

Algorithms for the Sparse Random 3XOR Problem Charles Bouillaguet, Claire Delaplace

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8 — Abstract

We present two new algorithms for a variant of the 3XOR problem with lists consisting of *n*-bit vectors 9 whose coefficients are drawn randomly according to a Bernoulli distribution of parameter p < 1/2. 10 We show that in this particular context the problem can be solved much more efficiently than in the 11 general setting. We first present a simple adaptation of the folklore quadratic algorithm that discards 12 heavy vectors in a preprocessing step. This leads to a linear algorithm with overwhelming success 13 probability for p < 1/11, and is sub-quadratic for all p < 1/2. We also describe a variant of this 14 15 method which succeeds deterministically, which is also linear for p < 1/47 and always sub-quadratic. We finally propose a randomized algorithm with a sub-quadratic time complexity when the lists 16 consists of vector of fixed Hamming weight, and discuss possible further improvements. 17

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²¹ Introduction

Given three lists A, B and C of n-bit vectors, the 3XOR problem consists in deciding the existence of (or even finding) a triplet $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in A \times B \times C$ such that $\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z}$ is equal to a given target, often assumed to be zero (here the \oplus symbol represent the exclusive-OR or XOR).

This problem can be seen as a variant of the celebrated 3SUM problem, where this time 26 the input list items are seen as integers and we must have x + y + z = 0. Many geometric 27 problems can be reduced to 3SUM in sub-quadratic time, and those problem are said to be 28 3SUM hard [6]. Although the 3XOR problem has enjoyed less interest in the complexity 29 theory field, there exists a few such reductions. For instance, it is a fact that any $\mathcal{O}(N^{2-\epsilon})$ 30 algorithm for the 3XOR problem with input lists of size N would imply faster-than-expected 31 algorithms for listing triangles in a graph [14, 7]. Another result due to [4] show that an 32 algorithm solving the 3XOR problem in time $\Omega(n^{2-o(1)})$ also reduces the time complexity 33 of the offline SETDISJOINTNESS and SETINTERSECTION problems. 34

The 3XOR problem also has some cryptographic applications, in which the input lists 35 consist of uniformly random vectors (the cryptographic community makes this assumption 36 "by default"). In particular, we can mention Nandi's attack [11] against the COPA mode 37 of authenticated encryption, or the more recent attack against the two-round single-key 38 Even-Mansour cipher by Leurent and Sibleyras [9]. May and Both have been considering a 39 variant of the 3XOR problem, the approximate 3-list birthday problem: given three lists of N40 uniformly random elements of $\{0,1\}^n$ the goal consist in finding triplets $(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})$ in the list 41 such that the hamming weight of $\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z}$ is small [2]. 42

The simplest possible algorithm to solve the 3XOR problem is the quadratic algorithm, which consists in taking all $\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \in A \times B$ and checking whether they belong to C. Using an optimal static dictionary [5] to hold C, this results in a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(|A| \cdot |B| + |C|)$.

⁴⁶ In the particular case where |A| = |B| = |C| = N this algorithm runs in time $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$. In ⁴⁷ the following, this simple algorithm will be referred to as QUADRATICALGORITHM.

⁴⁸ When the input lists are made of random vectors, the decisional variant of the problem ⁴⁹ may be trivial: if the input lists are too long (resp. too short), then the existence (resp. ⁵⁰ absence) of a "3XOR triplet" ($\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z} = 0$) in the input may be asserted with high ⁵¹ probability without even observing the input. In this setting, a computational variant of the ⁵² problem, namely actually finding *a single* 3XOR triplet given the input lists makes more ⁵³ sense.

We believe that with random vectors, the hardest case occurs when the size of the input 54 lists N is chosen such that they contain one (and only one) solution with high probability. In 55 any case, if the input lists where longer, they could always be truncated to this size. In the 56 case where the vectors are drawn uniformly at random in $\{0,1\}^n$, this means that $N \approx 2^{n/3}$. 57 In this particular case, the quadratic algorithm is mostly the only option to recover the 58 solution. Some improvements of this method exist [3, 4], however these improvements allows 59 only to gain a polynomial factor in n. It is not clear today whether it is possible to find an 60 algorithm for this problem with complexity below $N^{2-o(1)}$. 61

⁶² **Contributions.** In this paper, we focus on a variant of the 3XOR problem where the elements ⁶³ of the lists are random and *sparse*. More precisely, each input bit is drawn independently ⁶⁴ at random according to a Bernoulli distribution of parameter 0 — the "dense"⁶⁵ random case corresponds to <math>p = 1/2. The sparse variant of the problem is quite different ⁶⁶ from its dense counterpart.

We first give the probability that the input actually contains a 3XOR triplet for given N67 and p. To the best of our knowledge, this result was not readily available from the existing 68 litterature, not even in the simple case where p = 1/2. We then describe three algorithms to 69 solve the random sparse 3XOR problem. The simplest possible one (Section 3) works by 70 discarding useless input vectors (whose hamming weight is above a well-chosen threshold), 71 then searches a solution using the quadratic algorithm. This first algorithm returns the 72 solution with overwhelming probability. We also propose an incremental version of this 73 algorithm (Section 4) which deterministically returns a solution if there is one in the input. 74 These algorithms have a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N+N^e)$, for some parameter e < 2 when 75 p < 1/2. The evolution of this parameter e in function of p is shown in Figure 1 (left diagram). 76 In particular, both algorithms are shown to be *linear* when p is small enough — this stands 77 in strong contrast with the dense case. 78

In the rest of the paper we propose alternatives to the quadratic algorithms to deal with instances (A_i, B_j, C_k) where the elements of the lists have fixed Hamming weight, respectively i, j, k. In this context, useless heavy vectors have already been discarded and the sparsity of the input vectors has to be exploited differently. We use techniques inspired from decoding algorithms.

This is an interesting case as all instances of the sparse 3XOR problem can be converted 84 to several independent sub-instance of this type. In the first of these algorithms (Section 5) 85 we select randomly a subset J of the indices and "guess" that a 3XOR triplet has only 86 zeroes on columns in J. From here, we consider the sublists A', B' and C' of A_i, B_j , and 87 C_k , consisting only of vectors whose coefficients indexed by $j \in J$ are zeroes. We solve this 88 smaller instance with the quadratic algorithm. If no solution is found, we try again with a 89 different J. For a well chosen size of J, this algorithm is at least as fast as the quadratic 90 algorithm. In the particular case where i = j = k, we show that the complexity of the 91 algorithm is between $N^{7/4}$ (when p is close to zero) and N^2 (when p is close to 1/2), where 92



(a) The DIRECT algorithm of section 3 and the INCREMENTAL algorithm of section 4 run in time $\mathcal{O}(N + N^e)$ where e is shown here.



(b) The ITERATIVE algorithm of section 5 runs in time $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(N^e)$ where *e* is shown here.



 $_{93}$ N is the size of the input lists.

Finally, we discuss possible improvement of this method in section 6, which basically 94 consists in re-iterating the filtering steps a constant number of times instead of solving the 95 sub-instance directly with the quadratic algorithm. This borrows the main technique of the 96 "nearest neighbors" algorithm of May and Ozerov [10] (which is used in a decoding algorithm). 97 Given a parameter t, we split the indices in t slices. We select randomly a subset J_1 of the 98 indices belonging to the first slice and guess that the solution is zero over the columns in 99 Indices belonging to the first since and guess that the solution is zero over the columns in J_1 . We then build the sublists $A_i^{(1)}, B_j^{(1)}, C_k^{(1)}$ of the vectors whose coefficients indexed by $\ell \in J_1$ are zero. After that we select a random subsets J_2 of the indices belonging to the second slice and re-iterate until we obtain the lists $A_i^{(t)}, B_j^{(t)}, C_k^{(t)}$, which we process with the 100 101 102 quadratic algorithm. The trick is that, if one of our guess J_{ℓ} was wrong, we do not have to 103 restart the whole process, but only starting from J_{ℓ} . Although we did not fully investigate 104 the time complexity of this algorithm, we believe that this method should be more efficient 105 in practice than the previous one. 106

¹⁰⁷ **Motivation** The algorithms described in this paper have no concrete application that we ¹⁰⁸ know of, and we don't really care. However they can be used to obtain the —non-trivial and ¹⁰⁹ "interesting"— result shown in Appendix C.

