Lattice-based public-key cryptosystems

D. J. Bernstein

NIST post-quantum competition: 69 submissions in first round, from hundreds of people. (+13 submissions that NIST declared incomplete or improper.) 22 signature-system submissions. 5 lattice-based: Dilithium; DRS (broken); FALCON*; pqNTRUSign*; qTESLA.

- 47 encryption-system submissions. 20 lattice-based: Compact LWE* (broken); Ding*; EMBLEM; Frodo; HILA5 (CCA broken); KCL*; KINDI; Kyber; LAC; LIMA; Lizard*; LOTUS; NewHope; NTRUEncrypt; NTRU HRSS; NTRU Prime; Odd Manhattan; Round2*; SABER; Titanium.
- *: submitter claims patent on this submission. Warning: even without *, submission could be covered by other patents!

First serious lattice-based encryption system: NTRU from Hoffstein-Pipher-Silverman.

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Proposed 104-byte public keys for 2⁸⁰ security.

1996 paper converted NTRU attack problem into a lattice problem (suboptimally), and then applied LLL (not state of the art) to attack the lattice problem.

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NTRU paper, ANTS 1998: proposed 147-byte or 503-byte keys for 2^{77} or 2^{170} security.

Let's try NTRU on the computer.

Debian: apt install sagemath

Fedora: yum install sagemath

Source: www.sagemath.org

Web: sagecell.sagemath.org

Sage is Python 2

- + many math libraries
- + a few syntax differences:

sage: 10⁶ # power, not xor

1000000

sage: factor(314159265358979323)

317213509 * 990371647

sage: # now Zx is a class

sage: # Zx objects are polys

sage: # in x with int coeffs

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 $4*x^2 + x + 3$

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sage: g = Zx([2,7,1])

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sage: g = Zx([2,7,1])

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 $x^2 + 7*x + 2$

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 $4*x^2 + x + 3$

sage: g = Zx([2,7,1])

sage: g

 $x^2 + 7*x + 2$

sage: f+g # built-in add

 $5*x^2 + 8*x + 5$

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

sage: f*x^2

 $4*x^4 + x^3 + 3*x^2$

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

sage: f*x^2

 $4*x^4 + x^3 + 3*x^2$

sage: f*2

 $8*x^2 + 2*x + 6$

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

sage: f*x^2

 $4*x^4 + x^3 + 3*x^2$

sage: f*2

 $8*x^2 + 2*x + 6$

sage: f*(7*x)

 $28*x^3 + 7*x^2 + 21*x$

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

sage: f*x^2

 $4*x^4 + x^3 + 3*x^2$

sage: f*2

 $8*x^2 + 2*x + 6$

sage: f*(7*x)

 $28*x^3 + 7*x^2 + 21*x$

sage: f*g

 $4*x^4 + 29*x^3 + 18*x^2 + 23*x$

+ 6

 $4*x^3 + x^2 + 3*x$

sage: f*x^2

 $4*x^4 + x^3 + 3*x^2$

sage: f*2

 $8*x^2 + 2*x + 6$

sage: f*(7*x)

 $28*x^3 + 7*x^2 + 21*x$

sage: f*g

 $4*x^4 + 29*x^3 + 18*x^2 + 23*x$

+ 6

sage: $f*g == f*2+f*(7*x)+f*x^2$

True

```
sage: # replace x^n with 1,
sage: \# x^{(n+1)} with x, etc.
sage: def convolution(f,g):
        return (f*g) % (x^n-1)
• • • •
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 $x^2 + 3*x + 4$

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sage: n = 3 # global variable
sage: convolution(f,x)
x^2 + 3*x + 4
sage: convolution(f,x^2)
3*x^2 + 4*x + 1
sage: convolution(f,g)
```

sage: convolution(f,g
18*x^2 + 27*x + 35
sage:

```
sage: def randompoly():
....:    f = list(randrange(3)-1
....:    for j in range(n))
....:    return Zx(f)
....:
```

```
sage: def randompoly():
....:    f = list(randrange(3)-1
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sage: n = 7
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x^6 + x^5 + x^3 - x
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x^6 + x^5 + x^3 - x
sage: randompoly()
-x^6 + x^5 + x^4 - x^3 - x^2 +
x + 1
sage:
```

Some choices of *n* in submissions to NIST:

n = 701 for NTRU HRSS.

n = 743 for NTRUEncrypt.

n = 761 for sntrup4591761.

