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Learning a Parallelepiped attack against Hawk digital signature scheme

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Abstract

In this work, we do cryptanalysis on the Hawk digital signature scheme using the *Learning a Parallelepiped* method which broke the GGH and basic NTRU digital signature schemes.

Acknowledgements

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Eirik D. Skjerve

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Context and motivation

Digital signatures are an integral part of secure communication today. They enable a receiver of a digital message to mathematically verify the sender is who they say they are. The widely used Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA) and the Rivest, Shamir, Adleman (RSA) signature scheme are in peril due to the potential emergence of quantum computers which can break the hard problems DSA and RSA-sign are based upon. Whether practical quantum computers with these powers will emerge any time soon is debatable. However, measures against the looming threat has already begun. In 2016, the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) announced a process for selecting new standard schemes for Key Encapsulation Methods (KEMs) and digital signatures that are resilient against quantum attacks (<https://www.nist.gov/pqcrypto>). Many of the submissions to this process, including KRYSTALS-Dilithium which is to be standardized, are based on lattice problems that are believed to be hard to solve for both classical and quantum computers.

Cryptographic schemes based on lattice problems are not an entirely new phenomenon, however. NTRU-Sign [2], the signature counterpart of the NTRU crypto-system, is a digital signature scheme based on the hardness of the Closest Vector Problem (CVP), a well known lattice problem (source?). The original scheme was broken by Phong. Q. Nguyen & Oded Regev in 2006 [6]; not by solving the CVP, but by retrieving a secret key by observing enough signatures. In other words, each signature leaks some information about the secret key. The title of their paper and the name of the attack is *Learning a Parallelepiped*, and the problem to solve in this attack will henceforth be denoted as the Hidden

Parallelepiped Problem (HPP) as one tries to *learn* a parallelepiped. Countermeasures for this attack was proposed, but ultimately broken again in 2012 due to a more advanced extension of the original attack [1].

Hawk [3] is a digital signature scheme submitted to NIST's standardization process and is a viable candidate for standardization due to its speed and small signature- and key sizes. It is also a lattice-based signature scheme akin to NTRU-sign, but with some significant changes, and a different underlying hard problem on which its security is based upon. This thesis will investigate if a method based on HPP can be aimed at Hawk to retrieve information about the secret key, and ultimately break the scheme.

1.2 Objectives

The objective of this thesis consists of two main parts:

- **Implementation of Hawk in Rust.** As the first part of this thesis I implement the Hawk digital signature scheme according to [3] in the Rust programming language.¹ Implementing a scheme and its algorithms is a good way to more deeply learn how it works. I chose to do the implementation in Rust for the sake of becoming more adept at this programming language as a personal bonus objective of the thesis. Moreover, having ones own implementation of a scheme makes it easier to experiment on, run simulations with, adjust, and modify it to ones need. It would in any case be challenging to understand and work with dense, long, and complicated source code someone else has written. For the Hawk teams source code in C and a reference implementation in Python see <https://github.com/hawk-sign>.
- **Cryptanalysis and experimentation.** The second part of this thesis is cryptanalysis of Hawk. The goal is to use the *Learning a parallelepiped* attack and do suitable modifications to attack Hawk. This requires both theoretical and practical work, and experiments will, like the Hawk implementation itself, be implemented in Rust.

¹Disclaimer: this implementation is not meant to be comparable with the Hawk teams implementation for real life usage, as it is not highly optimized and not all formal requirements are met.

1.3 Thesis outline

Chapter 2 will introduce important notions and mathematical background used in this thesis. Chapter 3 will introduce Hawk and its implementation, and the *Learning a Paralelepiped* attack. In Chapter 4 the cryptanalysis of Hawk is presented. The final chapter will discuss results and future work.

1.4 Detailed tentative roadmap

1. Introduce idea of a digital signature
2. Introduce lattice facts and lattice problems used in digital signatures
3. Introduce other linear algebra and statistics / probability theory stuff
4. Introduce notion of gradient search and variations
5. Describe Hawk in detail
6. Describe Hawk implementation in detail
7. Describe basic HPP attack using notation from original paper
8. Proof and discussion of HPP against normally distributed samples, still using notation from original paper
9. Describe general application of HPP against Hawk using Hawk notation and conventions (e.g. column vectors instead of row vectors, matrix B instead of V, etc.)
10. Describe measuring of DGD properties, and implementation of this
11. Detailed description of attack in practice, discuss implementation challenges w.r.t. memory, runtime, etc.
12. Results and discussion of these, limitations, considerations, etc.

1.4.1 Schedule

- **Week 9, 28.02:** Concluding that experiments were unsuccessful. Further experiments code runs will be to produce measurements that will be reported in the thesis
Still nice to have 512 GB instance in NREC
- **Week 10, 07.03**
- **Week 11, 14.03**
- **Week 12, 21.03**
- **Week 13, 28.03**
- **Week 14, 04.04**
- **Week 15, 11.04**
- **Week 16, 18.04**
- **Week 17, 25.04**
- **Week 18, 02.05**
- **Week 19, 09.05**
- **Week 20, 16.05**
- **Week 21, 23.05**

Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter, the field of cryptology will be introduced, with an emphasis on digital signatures and cryptanalysis. We also introduce some necessary facts and notions related to linear algebra and lattices, as well as probability theory and distributions. Lastly, we introduce the notion of *Gradient Search* and ADAM-optimizers, which will be a central tool in this thesis.

2.1 Cryptology

For this section, [4] will be used.

