

Lattice based cryptography

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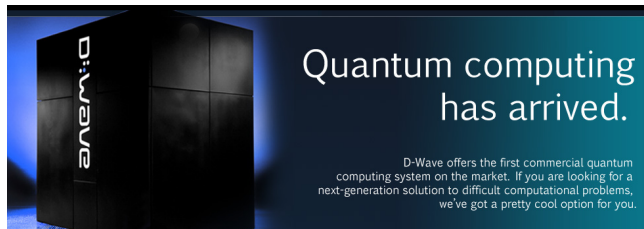
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Most known public key cryptosystems



- The RSA cryptosystem, 1978: based on factorization.
- The Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol, 1976: based on the discrete logarithm problem.
- The El Gamal Cryptosystem, 1985: based on the discrete logarithm problem.
- The elliptic curve cryptosystems and protocols, 1985: based on elliptic curves.
- The NTRU cryptosystem, 1996: based on lattice hard problems.
- The Learner with error cryptosystem, 2005: based on lattice hard problems.

Most known public key cryptosystems



Vulnerability to quantum computers

- The RSA cryptosystem: vulnerable.
- The Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol: vulnerable.
- The El Gamal Cryptosystem: vulnerable.
- The elliptic curve cryptosystems and protocols: vulnerable.
- NTRU and LWE cryptosystems: still resistant (post quantum cryptography).

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Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let n and d be two positive integers. Let $b_1 \cdots, b_d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be d linearly independent vectors. The lattice \mathcal{L} generated by $(b_1 \cdots, b_d)$ is the set

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}b_i = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^d x_i b_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

The vectors $b_1 \cdots, b_d$ are called a vector basis of \mathcal{L} . The lattice rank is n and the lattice dimension is d . If $n = d$ then \mathcal{L} is called a full rank lattice.

Introduction to lattices

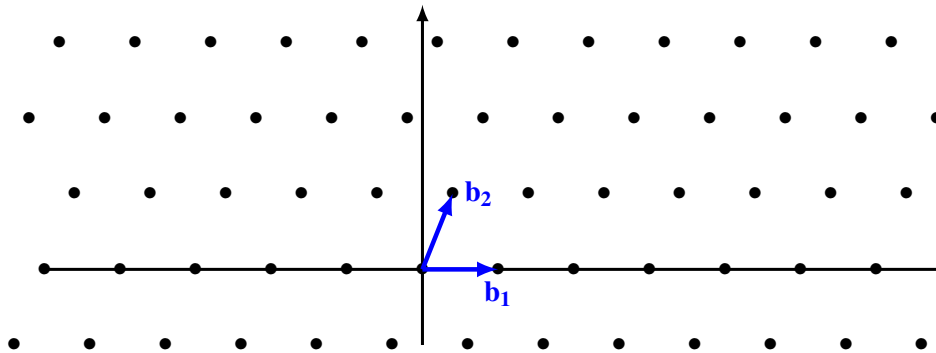


Figure: A lattice with the basis (b_1, b_2)

Introduction to lattices

Theorem

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice of dimension d and rank n . Then \mathcal{L} can be written as the rows of an $n \times d$ matrix with real entries.

Let

$$b_i = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1i} \\ a_{2i} \\ \vdots \\ a_{ni} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let $v = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i b_i$ for $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1d} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nd} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Introduction to lattices

Theorem

Let $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice of dimension d . Let $(b_1 \cdots, b_d)$ and $(b'_1 \cdots, b'_d)$ be two bases of \mathcal{L} . Then there exists a $d \times d$ matrix U with entries in \mathbb{Z} and $\det(U) = \pm 1$ such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} b'_1 \\ b'_2 \\ \vdots \\ b'_d \end{bmatrix} = U \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis $(b_1 \cdots, b_d)$. The volume or determinant of \mathcal{L} is

$$\det(\mathcal{L}) = \sqrt{\det(BB^t)},$$

where B is the $d \times n$ matrix of formed by the rows of the basis.

Theorem

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice of dimension d . Then the $\det(\mathcal{L})$ is independent of the choice of the basis.