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Can we find better algorithms?

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Can we find better algorithms?

1998 NTRU paper took n = 503.

Modular reduction

For integers u, q with q > 0, Sage's "u%q" always produces outputs between 0 and q - 1.

Matches standard math definition.

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Matches standard math definition.

Warning: Typically u < 0 produces u%q < 0 in lower-level languages, so nonzero output leaks input sign.

Warning: For polynomials u, Sage can make the same mistake.

sage: g=list((f[i]+q//2)%q)

sage: -q//2 for i in range(n))

sage: return Zx(g)

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sage: u = 314-159*x

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sage:

sage: u = 314-159*x

sage: u % 200

-159*x + 114

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sage:

sage: u = 314-159*x

sage: u % 200

-159*x + 114

sage: (u - 400) % 200

-159*x - 86

sage: def balancedmod(f,q): sage: g=list((f[i]+q//2)%q)sage: -q//2 for i in range(n)) sage: return Zx(g) sage: sage: u = 314-159*xsage: u % 200 -159*x + 114sage: (u - 400) % 200 -159*x - 86sage: balancedmod(u,200)

41*x - 86

```
sage: def invertmodprime(f,p):
....: Fp = Integers(p)
....: Fpx = Zx.change_ring(Fp)
....: T = Fpx.quotient(x^n-1)
....: return Zx(lift(1/T(f)))
....:
sage:
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sage: n = 7
sage: f = randompoly()
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sage: n = 7
sage: f = randompoly()
sage: f3 = invertmodprime(f,3)
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sage: n = 7
sage: f = randompoly()
sage: f3 = invertmodprime(f,3)
sage: convolution(f,f3)
6*x^6 + 6*x^5 + 3*x^4 + 3*x^3 +
 3*x^2 + 3*x + 4
sage:
```

```
def invertmodpowerof2(f,q):
  assert q.is_power_of(2)
  g = invertmodprime(f,2)
  M = balancedmod
  C = convolution
  while True:
    r = M(C(g,f),q)
    if r == 1: return g
    g = M(C(g, 2-r), q)
```

Exercise: Figure out how invertmodpowerof2 works.
Hint: Compare r to previous r.

sage: q = 256

sage: q = 256

sage: f = randompoly()

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sage: f = randompoly()

sage: f

 $-x^6 - x^4 + x^2 + x - 1$

sage: q = 256

sage: f = randompoly()

sage: f

 $-x^6 - x^4 + x^2 + x - 1$

sage: g = invertmodpowerof2(f,q)

sage: q = 256

sage: f = randompoly()

sage: f

 $-x^6 - x^4 + x^2 + x - 1$

sage: g = invertmodpowerof2(f,q)

sage: g

 $47*x^6 + 126*x^5 - 54*x^4 -$

 $87*x^3 - 36*x^2 - 58*x + 61$

sage: q = 256

sage: f = randompoly()

sage: f

 $-x^6 - x^4 + x^2 + x - 1$

sage: g = invertmodpowerof2(f,q)

sage: g

 $47*x^6 + 126*x^5 - 54*x^4 -$

 $87*x^3 - 36*x^2 - 58*x + 61$

sage: convolution(f,g)

 $-256*x^5 - 256*x^4 + 256*x + 257$

sage: n = 7sage: q = 256sage: f = randompoly() sage: f $-x^6 - x^4 + x^2 + x - 1$ sage: g = invertmodpowerof2(f,q) sage: g $47*x^6 + 126*x^5 - 54*x^4 87*x^3 - 36*x^2 - 58*x + 61$ sage: convolution(f,g) $-256*x^5 - 256*x^4 + 256*x + 257$ sage: balancedmod(_,q) 1

Parameters:

```
n, positive integer (e.g., 701);
q, power of 2 (e.g., 4096).
```

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Require *d* invertible mod *q*. Require *d* invertible mod 3.

Parameters:

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random n-coeff polynomial a; random n-coeff polynomial d; all coefficients in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$.

Require d invertible mod q. Require d invertible mod 3.

