

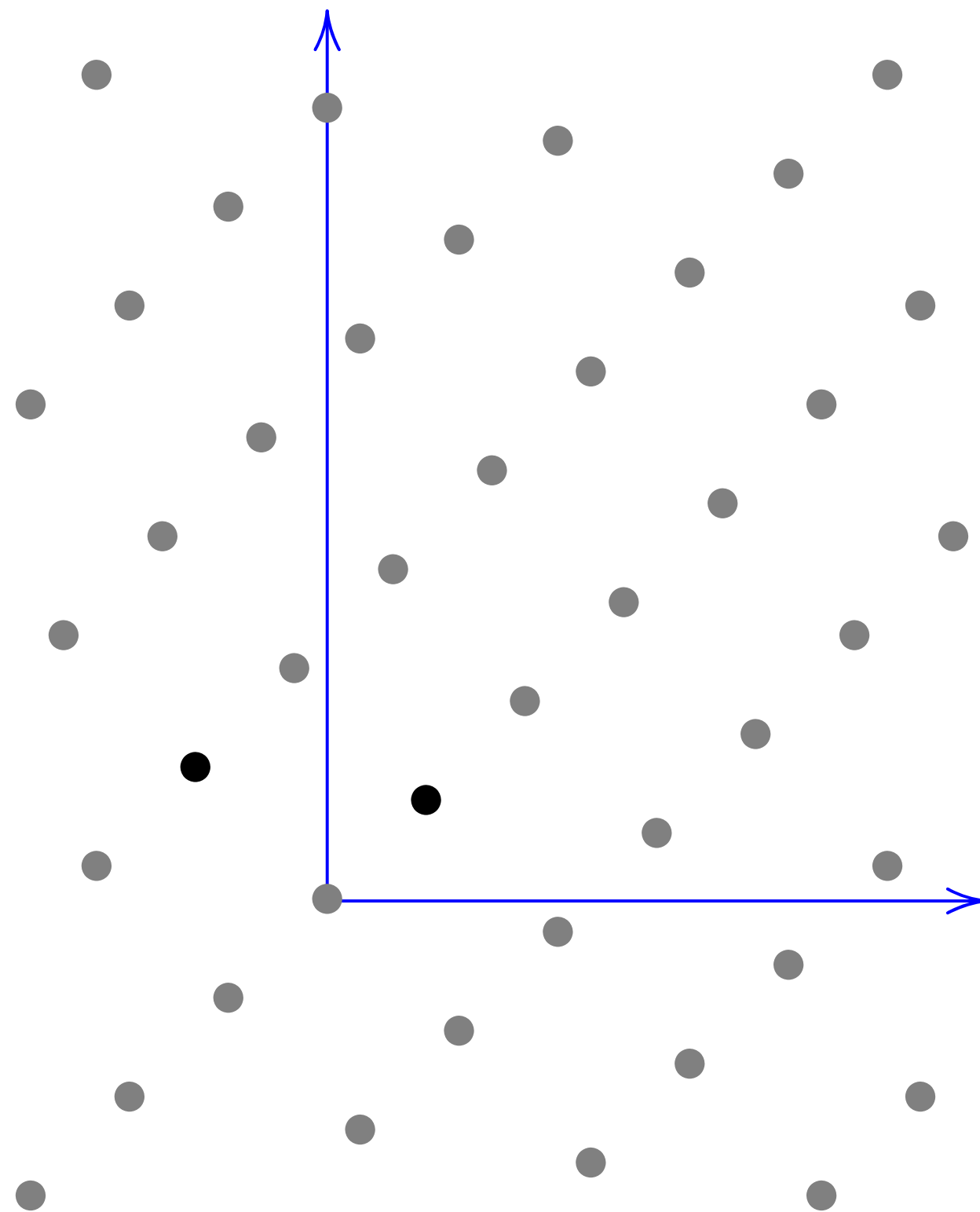
$$(1, 7)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}$$

$$(4, 4)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 3)\mathbf{Z}.$$

$(3, 3)$  are orthogonal.

vectors in  $L$  are

$$(3, 3), (-3, -3).$$



Another  
Define  $L$   
What is  
nonzero

ction

$$\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

$$: a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}.$$

est

$L$ ?

$$(1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

$$(1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

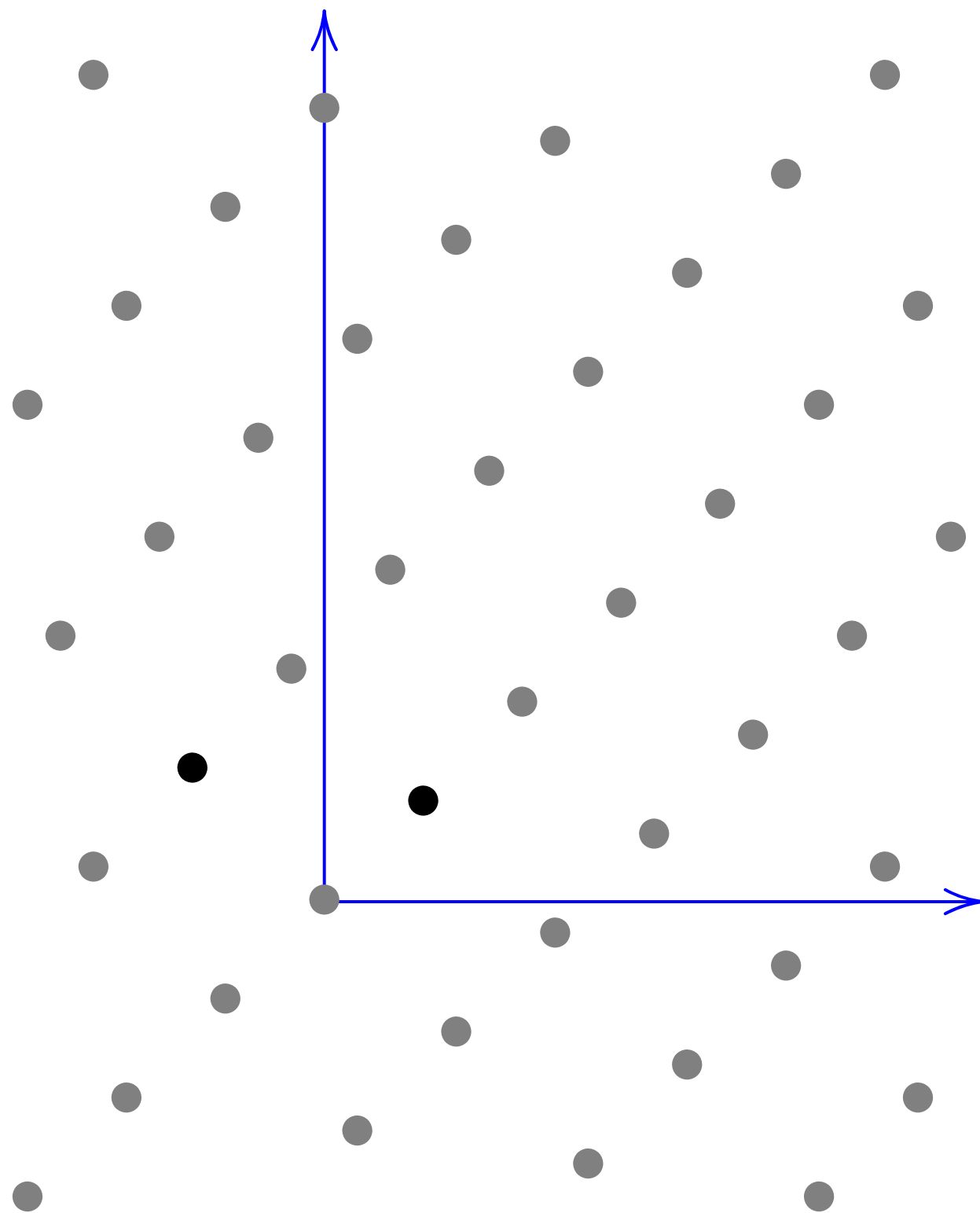
$$(3, 3)\mathbf{Z}$$

$$(3, 3)\mathbf{Z}.$$

orthogonal.

$L$  are

$$(-3).$$



Another example:

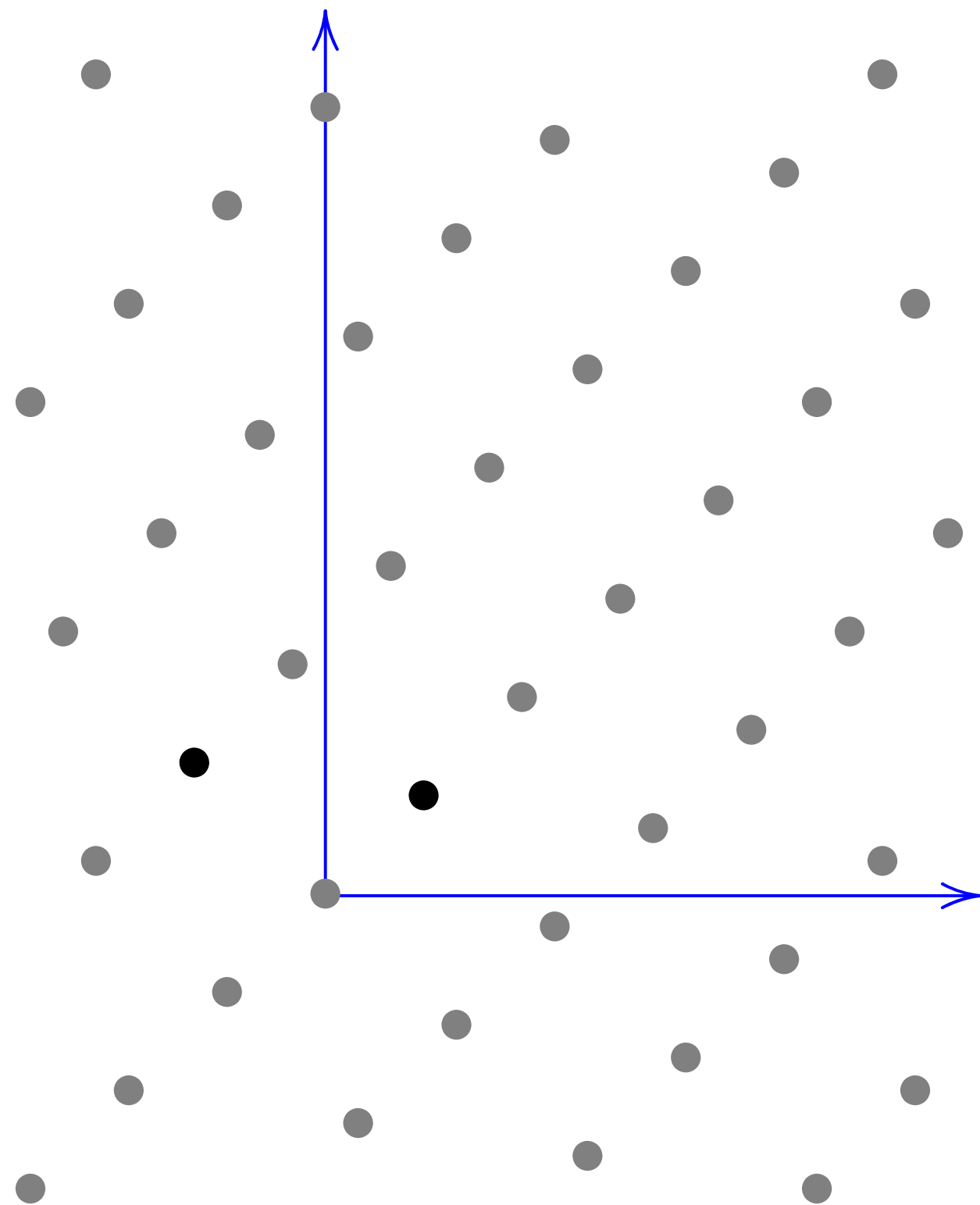
$$\text{Define } L = (0, 25)$$

What is the shortest

nonzero vector in



$\mathbf{z}$   
}

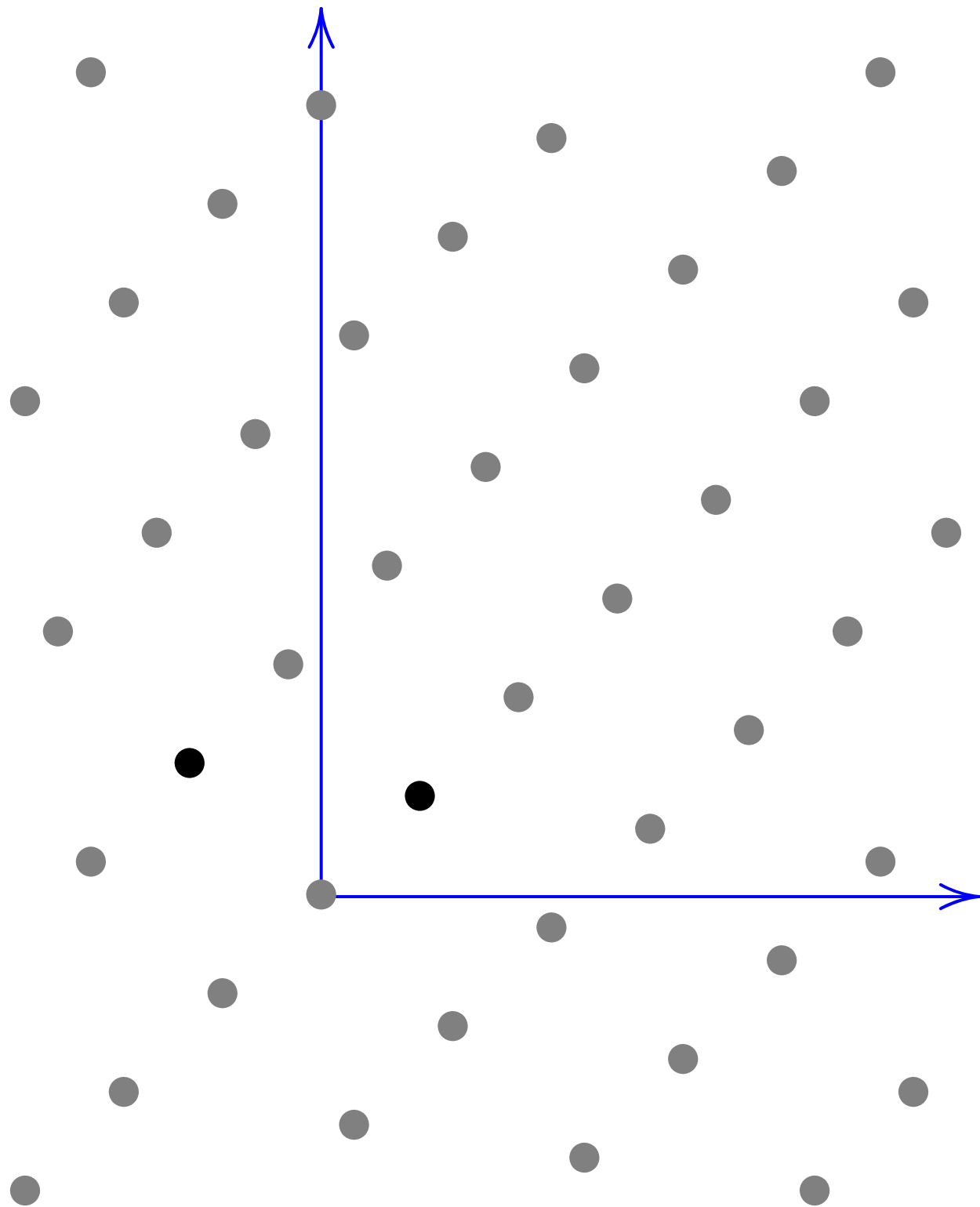


l.