Lemma

Let \mathcal{L} be a full-rank lattice ($n = d$) of dimension n . If $(b_1 \cdots, b_n)$ is a basis of \mathcal{L} with matrix B , then

$$\det(L) = |\det(B)|.$$

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis $(b_1 \cdots, b_d)$. The fundamental domain or parallelepiped for \mathcal{L} is the set

$$\mathcal{P}(b_1 \cdots, b_d) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^d x_i b_i, \mid 0 \leq x_i < 1 \right\}.$$

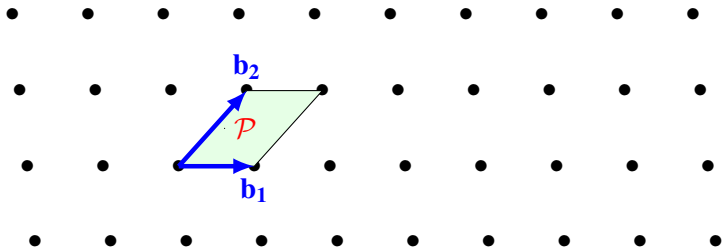


Figure: The fundamental domain for the basis (b_1, b_2)

Introduction to lattices

Theorem

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis (b_1, \dots, b_d) . Then the volume \mathcal{V} of the fundamental domain $\mathcal{P}(b_1, \dots, b_d)$ satisfies

$$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P}(b_1, \dots, b_d)) = \det(\mathcal{L}).$$

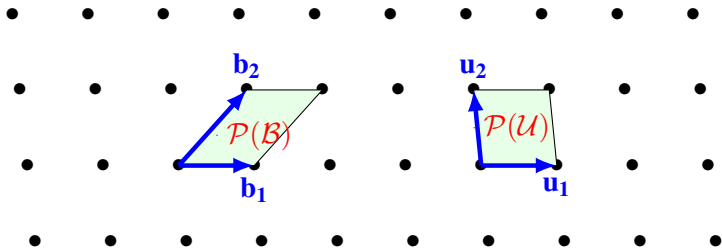


Figure: The fundamental domain for the bases (b_1, b_2) and (u_1, u_2)

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ and $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be two vectors of \mathbb{R}^n .

- 1 The inner product of u and v is

$$\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i.$$

- 2 The Euclidean norm of u is

$$\|u\| = (\langle u, u \rangle)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let L be a lattice. The minimal distance λ_1 of \mathcal{L} is the length of the shortest nonzero vector of \mathcal{L} :

$$\lambda_1 = \inf\{\|v\| \mid v \in \mathcal{L} \setminus \{0\}\} = \inf\{\|v - u\| \mid v, u \in \mathcal{L}, v \neq u\}.$$

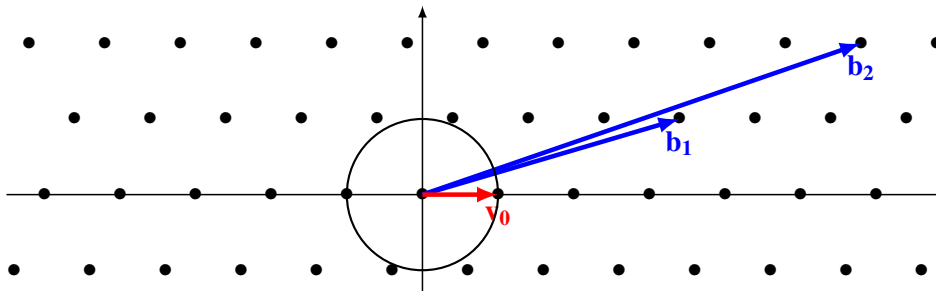


Figure: The shortest vectors are v_0 and $-v_0$.

Introduction to lattices

Example

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis (b_1, b_2) with

$$b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 19239 \\ 2971 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 22961 \\ 3546 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find the shortest vector.

The shortest vector is in the form

$$v_0 = x_1 b_1 + x_2 b_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 19239x_1 + 22961x_2 \\ 2971x_1 + 3546x_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

for some integers $(x_1, x_2) \neq (0, 0)$.

One can show that $v_0 = 37b_1 - 31b_2$ is the shortest vector in the lattice \mathcal{L} .

