

# Sampling Lattice Trapdoors

November 10, 2015

Today:

- 2 notions of lattice trapdoors
- Efficient sampling of trapdoors
- Application to digital signatures

Last class we saw one type of lattice trapdoor for a matrix  $A$  and that it was sufficient for solving LWE and ISIS with matrix  $A$ . The difficulty is in sampling uniform  $A$  along with a trapdoor. Today we will look at a particular matrix for which we can easily describe a trapdoor. With this matrix in hand, it will suffice to sample a different type of trapdoor – a task that will be simpler. Finally, we will demonstrate a simple digital signature scheme based on the above.

## 1 2 types of trapdoors

### 1.1 Type 1

This is the notion of a trapdoor that we saw last class.

**Definition 1.1** ( $L^\perp(A)$ ). For a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \times m$ , we denote by  $L^\perp$  the dual lattice of  $A$  composed of all vectors in the kernel of  $A$  (arithmetic done mod  $q$ ):

$$L^\perp(A) \triangleq \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^m : Ax = 0 \pmod{q}\}$$

A trapdoor  $T$  for  $A$  is a short basis for the lattice  $L^\perp(A)$ .

**Definition 1.2** ('Type 1' Trapdoor). For matrices  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \times m$  and  $T \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times m}$ ,  $T$  is a trapdoor for  $A$  if:

1.  $AT \equiv 0^{n \times m} \pmod{q}$
2.  $T$  is full rank over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
3. Each column  $t_i$  of  $T = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 & t_2 & \cdots & t_m \end{bmatrix}$  is 'short'.

Last class, we saw that, given such a trapdoor  $T$  for  $A$ , one could efficiently solve LWE and ISIS.

## 1.2 The Gadget Matrix

A special matrix that will be important for us later is the “gadget matrix”  $G$ , whose trapdoor is very easily understood.

**Definition 1.3** (Gadget Matrix  $G$ ). *Let  $g = [1 \ 2 \ 4 \ \dots \ 2^{\lceil \log q \rceil - 1}]$ . The gadget matrix  $G \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n \log q}$  is  $G \triangleq g \otimes I_n$ :*

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & g & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & g \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector  $g$  can be thought of a binary recombination<sup>1</sup> operator, taking the binary representation (as a column vector)  $\text{binary}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \log q}$  of an integer  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ , and mapping it to  $g^T \cdot \text{binary}(x) = x$ . Likewise, for integers  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ ,  $G$  is the operator mapping  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n^2 \log q}$  to  $Gb$ :

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} \text{binary}(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \text{binary}(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \mapsto Gb = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

One possible trapdoor  $T_g$  for  $g$  is:

$$T_g \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ binary}(q)$$

where  $\text{binary}(q) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\lceil \log q \rceil - 1}$  is the binary expansion of  $q$ . It is easy to verify that  $gT_g = 0$  and that each column has short length (all are either  $\sqrt{5}$  or  $O(\sqrt{\log q})$ ). Let  $k = \lceil \log q \rceil - 1$  and  $b = \text{binary}(q)$ . Then

$$\det(T_g) = \sum_{i=1}^k (-1)^{i-1} \cdot b[i] \cdot 2^{i-1} (-1)^{k-i} = (-1)^{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^k b[i] \cdot 2^{i-1} = (-1)^{k-1} q \neq 0$$

and therefore  $T_g$  is full rank over  $\mathbb{Z}$  (though not full-rank over  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ ).

Finally, we define the gadget matrix  $T_G$  for the matrix  $G$ :

$$T_G \triangleq T_g \oplus I_n = \begin{bmatrix} T_g & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & T_g & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & T_g \end{bmatrix}$$

Just as with  $T_g$ ,  $T_G$  is full-rank over  $\mathbb{Z}$ , has short entries, and is in the null space of  $G$ .

Last class, we saw that a (type 1) trapdoor for  $A$  suffices to solve LWE and ISIS. Because of the structure of  $G$ , solving these problems with respect to  $G$  is particularly efficient.

---

<sup>1</sup>The inverse of binary decomposition

### 1.3 Type 2

Our goal is to sample a uniform matrix  $A$  along with some auxiliary information that makes solving LWE (recovering  $s^T$  given  $s^T A + e$ ) with matrix  $A$  tractable. The trapdoor  $T_G$  for  $G$  enabling us to solve LWE instances with matrix  $G$  efficiently. Therefore it suffices to have auxiliary information about  $A$  that allows us to transform LWE samples for  $A$  to LWE samples for  $G$  with the same secret. This information will be a 'type 2' trapdoor for  $A$ .

**Definition 1.4** ('Type 2' Trapdoor). *For matrices  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \times m$  and  $R \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n \log q}$ ,  $R$  is a trapdoor for  $A$  if:*

1.  $AR = G$
2. Each column  $r_i$  of  $R = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & r_2 & \cdots & r_m \end{bmatrix}$  is 'short'.