Another example:

Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{z} + (1, 17)$

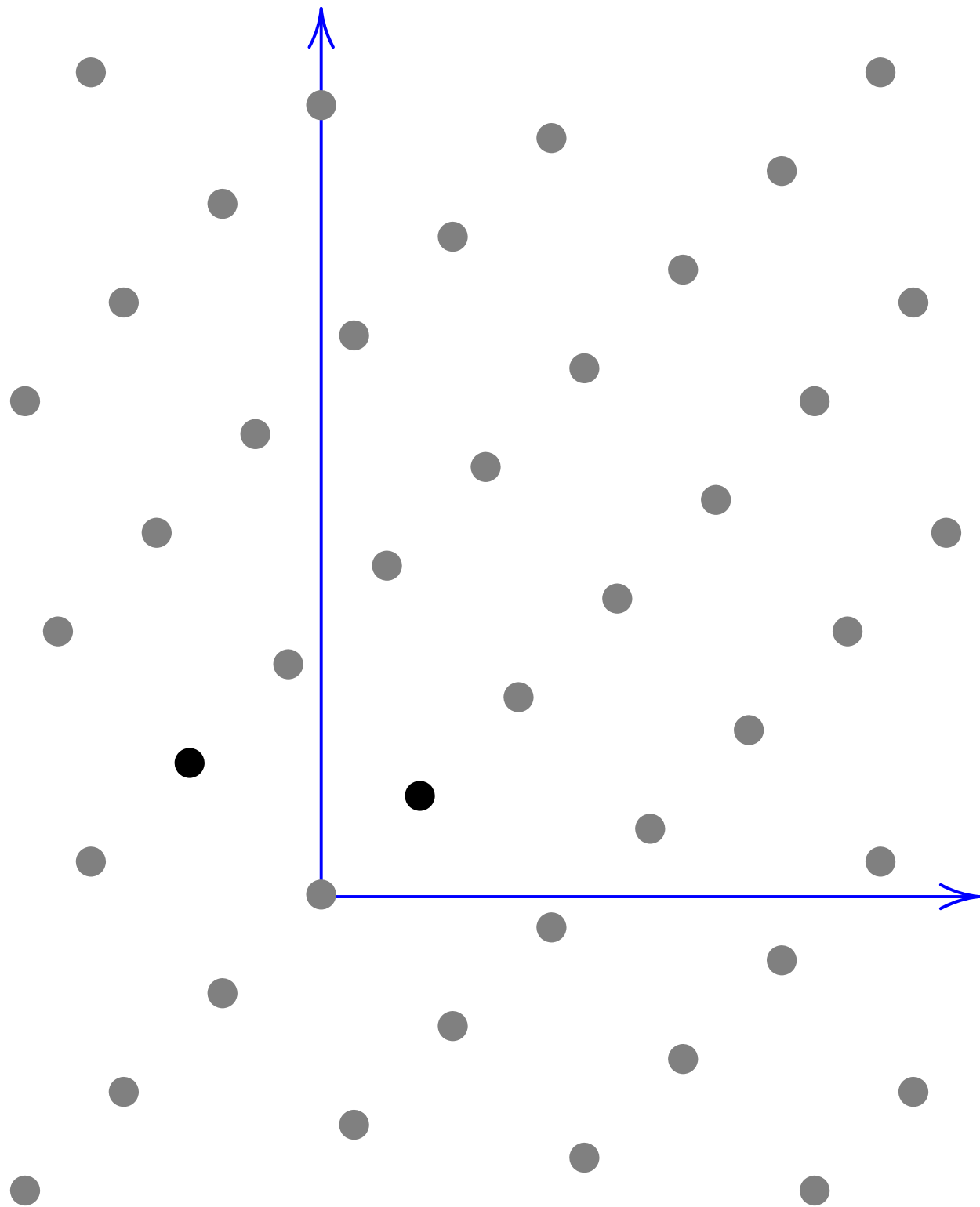
What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?



Another example:

Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

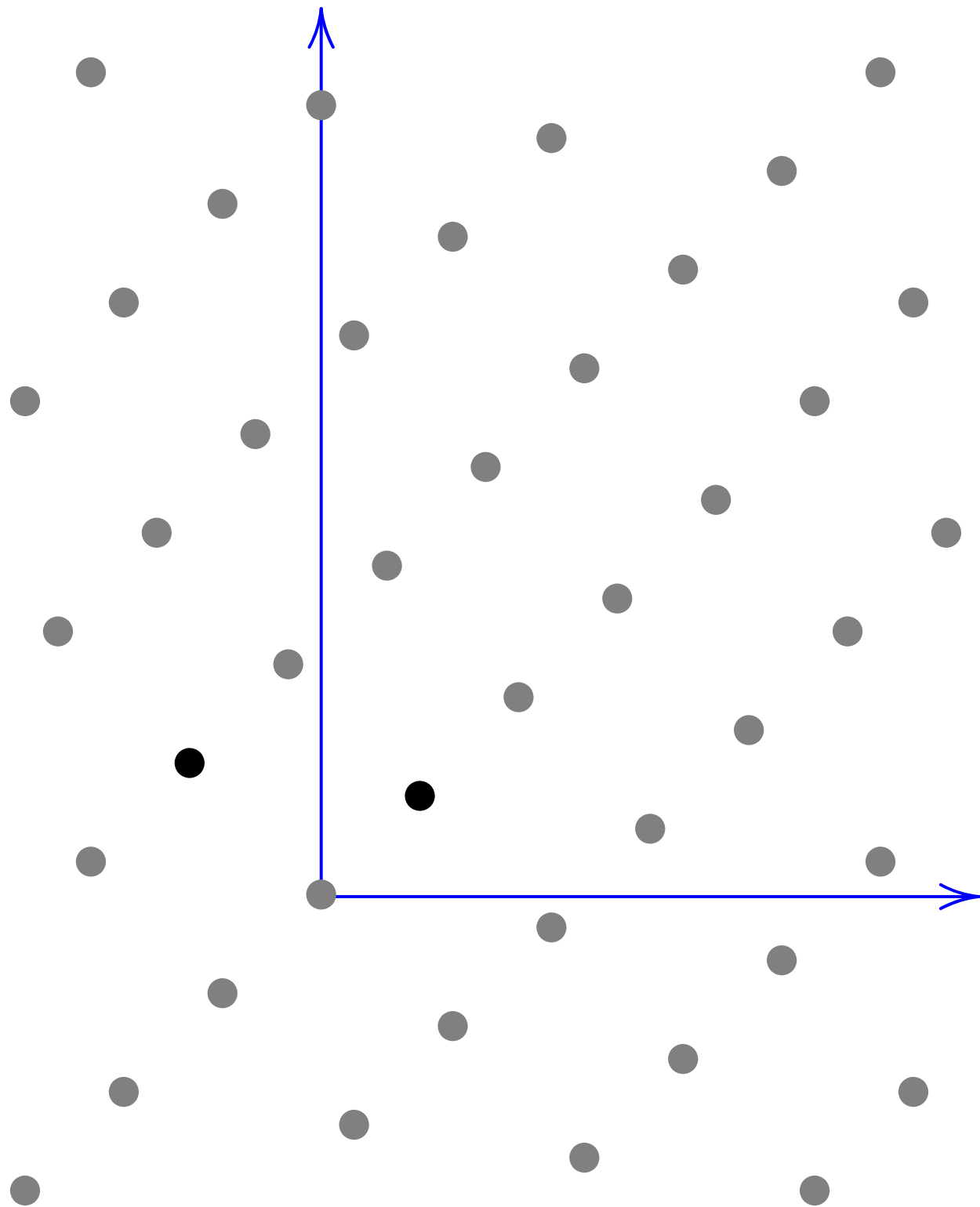


Another example:

Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$$

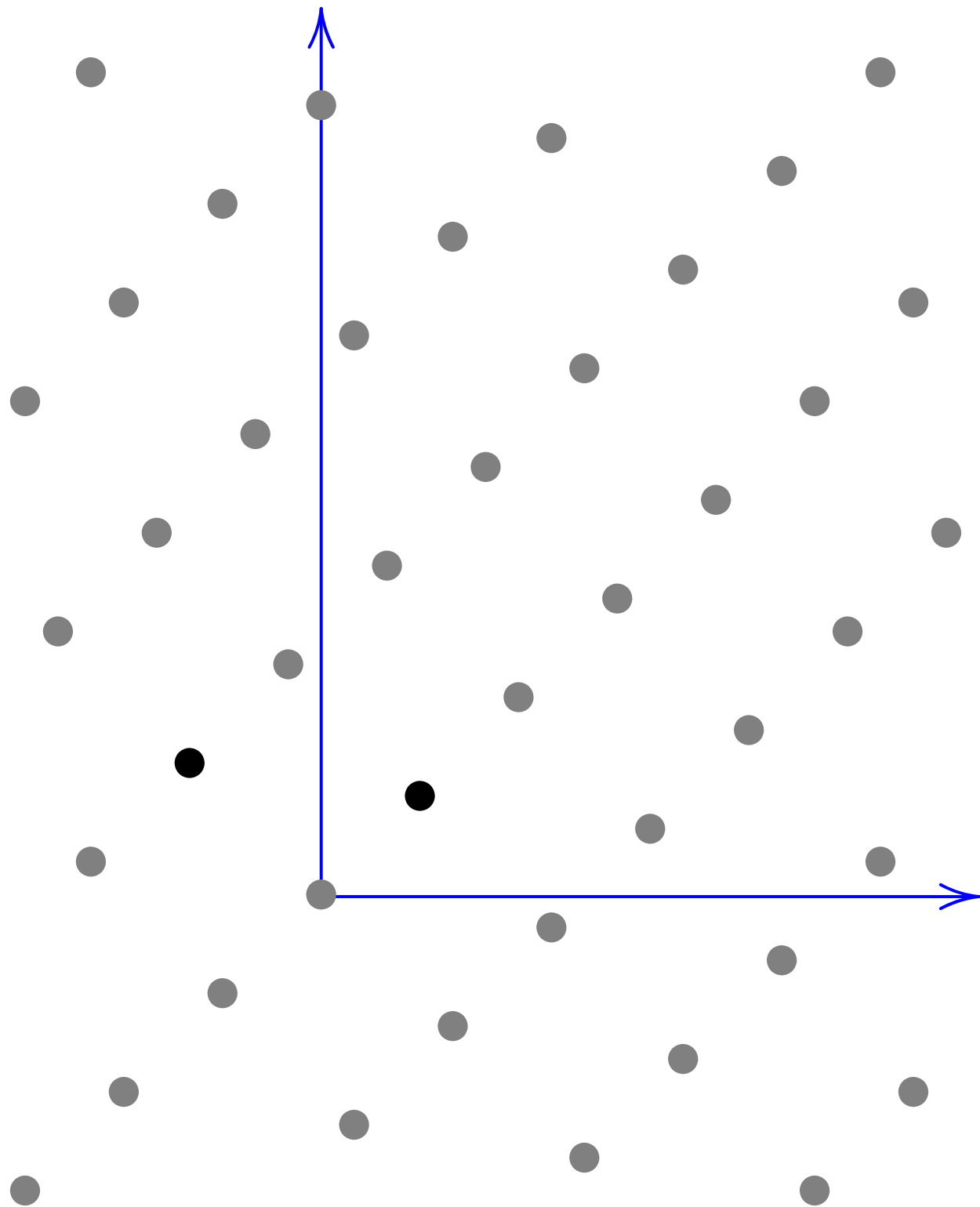


Another example:

Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \end{aligned}$$

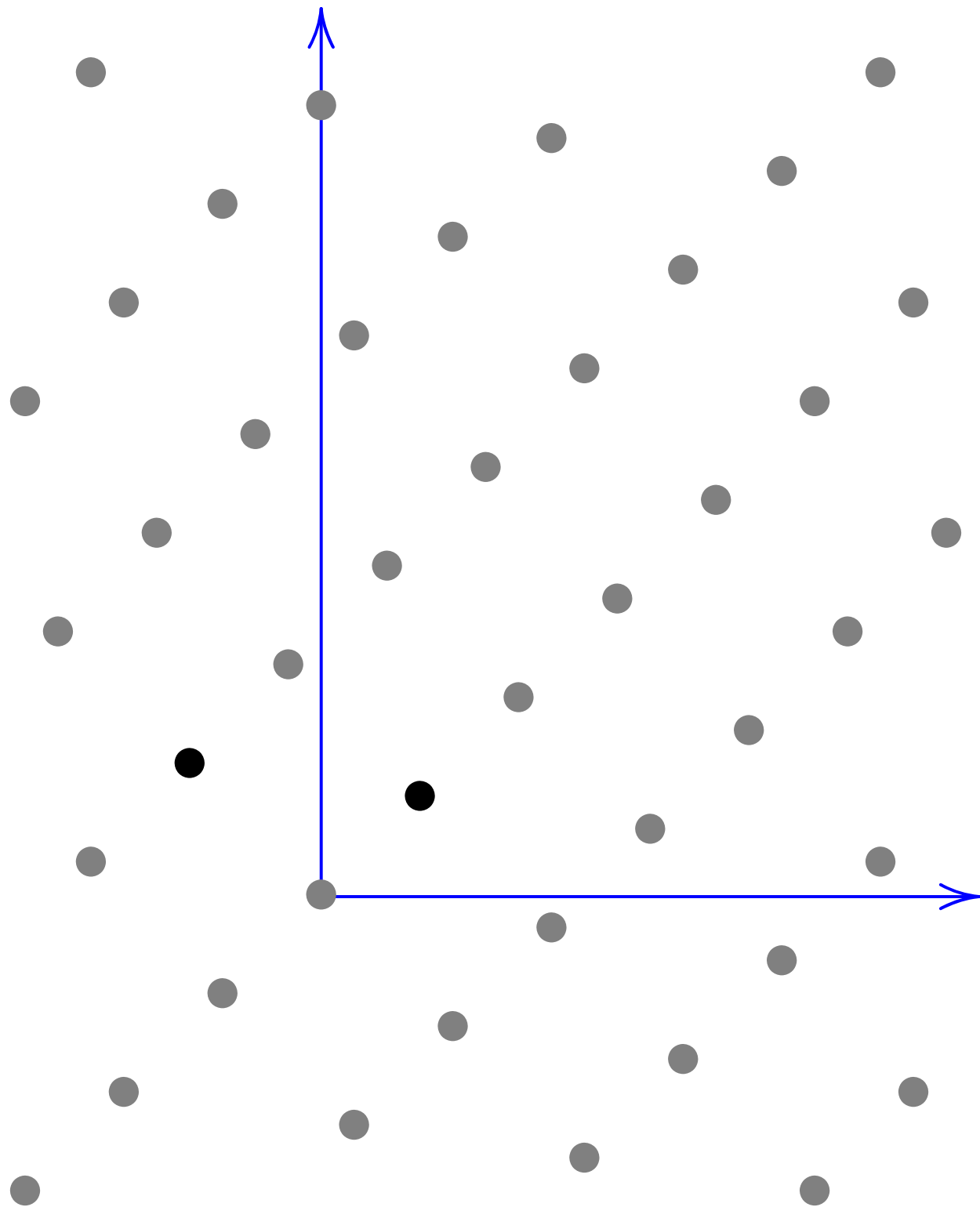


Another example:

Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$



Another example:

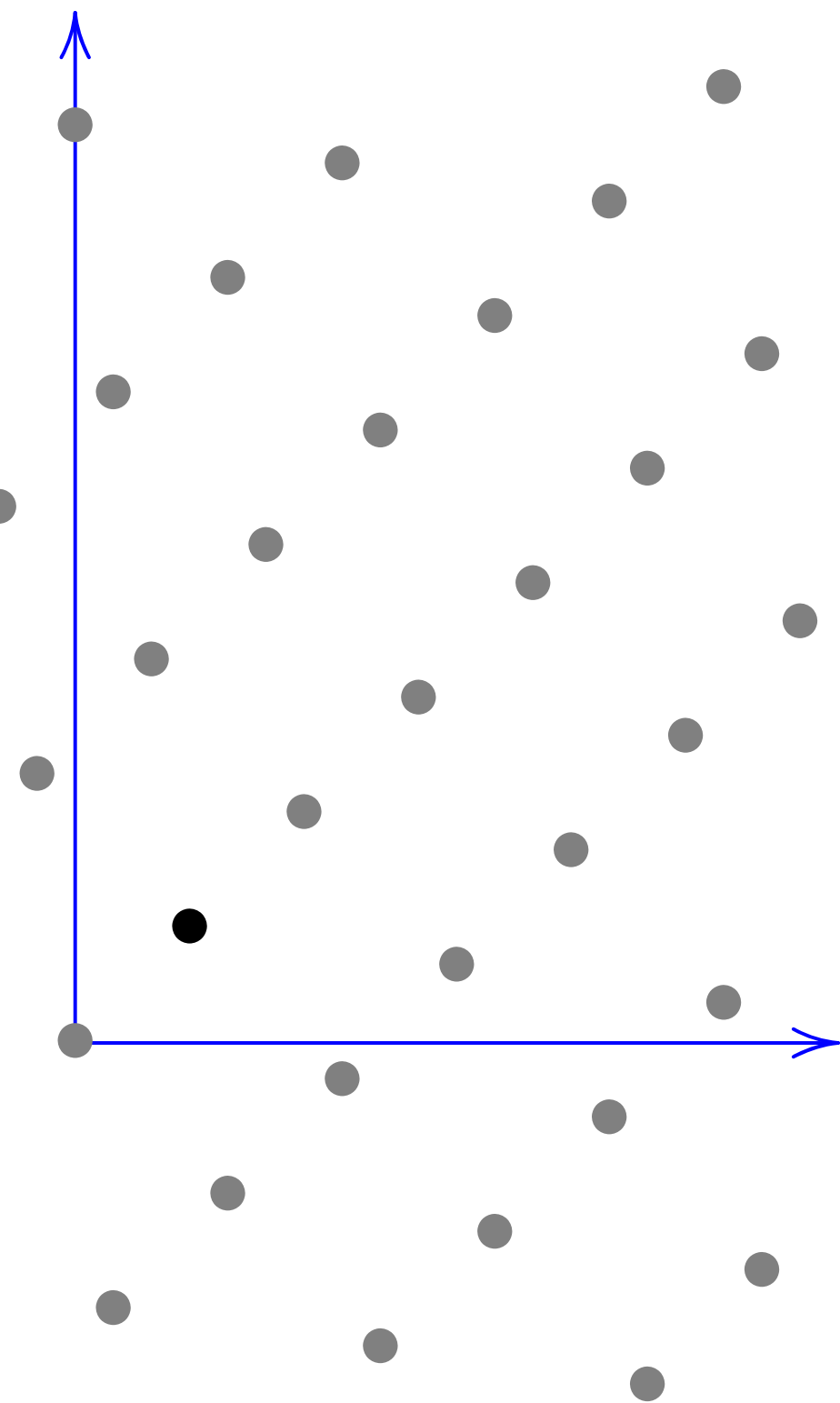
Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

*Nearly* orthogonal.