¹¹⁰ **2** Preliminaries

111 2.1 Notations, Definition and Useful Properties

Let $\mathbf{x} = x_0 x_1 \dots x_{n-1}$ be an *n*-bit string (we use "bit string" and "vector" as synonyms). We denote by wt(\mathbf{x}) its Hamming weight. We denote by $\sim \mathbf{x}$ the negation of \mathbf{x} (XORing 1 to each bit) and by $\mathbf{x} \And \mathbf{y}$ the bit-wise AND of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . We denote by $\mathbf{x}_{\setminus j}$ the bit-string $x_0 \dots x_{j-1} x_{j+1} \dots x_{n-1}$; more generally, if J is a subset of $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$, we denote by $\mathbf{x}_{\setminus J}$ the sub-string of \mathbf{x} , where all x_j for $j \in J$ have been discarded. Let A be a list ; we denote by |A| the number of elements in A. Let A[i] be the *i*-th element of A. We denote by A_i the sublist of A such that $A_i = \{\mathbf{x} \in A | \operatorname{wt}(\mathbf{x}) = i\}$.

▶ Definition 1 (3XOR triplet). Let \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} be three *n*-bit strings. We say that $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ is a 3XOR triplet if $\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z} = 0$.



Figure 2 Shape of a sparse random 3XOR triplet $t = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$, up to column permutation.

For any triplet $t = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ of *n*-bit strings and any index $0 \le j < n$, we denote by \mathbf{t}_j the 3bit string $x_j y_j z_j$ and we say that it is the *type* of column *j* in *t*. In a 3XOR triplet, the possible column types are {000, 011, 101, 110}. Therefore, up to columns permutations, the shape of a 3XOR triplet can be described by Figure 2. Given again a triplet $t = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ of *n*-bit strings, we consider the following functions $\alpha_t = wt(\mathbf{x} \And \mathbf{z}), \beta_t = wt(\mathbf{x} \And \mathbf{y}), \gamma_t = wt(\mathbf{y} \And \mathbf{z})$ and $\delta_t = wt(\mathbf{x} \And \mathbf{v} \And \mathbf{z})$. In any case, if $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ is a 3XOR triplet we have $\alpha_t + \beta_t + \gamma_t + \delta_t = n$.

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▶ Definition 2 (3XOR problem with distribution). Let \mathcal{D} be a probability distribution over $\{0,1\}^n$. Let A, B and C be three lists of elements drawn independently at random according to \mathcal{D} . A solution to the instance of the 3XOR problem given by (A, B, C) is a 3XOR triplet $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \in A \times B \times C$. A random 3XOR triplet is a triplet $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ chosen according to \mathcal{D} conditioned to $\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z} = 0$.

Because of randomness of the input, the question of the existence of a 3XOR triplet in (A, B, C) may be easy to decide with low probability of error without even observing A, Band C, depending on n, \mathcal{D} and the size of the lists. Therefore, our main focus is on the search problem (actually producing a solution, not merely deciding its existence).

Bounds for Binomial Distributions. Let $\mathcal{B}(n,p)$ denote the binomial distribution with parameters n, p. We denote by log the logarithm in basis 2 and by H the binary entropy function, meaning that $H(x) = -x \log(x) - (1-x) \log(1-x)$, for all 0 < x < 1. The following standard bounds for the binomial coefficient can be derived from Stirling's formula:

$$\frac{2^{nH(x)}}{\sqrt{8nx(1-x)}} \le \binom{n}{xn} \le \frac{2^{nH(x)}}{\sqrt{2\pi nx(1-x)}}, \qquad (0 < x < 1/2)$$
(1)

We make heavy use of tail bounds for binomial distributions, notably the Chernoff bound (2) and the tighter classical inequality (3), a proof of which can be found in [1] amongst others.

¹⁴⁵
$$\Pr(X \le k) \le \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2p}\frac{(np-k)^2}{n}\right), \quad \text{if } \frac{k}{n}$$

$$\Pr(X \le an) \le \exp -nD(a, p) \quad \text{if } a < p, \tag{3}$$

$$\Pr(X \ge an) \le \exp -nD(a, p) \quad \text{if } a > p,$$

where $D(a, p) = a \ln \frac{a}{p} + (1 - a) \ln \frac{1 - a}{1 - p}$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between an *a*-coin and a *p*-coin.

¹⁵¹ **Computational Model.** We consider a transdichotomous word Random Access Machine ¹⁵² (word-RAM) model. In this model, we have access to a machine in which each "memory ¹⁵³ cell" contains a *n*-bit word. We assume that the usual arithmetic and bit-wise operations on ¹⁵⁴ *n*-bit words, as well as the comparison of two *n*-bit integers and memory access with *n*-bit ¹⁵⁵ addresses can be done in constant time. In other terms, we assume that the machine is large ¹⁵⁶ enough to accommodate the instance of the problem at hand.

¹⁵⁷ 2.2 Properties of Random Sparse 3XOR Triplets

Let $0 be fixed. We denote by <math>Ber_p$ the Bernoulli distribution of parameter p (if $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} Ber_p$, then $\Pr(x = 1) = p$). Let \mathcal{D} the distribution over $\{0, 1\}^n$, where each bit is drawn independently from Ber_p . This paper focus on the 3XOR problem with input distribution \mathcal{D} .

161 Existence of a 3XOR triplet. Let a, b and c be random bits drawn according to Ber_p ; the 162 probability that they XOR to zero is $(1-p)(1-2p+4p^2)$. It follows that if \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} are 163 random bit strings drawn according to \mathcal{D} , then $\Pr(\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y} \oplus \mathbf{z} = 0) = (1-p)^n(1-2p+4p^2)^n$. 164 Given three lists A, B and C of random bit strings drawn according to \mathcal{D} , each of size N, 165 the number of 3XOR triplets in (A, B, C) is a random variable, denoted by Y below, that 166 follows a binomial distribution. We have the following result.

Theorem 3. Let $q_0 = (1-p)(1-2p+4p^2)$, $q_1 = (1-p)(1-4p+8p^2-4p^3)$ and $q_2 = (1-p)(1-3p+4p^2)$. Then:

169 *i*) $EY = N^3 q_0^n$

170 *ii*) $\Pr(Y=0) \le 3N^{-1} (q_1/q_0^2)^n + 3N^{-2} (q_2/q_0^2)^n + N^{-3} (1/q_0)^n.$

171 *iii*)
$$\Pr(Y=0) \le \frac{3}{(EY)^{1/3}} + \frac{3}{(EY)^{2/3}} + \frac{1}{EY}$$

The proof of this theorem can be found in Appendix A.1. The inequality *ii*) is tighter than *iii*), but *iii*) is often more practical. A first difference between the sparse case and the dense case is that in (exponentially) smaller input lists are sufficient to ensure the existence of a 3XOR triplet with high probability.

For instance, with p = 1/16 and n = 512, there is one expected 3XOR triplet in the input with $N = 2^{44.41}$ (compare this to $N = 2^{170.7}$ with p = 1/2). Point *ii*) of theorem 3 states that if we want this solution to be there with probability 99%, we need $N \ge 2^{46.70}$ — the input lists must be 6.5 times larger.

Expected Density of a 3XOR Triplet. Let us now consider a sparse random 3XOR triplet $t = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$; for a given column j, we find that

¹⁸²
$$u := \Pr(\mathbf{t}_j = 110) = \Pr(\mathbf{t}_j = 101) = \Pr(\mathbf{t}_j = 011) = p^2/(1 - 2p + 4p^2),$$

¹⁸³
$$v := \Pr(\mathbf{t}_j = 000) = (1 - p)^2/(1 - 2p + 4p^2).$$

Note that 3u + v = 1. This means that $(\alpha_t, \beta_t, \gamma_t, \delta_t)$ is a vector of random variables that follows a multinomial distribution of parameters n and (u, u, u, v). Therefore, α_t, β_t and γ_t individually follow the binomial distribution $\mathcal{B}(n, u)$ and it follows that the expected "density" of \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{z} is 2u. This is always smaller than p when 0 . In other terms: random $triplets drawn from <math>\mathcal{D}$ have density p, but random 3XOR triplets drawn from \mathcal{D} have smaller density. The algorithms described in this paper take advantage of this fact.