2.1.1 Cryptography

2.1.2 Cryptanalysis

2.2 Digital Signatures

2.2.1 Hash-and-Sign

2.2.2 GGH

2.2.3 NTRU

2.3 Algebra

2.3.1 Polynomials

2.3.2 Polynomial rings

2.3.3 Number fields

2.4 Linear Algebra and Lattices

Denote by \mathbf{v} an $n \times 1$ column vector on the form

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \\ \dots \\ v_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

and by \mathbf{B} an $n \times m$ matrix on the form

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} & \cdots & b_{0,n-1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} & \cdots & b_{1,n-1} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ b_{m-1,0} & b_{m-1,1} & \cdots & b_{m-1,n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Generally, entries v_i and $b_{i,j}$ are integers unless stated otherwise. Some places the thesis will use row notation instead of column notation for the vectors, so that \mathbf{v} is a $1 \times n$ row vector on the form

$$\mathbf{c} = [v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}]$$

In these cases this will be pointed out.

We denote by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ the dot-product of two vectors of equal dimensions as

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i y_i$$

2.5 Probability Theory

2.6 Gradient Search

Chapter 3

Hawk and HPP

3.1 Hawk

In this section we introduce the digital signature scheme Hawk [3], which will later be the target for our cryptanalysis. As mentioned in the introduction, Hawk is a lattice based signature scheme that shares some key points with that of NTRU-sign [2], the target for the original HPP attack. The first part of this chapter/section will give an introduction to how the Hawk scheme works on a high level. After this, the implementation of Hawk will be described, where much more detail about specific parts of the procedures will be given.

In this section, quite a few parts of Hawk as described in [3] are left out due to the focus of this thesis. For example, Hawk utilizes compression of keys and signatures (which influence the key generation and signature generation procedures), and some of their security considerations regarding a practical implementation is based on side channel attacks, both of which is not a concern in this thesis. Moreover, their security analysis is based on experimental lattice reduction and security proofs of the underlying hard problems (namely the *Lattice Isomorphism Problem* and the *One More Shortest Vector Problem*), which, again, is not the focus of this thesis.

3.1.1 Overview

In Hawk, polynomials are defined over the cyclotomic number field $\mathcal{K}_n = \mathbb{Q}[X]/(X^n + 1)$ which has the corresponding ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n + 1)$. Such a polynomial $f \in \mathcal{K}_n$ can also be represented by a (column) vector of its coefficients in \mathbb{Q}^n , denoted $\text{vec}(f)$, where the index of the coefficient corresponds to the power of X .¹ We define a mapping

$$\text{rot} : \mathcal{K}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^{n \times n}, \text{rot}(f) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{vec}(f) & \text{vec}(fX) & \text{vec}(fX^2) & \cdots & \text{vec}(fX^{n-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

which enables one to construct a matrix in $\mathbb{Q}^{n \times n}$ from a single polynomial in \mathcal{K}_n .

The hash function used in Hawk is SHAKE256, an extendable output function (XOF) which enables arbitrary output length, unlike hash functions like SHA256 which has a static output size of 256 bits (as eight 32-bit words). This property is useful since SHAKE256 can be used in all three degrees of Hawk.

¹This is a polynomial representation that is frequent in programming implementations when a dedicated algebra library is not used.

This should maybe be in the background section...

Define the integer polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n + 1)$

3.1.2 Parameters

Below is the parameters for Hawk degree 256, 512, and 1024. Note that this list only contains the relevant parameters for this overview, and that many parameters relevant to compression and decompression are omitted.

Table 3.1: Parameter sets for **HAWK**. Note that key and signature sizes are specified in bytes.

Name	HAWK-256	HAWK-512	HAWK-1024
Targeted security	Challenge	NIST-I	NIST-V
Bit security λ	64	128	256
Private key size $\text{privlen}_{\text{bits}}/8$ (bytes)	96	184	360
Public key size $\text{publen}_{\text{bits}}/8$ (bytes)	450	1024	2440
Signature size $\text{siglen}_{\text{bits}}/8$ (bytes)	249	555	1221

Insert
relevant
param-
eters
here

3.1.3 Hawk key pairs and key pair generation

A Hawk private key is represented by the matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} f & F \\ g & G \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{K}_n^{2 \times 2}$$

Here, entries are chosen such that f and g have small coefficients, and the equation $fG - FG = 1 \pmod{X^n + 1}$ holds, and consequently $\det(\mathbf{B}) = 1$, making \mathbf{B} invertible. The inverse of \mathbf{B} is

$$\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} G & -F \\ -g & f \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{K}_n^{2 \times 2}$$

A Hawk public key is defined as

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} q_{00} & q_{01} \\ q_{10} & q_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}^* \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} f^*f + g^*g & f^*F + g^*G \\ F^*f + G^*g & F^*F + G^*G \end{bmatrix}$$

where f^* denotes the Hermitian adjoint of f , explicitly $f^* = f_0 - f_{n-1}X - \dots - f_1X^{n-1}$, and \mathbf{B}^* is the transpose of \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{B}^T where each entry is taken the Hermitian adjoint of. Explicitly:

$$\mathbf{B}^* = \begin{bmatrix} f^* & g^* \\ F^* & G^* \end{bmatrix}$$

We can also define **rot** on a matrix as the mapping

$$\text{rot} : \mathcal{K}_n^{2 \times 2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^{2n \times 2n}, \text{rot}\left(\begin{bmatrix} f & F \\ g & G \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{rot}(f) & \text{rot}(F) \\ \text{rot}(g) & \text{rot}(G) \end{bmatrix}$$

$\text{rot}(\mathbf{B})$ serves as a basis for the private lattice in which a (digest of a) message will be signed in the signature generation step. A simplified version of the key generation algorithm is described in the following algorithm:

Algorithm 1 Simplified Hawk Key Generation

- 1: Sample $f, g \in \mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n + 1)$ from $\text{bin}(\eta)$
 - 2: Compute F, G s.t. $fG - Fg = 1 \pmod{\mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n + 1)}$ holds
 - 3: $\mathbf{B} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} f & F \\ g & G \end{bmatrix}$
 - 4: $\mathbf{Q} \leftarrow \mathbf{B}^* \mathbf{B}$
 - 5: **return** private key \mathbf{B} , public key \mathbf{Q}
-

3.1.4 Solving the NTRU-equation

An important point in the key generation process is finding proper polynomials F and G that satisfy the NTRU-equation $fG - Fg = 1 \pmod{\mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^n + 1)}$. Importantly, coefficients of F and G need to be rather small, and the procedure of solving the equation is a time-consuming part of the key generation process. In the original NTRU system (both encryption and signature) resultants are used. Hawk uses the method proposed by Pornin and Prest in [7] which improves upon the existing resultant method in terms of both time- and memory complexity.

Need
some
explanation
of resultants
here

3.1.5 Discrete Gaussian Distribution

Before introducing the Hawk signature generation we describe the procedure to sample from the Discrete Gaussian Distribution, as described in [3].

Denote by $\mathcal{D}_{2\mathbb{Z}+c,\sigma}$ the Discrete Gaussian Distribution with parameter c and σ . Let $\rho_\sigma : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \rho_\sigma(x) = \exp(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2})$. The Probability Density Function (PDF) of $\mathcal{D}_{2\mathbb{Z}+c,\sigma}$ is defined as:

$$\Pr[X = x] = \frac{\rho_\sigma(x)}{\sum_{y \in 2\mathbb{Z}+c} \rho_\sigma(y)}$$

For $z \geq 0$ we define the function $P_c(z) = \Pr[|X| \geq z]$ when $X \sim \mathcal{D}_{2\mathbb{Z}+c,\sigma}$. Using this function for $c \in 0, 1$, we compute two Cumulative Distribution Tables (CDT) T_0 and T_1 such that $T_0[k] = P_0(2 + 2k)$ and $T_1[k] = P_1(3 + 2k)$ where $T_c[k]$ denotes the k -th index in the table. In practice, to avoid using floating point numbers, the entries in the table is scaled by 2^{78} such that entries are integers with a high enough precision. For this overview, however, we only consider the unscaled version. Using the tables, we can define a procedure **sample** given by the following algorithm:

Algorithm 2 sample

Require: parameter $c \in 0, 1$

```

1:  $q \leftarrow$  uniformly sampled from  $[-1, 1] \in \mathbb{R}$ 
2:  $z \leftarrow 0$ 
3: while  $T_c[z] \neq 0$  do
4:   if  $|q| \leq T_c[z]$  then
5:      $z \leftarrow z + 1$ 
6:   else
7:      $z \leftarrow 2z + c$ 
8:     if  $q < 0$  then
9:        $z \leftarrow -z$ 
10: return  $z$ 

```

This algorithm only samples one point given parameter c . We can extend this to generate vectors of length n where each entry is distributed according to $\mathcal{D}_{2\mathbb{Z}+c,\sigma}$ by the following procedure:

Algorithm 3 Sample vector of length n according to $\mathcal{D}_{2\mathbb{Z}+c,\sigma}$

Require: Binary vector \mathbf{t} with entries uniformly distributed from 0, 1

```

1:  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow$  empty vector of length  $2n$ 
2: for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, 2n - 1$  do
3:    $\mathbf{x}[i] \leftarrow \text{sample}(\mathbf{t}[i])$ 
return  $\mathbf{x}$ 

```

In this manner, one can sample a lattice point \mathbf{x} which is "close" to a target lattice point \mathbf{t} , which will be used in the signature generation step.

3.1.6 Hawk signature generation

To generate a Hawk signature of a message \mathbf{m} , one computes a hash digest \mathbf{h} of the message, and samples a point \mathbf{x} that is close to \mathbf{h} in the private lattice generated by $\text{rot}(\mathbf{B})$.

By transforming the point \mathbf{x} back to the lattice \mathbb{Z}^{2n} via \mathbf{B}^{-1} one has a signature that can be verified by anyone that has access to the public key \mathbf{Q} . Below is the (simplified) procedure formulated as an algorithm:

Algorithm 4 Simplified Hawk Signature Generation

Require: Message \mathbf{m} , private key \mathbf{B}

- 1: $M \leftarrow H(\mathbf{m})$ \triangleright H is a hash function
 - 2: $\mathbf{h} \leftarrow H(M||\text{salt})$ \triangleright salt is a randomly generated value and $||$ denotes concatenation
 - 3: $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \mathbf{B}\mathbf{h} \bmod 2$ \triangleright Reduction $\bmod 2$ is done entrywise
 - 4: $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{sample}(\mathbf{t})$
 - 5: restart if $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2$ is too high
 - 6: $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$
 - 7: $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{w})$
 - 8: **return** signature \mathbf{s} , salt salt
-

3.1.7 Hawk signature verification

To verify a Hawk signature, one simply recomputes the vector \mathbf{h} and in turn the vector \mathbf{w} , and check if the \mathbf{Q} -norm of \mathbf{w} , $\|\mathbf{w}\|_{\mathbf{Q}}^2$ is not too high. A signature with \mathbf{Q} -norm of appropriately short length will be considered valid. A summary of the simplified procedure is given in the following algorithm:

Algorithm 5 Simplified Hawk Signature Verification

Require: Signature \mathbf{s} , message \mathbf{m} , salt salt , public key \mathbf{Q}

- 1: $M \leftarrow H(\mathbf{m})$
 - 2: $\mathbf{h} \leftarrow H(M||\text{salt})$
 - 3: $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{h} - 2\mathbf{s}$
 - 4: **if** $\|\mathbf{w}\|_{\mathbf{Q}}^2$ is low enough **then**
 - 5: **return** true
 - 6: **else return** false
-

3.1.8 Hawk security

3.2 Implementation of Hawk

3.3 HPP

In this section we present the *Learning a Parallelepiped* attack as described in [6]. Note that in this section \mathbf{v} denotes a *row*-vector to follow the same notation as in the original paper.