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



Another example:

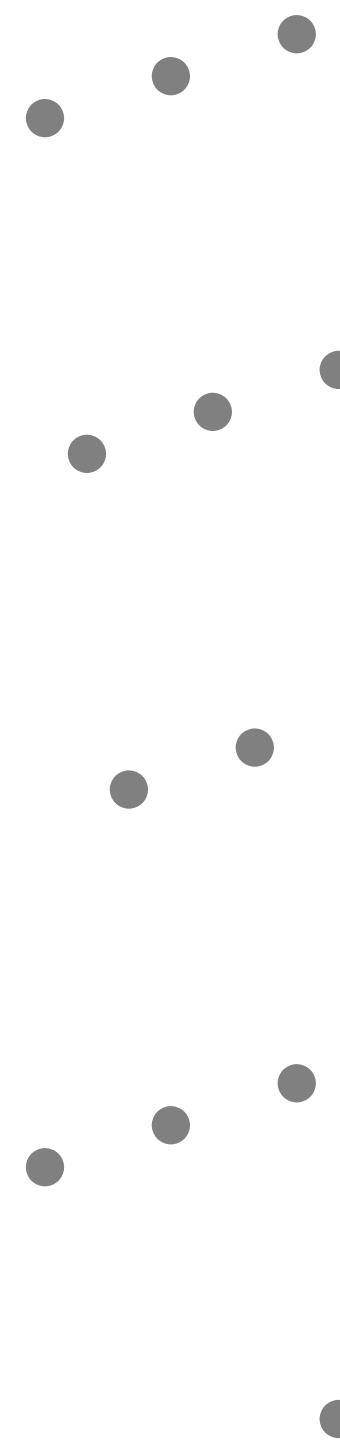
Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

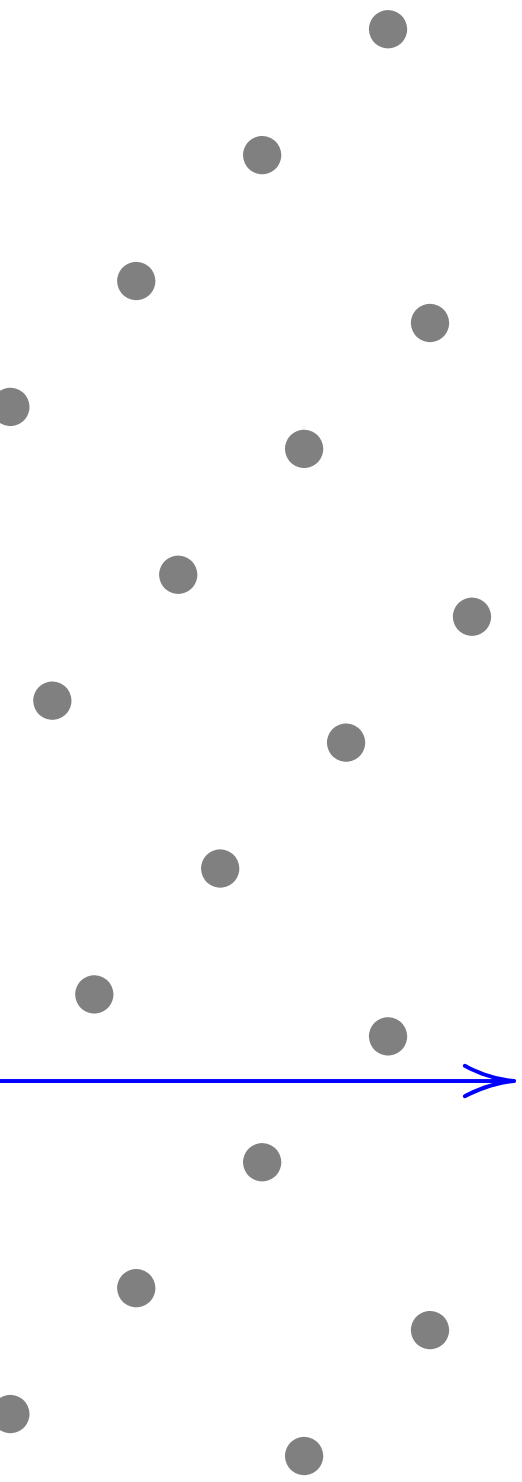
What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\
 &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\
 &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}.
 \end{aligned}$$

*Nearly* orthogonal.

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





Another example:

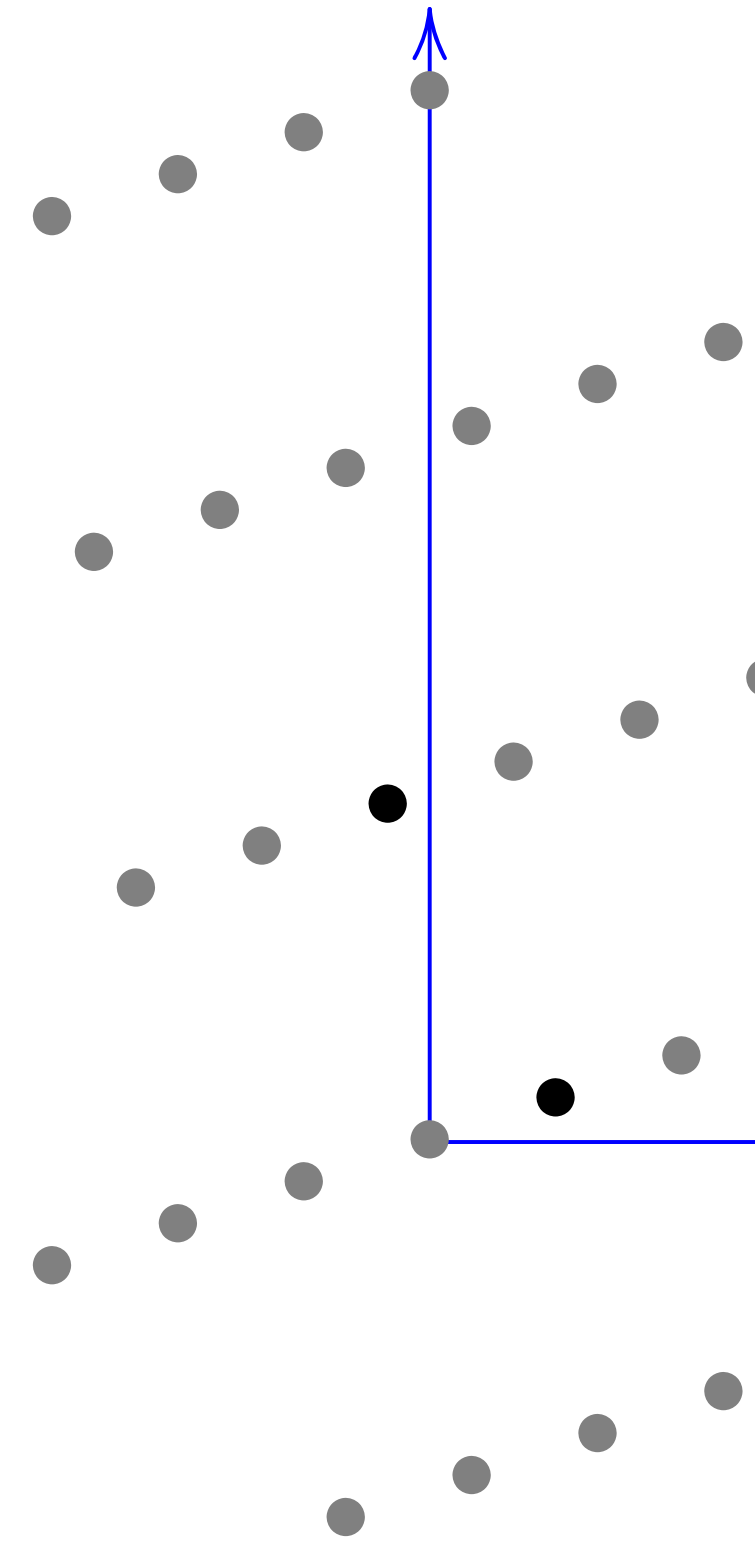
Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

*Nearly* orthogonal.

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





Another example:

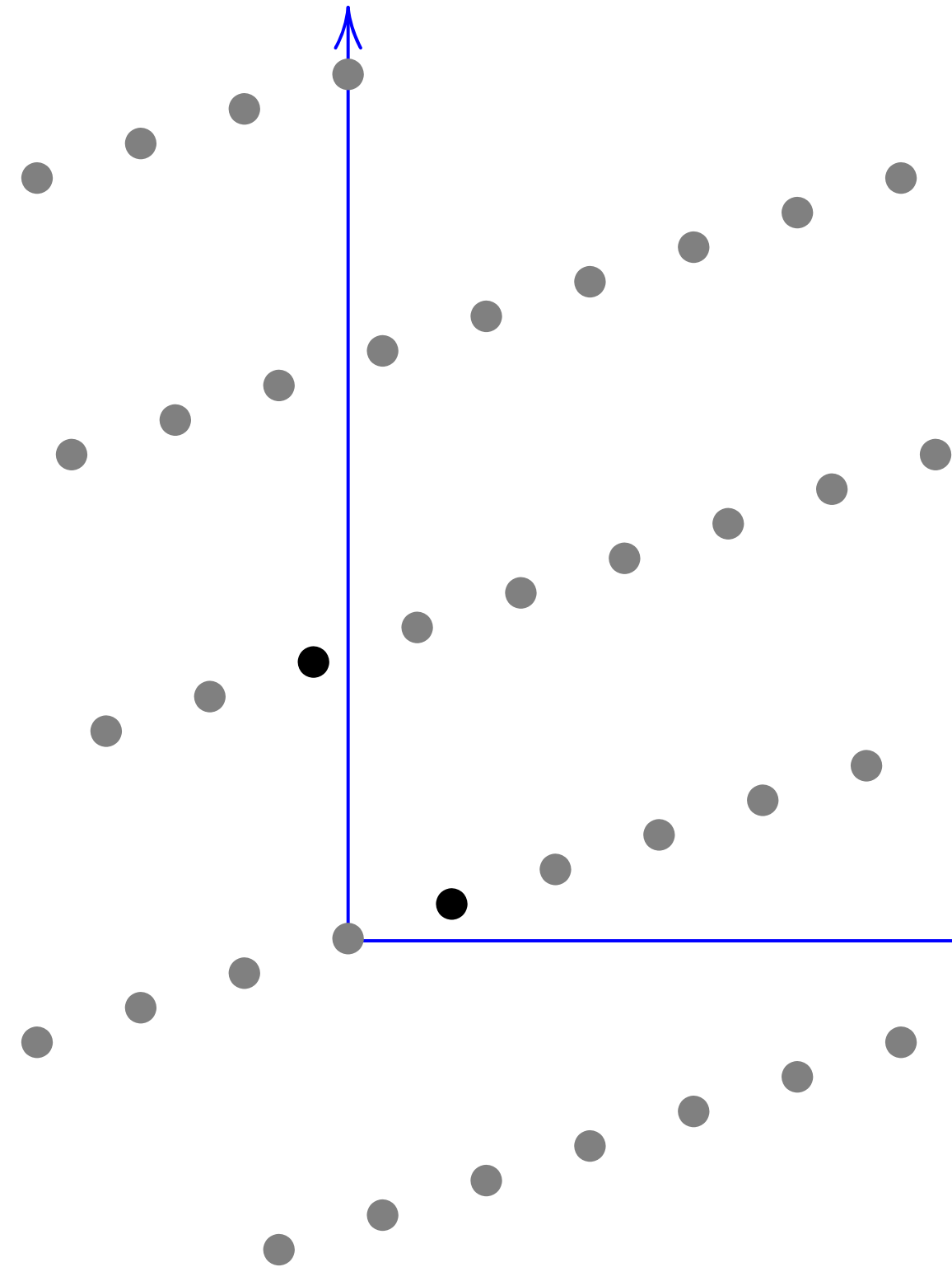
Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

*Nearly* orthogonal.

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



Another example:

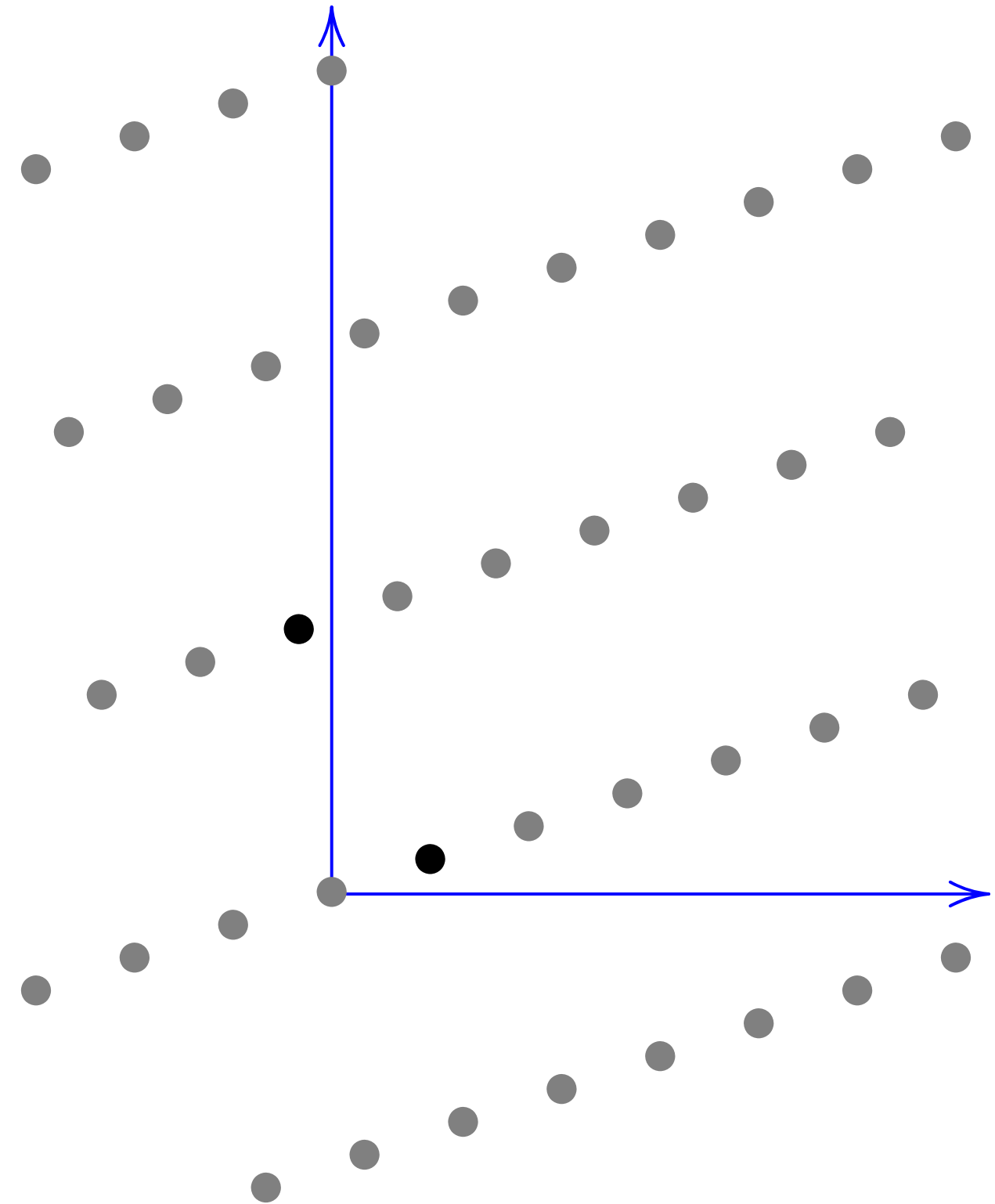
Define  $L = (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z}$ .

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 25)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{Z} \\ &= (-1, 8)\mathbf{Z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

*Nearly* orthogonal.

