## <sup>1</sup> Classical Reduction of Gap SVP to LWE: A Concrete Security Analysis

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#### Abstract

Regev (2005) introduced the learning with errors (LWE) problem and showed a quantum reduction from 5 a worst case lattice problem to LWE. Building on the work of Peikert (2009), a classical reduction from the 6 gap shortest vector problem to LWE was obtained by Brakerski et al. (2013). A concrete security analysis 7 of Regev's reduction by Chatterjee et al. (2016) identified a huge tightness gap. The present work performs 8 a concrete analysis of the tightness gap in the classical reduction of Brakerski et al. It turns out that the 9 tightness gap in the Brakerski et al. classical reduction is even larger than the tightness gap in the quantum 10 reduction of Regev. This casts doubts on the implication of the reduction to security assurance of practical 11 cryptosystems. 12

# Keywords: lattices, shortest vector problem, learning with errors, classical reduction, concrete analysis.

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#### 16 1 Introduction

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<sup>17</sup> In a landmark paper, Regev [16] introduced the learning with errors (LWE) problem. Many cryptosystems <sup>18</sup> have based their security on the hardness of variants of the LWE problem. Examples of such cyptosystems <sup>19</sup> are Frodo [2], Kyber [3], LAC [13], NewHope [1], Round5 [4] and Saber [8] all of which are candidates for <sup>20</sup> standardisation as a post-quantum cryptosystem to be selected by the NIST of the USA. A stated reason for <sup>21</sup> confidence in the hardness of the LWE problem is a reduction proved by Regev [16] from a worst-case lattice <sup>22</sup> problem to LWE. The reduction obtained by Regev was quantum, i.e., the algorithm is required to make some <sup>23</sup> quantum computations.

A problem left open by Regev was whether there is a classical reduction from a worst case lattice problem to LWE. The initial answer to this problem was provided by Peikert [15]. While this represented progress, Peikert's reduction was not considered to be satisfactory since either an exponential size modulus is required or, the lattice problem considered is not one of the standard problems. Later work by Brakerski et al. [6] built on Peikert's work to show a classical reduction from a standard lattice problem to LWE avoiding the exponential size modulus.

The works of Regev [16], Peikert [15] and Brakerski et al. [6] are all in the asymptotic setting where the lattice dimension is allowed to go to infinity. Practical cryptosystems, on the other hand, have a fixed value of the lattice dimension. So, it is of interest to know what kind of security assurance one obtains from the results of [16, 15, 6] for practical cryptosystems. Suppose it is believed that a lattice problem  $\mathcal{P}$  is computationally hard. It is desired to translate this into a belief that a particular cryptosystem  $\mathcal{C}$  is difficult to break, i.e., the difficulty of solving  $\mathcal{P}$  is reduced to the difficulty of breaking  $\mathcal{C}$ . In other words, it is required to show that if there is an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  to break  $\mathcal{C}$ , then there is an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  (which uses  $\mathcal{A}$  as an oracle) to solve  $\mathcal{P}$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  takes time T and has success probability  $P_S$  and further,  $\mathcal{B}$  takes time T' and has success probability  $P'_S$ . The tightness gap of the reduction is defined to be  $(T'/P'_S)/(T/P_S)$ . The reduction is said to be tight if the tightness gap is one (or, small). On the other hand, if the tightness gap is very large, then the usefulness of the reduction

<sup>6</sup> for obtaining security assurance of a practical cryptosystem becomes questionable.

The tightness gap of the reduction given by Regev was first investigated in [7] and in more details in [17].
The results of [7, 17] indicate that the tightness gap is very large. Based on the analysis in [7], Bernstein [5]
comments that "the loss of tightness is gigantic" in [16].

In this paper, we follow up on [7, 17] and perform a concrete security analysis of the tightness gap of the 10 reduction in [6]. The reduction of Peikert [15] is a step in the reduction performed by Brakerski et al. [6]. As a 11 first step, we work out the tightness gap of Peikert's reduction. Then we follow the proof strategy in Brakerski 12 et al. [6] and finally work out the end-to-end tightness gap of the classical reduction from the gap shortest vector 13 problem to the LWE. There are two aspects to the concrete analysis. The first is a quadratic loss in the dimension 14 of the lattice and the second is a loss of tightness. The loss of tightness in this classical reduction is more than 15 that of the original quantum reduction by Regev [16]. The quadratic loss in the dimension was already pointed 16 out in [6]. Due to this quadratic loss, Brakerski et al. put forward the open question of obtaining a reduction 17 without such a loss mentioning that this would amount to a full de-quantization of Regev's reduction. The 18 paper [6], however, does not consider the issue of the loss in tightness. Our analysis shows that due to this loss of 19 tightness, the reduction is not very meaningful in practice, especially for determining the sizes of the parameters 20 of a cryptosystem which would purportedly enjoy the protection offered by the hardness of a well studied worst 21 case lattice problem. 22

#### 23 **2** Preliminaries

Fix a positive integer *n*. Let **B** be an  $n \times n$  matrix whose columns are *n* linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  generated by **B** is the set of all vectors **Ba** where  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ . The columns of **B** (or, more generally **B** itself) is called a basis of the lattice *L*. Let  $\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n$  denote the columns of **B**. The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation (GSO) of  $\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n$  will be denoted as  $\mathbf{\tilde{b}}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{\tilde{b}}_n$ .

The length of a vector in L will be considered to be given by its Euclidean norm. For  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , let  $\lambda_i(L)$ be the least real number r such that L has i linearly independent vectors with the longest having length r. In particular, we will be interested in  $\lambda_1(L)$ , which is the smallest possible length of any non-zero lattice vector.

The dual of a lattice L is denoted as  $L^*$  and is defined to be the set of all vectors  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all  $\mathbf{x} \in L$ . Given a basis  $\mathbf{B}$  for L, the matrix  $\mathbf{B}^* = (\mathbf{B}^{-1})^{\mathsf{T}}$  is a basis for  $L^*$  and is called the dual basis of  $\mathbf{B}$ . Since  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ , the quotient group  $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$  is represented by the interval  $\mathbb{T} = [0, 1)$  with addition modulo 1. The cyclic subgroup  $\{0, 1/p, \dots, (p-1)/p\}$  of  $\mathbb{T}$  of order p will be denoted by  $\mathbb{T}_p$ . The normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  will be denoted as  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ . For  $\alpha \in (0, 1), \Psi_{\alpha}$  is the probability distribution over  $\mathbb{T}$  obtained by sampling from  $\mathcal{N}(0, \alpha/\sqrt{2\pi})$  and reducing the result modulo 1.

Fix an integer  $p \geq 2$ . Let **s** be chosen uniformly at random from  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ . Let  $\chi$  be a probability distribution on  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . The distribution  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\chi}$  on  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n \times \mathbb{Z}_p$  is defined as follows: choose **a** uniformly at random from  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ ; *e* from  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  following  $\chi$  and output  $(\mathbf{a}, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle + e)$ , where the addition is performed modulo *p*. Let  $\phi$  be a probability density function on  $\mathbb{T}$ . The distribution  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\phi}$  is defined as follows: choose **a** uniformly at random from  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ ; *e* from  $\mathbb{T}$  following  $\phi$  and output  $(\mathbf{a}, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle / p + e)$ , where the addition is performed modulo 1. When  $\phi = \Psi_{\alpha}$ , the distribution  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\Psi_{\alpha}}$  is written more conveniently as  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$ .

distribution  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\Psi_{\alpha}}$  is written more conveniently as  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$ . For  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and s > 0, define  $\rho_s(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\pi ||\mathbf{x}||^2/s^2\right)$ . For a lattice L, define  $\rho_s(L) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}\in L} \rho_s(\mathbf{x})$ . The discrete Gaussian distribution  $D_{L,s}$  on a lattice L assigns to a vector  $\mathbf{v} \in L$  the probability  $D_{L,s}(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1$   $_{1} \quad \rho_{1/s}(L^{*} \setminus \{0\}) \leq \epsilon.$ 

The origin centered parallelopiped  $\mathcal{P}_{1/2}(\mathbf{B})$  of a basis  $\mathbf{B}$  is defined to be  $\mathcal{P}_{1/2}(\mathbf{B}) = {\mathbf{Bc} : \mathbf{c} \in [-1/2, 1/2)^n}$ . For  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and basis  $\mathbf{B}$ , the vector  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w} \mod \mathbf{B}$  is the unique  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{P}_{1/2}(\mathbf{B})$  such that  $\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x} \in L(\mathbf{B})$ ; further,  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{w} - |\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{w}]$ .