191 2.3 Methodology

We decided to focus on the case where $N = poly(n) \cdot q_0^{-n/3}$. In that case we can expect to have a constant number of 3XOR triplets in $A \times B \times C$ with high probability thanks to theorem 3. This decision can be justified in two ways.

- First, if the input lists are too long, then we may simply look only at the first $poly(n) \cdot q_0^{-n/3}$ entries. Theorem 3 then tells us that we can still expect to find a solution with high probability.
- Second, if the input lists contain "too many" elements, there will be trivial and uninteresting solutions. Indeed, if $N \ge [1/(1-p)]^n$, we can expect the string 000...0 to be present in all three lists. It follows that "return (0,0,0)" would be a constant-time
- algorithm for the sparse random 3XOR problem with a high success probability.

The algorithms we present below would also work for $N < q_0^{-n/3}$, but since the lists consists of random elements, it is unlikely that a solution exists in this case. We can however imagine the following scenario, when a solution following the distribution \mathcal{D} is created and injected inside of smaller lists. In this case, our algorithms will find it with the claimed probability.

Consistently with this assumption on the size of the input, we assume that there is a 3XOR triplet $t^* = (\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*, \mathbf{z}^*)$ in the input, and we study the performance of our algorithms in returning this triplet t^* .

²¹⁰ **3** A Very Simple, "Direct", Algorithm

In this section, we present the simplest possible algorithm that solves the sparse 3XOR problem with interesting theoretical guarantees when p is small. Its most striking feature is that it succeeds with overwhelming probability in linear time when p is small enough.

It follows from our preliminary observations that random sparse 3XOR triplets are very sparse. This can be exploited in the following simple way: choose a *threshold weight* w; remove from the input all vectors of hamming weight greater than or equal to w and run the quadratic algorithm on the filtered lists.

²¹⁸ Choosing a small value of w leads to smaller "filtered" instances and thus to a smaller ²¹⁹ running time for the actual computation using the quadratic algorithm. However, if w is too ²²⁰ small, then a potential solution present in the input might be discarded by the filtering step. ²²¹ To avoid this, we choose the value of w in the range]2nu, np[— above the expected density ²²² of random 3XOR triplets so that we do not discard them, and below the density of the input ²²³ lists in order to actually discard input vectors that are too heavy.

Any value of w in this "admissible range" ensures an exponentially small failure probability. 224 Indeed, the solution present in the original input is discarded by the filtering step if and 225 only if the weight of either $\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*$ or \mathbf{z}^* is greater than or equal to w. Define ϵ with 226 $2un(1+\epsilon) = w$; it follows that ϵ is strictly positive. We know that the expected weight 227 of $\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*$ and \mathbf{z}^* is 2*un*, therefore the Chernoff bound (2) shows that either has weight 228 greater than w with probability less than $\exp(-nu\epsilon^2)$. A union bound then ensures that the 229 solution is discarded with probability less than $3\exp(-nu\epsilon^2)$, so the algorithm succeeds with 230 overwhelming probability as long as the original input contains at least one solution. 231

We now discuss the complexity of the algorithm. Filtering the input lists takes time $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Let $X \sim \mathcal{B}(n, p)$ be a (binomial) random variable modeling the weight of an input vector of density p. Such a vector is kept by the filtering step if its weight is less than w, and this happens with probability $s := \Pr(X < w)$. Let A', B', C' denote the filtered lists; their

sizes are stochastically independent random variables following binomial distributions of parameters N, s and their expected size is Ns. The expected running time of the quadratic algorithm on the filtered instance is therefore $E(|A'||B'| + |C'|) = N^2 s^2 + Ns$.

How to choose w? We could target the middle of the admissible range]2nu; np[, however a much better choice is $w = np^3 + (1 - p^2)2nu = 2nu(1 + \epsilon)$ with $\epsilon = \frac{p(1-2p)^2}{2}$. The idea is that the filtering threshold weight drifts closer to 2nu when p gets closer to zero. This leads to the DIRECT algorithm shown below.

Algorithm 1 A "direct" algorithm for the sparse 3XOR problem.1: function FILTER(L, w)2: return { $\mathbf{x} \in L \mid wt(\mathbf{x}) < w$ }3: function DIRECT(A, B, C)4: Set $w \leftarrow n (p^3 + (1 - p^2)2u)$.5: Set $A' \leftarrow FILTER(A, w), B' \leftarrow FILTER(B, w)$ and $C' \leftarrow FILTER(C, w)$.6: return QUADRATICALGORITHM(A', B', C').

Using the binomial tail bound (3), we see that the DIRECT algorithm has an expected running-time of:

E
$$T = N + N^2 \exp(-\lambda n) + o(N)$$
 with $\lambda = 2D\left(\frac{(2 - 3p + 2p^2)(2p + 1)p^2}{1 - 2p + 4p^2}, p\right)$

Let $e = \log_N(\mathbb{E}T - N)$, so that the algorithm runs in time $\mathcal{O}(N + N^e)$. A quick calculation shows that:

$$_{^{248}} \qquad e = 2 + 6 \frac{D\left(\frac{(2 - 3p + 2p^2)(2p + 1)p^2}{1 - 2p + 4p^2}, p\right)}{\ln(1 - p)(1 - 2p + 4p^2)}$$

The graph of e is shown in Fig. 1a. When p goes to zero, the exponent e reaches a limit of zero. When p goes to $\frac{1}{2}$, then e = 2. In between, e is increasing. Using the bisection algorithm, we find that $e \leq 1$ when $p \leq 0.0925$. It follows that the DIRECT algorithm is linear when $p \leq \frac{1}{11}$. Looking at Fig. 1a, we conjecture that $e \leq 2p(1 - 2\ln p)$. Establishing this is left for future work.

It is worth noting that the unwieldy expression of e would be greatly simplified from using the simpler Chernoff bound (2) instead of (3). However, the resulting upper-bound on the complexity of the algorithm is much looser for small p: it results in $\lim e = 1$ when pgoes to zero.

4 An Incremental Version

The DIRECT algorithm uses an *a priori* threshold on the density of solution to reduce the size of the instance. This can be improved by starting with a low threshold weight and progressively increasing it while no solution is found. The resulting INCREMENTAL algorithm deterministically reveals the 3XOR triplet present in the input, and it also does so in linear time for small values of *p*.

The main idea is the following: when $w \ge np$, then the filtering step does not reduce significantly the size of the lists. Thus, all iterations after the *np*-th cost essentially $\Omega(N^2)$. However, the *w*-th iteration (with filtering weight *w*) is done if and only if any of $\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*$ Algorithm 2 An improved, "incremental" algorithm for the sparse 3XOR problem.1: function INCREMENTAL(A, B, C)2: for w = 0, 1, 2, ..., n do3: Set $A' \leftarrow FILTER(A, w), B' \leftarrow FILTER(B, w)$ and $C' \leftarrow FILTER(C, w)$.4: $S \leftarrow QUADRATICALGORITHM(A', B', C')$.5: if $S \neq \bot$ then6: return S

and \mathbf{z}^* has Hamming weight greater than or equal to w. Their expected weight is 2un, and therefore the probability that the most expensive iterations take place is exponentially small.

