Pseudorandomness of Ring-LWE for Any Ring and Modulus

Chris Peikert∗  Oded Regev†  Noah Stephens-Davidowitz‡

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Abstract

We give a polynomial-time quantum reduction from worst-case (ideal) lattice problems directly to the decision version of (Ring-)LWE. This extends to decision all the worst-case hardness results that were previously known for the search version, for the same or even better parameters and with no algebraic restrictions on the modulus or number field. Indeed, our reduction is the first that works for decision Ring-LWE with any number field and any modulus.
1 Introduction

In recent years, Learning With Errors (LWE) [Reg05] and its more compact variant Ring-LWE [LPR10] have served as foundations for a wide variety of lattice-based cryptographic constructions (e.g., [PW08, GPV08, SS11, BV11, GSW13, Pei14, ADPS16, BGV12, GSW13, BCD+16]). Informally, for a dimension \( n \) and integer modulus \( q \), LWE is concerned with “noisy” linear equations \( b_i = \langle a_i, s \rangle/q + e_i \) for a secret \( s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \) and public vectors \( a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \), all uniformly random and independent. The error terms \( e_i \) are drawn from some known distribution, usually a Gaussian of width \( \alpha \ll 1 \), called the error rate. Similarly, Ring-LWE deals with noisy ring products \( b_i = a_i \cdot s/q + e_i \) for a secret \( s \in \mathbb{R}^\lor/q \mathbb{R}^\lor \) and public \( a_i \in \mathbb{R}/q \mathbb{R} \), where \( \mathbb{R} \) is usually taken to be the ring of algebraic integers in a number field \( K \), and \( \mathbb{R}^\lor \subset K \) is the “dual” ideal of \( R \). Here the error terms \( e_i \) are drawn from an appropriate \( n \)-dimensional (usually Gaussian) distribution, with an analogous notion of error rate.

The average-case search (Ring-)LWE problem is to find the secret, given many noisy equations as described above. For cryptographic purposes, however, one usually relies on hardness of the decision problem, which is to distinguish such equations from uniformly random ones, i.e., where the \( b_i \) are uniform and independent of everything else. In other words, one wants (Ring-)LWE samples to be pseudorandom. A main attraction of these problems is their provable hardness assuming the intractability of worst-case lattice problems. Ring-LWE is particularly attractive for its efficiency and compactness, but many of its instantiations still lack such hardness theorems, as we now detail.

**Hardness of Ring-LWE.** There is a large disparity between known hardness theorems for search and decision Ring-LWE. Following the original template of [Reg05] for plain LWE, prior work [LPR10] gives a sequence of two main reductions. The first is a (quantum) reduction from worst-case problems like the approximate Shortest Independent Vectors Problem (SIVP) on ideal lattices in a given ring to search Ring-LWE over that same ring [LPR10, Section 4]. The second is a (classical) reduction from search to decision for Ring-LWE [LPR10, Section 5]. However, the first reduction is much more general: it applies to any number field and any modulus that is not too small (relative to the error rate), whereas the search-to-decision reduction works only for prime moduli that “split well” and cyclotomic number fields, or more generally, Galois fields (see [EHL14]). The splitting condition can be waived via an additional “modulus switching” reduction [LS15] (which builds on a technique from [Pei09, BV11, BLP+13]), at the cost of somewhat increasing the error rate. However, the restriction to Galois number fields—a rather narrow class—seems unavoidable using prior techniques.

There are a few reasons why one might wish to use Ring-LWE over non-Galois number fields. For one, the algebraic structure of Galois fields, or cyclotomics in particular, might conceivably be used to attack worst-case ideal-lattice problems like approximate SIVP, or Ring-LWE itself. Most cryptographic constructions based on Ring-LWE use inverse-polynomial (or inverse-quasipolynomial) error rates, which correspond to polynomial worst-case approximation factors for ideal-lattice problems. For such parameters, no known algorithm significantly outperforms those for plain LWE or SIVP on general lattices. However, a series of recent works [CGS14, BS16, CDPR16, CDW17] has yielded polynomial-time quantum algorithms that (under plausible heuristics) obtain subexponential \( \exp(\tilde{O}(\sqrt{n})) \) approximation factors for SIVP in prime-power cyclotomics. These algorithms are not known to apply to any nontrivial instantiations of Ring-LWE.
however. (Indeed, it is unknown whether Ring-LWE reduces to even the exact version of SIVP on ideal lattices in the same ring.)

A second reason to consider alternative rings is that there are families of number fields for which the worst-case reduction to search Ring-LWE delivers better approximation factors than for cyclotomics \cite{Roq67,PR07,LPR10}—as small as \(\omega(\sqrt{\log n})\), versus small polynomial factors—which suggests stronger hardness for cryptographic applications. However, decision Ring-LWE for such fields was not previously supported by any hardness theorems.

**Hardness of plain LWE.** There is a less-pronounced gap between the known hardness of search and decision for plain LWE, but the state of the art is still unsatisfactory. For search, there is a quantum reduction (from worst-case SIVP on general lattices) that works for any large enough modulus, and obtains the best known parameters \cite{Reg05}. For decision, however, there are various specialized and incomparable reductions \cite{Reg05,Pei09,ACPS09,MM11,MP12,BLP13}, which either impose some number-theoretic constraints on the modulus, or incur some significant loss in the LWE parameters. For example, the modulus-switching reduction from \cite{BLP13} increases the error rate, which ultimately yields a weaker worst-case approximation factor than for the corresponding search LWE problem.

### 1.1 Contributions

Our main contribution is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from worst-case (ideal) lattice problems directly to decision (Ring-)LWE. This yields a conceptually simpler hardness proof for (Ring-)LWE, and avoids the need for search-to-decision reductions. More specifically, we extend to decision all worst-case hardness results that were previously known for search, for the same or even better parameters and with no algebraic restrictions on the modulus or number field. In particular, our reduction works for any modulus in the plain \(LWE\) setting (Theorem 5.1), and for any modulus and any number field in the ring setting (Theorem 6.2). Our results also appear to be sufficiently general to adapt to “module” lattices and \(LWE\) \cite{BGV12,LS15}.

Finally, our techniques apply entirely to the classical (non-quantum) part of the iterative quantum reduction from \cite{Reg05}, and can therefore also be applied to the alternative classical reduction for \(LWE\) from \cite{Pei09}.

Our second contribution, which may be of independent interest, is a random self-reduction for bounded-distance decoding (BDD) with Gaussian error. (See Section 3.) This ultimately yields a \(\tilde{\Theta}(n^{1/4})\)-factor improvement in the Ring-LWE error size versus the result of \cite[Section 5]{LPR10} (for non-spherical error).

### 1.2 Which Number Fields To Use?

Our reduction says that decision Ring-LWE with any large enough modulus (and appropriate error distribution) is supported by a worst-case hardness guarantee, where the approximation factor is determined solely by the error rate. This applies to any fixed choice of number field, but it gives no guidance about which number fields are preferable for security. Apart from trivial reductions (e.g., from a number field to an extension), it is an open question whether there is any formal connection between different number fields for worst-case ideal lattice problems (like SIVP) or Ring-LWE. It is also unclear what properties of number fields may affect the complexity of such problems.

We do note, however, that the geometry of the dual ideal \(R^\vee\) affects the error rates that can be usefully employed in cryptographic applications. These typically need error of rate \(\alpha\) to be decodable relative to the...
dual ideal $R^\vee$, which is usually ensured by taking $\alpha$ to be somewhat smaller than the minimum distance $\lambda_1(R^\vee)$. As $\alpha$ decreases, worst-case hardness theorems give weaker guarantees (i.e., larger approximation factors), and known attacks on Ring-LWE become more efficient. Therefore, a smaller $\lambda_1(R^\vee)$ corresponds to worse parameters and thereby appears to provide less security. (A similar phenomenon arises for rings having large “expansion factors.”) See, e.g., [LM06, Gen09]. Cyclotomic fields have relatively large $\lambda_1(R^\vee)$ (and correspondingly small expansion factors), which is one of the reasons that they are often used in applications.

1.3 Techniques

Here we describe the main new techniques used in our reduction. (See Section 2 for the relevant definitions.) Except where noted, we focus our discussion on plain LWE and general lattices.

**Staring at the black box.** A part of Regev’s original reduction for LWE [Reg05] transforms an instance of Bounded Distance Decoding (BDD, the problem of finding the closest lattice vector to a target $t$ that is guaranteed to be rather close to a lattice $L$) into LWE samples whose secret corresponds to the closest lattice vector $v \in L$ to $x$, and whose error rate $\alpha$ is (proportional to) $\text{dist}(t, L) = \|t - v\|$ (see Lemma 5.3). Regev showed that, as long as $\text{dist}(t, L)$ is small enough, a suitable oracle for search LWE will find the secret, which allows for the recovery of $v$.

In contrast, our reduction uses an oracle for decision LWE for a particular error rate $\hat{\alpha}$, and works by incrementally moving $t$ towards the closest lattice vector $v$ by carefully measuring the behavior of the oracle. To accomplish this, we consider $p(\alpha)$, the probability that the oracle accepts when given LWE samples with error rate $\alpha$. Notice that we can closely approximate $p(\text{dist}(t, L))$ for any $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by repeatedly invoking the oracle on LWE samples generated from $t$ and measuring the oracle’s acceptance probability. Our goal is to use this to detect when a point $t'$ is “significantly closer” to the lattice than $t$ is (more precisely, $\text{dist}(t', L) \leq (1 - 1/\text{poly}(n)) \text{dist}(t, L)$). This allows us to solve BDD by repeatedly perturbing $t$ to a new point $t'$, testing whether the new point is significantly closer to the lattice, and if so setting $t = t'$. (A similar idea is used in [LLM06], in a different context.)

To see how we can use the oracle to detect when we have moved closer to the lattice, suppose for the moment that its acceptance probability $p(\alpha)$ is a monotonically decreasing function of the error rate $\alpha$, and assume also that it decreases noticeably around $\alpha = \text{dist}(t, L)$. In this case, $p(\text{dist}(t', L))$ will be noticeably larger than $p(\text{dist}(t, L))$ if and only if $t'$ is significantly closer to the lattice than $t$ is, and we can easily detect this by approximating $p(\text{dist}(t', L))$ and $p(\text{dist}(t, L))$.

**Looking for change in all the wrong places.** Let us now drop the assumption that $p$ decreases noticeably around $\alpha = \text{dist}(t, L)$, but still assume that it is monotonically decreasing. We now need to deal with the possibility that $p(\alpha)$ may be nearly constant for all $\alpha \approx \text{dist}(t, L)$. In this case, $|p(\text{dist}(t', L)) - p(\text{dist}(t, L))|$ will be negligible for any small perturbation $t'$ of $t$. As a result, we cannot hope to tell whether we have moved closer to the lattice by examining $p(\text{dist}(t', L))$ and $p(\text{dist}(t, L))$ alone.

In order to overcome this, recall that by hypothesis, for a particular error rate $\alpha$ the difference between $p(\alpha)$ and, say, $p(\sqrt{n})$ is noticeable, because LWE samples with error rate $\sqrt{n}$ are essentially uniform. Therefore, even though $p(\alpha)$ could be constant for $\alpha \in [0, \hat{\alpha}]$, it must decrease noticeably somewhere beyond $\hat{\alpha}$. As a first attempt to exploiting this property, we can add some extra error to the LWE samples obtained from $t$ and $t'$. More precisely, if $(a_i, b_i)$ are LWE samples with error rate $\alpha$, then adding independent Gaussians of width $\beta$ to the $b_i$ yields samples with error rate $\sqrt{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$. This lets us approximate $p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t, L)^2 + \beta^2})$ for any $t$ and $\beta \geq 0$, which is quite useful. Indeed, we can use this to search for a region where $p$ decreases noticeably:
given \( t \) and a small perturbation \( t' \), we can approximate \( p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t, L)^2 + \beta^2}) \) and \( p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t', L)^2 + \beta^2}) \) for various values of \( \beta \). If \( \text{dist}(t, L) - \text{dist}(t', L) \) is sufficiently large, then we will recognize this when we use a value of \( \beta \) for which \( p \) decreases noticeably around parameter \( \sqrt{\text{dist}(t, L)^2 + \beta^2} \).