3.3.1 Setup and idealized version

Let $\mathbf{V} \in \mathcal{GL}(\mathbb{R})$ be a secret $n \times n$ unimodular matrix and $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$ be a fundamental parallelepiped, defined as the set $\{\mathbf{xV} : \mathbf{x} \in [-1, 1]^n\}$. Let $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{xV}$. The problem to solve is informally described below and visualized in figure 3.1.

Problem 1 *Given enough vectors \mathbf{v} (i.e. by observing a large enough subset of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$), where both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{V} is unknown, recover rows of $\pm\mathbf{V}$*

The following three steps are used to solve 1:

1. Estimate the covariance matrix $\mathbf{V}^t\mathbf{V}$
2. Transform samples $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$ to $\mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ where $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ is a hypercube, i.e. $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^t = \mathbf{I}$
3. Do gradient descent to minimize the fourth moment of one-dimensional projections and reveal a row of $\pm\mathbf{C}$ which finally can be transformed into a row of $\pm\mathbf{V}$

In the following, each of these steps will be covered in detail.

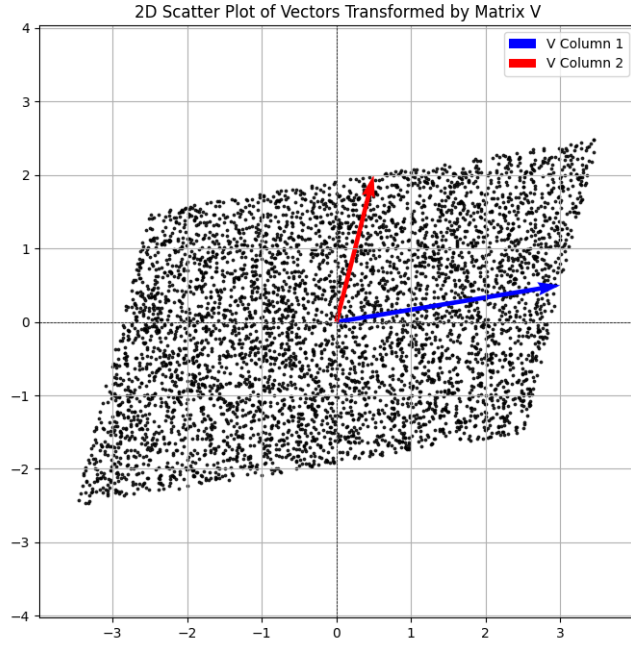


Figure 3.1: Hidden parallelepiped problem in dimension 2

3.3.2 Covariance matrix estimation

Given enough samples on the form $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{x}$, we want to estimate the covariance matrix $\mathbf{G} \approx \mathbf{V}^t\mathbf{V}$. This is achieved as $\mathbf{v}^t\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{V}\mathbf{x})^t(\mathbf{V}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{V}^t\mathbf{x}^t\mathbf{x}\mathbf{V}$. Now, by taking the expectation of the inner term we get $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}^t\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{I}_n/3$ where \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix because of the following: Since all $x_i \in \mathbf{x}$ are distributed according to the uniform distribution over $[-1, 1]$ and each x_i are independent, we have that $\mathbb{E}[x_i] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] = \mathbb{E}[x_i]\mathbb{E}[x_j] = 0$ when $i \neq j$. For the case when $i = j$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] = \mathbb{E}[x^2] = \int_a^b x^2 \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{3}$$

Therefore, $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}^t\mathbf{x}]$ is an $n \times n$ matrix with $\frac{1}{3}$ down the diagonal and is 0 otherwise, i.e. $\mathbf{I}_n/3$. Thus, as number of samples grow, $\mathbf{v}^t\mathbf{v} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}^t(\mathbf{I}_n/3)\mathbf{V}$, and therefore $\mathbf{v}^t\mathbf{v} \cdot 3 \rightarrow \mathbf{V}^t\mathbf{V}$. In conclusion: by taking the average of $\mathbf{v}^t\mathbf{v}$ for all collected samples, and multiplying the resulting $n \times n$ matrix with 3, one has a good approximation of the covariance matrix $\mathbf{V}^t\mathbf{V}$.

Rewrite this computation: not quite correct notation for integration

3.3.3 Hidden parallelepiped to hidden hypercube transformation

Given a good approximation $\mathbf{G} \approx \mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V}$, the next step is to calculate a linear transformation \mathbf{L} such that the following is true:

1. $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{L}$ is orthonormal, i.e. the rows are pairwise orthogonal and the norm of each row is 1. In other words, $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^t = \mathbf{I}$. Consequently, $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ becomes a hypercube.
2. If \mathbf{v} is uniformly distributed over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$ then $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{v}\mathbf{L}$ is uniformly distributed over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$.

This is achieved by taking the Cholesky decomposition of $\mathbf{G}^{-1} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^t$ where \mathbf{L} is a lower-triangular matrix. To compute Cholesky decomposition of \mathbf{G}^{-1} , we must first show that \mathbf{G} is symmetric positive definite.

