# PAKEs: New Framework, New Techniques and More Efficient Lattice-Based Constructions in the Standard Model 

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#### Abstract

Password-based authenticated key exchange (PAKE) allows two parties with a shared password to agree on a session key. In the last decade, the design of PAKE protocols from lattice assumptions has attracted lots of attention. However, existing solutions in the standard model do not have appealing efficiency. In this work, we first introduce a new PAKE framework. We then provide two realizations in the standard model, under the Learning With Errors (LWE) and Ring-LWE assumptions, respectively. Our protocols are much more efficient than previous proposals, thanks to three novel technical ingredients that may be of independent interests. The first ingredient consists of two approximate smooth projective hash (ASPH) functions from LWE, as well as two ASPHs from Ring-LWE. The latter are the first ring-based constructions in the literature, one of which only has a quasi-linear runtime while its function value contains $\Theta(n)$ field elements (where $n$ is the degree of the polynomial defining the ring). The second ingredient is a new key conciliation scheme that is approximately rate-optimal and that leads to a very efficient key derivation for PAKE protocols. The third one is a new authentication code that allows to verify a MAC with a noisy key.


## 1 Introduction

Key exchange is a fundamental and widely used cryptographic mechanism allowing two parties to securely share a session key over a public unreliable channel. In its original form, suggested in the seminal work of Diffie and Hellman,
key exchange does not provide authentication and security against an active adversary who has full control of the communication channel. Authenticated key exchange additionally allows each user to authenticate identities of others using either Public-key Infrastructure (PKI) such as TLS/SSL and IKE, or some preshared information. The pre-shared information can be either a high-entropy cryptographic key or a low-entropy password. In practice, the latter is more convenient for human users who have limited memory. The study of password authenticated key exchange (PAKE) was initiated by Bellovin and Merritt [4]. A secure PAKE protocol must resist offline dictionary attacks, in which the adversary attempts to determine the password using information from previous executions.

Related Work. Since the pioneering work of Bellovin and Merritt [4] in 1992, PAKE has been extensively studied. The first provably secure PAKE protocol was suggested in [3], but its security analysis resorts to the random oracle model (ROM). Goldreich and Lindell [13] then introduced the first construction without ROM, based on general assumptions. A reasonably efficient protocol was put forward by Katz, Ostrovsky and Yung [17], which was later abstracted by Gennaro and Lindell [11] into a framework based on smooth projective hash (SPH) functions. However, these protocols did not support mutual authentication (MA). That is, the participant cannot make sure that the party he is interacting with, is the right person. Of course, one can make it up with additional flows, but this will increase the round complexity. Jiang and Gong (JG) [16] then proposed a more efficient protocol with MA without increasing round complexity.

In this work, we are interested in PAKE protocols from lattices. The first protocol was introduced in 2009 by Katz and Vaikuntanathan (KV) [18], whose main ideas are as follows. Alice and Bob first send a CCA-secure ciphertext to each other. Then, they try to compute approximate smooth projective hashing (ASPH) values on the ciphertexts and conduct a key reconciliation to derive a session key. Their key reconciliation mechanism consists of two steps: the first step aims to extract a bit from the ASPH value which is slightly noisy, while the second step is dedicated to correct the error using error-correcting code (ECC). This mechanism is relatively inefficient as it can extract at most one bit per field element. Furthermore, the underlying CCA-secure ciphertext (hence the ASPH) is quite costly, as it includes $\omega(\log n)$ CPA-secure ciphertexts ${ }^{1}$.

Groce and Katz (GK) [15] abstracted the JG protocol [16] into a framework for PAKE, yielding a more efficient lattice-based protocol than KV. The idea of the GK framework is as follows. Alice sends a CPA-secure encryption $C$ of password $\pi$ to Bob. Bob then computes an SPH value $h$ on $(\pi, C)$. Then, they conduct authentication via a CCA-secure encryption with randomness determined by $h$. This framework can be adapted into the ASPH setting using KV's ASPH with their two-step key reconciliation. A realization was given by Benhamouda et al. [5]. Canetti et al. [6] demonstrated another framework for obtaining PAKE (without ASPH), via oblivious transfer (OT). They use OT to transfer

[^0]$L^{\prime}$ bits for each password bit and finally achieve the authentication via the CCAsecure encryption approach $[15,16]$.

Zhang and Yu [28] proposed a PAKE framework from a new ASPH built on a "splittable CCA-secure encryption". However, their realization is in the ROM. Another ROM-based PAKE protocol from lattices is due to Ding et al. [8]. In this work, we only study PAKE protocols without the ROM.

Thus, all existing PAKE frameworks have certain efficiency issues, and do not admit efficient lattice-based realizations in the standard model. Moreover, a CCA-secure encryption seems to be an essential ingredient in them. This raises two interesting questions: (1) From a theoretical point of view, is it possible to achieve a secure PAKE without relying on any CCA-secure encryption or its variant? (2) From a more practical point of view, how to design lattice-based PAKEs in the standard model with better efficiency than previous ones? Tackling these questions would likely require new technical insights.

Our Contributions and Techniques. In this work, we answer the above two questions in the affirmative. Our contributions are threefold. First, we put forward a new framework for obtaining secure PAKE protocols that does not require any CCA-secure encryption or its variant. Second, we introduce several new technical building blocks, that enable efficient standard-model instantiations of our framework in general, and from lattices - in particular. Third, we explicitly give two realizations of our framework, based on the plain Learning With Errors (LWE) and the Ring-LWE assumptions, which enjoy security guarantees from worst-case problems in general lattices [26] and ideal lattices [19], respectively. Our PAKEs compare very favourably with previous lattice-based protocols in the standard model. We also provide implementation results of the Ring-LWE-based scheme to demonstrate its practical feasibility. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first implementation of any lattice-based PAKE in the standard model, and the performance is quite encouraging.

New PAKE Framework. Let us first discuss the high-level ideas of our new PAKE framework. It relies on an ASPH, a key reconciliation scheme and a new notion of key-fuzzy message authentication code (KF-MAC). KF-MAC allows the verification key to be slightly different from the original authentication key. We define a generic ASPH on top of a commitment scheme. Given secret $k$, input $\pi$ and a value $y$ in the commitment space (not necessarily a commitment to $\pi$ ), an ASPH function $\mathcal{H}$ computes the hash value $\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y)$. If $y$ is indeed a commitment to $\pi$ with witness $\tau$, then $\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y)$ can also be approximated by an alternative function $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ as $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(k))$, where $\alpha(k)$ is called the projection key of $k$. The important property for ASPH is smoothness: if $y$ is a commitment to $\pi^{\prime}(\neq \pi)$, then $(\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y), \alpha(k))$ are jointly random. We describe our PAKE framework using this generic ASPH. However, to prove the framework security, additional properties on ASPH (which will be clarified later) are required. Our PAKE framework is an integration of three basic processes below.

- Basic key exchange. Alice and Bob use $\operatorname{ASPH}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ to obtain close secrets.

1. Bob (initiator) first generates a commitment $y$ (with witness $\tau_{1}$ ) to password $\pi$. He then sends $y$ to Alice.
2. Upon receiving $y$, Alice samples a secret $k$, computes and sends a projection key $\alpha_{1}(k)$ to Bob. She also computes a hash value $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$.
3. Upon receiving $\alpha_{1}(k)$, Bob computes $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, \alpha_{1}(k)\right)$. Note that the distance between $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$ and $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, \alpha_{1}(k)\right)$ is typically small.

- Key reconciliation. This process enables Alice (with $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$ ) and Bob (with $\left.\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, \alpha_{1}(k)\right)\right)$ to agree on a secret $\xi$, via a one-message key reconciliation scheme $£$. If no attack exists, then $\xi$ derived by Alice and Bob will be the same. To assure this, they need to authenticate each other.
- Authentication. This process uses another ASPH $\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ and a projection key $V=\alpha_{2}(O)$ (with a hidden key $O$ ) as public parameters. Here Alice and Bob will authenticate each other and derive a session key.

1. Alice deterministically computes commitment $w$ (with witness $\tau_{2}$ ) on password $\pi$, using randomness determined by $\xi$. Next, she computes KFMAC $\eta_{0}$ on traffic using key $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$. Finally, she sends $\left(w, \eta_{0}\right)$ to Bob.
2. Bob uses $\xi$ to repeat Alice's procedure to verify $\left(w, \eta_{0}\right)$ and compute $\tau_{2}$. Then, he uses $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$ to authenticate himself.

We stress that although three procedures are described separately, they can be integrated into a 3-round protocol. The pictorial outline is given in Fig. 1 and a more detailed version is in Fig. 2. For security, we require the commitment for ASPH $\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ to have a trapdoor property: with a trapdoor (but without witness $\tau_{1}$ ), one verifies if $y$ is a commitment of $\pi$. We call this ASPH type$B A S P H$. We require ASPH $\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ to have strong smoothness: if $w$ is a random (i.e., honestly generated) commitment to $\pi$, then $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$ is random (given $w, V, \pi$ ). We call this ASPH type- $A$ ASPH.

At a high level, our main strategy for proving framework security is the sequence of games: modify the protocol gradually so that the messages in the final game contain no password. Firstly, we can modify the protocol so that $\pi$ in $y$ is a dummy password. This is unnoticeable to the attacker by the commitment hiding property. Then, under this revision, $y$ normally does not contain the correct $\pi$. If this is the case (which can be checked by the trapdoor property of type-B ASPH), then, by smoothness of $\mathcal{H}_{1}, \mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$ is random. This random distribution will propagate to $\xi$. Thus, on the one hand, $w$ is a random commitment to $\pi$, and so, by the commitment hiding property, we can revise $\pi$ in $w$ to be a dummy password. On the other hand, by strong smoothness of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}$, KF-MAC key $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \alpha_{2}(O)\right)$ looks random to attacker, and hence, the traffic can not be tampered by KF-MAC property. In fact, an attacker can not impersonate Alice successfully either. Indeed, if he modifies Alice's message only a little, then the KF-MAC will not change and the traffic will not consistent with the KF-MAC tag. If the attacker modifies Alice's message too much (or even creates a new one), (simulated) Bob will use $\mathcal{H}_{2}(O, \pi, w)$ to verify the KF-MAC. By smoothness of $\mathcal{H}_{2}$, he will not succeed unless $w$ contains the password $\pi$.

After modifications, protocol messages have no password. Attacker can succeed beyond trivial attacks only by constructing $y$ or $w$ that contains the correct $\pi$. So he can not succeed better than simply guessing the password.

New Technical Building Blocks. Together with the new framework, we also introduce three new technical ingredients that may be of independent interest.
(1) We construct a new reconciliation scheme for close secrets in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu}$ (in Sect. 3.2). Our scheme can extract $\Theta(\log q)$ per element in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and is proven asymptotically rate-optimal. It is much more efficient than all the previous two-step schemes [5, 18, 24], where at most one bit per element in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ can be extracted.
(2) We give an authentication code with a noisy verification key in Sect. 3.3.
(3) We provide efficient constructions of ASPHs from both plain LWE and Ring-LWE. In each setting, we construct a type-A ASPH and a type-B ASPH. The LWE-based schemes are as follows.
a. Type- $A$ ASPH. For public parameters $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times(n+L)}$ and $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$ and an $m$-length error-correcting code $\mathcal{C}$ with $k$ information symbols, the commitment to $\pi$ has the form $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{B t}+\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)+\mathbf{x}$, where $\odot$ is the coordinate-wise multiplication, $\mathbf{t}$ is uniformly random over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ is a discrete Gaussian over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$. The commitment witness is $(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x})$. For secret key $\mathbf{O}$ - which is a discrete Gaussian over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times L}$, the projection key is $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}$. Then, the projective hashing is computed as $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{O}, \pi, \mathbf{w})=\mathbf{O}^{T}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))$, while the alternative hashing is defined as $\hat{\mathcal{H}}\left((\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}\right)=\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}$. If $\mathbf{w}$ is a commitment honestly generated as above, then the two hashing values differ by $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{x}$ (which is short as $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{O}$ are short). For the smoothness, if $w$ is a commitment on $\pi^{\prime} \neq \pi$, then given $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}$, value $\mathbf{O}^{T}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))$ is statistically close to uniform over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$ (see Theorem 2). For strong smoothness, it requires that given $\mathbf{B t}+\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}$, value $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B t}$ looks random. We prove this using hidden-bits lemma in [9].
b. Type-B ASPH. Type B ASPH is similar to Type A ASPH, except it needs to provide a trapdoor property for the commitment. This property is achieved via the trapdoor simulation techniques in $[1,18]$.

The ASPHs in the ring-LWE setting essentially follow the same strategy as the LWE-based ones. However, the supporting techniques (i.e., hidden-bits lemma, trapdoor simulation and adaptive smoothness theorem) have to be rebuilt. This turns out to be highly non-trivial. Essentially, this is due to the sparseness of matrix representations for ring operations. Consequently, the random arguments for the LWE case are no longer useful. However, this rebuilding work is worth as ring-LWE ASPHs are much more efficient than LWE-based ones. A detailed informal description is presented in Sect. 5.

Efficient Lattice-Based Instantiations of PAKE in the Standard Model. When putting all building blocks together, we obtain PAKE protocols from plain LWE and Ring-LWE that are much more efficient than previous lattice-based constructions in the standard model. Table 1 provides a summary of the comparison. For simplicity, the table only counts the dominating costs.

We provide the implementation in Sect. 5.5 for our Ring-LWE-based PAKE protocol. In this proof-of-concept implementation, the Number Theory Library (NTL) [27] is employed without further optimization. To agree on a 16-byte

Table 1. Comparison among lattice-based PAKEs in the standard model. Here, $m=$ $\Omega(n \log n) ; k$ is the password length; $L^{\prime}$ is the key reconciliation output length (since the output is mostly used as a key for a symmetric-key primitive, $L^{\prime} \ll n$ ); the cost for client/server is $\sharp$ of multiplications in $\mathbb{Z}_{q} ;$ Comm is the message length in $\mathbb{Z}_{q} ; \lambda>3$.

| Scheme | Client (Mult) | Server(Mult) | Comm | assum | MA | $q$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[5] \mathrm{A}$ | $O\left(k L^{\prime} n m\right)$ | $O\left(k L^{\prime} n m\right)$ | $k L^{\prime} n$ | DLWE | no | $\Omega\left(n^{3}\right)$ |
| $[5] \mathrm{B}$ | $k n m$ | $O\left(k L^{\prime} n m\right)$ | $k n^{2}$ | DLWE | no | $\Omega\left(n^{3}\right)$ |
| $[6]$ | $O(n m k)$ | $O(n m k)$ | $k m n$ | DLWE | yes | $\omega\left(n^{2}\right)$ |
| $[15]$ | $2 n m$ | $O\left(L^{\prime} n m\right)$ | $L^{\prime} n$ | DLWE | yes | poly $n(n)$ |
| $[18]$ | $\omega\left(L^{\prime} n m \log n\right)$ | $\omega\left(L^{\prime} n m \log n\right)$ | $2 L^{\prime} n$ | DLWE | no | poly(n) |
| Ours | $n m$ | $O\left(L^{\prime} n m / \log q\right)$ | $O\left(\frac{L^{\prime} n}{\log n}+n \log n\right)$ | DLWE | yes | $\Omega\left(n^{\lambda}\right)$ |
| Ours | $O\left(\frac{L^{\prime} n}{\log n}+n \log ^{2} n\right)$ | $O\left(L^{\prime} n \log n\right)$ | $O\left(\frac{L^{\prime} n}{\log n}+n \log n\right)$ | R-DLWE | yes | $\Omega\left(n^{\lambda}\right)$ |

session key, the bandwidth from $P_{i}$ to $P_{j}$ is about 40 KB and 167 KB from $P_{j}$ to $P_{i}$. Generating public parameters requires about 1.31 s , while $P_{i}$ 's and $P_{j}$ 's computations cost about 0.2 s and 0.71 s , respectively. Although the efficiency is (expectedly) not competitive with the ROM protocol from [8], our implementation demonstrates that the technical ingredients introduced in this work do advance the state of the art of lattice-based PAKEs in the standard model and do bring them much closer to practice. But it still needs further improvement toward practical application. This will be our future direction.
Organization. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, we provide necessary background on PAKEs and lattices. The technical ideas, technical building blocks and description of our new PAKE framework are presented in Sect.3. Our LWE-based and Ring-LWE-based instantiations are provided in Sects. 4 and 5, respectively.