**Be fruitful and multiply.** Unfortunately, the above technique stops working once \( t \) becomes too close to the lattice. To see this, suppose that \( p(\alpha) \) is constant for all \( \alpha \leq \hat{\alpha} \), and that \( \text{dist}(t, L) \ll \hat{\alpha} \). Then we may not be able to distinguish between \( p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t, L)^2 + \beta^2}) \) and \( p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t', L)^2 + \beta^2}) \) for any small perturbation \( t' \) of \( t \) and any \( \beta \geq 0 \). For small \( \beta \lesssim \hat{\alpha} \) the two values are nearly identical by assumption, and for large \( \beta \gtrsim \hat{\alpha} \) the extra error of width \( \beta \) “drowns out” the original error of width \( \text{dist}(t, L) \) or \( \text{dist}(t', L) \).

Although it is possible to salvage the technique, we choose to follow a different path, mainly because we know how to extend it to the ring setting. Instead of increasing the error *additively* and working with \( p(\sqrt{\text{dist}(t, L)^2 + \beta^2}) \), we increase the error *multiplicatively* and work with the function \( p(r \text{dist}(t, L)) \) for \( r \geq 1 \), i.e., we approximate \( p(r \text{dist}(t, L)) \) and \( p(r \text{dist}(t', L)) \) for many different values of \( r \). As long as \( \text{dist}(t, L)/\text{dist}(t', L) - 1 \) is non-negligible, we can find an \( r \geq 1 \) such that \( p(r \text{dist}(t, L)) \) is significantly larger than \( p(r \text{dist}(t', L)) \). So, at least when \( p(\alpha) \) is monotone, we can use this to recognize when \( t' \) is significantly closer to the lattice than \( t \) is.

Of course, in order to implement this idea, we need to generate LWE samples whose error rate is \( \alpha = r \text{dist}(t, L) \) for any desired \( r \geq 1 \). Fortunately, the original reduction in [Reg05] already allows for this: in addition to a BDD target \( t \) and lattice \( L \), the reduction also takes samples from a discrete Gaussian of some width \( r \) over the dual lattice \( L^* \); the error rate of the resulting LWE samples is (proportional to) \( r \text{dist}(t, L) \). Regev takes \( r \) to be as small as possible to minimize this error rate, but since we wish to increase the error rate multiplicatively, we use larger values of \( r \) as well. (Intuitively, sampling from the discrete Gaussian becomes easier as \( r \) increases.)

**In need of monotony.** The above discussion relied on the simplifying assumption that our oracle’s acceptance probability \( p(\alpha) \) is monotonically decreasing in the error rate \( \alpha \). We now describe how to drop this assumption. The idea is to use our ability to approximate \( p(r \text{dist}(t, L)) \) for any \( r \geq 1 \) to allow us to approximate a new monotonic function \( P(\text{dist}(t, L)) \).

There are many possible choices for \( P \); we use

\[
P(\alpha) := \max_{r \geq 1}(1 + \log r)(p(r \alpha) - p_{\infty}).
\]

(Here \( p_{\infty} := \lim_{\alpha \to \infty} p(\alpha) \), which is well approximated by, say, \( p(\sqrt{m}) \).) Clearly, \( P(\alpha) \) is monotonically decreasing. Furthermore, it is easy to see that \( P(\alpha) \) decreases noticeably in the neighborhood of any \( \alpha \leq \hat{\alpha} \).

In [Lemma 4.2], we show how to efficiently approximate \( P(\text{dist}(t, L)) \) well enough to recognize when \( t' \) is significantly closer to the lattice than \( t \).

**Putting a ring on it.** The above ideas exploit the fact that Regev’s reduction converts a BDD instance \((L, t)\) into plain-LWE samples whose error rate \( \alpha \geq 0 \) is proportional to \( \text{dist}(t, L) \). The reduction to (search) Ring-LWE due to [LPR10] uses a variant of this procedure that works on ideal lattices. More specifically, it converts a BDD instance \((L, t)\) for some ideal \( L \) into Ring-LWE samples, but the resulting error distribution is specified by a vector of error rates, not just a scalar. (See [Lemma 6.8]) The error rate \( \alpha_i \) in the \( i \)th coordinate is proportional to \( |\sigma_i(v - t)| \), where \( v \in \hat{L} \) is the closest ideal element to \( t \), and \( \sigma_i \) is the \( i \)th ring embedding from the ring into the complex numbers. (See [Section 2.3.1] for details.) In general, a decision oracle’s acceptance probability can depend on the vector \( (\alpha_i) \) of error parameters in complicated ways, so that it is
not immediately clear how to use the oracle to detect when a perturbation $t'$ is significantly closer to the ideal than $t$ is.

To adapt our reduction to the ring setting, we therefore work with each embedding separately, varying $\sigma_i(t)$ while holding $\sigma_j(t)$ fixed for all $j \neq i$, and eventually finding every $\sigma_i(v)$ and hence $v$ itself. More specifically: starting from $t$ with $z = \sigma_i(t)$, we repeatedly:

1. slightly perturb $t$ in the $i$th embedding to $t'$ with $z' = \sigma_i(t')$;
2. use the reduction from [LPR10] to approximate our oracle’s acceptance probabilities for error rates $\alpha_i = r|\sigma_i(v) - z|$ and $\alpha'_i = r|\sigma_i(v) - z'|$ for various values of $r \geq 1$ (and $\alpha_j = \alpha'_j = |\sigma_j(v - t)|$ for all $j \neq i$); and
3. use this information to detect if $|\sigma_i(v) - z'|$ is significantly smaller than $|\sigma_i(v) - z|$, setting $t = t'$ if so.

Note that in order for the above procedure to work, error with parameter $\alpha_i = r|\sigma_i(v) - z|$ (and essentially any other parameters $\alpha_j$ for $j \neq i$) must be close to uniform modulo $R^r$ for large enough $r$. Fortunately, this is indeed the case, as shown in Lemma 6.9. We also emphasize that the search for each $\sigma_j(v)$ starts from the same initial target $t$, and varies only one embedding $\sigma_i(t)$, for the following reason. We know that our oracle has noticeable distinguishing advantage on Ring-LWE samples having error parameters $\alpha_j = |\sigma_j(v - t)|$, but we have no additional guarantees about its advantage for other parameters. It is therefore important that we not “lose hold” of the oracle’s advantage as we vary the parameters, i.e., that when $t'$ is closer to the ideal than $t$ is, we can always find some $r \geq 1$ such that our oracle still has noticeable advantage on samples having error parameter $\alpha'_i = r|\sigma_i(v) - \sigma_i(t')|$ (and $\alpha'_j = \alpha_j$ for all $j \neq i$).

**Tighter parameters via average-case BDD.** As mentioned above, the approximation factor achieved by our reduction for Ring-LWE is tighter than the one from [LPR10] by a factor of $\Theta(n^{1/4})$. We achieve this by giving a natural random self-reduction for BDD, showing that the ability to solve BDD with even small non-negligible probability for Gaussian-distributed offset vectors implies the ability to solve it with high probability for offset vectors that are distributed according to a slightly narrower Gaussian. (See Section 3.) A morally similar reduction appears in [LPR10], but is lossier (and messier) because it solves worst-case BDD, as opposed to solving it with high probability for Gaussian-distributed error.

At a technical level, the proof relies on an elegant theorem due to Borell [Bor85], which says that the “least-correlated” functions under Gaussian error are indicators of half-spaces. This theorem is used extensively in the study of the hardness of approximation and the analysis of boolean functions (see, e.g., [O’D14 Section 11.3]), but to our knowledge, this is its first application in the study of computational problems on lattices.

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## 2 Preliminaries

Throughout this work we assume for simplicity that for computational purposes, real numbers are specified with sufficiently high precision.

For any real $r > 0$, define the Gaussian function $\rho_r : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ of parameter (or width) $r$ as $\rho_r(x) = \exp(-\pi(x/r)^2)$, and the continuous Gaussian probability distribution $D_r$ to have density function $\rho_r(x)/r$.

**Lemma 2.1 ([Reg05 Claim 2.2]).** For $0 < \alpha < \beta$, the statistical distance between $D_\alpha$ and $D_\beta$ is at most $10(\beta/\alpha - 1)$.
2.1 Learning with Errors

Here we recall the Learning With Errors (LWE) distribution and decision problem. We specialize to continuous Gaussian error $D_\alpha$, which will be the main case of interest in this work. Let $n$ and $q$ be positive integers, and let $\alpha > 0$ be an error rate. The quotient ring of integers modulo $q$ is denoted $\mathbb{Z}_q := \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$. The quotient group of reals modulo the integers is denoted $\mathbb{T} := \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$.

**Definition 2.2.** For $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, the LWE distribution $A_{s,\alpha}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$ is sampled by independently choosing uniformly random $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and $e \leftarrow D_\alpha$, and outputting $(a, b = \langle a, s \rangle/q + e \mod \mathbb{Z})$.

**Definition 2.3.** For an integer $q = q(n) \geq 2$ and error parameter $\alpha = \alpha(n) > 0$, the average-case decision problem $\text{LWE}_{q,\alpha}$ is to distinguish between independent samples over $\mathbb{Z}_q^n \times \mathbb{T}$, drawn from either: (1) the LWE distribution $A_{s,\alpha(n)}$ for some uniformly random $s \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ (which is fixed for all samples), or (2) the uniform distribution.

For simplicity, the number of samples $m = m(n)$ provided in the input is usually left as an unspecified polynomial that may even depend on the algorithm. The advantage of an algorithm for the above problem is the (absolute value of) the difference between its acceptance probabilities on the two types of inputs.

2.2 Lattices and Gaussians

**The space $H$.** When dealing with number fields and algebraic number theory, we work with a certain linear subspace $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{s_1} \times \mathbb{C}^{2s_2}$ for some integers $s_1, s_2 \geq 0$ where $n = s_1 + 2s_2$, defined as

$$H = \{(x_1, \ldots, x_n) : x_{s_1+s_2+i} = \overline{x_{s_1+i}}, \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq s_2\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n. \tag{2.1}$$

One can verify that $H$, with the induced inner product from $\mathbb{C}^n$, is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$ as a real inner product space.

**Lattices.** For our purposes, a lattice is a full-rank discrete additive subgroup $\mathcal{L} \subset H$. Any lattice is generated as the set of all integer linear combinations of some (non-unique) $n$ linearly independent basis vectors $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, as $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i \mathbf{b}_i : z_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. The minimum distance of $\mathcal{L}$ is $\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) := \min_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}} \|\mathbf{v}\|$, the length of a shortest nonzero lattice vector. More generally, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, the $i$th successive minimum of $\mathcal{L}$ is

$$\lambda_i(\mathcal{L}) := \inf\{r : \mathcal{L} \text{ has } i \text{ linearly nonzero vectors of length at most } r\}.$$ 

The dual lattice of a lattice $\mathcal{L} \subset H$ is defined as $\mathcal{L}^* := \{\mathbf{x} \in H : \langle \mathcal{L}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\}$.

**Gaussians.** We generalize $D_r$ to axis-aligned elliptical Gaussian distributions over the space $H \subset \mathbb{R}^{s_1} \times \mathbb{C}^{2s_2}$. Define $G = \{\mathbf{r} \in (\mathbb{R}^+)^n : r_{s_1+s_2+i} = r_{s_1+i}, \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq s_2\}$; note this has symmetry mirroring that of $H$. For consistency with prior works, we sometimes use $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{R}^+$ as shorthand for the all-ones vector $\mathbf{1} \in G$. For $\mathbf{r} \in G$, the elliptical Gaussian distribution $D_r$ over $H$ is defined to have density function proportional to

$$\rho_r(\mathbf{x}) := \exp\left(-\pi \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i/r_i|^2\right). \tag{2.2}$$
This can be seen as essentially a product distribution of \( s_1 \) real and \( 2s_2 \) complex Gaussians, modulo the conjugate symmetry of \( H \), where the \( i \)th real Gaussian has parameter \( r_i \), and the \( i \)th and \((s_2 + i)\)th complex Gaussians have parameter \( r_{s_1+i}/\sqrt{2} \), and are complex conjugates.

We recall a generalization of the lattice smoothing parameter [MR04] to elliptical Gaussians. In contrast to [MR04], where the smoothing parameter is defined to be a real number, here we capture a more general condition that makes an elliptical Gaussian “smooth” with respect to the lattice. Observe that the notation is consistent with the partial ordering on \( G \) defined by \( r' \geq r \) if \( r'_i \geq r_i \) for all \( i \). We sometimes omit the subscript \( \varepsilon \) when it is an unspecified negligible function in \( n \).

