

Lattice-based Blind Signatures

— Preliminary Version —

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Abstract. Motivated by the need to have secure blind signatures even in the presence of quantum computers, we present two efficient blind signature schemes based on hard worst-case lattice problems. Both schemes are provably secure in the random oracle model and unconditionally blind. The first scheme is based on preimage samplable functions that were introduced at STOC 2008 by Gentry, Peikert, and Vaikuntanathan. The scheme is stateful and runs in 3 moves. The second scheme builds upon the PKC 2008 identification scheme of Lyubashevsky. It is stateless, has 4 moves, and its security is based on the hardness of worst-case problems in ideal lattices.

Keywords. Blind signatures, post-quantum, lattices

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1 Introduction

Since 1982, when Chaum proposed his idea of blind signatures [10], it has become an important primitive for anonymous Internet banking, e-voting applications (e.g. [36,22]), as well as for multi-party computation such as oblivious transfer [12]. These applications will retain their importance in both, near and far future. As for the near future, we are convinced that current factoring and discrete logarithm based instantiations are efficient and secure. *But for how long?*

Today, when building provably secure cryptographic schemes, one has to keep emerging technologies and especially quantum computers in mind. In the quantum-age, the cryptographic assumptions change with the leap in computing power that quantum computers will provide.

There are only a few cryptographic assumptions that are conjectured to be *post-quantum*, i.e. they are considered to withstand quantum computer attacks. One of those assumptions is the hardness of finding short vectors in a lattice. There is also a benefit of building cryptography upon hard lattice problems today because, unlike factoring or computing discrete logarithms, they have withstood even subexponential attacks and the best known algorithm [3] is exponential in the lattice dimension. Furthermore, lattice problems typically allow a worst-case to average-case reduction that goes back to Ajtai [2]. It states that a randomly chosen instance of a certain lattice problem is at least as hard as the worst-case instance of a related lattice problem. The reduction was later on adapted to work with ideal lattices by Lyubashevsky and Micciancio [26].

According to the security model, mainly influenced by Juels, Luby, and Ostrovsky [20] as well as Pointcheval and Stern [34], blind signature schemes have to satisfy blindness and one-more unforgeability. Blindness states that the signer must not obtain any information on the signed messages and one-more unforgeability enforces that an adversarial user cannot obtain more signatures than there were interactions with the signer.

1.1 Our contribution

We construct two lattice-based blind signatures. One is based on preimage samplable functions that were introduced by Gentry, Peikert, and Vaikuntanathan (GPV) [18] along with a digital signature scheme. The scheme is stateful, unconditionally blind, one-more unforgeable if a certain interactive assumption (similar to the one-more trapdoor inversion assumption in [7] for RSA) holds, and has three moves. The scheme is presented using general (not ideal) lattices but recently Stehlé, Seinfeld, Tanaka, and Xagawa [14] showed how to improve the GPV signature scheme using ideal lattices. Their modifications are directly applicable to our blind signature scheme and significantly reduce the public-key size.

Our second construction is far stronger. It is built upon Lyubashevsky's identification and signature scheme [28,27]. It is also unconditionally blind and one-more unforgeable if standard lattice problems in ideal lattices are hard in the worst-case. With its four rounds it is still very efficient, i.e., all operations

have quasi-linear complexity and all keys and signatures require a quasi-linear amount of bits. In both schemes, we establish blindness via an abstraction of the filtering technique from [27].

We believe that our work is an important contribution and that we solve a longstanding problem because the previous efficient constructions, like [10], [33], [34], [1], [7], [11], [24], [31], have one thing in common: they are built upon classic number theoretic assumptions, like the hardness of factoring large integers or computing discrete logarithms. The newer approaches of Boldyreva [8] and Okamoto [31] tend to use pairings and bilinear maps that yield very elegant constructions. They, however, are again based on the discrete logarithm problem in this specific setting. None of the above schemes withstands subexponential attacks or remains secure in the presence of reasonably large quantum computers, where both factoring and computing discrete logarithms become easy due to the seminal work of Shor [38].

Finally, we would like to mention that there are also (typically inefficient) instantiations from general assumptions, e.g. by Juels, Luby, and Ostrovsky [20], Fischlin [15], and Hazay, Katz, Koo, and Lindell [19]. Whether they are post-quantum, largely depends on the exact realization of primitives.

1.2 Organization

After a preliminaries section with a brief introduction to lattice theory and the relevant security models, we present our constructions in Sections 3 and 4. The instantiation in Section 3 is based on a trapdoor function in lattices, whereas the one in Section 4 is based on an identification scheme in ideal lattices. *With this preliminary version, we want to convey the construction principles of our blind signature schemes. The proofs, a security analysis, as well as proposed parameters will appear in a later full version. The talk given at Dagstuhl showed a different method for obtaining blind signatures. It uses blinding values chosen from a Gaussian distribution, which makes the resulting schemes only statistically blind in an asymptotic sense. However, the benefit of this alternative distribution would be that the schemes are, at least asymptotically, complete in a single run and there is no need to deal with aborts.*

2 Preliminaries

With n , we always denote the security parameter. $(a, b) \leftarrow \langle \mathcal{A}(x), \mathcal{B}(y) \rangle$ denotes the joint execution of two algorithms \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} in an interactive protocol with private inputs x to \mathcal{A} and y to \mathcal{B} . The private outputs are a for \mathcal{A} and b for \mathcal{B} . $\langle \mathcal{A}(x), \mathcal{B}(y) \rangle^k$ means that the interaction can take place up to k times.