1. \mathbf{G} is symmetric $\iff \mathbf{G}^t = \mathbf{G}$ which is clear as $\mathbf{G}^t = (\mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V})^t = \mathbf{V}^t (\mathbf{V}^t)^t = \mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{G}$.
2. \mathbf{G} is positive definite if for any non-zero column vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} > 0$. We have that $\mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{V} \mathbf{x})^t (\mathbf{V} \mathbf{x})$. Denote by $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}$. Since $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and \mathbf{V} is invertible (and therefore non-zero) it is clear that $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{y}^t \mathbf{y} = \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 > 0$.

Since \mathbf{G} is symmetric positive definite we can do decomposition to get \mathbf{L} . Then:

1. if $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{L}$, then $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^t = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^t\mathbf{V}^t = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{G}^{-1}\mathbf{V}^t = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V})^{-1}\mathbf{V}^t = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{V}^{-t}\mathbf{V}^t = \mathbf{I}$
2. since entries in \mathbf{x} are uniformly distributed, $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}$ is uniformly distributed over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$

By multiplying our samples \mathbf{v} by \mathbf{L} on the right, we transform them from the hidden parallelepiped to the hidden hypercube. If one finds the rows of $\pm \mathbf{C}$, one can simply multiply the result on the right by \mathbf{L}^{-1} to obtain the solution for \mathbf{V} .

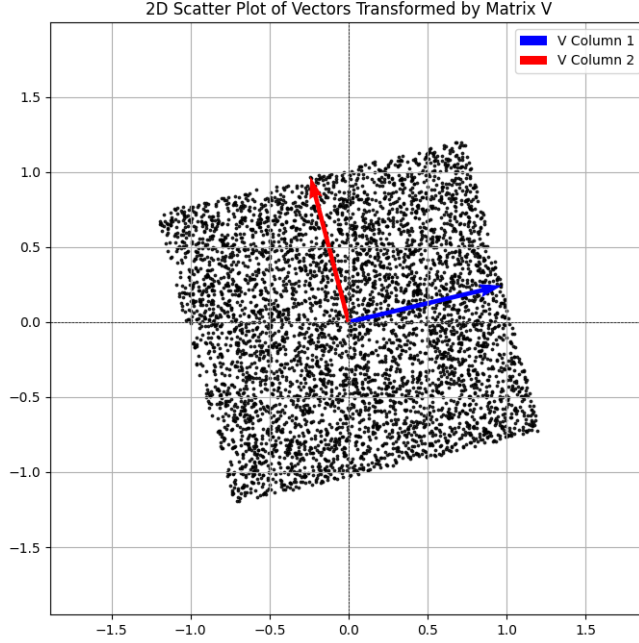


Figure 3.2: Hidden hypercube problem in dimension 2

3.3.4 Moments and Gradient Descent

The last major step in the attack is to measure and minimize the fourth moment of one-dimensional projections to disclose rows of $\pm \mathbf{C}$. Let $mom_{k,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$ be defined as the k -th moment of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ projected onto \mathbf{w} , i.e. $\mathbb{E}[\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{w} \rangle^k]$ where $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{C}$ for \mathbf{x} uniformly distributed and $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Looking at the term $\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$, we have $\langle \mathbf{x}\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \sum_{i=1}^n x_i c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ where c_i is the i -th row of \mathbf{C} . Since x_i is a scalar, we can move it out of the dot-product brackets. $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle$. Moving this inside the $\mathbb{E}[\]$ we have $\mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^k]$. We look at the two cases when $k = 2$ and $k = 4$.

- **k = 2** : $\mathbb{E}[(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle)^2] = \mathbb{E}[\sum_i^n \sum_j^n x_i x_j \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle]$. As seen before in section 3.3.2, $\mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] = \frac{1}{3}$ when $i = j$ and 0 otherwise. Thus, we have the final expression $mom_{2,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{3} \sum_i^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$ which can also be written as $= \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{C}^t \mathbf{C} \mathbf{w}$
- **k = 4** :

$$\mathbb{E}[(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle)^4] = \mathbb{E}[\sum_i^n \sum_j^n \sum_k^n \sum_l^n x_i x_j x_k x_l \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_k, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_l, \mathbf{w} \rangle]$$

There are three cases for the indices i, j, k and l :

1. **All equal:** If $i = j = k = l$, we simply have $\sum_i^n \mathbb{E}[x^4] \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 = \frac{1}{5} \sum_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$ due to the fact that $\mathbb{E}[x^4] = \int_{-1}^1 x^4 \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{5}$
2. **None equal:** If $i \neq j \neq k \neq l$ the expression is zero due to $\mathbb{E}[x_i] = 0$ and all x_i, x_j, x_k, x_l are independent.
3. **Pairwise equal:** If either
 - $i = j \neq k = l$
 - $i = k \neq j = l$
 - $i = l \neq j = k$

then we have $\sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E}[x_i^2 x_j^2] \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 = \frac{1}{9} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$. By putting the above together we get

$$\frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + 3 \left(\frac{1}{9} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \right)$$

and the final expression becomes

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$$

Now, since \mathbf{C} is orthonormal, and by restricting \mathbf{w} to the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^n , we can simplify the expressions further. The second moment becomes $mom_{2,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{C}^t \mathbf{C} \mathbf{w}^t = \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{w}^t = \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^t = \frac{1}{3} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \frac{1}{3}$.

By rewriting and expanding the fourth moment:

$$\begin{aligned} mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \\ mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \\ mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 - \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 \\ mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{3} \|\mathbf{w}\|^4 - \frac{2}{15} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{15} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 \end{aligned}$$

We also need to compute the gradient of the fourth moment, $\nabla mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$.

