A Forgery Attack on a Code-based Signature Scheme

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Abstract—With the advent of quantum computers, the security of cryptographic primitives, including digital signature schemes, has been compromised. To deal with this issue, some signature schemes have been introduced to resist against these computers. These schemes are known as post-quantum signature schemes. One group of these schemes is based on the hard problems of coding theory, called code-based cryptographic schemes. Several code-based signature schemes are inspired by the McEliece encryption scheme using three non-singular, parity-check, and permutation matrices as the only components of the private keys, and their product as the public key. In this paper, we focus on the analysis of a class of such signature schemes. For this purpose, we first prove that the linear relationships between the columns of the parity-check/generator matrix appear in the public key matrix, and by exploiting this feature we perform a forgery attack on one of the signature schemes of this class as an evidence. The complexity of this attack is of $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$.

Index Terms—code-based signature, code-based cryptography, post-quantum cryptography, scrambler matrix, parity-check matrix, permutation matrix, generator matrix

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades, public key encryption has played an important role in our global communication infrastructure. These networks support a large number of applications such as mobile technology, e-commerce, social networking, and cloud computing that are important to our economy and security. In such a world, the ability of individuals, businesses, and governments to communicate securely is of utmost importance. Many critical communication protocols are based on three main cryptographic functions: public key encryption, digital signature, and key exchange mechanism [1]. Currently, these functions are implemented using the Diffie-Hellman key exchange scheme, the RSA encryption scheme, and elliptic curve-based encryption schemes. The security of these schemes depends on the difficulty of certain number theory problems, such as the decomposition of integers or the problem of discrete logarithms in different groups.

In 1994, Peter Shor proved that quantum computers can solve integer factorization and discrete logarithm problems. As a result, the security of all public key encryption schemes based on such problems is compromised [2]. A powerful quantum computer would therefore compromise many forms of modern communication, from key exchange to encryption and digital authentication. Therefore, it is necessary to introduce schemes that are resistant to quantum computers and maintain their security in the era of quantum computers.

With the advent of quantum computers, the security of cryptographic primitives such as encryption schemes, digital signature schemes, and key exchange has been compromised. Therefore, the American National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) issued a call for proposals for postquantum cryptographic schemes in 2016. Following this call, various schemes for encryption and signature have been introduced.

One of the schemes that is of interest in this paper is the McEliece encryption scheme [3]. The McEliece scheme is a code-based encryption scheme that was first introduced by McEliece in 1978 and has withstood various attacks so far. For a long time after McEliece's public key encryption scheme, it was believed that it was not possible to provide a code-based signature scheme, until 2001, when Sendrier et al. [4] introduced the first code-based signature scheme which was later called CFS.

Later on, other code-based signature schemes such as codebased group signatures [5], code-based ring signatures [6], code-based one-time signatures [7], [8], code-based undeniable signatures [9] and code-based full-time signatures [10]– [14] have been introduced.

Some of the above mentioned schemes, for example [13] and [14] use a common McEliece-like pattern in their key generation algorithm. In the McEliece encryption scheme, the public key is the product of three non-singular matrices S, generator matrix G, and permutation matrix P. Each of the matrices S, G, and P is also considered as a private key. In this paper, we show that signatures using this approach are not secure and can be forged.

This paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we introduce the required preliminaries for the code-based forgery attack. We propose our technique to forge a signature in Section 3. By utilizing the forgery technique we apply it to a code-based signature in Section 4. Section 5 concludes the paper.

II. PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we introduce the notations and definitions used in this paper. In this paper, vectors are shown in bold small letters and matrices in bold capital letters. We denote the binary field by F_2 . The generator matrix of a linear code C(n, k) and its corresponding parity-check matrix are denoted by $G \in F_2^{k \times n}$ and $H \in F_2^{(n-k) \times n}$ respectively, where *n* is the length and *k* is the dimension of the code. If the received vector *r* differs from the transmitted codeword *c*, then $r \oplus c = e$ and $H \times e^T = s$, where *s* is called a syndrome of the error vector *c*.

