

Eliminating Variables in Boolean Equation Systems

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Abstract. Systems of Boolean equations of low degree arise in a natural way when analyzing block ciphers. The cipher’s round functions relate the secret key to auxiliary variables that are introduced by each successive round. In algebraic cryptanalysis, the attacker attempts to solve the resulting equation system in order to extract the secret key. In this paper we study algorithms for eliminating the auxiliary variables from these systems of Boolean equations. It is known that elimination of variables in general increases the degree of the equations involved. In order to contain computational complexity and storage complexity, we present two new algorithms for performing elimination while bounding the degree at 3, which is the lowest possible for elimination. Further we show that the new algorithms are related to the well known *XL* algorithm. We apply the algorithms to a downscaled version of the LowMC cipher and to a toy cipher based on the Prince cipher, and report on experimental results pertaining to these examples.

1 Introduction

A block cipher encryption algorithm $E_K(P) = C$ takes a fixed length plaintext P and a secret key K as inputs, and produces a ciphertext C . The encryption usually consists of iterating a round function, which in turn is made up by suitable linear and nonlinear transformations. In a *known plaintext attack*, both P and C are known to the cryptanalyst, who wants to find the secret key K .

Ciphers defined over $GF(2)$ can be described as a system of multivariate Boolean equations of degree 2. These equations relate the bits of the secret key K and new *auxiliary variables* that arise due to the round functions via the known P and C . Solving this system of equations with respect to the secret key K is known as *algebraic cryptanalysis*. The approach in this paper is to iteratively eliminate the auxiliary variables that arise in an initial such system of Boolean equations. At each iteration, the elimination step converts a current system of polynomial equations F in the variables x_1, \dots, x_n into a set of new equations F' in x_2, \dots, x_n , so that the solution set of F' is the projection of the solution set of F onto x_2, \dots, x_n . We propose two algorithms for the elimination step: $L - \text{Elim}^*(\cdot)$ (a variant of XL with bounded degree) and $\text{eliminate}^*(\cdot)$ (a new algorithm based on the mathematical framework developed in this paper), where $*$ \in $\{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}\}$ denotes one of two variants. In both algorithms the polynomial degree is limited to 3 at all times in order to contain computational complexity and storage complexity. The highlight of the paper is Theorem 11, where we show that the more efficient algorithm $\text{eliminate}^{\mathbf{A}}(\cdot)$ produces the same output as $L - \text{Elim}^{\mathbf{A}}(\cdot)$. In addition we show that by applying a few extra tricks, the \mathbf{B} -variants of the algorithms can produce more equations than the \mathbf{A} -variants.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the problem, the notation, and previous results. The foundation for elimination techniques over the Boolean ring is developed in Section 3. The new algorithms, $L - \text{Elim}^*(\cdot)$ and $\text{eliminate}^*(\cdot)$, are presented in Section 4 along with discussions of complexity and information loss. In Section 5 we report on experimental results of the new algorithms when applied to reduced block ciphers: A reduced version of the LowMC cipher, and a *toy cipher* based on the PRINCE cipher.

2 Notation and Preliminaries

Consider the quotient ring of Boolean polynomials in n variables. We denote the ring by

$$B[1, n] = \mathbb{F}_2[x_1, \dots, x_n]/(x_i^2 + x_i | i = 1, \dots, n).$$

A monomial is a product $x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_\delta}$ of δ distinct (because $x^2 = x$) variables, where δ is the degree of this monomial. The degree of a polynomial

$$p = \sum_s m_s$$

where the m_s 's are distinct monomials, is the maximum degree over the monomials in p . Given a set of polynomial equations $F = \{f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 | i = 1, \dots, m\}$, our objective is to find its set of solutions in the space \mathbb{F}_2^n . The approach we take in this paper is to solve the system of equations by eliminating variables.

In the following we assume without loss of generality that we eliminate variables in the order x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . Consider the projection which omits the first coordinate:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_1 : \mathbb{F}_2^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^{n-1} \\ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) &\mapsto (a_2, \dots, a_n), \end{aligned}$$

and denote by $B[2, n]$ the ring of Boolean polynomials where x_1 has been omitted. We may in a similar fashion consider a sequence of k projections

$$\mathbb{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^{n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k},$$

where the i 'th projection is denoted $\pi_i : \mathbb{F}_2^{n-i+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^{n-i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. We denote the ring of Boolean functions where we omit the sequence of variables x_1, \dots, x_k as $B[k+1, n]$.

2.1 Systems of Boolean equations and ideals

The polynomials in $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$ generate an ideal $I = (f_1, \dots, f_m) = I(F)$ in the ring $B[1, n]$. Let $Z(I)$ denote the zero set of this ideal, i.e, the set of points

$$Z(I) = \{\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n | f(\mathbf{a}) = 0 \text{ for every } f \in I\}.$$

Lemma 1 *Let f, g be Boolean functions in $B[1, n]$. Then the following ideals are equal:*

$$(f, g) = (fg + f + g).$$

Proof. Clearly $(f, g) \supseteq (fg + f + g)$. Note that also $Z(f, g) = Z(fg + f + g)$, since it is easy to check that $f(a) = g(a) = 0$ if and only if $f(a)g(a) + f(a) + g(a) = 0$. Thus the zero set $Z(f) \supseteq Z(fg + f + g)$. This in turn means that the Boolean function f is a multiple $h(fg + f + g)$ for some other Boolean function h , and similarly for g . Thus

$$(f, g) \supseteq (fg + f + g) \supseteq (f, g),$$

which shows that these ideals are equal.

Corollary 2 *Any ideal $I = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ in $B[1, n]$ is a principal ideal. More precisely $I = (f)$ where*

$$f = 1 + \prod_{i=1}^m (f_i + 1).$$

Proof. Let $I = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$. By Lemma 1 this is equal to the ideal $(f_1 f_2 + f_1 + f_2, f_3, \dots, f_m)$, with one generator less. We may continue the process for the remaining generators providing us in the end with $I = (f)$, where

$$f = 1 + \prod_{i=1}^m (f_i + 1).$$

Corollary 3 *For two ideals in $B[1, n]$ we have $I \supseteq J$ if and only if $Z(I) \subseteq Z(J)$. In particular $I = J$ if and only if $Z(I) = Z(J)$.*

Proof. By Corollary 2 we have $I = (f)$ and $J = (g)$, where f and g are the respective principal generators. Clearly if $(f) \supseteq (g)$ then $Z(g)$ contains $Z(f)$. If the zero set of g contains the zero set of f , then $g = fh$ for some polynomial h . Hence $(f) \supseteq (g)$.

Now given an ideal $I \subset B[1, n]$, our aim is to find the ideal $I_2 \subset B[2, n]$ such that $Z(I_2) = \pi_1(Z(I))$. More generally, when eliminating more variables we aim to find the ideal $I_{k+1} \subset B[k+1, n]$, such that $Z(I_{k+1}) = \pi_k \circ (\dots \circ (\pi_1(Z(I))))$. Since the complexity of the polynomials can grow very quickly when eliminating variables, we would rather want to compute an ideal J , as large as possible given computational restrictions, which is contained in I_{k+1} .

If we can find solutions to $Z(J)$ contained in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k} we can then check if they lift to solutions in $Z(I)$ contained in \mathbb{F}_2^n , by sequentially lifting the solutions backwards with respect to each projection. Let us first describe precisely the ideal I_{k+1} whose zero set is the sequence of projections $\pi_k \circ (\dots \circ (\pi_1(Z(I))))$. This corresponds to what is known as the *elimination ideal* $I \cap B[k+1, n]$.

Lemma 4 *Let $I_{k+1} \subseteq B[k+1, n]$ be the ideal of all Boolean functions vanishing on $\pi_k \circ (\dots \circ (\pi_1(Z(I))))$. Then $I_{k+1} = I \cap B[k+1, n]$.*

Proof. We show this for the case when eliminating one variable, the general case follows in a similar manner. Clearly $I_2 \supseteq I \cap B[2, n]$. Conversely let $f \in B[2, n]$ vanish on $\pi_1(Z(I))$. Then f must also vanish on $Z(I)$, where f is regarded as a member of the extended ring $B[1, n]$. Therefore $f \in I$ by Corollary 3.

A standard technique for computing elimination ideals is to use Gröbner bases, which eliminate one *monomial* at the time. Computing Gröbner bases is computationally heavy because the degrees of the polynomials grow rapidly over the iterations. To deal with this problem we propose two algorithms which attempt to limit the degrees of polynomials that arise. Our solution is to not use all elements during elimination, but *discard high degree polynomials and only keep the low-degree ones*. We denote an ideal where the degree is restricted to some δ by J^δ , whereas J^∞ means that we allow *all* degrees.

The benefit from our solution is that the elimination process gives us an algorithm with much lower complexity, at the cost of the following two disadvantages:

1. Discarding polynomials of degree $> \delta$ gives an ideal J^δ that is only contained in the elimination ideal $J^\infty = I \cap B[j+1, n]$ for $1 < j \leq k$. It follows that $Z(J^\delta)$ of the eliminated system contains all the projected solutions of the original set of equations, but it will also contain “false” solutions which will not fit the ideal I when lifted back to \mathbb{F}_2^n , regardless of which values we assign to the eliminated variables.
2. Since the proposed algorithms expand the solution space to include false solutions, the worst case scenario is when we end up with an empty set of polynomials after eliminating a sequence of variables. This means that all constraints given by the initial I have been removed, and we end up with the complete \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k} as a solution space.