Public key: A = 3a/d in the ring $R_q = (\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^n - 1)$.

```
def keypair():
  while True:
    try:
      d = randompoly()
      d3 = invertmodprime(d,3)
      dq = invertmodpowerof2(d,q)
      break
    except:
      pass
  a = randompoly()
  publickey = balancedmod(3 *
             convolution(a,dq),q)
  secretkey = d,d3
  return publickey, secretkey
```

sage: A

 $-126*x^6 - 31*x^5 - 118*x^4 -$

 $33*x^3 + 73*x^2 - 16*x + 7$

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sage: d,d3 = secretkey

sage: d

 $-x^6 + x^5 - x^4 + x^3 - 1$

sage: A

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 $33*x^3 + 73*x^2 - 16*x + 7$

sage: d,d3 = secretkey

sage: d

 $-x^6 + x^5 - x^4 + x^3 - 1$

sage: convolution(d,A)

 $-3*x^6 + 253*x^5 + 253*x^3 -$

 $253*x^2 - 3*x - 3$

sage: A,secretkey = keypair() sage: A $-126*x^6 - 31*x^5 - 118*x^4 33*x^3 + 73*x^2 - 16*x + 7$ sage: d,d3 = secretkey sage: d $-x^6 + x^5 - x^4 + x^3 - 1$ sage: convolution(d,A) $-3*x^6 + 253*x^5 + 253*x^3 253*x^2 - 3*x - 3$ sage: balancedmod(_,q) $-3*x^6 - 3*x^5 - 3*x^3 + 3*x^2$ -3*x - 3

NTRU encryption

One more parameter: w, positive integer (e.g., 467).

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Message for encryption: n-coeff weight-w polynomial c with all coeffs in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$.

"Weight w": w nonzero coeffs, n - w zero coeffs.

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Ciphertext: C = Ab + c in R_q where b is chosen randomly from the set of messages.

```
sage: def randommessage():
        R = randrange
• • • • •
\dots: assert w <= n
\dots: c = n*[0]
....: for j in range(w):
          while True:
. . . . .
            r = R(n)
. . . . .
             if not c[r]: break
• • • •
         c[r] = 1-2*R(2)
•
...: return Zx(c)
. . . . .
sage: w = 5
sage: randommessage()
-x^6 - x^5 + x^4 + x^3 - x^2
sage:
```

```
sage: def encrypt(c,A):
....: b = randommessage()
....: Ab = convolution(A,b)
....: C = balancedmod(Ab + c,q)
....: return C
....:
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. . . . .
sage: A,secretkey = keypair()
sage: c = randommessage()
sage: C = encrypt(c,A)
sage: C
21*x^6 - 48*x^5 + 31*x^4 -
76*x^3 - 77*x^2 + 15*x - 113
sage:
```

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Multiply by 1/d in R_3 to recover message c in R_3 .

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are between -q/2 and q/2-1.

Then 3ab + dc in R_q reveals 3ab + dc in $R = \mathbf{Z}[x]/(x^n - 1)$. Reduce modulo 3: dc in R_3 .

Multiply by 1/d in R_3 to recover message c in R_3 . Coeffs are between -1 and 1, so recover c in R.

```
sage: def decrypt(C,secretkey):
           M = balancedmod
           f,r = secretkey
           u=M(convolution(C,f),q)
. . . . .
         c=M(convolution(u,r),3)
. . . . .
           return c
. . . . .
sage: c
x^5 + x^4 - x^3 + x + 1
sage:
```