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



example:

$$v = (0, 25)\mathbf{z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{z}.$$

the shortest  
vector in  $L$ ?

$$(0, 25)\mathbf{z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{z}$$

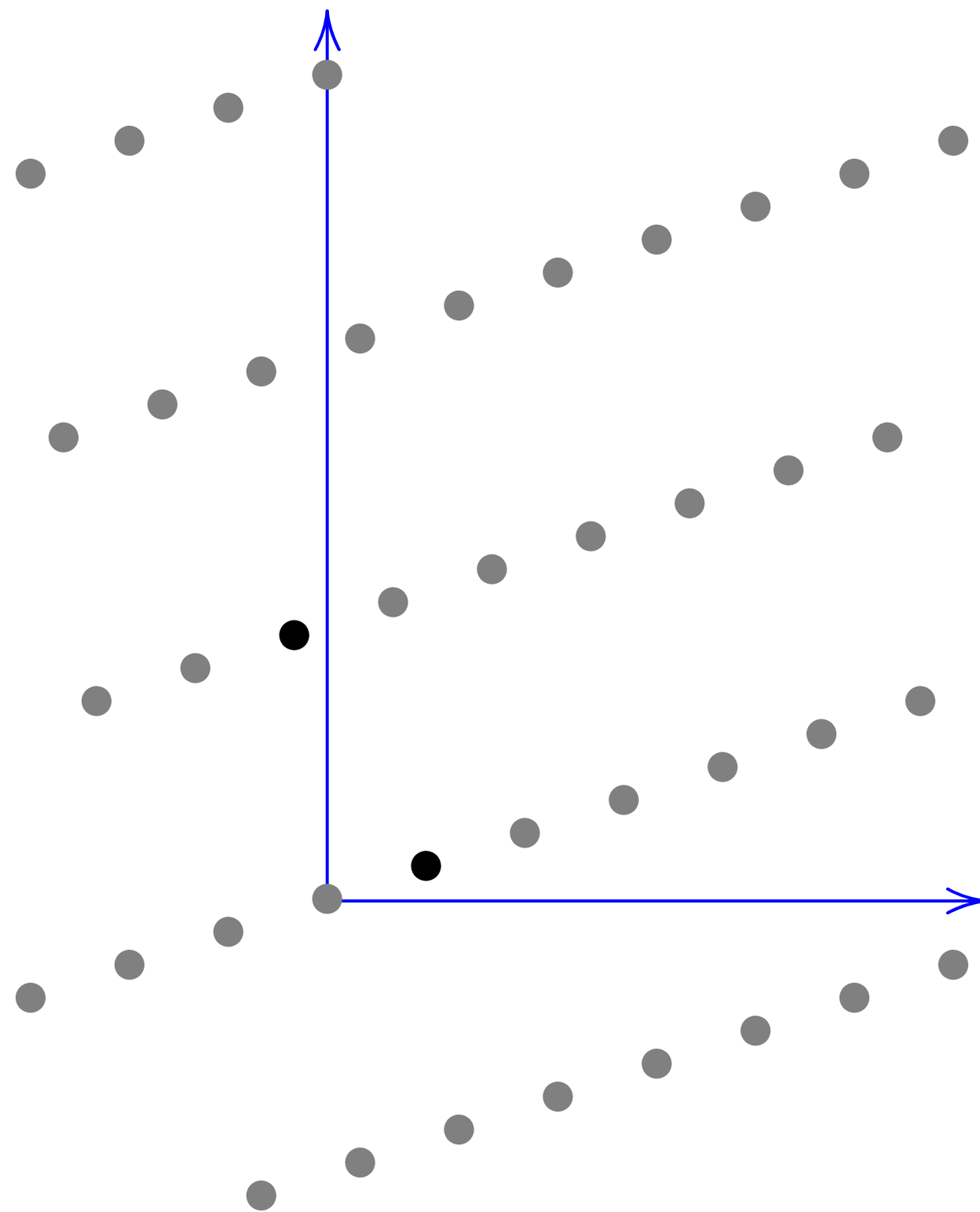
$$(1, 8)\mathbf{z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{z}$$

$$(1, 8)\mathbf{z} + (3, 1)\mathbf{z}.$$

orthogonal.

vectors in  $L$  are

$$(3, 1), (-3, -1).$$



Polynom

Define  $F$

$$r_0 = (10$$

$$r_1 = (10$$

$$L = (0, 1$$

What is

nonzero

$$\mathbf{z} + (1, 17)\mathbf{z}.$$

est

$L$ ?

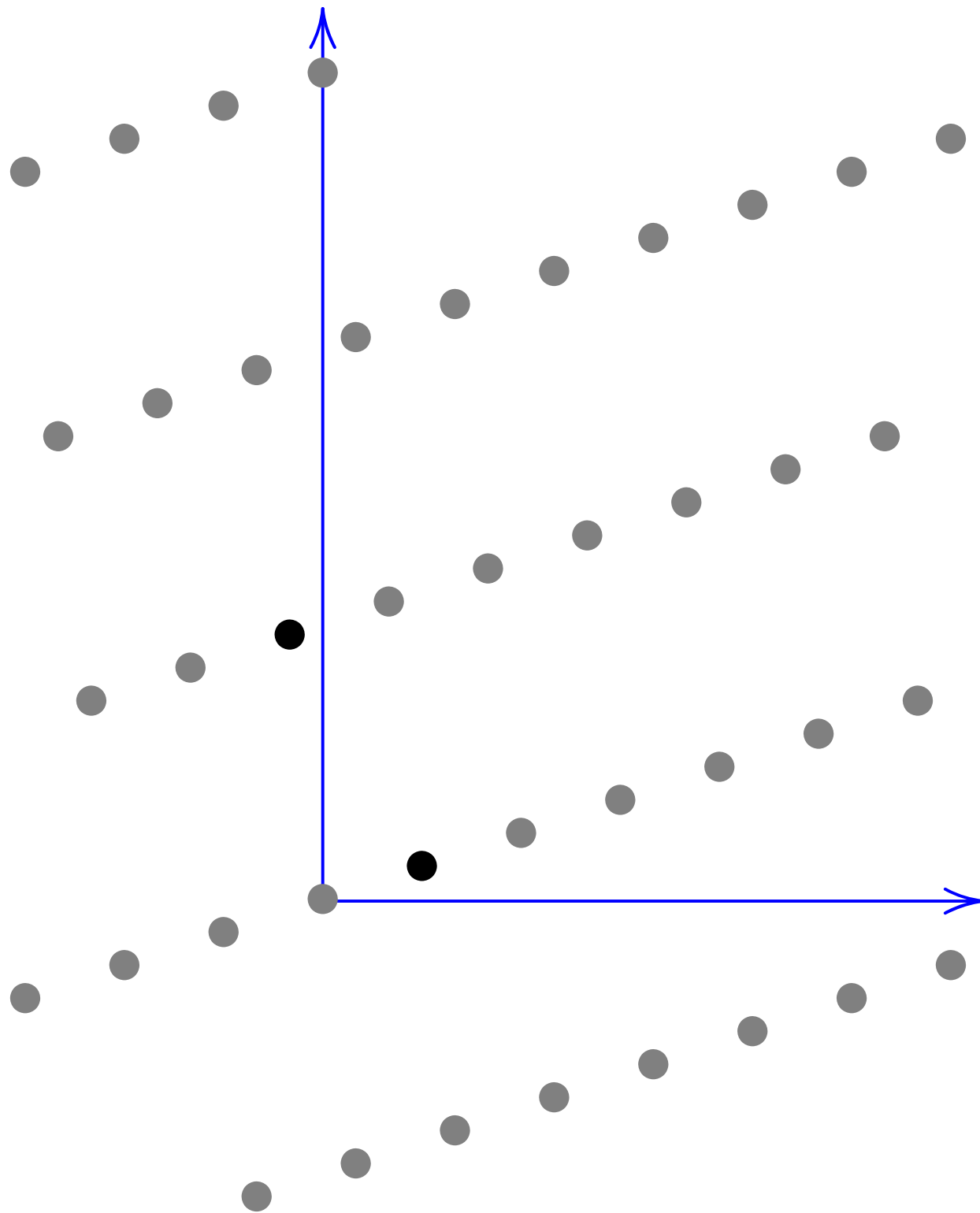
$$(17)\mathbf{z}$$

$$(17)\mathbf{z}$$

$$(3, 1)\mathbf{z}.$$

$L$  are

$$-1).$$



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x =$$

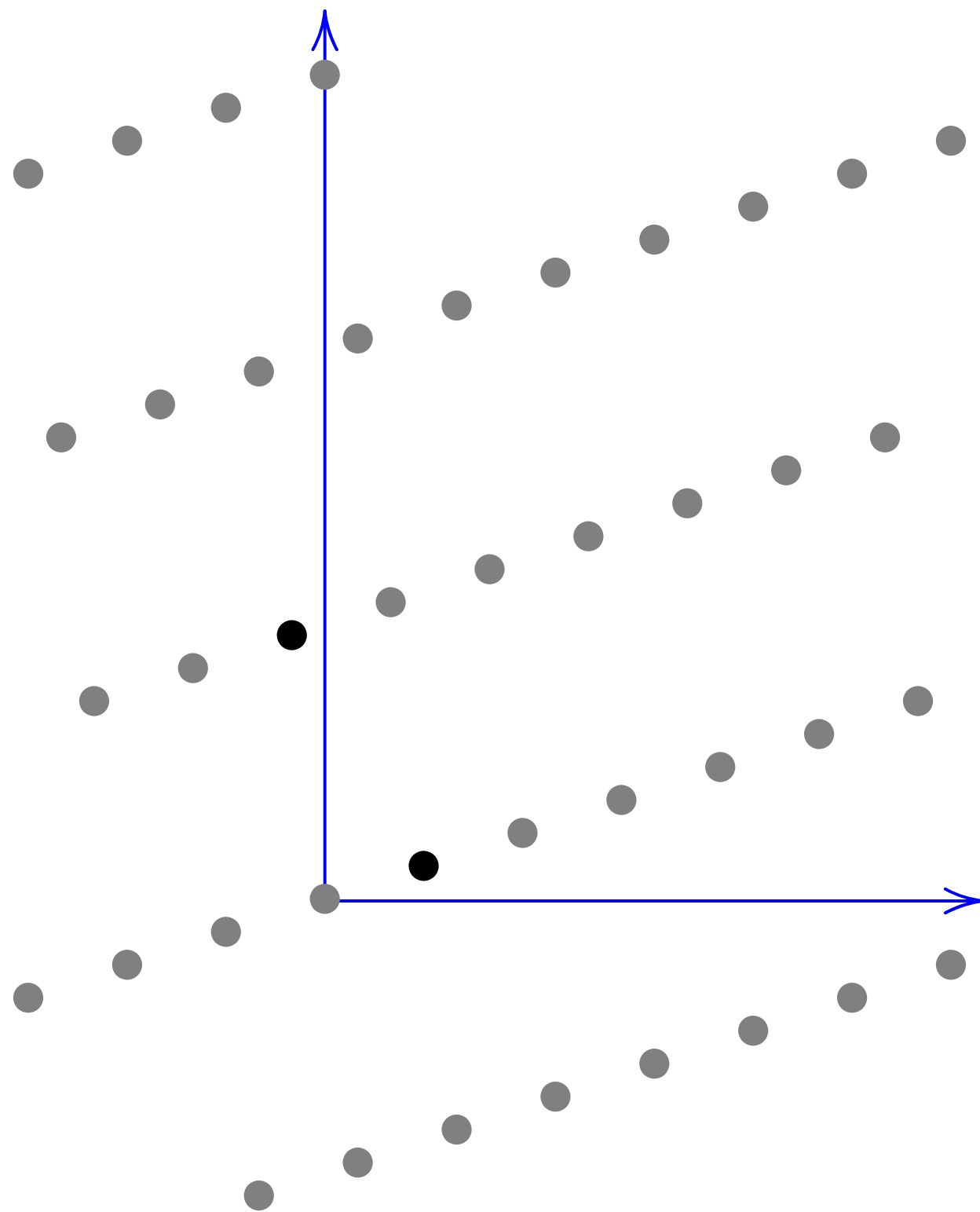
$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1,$$

What is the shortest

nonzero vector in

$r_1)z.$



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

## Polynomial lattices

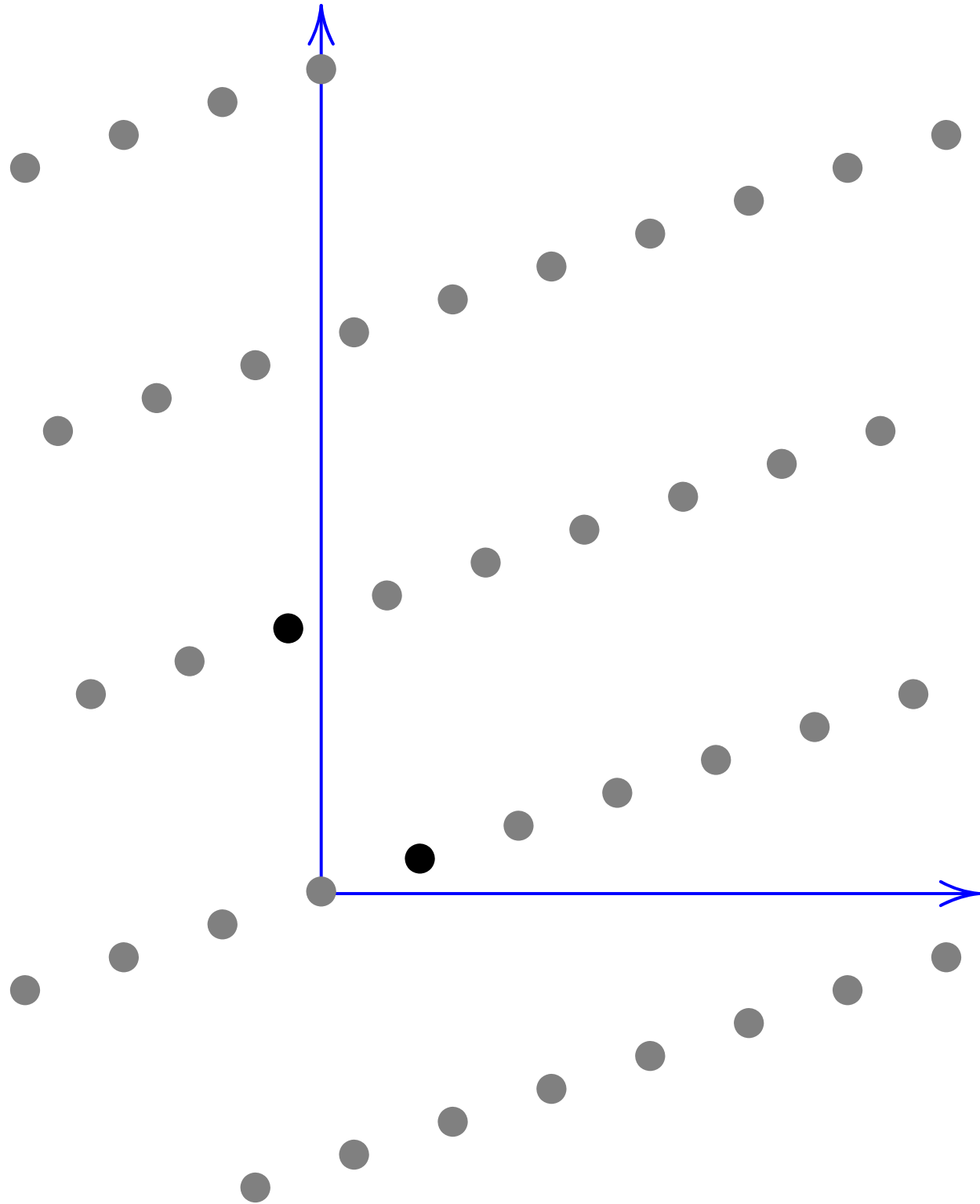
Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

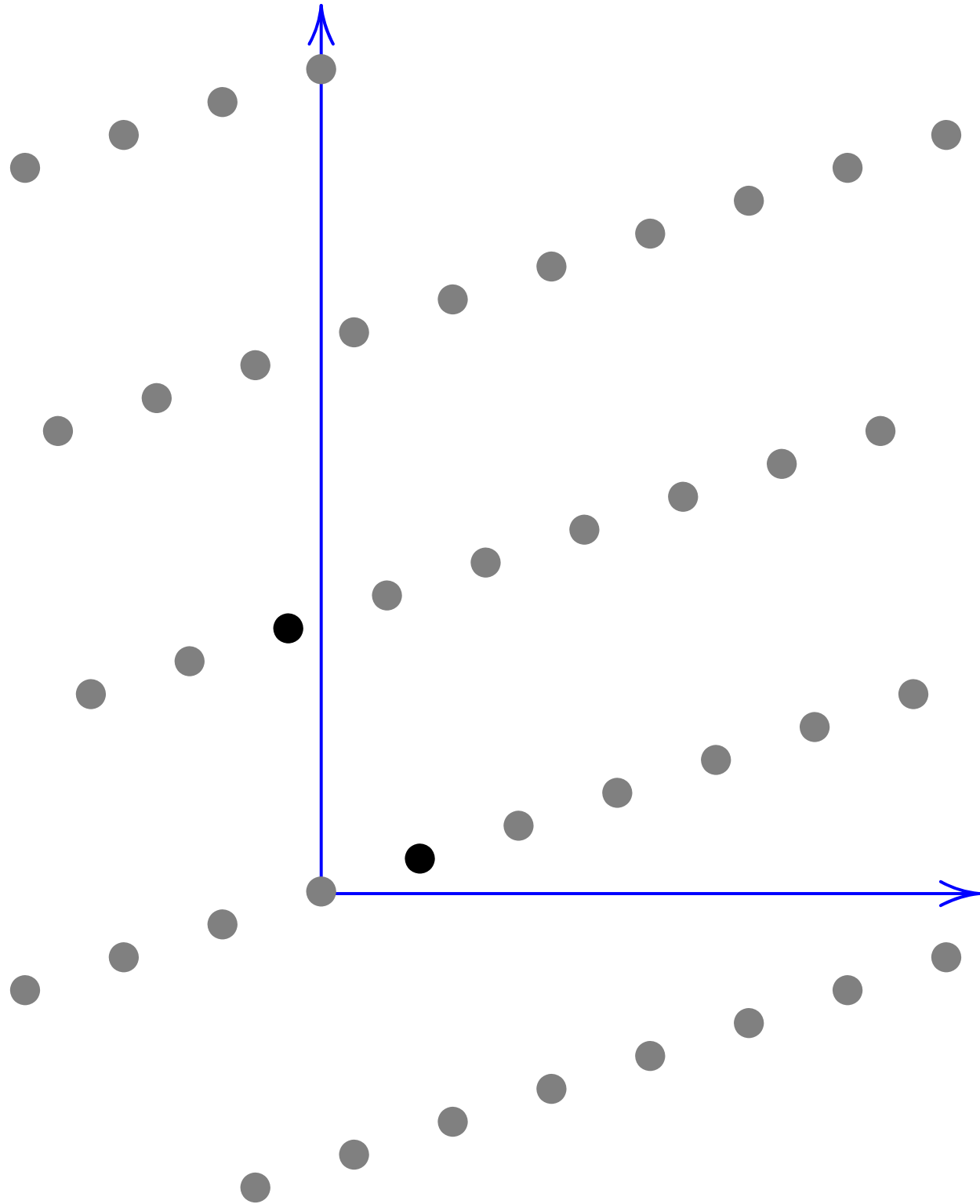
$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$L = (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P$$