Definition 1 (Computational Syndrome Decoding (CSD) Problem) [15]: Given a matrix $\boldsymbol{H} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{(n-k) \times n}$ a vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k}$ and an integer w > 0 find $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ of Hamming weight $\leq w$ such that $\mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{x}^T = \mathbf{u}$.

Definition 2 (Decisional Syndrome Decoding (DSD) Problem) [15]: Given a matrix $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{(n-k) \times n}$, an integer w > 0, a random word $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ of weight w and a random syndrome s_2 of size n - k. The DSD problem is defined as distinguishing between random syndrome s_2 and the syndrome $s_1 = \mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{x}^T$ associated with a small weight vector \mathbf{x} .

III. THE PROPOSED FORGERY ATTACK

In this section, we propose an attack against a class of signature schemes inspired by the McEliece encryption scheme [3]. The private keys are composed of an $(n - k) \times (n - k)$ non-singular matrix S, an $(n - k) \times n$ parity-check matrix H, and an $n \times n$ permutation matrix P. The product of these three matrices forms the public key matrix H' = SHP.

The attack method is based on the fact that H and H' are equivalent. The existing linear relations between the columns of the parity-check matrix H appear in the H' matrix. By linear relation, we mean the linear independence or linear dependence of the columns of the underlying matrix. Based on this idea, one can generate matrices that appear to be different from the private keys, yet their product is equal to the public key.

We note that if more than one set of private keys corresponds to a public key, the signature scheme is prone to a forgery attack. Therefore, an attacker can exploit this weakness to generate a valid signature. In what follows we analyze a signature scheme that has the same flaw.

A. Constructing fake private keys

As we stated earlier, the main idea of the attack is based on the fact that the linear relations between the columns of an arbitrary matrix H appear in the product SH, where Sis a non-singular matrix. This means that any two or more columns of H that are linearly independent (or dependent) impose that the corresponding columns of SH have the same relation. We prove this statement by the following theorem.

Theorem 1: Assume that S is a non-singular matrix and H is an arbitrary matrix. Then the linear relations between the columns of the matrix H also appear in the corresponding columns of the matrix SH.

Proof. We assume that h_i and h_j are two linearly independent columns of H. Then,

$$\alpha \boldsymbol{h_i} + \beta \boldsymbol{h_j} = 0 \implies \alpha, \beta = 0. \tag{1}$$

and we define, $\langle \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b} \rangle \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$

The columns corresponding to h_i and h_j in SH are:

$$m{SH} = egin{pmatrix} \cdots & \langle m{S_1}, m{h_i}
angle & \cdots & \langle m{S_1}, m{h_j}
angle \cdots \ dots & \ddots & dots \ \cdots & \langle m{S_n}, m{h_i}
angle & \cdots & \langle m{S_n}, m{h_j}
angle \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

where S_i is the *i*-th row of the matrix S.

Now we assume that the two columns i and j are not linear independent in SH. For this purpose, we consider a linear combination of these two columns. The sum of the i-th and j-th column can be written in the following form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_{11} & \cdots & s_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{n1} & \cdots & s_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_{1i} + h_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ h_{ni} + h_{nj} \end{pmatrix}$$

where h_{ki} and h_{kj} are the k-th entries corresponding to vectors h_i and h_j . Given that the vectors h_i and h_j in H are linearly independent, their linear combination cannot be zero unless the sum of the columns in S corresponding to the non-zero elements of $h_i + h_j$ is zero. This means that those columns of S are linearly dependent which contradics the non-singularity of S. Therefore, the corresponding columns of SH associated with h_i and h_j must also be linearly independent.