Notations. The transposition of matrix $\Gamma$ is denoted by $\Gamma^{T} ;[k]$ denotes set $\{0, \cdots, k-1\}$. Vectors are column vectors (unless stated otherwise); $v_{i}$ or $\mathbf{v}[i]$ denotes the $i$ th component of $\mathbf{v} ;[\mathbf{v}]_{1}^{L}$ denotes the sub-vector $\left(v_{1}, \cdots, v_{L}\right)^{T}$ of v. Sampling $x$ from set $S$ uniformly at random is denoted by $x \leftarrow S ; A \mid B$ is a concatenation of $A$ with $B$. negl : $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ represents a negligible function: $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n e g l }}(n) p(n)=0$ for any polynomial $p(n)$. The statistical distance between $X_{1}, X_{2}$ is $\Delta\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right):=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x}\left|P_{X_{1}}(x)-P_{X_{2}}(x)\right|$, where $P_{X}()$ is the probability mass function of $X$. We say that $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are statistically close if $\Delta\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$ is negligible. $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ is the Euclidean norm of $\mathbf{x} ;\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}=\max _{i}\left|x_{i}\right|$ is the $\ell_{\infty}$-norm and $\operatorname{dist}_{\infty}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the distance measure under $\ell_{\infty}$-norm. $x \bmod q$ denotes the residue of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ in $[0, \cdots, q)$ and $(x)_{q}$ denotes the residue of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ in $[-q / 2, q / 2)$. The $\odot$ product is defined as $\left(a_{1}, \cdots, a_{n}\right) \odot\left(b_{1}, \cdots, b_{n}\right)=$ $\left(a_{1} b_{1}, \cdots, a_{n} b_{n}\right)$. For $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, $\operatorname{DiAG}(\mathbf{v})$ is the diagonal matrix with $v_{i}$ as the $(i, i)$ th entry. For $m_{1} \times n_{1}$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ and $m_{2} \times n_{2}$ matrix $\mathbf{B}$, the tensor product $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$ is the $m_{1} m_{2} \times n_{1} n_{2}$ matrix $\left(C_{i j}\right)$ in the block format, where block $C_{i j}=a_{i j} \mathbf{B}$ for any $i \in\left[m_{1}\right], j \in\left[n_{1}\right]$. The (column) concatenation of vectors $\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{t}$ is a long vector, denoted by $\left(\mathbf{v}_{1} ; \mathbf{v}_{2} ; \cdots ; \mathbf{v}_{t}\right)$.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Security Model of PAKE

In this section, we recall a formal model for a password-authenticated key exchange protocol $\Sigma$. This model is mainly adopted from Bellare et al. [3] with a minor revision in [15]. There are $n$ parties $P_{1}, \cdots, P_{n}$ in the system and any two parties share a password. We will use the following notations.

- $\mathcal{D}$ : This is the password dictionary. For simplicity, we assume that passwords are chosen uniformly from $\mathcal{D}$.
- $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ : This is the $\ell_{i}$-th instance of protocol $\Sigma$ executed by party $P_{i}$. The number $\ell_{i}$ is used by $P_{i}$ to distinguish these instances.
- Flow $d$ : This is the $d$-th message flow in the execution of protocol $\Sigma$.
$-\operatorname{sid}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ : This is the session identifier of $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$. It is only for the purpose of security analysis. Intuitively, two instances jointly executing $\Sigma$ should share the same session identifier. The specification is available only if $\Sigma$ is known.
$-\mathbf{p i d}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ : This is the party, which $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ is interacting with.
$-s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ : This is the session key derived by $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ after successfully executing $\Sigma$.
Partnering. Instances $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and $\Pi_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$ are partnered if (1) $\mathbf{p i d}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}=P_{j}$ and $\mathbf{p i d}_{j}^{\ell_{j}}=$ $P_{i} ;(2) \operatorname{sid}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}=\operatorname{sid}_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$. The partnering is motivated to identify two instances that are jointly executing protocol $\Sigma$.

Adversarial Model. To define security, we have to specify an attacker's capabilities. Essentially, we wish to capture man-in-the-middle attacks. The protocol is secure if the adversary can not obtain anything about a session key beyond the trivial findings. Formally, the attacks are modelled through oracles that are maintained by a challenger as follows.

- $\operatorname{Execute}\left(i, \ell_{i}, j, \ell_{j}\right)$ : When this oracle is called, it first checks whether $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and $\Pi_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$ are fresh. If not, it does nothing; otherwise, a protocol execution between $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and $\Pi_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$ takes place. Finally, the transcript is returned. This is an eavesdropping attack.
- $\operatorname{Send}\left(d, i, \ell_{i}, M\right)$ : When this oracle is called, $M$ is sent to $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ as $F l o w_{d}$. If $d=0$ or 1 , then a new instance $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ is created. If $d=0$, then $M=$ "ke, $\mathrm{pid}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ " is a key exchange request message (from an upper layer program inside $P_{i}$ ). In any case, $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ acts according to the specification of $\Sigma$.
- Reveal $\left(i, \ell_{i}\right)$ : This oracle call assumes that $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ has successfully completed with a session key $s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ derived. Under this, $s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ is returned.
- Test $\left(i, \ell_{i}\right)$ : This oracle is to test the secrecy of $s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$. The adversary is only allowed to query it once. Toward this, $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ must have successfully completed with $s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ derived. Furthermore, $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and its partnered instance (if any) should not have been issued a Reveal query. Then, it takes $b \leftarrow\{0,1\}$. If $b=1$, then $\alpha_{1}=s k_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ is provided to adversary; otherwise, a random number $\alpha_{0}$ from the space of the session key is provided. The adversary then tries to output a guess bit $b^{\prime}$ of $b$. He is announced for success if $b^{\prime}=b$.

Correctness. If two partnered instances both accept, they derive the same key.
Adversarial Success. Having specified the adversarial behaviour, we now define its success. This consists of authentication and secrecy.
$\diamond$ Mutual authentication. We first define the semi-partnering [15]: instances $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and $\Pi_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$ are semi-partnered if they are partnered, or, the following conditions hold: (1) $\operatorname{sid}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ and $\operatorname{sid}_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$ agree except possibly for the final message flow in $\Sigma$; (2) $\mathbf{p i d}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}=P_{j}$ and $\mathbf{p i d}_{j}^{\ell_{j}}=P_{i}$. This relaxed partnering is defined to rule out the possible trivial attack where an attacker forwards all the messages except the final one. An attacker breaks mutual authentication if some $\Pi_{i}^{\ell_{i}}$ with $\mathbf{p i d}{ }_{i}^{\ell_{i}}=P_{j}$ has successfully completed the execution of $\Sigma$ with a session key derived while there does not exist a semi-partnered instance $\Pi_{j}^{\ell_{j}}$.
$\diamond$ Secrecy. An adversary succeeds if $b^{\prime}=b$.
We use random variable Succ to denote either of the above two success events. Define the advantage of adversary $\mathcal{A}$ as $\operatorname{Adv}(\mathcal{A}):=2 \operatorname{Pr}[\mathbf{S u c c}]-1$.

Definition 1. A password authenticated key exchange protocol $\Sigma$ is secure if it is correct and for any PPT adversary $\mathcal{A}$ that makes Send queries at most $Q_{s}$ times, it holds that $\operatorname{Adv}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \frac{Q_{s}}{|\mathcal{D}|}+\operatorname{negl}(n)$.

### 2.2 Lattices and Hard Random Lattices

We now give a brief background on lattices. Let $\mathbf{B}=\left\{\mathbf{b}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{b}_{n}\right\} \subset \mathbb{C}^{m}$ consist of $n$ linearly independent vectors. An $m$-dimensional lattice with basis $\mathbf{B}$ is defined as $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B})=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \mathbf{b}_{i} \mid a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$. For lattice $\Lambda$, the Euclidean norm of its shortest non-zero vector is denoted by $\lambda_{1}(\Lambda)$. If we use the $\ell_{\infty^{-}}$ norm, it is denoted by $\lambda_{1}^{\infty}(\Lambda)$. The dual lattice of $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{m}$ is defined as $\Lambda^{\vee}=\left\{\mathbf{y}:\langle\mathbf{x}, \overline{\mathbf{y}}\rangle=\sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \Lambda\right\}$, where $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ is the complex conjugate of $\mathbf{y}$.

For $s>0$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$, Gaussian function with parameter $s$ is $\rho_{s}(\mathbf{x})=$ $\exp \left(-\frac{\pi\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}}{s^{2}}\right)$. The discrete Gaussian distribution over lattice $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{m}$ with parameter $s$ is defined as $D_{\Lambda, s}(\mathbf{x})=\frac{\rho_{s}(\mathbf{x})}{\rho_{s}(\Lambda)}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \Lambda$.

For $m \geq 2$, let $H=\left\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^{\phi(m)}: x_{i}=\bar{x}_{m-i}, \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}\right\}$, where $x_{i}$ in $\mathbf{x} \in H$ is indexed by $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$ and $\phi(m)$ is the Euler function. We are interested in lattice $\Lambda \subseteq H$. It is an inner product space over $\mathbb{R}$, isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{\phi(m)}$; see [20] for details. Hence, $D_{\Lambda, s}(\mathbf{x})$ with $\Lambda \subset H$ can be defined in exactly the same way as $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Micciancio and Regev [22] defined a quantity smoothing parameter.

Definition 2. For a lattice $\Lambda$ and $\epsilon>0$, the smoothing parameter $\eta_{\epsilon}(\Lambda)$ is the smallest $s$ so that $\rho_{1 / s}\left(\Lambda^{\vee} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}\right) \leq \epsilon$.

Usually, $\eta_{\epsilon}(\Lambda)$ is desired to be small. Then, the following result is useful.
Lemma 1. [25] For an m-dimensional lattice $\Lambda, \eta_{\epsilon}(\Lambda) \leq \frac{\sqrt{\log (2 m /(1+1 / \epsilon) / \pi}}{\lambda_{1}^{\infty}\left(\Lambda^{\vee}\right)}$.

The following bounds are taken from [22, Lemma 4.4] and [2, Lemma 2.4].
Lemma 2. For $s \geq \omega(\sqrt{\log m})$ and any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ and any $t>0$, if $\mathbf{e} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, s}$, then $P(\|\mathbf{e}\|>s \sqrt{m}) \leq O\left(2^{-m}\right)$ and $P\left(\left|\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{e}\right|>s t\|\mathbf{v}\|\right) \leq 2 e^{-\pi t^{2}}$.

Hard Random Lattices. For integers $q, m, n$ and $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$ of rank $n$, let $\Lambda^{\perp}(\mathbf{A})=\left\{\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m} \mid \mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{0} \bmod q\right\}$ and $\Lambda(\mathbf{A})=\left\{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m} \mid \mathbf{y}=\mathbf{A s}\right.$ $\left.\bmod q, \mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}\right\}$. It is easy to verify that $\Lambda^{\perp}(\mathbf{A})=q \cdot(\Lambda(\mathbf{A}))^{\vee}$ and $\Lambda(\mathbf{A})=$ $q \cdot\left(\Lambda^{\perp}(\mathbf{A})\right)^{\vee}$. Here is a useful lemma on $\Lambda^{\perp}(\mathbf{A})$.
Lemma 3. [12] If rows of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$ generate $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times n}$ and $r \geq \eta_{\epsilon}\left(\Lambda^{\perp}(\mathbf{A})\right)$, then for $\mathbf{e} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, r}, \Delta\left(\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{U}\right) \leq 2 \epsilon$, where $\mathbf{U}$ is uniformly random in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times n}$.

## 3 A New PAKE Framework

### 3.1 Intuition

We now introduce the ideas for our PAKE framework. We need three notions: key reconciliation, key-fuzzy message authentication code (KF-MAC), and approximate smooth projective hash (ASPH). Key reconciliation is a standard notion. It allows two parties with similar secrets to agree on an identical secret. The notion of KF-MAC is new. It works like a normal MAC for the MAC generation and verification. But it also allows a receiver with a slightly noisy key to (in)validate the MAC.

We define a generic ASPH on the top of a commitment scheme. Given secret $k$, input $\pi$ and a value $y$ in the commitment space (but not necessarily a commitment to $\pi$ ), an ASPH function $\mathcal{H}$ computes the hash value $\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y)$. If $y$ is indeed a commitment of $\pi$ with witness $\tau$, then $\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y)$ can also be approximated by an alternative function $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ as $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(k))$, where $\alpha(k)$ is called the projection key of $k$. The important property for generic ASPH is smoothness: if $y$ is a commitment of $\pi^{\prime}(\neq \pi)$, then $(\mathcal{H}(k, \pi, y), \alpha(k))$ are jointly random. Based on a generic ASPH, we define two types of strengthened ASPHs. Type-A ASPH is a generic ASPH with a strong smoothness: if $w$ is a random commitment of $\pi$ with witness $\tau_{2}$, then $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \alpha_{2}(O)\right)$ appears to be random (given $\left(w, \alpha_{2}(O)\right)$ ). Type-B ASPH is a generic ASPH with trapdoor property: with a trapdoor (but without a witness), one can check whether $y$ is a commitment of $\pi$.

Our PAKE framework proceeds as follows. Assume that $\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ is a type-B ASPH and $\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ is a type-A ASPH.
a. approximate key establishment. Initiator Bob generates commitment y (and its witness $\tau_{1}$ ) on password $\pi$. He then sends $y$ to Alice (responder). Alice then samples a secret key $k$, computes and sends the projection key $\alpha_{1}(k)$ to Bob. At this moment, Bob and Alice can compute two close secrets: Bob computes $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, \alpha(k)\right)$ and Alice computes $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$.
b. key reconciliation. Alice (with $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$ ) and Bob (with $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, \alpha(k)\right)$ ) executes a one-message key reconciliation scheme $£$ to agree on a common secret $\xi$. This one-message $\sigma$ is sent by Alice.
c. authentication with $\xi$. Alice authenticates herself. To do this, she generates a commitment $w$ (and its witness $\tau_{2}$ ) on $\pi$ but with randomness determined by $\xi$. She then generates a KF-MAC on traffic using secret key $\mathcal{H}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$, where $V$ is a projection key (a public parameter). She then sends $w$ and the KF-MAC to Bob. Bob has $\xi$ and will repeat Alice's procedure to verify the authentication. He also authenticates himself using $\mathcal{H}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$.
d. key derivation. If the authentication above succeeds, they both derive the session key $s k$ using $\xi$.

Although the framework has several stages, some messages can be combined. It turns out that the overall protocol has only 3 flows (see Fig. 1), where com ${ }_{i}$ is the commitment w.r.t. $\mathcal{H}_{i}$.


Fig. 1. Outline of our PAKE framework

We now outline the security. The idea is to iteratively modify the protocol so that messages in the final protocol variant do not contain password $\pi$ at all.

First, if $w\left|\alpha_{1}(k)\right| \sigma$ is attacker-generated, we modify the protocol so that Bob verifies KF-MACs using key $\mathcal{H}_{2}(O, \pi, w)$ (instead of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$ ). This is consistent as the original verification guarantees that $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)$ and $\mathcal{H}_{2}(O, \pi, w)$ are close and so the two MAC verifications give the same result. Under the change, the attacker can succeed only if $w$ contains $\pi$; otherwise, by smoothness of $\mathcal{H}_{2}$, $\mathcal{H}_{2}(O, \pi, w)$ is random to him and so the KF-MAC will be rejected.