It is important to note that *not discarding* any polynomials will provide only the true solutions to the set where variables have been eliminated, which then can be lifted back to the solutions of the initial ideal I . The drawback of this approach is that we must be able to handle arbitrarily large polynomials, i.e high computational complexity.

Thus there is a tradeoff between the maximum degree δ allowed, and the proximity between the “practical” ideal J^δ and the true elimination ideal $I \cap B[k + 1, n]$.

In this paper we limit the degree to $\delta = 3$, and we therefore consider the two sets

$$F^3 = \{f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3\}, F^2 = \{f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2\}$$

of polynomials, where the f_i^3 's all have degree 3 and the f_i^2 's have degree ≤ 2 . Furthermore, the polynomials in F^3 and F^2 together generate the ideal $I = (F^3, F^2)$. We use the notation $F_{x_1}^i, F_{\bar{x}_1}^i$, ($i = 2, 3$) to distinguish disjoint subsets that contain (resp. do not contain) any monomial with the variable x_1 . In the following sections we are going to develop the mathematical framework for computing ideals I_2, \dots, I_k such that $I_j \subseteq I \cap B[j + 1, n]$ starting from the ideal I , and such that the generators for each I_j has degree ≤ 3 .

3 Elimination Techniques

Several methods for solving systems of Boolean equations based on various approaches have been suggested. In [5] and [6] the authors introduce the XL and XSL algorithms, respectively. The basic idea is to multiply equations with enough monomials to re-linearize the whole system of Boolean equations. Our approach can be viewed as a specialized generalization of this approach. By this we mean that since we bound the degree at ≤ 3 , the quadratic equations will only be multiplied with linear monomials. The aim is to squeeze out as many quadratic and cubic polynomials which in turn can be used to solve the system of Boolean equations. Furthermore, we note that the elimination aspect is not considered in the XL and XSL approaches.

Our objective is to find as many polynomials in the ideal I generated by F^2 and F^3 as possible, *computing only with polynomials of degrees ≤ 3* . This limits both the storage and computational complexity. Our approach to solve the system of equations

$$f_i^\delta = 0, \delta = 2, 3 \text{ and } i = 1, \dots, r_\delta$$

is to eliminate variables so that we find degree ≤ 3 polynomials in I_k , in smaller and smaller Boolean rings $B[k + 1, n]$. We introduce the algorithms for doing this in Section 4.

Let $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ be a set of Boolean functions in $B[1, n]$ of degree ≤ 3 , and denote by $\langle F \rangle$ the vector space spanned by the polynomials in F , where each monomial is regarded as a coordinate. Let $L = \{1, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ consist of the constant and linear functions in $B[1, n]$, such that $\langle L \rangle$ is the vector space spanned by the Boolean polynomials of degree ≤ 1 . For the set of quadratic polynomials F^2 , we denote the product LF^2 as the set of all products lg where $l \in L$ and $g \in F^2$. Then it suffices to eliminate variables from the vector space $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$. For convenience we let the set $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ be the set of cubic polynomials generated by $F^3 \cup LF^2$.

Hence, as part of the variable elimination process, it will be necessary to split a set of polynomials according to different criteria. Two procedures, Algorithm 6: *SplitVariable()* and Algorithm 7: *SplitDeg2/3()* are described in Appendix A. *SplitVariable*(F, x_1) splits a set F of polynomials into the subsets $F_{x_1}, F_{\bar{x}_1}$, where F_{x_1} only has polynomials that contain x_1 and $F_{\bar{x}_1}$ consists of all polynomials not containing x_1 . *SplitDeg2/3*(F) splits a set F of polynomials into the subsets F^2, F^3 , where polynomials in F^2 are quadratic, and polynomials in F^3 have degree 3.

These two procedures can essentially be implemented in terms of row reduction on the incidence matrices of F , where the monomials (i. e. columns of the matrices) are ordered lexicographically and by degree, respectively. More details are provided in Appendix A.

In order to eliminate variables from a system of Boolean functions we are going to use resultants, which eliminate one variable at the time from a pair of equations. Let $f_1 = a_1x_1 + b_1$ and $f_2 =$

$a_2x_1 + b_2$ be two polynomials in $B[1, n]$, where the variable x_1 has been factored out. Then the polynomials a_j and b_j are in $B[2, n]$. In order to find the resultant, form the 2×2 Sylvester matrix of f_1 and f_2 with respect to x_1

$$\text{Syl}(f_1, f_2, x_1) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The *resultant* of f_1 and f_2 with respect to x_1 is then simply the determinant of this matrix, and hence a polynomial in $B[2, n]$:

$$\text{Res}(f_1, f_2, x_1) = \det(\text{Syl}(f_1, f_2, x_1)) = a_1b_2 + a_2b_1$$

We note that $\text{Res}(f_1, f_2, x_1) = a_2f_1 + a_1f_2$, which means that the resultant is indeed in the ideal generated by f_1 and f_2 . Moreover, $\text{Res}(f_1, f_2, x_1)$ is in the elimination ideal I_2 and when both f_i 's are quadratic, then the a_i 's are linear so the degree of the resultant $\text{Res}(f_1, f_2, x_1)$ is ≤ 3 .

This observation gives hope for computational purposes, since 2×2 determinants are easy to compute and cubic polynomials can be handled by a computer, also for the number of variables n we encounter in cryptanalysis of block ciphers. Note that one resultant computation eliminates all monomials containing the targeted variable, and not only the leading term, as in Gröbner basis computations.

For an ideal $I(F) = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \subseteq B[1, n]$ generated by a set F of Boolean polynomials, we can compute the resultant of every pair of polynomials $\text{Res}(f_i, f_j; x_1)$, which in turn gives us the ideal of resultants:

$$\text{Res}_2(F; x_1) = (\text{Res}(f_i, f_j; x_1) | 1 \leq i < j \leq m).$$

It is easy to show that the ideal of resultants is contained in the elimination ideal $I(F) \cap B[2, n]$, but this inclusion is in general strict. To close the gap we need the following ideal:

Definition 5 Let $I(F) = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \subseteq B[1, n]$, and write each f_i as $f_i = a_i x_1 + b_i$, where x_1 does not occur in a_i or b_i . We define the coefficient constraint ideal:

$$\text{Co}_2(F) = (b_1(a_1 + 1), b_2(a_2 + 1), \dots, b_m(a_m + 1)).$$

Note that the degrees of the generators of $\text{Co}_2(F)$ have the same degrees as the generators of the resultant ideal. In the case when $I(F)$ consists of quadratic polynomials, the generators of $\text{Co}_2(F)$ will be polynomials of degree ≤ 3 . The zero set of this ideal lies in the projection of the zero set of $I(F)$ onto \mathbb{F}_2^{n-1} .

Lemma 6 $Z(\text{Co}_2(F)) \supseteq \pi_1(Z(I(F)))$.

Proof. Note that a point $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-1}$ is not in the zero set $Z(\text{Co}_2(F))$ only if for some i we have $a_i(\mathbf{p}) = 0$ and $b_i(\mathbf{p}) = 1$. But then for both the two liftings of \mathbf{p} to \mathbb{F}_2^n : $\mathbf{p}_0 = (0, \mathbf{p})$ and $\mathbf{p}_1 = (1, \mathbf{p})$ we have $f_i(\mathbf{p}_j) = 1$. Therefore $\mathbf{p} \notin \pi_1(Z(I(F)))$, and so we must have $Z(\text{Co}_2(F)) \supseteq \pi_1(Z(I(F)))$.

By Lemmas 4 and 6, the coefficient constraint ideal is in the elimination ideal. We can now use this ideal to describe the full elimination ideal, which turns out to be generated exactly by $\text{Res}_2(F)$ and $\text{Co}_2(F)$.

Theorem 7 Let $I(F) = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \subseteq B[1, n]$ be an ideal generated by a set F of Boolean polynomials. Then

$$I(F) \cap B[2, n] = I(\text{Res}_2(F), \text{Co}_2(F)).$$

Proof. By Lemma 4 we have

$$\pi_1(Z(I(F))) = Z(I(F) \cap B[2, n]).$$

We know that

$$I(F) \cap B[2, n] \supseteq I(\text{Res}_2(F), \text{Co}_2(F)),$$

which implies that

$$\pi_1(Z(I(F))) = Z(I(F) \cap B[2, n]) \subseteq Z(\text{Res}_2(F)) \cap Z(\text{Co}_2(F)).$$

Conversely, let a point $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-1}$ in the right hand side above be given. Then it has two liftings to points in \mathbb{F}_2^n : $\mathbf{p}_0 = (0, \mathbf{p})$ and $\mathbf{p}_1 = (1, \mathbf{p})$. Let $f_i = x_1 a_i + b_i$ be an element in F . Since \mathbf{p} vanishes on $\text{Co}_2(F)$, the following are the possible values for the terms in f_i when applied to the lifting \mathbf{p}_j .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a_i & b_i & x_1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$$

Note that $\text{Co}_2(F)$ excludes $a_i(\mathbf{p})$ and $b_i(\mathbf{p})$ from taking the values 0, 1. Since \mathbf{p} vanishes on the resultant ideal, there cannot be two f_i and f_j such that $a_i(\mathbf{p}), b_i(\mathbf{p})$ takes values 1, 0 and $a_j(\mathbf{p}), b_j(\mathbf{p})$ takes values 1, 1, since in that case the resultant $a_i b_j + a_j b_i$ does not vanish. This means that the values of $a_i(\mathbf{p}), b_i(\mathbf{p})$ are either *i)* All 0, 0 or 1, 0, or *ii)* All 0, 0 or 1, 1. In case *i)*, the lifting \mathbf{p}_0 is in the zero set $Z(I(F))$. In case *ii)* the lifting \mathbf{p}_1 is in the zero set of $Z(I(F))$. This shows that $Z(\text{Res}_2(F)) \cap Z(\text{Co}_2(F))$ lifts to $Z(I(F))$, which means that

$$\pi_1(Z(I(F))) = Z(I(F) \cap B[2, n]) \supseteq Z(\text{Res}_2(F)) \cap Z(\text{Co}_2(F))$$

as desired.