**Definition 2.4 (Smoothing Condition).** For a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset H \), real \( \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( r \in G \), we write \( r \geq \eta_{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{L}) \) if \( \rho_{1/r}(\mathcal{L}^* \setminus \{0\}) \leq \varepsilon \), where \( 1/r = (1/r_1, \ldots, 1/r_n) \).

The following lemma justifies the name “smoothing parameter,” and is an immediate generalization of [MR04] Lemma 4.1] to elliptical Gaussians.

**Lemma 2.5.** For any lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset H \), real \( \varepsilon > 0 \), and \( r \geq \eta_{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{L}) \), the statistical distance between \( D_{\varepsilon} \mod \mathcal{L} \) and the uniform distribution over \( H/\mathcal{L} \) is at most \( \varepsilon/2 \).

The following is an immediate implication of [Ban93] Lemma 1.5].

**Lemma 2.6.** For any lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset H \) and \( c \geq 1 \), we have \( c\sqrt{n}/\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*) \geq \eta_{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{L}) \) where \( \varepsilon = \exp(-c^2n) \).

The following standard fact can be found, e.g., in [Reg05] Claim 2.13].

**Claim 2.7.** For any lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset H \) and \( \varepsilon \in (0,1) \), we have \( \eta_{\varepsilon}(\mathcal{L}) \geq \sqrt{\log(1/\varepsilon)/\pi}/\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*) \).

**Proof.** Let \( s := \sqrt{\log(1/\varepsilon)/\pi}/\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*) \). Then,

\[
\rho_{1/s}(\mathcal{L}^*) \geq 1 + e^{-\pi s^2 \lambda_1(\mathcal{L})} = 1 + \varepsilon.
\]

For a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \) and \( r \in G \), the discrete Gaussian probability distribution \( D_{\mathcal{L},r} \) is defined to have support \( \mathcal{L} \), and has mass function \( D_{\mathcal{L},r}(x) := \rho_r(x)/\rho_r(\mathcal{L}) \) for \( x \in \mathcal{L} \).

**Computational problems.** In the following computational problems, a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \) is represented by an arbitrary basis \( \mathcal{B} \), and a lattice coset \( e+\mathcal{L} \) is represented by its distinguished representative \( \overline{e} = (e+\mathcal{L}) \cap P(\mathcal{B}) \), where \( P(\mathcal{B}) := \mathcal{B} \cdot [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^n \) is the fundamental parallelepiped of \( \mathcal{B} \).

**Definition 2.8 (Gap Shortest Vector Problem).** For an approximation factor \( \gamma = \gamma(n) \geq 1 \), the GapSVP\(_\gamma \) is: given a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \) and length \( d > 0 \), output YES if \( \lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) \leq d \) and NO if \( \lambda_1(\mathcal{L}) > \gamma d \).

**Definition 2.9 (Shortest Independent Vectors Problem).** For an approximation factor \( \gamma = \gamma(n) \geq 1 \), the SIVP\(_\gamma \) is: given a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \), output \( n \) linearly independent lattice vectors of length at most \( \gamma(n) \cdot \lambda_n(\mathcal{L}) \).

**Definition 2.10 (Discrete Gaussian Sampling).** For a function \( \gamma \) that maps lattices to nonnegative reals, the DGS\(_\gamma \) problem is: given a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \) and a parameter \( r \geq \gamma(\mathcal{L}) \), output an independent sample from a distribution that is within negligible statistical distance of \( D_{\mathcal{L},r} \).

**Definition 2.11 (Bounded Distance Decoding).** For a function \( \delta \) that maps lattices to nonnegative reals, the BDD\(_\delta \) problem is: given a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset H \), a distance bound \( d \leq \delta(\mathcal{L}) \), and a coset \( e+\mathcal{L} \) where \( \|e\| \leq d \), output \( e \).
Lemma 2.12 ([LL L82, Bab85]). There is an efficient algorithm that solves BDD$_δ$ for $δ(\mathcal{L}) = 2^{-n/2} \cdot λ_1(\mathcal{L})$.

Finally, we define a new average-case problem, which is essentially BDD where the offset is drawn from a Gaussian.

Definition 2.13 (Gaussian Decoding Problem). For a lattice $\mathcal{L} \subset H$ and a Gaussian parameter $g > 0$, the GDP$_{\mathcal{L},g}$ problem is: given a coset $e + \mathcal{L}$ where $e \in H$ was drawn from $D_g$, find $e$.

2.3 Algebraic Number Theory

Here we briefly review the requisite concepts and notation from algebraic number theory. Our presentation is an abridged version of [LPR10] Section 2.3; see that work and references therein for many more details.

2.3.1 Number Fields and Their Geometry

A number field is a field extension $K = \mathbb{Q}(ζ)$ obtained by adjoining an element $ζ$ to the rationals $\mathbb{Q}$, where $ζ$ satisfies the relation $f(ζ) = 0$ for some irreducible polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, called the minimal polynomial of $ζ$, which is monic without loss of generality. The degree $n$ of the number field is the degree of $f$.

A number field $K = \mathbb{Q}(ζ)$ of degree $n$ has exactly $n$ ring embeddings (i.e., injective ring homomorphisms) $σ_i : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Each embedding sends $ζ$ to one of the roots of its minimal polynomial $f$; the embedding is said to be real if that root is real (in which case the image of the embedding is contained in $\mathbb{R}$), otherwise it is complex. Because the roots of $f$ come in conjugate pairs, so too do the complex embeddings. We let $s_1$ and $s_2$ respectively be the number of real embeddings and pairs of complex embeddings, so $n = s_1 + 2s_2$, with $σ_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq s_1$ being the real embeddings and $σ_{s_1 + s_2 + i} = σ_{s_1 + i}^+$ for $1 \leq i \leq s_2$ being the conjugate pairs of complex embeddings.

The (field) norm (or algebraic norm) of an element $a \in K$ can be defined as $N(a) := \prod_{i=1}^{n} σ_i(a)$; clearly, the norm is multiplicative. Similarly, the trace can be defined as $Tr(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} σ_i(a)$. The field norm and trace of a number field element is always rational.

The canonical embedding $σ : K \rightarrow H$, where $H \subset \mathbb{R}^{s_1} \times \mathbb{C}^{2s_2}$ is as defined in Section 2.2 above, is defined as $σ(a) = (σ_1(a), \ldots, σ_n(a))$. Observe that this is a ring homomorphism from $K$ to $H$, where multiplication and addition in the latter are both component-wise. We define norms and other geometric quantities on $K$ simply by identifying field elements $a \in K$ with their canonical embeddings $σ(a) \in H$, e.g., the $ℓ_2$ norm is $||a||_2 := ||σ(a)||_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} |σ_i(a)|^2)^{1/2}$ and the $ℓ_∞$ norm is $||a||_∞ = \max_i |σ_i(a)|$.

The canonical embedding also allows us to view Gaussian distributions $D_r$ over $H$ (for $r \in G$), or their discrete analogues over a lattice $\mathcal{L} \subset H$, as distributions over $K$. Formally, the continuous distribution $D_r$ is actually over the field tensor product $K_\mathbb{R} = K \otimes_\mathbb{Q} \mathbb{R}$, which is in bijective correspondence with $H$ via the natural extension of $σ$.

2.3.2 Ring of Integers and Ideals

An algebraic integer is an algebraic number whose minimal polynomial over the rationals has integer coefficients. For a number field $K$, we denote its subset of algebraic integers by $O_K$. This set forms a ring (under the addition and multiplication operations of $K$), called the ring of integers of the number field. The norm of any algebraic integer is a rational integer, i.e., in $\mathbb{Z}$.

An (integral) ideal $\mathcal{I} \subset O_K$ is a nontrivial additive subgroup that is also closed under multiplication by $O_K$, i.e., $r \cdot a \in \mathcal{I}$ for any $r \in O_K$ and $a \in \mathcal{I}$. Any ideal $\mathcal{I}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module of rank $n$, i.e., it is the set of all $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combinations of some basis $\{b_1, \ldots, b_n\} \subset \mathcal{I}$ of linearly independent (over $\mathbb{Z}$) elements $b_i$.
The norm of an ideal $I$ is its index as a subgroup of $O_K$, i.e., $N(I) := |O_K/I|$. The product $IJ$ of two ideals $I, J$ is the set of all sums of terms $xy$ for $x \in I, y \in J$. The norm for ideals is consistent with the norm for field elements, in that $N(aO_K) = |N(a)|$ for any $a \in O_K$, and $N(IJ) = N(I)N(J)$.

A fractional ideal $I \subset K$ is a set such that $dI \subset O_K$ is an integral ideal for some $d \in O_K$. Its norm is defined as $N(I) := N(dI)/|N(d)|$. The set of fractional ideals forms a group under multiplication, and the norm is clearly multiplicative on this group.

### 2.3.3 Ideal Lattices and Duality

Under the canonical embedding $\sigma$, any fractional ideal $I \subset K$ yields a lattice $\mathcal{L} = \sigma(I) \subset H$, which is called an ideal lattice. Recalling that $I$ has a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $B = \{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$, we see that $B = \{\sigma(b_1), \ldots, \sigma(b_n)\} \subset \mathcal{L}$ is a basis of $\mathcal{L}$. We often identify an ideal with its embedded lattice, and refer to the minimum distance $\lambda_1(I)$ of an ideal, etc. The (absolute) discriminant $\Delta_K$ of a number field $K$ is the squared volume of the ring of integers lattice $\sigma(O_K)$, i.e., $\Delta_K = |\det(\text{Tr}(b_i \cdot b_j))|$ where $\{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$ is any $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of $O_K$.

For any fractional ideal $I \subset K$, its dual ideal is defined as $I^\vee := \{a \in K : \text{Tr}(ax) \leq 2\}$. Observe that $\text{Tr}(ab) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(a)\sigma_i(b) = \langle \sigma(a), \sigma(b) \rangle$, dual ideals and dual lattices are related by $\sigma(I^\vee) = \sigma(I)^\vee$. An important canonical fractional ideal in a number field $K$ is the codifferent ideal $O_K^\vee$, i.e., the dual ideal of the ring of integers. This ideal has norm $N(O_K^\vee) = \Delta_K^{-1}$, and provides a link between dual and inverse ideals: $I^\vee = I^{-1} \cdot O_K^\vee$ for any fractional ideal $I \subset K$.

All of the computational problems on lattices defined in Section 2.2 can be specialized by restricting them to (fractional) ideal lattices in a number field $K$. We refer to these specialized problems by prefixing them by $K$, e.g., $K$-GDP, $K$-DGS, etc.

### 2.4 Ring-LWE

Let $K$ be a number field with ring of integers $R = O_K$. Recall that $R^\vee$ is the (fractional) codifferent ideal of $K$, and let $\mathbb{T} = K_\mathbb{R}/R^\vee$. Let $q \geq 2$ be a (rational) integer modulus, and for any fractional ideal $I$ of $K$, let $I_q = I/qI$.

**Definition 2.14 (Ring-LWE Distribution).** For $s \in R_q^\vee$ and an error distribution $\psi$ over $K_\mathbb{R}$, the $R$-LWE distribution $A_{s,\psi}$ over $R_q \times \mathbb{T}$ is sampled by independently choosing a uniformly random $a \leftarrow R_q$ and an error term $e \sim \psi$, and outputting $(a, b = (a \cdot s)/q + e \mod R^\vee)$.

**Definition 2.15 (Ring-LWE, Average-Case Decision).** Let $\mathcal{Y}$ be a distribution over a family of error distributions, each over $K_\mathbb{R}$. The average-case Ring-LWE decision problem, denoted $R$-LWE$_{q,\mathcal{Y}}$, is to distinguish (with non-negligible advantage) between independent samples from $A_{s,\psi}$ for a random choice of $(s, \psi) \leftarrow U(R_q^\vee) \times \mathcal{Y}$, and the same number of uniformly random and independent samples from $R_q \times \mathbb{T}$.

### 2.5 Probability

**Lemma 2.16 (Chernoff-Hoeffding bound [Hoe63]).** Let $X_1, \ldots, X_N$ be independent and identically distributed random variables with $0 \leq X_i \leq 1$ and $\overline{X} := \mathbb{E}[X_i]$. Then, for any $s > 0$

\[
\Pr\left[\left|N\overline{X} - \sum X_i\right| \geq s\right] \leq 2 \exp(-s^2/N).
\]

We will also need the following slight strengthening of Lemma 2.16. See, e.g., [AS16, Theorem 7.2.1].
Lemma 2.17. Let \(X_1, \ldots, X_N \in \{0, 1\}\) be boolean random variables with \(\Pr[X_i = 1 \mid X_1 = x_1, \ldots, X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}] \geq p\) for all \(1 \leq i \leq N\), all \(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1} \in \{0, 1\}\), and some \(0 < p < 1\). Then, for any \(s > 0\),
\[
\Pr\left[Np - \sum X_i \geq s\right] \leq \exp(-s^2/(2N)).
\]

3 Random Self-Reduction for GDP

Our goal in this section is to prove Proposition 3.3, a random self-reduction for GDP, showing that the ability to solve GDP even with some small non-negligible probability over the offset vector implies the ability to solve GDP for a slightly smaller parameter with all but negligible probability.

