

# CS 258: Quantum Cryptography

**Mark Zhandry**

Previously...

# Group Action

An (abelian) group action is a triple  $(\mathbb{G}, \mathcal{X}, *)$  where:

- $\mathbb{G}$  is an (abelian) group
- $\mathcal{X}$  is a set
- $* : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is an efficient binary operation satisfying

$$g * (h * x) = (gh) * x$$

- There is some element  $x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$  that can be efficiently computed
- Usually ask that for each  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ , there exists a unique  $g \in \mathbb{G}$  such that  $y = g * x$
- Also usually ask that it is possible to efficiently identify elements of  $\mathcal{X}$

**Thm** [Kuperberg]: Dlog in (abelian) group actions can be solved in time  $2^{O(\sqrt{\log q})}$ , where  $q$  is the group order

Known as “subexponential” time

# Impact on cryptography

**Recall:** want security against attacks running in time  $2^{128}$

**Classical groups:** can in principle set group size  $2^{256}$

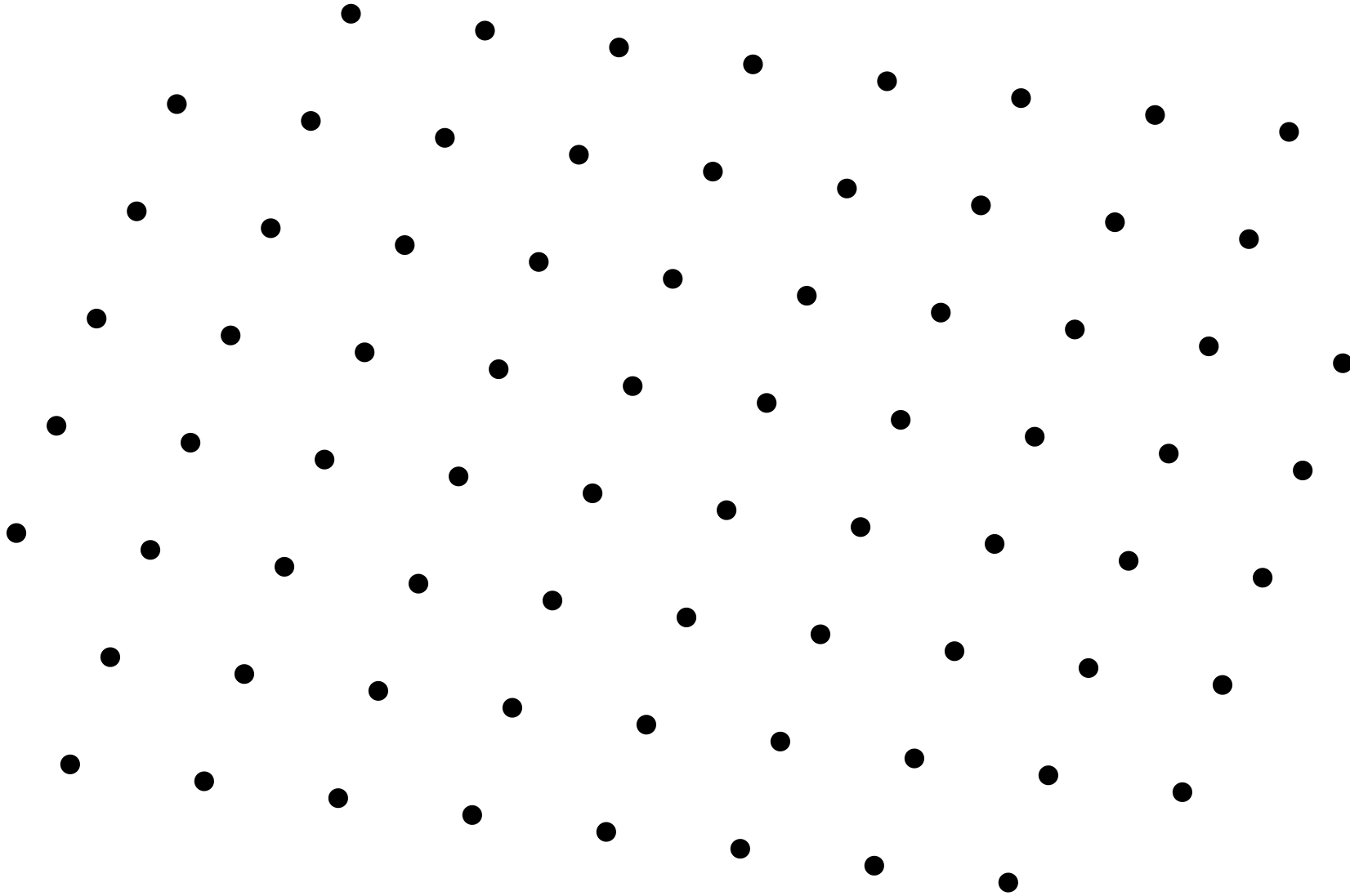
Find collision in  $f(x, y) = g^x h^y$  in time  $\sqrt{q}$   
by birthday paradox

**Post-quantum group actions:** need groups at least  $2^{128^2} \approx 2^{16384}$

Results in much less efficient schemes

Today: Lattices

# Lattices



Imagine dimension in the 100s

# Two equivalent descriptions of a lattice

- Discrete subgroup of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

Not a lattice:  $\{a + b\sqrt{5} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