Note that since we limit the degree to ≤ 3 , we only compute resultants and coefficient constraints with respect to the set F^2 consisting of quadratic Boolean functions. The process of producing the resultants and the polynomials of the coefficient constraints of the set F^2 with respect to the variable x_1 is described in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 *RandC*($F_{x_1}^2, x_1$)

In: $F_{x_1}^2 = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in $B[1, n]$

Out: Set R of cubic polynomials where $\pi_1(Z(F_{x_1}^2)) = Z(R)$ and $x_1 \notin R$

$$f_i^2 = a_i x_1 + b_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq r_2$$

$$R = \emptyset$$

for $(f_i^2, f_j^2) \in F_{x_1}^2 \times F_{x_1}^2, f_i^2 \neq f_j^2$ **do**

$$R \leftarrow R \cup \{a_i b_j + a_j b_i\}$$

end for

for $f_i^2 \in F_{x_1}^2$ **do**

$$R \leftarrow R \cup \{b_i(a_i + 1)\}$$

end for

Return R

In general, for an ideal $I(F) = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \subseteq B[1, n]$, this process can obviously be iterated eliminating more variables from $I(F)$. We denote by the ideals $\text{Res}_{k+1}(F)$ and $\text{Co}_{k+1}(F)$ the iterative application of the resultant and the coefficient constraint ideal with respect to a sequence x_1, \dots, x_k of variables to be eliminated, with the initial polynomials from $I(F)$ as input. Note that both Lemma 6 and Proposition 7 easily generalize to this case. Hence we generalize Theorem 7 as follows.

Corollary 8 For $I(F) = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ in $B[1, n]$, then

$$I(F) \cap B[k+1, n] = I(\text{Res}_{k+1}(F), \text{Co}_{k+1}(F)).$$

It is important to note that Corollary 8 is only valid if we allow the degrees to grow with each elimination, but including the coefficient constraints solve the problem with the resultant only being a subset of the elimination ideal. This enables us to actually compute the elimination ideal *not depending on any monomial order*. Moreover, one could find the elimination ideal by successively eliminating x_1, \dots, x_k using Corollary 8 by the following algorithm:

1. $F_1 = F$,
2. $F_2 =$ generators of $\text{Res}_2(F_1) + \text{Co}_2(F_1)$,
3. $F_3 =$ generators of $\text{Res}_3(F_2) + \text{Co}_3(F_2)$,
4. \dots

However, applying this strategy in practice leads to problems due to the growing degrees of the resultants and coefficient constraints with each elimination. In fact if the f_i 's have degree d , the degrees of the resultants and the coefficient constraints have degree $2d - 1$. With many variables the size of the polynomials and the number of monomials quickly become too large for a computer to work with. This is the reason why we limit the degree at ≤ 3 , enabling us to deal with these complexity issues.

4 Elimination Algorithms

4.1 The LG-algorithm A

In the following we are going to apply the procedure **A.** below as a building block in order to produce as many polynomials of degree ≤ 3 as we can when eliminating variables from the sets F^3 and F^2 .

A. We compute two sets $F_{\bar{x}_1}^2$ and $F_{\bar{x}_1}^3$ of quadratic and cubic polynomials in $B[2, n]$, that satisfy

$$\langle F_{\bar{x}_1}^2 \cup F_{\bar{x}_1}^3 \rangle = \langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle \cap B[2, n].$$

This gives a new pair of sets $F_{\bar{x}_1}^3$ and $F_{\bar{x}_1}^2$, but now in the smaller ring $B[2, n]$. This procedure can be continued giving $F_{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_k}^3$ in smaller and smaller Boolean rings $B[k+1, n]$. The computation of $F_{\bar{x}_1}^2$ and $F_{\bar{x}_1}^3$ is the main objective of our algorithm. In Algorithm 2 we show how we perform this procedure in L-Elim**A.**

Algorithm 2 $L - \text{ElimA}(F^3, F^2, x_1)$

In: $F^3 = (f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3)$ set of cubic polynomials in $B[1, n]$, $F^2 = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in $B[1, n]$, and x_1 the variable to be eliminated from F^3 and F^2

Out: Set $F_{\bar{x}_1}^3$ of cubic polynomials and set $F_{\bar{x}_1}^2$ of quadratic polynomials, where $x_1 \notin F_{\bar{x}_1}^2 \cup F_{\bar{x}_1}^3$

$$L = \{1, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

$$F^* \leftarrow F^3 \cup L \cdot F^2$$

$$F^2, F^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitDeg2/3}(F^*)$$

$$F_{\bar{x}_1}^2, F_{\bar{x}_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^2, x_1)$$

$$F_{\bar{x}_1}^3, F_{\bar{x}_1}^2 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^3, x_1)$$

$$\text{Return } F_{\bar{x}_1}^3, F_{\bar{x}_1}^2$$

Remark 9 Computational complexity: *The heaviest step in $L - \text{ElimA}$ is the call to $\text{SplitDeg2/3}()$. This procedure does Gauss elimination on $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ columns in a matrix with $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ rows. In total we need $\mathcal{O}(n^9)$ bit operations for running $L - \text{ElimA}$.*

Remark 10 *Algorithm 2 is related to the XL and XLS algorithm [5],[6], where we restrict the algorithm here by only multiplying with linear Boolean monomials L . However, our approach contains the aspect of elimination of variables which is not considered in XL-type algorithms.*

Next, we proceed to develop a more efficient algorithm. In fact, the next construction optimizes the elimination approach by showing that we do not need to multiply with all variables as done in $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$.

4.2 Main elimination algorithm A

Motivated by Algorithm 2, we aim in a similar fashion to produce more polynomials of degree ≤ 3 for the sets F^3, F^2 , but in a more efficient way. We use resultants, coefficient constraints and some other steps to be detailed below. The ensuing algorithm $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ is presented in Algorithm 3.

The inputs to $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ are sets F^3 and F^2 , of polynomials of degree 3 and 2 respectively. These sets will be modified in the algorithm to only include polynomials without x_1 , the variable to be eliminated. We also want the sets to be as large as possible, but of course only with linearly independent polynomials.

$\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ starts by splitting F^2 into subsets $F_{x_1}^2$ containing x_1 and $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ not containing x_1 , using $\text{SplitVariable}()$. These sets are first used to increase F^3 , by adding $x_1 F_{x_1}^2$ and $(x_1 + 1)\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ to F^3 . Note that we multiply F^2 with only one variable (x_1 , to be eliminated), and not all of L as in $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$. This leads to much lower space complexity in $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$, since the $F_{x_1}^3$ computed here is much smaller than the one output from $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$. Then we split F^3 into subsets $F_{x_1}^3$ containing x_1 and $\overline{F_{x_1}^3}$ not containing x_1 , using $\text{SplitVariable}()$.

Next, $F_{x_1}^3$ is normalized (see Algorithm 8: $\text{Normalize}()$ in Appendix B) with $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ as basis. This removes many of the degree 3 monomials containing x_1 in $F_{x_1}^3$, and if a polynomial on the special form $f_\infty = x_1 + g(x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is found in $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ all degree 2 monomials $x_1 x_i$ will be eliminated from $F_{x_1}^3$. The output of $\text{Normalize}()$ is $F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$ and $\overline{F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}}$, and we join $\overline{F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}}$ to $\overline{F_{x_1}^3}$.

Now we compute resultants and coefficient constraints from the set $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$, creating a set R of cubic polynomials in $B[2, n]$ by using Algorithm 1 $\text{RandC}()$. This produces as many polynomials without x_1 as possible. All of these are added to $\overline{F_{x_1}^3}$ and we remove potentially linearly dependent polynomials in $\overline{F_{x_1}^3}$ such that

$$\overline{F_{x_1}^3} := \overline{F_{x_1}^3} \cup \overline{F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}} \cup R \quad (1)$$

The two new sets $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}, \overline{F_{x_1}^3}$ in $B[2, n]$, neither containing x_1 , are returned from $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$, as described in Algorithm 3. In the following we show that in fact the output of $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ and $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$ is the same.

Theorem 11 *Let F^2, F^3 be the input to $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$. Let $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ be the subset of F^2 not containing x_1 and let $\overline{F_{x_1}^3}$ be the defined as in (1). Then*

$$\langle \overline{F_{x_1}^3} \cup \overline{L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2} \rangle = \langle F^3 \cup L F^2 \rangle \cap B[2, n].$$

Proof. The fact that $\langle F^3 \cup L F^2 \rangle \cap B[2, n] \supseteq \langle \overline{F_{x_1}^3} \cup \overline{L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2} \rangle$ is obvious from the construction.