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           u=M(convolution(C,f),q)
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         c=M(convolution(u,r),3)
. . . . .
           return c
. . . . .
. . . . .
sage: c
x^5 + x^4 - x^3 + x + 1
sage: decrypt(C,secretkey)
x^5 + x^4 - x^3 + x + 1
sage:
```

sage: w = 5

sage: q = 256

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 $-101*x^6 - 76*x^5 - 90*x^4 -$

 $83*x^3 + 40*x^2 + 108*x - 54$

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sage: d,d3 = secretkey

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sage: d,d3 = secretkey

sage: d

 $x^5 + x^4 - x^3 + x - 1$

sage: conv = convolution

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sage: q = 256

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sage: A

 $-101*x^6 - 76*x^5 - 90*x^4 -$

 $83*x^3 + 40*x^2 + 108*x - 54$

sage: d,d3 = secretkey

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 $x^5 + x^4 - x^3 + x - 1$

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sage: M = balancedmod

sage: w = 5

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sage: M(u,3)

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+ 1

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Does decryption always work?

All coeffs of a are in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$. All coeffs of b are in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$, and exactly w are nonzero.

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e.g. w = 467: at most 1868. Decryption works for q = 4096.

Same argument doesn't work.

$$a = b = c = d =$$

$$1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^{w-1}$$
:

3ab + dc has a coeff 4w > q/2.

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But coeffs are usually <1024 when a, d are chosen randomly.

1996 NTRU handout mentioned no-decryption-failure option, but recommended smaller *q* with some chance of failures.
1998 NTRU paper: decryption failure "will occur so rarely that it can be ignored in practice".

Crypto 2003 Howgrave-Graham–Nguyen–Pointcheval–Proos–Silverman–Singer–Whyte "The impact of decryption failures on the security of NTRU encryption":

Decryption failures imply that "all the security proofs known . . . for various NTRU paddings may not be valid after all". Crypto 2003 Howgrave-Graham–Nguyen–Pointcheval–Proos–Silverman–Singer–Whyte "The impact of decryption failures on the security of NTRU encryption":

Decryption failures imply that "all the security proofs known . . . for various NTRU paddings may not be valid after all".

Even worse: Attacker who sees some random decryption failures can figure out the secret key!

Coeff of x^{n-1} in cd is $c_0d_{n-1} + c_1d_{n-2} + \ldots + c_{n-1}d_0$.

This coeff is large \Leftrightarrow $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ has high correlation with $d_{n-1}, d_{n-2}, \ldots, d_0$.

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i.e. c is correlated with x^i rev(d) for some i, where rev $(d) = d_0 + d_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + d_{n-1} x$.

Reasonable guesses given a random decryption failure: c correlated with some x^i rev(d).

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Experimentally confirmed: Average of c rev(c) over some decryption failures is close to d rev(d). Round to integers: d rev(d). Reasonable guesses given a random decryption failure: c correlated with some x^i rev(d). rev(c) correlated with $x^{-i}d$. c rev(c) correlated with d rev(d).

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Eurocrypt 2002 Gentry–Szydlo algorithm then finds *d*.

1999 Hall-Goldberg-Schneier, 2000 Jaulmes-Joux, 2000 Hoffstein-Silverman, 2016 Fluhrer, etc.: Even easier attacks using invalid messages. 1999 Hall–Goldberg–Schneier, 2000 Jaulmes–Joux, 2000 Hoffstein–Silverman, 2016 Fluhrer, etc.: Even easier attacks using invalid messages.

Attacker changes c to $c \pm 1$, $c \pm x$, ..., $c \pm x^{n-1}$; $c \pm 2$, $c \pm 2x$, ..., $c \pm 2x^{n-1}$; $c \pm 3$, etc.

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This changes 3ab + dc: adds $\pm d$, $\pm xd$, ..., $\pm x^{n-1}d$; $\pm 2d$, $\pm 2xd$, ..., $\pm 2x^{n-1}d$; $\pm 3d$, etc.

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Does 3ab + dc + kxd also fail? Yes if $xd = \cdots + x^{478} + \cdots$, i.e., if $d = \cdots + x^{477} + \cdots$.

Try x^2kd , x^3kd , etc. See pattern of d coeffs.

How to handle invalid messages

Approach 1: Tell user to constantly switch keys.

For each new sender, generate new public key.
Use signatures to ensure that nobody else uses key.

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If user reuses a key: Blame user for the attacks.

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But encryption is randomized! Reencryption won't match. Solution: Compute all randomness that was used.

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"Product NTRU" variant is not naturally deterministic.

Generic Fujisaki–Okamoto solution: Require sender to compute randomness as standard hash of message.

How to handle decryption failures

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NTRU HRSS, NTRU Prime, Odd Manhattan choose *q* to eliminate decryption failures.

LIMA tried to eliminate decryption failures, but failed.

More claimed failure rates:

LOTUS: $<2^{-256}$.

New Hope submission: $<2^{-213}$.

KINDI: 2^{-165} .

•

NTRUEncrypt: $<2^{-80}$.

KCL: $\approx 2^{-60}$.

Ding: $\approx 2^{-60}$, only IND-CPA.

Current debates about what decryption failure probability is small enough; whether decryption failure probabilities were calculated correctly; etc.

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Modern "KEM-DEM" solution, from Eurocrypt 2000 Shoup: Choose random message.
Use hash of message as (e.g.)
AES-256-GCM key to encrypt and authenticate user data.

Central "one-wayness" question: Can attacker figure out a random message given public key and ciphertext? Central "one-wayness" question: Can attacker figure out a random message given public key and ciphertext?

Fujisaki–Okamoto and many newer papers try to prove that all chosen-ciphertext distinguishers ("IND-CCA attacks") are as difficult as breaking one-wayness.

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Many limitations to proofs: bugs; looseness; assumptions of "ROM" or "QROM" attacks; assumptions on failure probability; etc.

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Or search 3^n choices of d. If a = dA/3 is small, use (a, d) to decrypt. Slightly slower but can be reused for many ciphertexts.

Secret key (a, d) is equivalent to secret key (xa, xd), secret key (x^2a, x^2d) , etc.

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$$n = 701, w = 467:$$

$$\binom{n}{w} 2^{w} \approx 2^{1106.09};$$

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Exercise: Find more equivalences!

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Exercise: Find more equivalences!

But if w is chosen smaller then $\binom{n}{w} 2^w$ search will be faster.

Write d as $d_1 + d_2$ where $d_1 = \text{bottom } \lceil n/2 \rceil$ terms of d, $d_2 = \text{remaining terms of } d$.

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Eliminate a : almost certainly

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 for $H(f) = ([f_0 < 0], \dots, [f_{k-1} < 0]).$

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Enumerate all $H(-(A/3)d_2)$.

Enumerate all $H((A/3)d_1)$.

Search for collisions.

Only about $3^{n/2}$ computations; but beware cost of memory.

Lattices

<u>Lattices</u>

This is a lettuce:

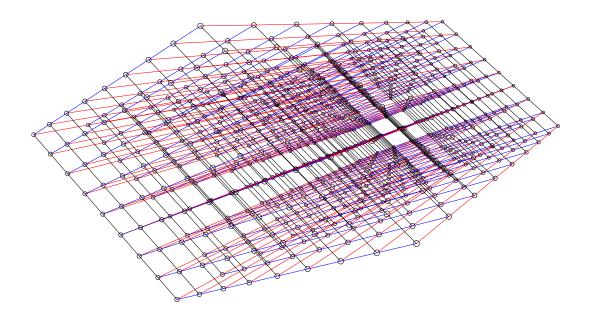


Lattices

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This is a lattice:



Lattices, mathematically

Assume that $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are \mathbb{R} -linearly independent, i.e., $\mathbb{R}b_1 + \ldots + \mathbb{R}b_k = \{r_1b_1 + \ldots + r_kb_k : r_1, \ldots, r_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is a k-dimensional vector space.

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$$\mathbf{Z}b_1 + \ldots + \mathbf{Z}b_k =$$
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 b_1, \ldots, b_k

is a **basis** of this lattice.

Given $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbf{Z}^n$, what is shortest vector in $\mathbf{Z}b_1 + \ldots + \mathbf{Z}b_k$?

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LLL algorithm runs in poly time, computes a vector whose length is at most $2^{n/2}$ times length of shortest nonzero vector.

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What is shortest nonzero vector?

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Fancier algorithms (e.g., BKZ) compute shorter vectors at surprisingly high speed.

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a is obtained from

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Write A/3 as
```