The proof is based on the following theorem by Borell [Bor85]. It says that the functions that are “least correlated” under Gaussian error are indicators of two opposing half-spaces. We let \(\delta\) be any correlated under Gaussian error are indicators of two opposing half-spaces. We let \(\delta\) be any
\[
\delta = \Phi^{-1} : (0, 1) \to \mathbb{R}
\]
denote the inverse of the cumulative distribution function of the normal distribution \(D_1\) in \(n\)-dimensional space. Let \(\Phi^{-1} : (0, 1) \to \mathbb{R}\) denote the inverse of the cumulative distribution function of the normal distribution \(D_1\) (and notice that \(\Phi^{-1}(\mu) < 0\) for \(\mu < 1/2\)).

Theorem 3.1 ([Bor85]; see also [O’D14, Exercise 11.26]). Let \(f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \to [0, 1]\) be two functions and let
\[
\mu := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^n}[f(x)], \quad \nu := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^n}[g(x)].
\]
Then, for any \(\delta > 0\),
\[
\mathbb{E}_{x, z \sim D^n}[f(x)g(\delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z)] \geq \Pr_{x, z \sim D^n}[x \leq \Phi^{-1}(\mu) \text{ and } \delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z \geq -\Phi^{-1}(\nu)].
\]

Corollary 3.2. Let \(\delta = \delta(n)\) be any \(o(1)\) function, and let \(g : \mathbb{R}^n \to [0, 1]\) have expectation \(\nu := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^n}[g(x)] \geq 1/\text{poly}(n)\). Assume \(x\) is chosen according to \(D^n\). Then, there exists a \(c > 0\) such that with all but negligible probability (over the choice of \(x\)), it holds that
\[
\mathbb{E}_{z \sim D^n}[g(\delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z)] > n^{-c}.
\]

Proof. Let \(f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \{0, 1\}\) be the indicator function of the points for which Equation (3.1) does not hold, and denote its expectation by \(\mu := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^n}[f(x)]\). Then, clearly
\[
\mathbb{E}_{x, z \sim D^n}[f(x)g(\delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z)] \leq \mu \cdot n^{-c}.
\]

By Theorem 3.1 we get that
\[
\Pr_{x, z \sim D^n}[x \leq \Phi^{-1}(\mu) \text{ and } \delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z \geq -\Phi^{-1}(\nu)] \leq \mu \cdot n^{-c},
\]
or equivalently,
\[
\mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^n}[\Pr_{z \sim D^n}[\delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z \geq -\Phi^{-1}(\nu) \mid x \leq \Phi^{-1}(\mu)]] \leq n^{-c}.
\]

By Markov’s inequality, with probability at least 1/2 over the choice of \(x\) conditioned on \(x \leq \Phi^{-1}(\mu)\),
\[
\Pr_{z \sim D^n}[\delta x + (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2}z \geq -\Phi^{-1}(\nu)] \leq 2n^{-c},
\]
but since \(\delta = o(1)\), and assuming \(c\) is large enough, this implies that \(x \leq -\omega(\sqrt{\log n})\). As a result, \(\Phi^{-1}(\mu) \leq -\omega(\sqrt{\log n})\) which in turn implies that \(\mu\) is negligible, as desired. \(\square\)
Proposition 3.3. Assume we are given access to an oracle that solves \( \text{GDP}_{L,r} \) with some non-negligible probability over the choice of the coset. Then we can efficiently solve \( \text{GDP}_{L,\delta r} \) with all but negligible probability, where \( \delta = \delta(n) \) is any \( o(1) \) function.

Proof. Assume without loss of generality that \( r = 1 \). Given an input coset \( x + L \), the algorithm repeats the following a polynomial number of times. It chooses a vector \( z \) from \( D_{r'} \), where \( r' = (1 - \delta^2)^{1/2} r \), and calls the oracle with \( z + x + L \). At the end it returns the shortest solution among all the oracle responses, minus \( z \). Correctness follows from Corollary 3.2, where we take \( g \) to be the acceptance probability of the oracle.

4 Finding Your (Oracle’s) Center

For a (randomized) oracle \( \mathcal{O} : S \to \{0, 1\} \) with some domain \( S \), let \( p_{\mathcal{O}}(t) = \Pr[\mathcal{O}(t) = 1] \) for any \( t \in S \). Usually, \( \mathcal{O} \) will be clear from context, so we often omit the subscript and simply write \( p(t) \). If \( S = \mathbb{R} \), then for any \( s \in \mathbb{R} \), let \( \mathcal{O}_s : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \{0, 1\} \) be the “suffix” oracle \( \mathcal{O}_s(t) = \mathcal{O}(s + t) \). (See Figure 1.) We wish to show that, if \( \mathcal{O} \) has certain properties, then we can tell the difference between suffix oracles having sufficiently different shifts. (In our only application, Proposition 4.4, the shift \( s \) corresponds to \( \log \|z^* - z\| \), where \( z^* \in \mathbb{R}^k \) is some unknown target vector and we choose \( z \in \mathbb{R}^k \). We did not try to optimize the parameters.)

Definition 4.1 (Oracle Comparison Problem). For error parameter \( \varepsilon \geq 0 \) and \( r > 0 \), \((\varepsilon, r)\)-OCP is a promise problem defined as follows. Given access to two (randomized) oracles \( \mathcal{O}_{s_1} \) and \( \mathcal{O}_{s_2} \) for some unknown shifts \( s_1, s_2 \in [-r, r] \) and some underlying oracle \( \mathcal{O} : \mathbb{R} \to \{0, 1\} \), the goal is to output YES if \( s_2 \leq s_1 - \varepsilon \) and NO if \( s_2 > s_1 \). (If neither is the case, then any output is considered correct.)

Lemma 4.2. There is a \( \text{poly}(\kappa) \)-time algorithm that takes as input some confidence parameter \( \kappa \geq 200 \) and solves \((1/\kappa, \kappa)\)-OCP except with probability at most \( \exp(-\kappa) \), provided that the oracle \( \mathcal{O} \) and the two shifts \( s_1, s_2 \) corresponding to the instance of OCP satisfy the following conditions. There exists a \( p_\infty \in [0, 1] \) and \( t^* \geq s_1 \) such that

1. \( p(t^*) - p_\infty \geq 1/\kappa \);
2. \( |p(t) - p_\infty| \leq 2 \exp(-t/\kappa) \) for all \( t \); and
3. \( p(t) \) is \( \kappa \)-Lipschitz.
(Here, \( p(t) \) is the acceptance probability of the oracle on input \( t \), as above.) Furthermore, each of the algorithm’s oracle calls takes the form \( \mathcal{O}_{s_j}(i\Delta) \) for some \( \Delta < 1 \) that depends only on \( \kappa \) and integer \( 0 \leq i \leq \text{poly}(\kappa), \ j \in \{1, 2\} \).

**Proof.** The high-level idea behind the algorithm is to work with the function

\[
\hat{h}(s) := \max_{t \geq 0} (1 + t) |p(s + t) - p_{\infty}|. \tag{4.1}
\]

(Since \( p \) is continuous and converges rapidly to \( p_{\infty} \), this maximum is in fact achieved.) Intuitively, \( h \) is a weighted measure of the “distance from \( s \) to the next peak in the function \( p \).”

Notice that we have defined \( h(s) \) so that it is monotonically non-increasing. Therefore, in the NO case when \( s_2 > s_1 \), we must have \( h(s_2) - h(s_1) \leq 0 \). On the other hand, it is clear that \( h(s_2) - h(s_1) \) must be non-negative in the YES case when \( s_2 \leq s_1 - 1/\kappa \), and we claim that in fact \( h(s_2) - h(s_1) \geq 1/\text{poly}(\kappa) \) in this case.

To that end, let

\[
\hat{\ell}(s) := \argmax_{t \geq 0} (1 + t) |p(s + t) - p_{\infty}|
\]

be a value of \( t \) achieving the maximum in \( \text{Equation (4.1)} \). (If there are multiple such values of \( t \), we can take, e.g., the smallest.) Suppose we are in the YES case so that \( -\kappa \leq s_2 \leq s_1 - 1/\kappa \leq t^* - 1/\kappa \). Then

\[
h(s_2) = \max_{t \geq 0} (1 + t) |p(s_2 + t) - p_{\infty}| \geq (1 + \hat{\ell}(s_1) + s_1 - s_2) |p(s_1 + \hat{\ell}(s_1)) - p_{\infty}| = \left(1 + \frac{s_1 - s_2}{1 + \hat{\ell}(s_1)}\right)h(s_1).
\]

Since \( s_1 \leq t^* \), it follows from \textbf{Item 1} that \( h(s_1) \geq 1/\kappa \). Furthermore, by \textbf{Item 2} we must have \( \hat{\ell}(s_1) < 100\kappa \log \kappa \), since otherwise \( h(s_1) \) would be much smaller than \( 1/\kappa \). It follows that

\[
h(s_2) - h(s_1) > \frac{1}{\kappa^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + 100\kappa \log \kappa} \geq 1/\text{poly}(\kappa).
\]

Therefore, a sufficiently good approximation to \( h(s_1) \) and \( h(s_2) \) can be used to solve OCP. Specifically, suppose we have an algorithm with oracle access to \( \mathcal{O}_s \) for (unknown) \( s \geq -\kappa \) that takes as input \( \lambda, \kappa \) and outputs \( \bar{h} \) such that

\[
|\bar{h} - h(s)| \leq 1/\lambda, \tag{4.2}
\]

except with probability at most \( \exp(-\kappa)/2 \) (in time \( \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda) \)). The above argument shows that, by taking \( \lambda = \text{poly}(\kappa) \), such an algorithm can be used to solve \((1/\kappa, \kappa)\)-OCP. So, it remains to show that such an algorithm exists.

On input \( \lambda, \kappa \geq 200 \), the algorithm behaves as follows. For each \( i = 0, \ldots, T := \lfloor t_{\text{max}}/\Delta \rfloor \), it calls \( \mathcal{O}_s \) repeatedly, \( N \) times, on input \( i\Delta \), and sets \( \bar{p}_i \) to be the fraction of times that the oracle outputs 1 on this input. The algorithm then outputs

\[
\bar{h} := \max_i (1 + i\Delta) |\bar{p}_i - p_T|, \tag{4.3}
\]

which is meant to be an approximation to \( h(s) \). The parameters \( N \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda), t_{\text{max}} \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda), \) and \( \Delta \geq 1/\text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda) \) will be chosen below.

Clearly, as long as \( N, t_{\text{max}}, \) and \( 1/\Delta \) are polynomial in \( \kappa \) and \( \lambda \), the above algorithm is efficient. So, we need only show that \( \bar{h} \) satisfies \textbf{Equation (4.2)}. Indeed, by the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound (\text{Lemma 2.16}), we have

\[
|\bar{p}_i - p(s + i\Delta)| \leq \frac{1}{100\lambda t_{\text{max}}}
\]
for all $i, j$ except with probability at most $10T \exp(-N/(100^2 \lambda^2 t_{\text{max}}^2))$. Taking $N := \ceil{500^2 t_{\text{max}}^2 \kappa \lambda^2 \log T} \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda)$ is sufficient to make this failure probability less than $\exp(-\kappa)/2$. Next, we need to “fill in the gaps” in order to compare the maximum over a continuous set in Equation (4.1) with the maximum over a discrete set in Equation (4.3). Indeed, by Item 3 we have

$$|p(t + \chi \Delta) - p(t)| \leq \kappa \Delta$$

for all $t$ and all $\chi \in [0, 1]$. Taking $\Delta := 1/(100\kappa \lambda t_{\text{max}}) \geq 1/\text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda)$ implies that this is at most $1/(100\lambda t_{\text{max}})$. Finally, we need to argue that $p(s + T \Delta)$ is a good approximation to $p_{\infty}$. This follows from Item 2 which says that

$$|p(s + T \Delta) - p_{\infty}| \leq 2 \exp(-(s + t_{\text{max}} - \Delta)/\kappa) \leq 10 \exp(-t_{\text{max}}/\kappa),$$

where the last inequality uses the fact that $s \geq -\kappa$ (and $\Delta < 1$). Taking $t_{\text{max}} := 100\kappa \log(\kappa \lambda) \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda)$ implies that this too is at most $1/(100\lambda t_{\text{max}})$.