Then, we modify the protocol so that $\pi$ in $y$ is a dummy password. This is unnoticeable to the attacker by the commitment hiding property.

Under the above revision, $y$ normally does not contain the correct $\pi$. If this is the case (which can be checked by the trapdoor property of $\mathrm{com}_{1}$ ), then, by smoothness, $\mathcal{H}_{1}(k, \pi, y)$ (further $\xi$ ) is random. Thus, $w$ is a random commitment of $\pi$. Then, by strong smoothness, KF-MAC key $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \alpha_{2}(O)\right)$ looks random to attacker. So we can modify $\pi$ in $w$ to a dummy password and $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \alpha_{2}(O)\right)$ to be a random key. At this moment, a skillful attacker can not modify Alice's message to fool Bob unless $w$ contains $\pi$. Indeed, if he modifies the message too much, then (simulated) Bob will regard it as an attacker-generated
message. As said above, he will fail. If he only changes a little, then (simulated) Bob will use the same key of Alice to verify and reject KF-MAC. Our authentication approach is different from the previous CCA-encryption approach [15, 16], where the non-malleability is used to refute a modification attack.

After modifications above, protocol messages have no password and attacker can only succeed by producing $y$ or $w$ that contains $\pi$ (beyond trivial success). Thus, he cannot succeed better than simply guessing the password.

### 3.2 Key Reconciliation

Key reconciliation is a mechanism that allows two parties with close secrets to share a common secret. We consider a special scenario of this problem.

Alice has a secret $d$ uniformly random over set $S$ and Bob has a secret $d^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{Dist}\left(d, d^{\prime}\right) \leq \delta$ for a measure Dist $: S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$and threshold $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$. Then, they jointly execute a protocol $\Pi$ (called key reconciliation protocol). In the end, they output a value $\xi \in \Xi$. The correctness requires that for any $d, d^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{Dist}\left(d^{\prime}, d\right) \leq \delta$, Alice and Bob will agree on $\xi$. Protocol $\Pi$ is passively secure with respect to $(S, \Xi, \delta)$ if the correctness holds and $H(\xi \mid$ trans $)=H(\xi)=\log |\Xi|$, where trans is the transcript of $\Pi$ and $H()$ is the (conditional) entropy function. If $\Pi$ is a one-message protocol (from Alice to Bob), it is called one-message key reconciliation protocol.

Trivially, $H(\xi \mid$ trans $)=H(\xi)$ implies that $\xi$ and trans are independent (i.e., $\left.P_{\xi, \text { trans }}=P_{\xi} P_{\text {trans }}\right)$, where $P_{X}$ is the distribution of $X$.

Lemma 4. Let $\Pi$ be a passively secure key reconciliation that has d for Alice's input, trans for the transcript and $\xi$ for the common secret. Take trans ${ }_{1} \leftarrow P_{\text {trans }}$ and $\xi_{1} \leftarrow P_{\xi}$ and $d_{1} \leftarrow P_{d \mid(\text { trans }, \xi)}\left(\cdot \mid\right.$ trans $\left.{ }_{1}, \xi_{1}\right)$. Then, $P_{d, \text { trans }, \xi}=P_{d_{1}, \text { trans }}, \xi_{1}$.
Proof. By definition of $\left(\operatorname{trans}_{1}, \xi_{1}\right), P_{\text {trans }_{1}, \xi_{1}}=P_{\text {trans }_{1}} P_{\xi_{1}}=P_{\text {trans }} P_{\xi}$, which equals $P_{\text {trans }, \xi}$, as trans and $\xi$ are independent. Thus, for any feasible $(a, b, c)$, $P_{d_{1}, \operatorname{trans}_{1}, \xi_{1}}(a, b, c)=P_{d_{1} \mid\left(\operatorname{trans}_{1}, \xi_{1}\right)}(a \mid b, c) \cdot P_{\text {trans }_{1}, \xi_{1}}(b, c)$. This is $P_{d \mid(\text { trans }, \xi)}(a \mid b, c)$. $P_{\text {trans }_{1}, \xi_{1}}(b, c)=P_{d \mid(\text { trans }, \xi)}(a \mid b, c) \cdot P_{\text {trans }, \xi}(b, c)=P_{d, \text { trans }, \xi}(a, b, c)$. Since $a, b, c$ are arbitrary, $P_{d, \text { trans }, \xi}=P_{d_{1}, \text { trans }, \xi_{1}}$.

A New Key Reconciliation Scheme. For close secrets over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, we show how to share a random binary sequence. We start with an example for $q=401$. Let $d^{\prime}, d \in \mathbb{Z}_{401}$ with $d$ uniformly random in $\mathbb{Z}_{401}$ and $\left|\left(d^{\prime}-d\right)_{401}\right| \leq 8$. Alice has secret $d$ and Bob has $d^{\prime}$. They want to agree on a secret $\xi$. Toward this, a crucial observation is as follows. For any integer $f \in\left[0,2^{\lfloor\log 401\rfloor}\right)$ with a binary representation $a_{7} a_{6} a_{5} 01 a_{2} a_{1} a_{0}$, we have $f+d^{\prime}-d \bmod 401=f+\left(d^{\prime}-d\right)_{401} \in$ $[0,256)$, which has a binary representation $a_{7} a_{6} a_{5} a_{4}^{\prime} a_{3}^{\prime} a_{2}^{\prime} a_{1}^{\prime} a_{0}^{\prime}$, as $8 \leq 01 a_{2} a_{1} a_{0}<$ 16 and $-8 \leq\left(d^{\prime}-d\right)_{401} \leq 8$. Then, Alice and Bob can reconciliate as follows.

Alice samples a random $f \in[0,256)$ of a binary form $a_{7} a_{6} a_{5} 01 a_{2} a_{1} a_{0}$. Next, she evaluates $\sigma=f+d \bmod 401$ and sends it to Bob.

Upon receiving $\sigma$, Bob computes $\sigma-d^{\prime} \bmod 401=f+d-d^{\prime} \bmod 401$. As seen above, this number has a binary form $a_{7} a_{6} a_{5} a_{4}^{\prime} a_{3}^{\prime} a_{2}^{\prime} a_{1}^{\prime} a_{0}^{\prime}$. So both Alice and Bob can define the common secret as $\xi=a_{7} a_{6} a_{5}$.

This shared key is confidential (given $\sigma$ ) as $d$ is uniformly random in $\mathbb{Z}_{401}$ and hence $f$ in $\sigma$ is masked by a one-time pad $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{401}$.

The above example can be easily generalized to general parameters. Assume that Alice has a secret $d \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and Bob has a secret $d^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ with $\left|\left(d^{\prime}-d\right)_{q}\right|<\delta$ for some integer $\delta \leq q / 32$. They want to agree on a common secret $\xi$. Our scheme works as follows. Let $t=\lfloor\log q\rfloor$ and $b=\lceil\log \delta\rceil$.

Alice: 1. Alice defines $a_{b}=1$ and $a_{b+1}=0$. For $0 \leq j \leq t-1$ but $j \neq b, b+1$, she takes $a_{j} \leftarrow\{0,1\}$ and lets $f=a_{t-1} \cdots a_{1} a_{0}$ (an integer in a binary representation). She defines $\xi=\left(a_{t-1}, \cdots, a_{b+2}\right)^{T}$.
2. Alice sends $\sigma=(f+d) \bmod q$ to Bob and sets the shared secret as $\xi$.

Bob: Upon $\sigma$, Bob uses $d^{\prime}$ to compute $\xi$ as the binary form of $\left\lfloor\frac{\left(\sigma-d^{\prime}\right) \bmod q}{2^{b+2}}\right\rfloor$. Finally, he sets the shared secret as $\xi$.

This protocol can be generalized. If Alice has secret $\mathbf{d} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu}$ and Bob has $\mathbf{d}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu}$ s.t. $\left|\left(d_{i}-d_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{q}\right| \leq \delta$ for $i \in[\mu]$, they can run it in parallel with input $d_{i}, d_{i}^{\prime}$ for each $i$ to generate a vector $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. We use $£$ to denote this scheme, use $(\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \leftarrow$ $£_{\text {alice }}(\mathbf{d})$ to denote Alice's computation and $\boldsymbol{\xi} \leftarrow £_{\text {bob }}\left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \mathbf{d}^{\prime}\right)$ to denote Bob's computation, where $\sigma_{i}, \xi_{i}$ are the message and common secret w.r.t. $\left(d_{i}, d_{i}^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 5. Alice and Bob obtain the same $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ with $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ uniformly random over $\{0,1\}^{(t-b-2) \mu}$ and independent of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$. Also, entropy $H(\boldsymbol{\xi})=H(\boldsymbol{\xi} \mid \boldsymbol{\sigma}) \geq \mu \log \frac{q}{16 \delta}$.

Proof. Let $f_{i}$ be the sample of $f$ in the $i$ th copy of the basic protocol. Notice that $\boldsymbol{\sigma}=\mathbf{f}+\mathbf{d} \bmod q$ and $\mathbf{f}$ is independent of $\mathbf{d}$. Hence, $\mathbf{d}$ is the one-time pad for $\mathbf{f}$ in $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$. Thus, $\mathbf{f}$ is independent of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$. Also, $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is independent of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ as it is determined by $\mathbf{f}$. Further, $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is uniformly random as every bit $a_{i j}$ of $f_{i}$ for $j \neq b, b+1$ is uniformly random. Consider the correctness now. It suffices to consider the basic protocol. Since $b=\lceil\log \delta\rceil$ and $f$ has $a_{b}=1$ and $a_{b+1}=0$, it follows that $f \pm h$ for any $0 \leq h \leq 2^{b}$ has a binary representation $a_{t-1} \cdots a_{b+2} a_{b+1}^{\prime} a_{b}^{\prime} \cdots a_{1}^{\prime} a_{0}^{\prime}$. This especially implies $(f \pm h) \bmod q=f \pm h$, as $0<f \pm h<2^{t} \leq q$. Thus, $\left\lfloor\frac{f \pm h}{2^{b+2}}\right\rfloor=a_{t-1} \cdots a_{b+2}$. Since $\left|\left(d-d^{\prime}\right)_{q}\right| \leq \delta \leq 2^{b}$, it follows that $\left(\sigma-d^{\prime}\right) \bmod q=$ $f+\left(d-d^{\prime}\right)_{q}$, which has a binary representation $a_{t-1} \cdots a_{b+2} a_{b+1}^{\prime} a_{b}^{\prime} \cdots a_{1}^{\prime} a_{0}^{\prime}$. Thus, $\left\lfloor\frac{\left(\sigma-d^{\prime}\right) \bmod q}{2^{b+2}}\right\rfloor=a_{t-1} \cdots a_{b+2}$. Finally, since $2^{t-b-2}=2^{\lfloor\log q\rfloor-\lceil\log \delta\rceil-2} \geq \frac{q}{16 \delta}, \xi$ has an entropy at least $\log \frac{q}{16 \delta}$ bits.

Next lemma reflects the strength of our scheme. A proof is in the full version.
Lemma 6. Let $\mathbf{d}$ be a random variable over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu}$, and let $\mathbf{e}$ be uniformly random over $\{-\delta, \cdots, \delta\}^{\mu}$. Define $\mathbf{d}^{\prime}=\mathbf{d}+\mathbf{e} \bmod q$. Let $\Pi$ be any protocol between Alice with input $\mathbf{d}$ and Bob with input $\mathbf{d}^{\prime}$, following which they derive a shared $\boldsymbol{\xi}$. Assume the interaction transcript between Alice and Bob be trans. Then, $H(\boldsymbol{\xi} \mid$ trans $) \leq H(\mathbf{d})-\mu \log (2 \delta+1)$, where $H$ is the entropy function.

Remark. Since $\mathbf{d}$ is uniformly random over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu}$, any key reconciliation protocol in our setting must satisfy $H(\boldsymbol{\xi} \mid$ trans $) \leq \mu \log \frac{q}{2 \delta+1}$. In comparison with this bound, our $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ loses entropy at most $\log (16 \delta)-\log (2 \delta+1) \leq 3$ bits per coordinate.

Define extraction bit rate to be $\frac{H(\boldsymbol{\xi})}{\mu \log q}$. The ratio of the extraction rate between our scheme and any rate-optimal scheme is lower bounded by $\frac{\log \frac{q}{16 \delta}}{\log \frac{q}{2 \delta+1}} \rightarrow 1$ when $\delta=o(q)$ and hence it is asymptotically optimal. Further, our rate is asymptotically $1-\log _{q} \delta$, which is a constant for $\delta$ in our concrete PAKEs.

### 3.3 Authentication Code for Close Secrets

Message authentication code (MAC) is a keyed function $F_{K}: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ such that without $K$ no one can compute $F_{K}(M)$ for any $M$. For simplicity, we assume that a normal verification of MAC $\eta$ is simply to check $\eta \stackrel{?}{=} F_{K}(M)$. Now we introduce a new notion of $\delta$-key-fuzzy MAC, where if a verifier's secret key gets a little noisy, then he can still verify the MAC. He can accept a normal MAC while he also rejects a forged MAC. This notion is motivated by the approximate MAC [7], where the MAC is valid even if the input message gets a little noisy.

Definition 3. A keyed deterministic function $F_{K}: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ with key space $\mathcal{K}$ is a $\delta$-KeyFuzzy MAC (or simply, $\delta-K F M A C$ ), if there exists a keyed function $\Phi_{K^{\prime}}$ : $\mathcal{V} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ (called a fuzzy verification function) so that $\Phi_{K^{\prime}}\left(F_{K}(M), M\right)=1$ for any $K^{\prime} \in \mathcal{K}$ with $D\left(K^{\prime}, K\right) \leq \delta$, where $D: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a distance measure.

In this definition, we only say that a fuzzy verification function (FVF) with an approximate key can accept a MAC. For it to be useful, it needs to reject a forged MAC. This is formalized as follows in terms of one-time security.

Definition 4. Let $F_{K}: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be a $\delta$-KF MAC with key space $\mathcal{K}$, distance measure $D$, and $F V F \Phi_{K^{\prime}}$. We say that $F_{K}$ is $(1, \delta, \epsilon)-\mathbf{K F}$ secure if no PPT attacker $\mathcal{A}$, after seeing any $\left(M, F_{K}(M)\right)$, can compute $M A C \eta$ of $M^{\prime} \neq M$ s.t.

$$
P\left[\Phi_{K^{\prime}}\left(\eta, M^{\prime}\right)=1 \text { for some } K^{\prime} \in \mathcal{K} \text { with } D\left(K^{\prime}, K\right) \leq \delta\right] \geq \epsilon+\operatorname{negl}(n)
$$

A New $(1, \delta, \epsilon)$-KF Authentication Code. We now construct a $(1, \delta, \epsilon)$-KF authentication code. Our scheme will use an error-correcting code with a large distance. For a constant prime $p$, a $[N, k, d]_{p}$-code is an error-correcting code over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with a codeword length $N$, minimal Hamming distance $d$ and $k$ information symbols. The following lemma gives a random code with a large Hamming distance (see a proof in the full paper). A random code usually is not practical as its decoding is inefficient. However, our work does not need decoding.

Lemma 7. Let $d \leq N$. Let $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{(N-k) \times N}$ and $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{N}$ be a $k$-dimensional subspace with $\mathbf{H}$ as its parity-check matrix (i.e., $\mathbf{H x}=0$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ ). Then, $\mathcal{C}$ is a $[N, k, d]_{p}$-code, except for a probability $N \cdot p^{d+k-N-2} \cdot 2^{N}$.