Let X be a random variable taking values in a set D and S be a subset of D. By  $f_X(S)$  we denote the probability that X takes values in S. Given two random variables X and Y over D, the statistical distance between them is denoted as  $\Delta(X, Y)$  and is defined to be  $\Delta(X, Y) = \max_{S \subseteq D} |f_X(S) - f_Y(S)|$ .

<sup>8</sup> By  $\mathcal{B}_n$  we will denote the open ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of unit radius, i.e.,  $\mathcal{B}_n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{x}\| < 1\}$ . For a real number <sup>9</sup> d and  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the open ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  centered at  $\mathbf{z}$  and of radius d will be denoted as  $\mathbf{z} + d \cdot \mathcal{B}_n$ . The notation <sup>10</sup>  $\mathbf{w} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{z} + d \cdot \mathcal{B}_n$  denotes the choice of a vector  $\mathbf{w}$  drawn uniformly from  $\mathbf{z} + d \cdot \mathcal{B}_n$ .

#### 11 2.1 Computational Problems

<sup>12</sup> Let  $\varphi$  be a real valued function defined on lattices. The discrete Gaussian sampling  $(DGS_{\varphi})$  problem is the <sup>13</sup> following: An instance is a pair  $(\mathbf{B}, r)$ , where **B** is a basis of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  and  $r > \varphi(L)$  is <sup>14</sup> a real number. The task is to obtain a sample from  $D_{L,r}$ .

A variant of the closest vector problem (CVP) was considered in [16]: An instance is a triplet  $(\mathbf{B}, d, \mathbf{x})$ , where **B** is the basis of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$ , d is a positive real number with  $d < \lambda_1(L)/2$ , and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which is within distance d of L. The task is to find the closest lattice point to  $\mathbf{x}$  (since  $d < \lambda_1(L)/2$ , there is a unique closest vector). This problem is also the bounded distance decoding problem [12].

The (worst-case) learning with errors problem LWE<sub> $n,p,\chi$ </sub> is the following. Let **s** be an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ . Given samples from  $A_{p,s,\chi}$ , it is required to output **s**. If the number of samples is m, then the problem is denoted as LWE<sub> $n,m,p,\chi$ </sub>. Similarly, for a probability density function  $\phi$  on  $\mathbb{T}$ , the LWE<sub> $n,m,p,\phi$ </sub> problem is the following. For uniform random **s** in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^n$ , given samples from  $A_{p,s,\phi}$ , it is required to output **s**. If the number of samples is m, then the problem is denoted as LWE<sub> $n,m,p,\phi$ </sub>. Both versions of the LWE problem were introduced by Regev in [16]. When  $\phi = \Psi_{\alpha}$ , the problem LWE<sub> $n,m,p,\phi$ </sub> is more conveniently written as LWE<sub> $n,m,p,\alpha$ </sub>.

Let **s** be an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n$ . The (worst-case) decision version of the LWE problem, decLWE<sub>n,m,q, $\alpha$ </sub>, is to distinguish the uniform distribution over  $\mathbb{T}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$  from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$ , where a list of *m* independent samples of the relevant distribution is provided as input. The average-case version of the decision LWE problem is to distinguish the uniform distribution  $\mathbb{T}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$  from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$  for a non-negligible fraction of all possible **s**. Regev [16] showed a reduction of the worst-case decision LWE problem to the average-case LWE problem and the tightness gap of this reduction has been worked out in [7].

Let  $\gamma(n) \ge 1$  be a function from the naturals to the naturals. The problem SIVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> is the following: An instance is a basis **B** of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  and the task is to obtain a set of *n* linearly independent vectors from *L* whose lengths are at most  $\gamma(n) \cdot \lambda_n(L)$ . The problem GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> is the following: An instance is a pair (**B**, *d*), where **B** is a basis of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  and d > 0 is a real number. The instance is a YES instance if  $\lambda_1(L) \le d$  and it is a NO instance if  $\lambda_1(L) \ge \gamma(n) \cdot d$ .

The problem  $\zeta$ -to- $\gamma$ -GapSVP (denoted as GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub>) was introduced in [15]. For functions  $\zeta(n) \geq \gamma(n) \geq 1$ , an instance of GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> is a pair (**B**, d), where **B** is a basis of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  for which  $\lambda_1(L) \leq \zeta(n), \min_i || \mathbf{\tilde{b}}_i || \geq 1$ , and  $1 \leq d \leq \zeta(n)/\gamma(n)$ . The instance is a YES instance if  $\lambda_1(L) \leq d$  and it is NO instance if  $\lambda_1(L) > \gamma(n) \cdot d$ . It has been shown in [15] that for  $\zeta(n) \geq 2^{n/2}$ , the GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> problem is equivalent to the standard GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> problem.

#### $_{41}$ 3 Reducing DGS to LWE

<sup>42</sup> Regev [16] described a quantum algorithm which given access to an LWE oracle can solve the SIVP (or, the <sup>43</sup> GapSVP). In the first step, the SIVP is reduced to the DGS problem using a classical algorithm. The main part <sup>1</sup> of the proof is a quantum algorithm which reduces the DGS problem to the LWE problem. The proof given by

Regev [16] is in an asymptotic setting. A concrete analysis of the tightness gap in the reduction was carried out
in [7] and in more details in [17]. We provide a brief overview of Regev's DGS-to-LWE reduction using some of
the terminology used in [17].

Let p be a positive integer and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ . Assume that an oracle solveLWE<sub> $n,n^c,p,\Psi_\alpha$ </sub>( $\mathcal{I}$ ) is available for some constant c > 0. The input  $\mathcal{I}$  to the oracle consists of  $n^c$  samples from  $A_{p,\mathbf{s},\Psi_\beta}$  for some  $0 < \beta \leq \alpha$ . The oracle is guaranteed to work correctly if  $\beta = \alpha$ , otherwise it might return an incorrect result. Let **B** be an  $n \times n$  basis matrix of an n-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  and r is a real number satisfying  $r \geq \sqrt{2n} \cdot \eta_{\epsilon}(L)/\alpha$ . The goal is to design an algorithm solveDGS( $\mathbf{B}, r$ ) which returns a sample from  $D_{L,r}$  using the oracle solveLWE<sub> $n,n^c,p,\Psi_\alpha$ </sub>( $\mathcal{I}$ ) where  $\alpha p > 2\sqrt{n}$ .

Let  $r_i = r \cdot (\alpha p / \sqrt{n})^i$  for i = 1, ..., 3n. A list  $\mathcal{L}$  containing samples from  $D_{L,r_{3n}}$  can be created without using 11 the LWE oracle. The algorithm solve  $DGS(\mathbf{B}, r)$  starts with such a list and iterates a procedure over 3n steps with 12 i going down from 3n to 1. The *i*-th step updates the list  $\mathcal{L}$  consisting of  $n^c$  samples from  $D_{L,r_i}$  with  $n^c$  samples 13 from  $D_{L,r_{i-1}}$ . At the end of the procedure, a sample from the final list  $\mathcal{L}$  is returned. Each iteration updates the 14 list  $\mathcal{L}$  using a quantum sampling procedure  $n^c$  times. Each application of the quantum sampling procedure uses 15 a classical algorithm solve  $\mathsf{CVP}(L^*, \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{z})$ , where  $L^*$  is the dual lattice of  $L, \mathcal{L}$  contains  $n^c$  samples from  $D_{L,r_i}$  for 16 some  $i \in \{1, \ldots, 3n\}$ , and z is within distance  $\lambda_1(L^*)/2$  of  $L^*$ . The algorithm solveCVP solves the CVP problem 17 for  $L^*$  mentioned in Section 2.1. It is the algorithm solveCVP which invokes the oracle solveLWE<sub>n,n<sup>c</sup>,p,\Psi\_{\alpha}(\mathcal{I}). So,</sub> 18 the main part of the DGS-to-LWE reduction is the design of the algorithm solveCVP. 19

