A history of the development of NTRU

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EUROCRYPT 2014, Copenhagen

A one way function from number theory

 Let D be a large square free integer, and let p₁, p₂, p₃,... be a sequence of primes with p_i ∤ D. Define

$$\begin{pmatrix} D \\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv D \pmod{p} \text{ has a solution,} \\ -1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv D \pmod{p} \text{ doesn't have a solution.} \end{cases}$$

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• Think of D as the key to a bitstream

$$D \rightarrow \left(\frac{D}{p_1}\right), \left(\frac{D}{p_2}\right), \dots, \left(\frac{D}{p_t}\right).$$

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with each $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$, there is with high probability at most one $D < 2^{80}$ with the property that $\left(\frac{D}{p_i}\right) = \epsilon_i$ for every *i*.

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• However, there is no known way to locate such a D without the knowledge of at least on the order of 2^{40} such $\left(\frac{D}{p_i}\right)$.

• In fact, the $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)$ can be thought of as the coefficients of something called a Dirichlet *L*-series:

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 It was first suggested by Damgård (Crypto '88) that this mapping could be used as a one way function to construct a cryptographically strong bit generator. An elliptic curve

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

has a sequence of coefficients associated to it. For every prime p we have

$$c_E(p) = p + 1 - \#E(F_p)$$

and $\#E(F_p)$ is one plus the number of solutions to $y^2 \equiv x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$. In 1994 Goldfeld and Anshel proposed that for each *E*, the

mapping

$$E \rightarrow c_E(p_1), c_E(p_2), \ldots, c_E(p_t)$$

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- Goldfeld and I had shown that, assuming the GRH, (log D)² log log D coefficients determine the series,
- However, no known algorithm for reconstructing the curve with less than \sqrt{D} coefficients exists.

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- A simpler question: Given a list of coefficients
 c(p₁), c(p₂),..., c(p_t) is there some way to prove that one has knowledge of the elliptic curve E that generates these coefficients, without revealing E?
- Twenty years later I still don't know the answers to these questions.

Enter function fields

• A very simple class of *L*-series: Fix a prime *q* and consider monic polynomials with coefficients chosen mod *q*. Can define a Legendre symbol:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{f}{g} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv f \pmod{g} \text{ has a solution,} \\ -1 & \text{if } x^2 \equiv f \pmod{g} \text{ doesn't have a solution,} \\ 0 & \text{if } (f,g) \neq 1. \end{cases}$$

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• For such symbols an analogous RH is known to be true, proved by A. Weil, and consequently the values of $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)$ as g varies over irreducible monic polynomials (primes) are random and well distributed.

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New Question

Given a public q and a secret polynomial f, prove knowledge of f, given a public collection of values:

$$\left(\frac{f(\alpha_1)}{q}\right), \left(\frac{f(\alpha_2)}{q}\right), \ldots, \left(\frac{f(\alpha_t)}{q}\right)$$

In fact, why not consider the actual values $f(\alpha) \pmod{q}$?

New Question 2

Given a public q and a secret polynomial f, prove knowledge of f, given a public collection of values:

 $f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_2), \ldots, f(\alpha_t) \pmod{q}.$

The problem: If $t \approx \deg(f')/2$, there are lots of f' such that $f'(\alpha_i) \equiv f(\alpha_i) \pmod{q}$ for $1 \leq i \leq t$. Possible solution: Require that f also belong to some restricted class determined by its coefficients.

Definition

A polynomial $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{N-1}x^{N-1}$ with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} is called *short* if there exists $1 \le c \ll q$ such that for each *i*, $|a_i| \le c$. A polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is called short if there is a lift back to $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ that is short.

We now have a very specific hard problem to work with:

Hard Problem

Given N > t > 1, and two collections of values mod q:

$$\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_t\}$$
 and $\{\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_t\}$,

find a polynomial f with deg f < N such that f is short, and

$$f(\alpha_i) \equiv \beta_i \pmod{p}$$
 for $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$.