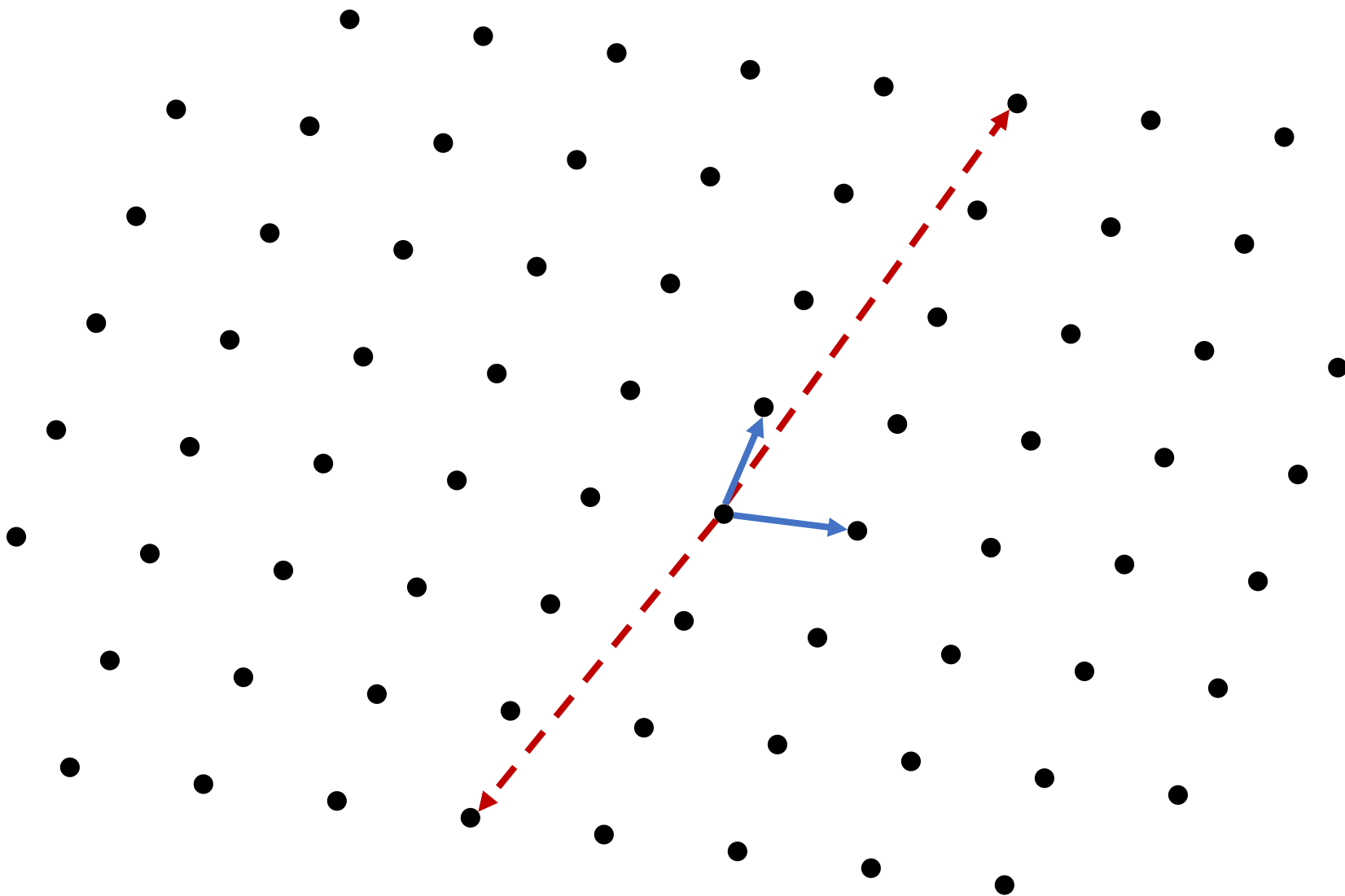
- *Integer* linear combinations of set of vectors that are linearly independent over reals

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$$

Columns of  $\mathbf{B}$  are linearly independent

$\mathbf{B}$  is called a “basis” for the lattice





Different Bases

# Different Bases

**For vector spaces:** two bases  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2$  generate the same vector space if and only if there is an invertible  $\mathbf{U}$  such that  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$

**For lattices:** two bases  $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2$  generate the same lattice if and only if there is a **unimodular**  $\mathbf{U}$  such that  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$

**Def:**  $\mathbf{U}$  is unimodular if  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$  and  $\det(\mathbf{U}) \in \{+1, -1\}$

**Lemma:**  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2) \iff \exists \mathbf{U}$  unimodular s.t.  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$

**Proof:**  $\Leftarrow$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1)$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2) \iff \exists \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

$$\iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{v})$$

$$\implies \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1)$$

$\in \mathbb{Z}^n$

**Lemma:**  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2) \iff \exists \mathbf{U}$  unimodular s.t.  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$

**Proof:**  $\longleftarrow$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2)$

Claim:  $\mathbf{U}$  unimodular  $\rightarrow \mathbf{U}^{-1}$  unimodular

Proof: Cramer's rule +  $\det(\mathbf{U}) \in \{+1, -1\}$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{B}_1 = \mathbf{B}_2 \cdot \mathbf{U}^{-1}$  for unimodular  $\mathbf{U}^{-1}$

Proof of containment identical to before

**Lemma:**  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_2) \iff \exists \mathbf{U}$  unimodular s.t.  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$

**Proof:**  $\implies$

Each column of  $\mathbf{B}_2$  contained in  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}_1)$   
 $\rightarrow \mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$  for some  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$

By identical argument,  $\mathbf{B}_1 = \mathbf{B}_2 \cdot \mathbf{V}$  for some  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$

Since columns are linearly independent,  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}$

$\det(\mathbf{U}), \det(\mathbf{U}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{U})^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$

$\rightarrow \det(\mathbf{U}) \in \{+1, -1\}$

# Determinant of lattice

For full-rank lattices,  $\det(\mathcal{L}) = |\det(\mathbf{B})|$ , for any basis  $\mathbf{B}$