To prove the converse, if a polynomial $f^2 \in \overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ has leading term $x_1 x_i$ we denote the polynomial as $f^2 = f_i^2 = a_i x_1 + b_i$. Similarly, if it has leading term x_1 we denote it by $f^2 = f_\infty^2$. With this notation we let $I \subseteq \{2, \dots, n\} \cup \{\infty\}$ be the index set of these polynomials, such that $\overline{F_{x_1}^2} = \{f_i^2\}_{i \in I}$. Let $\overline{F_{x_1}^2}$ be $\{f_j^2\}_{j \in J}$ for some index set J such that $J \cap I = \emptyset$.

Let p be a polynomial in $\langle F^3 \cup L F^2 \rangle \cap B[2, n]$. We can then write

$$p = f^3 + f_{x_1}^3 + \overline{f_{x_1}^3}$$

where $f^3 \in F^3$, $f_{x_1}^3 \in \langle L \cdot \overline{F_{x_1}^2} \rangle$, and $\overline{f_{x_1}^3} \in \langle L \cdot \overline{F_{x_1}^2} \rangle$. The goal is to subtract from p the terms in $\overline{F_{x_1}^3} \cup \overline{L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2}$ which is produced according to (1). In the end we will show that we are left with $p = 0$, which proves that p is originally in $\langle \overline{F_{x_1}^3} \cup \overline{L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2} \rangle$.

With p as above we can find index sets $I^0, I^1 \subseteq I$ and $J^0 \subseteq J$, and $K \subseteq \{2, \dots, n\} \times I$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} f_{x_1}^3 &= \sum_{i \in I^0} (x_1 + 1)f_i^2 + \sum_{i \in I^1} f_i^2 + \sum_{(k,i) \in K} x_k f_i^2, \\ f_{x_1}^3 &= \sum_{j \in J^0} x_1 f_j^2 + f^{3'}, \end{aligned}$$

where $f^{3'} \in \langle \{1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} F_{x_1}^2 \rangle = \langle L_{x_1} \cdot F_{x_1}^2 \rangle$.

By the normalization we may write the following part of p :

$$f^3 + \sum_{i \in I^0} (x_1 + 1)f_i^2 + \sum_{j \in J^0} x_1 f_j^2$$

as

$$f_{x_1}^{3, norm} + \sum_{(k,i) \in K'} x_k f_i^2 + f_{x_1}^{3, norm}$$

for some index set K' with all $k \in \{2, \dots, n\}$, and where $f_{x_1}^{3, norm} \in \langle F_{x_1}^{3, norm} \rangle$ and $f_{x_1}^{3, norm} \in \langle F_{x_1}^3 \cup F_{x_1}^{3, norm} \rangle$. So we have

$$p = f_{x_1}^{3, norm} + \sum_{i \in I^1} f_i^2 + \sum_{(k,i) \in K''} x_j f_i^2 + f^{3'} + f_{x_1}^{3, norm} \quad (2)$$

where $K'' = K \cup K'$.

Now we consider the terms above with f_2^2 . Suppose $x_2 f_2^2$ occurs in the sum on the right. Note that $x_1 x_2$ is not in p (since $p \in B[2, n]$), and not in $f_{x_1}^{3, norm}$ (since it is 3-normal). So $x_1 x_2$ in $x_2 f_2^2$ must cancel against $x_1 x_2$ in f_2^2 . Then $f_2^2 + x_2 f_2^2 = (x_2 + 1)f_2^2$ occurs. Now

$$(x_2 + 1)f_2^2 = (a_2 + 1)f_2^2 + \text{smaller terms than } x_1 x_2.$$

We now subtract $(a_2 + 1)f_2^2 = (a_2 + 1)b_2$ (which is in $B[2, n]$) from both sides of (2). So its new left side is:

$$p := p - (a_2 + 1)f_2^2,$$

and the new right side of (2) will contain neither f_2^2 nor $x_2 f_2^2$ (while it may contain $x_j f_2^2$ for $j \geq 3$). It follows that the left side of (2) above will not contain $x_2 f_2^2$.

If now in the new equation (2), $x_2 f_3^2$ occurs, then $x_1 x_2 x_3$ must cancel against $x_3 f_2^2$ (since $x_2 f_2^2$ does not occur any more on the right side of (2), and $x_1 x_2 x_3$ does not occur in p nor in $f_{x_1}^{3, norm}$). We subtract the resultant $a_2 f_3^2 + a_3 f_2^2$ from both sides of (2). So its new left side is:

$$p := p - (a_2 f_3^2 + a_3 f_2^2).$$

Then neither $x_2 f_2^2$ nor $x_2 f_3^2$ will occur anymore on the right side of (2). In this way we continue and no term $x_2 f_i^2$ with $2 \leq i \leq n$ will occur in the right side of (2). If $x_2 f_\infty^2$ occurs, then $x_1 x_2$ must cancel against the same term in f_2^2 . We then subtract the corresponding resultant from both sides of (2) and its new left side is:

$$p := p - (a_2 f_\infty^2 + f_2^2).$$

We may then assume that no terms in the right side of (2) contains any $x_2 f_i^2$. Then note the following: The right side of (2) does not contain $x_3 f_2^2$ since if it did the term $x_3 x_1 x_2$ could not cancel against anything else on the right side.

Now we continue and remove terms $x_3 f_i^2$ from the right side of (2). Then we remove terms $x_4 f_i^2$ and so on. Considering the p in (2), we then get that modulo Co_2 and Res_2 we can write it as

$$p = f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}} + \sum_{j \in I'} f_j^2 + f^{3'} + f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$$

for some $I' \subseteq I$. If f_2^2 occurs, the terms $x_1 x_2$ could not cancel against anything in $f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$, thus f_2^2 does not occur. If f_3^2 occurs, the term $x_1 x_3$ could not cancel against anything on the right side above, since f_2^2 does not occur. Hence f_3^2 does not occur. In this way we could continue and in the end get

$$p = f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}} + f^{3'} + f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}.$$

But then clearly $f_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$ equals 0. Thus modulo $\langle \text{Co}_2 \cup \text{Res}_2 \rangle$ the original p is in $\langle L_{\overline{x_1}} \cdot F_{\overline{x_1}}^2 \rangle + \langle F_{\overline{x_1}}^3 \cup F_{\overline{x_1}}^{3, \text{norm}} \rangle$. This proves the Theorem.

Corollary 12 *Let $L_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}} = \{1, \overline{x_{k+1}}, \dots, \overline{x_n}\}$ and $F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^3, F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^2$ be the result of applying $\text{eliminateA}()$ k times to the input sets F^3, F^2 . Then*

$$\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle \cap B[k+1, n] = \langle F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^3 \cup L_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}} F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^2 \rangle.$$

Proof. Given a sequence of variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k to be eliminated. Then applying Theorem 11 on x_1 gives us $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle \cap B[2, n] = \langle F_{x_1}^3 \cup L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2 \rangle$. Applying Theorem 11 on the next variable x_2 on $\langle F_{x_1}^3 \cup L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2 \rangle$ we get

$$\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle \cap B[3, n] = \langle F_{x_1}^3 \cup L_{x_1} F_{x_1}^2 \rangle \cap B[3, n] = \langle F_{x_1, x_2}^3 \cup L_{x_1, x_2} F_{x_1, x_2}^2 \rangle.$$

Continuing this way for the rest of the variables to be eliminated, it follows that $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle \cap B[k, n] = \langle F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^3 \cup L_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}} F_{\overline{x_1}, \dots, \overline{x_k}}^2 \rangle$ as desired.

Algorithm 3 $\text{eliminateA}(F^3, F^2, x_1)$

In: $F^3 = (f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3)$ set of cubic polynomials in B , $F^2 = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in B , x_1 variable to be eliminated from F^3 and F^2

Out: Set $F_{x_1}^3$ of cubic polynomials where $x_1 \notin F_{x_1}^3$ and set $F_{x_1}^2$ of quadratic polynomials where $x_1 \notin F_{x_1}^2$

```

 $F_{x_1}^2, F_{x_1}^2 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^2, x_1)$    ▷ The  $f_i^2 \in F_{x_1}^2$  will have unique leading monomials containing  $x_1$ 
 $F^3 \leftarrow (x_1 + 1)F_{x_1}^2 \cup x_1 F_{x_1}^2 \cup F^3$ 
 $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^3, x_1)$ 
 $F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}, F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}} \leftarrow \text{Normalize}(F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^2)$ 
 $F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow R.\text{and.C}(F_{x_1}^2, x_1) \cup F_{x_1}^3 \cup F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$ 
Return  $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^2$ 

```

The output comprises sets $F_{x_1}^2$ and $F_{x_1}^3$ of polynomials of degree 2 and 3 respectively. These are nontrivial polynomials of the same degree as the input polynomials and neither set contains the variable x_1 . The two sets satisfy $\langle F_{x_1}^2, F_{x_1}^3 \rangle \subseteq I \cap B[2, n]$. Algorithm 3 can be iterated as shown in Corollary 12, eliminating one variable from the system at the time, in any given order. An important note is that when starting with an MQ system (i.e. $F^3 = \emptyset$) and eliminating only one variable, we do not throw away any polynomials in Alg. 3. Then we actually compute the full elimination ideal and are certain to preserve the initial solution space.

For complexity, we have $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ and $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ monomials and polynomials in $F_{x_1}^3$ and $F_{x_1}^2$, respectively. If there were more polynomials than monomials we could solve the system by re-linearization. Hence the space complexity of the algorithm is storing $\mathcal{O}(n^6)$ monomials which in practice is storing $\mathcal{O}(n^6)$ bits.