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Translation into a closest vector problem, or CVP

For any polynomial p with deg $p \le N - 1$, identify $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{N-1}x^{N-1}$ with the vector $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}^N$.

Let L denote the lattice of all vectors p such that

$$p(\alpha_i) \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$$
, for all $1 \leq i \leq t$.

Let ${\it F}$ correspond to any, not necessarily short, polynomial satisfying

$$F(\alpha_i) \equiv b_i \pmod{q}$$
, for all $1 \le i \le t$.

Then if F_0 is the lattice point of *L* that is closest to *F*, with high probability $F - F_0$ will be a short polynomial with the correct evaluations.

How hard is it to solve a CVP?

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The Question Remained

Assuming it is hard to find a short polynomial with specific evaluations, how to prove knowledge of one?

Introducing a more compact ring structure

• Rather than taking $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}[x]$, take $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^N - 1)$.

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- If for each *i*, $\alpha_i^N \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$, then the map

$$f \to (f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_2), \dots, f(\alpha_t)) \pmod{q, x^N - 1}$$

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• On the left, multiplication is given by a convolution operation:

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}a_ix^i\right)*\left(\sum_{j=0}^{N-1}b_jx^j\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{N-1}c_kx^k,$$

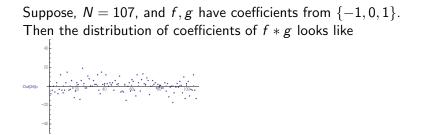
where

$$c_k = \sum_{i+j\equiv k} a_i b_j.$$

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- A short polynomial is one with its Fourier coefficients concentrated within a bounded distance from 0.
- The uncertainty principle tells us that the tighter the distribution of the Fourier coefficients, the more dispersed the Fourier transform will be.



The hard problem of finding a short polynomial with a specified collection of values was turned into a digital signature scheme (as opposed to a public key cryptosystem) during the year 1994-95, with Burt Kaliski, Daniel Lieman, Matt Robshaw and Yiqun Lisa Yin.

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 Verify that h is short, and h(α_i) ≡ g(α_i)(f(α_i) + c(α_i)) (mod q) for all i. • It appeared at first that it would be hard to recover the secret *f* from a long list of *h*, that is, a long transcript.

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- Burt Kaliski noticed that if you introduce the notion of a reversal operation

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• We never found a clean way of reducing or eliminating this information leakage.

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- In 2009 V. Lyubashevsky introduced the notion of rejection sampling.
- It turns out that replacing g * (f + c) by g + f * c, and eliminating g, c pairs when g + f * c has too large an infinity norm, can produce an information free transcript.

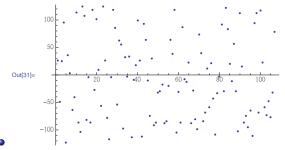
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Fall 1995 - enter NTRU

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- If the coefficients of f are chosen from {-1,0,1}, the coefficients of f⁻¹ look completely random mod q.

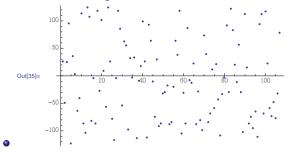
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e = r * h + m.

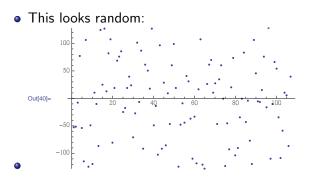
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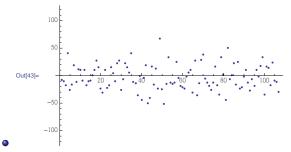
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- and multiplying by $f^{-1} \pmod{3}$ would reveal m

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- This was immediately translatable into the problem of finding a very short vector (f, g) in a certain 2*N*-dimensional lattice.
- We believed this problem should be hard, but we had no idea how to quantify the hardness.
- We calculated the combinatorial difficulty of searching for *f* via brute force, and A. Odlyzko showed us how a meet in the middle attack could cut the combinatorial security exponent in half.