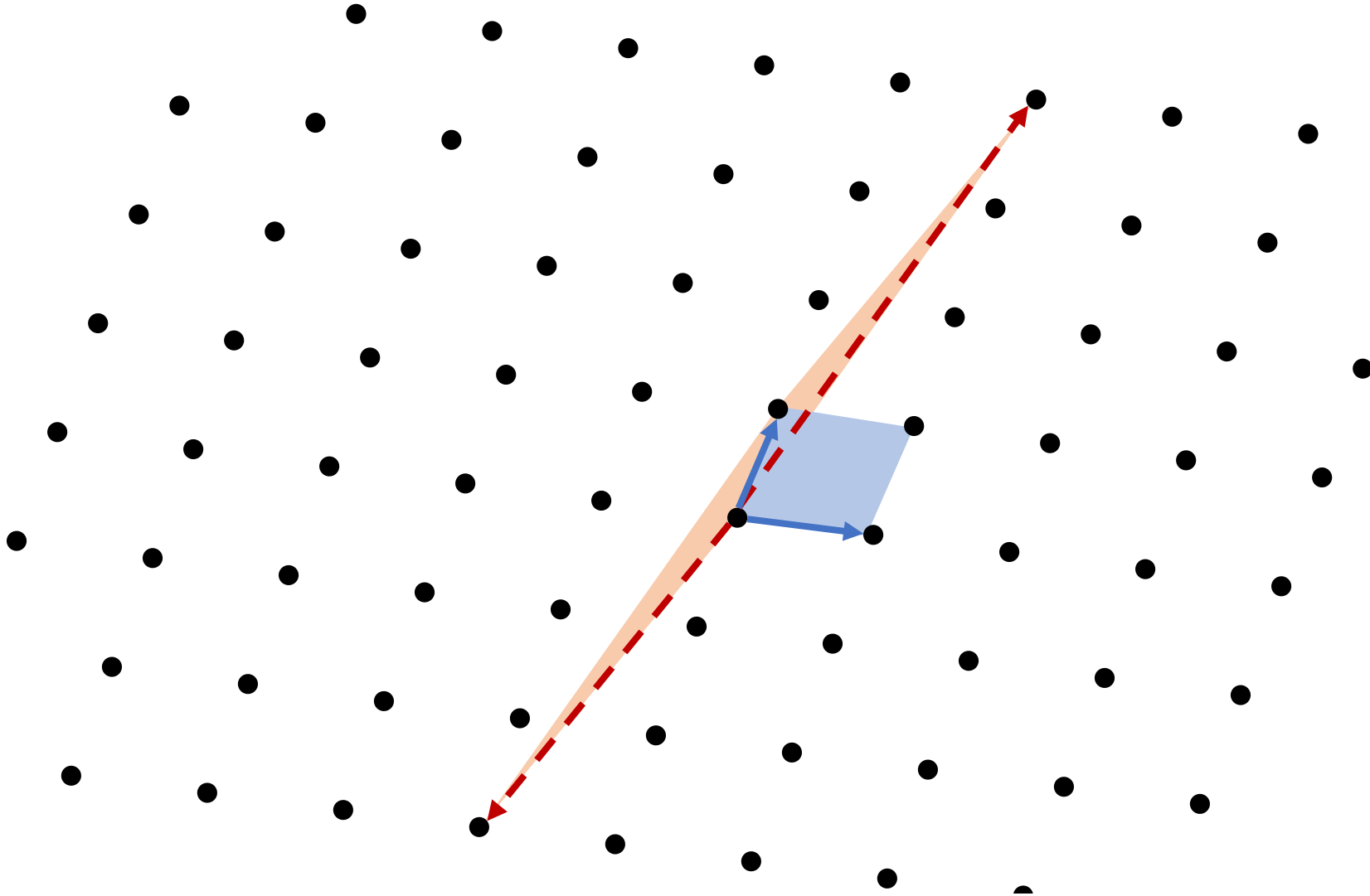
**Lemma:** determinant independent of basis

**Proof:** if  $\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{U}$  for unimodular  $\mathbf{U}$

$$|\det(\mathbf{B}_2)| = |\det(\mathbf{B}_1) \det(\mathbf{U})| = |\det(\mathbf{B}_1)|$$

For general lattices,  $\det(\mathcal{L}) = \sqrt{\det(\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B})}$

# Determinant of lattice



Measure of how dense the lattice is

Full-rank lattice:  $\text{span}(\mathbf{B}) = \mathbb{R}^n \iff \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

Integer lattice:  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$

We will generally consider only full-rank integer lattices

Note that for integer lattices, can consider spanning set that is not full-rank, and still guarantee discreteness