Now we are ready to give our $(1, \delta, \epsilon)$-KF authentication code.
Construction. Our new fuzzy MAC scheme is as follows. Let $p$ be a constant prime less than $q$, and $L \in \mathbb{N}$ with $p \mid L$ and $H:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k_{2}}$ is a collisionresistant hashing. Let secret $\mathbf{d}=\left(d_{0}, \cdots, d_{L-1}\right)^{T} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$ and message space $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1\}^{*}$. Assume that $\mathcal{C}_{m a c}: \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k_{2}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{L / p}$ is a $\left[L / p, k_{2}, \theta_{m a c} L / p\right]_{p}$-code for a constant $\theta_{\text {mac }} \in(0,1)$. The authentication function $F_{\mathbf{d}}(M)$ of $M$ is to first compute codeword $\mathbf{a}=\mathcal{C}_{m a c}(H(M))$ and then define $F_{\mathbf{d}}(M)=\left(t_{0}, \cdots, t_{L / p-1}\right)^{T}$, where $t_{i}=d_{p i+a_{i}}$ for $i=0, \cdots, L / p-1$. The normal verification of $(M, \mathbf{t})$ is to check $\mathbf{t} \stackrel{?}{=} F_{\mathbf{d}}(M)$. The fuzzy verification $\Phi_{\mathbf{d}^{\prime}}(\mathbf{t}, M)$ with $\left\|\left(\mathbf{d}^{\prime}-\mathbf{d}\right)_{q}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \delta$, computes $\mathbf{t}^{\prime}=F_{\mathbf{d}^{\prime}}(M)$ and then outputs 1 if and only if $\left\|\left(\mathbf{t}-\mathbf{t}^{\prime}\right)_{q}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \delta$.

The security idea of this scheme is that the codewords for $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ with $M \neq M^{\prime}$, have a large Hamming distance (as $H$ is collision-resistant). Hence, given the MAC of $M$, the MAC of $M^{\prime}$ has at least $\theta_{\text {mac }} L / p$ coordinates that are uniformly random in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$. It is hard to guess them correctly with a small error.

Lemma 8. Our scheme is a $\left(1, \delta,\left(\frac{4 \delta}{q}\right)^{\frac{\theta_{m a c} L}{p}}\right)-K F M A C$ for $\delta<\frac{q}{4}, \theta_{\text {mac }} \in(0,1)$.

Proof. Correctness holds obviously. Consider the authentication. Assume attacker $\mathcal{A}$ forges a pair $\left(M^{*}, \mathbf{t}^{*}\right)$ after seeing $(M, \mathbf{t})$ for $M^{*} \neq M$, where $\mathbf{t}=$ $F_{\mathbf{d}}(M)$. As $H$ is collision-resistant, $\mathbf{a}^{*}=\mathcal{C}_{\operatorname{mac}}\left(H\left(M^{*}\right)\right)$ and $\mathbf{a}=\mathcal{C}_{m a c}(H(M))$ have a Hamming distance at least $\theta_{m a c} L / p$. Let $A=\left\{i \mid a_{i} \neq a_{i}^{*}, i \in[L / p]\right\}$ and $\boldsymbol{\eta}=F_{\mathbf{d}}\left(M^{*}\right)$. Then, $\eta_{i}$ for any $i \in A$ is independent of $(M, \mathbf{t})$. Since $\mathbf{t}^{*}$ is computed from $\mathcal{A}$ 's view $(M, \mathbf{t})$, it follows that $\eta_{i}$ for $i \in A$ is independent of $\mathbf{t}^{*}$ as well. Let $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\prime}=F_{\mathbf{d}^{\prime}}\left(M^{*}\right)$ and so $\left\|\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\prime}-\boldsymbol{\eta}\right)_{q}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \delta$. Then, $P\left[\left|\left(t_{i}^{*}-\eta_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{q}\right| \leq \delta: i \in A\right] \leq P\left[\left|\left(t_{i}^{*}-\eta_{i}\right)_{q}\right| \leq 2 \delta: i \in A\right] \leq\left(\frac{4 \delta}{q}\right)^{|A|}$, given $(M, \mathbf{t})$. Hence, $P\left[\Phi_{\mathbf{d}^{\prime}}\left(\mathbf{t}^{*}, M^{*}\right)=1 \mid(M, \mathbf{t})\right] \leq(4 \delta / q)^{\theta_{\operatorname{mac}} L / p}$.

### 3.4 Approximate Smooth Projective Hashings

We define two types of approximate smooth projective hashings (ASPH). Both of them are based on a generic ASPH below revised from [18].
Approximate Smooth Projective Hashing (Generic). We start with the definition of a general commitment.

Definition 5. Commitment scheme $\Pi$ is a tuple (gen, com, ver) with domain $\mathbb{D}$.

- gen $\left(1^{n}\right)$. Upon $1^{n}$, it generates a public-key e.
$-\operatorname{com}_{e}(m)$. Upon public-key $e$ and $m \in \mathbb{D}$, it executes $(\tau, y) \leftarrow \operatorname{com}_{e}(m)$ to generate commitment $y$ and witness $\tau \in\{0,1\}^{*}$. Also we use $\operatorname{com}_{e}(m ; \Upsilon)$ to denote the execution with randomness $\Upsilon$.
- ver $(\tau, m, y)$. To decommit $y$, sender sends $(m, \tau)$ to receiver who then verifies it via algorithm ver and finally outputs 0 (for reject) or 1 (for accept).

A commitment scheme $\Pi=$ (gen, com, ver) is secure if it satisfies the correctness, computational hiding property, and unconditional binding property.

For a commitment scheme $\Pi=$ (gen, com, ver) with domain $\mathbb{D}$, we define two NP-languages $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{L}^{*}$. Let $\mathcal{Y}$ be the set of all possible commitment $y$ and $\mathcal{X}=\mathbb{D} \times \mathcal{Y}$. For $e \leftarrow \operatorname{gen}\left(1^{n}\right)$, define $\mathcal{L}=\left\{(m, y) \in \mathcal{X} \mid \exists \tau\right.$ s.t. $\left.\operatorname{ver}_{e}(\tau, m, y)=1\right\} ;$ define $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ via an algorithm ver*: $\mathcal{L}^{*}=\{(m, y) \in \mathcal{X} \mid \exists \tau$ s.t. vere $(\tau, m, y)=1\}$, where ver* is chosen so that $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ has two properties:

1. $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^{*}$.
2. For any $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, there exists at most one $m \in \mathbb{D}$ so that $(m, y) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$.

The approximate smooth projective hashing (generic) is described by $\Pi$, ver* and efficient functions: $\alpha: \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{U}, \mathcal{H}: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow S$ and $\hat{\mathcal{H}}:\{0,1\}^{*} \times \mathbb{U} \rightarrow S$, where $\mathcal{K}$ is the key space with distribution $D(\mathcal{K}), k \leftarrow D(\mathcal{K})$ is the secret key and $\alpha(k)$ is the projection key. A generic ASPH with parameter $\delta$ (or generic $\delta$-ASPH for short) is a tuple $\mathbb{H}=(\Pi$, ver* $, \mathcal{H}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}, \alpha)$ with the following properties.

Correctness. For $(m, y) \in \mathcal{L}$ with witness $\tau$ and $k \leftarrow D(\mathcal{K})$ (where $D(\mathcal{K})$ is the key distribution), $P(\operatorname{Dist}[\mathcal{H}(k, m, y), \hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(k))] \leq \delta)=1-\operatorname{negl}(n)$, where Dist : $S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$is a distance measure and the probability is over choices of $k$.

Adaptive Smoothness. Given $m \in \mathbb{D}$ and an arbitrary function $f: \mathbb{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, let $k \leftarrow D(\mathcal{K})$ and $y=f(\alpha(k))$. If $(m, y) \in \mathcal{X} \backslash \mathcal{L}^{*}$, then $(\alpha(k), \mathcal{H}(k, m, y))$ is statistically close to uniform over $\mathbb{U} \times S$.

Based on generic $\delta$-ASPH, we define two types of ASPHs, each of which has a strengthened property over a generic ASPH.

Approximate Smooth Projective Hashing (Type A). Type A $\delta$-ASPH (or $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ for short) is a generic $\delta$-ASPH with a strong smoothness below.

Strong Smoothness. Given $m \in \mathbb{D}$, let $(\tau, y) \leftarrow \operatorname{com}_{e}(m), k \leftarrow D(\mathcal{K})$ and $U \leftarrow S$. Then, $(\alpha(k), y, \hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(k)))$ and $(\alpha(k), y, U)$ are indistinguishable.

The smoothness is concerned with the randomness of $\mathcal{H}(\cdot)$ while the strong smoothness is concerned with the randomness of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\cdot)$. In general, the former does not imply the latter. It is not hard to find ASPH with the least significant bit of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\cdot)$ could always be zero while $\mathcal{H}$ has the smoothness.

Approximate Smooth Projective Hashing (Type B). The type-B $\delta$-ASPH is a generic $\delta$-ASPH $(\Pi, \mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H}, \alpha)$, except $\Pi=$ (gen, com, ver) has a trapdoor property below.

- There exists algorithm $\operatorname{sim}\left(1^{n}\right)$ that generates a public-key $e$ and a trapdoor trap. Further, there exists an efficient algorithm trapVer so that for any $(m, y)$, $\operatorname{trap}^{2} \operatorname{Ver}_{e}(\operatorname{trap}, m, y)=1$ if and only if $(m, y) \in \mathcal{L}$. Also, there exists an efficient algorithm trapVer* so that for any $(m, y)$, $\operatorname{trapVer}_{e}^{*}(\operatorname{trap}, m, y)=1$ if and only if $(m, y) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$. In addition, $e \leftarrow \operatorname{gen}\left(1^{n}\right)$ and $e$ from $\operatorname{sim}\left(1^{n}\right)$ are indistinguishable.

Our trapdoor differs from a trapdoor commitment, where the latter opens a commitment to any message while our trapdoor is only used to check the membership of $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ without a witness. Especially, it cannot recover or equivocate a commitment. For convenience, we also include sim into $\Pi$ and call it a commitment with trapdoor simulation (or trapSim commitment for short).

Remark. Even if a generic ASPH is revised from [18], their ASPH (also [28]) is defined on a public-key encryption. Adaptive smoothness was introduced in [28]. But strong smoothness and trapdoor property are new here.

### 3.5 Our PAKE Framework

We will use the following parameters, notations and functions.

- $\mathcal{D}$ is the password dictionary; $G: \Xi \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a pseudorandom generator.
$-\mathbb{H}_{1}=\left(\Pi_{1}\right.$, ver $\left._{1}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ is a $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ and $\mathbb{H}_{2}=\left(\Pi_{2}\right.$, ver $\left._{2}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ is a $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$, where $\Pi_{1}=\left(\operatorname{gen}_{1}, \operatorname{com}_{1}, \operatorname{ver}_{1}, \operatorname{sim}_{1}\right)$ and $\Pi_{2}=\left(\right.$ gen $_{2}$, com $_{2}$, ver 2$)$. Also, $\mathbb{H}_{i}(i=1,2)$ is associated with $\mathbb{D}_{i}, \mathcal{K}_{i}, S_{i}, \mathbb{U}_{i}, \mathcal{X}_{i}, \mathcal{L}_{i}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{i}^{*}$ s.t. $\mathcal{D} \subsetneq \mathbb{D}_{i}$.
- Let $e_{i} \leftarrow \operatorname{gen}_{i}\left(1^{n}\right)$ for $i=1,2$ and $V=\alpha_{2}(O)$ for $O \leftarrow D\left(\mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$.
- $F_{K}:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is $(1, \delta, \epsilon)$-KF MAC with key space $S_{2}$ and fuzzy verification function $\Phi_{K^{\prime}}$.
- $£$ is a one-message reconciliation scheme for Alice and Bob, w.r.t, $\left(S_{1}, \Xi, \delta\right)$. Alice uses her secret $d$ to compute $(\sigma, \xi) \leftarrow £_{\text {alice }}(d)$ and sends $\sigma$ to Bob; Bob uses his secret $d^{\prime}$ to compute $\xi=£_{b o b}\left(\sigma, d^{\prime}\right) ; \xi \in \Xi$ is the shared secret.

Initially, a trustee prepares parameters $\left\{e_{i} \mid \text { ver }{ }_{i}^{*}\left|\Pi_{i}\right| \mathcal{H}_{i}\left|\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{i}\right| \alpha_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{2}|V| F \mid £$. If $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ wish to establish a key, they interact as follows (see Fig. 2). For simplicity, $\operatorname{com}_{b, e_{b}}\left(\right.$ resp. ver $\left.{ }_{b, e_{b}}\right)$ for $b=1,2$ is denoted by $\operatorname{com}_{b}\left(\right.$ resp. ver $\left.{ }_{b}\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{i}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) \quad \text { Pub: } \quad\left\{e_{i}\left|\Pi_{i}\right| \mathcal{H}_{i}\left|\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{i}\right| \alpha_{i} \mid \operatorname{ver}_{i}^{*}\right\}_{i=1}^{2}|V| F \mid £ \quad P_{j}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) \\
& \left(\tau_{1}, y\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{com}_{1}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) \quad \xrightarrow{y \mid P_{i}} \\
& \begin{array}{cc}
\xi=£_{\text {bob }}\left(\sigma, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, U\right)\right), \quad \Upsilon \mid s k=G(\xi) & k \leftarrow D\left(\mathcal{K}_{1}\right), U=\alpha_{1}(k) \\
\omega=w|y| U|\sigma| i \mid j
\end{array} \\
& \left(\tau_{2}, w^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{com}_{2}\left(\pi_{i j} ; \Upsilon\right), w \stackrel{?}{=} w^{\prime} \quad \stackrel{w|U| \sigma\left|\eta_{0}\right| P_{j}}{\leftrightarrows} \quad(\sigma, \xi) \leftarrow £_{\text {alice }}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}\left(k, \pi_{i j}, y\right)\right) \\
& \begin{array}{cc}
\operatorname{ver}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \pi_{i j}, w\right) \stackrel{?}{=} 1, & \begin{array}{c}
\omega=w|y| U|\sigma| i|j, \Upsilon| s k=G \\
\\
\left(\tau_{2}, w\right)=\operatorname{com}_{2}\left(\pi_{i j} ; \Upsilon\right)
\end{array}
\end{array} \\
& \eta_{0} \stackrel{?}{=} F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 0) \quad \eta_{0}=F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 0)
\end{aligned}
$$

If yes, $\eta_{1}=F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 1) \&$ output $s k$

$$
\xrightarrow{\eta_{1}} \text { If } \eta_{1}=F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 1), \text { output } s k
$$

Fig. 2. Our PAKE framework

1. $P_{i}$ samples $\left(\tau_{1}, y\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{com}_{1}\left(\pi_{i j}\right)$ and sends $y \mid P_{i}$ to $P_{j}$.
2. Upon receiving $y \mid P_{i}, P_{j}$ samples $k \leftarrow D\left(\mathcal{K}_{1}\right)$ and derives $U=\alpha_{1}(k)$ and $(\sigma, \xi) \leftarrow £_{\text {alice }}\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}\left(k, \pi_{i j}, y\right)\right)$. Then, she derives $\Upsilon \mid s k=G(\xi)$ and computes $\left(\tau_{2}, w\right)=\operatorname{com}_{2}\left(\pi_{i j} ; \Upsilon\right)$. Next, she computes $\omega=w|y| U|\sigma| i \mid j$ and $\eta_{0}=F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 0)$. Finally, she sends $w|U| \sigma\left|\eta_{0}\right| P_{j}$ to $P_{i}$.
3. Upon receiving $w|U| \sigma\left|\eta_{0}\right| P_{j}, P_{i}$ computes $\xi=£_{\text {bob }}\left(\sigma, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau_{1}, U\right)\right), \Upsilon \mid s k=$ $G(\xi), \omega=w|y| U|\sigma| i \mid j$ and $\left(\tau_{2}, w^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{com}_{2}\left(\pi_{i j} ; \Upsilon\right)$. Then, he checks $w \stackrel{?}{=} w^{\prime}$, $\eta_{0} \stackrel{?}{=} F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 0), \operatorname{ver}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, \pi_{i j}, w\right) \stackrel{?}{=} 1$. If any of them fails, he rejects; otherwise, he sends $\eta_{1}=F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 1)$ to $P_{j}$ and sets session key $s k$.
4. Upon receiving $\eta_{1}, P_{j}$ checks $\eta_{1} \stackrel{?}{=} F_{\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\left(\tau_{2}, V\right)}(\omega \mid 1)$. If yes, she sets session key $s k$; otherwise, she rejects.