▶ **Theorem 4.** The INCREMENTAL algorithm returns a solution if it exists in time $O(N + N^e)$, where

$$e = 2 + 3 \frac{2D\left(\frac{1}{1+\sqrt[3]{\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)^2\left(1-\frac{1}{2u}\right)}}, p\right) + D\left(\frac{1}{1+\sqrt[3]{\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)^2\left(1-\frac{1}{2u}\right)}}, \frac{2p^2}{1-2p+4p^2}\right)}{\ln(1-p)(1-2p+4p^2)}$$

The proof of this Theorem is given in Appendix A.2. The graph of e is also shown in Fig. 1a. We find again that e is increasing, $\lim_{p\to 0} e = 0$, $\lim_{p\to \frac{1}{2}} e = 2$ and $e \le 1$ when $p \le 0.02155$. Thus, this unfailing algorithm is linear when $p \le \frac{1}{47}$. We conjecture that $e \le 3\sqrt[3]{2p} - \frac{4}{5}2p - \frac{1}{5}(2p)^2$ but we leave for future work to prove it. It is worthwhile noting that the complexity of this algorithm is significantly higher than that of the DIRECT algorithm of section 3. The difference comes from the difference in success probability: this one is unfailing.

In practice, in order to avoid repeating the same work several time, we propose to dispatch the entries of the lists according to their Hamming weight (e.g. the list A_i is the sub-list of A containing only elements of Hamming weight equal to i), and treat independently all instances (A_i, B_j, C_k) such that the values i, j, k make it possible to find a solution. More details about how we should proceed is given in Appendix B.

²⁸⁴ **5** A Better Algorithm for the Base Case

The previous algorithms (DIRECT and INCREMENTAL) all exploit the sparsity of the 3XOR triplets by filtering the input lists in order to reduce their size, and they use the quadratic algorithm as the "last resort" solution. In this section, we give a better algorithm for the base case where the lists have already been reduced to low-density vectors. The same filtering ideas are therefore not directly applicable, and we instead use a different technique, inspired by the Information Set Decoding algorithm of Lee-Brickell [8].

We consider the setting where we are given three lists A_i, B_j and C_k composed of vectors of hamming weight exactly i, j and k respectively, of possibly different sizes. Up to renaming, we assume without loss of generality that $|A_i| \leq |B_j| \leq |C_k|$. Our goal is find a 3XOR triplet with high probability if there is one in the input lists, or return \perp if there is none.

The restriction to input vectors of fixed hamming weight is not really stringent ; indeed, if the input lists were made of vectors of arbitrary hamming weight, then the following strategy could be implemented: partition each input list in n parts according to the Hamming weight ; solve the original problem by searching the $\binom{n+3}{3}$ sub-instances $A_{\mu+\nu} \times B_{\nu+\lambda} \times C_{\mu+\lambda}$ subject to $\mu + \nu + \lambda \leq n$. The point is that any potential 3XOR triplet t^* present in the input is contained in the sub-instance where μ, ν and λ denote the number of columns of type 110, 101 and 011 of t^* , respectively.

The main algorithmic idea is the following: if there is a 3XOR triplet t^* in the input lists, then it necessarily has $\delta = n - (i + j + k)/2$ columns of "type 000". We randomly guess a subset J of these columns and keep only the vectors from the input lists that are zero on all columns of J. This produces a smaller sub-instance and we solve it using the quadratic algorithm. If no solution is found, we try again.

As opposed to the two previous algorithms, here the generated sub-instances are not sparser but instead denser than the original input. Correctly choosing the number s of columns that are clamped to zero is critical for performance. This leads to the following ITERATIVE algorithm.

Algorithm 3 A sub-quadratic algorithm for the base case.

1: function CLAMP(L, J) // Return the sublist made of vectors which are 0 on the columns in J. 2:3: return { $\mathbf{x}_{\setminus J} \mid (\mathbf{x} \in L) \land (\forall j \in J, x_j = 0)$ } 4: function ITERATIVE (A_i, B_i, C_k) Let $\delta \leftarrow n - (i + j + k)/2$. 5:Set s to the integer $0 \le s \le \delta$ that minimizes $\frac{\binom{n-i}{s}\binom{n-j}{s}}{\binom{n}{s}}|A_i| \cdot |B_j| + \frac{\binom{n}{s}}{\binom{n}{s}}|C_k|$. 6:Let $I \leftarrow H(s/n) - (\delta/n)H(s/\delta)$ 7:for $t = 0, 1, \dots, n2^{nI}$ do 8: $J \leftarrow$ uniformly random subset of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ of size s. 9: $A' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(A_i, J), B' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(B_i, J), C' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(C_i, J).$ 10: $S \leftarrow \text{QuadraticAlgorithm}(A', B', C').$ 11: 12:if $S \neq \bot$ then return S return \perp 13:

To discuss the properties of the algorithm, we assume as usual that there is a 3XOR triplet $t^* = (\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*, \mathbf{z}^*)$ in the input. The following lemma establishes the success probability and justifies the choice of s.

▶ Lemma 5. The ITERATIVE algorithm fails to returns t^* with probability e^{-n} and its expected running time is less than $\frac{\binom{n-i}{s}\binom{n-j}{s}}{\binom{n}{s}\binom{\ell}{s}}|A_i| \cdot |B_j| + \frac{\binom{n}{s}}{\binom{\ell}{s}}|C_k|.$

Proof. When the "golden triplet" t^* belongs to $A' \times B' \times C'$, then the loop stops and the algorithm succeeds. Let r denote the probability (over the random choice of J) that a given triplet in the input is discarded by the "clamping" step; we have $r = {\delta \choose s} / {n \choose s}$. The expected number of iterations therefore follows a geometric distribution of parameter r, and its expectation is therefore 1/r. Thanks to the bounds on binomial coefficients (1), we obtain:

E [# iterations] =
$$\frac{1}{r} \le \frac{2^{nH(s/n)}}{\sqrt{2\pi s(1-s/n)}} / \frac{2^{\delta H(s/\delta)}}{\sqrt{8s(1-s/\delta)}} \le cst \times 2^{nI}$$

The probability that n/r iterations occur without success is $(1-r)^{n/r}$ and by concavity of $\ln 1 - x$ we find that this is less than e^{-n} . Therefore, the algorithm fails only with exponentially small probability after having done n times the expected number of iterations. The total time spent in CLAMP is dominated by $|C_k|/r$. After clamping, the expected size of the sub-instances is $|A'| = |A_i| {n-i \choose s} / {n \choose s}$. The same goes for B_j and C_k . Therefore, the expected cost of solving a single sub-instance using the quadratic algorithm is:

$$\frac{\binom{(n-i)}{s}\binom{(n-j)}{s}}{\binom{n}{s}\binom{n}{s}}|A_i||B_j| + \frac{\binom{(n-k)}{s}}{\binom{n}{s}}|C_k|.$$

The lemma follows, because the component in $|C_k|$ of the cost of solving subproblems is dominated by the cost of filtering.

It is not straightforward to state anything meaningful about the complexity of the 332 algorithm in general. However, when the input contains a 3XOR triplet, then the ITERATIVE 333 algorithm always returns it faster than the quadratic algorithm. Indeed, assume that the 334 input contains a 3XOR triplet ; had we chosen s = 0 then no clamping would take place 335 and the original input lists would have been fed to the quadratic algorithm. The whole 336 procedure would then stop and succeed during the first iteration, with a running time equal 337 to that of the quadratic algorithm (up to negligible terms). The choice of s guarantees a 338 better expected running time. This value can be found by exhaustive search over n elements. 339 It follows that the algorithm is at most quadratic. 340

Equidistributed Inputs. To progress in the analysis, we therefore restrict ourselves to a 341 simpler setting: following again our methodology discussed in section 2.3, we start from 342 three input lists A, B and C of size $poly(n)q_0^{-n/3}$ — therefore containing one 3XOR triplet 343 with high probability. We choose a constant w and we build the sublists A_{wn}, B_{wn} and C_{wn} 344 by keeping only the vectors of weight wn from A, B and C. In this setting, the expected 345 size of the input lists is $N_w = \mathbf{E} |A_{wn}| = \mathbf{E} |B_{wn}| = \mathbf{E} |C_{wn}| = N \binom{n}{wn} p^{wn} (1-p)^{n(1-w)}$. The 346 running time of the ITERATIVE algorithm on input (A_{wn}, B_{wn}, C_{wn}) is then a function of n 347 and p only. 348