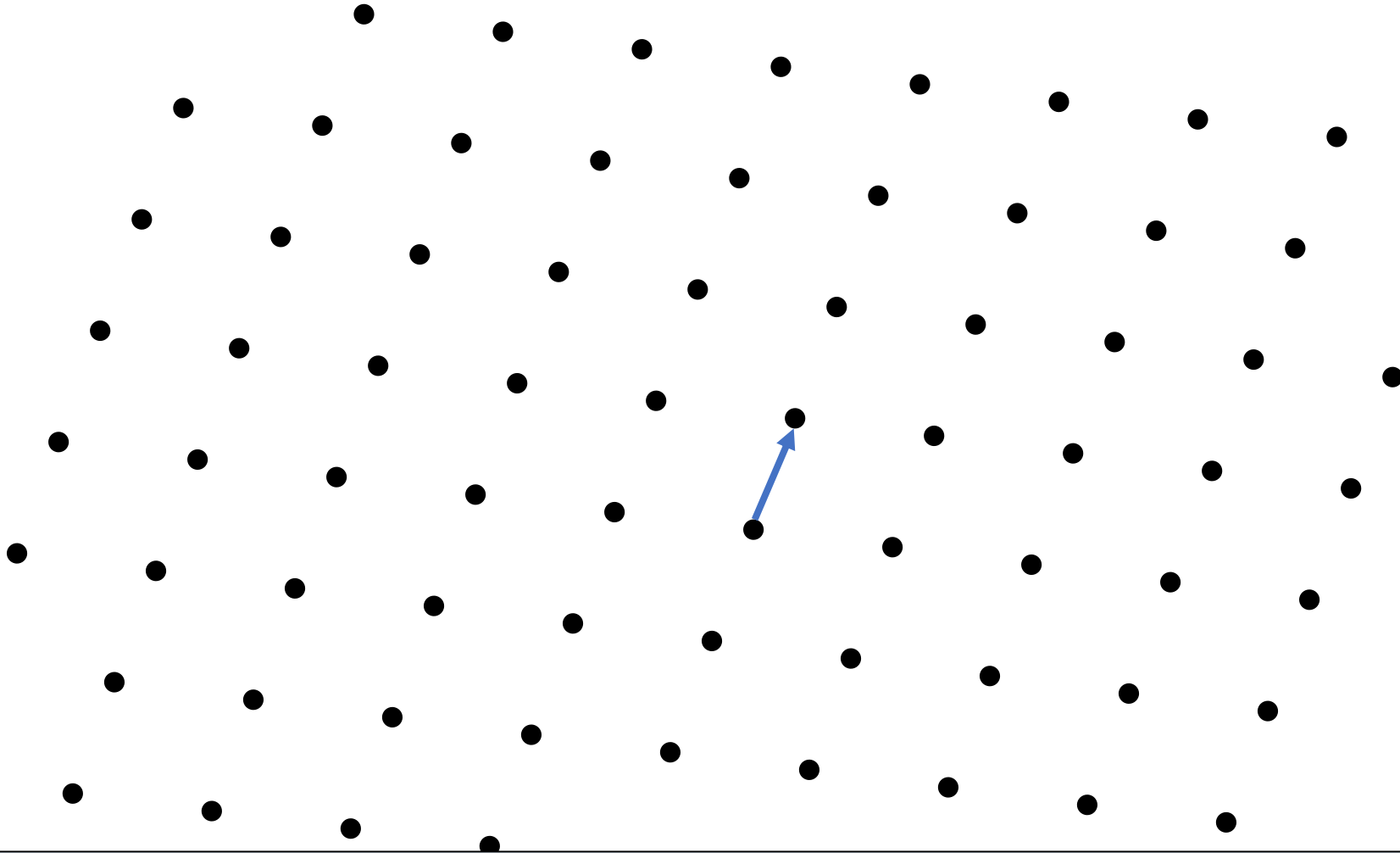


# Hard problems on lattices

Shortest vector problem (SVP)

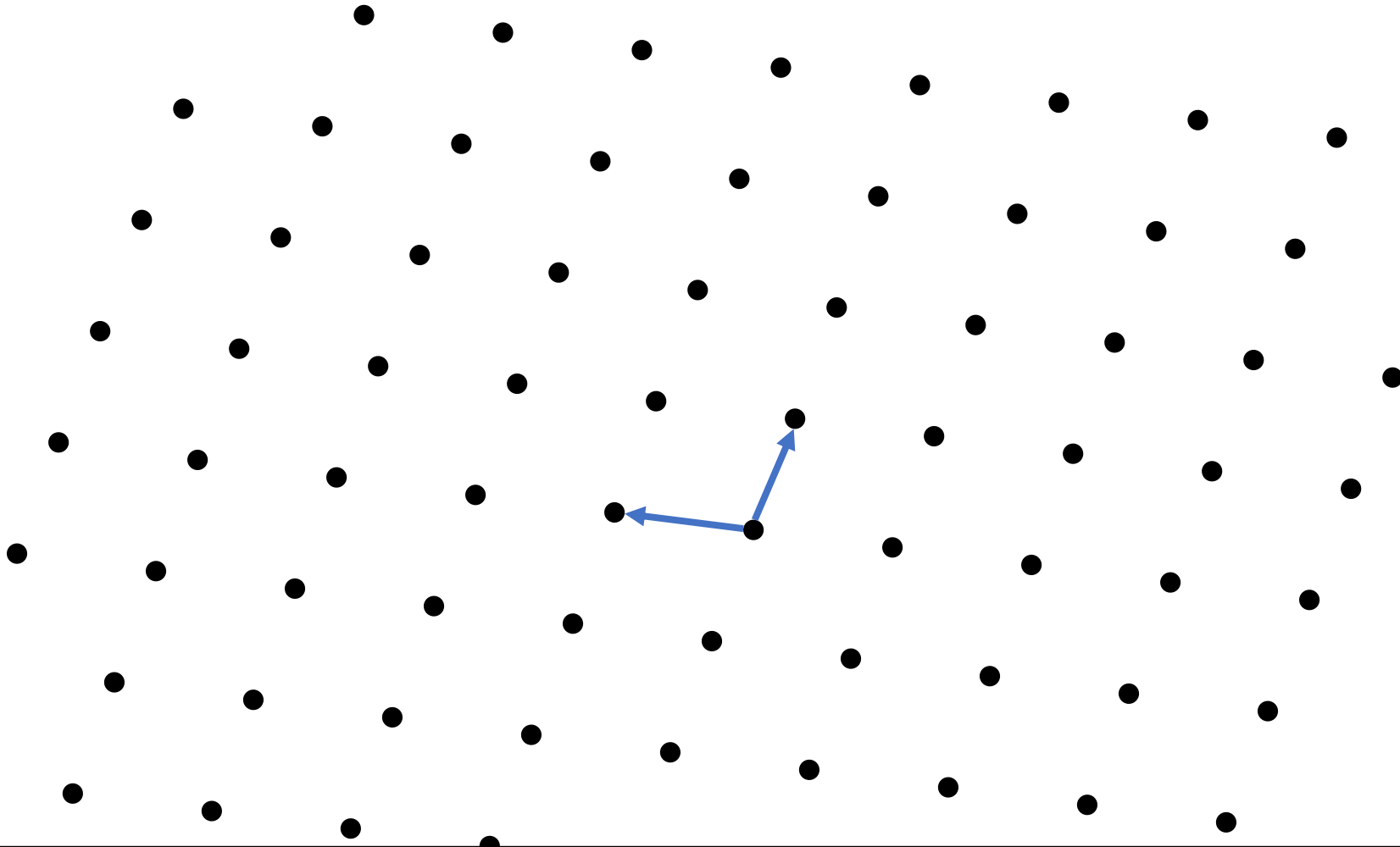
Closes vector problem (CVP)