Combining the above bounds, we have

$$\left| (\overline{p}_i - \overline{p}_T) - (p(s + (i + \chi) \Delta) - p_{\infty}) \right| \leq \frac{1}{25 \lambda t_{\text{max}}}$$

for all $i$ and all $\chi \in [0, 1]$. Applying this to $\overline{q}_i := (1 + i \Delta) |\overline{p}_i - \overline{p}_T|$ and $q(t) := (1 + t)|p(s + t) - p_{\infty}|$, we see that

$$|\overline{q}_i - q((i + \chi) \Delta)| \leq (2 + t_{\text{max}})|\overline{p}_i - p(s + (i + \chi) \Delta)| + \Delta \leq \frac{1}{10 \lambda}$$

for all $i$ and $\chi \in [0, 1]$. Finally, we apply Equation (4.4) to the definitions of $h$ (Equation (4.1)) and $\overline{t}$ (Equation (4.3)) to see that

$$|\overline{t} - h(s)| \leq \max_{i} |\overline{q}_i - q((i + \chi) \Delta)| + \max_{t \geq t_{\text{max}}} q(t) \leq \max_{i, \chi} \overline{q}_i - q((i + \chi) \Delta) + \frac{1}{10 \lambda} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda},$$

as needed. □

**Definition 4.3 (Oracle Hidden Center Problem).** For any parameters $\epsilon, \delta \in [0, 1)$ and $\beta \geq 1$, the $(\epsilon, \delta, \beta)$-OHCP is an approximate search problem defined as follows. An instance consists of a scale parameter $d > 0$ and (randomized) oracle $O: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0} \to \{0, 1\}$ whose acceptance probability on input $(z, t)$ for $\|z - z^*\| \leq \beta d$ is $p(t + \log \|z - z^*\|)$ for some (unknown) “hidden center” $z^* \in \mathbb{R}^k$ with $\delta d \leq \|z^*\| \leq d$ and (unknown) function $p$. (I.e., for such $z$, its acceptance probability depends only on $t + \log \|z - z^*\|$.)

The goal is to output some $z \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that $\|z - z^*\| \leq \epsilon d$.

**Proposition 4.4.** There is a poly($\kappa, k$)-time algorithm that takes as input a confidence parameter $\kappa \geq 20 \log(k + 1)$ (and the scale parameter $d > 0$) and solves $(\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)$-OHCP in dimension $k$ except with probability $\exp(-\kappa)$, provided that the oracle $O$ corresponding to the OHCP instance satisfies the following conditions. For some $p_{\infty} \in [0, 1]$ and $s^* \geq 0$,

1. $p(s^*) - p_{\infty} \geq 1/\kappa$;
2. $|p(s) - p_{\infty}| \leq 2 \exp(-s/\kappa)$ for any $s$; and
3. $p(s)$ is $\kappa$-Lipschitz in $s$, on $\mathbb{R}^k$.  

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where \( p(s) \) is the acceptance probability of \( \mathcal{O} \) on input \((0, s)\). Furthermore, each of the algorithm’s oracle calls takes the form \( \mathcal{O}(\cdot, i\Delta) \) for some \( \Delta < 1 \) that depends only on \( \kappa \) and \( k \) and \( 0 \leq i \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, k) \).

**Proof.** We may assume that \( d = 1 \), since the problem is invariant under scaling. The idea behind the algorithm is to take a “guided random walk” towards the center \( z^* \).

To that end, we first claim that Lemma 4.2 yields an algorithm with the following behavior. The algorithm takes as input confidence parameters \( \kappa, \lambda \geq 100 \), runs in time \( \text{poly}(\kappa, \lambda) \), and has oracle access to \( \mathcal{O}_1 := \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{x}_1, \cdot) \) and \( \mathcal{O}_2 := \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{x}_2, \cdot) \) for some \( \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^k \) satisfying \( \exp(-\lambda) \leq \| \mathbf{x}_1 - z^* \| \leq 1 + 1/\kappa \) and \( \| \mathbf{x}_1 - z^* \| \leq \| \mathbf{x}_2 - z^* \| \). If \( \| \mathbf{x}_1 - z^* \| \leq \| \mathbf{x}_2 - z^* \| \), then it must output NO except with probability at most \( \exp(-\lambda) \). If \( \log \| \mathbf{x}_2 - z^* \| \leq \log \| \mathbf{x}_1 - z^* \| - 1/\lambda \), then it must output YES except with probability at most \( \exp(-\lambda) \). Below, we will use such an algorithm to “guide our random walk” towards \( z^* \).

To achieve this, our algorithm simply runs the procedure from Lemma 4.2 with oracles \( \mathcal{O}_1 := \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{x}_1, \cdot) \) and \( \mathcal{O}_2 := \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{x}_2, \cdot) \) and confidence parameter \( \kappa + \lambda \). It then simply outputs the response of this procedure.

To see that this works, let \( \mathcal{O}^*(\cdot) := \mathcal{O}(0, \cdot) \). Notice that our two oracles \( \mathcal{O}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{O}_2 \) correspond exactly to \( \mathcal{O}^*_1 := \mathcal{O}^*(\mathbf{x}_1, \cdot) \) and \( \mathcal{O}^*_2 := \mathcal{O}^*(\mathbf{x}_2, \cdot) \), where \( s_1 := \log \| \mathbf{x}_1 - z^* \| \). I.e., \( \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{x}_i, \cdot) \) is a shift of \( \mathcal{O}^* \) by \( s_i - \log \| z^* \| \). Since \( s_1, s_2 \in [-\lambda, \text{log}(1 + 1/\kappa)] \) by assumption, it follows that \( s_1 - \log \| z^* \| \in [-\lambda - \kappa, \lambda + \kappa] \), so that this is a valid instance of \( (1/\lambda, \lambda + \kappa) \)-OCP. Furthermore, setting \( t^* := s^* \geq 0 \geq s_1 - \log \| z^* \| \), we see that the conditions on \( \mathcal{O} \) in Items 1, 2, and 3 correspond exactly to the corresponding conditions on \( \mathcal{O}^* \) needed to apply Lemma 4.2. It follows that this algorithm correctly distinguishes the case \( s_1 \leq s_2 \) from the case \( s_2 \leq s_1 - 1/\lambda \) except with probability at most \( \exp(-\lambda) \), as needed.

We now show how to use the procedure described above to solve OHCP. On input \( \kappa \geq 20 \log(k + 1) \), our OHCP algorithm first sets \( \mathbf{z}_0 = 0 \). It then does the following for \( i = 0, \ldots, T \). It samples a coordinate \( j \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \), \( x \in [0, 1] \), and \( \sigma \in \{\pm 1\} \) uniformly at random. Let \( \mathbf{v}_i := \sigma \exp(-2\kappa x) e_j / \sqrt{\kappa^2 k} \). The algorithm then runs the procedure described above on input \( \kappa, \lambda \) with \( \mathbf{x}_1 := \mathbf{z}_i \) and \( \mathbf{x}_2 := \mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{v}_i \). If the subprocedure outputs YES, then it sets \( \mathbf{z}_{i+1} = \mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{v}_i \). Otherwise, it sets \( \mathbf{z}_{i+1} = \mathbf{z}_i \). Finally, it outputs \( \mathbf{z}_{T+1} \). The parameters \( T, \lambda \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, k) \) will be chosen below.

Clearly, as long as \( T, \lambda \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, k) \), the algorithm runs in time \( \text{poly}(\kappa, k) \), as needed. Let \( s_{i,1} := \log \| \mathbf{z}_i - z^* \| \) and \( s_{i,2} := \log \| \mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{v}_i - z^* \| \). To prove correctness, we show that (1) the subprocedure answers correctly (i.e., outputs YES whenever \( s_{i,1} \leq 1/\lambda \) and NO whenever \( s_{i,1} \leq s_{i,2} \)) for all \( i \) except with probability at most \( \exp(-\kappa)/2 \); and (2) if this holds then \( s_{T+1} := \log \| \mathbf{z}_{T+1} - z^* \| \leq -\kappa \) except with probability at most \( \exp(-\kappa)/2 \). The result then follows by union bound.
To prove (1), we prove by induction on \(i\) that, except with probability at most \(\delta_\ell := 10i \exp(-\lambda/2)\), (a) the subprocedure answers correctly for all \(i' < i\); and (b) \(s_{i,j} \in [-\lambda, \log(1 + 1/\kappa)]\) and \(s_{i,1} \leq \log \|z^*\|\).

Setting
\[
\lambda := 10\kappa k^2 \log T \leq \text{poly}(\kappa, k),
\]
we see that \(\delta_{T+1} \leq \exp(-\lambda)/2\). (We could have taken \(\lambda\) to be a bit smaller for this part of the argument, but this larger value will be necessary later.)

The claim is trivial for \(i = 0\). Let \(i > 0\) and suppose for induction that the statement holds for \(i - 1\). So, we have \(s_{i-1,j} \in [-\lambda, \log(1 + 1/\kappa)], s_{i-1,1} \leq \log \|z^*\|\), and that the subprocedure answers correctly up to and including step \(i - 1\) except with probability \(\exp(-\lambda) + \delta_{i-1}\) (where we have used the correctness of the subprocedure). In particular, it must output \(\text{NO}\) if \(s_{i-1,1} \leq s_{i-1,2}\), which implies that we always have \(s_{i,1} \leq s_{i-1,1} \leq \log \|z^*\|\). Furthermore, by triangle inequality, we have that \(\exp(s_{i,2}) \leq \exp(s_{i,1}) + \|v_i\| \leq 1 + 1/\kappa\), as needed.

To see that \(s_{i,j} \geq -\lambda\) except with probability at most \(\exp(-\lambda/2)\), first notice that since we must have either \(s_{i,1} = s_{i-1,1}\) or \(s_{i,1} = s_{i-1,2}\), we immediately have that \(s_{i,1} \geq \min\{s_{i-1,1}, s_{i-1,2}\} \geq -\lambda\). Recall that \(s_{i,2} = \log \|z_i + v_i - z^*\|\), where \(v_i = \sigma \exp(-2\kappa x) e_j / \sqrt{\kappa^2 k}\) for uniformly random \(x \in [0, 1]\) and \(\sigma \in \{\pm 1\}\). If \(s_{i,2} < -\lambda\), then by triangle inequality we must have
\[
\|z_i - z^*\| - \exp(-\lambda) \leq \|v_i\| \leq \|z_i - z^*\| + \exp(-\lambda).
\]

If \(\|z_i - z^*\| \leq 10 \exp(-\lambda/2)\), then Equation (4.5) simply cannot hold, since \(\|v_i\| \geq \exp(-2\kappa)/\sqrt{\kappa^2 k} > 11 \exp(-\lambda/2)\). On the other hand, if \(\|z_i - z^*\| \geq 10 \exp(-\lambda/2)\), then since \(\log \|v_i\|\) is uniform in an interval of length \(2\kappa\), the probability that Equation (4.5) holds is at most
\[
\log(\|z_i - z^*\| + \exp(-\lambda)) - \log(\|z_i - z^*\| - \exp(-\lambda)) \leq \frac{\exp(-\lambda)}{2\kappa \|z_i - z^*\| - \exp(-\lambda)} \leq \exp(-\lambda/2),
\]
as needed.

Finally, we prove that \(s_{T+1} \leq -\kappa\) except with probability at most \(\exp(-\lambda)/2\), conditioned on the subprocedure always answering correctly (i.e., we prove (2) above). Notice that, since the subprocedure always answers correctly, we must have \(s_{i+1,1} \leq s_{i,1}\) for all \(i\).