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

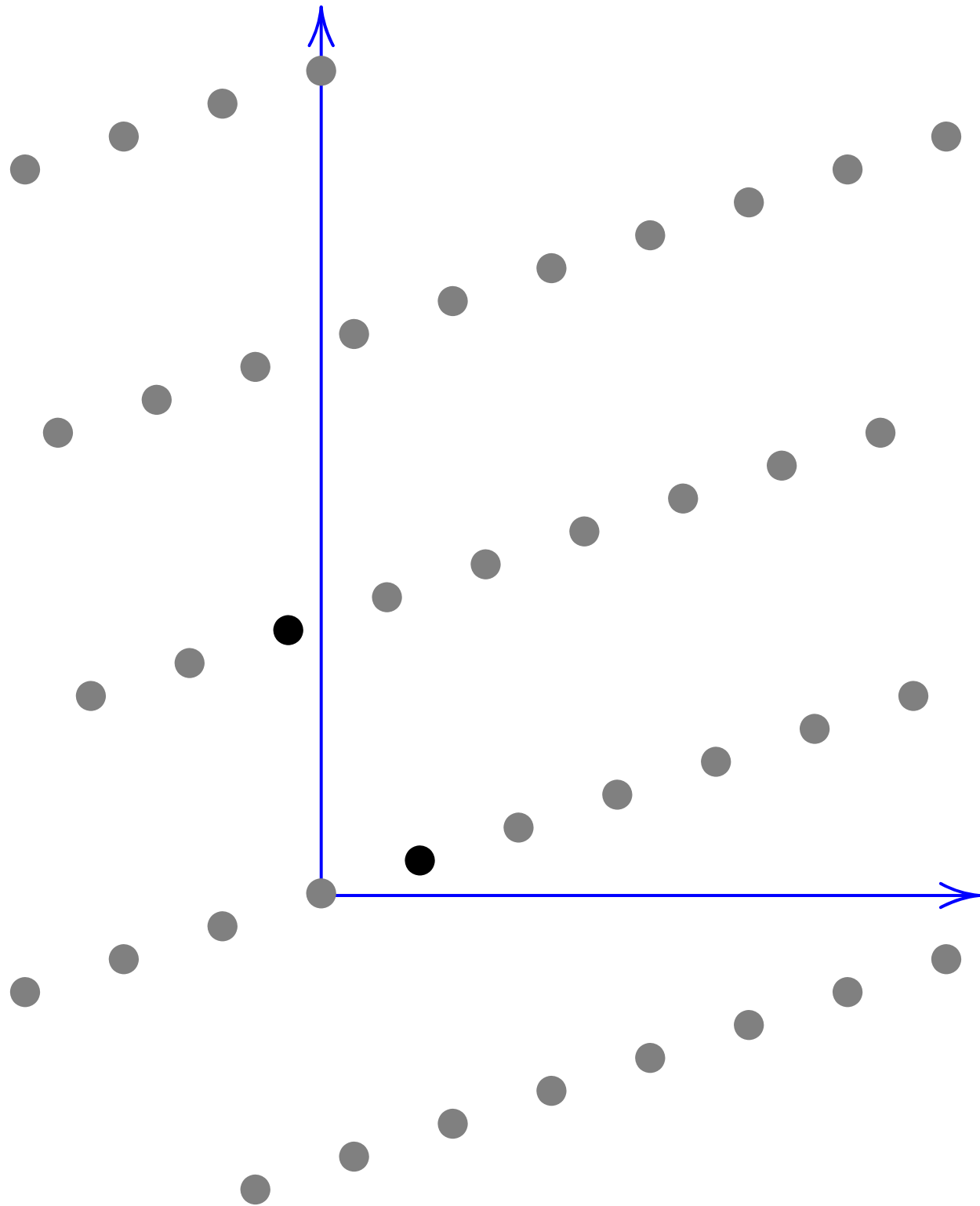
$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \end{aligned}$$





## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

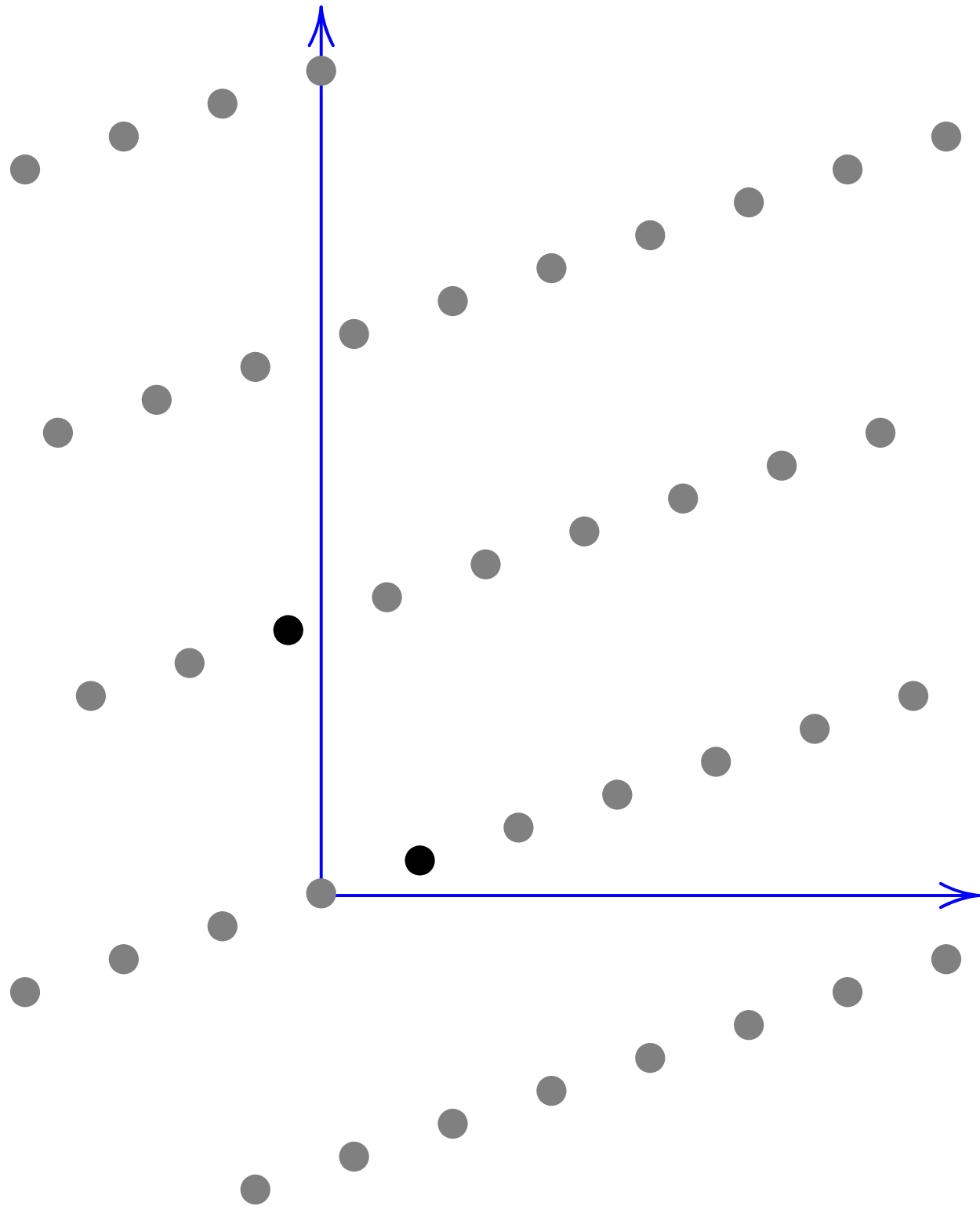
$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

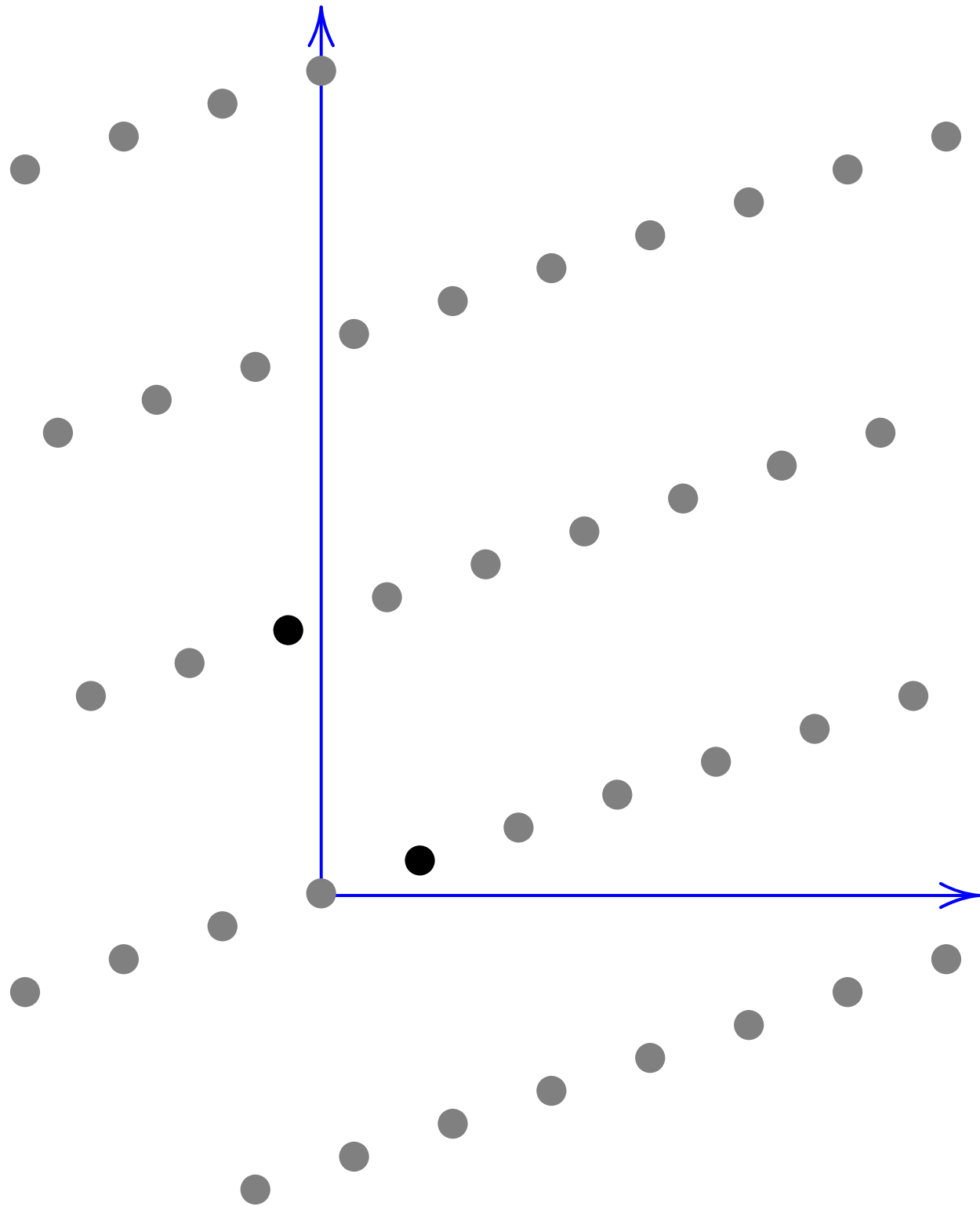
$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$





## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

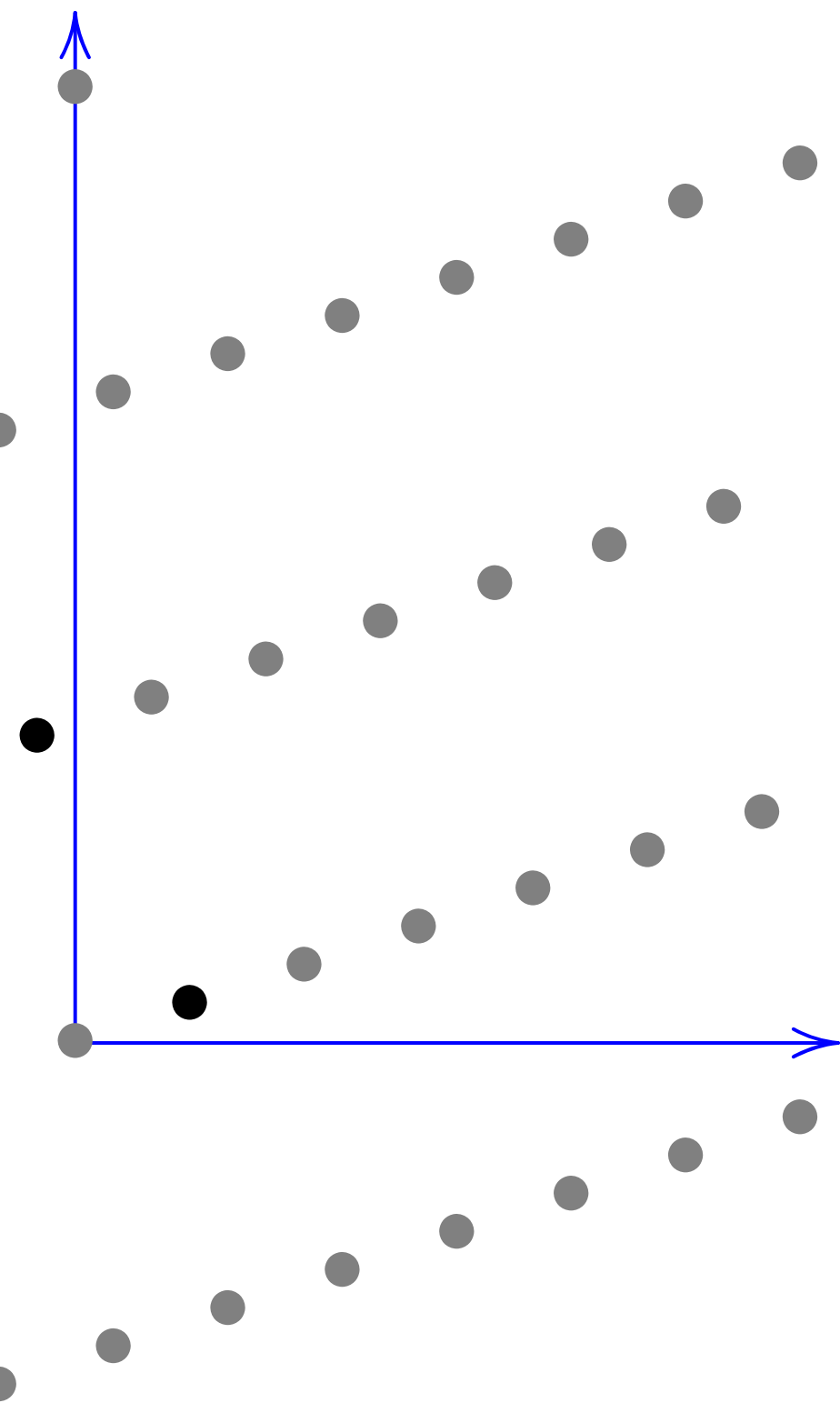
$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  
is defined

## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

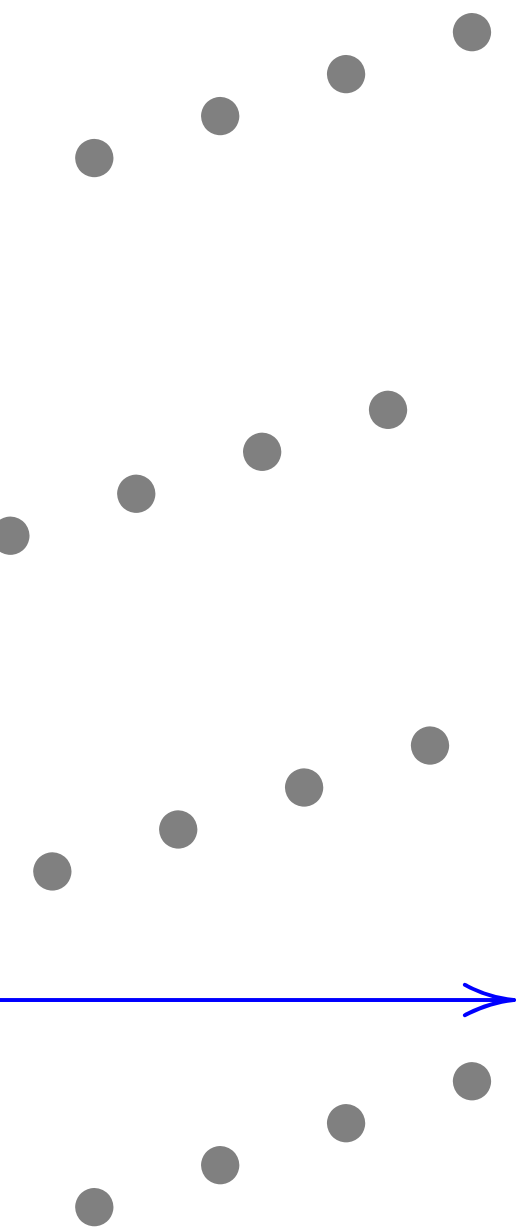
What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in L$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg(q), \deg(r)\}$ .



## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

## Polynomial lattices

Define  $P = \mathbf{F}_2[x]$ ,

$$r_0 = (101000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$r_1 = (10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$L = (0, r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

What is the shortest  
nonzero vector in  $L$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (0, 101000)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (1, 10011)P \\ &= (10, 1110)P + (111, 1)P. \end{aligned}$$

$(111, 1)$ : shortest nonzero vector.

$(10, 1110)$ : shortest  
independent vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10011\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 1110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.5.$$

$$(111, 1\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.$$



## Binary lattices

$$P = \mathbf{F}_2[x],$$

$$(10000)_x = x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$(10011)_x = x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$(r_0)P + (1, r_1)P.$$

the shortest

vector in  $L$ ?

$$(101000)P + (1, 10011)P$$

$$(1110)P + (1, 10011)P$$

$$(1110)P + (111, 1)P.$$

shortest nonzero vector.

(0): shortest

ident vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10011\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 1110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.5.$$

$$(111, 1\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.$$

Warning

shortest

after sho

5

$$x^5 + x^3 \in P,$$

$$x^4 + x + 1 \in P,$$

$$r_1)P.$$

est

L?

$$+ (1, 10011)P$$

$$- (1, 10011)P$$

$$- (111, 1)P.$$

nonzero vector.

st

r.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
 is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
 or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

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

Warning: Sometimes  
 shortest independent  
*after* shortest non

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.

$(1, 10011\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.

$(10, 1110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.5.

$(111, 1\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector  
*after* shortest nonzero vector

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.

$(1, 10011\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.

$(10, 1110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.5.

$(111, 1\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

Degree of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$  is defined as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

Can use other metrics,  
or equivalently rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.

$(1, 10011\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.

$(10, 1110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.5.

$(111, 1\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.

Warning: Sometimes shortest independent vector is *after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$

$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.

$(1, 10111\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.

$(10, 110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.5.

$(1101, 11\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.

of  $(q, r) \in \mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
and as  $\max\{\deg q, \deg r\}$ .

other metrics,  
eventually rescale  $L$ .

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

Successive generators for  $L$ :  
 $(0, 101000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.  
 $(1, 10111\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.  
 $(10, 110\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.5.  
 $(1101, 11\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$   
 $L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

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

For any  
in  $P = A$   
Euclid/S  
Define  $r_0$   
 $r_3 = r_1 r_0$

$\mathbf{F}_2[x] \times \mathbf{F}_2[x]$   
[deg  $q$ , deg  $r$ ].

rics,

cale  $L$ .

$\mathbf{F}_2[\sqrt{x}] \times \mathbf{F}_2[\sqrt{x}]$   
 $(1, r_1\sqrt{x})P$ .

ctors for  $L$ :

egree 5.5.

egree 4.5.

egree 3.5.

e 2.

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$   
 $L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}),$  degree 5.5.

$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}),$  degree 4.5.

$(10, 110\sqrt{x}),$  degree 2.5.

$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}),$  degree 3.

For any field  $k$ , and  
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg$

Euclid/Stevin com

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2,$  etc.

$\mathbb{F}_2[x]$   
 $\{r\}$ .

$\mathbb{F}_2[\sqrt{x}]$   
.

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$$
$$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.5.$$

$$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.$$

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.



Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$$

$$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.5.$$

$$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.$$

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

$$\text{Define } r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1,$$

$$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2, \text{ etc.}$$

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$$

$$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.5.$$

$$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.$$

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

$$\text{Define } r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1,$$

$$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2, \text{ etc.}$$

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$

$$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}.$$

$$\text{Then } q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}.$$

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$$

$$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.5.$$

$$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.$$

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

$$\text{Define } r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1,$$

$$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2, \text{ etc.}$$

$$\text{Extended: } q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$$

$$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}.$$

$$\text{Then } q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}.$$

Lattice view: Have

$$(0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P =$$

$$(q_i, r_i\sqrt{x})P + (q_{i+1}, r_{i+1}\sqrt{x})P.$$

Warning: Sometimes  
shortest independent vector is  
*after* shortest nonzero vector.

e.g. Define

$$r_0 = 101000, r_1 = 10111,$$

$$L = (0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P.$$

Successive generators for  $L$ :

$$(0, 101000\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 5.5.$$

$$(1, 10111\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 4.5.$$

$$(10, 110\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 2.5.$$

$$(1101, 11\sqrt{x}), \text{ degree } 3.$$

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

$$\text{Define } r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1,$$

$$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2, \text{ etc.}$$

$$\text{Extended: } q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$$

$$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i/r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}.$$

$$\text{Then } q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}.$$

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i.$$

Sometimes  
independent vector is  
shortest nonzero vector.

Define  
 $r_0 = 1000$ ,  $r_1 = 10111$ ,  
 $(0, r_0\sqrt{x})P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P$ .

Five generators for  $L$ :  
 $(0, 1000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 5.5.  
 $(1, 10111\sqrt{x})$ , degree 4.5.  
 $(0, 1000\sqrt{x})$ , degree 2.5.  
 $(1, 10111\sqrt{x})$ , degree 3.

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,  
 $r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0$ ;  $q_1 = 1$ ;  
 $q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i/r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .  
Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

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

Reducing  
is a "half  
stopping

nes  
ent vector is  
zero vector.

10111,  
 $(1, r_1\sqrt{x})P$ .

ctors for  $L$ :  
egree 5.5.  
ree 4.5.  
ee 2.5.  
ree 3.

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,  
 $r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$   
 $q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i/r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}.$   
Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}.$

Lattice view: Have

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

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

Reducing lattice b  
is a "half gcd" con  
stopping halfway t

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$

$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .

Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$

$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .

Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.



For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$

$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .

Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;

$\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$

$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i/r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .

Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;

$\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with

$\deg r_j\sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so

$\deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

For any field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
in  $P = k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Euclid/Stevin computation:

Define  $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ ,

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

Extended:  $q_0 = 0$ ;  $q_1 = 1$ ;

$q_{i+2} = q_i - \lfloor r_i/r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}$ .

Then  $q_i r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}$ .

Lattice view: Have

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

Can continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$\gcd\{r_0, r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;

$\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with

$\deg r_j\sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so

$\deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$  has degree

$\deg r_0\sqrt{x} - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$

for some  $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

Shortest independent vector.

field  $k$ , any  $r_0, r_1$   
 $k[x]$  with  $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

Stevin computation:

$$r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1,$$

$r_3 \bmod r_2$ , etc.

$$\text{and: } q_0 = 0; q_1 = 1;$$

$$q_i - \lfloor r_i / r_{i+1} \rfloor q_{i+1}.$$

$$r_1 \equiv r_i \pmod{r_0}.$$

view: Have

$$(q_i, r_i)P + (1, r_1\sqrt{x})P =$$

$$(q_{i+1}, r_{i+1}\sqrt{x})P.$$

continue until  $r_{i+1} = 0$ .

$$\{r_1\} = r_i / \text{leadcoeff } r_i.$$

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a "half gcd" computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;

$$\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0.$$

Say  $j$  is minimal with

$$\deg r_j \sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0) / 2.$$

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0) / 2$  so

$$\deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0) / 2.$$

Shortest nonzero vector.

$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$  has degree

$$\deg r_0 \sqrt{x} - \deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of

Take any

any  $r_0, r_1$   
 $\deg r_0 > \deg r_1$ :

computation:

and  $r_1$ ,

c.

$q_1 = 1$ ;

$r_{i+1} \mid q_{i+1}$ .

(mod  $r_0$ ).

e

$(r_{i+1}\sqrt{x})P =$

$(-1, r_{i+1}\sqrt{x})P$ .

$r_{i+1} = 0$ .

leadcoeff  $r_i$ .

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a "half gcd" computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;

$\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with

$\deg r_j\sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so

$\deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$  has degree

$\deg r_0\sqrt{x} - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$

for some  $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of "shortest

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$

deg  $r_1$ :

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$  is a “half gcd” computation, stopping halfway to the gcd.

deg  $r_i$  decreases; deg  $q_i$  increases;  
deg  $q_{i+1} + \text{deg } r_i = \text{deg } r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with

$$\text{deg } r_j \sqrt{x} \leq (\text{deg } r_0)/2.$$

Then  $\text{deg } q_j \leq (\text{deg } r_0)/2$  so

$$\text{deg}(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\text{deg } r_0)/2.$$

Shortest nonzero vector.

$\epsilon)P$ .

$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$  has degree

$$\text{deg } r_0 \sqrt{x} - \text{deg}(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;  
 $\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with  
 $\deg r_j \sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so  
 $\deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

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

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;  
 $\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

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

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

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r \sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \\ + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .



Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
is a “half gcd” computation,  
stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;  
 $\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with  
 $\deg r_j \sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so  
 $\deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

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

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r \sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \\ + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(r q_j - q r_j) / r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(q r_{j+\epsilon} - r q_{j+\epsilon}) / r_0.$$

Reducing lattice basis for  $L$   
 is a “half gcd” computation,  
 stopping halfway to the gcd.

$\deg r_i$  decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;  
 $\deg q_{i+1} + \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

Say  $j$  is minimal with  
 $\deg r_j \sqrt{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Then  $\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so  
 $\deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

Shortest nonzero vector.

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

Shortest independent vector.

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r \sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm (r q_j - q r_j) / r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm (q r_{j+\epsilon} - r q_{j+\epsilon}) / r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r \sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$ .

g lattice basis for  $L$   
of gcd" computation,  
; halfway to the gcd.

decreases;  $\deg q_i$  increases;  
 $+ \deg r_i = \deg r_0$ .

minimal with  
 $\bar{x} \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .

$\deg q_j \leq (\deg r_0)/2$  so  
 $\deg(r_j \sqrt{x}) \leq (\deg r_0)/2$ .  
nonzero vector.

$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$  has degree  
 $\bar{x} - \deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$   
 $\epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

independent vector.

Proof of "shortest" :

Take any  $(q, r \sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r \sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(r q_j - q r_j) / r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(q r_{j+\epsilon} - r q_{j+\epsilon}) / r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r \sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon} \sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$ .

Classical

Fix integ

integer  $n$

integer  $t$

distinct

monic  $g$

with  $g(a$

asis for  $L$   
mputation,  
to the gcd.

eg  $q_i$  increases;  
 $= \deg r_0$ .

with  
 $) / 2$ .  
 $\deg r_0) / 2$  so  
 $\deg r_0) / 2$ .  
vector.

s degree  
 $(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$   
 $1$ }.  
ent vector.

Proof of "shortest":

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm (r q_j - q r_j) / r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm (q r_{j+\epsilon} - r q_{j+\epsilon}) / r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

Classical binary Go

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n$

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$

with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n)$

Proof of "shortest":

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(rq_j - qr_j)/r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(qr_{j+\epsilon} - rq_{j+\epsilon})/r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree

with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) \\ + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(rq_j - qr_j)/r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(qr_{j+\epsilon} - rq_{j+\epsilon})/r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$

with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(rq_j - qr_j)/r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(qr_{j+\epsilon} - rq_{j+\epsilon})/r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Proof of “shortest”:

Take any  $(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$(q, r\sqrt{x}) = u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

for some  $u, v \in P$ .

$$q_j r_{j+\epsilon} - q_{j+\epsilon} r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\text{so } v = \pm(rq_j - qr_j)/r_0$$

$$\text{and } u = \pm(qr_{j+\epsilon} - rq_{j+\epsilon})/r_0.$$

If  $\deg(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$< \deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

then  $\deg v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

i.e., any vector in lattice

shorter than  $(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$

is a multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

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



“shortest” :

$(q, r\sqrt{x})$  in lattice.

$$u(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}) + v(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

$u, v \in P$ .

$$q_{j+\epsilon}r_j = \pm r_0$$

$$\pm(rq_j - qr_j)/r_0$$

$$\pm(qr_{j+\epsilon} - rq_{j+\epsilon})/r_0.$$

$(q, r\sqrt{x})$

$$\deg(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

$v < 0$  so  $v = 0$ ;

vector in lattice

$$(q_{j+\epsilon}, r_{j+\epsilon}\sqrt{x})$$

multiple of  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

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

Goal: Fi

$$v = c +$$

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$

$v = c + e$ , assuming

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t$

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

$(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(0, g \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x] + (1, s \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

$(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(0, g \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x] + (1, s \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

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

$F = \prod_{i: e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

## Classical binary Goppa codes

Fix integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

monic  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$   
with  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Note that  $x - a_i$

has a reciprocal in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Define linear subspace  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

as set of  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

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

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

$(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(0, g \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x] + (1, s \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

## Binary Goppa codes

integer  $n \geq 0$ ;

integer  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

integer  $t \geq 0$ ;

elements  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

polynomial  $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  of degree  $t$

such that  $g(a_i) \neq 0$ .

Let  $v = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i/(x - a_i)$

be the partial fraction decomposition of  $v$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Let  $\Gamma$  be a linear subspace of  $\mathbf{F}_2^n$

with elements  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  with

$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Let  $|\Gamma| \geq 2^{n-mt}$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

Lift  $\sum_i v_i/(x - a_i)$  from  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

to  $s \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg s < t$ .

Find shortest nonzero

vector  $(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(0, g\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x] + (1, s\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

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

$F = \prod_{i: e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i/(x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decodes

“correctly”

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) =$

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) +$

so  $s = E/F$

so  $(F, E)$



## Reed-Solomon codes

with  $2^m \geq n$ ;

$c \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ ;

of degree  $t$

$(c, n) \neq 0$ .

$\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

space  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbf{F}_2^n$

$(c_n)$  with

$0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

$t$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

Lift  $\sum_i v_i/(x - a_i)$  from  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

to  $s \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg s < t$ .

Find shortest nonzero

$(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(0, g\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x] + (1, s\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i/(x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors”

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) =$

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) =$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given  
 $v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

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

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

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

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

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

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$

$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

Goal: Find  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$v = c + e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

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

Find shortest nonzero

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

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

$F = \prod_{i:e_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$  and

$E = \sum_i F e_i / (x - a_i)$ .

Fact:  $E/F = r_j/q_j$  so

$F$  is monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

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

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$

$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ ,

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

and  $c \in \Gamma$  given

$e$ , assuming  $|e| \leq t/2$ .

$v_i/(x - a_i)$  from  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

$\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg s < t$ .

shortest nonzero

$(\bar{x})$  in the lattice  $L =$

$(1, s\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

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

$e_i \neq 0(x - a_i)$  and

$F e_i/(x - a_i)$ .

$/F = r_j/q_j$  so

monic denominator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

$F(a_i) \neq 0$ .

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

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$

$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})$ .

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ ,

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

The squ

$\Gamma(g)$  con

$\sum_i c_i/(x$

$\sum_i c_i/(x$

given

$$|e| \leq t/2.$$

) from  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

deg  $s < t$ .

zero

lattice  $L =$

$$(1, s\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$[x]$  by

$a_i)$  and

$a_i)$ .

$j$  so

inator of  $r_j/q_j$ .

0.

if  $F(a_i) = 0$ .

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i/(x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

The squarefree case

$\Gamma(g)$  contains  $\Gamma(g)$

$$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$$

$$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$$

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i / (x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

so  $s = E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L$ .

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

The squarefree case

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

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$$



This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i / (x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } s = E/F \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } (F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L.$$

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

The squarefree case

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

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g \text{ if}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2.$$

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i / (x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } s = E/F \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } (F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L.$$

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

$$\text{so } E/F = r_j/q_j. \text{ Done!}$$

The squarefree case

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

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g \text{ if}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2.$$

Amazing fact:

$$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2) \text{ if } g \text{ is squarefree.}$$

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i / (x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } s = E/F \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } (F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L.$$

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

$$\text{so } E/F = r_j/q_j. \text{ Done!}$$

## The squarefree case

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

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g \text{ if}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2.$$

Amazing fact:

$$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2) \text{ if } g \text{ is squarefree.}$$

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

This decoder

“corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ ”.

Why does this work?

$$\sum_i e_i / (x - a_i) = E/F \text{ and}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } s = E/F \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } (F, E\sqrt{x}) \in L.$$

$(F, E\sqrt{x})$  is a short vector:

$$\deg(F, E\sqrt{x}) \leq |e| \leq t/2$$

$$< t + 1/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j\sqrt{x}).$$

Recall proof of “shortest”:

$$(F, E\sqrt{x}) \in (q_j, r_j\sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x],$$

so  $E/F = r_j/q_j$ . Done!

## The squarefree case

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

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g \text{ if}$$

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2.$$

Amazing fact:

$$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2) \text{ if } g \text{ is squarefree.}$$

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)”.)

decoder

corrects  $\lfloor t/2 \rfloor$  errors for  $\Gamma$ .