# SVP



**(Approx.) shortest vector problem (SVP):** given lattice (described by some basis), find (approx.) shortest vector

# SIVP



**(Approx.) shortest independent vector problem (SVP):** given lattice (described by some basis), find (approx.) shortest basis

# S(I)VP in dimension 1 is easy

A basis for a dimension-1 lattice is just a scalar  $\mathbf{B} = b \in \mathbb{R}$

Only possible bases are  $\pm b$

Bases are already shortest “vector”

# S(I)VP in dimension 1 is easy

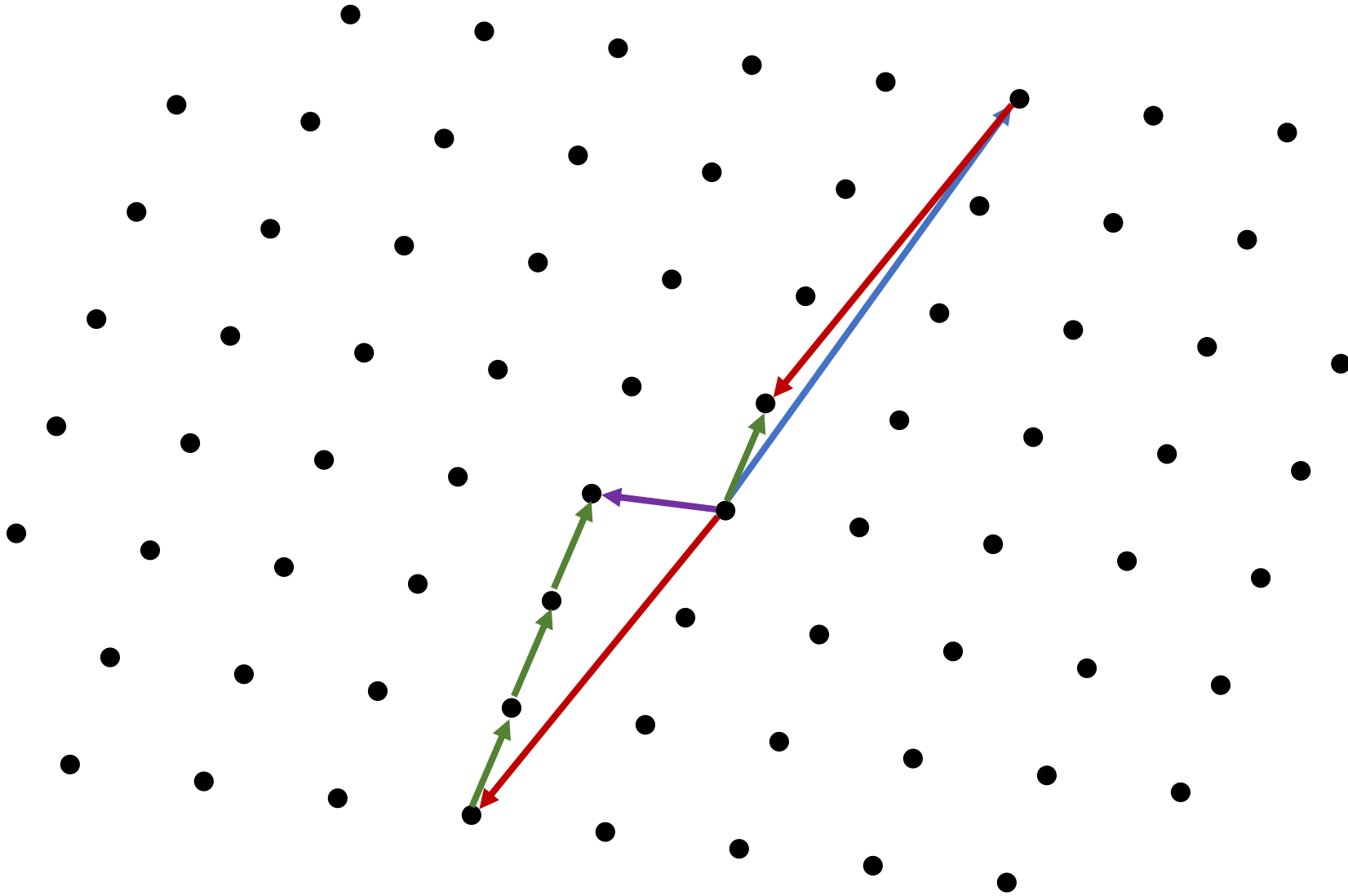
A slightly less trivial example:

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find basis for lattice generated by  $a, b$

Solution:  $\mathbf{B} = \text{GCD}(a, b)$

Algorithm: subtract from larger element multiples of smaller element until larger element is smaller. Terminate when smaller element is 0

