

The Geometry of Lattice Cryptography

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Cryptography, Complexity and Lattices

Cryptography: exploiting **hard** computational problems to build computer systems that are **hard** to break.

Good news

There are plenty of hard computational problems in computer science.

Bad news

Finding cryptographically useful hard problems seems hard.

Cryptography requires problems that

- are **very** hard to solve: solution should take enormous time
- are hard to solve on **average**, even with small probability
- have extra **features**, e.g., trapdoors, regularity, etc.

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Point Lattices and Cryptography

Lattice problems

- appear to be **very hard** (solution takes exponential time),
- have been **widely studied** by mathematicians since 19th century (Lagrange, Gauss, Dirichlet, ...),
- provably yield **hard on average** problems, from worst-case complexity assumptions.

Lattice related constructions and cryptographic functions

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Ajtai's function

Definition (Ajtai's function)

$$f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{Ax} \bmod q \quad \text{where } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m} \text{ and } \mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^m$$

$\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^m$

0	1	1	0	1	0	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

($q = 10$)

$\xleftarrow{\quad m \quad} \xrightarrow{\quad}$

$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$

1	4	5	9	3	0	2
4	2	8	6	2	4	3
7	5	5	4	7	8	0
2	7	0	1	4	6	9

 \updownarrow
 n

2
2
7
1

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$

Security (One-wayness)

Given \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{y} , it is hard to find $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^m$ s.t. $f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$.

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 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

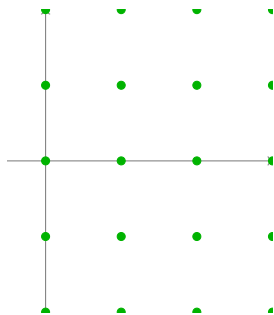
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- Other lattices are obtained by applying a linear transformation

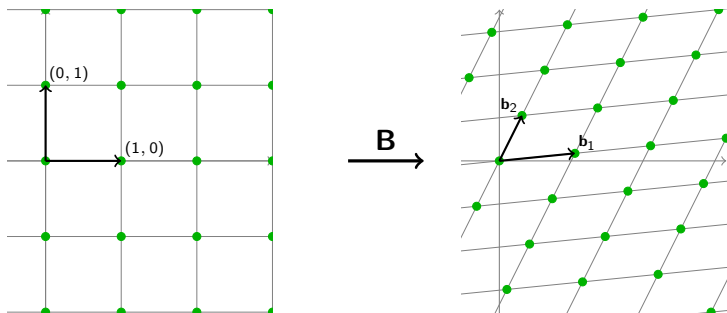
$$\mathbf{B} : \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = x_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + x_n \cdot \mathbf{b}_n$$



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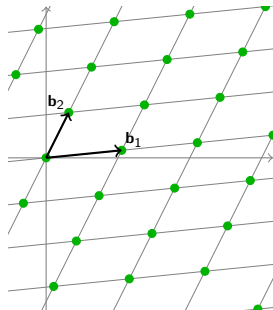
Lattices and Bases

A lattice is the set of all **integer** linear combinations of (linearly independent) **basis** vectors $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{b}_i \cdot \mathbb{Z} = \{\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$

The same lattice has many bases

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{c}_i \cdot \mathbb{Z}$$



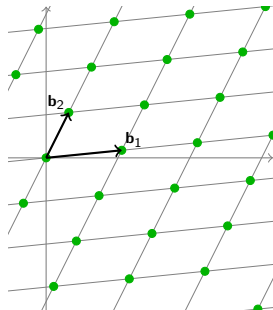
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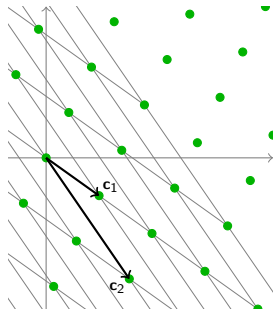
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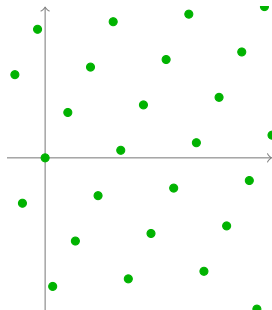
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Definition (Lattice)

A discrete additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n

Minimum Distance and Successive Minima

- Minimum distance

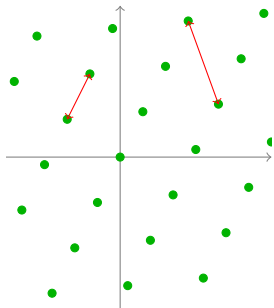
$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_1 &= \min_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}} \|\mathbf{x}\|\end{aligned}$$

- Successive minima ($i = 1, \dots, n$)

$$\lambda_i = \min\{r : \dim \text{span}(\mathcal{B}(r) \cap \mathcal{L}) \geq i\}$$

- Examples

- \mathbb{Z}^n : $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n = 1$
- Always: $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$



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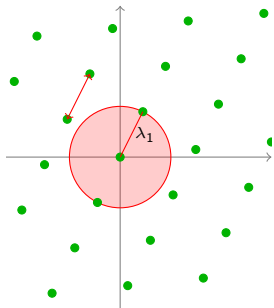
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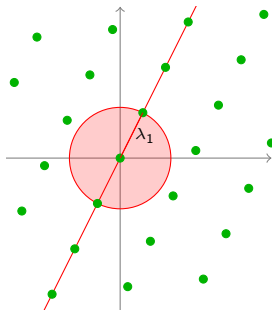
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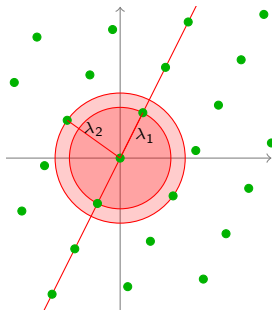
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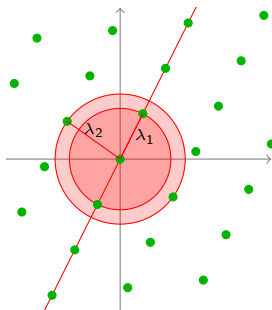
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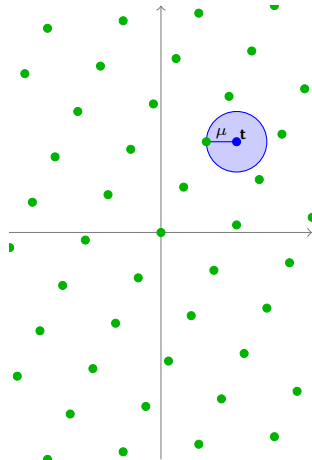
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$$\mu(\mathcal{L}) = \max_{\mathbf{t} \in \text{span}(\mathcal{L})} \mu(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{L})$$

- Spheres of radius $\mu(\mathcal{L})$ centered around all lattice points cover the whole space



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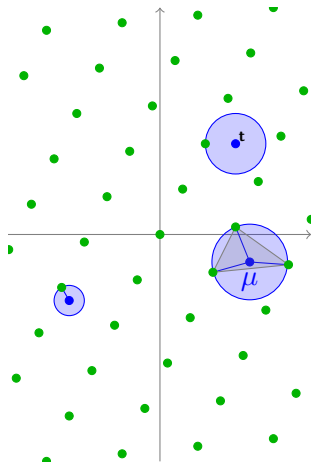
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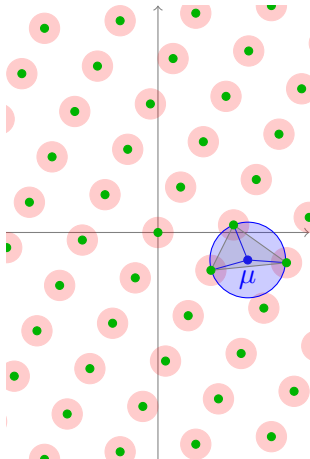
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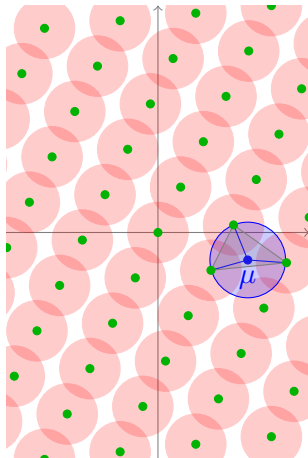
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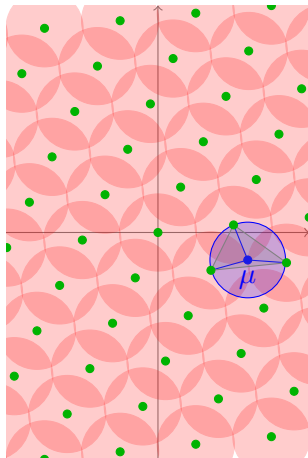
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Bounding the covering radius

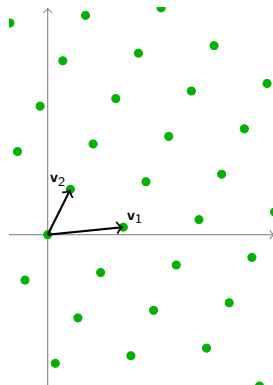
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- Tile \mathbb{R}^n with copies of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V}) = \mathbf{V}[0, 1)^n$
- If $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbf{x} + \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$, then

$$\|\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{x}\| \leq \sum \|\mathbf{v}_i\| \leq n\lambda_n.$$

- This proves $\mu(\mathcal{L}) \leq n\lambda_n(\mathcal{L})$, and can be further improved:

Theorem

For any lattice \mathcal{L} , $\mu(\mathcal{L}) \leq \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}\lambda_n(\mathcal{L})$



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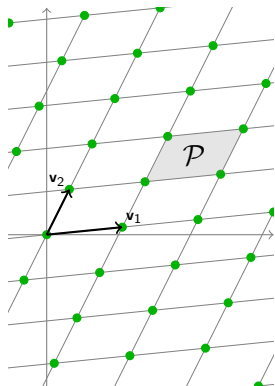
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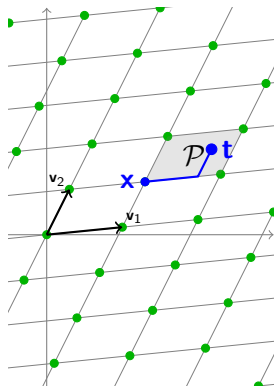
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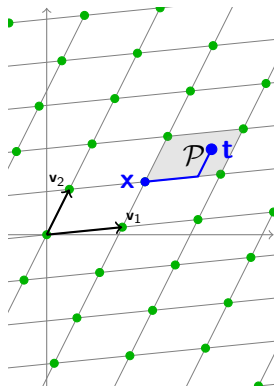
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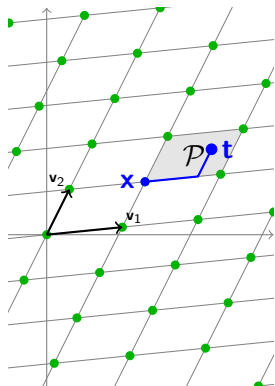
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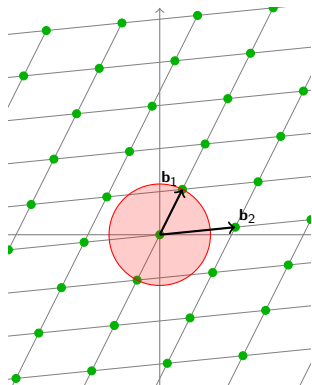


Bounding the successive minima

- Let $\|\mathbf{b}_1\| = \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$
- Let $\mathbf{t} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b}_1$
- Then $\mu(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{L}) \geq \lambda_1/2$
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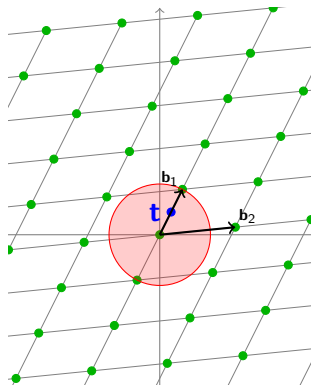


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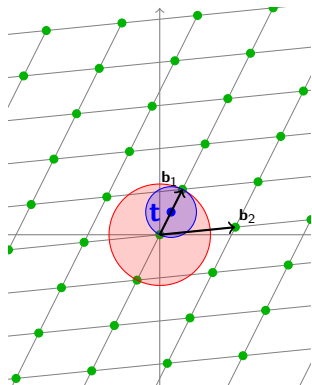


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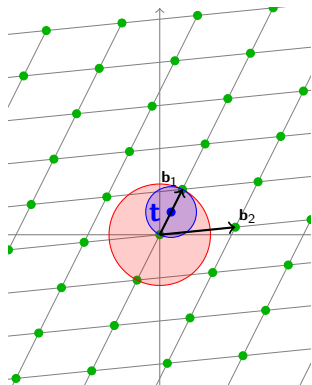


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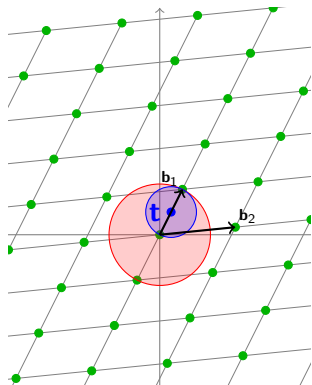


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Relations among lattice parameters

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For any lattice \mathcal{L} , $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n \leq 2\mu \leq \sqrt{n}\lambda_n$

Remarks:

- 1 $\mu \approx \lambda_n$ (up to \sqrt{n} factors)
- 2 For some lattices $\lambda_1 \ll \lambda_2 \ll \dots \ll \lambda_n$
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- 4 For some lattices $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n$ and $\mu \leq 2\lambda_n$

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Give an explicit construction of a lattice satisfying $\mu \leq 2\lambda_1$

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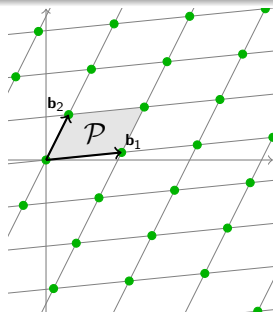
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Determinant

Definition (Determinant)

$\det(\mathcal{L}) = \text{volume of the fundamental region } \mathcal{P} = \sum_i \mathbf{b}_i \cdot [0, 1)$

- Different bases define different fundamental regions
- All fundamental regions have the same volume
- The determinant of a lattice can be efficiently computed from any basis.