The time complexity for normalization can be estimated as follows: There are at most n different f_i^2 in F_{x_1} . For each of the $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ polynomials in F^3 , there may be n monomials containing the leading term of f_i^2 . Each of these needs to be cancelled by adding a multiple of f_i^2 , costing $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ bit operations. The total worst-case complexity for the normalization step is then $\mathcal{O}(n \times n^3 \times n \times n^3) = \mathcal{O}(n^8)$ bit operations.

The time complexity for computing resultants and coefficient constraints can be estimated similarly to also be $\mathcal{O}(n^8)$.

The time complexity for *SplitVariable()* can be estimated as follows. In the worst case, we have input size $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ in both polynomials and monomials, so the matrices constructed are of size $\mathcal{O}(n^3) \times \mathcal{O}(n^3)$. In the Gaussian reduction we need to create 0's under leading 1's in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ columns (those corresponding to monomials $x_1 x_a x_b$), and this costs $\mathcal{O}(n^3 \times n^3 \times n^2) = \mathcal{O}(n^8)$ bit operations. Hence the total time complexity for Algorithm 3 is $\mathcal{O}(n^8)$ bit operations.

4.3 Extensions of L-ElimA(): L-ElimB()

In this section we improve $L - \text{ElimA}()$ and $\text{eliminateA}()$ by adding the heuristic procedure **B**, in the following form:

B. It is conceivable that the vector space $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$ contains more relations of degree ≤ 2 , beyond the ones in F^2 . Hence we may improve on procedure **A**, by adding a search for more quadratic relations. This can be done by ordering the monomials such that the degree 3 monomials are bigger than the degree 2 monomials, and then split the system into degree 2 and 3 polynomials by calling *SplitDeg2/3()*.

Let $F^{2,(1)} = F^2$, and compute $\langle F^3 \cup LF^{2,(1)} \rangle$. Calling *SplitDeg2/3*($F^3 \cup LF^{2,(1)}$) returns new sets F^3 and $F^{2,(2)}$. If $\langle F^{2,(2)} \rangle$ is strictly larger than the space $\langle F^{2,(1)} \rangle$, we continue to compute *splitDeg2/3*($F^3 \cup LF^{2,(2)}$), repeating the process.

We continue such computations until $\langle F^{2,(i)} \rangle = \langle F^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$ for some i . Setting $F^2 := F^{2,(i)}$ we can then continue with **A**, which is the elimination step. In the case that *SplitDeg2/3()* on $F^3 \cup LF^{2,(1)}$ does not yield any new quadratic polynomials, we proceed directly to the elimination step.

Remark 13 The advantage of adding B: *Finding new quadratic polynomials allows to "compute with monomials of degree ≥ 4 by computing with monomials of degree ≤ 3 ". More precisely, suppose we find a new quadratic polynomial h , so:*

$$h = f^3 + \sum_i l_i f_i^2$$

where $f^3 \in F^3$ and the $l_i \in L$ and $f_i^2 \in F^2$, and h is not in $\langle F^2 \rangle$. Then h can again be multiplied with a linear polynomial and added to $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$ to form

$$f^{3'} + lh + \sum_i l'_i f_i^2 = f^{3'} + lf^3 + \sum_i ll_i f_i^2 + \sum_i l'_i f_i^2$$

The terms in lf^3 and $ll_i f_i^2$ are generally of degree 4, but they cancel so in reality we only work with polynomials of degree ≤ 3 .

In Algorithm 4 we present $L - \text{ElimB}()$ which is the extended version of $L - \text{ElimA}()$. The only difference between these two algorithms is the addition of **B.**, which *potentially* increases the set F^2 .

Algorithm 4 $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{B}(F^3, F^2, x_1)$

In: $F^3 = (f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3)$ set of cubic polynomials in $B[1, n]$, $F^{2,(1)} = F^2 = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in $B[1, n]$, $L = \{1, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ and x_1 the variable to be eliminated from F^3 and F^2
Out: Set $F_{x_1}^3$ of cubic polynomials and set $F_{x_1}^2$ of quadratic polynomials, where $x_1 \notin F_{x_1}^2 \cup F_{x_1}^3$

```

 $F^* \leftarrow F^3 \cup L \cdot F^{2,(1)}$  ▷ procedure A
 $F^{2,(2)}, F^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitDeg2/3}(F^*)$ 
 $i = 2$ 
while  $\langle F^{2,(i)} \rangle \neq \langle F^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$  do ▷ procedure B
     $F^* \leftarrow F^3 \cup L \cdot F^{2,(i)}$ 
     $F^{2,(i+1)}, F^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitDeg2/3}(F^*)$ 
     $i = i + 1$ 
end while
 $F^2 = F^{2,(i)}$ 
 $F_{x_1}^2, F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^2, x_1)$  ▷ procedure A
 $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^3, x_1)$ 
Return  $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^2$ 

```

Remark 14 Computational complexity: *Part B* includes a while loop where we have to call $\text{SplitDeg2/3}()$ every time. A naive implementation would require an additional $\mathcal{O}(n^9)$ operations per loop iteration. However, since $\text{SplitDeg2/3}()$ in the loop is called on the argument F^* which may change only by a little for each loop iteration, it is possible that more efficient algorithms exist.

4.4 Extensions of main elimination algorithm $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$: $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$

In a similar manner as in the previous subsection, we can also extend $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ to $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$. Instead of using \mathbf{B} on $\langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$, we use \mathbf{B} on the set $F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$ which is the output of the normalization step, and the set $F_{x_1}^3 := F_{x_1}^3 \cup F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}} \cup R$ (See $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ and equation (1)).

Let $F_{x_1}^2 := F_{x_1}^{2,(1)}$ and $F_{x_1}^2 := F_{x_1}^{2,(1)}$. Calling $\text{SplitDeg2/3}()$ on $F_{x_1}^{3, \text{norm}}$ and $F_{x_1}^3$, returns the sets $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^{2,(2)}, F_{x_1}^3$, and $F_{x_1}^{2,(2)}$. If either of the spaces $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(2)} \rangle, \langle F_{x_1}^{2,(2)} \rangle$ are strictly larger than the spaces $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(1)} \rangle$ and $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(1)} \rangle$, we continue to compute normal forms, resultants and coefficient constraints as in $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$, repeating the process.

We continue these computations until $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i)} \rangle = \langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$ and $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i)} \rangle = \langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$ for some $i \geq 1$. Setting $F_{x_1}^2 := F_{x_1}^{2,(i)}$ and $F_{x_1}^2 := F_{x_1}^{2,(i)}$, we simply return the new sets $F_{x_1}^3$ and $F_{x_1}^2$.

In the case that $\text{SplitDeg2/3}()$ on $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^3$ does not yield any new quadratic polynomials, we proceed directly to $\text{SplitVariable}()$ on $F_{x_1}^3$, and return $F_{x_1}^3$ and $F_{x_1}^2$ as before. $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$ is described in Algorithm 5. Again the only difference between $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$ and $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$, is the partial addition of \mathbf{B} .

The following summarizes the constructions we have done in this section.

1. We can eliminate variables in two different ways: By either $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$, or by $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$. The latter algorithm has significantly lower complexity than the first, since we avoid to multiply with *all* variables in L .
2. We can produce extra polynomials of degree ≤ 2 by adding \mathbf{B} to $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{A}()$, giving the algorithm $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{B}()$.
3. We can produce extra polynomials of degree ≤ 2 by adding a partial version of \mathbf{B} to $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{A}()$, yielding $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$, with significantly lower complexity than $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{B}()$.

4.5 Information loss

The information theoretic concepts defined in this subsection mostly follow standard notation, cf. for example [9], except for $i()$ of equation (5) which is adapted for our purposes. Let X be a discrete

Algorithm 5 *eliminateB*(F^3, F^2, x_1)

In: $F^3 = (f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3)$ set of cubic polynomials in B , $F^{2,(1)} = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in B , x_1 variable to be eliminated from F^3 and F^2

Out: Set $F_{x_1}^3$ of cubic polynomials where $x_1 \notin F_{x_1}^3$ and set $F_{x_1}^2$ of quadratic polynomials where $x_1 \notin F_{x_1}^2$

$F_{x_1}^{2,(1)}, F_{x_1}^{2,(1)} \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^{2,(1)}, x_1)$ ▷ The $f_i^2 \in F_{x_1}^{2,(1)}$ will have unique leading monomials containing x_1

$i = 1$

while $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i)} \rangle \neq \langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$ or $\langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i)} \rangle \neq \langle F_{x_1}^{2,(i-1)} \rangle$ **do** ▷ procedure **B**

$F^3 \leftarrow (x_1 + 1)F_{x_1}^2 \cup x_1 F_{x_1}^2 \cup F^3$

$F_{x_1}^{3,norm}, F_{x_1}^{3,norm} \leftarrow \text{Normalize}(F^3, F_{x_1}^2)$

$F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{R.and.C}(F_{x_1}^2, x_1)$

$F_{x_1}^{2,(i+1)}, F^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitDeg2/3}(F_{x_1}^{3,norm} \cup F_{x_1}^{3,norm} \cup F_{x_1}^3)$

$F_{x_1}^{2,(i+1)}, F_{x_1}^{2,(i+1)} \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^{2,(i+1)}, x_1)$

$i = i + 1$

end while

$F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^3 \leftarrow \text{SplitVariable}(F^3, x_1)$

$F_{x_1}^2 = F_{x_1}^{2,(i)}$

Return $F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^2$

random variable that takes values x_1, \dots, x_M with probabilities $p_i = P(X = x_i), i = 1, \dots, M$. The (binary) *entropy* of X is defined as

$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^M p_i \log_2 p_i. \quad (3)$$

If X is uniformly distributed, *i. e.* $p_i = 1/M, i = 1, \dots, M$, then $H(X) = \log_2 M$. Given X and another random variable Y that assumes values $y_1, \dots, y_{M'}$, the conditional entropy of X given that we observe that Y takes a specific value y is

$$H(X|Y = y) = - \sum_{i=1}^M P(X = x_i|Y = y) \log_2 P(X = x_i|Y = y), \quad (4)$$

and the information that we get about X by observing $Y = y$ is $H(X) - H(X|Y = y)$.