$x \xleftarrow{\$} X$ means that x is chosen uniformly at random from the finite set X . Recall that the statistical distance of two random variables X, Y over a domain D is defined as $\Delta(X, Y) = 1/2 \sum_{a \in D} |\text{Prob}[X = a] - \text{Prob}[Y = a]|$. A function is negligible in n if it vanishes faster than $1/p(n)$ for any polynomial $p(n)$.

In the following, we recall the definitions of blind signatures and commitments. Afterwards, we briefly recall the forking lemma and some necessary facts from lattice theory.

2.1 Blind signatures

A blind signature scheme BS consists of three algorithms $(\text{Kg}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$, where Sign is an interactive protocol between a signer \mathcal{S} and a user \mathcal{U} . The specification is as follows.

Key generation. $\text{Kg}(1^n)$ outputs a private signing key sk and a public verification key pk .

Signature issuance. $\text{Sign}(\text{sk}, M)$ describes the joint execution of \mathcal{S} and \mathcal{U} . The private output of \mathcal{S} is a view \mathcal{V} and the private output of \mathcal{U} is a signature \mathbf{s} on the message $M \in \mathcal{M}$ under sk . Thus, we write $(\mathcal{V}, \mathbf{s}) \leftarrow \langle \mathcal{S}(\text{sk}), \mathcal{U}(\text{pk}, M) \rangle$.

Signature verification. The algorithm $\text{Vf}(\text{pk}, \mathbf{s}, M)$ outputs 1 if \mathbf{s} is a valid signature on M under pk and otherwise 0.

Completeness is defined as with digital signature schemes, i.e., every honestly created signature for honestly created keys and for any messages $M \in \mathcal{M}$ has to be valid under this key. Views are interpreted as random variables, whose output is generated by subsequent executions of the respective protocol. Two views \mathcal{V}_1 and \mathcal{V}_2 are considered equal if they cannot be distinguished by any computationally unbounded algorithm with noticeable probability.

As for security, blind signatures have to satisfy two properties: blindness and one-more unforgeability [20,34]. The notion of blindness is defined in the following experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{S}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{blind}}$, where the adversarial signer \mathcal{S}^* chooses two messages M_0, M_1 and interacts with two users who obtain blind signatures for the two messages in random order. Note that the executions of the two users may be arbitrarily interleaved. After seeing the unblinded signatures in the original order, with respect to M_0, M_1 , the signer has to guess the message that has been signed for the first user. If either of the user algorithms fails in outputting a valid signature, the signer is merely notified of the failure and does not get any signature. In particular, he does not see which user algorithm aborted.

Experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{S}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{blind}}(n)$

$b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$

$(\text{pk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{BS.Kg}(1^n)$

$(M_0, M_1, \text{state}_{\text{find}}) \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\text{find}, \text{sk}, \text{pk})$

$(d, \text{state}_{\text{issue}}) \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\langle \cdot, \mathcal{U}(\text{pk}, M_b) \rangle^1, \langle \cdot, \mathcal{U}(\text{pk}, M_{1-b}) \rangle^1)(\text{issue}, \text{state}_{\text{find}})$

Let \mathbf{s}_b and \mathbf{s}_{1-b} be the outputs of $\mathcal{U}(\text{pk}, M_b)$ and $\mathcal{U}(\text{pk}, M_{1-b})$, respectively.

If $\mathbf{s}_0 \neq \text{fail}$ and $\mathbf{s}_1 \neq \text{fail}$

$d \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\text{guess}, \mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{s}_1, \text{state}_{\text{issue}})$

Else

$d \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\text{guess}, \text{fail}, \text{fail}, \text{state}_{\text{issue}})$

Return 1 iff $d = b$

A signature scheme BS is (t, δ) -blind, if there is no adversary \mathcal{S}^* , running in time at most t , that wins the above experiment with advantage at least δ , where the advantage is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{S}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{blind}} = \left| \text{Prob} \left[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{S}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{blind}}(n) = 1 \right] - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$

The second security property, one-more unforgeability, ensures that each completed interaction between signer and user yields at most one signature. It is formalized in the following experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{U}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{omf}}$, where an adversarial user tries to output j valid signatures after $\ell < j$ completed interactions with an honest signer.

Experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{U}^*, \text{BS}}^{\text{omf}}(n)$

$H \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{H}(1^n)$

$(\text{pk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{BS.Kg}(1^n)$

$\{(M_1, \mathbf{s}_1), \dots, (M_j, \mathbf{s}_j)\} \leftarrow \mathcal{U}^{*H(\cdot), \langle S(\text{sk}), \cdot \rangle}(\text{pk})$

Let ℓ be the number of (complete) interaction between \mathcal{U}^* and the signer.

Return 1 iff

1. $M_i \neq M_j$ for all $1 \leq i < j \leq j$;
2. $\text{BS.Vf}(\text{pk}, \mathbf{s}_i, M_i) = 1$ for all $i = 1, \dots, j$;
3. $\ell < j$.

A signature scheme BS is $(t, q_{\text{Sign}}, q_{\text{H}}, \delta)$ -one-more unforgeable if there is no adversary \mathcal{A} , running in time at most t , making at most q_{Sign} signature queries and at most q_{H} hash oracle queries, that wins the above experiment with probability at least δ .

2.2 Commitments

Commitments typically work in two phases. First, one party publishes a commitment $C = \text{com}(M; r)$ to a message M without revealing any information about it. This is the “hiding” property of the commitment scheme. In the second phase, the party can prove that C actually corresponds to M by revealing r . It is important that no algorithm can find a second message M' and randomness r' such that $C = \text{com}(M'; r')$ — the “binding” property. A scheme is (t, δ) -hiding (-binding) if there is no algorithm running in time at most t that can break the hiding (binding) property with probability at least δ .

Both properties can be satisfied computationally or unconditionally but there is no scheme that is unconditionally hiding *and* unconditionally binding [17]. For our schemes, we want blindness to be as strong as possible, which is why we assume the existence of a unconditionally hiding and computationally binding commitment scheme that is (t, δ_{com}) -binding for any polynomial t in n .

As we are interested in fully lattice-based schemes, we would like to point out that commitment schemes can be built upon on hard lattice problems [23].

2.3 Forking Lemma

The generalized forking lemma of Bellare and Neven [6] is an important tool for proving security in the random oracle model. It provides a lower bound for the probability that a randomized algorithm outputs two related values when run twice with the same random tape but with a different random oracle. We use it in Section 4 to prove one-more unforgeability.

Lemma 1 (Lemma 1 in [6]). *Fix an integer $q \geq 1$ and a set H of size $h \geq 2$. Let A be a randomized algorithm that on input x, h_1, \dots, h_q returns a pair, the first element of which is an integer in the range $0, \dots, q$ and the second element of which we refer to as a side output. Let IG be a randomized algorithm that we call the input generator. The accepting probability of A , denoted acc , is defined as the probability that $J \geq 1$ in the experiment*

$$x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{IG}; h_1, \dots, h_q \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} H; (J, \sigma) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} A(x, h_1, \dots, h_q).$$

The forking algorithm F_A associated to A is the randomized algorithm that takes input x proceeds as follows:

Algorithm $F_A(x)$

Pick coins ρ for A at random

$h_1, \dots, h_q \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} H$

$(I, \sigma) \leftarrow A(x, h_1, \dots, h_q; \rho)$

If $I = 0$ then return $(0, \epsilon, \epsilon)$

$h'_1, \dots, h'_q \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} H$

$(I', \sigma') \leftarrow A(x, h_1, \dots, h_{I-1}, h'_1, \dots, h'_q; \rho)$

If $I = I'$ and $h_I \neq h'_I$, then return $(1, \sigma, \sigma')$

Else return $(0, \epsilon, \epsilon)$.

Let

$$\text{frk} = \text{Prob} \left[b = 1 : x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{IG}; (b, \sigma, \sigma') F_A(x) \right].$$

Then

$$\text{frk} \geq \text{acc} \left(\frac{\text{acc}}{q} - \frac{1}{h} \right).$$

2.4 Lattices

A lattice in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\Lambda = \{ \sum_{i=1}^d x_i \mathbf{b}_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \}$, where $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_d$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{R} . The matrix $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_d]$ is a *basis* of the lattice Λ and we write $\Lambda = \Lambda(\mathbf{B})$. The number of linearly independent vectors in the basis is the dimension of the lattice. Now, consider *modular lattices* as a special form of lattices. Given a modulus q , a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$, and the equation $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{v} \equiv \mathbf{0} \pmod{q}$, then the set of all vectors $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ that satisfy the above equation is a lattice. Lattices of this form are denoted with $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$.

The main computational problem in lattices is the (approximate) shortest vector problem (SVP), where an algorithm is given a description, a basis, of a

lattice Λ and is supposed to find the shortest vector $\mathbf{v} \in \Lambda \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ with respect to a certain ℓ_p norm (up to an approximation factor). More precisely, find a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \Lambda \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$, such that $\|\mathbf{v}\|_p \leq \gamma \|\mathbf{w}\|_p$ for all $\mathbf{w} \in \Lambda \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ for a fixed approximation factor $\gamma \geq 1$. This problem is known to be \mathcal{NP} -hard for all ℓ_p norms [13,37,21] with a constant approximation factor. For exponential (in the lattice dimension) approximation factors, the problem is solvable in polynomial time by the famous LLL algorithm by Lenstra, Lenstra, and Lovász [25]. For polynomial approximation factors, which are relevant for cryptography, the best known algorithm is exponential (space and time) [3]. We refer the interested reader to a recent survey [35] by Regev for the currently known “approximability” and “inapproximability” results. The practical hardness of these lattice problems is analyzed in [16,4].