In Regev's reduction, solveCVP $(L^*, \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{z})$  solves the unique closest vector problem on  $L^*$  using a list  $\mathcal{L}$  of samples from  $D_{L,\mathfrak{r}}$  with  $\mathfrak{r} \geq \sqrt{2}p \cdot \eta_{\epsilon}(L)$ , and  $\mathbf{z}$  is within distance  $\alpha q/(\sqrt{2}\mathfrak{r}) < \lambda_1(L^*)/2$  of  $L^*$ . As used in [15], by interchanging the roles of L and  $L^*$ , it is possible to invoke solveCVP $(L, \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{z})$  to solve the unique closest vector problem on L using a list  $\mathcal{L}$  of samples from  $D_{L^*,\mathfrak{r}}$  with  $\mathfrak{r} \geq \sqrt{2}p \cdot \eta_{\epsilon}(L^*)$ , and  $\mathbf{z}$  is within distance  $\alpha q/(\sqrt{2}\mathfrak{r}) < \lambda_1(L)/2$  of L. We record this as follows.

Proposition 1. [16, 15] Let **B** be an  $n \times n$  basis matrix for an n-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$ , p be a positive integer,  $\mathfrak{r}$  be a real number satisfying  $\mathfrak{r} \geq \sqrt{2}p \cdot \eta_{\epsilon}(L^*)$  and  $\alpha \in (0,1)$  be such that  $\alpha p > 2\sqrt{n}$ . Let c > 0 be a constant. Given a list  $\mathcal{L}$  consisting of  $n^c$  samples from  $D_{L^*,\mathfrak{r}}$  and an oracle solveLWE<sub>n,n<sup>c</sup>,p,\Psi\_{\alpha}</sub>(\mathcal{I}), where  $\mathcal{I}$ consists of  $n^c$  samples from  $A_{p,\mathfrak{s},\Psi_{\beta}}$  for some  $0 < \beta \leq \alpha$ , there is an algorithm solveCVP( $L,\mathcal{L},\mathfrak{z}$ ), where  $\mathfrak{z}$  is within distance  $\alpha q/(\sqrt{2}\mathfrak{r}) < \lambda_1(L)/2$  of L, which finds the unique vector in L which is closest to  $\mathfrak{z}$ .

- <sup>30</sup> Following [17], we have the following facts.
- 1. Algorithm solveCVP calls the oracle solveLWE a total of  $n^{2c+2}$  times.
- 2. The success probability of algorithm solveCVP is at least

$$\left(1 - \max(\exp\left(-m(\mu_0 - t)^2/2\right), \exp\left(-mt^2/2\right))\right)^{n^{2c+2}}$$
 (1)

where  $\mu_0 = \exp(-\pi \alpha^2)$ , and  $t \in (0, \mu_0)$  and  $m \le n^c$  are chosen so as to maximise (1). Setting  $m = n^c$  and  $t = \mu_0/2$ , the expression in (1) becomes

$$\left(1 - \exp\left(-n^c \exp\left(-2\pi\alpha^2\right)/8\right)\right)^{n^{2c+2}} \tag{2}$$

Using this lower bound for the success probability, it has been shown in [17] that an upper bound on the tightness
gap of the DGS to LWE reduction is the following.

$$3n^{3c+3} \cdot \left(1 - \exp\left(-n^c \exp(-2\pi\alpha^2)/8\right)\right)\right)^{-3n^{3c+3}}.$$
(3)

For most practical cryptosystems<sup>1</sup>,  $\alpha$  is at most  $1/\sqrt{n}$ . Considering  $\alpha = 1/\sqrt{n}$ , the tightness gap given by (3) is essentially  $3n^{3c+3}$  [17]. The tightness gap of the reduction from DGS to LWE has been extended to obtain the tightness gap of the reduction from SIVP to average-case decision LWE in [7] and updated in [17] and is given by the following expression

<sup>4</sup> by the following expression.

$$6pn^{3c+d_1+2d_2+9}. (4)$$

<sup>5</sup> Here  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are non-negative integers such that average-case decision LWE can be solved for a fraction  $n^{-d_1}$ <sup>6</sup> of all the secrets with advantage at least  $n^{-d_2}$ .

### 7 4 Reducing GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> to LWE

<sup>8</sup> Peikert [15] showed a classical reduction of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\zeta,\gamma}$  to  $\operatorname{LWE}_{n,n^c,q,\Psi_\alpha}$ , where  $\gamma = \gamma(n) \ge n/(\alpha\sqrt{\log n})$ ,  $q = q(n) \ge \zeta(n) \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n/n})$  and c > 0 is a constant. The reduction makes use of Proposition 1, i.e., it uses an LWE oracle to solve CVP.

Let **B** be an  $n \times n$  basis matrix of an *n*-dimensional lattice  $L = L(\mathbf{B})$  and  $r \ge \max_i ||\tilde{b}_i|| \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n})$ . By sample(**B**, r) we denote the sampling algorithm which on input **B** and r returns a sample which is within negligible statistical distance from  $D_{L,r}$ . Such an algorithm is described in [9].

The algorithm for reducing GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> to LWE given by Peikert [15] is shown in Algorithm 1. The algorithm solveCVP in turn calls the LWE oracle solveLWE. So, overall solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> solves GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> by calling the LWE oracle solveLWE. Algorithm solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> calls solveCVP a total of N times.

Algorithm 1 Reducing GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> to LWE<sub> $q,\Psi_{\alpha}$ </sub>, where  $\gamma = \gamma(n) \ge n/(\alpha\sqrt{\log n})$  and  $q = q(n) \ge \zeta(n) \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n/n})$ .

1: function solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub>(**B**, d) Let  $\mathbf{D}$  be the reverse dual basis of  $\mathbf{B}$ ; 2:  $d' = d \cdot \sqrt{n/(4 \ln n)}; r = q \sqrt{2n}/(\gamma d);$ 3: 4: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to N do  $\mathbf{w} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} d' \cdot \mathcal{B}_n; \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w} \mod \mathbf{B};$ 5:  $\mathcal{L} \leftarrow \{\};$ 6: for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n^c$  do 7:  $\mathcal{L} \leftarrow \mathcal{L} \cup \mathsf{sample}(D, r);$ 8: end for 9:  $\mathbf{v} \leftarrow \mathsf{solveCVP}(\mathbf{B}, \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{x})$ 10: if  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}$  then 11:return accept; 12:end if 13:end for 14:return reject; 15:16: end function

It has been noted in Section 3 that solveCVP calls solveLWE a total of  $n^{2c+2}$  times. So, solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> calls solveLWE a total of  $N \cdot n^{2c+2}$  times.

We now consider the success probability of solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub>. As in Section 3, assume that  $m = n^c$ ,  $\alpha = 1/\sqrt{n}$ and  $t = \mu_0/2$ . The probability that a single call to solveCVP is successful is at least  $\varepsilon$ , where using (2),

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This was mentioned by Chris Peikert in an email.

 $\varepsilon = (1 - \exp(-n^c \exp(-2\pi\alpha^2)/8))^{n^{2c+2}}.$  The *N* calls to solveCVP in Algorithm solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> are independent. Let *E* be the event that all these calls are successful and so  $\Pr[E] \ge \varepsilon^N.$ 

For i = 1, ..., N, let  $S_i$  be the event that the event  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}$  holds in the *i*-th iteration. The events  $S_1, ..., S_N$  are independent (even when conditioned on E).

First consider the instance  $(\mathbf{B}, r)$  to be NO instance of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\zeta,\gamma}$ . Let succNO be the event that algorithm solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> is successful on a NO instance. Then  $\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{succNO}] = \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{S}_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \overline{S}_N] \geq \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{S}_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \overline{S}_N | E] \operatorname{Pr}[E] =$  $\operatorname{Pr}[E] \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^N \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{S}_i | E]\right) \geq \varepsilon^N \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^N \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{S}_i | E]\right)$ . It has been shown in [15] that  $\operatorname{Pr}[\overline{S}_i | E] \approx 1, i = 1, \ldots, N$ , and so we may assume that  $\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{succNO}]$  is lower bounded by  $\varepsilon^N$ .