S(I)VP in dimension 2 is easy



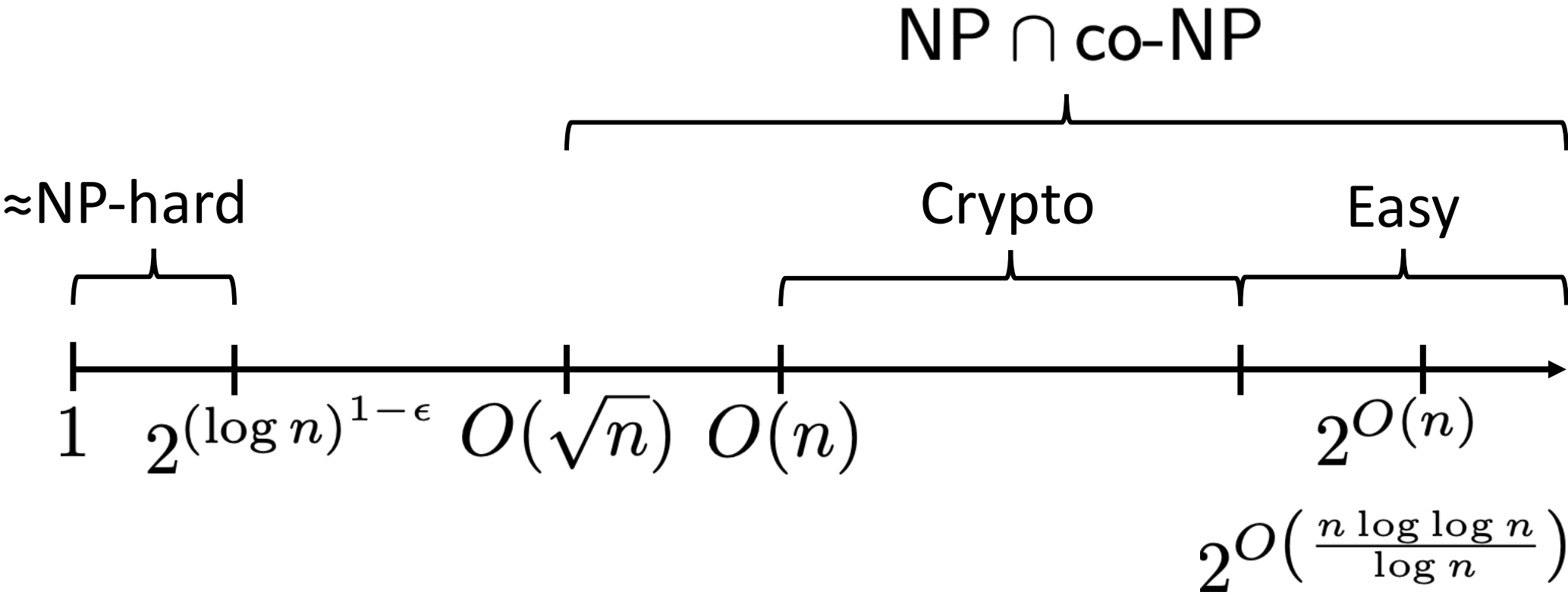
2-dimensional version of GCD

Generalization of GCD to higher-dimensions is called LLL (Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovász)

In higher dimensions, especially beyond dimension 5, LLL fails to give shortest vector

It does give a "reasonably short" basis  
(within factor  $2^{O(n)}$  of optimal)