*Remark.* We could similarly define a type 2 trapdoor with respect to any full rank matrix  $G$  for which we knew a trapdoor, and the reductions below would suffice. The reason for preferring this particular gadget matrix  $G$  is that its structure makes solving LWE and ISIS conceptually simple and concretely efficient.

#### Solving LWE and ISIS.

Given an LWE sample  $s^T A + e^T$  and a (type 2) trapdoor  $R$  for  $A$ :

$$(s^T A + e^T)R = s^T G + (e^T R)$$

This is an LWE sample for  $G$  with error  $e' = e^T R$ .

Similarly, given an ISIS challenge  $(A, v)$ , we can find a short  $e$  such that  $Ae = v$  by solving the corresponding problem with respect to  $G$ , and multiplying the solution by  $R$

$$Ae = A(Re') = Ge' = v$$

Since  $G$  is the binary recomposition matrix, a solution to the above is  $e' = [\text{binary}(v_1) \parallel \cdots \parallel \text{binary}(v_n)]^T$ . This  $e'$  is composed only of 0s and 1s and thus  $\|e'\| < \sqrt{n}$ .

## 2 Sampling Trapdoors

Though we've seen that sampling matrices  $A$  and associated type 2 trapdoors  $R$  suffices for solving lattice problems, how do we sample such matrices?

1. Sample uniformly  $A_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m_0}$ <sup>2</sup>
2. Sample random  $R_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m_0 \times n \log(q)}$  with each entry  $R_{i,j} \leftarrow \text{Bernoulli}(\frac{1}{2})$  is 0 or 1 with equal probability.

---

<sup>2</sup>We shall see below that  $m_0 = n \log q + 2n$  suffices.

3.

$$A \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} A_0 \parallel -A_0R_0 + G \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} R_0 \\ I \end{bmatrix}$$

It is easy to verify that  $AR = G$ , and that the columns  $r_i$  of  $R$  are short with high probability (in particular, ) We now demonstrate that  $A$  sampled as above is statistically-close to uniform. To prove this, we use the Leftover Hash Lemma. Each column of  $R_0$  has  $m_0 := n \log q + 2n$  bits of entropy. This implies that for each column  $r_i$ ,  $(A_0, -A_0r_i) \approx_{2^{-n}} (A_0, u)$  where  $u \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^n$  is sampled uniformly. Combining for all the columns, we get that  $[A_0 \parallel -A_0R_0 + G]$  is statistically-close to  $[A_0 \parallel U]$ , a completely uniform  $n \times m$ -matrix.

### 3 Application to Digital Signatures

Now we'll see an application of lattice trapdoors in building a simple signature scheme. Observe that we can already build a signature from lattices assuming that there is a lattice-based one-way function ala Ajtai [?], using generic constructions of digital signatures from OWFs [?]. In contrast, we will see a relatively simple and efficient scheme based on [?]. Previously, there were a number of flawed proposals .

We consider a weak form of security, where the adversary is required to forge a signature on a specific challenge message  $msg^*$  and the adversary receives signatures on random messages rather than messages of his choice.

**Definition 3.1** (Digital Signatures). *A digital signature scheme for messages in  $\mathcal{M}$  is a tuple of algorithms (Keygen, Sign, Verify) satisfying the following properties:*

**Syntax:**

- $\text{Keygen}(1^n) \rightarrow sk, vk$  is a randomized algorithm taking a security parameter  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$  in unary, and outputting a signing key  $sk$  and a verification key  $vk$ .
- $\text{Sign}(sk, msg) \rightarrow sig$  is a randomized algorithm taking a signing key  $sk$  and a message  $msg \in \mathcal{M}$  as inputs, and outputting a signature  $sig$ .
- $\text{Verify}(vk, sig, msg) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is a deterministic algorithm taking a verification key  $vk$ , a signature  $sig$ , and a message  $msg$ , and outputting  $b \in \{0, 1\}$ .

**Correctness:** *A digital signature is correct if validly generated signatures verify. Namely, for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ , for all  $sk, vk \leftarrow \text{Keygen}(1^n)$ , and for all  $msg \in \mathcal{M}$ :*

$$\text{Verify}(vk, \text{Sign}(sk, msg), msg) = 1$$

**Security:**<sup>3</sup> *A digital signature scheme is secure if for large enough  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , all probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$  have negligible probability of winning in the following game:*

- $sk, vk \leftarrow \text{Keygen}(1^n)$
- $msg^* \leftarrow \mathcal{M}$  // The challenge message
- $\text{state}_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(vk, msg^*);$

- While done  $\nleftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{state}_i, \text{sig}_i)$ 
  - $\text{state}_{i+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{state}_i, \text{sig}_i)$
  - $\text{msg}_{i+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{M}$
  - $\text{sig}_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{Sign}(sk, \text{msg}_{i+1})$
- $\text{sig}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{state}_{\text{final}})$
- $\mathcal{A}$  wins if  $(\text{Verify}(vk, \text{sig}^*, \text{msg}^*) = 1)$

### 3.1 A First Attempt

Suppose we have an algorithm  $A, R \leftarrow \text{TrapSamp}(n, m, q)$  that samples matrices  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$  along with an associated (type 2) trapdoor  $R \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n \log q}$ . Let  $\mathcal{M} = \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ .

- $\text{Keygen}(1^n)$  : Sample  $A, R \leftarrow \text{TrapSamp}(n, ??, ??)$  . Output  $sk = R$  and  $vk = A$ .
- $\text{Sign}(sk, \text{msg})$  : Solve  $Ae = y$  for  $y := \text{msg}$ , and a short  $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ . Output  $\text{sig} = e$ .
- $\text{Verify}(vk, \text{sig}, \text{msg})$ : Output 1 if  $(Ae = \text{msg}) \wedge (\|e\| \leq \text{poly}(n))$ . Otherwise, output 0.

Forging a signature on  $\text{msg}$  requires finding a short solution to  $Ae = b$  for a random value  $b = \text{msg}$  . Given no  $(\text{msg}_i, \text{sig}_i)$  pairs, this is infeasible by the difficulty of ISIS. But what about when given many pairs, all with respect to the same signing key  $A$ ?

Suppose we use the solver for ISIS from Section 1.3 with the trapdoors from Section 2. Then the adversary receives many signatures of the form  $\text{sig} = Re' = \begin{bmatrix} R_0 \\ I \end{bmatrix} e' = \begin{bmatrix} R_0 e' \\ e' \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $e'$  is the binary decomposition of  $\text{msg}$  . With sufficiently many samples, the adversary could efficiently solve for  $R_0$  the system of equations  $(\text{sig}_1 \| \dots \| \text{sig}_m) = R_0 E$  where  $E = (e'_1 \| \dots \| e'_m)$  can be easily constructed by the adversary. Given enough signatures, the adversary can reconstruct the trapdoor  $R$ , let alone forge signatures.

### 3.2 A better “Solve” step

We will fix the above scheme by requiring that “solve” step – hereafter named  $\text{Solve}(A, R, y)$  – in the  $\text{Sign}$  algorithm satisfies some additional property. After defining what a good solver is, we demonstrate that it suffices to prove existential unforgeability under chosen-message attack. Next lecture, we will look at such a good  $\text{Solve}$  algorithm, based on discrete Gaussian sampling.

We will call  $\text{Solve}$  good if its outputs statistically hide the trapdoor  $R$  in the following strong sense.

**Definition 3.2** (Good Solve). *Let  $\text{Solve}(A, R, y)$  be an algorithm that outputs short solutions to  $Ae = y$ .  $\text{Solve}$  is good if for some  $\sigma > 0$ , for every short trapdoor  $R$ :*

$$\left( A \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}, e \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m, \sigma}, y := Ae \right) \approx_s \left( A \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}, \text{Solve}(A, R, y), y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^m \right)$$

where  $\approx_s$  denotes statistical closeness  $2^{-n}$ .<sup>4</sup> and  $D_{\mathbb{Z}^m, \sigma}$  denotes the discrete Gaussian distribution on  $\mathbb{Z}^m$  with standard deviation  $\sigma$ .

<sup>4</sup>Computational, rather than statistical, indistinguishability would suffice.

That is, the output distribution of  $e \leftarrow \text{Solve}(A, R, y)$  is statistically close to sampling  $e$  from discrete Gaussian conditioned on  $Ae = y$ .

We now reduce solving SIS to violating the security of the signature scheme in Section 3.1 instantiated with a “good” Solve algorithm.

**Reducing SIS to forging:** Given an SIS challenge  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ , our goal is to find a short  $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$  such that  $Ae \equiv 0^n \pmod q$ . Run the adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  for the signature scheme, but generate message-signature pairs by sampling  $sig := e \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m, \sigma}$  from a discrete Gaussian and setting  $msg := y = Ae$ . Additionally, choose  $e^* \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m, \sigma}$  and set the challenge message  $msg^* = Ae^*$ .

By the goodness of Solve, this distribution on messages and signatures is statistically indistinguishable from the real distribution (random messages and signatures generated by  $\text{Solve}(A, R, y)$ ). Any  $\mathcal{A}$  that forges when given samples from the latter must also forge when given samples from the former. Thus, with noticeable probability,  $\mathcal{A}$  will output a signature  $sig^{**} = e^{**}$  such that  $Ae^{**} = Ae^*$  and  $\|e^{**}\|$  is short.

With high probability  $e^{**} \neq e^*$ . Therefore,  $e^{**} - e^* \neq 0$  is a solution to SIS for matrix  $A$ .