<sup>9</sup> Next consider the instance  $(\mathbf{B}, r)$  to be a YES instance of GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub>. Let succYES be the event that algorithm <sup>10</sup> solveGapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> is successful on a YES instance. So, succYES is the event  $S_1 \vee (\overline{S}_1 \wedge S_2) \vee \cdots \vee (\overline{S}_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \overline{S}_{N-1} \wedge S_N)$ . <sup>11</sup> For  $i = 1, \ldots, N$ , let  $\delta$  be the common value of  $\Pr[\overline{S}_i|E]$ . It follows (using a probability calculation) that

$$\Pr[\mathsf{succYES}] \geq \Pr[\mathsf{succYES}|E] \Pr[E] = (1 - \delta^N) \Pr[E] \geq (1 - \delta^N) \varepsilon^N$$

It has been shown in [15], that for a YES instance,  $\delta = \Pr[\overline{S}_i|E] \leq 1 - 1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$ . The  $1 - 1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$  term arises 12 from the asymptotic form of a result which states that for any constants  $c_1, d > 0$  and any  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|\mathbf{z}\| \leq d$ 13 and  $d' = d \cdot \sqrt{n/(c_1 \log n)}$  the statistical distance between the uniform distribution on  $d' \cdot \mathcal{B}_n$  and the uniform 14 distribution on  $\mathbf{z} + d' \cdot \mathcal{B}_n$  is at most  $1 - 1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$ . This result is proved in [10] and the proof shows that the term 15  $1-1/\mathsf{poly}(n)$  can be taken to be  $1-3/n^2$ . Using this we have  $\delta \leq 1-3/n^2$ . So,  $\Pr[\mathsf{succYES}] \geq (1-(1-3/n^2)^N)\varepsilon^N$ . 16 Between the NO and YES instances, the lower bound on the success probability is less for YES instances. 17 As a result, the upper bound on the tightness gap for YES instances is higher and this upper bound is taken to 18 be the upper bound on the overall tightness gap of the reduction. So, an upper bound on the tightness gap of 19

<sup>20</sup> the  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\zeta,\gamma}$  to LWE reduction is

$$(N \cdot n^{2c+2}) / ((1 - (1 - 3/n^2)^N)\varepsilon^N).$$
 (5)

Following [10], for  $N = n^2$ ,  $(1 - (1 - 3/n^2)^N) \approx 1$  and so the tightness gap in (5) becomes

$$N \cdot n^{2c+2} \cdot \varepsilon^{-N} = n^{2c+4} \left( 1 - \exp\left(-n^c \exp(-2\pi\alpha^2)/8\right) \right)^{-n^{2c+4}}.$$
 (6)

We note that for c = 1, the expression in (6) is almost the same as the expression in (3). It has been shown in [17], that for  $\alpha \leq 1/\sqrt{n}$ ,  $\varepsilon \approx 1$  and so the tightness gap of GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> to LWE<sub> $q,\Psi_{\alpha}$ </sub> becomes

$$n^{2c+4}$$
. (7)

**Remark:** It is known [15] that for  $\zeta(n) \ge 2^{n/2}$ , the problem GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> is equivalent to the standard GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> problem. The reduction from GapSVP<sub> $\zeta,\gamma$ </sub> to LWE<sub> $q,\Psi_{\alpha}$ </sub> given in [15] holds under the condition  $q = q(n) \ge \zeta(n) \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n/n})$ . So, for  $q(n) \ge 2^{n/2} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n/n})$ , there is a classical reduction from GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> to LWE<sub> $q,\Psi_{\alpha}$ </sub>, where  $\gamma = \gamma(n) \ge n/(\alpha\sqrt{\log n})$ .

## <sup>28</sup> 5 Reducing GapSVP $_{\gamma}$ to Decision LWE

<sup>29</sup> The remark at the end of Section 4 shows that there is a classical reduction of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\gamma}$  to  $\operatorname{LWE}_{q,\Psi_{\alpha}}$  for <sup>30</sup>  $q(n) \geq 2^{n/2} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n/n})$ . So, if the modulus of the LWE problem is exponential in the dimension of the lattice, <sup>31</sup> then the result from [15] provides a classical reduction of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\gamma}$  to LWE. A later work by Brakerski et al. [6] <sup>32</sup> showed a reduction of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\gamma}$  to a decision version of LWE with polynomial sized modulus. The reduction is <sup>33</sup> quite intricate and is built by composing reductions between several pairs of problems. The goal of the present <sup>34</sup> section is to perform a concrete security analysis of the reduction provided in [6]. The LWE problem considered in Section 2.1 is a search problem. For the classical reduction of  $\operatorname{GapSVP}_{\gamma}$ to LWE, the following decision version of the LWE problem has been considered. Let **s** be chosen uniformly at random from  $\{0,1\}^n$ . The binLWE<sub>n,m,q,\alpha</sub> problem is to distinguish the uniform distribution over  $\mathbb{T}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$  from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$ , where a list of *m* independent samples of the relevant distribution is provided as input. The difference between the decLWE and the binLWE problem lies in the method to select the secret **s**. Given  $n, q \geq 1$  and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , binLWE<sub>n,m,q,\leq\alpha</sub> is the problem which requires to solve binLWE<sub>n,m,q,\beta</sub> for any  $\beta = \beta(\mathbf{s}) \leq \alpha$  [6].

<sup>7</sup> Let  $\mathcal{D}_0$  be the distribution  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  be the uniform distribution over  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$ . For i = 0, 1, let  $\mathcal{I} \xleftarrow{m} \mathcal{D}_i$ <sup>8</sup> denote the selection of a list  $\mathcal{I}$  of m independent samples from  $\mathcal{D}_i$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a distinguisher for decLWE<sub> $n,m,q,\alpha$ </sub>. <sup>9</sup> Let  $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) \Rightarrow 1$  denote the event that  $\mathcal{A}$  produces 1 as output. The advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is the following.

$$\mathsf{Adv}(\mathcal{A}) = |\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) \Rightarrow 1 : I \xleftarrow{m} \mathcal{D}_0] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) \Rightarrow 1 : I \xleftarrow{m} \mathcal{D}_1]|.$$
(8)

<sup>10</sup> Similarly, one defines the advantage of a distinguisher for binLWE<sub> $n,m,q,\alpha$ </sub>.

The classical reduction in [6] reduces GapSVP to binLWE. This reduction is done in several steps. The first step is Peikert's reduction of GapSVP to LWE with exponential size modulus. The goal of the following steps is to reduce the LWE problem with exponential size modulus to binLWE problem with polynomial size modulus. A trade-off is an increase in the dimension. The various steps of the overall reduction are as follows.

**Reducing GapSVP**<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> to LWE<sub> $k,m_1,q_1,\alpha_1$ </sub>: This follows from Peikert's result [15]. Here  $\alpha_1 \in (0,1), q_1 \geq 2^{k/2} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log k/k}), \gamma \geq k/(\alpha_1\sqrt{\log k})$  and  $m_1 = k^c$  for some constant  $c \geq 1$ . For simplicity, in the following, we will assume  $q_1 = 2^{k/2}$ .

<sup>18</sup> Suppose  $W_0$  is an algorithm to solve LWE<sub>k,m1,q1, $\alpha_1$ </sub>. Then following the analysis in Section 4, there is an <sup>19</sup> algorithm W to solve GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> where the number of times W calls  $W_0$  is  $k^{2c+4}$  (which is obtained from (7) by <sup>20</sup> replacing n with k).

**Reducing LWE**<sub>k,m1,q1,\alpha1</sub> to decLWE<sub>k,m1,q1,\alpha2</sub>: This follows as a special case of Theorem 3.1 in [14]. Here  $1/q_1 < \alpha_1 < 1/\omega(\sqrt{\log n})$  and  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_1 \cdot \omega(\log k)$ .