If the input contains a 3XOR triplet, then it has $\delta = n \left(1 - \frac{3}{2}w\right)$ columns of "type 000". The value of the *s* parameter can be provided manually and/or decided automatically. Define:

$$L = -\frac{1}{3}\log q_0 + H(w) + w\log p + (1-w)\log(1-p)$$

351 352

$$I = H\left(\frac{s}{n}\right) - \frac{o}{n}H\left(\frac{s}{\delta}\right)$$
$$R = H\left(\frac{s}{n}\right) - (1-w)H\left(\frac{s}{n(1-w)}\right)$$

353 354

> With these notations, the size of the input lists is $N_w = poly(n)2^{nL}$, the number of iterations of the loop is $n2^{nI}$ and the expected size of the clamped sub-lists is $2^{n(L-R)}$. It follows that the total time spent clamping the lists is $2^{n(I+L)}$ and the total time spend in the quadratic algorithm is $2^{n(I+2(L-R))}$. Therefore, in this setting, the ITERATIVE algorithm runs in time $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(N_w^e)$ where the exponent is $e = \frac{I}{L} + \max(1, 2 - 2\frac{R}{L})$.

> Given a choice of w (and a value of s), this allows the exponent to be computed as 360 function of p — as shown in Fig. 1b for w = p and w = 2u. The figure strongly suggests that 361 the exponent e reaches a limit of $\frac{7}{4}$ when p goes to zero. This would make the ITERATIVE 362 algorithm asymptotically better than the quadratic algorithm. It is indeed provably the 363 case, at least for some values of w. We consider two interesting cases : w = p and w = 2u. 364 With w = p, the "filtering" targets the average density of the input vectors, yielding only 365 a polynomial reduction in size. with w = 2u, the filtering targets the expected density of 366 3XOR triplets. 367

Theorem 6. For $w \in \{2u, p\}$, the exponent e reaches a limit of $\frac{7}{4}$ when p goes to zero.

The proof amounts to choosing $s/\delta = 1 - e^{-1/2}$ when w = p and $s/\delta = 1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}$ when w = 2u, then compute the limits. More details can be found in Appendix A.3.

Application to the Direct Algorithm. This algorithm for the base case can be used to improve the DIRECT algorithm of section 3. After discarding the vectors of weight greater than w from the input, the DIRECT algorithm feeds the filtered lists to the quadratic algorithm. The proposed modification consists in partitioning the filtered lists by hamming weight, and solving the $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ sub-instances using the ITERATIVE algorithm.

The complexity of this procedure is dominated by the running time of the ITERATIVE 376 algorithm on the heaviest balanced sub-instance (A_w, B_w, C_w) , with $w/n = p^3 + 2u(1-p^2)$. 377 Given a value of p, we can compute w; from there, we can compute the exponent e of the 378 iterative algorithm (by choosing the optimal value of s/δ numerically); we then know that 379 the sub-instance can be dealt with in time $(Ns)^e$, where s is the quantity defined in section 3 380 ; this in turn allows us to compute the exponent of the combination of the DIRECT algorithm 381 with the ITERATIVE algorithm, numerically, for a given value of p. The result is again shown 382 in Fig. 1a. 383

Proving an upper-bound on the exponent of the combination is left as an interesting open problem.

6 Possible Improvement and Discussion

We discuss a possible improvement of the previous algorithm. After the clamping step, the sub-instances may not be fully dense. Therefore it would make sense to use the ITERATIVE algorithm recursively instead of using the quadratic algorithm. More precisely, in order to make this idea work, we propose to rely on an technique due to May and Ozerov to improve Information Set Decoding [10].

```
Algorithm 4 Sparse Random 3XOR with Improved Clamping
 1: function PERMUTED(A_i, B_j, C_k)
 2:
          // Returns a 3XOR triplet in A_i \times B_j \times C_k w.h.p. or \perp if none exists
                                                                                        \triangleright \deg Poly(n) > (t-1)/2
 3:
         for \kappa = 1, \ldots, Poly(n) do
              \delta \leftarrow n - (i+j+k)/2
 4:
              q \leftarrow random permutation of \{0, \ldots, n-1\}
 5:
 6:
              A_i \leftarrow q(A_i), B_i \leftarrow q(B_i), C_k \leftarrow q(C_k)
                                                                            \triangleright Permute the columns of the lists
              Set s to the value that minimize the runtime
 7:
 8:
              S \leftarrow \text{Recursive}(A_i, B_j, C_k, s, 1)
              return S
 9:
         return \perp
10:
11: function RECURSIVE(A_i, B_i, C_k, s, \ell)
12:
         if \ell = t + 1 then
              return QUADRATICALGORITHM(A_i, B_j, C_k)
13:
          else
14:
              I \leftarrow H(s/n) - (\delta/n)H(s/\delta)
15:
              for 0 \le \mu < n2^{nh_{\ell}I} do
16:
                   J \leftarrow \text{random subset of } h_{\ell}s \text{ columns in } [(h_1 + \dots + h_{\ell-1})n : (h_1 + \dots + h_{\ell})n]
17:
                   A' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(A_i, J), B' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(B_j, J), C' \leftarrow \operatorname{CLAMP}(C_k, J)
18:
19:
                   S \leftarrow \text{Recursive}(A', B', C', \ell + 1)
                   if S \neq \bot then
20:
21:
                       return S
22:
         return \perp
```

Once again, we are in the setting where the lists contains entries of fixed Hamming weight, respectively i, j and k. Let us fix a constant t and positive reals h_1, \ldots, h_t such that $h_1 + \cdots + h_t = 1$. We know that if there is a 3XOR triplet t^* in the input, then there are at $\delta = n - (i + j + k)/2$ columns of "type 000" in t^* .

- Here is the main idea of the method. We choose a total number s of columns to clamp, as in the ITERATIVE algorithm. However, we do the clamping in t stages:
- 1. Choose a random subset J_1 of h_1s columns in the interval $[0:h_1n]$, and assume that the type of all columns in J_1 is 000. Compute the sub-lists $A_i^{(1)}, B_j^{(1)}, C_k^{(1)}$ by clamping the original input lists over J_1 .

⁴⁰¹ 2. Choose a random subet J_2 of h_2s columns in the interval $[h_1n:(h_1+h_2)n[$. Compute ⁴⁰² sublists $A_i^{(2)}, B_j^{(2)}, C_k^{(2)}$ by clamping the output of the previous stage over J_2

- **3.** Continue for t steps until we came up with small sublists $A_i^{(t)}, B_j^{(t)}, C_k^{(t)}$ and clamping has been done on s columns.
- 405 **4.** Solve the resulting instance $(A_i^{(t)}, B_i^{(t)}, C_k^{(t)})$ using the quadratic algorithm.

In the ITERATIVE algorithm, if the choice of J is wrong, then all the clamping that has been done must be discarded. Here, only a part of it will be done in vain, but the choices that have been made *before* the bad one can still stand. We assume that the columns of type 000 are uniformly distributed in [0, n - 1]. If not, we can randomize the instance by randomly permuting the columns.

Lemma 7. The PERMUTED Algorithm finds a solution present in the input with overwhelming probability.

The proof is given in Appendix A.4. Due to the number of parameters that have to be taken into account, the complexity of this algorithm is not easy to analyze, and we leave it as an open problem. We claim however, that, in order to reach the best time complexity, we need to fix the values of the parameters h_1, \ldots, h_t such that the time spent clamping the lists is mostly the same in each level.

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A Missing Proofs

460 A.1 Proof of Theorem: Existence of a Solution

Recall that Y is the random variable that counts the number of 3XOR triplets in $A \times B \times C$ (taken over the random choice of A, B and C). To establish the theorem, we want to estimate Pr [Y > 0]. The expected value of Y is bounded away from zero, so a concentration inequality would bring the result. We cannot use a Chernoff-type bound because the N^3 triplets in $A \times B \times C$ are identically distributed, but not independent of each other.