### 3.6 Correctness

Let $\operatorname{sid}_{i}^{\ell_{i}}=\operatorname{sid}_{j}^{\ell_{j}}=P_{i}\left|P_{j}\right| y|U| \sigma$. If $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ share the same sid, then $y$ is generated by $P_{i}$ while $(U, \sigma)$ is generated by $P_{j}$. Hence, $(\sigma, y, U)$ has the specified distribution: $\left(\tau_{1}, y\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{com}_{1}\left(\pi_{i j}\right)$ and $U=\alpha_{1}(k)$ for $k \leftarrow D\left(\mathcal{K}_{1}\right)$. They will derive the same $s k$. Indeed, the correctness of com ${ }_{1}$ implies $\left(\pi_{i j}, y\right) \in \mathcal{L}_{1}$. The correctness of $\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ implies that $\operatorname{Dist}\left[\mathcal{H}_{1}\left(k, \pi_{i j}, y\right), \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\left(\tau, \alpha_{1}(k)\right)\right] \leq \delta$. So the correctness of $£$ implies $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ computes the same $\xi$. Since $\Upsilon \mid s k$ is determined by $\xi$ and the definition of PAKE correctness assumes that both $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ accept, they both conclude with the same $s k$.

### 3.7 Security

We now state our security theorem. The main ideas have been presented at the beginning of this section and proof details will appear in the full paper.

Theorem 1. Let $£$ be a secure one-message key reconciliation w.r.t. $\left(S_{1}, \Xi, \delta\right)$, $G: \Xi \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ be a pseudorandom generator, and $(F, \Phi)$ be $(1, \delta, \epsilon)-K F M A C$ with key space $S_{2}$, domain $\mathcal{M}$ and negligible $\epsilon$. Let $\mathbb{H}_{1}=\left(\Pi_{1}\right.$, ver $\left.r_{1}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ be a $\delta-A S P H_{B}$ on a secure trapSim-commitment $\Pi_{1}=\left(\right.$ gen $_{1}$, com $_{1}$, ver $\left.{ }_{1}, \operatorname{sim}_{1}\right)$, $\mathbb{H}_{2}=\left(\Pi_{2}\right.$, ver $\left._{2}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ be a $\delta-A S P H_{A}$ on a secure commitment $\Pi_{2}=$ ( $\left.\mathrm{gen}_{2}, \mathrm{com}_{2}, \mathrm{ver}_{2}\right)$. Then, our framework is secure.

## 4 LWE-Based Instantiation

### 4.1 The Learning with Errors Assumption

We next recall the Learning With Errors (LWE) assumption due to Regev [26]. For a vector $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$ and distribution $\chi$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, define distribution $A_{\mathbf{s}, \chi}$ with $m$ samples as follows. It chooses a matrix $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$, takes $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \chi^{m}$, and outputs $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x})$. The decisional LWE assumption DLWE $_{q, \chi, m, n}$ states that $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x})$ is pseudorandom when $\mathbf{s}$ is uniformly random over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$.

For $s \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$, let $\Psi_{s}$ be the Gaussian distribution of zero mean and standard deviation $s / \sqrt{2 \pi}$. Regev [26] proved that DLWE is hard when $\chi=\Psi_{s}$ with $s>2 \sqrt{n}$. Usually, it is more convenient to work with $\chi=D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, s}$. Gordon et al. [14, Lemma 2] showed that the hardness of $\mathrm{DLWE}_{q, \Psi_{s}, m, n}$ implies the hardness of $\operatorname{DLWE}_{q, D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, \sqrt{2} s}, m, n}$ when $s=\omega(\sqrt{\log n})$. For convenience, later we denote DLWE $_{q, D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, s}, m, n}$ assumption by DLWE $_{q, s, m, n}$.

### 4.2 Supporting Properties from LWE

Hidden-Bits Lemma from LWE. The hidden-bits lemma states that given a LWE tuple ( $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}$ ), some linear function on $\mathbf{s}$ is confidential. This result is essentially a corollary of [9, Lemma C.6]. We now present it without a proof.
Lemma 9. Let $L \leq n$ and $\mathbf{U}^{L}$ be the uniformly random variable over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$. Let $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L \times(n+L)}$ be an arbitrary but fixed matrix with rank L. Then, $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{C s})$ and $\left(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{U}^{L}\right)$ are indistinguishable under $\mathrm{DLWE}_{q, \beta, m, n}$ assumption, where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times(n+L)}, \mathbf{s} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L}, \mathbf{x} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, \beta}$.
Trapdoor Generation for LWE. The next lemma is adapted from [18, Lemma 3].
Lemma 10. Let $m \geq 6 n \log q$ and $n \log q=o\left(q^{1-\alpha}\right)$ for constant $\alpha \in(0,1)$. Then, there is an efficient algorithm $\operatorname{Gen} \operatorname{Trap}\left(1^{n}, 1^{m}, q\right)$ that outputs $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$ and a trapdoor $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ such that $\|\mathbf{T}\| \leq O(n \log q)$ and $\mathbf{A}$ is statistically close to uniform over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$. Further, there exists a PPT algorithm $B D(\mathbf{T}, \cdot)$ that takes $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$ as input and does the following: if $\mathbf{z}=\mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}$ with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq\left\lfloor\frac{q^{\alpha}-2}{4}\right\rfloor$, then output $(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x})$; if $\mathbf{z}$ cannot be expressed in this form, then output $\perp$.

We require $m \geq 6 n \log q$ (using [1, Theorem 3.2] with $\|\mathbf{T}\| \leq O(n \log q)$ ), while $m \geq n \log ^{2} q$ in [18] (using [1, Theorem 3.1]). However, their proof only requires $\|\mathbf{T}\| \cdot \frac{q^{1-\alpha}-2}{4}<q / 2$. We satisfy this as $\|\mathbf{T}\| \leq O(n \log q)=o\left(q^{\alpha}\right)$.
Adaptive Smoothness from LWE. The adaptive smoothness below states that for almost every $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n^{\prime}}$ and $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}, \mathbf{E}^{T}(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{h})$ are close to uniform for all but one codeword $\mathbf{u}$ in a $m$-length code $\mathcal{C}$, where $\mathbf{E}$ is discrete Gaussian and $\mathbf{v}$ is adaptively chosen (after given $\mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{A}$ ). The idea is to employ a similar result ([28, Lemma 19]) of [12, Lemma 8.3], under which we essentially only need to show that $\min _{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+1}-\{\mathbf{0}\}}\|(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{h}) \mathbf{s}\|_{\infty}$ is large for all but one $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{C}$. Let $\mathbf{s}=\left(s_{1}, \cdots, s_{n^{\prime}+1}\right)$. Notice that Lemma 11 below implies this is true when minimizing with $s_{n^{\prime}+1} \neq 0$, while case $s_{n^{\prime}+1}=0$ (i.e., $\min _{\mathbf{s}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}-\{\mathbf{0}\}}\left\|\mathbf{A s}^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}$ is large for most of $\mathbf{A}$ ) is well known. The proof detail is given in the full paper.

Theorem 2. For $\theta \in(0,1)$, let $s \geq q^{1-\frac{\theta}{3}} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log m})$ and $\mathcal{C}$ be $a[m, k, \theta m]_{p^{-}}$ code with $p<q$. Take $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n^{\prime}}, \mathbf{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$. Then, with probability $1-$ $2^{-m} q^{n^{\prime}-\left(1-\frac{\theta}{3}\right) m}-|\mathcal{C}|^{2} 2^{-2 m} q^{2 n^{\prime}+2-\theta m / 3}$ (over $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{h}$ ), the following is true for $\mathbf{E} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, s}\right)^{\mu}$ and $\mathbf{v}=f\left(\mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{A}\right)$ with an arbitrary function $f: \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu \times n^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$.

1. $\min _{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n^{\prime}+1}-\{\mathbf{0}\}}\|(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{h}) \mathbf{s}\|_{\infty} \geq\left\lfloor\frac{q^{\theta / 3}-2}{4}\right\rfloor$ for all but one $\mathbf{u}$ in $\mathcal{C}$;
2. $\mathbf{E}^{T}[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{u} \odot \mathbf{h}]$ is close to uniform in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu \times\left(n^{\prime}+1\right)}$ for all but the exceptional $\mathbf{u}$ in item 1.

The following lemma presents a core technique in this paper.
Lemma 11. Let $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times \nu}, \chi \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times m}$ be arbitrary but fixed matrices with $\mathbf{C}$ invertible. Take $\mathbf{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$. Let $\mathbf{w}$ be any random variable (maybe computed from $\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{B}$ ) over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$. Assume $\mathcal{C}$ is a $\left[m, k^{\prime}, \theta m\right]_{p}$-code for a constant $\theta \in(0,1)$ and $p<q$. Then, with probability at least $1-|\mathcal{C}|^{2} q^{2 \nu+2}\left(4 \chi^{2} q^{-\theta}\right)^{m}$ (over choices of $\mathbf{h}$ ), there is at most one $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{C}$ that $k \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h} \odot \mathbf{u})=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{s}+\mathbf{x}$ holds for some $(k, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\nu} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$ with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}<\chi$.
Proof. For any distinct $\mathbf{u}_{1}, \mathbf{u}_{2} \in \mathcal{C}$, let $\mathbf{z}_{i}=\mathbf{C}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h} \odot \mathbf{u}_{i}\right), i=1,2$. Then, $\forall \mathbf{y}_{1}, \mathbf{y}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$ and $k_{1}, k_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& P\left(k_{1} \mathbf{z}_{1}=k_{1} \mathbf{y}_{1} \wedge k_{2} \mathbf{z}_{2}=k_{2} \mathbf{y}_{2}\right)=P\left(\mathbf{z}_{1}=\mathbf{y}_{1} \wedge \mathbf{z}_{2}=\mathbf{y}_{2}\right) \\
= & P\left(\mathbf{z}_{1}=\mathbf{y}_{1} \wedge\left(\mathbf{u}_{1}-\mathbf{u}_{2}\right) \odot \mathbf{h}=\boldsymbol{\delta}\right), \text { where } \boldsymbol{\delta}=\mathbf{C}^{-1}\left(\mathbf{y}_{1}-\mathbf{y}_{2}\right) \\
\leq & P\left(\left(\mathbf{u}_{1}-\mathbf{u}_{2}\right) \odot \mathbf{h}=\boldsymbol{\delta}\right) \\
\leq & \left.P\left(\left(u_{1 i}-u_{2 i}\right) h_{i}=\delta_{i}, \forall i \in A\right) \quad \text { (where } A=\left\{i \mid u_{1 i} \neq u_{2 i}, i \in[m]\right\}\right)  \tag{1}\\
\leq & q^{-\theta m} \quad \text { as }|A| \geq \theta m \text { and } h_{i} \text { is uniformly random.) }
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{m}$ be the cube of radius $\chi-1$ (centered at $\left.\mathbf{0}\right)$, and $\mathcal{S} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \cup_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\nu}}(\mathbf{B s}+$ $\mathcal{Z}) \cap \mathbb{Z}^{m} \bmod q$. Obviously, $k \mathbf{z}=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{s}+\mathbf{x}$ for $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}<\chi$ is equivalent to $k \mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}$. Hence, $P\left(k_{1} \mathbf{z}_{1} \in \mathcal{S} \wedge k_{2} \mathbf{z}_{2} \in \mathcal{S}\right) \leq|\mathcal{S}|^{2} \cdot q^{-\theta m}=q^{2 \nu}\left(4 \chi^{2} q^{-\theta}\right)^{m}$. Since $\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)$ has at most $q^{2}$ choices and $\left(\mathbf{u}_{1}, \mathbf{u}_{2}\right)$ has at most $|\mathcal{C}|^{2}$ choices, the bound follows. Finally, the probability bound is obtained only over choices of $\mathbf{h}$, as Eq. (1) only depends on the coins of $\mathbf{h}$ and the final result is a union bound on Eq. (1).

Remark. The adaptiveness of $\mathbf{v}$ in Theorem 2 is important. In our PAKE, $\mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{A}$ is known to attacker. Hence, he can choose $\mathbf{v}$ based on it.

### 4.3 ASPHs from LWE

We will construct $\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ and $\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ with the following common parameters.

- $n$ is the security parameter; prime modulus $q=n^{\lambda}$ for a constant $\lambda>\frac{3}{\theta}$ with $\theta \in(0,1-1 / \log p)$ and $p$ a constant prime less than $q ; k=o(n) ; \delta_{1}=6 n \log n$; $r_{1}=3 n^{1 / 2} ; r_{2}=q^{1-\frac{\theta}{3}} \log n ; \delta=q^{\alpha}\left(\right.$ for $\left.1-\frac{\theta}{3}+\frac{1}{\lambda}<\alpha<1\right)$;


### 4.3.1 Construction of $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ - $\mathrm{ASPH}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$

Let $L \leq n, \frac{7(n+L)}{\theta} \leq m \leq \Theta(n)$. Take $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times(n+L)}$. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a [ $m, k, \theta m]_{p}$-code, constructed from Lemma 7 with negligible failure probability $m p^{(-1+\theta+1 / \log p-o(1)) m}$.
The Commitment Scheme. The commitment key is $(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{g})$. To commit $\pi \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$, take $\mathbf{z} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{1}}\right)^{m}$ and $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L}$. The commitment is $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{z}+\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$
with witness $\tau=(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$. The decommitment is $(\pi, \tau)$. Define $\operatorname{ver}(\tau, \pi, \mathbf{w})=1$ if and only if $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{z}+\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$ and $\|\mathbf{z}\| \leq \delta_{1}$. From ver, language $\mathcal{L}$ is generically defined. Define $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ so that $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$ if $\|(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)) \mathbf{s}\|_{\infty}<$ $\left\lfloor\frac{q^{\theta / 3}-2}{4}\right\rfloor$ for some $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L+1}-\{\mathbf{0}\}$.

Lemma 12. Our commitment is secure under $D L W E_{q, r_{1}, m, n}$ assumption.
Proof. Consider correctness first. Let $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)+\mathbf{z}$ be a commitment of $\pi$ with $\mathbf{z} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m}, r_{1}}$. Then, correctness holds if $\|\mathbf{z}\| \leq \delta_{1}$, which is true except for probability $O\left(2^{-m}\right)$, by Lemma 2 (noticing $r_{1} \sqrt{m}=\Theta(n)=o\left(\delta_{1}\right)$ ). Hiding property directly follows from $\mathrm{DLWE}_{q, r_{1}, m, n}$ assumption. The binding property follows from the properties of $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ (to be verified soon): $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^{*}$ and for any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$, there is only one $\pi$ so that $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$.

Description of $\delta-\mathbf{A S P H}_{A}$. We verify the required properties for $\mathcal{L}^{*}$.

1. $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^{*}$. This is obvious as $\|\cdot\|_{\infty} \leq\|\cdot\|$ and $\delta_{1}=o\left(q^{\theta / 3}\right)$ using $\lambda \theta / 3>1$.
2. For any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$, there is at most one $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$ with $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$. This directly follows from Theorem 2(1) (with $n^{\prime}=n+L$ ), where the exception probability is $O\left(q^{(-1 / 3+o(1)) n}\right)$ (negligible!).