To determine the tightness gap of the reduction, we follow the proof of Theorem 3.1 in the case where  $q_1 = 2^{k/2}$ . Let  $W_1$  be an algorithm to solve decLWE<sub>k,m1,q1,\alpha2</sub>. The proof of Theorem 3.1 in [14] uses  $W_1$  to first construct an algorithm  $W'_1$  following the construction used in Lemma 4.1 of [16]. Specifically, Lemma 4.1 of [16] shows how to boost the advantage of a distinguisher for the distributions  $A_{q_1,s,\chi}$  and  $U(\mathbb{Z}_{q_1}^n \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_1})$ . The same method can be used to boost the advantage of a distinguisher for the distributions  $A_{q_1,s,\alpha_2}$  and the uniform distribution on  $\mathbb{Z}_{q_1}^n \times \mathbb{T}$ . This is the situation considered in Theorem 3.1 of [14].

Let  $\zeta_1$  be the advantage of  $W_1$  and  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be such that  $W_1$  is successful on a fraction  $k^{-c_1}$  of all possible secrets and

$$\zeta_1 = k^{-c_2}. \tag{9}$$

Following the method of Lemma 4.1 in [16] it is possible to construct  $W'_1$  which accepts with probability exponentially close to one on inputs from  $A_{q_1,\mathbf{s},\alpha_2}$  and rejects with probability exponentially close to one on inputs from the uniform distribution over  $\mathbb{Z}_{q_1}^n \times \mathbb{T}$ . From the proof of Lemma 4.1 in [16] we have that the algorithm  $W'_1$ calls the algorithm  $W_1$  a total of  $k^{c_1+2c_2+2}$  times.

The proof of Theorem 3.1 in [14] uses  $W'_1$  to construct an algorithm  $W_0$  which solves  $\text{LWE}_{k,m_1,q_1,\alpha_1}$ . The secret  $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, \ldots, s_k)$ . The components  $s_1, \ldots, s_k$  are determined one by one. Consider the determination of  $s_1$ . This is determined iteratively as  $s_1 \mod 2$ , followed by  $s_1 \mod 2^2$ , followed by  $s_1 \mod 2^3$ , up to at most  $s_1 \mod 2^{k/2}$ . Given the value of  $s_1 \mod 2^i$ , there are only two possible values for  $s_1 \mod 2^{i+1}$ . A single call to  $W'_1$  can be used to determine the correct value. So, to find  $s_1$ , at most k/2 calls to  $W'_1$  are required, and to find the entire vector s, at most  $k^2/2$  calls to  $W'_1$  are required. Each call to  $W'_1$  requires  $k^{c_1+2c_2+2}$  calls to  $W_1$ . So, the number of times  $W_0$  calls  $W_1$  is

$$k^{c_1+2c_2+4}$$
. (10)

**Reducing decLWE**<sub>k,m1,q1,\alpha2</sub> to binLWE<sub>n,m1,q1, $\leq\sqrt{10n\alpha_2}$ : This reduction follows from Theorem 4.1 of [6]. 4 Here  $n \geq (k+1)\log_2 q_1 + 2\log_2(1/\delta)$ ,  $\alpha_2 \geq \sqrt{\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_1))/\pi}/q_1$ , where  $\delta > 0$  and  $\varepsilon_1 \in (0, 1/2)$ . Suppose there 5 is an algorithm  $W_2$  for binLWE<sub>n,m1,q1, $\leq\sqrt{10n\alpha_2}$ </sub> which has advantage  $\zeta_2$ . Theorem 4.1 of [6] shows an algorithm 6  $W_1$  for decLWE<sub>k,m1,q1,\alpha2</sub> with advantage  $\zeta_1$  where</sub>

$$\zeta_1 \geq \frac{\zeta_2 - \delta}{3m_1} - \frac{41\varepsilon_1}{2} - 2^{-k-1}.$$
(11)

<sup>7</sup> From the proof of Theorem 4.1 of [6] one obtains that  $W_1$  calls  $W_2$  once.

**Remark:** We note a peculiarity in (11). The number of samples  $m_1$  appears in the denominator of the right 8 hand side. If  $\zeta_2$  is fixed, then as  $m_1$  increases, the right hand side decreases. In other words, for a fixed value 9 of  $\zeta_2$ , as the number of samples increases, the lower bound on the advantage  $\zeta_1$  decreases. Intuitively, one may 10 expect that as the number of samples increases, more information is obtained, and so the advantage should be 11non-decreasing. This does not seem to hold for  $\zeta_1$ . A possible explanation has been provided by the reviewer. It 12 is likely that  $m_1$  and  $\zeta_2$  are positively correlated in which case, if  $m_1$  increases,  $\zeta_2$  will also increase leaving the 13 lower bound unchanged. Since the nature of dependence of  $\zeta_2$  on  $m_1$  is unknown, the issue cannot be definitively 14 settled. 15

**Reducing binLWE**<sub> $n,m_1,q_1,\leq\sqrt{10n\alpha_2}$ </sub> to binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q_2,\leq\alpha_3$ </sub>: This reduction follows from Corollary 3.2<sup>2</sup> of [6]. Here  $q_1 \geq q_2 \geq \sqrt{2\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2))} \cdot (\sqrt{n}/\alpha_2)$  and  $\alpha_3^2 \geq 10n\alpha_2^2 + (4n/(\pi q_2^2))\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2))$  where  $\varepsilon_2 \in (0, 1/2)$ . Suppose there is an algorithm  $W_3$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q_2,\leq\alpha_3$ </sub> having advantage  $\zeta_3$ . Corollary 3.2 of [6] shows an algorithm  $W_2$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q_1,<\sqrt{10n\alpha_2}$ </sub> with advantage  $\zeta_2$  where

$$\zeta_2 \geq \zeta_3 - 14\varepsilon_2 m_1. \tag{12}$$

<sup>20</sup> Further,  $W_2$  calls  $W_3$  once.

**Reducing binLWE**<sub> $n,m_1,q_2,\leq\alpha_3$ </sub> to binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q_2,\alpha_3$ </sub>: This reduction follows from Lemma 2.15 of [6]. Suppose there is an algorithm  $W_4$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q_2,\alpha_3$ </sub> having advantage  $\zeta_4$ . Lemma 2.15 of [6] states that the algorithm  $W_3$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q_2,\leq\alpha_3$ </sub> has advantage  $\zeta_3$  where  $\zeta_3 \geq 1/3$ . Further, in [6] it is stated that both  $m_1$  and the number of times  $W_3$  calls  $W_4$  are poly( $m_2, 1/\zeta_4, n, \log q_2$ ). In Lemma 2 (given in the appendix) we show that  $m_1 = \mathfrak{k}m_2$  and the number of times  $W_3$  calls  $W_4$  is  $\mathfrak{k}(1 + 36m_2/\zeta_4)$  where  $\mathfrak{k} \geq \max(32 \ln 12, 8 \ln(432m_2/\zeta_4))/\zeta_4^2$ . For simplicity, we take  $\mathfrak{k} = 1/\zeta_4^2$ . We assume that there are constants  $d_1, d_2 > 0$ , such that  $m_2 = n^{d_1}$  and  $\zeta_4 = n^{-d_2}$ .

Putting together the various reductions, yields a reduction from GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> on a lattice of dimension k to binLWE<sub>n,m<sub>2</sub>,q<sub>2</sub>,\alpha<sub>3</sub></sub>. The number of times C the algorithm W<sub>4</sub> (for solving binLWE<sub>n,m<sub>2</sub>,q<sub>2</sub>,\alpha<sub>3</sub>) is called by the algorithm W (for solving GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub>) is obtained from the above analysis to be the following.</sub>

$$C = k^{2c+4} \cdot k^{c_1+2c_2+4} \cdot \frac{1}{\zeta_4^2} \left( 1 + \frac{36m_2}{\zeta_4} \right) \approx k^{2c+4} \cdot k^{c_1+2c_2+4} \cdot \frac{m_2}{\zeta_4^3} = k^{2c+4} \cdot k^{c_1+2c_2+4} \cdot n^{d_1+3d_2}.$$
 (13)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>A distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  over  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  is  $(B, \delta)$ -bounded, for  $B, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$ , if the probability that  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}$  has norm greater than B is at most  $\delta$ . Corollary 3.2 of [6] is stated in terms of  $(B, \delta)$  distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ . In the present context,  $\mathcal{D}$  is the uniform distribution over  $\{0, 1\}$  which is  $(\sqrt{n}, 0)$ -bounded.