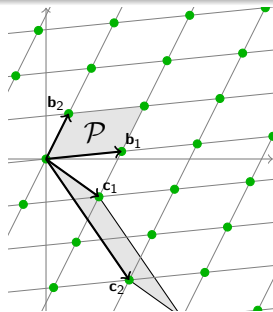


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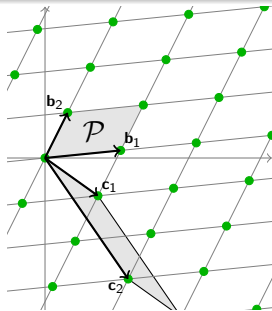


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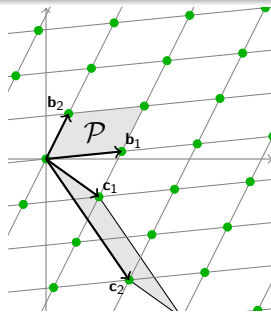


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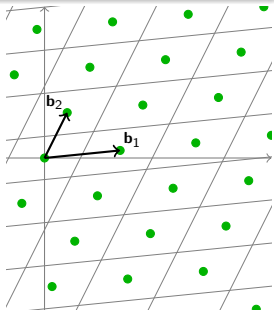
Density estimates

Definition (Centered Fundamental Parallelepiped)

$$\mathcal{P} = \sum_i \mathbf{b}_i \cdot [-1/2, 1/2)$$

- $\text{vol}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B})) = \det(\mathcal{L})$
- $\{\mathbf{x} + \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}) \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}\}$ partitions \mathbb{R}^n
- For all sufficiently large $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|S \cap \mathcal{L}| \approx \text{vol}(S) / \det(\mathcal{L})$$



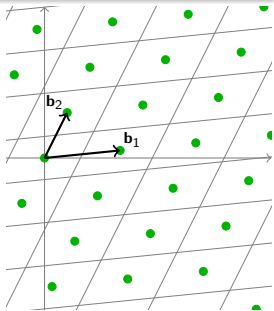
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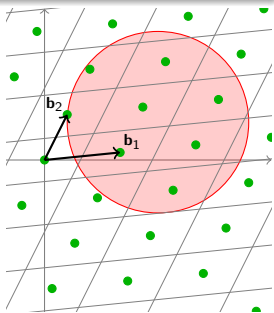
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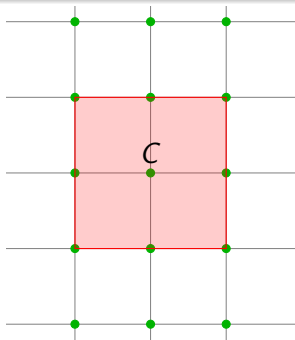


Minkowski's convex body theorem

Theorem (Convex Body)

Let $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a symmetric convex body. If $\text{vol}(C) > 2^n$, then C contains a nonzero integer vector

- $C = \mathbf{B}^{-1}[-r, r]^n$ has volume $\det(\mathbf{B})^{-1}(2r)^n = 2^n$
- C contains $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$
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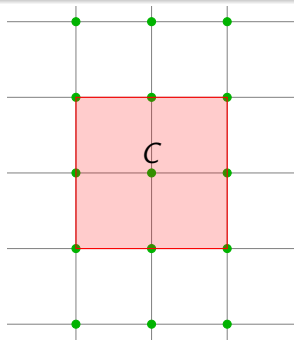
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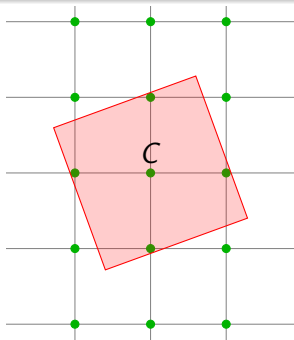
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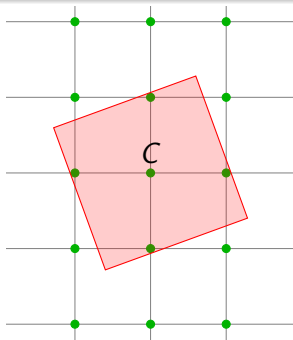
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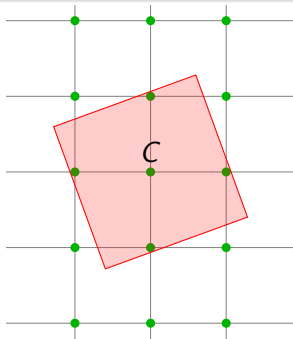
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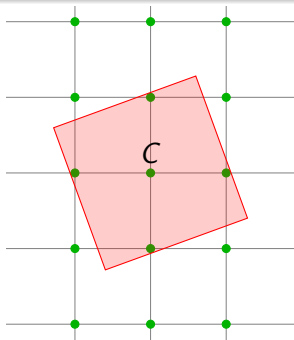
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Minkowski's second theorem

Theorem (Minkowski)

$$\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) \leq \left(\prod_i \lambda_i(\mathcal{L}) \right)^{1/n} \leq \sqrt{n} \det(\mathcal{L})^{1/n}$$

- For \mathbb{Z}^n , $\lambda_1 = (\prod_i \lambda_i)^{1/n} = 1$ is smaller than Minkowski's bound by \sqrt{n}
- $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$ can be arbitrarily smaller than Minkowski's bound
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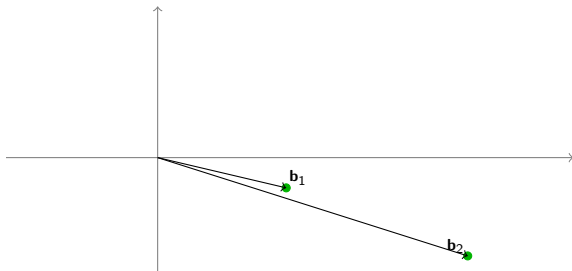
Outline

- 1 Point Lattices
 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

Shortest Vector Problem

Definition (Shortest Vector Problem, SVP)

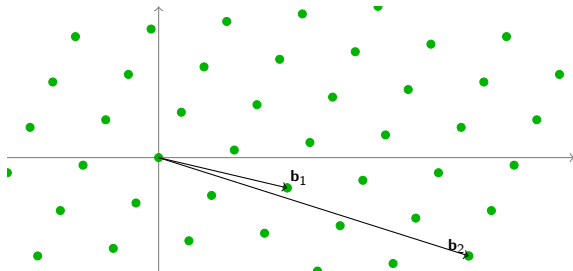
Given a lattice $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})$, find a (nonzero) lattice vector $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}$ (with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^k$) of length (at most) $\|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}\| \leq \lambda_1$



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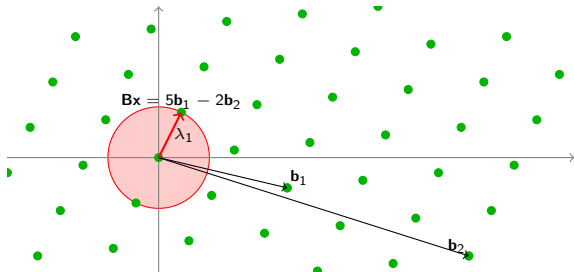
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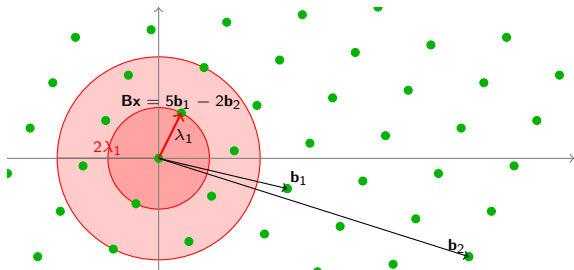
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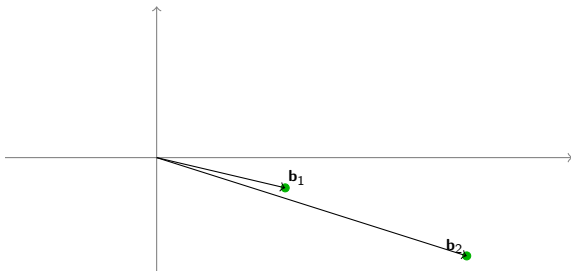
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Shortest Independent Vectors Problem

Definition (Shortest Independent Vectors Problem, SIVP)

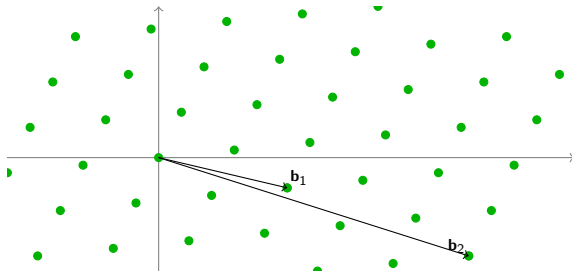
Given a lattice $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})$, find n linearly independent lattice vectors $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_n$ of length (at most) $\max_i \|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_i\| \leq \lambda_n$



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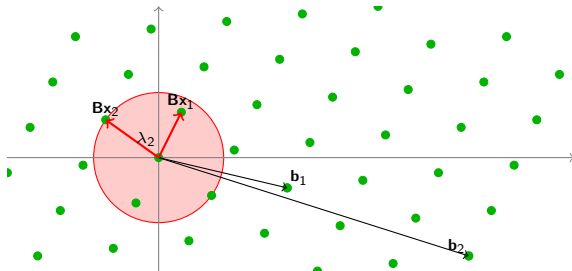
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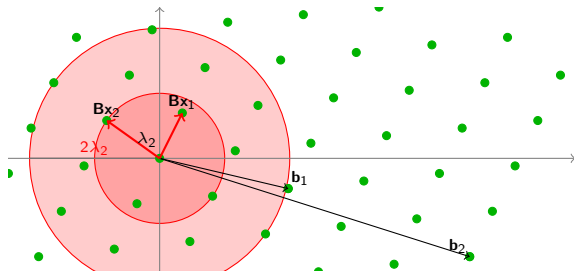
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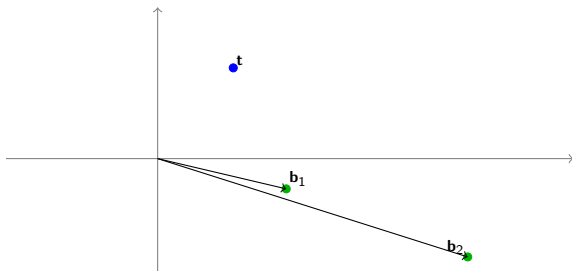
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Closest Vector Problem

Definition (Closest Vector Problem, CVP)

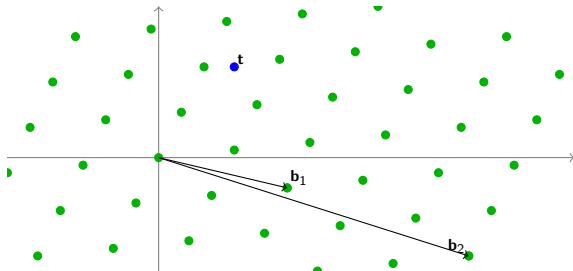
Given a lattice $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})$ and a target point \mathbf{t} , find a lattice vector \mathbf{Bx} within distance $\|\mathbf{Bx} - \mathbf{t}\| \leq \mu$ from the target