Next we assume that h_i and h_j are linearly dependent columns of H. That is, without loss of generality, we assume that h_j is a multiple of h_i which means $h_j = \alpha \cdot h_i$, $\alpha \in F_2$. Now, we demonstrate that if two columns of H are linearly dependent, the corresponding columns in SH is also linearly dependent. By substituting h_j with αh_i , we have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cdots \langle S_1, h_i \rangle & \cdots & \langle S_1, \alpha h_i \rangle \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \cdots \langle S_n, h_i \rangle & \cdots & \langle S_n, \alpha h_i \rangle \cdots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cdots \langle S_1, h_i \rangle & \cdots & \alpha \langle S_1, h_i \rangle \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \cdots \langle S_n, h_i \rangle & \cdots & \alpha \langle S_n, h_i \rangle \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore, we conclude that each entry in the *j*-th column of SH is α times the corresponding entry of its *i*-th column.

As a result, if two columns of H are linearly independent (dependent), the corresponding columns in SH are also linearly independent (dependent).

Using Theorem 1, the forger can find fake matrices H_f and S_f such that $H' = S_f H_f$. We describe the method of finding these two matrices below.

First, the forger selects a uniformly random $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ submatrix H_f^1 and considers the public key as

$$H' = [H'_1 | H'_2],$$

where H'_1 is the $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ submatrix which is the (n-k) linearly independent columns of H', and H'_2 is the $(n-k) \times k$ submatrix, which is obtained by the remaining k

columns of H'. The forger can obtain a fake matrix S_f by solving the system of equations $S_f \times H_f^1 = H_1'$, consisting of $(n-k)^2$ equations and $(n-k)^2$ variables. Then the remaining k columns of H_f are obtained by solving the system of equations

$$oldsymbol{S_f} imes oldsymbol{H_2}^f = oldsymbol{H_2}'$$

including $(n-k) \times k$ equations and $(n-k) \times k$ variables.

From the following relations, we conclude that S_f has a non-zero determinant.

$$SH_f^1 = H_1'$$
$$\det(H_f^1) \neq 0$$
$$\det(H_1') \neq 0$$

Finally, we can use S_f to obtain the remaining k columns of H_f .

Theorem 2: The linear relations between the columns of SH = H' appear between the columns of H_f .

Proof. Suppose that the columns i and j of H' are linearly dependent. In this case, the *i*-th and *j*-th column of the matrix H_f are

$$egin{aligned} h_i^f &= S_f^{-1} imes h_i' \ h_j^f &= S_f^{-1} imes h_j' \end{aligned}$$

where h_i^f and h'_i denote the *i*-th columns of the matrices H_f and H', respectively. The same statement is true for the *j*-th columns of H_f and H'.

It follows from the above that the linear dependency (independency) of each two columns of H_f is inherited from that of the corresponding columns of H'.

An easier way to obtain H_f is to consider it as the reduced row echelon form of H', because of the fact that the linear relations between the columns of H' appear in the reduced row echelon form of H'.

IV. FORGERY ATTACK ON A CODE-BASED SIGNATURE

In this section, we first introduce a code-based signature scheme by Haidary et.al [14]. Then we use our technique mentioned earlier to forge the signature scheme.

A. The signature scheme

The signature scheme consists of three algorithms: key generation algorithm, signature generation, and verification.

Key Generation Algorithm. This algorithm consists of the following matrices:

- A $k \times n$ generator matrix G.
- An $(n-k) \times n$ parity check matrix **H**.
- An $n \times (n-k)$ dual matrix **A**.
- A $k \times k$ scrambler matrix S.
- An $n \times n$ permutation matrix **P**.

• An $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ non-singular matrix L.

- The key generation is performed as follows:
- Compute $P' = (HH^T)^{-1}$.
- Compute $A = H^T P'$.

