

# Lattice-based Cryptography

## Basics



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- Definitions
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# Classical Cryptography

In classical cryptography, the security of public-key algorithms relies on well-known hard problems:

- Integer factorization problem (RSA, etc.)
- Discrete logarithm problem (Diffie-Hellman, etc.)
- Elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (Elliptic-curve Diffie-Hellman, etc.)



# Quantum Computer

- In the 1980s, Paul A. Benioff proposed a new form of Turing machines using the laws of quantum mechanics
- Improvement in computation: Quantum logic gates, quantum bits (qubit) instead of bits, quantum states instead of "original states"
- There are many models of quantum computers: quantum Turing machine, quantum circuit model, etc.
- Threat from the cryptographic point of view: the Shor Algorithm



# Shor's Algorithm

- The most famous quantum algorithm is invented in 1994 by Peter Shor
- Problem: find a non-trivial divisor of a given composite number  $N$
- There are two parts of the algorithm:
  - Classical part: reduction of the problem to the order-finding problem
  - Quantum part: solve the order-finding problem
- Running time is polynomial in  $\log N$
- Consequence: classical public-key cryptographic primitives are easily breakable



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# Possible Solutions: Multivariate Cryptography

- We use multivariate polynomials over certain finite fields
- Security relies on the fact, that solving systems of multivariate polynomial equations is proven to be NP-complete
- Rainbow is one of the most famous multivariate public-key cryptosystems
- It was invented in 2004 by Jintai Ding and Dieter Schmidt
- Importance: It was select as one of the three NIST Post-quantum signature finalists

Now broken!





# Possible Solutions: Code-based Cryptography

- The systems rely on error-correcting codes
- The first code-based public-key cryptosystem was invented in 1978 by Robert McEliece
- Security of the original algorithm relies on the fact, that decoding a general linear code is known to be NP-hard
- Importance: a new version of the cryptosystem called Classic McEliece was selected as one of the four NIST Post-quantum public-key encryption and key-establishment finalists



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# Lattice-based Cryptography: Introduction

- The idea is to create cryptographic primitives over lattices
- The first lattice-based cryptographic primitive was invented in 1996 by a Hungarian computer scientist Miklós Ajtai
- The security of the primitives relies on the hardness of lattice problems
- Importance: lattice-based cryptography believed to be secure against quantum algorithms
- Famous encryption schemes: GGH, NTRU, LWE, Ring-LWE
- There are many encryption algorithms and digital signature schemes which were selected as finalist of NIST's Post-quantum Security competition