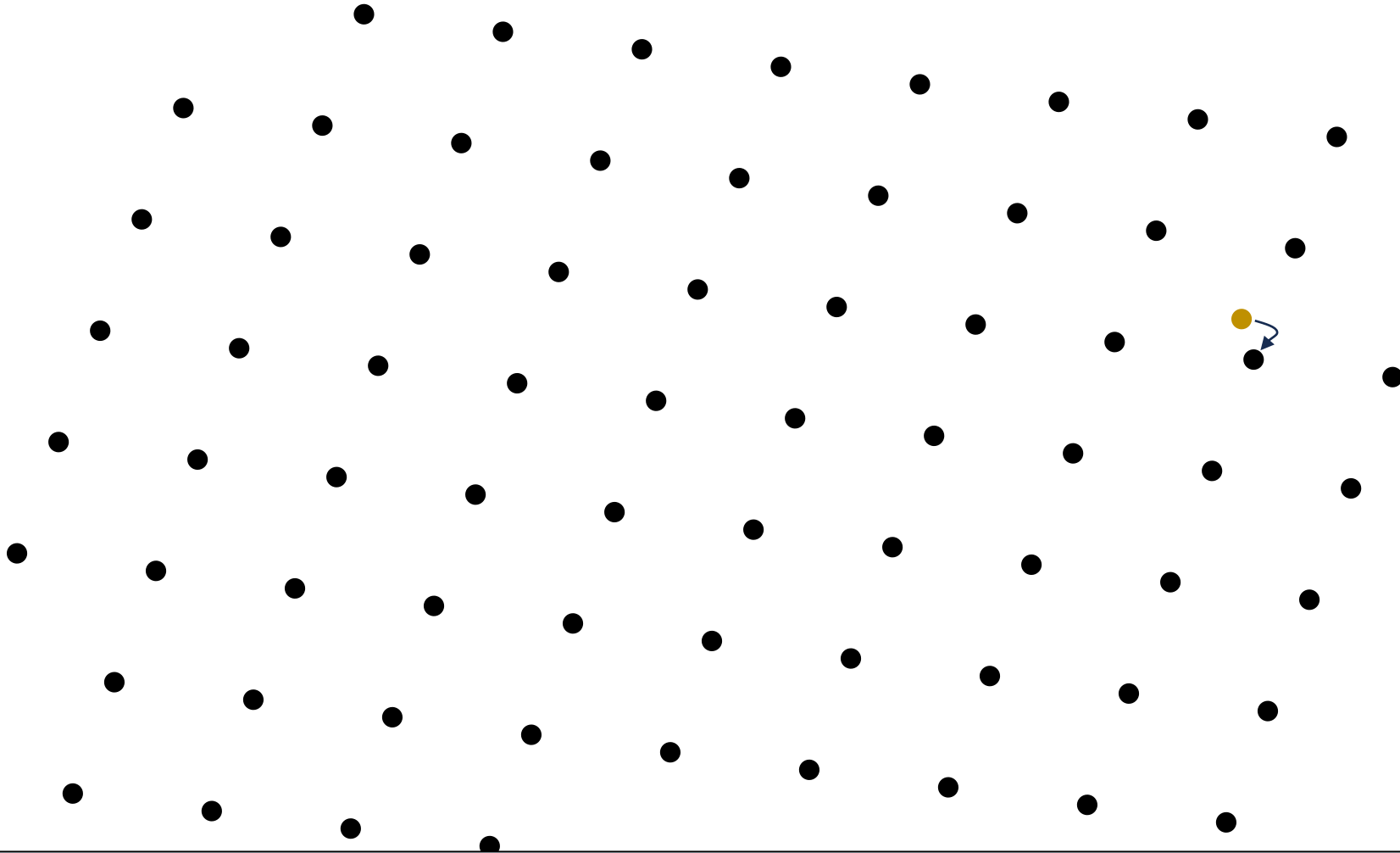
# Hardness of SVP



Approximation ratio



# CVP



**(Approx.) closest vector problem (CVP):** given lattice and point off lattice, find (approx.) closest lattice point

# We've actually seen lattices before

Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  be a periodic function

The set of periods is a lattice!

Given Shor's algorithm, no hope of hiding the description of the period as a lattice

SVP: finding a short period. Seems hard even for quantum

Historically, lattices (specifically LLL) were used  
for cryptanalysis (breaking crypto)

However, in 1990's hard problems on lattices emerged  
as a potential tool for cryptography, can solve many  
problems we don't otherwise know how to solve

With looming threat of quantum computers, now  
arguably main focus for post-quantum cryptosystems

An easy lattice:  $\mathbb{Z}^n$

SIVP: the standard basis vectors

CVP: round each coordinate

# Measure of good bases

Intuition: SVP and CVP are easy in  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  because we have a really good basis, namely the standard basis

For a general lattice, (approximate) SVP and CVP will be easy if we have a basis under which  $\mathcal{L}$  "looks like"  $\mathbb{Z}^n$

Roughly, want basis vectors to be approximately orthogonal

Since determinant is preserved, this correlates with basis vectors being "short"

# Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

(no normalization)

$$\mathbf{B} = ( \mathbf{b}_1 \mid \mathbf{b}_2 \mid \cdots )$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1 = \mathbf{b}_1$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_2 = \mathbf{b}_2 - \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_2}{|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1|^2} \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1$$

Note:  $\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i$  not in lattice

$$\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_3 = \mathbf{b}_3 - \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_3}{|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1|^2} \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1 - \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_2 \cdot \mathbf{b}_3}{|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_2|^2} \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_2$$

...

# Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

(no normalization)

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathbf{B} = ( \mathbf{b}_1 & | & \mathbf{b}_2 & | & \cdots ) \\ \tilde{\mathbf{B}} = ( \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1 & | & \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_2 & | & \cdots ) \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \\ \nwarrow \end{array} \det(\mathbf{B}) = \det(\tilde{\mathbf{B}})$$

A good basis is therefore one where  $\tilde{\mathbf{B}} \approx \mathbf{B}$

# CVP with a good basis

Babai's nearest plane

Given basis  $\mathbf{B}$  and a target  $\mathbf{c}$ , do the following:

$$\mathbf{c}' \leftarrow \mathbf{c}$$

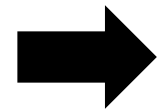
$$\text{For } i = n, \dots, 1, \mathbf{c}' \leftarrow \mathbf{c}' - \left\lfloor \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i \cdot \mathbf{c}'}{|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|^2} \right\rfloor \mathbf{b}_i$$

Output  $\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}'$



Intuition: each update to  $\mathbf{c}'$  is trying to get it as close to the origin as possible while only adding/subtracting lattice points

$\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}'$  always stays a lattice vector, and  $\mathbf{c}'$  small



Decent CVP solution

**Lemma:**  $|\mathbf{c}'|^2 \leq \frac{1}{4} \sum_i |\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|^2$

**Proof:** rotate lattice so that  $\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i/|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|$  are standard basis vectors

After first update  $\mathbf{c}' \leftarrow \mathbf{c}' - \left[ \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_n \cdot \mathbf{c}'}{|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_n|^2} \right] \mathbf{b}_n$ ,

last coordinate is range  $\left[ -|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_n|/2, |\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_n|/2 \right]$

Future updates do not change last coordinate

**Lemma:**  $|\mathbf{c}'|^2 \leq \frac{1}{4} \sum_i |\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|^2$

**Proof:** Applying argument to each coordinate shows that coordinate  $i$  ends up in range

$$\left[ -|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|/2, |\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|/2 \right]$$

Norm of  $i$ th coordinate of final  $\mathbf{c}'$  bounded by  $|\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i|/2$