In the special case of modular lattices, there is also a special version of the SVP, named short integer solution problem (SIS). There, an algorithm is given a basis of $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$ and is supposed to output a non-zero solution $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ to the above equation. The algorithm succeeds if $\|\mathbf{v}\|_p \leq \nu$ for a given norm bound ν . The SIS was, in principle, introduced by Ajtai [2] and its hardness is analyzed in [29] and [18]. The latter work also explicitly deals with the ℓ_∞ norm, which we will use in our security proofs. We write $\text{SIS}^p(m, q, \nu)$ for the SIS problem in m -dimensional lattices $\Lambda_q^\perp(\mathbf{A})$ with norm bound ν w.r.t. the ℓ_p norm. The problem is (t, δ) -hard if no algorithm that runs in time t can solve it with probability at least δ . Similarly, the inhomogeneous version (find a short \mathbf{v} with $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} \equiv \mathbf{y}$, for a given $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$) is denoted with $\text{ISIS}^p(m, q, \nu)$.

Yet another special class of lattices are ideal lattices. In particular, consider lattices corresponding to ideals in the ring $\mathbf{R} = \mathbb{Z}_q[X]/\langle X^n + 1 \rangle$. We identify $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R}$ with its coefficient vector $\mathbf{f} = (f_0, \dots, f_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. Furthermore, we denote elements of the \mathbf{R} -module \mathbf{R}^m with $\hat{\mathbf{a}} = (\mathbf{a}_0, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{m-1})$ or directly with $(a_0, \dots, a_{mn-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{mn}$. Consequently, we define $\|\mathbf{f}\|_\infty = \|(f_0, \dots, f_{n-1})\|_\infty$. A lattice corresponds to an ideal I if and only if every lattice vector is the coefficient vector of a polynomial in I . The above problems SIS and ISIS easily translate to ideal lattices.

Both, ideal SIS and SIS are considered as average-case problems, which are directly related to uniformly random chosen problem instances in lattice cryptography. By a worst-case to average-case reduction [2,26] they are provably at least as hard as *all* instances of ideal SVP (ISVP) resp. SVP in a certain smaller dimension.

3 Blind signatures from preimage samplable functions

In this section, we describe our blind signature scheme and prove its security in terms of *blindness* and *one-more unforgeability*. It is based on the signature scheme by Gentry et al. [18] and we describe it in terms of general lattices. However, following the ideas of [14], there is also a version using ideal lattices, which has a significantly shorter public keys.

The roadmap for this section is as follows: We describe the 3-round blind signature scheme $\text{BS} = (\text{Kg}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ after briefly recalling the concept of preimage samplable functions as they will be needed in our construction. Then, we prove unconditional blindness and one-more unforgeability based on an interactive assumption that is related to a certain lattice problem but *not* equivalent.

The underlying family of *preimage samplable trapdoor functions* is a triple $(\text{TrapGen}, \text{SampleDom}, \text{SamplePre})$, with the following specification.

Trapdoor generation. $\text{TrapGen}(1^n)$ outputs (a, t) , where a fully defines the function $f_a : D_n \mapsto R_n$ and the trapdoor t is used to sample from the inverse $f_t^{-1} : R_n \mapsto D_n^*$, which is implemented as $\text{SamplePre}(t, \cdot)$. Let $m = 5n \log(q)$, $q = \Omega(n^3)$, and $D = \omega(m \log(m))$. The function domain is $D_n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^m : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \leq xmD - D\}$, $x \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$, and the range is $R_n = \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. SamplePre samples preimages from a subset $D_n^* = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^m : \|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \leq D\}$ of D_n .

Evaluation. The function $f_a(\mathbf{x})$ outputs $\mathbf{Ax} \bmod q$, where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ is part of the public key a .

Domain sampling with uniform output. $\text{SampleDom}(n)$ draws samples from some distribution over D_n^* , such that their images under f_a are uniformly distributed over R_n (cf. [18]).

Preimage sampling. Let $\mathbf{y} \in R_n$. $f_t^{-1}(\mathbf{y})$ samples $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{SampleDom}(n)$ under the condition that $f_a(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$. There are at least $\omega(\log(n))$ such preimages for every image \mathbf{y} .

One-wayness. Computing an inverse of the function $f_a : D_n \mapsto R_n$ is infeasible without the trapdoor t as long as $\text{ISIS}^\infty(m, q, xmD - D)$ is hard.

Collision resistance. Finding a collision $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \in D_n^2$ under f_a is infeasible unless $\text{SIS}^\infty(m, q, 2xmD - 2D)$ is easy.