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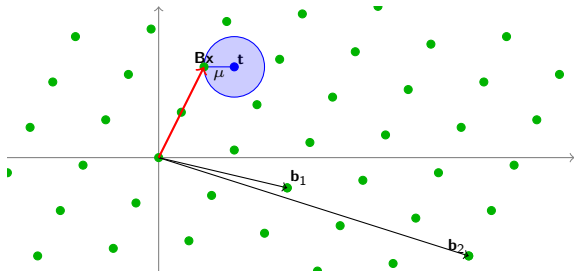
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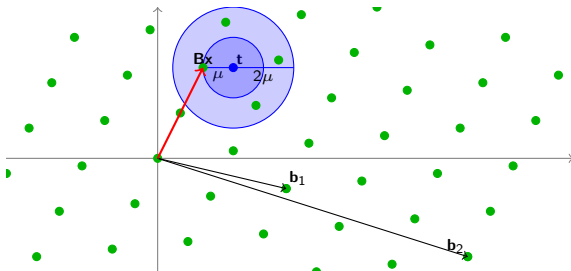
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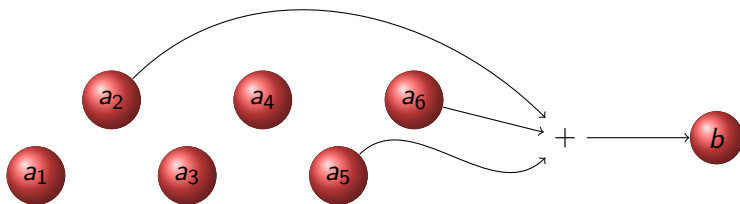
Given a lattice $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})$ and a target point \mathbf{t} , find a lattice vector \mathbf{Bx} within distance $\|\mathbf{Bx} - \mathbf{t}\| \leq \gamma\mu$ from the target



NP-hardness of CVP

Definition (Subset Sum)

Given $a_1, \dots, a_n, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ find $S \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ s.t. $\sum_{i \in S} a_i = b$



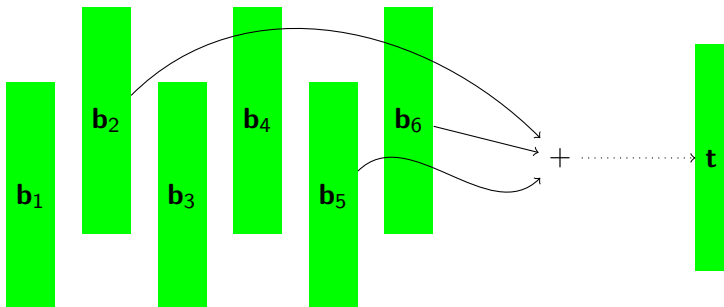
Theorem

$\|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}\| \leq \sqrt{n}$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $\sum_{x_i=1} a_i = b$.

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$$\mathbf{B} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{array} \right] \quad \mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i a_i x_i - b \\ 2x_1 - 1 \\ \vdots \\ 2x_n - 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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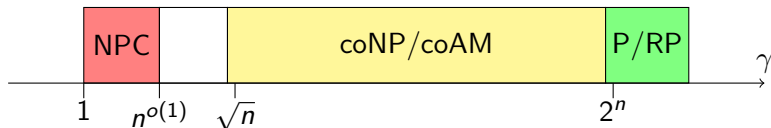
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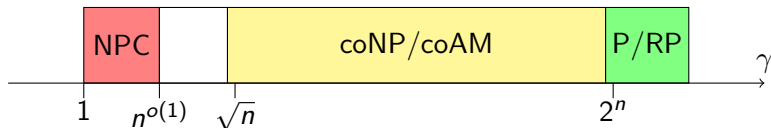
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Complexity of CVP, SVP, SIVP



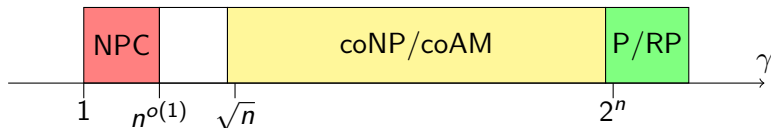
- Best algorithm for exact solution takes time 2^n [MV10]
- (Almost) NP-hard for factors up to $\gamma = n^{1/\log \log n}$. [Ajtai96, ..., HR07]
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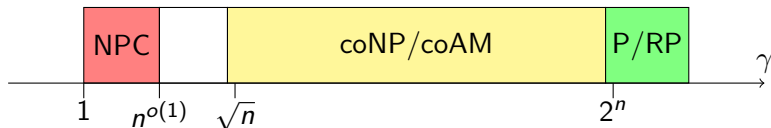
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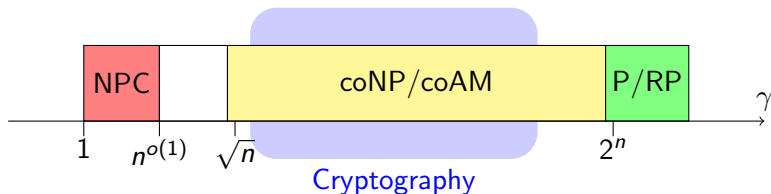
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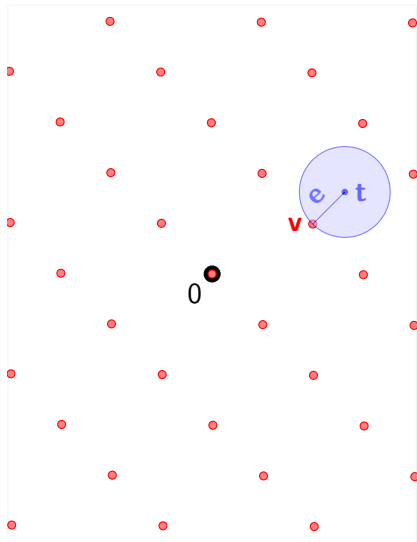
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CVP and lattice cosets

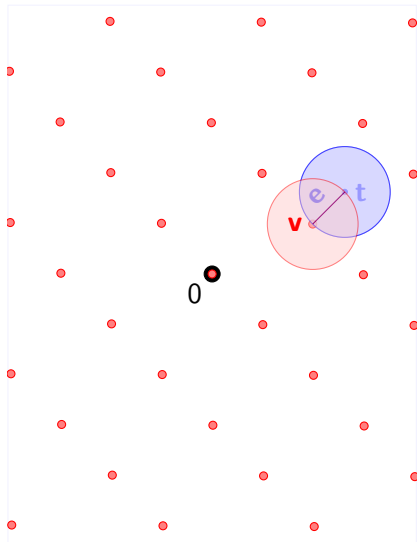


- Lattice Λ , target \mathbf{t}
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Definition (Coset CVP)

Given a lattice coset $\mathbf{t} + \mathcal{L}$, find the (approximately) shortest element of $\mathbf{t} + \mathcal{L}$.

CVP and lattice cosets

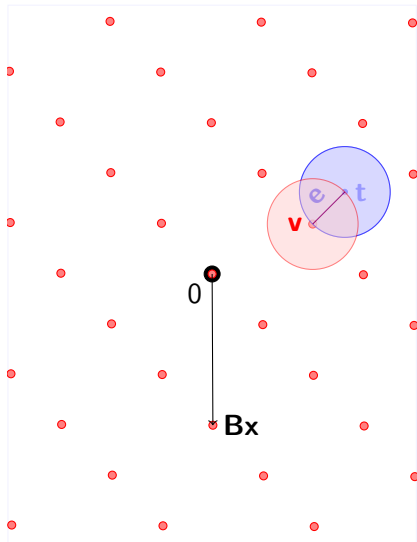


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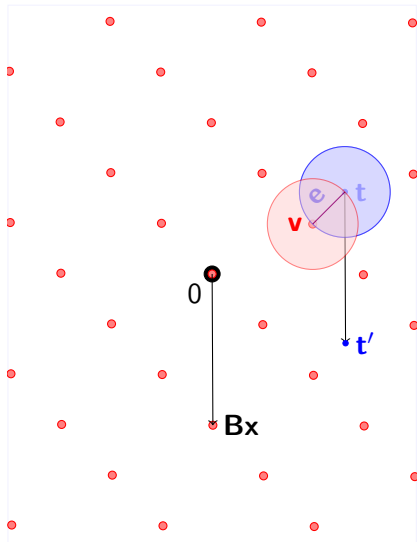


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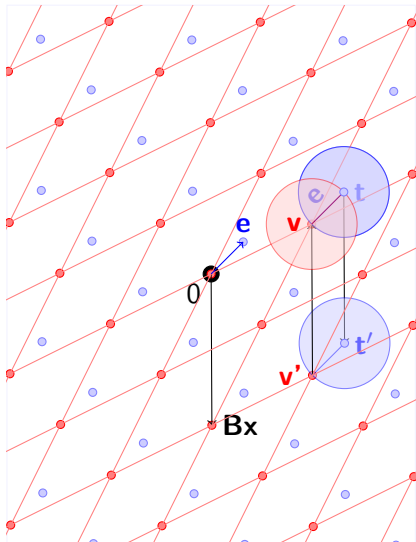


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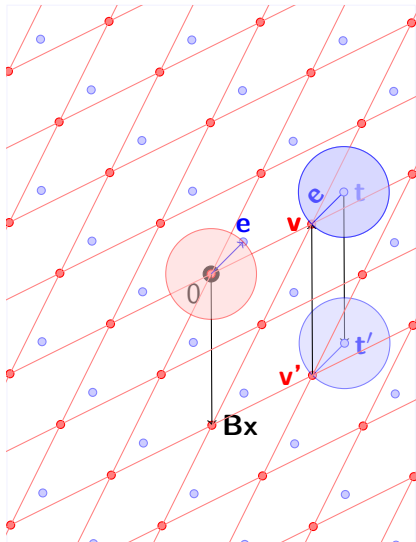


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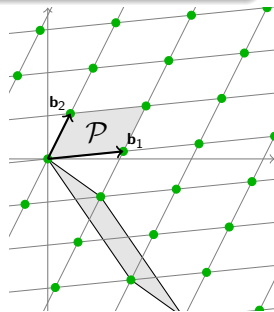
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Working modulo a lattice

Definition (Fundamental Region)

$D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a fundamental region for \mathcal{L} if $\{D + \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}\}$ is a partition of \mathbb{R}^n .

- $(\mathcal{L}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$
- One can form the quotient group $\mathbb{R}^n / \mathcal{L}$
- Elements of $\mathbb{R}^n / \mathcal{L}$ are cosets $\mathbf{t} + \mathcal{L}$
- Any fundamental region D gives a set of standard representatives
- $\mathcal{P} = \sum_i \mathbf{b}_i \cdot [0, 1) \equiv \mathbb{R}^n / \mathcal{L}$

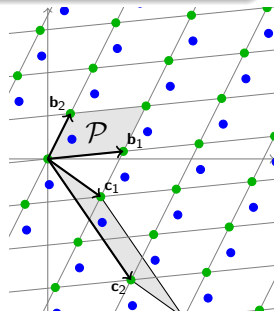


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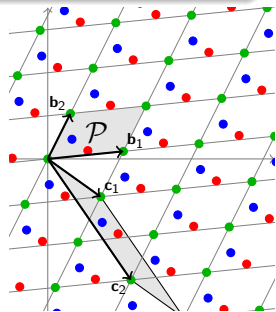


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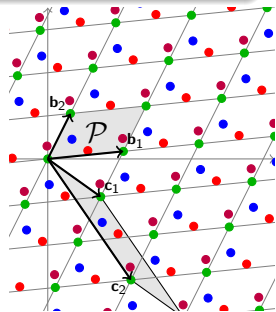


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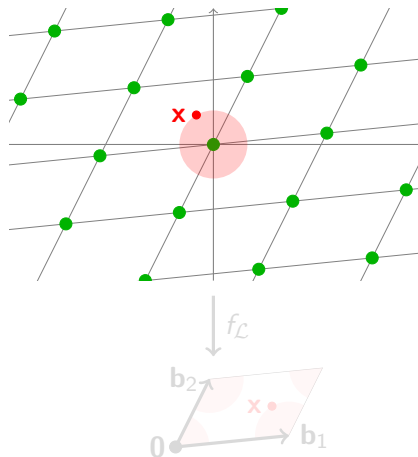
Interlude: CVP One-way Function?

Candidate OWF

Key: a hard lattice \mathcal{L} Input: \mathbf{x} , $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \beta$ Output: $f_{\mathcal{L}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \bmod \mathcal{L}$

- $\beta < \lambda_1/2$: $f_{\mathcal{L}}$ is injective
- $\beta > \lambda_1/2$: $f_{\mathcal{L}}$ is not injective
- $\beta \geq \mu$: $g_{\mathcal{L}}$ is surjective
- $\beta \gg \mu$: $g_{\mathcal{L}}(\mathbf{x})$ is almost uniform

Question

Is $f_{\mathcal{L}}$ hard to invert?