The application of the concept of entropy in the context of this paper is as follows. A cryptanalyst wishes to recover a secret k -bit key K . A priori, K will be assumed to be drawn uniformly from the set of all keys, so $H(K) = k$. A set F of equations that K must satisfy will reduce the entropy of K if not all possible key values satisfy all equations in F . Hence F contains *information* about the secret key K and we define

$$i(F) = \text{Number of key bits} - \log_2(\text{Number of key values that satisfy } F). \quad (5)$$

The iterative elimination algorithms described in this section produce sequences of equation sets F_0, F_1, F_2, \dots , where $F_j = F_{x_1, \dots, x_j}^2 \cup F_{x_1, \dots, x_j}^3$ denotes the set of equations contained after eliminating j variables. From the point of view of a cryptanalyst, the function $i(F_j)$ should remain high (and close to the number of key bits) for as long as possible. On the other hand, as an easy consequence of information theory's *data processing lemma*, the sequence $i(F_0), i(F_1), i(F_2), \dots$ is non-increasing and, since high degree polynomials are discarded from equation sets to contain the complexity, it is likely that the sequence will be decreasing at some point. From the point of view of the cipher designer, the function $i(F_j)$ should drop rapidly with j . Keeping track of the development of the sequence $i(F_0), i(F_1), i(F_2), \dots$ is of interest and it will be studied in the next section.

5 Experimental Results

We have implemented $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{B}()$ and $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$ and done some experiments to see how they perform in practice. In this section we report on these experiments.

5.1 Reduced LowMC cipher

LowMC is a family of block ciphers proposed by Martin Albrecht et al. [1]. The cipher family is designed to minimize the number of AND-gates in the critical path of an encryption, while still being secure. The cipher itself is a normal SPN network, with each round consisting of an S-box layer, an affine transformation of the cipher block and addition with a round key. All round keys are produced as affine transformations of the user-selected key.

Two features of the LowMC ciphers are interesting with respect to algebraic cryptanalysis. First, the S-box used is as small as possible without having linear relations among the input and output bits. LowMC uses a 3×3 S-box, where the ANF of each output bit only contains one multiplication of input bits, making the three output polynomials of the S-box quadratic. We can search for other quadratic relations in the six input/output variables, and we then find 14 linearly independent quadratic polynomials.

Second, the S-boxes in one round do not cover the whole state, so a part of the cipher block is not affected by the S-box layer. The number of S-boxes to use in each round is a parameter that varies within the cipher family, and some variants are proposed with only one S-box per round.

The cipher parameters we have used for the reduced LowMC version of our experiments are:

- Block size: 24 bits
- Key size: 32 bits
- 1 S-box per round
- 12 or 13 rounds

As will become clear below, the number of rounds is on the border of when $L - \text{Elim}\mathbf{B}()$ and $\text{eliminate}\mathbf{B}()$ are successful in breaking the reduced cipher.

Constructing equation system. The attack is a known plaintext attack, where we assume we are given a plaintext/ciphertext pair and the task is to find the unknown key. We use the 14 quadratic polynomials describing the S-box as the base equations. The bits in the unknown key are assigned as the variables x_0, \dots, x_{31} , and the output bits from each S-box used in the cipher are the variables x_{32}, \dots . All other operations in LowMC are linear, so the input and output bits of every S-box can be written as a linear combination of the variables defined and the constants from the plaintext.

Inserting the actual linear combination for each input/output bit of the S-box in one round will produce $14r$ equations in total. These equations describe a LowMC encryption over r rounds. The initial number of variables is $32 + 3r$, but this can be reduced by using the known ciphertext. The bits of the cipher block output from the last round are linear combinations of variables. These linear combinations are set to be equal to the known ciphertext bits, giving 24 linear equations that can be used to eliminate 24 variables by direct substitution. After this the final number of variables is $8 + 3r$. See Fig. 1 for the equation setup.

Experimental results. The goal of our experiment is to try to eliminate all the variables x_i for $i \geq 32$, and find some polynomials of degree at most 3, only in variables representing the unknown user-selected key. If we are able to find at least one polynomial only in x_0, \dots, x_{31} for one given plaintext/ciphertext pair, we can repeat for other known plaintext/ciphertext pairs and build up a set of equations that can be solved by re-linearization when the set has approximately $\binom{32}{3}$ independent polynomials.

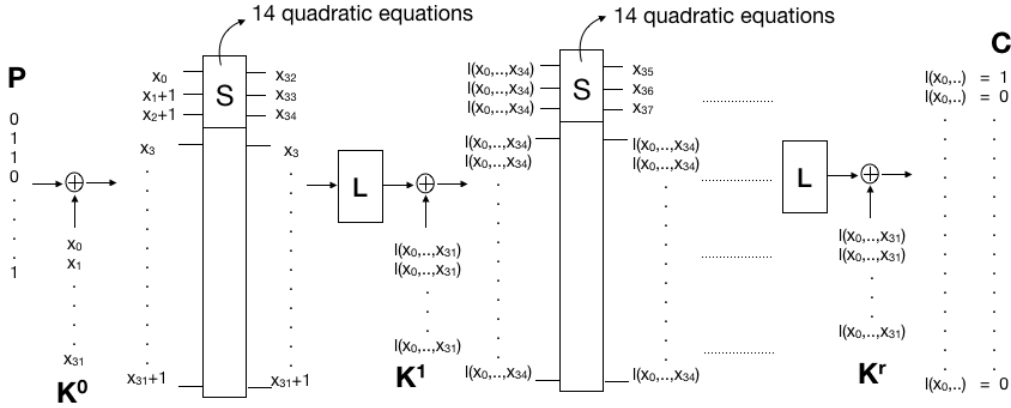


Fig. 1. Setup of equation system representing reduced LowMC. All $l(\cdot)$'s only indicate some linear combination, and are not equal.

12 rounds: The system initially contains 44 variables and 168 quadratic equations.

We first use $L - \text{ElimB}()$ to eliminate the 12 variables with highest indices. With this method we succeed in producing 1-2 cubic polynomial(s) only in key variables (some p/c-pairs produce 1, others produce 2 polynomials). The memory requirement is to store the 7560 polynomials we get after multiplying the quadratic equations with all terms in L .

Next we apply the $\text{eliminateB}()$ algorithm on the same system. Initially the set F^2 contains 168 polynomials and the set F^3 is empty. As the algorithm proceeds, eliminating one variable at the time, the sizes of F^3 and F^2 change. The set F^3 grows at first before starting to decrease before the last variables are eliminated, while the set F^2 decreases at a steady pace during the 12 eliminations. The size of F^3 was never above 2000 polynomials, so $\text{eliminateB}()$ has considerably less space complexity than $L - \text{ElimB}()$. The observed running time of the two methods were roughly the same, and $\text{eliminateB}()$ produced the same polynomials as $L - \text{ElimB}()$ in the end.

Finally we generate 15 different systems using different p/c-pairs, to see how many independent polynomials in x_0, \dots, x_{31} we get when collecting all outputs from the 15 systems together. The 15 systems collectively produced 20 polynomials in only key bits, of which 16 were linearly independent. So the hypotheses that we can produce many independent polynomials from different p/c-pairs seems to hold.

At this stage we noticed something unexpected. After doing Gaussian elimination on the 20 polynomials to check for linear dependencies, it turned out that we produced five *linear* polynomials in the unknown key variables. It therefore appears that the polynomials produced from the elimination algorithm are not completely random, and that one may need much fewer polynomials than anticipated to actually find the values of x_0, \dots, x_{31} .

13 rounds: The initial system contains 47 variables and 182 quadratic equations.

Neither $L - \text{ElimB}()$ nor $\text{eliminateB}()$ were able to find any cubic polynomials in only x_0, \dots, x_{31} for any 13-round systems we tried. So for the reduced LowMC version we used, only up to 12 rounds may be attacked using our elimination techniques and bounding the degree to at most 3.

5.2 Toy Cipher

For the experiments we also made a small toy cipher to do tests on. The toy cipher has a 16-bit block and a 16-bit key, and is built as a normal SPN network. Each round consists of an S-box layer with four 4×4 S-boxes (the same S-box as used in PRINCE), followed by a linear transformation

and a key addition. The same key is used in every round. For the elimination experiments reported here we use a 4-round version of the toy cipher.

Constructing equation system. The equation system representing the toy cipher is constructed similarly to the reduced LowMC. The variables in the unknown key are x_0, \dots, x_{15} , and the output bits of every S-box, except for the last round, are variables x_{16}, \dots, x_{63} . The inputs and outputs of every S-box can then be described as linear combinations of the variables we have defined, together with the constants in the known plaintext and ciphertext blocks. See Fig. 2 for the setup of the equations.