Introduction to lattices

Example

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis (b_1, b_2, b_3) with

$$b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 124797 \\ 2971 \\ 4781 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 95874 \\ 3546 \\ 7895 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 56871 \\ 35462 \\ 16539 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find the shortest vector in the lattice

The shortest vector is in the form

$$v_0 = x_1 b_1 + x_2 b_2 + x_3 b_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 124797x_1 + 95874x_2 + 56871x_3 \\ 2971x_1 + 3546x_2 + 35462x_3 \\ 4781x_1 + 7895x_2 + 16539x_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

for some integers $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \neq (0, 0, 0)$ for which the norm $\|v_0\|$ is as small as possible. Using the LLL algorithm, we can find that the shortest vector is $v_0 = -3b_1 + 4b_2$.

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let L be a lattice of dimension n . For $i = 1, \dots, n$, the i th successive minimum of the lattice is

$$\lambda_i = \min\{\max\{\|v_1\|, \dots, \|v_i\|\} \mid v_1, \dots, v_i \in \mathcal{L} \text{ are linearly independent}\}.$$

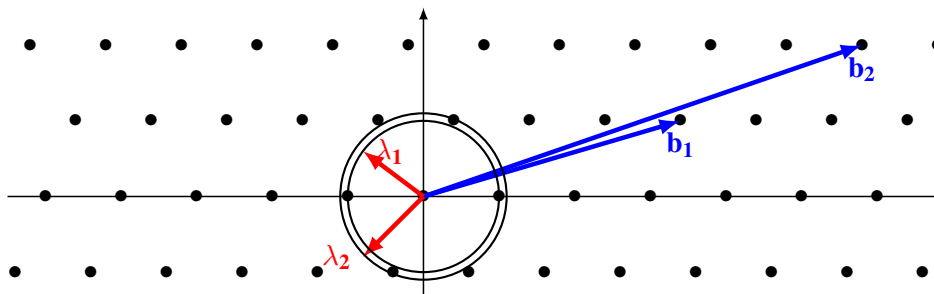


Figure: The first minima λ_1 and the second minima λ_2

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a full rank lattice of dimension n in \mathbb{Z}^n .

- 1 **The Shortest Vector Problem (SVP):** Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} , compute a non-zero vector $v \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v\|$ is minimal, that is $\|v\| = \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$.
- 2 **The Closest Vector Problem (CVP):** Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} and a vector $v \notin \mathcal{L}$, find a vector $u \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v - u\|$ is minimal, that is $\|v - u\| = d(v, \mathcal{L})$ where $d(v, \mathcal{L}) = \min_{u \in \mathcal{L}} \|v - u\|$.

Introduction to lattices

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a full rank lattice of dimension n in \mathbb{Z}^n .

- 1 **The Shortest Independent Vectors Problem (SIVP):** Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} , find n linearly independent lattice vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n such that $\max_i \|v_i\| \leq \lambda_n$, where λ_n is the n th successive minima of \mathcal{L} .
- 2 **The approximate SVP problem (γ SVP):** Fix $\gamma > 1$. Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} , compute a non-zero vector $v \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v\| \leq \gamma \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$ where $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$ is the minimal Euclidean norm in \mathcal{L} .
- 3 **The approximate CVP problem (γ SVP):** Fix $\gamma > 1$. Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} and a vector $v \notin \mathcal{L}$, find a vector $u \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v - u\| \leq \gamma \lambda_1 \mathbf{d}(v, \mathcal{L})$ where $\mathbf{d}(v, \mathcal{L}) = \min_{u \in \mathcal{L}} \|v - u\|$.

Introduction to lattices

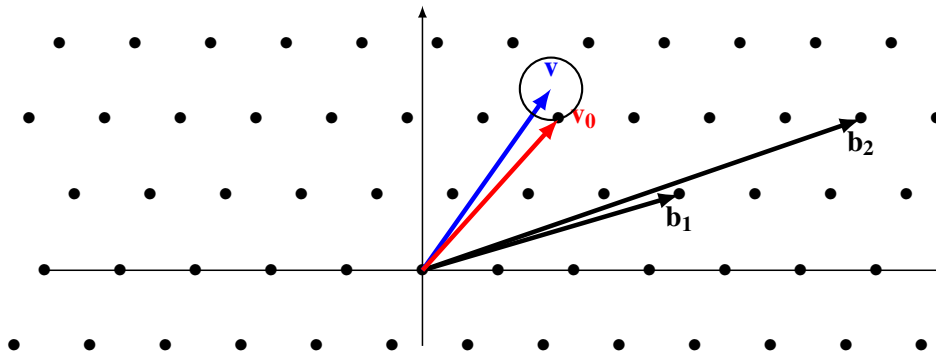


Figure: The closest vector to v is v_0

Introduction to lattices

Theorem (Minkowski)