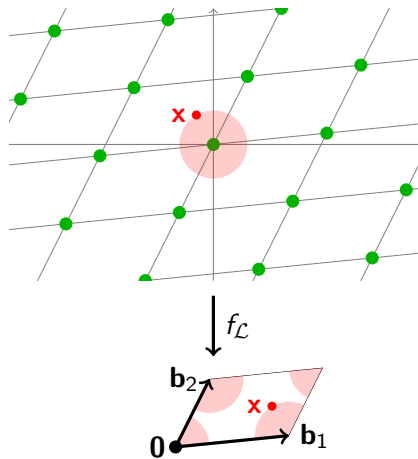
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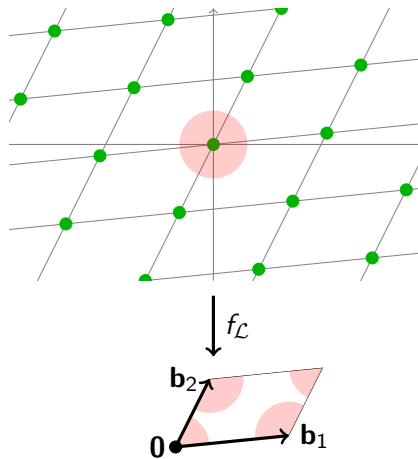
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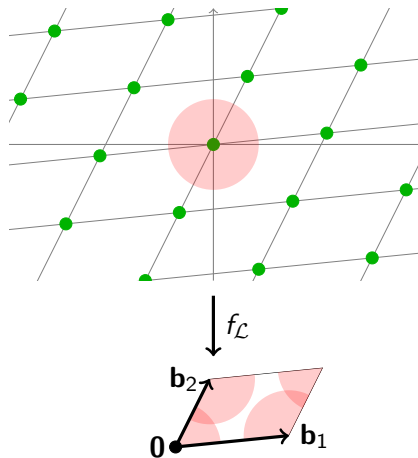
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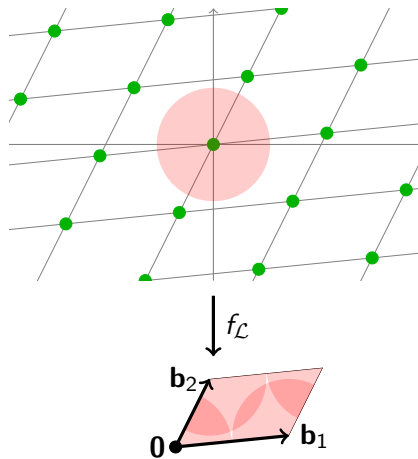
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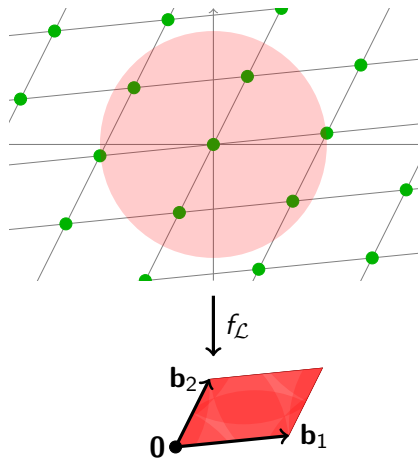
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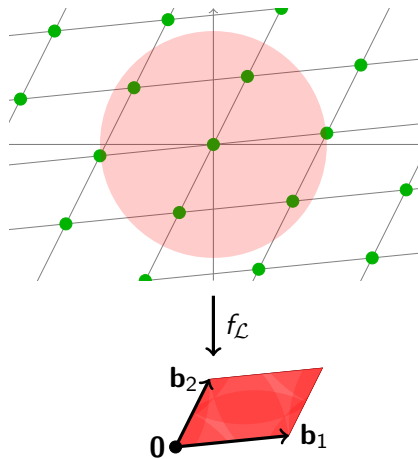
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Outline

- 1 Point Lattices
 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

The Dual

- A vector space over \mathbb{R} is a set of vectors V with
 - a vector addition operation $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in V$
 - a scalar multiplication $a \cdot \mathbf{x} \in V$
- The dual of a vector space V is the set $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$ of linear functions $\phi : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, typically represented as vectors $\mathbf{x} \in V$, where $\phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$
- The dual of a lattice Λ is defined similarly as the set of linear functions $\phi_{\mathbf{x}} : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ represented as vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \text{span}(\Lambda)$.

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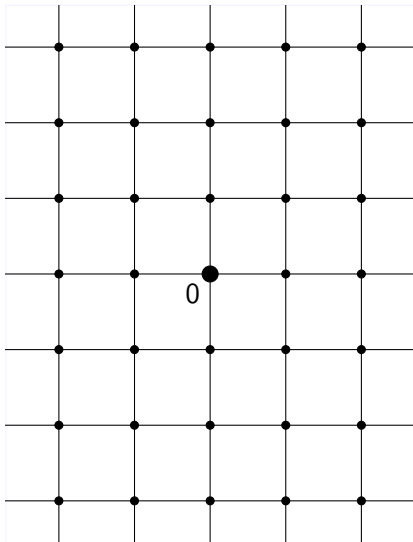
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- The dual of a vector space V is the set $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$ of linear functions $\phi : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, typically represented as vectors $\mathbf{x} \in V$, where $\phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$
- The dual of a lattice Λ is defined similarly as the set of linear functions $\phi_{\mathbf{x}} : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ represented as vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \text{span}(\Lambda)$.

Definition (Dual lattice)

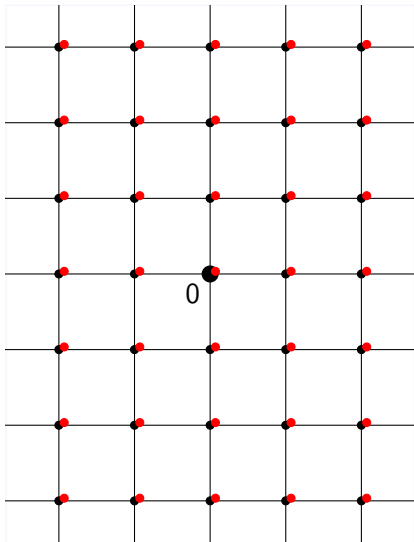
The dual of a lattice Λ is the set of all vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \text{span}(\Lambda)$ such that $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in \Lambda$

Dual lattice: Examples



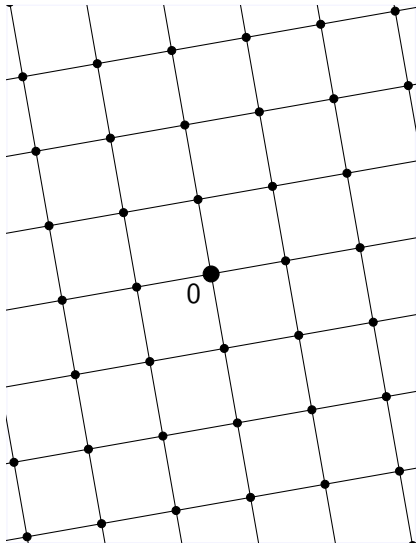
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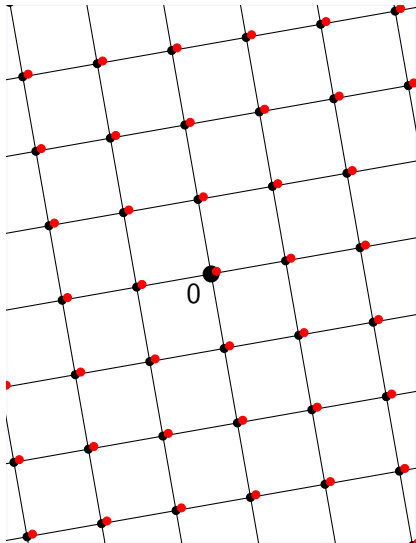
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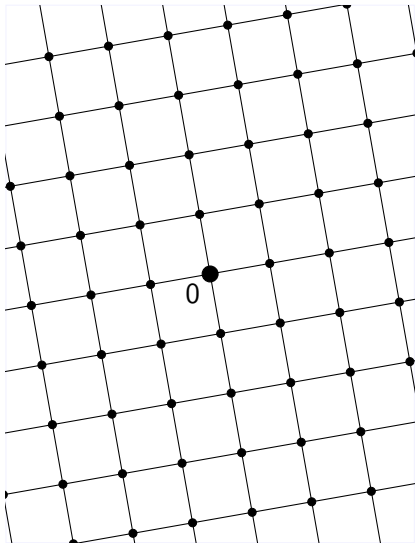
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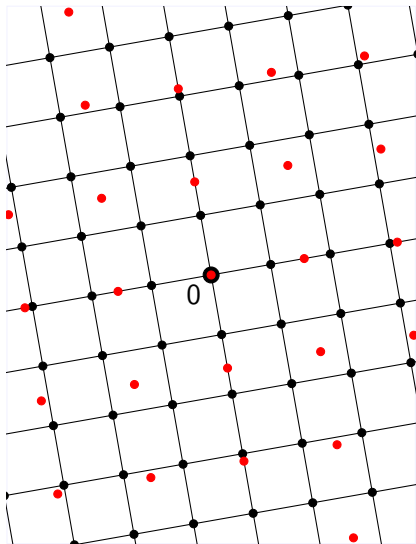
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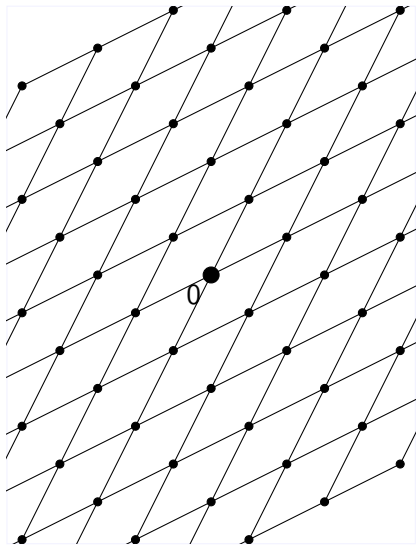
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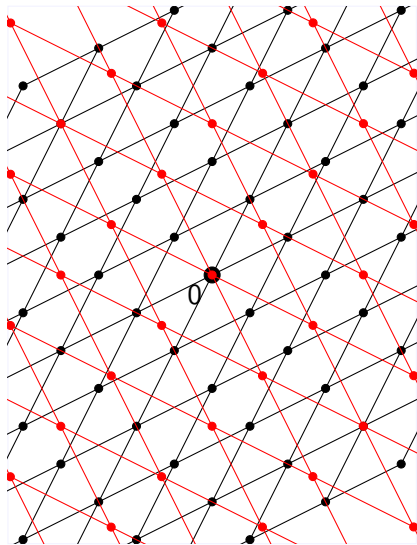
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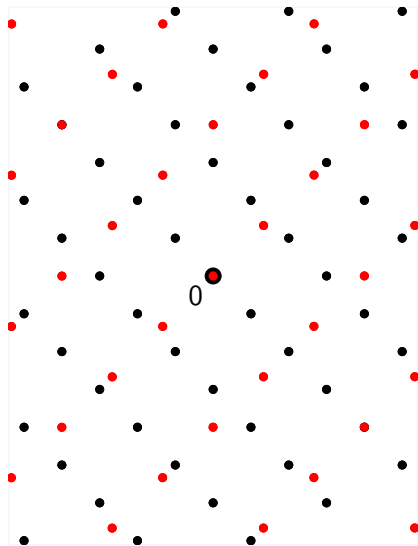
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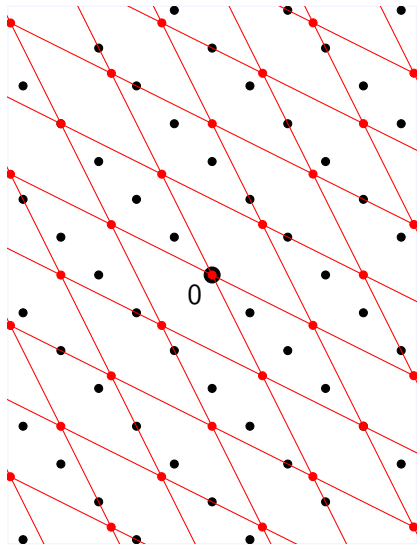
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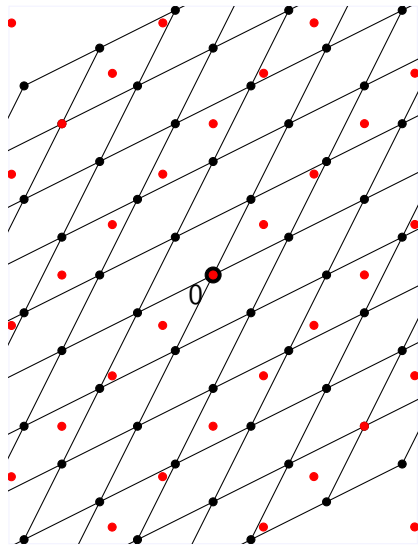
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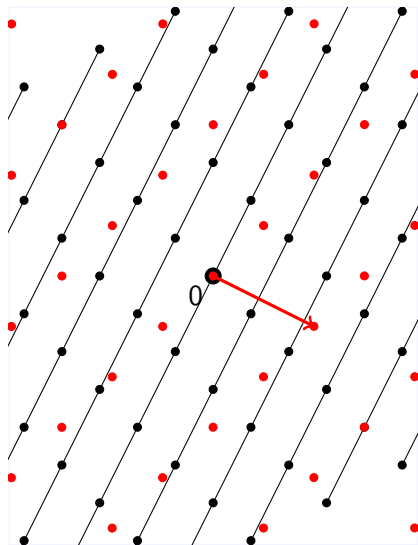
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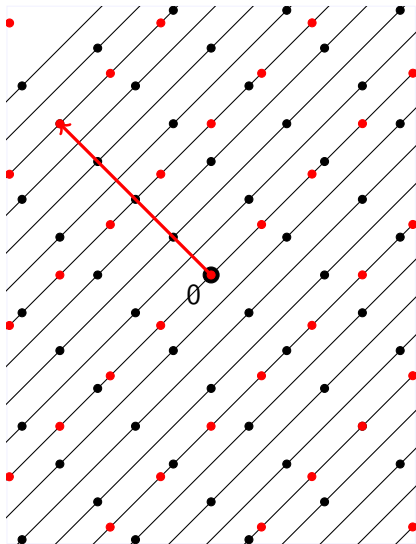


- Each dual vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}^*$, partitions the lattice \mathcal{L} into layers orthogonal to \mathbf{v}

$$L_i = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L} \mid \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v} = i\}$$

- Layers are at distance $1/\|\mathbf{v}\|$
- $\rho(\mathcal{L}) \geq \frac{1}{2\|\mathbf{v}\|}$
- If $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*)$ is small, then $\rho(\mathcal{L})$ is large.