Let X(i, j, k) denote the binary random variable that takes the value 1 if and only if $A_{67} \quad A[i] \oplus B[j] \oplus C[k] = 0$, and let $Y = \sum X(i, j, k)$. Unless mentioned otherwise, in this section all sums are taken over $0 \le i, j, k < N$; we omit the indices to alleviate notations.

⁴⁶⁹ **Proof of theorem 3.** The expected value of Y is easy to determine. Because the elements ⁴⁷⁰ of the lists are identically distributed, $\Pr(A[i] \oplus B[j] \oplus C[k] = 0)$ is independent of i, j and k, ⁴⁷¹ and we get:

⁴⁷²
$$E(Y) = E\left(\sum X(i,j,k)\right) = \sum E(X(i,j,k)) = \sum \Pr(A[i] \oplus B[j] \oplus C[k] = 0) = E(Y) = N^3 q_0^n.$$

Because Y is the sum of binary random variables, we are entitled to use Ross's conditional expectation inequality [12]:

475
$$\Pr(Y > 0) \ge \frac{\mathbb{E}(X(i, j, k))}{\mathbb{E}(Y \mid X(i, j, k) = 1)}$$

As argued above, the value of the term under the sum is independent of i, j and k, so this boils down to: $\Pr(Y > 0) \ge E(Y)/E(Y \mid X(0, 0, 0) = 1)$. It remains to compute the number

of solutions knowing that there is at least one. 478

To study this joint distribution, we simply distinguish 8 cases by considering separately the 482 situation where i = 0, j = 0 and k = 0 (resp $\neq 0$ for each index). We introduce the shorthand 483 $p_{ijk} = \Pr(A[i] \oplus B[j] \oplus C[k] = 0 \land A[0] \oplus B[0] \oplus C[0] = 0)$ and assume that i, j, k > 0. 484 Then the two joined events are in fact independent and $p_{ijk} = q_0^{2n}$. But when at least one 485 indice is zero, this is no longer the case ; the extreme situation is $p_{000} = q_0^n$. By symmetry 486 between the three input lists, we find that $p_{ij0} = p_{i0k} = p_{0jk}$ and $p_{i00} = p_{0j0} = p_{00k}$. 487

Let us compute p_{0jk} . What happens here depends mostly on the hamming weight of 488 A[0]. Indeed B[j] and C[k] have to sum to one where A[0] is one, and to sum to zero where 489 A[0] is zero. Two bits drawn according to Ber_p sum to one with probability 2p(1-p), and 490 they sum to zero with probability $p^2 + (1-p)^2$. Therefore we get (using the definition of the 491 binomial distribution and the binomial theorem): 492

$$p_{0jk} = \sum_{w=0}^{n} \Pr\left(wt(A[0]) = w\right) \Pr\left(B[j] \oplus C[k] = A[0] \land B[0] \oplus C[0] = A[0] \mid wt(A[0]) = w\right)$$

$$= \sum_{w=0}^{n} \binom{n}{w} p^{w} (1-p)^{n-w} \left([2p(1-p)]^{w} \left[p^{2} + (1-p)^{2} \right]^{n-w} \right)^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{w=0}^{n} \binom{n}{w} \left[4p^{3}(1-p)^{2} \right]^{w} \left[(1-p) \left(1 - 2p + 2p^{2} \right)^{2} \right]^{n-w}$$

$$= \sum_{w=0}^{495} \left(w \right) \left[4p \left(1-p \right) \right] \left[\left(1-p \right) \left(1-2p+2p \right) \right]$$
$$= \left(4p^3 (1-p)^2 + (1-p) \left(1-2p+2p^2 \right)^2 \right)^n$$

498

 $= q_1^{n}$

Next, we determine p_{00k} . Here, C[k] has to be equal to $A[0] \oplus B[0]$. This then mostly 499 depends on the hamming weight of $A[0] \oplus B[0]$, and the situation is somewhat symmetrical: 500

$$p_{00k} = \sum_{w=0}^{n} \Pr\left(wt(A[0] \oplus B[0]) = w\right) \Pr\left(C[k] = A[0] \oplus B[0] \land C[0] = A[0] \oplus B[0] \mid wt(A[0] \oplus B[0]) = w\right)$$

$$= \sum_{w=0}^{n} \binom{n}{w} [2p(1-p)]^{w} [p^{2} + (1-p)^{2}]^{n-w} (p^{w}(1-p)^{n-w})^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{w=0}^{n} \binom{n}{w} [2p^{3}(1-p)]^{w} [(1-p)^{2}(1-2p+2p^{2})]^{n-w}$$

 $= \left(2p^{3}(1-p) + (1-p)^{2}(1-2p+2p^{2})\right)^{n}$ 504 $= q_2^{n}$ 506

We can now write: 507

$$E\left(Y \mid X(0,0,0) = 1\right) = q_0^{-n} \left[(N-1)^3 q_0^{2n} + 3(N-1)^2 q_1^{n} + 3(N-1)q_2^{n} + q_0^{n} \right]$$

$$= N^3 q_0^{n} + 3N^2 \left(q_1/q_0 \right)^n + 3N \left(q_2/q_0 \right)^n + 1 - \Delta$$
with:
$$A = (2N^2 - 2N + 1)r^n + 2(2N - 1)(r - r)^n + 2(r - r)^n$$

510
$$\Delta = (3N^2 - 3N + 1)q_0^n + 3(2N - 1)(q_1/q_0)^n + 3(q_2/q_0)^n$$

Where the "error term" Δ is always positive for $N \geq 1$. Going back to the beginning, we 512

finally have (using the convexity of 1/(1+x) in the last step): 513

514
$$\operatorname{Pr}(Y > 0) \ge \operatorname{E}(Y) / \operatorname{E}(Y \mid X(0, 0, 0) = 1)$$

515

$$\geq \frac{N^{3}q_{0}^{n}}{N^{3}q_{0}^{n} + 3N^{2} (q_{1}/q_{0})^{n} + 3N (q_{2}/q_{0})^{n} + 1 - \Delta}{1}$$

516

517 518

$$\geq \frac{1}{1+3N^{-1}(q_1/q_0^2)^n+3N^{-2}(q_2/q_0^2)^n+1/E(Y)}$$

$$\Pr(Y=0) \leq 3N^{-1}(q_1/q_0^2)^n+3N^{-2}(q_2/q_0^2)^n+1/E(Y)$$

This establishes the second point of the theorem. 519

It it worthwhile noting that the second moment inequality $\Pr(Y > 0) \ge (E(X))^2/(E(X^2))$ 520 gives exactly the same bound; computing the variance $\sigma^2 = (E(X^2)) - (E(X))^2$ and using 521 Chebyshev's inequality also yields the result of the theorem. 522

Next, using $E(Y) = N^3 q_0^n$, we may rewrite our last inequality in terms of the expectation: 523

$$\Pr\left(Y=0\right) \le 3\frac{\left(q_1{}^3/q_0{}^5\right)^{n/3}}{(\operatorname{E}(Y))^{-1/3}} + 3\frac{\left(q_2{}^3/q_0{}^4\right)^{n/3}}{(\operatorname{E}(Y))^{-2/3}} + \frac{1}{\operatorname{E}(Y)}.$$

We claim that q_1^3/q_0^5 and q_2^3/q_0^4 are both smaller than one over (0, 1/2). This follows from 526 the facts that: i) they are both equal to 1 when p = 0 and ii) they decreasing functions of p 527 over this interval. The latter claim an be established by actually computing their derivatives 528 and checking that they are negative (all factors are easily seen to take only positive values): 529

531

532

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(\frac{q_1^3}{q_0^5}\right) = -\frac{6p(4p^3 - 8p^2 + 4p - 1)^2(2p^2 - 6p + 3)(2p - 1)^2}{(4p^2 - 2p + 1)^6(1 - p)^3}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(\frac{q_2^3}{q_0^4}\right) = -\frac{6p(4p^2 - 3p + 1)^2(4p^2 - 6p + 3)(1 - 2p)}{(4p^2 - 2p + 1)^5(p - 1)^2}.$$