- The gradient of the first term, $\frac{1}{3}\|\mathbf{w}\|^4$, is computed as follows:
We rewrite $\|\mathbf{w}\|^4$ as $(\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t)^2$. Using the chain rule we have that
 $\nabla((\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t)^2) = 2(\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j}(\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t) = 2(\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t) \cdot 2\mathbf{w}$.
The gradient of the first term is then $\frac{1}{3} \cdot 2(\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^t) \cdot 2\mathbf{w} = \frac{4}{3}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2\mathbf{w}$.
- For the second term, $\frac{2}{15}\sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$ we have the following:

$$\nabla \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 = \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla (\langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4)$$

Looking at just the inner term, $\nabla(\langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4) = 4\langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^3 \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j}(\langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle) = 4\langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^3 \cdot c_i$

The gradient of the second term is therefore $\frac{8}{15} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^3 c_i$

Putting together the terms we get

$$\nabla mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{4}{3}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2\mathbf{w} - \frac{8}{15} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^3 c_i$$

The key observation is that by minimizing $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$ one has to maximize the term $-\frac{2}{15} \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$. Since c_i and \mathbf{w} are both on the unit circle, and all c_i are orthogonal to each other, the term is maximized whenever $\mathbf{w} = c_i$ since $\langle c_i, \pm c_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{w}, \pm \mathbf{w} \rangle = 1$. Using this observation, we can run a gradient descent to minimize $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$ and find rows of $\pm \mathbf{C}$. A simple gradient descent is described in the following algorithm:

Algorithm 6 Gradient descent

Require: Parameter δ , samples \mathbf{c}

- 1: Choose random vector \mathbf{w} on the unit sphere
 - 2: Compute an approximation $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \nabla mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$
 - 3: Set $\mathbf{w}_{new} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \delta \mathbf{g}$
 - 4: Normalize \mathbf{w}_{new} as $\frac{\mathbf{w}_{new}}{\|\mathbf{w}_{new}\|}$
 - 5: Approximate $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$ and $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}_{new})$
 - 6: **if** $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) \geq mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}_{new})$ **then**
 - 7: Return \mathbf{w}
 - 8: **else**
 - 9: Set $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{new}$ and go to step 2
-

This procedure is repeated until all rows of $\pm \mathbf{C}$ is found. Each row is transformed by \mathbf{L}^{-1} to get the row in \mathbf{V} .

3.4 HPP against the Normal Distribution

Assume now that the signatures on the form $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{xV}$ where $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$. After converting $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V})$ to $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$, the fourth moment of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ is constant over \mathbf{w} on the unit circle. To show this, we simply do the same calculations as in the previous section, with the difference that x follows a normal distribution. Considering

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle\right)^4\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_i^n \sum_j^n \sum_k^n \sum_l^n x_i x_j x_k x_l \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_k, \mathbf{w} \rangle \langle c_l, \mathbf{w} \rangle\right]$$

for the three different cases:

- **All equal:** If $i = j = k = l$, we simply have $\sum_i^n \mathbb{E}[x_i^4] \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 = 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$ due to the well known fact that $\mathbb{E}[x^4] = 3\sigma^4$ for x distributed according to $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$.
- **None equal:** Since $\mathbb{E}[x] = 0$ as in the case of the uniform distribution, this results in zero.
- **Pairwise equal:** If either

- $i = j \neq k = l$
- $i = k \neq j = l$
- $i = l \neq j = k$

we have $\sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E}[x_i^2 x_j^2] \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 = \sigma^4 \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$ since $\mathbb{E}[x^2] = \sigma^2$.

Putting together expressions we get

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + 3(\sigma^4 \sum_{i \neq j} \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2)$$

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4 + 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \sum_j \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 - 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$$

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \sum_j \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$$

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\sigma^4 \sum_i \sum_j \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2 \langle c_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle^2$$

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\sigma^4 (\|\mathbf{w}\|^2)^2$$

Since $mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$ is constant for \mathbf{w} on the unit sphere regardless of σ^2 , the term no longer depends on the secret matrix \mathbf{C} and the attack will not work.

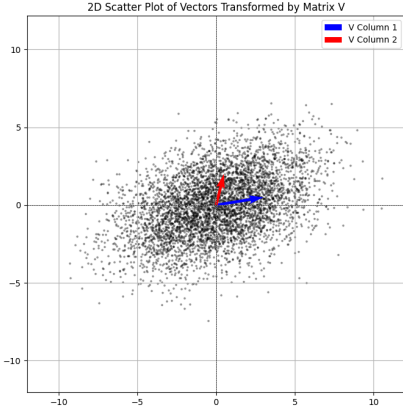


Figure 3.3: Hidden parallelepiped problem in dimension 2 for normal distribution

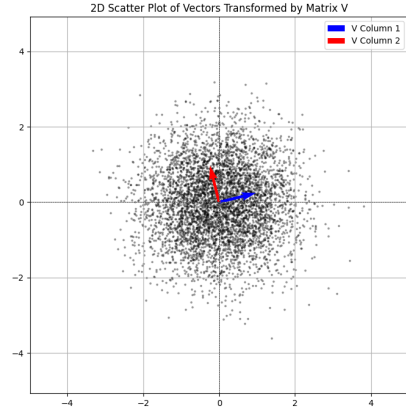


Figure 3.4: Hidden hypercube problem in dimension 2 for normal distribution

Chapter 4

Cryptanalysis of Hawk

In this chapter we perform the cryptanalysis of Hawk. Note that we now switch notation so that \mathbf{v} denotes a column vector to align with the notation and conventions of [3].

4.1 Overview

The original HPP attack can not work if the vector \mathbf{x} multiplied with secret \mathbf{V} has normally distributed entries as shown in section 3.4. In Hawk, the distribution of entries of \mathbf{x} is the Discrete Gaussian Distribution (DGD). As the name implies, this distribution is discrete, not continuous. Instead of showing theoretical and asymptotic results for the DGD, we use our implementation of Hawk to measure and estimate the properties of the distribution. The hypothesis is that the discretization of the normal distribution in this manner makes the result in section 3.4 not hold in practice. Thus, by applying the HPP attack on Hawk signatures one might be able to disclose the secret key.