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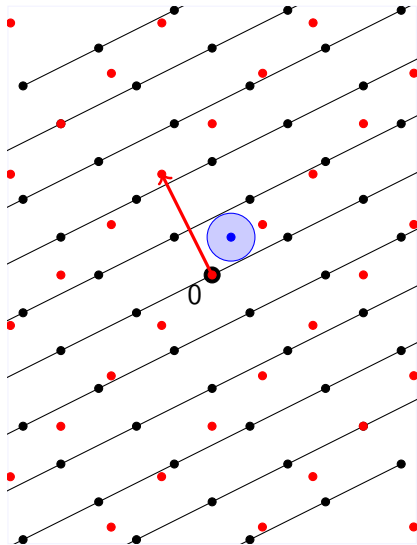


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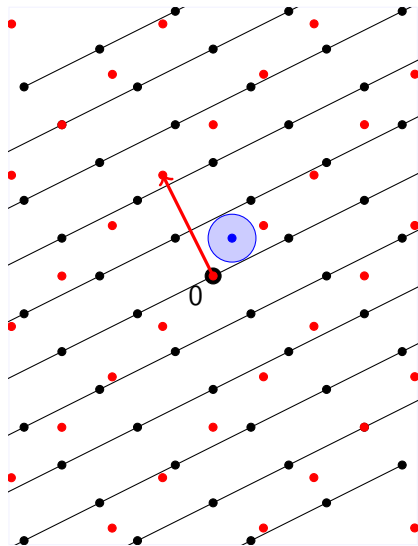


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Transference Theorems

Theorem (Banasczyk)

For any lattice \mathcal{L}

$$1 \leq 2\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) \cdot \rho(\mathcal{L}^*) \leq n.$$

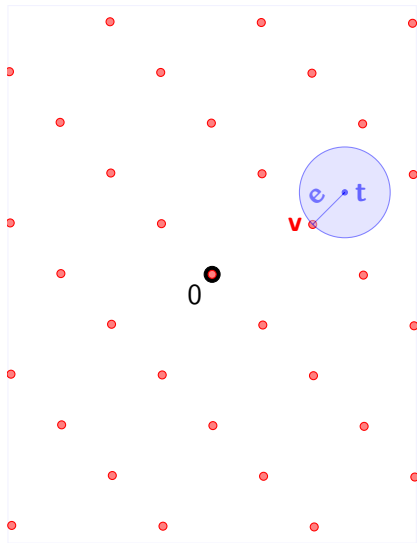
Theorem (Banasczyk)

For every i ,

$$1 \leq \lambda_i(\mathcal{L}) \cdot \lambda_{n-i+1}(\mathcal{L}^*) \leq n.$$

- Approximating $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$ within a factor n is in $NP \cap coNP$
- Same is true for $\lambda_i, \dots, \lambda_n$ and ρ .

CVP and dual lattice



- Lattice Λ , target $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{e}$

- Dual lattice $\Lambda^* = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{D})$.

- Syndrome of \mathbf{t} :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{s} &= \langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{t} \rangle \bmod 1 \\ &= \langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{e} \rangle \bmod 1 \\ &= \langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{e} \rangle \bmod 1. \end{aligned}$$

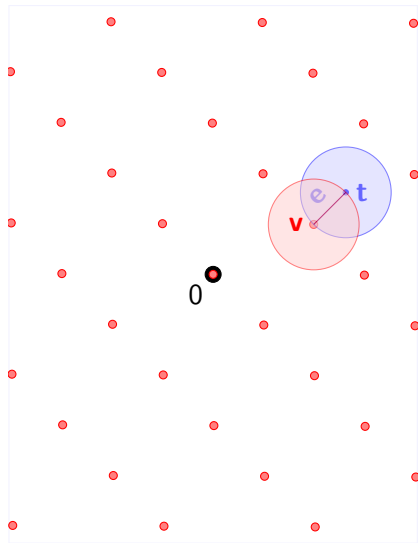
- All vectors in a coset $\mathbf{t} + \mathcal{L}$ have the same syndrome.

Definition (Syndrome CVP)

Find shortest \mathbf{e} such that

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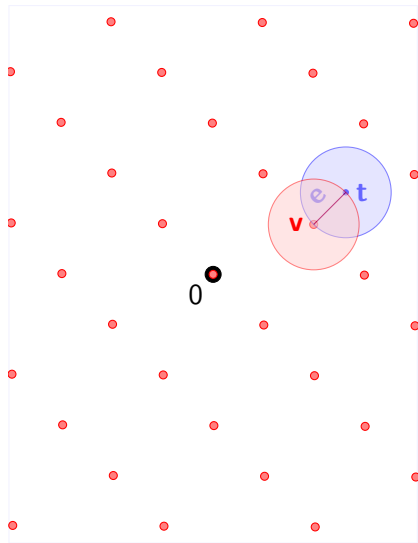
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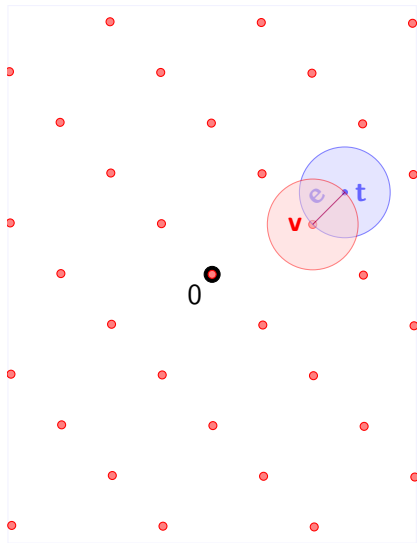
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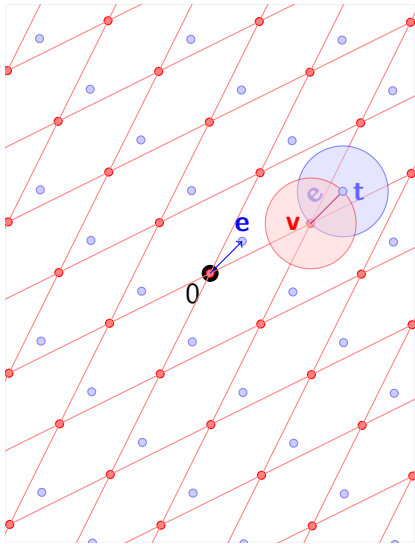
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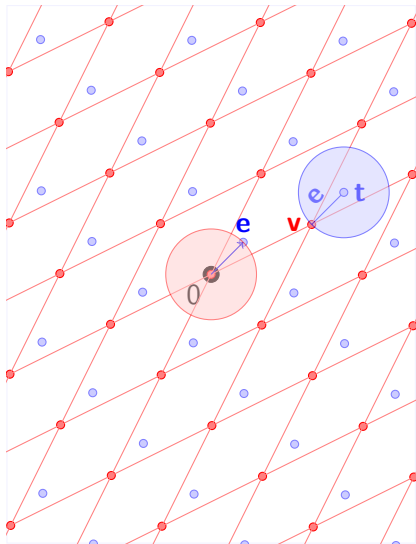
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Outline

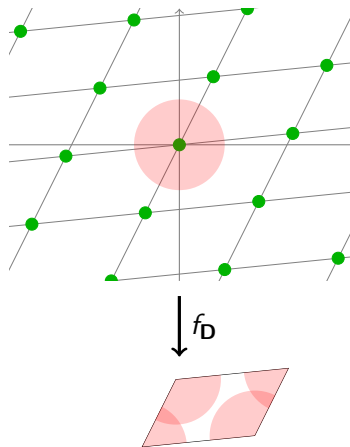
- 1 Point Lattices
 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

Back to CVP One-way function

Candidate OWF

Key: a hard lattice $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{D})^*$ Input: \mathbf{x} , $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \beta$ Output: $f_{\mathbf{D}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} \bmod 1$

- $\beta < \lambda_1/2$: $f_{\mathcal{L}}$ is injective
- $\beta \geq \mu$: $g_{\mathcal{L}}$ is surjective



Special Versions of CVP

Definition (Decisional CVP)

Given $(\mathcal{L}, \mathbf{t}, d)$, with $\mu(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{L}) \leq d$, find a lattice point within distance d from \mathbf{t} .

- If d is arbitrary, then one can find the closest lattice vector by binary search on d .
- **Bounded Distance Decoding, BDD:** If $d < \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})/2$, then there is at most one solution. Solution is the closest lattice vector.
- **Absolute Distance Decoding, ADD:** If $d \geq \rho(\mathcal{L})$, then there is always at least one solution. Solution may not be closest lattice vector.

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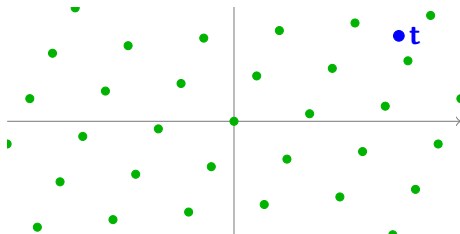
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ADD reduces to SIVP

ADD input: \mathcal{L} and arbitrary \mathbf{t}

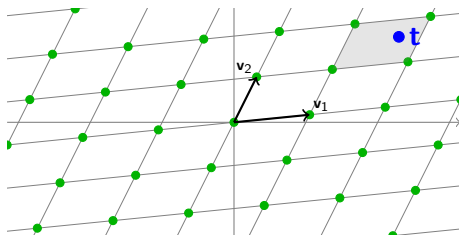
- Compute short vectors $\mathbf{V} = \text{SIVP}(\mathcal{L})$
- Use \mathbf{V} to find a lattice vector within distance $\sum_i \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{v}_i\| \leq (n/2)\lambda_n \leq n\rho$ from \mathbf{t}



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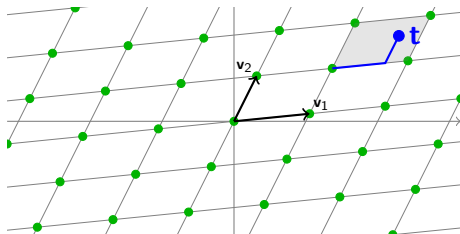
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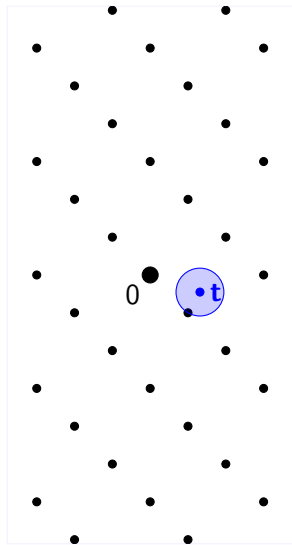


BDD reduces to SIVP

BDD input: \mathbf{t} close to \mathcal{L}

- Compute $\mathbf{V} = \text{SIVP}(\mathcal{L}^*)$
- For each $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathcal{L}^*$, find the layer $L_i = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = c_i\}$ closest to \mathbf{t}
- Output $L_1 \cap L_2 \cap \dots \cap L_n$
- Output is correct as long as

$$\mu(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{L}) \leq \frac{\lambda_1}{2n} \leq \frac{1}{2\lambda_n^*} \leq \frac{1}{2\|\mathbf{v}_i\|}$$