This establishes the third point of the theorem. 533

Proof of the Complexity of the Incremental Algorithm **A**.2 534

Proof of Theorem 4. Let T_i denote the running time of the *i*-th iteration and S the number 535 of iterations done when the algorithm stops. The total running time is then given by 536 $T = \sum_{i=0}^{n} [S \ge i] T_i$. The two random variables $[S \ge i]$ and T_i are not independent, however 537 we claim that $E([S \ge i]T_i) \le (E[S \ge i])(T_i) - i.e.$ they are negatively correlated. The 538 point is that is that the fact that input lists contain a "large weight" triplet t^* can only 539 reduce the expected size of filtered lists by at most one, and therefore reduce the expected 540 running time of processing them. It follows that $ET \leq \sum_{i=0}^{n} \Pr(S \geq i) (ET_i)$. 541

Next, let us consider two random variables following binomial distributions $X_{2u} \sim \mathcal{B}(n, 2u)$ 542 and $X_p \sim \mathcal{B}(n,p)$. From the previous section, we know that $ET_i = N^2 s^2 + Ns$, where 543 $s = Pr(X_p \leq i)$. In addition, following the same reasoning as in section 3, we have 544 $\Pr(S \ge i) \le 3 \Pr(X_{2u} \ge i)$. This gives: 545

546
$$\operatorname{E} T \le 3N^2 \sum_{i=0}^{n} \Pr(X_p \le i)^2 \Pr(X_{2u} \ge i)$$

Set $u_i = \Pr(X_p \leq i)^2 \Pr(X_{2u} \geq i)$. Our goal is to upper-bound the sum of the u_i 's. To 548 this end, we split the sum in three parts: 549

550
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} u_i \le \sum_{i=0}^{2nu} u_i + \sum_{i=2nu}^{np} u_i + \sum_{i=np}^{n} u_i$$

First, we note that $Pr(X_p \leq i)$ is increasing when $i \leq 2nu$, because 2u < p. Therefore 551 we have $u_i \leq \Pr(X_p \leq 2nu)^2$, and because $\Pr(X_{2u} \geq i)$ is greater than $\frac{1}{2}$ when $i \leq 2nu$, we 552 find that $u_i \leq 2u_{2nu}$ when $0 \leq i \leq 2nu$. A symmetric argument shows that $2u_{np} \geq u_i$ for all 553 $np \leq i \leq n$. Let M denote the largest u_i for $2nu \leq i \leq np$; then the sum of all the u_i 's is 554 less than 2nM. We use (3) to get an upper-bound on M. Set f(x) = 2D(x, p) + D(x, 2u), so 555 that $u_i \leq e^{-nf\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)}$. We next seek the maximum of f, and for this we compute its derivative: 556

557
$$f'(x) = 2\log\frac{x}{p} - 2\log\frac{x-1}{p-1} + \log\frac{x}{2u} - \log\frac{x-1}{2u-1}$$

Solving $f'(x_0) = 0$ reveals only one possible real solution, that satisfies: 558

559
$$1 - \frac{1}{x_0} = \sqrt[3]{\left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2u}\right)}$$

It appears that $1 - 1/x_0$ is the geometric mean of 1 - 1/p, 1 - 1/p and 1 - 1/(2u); therefore 560 we find that $2u \le x_0 \le p$ (in other terms, the largest u_i actually has an index in the range 561 [2nu; np]). It follows that the total expected cost of the algorithm is upper-bounded by: 562

563
$$\operatorname{E} T \le N + 6nN^2 e^{-n[2D(x_0,p) + D(x_0,2u)]}$$

Setting again $e = \log_N(\mathbf{E}T - N)$, the INCREMENTAL algorithm runs in time $\mathcal{O}(N + N^e)$, 564 with: 565

566
$$e = 2 + 3 \frac{2D\left(\frac{1}{1+\sqrt[3]{\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)^{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{2u}\right)}}, p\right) + D\left(\frac{1}{1+\sqrt[3]{\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)^{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{2u}\right)}}, \frac{2p^{2}}{1-2p+4p^{2}}\right)}{\ln(1-p)(1-2p+4p^{2})}$$

567

Proofs for the Analysis of the Iterative Algorithm A.3 568

Proof of theorem 6. First of all, let us start by considering the case where w = np — we 569 "filter" the input list by keeping the most common weight. We set the number of clamped 570 columns to $s/\delta = (1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}})$. This gives 571

572
$$L = -\frac{1}{3}\log_2 q_0$$

573
$$I = H\left(\left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)\left(1 - \frac{3}{2}p\right)\right) - \left(1 - \frac{3}{2}p\right)H\left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)$$

574
$$R = H\left(\left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)\left(1 - \frac{3}{2}p\right)\right) - (1 - p)H\left(\left(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)\left(1 - \frac{3}{2}p\right)\frac{1}{1 - p}\right)$$

575

5

5

This allows the exponent e to be computed, at least numerically. It is not well-defined at p = 0, but the limit can be computed: we find that $\lim_{p \to 0} \frac{I}{L} = \frac{3}{4}$ while $\lim_{p \to 0} \frac{R}{L} = \frac{1}{2}$ (these limits can be computed automatically by the Maple computer algebra system; unfortunately 576 577 578 the open-source SageMath system fails). This means that the exponent reaches a limit of $\frac{7}{4}$ 579 when p goes to zero. 580

Let us next consider another interesting case, namely w = 2u — we target the expected 581 density of 3XOR triplets. This time, we set the number of clamped columns so that 582

583 $s/\delta = 1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}$. This gives:

$$L = -\frac{1}{2}\log q_0 + H(2u) + 2u\log p + (1-2u)\log(1-p)$$

$$I = H\left(\left(1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}\right)(1 - 3u)\right) - (1 - 3u)H\left(1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}\right)$$

$$R = H\left(\left(1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}\right)(1 - 3u)\right) - (1 - 2u)H\left(\left(1 - \sqrt[4]{2u}\right)\frac{1 - 3u}{1 - 2u}\right)$$

586 587

58

We again find that $\lim_{p\to 0} \frac{I}{L} = \frac{3}{4}$ while $\lim_{p\to 0} \frac{R}{L} = \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, the exponent also reaches a limit of $\frac{7}{4}$ when p goes to zero.

590 A.4 Proof regarding the Permuted Algorithm

Proof of Lemma 7. We denote by $t^* = (\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*, \mathbf{z}^*)$ the solution we aim to recover. Let $A_i^{(\ell)}, B_j^{(\ell)}, C_k^{(\ell)}$ denote the lists that are taken as input by the RECURSIVE algorithm alongside with the index ℓ . Let \mathbf{x}_{ℓ}^* denote the vector $\mathbf{x}_{\backslash I_{\ell}}^*$, where $I_{\ell} = J_1 \cup \ldots J_{\ell-1}$, for $\ell > 1$ and $I_1 = \emptyset$. We define \mathbf{y}_{ℓ}^* and \mathbf{z}_{ℓ}^* accordingly.

Let us denote by π_{ℓ} the probability that the triplet $(\mathbf{x}_{\ell+1}^*, \mathbf{y}_{\ell+1}^*, \mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}^*)$ is in $A_i^{(\ell+1)} \times B_j^{(\ell+1)} \times C_k^{(\ell+1)}$, knowing that $(\mathbf{x}_{\ell}^*, \mathbf{y}_{\ell}^*, \mathbf{z}_{\ell}^*)$ is in $A_i \times B_j \times C_k$. Assuming that there is a fraction h_{ℓ} of the δ the columns of "type 000" in the interval of size $h_{\ell}n$ inside which we choose J_{ℓ} , we have (using the bounds on binomial coefficients (1)):

$$_{599} \qquad \pi_{\ell} \ge \binom{h_{\ell}\delta}{h_{\ell}s} / \binom{h_{\ell}n}{h_{\ell}s} \ge cst \cdot 2^{h_{\ell}(\delta H(s/\delta) - nH(s/n))} = cst \cdot 2^{-nh_{\ell}I}.$$

At each step ℓ , if the solution is not found, we restart the procedure up to $\approx n/\pi_{\ell}$ times. Assuming that $(\mathbf{x}_{\ell}^*, \mathbf{y}_{\ell}^*, \mathbf{z}_{\ell}^*)$ is in $A_i^{(\ell)}, B_j^{(\ell)}, C_k^{(\ell)}$, the probability that we do not find the solution after this many iterations is

⁶⁰⁴ Pr [fail at step
$$\ell$$
] $\approx (1 - \pi_{\ell})^{\frac{n}{\pi_{\ell}}} \leq e^{-n}$,

In particular, this is true for i = 1. This means that the algorithm will return the solution with overwhelming probability, as long as the 000 columns are uniformly distributed (i.e. there are $h_l \delta$ columns of type 000 in each slice of size $h_\ell n$).