Does this work?

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = E/F$  and

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

$E/F$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

$(\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i)) \in L$ .

$(\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i))$  is a short vector:

$\deg(\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i)) \leq |e| \leq t/2$

$t/2 - \deg(q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})$ .

Proof of "shortest":

$(\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i)) \in (q_j, r_j \sqrt{x})\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ ,

$= r_j/q_j$ . Done!

## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., "jet list decoding".)

Proof: A

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i)$

## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)”.)

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$$

## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)” .)

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$$

## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)” .)

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$



## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)”.)

Proof: Assume

$\sum_i c_i/(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Write  $F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$ .

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

so  $F'/F = \sum c_i/(x - a_i)$

so  $F'/F = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $g$  divides  $F'$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

## The squarefree case

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

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

Amazing fact:

$\Gamma(g) = \Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

Previous decoder for  $g^2$

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

hence corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

(Not covered in this talk:

correcting  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

See, e.g., “[jet list decoding](#)”.)

Proof: Assume

$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

Write  $F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$ .

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

so  $F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$

so  $F'/F = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $g$  divides  $F'$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

$F'$  is a square:

if  $F = \sum_j F_j x^j$  then

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## squarefree case

contains  $\Gamma(g^2)$ :

$(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if

$(x - a_i) = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

g fact:

$\Gamma(g^2)$  if  $g$  is squarefree.

s decoder for  $g^2$

$t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,

corrects  $t$  errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

covered in this talk:

ing  $\approx t + t^2/n$  errors.

, “jet list decoding”.)

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

Write  $F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$ .

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

so  $F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$

so  $F'/F = 0$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

so  $g$  divides  $F'$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

$F'$  is a square:

if  $F = \sum_j F_j x^j$  then

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The Mc

Standard

$t \geq 2$ ;  $m$

1978 Mc

$n = 102$

This is t

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre

se  
 2):  
 0 in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$  if  
 0 in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g^2$ .

is squarefree.

for  $g^2$   
 or  $\Gamma(g^2)$ ,  
 errors for  $\Gamma(g)$ .

is talk:  
 $2/n$  errors.

decoding".)

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$\text{Write } F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } g \text{ divides } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$F'$  is a square:

$$\text{if } F = \sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

The McEliece crypt

Standardize integers

$t \geq 2; m \geq 1$  with

1978 McEliece exam

$n = 1024, m = 10$

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

Write  $F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i)$ .

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

so  $g$  divides  $F'$  in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

$F'$  is a square:

if  $F = \sum_j F_j x^j$  then

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$\text{Write } F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } g \text{ divides } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$F'$  is a square:

$$\text{if } F = \sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$\text{Write } F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } g \text{ divides } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$F'$  is a square:

$$\text{if } F = \sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 2048, m = 11, t = 32:$$

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$\text{Write } F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } g \text{ divides } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$F'$  is a square:

$$\text{if } F = \sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 2048, m = 11, t = 32:$$

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 3408, m = 12, t = 67:$$

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.



Proof: Assume

$$\sum_i c_i / (x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$\text{Write } F = \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

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

$$\text{so } F'/F = \sum c_i / (x - a_i)$$

$$\text{so } F'/F = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{so } g \text{ divides } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

$F'$  is a square:

$$\text{if } F = \sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$F' = \sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 2048, m = 11, t = 32:$$

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 3408, m = 12, t = 67:$$

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Assume

$$(x - a_i) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g.$$

$$= \prod_{i:c_i \neq 0} (x - a_i).$$

$$/F = \sum_{i:c_i \neq 0} 1/(x - a_i)$$

$$= \sum c_i/(x - a_i)$$

$$= 0 \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$$

$$\text{finds } F' \text{ in } \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x].$$

square:

$$\sum_j F_j x^j \text{ then}$$

$$\sum_j j F_j x^{j-1}$$

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

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

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 2048, m = 11, t = 32:$$

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$$n = 3408, m = 12, t = 67:$$

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's s

$$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$$

distinct

0 in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$ .

$\prod (x - a_i)$ .

$\sum_{c_i \neq 0} 1/(x - a_i)$

$(x - a_i)$

$\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]/g$

$\mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$ .

en

$x^{j-1}$

$(\sum_{j=1}^n \sqrt{j} F_j x^{(j-1)/2})^2$ .

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

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

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048, m = 11, t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408, m = 12, t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets:  $m$

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $d$

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n$

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .



## The McEliece cryptosystem

Standardize integers  $n \geq 0$ ;  
 $t \geq 2$ ;  $m \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

1978 McEliece example:

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

This is too small:

$\approx 2^{60}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 2048$ ,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

$\approx 2^{87}$  pre-quantum security.

$n = 3408$ ,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

$\approx 2^{146}$  pre-quantum security.

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

$\approx 2^{263}$  pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

## Eliece cryptosystem

size integers  $n \geq 0$ ;

$n \geq 1$  with  $2^m \geq n$ .

Eliece example:

4,  $m = 10$ ,  $t = 50$ .

too small:

pre-quantum security.

8,  $m = 11$ ,  $t = 32$ :

pre-quantum security.

8,  $m = 12$ ,  $t = 67$ :

pre-quantum security.

10,  $m = 13$ ,  $t = 119$ :

pre-quantum security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 Mc

Bob cho

and rand

with  $|e|$

System

parameters  $n \geq 0$ ;

$2^m \geq n$ .

Example:

$n = 100$ ,  $t = 50$ .

Security.

$n = 100$ ,  $t = 32$ :

Security.

$n = 100$ ,  $t = 67$ :

Security.

$n = 100$ ,  $t = 119$ :

Security.

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 McEliece +

Bob chooses random

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 McEliece + randomiza

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible

$g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;

distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

finds  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,

decodes  $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an

$(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible  
 $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;  
distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$   
such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

Alice receives  $Ke$ ,

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

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

Alice's secrets: monic irreducible  
 $g \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}[x]$  with  $\deg g = t$ ;  
distinct  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .

Note that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .

Define  $\Gamma$  as before.

Alice's public key:

$mt \times n$  matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$   
such that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .

Bob chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .

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

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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



secrets: monic irreducible  
[ $x$ ] with  $\deg g = t$ ;  
 $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}$ .  
that  $g(a_1) \cdots g(a_n) \neq 0$ .  
as before.

Public key:  
matrix  $K$  over  $\mathbf{F}_2$   
that  $\Gamma = \text{Ker } K$ .  
chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
 $|e| = t$ ; sends  $Ke$ .  
receives  $Ke$ ,  
 $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  with  $Kv = Ke$ ,  
 $v$  to find  $v - e$ .

1978 McEliece + randomization:  
Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:  
Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$   
whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .  
Compress  $K$  to  $mt(n - mt)$  bits  
by requiring systematic form.

Does str  
help atta  
e.g., con

monic irreducible

e.g.  $g = t;$

$\in \mathbf{F}_{2^m}.$

$\cdot g(a_n) \neq 0.$

over  $\mathbf{F}_2$

$K.$

om  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

s  $Ke.$

$Kv = Ke,$

$v = e.$

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e.$

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an

$(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G.$

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e.$

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt.$

Compress  $K$  to  $mt(n - mt)$  bits

by requiring systematic form.

Does structure of

help attacker decrypt

e.g., compute  $g, a$

cible

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an

$(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

Compress  $K$  to  $mt(n - mt)$  bits

by requiring systematic form.

Does structure of  $\Gamma$

help attacker decrypt—

e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

0.

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$   
with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:  
matrix is explicitly randomized.

1978 McEliece + randomization:

Bob chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$   
and random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

with  $|e| = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

Publicly specify  $\Gamma$  by an  
 $(n - mt) \times n$  generator matrix  $G$ .

1986 Niederreiter improvements:

Send  $Ke$  instead of  $c + e$ .

$K$  is smaller than  $G$

whenever  $mt < n - mt$ .

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

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:  
matrix is explicitly randomized.

No with 1986 Niederreiter:  
matrix has systematic form.



McEliece + randomization:

chooses random  $c \in \Gamma$

chooses random  $e \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$

$t = t$ ; sends  $c + e$ .

specify  $\Gamma$  by an

$(k \times n)$  generator matrix  $G$ .

Niederreiter improvements:

instead of  $c + e$ .

smaller than  $G$

for  $mt < n - mt$ .

transmits  $K$  to  $mt(n - mt)$  bits

using systematic form.

Does structure of  $\Gamma$

help attacker decrypt—

e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”

are much slower than

information-set decoding.

(Less conservative variants of

McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:

matrix is explicitly randomized.

No with 1986 Niederreiter:

matrix has systematic form.

Better than

Rest of the

with Choc

some de

McEliece

randomization:

from  $c \in \Gamma$

$\frac{n}{2}$

is  $c + e$ .

by an

generator matrix  $G$ .

improvements:

of  $c + e$ .

$G$

—  $mt$ .

$t(n - mt)$  bits

systematic form.

Does structure of  $\Gamma$

help attacker decrypt—

e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”

are much slower than

information-set decoding.

(Less conservative variants of

McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:

matrix is explicitly randomized.

No with 1986 Niederreiter:

matrix has systematic form.

Better throughput

Rest of this talk (jointly)

with Chou and Schulman)

some details of how

McEliece run really

tion:

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.

rix  $G$ .

ents:

(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:  
matrix is explicitly randomized.

bits

No with 1986 Niederreiter:  
matrix has systematic form.

Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work  
with Chou and Schwabe, 20  
some details of how to make  
McEliece run really fast.

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:  
matrix is explicitly randomized.

No with 1986 Niederreiter:  
matrix has systematic form.

Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work  
with Chou and Schwabe, 2013):  
some details of how to make  
McEliece run really fast.

Does structure of  $\Gamma$   
help attacker decrypt—  
e.g., compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

All known “structural attacks”  
are much slower than  
information-set decoding.  
(Less conservative variants of  
McEliece encourage research.)

Does  $K$  leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

No with 1978 McEliece:  
matrix is explicitly randomized.

No with 1986 Niederreiter:  
matrix has systematic form.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work  
with Chou and Schwabe, 2013):  
some details of how to make  
McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software  
for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

structure of  $\Gamma$

hacker decrypt—

compute  $g, a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?

own “structural attacks”

h slower than

tion-set decoding.

nservative variants of

e encourage research.)

leak more than  $\Gamma$ ?

1978 McEliece:

s explicitly randomized.

1986 Niederreiter:

as systematic form.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

The add

Fix  $n =$

Big final

is to find

of  $F =$

For each

compute

41 adds,

$\Gamma$   
rypt—  
 $a_1, \dots, a_n$ ?  
"natural attacks"  
man  
coding.  
variants of  
ge research.)  
than  $\Gamma$ ?  
Eliece:  
randomized.  
derreiter:  
atic form.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

## The additive FFT

Fix  $n = 4096 = 2^{12}$

Big final decoding is to find all roots of  $F = F_{41}x^{41} + \dots$

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$  compute  $F(\alpha)$  by 41 adds, 41 mults.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ , compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's method: 41 adds, 41 mults.



## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ , compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule: 41 adds, 41 mults.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ , compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule: 41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  $F_i\gamma^i$ ,  $F_i\gamma^{2i}$ ,  $F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

## Better throughput than ECC

Rest of this talk (joint work with Chou and Schwabe, 2013): some details of how to make McEliece run really fast.

Our constant-time software for batches of 256 decodings:

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

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

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

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ , compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule: 41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  $F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

## throughput than ECC

this talk (joint work  
ou and Schwabe, 2013):  
tails of how to make  
e run really fast.

stant-time software  
nes of 256 decodings:

Ivy Bridge cycles for  
(2048, 32);  $\approx 2^{87}$ .

Ivy Bridge cycles for  
(3408, 67);  $\approx 2^{146}$ .

Ivy Bridge cycles for  
(6960, 119);  $\approx 2^{263}$ .

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,  
compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:  
41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  
 $F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per  
point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotically  
normally  
so Horner's  
 $\Theta(nt) =$

than ECC

joint work  
(Schwabe, 2013):  
how to make  
it fast.

the software  
decodings:

cycles for  
;  $\approx 2^{87}$ .

cycles for  
;  $\approx 2^{146}$ .

cycles for  
) ;  $\approx 2^{263}$ .

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,  
compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:  
41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  
 $F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per  
point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n/\lg n)$   
so Horner's rule costs  
 $\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n)$

## The additive FFT

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

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,  
compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:  
41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  
 $F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per  
point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,  
so Horner's rule costs  
 $\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n)$ .

## The additive FFT

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

Big final decoding step

is to find all roots in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$

of  $F = F_{41}x^{41} + \dots + F_0x^0$ .

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,

compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:

41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute

$F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per

point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,

so Horner's rule costs

$\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n)$ .

## The additive FFT

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

Big final decoding step

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

For each  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,  
compute  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:  
41 adds, 41 mults.

Or use "Chien search": compute  
 $F_i\gamma^i, F_i\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per  
point: again 41 adds, 41 mults.

Our cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,  
so Horner's rule costs  
 $\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n)$ .

Wait a minute.

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



## Iterative FFT

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

decoding step

find all roots in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$

$$F_{41}x^{41} + \dots + F_0x^0.$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$ ,

evaluate  $F(\alpha)$  by Horner's rule:

41 mults.

“Chien search”: compute

$\gamma^{2i}, F_i\gamma^{3i}$ , etc. Cost per

gain 41 adds, 41 mults.

Cost: **6.01** adds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,

so Horner's rule costs

$$\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n).$$

Wait a minute.

Didn't we learn in school

that FFT evaluates

an  $n$ -coeff polynomial

at  $n$  points

using  $n^{1+o(1)}$  operations?

Isn't this better than  $n^2 / \lg n$ ?

Standard

Want to

$$F = F_0 +$$

at all the

Write  $F$

Observe

$$F(\alpha) =$$

$$F(-\alpha) =$$

$F_0$  has  $n$

evaluate

by same

Similarly

$x^2, t = 41$ .

step

in  $\mathbf{F}_{2^{12}}$

$\dots + F_0 x^0$ .

Horner's rule:

rch": compute

etc. Cost per

dds, 41 mults.

lds, **2.09** mults.

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,

so Horner's rule costs

$\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n)$ .

Wait a minute.

Didn't we learn in school

that FFT evaluates

an  $n$ -coeff polynomial

at  $n$  points

using  $n^{1+o(1)}$  operations?

Isn't this better than  $n^2 / \lg n$ ?

Standard radix-2 FFT

Want to evaluate

$F = F_0 + F_1 x + \dots$

at all the  $n$ th roots

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) +$

Observe big overlap

$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) +$

$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) -$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$  roots

by same idea recursively

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,

so Horner's rule costs

$$\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n).$$

Wait a minute.

Didn't we learn in school

that FFT evaluates

an  $n$ -coeff polynomial

at  $n$  points

using  $n^{1+o(1)}$  operations?

Isn't this better than  $n^2 / \lg n$ ?

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2)$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Asymptotics:

normally  $t \in \Theta(n / \lg n)$ ,

so Horner's rule costs

$$\Theta(nt) = \Theta(n^2 / \lg n).$$

Wait a minute.

Didn't we learn in school

that FFT evaluates

an  $n$ -coeff polynomial

at  $n$  points

using  $n^{1+o(1)}$  operations?

Isn't this better than  $n^2 / \lg n$ ?

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

otics:

$t \in \Theta(n/\lg n)$ ,

er's rule costs

$\Theta(n^2/\lg n)$ .

minute.

ve learn in school

T evaluates

eff polynomial

nts

$+o(1)$  operations?

s better than  $n^2/\lg n$ ?

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Useless i

Standard

FFT com

1988 Wa

independ

“additive

Still quit

1996 vor

some im

2010 Ga

much be

We use

plus som

$\lg n)$ ,  
costs  
 $n)$ .  
school  
s  
mial  
rations?  
an  $n^2 / \lg n$ ?

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Useless in char 2:

Standard workarou

FFT considered im

1988 Wang–Zhu,

independently 198

“additive FFT” in

Still quite expensiv

1996 von zur Gath

some improvement

2010 Gao–Mateer:

much better addit

We use Gao–Mate

plus some new imp

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .

Standard workarounds are p

FFT considered impractical.

1988 Wang–Zhu,

independently 1989 Cantor:

“additive FFT” in char 2.

Still quite expensive.

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerha

some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:

much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,

plus some new improvement

n?

Standard radix-2 FFT:

Want to evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

at all the  $n$ th roots of 1.

Write  $F$  as  $F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2)$ .

Observe big overlap between

$$F(\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$F(-\alpha) = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$F_0$  has  $n/2$  coeffs;

evaluate at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

by same idea recursively.

Similarly  $F_1$ .

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .

Standard workarounds are painful.

FFT considered impractical.

1988 Wang–Zhu,

independently 1989 Cantor:

“additive FFT” in char 2.

Still quite expensive.

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerhard:

some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:

much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,

plus some new improvements.



radix-2 FFT:

evaluate

$$F_0 + F_1x + \dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

the  $n$ th roots of 1.

$$\text{as } F_0(x^2) + xF_1(x^2).$$

big overlap between

$$F_0(\alpha^2) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2), \\ = F_0(\alpha^2) - \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

$n/2$  coeffs;

at  $(n/2)$ nd roots of 1

idea recursively.

$$F_1.$$

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .