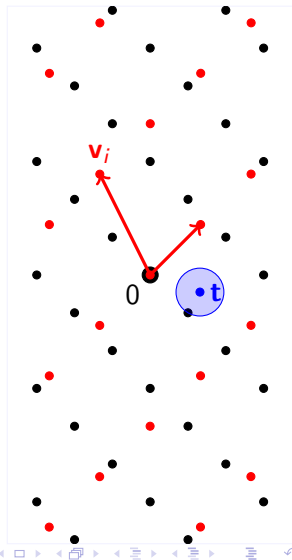


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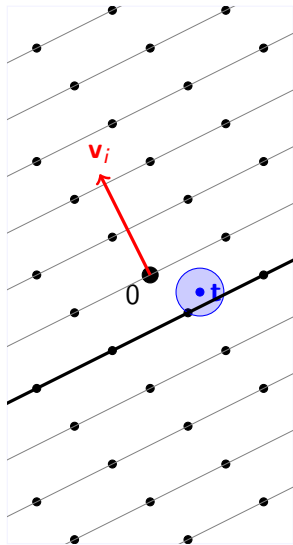


BDD reduces to SIVP

BDD input: \mathbf{t} close to \mathcal{L}

- Compute $\mathbf{V} = \text{SIVP}(\mathcal{L}^*)$
- For each $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathcal{L}^*$, find the layer $L_i = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = c_i\}$ closest to \mathbf{t}
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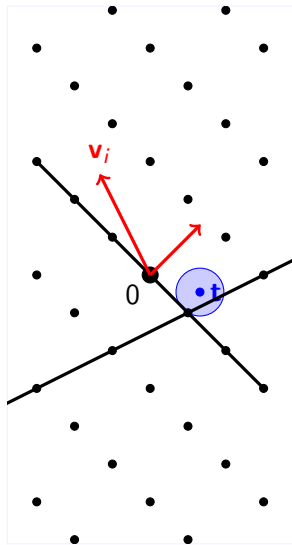


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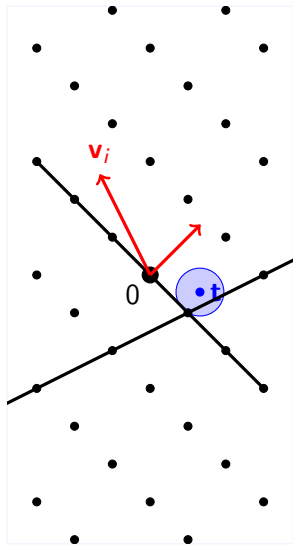


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Special Versions of SVP and SIVP

- **GapSVP**: compute (or approximate) the value λ_1 without necessarily finding a short vector
- **GapSIVP**: compute (or approximate) the value λ_n without necessarily finding short linearly independent vectors
- Transference Theorem $\lambda_1 \approx 1/\lambda_n^*$: GapSVP can be (approximately) solved by solving GapSIVP in the dual lattice, and vice versa

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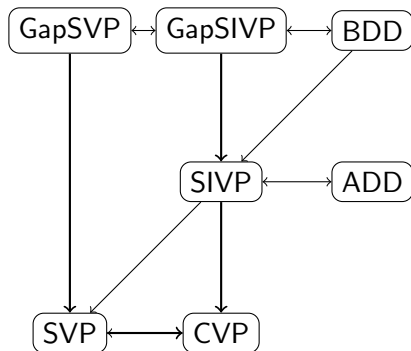
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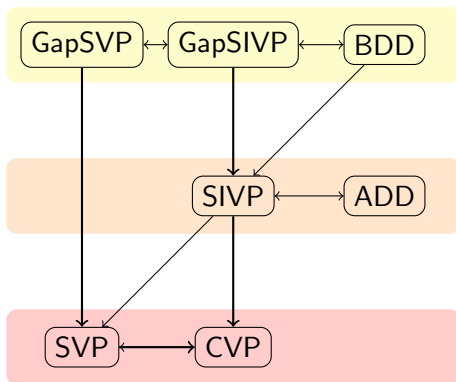
Relations among lattice problems

- $SIVP \approx ADD$ [MG'01]
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- $SIVP \leq CVP$ [M'08]
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- 1 Point Lattices
 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

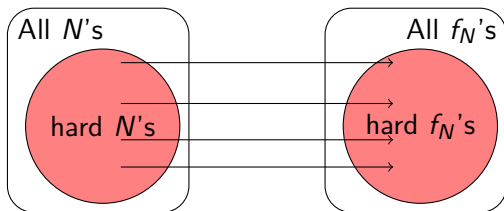
Provable security (from average case hardness)

Example 1: (Rabin) modular squaring

- $f_N(x) = x^2 \pmod N$, where $N = p \cdot q$
- Inverting f_N is at least as hard as factoring N

Theorem

f_N is cryptographically hard to invert, provided *most* $N = p \cdot q$ are hard to factor



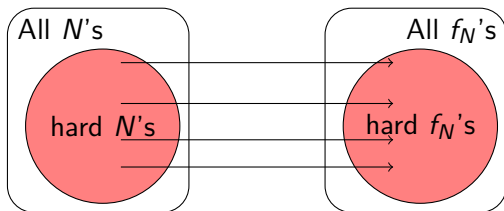
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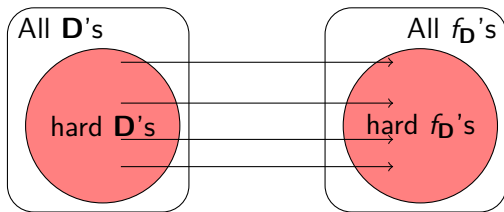
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- $f_{\mathbf{D}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} \bmod 1$
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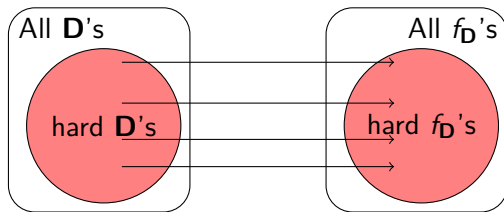
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Average-case Complexity

Average-case complexity depends on input distribution

Example (Factoring problem)

Given a number N , output $a, b > 1$ such that $N = ab$

Factoring can be easy on average

if N is uniformly random, then $N = 2 \cdot \frac{N}{2}$ with probability 50%!

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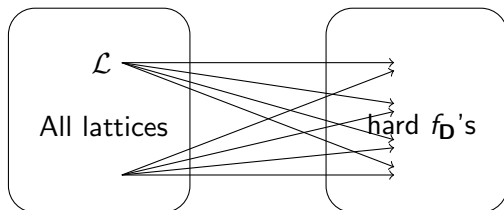
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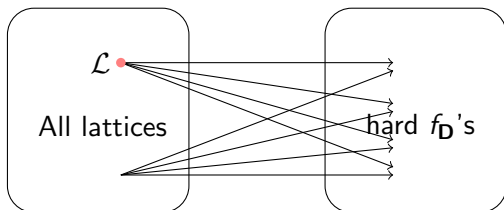
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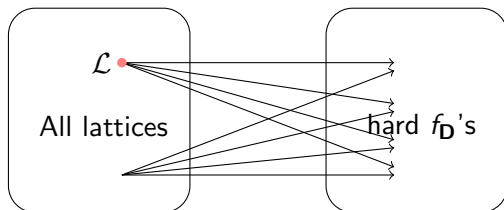
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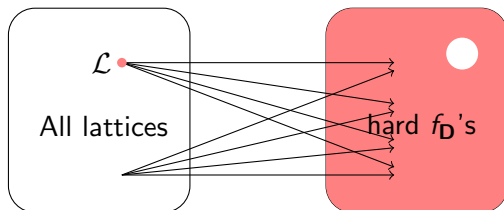
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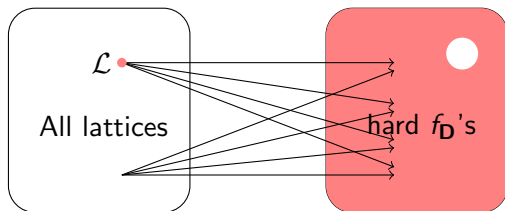
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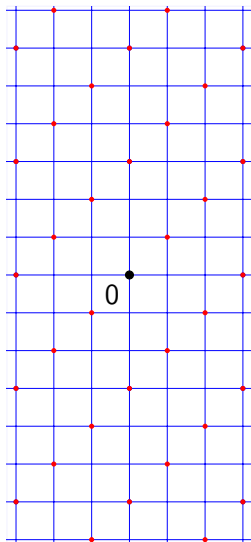
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Random lattices in Cryptography

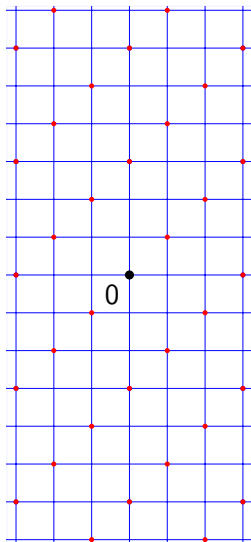


- Cryptography typically uses (random) lattices Λ such that
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 - $q\mathbb{Z}^d \subseteq \Lambda$ is periodic modulo a small integer q .
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- $\Lambda_q(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \bmod q \in \mathbf{A}^T \mathbb{Z}_q^n\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$
- $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \bmod q\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$

Theorem

For any lattice Λ the following conditions are equivalent:

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Definition

$$\mathcal{M}_{k,n} = \{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{k \times n} \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbb{Z}_q^n = \mathbb{Z}_q^k\}$$

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Question

Are lattice problems on random q -ary lattices hard on average?

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- What about BDD? (Remember $BDD \leq \text{GapSVP}$.)
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Are q -ary lattices hard?

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Ajtai's function

Definition (Ajtai's function)

Keyed function family

$$f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{Ax} \bmod q$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^m$.

$$\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^m \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$\longleftarrow m \longrightarrow$

$$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m} \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 4 & 5 & 9 & 3 & 0 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 6 & 2 & 4 & 3 \\ 7 & 5 & 5 & 4 & 7 & 8 & 0 \\ 2 & 7 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 6 & 9 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 2 \\ 2 \\ 7 \\ 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \mathbf{Ax} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$$

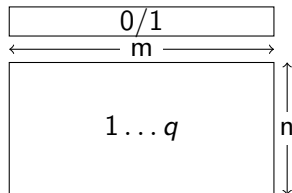
$\uparrow n \downarrow$

Ajtai's function and q -ary lattices

- $f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{Ax} \bmod q$, where \mathbf{x} is short
- The output of $f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the syndrome of \mathbf{x}
- Inverting $f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the same as CVP in its syndrome decoding formulation with lattice $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$ and target $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbf{x} + \Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$
- The q -ary lattice $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$ is the kernel of $f_{\mathbf{A}}$
- Finding collisions $f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) = f_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{y})$ is equivalent to finding short vectors $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \in \Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$

Parameters

- Parameters:
 - n : main security parameter
 - $q = n^2 = n^{O(1)}$ small modulus
 - $m = 2n \log_2 q = O(n \log n)$
 - e.g., $n = 256$, $q = 2^{16}$, $m = 8192$
- f_A is a compression function
 - It maps m bits to $n \log_2 q < m$ bits (e.g., $8192 \rightarrow 4096$)
 - There exist collisions $f_A(x) = f_A(y)$

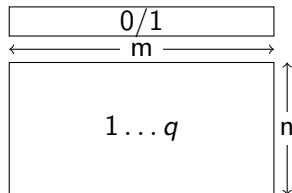


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Is f_A collision resistant when $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ is chosen at random?

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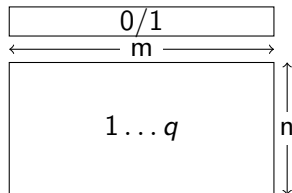


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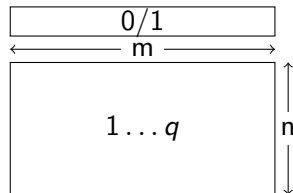


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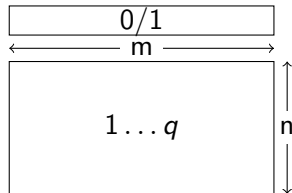


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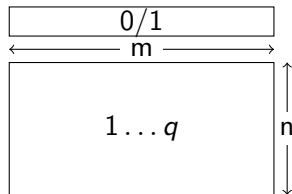
Efficiency issues

- $q = n^{O(1)}$, $m = 2n \log_2 q$
- Let's lower $n = 64$, $q = 2^8$, $m = 1024$
- f_A maps 1024 bits to 512.
- Key size: $nm \log q = O(n^2 \log^2 n) = 2^{19} = 64KB$
- Runtime: $nm = O(n^2 \log n) = 2^{16}$ arithmetic operations
- Still inefficient because of quadratic dependency in n



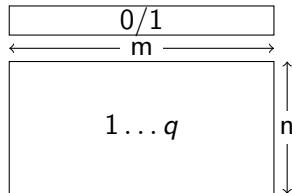
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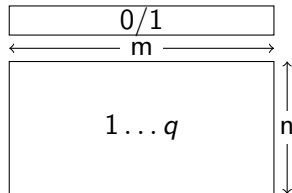
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Efficient lattice based hashing

Idea

Use structured matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{A}^{(1)} \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{A}^{(m/n)}]$$

where $\mathbf{A}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ is circulant

$$\mathbf{A}^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^{(i)} & a_n^{(i)} & \dots & a_2^{(i)} \\ a_2^{(i)} & a_1^{(i)} & \dots & a_3^{(i)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_n^{(i)} & a_{n-1}^{(i)} & \dots & a_1^{(i)} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Proposed by [M02], where it is proved that $f_{\mathbf{A}}$ is one-way under plausible complexity assumptions
- Similar idea first used by NTRU public key cryptosystem (1998), but with no proof of security
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Can you find a collision?