• Like the McEliece cryptosystem we have,

$$pk_1 = G' = SGP$$

- Compute $pk_2 = L^{-1}HP$.
- For verification, we need $pk_3 = P^{-1}AHP$.
- Compute the parity-check matrix $H': Q = H'^T = ((AL)^T (P^{-1})^T)^T$

The resulting public and private keys are:

$$\mathbf{pk} = (\mathbf{pk}_1, \mathbf{pk}_2, \mathbf{pk}_3)$$
 and $\mathbf{pr} = (\mathbf{S^{-1}}, \mathbf{P^{-1}}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{Q})$

Furthermore, the following relations hold:

$$pk_1 \cdot pk_3 = 0, \tag{2}$$

$$pk_2 \cdot pk_3 = pk_2, \tag{3}$$

$$pk_3.pk_3 = pk_3 \tag{4}$$

Signature generation algorithm.

- Hash a document doc, and get the result as n bits h(doc), and apply the hash function again on it $h(h(doc)) \leftarrow hash(h(doc))$.
- s is the n-k bit vector $s \leftarrow h(doc) \cdot Q$.
- Obtain:

$$(sig)SGP \leftarrow h(doc) + s \cdot pk_2$$

• 4) Apply the decoding function on *c* to obtain *sig* and get the result named *sig*,

$$(sig)SG \leftarrow ((sig)SGP)(P^{-1})$$

 $(sig)S \leftarrow decode((sig)SG)$
 $sig \leftarrow ((sig)S)(S^{-1})$

• Compute the vector *d*:

$$\boldsymbol{d} \leftarrow h(h(\boldsymbol{doc}))(\boldsymbol{Q}) + \boldsymbol{s}$$

• The resulting signature is (*sig*, *d*).

Verification algorithm.

• Hash the received document to compute h(doc) and h(h(doc)) and compute

$$a \leftarrow (sig)SGP$$
 (5)

Compute

$$oldsymbol{v_1} = oldsymbol{s}(oldsymbol{pk_2})$$

 $oldsymbol{d} = h(h(oldsymbol{doc}))(oldsymbol{Q}) + oldsymbol{s}$

$$d(pk_2) = (h(h(doc))(Q) + s)(pk_2)$$

$$\boldsymbol{d}(\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{k_2}) = h(h(\boldsymbol{doc}))(\boldsymbol{Q})(\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{k_2}) + \boldsymbol{s}(\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{k_2})$$

Therefore:

$$v_1 = s(pk_2) = h(h(doc))(pk_3) + d(pk_2)$$

• Compute

$$m{v_2} = m{s}(m{pk_2})$$

 $(sig)SGP = h(m{doc}) + m{s}(m{pk_2})$

Using the public key and the relations (3) we have

$$m{s}(m{pk_2}) = (m{sig})(m{pk_1}) + h(m{doc})$$

 $m{s}(m{pk_2})(m{pk_3}) = (m{sig})(m{pk_1})(m{pk_3}) + h(m{doc})(m{pk_3})$

therefore,

$$oldsymbol{v_2} = oldsymbol{s}(oldsymbol{pk_2}) = h(oldsymbol{doc})(oldsymbol{pk_3})$$

• Check if the following relation holds:

$$v_1 = v_2$$

• Compute:

$$\boldsymbol{c} \leftarrow h(\boldsymbol{doc}) + \boldsymbol{s}(\boldsymbol{pk_2})$$
 (6)

• Using the relations (5) and (6), check if the verification is successful,

$$a = c$$

B. Forgery attack

The proposed forgery attack consists of two steps. First we obtain the secret key Q and in the second step we compute the fake private keys whose product equals the public key. In this way we can generate a signature which can be validated by the verifier. Let us assume that Q, pk_1 and pk_2 are shown as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} q_{11} & \cdots & q_{1(n-k)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_{n1} & \cdots & q_{n(n-k)} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\boldsymbol{pk_1} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11}^1 & \cdots & p_{1n}^1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{k1}^1 & \cdots & p_{kn}^1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\boldsymbol{pk_2} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11}^2 & \cdots & p_{1n}^2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{(n-k)1}^2 & \cdots & p_{(n-k)n}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