# Definitions

## Definition

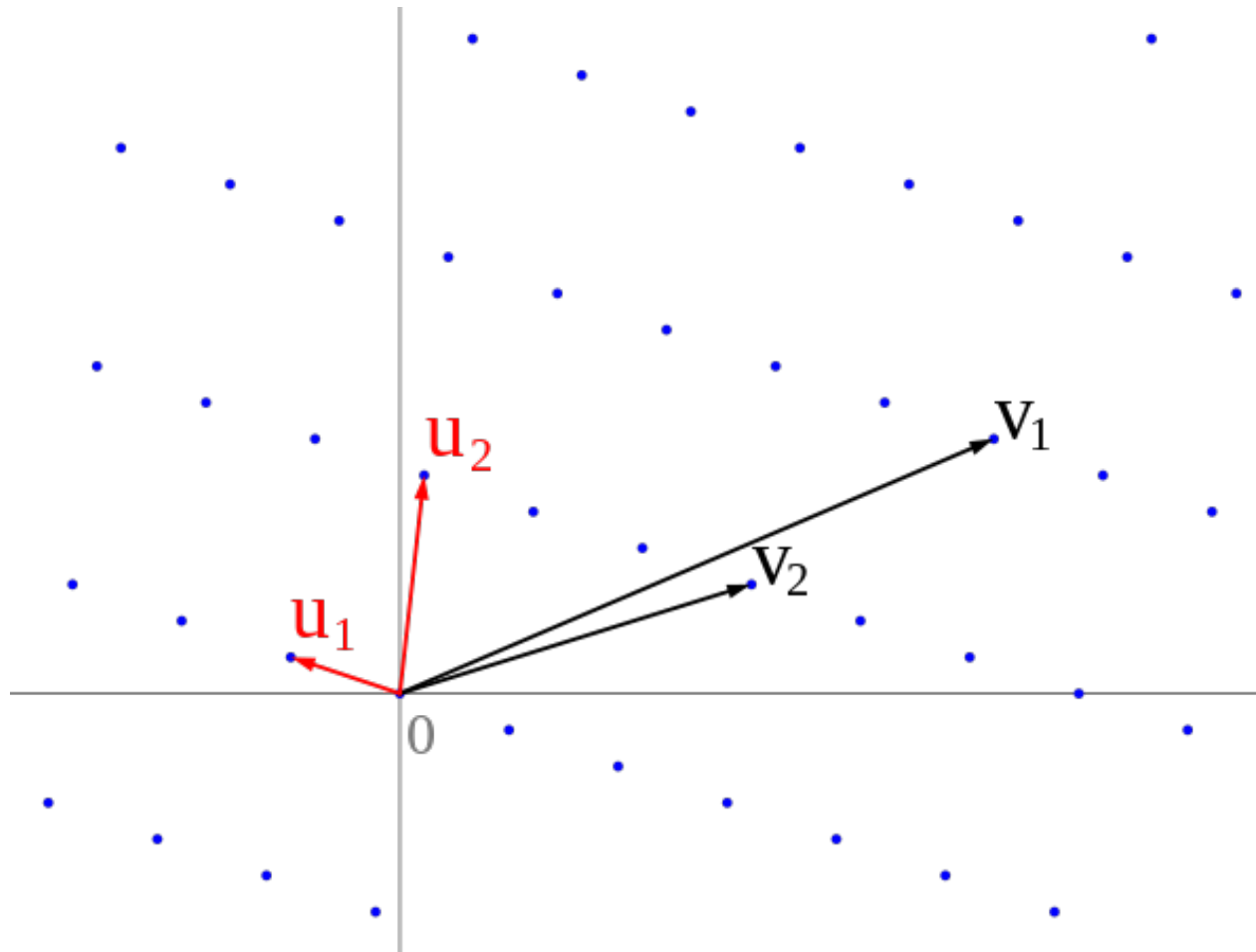
Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  linearly independent vectors  $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $m \leq n$ . A lattice  $\mathcal{L}$ , which is generated by all the integer combinations of the vectors  $b_1, \dots, b_m$ , is the following set of points:

$$\mathcal{L}(b_1, \dots, b_m) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m z_i b_i \mid z_i \in \mathbb{Z}, i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \right\}.$$

The set of vectors  $b_1, \dots, b_m$  is called the basis of the lattice.



# Lattice in 2D with different bases



# Definitions

## Definition

The basis can be represented as  $B = [b_1 \dots b_n]$ , and the definitions of a lattice will be:

$$\mathcal{L}(B) = \{Bz : z \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}.$$

## Remark

*Lattices has infinity many different bases.*

## Remark

*If  $U$  is a unimodular matrix, then  $\mathcal{L}(B) = \mathcal{L}(BU)$ .*



# Definitions

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{L}(B)$  be a lattice generated by some basis  $B$ . Then:

$$\det(\mathcal{L}(B)) = |\det(B)|.$$

## Definition

The dual of a lattice  $\mathcal{L}(B)$ , denoted  $\mathcal{L}(B)^*$ , is the lattice generated by the matrix  $(B^{-1})^T$ , more formally:

$$\mathcal{L}(B)^* = \mathcal{L}((B^{-1})^T).$$



# Special lattices

## Definition

A subset  $I \subset k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is an ideal if:

- $0 \in I$
- $f, g \in I \implies f + g \in I$
- $f \in I \wedge h \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \implies hf \in I.$

## Definition

Let  $f_1, \dots, f_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . Then the ideal generated by  $f_1, \dots, f_s$  is the following:

$$\langle f_1, \dots, f_s \rangle = \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^s h_t f_t : \forall h_1, \dots, h_s \in k[x_1, \dots, x_n] \right\}.$$





# Special Lattices

## Definition

Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be a degree- $n$  monic polynomial and  $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(f)$ . A lattice  $\mathcal{L}(B) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$  is an ideal lattice if there exists an ideal  $I \subseteq R$  for which  $B = \{g \bmod f : g \in I\}$ . The ideal can be represented as  $I = \langle b_1, \dots, b_k \rangle$ , where the vectors  $b_1, \dots, b_k$  are the basis vectors of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

## Lemma

*For all  $I \in \mathbb{Z}[x]/(f)$  if  $f$  is a degree- $n$  monic irreducible integer polynomial, then  $I$  is isomorphic to a lattice in  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ .*



# Special Lattices

- There are some specific ideal lattices which are interesting from cryptographic point of view. We mention one of them: cyclic lattices.
- There are two ways to define cyclic lattices: using the definition of ideal lattices or defining them with cyclic rotations.