Standard workarounds are painful.

FFT considered impractical.

1988 Wang–Zhu,

independently 1989 Cantor:

“additive FFT” in char 2.

Still quite expensive.

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerhard:

some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:

much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,

plus some new improvements.

Gao and

$$F = F_0 -$$

on a size

Main ide

$$F_0(x^2 +$$

Big over

$$F_0(\alpha^2 +$$

and  $F(\alpha$

$$F_0(\alpha^2 +$$

“Twist”

Then  $\{a$

size- $(n/2$

Apply sa

FFT:

$$\dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

roots of 1.

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

map between

$$\alpha F_1(\alpha^2),$$

$$- \alpha F_1(\alpha^2).$$

and roots of 1

recursively.

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .

Standard workarounds are painful.

FFT considered impractical.

1988 Wang–Zhu,

independently 1989 Cantor:

“additive FFT” in char 2.

Still quite expensive.

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerhard:

some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:

much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,

plus some new improvements.

Gao and Mateer e

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \dots$$

on a size- $n$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -line

Main idea: Write

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

Big overlap between

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

$$\text{and } F(\alpha + 1) =$$

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

“Twist” to ensure

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

size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -line

Apply same idea r

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .  
Standard workarounds are painful.  
FFT considered impractical.

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

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerhard:  
some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:  
much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,  
plus some new improvements.

Gao and Mateer evaluate  
 $F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$   
on a size- $n$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Main idea: Write  $F$  as  
 $F_0(x^2 + x) + xF_1(x^2 + x)$ .

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$   
and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + (\alpha + 1)F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space  
Then  $\{\alpha^2 + \alpha\}$  is a  
size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.  
Apply same idea recursively.

Useless in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .  
Standard workarounds are painful.  
FFT considered impractical.

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

1996 von zur Gathen–Gerhard:  
some improvements.

2010 Gao–Mateer:  
much better additive FFT.

We use Gao–Mateer,  
plus some new improvements.

Gao and Mateer evaluate  
 $F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$   
on a size- $n$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Main idea: Write  $F$  as  
 $F_0(x^2 + x) + xF_1(x^2 + x)$ .

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$   
and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + (\alpha + 1)F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$ .

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space.  
Then  $\{\alpha^2 + \alpha\}$  is a  
size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.  
Apply same idea recursively.

in char 2:  $\alpha = -\alpha$ .

and workarounds are painful.

considered impractical.

ang–Zhu,

idently 1989 Cantor:

the FFT” in char 2.

is expensive.

in zur Gathen–Gerhard:

improvements.

o–Mateer:

better additive FFT.

Gao–Mateer,

the new improvements.

Gao and Mateer evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

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

Main idea: Write  $F$  as

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

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$

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

and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$

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

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space.

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

size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Apply same idea recursively.

We gener

$$F = F_0 +$$

for any  $t$

$\Rightarrow$  sever

not all o

by simpl

For  $t =$

For  $t \in$

$F_1$  is a c

Instead o

this cons

multiply

and com

$$\alpha = -\alpha.$$

unds are painful.

npractical.

9 Cantor:

char 2.

ve.

men–Gerhard:

ts.

ive FFT.

er,

provements.

Gao and Mateer evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

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

Main idea: Write  $F$  as

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

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$

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

and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$

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

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space.

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

size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Apply same idea recursively.

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots$$

for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations

not all of which are

by simply tracking

For  $t = 0$ : copy  $F$

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

$F_1$  is a constant.

Instead of multiplying

this constant by each

multiply only by  $g$

and compute subs

ainful.

Gao and Mateer evaluate  
 $F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$   
on a size- $n$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Main idea: Write  $F$  as  
 $F_0(x^2 + x) + xF_1(x^2 + x)$ .

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$   
and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$   
 $F_0(\alpha^2 + \alpha) + (\alpha + 1)F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$ .

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space.  
Then  $\{\alpha^2 + \alpha\}$  is a  
size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.  
Apply same idea recursively.

rd:

s.

We generalize to  
 $F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_t x^t$   
for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations,  
not all of which are automati  
by simply tracking zeros.

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

For  $t \in \{1, 2\}$ :  
 $F_1$  is a constant.

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

Gao and Mateer evaluate

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

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

Main idea: Write  $F$  as

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

Big overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$

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

and  $F(\alpha + 1) =$

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

“Twist” to ensure  $1 \in$  space.

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

size- $(n/2)$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Apply same idea recursively.

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_t x^t$$

for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations,  
not all of which are automated  
by simply tracking zeros.

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

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

$F_1$  is a constant.

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



Mateer evaluate  
 $+ F_1x + \dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$   
 e- $n$   $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

Idea: Write  $F$  as  
 $F(x) + xF_1(x^2 + x)$ .

overlap between  $F(\alpha) =$   
 $F(\alpha) + \alpha F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$   
 $F(\alpha + 1) =$   
 $F(\alpha) + (\alpha + 1)F_1(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$ .

to ensure  $1 \in$  space.  
 $\{x^2 + \alpha\}$  is a

2)  $\mathbf{F}_2$ -linear space.

same idea recursively.

We generalize to

$F = F_0 + F_1x + \dots + F_t x^t$   
 for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations,  
 not all of which are automated  
 by simply tracking zeros.

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

For  $t \in \{1, 2\}$ :  
 $F_1$  is a constant.

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

Syndrom

Initial de

$s_0 = r_1 -$

$s_1 = r_1 \alpha$

$s_2 = r_1 \alpha^2$

$\vdots$

$s_t = r_1 \alpha^t$

$r_1, r_2, \dots$

scaled by

Typically

mapping

Not as s

still  $n^2+$

evaluate

$$\dots + F_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

near space.

$F$  as

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

then  $F(\alpha) =$

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

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

$1 \in$  space.

a

near space.

recursively.

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \dots + F_t x^t$$

for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations,

not all of which are automated

by simply tracking zeros.

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

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

$F_1$  is a constant.

Instead of multiplying

this constant by each  $\alpha$ ,

multiply only by generators

and compute subset sums.

Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \dots$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \dots$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \dots$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \dots$$

$r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  are re

scaled by Goppa c

Typically precomp

mapping bits to sy

Not as slow as Ch

still  $n^{2+o(1)}$  and h

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_t x^t$$

for any  $t < n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  several optimizations,  
not all of which are automated  
by simply tracking zeros.

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

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

$F_1$  is a constant.

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

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2$$

$\vdots$

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t$$

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

Typically precompute matrix  
mapping bits to syndrome.

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

We generalize to

$$F = F_0 + F_1x + \cdots + F_t x^t$$

for any  $t < n$ .

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

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

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

$F_1$  is a constant.

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

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

⋮

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix  
mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Generalize to

$$+ F_1x + \dots + F_t x^t$$

$t < n.$

al optimizations,  
of which are automated  
y tracking zeros.

0: copy  $F_0$ .

{1, 2}:

constant.

of multiplying

stant by each  $\alpha$ ,

only by generators

pute subset sums.

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1 \alpha_1 + r_2 \alpha_2 + \dots + r_n \alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1 \alpha_1^2 + r_2 \alpha_2^2 + \dots + r_n \alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1 \alpha_1^t + r_2 \alpha_2^t + \dots + r_n \alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix  
mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare

$$F(\alpha_1) =$$

$$F(\alpha_2) =$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$F(\alpha_n) =$$

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix  
mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare to multip

$$F(\alpha_1) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_1$$

$$F(\alpha_2) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_2$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$F(\alpha_n) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_n$$

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix  
mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare to multipoint evaluation

$$F(\alpha_1) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_1 + \cdots +$$

$$F(\alpha_2) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_2 + \cdots +$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$F(\alpha_n) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_n + \cdots +$$

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

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

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

$\vdots$ ,

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



## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

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

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

$\vdots$ ,

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

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

## Syndrome computation

Initial decoding step: compute

$$s_0 = r_1 + r_2 + \cdots + r_n,$$

$$s_1 = r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$s_2 = r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$\vdots$ ,

$$s_t = r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

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

Typically precompute matrix mapping bits to syndrome.

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

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

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

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

$\vdots$ ,

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

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

Amazing consequence:

syndrome computation is as few ops as multipoint evaluation.

Eliminate precomputed matrix.

## the computation

encoding step: compute

$$r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n,$$

$$r_1\alpha_1 + r_2\alpha_2 + \dots + r_n\alpha_n,$$

$$r_1\alpha_1^2 + r_2\alpha_2^2 + \dots + r_n\alpha_n^2,$$

$$r_1\alpha_1^t + r_2\alpha_2^t + \dots + r_n\alpha_n^t.$$

$r_1, \dots, r_n$  are received bits

by Goppa constants.

precompute matrix

bits to syndrome.

slow as Chien search but

$O(1)$  and huge secret key.

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

$$F(\alpha_1) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_1 + \dots + F_t\alpha_1^t,$$

$$F(\alpha_2) = F_0 + F_1\alpha_2 + \dots + F_t\alpha_2^t,$$

$$\vdots,$$

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

Matrix for syndrome computation

is transpose of

matrix for multipoint evaluation.

Amazing consequence:

syndrome computation is as few

ops as multipoint evaluation.

Eliminate precomputed matrix.

Transpose

If a linear

compute

then rev

exchang

compute

1956 Bo

independ

for Bool

1973 Fic

preserves

preserves

number

ation

ep: compute

+  $r_n$ ,

+  $\dots$  +  $r_n \alpha_n$ ,

+  $\dots$  +  $r_n \alpha_n^2$ ,

+  $\dots$  +  $r_n \alpha_n^t$ .

received bits

constants.

ute matrix

ndrome.

ien search but

uge secret key.

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

$$F(\alpha_1) = F_0 + F_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + F_t \alpha_1^t,$$

$$F(\alpha_2) = F_0 + F_1 \alpha_2 + \dots + F_t \alpha_2^t,$$

$\vdots$ ,

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

Matrix for syndrome computation

is transpose of

matrix for multipoint evaluation.

Amazing consequence:

syndrome computation is as few

ops as multipoint evaluation.

Eliminate precomputed matrix.

Transposition principle

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix

then reversing edges

exchanging inputs,

computes the trans

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 195

for Boolean matrices

1973 Fiduccia ana

preserves number

preserves number

number of nontriv

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

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

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

$\vdots$ ,

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

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

Amazing consequence:

syndrome computation is as few ops as multipoint evaluation.

Eliminate precomputed matrix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm computes a matrix  $M$  then reversing edges and exchanging inputs/outputs computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus

number of nontrivial outputs.

Compare to multipoint evaluation:

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

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

$\vdots$ ,

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

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

Amazing consequence:

syndrome computation is as few ops as multipoint evaluation.

Eliminate precomputed matrix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix  $M$

then reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus number of nontrivial outputs.

to multipoint evaluation:

$$= F_0 + F_1\alpha_1 + \cdots + F_t\alpha_1^t,$$

$$= F_0 + F_1\alpha_2 + \cdots + F_t\alpha_2^t,$$

$$= F_0 + F_1\alpha_n + \cdots + F_t\alpha_n^t.$$

for syndrome computation

use of

for multipoint evaluation.

ing consequence:

the computation is as few

multipoint evaluation.

the precomputed matrix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix  $M$

then reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov

for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus

number of nontrivial outputs.

We built

producing

Too many

gcc ran

point evaluation:

$$\alpha_1 + \cdots + F_t \alpha_1^t,$$

$$\alpha_2 + \cdots + F_t \alpha_2^t,$$

$$\alpha_n + \cdots + F_t \alpha_n^t.$$

me computation

point evaluation.

ence:

ation is as few

evaluation.

puted matrix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix  $M$

then reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov

for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus

number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposi

producing C code.

Too many variable

gcc ran out of me



uation:

$$F_t \alpha_1^t,$$

$$F_t \alpha_2^t,$$

$$F_t \alpha_n^t.$$

tation

tion.

few

rix.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm  
computes a matrix  $M$   
then reversing edges and  
exchanging inputs/outputs  
computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov  
for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;  
preserves number of adds plus  
number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m =$   
gcc ran out of memory.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix  $M$

then reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov

for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus

number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm  
computes a matrix  $M$   
then reversing edges and  
exchanging inputs/outputs  
computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov  
for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;  
preserves number of adds plus  
number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.

Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.

Worked, but not very quickly.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm

computes a matrix  $M$

then reversing edges and

exchanging inputs/outputs

computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov

for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;

preserves number of adds plus

number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.

Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.

Worked, but not very quickly.

Wrote faster register allocator.

Still excessive code size.

Transposition principle:

If a linear algorithm  
computes a matrix  $M$   
then reversing edges and  
exchanging inputs/outputs  
computes the transpose of  $M$ .

1956 Bordewijk;

independently 1957 Lupanov  
for Boolean matrices.

1973 Fiduccia analysis:

preserves number of mults;  
preserves number of adds plus  
number of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.

Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.

Worked, but not very quickly.

Wrote faster register allocator.  
Still excessive code size.

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

position principle:  
ear algorithm  
es a matrix  $M$   
ersing edges and  
ing inputs/outputs  
es the transpose of  $M$ .  
ordewijk;  
dently 1957 Lupanov  
ean matrices.  
duccia analysis:  
s number of mults;  
s number of adds plus  
of nontrivial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.  
Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.  
Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.  
Worked, but not very quickly.  
Wrote faster register allocator.  
Still excessive code size.  
Built new interpreter,  
allowing some code compression.  
Still big; still some overhead.

Better s  
stared at  
wrote do  
with sam  
Small co  
Speedup  
translate  
to transp  
Further  
merged  
scaling b

principle:  
m  
k  $M$   
es and  
/outputs  
sponse of  $M$ .  
7 Lupanov  
ces.  
lysis:  
of mults;  
of adds plus  
ial outputs.

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.  
Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.  
Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.  
Worked, but not very quickly.  
Wrote faster register allocator.  
Still excessive code size.  
Built new interpreter,  
allowing some code compression.  
Still big; still some overhead.

Better solution:  
stared at additive  
wrote down transp  
with same loops e  
Small code, no ov  
Speedups of addit  
translate easily  
to transposed algo  
Further savings:  
merged first stage  
scaling by Goppa c

We built transposing compiler  
producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
gcc ran out of memory.

Used qhasm register allocator  
to optimize the variables.

Worked, but not very quickly.

Wrote faster register allocator.

Still excessive code size.

Built new interpreter,  
allowing some code compression.

Still big; still some overhead.

Better solution:

started at additive FFT,  
wrote down transposition  
with same loops etc.

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT  
translate easily  
to transposed algorithm.

Further savings:

merged first stage with  
scaling by Goppa constants.



We built transposing compiler producing C code.

Too many variables for  $m = 13$ ; gcc ran out of memory.

Used qhasm register allocator to optimize the variables.

Worked, but not very quickly.

Wrote faster register allocator.

Still excessive code size.

Built new interpreter, allowing some code compression.

Still big; still some overhead.

Better solution:

started at additive FFT, wrote down transposition with same loops etc.

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT translate easily to transposed algorithm.

Further savings:

merged first stage with scaling by Goppa constants.

transposing compiler  
C code.  
many variables for  $m = 13$ ;  
out of memory.  
asm register allocator  
size the variables.  
but not very quickly.  
faster register allocator.  
excessive code size.  
new interpreter,  
some code compression.  
still some overhead.

Better solution:  
started at additive FFT,  
wrote down transposition  
with same loops etc.  
Small code, no overhead.  
Speedups of additive FFT  
translate easily  
to transposed algorithm.  
Further savings:  
merged first stage with  
scaling by Goppa constants.

Results  
60493 Iv  
8622 fo  
20846 fo  
7714 fo  
14794 fo  
8520 fo  
Code wi  
We're st  
More inf  
[cr.yp.to](http://cr.yp.to)

ng compiler

es for  $m = 13$ ;  
emory.

er allocator  
riables.

very quickly.

ter allocator.  
e size.

ter,  
e compression.  
e overhead.

Better solution:

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

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT  
translate easily  
to transposed algorithm.

Further savings:

merged first stage with  
scaling by Goppa constants.

Results

60493 Ivy Bridge c

8622 for permuta

20846 for syndrom

7714 for BM.

14794 for roots.

8520 for permuta

Code will be publi

We're still speedin

More information:

[cr.yp.to/papers](http://cr.yp.to/papers)

Better solution:

started at additive FFT,  
wrote down transposition  
with same loops etc.

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT  
translate easily  
to transposed algorithm.

Further savings:

merged first stage with  
scaling by Goppa constants.

## Results

60493 Ivy Bridge cycles:

8622 for permutation.

20846 for syndrome.

7714 for BM.

14794 for roots.

8520 for permutation.

Code will be public domain.

We're still speeding it up.

More information:

[cr.yep.to/papers.html#m](http://cr.yep.to/papers.html#m)

Better solution:

started at additive FFT,  
wrote down transposition  
with same loops etc.

Small code, no overhead.

Speedups of additive FFT  
translate easily  
to transposed algorithm.

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

## Results

60493 Ivy Bridge cycles:

8622 for permutation.

20846 for syndrome.

7714 for BM.

14794 for roots.

8520 for permutation.

Code will be public domain.

We're still speeding it up.

More information:

[cr.yp.to/papers.html#mcbits](http://cr.yp.to/papers.html#mcbits)