We define $\mathcal{H}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$. For secret $\mathbf{O} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{2}}\right)^{m \times L}$, let the projection key $\mathbf{V}=\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}$. Let $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{O}, \pi, \mathbf{w})=\mathbf{O}^{T}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))$. If $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}$ with witness $\tau=(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$, let $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \mathbf{V})=\mathbf{V} \mathbf{t}$.
Correctness. Assume the closeness uses the $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ metric. Let $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}$. Then, $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)+\mathbf{z}$ with $\|\mathbf{z}\| \leq \delta_{1}$. For $\mathbf{O} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{2}}\right)^{m \times L}$, we have $\| \mathbf{V t}-$ $\mathbf{O}^{T}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)) \|_{\infty}=\max _{i}\left|\mathbf{o}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{z}\right| \leq \delta_{1} r_{2} \log n=o(\delta)$ (except for a negligible probability by Lemma 2), where $\mathbf{o}_{i}$ is the $i$ th column of $\mathbf{O}$.
Adaptive Smoothness. For $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \notin \mathcal{L}^{*}, \mathcal{C}(\pi)$ is not the exceptional $\mathbf{u}$ in Theorem 2 and hence $\mathbf{O}^{T}(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))$ is close to uniform over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L \times(n+L+1)}$. Further, under our setup ( $n^{\prime}=n+L, m \geq \frac{7(n+L)}{\theta}, k=o(n)$ ), the exceptional probability for Theorem 2 is $O\left(q^{-(1 / 3+o(1)) n}\right)$ (negligible).
Strong Smoothness. We need to show that $\left(\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{B t}+\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B t}\right)$ is indistinguishable from $\left(\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{B} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{U}\right)$, where $(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{O}, \mathbf{U}) \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{1}}\right)^{m} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L} \times$ $\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{2}}\right)^{m \times L} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$. This follows from Lemma 9 , as $\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B}$ is close to uniform (wellknown and also implied by Theorem 2) and hence has a rank $<L$ only negligibly.

### 4.3.2 Construction of $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$

$\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ is identical to $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$, except that we need a trapdoor property while strong smoothness is no longer needed. Even though, we still need to validate claims adapted from $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ under our new parameter choices. This is shown below in the security item. The trapdoor property is from Lemma 10.

Let $\mu \in \mathbb{N}, m=6 n \log n$. Take $\mathbf{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}, \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n} . \mathcal{C}$ is a $[m, k, \theta m]_{p}$-code (from Lemma 7 with a negligible failure probability $m p^{(-1+\theta+1 / \log p-o(1)) m}$ ).
trapSim-commitment Scheme. The commitment key is ( $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{h}$ ). The commitment to $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$ is $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$ for $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{1}}\right)^{m}$ and $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$ with witness $\tau=(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x})$. Further, ver, $\mathcal{L}$, and $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ are defined the same as in $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ via equation $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$. The trapdoor simulation is to apply Lemma 10 to generate $\mathbf{A}$ with trapdoor $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$, by setting $\alpha=\theta / 3$ and noticing that $n \log q=o\left(q^{1-\theta / 3}\right)\left(\right.$ as $\lambda(1-\theta / 3) \geq 2 \lambda / 3 \geq 2$, due to $\left.\lambda>\frac{3}{\theta} \geq 3\right)$.

For $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{T}) \leftarrow \operatorname{TrapGen}\left(1^{n}\right)$, membership $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$ can be verified as follows. For each $u \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$, try to use T to recover ( $\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x}$ ) so that $u(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))=$ $\mathbf{A s}+\mathbf{x}$ with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq\left\lfloor\frac{q^{\theta / 3}-2}{4}\right\rfloor$. If it succeeds for some $u$, then claim $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$; otherwise, claim $(m, \mathbf{y}) \notin \mathcal{L}^{*}$. By Lemma 10, this decision is always correct.

Description of $\delta-\mathbf{A S P H}_{B}$. This is identical to $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$. For secret $\mathbf{E} \leftarrow$ $D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{2}}^{m \times \mu}$, the projection key is $\mathbf{U}=\mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{A}$. Also, let $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{E}, \pi, \mathbf{y})=\mathbf{E}^{T}(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi))$. If $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}$ with witness $\tau=(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x})$, let $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \mathbf{U})=\mathbf{U s}$.

Security. Security proofs for commitment, correctness and adaptive smoothness are identical to $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$. However, we need to verify that the cited results have negligible exception probabilities under our setup. Commitment security has used Lemma 2 to correctness. In our setting, $r_{1} \sqrt{m}=\Theta(n \sqrt{\log n})=o\left(\delta_{1}\right)$ still holds and so the result remains valid. The correctness has cited Lemma 2 which requires $\delta_{1} r_{1} \log n=o(\delta)$ and remains valid in our setting. Theorem 2 is cited for smoothness and property 2 of $\mathcal{L}^{*}$. In our setting, it only has negligible exception probability $O\left(q^{(-\theta / 3+o(1)) m}\right)$.

### 4.4 LWE-Based PAKE Instantiation

Using $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ and $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ just obtained, together with pseudorandom generator $G$, KF-MAC $F$ (in Sect.3.3) and reconciliation $£$ (in Sect. 3.2), we can realize our PAKE framework in the LWE setting (see Fig. 3). By the security theorem of PAKE framework, we only need to make sure that each of these mechanisms is secure in our parameter choices. This is specified as follow.

- $\theta \in(0,1-1 / \log p) ; q=n^{\lambda}\left(\lambda>\frac{3}{\theta}\right) ; p$ is constant prime with $p<q ; k=o(n)$; $r_{1}=3 n^{\frac{1}{2}}, \delta_{1}=6 n \log n, r_{2}=q^{1-\frac{\theta}{3}} \log n, \delta=q^{\alpha}$ with $1-\frac{\theta}{3}+\frac{1}{\lambda}<\alpha<1$.
- $G:\{0,1\}^{L^{\prime}} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a pseudorandom generator.
- password dictionary $\mathcal{D} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$.
- Instantiate $K F-M A C$. Set $F_{K}$ as the $\left(1, \delta,\left(\frac{4 \delta}{q}\right)^{\theta_{\operatorname{mac}} L / p}\right)$-KF MAC in Sect. 3.3 with key space $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$, where $\theta_{\text {mac }} \in(0,1-1 / \log p), L=\frac{k_{2} p(1+\beta)}{1-\theta_{\text {mac }}-1 / \log p}$ for constant $\beta>0$ (where $k_{2}=o(n)$ is the $p$-ary output length of $H$ in $F_{K}$ ). $/^{*}$ In this setup, insecurity error $\left(\frac{4 \delta}{q}\right)^{\theta_{\text {mac }} L / p}=\left(4 q^{\alpha-1}\right)^{\Theta\left(k_{2}\right)}$ (negligible); $\left[L / p, k_{2}, \theta_{\operatorname{mac}} L / p\right]_{p}$-code in the scheme is constructed from Lemma 7 with negligible exception probability $O\left(p^{-k_{2} \beta} L / p\right)$. */
- Instantiate $\left(\mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}\right)$ with our LWE-based $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ : Set $m=6 n \log n, \mu=$ $L^{\prime} \log \frac{q}{16 \delta}\left(L^{\prime}\right.$ is the key length of $G$ ); other parameters such as $\delta_{1}, \delta, r_{2}, r_{1}$ are set as above; $[m, k, \theta m]_{p}$-code $\mathcal{C}$ is from Lemma 7 . Take $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}, \mathbf{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m}$.
/* Under our setup, $\mathcal{C}$ fails to be constructed by Lemma 7 only with negligible probability $m p^{(-1+\theta+1 / \log p) m}$; our setup is consistent with parameter description in $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$ and hence the resulting scheme is secure. */
- Instantiate $\left(\mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}\right)$ with our LWE-based $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ : Set $m_{1}=\frac{7(L+n)}{\theta}$; $\delta_{1}, \delta, r_{2}, r_{1}, L$ etc set as above; $\left[m_{1}, k, \theta m_{1}\right]_{p}$-code $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ is from Lemma 7. Take $\mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m_{1} \times(n+L)}$ and $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m_{1}}$ as public parameters for $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$.
/* Under our setup, $\mathcal{C}_{1}$ fails to be constructed by Lemma 7 only with negligible probability $m_{1} p^{(-1+\theta+1 / \log p) m_{1}}$; our setup is consistent with parameter description in $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ and hence the resulting scheme is secure. */
- Set $\mathbf{V}=\mathbf{O}^{T} \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L \times(n+L)}$ for $\mathbf{O} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m_{1}}, r_{2}}\right)^{L}$ as the public projection key.
- For $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$, define $\mathbf{g}_{\pi}=\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}_{1}(\pi)$ and $\mathbf{h}_{\pi}=\mathbf{h} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$.
- Instantiate $£$. Set $£$ as the reconciliation scheme in Sect. 3.2 with $\mu, \delta$ and $q$ as above. Thus, the reconciliated key $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ has a bit-length at least $\mu \log \frac{q}{16 \delta}=L^{\prime}$ (fit the key length of $G$ ).

The public parameter list for our PAKE is $\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B}| \mathbf{g}|\mathbf{h}| \mathbf{V}|F| £|\mathcal{C}| \mathcal{C}_{1}$. The detailed protocol is simply to plug the primitives above into our PAKE framework. This is graphically shown in Fig.3. Since primitives are secure by our parameter clarification, our protocol is secure by Theorem 1.

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
P_{i}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) & \text { Pub: } & \mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B}| \mathbf{V}|\mathbf{g}| \mathbf{h}|F| £|\mathcal{C}| \mathcal{C}_{1}
\end{array} \quad P_{j}\left(\pi_{i j}\right)
$$

Fig. 3. Our Protocol LWE-PAKE: $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+L}$ and $\mathbf{z} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^{m_{1}}, r_{1}}$ are sampled with randomness $\Upsilon$ where $\Upsilon \mid s k=G(\boldsymbol{\xi})$.

Efficiency. Note that $\mathbf{g}_{\pi_{i j}}$ and $\mathbf{h}_{\pi_{i j}}$ can be pre-computed and $D_{\mathbb{Z}, r}^{m}$ can be sampled in $\tilde{O}(m)$ time [23]. Thus, the cost of $P_{i}$ is dominated by Bt, Us, As and $\mathbf{V t}$ which totally is about $m n$ multiplications over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ (as $L=O(n), \mu=$ $O(n)$ and $\left.m_{1}=o(m)\right)$; the cost of $\mathbf{P}_{j}$ is dominated by $\mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{E}^{T} \mathbf{y}^{\prime}, \mathbf{B t}, \mathbf{V t}$ which is $\mu m n=O\left(L^{\prime} m n / \log q\right)$ multiplications. The communication cost is dominated by $(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y})$ which has $O\left(\frac{L^{\prime} n}{\log n}+n \log n\right)$ field elements. Finally, the authentication is provided by $\left(\mathbf{w}, \eta_{0}\right)$ with a cost dominated by $\mathbf{B t}$ and $\mathbf{V t}$, which is $\left(m_{1}+L\right)(n+L)=O\left(n^{2}\right)$ multiplications. This is more efficient than
authentication $[6,15]$ from CCA-secure encryption, which has a cost $O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$ [21,29] in the LWE setting. Our main saving for this comes from the fact that $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$ doesn't need a trapdoor simulation so it can take $m_{1}=O(n)$ while [21,29] needs this and hence the corresponding parameter is $O(n \log n)$. That is, authentication data $\left(w, \eta_{0}\right)$ can not enable to decrypt $\pi_{i j}$ and so it is different from authentication by CCA-secure encryption.

## 5 Instantiation from Ring-LWE

This section will present our PAKE instantiation based on Ring-LWE. This is important as it is more efficient than LWE-based one.

### 5.1 Basics of Rings, Ring-LWE and Operational Properties

### 5.1.1 Introduction to Algebraic Number Theory

We provide some facts from algebraic number theory (also see [20]). Let $m$ be a power of 2 and $n=m / 2$.

Power Basis of Cyclotomic Field. We are interested in the $m$ th cyclotomic field $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}\right)$, where $\zeta_{m}$ is the $m$ th primitive root of unity and has the minimal polynomial $\Phi_{m}(x)=x^{n}+1$ with $n=m / 2$. Then, $K$ has a $\mathbb{Q}$-basis $\left\{1, \zeta_{m}, \zeta_{m}^{2}, \cdots, \zeta_{m}^{n-1}\right\}$ (called power basis, denoted by $\mathbf{p}$ ).
Canonical Embedding. $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}\right)$ has $n$ embeddings $\sigma_{i}: K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. The canonical embedding $\sigma: K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\phi(m)}$ is $\sigma(a)=\left(\sigma_{i}(a)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}}$ for $a \in K$. Since $\sigma_{i}(a)=\bar{\sigma}_{m-i}(a), \sigma(a) \in H$.

Ring of Integers and Ideals. An algebraic integer in $K$ is an element in it that is a root of a monic polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. The set of all integers of $K$ is a ring, denoted by $R$ in this paper. For $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{m}\right), R=\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{m}\right]$. Thus, the power basis $\left\{1, \zeta_{m}, \cdots, \zeta_{m}^{n-1}\right\}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of $R$.
Chinese Remainder Basis and Its Relation with Power Basis. In this paper, $q$ is a prime with $q=1 \bmod m$ and $\omega_{m}$ is the $m$ th root of 1 in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. let $\mathfrak{p}_{i}=$ $\left(q, \zeta_{m}-\omega_{m}^{i}\right)$ (i.e., the ring generated by $q$ and $\zeta_{m}-\omega_{m}^{i}$ ). By Chinese remainder theorem, for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$, there exists $c_{i} \in R$ so that $c_{i}=1 \bmod \mathfrak{p}_{i}$ and $c_{i}=0$ $\bmod \mathfrak{p}_{j}$ for any $j \neq i$. Then, $\mathbf{c}=\left(c_{j}\right)_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}}$ forms a basis of $R_{q} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} R \bmod q$, called the CRT basis. Note that $c_{i}^{2}=c_{i} \bmod q R$, as $c_{i}^{2}=c_{i} \bmod \mathfrak{p}_{i}$ for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. Hence, if $a=\mathbf{c}^{T} \mathbf{v}, b=\mathbf{c}^{T} \mathbf{u} \in R_{q}$ for $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$, then $a b=\mathbf{c}^{T}(\mathbf{v} \odot \mathbf{u})$. Let $\operatorname{CRT}_{m}=\left(\omega_{m}^{i j}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}, j \in[n]}$. Then, the power basis $\mathbf{p}$ and CRT basis $\mathbf{c}$ is connected by $\mathbf{p}^{T}=\mathbf{c}^{T} \cdot \mathrm{CRT}_{m}$. Thus, if $a=\mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{v}$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$, then $a=\mathbf{c}^{T} \cdot \mathrm{CRT}_{m} \mathbf{v}$.

Coefficient Vector Representation. For $a=\mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{v}$ with some $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$, we call $\mathbf{v}$ the coefficient vector of $a$ under $\mathbf{p}$ and denote it by $\underline{a}$. For $\mathbf{a} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$, let $\mathbf{a}=\left(\mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{\ell}\right)^{T}$ for some $\mathbf{v}_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$. We call $\left(\mathbf{v}_{1} ; \cdots ; \mathbf{v}_{\ell}\right)$ the coefficient vector of $\mathbf{a}$ under $\mathbf{p}$ and denote it by a. Similarly, we can define the coefficient vector of $a$ and $\mathbf{a}$ under basis $\mathbf{c}$ and denote them by $\underset{\sim}{a}$ and $\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{a}}$ respectively. As
$\mathbf{p}^{T}=\mathbf{c}^{T} \cdot \operatorname{CRT}_{m}$, we know that $\underset{\sim}{a}=\operatorname{CRT}_{m} \cdot \underline{a}$. For $\mathbf{a} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$, we have $\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{a}}=$ $\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \mathrm{CRT}_{m}\right) \underline{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{a}}=\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-1}\right) \mathbf{a}$.