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with dimension n . Then there exists a nonzero vector $v \in \mathcal{L}$ satisfying

$$\|v\| \leq \sqrt{n} \det(\mathcal{L})^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

The Gaussian Heuristic implies that the expected shortest non-zero vector in a lattice \mathcal{L} is approximately $\sigma(\mathcal{L})$ where

$$\sigma(\mathcal{L}) = \sqrt{\frac{n}{2\pi e}} \det(\mathcal{L})^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

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The LLL algorithm

- Invented in 1982 by Lenstra, Lenstra and Lovász.
- Given an arbitrary basis B of a lattice \mathcal{L} , finds a “good” basis.
- Polynomial time algorithm.
- Various applications:
 - 1 Formulae for π , $\log 2$, ...
 - 2 Implemented in Mathematica, Maple, Magma, Pari/GP, ...
 - 3 Solving diophantine equations.
 - 4 Solving SVP and CVP problems in low dimensions.
 - 5 Cryptanalysis of Knapsack cryptosystems.
 - 6 Attacks on RSA and NTRU.

The LLL algorithm

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method

Theorem

Let V be a vector space of dimension n and $(b_1 \cdots, b_n)$ a basis of V .
Let $(b_1^* \cdots, b_n^*)$ be n vectors such that

$$b_1^* = b_1, \quad b_i^* = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \mu_{i,j} b_j^*,$$

where, for $j < i$

$$\mu_{i,j} = \frac{\langle b_i, b_j^* \rangle}{\langle b_j^*, b_j^* \rangle}.$$

Then $(b_1^* \cdots, b_n^*)$ is an orthogonal basis of V .

The LLL algorithm

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method: $n = 2$

$$b_1^* = b_1, \quad b_2^* = b_2 - \frac{\langle b_2, b_1 \rangle}{\langle b_1, b_1 \rangle} b_1,$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle b_1^*, b_2^* \rangle = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle - \frac{\langle b_2, b_1 \rangle}{\langle b_1, b_1 \rangle} \langle b_1, b_1 \rangle = 0.$$

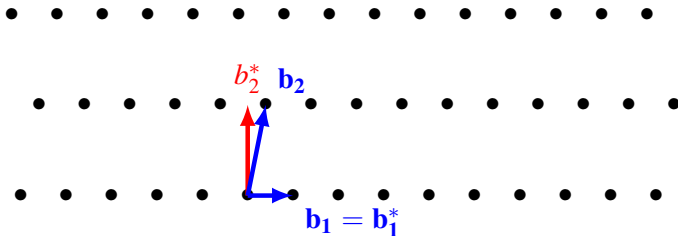


Figure: An orthogonal basis

The LLL algorithm

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method: the determinant

Corollary (Hadamard)

Let $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis of a lattice \mathcal{L} and let $B^ = \{b_1^*, \dots, b_n^*\}$ be the associated Gram-Schmidt basis. Then*

$$\det(\mathcal{L}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \|b_i^*\| \leq \prod_{i=1}^n \|b_i\|.$$

The LLL algorithm

LLL-reduced basis

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice. A basis $(b_1 \cdots, b_n)$ of \mathcal{L} is LLL-reduced if the orthogonal Gram-Schmidt basis $(b_1^* \cdots, b_n^*)$ satisfies

$$|\mu_{i,j}| \leq \frac{1}{2}, \quad \text{pour } 1 \leq j < i \leq n, \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{3}{4} \|b_{i-1}^*\|^2 \leq \|b_i^* + \mu_{i,i-1} b_{i-1}^*\|^2, \quad \text{pour } 1 < i \leq n, \quad (2)$$

where, for $j < i$

$$\mu_{i,j} = \frac{\langle b_i, b_j^* \rangle}{\langle b_j^*, b_j^* \rangle}.$$

The LLL algorithm

LLL-reduced basis: dimension 2

$$|\mu_{2,1}| = \left| \frac{\langle b_2, b_1^* \rangle}{\langle b_1^*, b_1^* \rangle} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2},$$