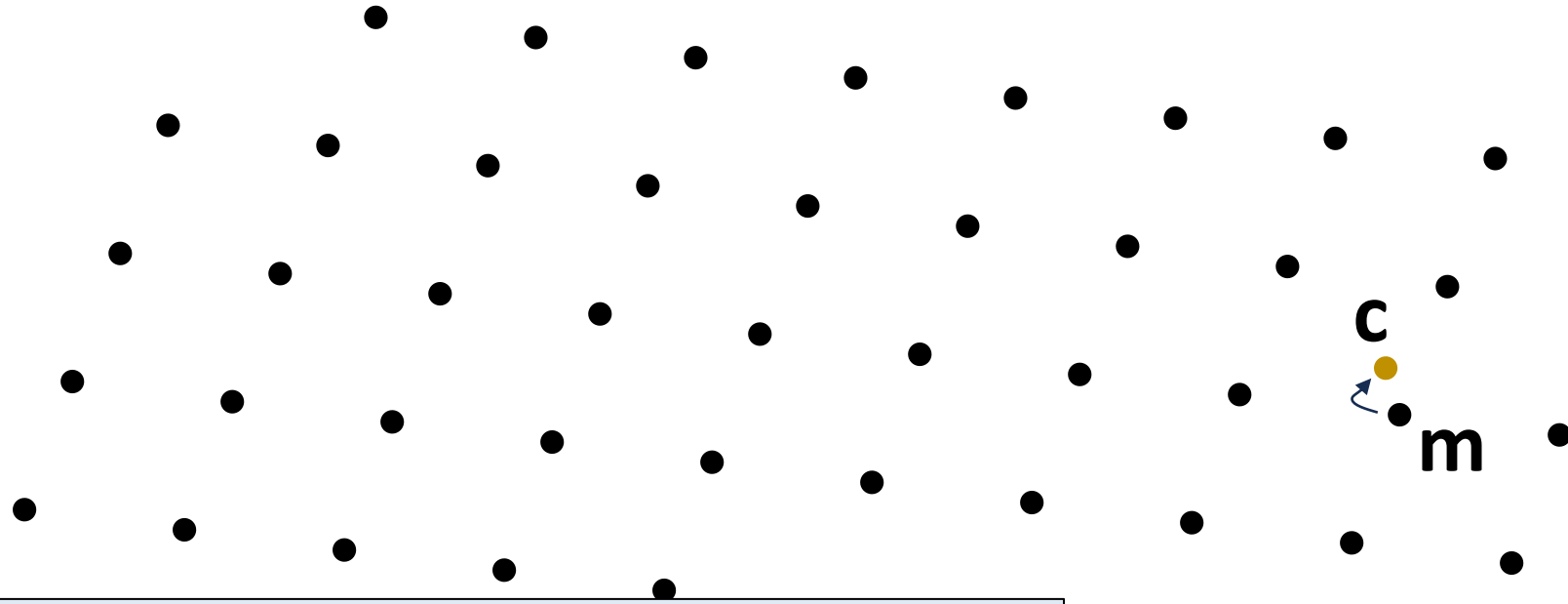
→ Norm bound follows from Pythagorean theorem

Notion of good bases and bad bases great for cryptography:

Good basis = secret key

Bad basis = public key

# Encryption from lattices



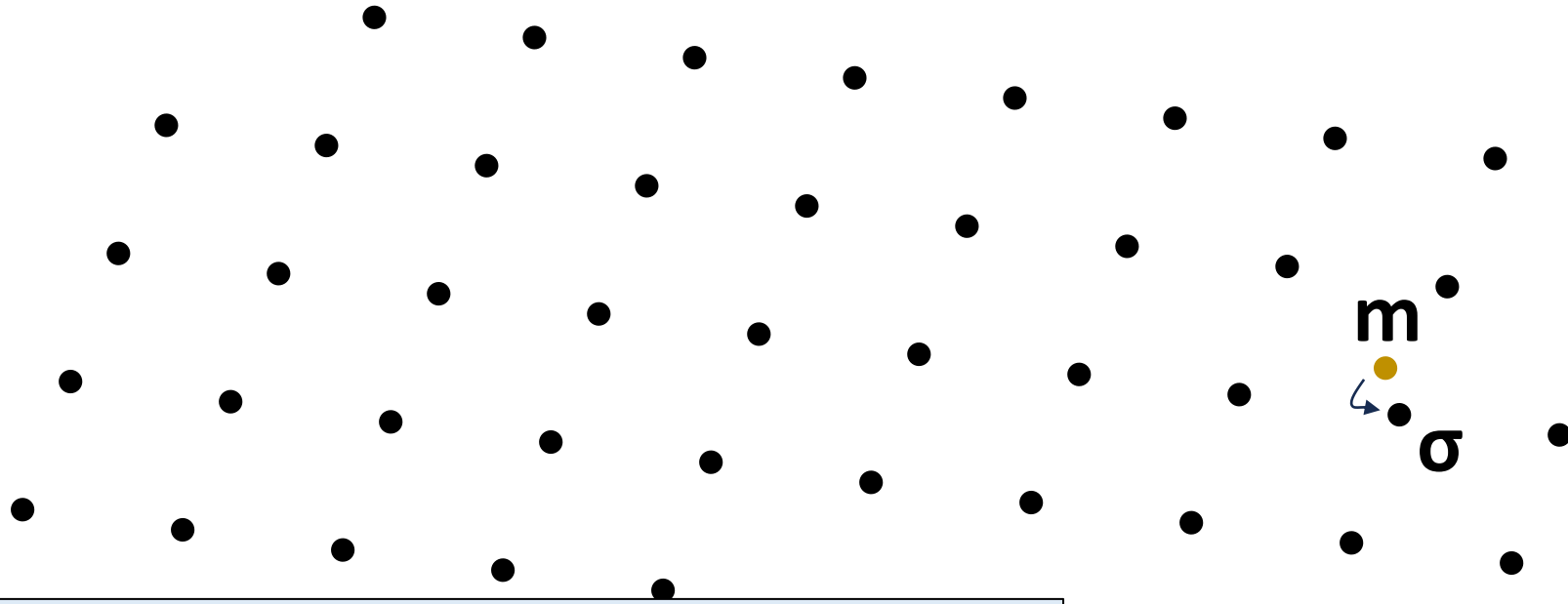
Encrypt  $\mathbf{m}$ :

- (1) Map  $\mathbf{m}$  to lattice point
- (2) Output close non-lattice point

Decrypt  $\mathbf{c}$ : use good basis + Babai

Security intuitively  
relies on hardness of  
CVP given bad basis

# Signatures from lattices



Sign  $m$ :

- (1) Map  $m$  to non-lattice point
- (2) Output close lattice point

Verify  $m, \sigma$ : Check closeness and that  $\sigma$  in lattice

Security intuitively  
relies on hardness of  
CVP given bad basis

Next time:

SIS and LWE: (approx.) SVP and CVP for a special family of lattices