### 5.1.2 Gaussian Samplings

Gaussian Distribution over $K \otimes \mathbb{R}$. Since $m$ is a power of 2 , the power basis $\mathbf{p}$ is an orthogonal basis of $H$ (via canonical embedding $\sigma$ and [20, Lemma 2.15]) and $\left\|\zeta_{m}^{j}\right\|=\sqrt{n}, \forall j \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}^{*}$. Hence, Gaussian distribution over $K \otimes \mathbb{R}$ (or $H$ via $\sigma$ ) with parameter $\xi$ can be sampled as $\mathbf{z}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \zeta_{m}^{j} r_{j}$, where $r_{0}, \cdots, r_{n-1}$ is i.i.d. Gaussian over $\mathbb{R}$ with parameter $\xi / \sqrt{n}$. Denote this distribution by $\Psi_{\xi}$.

Discrete Gaussian over $R$. Since $\mathbf{p}$ is an orthogonal basis of $R$ (embedded into $H$ ), $\mathbf{e}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \zeta_{m}^{j} e_{i}$ with $e_{i} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}, s / \sqrt{n}}$ is according to $D_{R, s}$.

### 5.1.3 Ring-LWE

The Learning With Errors over rings (Ring-LWE) was introduced in [19], where the worst-case hardness result was also proven. Based on basis $\mathbf{p}, x \in K \otimes \mathbb{R}$ can be represented as $x=\sum_{i} x_{i} \zeta_{m}^{i}$ for $x_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$. Also, $x \in K / q R \otimes \mathbb{R}$ can be represented as $x=\sum_{i} x_{i} \zeta_{m}^{i}$ for $x_{i} \in[0, q)$. Let $\mathbb{T}=K / q R \otimes \mathbb{R}$.

For $s \in R_{q}$ and distribution $\chi$ over $K \otimes \mathbb{R}$, a sample from distribution $A_{s, \chi}$ over $R_{q} \times \mathbb{T}$ consists of $(a, b)$ with $a \leftarrow R_{q}, e \leftarrow \chi$ and $b=a s+e \bmod q$.

Decisional ring-LWE (ring-DLWE ${ }_{q, \chi, m}$ ) states that independent samples from $A_{s, \chi}$ for $s \leftarrow R_{q}$ and the same number of samples uniformly over $R_{q} \times \mathbb{T}$ are indistinguishable. Denote this assumption with $\chi=D_{R, r}$ by ring-DLWE ${ }_{q, r, m}$.

### 5.1.4 Matrix Representations for Operations over $\boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{q}}$

In this subsection, we will give some useful facts on the matrix representation over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ for elements, vector or matrix over $R_{q}$. For $b \in R_{q}$, define $\phi_{1}(b)=$ $\mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-1} \cdot \operatorname{DIAG}(\underset{\sim}{b}), \phi_{2}(b)=\mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{T} \cdot \operatorname{DIAG}(\underset{\sim}{b}) \cdot \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-T}$. Generally, for $\mathbf{D}=\left(d_{i j}\right) \in$ $R_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ and $u=1,2$, define $\phi_{u}(\mathbf{D})=\left(\phi_{u}\left(d_{i j}\right)\right)_{1 \leq i \leq \ell, 1 \leq j \leq k}$ (a block matrix with entry $(i, j)$ being $\left.\phi_{u}\left(d_{i j}\right)\right)$. For $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}$, define $\ddagger(\mathbf{v})=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}v_{0} & v_{1} & \cdots & v_{n-1} \\ -v_{n-1} & v_{0} & \cdots & v_{n-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -v_{1} & -v_{2} & \cdots & v_{0}\end{array}\right]$. The following facts about $\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}, \ddagger$ are useful.
Lemma 13. Let $s \in R_{q}, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{b} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$ and $\mathbf{D}=\left(\mathbf{d}^{(1)}, \cdots, \mathbf{d}^{(k)}\right) \in R_{q}^{\ell \times k}$.

1. $\phi_{1}(\mathbf{b})=\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-1}\right)\left[\begin{array}{c}\operatorname{DiAG}\left(b_{\mathfrak{l}}\right) \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{DIAG}\left(b_{\ell}\right)\end{array}\right], \phi_{2}(\mathbf{b})=\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{CRT}_{m}^{T}\right)\left[\begin{array}{c}\operatorname{DIAG}\left(b_{\downarrow}\right) \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{DIAG}\left(b_{\ell}\right)\end{array}\right] \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-T}$.
2. $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})=\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \operatorname{CRT}_{m}^{T}\right)\left[\begin{array}{ccc}\operatorname{DIAG}\left(d_{11}\right) & \cdots & \operatorname{DIAG}\left(d_{1 k}\right) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \operatorname{DIAG}\left(d_{\ell 1}\right) & \cdots & \operatorname{DIAG}\left(d_{\ell k}\right)\end{array}\right]\left(\mathbf{I}_{k} \otimes \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-T}\right)$.
3. $\underline{\mathbf{b} s}=\phi_{1}(\mathbf{b}) \underset{\sim}{s}$.
4. $\left[\underline{\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{b}}\right]^{T}=[\underline{\mathbf{e}}]^{T} \phi_{2}(\mathbf{b})$. Further, $\left(\left(\underline{\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{d}^{(1)}}\right)^{T}, \cdots,\left(\underline{\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}}\right)^{T}\right)=[\underline{\mathbf{e}}]^{T} \cdot \phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})$.
5. $\phi_{2}(s)=\ddagger(\underline{s})$.

Proof. Items 1 and 2 follow by definition. For item 3, notice that for $s, b \in R_{q}$, $\underline{b s}=\mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-1}(\underset{\sim}{b} \odot \underset{\sim}{s})=\phi_{1}(b) \underset{\sim}{s}$. Generalizing to $\mathbf{b} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$ follows by definition of $\phi_{1}(\mathbf{b})$. For item 4, notice $(\underline{b s})^{T}=s^{T} \phi_{1}^{T}(b)=\underline{s}^{T} \cdot \operatorname{CRT}_{m}^{T} \phi_{1}^{T}(b)=\underline{s}^{T} \phi_{2}(b)$ for $s, b \in R_{q}$. Thus, $\left[\underline{\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{b}}\right]^{T}=\sum_{i}\left[\underline{e_{i} b_{i}}\right]^{T}=\sum_{i}\left[\underline{e}_{i}\right]^{T} \phi_{2}\left(b_{i}\right)=[\underline{\mathbf{e}}]^{T} \phi_{2}(\mathbf{b})$. Generalizing to the second part of item 4 follows by definition of $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})$. For item 5 , notice that $[\underline{b s}]^{T}=\underline{s}^{T} \cdot \ddagger(\underline{b})\left(\right.$ as $x^{n}+1=0$ in $\left.R_{q}\right)$. But we know that $[\underline{b s}]^{T}=\underline{s}^{T} \cdot \phi_{2}(b)$. Since $s$ is arbitrary in $R_{q}$, the result follows.

In the remaining of this section, we will present materials for ring-LWE based PAKE instantiation. Due to the space limitation, we present it in the intuitive level. The formal details appear in the full paper.

### 5.2 Supporting Properties from Ring-LWE

Regularity. We prove a regularity result: for discrete Gaussian e over $R^{\ell}$ and uniformly random $\mathbf{D}$ over $R_{q}^{\ell \times k}, \mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{D}$ is statistically close to uniform over $R_{q}^{k}$ (for quite general $k, \ell$ ). The strategy is as follows. By Lemma $13(4), \mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{D}$ is represented by $[\mathbf{e}]^{T} \phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})$. It suffices to show that $[\mathbf{e}]^{T} \phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})$ is close to uniform in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times n k}$. We use Lemma 3 (with Lemma 1 ) to do this. This essentially only requires to show that $\min _{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k n}-\{\mathbf{0}\}}\left\|\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}$ is large, as it implies a full column rank of $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})$ and large $\lambda_{1}^{\infty}\left(\Lambda\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D})\right)\right)$. This requirement is shown in the full paper. It should be noted that our regularity result with a special form of $\mathbf{D}$ appeared in [20] while the case of $k=1$ is in [10].

Adaptive Smoothness-I. Given $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{h} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$ and a $[\ell n, k, d]_{p}$-code $\mathcal{C}$ with large $d$, we show the following holds with high probability (over $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{h}$ ): let $\mathbf{E}$ be discrete Gaussian over $\mathbb{Z}^{\ell n \times \mu}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ be adaptively chosen after given $\mathbf{E}^{T} \cdot \phi_{1}(\mathbf{a})$. Then,

1. $\min _{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n+1}-\mathbf{0}}\left\|\left(\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}), \underline{\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}}\right) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}$ is large for all but one $\mathbf{u}$ in $\mathcal{C}$, where $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}} \in$ $R_{q}^{\ell}$ is defined so that $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}=\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{h}} \odot \mathbf{u}$;
2. $\mathbf{E}^{T}\left(\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}), \underline{\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}}\right)$ is close to uniform over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu \times(n+1)}$ for all $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{C}$ but the exceptional one in item 1 , where the statistical closeness is over $\mathbf{E}$.

To show item 1, it suffices to show $\left\|\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{s}^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}$ for any $\mathbf{s}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}-\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is large and the $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$-distance from $t\left(\underline{\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}}\right)$ to $\mathcal{L}\left(\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a})\right), \forall t \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$, is large for all but one $\mathbf{u}$ in $\mathcal{C}$. The former is given by a random argument and the latter is a consequence of Lemma 11, using $\underline{\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}}=\left(\mathbf{I}_{\ell} \otimes \mathrm{CRT}_{m}^{-1}\right)(\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{w}}-\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{h}} \odot \mathbf{u})$. Item 2 follows from the adaptive version of Lemma 3, using item 1.

Adaptive Smoothness-II. In smoothness-I, we can extract $\mu$ random elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ (i.e., $\left.\mathbf{E}^{T}\left(\underline{\mathbf{w}}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}\right)\right)$ from $\mu \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{E}^{T} \phi_{1}(\mathbf{a})$. In smoothness-II, we show this extraction efficiency can be improved. Specifically, for $\mathbf{D} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell \times k}, \mathbf{h} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$ and a $\left[\ell n, k^{\prime}, d\right]_{p}$-code $\mathcal{C}$ with large $d$, we show the following holds with high probability (over $\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{h}$ ). Let $\mathbf{e}$ be discrete Gaussian in $R^{\ell}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ is adaptively chosen after given $\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{D}$.

1. $\min _{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k n+L}{ }_{-\mathbf{0}}}\left\|\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}), \phi_{2}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}\right)_{L}\right) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}$ is large for all but one $\mathbf{u}$ in $\mathcal{C}$, where $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$ is defined s.t. $\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}=\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{h}} \odot \mathbf{u}$ and $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{v})_{L}$ is the first $L$ columns of $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{v})$.
2. $\left(\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{D},\left[\mathbf{e}^{T}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{u}}\right)\right]_{1}^{L}\right)$ is close to uniform in $R_{q}^{k} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$ for all $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{C}$ but the exceptional one in item 1 , where $[\mathbf{x}]_{1}^{L}$ is the first $L$ components of vector $\mathbf{x}$ and the statistical closeness is over $\mathbf{e}$.

Here $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is arbitrary (e.g. $k=1$ and later we will take $k=2$ ). The parameter $L<n$ but we can achieve $L=\Theta(n)$. Consequently, we can now extract $\Theta(n)$ elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ from $\mathbf{e}^{T} \mathbf{D} \in R_{q}^{k}$. The proof of item 1 is given by a strengthened regularity. The idea of item 2 is to use Lemma 13(4) to study the distribution of its matrix form $[\mathbf{e}]^{T}\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}), \phi_{2}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{h}_{u}\right)_{L}\right)$. This is provably close to uniform for all but one $\mathbf{u}$ by item 1 and a variant of [28, Lemma 19].

Hidden-Bits Lemma from Ring-LWE. We extend LWE-based hidden-bits lemma in Sect. 4.2 to the ring-LWE setting. It essentially says that given a redundant ring-LWE tuple, we can extract some random bits of the secret that is confidential to an attacker. Formally, for fixed $\alpha, \beta \in R_{q}$, let $L^{\prime}=\mid\{i \mid(\underset{\sim}{\alpha}[i], \underset{\sim}{\beta}[i]) \neq$ $(0,0), i \in[n]\} \mid$. Then, given $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$ and $\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{b} t+\mathbf{x}$ for $s, t \leftarrow R_{q}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$, it holds that $[\underline{\alpha s+\beta t}]_{1}^{L}$ is indistinguishable from uniformly random in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$ under the ring-DLWE assumption.
Trapdoor Generation from Ring-LWE. We generalize the trapdoor generation algorithm in $\mathbb{Z}^{m}$ in [21] to the ring-LWE setting. The algorithm will generate a random matrix $\mathbf{D} \in R_{q}^{\ell \times \nu}$ together with a trapdoor $\mathbf{R}$ so that $\mathbf{R}$ can be used to decode $\mathbf{t}$ from $\mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{x}$ when $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ is short. Ducas and Micciancio [10] obtained the generalization for case $\nu=1$. We obtain the result for the general $\nu$ case. Our algorithm is simply the ring version of [21]: $\mathbf{D}=\left(\mathbf{D}_{0} ; \mathbf{I}_{\nu} \otimes \mathbf{g}-\mathbf{R}^{T} \mathbf{D}_{0}\right)$ for a random matrix $\mathbf{D}_{0}$ in $R_{q}^{(\ell-k \nu) \times \nu}$ and a discrete Gaussian matrix $\mathbf{R}$ in $R^{(\ell-k \nu) \times k \nu}$, where $\mathbf{g}=\left(1,2, \cdots, 2^{k-1}\right)^{T}$ and $k=\lceil\log q\rceil$. To show that $\mathbf{D}$ is random, it requires to show that given $\mathbf{D}_{0}, \mathbf{R}^{T} \mathbf{D}_{0}$ is statistically random. This follows by our regularity result above. The decoding property is a trivial extension of [21].

### 5.3 ASPHs from Ideal Lattices

In this section, we will present our construction of ASPH from ideal lattices. The idea is to extend the LWE-based schemes to the ring-LWE setting.

### 5.3.1 Construction of $\boldsymbol{\delta}$-ASPH $_{\boldsymbol{A}}$

Let $L \leq n, \theta \in(0,1), k=o(n), \ell \in \mathbb{N}, p$ constant prime. Take $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}, \mathbf{D}=$ $\left(\mathbf{d}_{1}, \mathbf{d}_{2}\right) \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell \times 2}$. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a $[\ell n, k, \theta \ell n]_{p}$-code. For $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$, define $\mathbf{g}_{\pi} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$ such that $\mathbf{g}_{\pi}=\mathbf{g} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$.

The Commitment Scheme. The commitment key is $(\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{g})$. To commit to $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$, take $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow R_{q}^{2}$ and $\mathbf{z}$ discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$. The commitment is $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{D t}+$ $\mathbf{g}_{\pi}+\mathbf{z}$ with witness $(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$. The decommitment is $(\pi, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$. Let $\operatorname{ver}(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}, \pi, \mathbf{w})=1$ if and only if $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{g}_{\pi}+\mathbf{z}$ with $\|\underline{\mathbf{z}}\|$ small.

Then, we define $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{L}^{*}$. Let $\mathcal{X}=\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k} \times R_{q}^{\ell}$. Then, $\mathcal{L}$ is generically defined by ver. Define $\mathcal{L}^{*}=\left\{(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{X} \mid\left\|\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}), \phi_{2}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g}_{\pi}\right)_{L}\right) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}\right.$ is small for some $\mathbf{s} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{2 n+L}-\{\mathbf{0}\}\right\}$, where $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{v})_{L}$ is the first $L$ columns of matrix $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{v})$.