$$\frac{3}{4} \|b_1\|^2 \leq \|b_2\|^2.$$

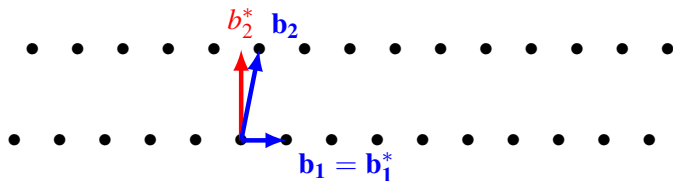


Figure: A 2-dimension reduced basis

The LLL algorithm

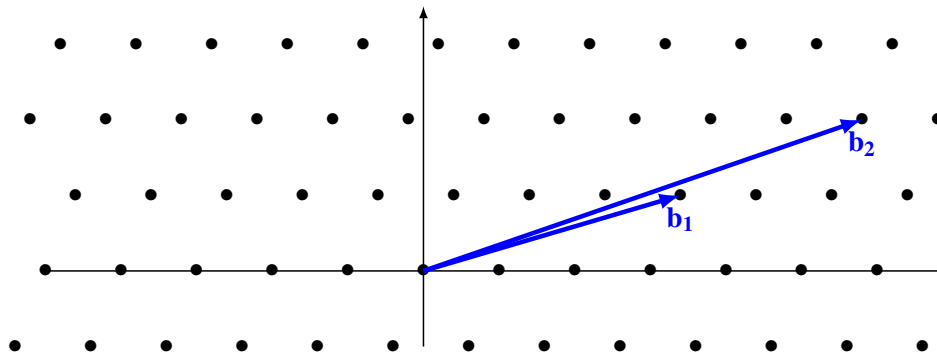


Figure: A lattice with a *bad* basis (b_1, b_2)

The LLL algorithm

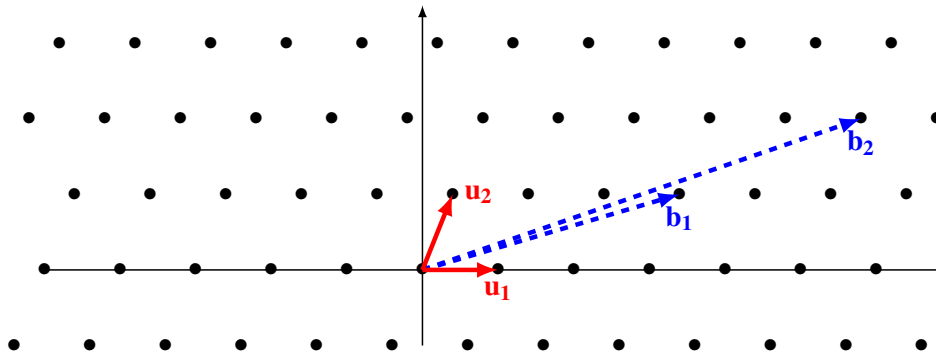


Figure: The same lattice with *a good* basis (u_1, u_2)

The LLL algorithm

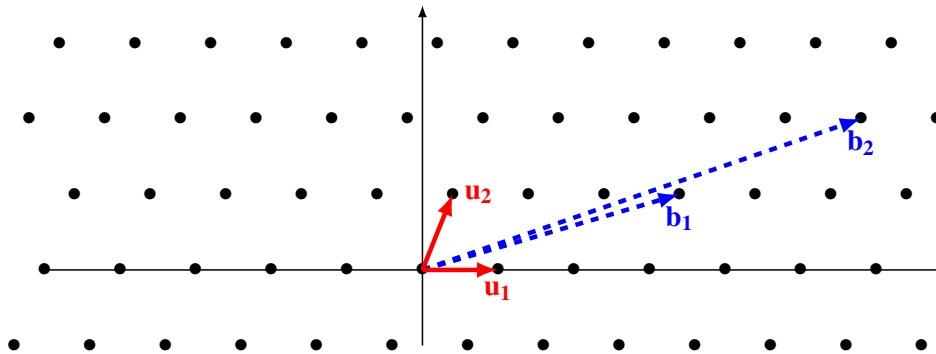


Figure: The same lattice with a *good* basis (u_1, u_2)

The LLL algorithm

LLL-reduced basis: properties

Theorem

Let (b_1, \dots, b_n) be an LLL-reduced basis and (b_1^*, \dots, b_n^*) be the Gram-Schmidt orthogonal associated basis. We have

1. $\|b_j^*\|^2 \leq 2^{i-j} \|b_i^*\|^2$ for $1 \leq j \leq i \leq n$.
2. $\prod_{i=1}^n \|b_i\| \leq 2^{\frac{n(n-1)}{4}} \det(L)$.
3. $\|b_j\| \leq 2^{\frac{i-1}{2}} \|b_i^*\|$ for $1 \leq j \leq i \leq n$.
4. $\|b_1\| \leq 2^{\frac{n-1}{4}} \det(L)^{\frac{1}{n}}$.
5. For any nonzero vector $v \in L$, $\|b_1\| \leq 2^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \|v\|$.