In particular, if \(s_{i,1} = \log \|z_i - z^*\| \leq -\kappa\) for some \(i\), then we must have \(s_{T+1} \leq s_{i,1} \leq -\kappa\), and we are done. Otherwise, let \(y := z^* - z_i\), and note that there exists some coordinate \(j\) such that \(|y_j| \geq \|y\|/\sqrt{\kappa} \geq \exp(-\kappa)/\sqrt{\kappa}\). We also have \(|y_j| \leq \|y\| \leq 1\). So, with probability at least \(\log 2/(4\kappa k) \geq 1/(10\kappa k)\), the algorithm will select the coordinate \(j, \sigma = \text{sign}(y_j)\), and \(x \in [-\log |y_j|/(2\kappa), -\log(|y_j|/2)/(2\kappa)]\). If this happens, then
\[
\|z_i + v_i - z^*\|^2 \leq (1 - 1/(2\sqrt{\kappa^2 k})) y_j^2 + \sum_{j' \neq j} y_{j'}^2 \leq \|y\|^2 \cdot (1 - 1/(2\kappa k^3/2)).
\]

In particular,
\[
s_{i,2} := \log \|z_i + v_i - z^*\| \leq \log \|z_i - z^*\| + \log(1 - 1/(2\kappa k^3/2)) \leq s_{i,1} - 1/\lambda.
\]

By assumption, the subprocedure always outputs \(\text{YES}\) in this case, so that in this case we have \(s_{i+1,1} = s_{i,2} \leq s_{i,1} - 1/(10\kappa k^3/2)\). We conclude that either \(s_{i,1} \leq -\kappa\) or
\[
\Pr[s_{i,1} - s_{i+1,1} \geq \frac{1}{10\kappa k^3/2}] \geq \frac{1}{10\kappa k}.
\]
Let $X_i \in \{0, 1\}$ be the random variable such that $X_i = 1$ if and only if either (1) $s_{i,1} - s_{i+1,1} \geq 1/(4\kappa k_{3/2})$ or (2) $s_{i,1} \leq -\kappa$. From the above, we have that $\Pr[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = x_0, \ldots, X_i = x_{i-1}] \geq 1/(10\kappa k)$ for all $x_0, \ldots, x_{i-1} \in \{0, 1\}$. Then, by Lemma 2.17, it follows that $\sum X_i \geq T/(10\kappa k) - 10\sqrt{kT}$ except with probability at most $\exp(-\kappa)/2$. Setting $T := 2000\kappa^3 k^4 \leq \poly(\kappa, k)$ gives $\sum X_i \geq 10\kappa^2 k^{3/2}$. It follows that there must exist some $i$ such that $s_{i,1} \leq -\max\{\kappa, 10\kappa^2 k^{3/2}/(4\kappa k^{3/2}) - 1/\kappa\} \leq -\kappa$.

(In particular, either condition (2) above is satisfied for some $i$ or condition (1) must be satisfied for at least $10\kappa^2 k^{3/2}$ different values of $i$.) Since $s_{i,1}$ is non-increasing in $i$, we conclude that $s_{T+1} \leq -\kappa$ except with probability at most $\exp(-\kappa)/2$, as needed.

5 Hardness of Plain LWE

Before we present our main result, a worst-case to average-case reduction for Ring-LWE for any ring, we show how to use the same technique to derive a worst-case to average-case reduction for plain LWE. This reduction is significantly simpler and illustrates most of the new ideas necessary for the ring case. In particular, we prove the following result, which is identical to [Reg05] Theorem 3.1, except that we reduce to decision LWE, rather than search.

**Theorem 5.1.** Let $\alpha = \alpha(n) \in (0, 1)$, and let $q = q(n)$ be an integer such that $\alpha q \geq 2\sqrt{n}$. There is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from DGS$_\gamma$ to (average-case, decision) LWE$_{q,\alpha}$, where $\gamma := \sqrt{2\alpha\eta(L)}/\alpha$.

Using known reductions (see, e.g., [Reg05] Section 3.3), we immediately derive the following corollary.

**Corollary 5.2.** Let $\alpha = \alpha(n) \in (0, 1)$, and let $q = q(n)$ be an integer such that $\alpha q \geq 2\sqrt{n}$. Then, there is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from SIVP$_{\gamma'}$ and GapSVP$_{\gamma'}$ to (average-case, decision) LWE$_{q,\alpha}$ for some $\gamma' = \tilde{O}(n/\alpha)$.

The high-level structure of the proof of Theorem 5.1 is nearly identical to that of the corresponding statement in [Reg05]. In particular, [Reg05] shows (1) a quantum reduction from DGS$_{\sqrt{n/\alpha}}$ to BDD$_d$ over $L^*$ for $d < \lambda_1(L^*)/2$; and (2) a classical reduction that allows us to solve BDD$_d$ over $L^*$ using discrete Gaussian samples over $L$ with parameter $r \geq \sqrt{2q\eta(L)}$ together with a search LWE$_{q,\alpha}$ oracle, with $d := \alpha q/(\sqrt{2}r)$. By combining these two steps, we can use an LWE$_{q,\alpha}$ oracle to convert discrete Gaussian samples with parameter $\gamma$ to samples with parameter $\gamma'$, where

$$\gamma' := \max\{\sqrt{2\alpha\eta(L)}/\alpha, \sqrt{n}\gamma/(\alpha q)\}.$$  

The full reduction is obtained by starting with very large Gaussian samples (which we can sample efficiently) and then repeatedly running this procedure to lower the parameter.

The main difference between our reduction and that of [Reg05] is that we use a novel classical reduction from BDD to decision LWE, rather than search LWE. (See Lemma 5.4.) Like [Reg05], we also require access to discrete Gaussian samples to achieve this. But, while this part of Regev’s reduction uses samples with a single parameter $r$, we require samples with many parameters $r' \geq r$. (Recall from Section 1.3 that we vary this parameter in order to obtain LWE samples with a variety of errors.) Regev’s quantum reduction allows for this, so this is a nonissue.

In Lemma 5.4, we show our modified classical reduction. We will need the following lemma from [Reg05], which shows how to convert discrete Gaussian samples together with a BDD instance into LWE samples.
Lemma 5.3. There is an efficient algorithm that takes as input an integer \( q \geq 2 \), a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \), a coset \( x + \mathcal{L}^* \), bound \( d \geq \|x\| \), a parameter \( r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{L}) \), and samples from \( D_{\mathcal{L},r} \). It outputs samples that are within negligible statistical distance of LWE samples with a uniformly random secret \( s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ast \) and squared error rate \( (r')^2 := (r\|x\|/q)^2 + (rd/q)^2 \).

With this, we can present our modified classical reduction.

Lemma 5.4. There exists a probabilistic polynomial-time (classical) algorithm with access to an oracle that solves LWE_{q,\alpha} that takes as input a number \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \) and an integer \( q \geq 2 \), a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \), a parameter \( r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{L}) \), and poly(\( n \)) samples from the discrete Gaussian distribution \( D_{\mathcal{L},r} \), for poly(\( n \)) parameters \( r_i \geq r \), solves BDD_{\mathcal{L}^*,d} for \( d := \alpha q / (\sqrt{2}r) \).

Proof. Let \( d' := (1 - 1/(2n)) \cdot d \). By [LM09] Corollary 2, it suffices to solve BDD_{\mathcal{L}^*,d'}.

Let \( \kappa = \text{poly}(n) \) with \( \kappa \geq 100n^2 \ell \) be such that the advantage of our LWE_{q,\alpha} oracle is at least \( 1/\kappa \), where \( \ell \geq 1 \) is the number of samples required by the oracle.

The reduction takes as input an integer \( q \geq 2 \), a lattice \( \mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \), a parameter \( r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{L}) \), samples from \( D_{\mathcal{L},r} \), for \( 1 \leq i \leq \text{poly}(n) \), and a coset \( x + \mathcal{L}^* \) where \( \|x\| \leq d' \). The goal is to recover \( x \). Without loss of generality, we may assume that \( \|x\| \geq \exp(-n)\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*) \geq (q/r) \cdot \exp(-n/2) \) (where the second inequality follows from Lemma 2.6), since otherwise we can find \( x \) efficiently using Lemma 2.12.

The reduction uses its LWE oracle to simulate an oracle \( \mathcal{O} \) such that the probability that \( \mathcal{O}(z, t) \) outputs 1 depends only on \( \exp(t)\|z - x\| \). In other words, \( \mathcal{O} \) is an oracle with a “hidden center” \( x \) as in our definition of OHCP (Definition 4.3). We will then use Proposition 4.4 to find good approximations to \( x \), which will allow us to recover \( x \).

On input \((z, t)\), the oracle \( \mathcal{O} \) uses fresh samples from \( D_{\mathcal{L},\exp(t)r} \). It then runs the transformation from Lemma 5.3 on these samples, the coset \( x - z + \mathcal{L}^* \), parameter \( r \), and distance bound \( d \) (not \( d' \)). Let \( A_{z,t} \) be the resulting samples. Then \( \mathcal{O} \) calls the LWE oracle on \( A_{z,t} \) and outputs 1 if and only if it accepts.

Using the oracle \( \mathcal{O} \), the reduction runs the procedure from Proposition 4.4 with confidence parameter \( \kappa \) and distance bound \( d' \) (not \( d \)), receiving as output some approximation \( \hat{z} \) to the oracle’s “center.” Finally, the reduction runs Babai’s algorithm (Lemma 2.12) on the coset \( x - z + \mathcal{L}^* \), receiving as output \( \hat{z} \in x - z + \mathcal{L}^* \), and returns \( \hat{z} + z \) as its own output.

The running time is clear. We first assume that \( z \) is a valid solution to \((\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)\)-OHCP with “hidden center” \( x \) and show that the reduction outputs the correct answer in this case. By definition, we have

\[
\|z - x\| \leq \exp(-\kappa)d \leq \alpha \exp(-\kappa)/\eta(\mathcal{L}) \leq 2^{-n}\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*),
\]

where the last inequality follows from Claim 2.7. So, the procedure from Lemma 2.12 will output exactly \( \hat{z} = x - z \). Therefore, the reduction returns the correct answer, \( x = \hat{z} + z \).

It remains to show that (1) the oracle \( \mathcal{O} \) represents a valid instance of \((\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)\)-OHCP with “hidden center” \( x \); and (2) the oracle additionally satisfies the requirements needed to apply Proposition 4.4.

To prove validity, we simply observe that Lemma 5.3 implies that the distribution of \( A_{z,t} \) depends only on \( \exp(t)\|z - x\| \) (up to negligible statistical distance), provided that \( \|z - x\| \leq (1 + 1/\kappa)d' \leq d \). Furthermore, by assumption \( \|x\| \geq \exp(-n)d \geq \exp(-\kappa)d' \). Therefore, \( \mathcal{O}, \kappa, \) and \( d' \) correspond to a valid instance of \((\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)\)-OHCP with “hidden center” \( x \), as needed.

It remains to show that \( \mathcal{O} \) satisfies the requirements from Proposition 4.4. We write \( p(t) \) for the probability that \( \mathcal{O} \) outputs 1 on input \((0, t)\), and \( p_{\infty} \) for the probability that our LWE oracle outputs 1 on uniformly random input. Again by Lemma 5.3 we have that \( A_{0,t} \) is statistically close to LWE samples with error rate
Throughout this section, let $K$ be a number field having $s_1$ real embeddings and $s_2$ pairs of complex embeddings, with $n = s_1 + 2s_2$, and denote its ring of integers by $R = \mathcal{O}_K$.

We now define the distribution $\Upsilon_\alpha$ over error distributions that we will use in our reduction. We note that this distribution is slightly different than the one used in [LPR10], and is in particular narrower by a factor of essentially $n^{1/4}$.

**Definition 6.1.** Fix an arbitrary $f(n) = \omega(\sqrt[4]{\log n})$. For $\alpha > 0$, a distribution sampled from $\Upsilon_\alpha$ is an elliptical Gaussian $D_r$, where $r \in G$ is sampled as follows: for $i = 1, \ldots, s_1$, sample $x_i \sim D_1$ and set $r_i^2 = \alpha^2(x_i^2 + f^2(n))/2$. For $i = s_1 + 1, \ldots, s_1 + s_2$, sample $x_i, y_i \sim D_1/\sqrt{2}$ and set $r_i^2 = r_{i+s_1}^2 = \alpha^2(x_i^2 + y_i^2 + f^2(n))/2$.

Equivalently, $r_i^2$ is distributed as a shifted chi-squared distribution for real embeddings, and a shifted chi-squared distribution with two degrees of freedom for complex embeddings. The following is the main result of the paper.