It remains to show that there exist a permutation Q of the columns of the lists, such that the columns of type 000 in the solution are uniformly distributed. We claim that such a permutation can be found in roughly $n^{(t-1)/2}$ iterations of the PERMUTED Algorithm.

Let Q be a random permutation of the columns of the lists. Let δ^* be the exact number of columns of type 000 in the solution. We say that Q is "good enough" if after applying Qto A, B and C, the columns of type 000 are uniformly distributed. In other words, in each slice of $h_{\ell}n$ columns we would like to have about $s_{\ell}\delta^*$ columns of type 000. The probability that Q satisfies this condition is given by

For
$$[Q \text{ good enough}] = {\binom{h_1 n}{h_1 \delta^*}} \dots {\binom{h_t n}{h_t \delta^*}} / {\binom{n}{\delta^*}}$$

 $\sqrt{n} 2^{h_1 n H(\delta^*/n)} \dots 2^{h_t n H(\delta^*/n)} \dots 2^{h_t n H(\delta^*/n)}$

$$\geq cst \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{h_1 n \dots h_t n} 2^{nH(\delta^*/n)}}$$

$$\geq cst \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n2}}{\sqrt{(h_1 \dots h_t)n^t} 2^{nH(\delta^*/n)}}$$

 $\sum_{t=0}^{619} \geq cst \cdot n^{(1-t)/2}.$

It follows that the expected number of iteration of the PERMUTED Algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(n^{(t-1)/2})$. Making at least Poly(n) iterations of the PERMUTED Algorithm where the degree of the polynomial is greater than (t-1)/2 should ensure that a good enough permutation is found.

⁶²⁵ **B** "Practical" Considerations for the Incremental Algorithm

The iterative algorithm outlined in Section 4 may terminate earlier than its direct counterpart of section 3, but it may also do more work (this happens in particular when the chosen filtering threshold weight is "just right" and all previous iterations have been wasted). However, it can be modified to do less work in all circumstances.

Let A_i denote the sub-list formed by all vectors of A of hamming weight exactly i; B_i 630 and C_i are defined accordingly. This partitions each input list in n parts. The original 631 problem could then be solved by searching the n^3 sub-instances $A_i \times B_j \times C_k$ for all i, j, k. 632 In fact, some of these sub-instance cannot contain a 3XOR triplet. This is obvious with 633 i = 1, j = 1 and k = 5 for instance: A and B are too sparse to cancel the heavier C. A 3XOR 634 triplet t necessarily belongs to $A_{\mu+\nu} \times B_{\nu+\lambda} \times C_{\mu+\lambda}$, where μ, ν and λ denote the number 635 of columns of type 110, 101 and 011 of t, respectively. This is subject to the constraint that 636 $\mu + \nu + \lambda \leq n$, and there are $\binom{n+3}{3}$ such possibilities. 637

All these "admissible" sub-instances are not equally likely to contain a solution, and they 638 require a variable amount of time to search. Finding the order in which to process them 639 to minimize the expected running time is a classical scheduling problem, namely that of 640 minimizing the weighted sum of completion times on a single machine $(1 || \sum w_i C_i)$ in the usual 641 nomenclature). It can be solved optimally in polynomial time using Smith's ratio rule [13]: 642 process the sub-instances by decreasing order of cost-efficiency (probability of success divided 643 by time required). It turns out that the cost-efficiency of searching $A_{\mu+\nu} \times B_{\nu+\lambda} \times C_{\mu+\lambda}$ 644 is very well correlated to $\mu + \nu + \lambda$, which counts the number of non-000 columns of the 645 solution. This yields the following "practical" algorithm. 646

Algorithm 5 A refined, more "practical" iterative algorithm.

1: function PRACTICAL(A, B, C, w) 2: Partition A (resp. B and C) by hamming weight into A_0, \ldots, A_n (resp. B_i, C_i) 3: for $m = 0, \ldots, n$ do 4: for each (μ, ν, λ) such that $\mu + \nu + \lambda = m$ do 5: if $\mu + \nu < w, \nu + \lambda < w$ and $\mu + \lambda < w$ then 6: Search $A_{\mu+\nu} \times B_{\nu+\lambda} \times C_{\mu+\lambda}$ using the quadratic algorithm. 7: If a solution has been found, report it and stop. 8: return \bot

With the "if" statement of line 4, the PRACTICAL algorithm succeeds in reporting a solution $(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{y}^*, \mathbf{z}^*)$ if all the three components have hamming weight less than w; therefore it succeeds at the same conditions than the DIRECT algorithm of section 3 with the same threshold w, but faster. Without the "if" statement (or with $w = +\infty$), it always succeeds, but faster than the "iterative" algorithm outlined in section 4. In all cases, the speedup is at most polynomial.

C Computation of a sparse 3XOR

#!/usr/bin/env python3
from hashlib import sha512

- # Des. Codes Cryptogr. 33(2)
 a = "Mark Goresky and Andrew Klapper: Periodicity and Correlation Properties of d-FCSR Sequences. (2004)"
- # TCC (2) 2015 b = "Ran Canetti, Yael Tauman Kalai and Omer Paneth: On Obfuscation with Random Oracles. (2015)"
- # Cryptologia 10(1)
 c = "David Kahn: Secrets of the Codebreakers. (1986)"

CT-RSA 2007 d = "Mario Lamberger, Norbert Pramstaller, Christian Rechberger and Vincent Rijmen: Second Preimages for SMASH. (2007)"

EUROCRYPT 2013 e = "Patrick Derbez, Pierre-Alain Fouque and Jérémy Jean: Improved Key Recovery Attacks on Reduced-Round AES in the Single-Key Setting. (2013)"

Financial Cryptography 2003 f = "Javier Herranz and Germán Sáez: Verifiable Secret Sharing for General Access Structures, with Application to Fully Distributed Proxy Signatures. (2003)"

C2SI 2019 g = "Yongge Wang and Qutaibah M. Malluhi: Reusable Garbled Turing Machines Without FHE. (2019)"

CRYPTD 2000 h = "Masayuki Abe and Tatsuaki Okamoto: Provably Secure Partially Blind Signatures. (2000)"

Cryptologia 38(2)
i = "Chris Christensen: The National Cash Register Company Additive Recovery Machine. (2014)"

ICISC 2003 j = "Jonathan Katz: Binary Tree Encryption: Constructions and Applications. (2003)"

CRYPTO 1994
k = "Olivier Delos and Jean-Jacques Quisquater: An Identity-Based Signature Scheme with Bounded Life-Span. (1994)"

J. Mathematical Cryptology 9(2) 1 = "Shlomi Dolev, Juan A. Garay, Niv Gilboa, Vladimir Kolesnikov and Yelena Yuditsky: Towards efficient private distributed computation on unbounded input streams. (2015)"

def H(s):

m(s). """Apply SHA-512 to a string and converts the hash to an integer""" return int.from_bytes(sha512(s.encode('utf8')).digest(), byteorder='big')

An unexpected relationship through SHA-512... with `Secrets of the Codebreakers'' ?!? assert (H(a) & H(b) & H(c) & H(d)) ^ (H(e) & H(f) & H(g) & H(h)) ^ (H(i) & H(j) & H(k) & H(l)) == 0