Each output bit of the PRINCE S-box has degree 3 when written as a polynomial of the input bits, but there exists 21 quadratic relations in input/output variables describing the S-box. The number of quadratic equations in the 4-round toy cipher is therefore 336, in the 64 variables x_0, \dots, x_{63} .

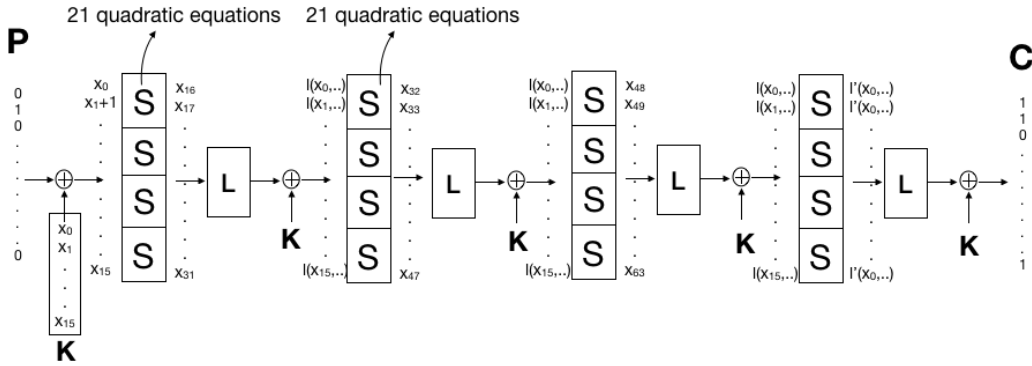


Fig. 2. Setup of equation system representing 4-round toy cipher. All $l(\cdot)$'s and $l'(\cdot)$'s indicate some linear combination of variables.

Experimental results. When trying to eliminate all non-key variables x_{16}, \dots, x_{63} from the system, neither $L - Elim\mathbf{B}()$ nor $eliminate\mathbf{B}()$ were able to find any cubic polynomial in only x_0, \dots, x_{15} .

We know that when running $eliminate\mathbf{B}()$ we will throw away polynomials giving constraints on the solution space on the way, and hence introduce false solutions. When F^3 and F^2 become empty the whole space becomes the solution space, and we have lost all information about the possible solutions to the original equation system. It is interesting to measure how fast the information about the solutions we seek disappear, and this is what we have investigated for the toy cipher.

As in all algebraic cryptanalysis we are interested in finding the possible values for the secret key. In this case this means finding the values of x_0, \dots, x_{15} . With only a 16-bit key it is possible to do exhaustive search, and check which key values that fit in any of the equation systems we get after eliminating some variables. The procedure we used for checking if one guessed key fits in a given system is as follows:

- Fix x_0, \dots, x_{15} to the guessed value in the system
- Do Gauss elimination on the resulting system to produce linear equations
- Use each linear equation found to eliminate one more variable
- Repeat Gauss elimination to find new linear equations and new eliminations, etc.
- If we find the polynomial 1 after Gauss elimination the guessed key does not fit

- If all variables get eliminated without producing any 1-polynomial, the guessed key fits
- If we fail to produce linear equations in the Gauss elimination, it is undecided whether the guessed key fits or not

We set up an elimination order where variables to be eliminated were distributed evenly throughout the system. That is, we do not eliminate the second variable from an S-box before all S-boxes have at least one variable eliminated. The exact elimination order used was

$$x_{36}, x_{24}, x_{52}, x_{44}, x_{20}, x_{56}, x_{40}, x_{28}, x_{60}, x_{32}, x_{16}, x_{48}, x_{18}, x_{50}, x_{34}, x_{26},$$

$$x_{58}, x_{46}, x_{54}, x_{22}, x_{62}, x_{30}, x_{38}, x_{42}, x_{47}, x_{21}, x_{49}, x_{35}, x_{29}, x_{59}, x_{41}.$$

After eliminating these 31 variables, all keys fit in the system we have at that point. For each system we get along the way, we checked how many keys that fit in the given system. This gives a measure of how much information the system has about the unknown secret key we try to find. For a system F , we use $i(F)$ (5) that says how much information the system has about the key:

$$i(F) = 16 - \log_2(\# \text{ of keys that fit in } F).$$

Denote the system we have after eliminating v variables as F_v . For the plaintext/ciphertext pair we used there were three keys that fit in the initial system, so we have $i(F_0) \approx 14.42$. We know that $i(F)$ is a strictly non-increasing function for increasing v , because we can only lose information during elimination. Put another way, if the key K fits in F_v , K will also fit in F_w for $w > v$. It is interesting to see what the rate of information loss is during elimination. Is the information loss gradual, or do we lose all information more suddenly? In Fig. 3 we have plotted the graph for $i(F_v)$ for $0 \leq v \leq 31$.

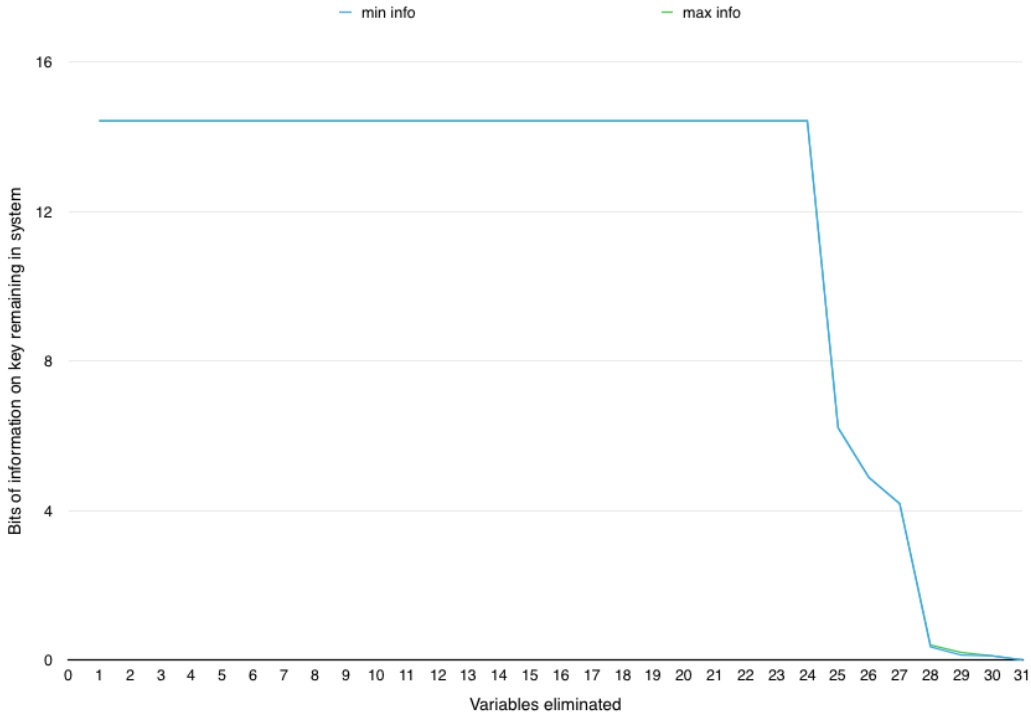


Fig. 3. Information loss when eliminating variables from 4-round toy cipher.

As we can see in Fig. 3, we can eliminate up to 24 of the 48 non-key variables in the system without losing any information on the possible keys. The three keys that fit in the original system are still the only ones that fit in F_{24} . After that, all information on possible keys is lost rather quickly, and $i(F_{31}) = 0$. Only in F_{27} and F_{28} did we run into some cases where it could not be decided whether a guessed key fits or not. This is barely visible in Fig. 3, where there is a tiny area where the true values of $i(F_{27})$ and $i(F_{28})$ may lie.

We find this behavior interesting and a source for further study. We can look at it this way: It is possible to describe a cipher by quadratic equations in k key variables and $n - k$ non-key variables (i.e. constructed as in Figs. 1 and 2). Our experiment indicates that (at least sometimes) one can create a cubic equation system, with the same information on the key, with only $k + (n - k)/2$ variables. In other words, there is a trade-off between degree and number of variables needed to describe a cipher. For the toy cipher, increasing the degree by one allows to cut the number of non-key variables in half to describe the same cipher.

6 Conclusions

In this paper we proposed two new algorithms for performing elimination of variables from systems of Boolean equations: $L - Elim*(\cdot)$ which is essentially Gaussian elimination, and $eliminate*(\cdot)$ which is more efficient and when suitably extended also more effective. We applied these algorithms in a known plaintext attack to two reduced versions of the LowMC cipher: 12 and 13 rounds with 24 bits block and 32 bits key. For the 12-round version the algorithms produces polynomials of degree 3 in only key variables, while in the 13-round example the algorithms fail to find any polynomials of degree 3 in only key variables.

We also applied the algorithms to a toy cipher for performing tests, where the proposed algorithms fails to find any polynomials of degree 3 in only key variables. Instead we extend the experiments by measuring how much information we lose about the key during elimination. Surprisingly, the experiments show that we can eliminate many auxiliary variables from the system of equations, without losing any information about the key. Another result of the experiments is that we lose information about the key rather quickly after a certain point in the elimination process. We conclude that there is a lot of future work to be done in this direction.