Note that we slightly modified the original setting regarding the sets D_n, D_n^* . In [18], it is always the same, whereas we have introduced different D_n, D_n^* for trapdoor evaluation and preimage sampling, respectively. As in the original work, we will always assume that the above properties, especially the statistical distributions, hold for f_a in a perfect sense. Using a proposition from [18], we can establish the following corollary for our choice of parameters:

Corollary 1. *Let n, m, q, D, x as above. If there is a polynomial time (in n) algorithm that breaks SIS with ν (or ISIS with ν) with non-negligible probability then there is another polynomial time algorithm that solves SVP (a variant of SVP) with approximation factors $\gamma \geq \nu \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(\sqrt{n})$ in all lattices of dimension n .*

In addition to the above trapdoor function, we need a full-domain hash function (cf. [9]) $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(1^n)$, where $\mathbf{H} : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow R_n$ and \mathcal{H} is a family of collision resistant hash functions. We assume that there is no polynomial time algorithm that finds collisions but with negligible probability $\delta_{\mathbf{H}}$.

Our blind signature scheme $\text{BS} = (\text{Kg}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ is defined as follows.

Key generation. $\text{BS.Kg}(1^n)$ outputs $(a, t) \leftarrow \text{TrapGen}(1^n)$, where a is the public verification key and t is the secret signing key, and sets up a list of already signed messages $L_M = \{\mathbf{0}\} \subseteq R_n$.

all signatures (r, \mathbf{s}) , we have $\mathbf{s} = \sigma - \beta$ and $f_a(\mathbf{s}) = f_a(\sigma - \beta) = f_a(\sigma) - f_a(\beta) = f_a(f_t^{-1}(\mathbf{H}(\text{com}(M; r)) + f_a(\beta))) - f_a(\beta) = \mathbf{H}(\text{com}(M; r))$. Assuming $\sigma \in D_n$, we also have $\text{BS.Vf}(a, \mathbf{s}, M) = 1$. This happens with constant probability as shown in the following probabilistic lemma with $k = n, A = D, B = xmD$.

Lemma 2. *Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{Z}^k$ with*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} &\in \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}^k : \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \leq A\} \\ \mathbf{b} &\stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}^k : \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty \leq B\} \end{aligned}$$

and $B \geq xkA$ for $x \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$. Then

$$\text{Prob}_{\mathbf{b}}[\|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\|_\infty \leq B - A] > \frac{1}{e^{1/x}} - o(1).$$

Setting $x \geq 2$, we expect the protocol to be complete in a single run. If the protocol fails, the user simply reveals the current interaction $(\text{com}(M; r), \beta, \sigma)$ to the signer in order to prove that the execution failed. If the commitment scheme is perfectly hiding, the user does not reveal any information about M . Then, the protocol is repeated with fresh values for r and β . Observe that this does not affect the upcoming security analysis because the individual protocol runs are independent. In particular, the hiding property of com can be directly used in the blindness proof and the binding property is used in the proof of unforgeability.

Blindness. We prove that BS is unconditionally blind, i.e. $(\infty, 0)$ -blind, if com is unconditionally hiding. If it is only statistically or computationally hiding, the blind signature scheme is also statistically resp. computationally hiding. The intuition is that the signer only sees random elements from R_n after the user has applied a random blinding value. The output signature is again randomized by a sufficiently large value β , which hides the internal ordinary signature.

Theorem 1 (Blindness). *The blind signature scheme BS is $(\infty, 0)$ -blind.*

One-more unforgeability. We prove that our blind signature scheme is unforgeable under a special assumption, namely that the following “one-more trapdoor inversion problem” is hard.

Definition 1 (Chosen target trapdoor inversion problem (CTTI)). *The chosen target trapdoor inversion problem is defined via the following experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ctti}}$, where the adversary \mathcal{A} has access to a challenge oracle \mathbf{O}_{R_n} and to an inversion oracle f_t^{-1} . The adversary wins, if it outputs j preimages for challenges obtained from \mathbf{O}_{R_n} , while making only $i < j$ queries to f_t^{-1} . The oracle f_t^{-1} does not answer queries twice and it does not invert $\mathbf{0} \in R_n$ and it returns preimages in D_n^* .*

Experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ctti}}(n)$
 $(a, t) \leftarrow \text{TrapGen}(1^n)$

$(\pi, \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_j) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{R_n}, f_t^{-1}(\cdot)}(n, a)$

Note: f_t^{-1} does not answer to $\mathbf{0}$ or already queried values.

Let $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_\ell$ be the challenges returned by \mathcal{O}_{R_n} .

Let ι be the number of queries to f_t^{-1} .

Return 1 iff

1. The \mathbf{x}_i are pairwise distinct and
2. $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|_\infty \leq xmD + D$ and $f_a(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{y}_{\pi(i)}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, j$ and
3. $\iota < j$.