Let the runtime of  $W_4$  be T and the runtime of W be T'. Then  $T'/T \approx C$ . The advantage of  $W_4$  is  $\zeta_4$  while the 1 2

success probability of W is almost 1. The tightness gap of the reduction is  $T'/(T/\zeta_4) = C\zeta_4$  which is equal to

$$G = k^{2c+4} \cdot k^{c_1+2c_2+4} \cdot n^{d_1+2d_2}.$$
(14)

The relations among the various parameters are as follows. 3

4 1. 
$$\gamma \geq k/(\alpha_1 \sqrt{\log k});$$

5 2. 
$$q_1 = 2^{k/2}$$
;

- 3.  $m_1 = k^c$  for some constant  $c \ge 1$ ; 6
- 4.  $1/q_1 < \alpha_1 < 1/\omega(\sqrt{\log n})$  and  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_1 \cdot \omega(\log k)$ ; 7
- 5. The constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are such that  $W_1$  is successful on a fraction  $k^{-c_1}$  of all possible secrets and  $\zeta_1 = k^{-c_2}$ ; 8

9 6. 
$$n \ge (k+1)\log_2 q_1 + 2\log_2(1/\delta);$$

10 7. 
$$\alpha_2 \ge \sqrt{\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_1))/\pi}/q_1$$
, and  $\zeta_1 \ge \frac{\zeta_2 - \delta}{3m_1} - \frac{41\varepsilon_1}{2} - 2^{-k-1}$ , where  $\delta > 0$  and  $\varepsilon_1 \in (0, 1/2)$ ;

8.  $q_1 \ge q_2 \ge \sqrt{2\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2))} \cdot (\sqrt{n}/\alpha_2), \ \alpha_3^2 \ge 10n\alpha_2^2 + (4n/(\pi q_2^2))\ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2)), \ \text{and} \ \zeta_2 \ge \zeta_3 - 14\varepsilon_2 m_1,$ 11 where  $\varepsilon_2 \in (0, 1/2)$ ; 12

13 9. 
$$\zeta_3 \ge 1/3;$$

- 10.  $m_1 = m_2 / \zeta_4^2$ ; 14
- 11.  $m_2 = n^{d_1}$  and  $\zeta_4 = n^{-d_2}$  for constants  $d_1, d_2 > 0$ . 15
- Note that 16

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta_1 &\geq \frac{\zeta_2 - \delta}{3m_1} - \frac{41\varepsilon_1}{2} - 2^{-k-1} \geq \frac{\zeta_3}{3m_1} - \frac{14\varepsilon_2}{3} - \frac{\delta}{3m_1} - \frac{41\varepsilon_1}{2} \geq \frac{1}{9m_1} - \frac{14\varepsilon_2}{3} - \frac{\delta}{3m_1} - \frac{41\varepsilon_1}{2} \\ \alpha_3^2 &\geq 10n\alpha_2^2 + \frac{4n}{\pi q_2^2} \ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2)) \geq 10n\alpha_1^2 \omega(\log^2 k) + \frac{4n}{\pi q_2^2} \ln(2n(1+1/\varepsilon_2)). \end{aligned}$$

Performing a meaningful concrete security analysis with the exact form of the above relations is almost impossible. 17 To simplify the analysis, we ignore logarithmic factors. Also, we will assume that the parameters  $\varepsilon_1$ ,  $\varepsilon_2$  and 18  $\delta$  can be chosen in a manner (say, 1/poly(n)) such that they do not have much effect on the concrete security 19 analysis. Using these and other reasonable simplifications, we have the following relations. 20

$$q_{1} = 2^{k/2}; \quad n = k^{2}; \\ \alpha_{1} = \alpha_{2} = \alpha_{3}/\sqrt{n} = \alpha_{3}/k; \\ \gamma = k/\alpha_{1} = k^{2}/\alpha_{3}; \\ k^{-c_{2}} = \zeta_{1} = 1/m_{1} = k^{-c}, \\ q_{2} = \sqrt{n}/\alpha_{2} = n/\alpha_{3}; \\ k^{c} = m_{1} = n^{d_{1}+2d_{2}}.$$
(15)

From (15), we have  $c_2 = c = 2d_1 + 4d_2$ . As mentioned earlier, following Theorem 4.1 of [6], algorithm  $W_1$  for 21 decLWE<sub>k,m1,q1, $\alpha_2$ </sub> is constructed from the algorithm  $W_2$  for binLWE<sub>n,m1,q1, $\leq \sqrt{10n\alpha_2}$ . The reduction shows that  $W_1$  is successful for almost all secrets and so we take  $c_1 = 0$ . Using  $c_2 = c = 2d_1 + 4d_2$  and  $c_1 = 0$  in (14), the</sub> 22 23 overall tightness gap is obtained to be 24

$$n^{4+5d_1+10d_2}. (16)$$

The tightness gap given by (16) is to be compared to the tightness gap of Regev's reduction given by (4). While 25 the numerical values of the tightness gaps for the two reductions can be compared, it should be kept in mind 26 that the problems being connected by the two reductions are different. 27

<sup>1</sup> Summary: We have the following concrete form of the reduction of GapSVP to binLWE.

- If there is an algorithm which solves binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q_2,\alpha_3$ </sub>, where  $q_2 = n/\alpha_3$ , for a fraction  $n^{-d_1}$  of the
- possible secrets and has advantage  $n^{-d_2}$ , then there is an algorithm to solve GapSVP $_{k^2/\alpha_3}$  on a lattice
- of dimension  $k = \sqrt{n}$ . The tightness gap of the reduction is given by  $n^{4+5d_1+10d_2}$ .

Regev [16] had described a cryptosystem where the public key is a collection of  $n^{1+\epsilon}$  LWE samples and the secret key is  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ . A successful adversary against the scheme is able to distinguish between encryptions of o and 1 with advantage at least  $n^{-d}$  for some d > 0. It was shown in [16] that a successful adversary against the cryptosystem can be used to obtain an algorithm for the average case decision LWE problem such that the algorithm is successful for a fraction  $1/(4n^d)$  of all secrets with advantage at least  $1/(8n^d)$ .

The problem binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q_2,\alpha_3$ </sub> would be used as a basis for proving security of cryptosystems. We consider 10  $\alpha_3 = 1/\sqrt{n} = 1/k$ . The security of any such cryptosystem would be given by a reduction of the type given by 11 Regev for his cryptosystem. Suppose  $\mathfrak{C}$  is such a cryptosystem and that an adversary is successful in breaking 12  $\mathfrak{C}$  if it can distinguish between encryptions of 0 and 1 with advantage at least  $1/n^d$  for some d > 0. Following 13 the reduction of Regev for his cryptosystem, we assume that successful adversary for  $\mathfrak{C}$  can be used to build 14 algorithm  $W_4$  for binLWE<sub>n,m<sub>2</sub>,q<sub>2</sub>, $\alpha_3$ </sub> such that  $W_4$  is successful on a fraction  $\approx n^{-d}$  of the secrets with advantage 15 at least  $n^{-d}$ . This suggests  $d_1 \approx d \approx d_2$ . (A similar approximation was made in [7].) As a numerical example, consider  $n = 2^{10}$ . Aiming at 128-bit security,  $\zeta_4$  would be  $2^{-128}$  and so for  $n = 2^{10}$ , d = 12.8. In this case, the 16 17 tightness gap in (16) is  $2^{1960}$ . In other words, the quantitative effect of the reduction is the following. If T is 18 the time required to solve binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q_2,\alpha_3$ </sub> on a lattice of dimension  $2^{10}$ , then there is an algorithm to solve 19 GapSVP<sub> $\gamma$ </sub> for a lattice of dimension  $k = \sqrt{n} = 2^5$  and  $\gamma = k^3 = 2^{15}$  which takes time  $2^{1960}T$ . So, the tightness 20 gap is  $2^{1960}$ . In comparison, for  $n = 2^{10}$  and 128-bit security, the tightness gap in [7, 17] has been obtained to 21 be  $2^{524}$ . 22