## Definition

Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(f)$  be a quotient ring. An ideal lattice defined over  $R$  is a cyclic lattice if  $f(x) = x^n - 1$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .



# Special lattices

## Definition

Let  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$  be a vector. Then the cyclic rotation of  $x$  is the following:

$$\text{rot}(x) = (x_n, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}).$$

## Definition

The circulant matrix for a given vector  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$  is the following:

$$\text{Rot}(x) = [x, \text{rot}(x), \text{rot}^2(x), \dots, \text{rot}^{n-1}(x)].$$

## Remark

*The rows of  $\text{Rot}(x)$  are also rotations of  $x$  but with reversed order.*



# Special lattices

## Definition

A lattice  $\mathcal{L}(B)$  is cyclic if it is closed under cyclic rotation operation. More formally, if  $\mathcal{L}(B)$  is cyclic then:

$$x \in \mathcal{L}(B) \implies \text{rot}(x) \in \mathcal{L}(B)$$

## Remark

*The two definitions are the same, that is, if  $f(x) = x^n - 1$  and given a vector  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  then for a corresponding vector  $w = (w_1, \dots, w_n)$ :  $w \equiv x \cdot v \implies w = (v_n, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1})$ .*



# Special lattices

## Definition

Let  $f(x) = x^n + a_n x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be a cyclotomic polynomial,  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $R = \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/(f(x))$  be a ring.



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## Lattice-based hard problems over rings



**The Shortest Vector Problem (SVP):** Given a vector space  $V$  with a norm  $\|\cdot\|$  and a basis  $B$  of a lattice  $\mathcal{L} \subset V$ , find a non-zero vector  $v$  such that  $\|v\| = \lambda(L)$ , where  $\lambda(L)$  denote the length of the shortest non-zero vector in the lattice  $\mathcal{L}$ , that is:

$$\lambda(L) = \min_{v \in \mathcal{L} / \{0\}} \|v\|.$$

In the  $\gamma$ -approximation version  $SVP_\gamma$ , one must find a non-zero lattice vector of length at most  $\gamma \cdot \lambda(L)$  for given  $\gamma \geq 1$ .





# CVP

**The Closest Vector Problem (CVP):** a vector space  $V$  and a metric  $|\cdot|$  are given for a lattice  $\mathcal{L}$  with a corresponding basis  $B$ , as well as a vector  $v$  in  $V$  but not necessarily in  $\mathcal{L}$ . It is desired to find the vector in  $\mathcal{L}$  closest to  $v$  (as measured by  $M$ ). In the  $\gamma$ -approximation version  $CVP_\gamma$ , one must find a lattice vector at distance at most  $\gamma$



**Shortest Independent Vectors Problem (SIVP):** Given a vector space  $V$  with a norm  $||.||$  and a basis  $B \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$  of a lattice  $\mathcal{L} \subset V$ , find  $n$  linearly independent lattice vectors  $s_1, \dots, s_n$  for which  $\max_i ||s_i||$  is minimal.



**Short Integer Solution (SIS):** Given  $m$  uniformly random vectors  $b_i$  of a certain large finite additive group  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n$ , where the vectors form a matrix  $B = [b_1, \dots, b_m] \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ . The task is to find a nonzero vector  $z \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ , such that:  $\|z\| < \beta$  and  $Bz = \sum b_i z_i = 0$ .



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# Hermite normal form





# Babai's rounding



# The protocol

- The private key is a “good” lattice basis  $B = [b_1, \dots, b_n]$ . Typically, a good basis is a basis consisting of short, almost orthogonal vectors.
- The public key  $H$  is a “bad” basis for the same lattice:  $H = HNF(B) = UB$ , where  $U$  is a unimodular matrix.
- Encryption of  $v$ : choose a small error  $e \in \mathbb{Z}^n$  and calculate  $c = vH + e$
- Decryption: calculate 
$$cB^{-1} = [(v_1, \dots, v_n)H + (e_1, \dots, e_n)]B^{-1} = (vH + e)B^{-1} = vUBB^{-1} + eB^{-1} = vU + eB^{-1}$$
- Use Babai rounding to eliminate  $eB^{-1}$  and calculates  $vUU^{-1} = v$



# Attacks



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# Introduction

A very important work of Regev [Reg05] from 2005 introduced the average-case learning with errors (LWE) problem, which is the “encryption-enabling” analogue of the SIS problem. Indeed, the two problems are syntactically very similar, and can meaningfully be seen as duals of each other.