The problem is (t, q_1, q_0, δ) -hard if there is no algorithm \mathcal{A} , running in time at most t , making at most q_1 inversion queries, and at most q_0 queries to \mathcal{O}_{R_n} , which wins the above experiment with probability at least δ . The one-wayness of f_a gives us $(\text{poly}(n), 0, 1, \delta)$ -hardness, which we will extend to $(\text{poly}(n), \text{poly}(n), \text{poly}(n), \delta')$ -hardness for a negligible δ' . With our definition and this assumption, we follow the line of thought of Bellare, Namprempre, Pointcheval, and Semanko in [7]. They define a collection of “one-more” problems in the RSA context, which are perfectly tailored for proving one-more unforgeability. In [5], Bresson, Monnerat, and Vergnaud give a separation result on these “one-more” problems, showing that they cannot be proven equivalent to “simple” RSA inversion. The same seems to apply here. There is also a recent work on so-called *adaptive one-way functions* by Pandey, Pass, and Vaikuntanathan [32], which discusses similar assumptions.

In the following, we will assume $(\text{poly}(n), \text{poly}(n), \text{poly}(n), \delta)$ -hardness of CTTI on the grounds that it is directly related to the provably hard problem of forging GPV signatures. In both cases, one has to find a solution $\mathbf{x} \in D_n$ to the equation $f_a(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ for a given \mathbf{y} , while knowing polynomially many distinct preimage-image pairs.

Theorem 2 (One-more unforgeability). *Let T_{Sig} and T_{H} be the cost functions for simulating the oracles Sig and H , respectively. The BS blind signature scheme is $(t, q_{\text{Sig}}, q_{\text{H}}, \delta)$ -one-more unforgeable if the CTTI is $(t, q_{\text{Sig}}, q_{\text{H}}, \delta - \delta_{\text{H}} - \delta_{\text{com}})$ -hard.*

4 Blind signatures from ideal lattices

In this section, we construct a second lattice-based blind signature scheme. Here, the construction is not built upon a trapdoor, which allows us to fully simulate the scheme in our security proofs and give very strong arguments for one-more unforgeability. The underlying signature scheme is due to Lyubashevsky [28]. Both, Lyubashevsky’s signature scheme and our blind signature scheme are secure in the random oracle model under a worst-case assumption in ideal lattices and their time *and* space complexity is only $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(n)$.

The roadmap for this section is as follows: We describe the 4-round blind signature scheme $\text{BS} = (\text{Kg}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$. Then, we prove unconditional blindness and one-more unforgeability based on the assumptions that solving ISVP in dimension n is hard in the worst case.

For the setup, we need the global parameters in Table 1, where $\mathbf{R} = \mathbb{Z}_p[X]/\langle X^n + 1 \rangle$. The scheme relies on the lattice-based collision resistant hash function

Parameter Value	
m	$\log(n)$
p (prime)	$\geq 4n^2m \log^2(n)(x^3n^3m^2 - x^2n^2m^2 - 2x^2n^2m + 2xnm + xn) = \Theta(n^5 \log^5(n))$
D_s, D_ϵ	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq 1\}$
D_α	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq xn\}$ for a constant $x \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$
D_{ϵ^*}	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq xn - 1\}$
D_y	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^2n^2m - xnm)\}$
D_β	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^3n^3m^2 - x^2n^2m^2 - x^2n^2m + xnm)\}$
G_*	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^2n^2m - xnm - xn + 1)\}$
G	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^3n^3m^2 - x^2n^2m^2 - 2x^2n^2m + 2xnm + xn - 1)\}$
D	$\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \ \mathbf{f}\ _\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^3n^3m^2 - x^2n^2m^2 - xn + 1)\}$

Table 1. Parameters for the security parameter n .

family $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{R}, D, m)$ by Lyubashevsky and Micciancio [26]. We fix a random $h \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{R}, D, m)$, mapping $D^m \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, $D \subset \mathbf{R}$. Note that the function is linear over \mathbf{R}^m , i.e., $h(\mathbf{a}(\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \hat{\mathbf{y}})) = \mathbf{a}(h(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) + h(\hat{\mathbf{y}}))$ for all $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{R}$, $\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbf{R}^m$. In addition, finding a collision $(x, x') \in D^2$ under h , i.e. solving $\text{Col}(h, D)$ or alternatively ideal SIS $^\infty$ with $\nu = |D|^{1/n} - 1$, implies being able to solve ISVP $^\infty$ in every lattice that corresponds to an ideal in \mathbf{R} . More formally, from [28], we know:

Theorem 3 (Theorem 3.1 in [28]). *Let $D = \{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{R} : \|\mathbf{f}\|_\infty \leq d\}$, $m > \log(p)/\log(2d)$, and $p \geq 4dmn\sqrt{n} \log(n)$. An adversary \mathcal{C} that solves the $\text{Col}(h, D)$ problem, i.e., finds two preimages $\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\mathbf{y}} \in D^m$ such that $h(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = h(\hat{\mathbf{y}})$, can be used to solve ISVP $^\infty$ with an approximation factor of $\gamma \geq 16dmn \log^2(n)$ in every lattice that corresponds to an ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[X]/\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle$.*

Furthermore, we need a random oracle $\mathbf{H} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{H}(1^n)$ mapping $\{0, 1\}^* \mapsto D_\epsilon$. Again, there is no polynomial time algorithm that finds collisions but with negligible probability $\delta_{\mathbf{H}}$.