Note that the dimension of the lattice for which GapSVP is to be solved is  $\sqrt{n}$  where n is the dimension of 23 the lattice for which binLWE is to be solved. Brakerski et al. [6] mention this point. Due to the drawback of the 24 quadratic loss in the dimension, they mention as an open problem the task of obtaining a reduction where such a 25 quadratic loss does not occur. In their words, this would constitute a "full dequantization" of Regev's reduction. 26 The issue of tightness gap has not been considered in [6]. For the GapSVP to binLWE reduction to be 27 meaningfully used to derive parameters for practical cryptosystems, the tightness gap needs to be taken into 28 consideration. So, for a full dequantization of Regev's reduction which can also be used in practice, one needs a 29 *tight* reduction which does not suffer the quadratic loss in the dimension. 30

#### 31 6 Conclusion

We have performed a concrete security analysis of the tightness gap in the classical reduction of the shortest vector problem to the LWE problem given by Brakerski et al. [6]. Previous works [7, 17] had already pointed out that the tightness gap in the quantum reduction of Regev [16] is huge. Our analysis shows that the tightness gap of the classical reduction by Brakerski et al. is more than that of Regev's original quantum reduction. This leaves open the question of obtaining a tight reduction of a worst case lattice problem to LWE, or, showing that there is no such reduction.

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## <sup>1</sup> References

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# <sup>19</sup> A Reducing binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q,\leq\alpha$ </sub> to binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q,\alpha$ </sub>

Suppose there is an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  which has advantage  $\theta$  in solving binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q,\alpha$ </sub>. Lemma 2.15 of [6] states that using  $\mathcal{A}$ , it is possible to construct an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  which solves binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q,\leq\alpha$ </sub> with advantage at least 1/3 where both  $m_1$  and the runtime of  $\mathcal{B}$  are poly( $m_2, 1/\theta, n, \log q$ ). In [6], it was mentioned that the proof is standard and is based on Lemma 3.7 of [16]. The following brief idea of the proof of was provided.

 $^{24}$  "The idea is to use Chernoff bound to estimate  $\mathcal{A}$ 's success probability on the uniform distribution,

and then add noise in small increments to our given distribution and estimate  $\mathcal{A}$ 's behavior on the resulting distributions. If there is a gap between any of these and the uniform behavior, the input

27 distribution is deemed non-uniform."

Below we provide the details of the proof based on the above idea and also work out the dependence of  $m_1$ on  $m_2$  and  $\theta$ .

**Lemma 2.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an algorithm which has advantage at least  $\theta$  in solving  $binLWE_{n,m_2,q,\alpha}$ . Using  $\mathcal{A}$ , it is possible to construct an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  which has advantage 1/3 in solving  $binLWE_{n,m_1,q,\leq\alpha}$ , where  $m_1 = \mathfrak{k}m_2$  with  $\mathfrak{k}$  satisfying  $\mathfrak{k} \geq \max(32 \ln 12, 8 \ln(432m_2/\theta))/\theta^2$ . Further,  $\mathcal{B}$  invokes  $\mathcal{A}$  a total of  $\mathfrak{k}(1 + 36m_2/\theta)$  times.

<sup>33</sup> Proof. An input to  $\mathcal{A}$  is a collection of samples  $\mathcal{I}$  of size  $m_2$ . By " $\mathcal{I}$  is real" we will mean that the samples are <sup>34</sup> drawn independently from  $A_{q,s,\alpha}$ , while by " $\mathcal{I}$  is random" we will mean that the samples are drawn independently <sup>35</sup> and uniformly from  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$ . The output of  $\mathcal{A}$  is a bit. The advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is

$$Adv_{\mathcal{A}} = |\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) \Rightarrow 1 : \mathcal{I} \text{ is real}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) \Rightarrow 1 : \mathcal{I} \text{ is random}]|.$$
(17)

Let  $p_{\star} = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) = 1 : \mathcal{I} \text{ is real}]$  and  $p_{\$} = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{I}) = 1 : \mathcal{I} \text{ is random}]$ . For the sake of convenience of the analysis, we will assume that  $p_{\star} > p_{\$}$ , the other case being similar. Since it is given that  $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}$  is at least  $\theta$ , we have

$$\theta \leq p_{\star} - p_{\$}. \tag{18}$$

The construction of  $\mathcal{B}$  using  $\mathcal{A}$  is shown in Algorithm 2. The input to  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of samples  $\mathcal{J}$  of size  $m_1$  where  $m_1 = km_2$ . By " $\mathcal{J}$  is real" we will mean that the samples are drawn independently from  $A_{q,s,\beta}$  for some unknown  $\beta \leq \alpha$ , while by " $\mathcal{J}$  is random" we will mean that the samples are drawn independently and uniformly from  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$ .

Steps 2 to 4 of Algorithm 2 compute an estimate  $\hat{p}_{\$}$  of  $p_{\$}$ . From the additive form of the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound [11], we have

$$\Pr[p_{\$} - \theta/4 \le \hat{p}_{\$} \le p_{\$} + \theta/4] \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2).$$
(19)

Consider the set Z defined in Step 6 and let t = #Z. Note that  $t = m_3^2$ . The loop from Step 7 to 18 runs for t steps. For i = 1, ..., t, let  $p_i^{\text{real}}$  (resp.  $p_i^{\text{rnd}}$ ) be the value of p computed at Step 14 in the *i*-th iteration of the loop when the input  $\mathcal{J}$  is real (resp. random).

The loop in Steps 9 to 12 adds a certain amount of noise to the samples in  $\mathcal{J}$  to obtain  $\mathcal{J}'$ . If  $\mathcal{J}$  is random, then  $\mathcal{J}'$  is also random and the inputs  $\mathcal{J}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{J}_k$  on which  $\mathcal{A}$  is invoked are also random. By the additive form of the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound, we have

$$\Pr[p_{\$} - \theta/4 \le p_i^{\text{rnd}} \le p_{\$} + \theta/4] \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2).$$
(20)

For the case when  $\mathcal{J}$  is real, we follow an argument from the proof of Lemma 3.7 of [16]. In this case, the 16 samples in  $\mathcal{J}$  are from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\beta}$ , for some unknown  $\beta \leq \alpha$ . In other words, each element of  $\mathcal{J}$  is a pair of the form 17  $(\mathbf{a}, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle/q + e)$ , where e is drawn from  $\Psi_{\beta}$ . Step 11 converts such a pair to  $(\mathbf{a}, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle/q + e + \varepsilon)$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is drawn 18 from  $\Psi_{\gamma}$ . This creates a pair  $(\mathbf{a}, \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s} \rangle / q + e')$ , where  $e' = e + \varepsilon$  and so, e' follows  $\Psi_{\sqrt{\beta^2 + \gamma}}$ . Consider the smallest 19  $\gamma$  such that  $\gamma \ge \alpha^2 - \beta^2$  and so  $\gamma \le \alpha^2 - \beta^2 + m_3^{-2}\alpha^2$ . Suppose this  $\gamma$  is considered in the  $\ell$ -th iteration of the 20 loop in Steps 7 to 18. Let  $\alpha' = \sqrt{\beta^2 + \gamma}$  so that  $\alpha \leq \alpha' \leq \sqrt{\alpha^2 + m_3^{-2}\alpha^2} \leq (1 + m_3^{-2})\alpha$ . By Claim 2.2 of [16], 21 the statistical distance between  $\Psi_{\alpha}$  and  $\Psi_{\alpha'}$  is at most  $9m_3^{-2}$ . Consequently, the statistical distance between  $m_2$  samples from  $\Psi_{\alpha}$  and  $\Psi_{\alpha'}$  is at most  $9m_2m_3^{-2}$ . So, in the  $\ell$ -th iteration of the loop in Steps 7 to 18, for 22 23  $j = 1, \ldots, \mathfrak{k}$ , the statistical distance between  $\mathcal{J}_j$  and  $m_2$  samples from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$  is at most  $9m_2m_3^{-2}$ . 24