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Appendix A: Monomial orders and splitting algorithms

Consider the vector space $\langle F \rangle = \langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$ which is generated by the set of Boolean polynomials F^3, F^2 . We can perform Gaussian reduction on this vector space with two different orders. In the Gaussian elimination we order the monomials such that the largest monomials are eliminated first.

A. The monomial order where x_1 -monomials are largest: $\langle F \rangle$ can be realised as a matrix A . Each row of A corresponds to one polynomial in $F^3 \cup LF^2$, and each column corresponds to one monomial m . Moreover, the entry $A[i, j]$ corresponds to the coefficient of the j 'th monomial in the i 'th polynomial. When x_1 -monomials are the largest, we consider the leftmost columns of A to correspond to all monomials containing x_1 . Note that for the matrix A , we write $A[i \dots j]$ to indicate the submatrix consisting of rows i through j of A . With a slight abuse of notation, we write $x_1 \in m, x_1 \in f$ or $x_1 \in G$ to indicate that x_1 occurs in monomial m , polynomial f or polynomial set G .

When performing Gaussian elimination on A with this order, we can create polynomials in the span of $F^3 \cup LF^2$ that have 0's in the leftmost columns. If there are enough polynomials in $F^3 \cup LF^2$, the lower rows of A will then give a non-empty set of polynomials $F_{x_1}^3 \cup LF_{x_1}^2$ that do not contain the x_1 -variable. Note that the new set $F_{x_1}^3 \cup LF_{x_1}^2 \supseteq F^3 \cup LF^2 \cap B[2, n]$.

B. The order where higher-degree monomials are larger: It is conceivable that $\langle F \rangle = \langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$ contains more quadratic polynomials than just the ones in F^2 . These can be found if we order the monomials such that the degree 3 monomials are bigger than degree 2 monomials. We can then use Gaussian elimination on the matrix A representing $\langle F \rangle = \langle F^3 \cup LF^2 \rangle$ to eliminate monomials of degree 3 and possibly produce more quadratic equations than there are originally in F^2 .

The algorithm for splitting polynomial sets into those containing x_1 and those which do not contain x_1 is given in Algorithm 6 below. The algorithm for splitting a set of degree 3 polynomials into degree 2 and 3 polynomials is given in Algorithm 7 below. We are going to use these orders in section 4 as building blocks for finding more quadratic and cubic polynomials when developing the elimination algorithms.

Algorithm 6 *SplitVariable*(F, x_1)

In: $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ set of polynomials of degree ≤ 3 in $B[1, n]$

Out: Sets F_{x_1} and $F_{\bar{x}_1}$ of polynomials such that $\langle F \rangle = \langle F_{x_1} \cup F_{\bar{x}_1} \rangle, x_1 \in F_{x_1}$ and $x_1 \notin F_{\bar{x}_1}$

$\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_c, m_{c+1}, \dots, m_t) \leftarrow$ monomials occurring in F where $x_1 \in m_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq c$ and $x_1 \notin m_i$ for $i > c$.

$A \leftarrow m \times t$ matrix where coefficient of m_j in f_i is entry $A[i, j]$

Row-reduce A such that leading 1's in rows $i \leq r$ are in columns $j \leq c$ and leading 1's in rows $i > r$ are in columns $j > c$.

$F_{x_1} = A[1 \dots r] \mathbf{m}^T$

$F_{\bar{x}_1} = A[r + 1 \dots t] \mathbf{m}^T$

Return $F_{x_1}, F_{\bar{x}_1}$

Appendix B: Normalizing Cubics with Respect to Quadratics

In this appendix we present the concept of *normalization*. This procedure eliminates particular monomials containing the targeted variable x_1 from a set of cubic polynomials using a set of quadratic polynomials as a basis. This is a heuristic procedure that attempts to remove monomials containing a variable x_1 from a set of polynomials. Experiments indicate that this normalization

Algorithm 7 *SplitDeg2/3(F)*

In: $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m) \subseteq B[1, n]$ is set of polynomials of degree ≤ 3 .

Out: Sets F^2 of quadratic polynomials and F^3 of cubic polynomials such that $\langle F \rangle = \langle F^2 \cup F^3 \rangle$.

$\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_c, m_{c+1}, \dots, m_t) \leftarrow$ monomials occurring in F where $\deg(m_i) = 3$ for $1 \leq i \leq c$ and $\deg(m_i) \leq 2$ for $i > c$.

$A \leftarrow m \times t$ matrix where coefficient of m_j in f_i is entry $A[i, j]$

Row-reduce A such that leading 1's in rows $i \leq r$ are in columns $j \leq c$ and leading 1's in rows $i > r$ are in columns $j > c$.

$F^2 = A[1 \dots r] \mathbf{m}^T$

$F^3 = A[r+1 \dots t] \mathbf{m}^T$

Return F^2, F^3

usually has a beneficial effect on both efficiency and information preservation. Moreover, the procedure is a technical requirement for the proof of Theorem 11. Before giving the algorithm, we develop a mathematical foundation around the process of normalization.

Since we in this paper are considering the sets $F_{x_1}^2$ and $F_{x_1}^3$, we normalize the polynomials in $F_{x_1}^3$ with respect to the set $F_{x_1}^2$ and the variable x_1 . With the orders on the monomials introduced in Section 2, it follows that any non-zero Boolean polynomial $f^3 \in B[1, n]$ of degree 3 has a *leading term*. This is the largest monomial in f with respect to the given order. For a given set $F^2 = \{f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2\}$ of quadratic polynomials with distinct leading terms, the polynomial f^3 is in *normal form* with respect to the set $F_{x_1}^2$, if no monomial in f^3 is divisible by the leading term of any polynomial in $F_{x_1}^2$. A polynomial f^3 can be brought into a normal form $f^{3, \text{norm}}$ (not in general unique) by successively subtracting multiples of the polynomials in $F_{x_1}^2$. More specifically, we obtain $f^{3, \text{norm}}$ by the following procedure. Let

$$f^3 = m_{f^3} + \text{lower order terms}, \quad f_i^2 = m_{f_i^2} + \text{lower order terms},$$

and assume that $m_{f_i^2}$ divides m_{f^3} . Then we can write $m_{f^3} = qm_{f_i^2}$ where q is a monomial whose set of variables is disjoint from that of $m_{f_i^2}$. We can now replace f^3 by $f^3 + qf_i^2$, cancelling the term m_{f^3} in the process. Doing this successively will eventually produce the normal form of f^3 with respect to f_i^2 , and performing this for all generators will eventually produce the normal form of f^3 with respect to the set $F_{x_1}^2$.

Note that there is a specific case that merits attention, namely when there is a polynomial f_i^2 in $F_{x_1}^2$ with leading term x_1 . Then this term is the only term in f_i^2 involving the variable x_1 . To distinguish this polynomial, we denote it by

$$f_\infty^2 = x_1 + h, \quad h \in B[2, n].$$

Extra care is needed when $F_{x_1}^2$ contains f_∞^2 with leading term x_1 . The reason is that when following the procedure for making normal forms, we would remove every term in the polynomials of $F_{x_1}^3$ containing the variable x_1 . This will also imply that we replace $f^3 \in F_{x_1}^3$ by $f^3 + qf_\infty^2$, where q is a quadratic monomial. Then the new $f^{3, \text{norm}}$ in general will involve terms of degree 4, which we do not allow. However, we may still freely use f_∞^2 to remove all *quadratic terms* in f^3 containing x_1 . Hence, when f_∞^2 is found in $F_{x_1}^2$ there will be no quadratic monomials in $F_{x_1}^3$ containing x_1 after normalization. A normal form of f^3 using this procedure we call a *3-normal form*, to signify that we do not do computations with monomials of degree ≥ 4 .

The complete algorithm for producing normal forms for a set $F_{x_1}^3$ of cubic polynomials using a set $F_{x_1}^2$ of quadratic polynomials as a basis, including possibly $f_\infty^2 \in G_2$, is given in Algorithm 8.

Algorithm 8 $Normalize(F_{x_1}^3, F_{x_1}^2)$

In: $F_{x_1}^3 = (f_1^3, \dots, f_{r_3}^3)$ set of cubic polynomials in $B[1, n]$, $F_{x_1}^2 = (f_1^2, \dots, f_{r_2}^2)$ set of quadratic polynomials in $B[1, n]$ with m_{f^2} unique leading term (in some order) in f_i^2

Out: Set $F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm}$ where no monomial $m \in F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm}$ contains x_1 and set $F_{x_1}^{3, norm}$ where each polynomial contains at least one monomial with x_1

$F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm}, F_{x_1}^{3, norm} \leftarrow \emptyset$

for $f^2 \in F_{x_1}^2$ **do**

$m_{f^2} \leftarrow$ leading monomial in f^2

if $m_{f^2} = x_1$ **then**

$d \leftarrow 2$

else

$d \leftarrow 3$

end if

for $f^3 \in F_{x_1}^3$ **do**

for all monomials $m \in f^3, \deg(m) \leq d$ **do**

if m_{f^2} divides m **then**

$f^3 \leftarrow f^3 + \frac{m}{m_{f^2}} f^2$

▷ eliminate monomial divisible by m_{f^2}

end if

end for

end for

end for

for $f^3 \in F_{x_1}^3$ **do**

if $x_1 \notin f^3$ **then**

$F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm} \leftarrow F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm} \cup f^3$

else

$F_{x_1}^{3, norm} \leftarrow F_{x_1}^{3, norm} \cup f^3$

end if

end for

Return $F_{\bar{x}_1}^{3, norm}, F_{x_1}^{3, norm}$