1	4	3	8	6	4	9	0	2	6	4	5	3	2	7	1	
8	1	4	3	0	6	4	9	5	2	6	4	1	3	2	7	
3	8	1	4	9	0	6	4	4	5	2	6	7	1	3	2	
4	3	8	1	4	9	0	6	6	4	5	2	2	7	1	3	

Can you find a collision?

1	0	0	-1	-1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	-1	0	
1	4	3	8	6	4	9	0	2	6	4	5	3	2	7	1	5
8	1	4	3	0	6	4	9	5	2	6	4	1	3	2	7	4
3	8	1	4	9	0	6	4	4	5	2	6	7	1	3	2	8
4	3	8	1	4	9	0	6	6	4	5	2	2	7	1	3	6

Can you find a collision?

? ? ? ?	? ? ? ?	? ? ? ?	? ? ? ?	
1 4 3 8	6 4 9 0	2 6 4 5	3 2 7 1	0
8 1 4 3	0 6 4 9	5 2 6 4	1 3 2 7	0
3 8 1 4	9 0 6 4	4 5 2 6	7 1 3 2	0
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1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
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$$+1 \times \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 6 \\ 6 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}
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Remarks about proofs of security

- This function is essentially the compression function of hash function LASH, modeled after NTRU
- You can still “prove” security based on average case assumption: Breaking the above hash function is as hard as finding short vectors in a random lattice $\Lambda([\mathbf{A}^{(1)} | \dots | \mathbf{A}^{(m/n)}])$
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- Finding short vectors in $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$ when \mathbf{A} is a random “block circulant” matrix is easy
- What about unstructured random $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{k \times n}$?

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Is $f_{\mathbf{A}}$ collision resistant when $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{k \times n}$ is random?

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[Ajtai96,...,MR04]
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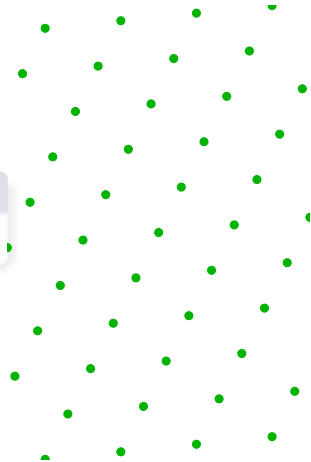
Blurring a lattice

Consider an arbitrary lattice, and add noise to each lattice point until the entire space is covered. Increase the noise until the space is uniformly covered.

How much noise is needed? [MR]

$$\|\mathbf{r}\| \leq (\log n) \cdot \sqrt{n} \cdot \lambda_n / 2$$

- Each point in $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r}$ where $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}$ and $\|\mathbf{r}\| \approx \sqrt{n} \lambda_n$.
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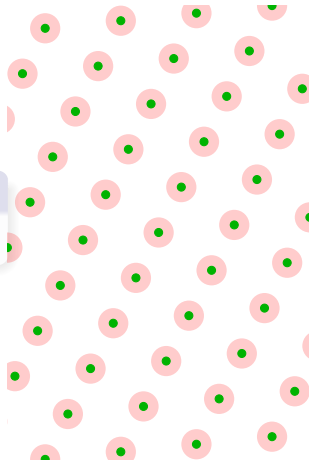
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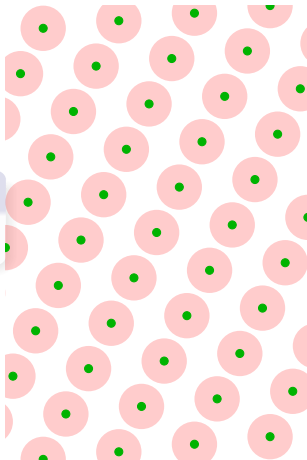
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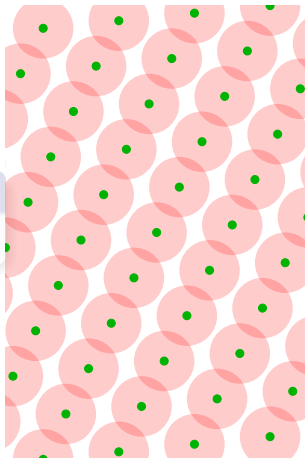
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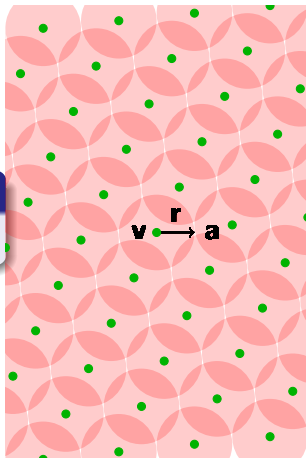
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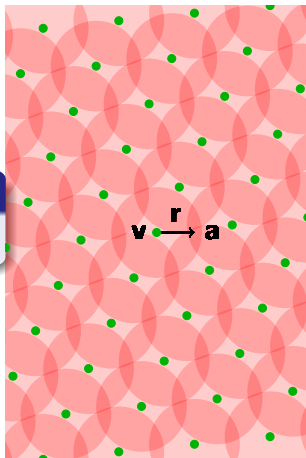
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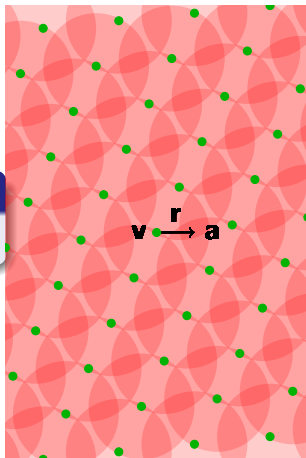
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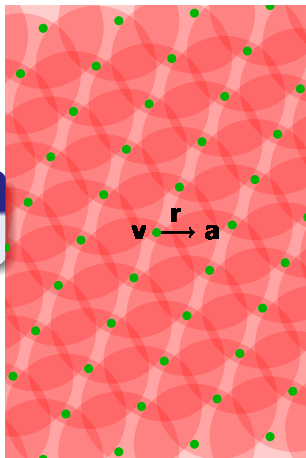
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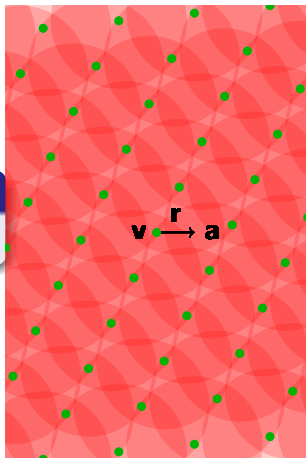
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Consider an arbitrary lattice, and add noise to each lattice point until the entire space is covered. Increase the noise until the space is uniformly covered.

How much noise is needed? [MR]

$$\|\mathbf{r}\| \leq (\log n) \cdot \sqrt{n} \cdot \lambda_n / 2$$

- Each point in $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r}$ where $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}$ and $\|\mathbf{r}\| \approx \sqrt{n}\lambda_n$.
- $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is uniformly distributed.



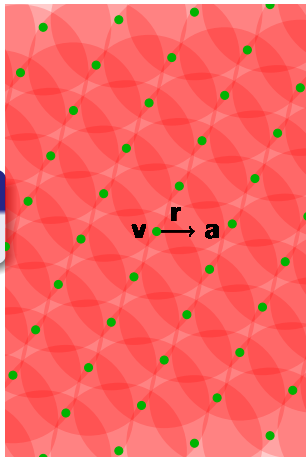
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Security proof (sketch)

- Generate random points $\mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{r}_i$, where
 - \mathbf{v}_i is a random lattice point
 - \mathbf{r}_i is a random error vector of length $\|\mathbf{r}_i\| \approx \sqrt{n}\lambda_n$
- $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m]$ is distributed almost uniformly at random in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, so
 - if we can break Ajtai's function $f_{\mathbf{A}}$, then
 - we can find a vector $\mathbf{z} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^m$ such that

$$\sum (\mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{r}_i) z_i = \sum \mathbf{a}_i z_i = \mathbf{0}$$

- Rearranging the terms yields a lattice vector

$$\sum \mathbf{v}_i z_i = - \sum \mathbf{r}_i z_i$$

of length at most $\|\sum \mathbf{r}_i z_i\| \approx \sqrt{n} \cdot \max \|\mathbf{r}_i\| \approx n \cdot \lambda_n$

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What about efficiency

?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?		
1	-4	-3	-8	6	-4	-9	-0	2	-6	-4	-5	3	-2	-7	-1
8	1	-4	-3	0	6	-4	-9	5	2	-6	-4	1	3	-2	-7
3	8	1	-4	9	0	6	-4	4	5	2	-6	7	1	3	-2
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Theorem (LM'07)

*Provably collision resistant, assuming the **worst case** hardness of approximating SVP and SIVP over **ideal** lattices.*

Efficiency of anti-cyclic hashing

- Key size: $(m/n) \cdot n \log q = m \cdot \log q = \tilde{O}(n)$ bits
- Anti-cyclic matrix-vector multiplication can be computed in quasi-linear time $\tilde{O}(n)$ using FFT
- The resulting hash function can also be computed in $\tilde{O}(n)$ time
- For approximate choice of parameters, this can be very practical (SWIFFT [LMPR])
- The hash function is linear: $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$
- We will see that this can be a feature rather than a weakness

Outline

- 1 Point Lattices
 - Computational Problems
 - The dual lattice
- 2 Lattice Cryptography
 - Average Case Hardness
 - Random Lattices
 - Cryptographic functions

Hard Random Lattices

Theorem (Ajtai, MR04)

$f_{\mathbf{A}}$ is collision resistant, under the assumption that SIVP is hard to approximate in the worst-case withing a factor $\gamma \approx n$.

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One-time signatures

- **OTS**: digital signature scheme that allows to sign a single message (faster than a full fledged signature scheme)
- Global parameters: q -ary lattice \mathbf{A}
- Secret key: short error vectors \mathbf{S}
- Public key: syndromes $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{AS}$ (Hash of secret key under homomorphic hash function)
- Message: short vector \mathbf{m}
- Signature: $\sigma = \mathbf{Sm}$
- Verify: Check if σ is short and $\mathbf{Pm} = \mathbf{A}\sigma$

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- Generate $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{AS}$
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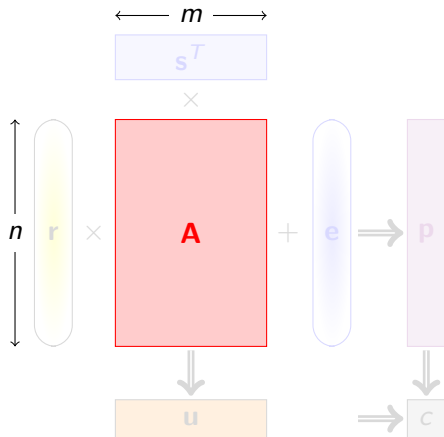
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Regev (LWE) cryptosystem



- Parameters:

$$m, n, q \in \mathbb{Z}, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n}$$

- Secret key: $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n, \mathbf{e} \in \mathcal{E}^m$