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# LWE

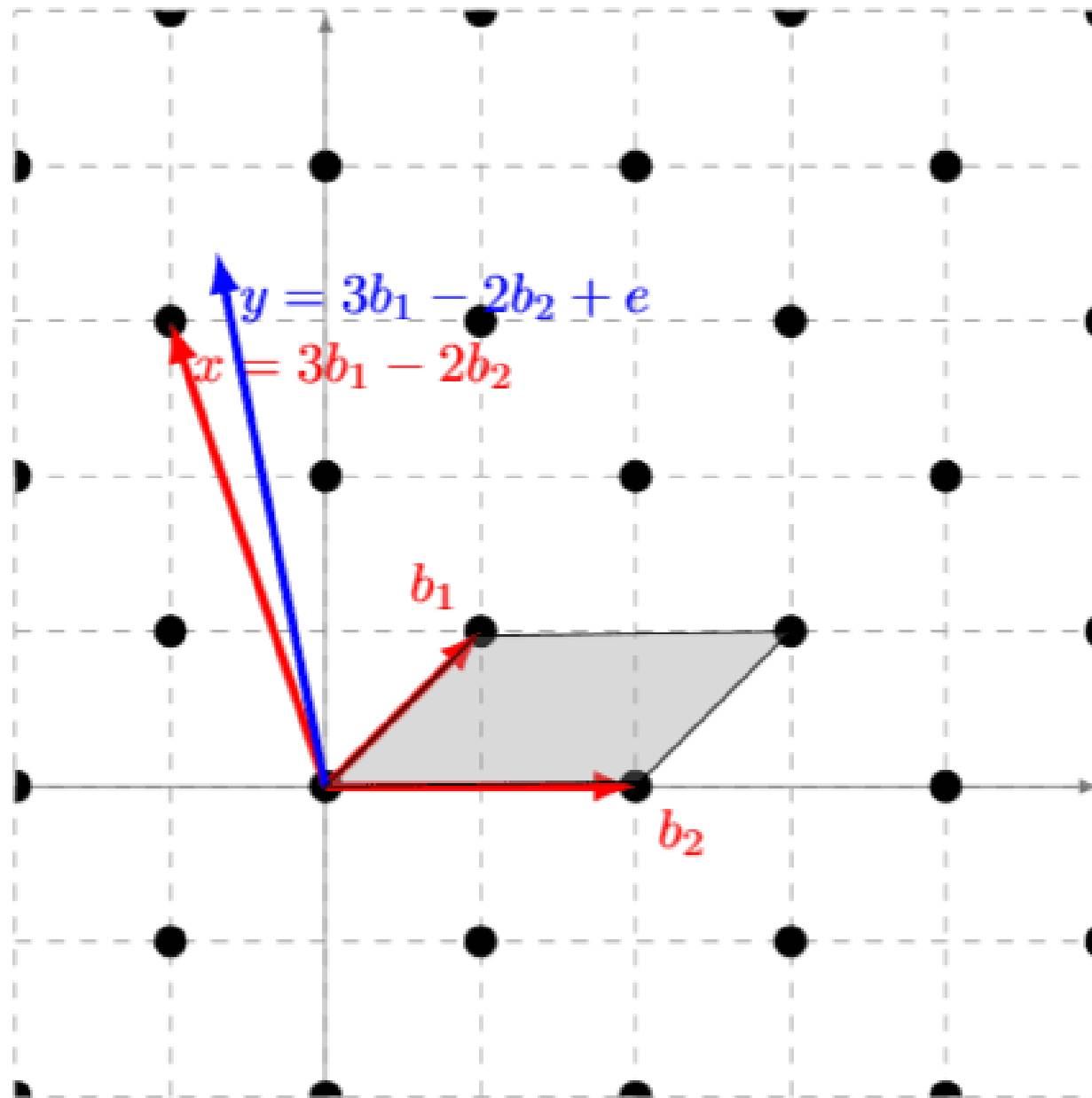
The basic idea of LWE is to add some noise to the message. So we embed the message in the lattice, which is constructed by the secret basis matrix  $B$ . To find it without knowing the secret key, we have to solve the CVP, which is considered hard. To summarize, we have to solve the following:

$$y = B \cdot z + e \pmod{q},$$

where  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  vector is the public key,  $B \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$  is also public,  $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  is the secret and  $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  is the error. From this construction, we have to know the secret key or we have to solve the CVP.