**Theorem 6.2.** Let $K$ be an arbitrary number field of degree $n$ and $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Let $\alpha = \alpha(n) \in (0,1)$, and let $q = q(n) \geq 2$ be an integer such that $\alpha q \geq \omega(1)$. There is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from $K$-DGS$_\alpha$ to (average-case, decision) $R$-LWE$_{q,\Upsilon_\alpha}$ for any

$$
\gamma = \max\left\{ \eta(I) \cdot \sqrt{2}/\alpha \cdot \omega(1), \sqrt{2n}/\lambda_1(I') \right\}.
$$

Equivalently, $r_i^2$ is distributed as a shifted chi-squared distribution for real embeddings, and a shifted chi-squared distribution with two degrees of freedom for complex embeddings. The following is the main result of the paper.

**Theorem 6.2.** Let $K$ be an arbitrary number field of degree $n$ and $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Let $\alpha = \alpha(n) \in (0,1)$, and let $q = q(n) \geq 2$ be an integer such that $\alpha q \geq \omega(1)$. There is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from $K$-DGS$_\alpha$ to (average-case, decision) $R$-LWE$_{q,\Upsilon_\alpha}$ for any

$$
\gamma = \max\left\{ \eta(I) \cdot \sqrt{2}/\alpha \cdot \omega(1), \sqrt{2n}/\lambda_1(I') \right\}.
$$

Using the easy inequality $\eta(I) > \omega(\sqrt[4]{\log n})/\lambda_1(I')$ (Claim 2.7) we get that as long as $\alpha < \sqrt{\log n}/n$ (which is typically the case in applications), the first term in the maximum in Equation (6.1) dominates. Using known reductions (see, e.g., [Reg05] Section 3.3), we immediately derive the following corollary.

**Corollary 6.3.** Let $K$ be an arbitrary number field of degree $n$ and $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Let $\alpha = \alpha(n) \in (0,1)$, and let $q = q(n) \geq 2$ be an integer such that $\alpha q \geq \omega(1)$. There is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from $K$-SIVP$_\gamma$ to (average-case, decision) $R$-LWE$_{q,\Upsilon_\alpha}$ for any

$$
\gamma = \max\left\{ \omega(\sqrt{n}/\alpha) \cdot \eta(I)/\lambda_n(I), \sqrt{2n}/(\lambda_1(I')\lambda_n(I)) \right\}
\leq \max\left\{ \omega(\sqrt{n}/\log n/\alpha), \sqrt{2n} \right\}.
$$
Lemma 6.6. There exists a probabilistic polynomial-time (classical) algorithm that given an oracle that solves the general case by reducing to this special case by rescaling coordinates. Namely, we apply the special

Lemma 6.7. GDP with respect to an ideal \( \mathcal{I} \) and parameter \( r \) for each \( \mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{K} \), a parameter \( r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{I}) \), and polynomially many samples from the discrete Gaussian distribution \( D_{\mathcal{I},x} \) for each \( r \in W_{\mathcal{I},\zeta,T} \) for some \( \zeta = 1/\text{poly}(n) \) and \( T = \text{poly}(n) \), and a vector \( r' \in G \) where \( r' \geq r' \), outputs an independent sample from \( D_{\mathcal{I},x} \).

Theorem 6.2 follows easily from this iterative step, as we now sketch. We start with a very large value of \( r \), say \( r \geq 2^{2n} \cdot \lambda_n(\mathcal{I}) \), so that samples from \( D_{\mathcal{I},x} \) for each \( r \in W_{\mathcal{I},\zeta,T} \) can be generated classically (see [Reg05, Lemma 3.2]). Then, given those samples, we apply the algorithm of Lemma 6.5 a polynomial number of times with various values of \( r' \) (using the same samples) to obtain a polynomial number of samples from \( D_{\mathcal{I},x} \) for each \( r \in W_{\mathcal{I},\zeta,T} \) where \( r' := r \cdot \omega(1)/(\alpha q) \leq r/2 \). Repeating this, we obtain samples from progressively narrower and narrowier distributions, until we get samples with the desired Gaussian parameter \( s \geq \gamma \). Note that the \( \gamma \) given in (6.1) corresponds to values of \( r, r' \) satisfying the hypotheses of Lemma 6.5.

The iterative step given by Lemma 6.5 is obtained by combining two reductions, described next in Lemmas 6.6 and 6.7. The first, whose proof is given in Section 6.1, is a reduction from GDP to (average-case, decision) \( \mathbb{R} \)-LWE, which uses Gaussian samples. This is the main novel component in our paper.

Lemma 6.6. There exists a probabilistic polynomial-time (classical) algorithm that given an oracle that solves \( \text{R-LWE}_{q,\mathcal{I},x} \) and input a number \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \) and an integer \( q \geq 2 \) together with its factorization, a fractional ideal \( \mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{K} \), a parameter \( r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{I}) \), and polynomially many samples from the discrete Gaussian distribution \( D_{\mathcal{I},x} \) for each \( r \in W_{\mathcal{I},\zeta,T} \) for some \( \zeta = 1/\text{poly}(n) \) and \( T = \text{poly}(n) \), solves \( \text{GDP}_{\mathcal{I},g} \) for any \( g = o(1) \cdot \alpha q/(\sqrt{2r}) \).

The second part is quantum, and is a very slight extension of [Reg05, Lemma 3.14].

Lemma 6.7. There is an efficient quantum algorithm that, given any \text{LWE}_{g}(\mathcal{L},r) \), a real \( g < \lambda_1(\mathcal{L}^*)/(2\sqrt{2n}) \), a vector \( r \geq 1 \), and an oracle that solves \( \text{GDP}_{\mathcal{L},g} \) (with all but negligible probability), outputs an independent sample from \( D_{\mathcal{L},r}/(2g) \).

Proof. The case \( r = 1 \) is precisely [LPR10, Lemma 4.4] (which is essentially [Reg05, Lemma 3.14]). We solve the general case by reducing to this special case by rescaling coordinates. Namely, we apply the special
case to the lattice $R^{-1}\mathcal{L}$ and $g$ where $R = \text{diag}(r)$, and obtain as output a sample from $D_{R^{-1}\mathcal{L}, 1/(2g)}$, which by left-multiplying by $R$ gives us the desired sample from $D_{\mathcal{L}, r/(2g)}$. The special case also requires an oracle that solves GDP$_{R\mathcal{L}^\ast, g}$. We construct such an oracle from our given GDP$_{\mathcal{L}^\ast, g}$ oracle $O$ in the following way: on input a coset $z + R\mathcal{L}^\ast$ where $z \leftarrow D_g$, sample a point $y$ from $D_{r'g}$ where $r' := (1 - r^{-2})^{1/2}$, then call $O$ with the coset $y + R^{-1}z + \mathcal{L}^\ast$ and return its output multiplied by $R$. It is easy to check that the input to $O$ is properly distributed, and that our oracle works as needed.

6.1 Proof of Lemma 6.6

In this section we prove Lemma 6.6, providing a reduction from GDP on any ideal lattice in any number field to a corresponding Ring-LWE decision problem. (The reduction uses discrete Gaussian samples over the dual ideal.) We adopt the notation from Section 2.3 for the ring embeddings $\sigma_i : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n = s_1 + 2s_2$, the (fractional) codifferent ideal $R^\ast \subset K$, and the discriminant $\Delta_K$ of the number field $K$.

As our starting point, the following restatement and slight generalization of [LPR10] Lemma 4.7 describes a transformation from an instance of BDD on an ideal lattice to Ring-LWE samples, which uses discrete Gaussian samples over the dual ideal. The generalization considers samples from an elliptical Gaussian, rather than just a spherical one. The proof is nearly identical, except that in [LPR10] Lemma 4.8, one needs to replace the use of [Reg05] Claim 3.9 with the more general [Pei10] Theorem 3.1 in order to analyze the sum of an elliptical discrete Gaussian and a continuous Gaussian. (In addition, for convenience the lemma says that the Ring-LWE secret is uniformly random; this is achieved using the standard technique of randomizing the secret. See, e.g., [Reg10] Lemma 3.2.)

Lemma 6.8. There is an efficient algorithm that takes as input an integer $q \geq 2$ with known factorization, a fractional ideal $\mathcal{I} \subset K$, a coset $e + \mathcal{I}^\vee$ and bound $d \geq \|e\|_\infty = \max_i |\sigma_i(e)|$, a parameter $r \geq \sqrt{2q} \cdot \eta(\mathcal{I})$, and samples from $D_{\mathcal{I}, r}$ for some $r \geq r$. It outputs samples that are within negligible statistical distance of the Ring-LWE distribution $A_{s, r'}$ for a uniformly random $s \in R_q^\vee$, where the coordinates of $r'$ are given by $(r'_i)^2 := (r_i|\sigma_i(e)|/|q^2) + (rd/q)^2$.

In particular, notice that if we sample a coset $e + \mathcal{I}^\vee$ as in GDP$_{\mathcal{I}^\vee, g}$ with $g := \alpha q/\sqrt{2r}$ and then apply Lemma 6.8 with $d := \alpha q f(n)/\sqrt{2r}$, then the distribution of the resulting error rate $r'$ is distributed exactly $\Upsilon_{\alpha}$, as defined in Definition 6.1. This is the reason that we work with $\Upsilon_{\alpha}$.

We will also use the following lemma, which says that any elliptical Gaussian whose parameters’ product is sufficiently large is “smooth” modulo an ideal.

Lemma 6.9. For any fractional ideal $\mathcal{I} \subset K$ and $r \in G$ where

$$c := \left(\prod_{i=1}^n r_i^{-1/n}\right) \cdot (N(\mathcal{I}) \cdot \Delta_K)^{-1/n} \geq 1,$$

we have $r \geq \eta_{\mathcal{I}}(\mathcal{I})$ for $\varepsilon = \exp(-c^2n)$.

Our particular case of interest is $\mathcal{I} = R^\vee$, where $N(\mathcal{I}) \cdot \Delta_K = 1$ and so $c = (\prod_i r_i)^{1/n}$.

Proof. Let $R = \text{diag}(r)$ and $\mathcal{L} = R^{-1} \cdot \sigma(\mathcal{I})$, so $\mathcal{L}^* = R \cdot \sigma(\mathcal{I})^*$ and any nonzero $w \in \mathcal{L}^*$ has the form $R \cdot \sigma(w)$ for some nonzero $w \in \mathcal{I}^\vee$. By the inequality between the arithmetic and geometric means and the
where the last inequality follows from Claim 2.7. So, $\|w\|^2 = \sum_i r_i^2 \cdot |\sigma_i(w)|^2 \geq n \left( \prod_i r_i^2 \cdot |\sigma_i(w)|^2 \right)^{1/n} \geq c^2 n,$

so $\lambda_1(L^*) \geq c \sqrt{n}.$ Lemma 2.6 then implies that $1 \geq \eta_e(L),$ or equivalently, $r \geq \eta_e(I).$

Proof of Lemma 6.6. If $\alpha \leq \exp(-n),$ then with high probability the coset representative $e$ from the GDP instance will satisfy

$$\|\sigma(e)\| \leq \sqrt{n} \alpha \leq \alpha \sqrt{n} / \eta(I) \leq 2^{-n} \lambda_1(I^\vee),$$

where the last inequality follows from Claim 2.7. In this case, the problem can be solved efficiently using Babai’s algorithm (Lemma 2.12). So, we may assume that $\alpha > \exp(-n).$ Furthermore, by Proposition 3.3 it suffices to solve GDP $\mathcal{I}^\vee,g'$ with non-negligible probability, where $g' := \alpha q / (\sqrt{2}r).$ Finally, we let $k = poly(n)$ with $k \geq 100 n^2 \ell$ be such that the advantage of our $R$-LWE$_{q,f_\alpha}$ oracle is at least $2/k,$ where $\ell \geq 1$ is the number of samples required by the oracles.