The attack can be summarized as follows:

Algorithm 7 HPP Hawk

- 1: Collect signatures $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$
 - 2: Using public key \mathbf{Q} , find \mathbf{L} s.t. $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^t$
 - 3: Transform samples s.t. $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{L}^t\mathbf{w}$
 - 4: Find columns of $\pm\mathbf{C}$ by doing gradient search over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$
 - 5: Multiply columns of $\pm\mathbf{C}$ by \mathbf{L}^{-t} on the left to get columns in $\pm\mathbf{B}^{-1}$
-

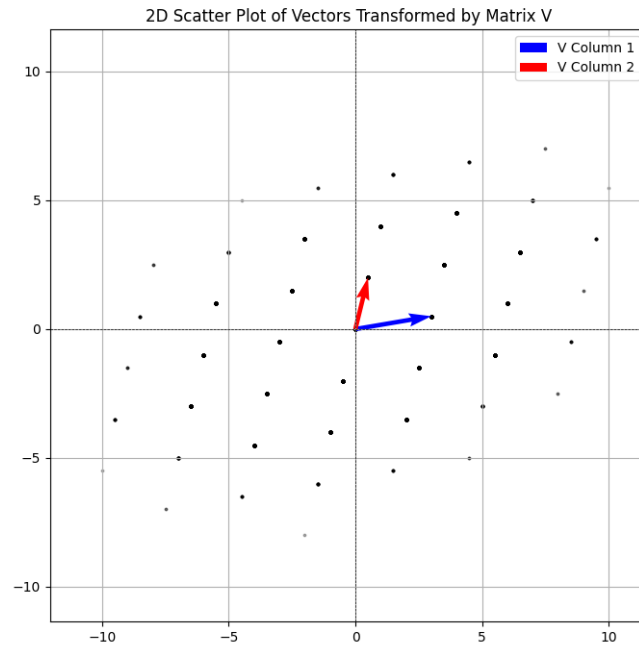


Figure 4.1: Hidden parallelepiped problem in dimension 2 for rounded normal distribution

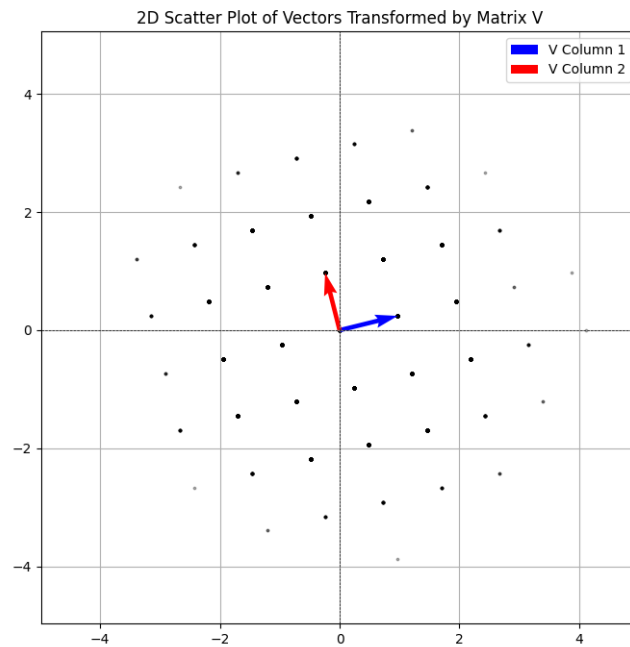


Figure 4.2: Hidden hypercube problem in dimension 2 for rounded normal distribution

4.2 HPP against practical Discrete Gaussian Distribution

4.2.1 Overview of method

Consider the Discrete Gaussian Distribution as described in [3] and in section 2.4... We use our implementation of Hawk to sample many points from the practical distribution. Let \mathcal{D} denote the theoretical discrete Gaussian distribution, and let $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$ denote the practical discrete Gaussian distribution from sampled points. Let $0, \sigma^2$ be the expectation and variance of \mathcal{D} , and $\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma}^2$ be the expectation and variance of $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$. Assume we sample t points from $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$ as $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t\}$. We estimate $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ simply as $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t x_i$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$. For simplicity, we can also assume $\hat{\mu} = \mu = 0$ as claimed in [3]. To simplify later computations we also normalize our samples by computing $Z = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_t\} = \{\frac{x_1}{\hat{\sigma}}, \frac{x_2}{\hat{\sigma}}, \dots, \frac{x_t}{\hat{\sigma}}\}$ such that $\mathbb{V}[z_i] = 1$.

Now, denote by $\mu_4 = \mathbb{E}[z_i^4] = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^4$. Assume observed signatures on the form $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{z}$. By rewriting the terms from section 3.4 for this new, normalized, distribution $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$, we have that

$$mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 3\|\mathbf{w}\|^4 + (\mu_4 - 3) \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$$

and

$$\nabla mom_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w}) = 12\|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \mathbf{w} + 4(\mu_4 - 3) \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w}^3 \rangle c_i$$

Maybe
show
more
compu-
tations
here

This means that if the difference $(\mu_4 - 3)$ is big enough, one might be able to employ the same minimization technique as in the original attack to reveal a column of \mathbf{V} . Note that if $(\mu_4 - 3) < 0$ we have the same case as in the original attack, where minimization of the entire term entails maximization of $\sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$, which gives us a row of $\pm \mathbf{C}$. If $(\mu_4 - 3) > 0$, we need to maximize the entire term $3\|\mathbf{w}\|^4 + \sum_{i=1}^n \langle c_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle^4$, which is achieved by doing a gradient *ascent* instead of a gradient *descent*.