 $H_0 + H_1 x + \ldots + H_{n-1} x^{n-1}$.

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(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}, d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_{n-1})
is obtained from
(q, 0, \ldots, 0, 0, 0, \ldots, 0),
(0, q, \ldots, 0, 0, 0, \ldots, 0),
(0, 0, \ldots, q, 0, 0, \ldots, 0),
(H_0, H_1, \ldots, H_{n-1}, 1, 0, \ldots, 0),
(H_{n-1}, H_0, \ldots, H_{n-2}, 0, 1, \ldots, 0),
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1997 Coppersmith—Shamir balancing: e.g., set up lattice to contain (10a, d) if d is chosen $10 \times larger$ than a.

Attacker searches for short vector in this lattice using LLL etc.

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Exercise: Describe search for (b, c) as a problem of finding a vector close to a lattice.

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Alice reconstructs 3ab + dc in R, using smallness of a, b, d, c. Alice computes dc in R_3 , deduces c, deduces b. "Product NTRU" (new name), 2010 Lyubashevsky–Peikert–Regev:

Everyone knows random $G \in R_q$. Alice generates A = aG + d in R_q for small random a, d. "Product NTRU" (new name), 2010 Lyubashevsky–Peikert–Regev:

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Alice computes C - aB in R_q , i.e., m + db + c - ae in R_q . Alice reconstructs m, using smallness of d, b, c, a, e.