Our commitment is secure: the hiding property directly follows from ringDLWE assumption and binding property is implied by properties of $\mathcal{L}^{*}$ :
(1) $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^{*}$. This is true as $\left\|\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}), \phi_{2}(\mathbf{D} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{z})_{L}\right) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}$ with short $\mathbf{z}$ is small for some non-zero $\mathbf{s}$. Indeed, via Lemma 13, one can find $2 n \times n$ matrix $A$ s.t. $\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}) A=\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D t})$. Let $\mathbf{1}_{L}=(1, \cdots, 1)^{T}($ with $L 1 \mathrm{~s}), \mathbf{1}_{L}^{+}=(1, \cdots, 1,0, \cdots, 0)^{T}$ (with $L 1 \mathrm{~s}$ and $(n-L) 0 \mathrm{~s})$. For $\mathbf{s}=\left(-A \mathbf{1}_{L}^{+} ; \mathbf{1}_{L}\right),\left\|\left(\phi_{2}(\mathbf{D}), \phi_{2}(\mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{z})_{L}\right) \mathbf{s}\right\|_{\infty}=$ $\left\|\phi_{2}(\mathbf{z}) \mathbf{1}_{L}^{+}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|\underline{\mathbf{z}}\|$ (small), where $\phi_{2}\left(z_{i}\right)=\ddagger\left(\underline{z_{i}}\right)$ (Lemma 13(5)) is used.
(2) For $\mathbf{w} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$, there is at most one $\pi$ so that $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$. This follows from property 1 of adaptive smoothness-II.

Description of $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$. For secret key o discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$, define the projection key $\alpha(\mathbf{o})=\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D}$. For $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{X}$, let $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{o}, \pi, \mathbf{w})=\left[\underline{\mathbf{o}^{T}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g}_{\pi}\right)}\right]_{1}^{L}$. If $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}$ with witness $\tau=(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$, then let $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(\mathbf{o}))=\left[\underline{\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{t}}\right]_{1}^{L}$.
Correctness. For $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{L}$, there exists $\tau=(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z})$ with small $\|\underline{\mathbf{z}}\|$ s.t. $\mathbf{w}=$ $\mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{g}_{\pi}+\mathbf{z}$. Then, $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{o}, \pi, \mathbf{w})-\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \alpha(\mathbf{o}))=\left[\underline{\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{z}}\right]_{1}^{L}=\left[\sum_{i=1}^{\ell}\left[\underline{z}_{i}\right]^{T} \ddagger\left(\underline{o}_{i}\right)\right]_{1}^{L}$ (by Lemma $13(4)(5)$ ), which is short by Lemma 2 as $\mathbf{o}$ is Gaussian and $\|\underline{\mathbf{z}}\|$ is small. Adaptive Smoothness. Given $\pi$ and any function $f: R_{q}^{2} \rightarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$, let o discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$ and $\mathbf{w}=f\left(\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D}\right)$. If $(\pi, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{X} \backslash \mathcal{L}^{*}$, then by definition of $\mathcal{L}^{*}, \mathbf{g}_{\pi}$ is not the exceptional $\mathbf{u}$ in the result of adaptive smoothness-II. Thus, $\left(\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D},\left[\underline{\mathbf{o}^{T}\left(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{u}}\right)}\right]_{1}^{L}\right)$ is close to uniform in $R_{q}^{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$.
 $(\alpha(\mathbf{o}), \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{U})$ are indistinguishable, when $\mathbf{o}, \mathbf{z}$ discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$ and $(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{U}) \leftarrow R_{q}^{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{L}$. Let $(a, b)=\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D}$. By regularity property, with high probability, $(\underset{\sim}{a}[i], \underset{\sim}{b}[i]) \neq 0$ holds for most of $i$ 's. So strong smoothness follows from hidden-bit lemma in Sect.5.2.

### 5.3.2 Construction of $\boldsymbol{\delta}$-ASPH $_{B}$

Let $\mu \in \mathbb{N}, \theta \in(0,1), k=o(n), \ell \in \mathbb{N}, p$ constant prime. Take $\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{a} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a $[\ell n, k, \theta \ell n]_{p}$-code. For $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$, define $\mathbf{h}_{\pi} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$ such that $\mathbf{h}_{\pi}=\underset{\sim}{\mathbf{h}} \odot \mathcal{C}(\pi)$.
trapSim-commitment. The commitment to $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$ using public-key ( $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{h}$ ) is $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{h}_{\pi}+\mathbf{x}$ for $s \leftarrow R_{q}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ discrete Gaussian over $R^{\ell}$. Details and language $\mathcal{L}$ are identical to $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$. Further, the trapdoor simulation follows.
$-\operatorname{sim}\left(1^{n}\right)$. Take $\mathbf{h} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell}$; use the trapdoor generation algorithm in Sect.5.2 with $\nu=1$ to generate $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{R}$ so that $\mathbf{R}$ can decode $\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}$ as long as $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ is not large. With $\mathbf{R}$, membership $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}$ can be verified, by trying to decode $(s, \mathbf{x})$ so that $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h}_{\pi}$.

Let $\mathcal{X}=\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k} \times R_{q}^{\ell}$. We define $\mathcal{L}^{*} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ so that $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$ if $t\left(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}\right)=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}$ for some $(t, s, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q} \times R_{q} \times R_{q}^{\ell}$ with $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ short and $(t, s) \neq(0,0)$. We now verify three required properties for $\mathcal{L}^{*}$.

1. $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}^{*}$. It is evident by adapting witness $(s, \mathbf{x})$ for $\mathcal{L}$ to $(1, s, \mathbf{x})$ for $\mathcal{L}^{*}$.
2. Given $\mathbf{y} \in R_{q}^{\ell}$, there is at most one $\pi$ with $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$. Notice that $t\left(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}\right)=$ $\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}$ (via Lemma 13(3)) is equivalent to $t\left(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}\right)=\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}) \underset{\mathcal{S}}{ }+\underline{\mathbf{x}}$. By adaptive smoothness-I, there is at most one $\pi$ so that this holds with short $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ and nonzero $(t, s)$, desired.
3. For $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) \leftarrow \operatorname{sim}\left(1^{n}\right),(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$ can be verified using $\mathbf{R}$ as follows. For each $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$, try to use $\mathbf{R}$ to recover $(s, \mathbf{x})$ so that $t\left(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}\right)=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}$ for short $\mathbf{x}$. If it succeeds, then claim $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}^{*}$; otherwise, claim $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \notin \mathcal{L}^{*}$. The validity of this algorithm is by the decoding capability of $\mathbf{R}$.

The commitment security is evident: the hiding property is by the ring-DLWE assumption and the binding property follows from properties 1,2 above for $\mathcal{L}^{*}$.
Description of $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{B}$. We now define $\mathcal{H}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$. Take secret $\mathbf{E}$ discrete Gaussian over $\mathbb{Z}^{n \ell \times \mu}$ and the projection key is $\mathbf{U}=\alpha(\mathbf{E})=\mathbf{E}^{T} \phi_{1}(\mathbf{a})$. The projective hash $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{E}, \pi, \mathbf{y})=\mathbf{E}^{T}\left(\underline{\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}}\right)$. With witness $\tau=(s, \mathbf{x})$, define $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\tau, \mathbf{U})=\mathbf{U} s$.
Correctness. For $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{L}$, let $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{h}_{\pi}+\mathbf{x}$ with short $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$. Then, by Lemma 13(3), $\mathbf{E}^{T}\left(\underline{\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}}\right)=\mathbf{E}^{T} \phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}) \underline{\mathcal{N}}+\mathbf{E}^{T} \underline{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{U}_{\mathcal{S}}+\mathbf{E}^{T} \underline{\mathbf{x}}$. The correctness follows as $\left\|\mathbf{E}^{T} \underline{\mathbf{x}}\right\|_{\infty}$ is small by Lemma 2 (since $\mathbf{E}$ is Gaussian and $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ is short).

Smoothness. For any $(\pi, \mathbf{y}) \notin \mathcal{L}^{*}, \mathbf{y}$ can not be expressed as $t\left(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}\right)=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{x}$ with short $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ for some $(t, s) \neq(0,0)$. Via Lemma $13(3),\left\|\left(\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}), \underline{\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}}\right)\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)\right\|_{\infty}$ is large for any non-zero $(t, s)$. By adaptive smoothness-I, $\mathbf{E}^{T}\left(\phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}), \underline{\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi}}\right)$, is close to uniform over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\mu \times(n+1)}$.

### 5.4 A Ring-LWE-Based Instantiation of PAKE

We now instantiate our framework from Ring-LWE. In a nutshell, we realize the KF-MAC using the construction in Sect. 3.3 and key reconciliation scheme
from Sect. 3.2, while instantiating $\mathbb{H}_{1}=\left(\Pi_{1}\right.$, ver $\left._{1}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{1}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ by $\delta$ ASPH $_{B}$ and $\mathbb{H}_{2}=\left(\Pi_{2}\right.$, ver $\left.{ }_{2}^{*}, \mathcal{H}_{2}, \hat{\mathcal{H}}_{2}, \alpha_{2}\right)$ by $\delta-\mathrm{ASPH}_{A}$, constructed in the last subsection. Our protocol will use the following parameters, notations and functions.

- $m$ is a power of $2 ; n=\frac{m}{2} ; \theta \in(0,1)$; prime $q ; p$ a constant prime with $p<q$; $\ell_{1}=\Theta(\log n)$ and $\ell_{2}=\omega(1) \leq \ell_{1} ; k=o(n)$; password dictionary $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{k}$.
- For $i=1,2$, let $\mathcal{C}_{i}$ be a $\left[\ell_{i} n, k, \theta \ell_{i} n\right]_{p}$-code from Lemma 7 .
$-\mathbb{H}_{1}$ takes $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{h} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell_{1}}$ as its public-key and uses code $\mathcal{C}_{1}$.
$-\mathbb{H}_{2}$ takes $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell_{2}}, \mathbf{D}=\left(d_{i j}\right) \leftarrow R_{q}^{\ell_{2} \times 2}$ as its public-key and uses code $\mathcal{C}_{2}$. In addition, we use $\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{o}^{T} \mathbf{D} \in R_{q}^{2}$ with $\mathbf{o} \leftarrow\left(D_{R, \sqrt{n} r_{2}}\right)^{\ell_{2}}$ as the public projection key for the PAKE framework.
- $\delta_{1}$ is the bound on the noise term for the commitment in $\mathbb{H}_{1}$ and $\mathbb{H}_{2}$.
- As before, $F_{K}$ is the KF-MAC in Sect. 3.3 with a fuzzy verification function $\Phi_{K^{\prime}} ; G$ is a pseudorandom generator; $£$ is a reconciliation scheme for Alice and Bob, as in Sect.3.2.

The public parameter is $\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{D}| \mathbf{v}|\mathbf{g}| \mathbf{h}|F| £\left|\mathcal{C}_{1}\right| \mathcal{C}_{2} \mid q$. Then, the instantiated PAKE protocol between $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ is described in Fig. 4 (see Sect. 5.4 for details).

### 5.5 Implementation Results

Due to the space limitation, the efficiency details and comparison are given in the full paper and a summary is given in Table 1. We now provide a proof-ofconcept implementation of our RLWE-PAKE scheme. The parameters are chosen as Fig. 5(a) and the output of $H$ is 256 bits. The implementation is done on the platform of Intel Core i7-7700HQ CPU at 2.80 GHz with 7.7 GiB RAM running on the Ubuntu 16.04 LTS 64-bits operation system. Our program uses C++ language and the Number Theory Library (NTL) [27] without parallel techniques. The computational performance is presented in Fig. 5(b). In the setup phase, public parameters are generated. The columns of $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ denote the time cost

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{i}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) \quad \text { Pub: } \quad \mathbf{a}|\mathbf{D}| \mathbf{v}|\mathbf{g}| \mathbf{h}|F| £\left|\mathcal{C}_{1}\right| \mathcal{C}_{2} \mid q \quad P_{j}\left(\pi_{i j}\right) \\
& \mathbf{x} \leftarrow\left(D_{R, \sqrt{n} r_{1}}\right)^{\ell_{1}}, s \leftarrow R_{q} \quad \xrightarrow{\mathbf{y} \mid P_{i}} \\
& \mathbf{y}=\mathbf{a} s+\mathbf{h}_{\pi_{i j}}+\mathbf{x} \\
& \boldsymbol{\xi}=£_{\text {bob }}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \mathbf{U} s),\|\underline{\mathbf{z}}\| \stackrel{?}{\leq} \delta_{1} \quad \mathbf{E} \leftarrow\left(D_{\mathbb{Z}, r_{2}}\right)^{\ell_{1} n \times \mu}, \\
& \omega=\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}| \mathbf{U}|\boldsymbol{\sigma}| i \mid j \quad \underset{\boldsymbol{w}|\mathbf{U}| \boldsymbol{\sigma}\left|\eta_{0}\right| P_{j}}{\longleftrightarrow} \\
& \mathbf{w} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{g}_{\pi_{i j}}+\mathbf{z}, \eta_{0} \stackrel{?}{=} F_{[\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}]_{1}^{L}}(\omega \mid 0) \\
& \mathbf{U}=\mathbf{E}^{T} \phi_{1}(\mathbf{a}), \mathbf{y}^{\prime}=\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{h}_{\pi_{i j}} \\
& (\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \leftarrow £_{\text {alice }}\left(\mathbf{E}^{T} \underline{\mathbf{y}^{\prime}}\right), \\
& \mathbf{w}=\mathbf{D t}+\mathbf{g}_{\pi_{i j}}+\mathbf{z} \\
& \text { If yes, } \eta_{1}=F_{[\mathbf{v t}]_{1}^{L}}(\omega \mid 1) \& \text { output } s k \quad \omega=\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}| \mathbf{U}|\boldsymbol{\sigma}| i \mid j, \quad \eta_{0}=F_{[\mathbf{v t}]_{1}^{L}}(\omega \mid 0) \\
& \xrightarrow{\eta_{1}} \text { If } \eta_{1}=F_{[\underline{\mathrm{vt}}]_{1}^{L}}(\omega \mid 1) \text {, output } s k
\end{aligned}
$$

Fig. 4. Our Protocol RLWE-PAKE: $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow R_{q}^{2}$ and $\mathbf{z} \leftarrow\left(D_{R, \sqrt{n} r_{1}}\right)^{\ell_{2}}$ are sampled with randomness $\Upsilon$, where $\Upsilon \mid s k=G(\boldsymbol{\xi})$.

| $n$ | $q$ | $p$ | $\ell_{1}$ | $\ell_{2}$ | $L$ | $\mu$ | $k_{1}$ | $k_{2}$ | $r_{1}$ | $r_{2}$ | $L^{\prime}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1024 | $2^{30}+2^{13}+1$ | 13 | 10 | 10 | 1014 | 32 | 64 | 64 | 5.7 | 4571 | 128 |

(a) parameters

| Setup | $P_{i}$ | $P_{j}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1.36 s | 0.20 s | 0.71 s |
| (b) | time cost |  |


| $P_{i}$ (bytes) | $P_{j}$ (bytes) | sk (bytes) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 39990 | 167090 | 16 |
| (c) message and $s k$ size |  |  |

Fig. 5. Performance of RLWE-PAKE
of computations by $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ respectively. The message size and session key size are listed in Fig. 5(c). It shows the message sizes by $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ respectively in order to agree on a 16 bytes session key. This is a reference implementation without optimizing. Practically, matrix multiplications can be done in parallel.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The authors actually used $n$ CPA-secure ciphertexts.