Key generation. BS.Kg(1^n) selects a secret key $\hat{\mathbf{s}} \xleftarrow{\$} D_s^m$ and computes the public key $\mathbf{S} \leftarrow h(\hat{\mathbf{s}})$. The output is $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}, \mathbf{S})$.

Signature protocol. The signature issue protocol for messages $M \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is depicted in Figure 2. Note that values controlled by the user are written as Greek letter and those controlled by the signer are in Latin. In the first step, the user employs a commitment scheme $\text{com} : \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ that we assume to be unconditionally hiding and computationally binding (but with probability δ_{com}).

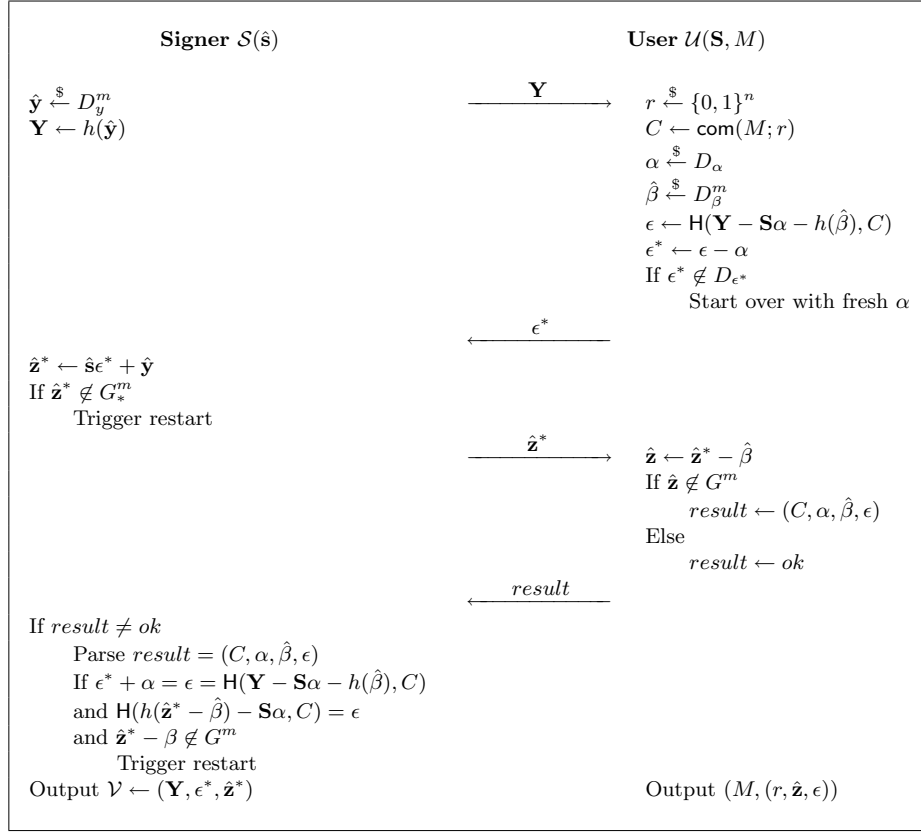


Fig. 2. Issue protocol of the blind signature scheme BS.

Whenever the signer triggers a restart, the user chooses a fresh r in order to make the protocol execution independent of the previous one. Therefore, we omit values from previous runs in the signer's view. The signer can also detect a cheating user that tries to trigger a restart although it has received a valid signature. In this case, the signer can stop the protocol and assume that the user has obtained a valid signature.

Eventually, the user outputs (r, \hat{z}, ϵ) .

Verification. $\text{BS.Vf}(a, (r, \hat{z}, \epsilon), M)$ outputs 1 iff $\hat{z} \in G^m$ and $\mathbf{H}(h(\hat{z}) - \mathbf{S}\epsilon, \text{com}(M; r)) = \epsilon$.

Completeness. Assuming that the protocol does not abort, then for all honestly generated key pairs (\hat{s}, \mathbf{S}) , all messages $M \in \{0, 1\}^*$, and all signatures (r, \hat{z}, ϵ) we have $\hat{z} \in G^m$ and $h(\hat{z}) - \mathbf{S}\epsilon = h(\hat{z}^* - \hat{\beta}) - \mathbf{S}\epsilon = h(\hat{s}(\epsilon - \alpha) + \hat{y} - \hat{\beta}) - \mathbf{S}\epsilon = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{S}\alpha - h(\hat{\beta})$ and $\text{com}(M; r) = C$. Therefore $\mathbf{H}(h(\hat{z}) - \mathbf{S}\epsilon, \text{com}(M; r)) = \epsilon$ and $\text{BS.Vf}(\hat{s}, (r, \hat{z}, \epsilon), M) = 1$.