Let  $\hat{p}_{\star}$  be the probability that  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs 1 when the input consists of  $m_2$  samples from a distribution whose statistical distance from  $A_{q,\mathbf{s},\alpha}$  is at most  $9m_2m_3^{-2}$ . So,  $|\hat{p}_{\star} - p_{\star}| \leq 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2$ . In the  $\ell$ -th iteration, for  $j = 1, \ldots, \mathfrak{k}$ , the probability that  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs 1 on input  $\mathcal{J}_j$  is  $\hat{p}_{\star}$ . Let  $\epsilon_1 = \theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2$ . By the additive form of the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound we have

$$\Pr[\hat{p}_{\star} - \epsilon_1 \le p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} \le \hat{p}_{\star} + \epsilon_1] \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}\epsilon_1^2).$$
(21)

<sup>29</sup> Combining (21) with  $|\hat{p}_{\star} - p_{\star}| \le 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2$ , we have

$$\Pr[p_{\star} - \epsilon_1 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2 \le p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} \le p_{\star} + \epsilon_1 + 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2] \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}\epsilon_1^2).$$
(22)

30 So,

$$\Pr[p_{\star} - \theta/4 \le p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} \le p_{\star} + \theta/4] \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2)^2).$$
(23)

We define two sets of events. Suppose the input  $\mathcal{J}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$  is random. For  $i = 1, \ldots, t$ , let  $E_i$  be the event that the  $|p_i^{\text{rnd}} - \hat{p}_{\$}| > \theta/2$ , i.e., the if-condition at Step 15 is satisfied in the *i*-th iteration on random input. Note that

1  $E_1, \ldots, E_t$  are mutually independent events. Next suppose that the input  $\mathcal{J}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$  is real. For  $i = 1, \ldots, t$ , let  $F_i$ 2 be the event that the  $|p_i^{\text{real}} - \hat{p}_{\$}| > \theta/2$ , i.e., the if-condition at Step 15 is satisfied in the *i*-th iteration on real 3 input.

We consider the probability of  $\overline{E}_i$ . Let  $G_1$  be the event  $|\hat{p}_{\$} - p_{\$}| \le \theta/4$  and  $H_i$  be the event  $|p_i^{\text{rnd}} - p_{\$}| \le \theta/4$ . Note that  $G_1$  and  $H_i$  are independent. Further,  $G_1 \wedge H_i$  implies  $\overline{E}_i$  and so using (19) and (20), we obtain

$$\Pr[\overline{E}_i] \ge \Pr[G_1 \wedge H_i] \ge (1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2))^2 \ge 1 - 4\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) = 1 - \delta_1$$
(24)

6 where  $\delta_1 = 4 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2)$ . Using  $\mathfrak{k} \ge 8 \ln(432m_2/\theta)/\theta^2$  and  $m_3^2 = 36m_2/\theta$ , we have

$$t\delta_1 = 4m_3^2 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) = \frac{144m_2}{\theta} \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) \le 1/3.$$
(25)

Next we consider the probability of  $F_{\ell}$ . Let  $G_2$  be the event  $|p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} - p_{\star}| < \theta/4$ . Note that  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ are independent events. We have  $G_2$  to be the event  $p_{\star} - \theta/4 \leq p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} \leq p_{\star} + \theta/4$ ; and  $G_1$  to be the event  $p_{\$} - \theta/4 \leq \hat{p}_{\$} \leq p_{\$} + \theta/4$  which is equivalent to  $-p_{\$} + \theta/4 \geq -\hat{p}_{\$} \geq -p_{\$} - \theta/4$ . So, if  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  both hold, we have  $p_{\star} - p_{\$} - \theta/2 \leq p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} - \hat{p}_{\$}$ . Using  $p_{\star} - p_{\$} \geq \theta$ , the last condition shows that  $\theta/2 \leq p_{\ell}^{\text{real}} - \hat{p}_{\$}$  and so  $F_{\ell}$  holds. This shows that  $G_1 \wedge G_2$  implies  $F_{\ell}$  and using (19) and (23), we obtain

$$\Pr[F_{\ell}] \ge \Pr[G_1 \wedge G_2] \ge (1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2)) \times (1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2)^2)) \\ \ge 1 - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) - 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2)^2) = 1 - \delta_2$$
(26)

where  $\delta_2 = 2 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) + 2 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2)^2)$ . Using  $m_3 = 6(m_2/\theta)^{1/2}$ , we have  $\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2 = \theta/8$  so,  $\delta_2 = 2 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) + 2 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/8)^2) \le 4 \exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/8)^2)$ . Using  $\mathfrak{k} \ge 32 \ln 12/\theta^2$ , we have

$$\delta_2 = 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4)^2) + 2\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/4 - 9m_2m_3^{-2}/2)^2) \le 4\exp(-2\mathfrak{k}(\theta/8)^2) \le 1/3.$$
(27)

<sup>14</sup> We now compute the advantage of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}} &= |\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{J}) \Rightarrow 1 : \mathcal{J} \text{ is real}] - \operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{J}) \Rightarrow 1 : \mathcal{J} \text{ is random}]| \\ &= |\operatorname{Pr}[F_1 \lor \cdots \lor F_t] - \operatorname{Pr}[E_1 \lor \cdots \lor E_t]| \\ &\geq |\operatorname{Pr}[F_\ell] - \operatorname{Pr}[E_1 \lor \cdots \lor E_t]| \\ &= |\operatorname{Pr}[F_\ell] + \prod_{i=1}^t \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{E}_i] - 1| \\ &\geq |1 - \delta_2 + (1 - \delta_1)^t - 1| \\ &\geq |1 - t\delta_1 - \delta_2| \\ &\geq \frac{1}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

$$(28)$$

<sup>15</sup> The last step follows from (25) and (27).

In Algorithm 2,  $\mathcal{A}$  is called  $\mathfrak{k}$  times in Step 4 and in each iteration of the loop in Steps 7 to 18,  $\mathcal{A}$  is invoked  $\mathfrak{k}$ times in Step 14. The loop in Steps 7 to 18 runs for  $t = m_3^2$  iterations and so the total number of times  $\mathcal{B}$  invokes  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\mathfrak{k}(m_3^2 + 1) = \mathfrak{k}(1 + 36m_2/\theta)$ . **Algorithm 2** Construction of a distinguisher  $\mathcal{B}$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_1,q,\leq\alpha$ </sub> using a distinguisher  $\mathcal{A}$  for binLWE<sub> $n,m_2,q,\alpha$ </sub>. In the algorithm,  $\theta$  is a known lower bound on the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

```
1: function \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{J})
```

```
2: let S be a collection of m_1 samples drawn independently and uniformly from \mathbb{Z}_p^n \times \mathbb{T};
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partition  $\mathcal{S}$  as  $\mathcal{S} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\mathfrak{k}} \mathcal{S}_i$ , such that  $\# \mathcal{S}_i = m_2, i = 1, \dots, \mathfrak{k}$ ; 3: let  $\hat{p}_{\$} = (\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}_1) + \dots + \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}_{\mathfrak{k}}))/\mathfrak{k};$ 4:  $m_3 \leftarrow 6(m_2/\theta)^{1/2};$ 5:let Z be the set of all integer multiples of  $m_3^{-2}\alpha^2$  in the range  $(0, \alpha^2]$ ; 6: for  $\gamma$  in Z do 7: $\mathcal{J}' \leftarrow \emptyset;$ 8: for  $(\mathbf{a}, e) \in \mathcal{J}$  do 9: sample  $\varepsilon$  from  $\Psi_{\sqrt{\gamma}}$ ; 10: $\mathcal{J}' \leftarrow \mathcal{J}' \cup \{(\mathbf{a}, e + \varepsilon)\};$ 11:end for 12:partition  $\mathcal{J}'$  as  $\mathcal{J}' = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \mathcal{J}_i$ , such that  $\# \mathcal{J}_i = m_2, i = 1, \dots, k$ ; 13:let  $p = (\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{J}_1) + \dots + \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{J}_{\mathfrak{k}}))/\mathfrak{k};$ 14: if  $|p - \hat{p}_{\$}| > \theta/2$  then 15:return 1; 16:end if 17:end for 18:return 0; 19:20: end function.