Comparison

- The LLL algorithm: $\|b_1\| \leq 2^{\frac{n-1}{4}} \det(L)^{\frac{1}{n}}$.
- Minkowski: $\|v\| \leq \sqrt{n} \det(L)^{\frac{1}{n}}$.

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NTRU

NTRU

- Invented by Hoffstein, Pipher et Silverman in 1996.
- Security based on the Shortest Vector Problem (SVP).
- Various versions between 1996 and 2001.

Definition

The Shortest Vector Problem (SVP): Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} , compute a non-zero vector $v \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v\|$ is minimal, that is $\|v\| = \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$.

NTRU: Ring of Convolution $\Pi = \mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^N - 1)$

Polynomials

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f_i X^i, \quad g = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} g_i X^i,$$

Sum

$$f + g = (f_0 + g_0, f_1 + g_1, \dots, f_{N-1} + g_{N-1}).$$

Product

$$f * g = h = (h_0, h_1, \dots, h_{N-1}) \text{ with}$$

$$h_k = \sum_{i+j \equiv k \pmod{N}} f_i g_j.$$

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$$h_k = \sum_{i+j \equiv k \pmod{N}} f_i g_j.$$

NTRU: Ring of Convolution $\Pi = \mathbb{Z}[X]/(X^N - 1)$

Convolution

$$f = (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_{N-1}), \quad g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_{N-1}).$$

$$f * g = h = (h_0, h_1, \dots, h_{N-1})$$

	1	X	\dots	X^k	\dots	X^{N-1}
	$f_0 g_0$	$f_0 g_1$	\dots	$f_0 g_k$	\dots	$f_0 g_{N-1}$
+	$f_1 g_{N-1}$	$f_1 g_0$	\dots	$f_1 g_{k-1}$	\dots	$f_1 g_{N-2}$
+	$f_2 g_{N-2}$	$f_2 g_{N-1}$	\dots	$f_2 g_{k-2}$	\dots	$f_2 g_{N-3}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\dots	\dots	\vdots	\vdots
+	$f_{N-2} g_2$	$f_{N-2} g_3$	\dots	$f_{N-2} g_{k+2}$	\dots	$f_{N-2} g_1$
+	$f_{N-1} g_1$	$f_{N-1} g_2$	\dots	$f_{N-1} g_{k+1}$	\dots	$f_{N-1} g_0$
$h =$	h_0	h_1	\dots	h_k	\dots	h_{N-1}

NTRU Parameters

- N = a prime number (e.g. $N = 167, 251, 347, 503$).
- q = a large modulus (e.g. $q = 128, 256$).
- p = a small modulus (e.g. $p = 3$).

NTRU Algorithms

Key Generation:

- Randomly choose two **private** polynomials f and g .
- Compute the inverse of f modulo q : $f * f_q = 1 \pmod{q}$.
- Compute the inverse of f modulo p : $f * f_p = 1 \pmod{p}$.
- Compute the public key $h = f_q * g \pmod{q}$.

NTRU Algorithms

Encryption:

- m is a plaintext in the form of a polynomial mod q .
- Randomly choose a **private** polynomial r .
- Compute the encrypted message $e = m + pr * h \pmod{q}$.

Decryption:

- Compute $a = f * e = f * (m + pr * h) = f * m + pr * g \pmod{q}$.
- Compute $a * f_p = (f * m + pr * g) * f_p = m \pmod{p}$.

NTRU Algorithms

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NTRU Algorithms

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Decryption:

- Compute $a = f * e = f * (m + pr * h) = f * m + pr * g \pmod{q}$.
- Compute $a * f_p = (f * m + pr * g) * f_p = m \pmod{p}$.