# LWE in 2D



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# The basis

## Definition

A lattice  $\mathcal{L}$  is generated by all the integer combinations of the vectors of some basis  $B$  :

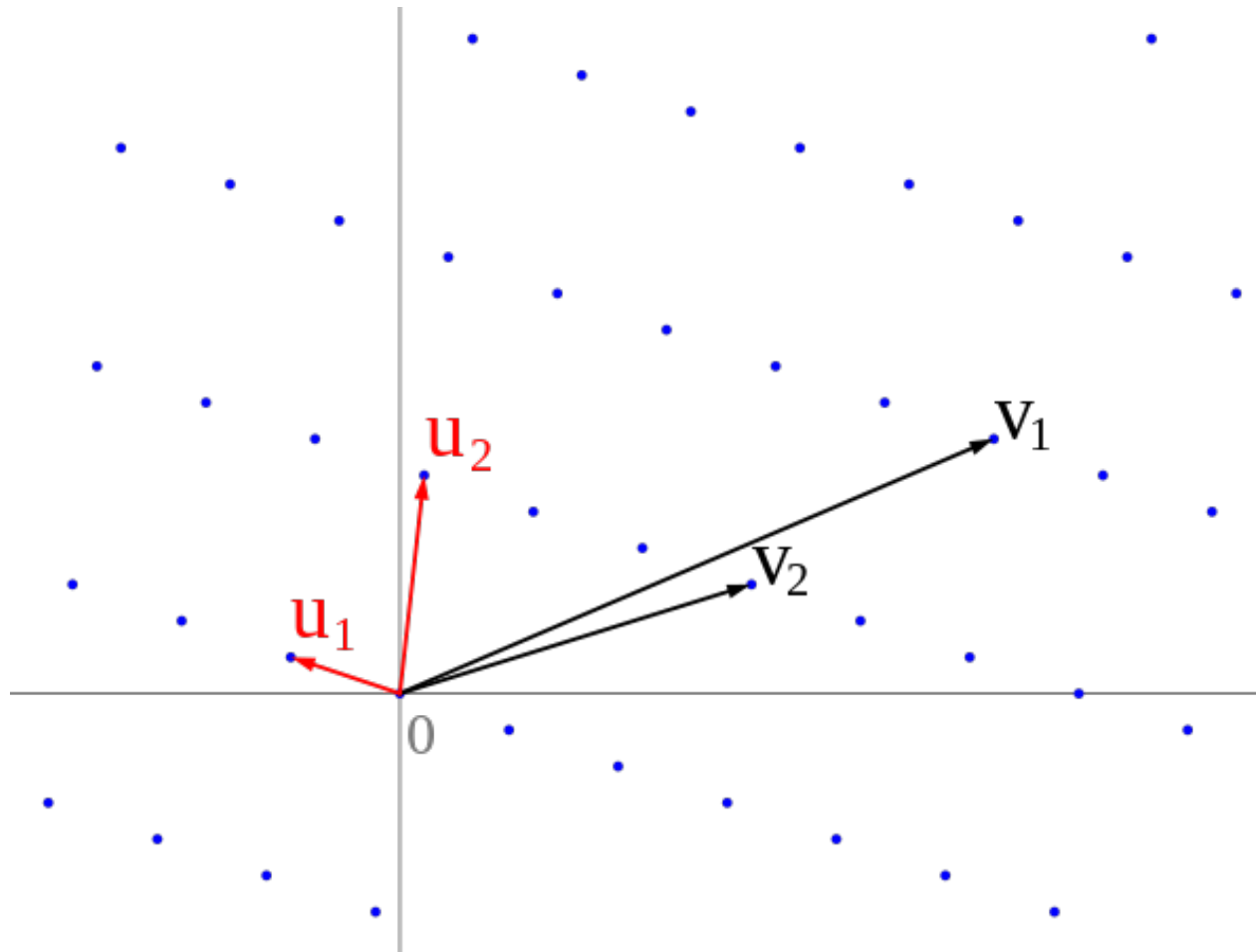
$$\mathcal{L}(b_1, \dots, b_n) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m z_i b_i \mid z_i \in \mathbb{Z}, b_i \in B \right\}.$$

The basis can be represented as  $B = [b_1 \dots b_n]$ , and the definitions of a lattice will be:

$$\mathcal{L}(B) = \{Bz : z \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$



# Lattice in 2D



# Motivations

Basis reduction is a process of reducing the basis  $B$  of a lattice  $\mathcal{L}$  to a shorter basis  $B'$  while keeping  $\mathcal{L}$  the same. Basis reduction can help solving SVP, because if we cannot reduce a basis anymore, the shortest basis vector should be the shortest vector of the lattice.



# Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation process





# LLL reduction



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