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- I presented the ideas as I would have at any math conference: i.e., I hoped that they would be thought interesting and that people who knew more about this stuff than I did would be able to make helpful suggestions.
- People were, in fact, interested, but they also seemed irritated that I had not done a complete security analysis before presenting it, and had not circulated it to experts in cryptography first.

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- They made one important observation that we had missed:
- If there was another vector in the lattice (f', g') of a similar length to (f, g), or shorter, then f' would probably act as a moderately good decryption key. Here's what they said:

• To summarize: if there are many vectors f' with $n_{f'} \leq n_f$ then we are likely to stumble across one and be able to decrypt. If f is much shorter than all other vectors then we are likely to find f. The only hope for the scheme to remain secure is for many vectors to satisfy, say, $n_{f'} = 10 \times n_f$ and hope that the lattice basis reduction methods fail to find f among the sea of f'. With any improvements in the technology of lattice basis reductions, this temporary security would vanish.

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- They also said:
- ... We believe that for the recommended parameters of the NTRU cryptosystem the LLL algorithm will be able to find the original secret key f ...

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- The original NTRU paper was rejected by the Crypto '97 organizing committee.

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What next

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- We found that block size 2 (= LLL) worked for initial *N* up to about 50, (Corresponding lattice dimension = 100).
- Afterwords, the necessary block size increased linearly with N, with a slope depending on the N/q ratio.
- Computation time went up slightly super exponentially with block size, and also with *N*.

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- We found that finding a lattice element with norm close to *r* was a little like trying to approach the speed of light.
- BKZ would find only trivial solutions until the block size was big enough, then break through directly to the key.

In 1997/98 we published four challenge problems:

- N=107, q=64 (a warmup),
- N = 167, q=128,
- N = 251, q = 256,
- N= 503, q = 256.

The N = 107 problem was solved by A. May and P. Nguyen. (And possibly others that didn't communicate with us.) To this day I am not aware of any solutions to even the N = 167 problem.

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- In the meantime, we figured we would try to find a signature scheme based on this circle of ideas.
- The hope was to find something based on the following hard problem: Given the product f * g, and the knowledge that f, g are short, recover f, g.

 Skipping over some other mistakes we made, what we came up with unfortunately produced a transcript reducible to: f * g₁, f * g₂,... f * g_t, and this turned out to be a lot easier than the original problem.

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Jeff Hoffstein The Story of NTRU

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- The alternative was to base a signature scheme directly on the NTRU lattice, following the model of GGH,
- Nick Howgrave-Graham helped us find a way to construct a complete basis for the NTRU lattice, out of the half basis consisting of rotations of (f, g).
- The scheme was then simply the traditional one of using the better private basis to find non-trivial solutions to CVP.

• It was still vulnerable to the derivation of a 2 by 2 Gram matrix from a long transcript. This matrix had four entries similar to, but somewhat more complicated than, the $f\tilde{f}$ object that caused the vulnerability of NSS.

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- Just this summer I asked H. Lenstra....

New vulnerabilities, cont.

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- Then, around a year and a half ago, P. Nguyen and L. Ducas managed to solve the case of one perturbation, with the possibility of going further.
- So clearly this sort of perturbation was not the answer.

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- It uses only the half basis of rotations of (f, g), and an auxiliary small prime p.
- It has a provably information-free transcript.

In 2008 C Gentry, C Peikert, V Vaikuntanathan introduced the notion of generating lattice points according to a Gaussian distribution. This was extended by a number of authors, including C. Peikert, L. Ducas and P. Nguyen. In 2011 D. Stehlé and R. Steinfeld showed how to use such techniques to relate the security of NTRU and NTRUSign to worst case problems over ideal lattices. They showed that if the secret key polynomials are selected by rejection from discrete Gaussians, then the public key, which is their ratio, is statistically indistinguishable from uniform over its domain.

Homomorphic encryption

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- Thanks!
- For the memories....