Potentially, the protocol has to be restarted a couple of times at three stages. First, the user may have to “start over with a fresh α ”, which is not noticed by the signer. Applying Lemma 2 on $\epsilon - \alpha \in D_{\epsilon^*}$ ($k = n, A = 1, B = xn$) yields a constant probability for this event.

Second, the signer may abort in case $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^* \notin G_*^m$ in order to hide its secret key. The probability for not aborting here is again constant by Lemma 2 ($k = mn, A = \sqrt{n} \log(n)(xn - 1), B = \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^2 n^2 m - xnm)$) because $\|\hat{\mathbf{s}}^*\|_\infty \leq \sqrt{n} \log(n)(xn - 1)$ but with negligible probability for randomly chosen ϵ^* by [28, Lemma 2.11].

Third, the user might abort if $\hat{\mathbf{z}} \notin G^m$. Again, Lemma 2 with $k = mn, A = \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^2 n^2 m - xnm - xn + 1)$, and $B = \sqrt{n} \log(n)(x^3 n^3 m^2 - x^2 n^2 m^2 - x^2 n^2 m + xnm)$ provides that it will not abort with constant probability.

Thus, we only need a logarithmic (in n) number of trials to pass each of these aborts. In practice, 2 trials are sufficient for each of them and by choosing $x \geq 3$ we expect the protocol to be complete in a single run.

Observe that all operations in BS have $\tilde{O}(n)$ complexity and that private keys, public keys, and signatures have size $\tilde{O}(n)$.

Blindness. We prove that our scheme is $(\infty, 0)$ -blind based on the observation that the signer only sees values that are statistically independent of the message being signed. More precisely, the views generated by two different messages are indistinguishable.

Theorem 4 (Blindness). *The blind signature scheme BS is $(\infty, 0)$ -blind.*

One-more unforgeability. BS is one-more unforgeable if there is at least one ideal lattice, corresponding to an ideal in \mathbf{R} , within which the ISVP $^\infty$ is hard. We will use the forking lemma [34,6] to obtain a solution to the collision problem $Col(h, D)$, which can be used to find short lattice vectors in the worst case via Theorem 3. $Col(h, D)$ is (t, δ) -hard if no t -time adversary can solve it with probability at least δ . For our proof, it is crucial that the blind signature scheme is witness-indistinguishable with respect to the private key $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$, i.e., there are at least two distinct $\hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}' \in D_s$ with $h(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) = h(\hat{\mathbf{s}}')$ such that no efficient algorithm can distinguish whether $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ or $\hat{\mathbf{s}}'$ was used by the signer with probability more than $1/2 + 2^{-\omega(\log(n))}$. We then use the forking lemma and “hope” that the adversary in the one-more unforgeability experiment outputs a signature that corresponds to a private key $\hat{\mathbf{s}}'$, while we use $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ in the simulation. Our scheme is witness-indistinguishable because it yields valid signatures for the witness-indistinguishable signature scheme in [28].

Theorem 5 (One-more unforgeability). *Let T_{Sig} and T_{H} be the cost functions for simulating the oracles Sig and H, respectively, and let $c < 1$ be the constant probability with which one protocol run has to be aborted. BS is $(t, q_{\text{Sig}}, q_{\text{H}}, \delta)$ -one-more unforgeable if $Col(h, D)$ is (t', δ') -hard with $t' = t + q_{\text{Sig}} T_{\text{Sig}} + q_{\text{H}} T_{\text{H}}$ and non-negligible δ' if and only if δ is non-negligible.*

By Theorem 3, we get the following, strong security guarantees.

Corollary 2. *BS is one-more unforgeable if solving ISVP $^\infty$ is hard in the worst case for approximation factors $\gamma \geq 16mn\sqrt{n}\log^2(n)(x^3n^3m^2 - x^2n^2m^2 - 2x^2n^2m + 2xnm + xn) = \tilde{O}(n^4\sqrt{n})$ in lattices that correspond to ideals in \mathbf{R} .*

Comparing Corollary 2 with Corollary 1 may lead to the conclusion that the scheme in Section 3 has stronger security guarantees. This, however, is not the case because it is not provably as hard to break as finding collisions under the employed trapdoor function. Corollary 1 is a mere indication of hardness while Corollary 2 is an actual reduction from worst-case lattice problems.

5 Conclusions

We have shown how to construct efficient and provably secure blind signature schemes based on worst-case lattice problems. Our first construction is comparable to RSA blind signatures, which also rely on an interactive assumption. However, our second construction is provably secure without such assumptions and directly relies on the hardness of standard lattice problems, which are conjectured to be intractable even by quantum computers and subexponential attacks. All in all, our second scheme is the preferred scheme for practical purposes as it is more efficient and has stronger security guarantees.

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