4.2.2 Covariance matrix and hypercube transformation

In the original HPP attack one has to estimate the matrix $\mathbf{G} \approx \mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{V}$ as $\mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{v} \cdot 3$. We show that this is possible even if x is normally distributed, as one can estimate $\frac{\mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{v}}{\sigma^2}$ using the same principle as in section 3.3.2. For Hawk, the signatures are on the form $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{x}$. Then we would need to compute $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{-t} \approx \frac{\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^t}{\sigma^2}$. In Hawk, however, the public key $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{B}^* \mathbf{B}$, which for \mathbf{B} with non-complex entries is equivalent to $\mathbf{B}^t \mathbf{B}$, enables us to skip this step. Recall that in the original attack one has to take Cholesky decomposition (or an equivalent decomposition) of the inverse of the covariance matrix such that $\mathbf{G}^{-1} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^t$. For $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{-t}$, the inverse, $\mathbf{G}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^t \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{Q}$. Therefore, we can simply take the Cholesky decomposition of $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^t$. By multiplying our samples \mathbf{w} by \mathbf{L}^t on the left, we have transformed our samples to the hidden hypercube as in the original attack. By taking $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1}$, we have that

$$\mathbf{C}^t \mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1})^t (\mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1}) = \mathbf{B}^{-t} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-t} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-t} \mathbf{B}^t \mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$$

and

$$\mathbf{C} \mathbf{C}^t = (\mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1}) (\mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1})^t = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{-t} \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}^t (\mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^t)^{-1} \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{L}^{-t} \mathbf{L}^{-1} \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}$$

Since \mathbf{w} is distributed according to $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$ over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}^{-1})$, by taking $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{w}$ we have $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x}$, \mathbf{c} is distributed according to $\widehat{\mathcal{D}}$ over $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$.

We summarize this step of the attack against Hawk in the following algorithm

Algorithm 8 Hawk Hypercube Transformation

Require: Samples $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{x}$ and public key \mathbf{Q}

- 1: Compute \mathbf{L} s.t. $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^t$ ▷ by Cholesky decomposition
 - 2: Compute $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{L}^t \mathbf{w}$
 - 3: **return** \mathbf{c} and \mathbf{L}^{-t}
-

4.2.3 Gradient search overview

After having transformed the samples $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{B}^{-1})$ to $\mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ we want to recover columns of $\pm \mathbf{C}$ and transform them back to columns of $\pm \mathbf{B}^{-1}$ by multiplying by \mathbf{L}^{-1} on the left. Due to the special structure of Hawk (and NTRU) private keys, finding one column of \mathbf{B} automatically gives n columns. Unfortunately, since revealing a single column of \mathbf{B}^{-1} reveals a rotation of either the two polynomials G and g or F and f , this

is not enough to disclose the entire matrix. If samples were on the form $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}$, a single column would reveal f and g , and one could simply reconstruct F and G by solving the NTRU-equation as in the key generation step of Hawk. Nevertheless, if one finds two columns of \mathbf{B}^{-1} , it is easy to check if they are shifts of each other. If they are not, one has found shifts of all four polynomials in the secret key, and by trying all combinations of shifts, of which there are $4n^2$ (accounting for negative and positive sign), one can easily verify if a candidate \mathbf{B}'^{-1} is valid by computing $\mathbf{B}' = (\mathbf{B}'^{-1})^{-1}$, and checking if $\mathbf{B}'^t \mathbf{B}' = \mathbf{Q}$. If so, one is able to forge signatures, and the attack is done.

Now, given samples $\mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$, we run a gradient search to minimize or maximize the fourth moment of one-dimensional projections, as in the original attack. In addition to multiplying the samples by \mathbf{L}^t , we also divide them by the scalar σ , to normalize the samples so each sample in the vector \mathbf{c} has variance 1. This also aligns with our theoretical analysis of $\text{mom}_{4,\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{w})$. Even though the distribution $\hat{\mathcal{D}}$ is discrete, the shape of the samples $\mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{C})$ will still have a spherical shape as illustrated in 4.2. The hope is that the areas in the directions of the columns of $\pm\mathbf{C}$ will deviate just enough from a perfect spherical shape to give us a global minima/maxima in the gradient landscape.

4.2.4 Gradient search for Hawk

Due to the noisy and unpredictable gradient landscape we need to search through, the *vanilla* gradient search method as used in the original HPP attack is not very applicable. A constant descent (or ascent) parameter δ , also referred to as the stepsize, generally entails either a slow convergence (with a small value for δ), or risk of overshooting the correct extremum (with a big value for δ). In the original attack, they found through experimentation that $\delta = \frac{3}{4}$ (or 0.7 in practice) was a balanced choice for a descent parameter.

For the attack on Hawk, however, we employ a more sophisticated method for gradient search, and a good choice for this is the ADAM-optimizer [5]. Originally developed for machine learning problems, this method enables a dynamic adjustment of the stepsize while the search algorithm is running. In flat parts of the gradient landscape, the stepsize is increased to converge faster, while in steep parts of the landscape the stepsize is decreased to avoid overshooting an optima or minima. The method of ADAM-optimizer is claimed to yield good result

Acronyms

CVP Closest Vector Problem.

DGD Discrete Gaussian Distribution.

DSA Digital Signature Algorithm.

HPP Hidden Parallelepiped Problem.

KEMs Key Encapsulation Methods.

NIST National Institute of Standards and Technology.

RSA Rivest, Shamir, Adleman.

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Appendix A

Generated code from Protocol buffers

Listing A.1: Source code of something

```
1 System.out.println("Hello Mars");
```