NTRU

Correctness of decryption

We have

$$a \equiv f * e \pmod{q}$$

$$a \equiv f * (p * r * h + m) \pmod{q}$$

$$a \equiv f * r * (p * g * f_q) + f * m \pmod{q}$$

$$a \equiv p * r * g * f * f_q + f * m \pmod{q}$$

$$a \equiv p * r * g + f * m \pmod{q}.$$

If $p * r * g + f * m \in \left[-\frac{q}{2}, \frac{q}{2}\right]$, then

$$m \equiv a * f_p \pmod{p}.$$

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Learning With Errors

LWE

- Invented by O. Regev in 2005.
- Security based on the GapSVP problem.
- Provable Security.

Definition

The GapSVP problem: Let \mathcal{L} be a lattice with a basis B . Let $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L})$ be the length of the shortest nonzero vector of \mathcal{L} . Let $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Decide whether $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) < 1$ or $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) > \gamma$.

Learning With Errors

LWE Key Generation

- **Input:** Integers n, m, l, q .
 - **Output:** A private key S and a public key (A, P) .
- 1 Choose $S \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times l}$ at random.
 - 2 Choose $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n}$ at random.
 - 3 Choose $E \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times l}$ according to a Gaussian character χ .
 - 4 Compute $P = AS + E \pmod{q}$. Hence $P \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times l}$.
 - 5 The private key is S .
 - 6 The public key is (A, P) .

Learning With Errors

LWE Encryption

- **Input:** Integers n, m, l, t, r, q , a public key (A, P) and a plaintext $M \in \mathbb{Z}_t^{l \times 1}$.
 - **Output:** A ciphertext (u, c) .
- 1 Choose $a \in [-r, r]^{m \times 1}$ at random.
 - 2 Compute $u = A^T a \pmod{q} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 1}$.
 - 3 Compute $c = P^T a + \left\lceil \frac{Mq}{t} \right\rceil \pmod{q} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{l \times 1}$.
 - 4 The ciphertext is (u, c) .

Learning With Errors

LWE Decryption

- **Input:** Integers n, m, l, t, r, q , a private key S and a ciphertext (u, c) .
- **Output:** A plaintext M .
- 1 Compute $v = c - S^T u$ and $M = \left\lfloor \frac{tv}{q} \right\rfloor$.

Learning With Errors

Correctness of decryption

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 v &= c - S^T u \\
 &= (AS + E)^T a - S^T A^T a + \left[\frac{Mq}{t} \right] \\
 &= E^T a + \left[\frac{Mq}{t} \right].
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\left[\frac{tv}{q} \right] = \left[\frac{tE^T a}{q} + \frac{t}{q} \left[\frac{Mq}{t} \right] \right].$$

With suitable parameters, the term $\frac{tE^T a}{q}$ is negligible. Consequently

$$\left[\frac{tv}{q} \right] = M.$$

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GGH

GGH

- Invented by Goldreich, Goldwasser and Halevi in 1996.
- Security based on the Closest Vector Problem (CVP).
- Broken by Nguyen in 1999.

Definition (The Closest Vector Problem (CVP))

Given a basis matrix B for \mathcal{L} and a vector $v \notin \mathcal{L}$, compute a vector $v_0 \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $\|v - v_0\|$ is minimal.

Learning With Errors

GGH key generation

- **Input:** A lattice \mathcal{L} of dimension n .
 - **Output:** A public key B and a private key A .
- 1 Find a “good basis” A of \mathcal{L} .
 - 2 Find a “bad basis” B of \mathcal{L} .
 - 3 Publish B as the public key.
 - 4 Keep A as the secret key.

Learning With Errors

GGH encryption

- **Input:** A lattice \mathcal{L} , a parameter $\rho > 0$, a public key B and a plaintext $m \in \mathbb{Z}^n$.
 - **Output:** A ciphertext c .
- 1 Compute $v = mB \in \mathcal{L}$.
 - 2 Choose a small vector $e \in [-\rho, \rho]^n$.
 - 3 The ciphertext is $c = v + e$.

Learning With Errors

GGH decryption

- **Input:** A lattice \mathcal{L} , a private key A and a ciphertext c .
 - **Output:** A plaintext $m \in \mathbb{Z}^n$.
- 1 Use an efficient reduction algorithm and the good basis A to find the closest vector $v \in \mathcal{L}$ of the ciphertext c .
 - 2 Compute $m = vB^{-1}$.

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Thank you
Terima kasih