As it is shown in [14], the following equations hold between the public keys and the private key Q:

$$pk_1Q = 0 \tag{7}$$

$$pk_2Q = I \tag{8}$$

$$pk_3Q = Q \tag{9}$$

$$Qpk_2 = pk_3 \tag{10}$$

Therefore, Q can be obtained by solving (n - k) systems of linear equations from (7) and (8). From (7) we have:

$$\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{k_1}\boldsymbol{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11}^1 & \cdots & p_{1n}^1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{k1}^1 & \cdots & p_{kn}^1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_{11} & \cdots & q_{1(n-k)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_{n1} & \cdots & q_{n(n-k)} \end{pmatrix} = \boldsymbol{0}$$

Therefore, for each column i of the matrix Q we have the following system of k linear equations in n variables,

$$\begin{cases} p_{11}^1 q_{1i} + p_{12}^1 q_{2i} + \dots + p_{1n}^1 q_{ni} = 0\\ \vdots\\ p_{k1}^1 q_{1i} + p_{k2}^1 q_{2i} + \dots + p_{kn}^1 q_{ni} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Here we need additional (n-k) linear equations in n variables to obtain the *i*-th column of the matrix Q. For this purpose, we use the relation (8) as follows:

 $pk_2Q = I$

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_{11}^2 & \cdots & p_{1n}^2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{(n-k)1}^2 & \cdots & p_{(n-k)n}^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_{11} & \cdots & q_{1(n-k)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_{n1} & \cdots & q_{n(n-k)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

For the *i*-th column of Q we have the following system of n - k linear equations in n variables:

$$\begin{cases} p_{11}^2 q_{1i} + p_{12}^2 q_{2i} + \dots + p_{1n}^2 q_{ni} = 0 \\ \vdots \\ p_{i1}^2 q_{1i} + p_{i2}^2 q_{2i} + \dots + p_{in}^2 q_{ni} = 1 \\ \vdots \\ p_{(n-k)1}^2 q_{1i} + p_{(n-k)2}^2 q_{2i} + \dots + p_{(n-k)n}^2 q_{ni} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Since $pk_1 = SGP$ and $pk_2 = L^{-1}HP$ are equivalent to GP and HP respectively, the rows of pk_1 are linearly independent from the rows of pk_2 (G and H are dual matrices).

Thus, by repeating these operations for each column of Q, we have to solve a system of n linear equations in n variables which have a unique solution for Q because the matrix Q satisfies both equations (7) and (8).

Using the fourth component of the private key, Q, the adversary can successfully recover the second component, d, of the signature. Next, we can easily proceed to forge the first component of the signature, sig, according to section 3.1. For this purpose, we have to compute the fake private keys,

$$pk_1 = S_f G_f P_1$$

It is clear that by permutating the columns of the generator matrix of a code, we get an equivalent code [16]. Without loss of generality, we can consider P_f as an identity matrix.

$$P_f = I$$

The fake private key G_f can easily be obtained by the reduced row echelon form of pk_1 :

$$G_f = rref(pk_1)$$

And finally by solving $k \times n$ systems of linear equations, $pk_1 = S_f G_f$, the unknown matrix S_f can be obtained.

At this point, we have fake private keys, S_f , G_f , P_f , and the recovered matrix Q. Therefore, any forger can forge the first component of the signature, sig, using the fake private keys and can obtain the second component of the signature, d, using the private key Q.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have analyzed a code-based signature scheme inspired by the McEliece cryptosystem in terms of forgery attacks. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first forgery attack on McEliece-like signature schemes that we are aware of. We have shown that these kinds of signature schemes are vulnerable to forgery attacks. In this way, an adversary can forge the private keys to generate a signature, which can be validated by the verifier. This attack can be applied to any signature scheme of the same structure. For this purpose, the forger must obtain fake private keys to generate a valid signature. In this manner, the signature is verified by the verifier, because the verification is not only a function of the signature but also a function of the signer's public key. At the same time, it cannot be checked if the signature is generated by the genuine keys or the fake ones. It is worth mentioning that the complexity of this attack is $O(n^4)$, where n is the code length.

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