The reduction takes as input an integer $q \geq 2$ with known factorization, a fractional ideal $I \subset K,$ a parameter $r \geq \sqrt{2 q \cdot \eta(I)},$ samples from the distributions $D_{I,\ell}$ for each $r \in W,$ and a coset $e + \mathcal{I}^\vee$ where $e \leftarrow D_{\mathcal{I}^\vee}.$ The goal is to recover $e.$ The reduction will use its $R$-LWE oracle to simulate oracles $O_i : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{R}^\geq \to \{0,1\}$ for $1 \leq i \leq s_1$ and $O_i : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{R}^\geq \to \{0,1\}$ for $s_1 < i < s_1 + s_2$ such that the probability that $O_i(z,t)$ outputs 1 depends only on $\exp(t) | z - \sigma_i(e) |$ (for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|z - \sigma_i(e)|$ sufficiently small). In other words, $O_i$ is an oracle with a “hidden center” $\sigma_i(e)$ as in our definition of OHCP (Definition 4.3), with $k = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq s_1$ and $k = 2$ for $s_1 < i \leq s_1 + s_2.$ (Here, we assume that the oracles corresponding to complex embeddings implicitly identify $z \in \mathbb{C}^2$ with $z \in \mathbb{C}$ in the natural way.) We will then use Proposition 4.4 to find good approximations to $\sigma_i(e)$ for each $i,$ which will allow us to recover $e.$

For this purpose, for $1 \leq i \leq s_1$ define $k_i : \mathbb{R} \to K_{\mathbb{R}}$ as $k_i(z) = \sigma_i^{-1}(z \cdot e_i),$ and for $s_1 < i \leq s_1 + s_2$ define $k_i : \mathbb{C} \to K_{\mathbb{C}}$ as $k_i(z) = \sigma_i^{-1}(z \cdot e_i + \pi \cdot e_i + s_2),$ where $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^s \times \mathbb{R}^{2s_2}$ has 1 in the $i$th coordinate and 0 elsewhere. On input $(z,t),$ the oracle $O_i$ uses fresh samples from $D_{I,r_{i,j}}$ where $(1 + \zeta)^j = \exp(t).$ It then runs the transformation from Lemma 6.8 on these samples, the coset $e - k_i(z) + \mathcal{I}^\vee,$ parameter $r,$ and distance bound $d := f(n) / \exp(\log n) / \eta(I) \leq n.$ Let $A_{i,z,t}$ be the resulting samples. Then $O_i$ calls the LWE oracle on $A_{i,z,t}$ and outputs 1 if and only if it accepts.

Using the oracles $O_i,$ the reduction runs the procedure from Proposition 4.4 for each $i = 1, \ldots, s_1 + s_2,$ with oracle $O_i,$ confidence parameter $\kappa,$ and distance bound $d' := d / (1 + 1/\kappa),$ receiving as output some approximation $z_i$ to the oracle’s “center.” Finally, the reduction runs Babai’s algorithm (Lemma 2.12) on the coset $e - \sum k_i(z_i) + \mathcal{I}^\vee,$ receiving as output $\hat{e} \in K_{\mathbb{R}}$ and returns $\hat{e} + \sum k_i(z_i)$ as its own output.

The running time is clear. We first assume that the $z_i$ are valid solutions to $(\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)$-OHCP with “hidden center” $\sigma_i(e)$ and show that the reduction outputs the correct answer in this case. Since the $z_i$ are valid solutions, by definition we have

$$|z_i - \sigma_i(e)| \leq \exp(-\kappa)d' \leq \exp(-\kappa) \alpha q f(n) / (\sqrt{2}r) \leq \exp(-\kappa) f(n) / \eta(I) \leq 2^{-n} \lambda_1(I^\vee) / \sqrt{n},$$

where the last inequality follows from Claim 2.7. So, $\|e - \sum k_i(z_i)\|^2 \leq 2^{-n} \lambda_1(I^\vee),$ and the procedure from Lemma 2.12 will therefore output exactly $\hat{e} = e - \sum k_i(z_i).$ Therefore, the reduction returns the correct answer, $e = \hat{e} + \sum k_i(z_i).$

It remains to show that, with non-negligible probability over the choice of $e,$ for all $i$: (1) $O_i$ represents valid instances of $(\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)$-OHCP with “hidden center” $\sigma_i(e);$ and (2) $O_i$ satisfies the requirements needed to apply Proposition 4.4.
To prove validity, we first observe that Lemma 6.8 implies that the distribution of $A_{i,z,t}$ depends only on $\exp(t)|z - \sigma_i(e)|$ (up to negligible statistical distance, provided that $|z - \sigma_i(e)| \leq (1 + 1/\kappa)d' = d$). And, since $e$ was drawn from $D_{g'}$ and $d' = \omega(\sqrt{\log n}) \cdot g'$, we have

$$\exp(-\kappa)d' \leq \exp(-n)g' \leq |\sigma_i(e)| \leq d'$$

(6.3)

for all $i$ except with negligible probability. Therefore, $O_i$, $\kappa$, and $d'$ correspond to a valid instance of $(\exp(-\kappa), \exp(-\kappa), 1 + 1/\kappa)$-OHCP with “hidden center” $\sigma_i(e)$, except with negligible probability.

We now analyze the oracles $O_i$. We write $p_i(z, t)$ for the probability that $O_i$ outputs 1 on input $(z, t)$ and $p_\infty$ for the probability that our $R$-LWE oracle outputs 1 on uniformly random input. Notice that $p_i(0, 0) = p_j(0, 0)$ for all $i, j$, and $p_i(0, 0) - p_\infty$ is exactly the advantage that our $R$-LWE oracle has against the error rate that we get from applying Lemma 6.8 to $e + \mathcal{I}'$ with the parameters chosen above. Furthermore, recall that when $e$ is sampled as in GDP$_{\mathcal{I},g'}$, the resulting error rate is distributed exactly as $T_\alpha$. Since our oracle has advantage $2/\kappa$ against this distribution of error rate, by a standard Markov argument, we may assume that $p_i(0, 0) - p_\infty \geq 1/\kappa$, which must hold with non-negligible probability.

We can now show that all of the items necessary to apply Proposition 4.4 hold, which will complete the proof. Indeed, we have already shown that $p_i(0, 0) - p_\infty \geq 1/\kappa$, which implies Item 1. By Lemma 6.8, we see that $A_{i,0,t}$ is within negligible statistical distance of $A_{s,t'}$ with $(r_{i,j}')^2 \geq \exp(2t) \cdot |r_{i,j} e|/q^2 + (r d/q)^2$ and $(r_{i,j})^2 = |r_{i,j} e|/q^2 + (r d/q)^2 \geq (r_{i,j} e)/q^2$ for $j \neq i$. Then, for Item 2, notice that by Lemma 6.9 and the union bound, for $t \geq \kappa/10 \geq 10n^2 \ell$, the distribution of $A_{i,0,t}$ is within statistical distance

$$\ell \exp \left( -n \prod_j (r_{i,j}')^{2/n} \right) \leq \ell \exp \left( -n \exp(2t/n) \cdot (r/q)^2 \cdot \prod_j |\sigma_j(e)|^{2/n} \right) \leq \ell \exp \left( -n \exp(2t/n - 4n - 1) \right) \leq 2 \exp(-t/\kappa)$$

of the uniform distribution. Here, we have used Equation (6.3), which tells us that $|\sigma_j(e)| \geq \exp(-n)g' = \exp(-n)\alpha q/(\sqrt{2}r) > \exp(-2n - 1/2)q/r$, as well as the fact that $\exp(2t/n - 4n - 1) \gg t/(\kappa n) + \log(\ell/2)/n$. It follows that $|p_i(0, t) - p_\infty| \leq 2 \exp(-t/\kappa)$, which implies Item 2. Finally, for Item 3, notice that by Lemma 2.1, the distributions of $A_{i,z,t_1}$ and $A_{i,z,t_2}$ are within statistical distance

$$\min \{1, 10\ell(\exp(|t_1 - t_2|) - 1)\} \leq \kappa|t_1 - t_2|$$

of each other, where we have applied the union bound over the $\ell$ samples in $A_{i,z,t_j}$. Therefore, $p_i(z, t)$ must be $\kappa$-Lipschitz in $t$, as needed.

\section{Spherical Error}

The goal of this section is to extend the main theorem, Theorem 6.2, to the case of spherical Gaussian error (see Corollary 7.3). This would follow easily from Lemma 7.2, showing how to reduce LWE with non-spherical error into LWE with spherical error, with a loss in approximation factor depending on the number of samples used by the latter. The lemma is very similar to [LPR10, Lemma 5.16], and is included here for completeness. We start with the following claim from [LPR10].

\begin{claim}
Let $r_1, \ldots, r_n \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $s_1, \ldots, s_n \in \mathbb{R}^+$ be such that for all $i$, $|s_i/r_i - 1| < \sqrt{\log n/n}$. Then any set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ whose measure under the Gaussian distribution $D_{r_1} \times \cdots \times D_{r_n}$ is non-negligible, also has non-negligible measure under $D_{s_1} \times \cdots \times D_{s_n}$.
\end{claim}
In the lemma below, we use \( R\text{-LWE} \) with a fixed error distribution, as opposed to a distribution over error distributions as in \[ \text{Definition 2.15} \]

**Lemma 7.2 (Worst-case to average-case with spherical error).** There is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that given any \( \alpha > 0 \) and \( \ell \geq 1 \), as well as an oracle that solves \( R\text{-LWE}_{q,D\xi} \) given only \( \ell \) samples, where \( \xi = \alpha(n\ell/\log(n\ell))^{1/4} \), solves \( R\text{-LWE}_{q,D\rho} \) for any (possibly unknown) \( \rho \) satisfying that all \( r_i \) are in \([0,\alpha]\).

**Proof.** For \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \in \mathbb{T} \), consider the transformation mapping \( \ell \) samples \( (a_i, b_i)_{i=1}^\ell \) to \( (a_i, b_i + e_i)_{i=1}^\ell \). Then it is easy to see that for all \( s \in R_q^\gamma, \psi, r' \), if we sample from \( (A_{s,\psi})^\ell \) (i.e., \( \ell \) independent samples from \( A_{s,\psi} \)) and apply this transformation with \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \) chosen independently from \( D_{\rho'} \), then the output distribution (averaged over the choice of \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \)) is \( (A_{s,\psi} + D_{\rho'})^\ell \).

The reduction repeats the following a polynomial number of times. Choose \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \) independently from \( D_\xi \). Then estimate the acceptance probability of the oracle on the following two input distributions: the first is obtained by applying the above transformation with \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \) to our input samples (each time with fresh inputs); the second is the uniform distribution \( (R_q \times \mathbb{T})^\ell \). If in any of these polynomial number of attempts a non-negligible difference is observed between the two acceptance probabilities, output “non-uniform” (accept); otherwise output “uniform” (reject).

Notice that if our input distribution is uniform, then in each of the attempts, the two distributions on which we estimate the oracle’s acceptance probability are exactly the same, hence we output “uniform” with overwhelming probability. So assume that our input distribution is \( A_{s,D\rho} \) for a uniform \( s \) and some \( \rho \) satisfying that all \( r_i \) are in \([0,\alpha]\). Let \( B(e_1, \ldots, e_\ell) \) be the distribution on \( \ell \) pairs that our reduction uses as input to the oracle. Define the vector \( r' \) with coordinates \( r'_j = \xi^2 - r_j^2 \) so that \( D_\rho + D_{\rho'} = D_\xi \). By our observation above, the average of \( B(e_1, \ldots, e_\ell) \) over \( e_1, \ldots, e_\ell \) chosen independently from \( D_{\rho'} \) is \( (A_{s,D_\xi})^\ell \).

Let \( S \) be the set of all tuples \( (e_1, \ldots, e_\ell) \) for which the oracle has a non-negligible difference in acceptance probability on \( B(e_1, \ldots, e_\ell) \) and on the uniform distribution. By assumption and a Markov argument, with non-negligible probability over the choice of \( s \), the measure of \( S \) under \( (D_{\rho'})^\ell \) is non-negligible. Since

\[
1 \leq \frac{\xi}{\sqrt{\xi^2 - r_i^2}} \leq \frac{\xi}{\sqrt{\xi^2 - \alpha^2}} \leq 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\log(n\ell)}{n\ell}},
\]

it follows from \[ \text{Claim 7.1} \] that the measure of \( S \) under \( (D_\xi)^\ell \) is also non-negligible, and we are done. \( \square \)

Recalling the definition of \( \Upsilon_\alpha \) from \[ \text{Definition 6.1} \] and noting that with high probability all the coordinates of its error rate \( \rho \) are at most \( \alpha \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n}) \), we immediately obtain the following hardness result for average-case, decision Ring-LWE with spherical error.

**Corollary 7.3.** With notation as in \[ \text{Theorem 6.2} \] there is a polynomial-time quantum reduction from \( K\text{-DGS}_\gamma \) to the (average-case, decision) problem of solving \( R\text{-LWE}_{q,D_\xi} \) using \( \ell \) samples, where

\[
\gamma = \max\left\{ \eta(I) \cdot (\sqrt{2}/\xi) \cdot (n\ell/\log(n\ell))^{1/4} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log n}), \sqrt{2n}/\lambda_1(I') \right\},
\]

as long as \( \xi q \geq \omega(\sqrt{\log n}) \cdot (n\ell/\log(n\ell))^{1/4} \).

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References