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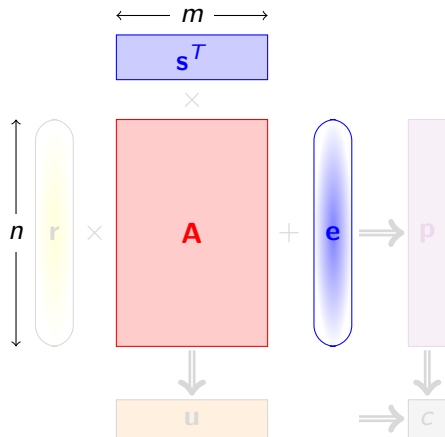
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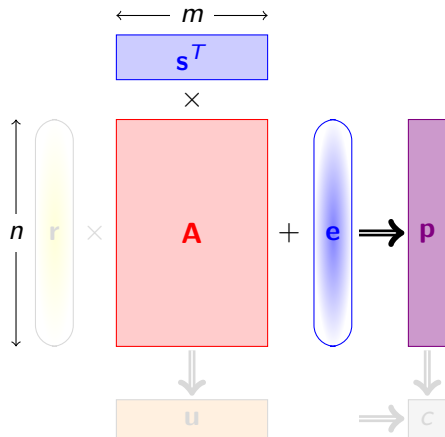
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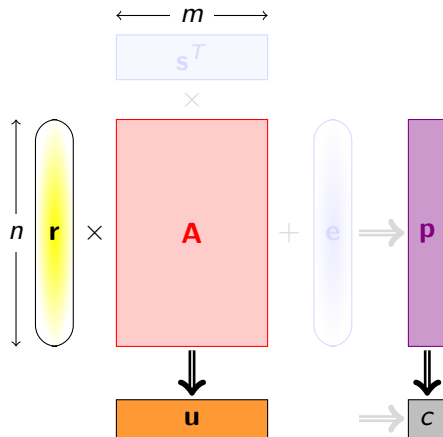
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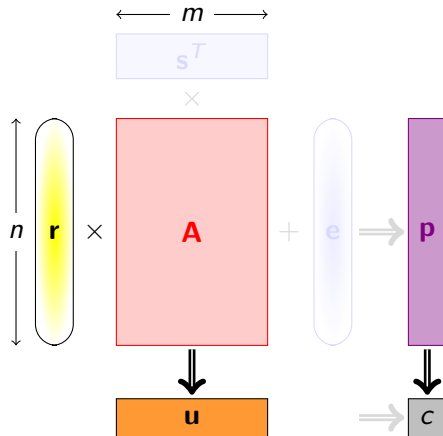
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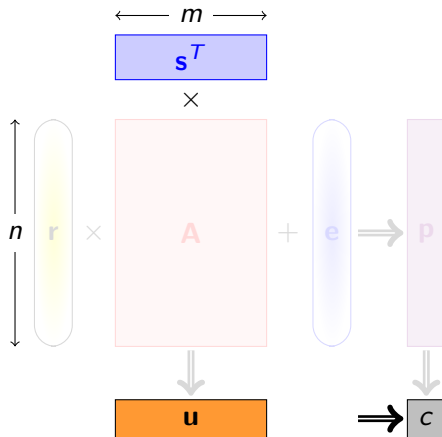
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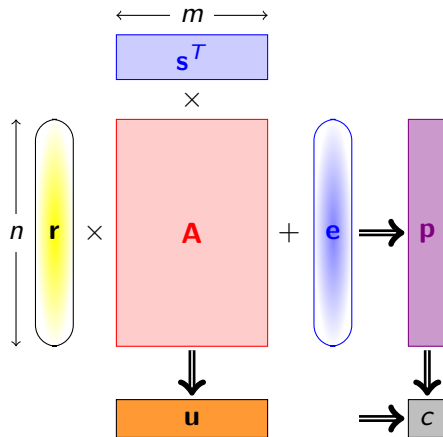
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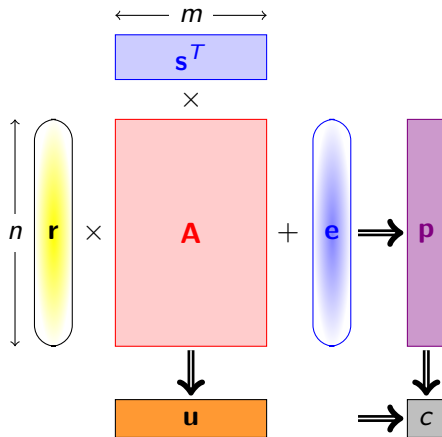
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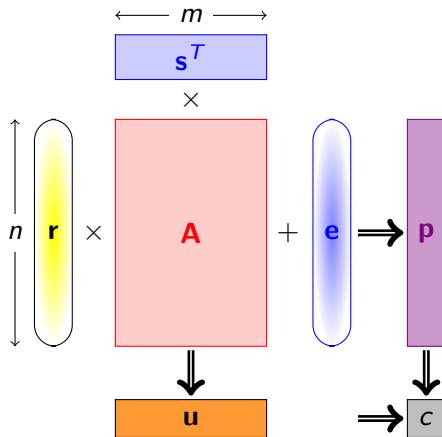
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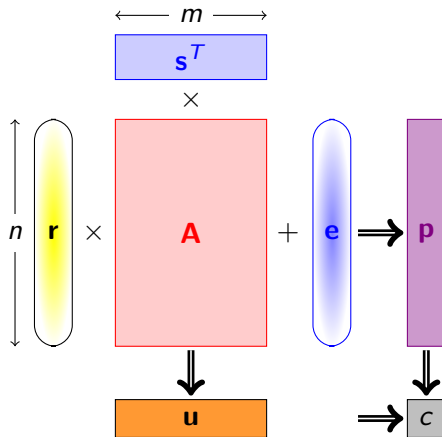
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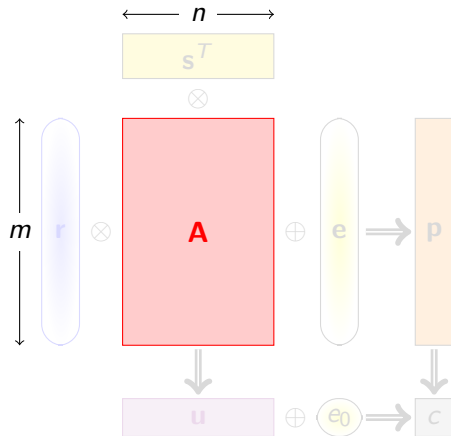
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The geometry of LWE encryption



- Public key:
 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{e} \approx_c \mathbb{Z}_q^m$
- $[\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{p}]$: random q -ary lattice with a planted short vector \mathbf{e}
- Encryption:
 $(\mathbf{u}, c) = [\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{p}]^T \mathbf{r}$ is the syndrome of $\mathbf{r} + \Lambda_q^\perp([\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{p}])$
- Decryption: use short dual vector \mathbf{e} to solve BDD problem

GPV (dual LWE) cryptosystem



- Parameters:

$$m, n, q \in \mathbb{Z}, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n}$$

- Secret key: $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{E}^m$

- Public key: $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{A} \approx_s \mathbb{Z}_q^m$

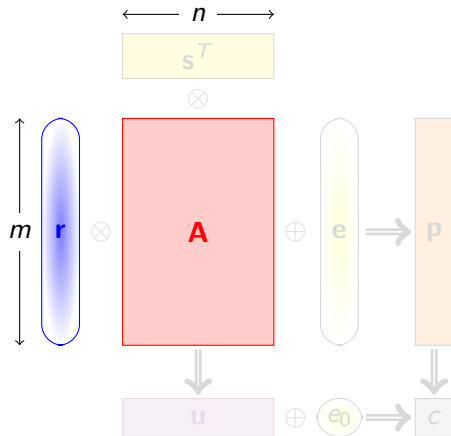
- Encrypt $_{\mathbf{u}}(m; \mathbf{e})$:

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{e}$$

$$c = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{s} + e_0 + m$$

- Decrypt $_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{p}, c) = c - \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{p} \approx m$.

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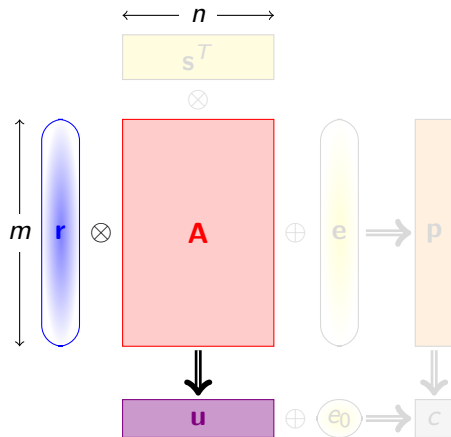
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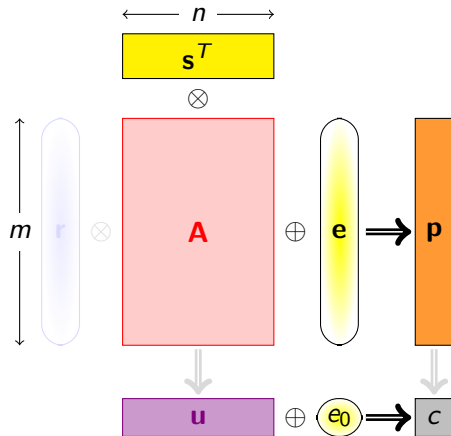
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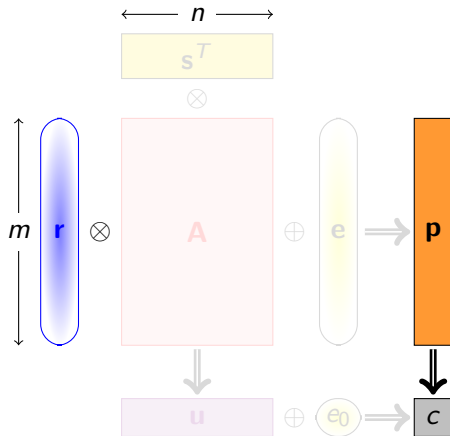
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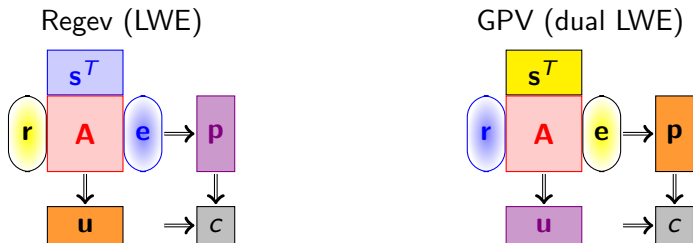
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Comparing Regev and GPV encryption

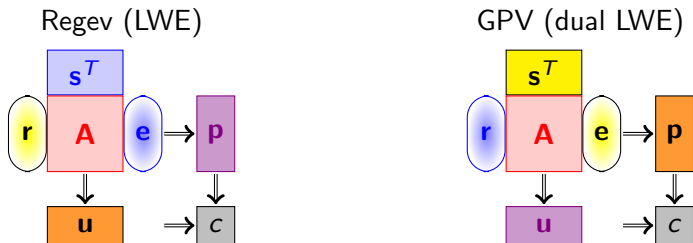


Regev and GPV cryptosystems use the same mathematical objects

A, s, r, e, p, u, c , but operate on them in different roles:

Public key generation	\iff	Encryption
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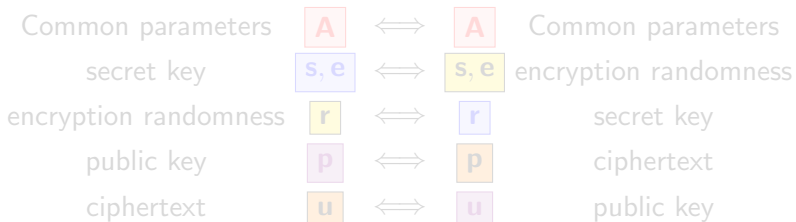
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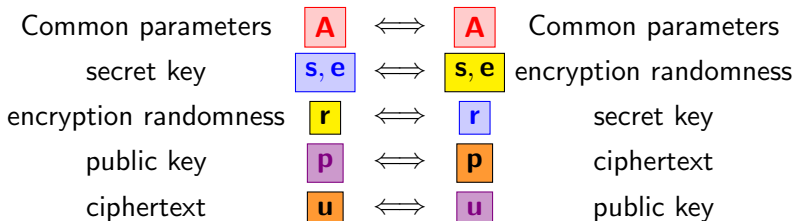
Naive interpretation

- The schemes are **syntactically similar**: Regev and GPV cryptosystems operate on the same mathematical objects **A, s, r, e, p, u, c**.
- The scheme are **semantically different**:



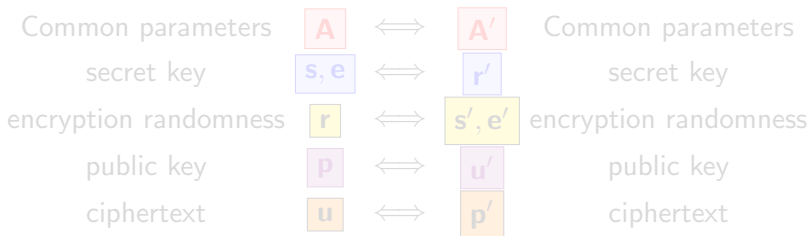
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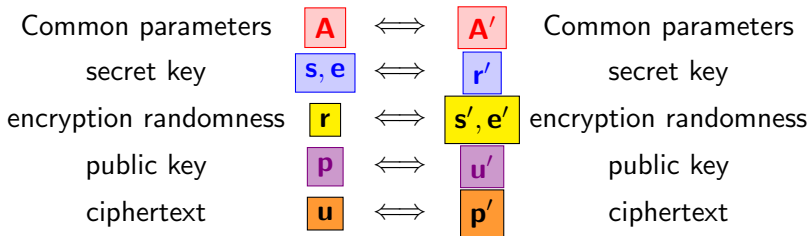
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Trapdoor functions

Theorem (A99,AP09,MP11)

There is an algorithm to efficiently generate a random $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ together with a short basis $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ of $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$.

Trapdoor function:

- Inverting $f_{\mathbf{A}}$ is a BDD problem
- BDD can be solved with a short dual basis
- \mathbf{S} can be used as an inversion trapdoor

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Conclusion

- Lattice cryptography allows to build a wide range of many other cryptographic primitives (Hierarchical identity based encryption, Fully homomorphic encryption, and much more)
- It has great potential for fast implementation due to simple operations and high parallelizability
- Most primitives can be described and explained in terms of a handful of basic geometric concepts
- Everything that can be done with number theoretic scheme can be done with lattice cryptography as well
- Currently the only method known to build fully homomorphic encryption
- Not quite ready for use in practice, but moving fast in that direction
- Open problems: concrete efficiency, security evaluation, etc.